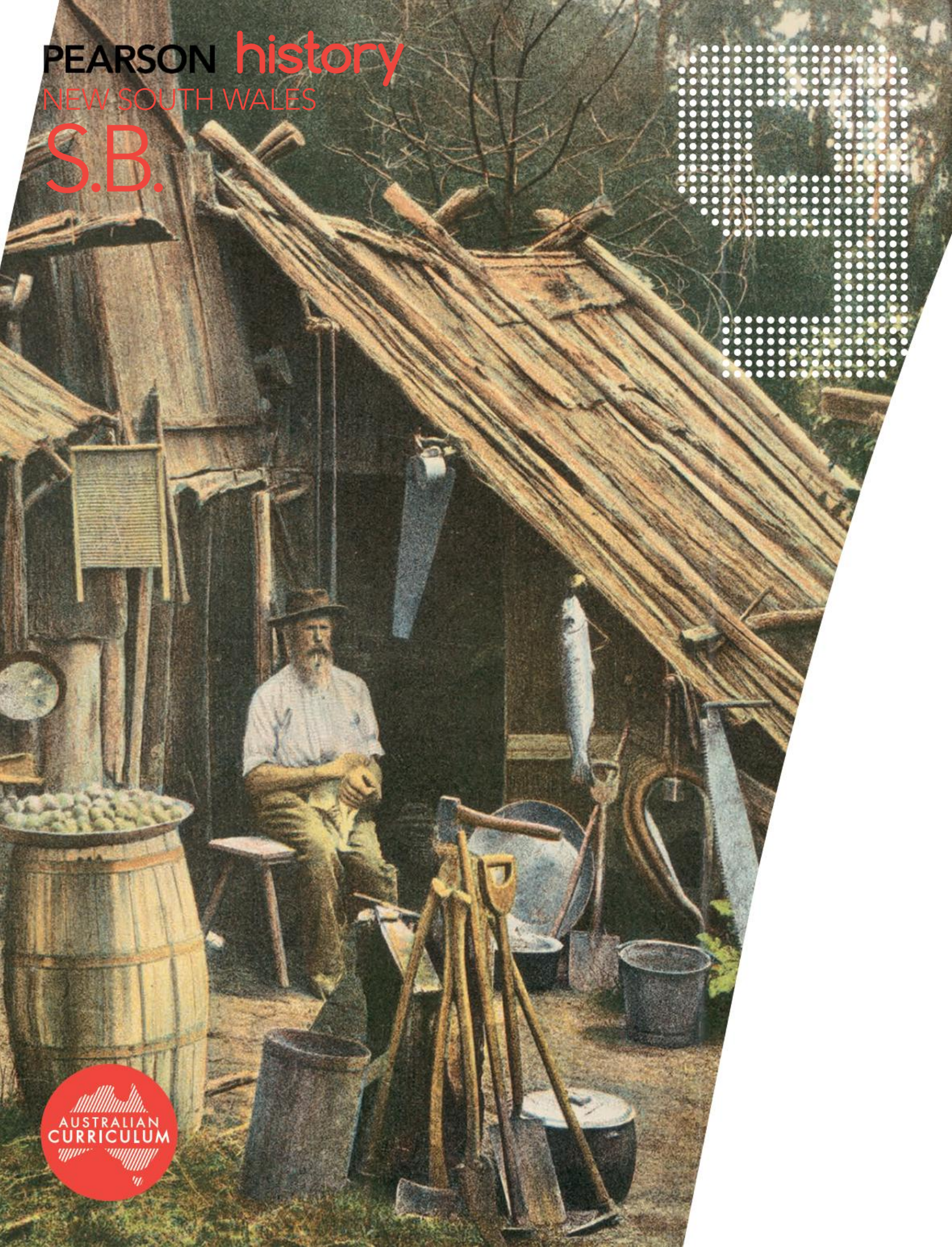
PEARSON history

NEW SOUTH WALES

S.B.



AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM

It's an exciting time to be in education.

We are embarking on a journey that unites two significant educational initiatives: the implementation of the NSW Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum and the ever-increasing use of technology in our students' educational experience.

Pearson Australia is pleased to introduce its solution for the NSW History syllabus: **PEARSON history NEW SOUTH WALES**. It has been written from the ground up for the NSW syllabus.

Whether you choose to use a printed book or a digital delivery medium, the **PEARSON history NEW SOUTH WALES** series can provide the content that you and your students need.

We hope you enjoy the journey you are about to take as much as we have enjoyed preparing for it. We look forward to working with you to implement the NSW Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum and to helping you manage your digital aspirations.

We would like to thank our authors for their extraordinary dedication and their contribution to the development of this project.

Selector's hut, Gippsland,
Phillip-Stephan Photo-Litho.
& Typographic Process Co,
around 1880s,
National Library of Australia

Pearson Australia
(a division of Pearson Australia Group Pty Ltd)
707 Collins Street, Melbourne, Victoria 3008
PO Box 23360, Melbourne, Victoria 8012
www.pearson.com.au

Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Perth, Adelaide
and associated companies around the world

First published 2014 by Pearson Australia
2014 2013 2012 2011
10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Publisher: Marita Tripp
Project Manager: Megan Cassar
Editor: Writers Reign
Series Cover Designers: Miranda Costa, Kim Ferguson, Jo Groud, Glen McClay and Nina Heryanto
Text Designer: Nina Heryanto
Typesetter: Paul Ryan
Copyright & Pictures Editor: Alice McBroom
Cover art: National Library of Australia (nla.pic-an8929053)
Illustrator: Bruce Rankin
Printed in China

National Library of Australia Cataloguing-in-Publication entry
Title: Pearson history New South Wales 9 student book. 9 / David Van Tol …[et al.].
Edition: 1st ed.
ISBN: 9781486013982 (pbk)
Series: Pearson history New South Wales.
Notes: Includes index.
Target Audience: For secondary school age.
Subjects: History, Ancient--Study and teaching (Secondary)
History--Study and teaching (Secondary)
Other Authors/Contributors: Van Tol, David.
National Library of Australia.
Dewey Number: 930
ISBN: 978 1 4860 1398 2

Pearson Australia Group Pty Ltd ABN 40 004 245 943

Acknowledgements
We would like to thank the following for permission to reproduce copyright material.

The following abbreviations are used in this list: t = top, b = bottom, l = left, r = right, c = centre.

*****

Every effort has been made to trace and acknowledge copyright. However, if any infringement has occurred, the publishers tender their apologies and invite the copyright holders to contact them.

Disclaimer/s
The selection of internet addresses (URLs) provided for this book/resource was valid at the time of publication and was chosen as being appropriate for use as a secondary education research tool. However, due to the dynamic nature of the internet, some addresses may have changed, may have ceased to exist since publication, or may inadvertently link to sites with content that could be considered offensive or inappropriate. While the authors and publisher regret any inconvenience this may cause readers, no responsibility for any such changes or unforeseeable errors can be accepted by either the authors or the publisher.

Some of the images used in *Pearson history New South Wales student book 9* might have associations with deceased Indigenous Australians. Please be aware that these images might cause sadness or distress in Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander communities.

Acknowledgements

We thank the following for permission to reproduce photographs, texts and illustrations.

ABC: Extract from *Hindsight*, Radio National, Australian Broadcasting Corporation and ABC Online. (c) 2009 ABC. All rights reserved. Source 7.13.4.

Alamy: Source 1.3.2; The Art Archive, Sources 2.8.3, 3.3.1, 6.4.2; The Bridgeman Art Library, Sources 4.4.1, 4.3.4; Gianni Dagli Orti, Sources 1.3.5, 6.3.7; David David Gallery, Source 1.3.3; Mike Goldwater, Source 2.6.7; Iconsinternational, Source 7.12.3; Interfoto, Source 4.10.4; Lebrecht Music and Arts Photo Library, Source 2.6.3; Mary Evans Picture Library, Sources viii, 1.5.2, 2.7.2, 2.8.4, 2.9.1, 6.12.2, 6.14.1, 2.8.2, 3.0.1; Paris Pierce, Source 2.3.1; Pictorial Press, Sources 2.7.1, 3.3.3; Prisma Archivo, Source 2.2.2; Friedrich Stark, Source 2.3.3; Universal Images Group Limited, Source 2.4.1; World History Archive, Sources 2.1.2, 2.6.4, 4.11.1, 8.1.1.

Alexander Turnbull Library: (A-109-054), Source 3.5.2.

Art Gallery of NSW: *On the Wallaby Track*, Frederick McCubbin, 1896, Source 4.9.2.

Australian National Maritime Museum: (00001104), Source 2.5.5.

Australian War Memorial: (ARTV08939), Source 7.0.1; (ARTV00026), Source 7.2.1; (ARTV00141), Source 7.2.2; (A03042), Source 7.5.2; (A01552), Source 7.5.4; (E02844A), Source 7.6.4; (RC00336), Source 7.7.2; (E01304), Source 7.9.1; (H11579), Source 7.9.2; (P01692.001), Source 7.10.2; (h16947), Source 7.11.1; (ART41017), Source 7.12.2; (P05380.001), Source 7.14.1; (ART22927), Source 8.0.1; (ARTV04332), Source 8.2.2; (ARTV04297), Source 8.2.3; (007480), Source 8.3.2; (043179), Source 8.4.1; (NEA0417), Source 8.4.3; (135867), Source 8.5.1; (ART25102), Source 8.5.6; (P01433.020), Source 8.5.8; (ART26525), Source 8.5.10; (013289), Source 8.6.2; (P02423.009), Source 8.6.5; (026851), Source 8.6.6; (ARTV09225), Source 8.9.1; (ARTV02494), Source 8.9.2; (064284), Source 8.9.3; (029692), Source 8.10.1; (ARTV00332), Source 8.10.3; (P02140.004), Source 8.11.2; (P01659.001), Source 8.11.3; (117022), Source 8.12.2; (ARTV09061), Source 8.13.1.

Blue Mountains City Library: Local Studies collection, Source 5.5.1e.

Bridgeman Art Library: American Antiquarian Society, Source 3.3.6; Art Gallery of South Australia, Source 3.12.1; Freer Gallery of Art: Source 6.12.5; Look and Learn, Source 2.0.1.

The British Museum Images: (c) The Trustees of the British Museum (00036383001), Source 6.0.1.

Corbis Australia: Sources: 1.3.1, 6.5.1; Asian Art & Archaeology Inc, Sources 6.2.1, Source 6.8.3; Bettmann, Sources 1.1.3, Source 1.2.1, Source 6.7.2, Source 6.14.2, Source 8.1.2; Burstein Collection, Source 6.12.3; Cannon Collection, Source 1.1.5; The Gallery Collection, Source 4.3.1; Historical Picture Archive, Source 6.12.6; Hulton-Deutsch Collection, Sources 4.12.3, Source 7.4.2; Martin Jones, Source 6.13.2; Lebrecht Authors, Source 6.8.4; Museum of History and Industry, Seattle, Source 1.5.7; Philadelphia Museum of Art, Source 6.9.2; PoodlesRock, Source 1.5.3; Steve Raymer, Source 6.13.1; Rykoff Collection, Sources 1.6.1, Source 6.10.4; Philip Spruyt, Source 6.15.1; Steve Vidler, Source 6.8.1.

Fairfax Photos: Gordon Short, Source 8.12.4.

Fotolia: Source 5.8.3.

Getty Images: Bridgeman Art Library, Sources 1.3.6, 2.5.2, 2.6.2, 6.8.5; British Library, Sources 2.3.2, 3.4.1, 6.10.5; Buena Vista Images, Sources 4.10.5; Buyenlarge, Sources 6.2.2; De Agostini, Sources 1.0.1, 2.3.6, 4.0.1, 4.4.3; Danita Delimont, Source 3.1.1; James Gillray, Source 2.3.4; Images of Empire, Source 4.10.2; Imperial War Museum, Source 8.8.2; Yann Layma, Source 6.2.7; Mark Nolan, Source 4.9.5; Popperfoto, Source 6.7.3; Joel Saget, Source 4.4.4; SSPL, Source 6.6.2; Underwood Archives, Source 1.5.4; Universal Images Group, Sources 2.4.2, 4.3.2, 6.5.3, 6.5.4, 6.10.2, 6.10.3; Werner Forman Archive, Source 6.11.4. Library of Congress: (LC-DIG-pga-02345), Source 1.1.1; LC-DIG-nclc-01130, Source 1.1.4; (LC-USZ62-15392), Source 3.3.5; (LC-DIG-ds-03379), Source 4.2.2.

National Archives of Australia: (9527B), Source 5.7.1.

National Archives UK: Sources 2.5.4, 3.1.2.

National Library of Australia: Source 5.6.3; (an8929053), Cover, p. i; (an2962715-s17), p. v, Source 3.9.3; (an5770757), Source 1.2.3; (an7570282), Source 3.6.2; (an5577479), Source 3.6.3; (an23378006), Source 4.5.4; (an7649558), Source 5.0.1; (vn3647494), Source 5.2.3; (an7878675), Source 5.3.1; (an24494586), Source 5.4.3; (an20886593-27), Source 5.5.1f; (nla.pic-an11030057-405), Source 5.11.1; (an14107642), Source 7.7.1; (vn4703393-s89-a1), Source 7.8.3.

Newspix: Source 8.12.3.

Northern Territory Library: (PH0429-0061), Source 8.4.2.

Punch Limited: Source 6.9.3.

Evan Schoo: Source 4.13.1.

Shaw Library, London School of Economics: Source 1.4.3.

Shutterstock: Sources 6.2.5, 7.13.1.

State Library of New South Wales: Mitchell Library, Source 7.8.2; (a762001), Source 1.1.6; (an9093106), Source 2.5.6; (a128342), Source 3.6.7; (a2821039), Source 3.7.2; (a928350), Source 3.9.4; (a767002), Source 4.7.2; (a762009), Source 4.6.2; (MDQ079/39), Source 4.9.4; (a128112), Source 5.1.1; (a1277001), Source 5.8.2.

State Library of Queensland: (194020), Source 4.11.2p; (115374), Source 5.6.2.

State Library of South Australia: (B 68916), Source 5.4.4.

State Library of Victoria: (H89.94/3), Source 3.8.1; (H332), Source 5.5.1a; (H2002.125/5), Source 5.5.1b; (H16881), Source 5.5.1c; (PAC-10018195), Source 5.9.2; (H98.103/3867), Source 8.5.7.

State Library of Western Australia: (b1965073), Source 5.4.5.

The State Museum Auschwitz-Birkenau: Archival collection of the State Museum Auschwitz-Birkenau in Oswiecim, Source 8.7.4.

State Records of New South Wales: (4481_a026_000228), Source 5.5.1d; (8095_a016_a016000076), Source 7.11.2.

Thoroton Society of Nottinghamshire: Source 2.7.6.

University College London Digital Collections: Source 4.12.1.

University of Newcastle, Cultural Collections: Source 7.6.3.

University of Melbourne Archives: p. xiii, Source 8.12.6.

Yad Vashem Photo Archive: (FA268/35), Source 8.7.3.

Every effort has been made to trace and acknowledge copyright. However, should any infringement have occurred, the publishers tender their apologies and invite copyright owners to contact them.

Contents

PEARSON history

NEW SOUTH WALES

Student Book

The student book has been written specifically to meet the requirements of the Board of Studies Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History. It features:

- content written for New South Wales teachers by New South Wales teachers
- a dedicated introduction to history skills through the History Skills Toolbox
- units which are clearly identifiable to the Board of Studies syllabus
- extensive use of primary source study material
- activities built around Bloom's revised taxonomy.

Activity Book

The activity book is a write-in resource designed to:

- reinforce, extend and enrich learning initiated through the student book
- be used as part of an integrated homework program, or for independent classroom use.

Teacher Companion

The teacher companion makes lesson preparation easy by linking student book pages to teaching and learning strategies. This teacher resource:

- creates explicit links between the student book and Board of Studies Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History
- contains solutions to student book and activity book activities.

AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM

ALWAYS LEARNING

Pearson eBook 3.0

Any device, every school.

Pearson eBook 3.0 lets you use your student book online or offline on any device: PC or Mac, Android tablet or iPad, or interactive whiteboard. Pearson eBook 3.0 retains the integrity of the printed page while offering linked interactive activities that will engage your students at school and at home. Including:

- interactive history case studies
- teaching programs
- editable tests
- worksheets
- quizzes.

Some activities are built with Adobe® Flash® and are not available on Android or iPad.

Professional Learning, Training and Development

Did you know that Pearson also offer teachers a diverse range of professional learning programs? We are dedicated to supporting your implementation of **Pearson History New South Wales**, but it doesn't stop there. We offer specific training for the NSW Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum and beyond, in the form of workshops, conferences and seminars.

Find out more about Pearson Professional Learning at **www.pearson.com.au/pl**

Customised Content

We believe in learning for all kinds of people, delivered in a personal style. Pearson Custom is an exciting initiative that allows you to customise the content you teach with.

Schools can be involved in choosing resources specifically tailored to their school or year level. Speak to your Pearson Sales Consultant to find out more.

We believe in learning.
All kinds of learning for all kinds of people, delivered in a personal style.
Because wherever learning flourishes, so do people.

PEARSON

How to use this book

Pearson history New South Wales has been created for the Board of Studies Syllabus for Australian curriculum: History. It provides a fully integrated approach to teaching Historical Concepts and Historical Skills.

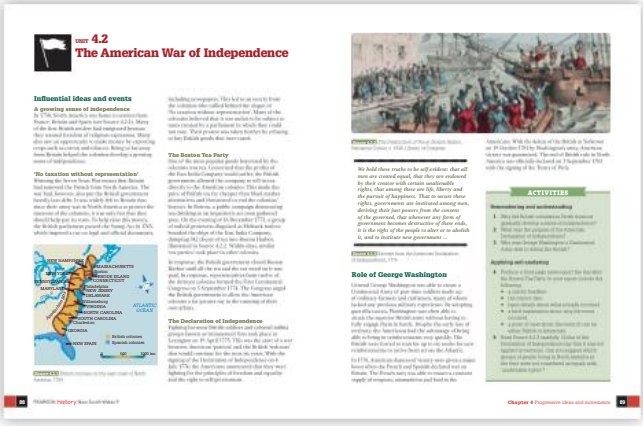
The student book chapters are divided into clear two-, four- or six-page units which cover every depth study topic required by the syllabus.

Chapter opener

Each chapter opens with a dynamic image and a timeline. Both of these sources can be used as a springboard for pre-topic discussion and to develop students' skills in using source material.

Unit content

Unit content is based on the requirements of the Board of Studies syllabus. The content is supported by written and visual primary and secondary source material, illustrations, maps, timelines and tables to enable and reinforce student learning.



UNIT 4.2
The American War of Independence

Influential ideas and events

A growing sense of independence

'No taxation without representation'

The Boston Tea Party

The Declaration of Independence

Role of George Washington

ACTIVITIES

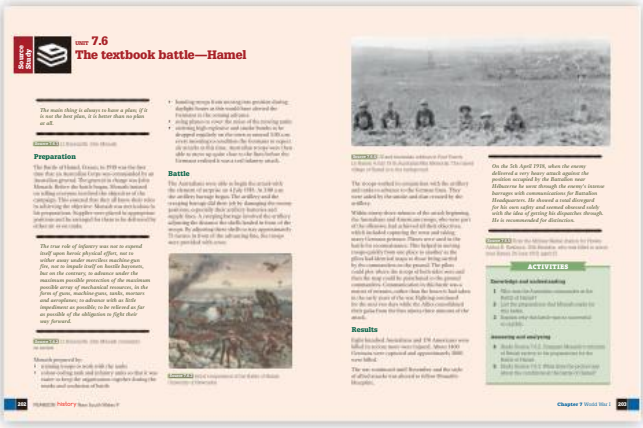
Remembering and understanding

Applying and analysing

Chapter 4 Progressive ideas and movements

Activities

The activities have been written using Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. Answers require a range of responses that incorporate the requirements of the Board of Studies syllabus. The activities can all be answered within the student book unit being studied. Answers are provided in the Teacher Companion.



Source Study

UNIT 7.6
The textbook battle—Hamel

Preparation

Battle

Results

ACTIVITIES

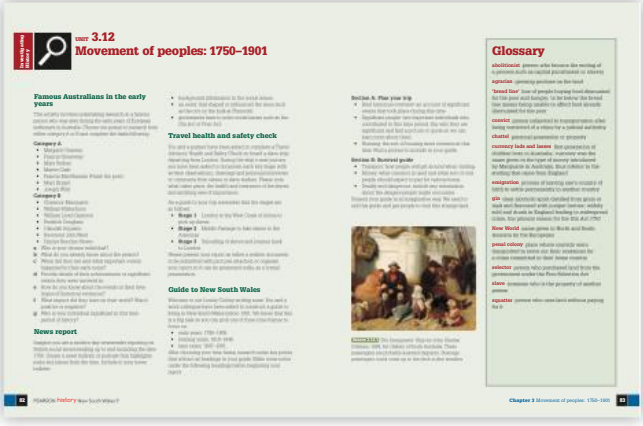
Knowledge and understanding

Analysing and evaluating

Chapter 7 World War I

Source study unit

The source study unit is designed to actively engage students in exploring a range of written and visual primary and secondary sources. Students are prompted to develop the important historical skill of examining evidence and to consider concepts such as; cause and effect, perspectives and interpretation, empathetic understanding and significance and contestability.



Investigating History

UNIT 3.12
Movement of peoples: 1750–1901

Famous Australians in the early years

Travel health and safety check

Guide to New South Wales

News report

Glossary

Chapter 3 Movement of peoples: 1750–1901

Investigating History

At the end of chapter is a set of investigation tasks, based on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. These tasks incorporate content from the whole chapter and appeal to a variety of learning styles. They can be set for further exploration and assignment work, for individuals, pairs or small groups. The tasks provide opportunities for further research and skills development as well as interdisciplinary and general capabilities learning.

A glossary of those terms not already defined or explained within the unit is provided at the end of each chapter.

History skills toolbox

The historical inquiry process

The historical inquiry process is used to question and investigate the past. The purpose of inquiry in Years 9 and 10 is to improve and extend upon the skills you developed in junior years. The ability to locate, understand and interpret source material created from different perspectives; to use research to further knowledge; and to analyse and contest evidence are integral elements in the development of an informed opinion about the past.

Equally important are the skills required to present an informed argument incorporating appropriate evidence to support your interpretation of the past.

The inquiry process consists of a number of steps. You begin by exploring an inquiry question or questions and developing a plan to guide you through the research and writing process. Once you have found your sources you will be required to analyse them for usefulness in light of the inquiry question before writing or presenting your conclusions.

Prepare and examine the research question

- If you have been given a topic, formulate an open-ended inquiry question to provide a focus for your investigation. Don't use 'closed' questions, which require only a short, factual answer.
- Underline the key words in the inquiry question, define them if necessary, and note what you already know in point form.
- Research, brainstorm and list ideas for possible answers or arguments in point form, noting all known information about the topic.
- Mark your best arguments, and note any evidence (primary or secondary sources) you are aware of to support each of these arguments.
- List further questions you will need to answer about your topic in order to complete a thorough inquiry, including specific details of evidence required.
- Be prepared to amend your inquiry question where necessary, or change your question completely if it is unsuitable.
- You could use the inquiry questions at the start of each chapter in this book as they are, or with your own amendments.

Develop a research plan

A research plan is essential for breaking down the task into manageable pieces, and for scheduling and organising your findings so that the inquiry is completed by the due date.
Include in your plan:

- your list of questions on the topic, accompanied by useful 'search terms' for identifying relevant information more quickly
- an estimate of the time required to complete each task (for example 'research and locate relevant sources—1 week', 'analysis and evaluation of sources and preparation of report—1 week'). Diarise these dates
- a list of places in which you will locate your research material, both in person and by accessing online collections or archives; such as at the school library, local library, State Library, National Library of Australia, local and state museums and the National Museum of Australia
- a list of people to contact or interview regarding the topic.

Locate and sort primary and secondary sources

Begin to action your research plan by identifying and locating appropriate resources to answer your inquiry question, and take notes on relevant information. Collate your information into separate ideas or arguments, and allocate appropriate source material to support each point being made. Attempt to vary the sources selected. For instance, for your primary sources, it may be more interesting to consider a historical event through a painting of it from the period, a news article written at the time and a journal extract from a person involved in the actual event.

Here are some hints for researching and taking notes.

- Refer back frequently to your research plan for direction. Narrow or refine your inquiry question(s) if necessary.
- Know what you are looking for before you begin—have a list of key words and key questions as well as ideas of possible sources to get you started.
- Utilise your people skills—ask for help at the library or museum to save time.
- Skim-read indexes and contents pages of sources for key words related to your topic.
- Use sticky notes with headings to mark important pages in resources.
- Take duplicate copies of useful source material, one to keep with your bibliographical data, and one to annotate, highlight and make notes upon.
- Keep a record of all the sources you have studied for use in your bibliography.
- Organise points in your own words under suitable headings.
- Allow yourself plenty of space under each heading to add information from multiple sources, and note important sources and page numbers next to your summaries in case you need to revise any of your points.
- Link the headings you use to organise your notes back to the inquiry question(s) and check frequently for relevance to ensure you do not get sidetracked.

Analyse primary and secondary sources

By Year 9 you will need to examine a variety of sources critically in order to support your historical findings, and by Year 10 you should also be evaluating the reliability and relevance of sources. Be selective and question sources in terms of:

- their origin
- their intention
- their context
- their effectiveness for your inquiry study.

You will need to challenge your source material, and explore the historical event in more detail by considering different perspectives on the topic. Look for sources that present different views and consider the reason for these differences. Think about the motives for people's actions, the social rules and conventional beliefs of the time. Use the ADAMANT method below to analyse sources:

- **Author** Do we know anything about who created the source, such as their occupation or where they lived?
- **Date** When was the source produced? How does the context in which it was created help make sense of it?
- **Audience** For whom was the source originally created?
- **Message** What did the author wish to communicate to the audience? How would the audience be likely to respond?
- **Agenda** What was the author's reason for producing the source? Do they have a particular point of view?
- **Nature** What type of source is it? How does this affect its content (e.g. a diary is for private purposes)
- **Techniques** How does the author show their point of view in the language or imagery they use?

Structuring a response

Now that you have collected your research material and organised your answer into areas of importance it is time to begin your draft. An inquiry response can take many forms, such as a written report, an oral presentation, a debate, a multimedia presentation or an essay. Regardless of form, you should begin your response by developing a plan.

The plan

Use the information you have already gathered to flesh out a plan for your response. Structure your plan as you would an essay, as this can then be adapted to suit many other forms. Include the following in your plan.

- An introduction: list key words outlining the inquiry question, issues, events and people linked to the topic and your main contention or argument.
- Body paragraphs: write one or two sentences summarising your points for each body paragraph of your response. Accompany each sentence with at least one piece of evidence that supports that particular point. Depending on the length of your task, you could have between four to six separate body paragraphs in your response.
- A conclusion: write key words summarising your findings or your argument on the inquiry question.

Communicating your findings

There are various ways in which you may communicate the results of your historical inquiry. You may already have had experience writing factual reports or giving speeches on particular topics, but by Year 9 and Year 10, you require additional skills to enhance the delivery of your material.

You can communicate your findings by:
- oral presentation
- debate
- report
- essay.

Oral presentation

Prepare your plan for the oral presentation as you would an essay. A speech must still have a beginning, a middle and an end, just like an essay. Write a full draft of your speech, using formal language and separate paragraphs for all new ideas. Remember that for each point or argument you make, you should provide at least one source as evidence.

In an oral presentation it is important to use a variety of types of source material, but visual material can capture your audience's attention more effectively. Consider using a Microsoft® PowerPoint® presentation to showcase your evidence. Extracts from journals, letters or newspapers, photographs or works of art can all be viewed by your audience while you argue your thesis. Ensure that each visual is accompanied by a caption and an acknowledgement of the source's origin.

Tips for successful oral presentations

- Be organised. Prepare notes on palm cards, use dynamic and interesting words, ensure that any visual evidence is in order and rehearse your presentation a number of times before the day—knowing your material well will keep the nerves at bay!
- If your presentation has a set length, time your rehearsals to ensure you are not under or too far over the time limit.
- Get a friend or family member to record your rehearsal. Watching the presentation can help you to recognise areas in need of improvement.
- Speak slowly and clearly. It is natural when nervous to sometimes speed up the pace of your presentation—avoid this by staying focused upon one point at a time, pausing between arguments and trying to relax.
- Remember to talk to your audience rather than just read your notes. You don't have to look them in the eyes all the time, but you do have to include them by talking 'to', not 'at', them. Your palm cards should be used just to keep you on track and ensure that you don't miss any crucial points.
- Remind yourself that you can do it—you have done the research and prepared thoroughly for the task. Thinking positively can improve your confidence and have a flow-on effect on your audience.

Debate

To adapt your response to the debate format is a fairly easy process. Once two teams (or sides) of the debate have been allocated, your collated research can be divided among the speakers. The division of roles is similar to the division already made in your plan—a first speaker introduces, a second and/or third speaker explains and proves, and a final speaker concludes.

The roles of each speaker are set out as follows:
- First Speaker (Affirmative or Negative): Introduces the topic by defining and clarifying the issue involved. Explains the team's thesis statement and briefly outlines the main arguments of the remaining speakers
- Second Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):
  - Begins by defending any attacks by the opposing team (called a rebuttal)
  - Explains one new argument to prove the team's case, accompanied by source evidence
  - Attacks the last point proposed by the opposing team
- Third Speaker (Affirmative or Negative): Follows the same directive as the Second Speaker
- Final Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):
  - Rebuts any important points made by the opposing team in the course of the debate
  - Provides an overview of all of their team's arguments and evidence
  - Ends with a strong message outlining the merits of the team's case.

Follow the tips provided for oral presentations to ensure that each speaker has prepared thoroughly for the debate. Rehearse as a team and give each other constructive feedback to improve your team's chances of success. Remember that debates can be lively affairs, so present your arguments in an interesting and effective way in order to persuade your audience.

Report

A written report should present the results of your inquiry in a logical and comprehensive manner. The report should include, in the following order:

- a cover page—include your name and class and the inquiry question. You can also add an illustration or a picture
- a table of contents
- an introduction—start your report with a general introduction explaining the topic, the inquiry question, the questions you've asked yourself throughout the investigation and the plan of your report
- the core—present your findings, ideas and arguments in separate paragraphs. Support them with evidence (information gleaned from sources), examples, illustrations and graphs. Order your paragraphs and link them with logical, flowing sentences
- a conclusion—provide a summary of your report along with your conclusions on the matter
- appendices—attach a bibliography of your sources, a copy of the texts and photographs of artefacts you have used, and all the necessary supporting material, such as maps and graphs, that you refer to in your paragraphs (if they don't already appear there).

Essay

Your essay will address a historical question or topic, and will do so with a logical argument supported by your historical knowledge (evidence), skills and understanding. Before you begin, make sure you have thoroughly analysed the question or topic and that you understand what is being asked of you. Confirm your understanding by discussing it with your teacher and/or classmates.

Your next step should always be a plan, which is essential for good essay writing. A historical essay can be developed along similar lines to that described previously in 'Step 5 Structuring a response/The plan'. In a good plan you will:

- set out a clear structure for the essay
- list the key points of the essay's introduction (an assessment of the topic, the line of argument you intend to pursue, and a 'bridge' to the first paragraph in the body of the essay)
- set out the key points and supporting evidence for each following body paragraph. Each paragraph should deal with a separate idea or focus of evidence
- set out the key points in the conclusion, showing how you have persuasively argued your case.

An essay is sometimes described as similar to being on a journey: here is where we are going (introduction)—here is a description of the journey (body of the essay)—here we are at the destination (conclusion).

Some useful tips

- Draft your work, getting feedback from your teacher and others.
- Include only your strongest, most relevant arguments and evidence. Don't be tempted to include everything you know. Keep your work sharp and lively.
- Read your draft aloud. Does your argument flow from one paragraph to the next? Does it sound interesting? Does it make sense?
- Check your spelling, grammar and expression.
- Write clearly and simply. Avoid long and complex sentences.
- Practise. As with all skills, the more you do it the better you will become.

On the next page is how a plan might look in its simplest form. Note that the number of body paragraphs you use will be determined by the complexity of the topic and your response, but five paragraphs will serve as a useful starting point. Your essay plan may look something like this. Remember that the plan is intended to be an outline only—a 'road map' for you to follow.

My essay plan	
Question	Set out the question or topic at the top of the page.
Main contention	Set out my main contention or argument in response to the question.
Introduction	Show that I understand the question. State what my argument will be. Link to the following paragraph.
Paragraph 1	Use a topic sentence to state my strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Paragraph 2	Use a topic sentence to state my next most important point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence, varying the kind of evidence I am using throughout the essay if I can.
Paragraph 3	Use a topic sentence to state my next strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Paragraph 4	Use a topic sentence to state my next strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Paragraph 5	Use a topic sentence to state my next strongest point supporting my argument. Support it with evidence.
Conclusion	Restate my argument and sum up. Raise any issues arising out of my argument. Concisely state any broader implications or significance of my findings.
Bibliography	Reference all sources of information I have used in my essay.

Sample essay plan: WW1	
Topic	Why did Australians support the decision to go to war so enthusiastically in 1914?
Main contention	Australians supported the decision to go to war largely out of loyalty to England, but other reasons were also influential.
Introduction	Australia had little experience of war before 1914. They had, however, supported England in conflicts in New Zealand in the 1860s, in the Sudan in 1885, during the Boer War in 1899–1902 and in China in 1900. So when England declared war on Germany in 1914, Australia didn't hesitate in following her again … (Introduction continues.)
Paragraph 1	Main argument, supported by evidence, showing why loyalty to England was the main reason for going to war—large percentage of population of English descent / Australian culture and institutions heavily based on English models / relied on England for defence should anyone attack us, etc. … Conclude paragraph by noting that there were also other, sometimes contradictory, reasons for support of the war.
Paragraph 2	Next supporting argument—limited experience of war meant no real understanding of what war might mean. A sense of adventure and excitement, of wanting to be 'in it', especially for young men (soldiers) … Link to next paragraph.
Paragraph 3	Next supporting argument—economic reasons for getting involved (drought of 1914–15, relatively low wages, etc.) … Link to next paragraph.
Paragraph 4	Next supporting argument—peer pressure to enlist (from mates, family, community, newspapers) … Link to next paragraph.
Paragraph 5	Final supporting argument—desire to establish Australia as a nation in its own right (Federation recently in 1901, growing sense of national identity, desire to keep Australia 'White', i.e. exclude possibility of other races settling in Australia, etc.)
Conclusion	Reinforce and sum up. Note any issues or limitations arising from argument.

Examining evidence

Historical sources provide the evidence which helps us to understand the past. As you know, sources may be primary or secondary, and written or non-written. There are three main stages that historians follow in trying to understand, support or prove an interpretation of the past.

Firstly, historians have to examine as much of the available evidence as is realistically possible. Secondly, they must then ask questions of each source, such as:

- What type of source is it? Is it a primary or secondary source? Is it a newspaper article, a letter, a painting, a film, a web page or something else?
- Where was the source created?
- When was it created?
- Who created it and what was their position in society?
- Why was the source created? What was its purpose?
- What else was happening at the time the source was created?
- Is the source a complete, reliable and useful source of evidence?
- What other questions might be asked of this source?

Study the source opposite and try to answer the questions above in relation to this source.

How many of the questions could you answer? Which questions couldn't you answer and why? What would you need to do to be able to answer those remaining questions?

Lastly, the historian has to construct a view of the past based on what the evidence is telling them.

Of course there is rarely one 'correct' view or interpretation of an event or issue that occurred in the past. This is because constructing an interpretation of the past is influenced by a number of factors, including the following.

- Evidence may be incomplete, contradictory, unavailable or missing.
- The skills of individual historians—the knowledge they have of a past event or period; their ability to interpret, accept or reject appropriate evidence; and their ability to empathise with people and analyse societies in the past—may vary markedly.
- Historians are influenced by their own views about the world and its people; their own preferences in regard to social, cultural, military, political or economic history; the expectations placed on them; and their reasons for examining the past.

Acknowledging sources

A bibliography is a detailed list in alphabetical order (by author) of the written and audiovisual sources you have used in the conduct of your research: books, encyclopedias, websites, CD-ROMs, videos and so on. You should always acknowledge the work of others, and anyone who reads your report should be able to find your sources. The bibliography should be placed at the end of your work, whatever form that work takes.

Bibliographical references should be included in two places:

1. where a source is referred to in the assignment
2. in a complete bibliography at the end of your work, arranged alphabetically by author then by date.

Printed book and electronic sources

Each entry should include, in order and separated by commas:

- author's surname
- author's first name initial
- year of publication
- 'Title of Article', if applicable
- Complete Title of the Book or Publication, in italics
- type of publication in brackets, if applicable—for example '(video)' or '(CD-ROM)'
- publisher
- place of publication
- pages used, if applicable.

Note: If a title has more than one author, list them the same way as for a single author. If a title has more than three authors, list the name of the first author, followed by 'et al.', which means 'and others'.

Note: if a source does not have an author, list it in alphabetical order by its title, excluding the words 'A', 'An' and 'The'.

For example, for a multi-author book your bibliography entry would be presented like this:
Van Tol, D., et al., 2013, *Pearson History New South Wales 9*, Pearson, Melbourne.

Web-based sources

For a source accessed on the internet, include the following elements, separated by full stops.

- author's name, if known, and year of publication, if applicable
- 'Title of Article', if applicable
- Title of site
- [Online]
- Available: the URL, or internet address, of the source [accessed: the date you accessed the source]

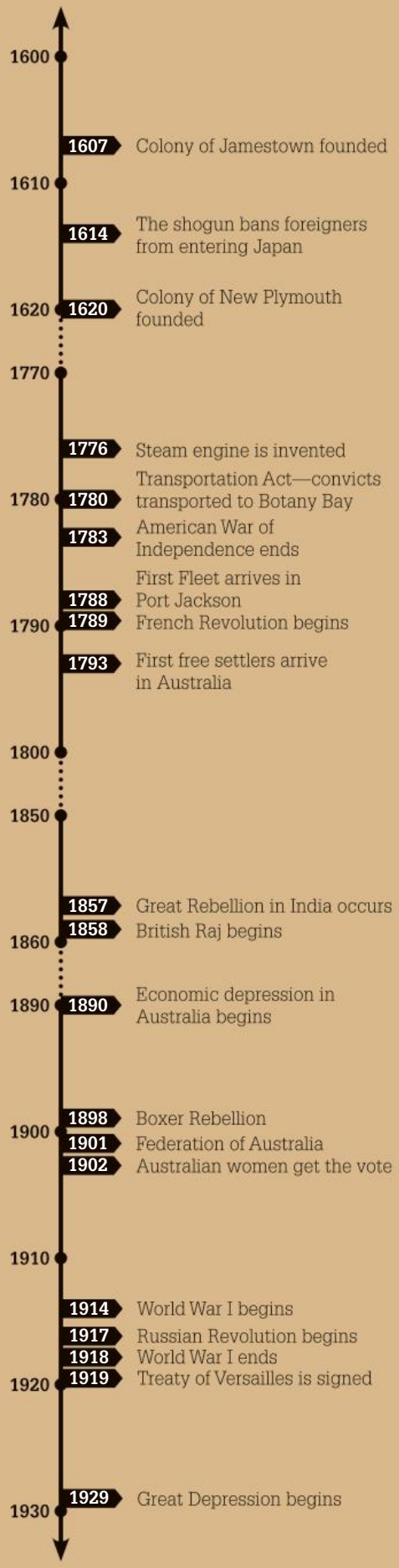
AMERIQUE SEPTENTRIONALE
CANADA
ÉTATS-UNIS
LABRADOR
ARCTIQUE
ISLANDE
OCEAN ATLANTIQUE OCCIDENTAL
TROPIQUE DU CANCER
Départ de Brest 1er Aout 1785
1er Sept. 1786
1er Mai 1786
1er Avril 1786
1er Mars 1786
1er Fevr. 1786
AFRIQUE
BARBARIE
SHARA ou DÉSERT DE BARBARIE
EQUATEUR OU LA LIGNE
AMERIQUE MÉRIDIONALE
GUYANE
T. FERME
PARAGUAY
TROPIQUE DU CAPRICORNE
POLAIRE
MER DU SUD ou PACIFIQUE
LA BOUSSOLE
CHARGÉ PAR LE ROY LOUIS XVI, EN 1785, D'UNE EXPLORATION DU PACIFIQUE,
CETTE EXPÉDITION FIT NAUFRAGE EN 1788 SUR LES ROCHERS DE VANIKORO.

CHAPTER
1

Overview: making of the modern world

Introduction

Important scientific discoveries in the eighteenth century laid the foundation for the **Industrial Revolution**, which began in England and lasted until the start of the twentieth century. During the Industrial Revolution mass manufacturing began. This meant that items could now be mass-produced by people paid to perform simple but repetitive tasks. By the nineteenth century, huge factories had been established across Europe, and new towns and cities had grown. Technological improvements in shipping transport and weaponry led to expansion of European empires throughout the world. The establishment of European colonies in North America and Australia soon led to the beginning of a mass movement of people. This included business venturers, religious groups, slaves, convicts, army officers and free settlers looking for new opportunities in the New World.



Source 1.0.1 The world, 1720

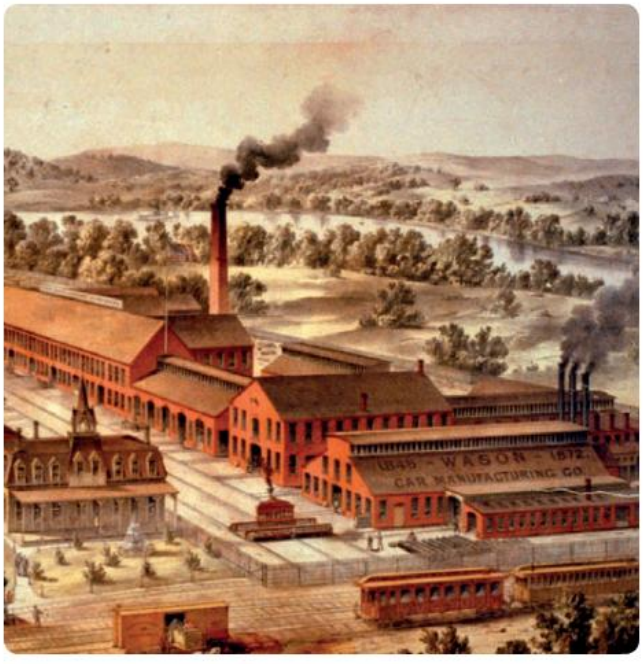
Source 1.0.2 Timeline of the making of the modern world

UNIT 1.1

The Industrial Revolution

Origins of the Industrial Revolution

The Enlightenment of the eighteenth century inspired advances in science and technology. Important discoveries included electricity in 1752 and the **spinning jenny** in 1764. The invention of the spinning jenny by James Hargreaves meant that one worker could operate several spools of cotton at once rather than just one. This was one of the earliest examples of **mass production**, which would become a major feature of the Industrial Revolution. New technologies led to the emergence of the first factories, which were huge cotton mills supplied with raw cotton from Britain's North American and Caribbean colonies. By the start of the nineteenth century these cotton mills were powered by steam engines. Invented by James Watt in 1776, the steam engine was a symbol of the Industrial Revolution. Overall, this period saw European society evolve from an agricultural economy to one dominated by the manufacture of goods.



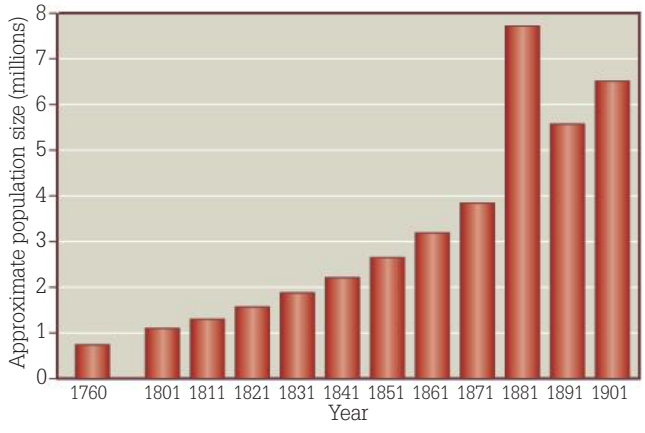
Source 1.1.1 A nineteenth-century factory, 1872, Library of Congress

Living and working conditions

Growth of cities

During the Industrial Revolution people from rural areas flocked to the cities in search of factory work. This mass movement of people is called **rural–urban migration**. Factory work was hard but it guaranteed a regular income. With the decline of traditional cottage industries, due to competition from big factories, many rural workers ended up as unskilled labourers in English cities such as Liverpool, Leeds and Manchester.

The fastest growing city during the Industrial Age was London (see Source 1.1.2). By the nineteenth century it was the world's largest city. Overcrowded and unhygienic, the city became home to an enormous working class who received wages that were barely enough to survive on.



Source 1.1.2 Population growth of London during the Industrial Revolution

Living conditions

People were forced to live in crammed **tenement** blocks close to the factories where they worked. These were often damp, poorly ventilated and freezing in winter. Privacy was virtually impossible, as several families occupied just one house. Very few toilets and a lack of running sewage created an unhygienic living environment, which bred diseases such as typhus and cholera (see Source 1.1.3).

Source 1.1.3 'The Poor of Whitechapel'. An etching showing the slums of London during the Industrial Revolution

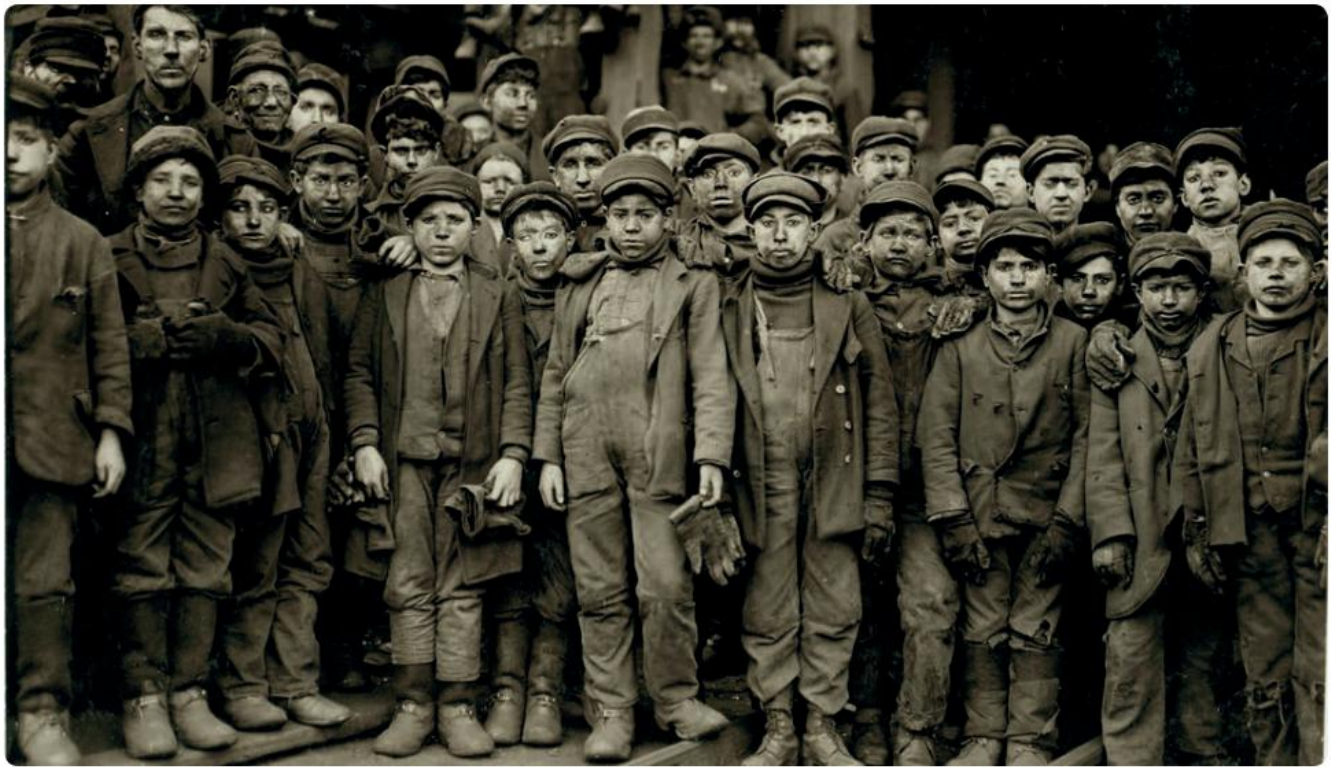
DID YOU KNOW?

During the Industrial Revolution girls in Britain worked as harriers in coalmines. It was the harrier's job to carry the coal to the surface. They did this by pulling a cart, using a chain secured around their waist. This did permanent damage to a girl's pelvic bone and led to difficulties in childbirth, which often resulted in death for both the mother and infant.

Working conditions

Factory conditions were dangerous and the working day could be twelve to fourteen hours long. Rules about the safe use of machinery were non-existent, resulting in high rates of injury and death. It was not uncommon for factories to employ children as young as seven or eight to perform tasks requiring small hands and nimble fingers.

With the growth in the number of steam engines in Britain, the demand for coal also grew. Coalmines could be as deep as 2 kilometres underground. With little more than a pick and a candle, miners could spend up to 12 hours a day **hewing** coal. Children as young as five, seen in Source 1.1.4, were often used to open and close mineshaft doors.



Source 1.1.4 Boy coal miners, 1911, Library of Congress

Source 1.1.5 Workers grading wool, pre-1890s

Impacts on Australia

Convict transportation

London's over-population, high unemployment and poor living conditions meant that crime was a regular occurrence. The most common crime was theft and the most common items stolen were basic foodstuffs such as bread. With prisons already over-crowded, the British Parliament introduced laws allowing for the transportation of convicts to the American colonies. This lasted until 1776 when American colonists declared their independence from British rule. With the introduction of a new Transportation Act in 1780, other destinations were opened, among them Botany Bay, Australia. In 1788, a fleet consisting of 759 convicts was sent there to establish a **penal colony** on the other side of the world.

Growth of a working class

In Australia, a labour shortage during the period of the **'long boom'** from 1850 to 1890 resulted in relatively high wages and good working conditions, as there were more workers required than were available. Skilled workers were paid especially well and formed trade unions to protect their wages and conditions. Fearing that cheap foreign workers might be used to replace them, Australian workers were at the forefront of calls for a ban on non-White immigration.

During the 'long boom' Australia earned the reputation as a 'working man's paradise', since Australian workers worked less hours, were paid more and lived longer than those in Britain. In 1890, however, an economic **depression** began, leading to business closures and rising unemployment. The failure of a series of 'Great Strikes' at this time showed that strike action alone was not enough to protect higher wages and better conditions. In response to the failure of strike action, workers began to form trade unions.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Where and when did the Industrial Revolution begin?
2. Name two important technological discoveries that contributed to the Industrial Revolution.
3. Define the term 'rural–urban migration'.

Applying and analysing

4. Create a mind map showing the positive and negative consequences of the Industrial Revolution.
5. Explain the long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution on Australia.

Source 1.1.6 Trade union commemorative certificate, State Library of NSW


SYDNEY
EIGHT.
HOURS.
AND
Labor Demonstration Committee.
ADVANCE AUSTRALIA
Certificate of Honour
Presented to
WICKER, PITHCANE
& BAMBOO WORKERS UNION
In Commemoration and Appreciation of their Splendid Achievement in obtaining FIRST PLACE among the UNIONS of less than 500 Members, who comprised the FOURTH SECTION of LIFT COMPETITION at Sydney Trades Hall 1924.
John H. Mostyn
President
Arthur W. Yager
Secretary
Jan. 23rd.
1925.
8
LABOR
REST
RECREATION
ESTAB.
1855.

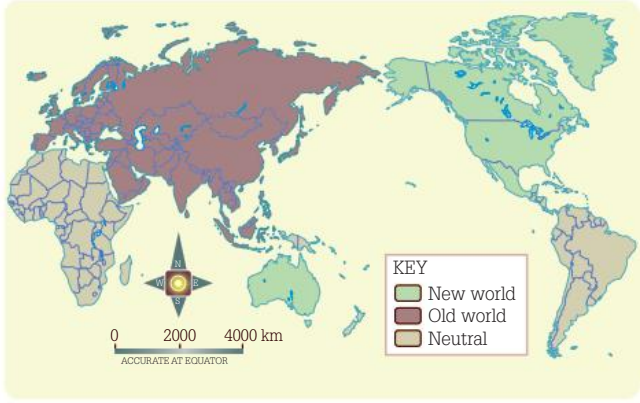
UNIT 1.2

Movement of people

Discovery of the New World

With the discovery of the Americas by Christopher Columbus in 1492, a New World was born. There was nothing 'new', however, about the world that had been inhabited by other peoples for thousands of years prior to the arrival of Europeans. Tribal groups in North and South America, and Australia are therefore sometimes referred to as the First Nations of those continents.

James Cook's discovery of the east coast of Australia in 1770 extended the reach of the British Empire well into the Southern Hemisphere. In 1788, a British penal settlement at Sydney Cove became part of the emerging New World.



Source 1.2.1 'Old' and 'New' Worlds in the eighteenth century

Voluntary migration

First American colonies

The first English colony on the east coast of North America was established at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607. It began as a business venture by King James I of England, under the direction of the Virginia Company of London. The first English settlers of North America were investors in the company, all keen to make their fortune.

In 1620, a second English colony was established further north at New Plymouth. This was settled by a group of Puritans, a Christian sect who wanted to establish a new society where they could freely express their religious beliefs (see Source 1.2.2). One of their leaders, John Winthrop, declared that their settlement would be a 'city upon a hill', which would set an example to the rest of the world.

Source 1.2.2 Puritans leaving for the New World

Free settlers to Australia

The first free settlers to Australia arrived in Sydney on board the *Bellona* on 16 January 1793. They were five single men and two families wealthy enough to afford the long voyage from England. Early free settlers were given free land grants of 30 acres for single men, with an extra 20 acres (8 hectares) if they were married and 10 more acres (4 hectares) if they had children. Free convict labour was also provided to help clear and cultivate their new land.

The westward spread of settlement beyond the Blue Mountains led to better quality farmland becoming available. As a result more and more free settlers from England began arriving after the 1820s. To help pay for the long sea voyage, the British government introduced the Assisted Passage Scheme to help new settlers with some of the costs.

Involuntary movement

Slaves

The transatlantic slave trade was a three-way, or triangular, trade that relied upon the capture of African slaves. These slaves were then transported in overcrowded hulks to the Caribbean colonies, and later to North America, where they were sold to plantation owners. On the plantations, slaves harvested products that were in turn exported to Europe, creating a triangular movement of people and goods.

Although the number of slaves captured and transported from Africa will never be known, it is estimated that a total of between 9 and 12 million were sent to the Americas. By 1860, the population of slaves and ex-slaves in North America alone was 2 136 763, or 14.4 per cent of the total population.

Convicts

On board eleven ships of the First Fleet were 1332 people, 736 of whom were convicts, twenty-three of whom died before the First Fleet arrived in Sydney Cove on 18 January 1788. Approximately 60 per cent of convicts on the First Fleet had been sentenced for stealing food. Many escaped being hanged and were sentenced to seven years transportation instead. Many others had less than seven years of their sentence left to serve but were transported regardless. The youngest convict on board the First Fleet was 9-year-old orphan John Hudson, who had been transported for theft.

The voyage of the Second Fleet was a disaster compared to the First Fleet—258 of the estimated 1250 convicts died during the voyage. The arrival of the last ship in the Second Fleet on 28 June 1790 also meant that the struggling settlement in New South Wales had an extra 759 mouths to feed.

Blackbirding

Although slavery was formally abolished throughout the British Empire in 1833, the practice of **blackbirding** continued in Australia for several decades. Blackbirding was human trafficking of indentured labourers from the South Pacific Islands through deception or even kidnapping. Between 1863 and 1904, it is estimated that about 60 000 South Pacific Islanders were brought to Australia to work on the sugarcane fields. Many of these workers returned to their islands when their three-year contract expired. By 1901 there were only 10 000 people of South Pacific Island origin living in Queensland (see Source 1.2.3).

Source 1.2.3 Recruits from the New Hebrides bound for Queensland, 1895, National Library of Australia

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What does the term 'New World' refer to?
2. Where and when were the first New World colonies established?
3. Outline the reasons why different people first came to North America.

Applying and analysing

4. Explain why the term 'New World' is problematic.
5. Create a timeline titled 'Movement of peoples' giving dates and events that show voluntary and involuntary migration.

UNIT 1.3

European imperialism

Imperialism and colonisation

The seventeenth century saw the beginning of the Age of Imperialism, during which European powers extended their control over many other parts of the world. Imperialism is the expansion of territory by powerful nations often achieved through invasion and **colonisation**. Colonisation is a direct form of imperialism—ownership of an area is taken away from indigenous people and claimed by others.

Reasons for European imperialism

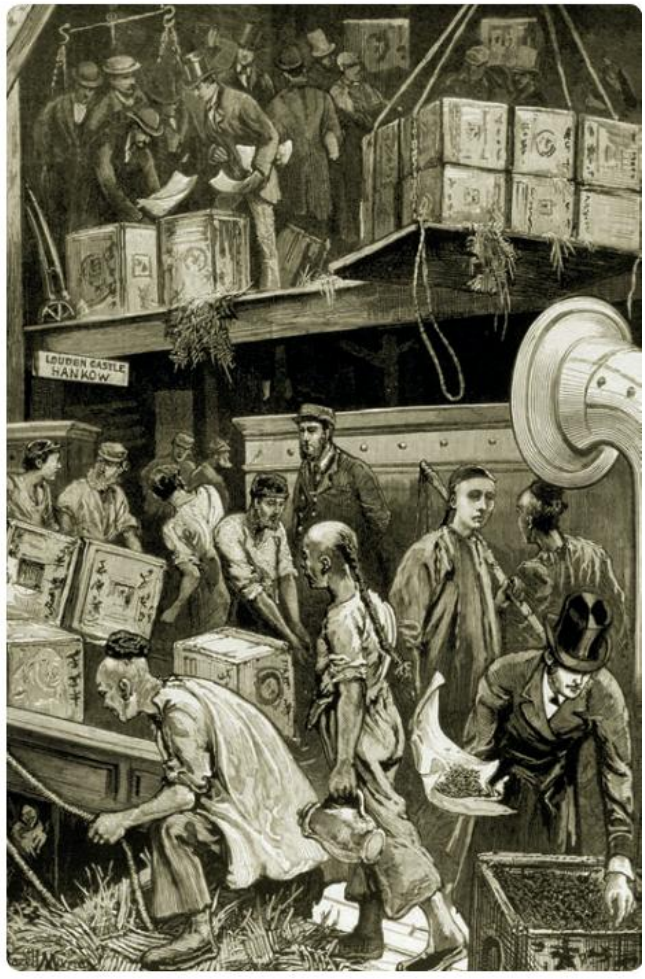
Trade and wealth

By taking over new territories with vast untouched lands, Europeans hoped to acquire raw materials such as silver and gold. By the nineteenth century, imperialism had become big business for European powers. India, known as the 'jewel in the crown' of the British Empire, was administered for 100 years by a large business enterprise called the British East India Company. Its main items of trade were tea, cotton, silk, indigo colour dye, opium, porcelain and potassium nitrate (needed for gunpowder). The Portuguese, Dutch and French had similar business monopolies that also carried the name 'East India Company'.

Technological superiority

Prior to 1750, most European powers fought wars among themselves rather than against countries outside Europe. It was not until the eighteenth century that Europeans began conquering other peoples. Europeans had better naval technology and had also developed superior weaponry such as the Gatling gun a rapid-fire weapon. Inventions such as the Gatling gun, shown in Source 1.3.2, gave rise to a saying in Britain that 'the spear is no match for the gun'.

The development of steam-powered battleships also provided Europeans with faster transport, tighter manoeuvrability and more accurate fire at sea. These were often used as part of a strategy known as 'gunboat diplomacy'. State-of-the-art warships capable of hitting a target several kilometres away easily intimidated local rulers into giving in to European demands.



Source 1.3.1 Transporting goods from a British tea ship, London dockyards, *Illustrated London News*, 8 December 1877

'Divide and conquer'

The growth of European empires could not have occurred without the crushing of indigenous resistance. To avoid large-scale opposition to their rule, the British adopted a strategy known as 'divide and conquer'. This relied on exploiting existing rivalries between different native groups and allowed the British to deal with each group separately. One group was often favoured above the others and received privileges, money and weapons for their loyalty to the British Empire.

Source 1.3.2 Gatling gun used by the 10th Battalion, 7th Brigade during the Zulu War, 1879

Spreading God's message

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the Christian Church supported the growth of European empires since it provided new opportunities to convert 'heathens' to the Christian faith. With the establishment of new colonies, Christian **missionaries** were never far behind the first European settlers.

Source 1.3.3 A Catholic missionary preaching to Native Americans,artist unknown, seventeenth century, Philadelphia, United States, David David Gallery

While some indigenous people converted to Christianity, others fought to protect their traditional customs and beliefs. Christian missionaries were among the first Europeans to call for an end to the slave trade (see Source 1.3.3).

A 'civilising duty'

Many Europeans felt that it was their duty to help civilise 'backward' parts of the world. This belief was referred to at the time as the 'White man's burden'. In some parts of the world this led to the establishment of schools and hospitals to improve the living standards of colonised people. However, many non-Europeans were taught to reject traditional customs and beliefs that did not fit with the values of the Victorian era. An example of this was the insistence that indigenous people wear European-style clothes to cover their bodies.

Take up the White Man's burden—
Send forth the best you breed
Go bind your sons to exile
To serve your captives' need;
To wait in heavy harness,
On fluttered folk and wild—
Your new-caught, sullen peoples,
Half-devil and half-child.

Source 1.3.4 Excerpt from Rudyard Kipling's poem 'The White Man's Burden', 1899

Imperial rivalry

A large empire was a source of great national pride. Each European power was determined that they should not to be left behind in the race to build an empire. In 1870, imperial rivalry led to the 'scramble for Africa', in which the entire African continent was divided between the European powers. Source 1.3.5 shows an impression of the scramble. Similar **spheres of influence** were also agreed upon in Asia.

Asian responses to European imperialism

China's Canton system

In 1757, to stop the spread of foreign influence in China, the emperor restricted all foreign ships to just one port in the south, Canton. Each trading nation was permitted one factory in Canton, and all European merchants and sailors were forced to remain there while on shore. To avoid contact between Europeans and Chinese, all business dealings had to be conducted through one of thirteen Hong merchants. If they broke these rules, European traders were subjected to severe punishments.

Japan's 'closed country' policy

Beginning in 1614, Japan closed its doors to all foreigners for over 250 years. This 'closed country' policy also banned Japanese citizens from building boats capable of sailing in the open seas. So that the Japanese rulers could keep informed about events in Europe, a few Dutch merchants were allowed to live on a small island in Nagasaki. As foreign interference in nearby China grew during the nineteenth century, the Japanese shogun, or military ruler, grew even more determined to keep Westerners out of Japan.

The Great Rebellion in India

For a period of 100 years, from 1757 to 1858, the British East India Company controlled much of India. A major reason for its strength was its army of over 200 000 sepoys (Indian soldiers). These were mainly Hindu and Muslim men who had joined the Company's army after it had established control throughout India. In 1857, a group of sepoys mutinied against their British commanders, setting fire to their barracks and ransacking nearby towns. The rebellion quickly spread and within weeks the towns of Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow had fallen to the rebels. At Cawnpore, all 400 English people, including women and children were killed (see Source 1.3.6).

Source 1.3.5 A German and a French official decide on the border between the French and German Congo, *Le Petit Journal*, 1913

Source 1.3.6 An incident during the Indian Mutiny, 1857, National Army Museum, London, United Kingdom

The Boxer Rebellion in China

In 1898, Chinese peasant anger against foreign influence boiled over into open rebellion against the ruling dynasty. This was led by a group of martial artists known as the 'Righteous and Harmonious Fists', whom the British named 'Boxers'. Most of the Boxers' anger was focused on foreign missionaries, whom they blamed for their poverty and hunger. As their numbers grew, the Boxers went from village to village, killing Christians and destroying churches. They rallied support with the chant 'Destroy what is foreign'. Railway tracks and telegraph lines were ripped apart, as these had often been built on peasant land. By 1899, the Boxers had begun attacking the foreign embassies in the capital, Peking. They were eventually defeated in 1900, by an eight-nation army made up of European and Japanese soldiers.

Modernisation in Japan

In Japan in 1868, 17-year-old Emperor Mutsuhito took the title of Meiji, meaning 'enlightened rule'. During his forty-four-year reign, Mutsuhito looked to the West for new ideas and technologies that would help modernise Japan. Japanese students were encouraged to travel abroad, and foreign engineers, scientists and doctors were brought into Japan. Railways and steamships were built and cities grew rapidly as more and more factories were established. By the beginning of the twentieth century, Japan had become a modern industrial economy capable of exerting its own influence within Asia.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

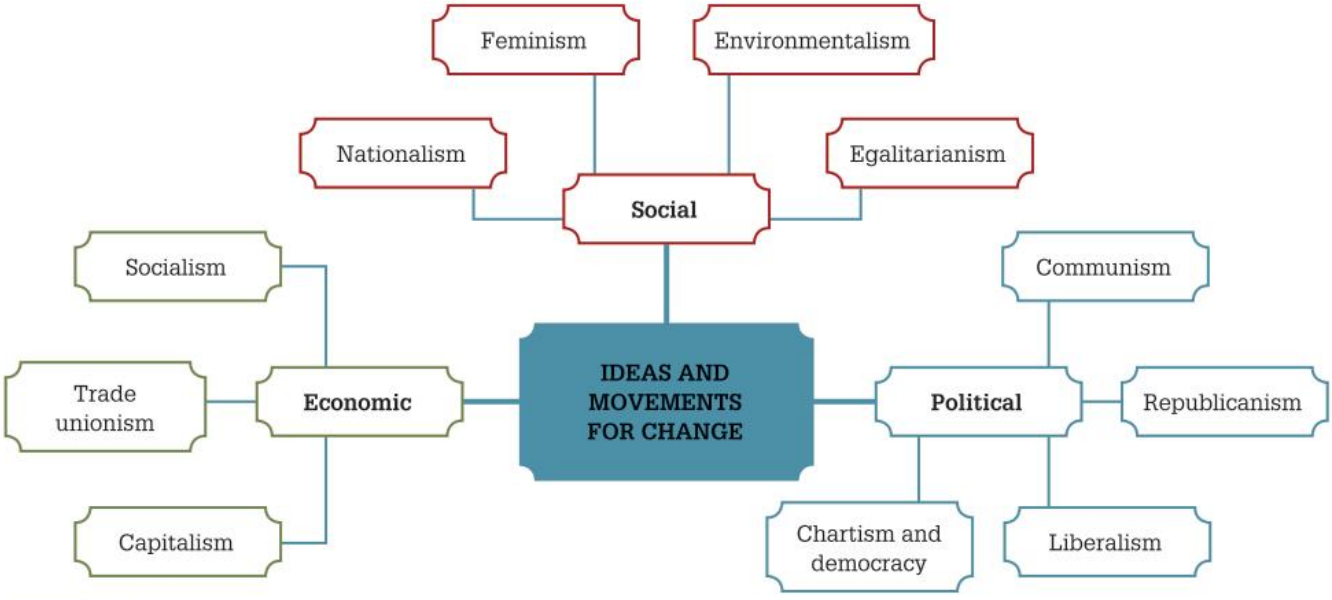
1. Describe the events that took place in the Age of Imperialism.
2. List the European powers that had 'East India' companies.
3. Outline the reasons why European governments wanted to have an empire.
4. State one negative and one positive response by Asians towards European imperialism.

Applying and analysing

5. Distinguish between the concepts of imperialism and colonisation.
6. Find out why the Japanese introduced a 'closed country' policy in 1614.
7. Explain how and why Japanese attitudes towards Westerners changed over time.
8. Rank the reasons for European imperialism in order from most to least important. Discuss your rank order with a partner and be prepared to justify it.

UNIT 1.4

Economic, social and political ideas



Source 1.4.1 Mind map showing ideas and movements for change

Republicanism

A republic is a form of government in which the head of state is a citizen of the nation rather than a monarch. While republicanism dates back to ancient Rome, it was during the Enlightenment that the idea became popular in Europe and North America.

The first republic to be established in the modern era was the American Republic. This occurred in 1783 with their victory against the British. The Declaration of Independence announced America's separation from Britain and introduced a system of 'rule by the people'.

Liberalism

Liberalism was a movement that sought to protect and improve the rights of individuals. Liberalism, like republicanism, emerged from the 'rights of man' philosophy that inspired the American and French revolutions in 1776 and 1789. This was the view that human beings are born into a state of perfect freedom, or liberty. Liberals believed that governments existed to protect people's basic civil liberties, rather than restrict them. Liberals therefore wanted a small role for government and believed that it should not stand in the way of individuals who wanted to improve their lives.

> *In competition, individual ambition serves the common good.*

Source 1.4.2 Adam Smith, *The Wealth of Nations*, 1776

Capitalism

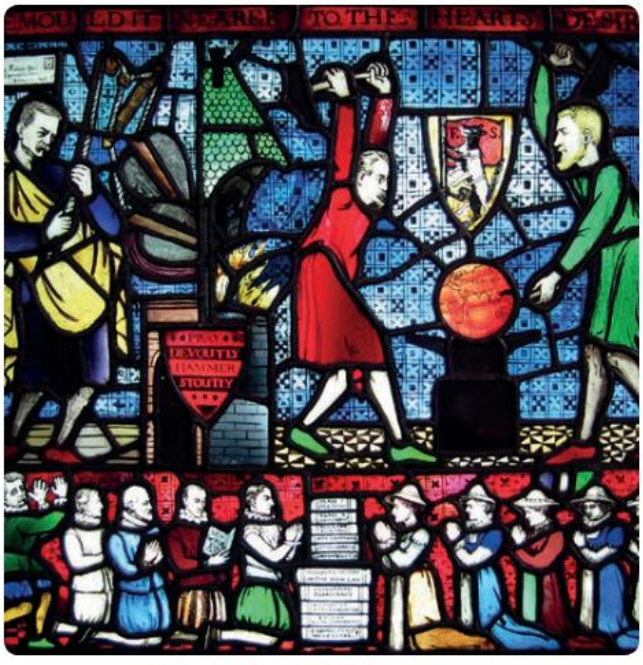
Capitalism is an economic system based on competition between sellers. Capitalists are individuals who invest their money into new business ventures in order to make a profit. The Scientific Age had given rise to new inventions, such as the steam engine, but it was the growing class of capitalists in Britain who used these tools to establish the factory system. This meant that goods could be manufactured in large quantities and in a relatively short time.

Socialism

At its most basic level, socialism is about redistributing wealth from the rich to the poor. During the Industrial Revolution, as capitalists grew extremely wealthy from the factory system, the growing urban working-class had barely enough to survive. Socialists believed that the profits created by workers ought to be given to the workers. By the middle of the nineteenth century, two strands of socialism had emerged in Britain—revolutionary socialism, or communism, and democratic socialism, otherwise known as Fabianism (see Source 1.4.3).

Chartism and democracy

Named after the six-point People's Charter of 1838, the Chartist Movement called for the introduction of electoral reforms to make Britain more democratic. These included the right of all men to vote (suffrage), the secret ballot, pay for parliamentarians, equal-sized electorates and annual elections. By the early 1900s, Chartism in Britain had failed; it was far more successful in Australia. In the aftermath of the Eureka Rebellion, important democratic reforms such as full male suffrage, the secret ballot and pay for parliamentarians were introduced. These reforms earned Australia a reputation throughout the world as a 'laboratory for democracy'.



Source 1.4.3 The Fabian Window shows the founders of the Fabian Society building a better world.

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is the belief in a 'fair go' for all. It is thought to be an especially Australian value. Some historians have attributed this belief to Australia's convict origins and the pioneering spirit needed to survive the harsh Australian environment.

Australian egalitarianism has not always been shown to everyone. Among the first laws passed by the first Australian federal parliament in 1901 was one restricting the entry of non-Whites into Australia. Although the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* gave women the right to vote, the same law excluded Indigenous Australians from voting in federal elections.

Nationalism

Nationalism is the belief that people of a similar race, culture or ideals ought to belong to the same nation state. Nationalism was one of the most influential ideas of the nineteenth century and resulted in the establishment of new nations such as Australia in 1901, growing empires, national rivalries and movements of resistance against foreign rule.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Identify the idea that best matches the following statements.
   - **a** 'The bigger the government, the fewer the rights.'
   - **b** 'We want a "fair go" for all.'
   - **c** 'Abolish the monarchy.'
   - **d** 'Take from the rich and give to the poor.'
   - **e** 'There's a fortune to be made if you have the right idea.'
   - **f** 'I am, you are, we are Australian.'

Applying and analysing

2 Analyse the similarities and differences between the ideas and movements mentioned in this unit.

3 Invent a new 'ism' based on a set of ideas, beliefs, attitudes or values, which you see emerging in your school or community.

4 In your view, what are the 'isms' that represent the era in which you now live?

UNIT 1.5

The interwar years

Between the wars

World War I ended on 11 November 1918, with the signing of an armistice between Germany and its enemies, Britain, France and the United States of America. Four years of bitter fighting had seen a total of almost 10 million soldiers killed and another 21 million wounded. The challenge facing the victors was how to make sure that such a catastrophe could never happen again.

The search for peace

The Paris Peace Conference

Leaders of the three largest victorious nations, France, Britain and the United States, met in Paris on 18 January 1919 to decide the fate of defeated Germany. Nicknamed the 'Big Three', Georges Clemenceau of France, David Lloyd George of Britain and Woodrow Wilson of the United States each had different ideas about how peace should be achieved and what ought to happen to Germany. These differences led to many heated exchanges, but in the end Clemenceau won the day. This was mainly because the public mood in Paris during the Peace Conference was one of vengeance against Germany. The French had endured four years of German occupation and had suffered the highest proportion of deaths of any nation that had fought in World War I.

The Treaty of Versailles

On 28 June 1919, the representatives of the German government reluctantly signed the Treaty of Versailles (seen in Source 1.5.2). The victors, despite Germany's protests, forced the treaty upon them. In Germany, public reaction to the treaty was one of anger and bewilderment. The Treaty of Versailles was a major humiliation for Germans, who argued that nations from both sides had been responsible for starting the war. According to the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was forced to:

- pay $32 billion for the cost of the war in **reparations**
- accept sole guilt for starting the war
- limit its army to only 100 000 soldiers
- hand over all tanks and heavy guns
- ban conscription
- close all of its military academies
- hand over territories to France and newly created nations such as Poland and Czechoslovakia
- hand over all of its overseas colonies.

Source 1.5.1 Aims of the 'Big Three' at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919

	Georges Clemenceau	David Lloyd George	Woodrow Wilson
Nickname	'The Tiger'	'The Welsh Wizard'	'The Schoolmaster of Politics'
Famous quote	'My home policy: I wage war; my foreign policy: I wage war. All the time I wage war.'	'Once blood is shed in a national quarrel, reason and right are swept away by the rage of angry men.'	'Friendship is the only cement that will ever hold the world together.'
Aims at the Paris Peace Conference	Crush Germany so that it could never again invade France. Destroy the German army. Force Germany to pay for the full cost of the war. Prohibit German soldiers from German territory close to the French border.	Restore Germany's economic strength but weaken its military. Rebuild the trade relationship between Britain and Germany. Make sure no one nation dominates Europe.	Create an international council, the League of Nations, to resolve disputes between nations before they resort to war. Give 'self-determination' to people living under foreign rule.

Source 1.5.2 Painting showing the signing of the Treaty of Versailles in the Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles, 28 June 1919

The League of Nations

The idea for an international forum in which the nations of the world could meet to settle their differences had been one of Woodrow Wilson's 'Fourteen Points' presented at the Paris Peace Conference. While most of his other ideas had been rejected, the victors of World War I agreed to the creation of a League of Nations. By accepting the League of Nations Covenant, member nations committed themselves to:

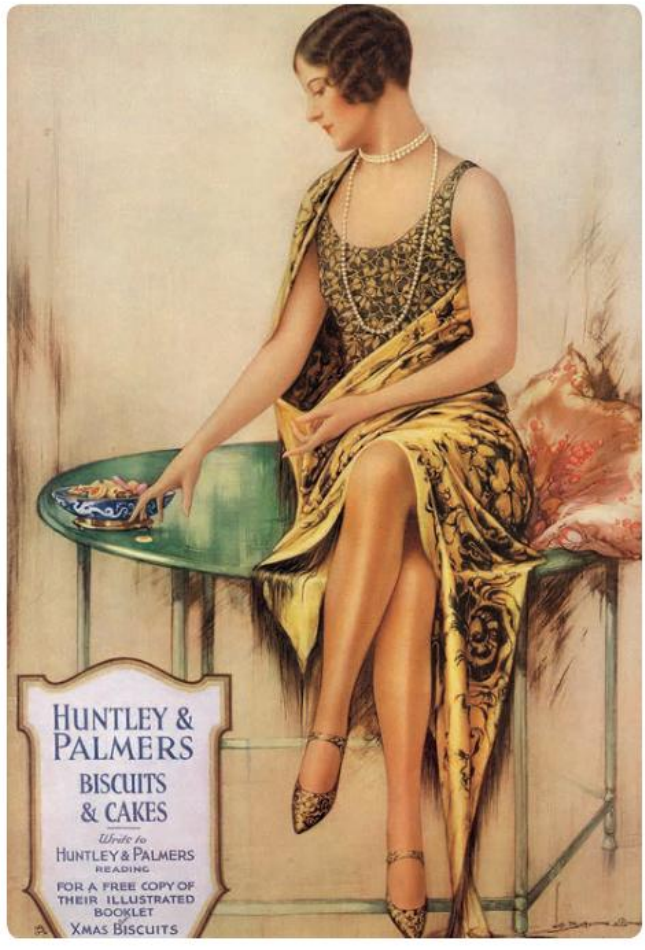
- reducing their weapons
- supporting one another economically
- respecting one another's territory
- bringing their disputes before an international court
- considering an act of war against one as an act of war against all.

Boom and bust

The 'Roaring Twenties'

The decade of the 1920s is often called the 'Roaring Twenties' because it was characterised by fast economic growth and rapid cultural change. After the hardship and horror of the war years, people wanted to forget the past and make the most of peacetime. A mood of optimism as well as more leisure time led to new forms of entertainment such as jazz music and films with sound.

Good economic times also allowed more women to enter the workforce. Having proved that they could do the same jobs as men during the war, and with the right to vote, many young middle-class women displayed a newfound confidence. Fashions became more daring as skirts and hair length shortened, as shown in Source 1.5.3. Make-up became more obvious and many women flaunted their new sense of independence by smoking in public.



Source 1.5.3 A 1920s advertisement featuring a 'flapper'. Her newfound confidence demonstrated by her clothing shows the changing attitudes of women.

The rise of America

During the 1920s, the United States emerged as the world's economic leader, having been the only nation to actually profit from the war. American loans to Europe and Australia saw new industries emerge, businesses flourish and unemployment fall. This economic prosperity also allowed governments to build new infrastructure such as highways, railways, power stations and new suburbs. Cars, radio sets and other electrical goods, such as refrigerators and washing machines, became more readily available due to mass production. Attracted by new opportunities in the cities, many people moved from rural areas.

The Wall St Crash

The optimism of the 1920s was brought to a sudden halt on 24 October 1929. On 'Black Thursday', shares listed on the New York Stock Exchange (also known as Wall St) drastically fell and continued to do so for several weeks. 'Black Thursday' was followed by 'Black Monday' and then 'Black Tuesday'. The Wall St Crash started the Great Depression. Shares are a way for investors to buy part ownership of a public company and a way for companies to raise funds to expand. The crash in share prices saw thousands of investors lose their life savings almost overnight. The market continued to fall for the next few months, in which time banks collapsed, companies closed and unemployment climbed.

DID YOU KNOW?

Germany made its final reparations payment required by the Treaty of Versailles on 3 October 2010. This was for $94 million.

BROOKLYN DAILY EAGLE
And Complete Long Island News

WALL ST. IN PANIC AS STOCKS CRASH

Attempt Made to Kill Italy's Crown Prince

ASSASSIN CAUGHT IN BRUSSELS MOB; PRINCE UNHURT

Hollywood Fire Destroys Films Worth Millions

FEAR 52 PERISHED IN LAKE MICHIGAN FERRY IS MISSING

PIECE OF PLANE LIKE OITEMAN'S IS FOUND AT SEA

High Duty Group Gave $700,000 to Coolidge Drive

STOCKS CRASH IN RUSH TO SELL; BILLIONS LOST

CARNEGIE CHARGE OF PAID ATHLETES ROUSES COLLEGES

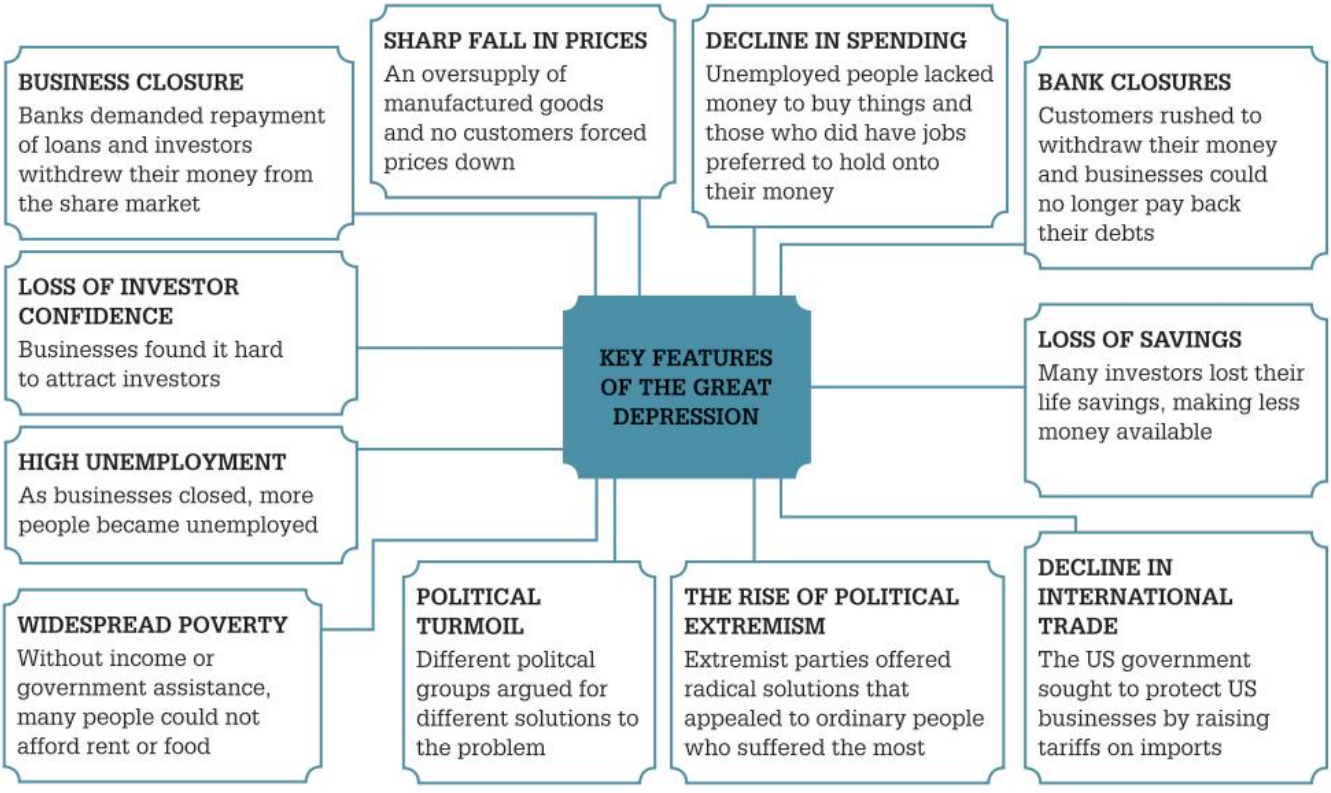
HOOVER'S TRAIN HALTED BY AUTO PLACED ON RAILS

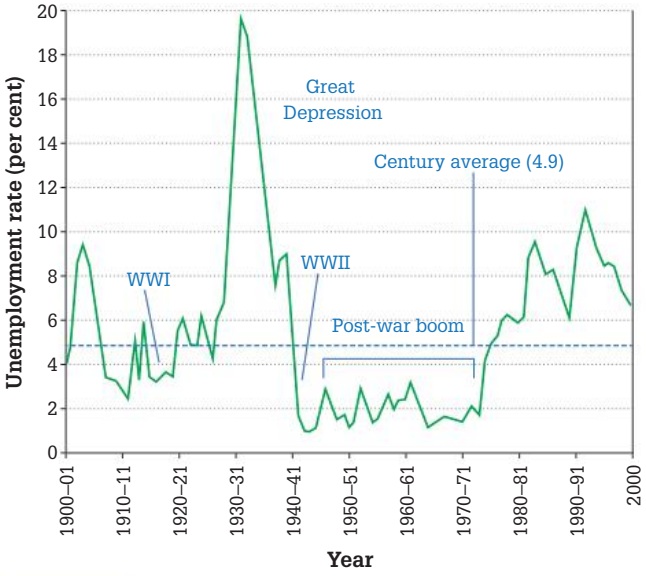
WARDER SOUGHT TO KEEP SEA TRIP SECRET, AID SAYS

SOMERS NAMED AS HEAD OF NEW EXCHANGE BANK

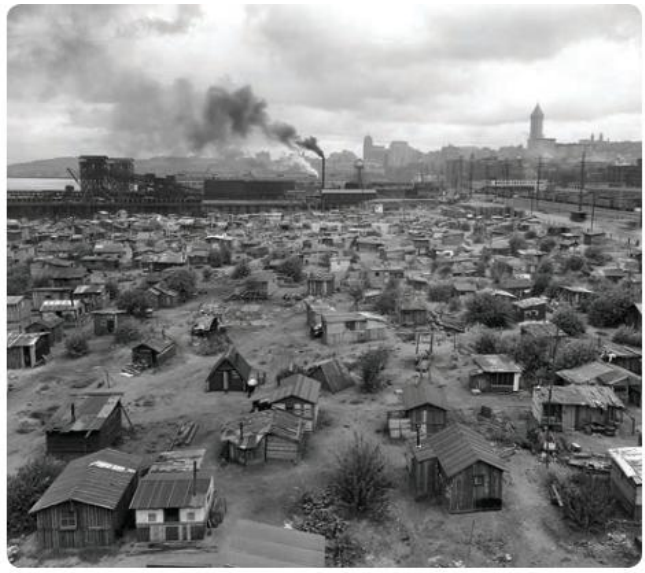
Source 1.5.4 US newspaper headline on 24 October 1929, otherwise known as 'Black Thursday'

Source 1.5.5 Key features of the Great Depression





Source 1.5.6 Unemployment rates in Australia, 1901–2000, showing the significance of the Great Depression



Source 1.5.7 A 'Hooverville' (shantytown) in the United States during the Great Depression. 'Hoovervilles' were named after President Herbert Hoover, who many blamed for doing nothing to end the Depression.

While the Wall St Crash of 1929 was the immediate cause of the Great Depression that lasted for the next decade, other longer-term causes included:

- an oversupply of manufactured goods that could not be sold
- low incomes for ordinary people making it difficult to buy everyday items
- many investors who had gone into debt in the hope of making money on the stock market
- the trade policies of the US government that discouraged foreign trade.

The Great Depression

Known as the Great Depression due to its length and severity, the decade of the 1930s ended the peacefulness and optimism of the 1920s and plunged the world into poverty, turmoil and new fears of war. Unemployment, homelessness, starvation, crime and civil unrest increased in all countries affected by the Great Depression. Source 1.5.6 shows unemployment rates in Australia during the Great Depression and Source 1.5.7 shows a shanty town in the United States.

In this context, extremist political parties became more popular, especially in Germany, where people voted in greater numbers for the Communists and the **Nazis**. Germany had come to rely heavily on US loans, which were no longer available. It also suffered badly because of repaying the reparations demanded by the Treaty of Versailles.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Who were the 'Big Three'?
2 Why did Germans feel humiliated by the Treaty of Versailles?
3 What was the main aim of the League of Nations?
4 Outline the key features of the 'Roaring Twenties'.
5 Refer to Source 1.5.5. Group each of the key features of the Great Depression into social, political or economic effects.

Applying and analysing

6 Account for the different aims of the 'Big Three' at the Paris Peace Conference.
7 Evaluate the different ways international leaders tried to make the world more peaceful after World War I.
8 Create a flow chart showing how the Wall St Crash of 1929 caused the Great Depression.
9 Conduct your own research into what happened to the League of Nations in the 1930s. Start by developing a research question about whether or not it achieved its aims.

Investigating History

UNIT 1.6

The making of the modern world

Mapping

Use the internet to obtain a blank outline map of the world. Identify the places mentioned in this unit and draw lines and arrows to show the movements of people between continents. Use labels and different colours to indicate the numbers of people, dates of movement and the nature of the movement (convict transportation, slave trade, blackbirding or free settlers). Indicate whether their migration was voluntary or involuntary by using different types of lines (dashes or straight), and include a key to explain the colours and line types. Where possible, show the sea route taken by ships in transporting people from one continent to another.

Oral presentation

Take on the persona of an historical character and prepare a speech explaining how your life has changed due to one of the significant events or issues mentioned in this unit. Ensure that your views, feelings and reactions are as accurate as possible by conducting research into the effects of the event or issue on real historical people.

Source 1.6.1 Postcard celebrating the British Empire

The new world

Compare and contrast two New World settlements. Do this by examining the following features:

- date of settlement
- location of settlement
- size of the original settlement
- reasons for settlement
- names of indigenous groups
- relations with indigenous people
- main problems for the settlers.

Digital portfolio

Create a digital portfolio of primary sources that answers the question: 'How was the modern world made?' Ensure that you provide a range of pictures of primary sources that show different experiences of the modern era. Examples could include a clipper, modern weapons or a factory machine. Also provide a caption for each source that identifies what it is, author and date. Write a brief paragraph explaining why you chose the source and what it represents about the making of the modern world.

Glossary

blackbirding act or practice of kidnapping South Pacific Islanders and sending them to Australia to work on plantations

colonisation process of establishing a colony in a country or area

economic depression period of sustained and severe economic downturn, characterised by business failure and high unemployment

hewing chopping or cutting with an axe

Industrial Revolution long period of rapid economic growth beginning in the eighteenth century that transformed the economies of Europe from agricultural to industrial

'long boom' period of economic prosperity in Australia in the late 1800s

mass production process of using machines to make large quantities of goods

missionaries religious believers on a mission to spread their faith, usually to people of other faiths

Nazis extreme nationalist party in Germany that aimed at abolishing democracy and restoring Germany's status after World War I

penal colony settlement established for the purposes of housing prisoners

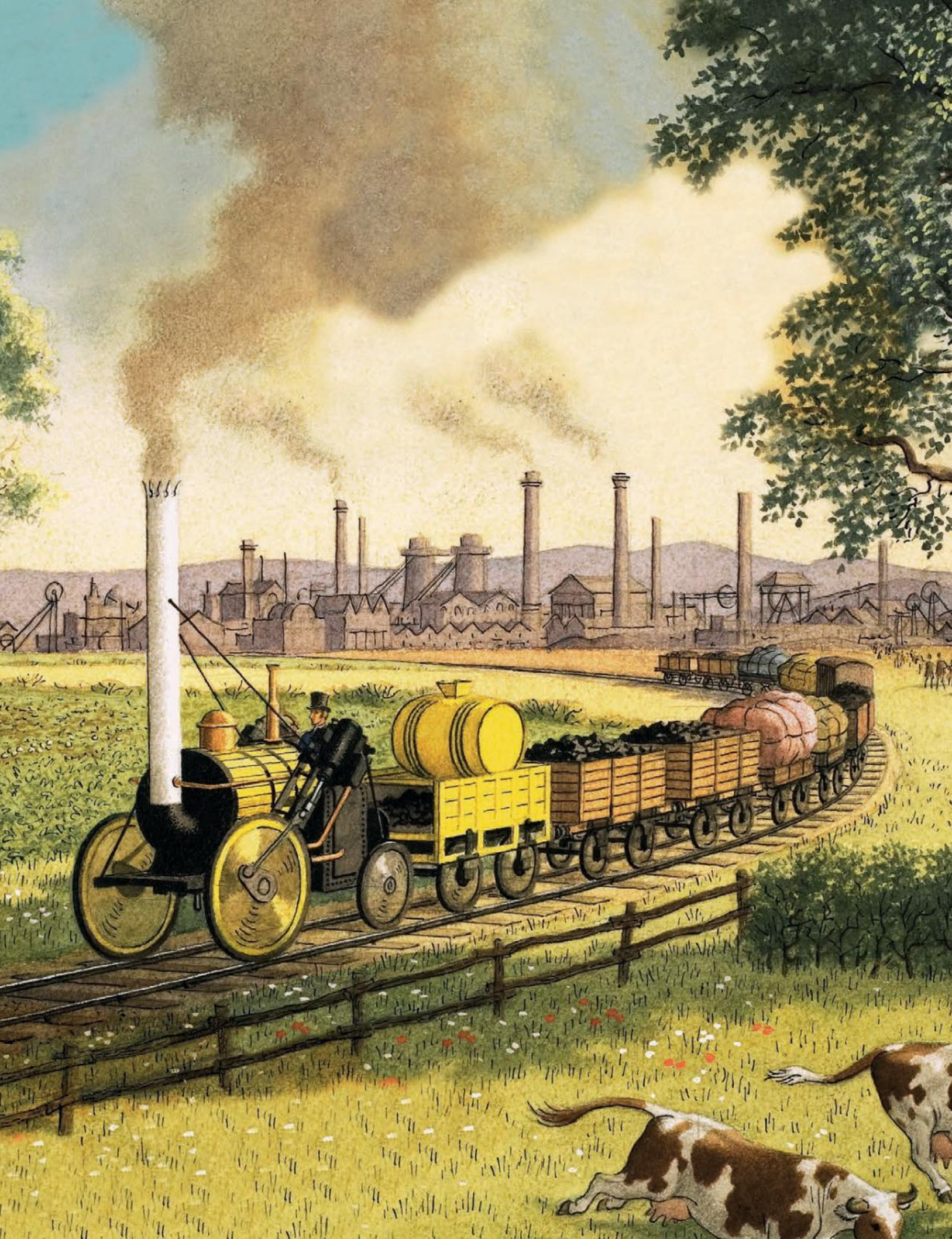
reparations repayments for the costs incurred due to war

sphere of influence part of the world where a certain foreign power was recognised by others as being in control

rural–urban migration movement of people from the countryside to the city

spinning jenny cotton spinning frame that could operate several spools at once

tenement a room or a set of rooms in a house or a block of flats

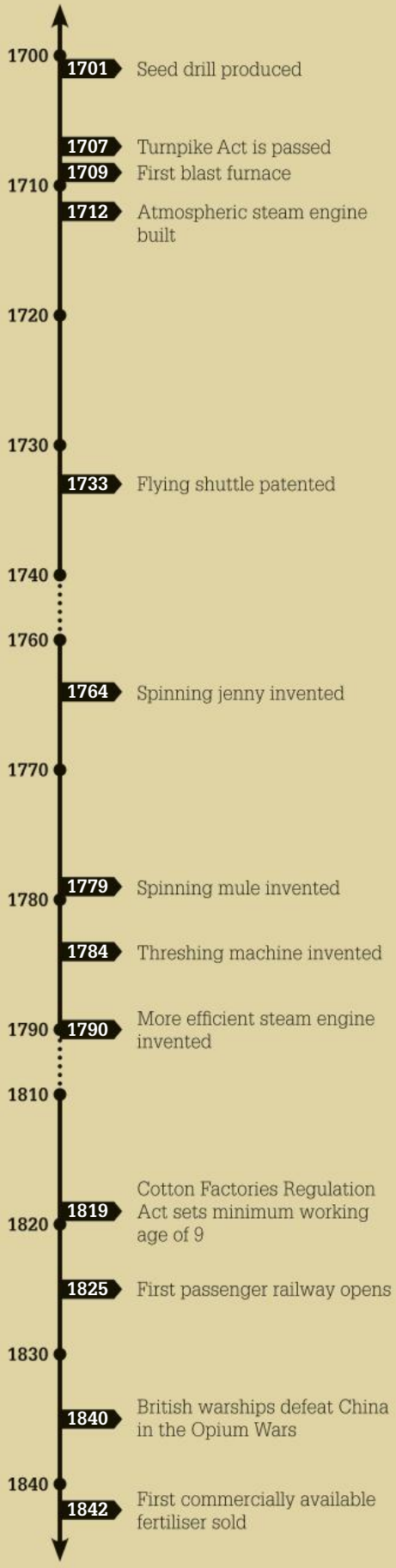


CHAPTER
2

The Industrial Revolution

Introduction

The Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain in about 1760, saw a number of factors—population growth, increasing world trade, innovations in technology and new business practices—combine to cause an explosion in industrial output and massive upheaval in people's lives. The Industrial Revolution was the start of the modern world of expanding economies and mass consumption.



Source 2.0.1 The new steam trains made transportation of goods much easier.

Source 2.0.2 Timeline of the Industrial Revolution

UNIT 2.1

The agricultural revolution in Britain

A growing business

There was a direct relationship between agricultural changes and the Industrial Revolution. New ideas and technologies enabled farmers to produce more food. More food allowed the population to grow, shown in 2.1.1. More people meant more workers to fill factories, and more consumers for the goods those factories produced. In turn, more factories produced more machines, which helped farmers grow more food, which led to an even higher population.

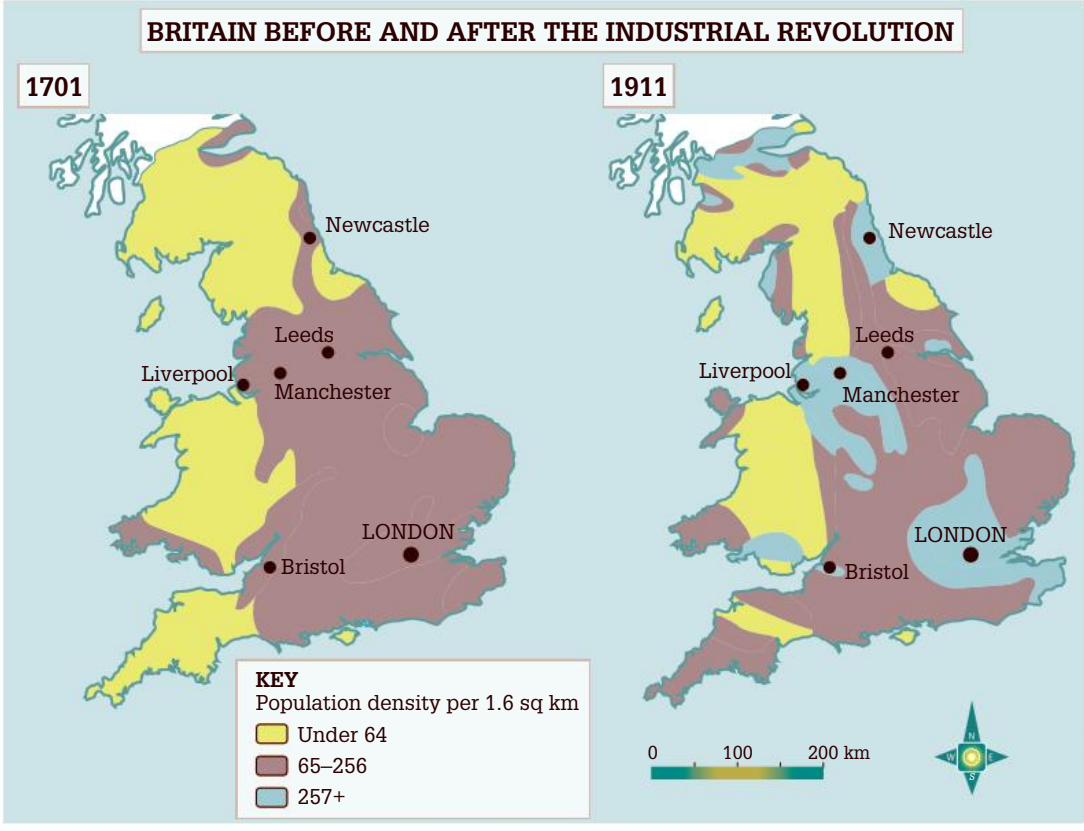
Finding a starting point for this spiral of increasing demand is difficult. There is agreement that an important factor was the **enclosure** of common land, which had been going on for at least 100 years before the Industrial Revolution, and resulted in fewer but larger and more efficient farms. The other factor was a series of technological breakthroughs.

Sowing the seeds

Prior to the eighteenth century, seed planting in Europe meant scattering seeds by hand along shallow trenches in the soil called furrows. This was quite wasteful because many seeds did not end up at the required depth, or were too spaced out or too crowded, with the result that only about one in five grew into a harvestable plant.

The seed drill

The answer was a seed drill, a tube-like device that poked into the ground to the ideal depth and then released a seed. Simple seed drills had been in use for since 3000 BCE, but it wasn't until 1701 that the English inventor Jethro Tull produced a refined version of this old idea, and seed sowing in Britain was transformed (see Source 2.1.2).



Source 2.1.1
The impact of the Industrial Revolution

Source 2.1.2 Plough invented by Jethro Tull, *Diderot Encyclopedie*, Paris 1751–80

Tull's horse-drawn device cut furrows, deposited seeds through hollow tubes and then smoothed the soil over with a harrow attached to its rear. This not only made sowing much faster, it also assisted with weeding. This is because weeds growing next to crops planted in neat rows can be easily and efficiently dug up with a hoe without damaging the plants.

The threshing machine

Invented in 1784, Meikle's first threshing machine was about the size of a piano, and cereal stalks had to be fed into it by hand. The design was gradually improved, until the invention of the combine harvester, which travels through cereal crops, cutting stalks and separating grain at the same time.

The Swing Riots

The threshing machine's impact was so great it is credited with causing the Swing Riots of the 1830s. Whereas hundreds of workers used to be needed to thresh, cereal automation reduced that to a handful. Vast unemployment resulted and some of those unemployed formed into gangs who roamed the countryside and destroyed more than 100 threshing machines. Authorities responded by hanging nine rioters (hence 'Swing' Riots) and transporting 450 to Australia.

Fertiliser use

During the seventeenth century scientists came to understand how fertiliser helped plants grow. This led to the invention of more effective synthetic fertilisers, which combined naturally occurring substances such as sodium nitrate, phosphate and potash. English agricultural scientist John Lawes developed a phosphate-rich substance, which he called 'superphosphate'. Superphosphate became the first commercially available fertiliser in the world in 1842.

A turning point

Historians estimate that in 1720, a typical British farm yielded 19 bushels of wheat per acre (a bushel of wheat weighs just over 27 kilograms), and that by 1850 this had risen to 30 bushels. Increases in yield were essential to support a population that grew from nearly nine million in 1800 to nearly seventeen million in 1851.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Why do many historians regard the enclosure of common land as the start of the Industrial Revolution?
2 What is superphosphate, and why was it important to the agricultural revolution in Britain?

Applying and analysing

3 Write a concise essay that identifies and discusses key changes over time in Britain as a result of the agricultural revolution.
4 Study Source 2.1.1 and describe the changes in population density.

UNIT 2.2

The beginning of the Industrial Revolution

King coal

For thousands of years wood provided the energy needed for Britain's homes and workshops. But by the 1700s forests were shrinking, meaning wood had to carried even further to where it was needed. Coal, which produces three times as much energy as wood when burned, had been used as a fuel by humans since prehistory. But it was not widely used because it was hard to dig out of the ground.

> *Among the materials that are dug because they are useful.*

Source 2.2.1 Ancient Greek scientist Theophrastus describing coal

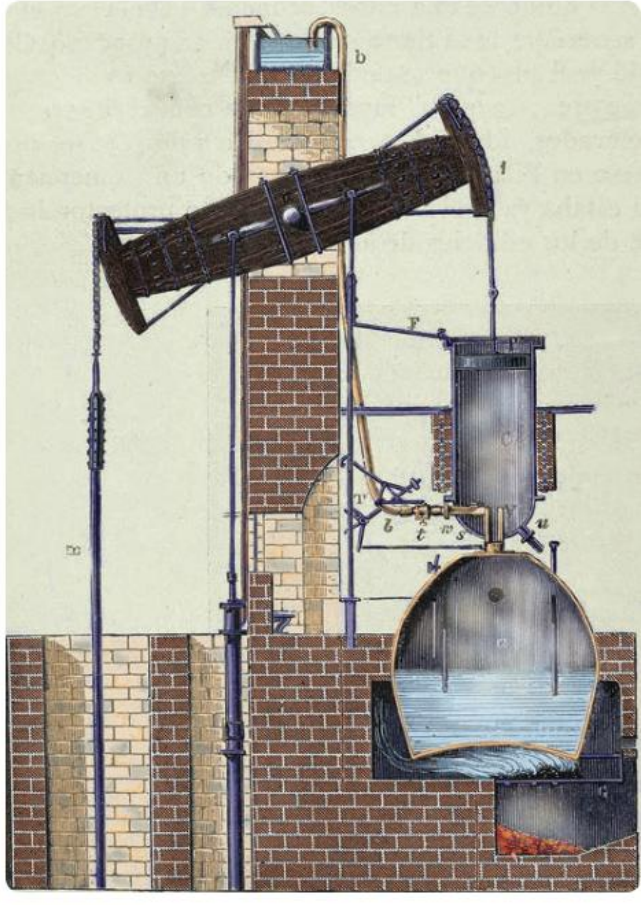
Horse versus steam

By the early 1700s, horse-powered pumps were draining groundwater from mine shafts up to about 30 metres deep, but beyond that the inflow of groundwater was too much for pumps to handle. The first commercially viable **steam engine**, invented by Thomas Newcomen in 1712, did the work of twenty horses and could pump water from hundreds of metres underground (see Source 2.2.2), which meant the output of coal mines rapidly increased. The engine enabled coal to be mined from much deeper underground, providing a plentiful and cheap energy source.

In Britain coal was plentiful and close to the sea where it could be moved to cities by boat (then the most efficient form of transport). By 1790, Scottish inventor James Watt's steam engine had replaced the older Newcomen engine. Due to an apparently inexhaustible supply of cheap energy, Britain was ready to lead the world into the Industrial Age.

Power from ideas

The century leading up to the Industrial Revolution was known as the Age of Reason, or the Enlightenment. During that time many vital scientific discoveries were made. For example, Isaac Newton found out how gravity worked and Robert Boyle identified the physical properties of air and gas. But more than just individual discoveries, this period produced the idea of progress. The Enlightenment was a time when society started to question religious explanations for the world and increasingly believed that the world was controlled by human will and reason.



Source 2.2.2 The atmospheric steam engine, invented by Thomas Newcomen in 1712

Freedom to make money

At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, Britain was a more liberal and democratic society than most of Europe. The British were relatively free to think and do what they wanted compared to people in countries still dominated by dictatorial monarchs or conservative churches. This extended to the freedom to become an entrepreneur, which is to set up a business with the aim of becoming rich.

Two men who took advantage of this situation were Matthew Boulton, who owned an engineering works in Birmingham, and a self-taught Scottish scientist named James Watt. Together they formed Boulton & Watt, which built increasingly efficient steam engines. Initially, Boulton & Watt supplied the coal-mining industry. But as other entrepreneurs saw the opportunities this new power-source presented, steam power spread into industries such as distilling, flour making, paper manufacturing, and cotton and iron mills, massively increasing the output of each.

Power from the people

These new industries needed a cheap labour force, and Britain had a surplus of workers due to the trend towards the enclosure of formerly common land. In late medieval times, farming peasants had cultivated small strips of land that they owned, and shared large areas of common land with other farmers for activities such as grazing. But from the 1500s, in a drive for efficiency, this system was replaced. Common land was fenced off by rich landowners and worked for their personal benefit. Many farming peasants could not survive on the land they owned and were forced to find new sources of income. Many left their farms to find jobs in the new industries.

Enclosure, for better or worse

Some historians have argued that the enclosure process, which was supported by Acts of Parliament, was little more than on-going theft from villagers by wealthy landowners. Others have argued that Parliament's enclosure acts had little impact due to the fact there had been land closures happening for centuries before. The trend towards individual ownership of land was inevitable because it was more productive. Enclosure produced a large number of former farmers, who converged on the cities and the emerging factories seeking work.

'But I do not think that this necessity of stealing arises only from hence; there is another cause of it, more peculiar to England.' 'What is that?' said the Cardinal: 'The increase of pasture,' said I, 'by which your sheep, which are naturally mild, and easily kept in order, may be said now to devour men and unpeople, not only villages, but towns; for wherever it is found that the sheep of any soil yield a softer and richer wool than ordinary, there the nobility and gentry, and even those holy men, the abbots not contented with the old rents which their farms yielded, nor thinking it enough that they, living at their ease, do no good to the public, resolve to do it hurt instead of good. They stop the course of agriculture, destroying houses and towns, reserving only the churches, and enclose grounds that they may lodge their sheep in them.'

Source 2.2.3 Sir Thomas More describes the early impact of land enclosure in *Utopia*, published in 1516

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

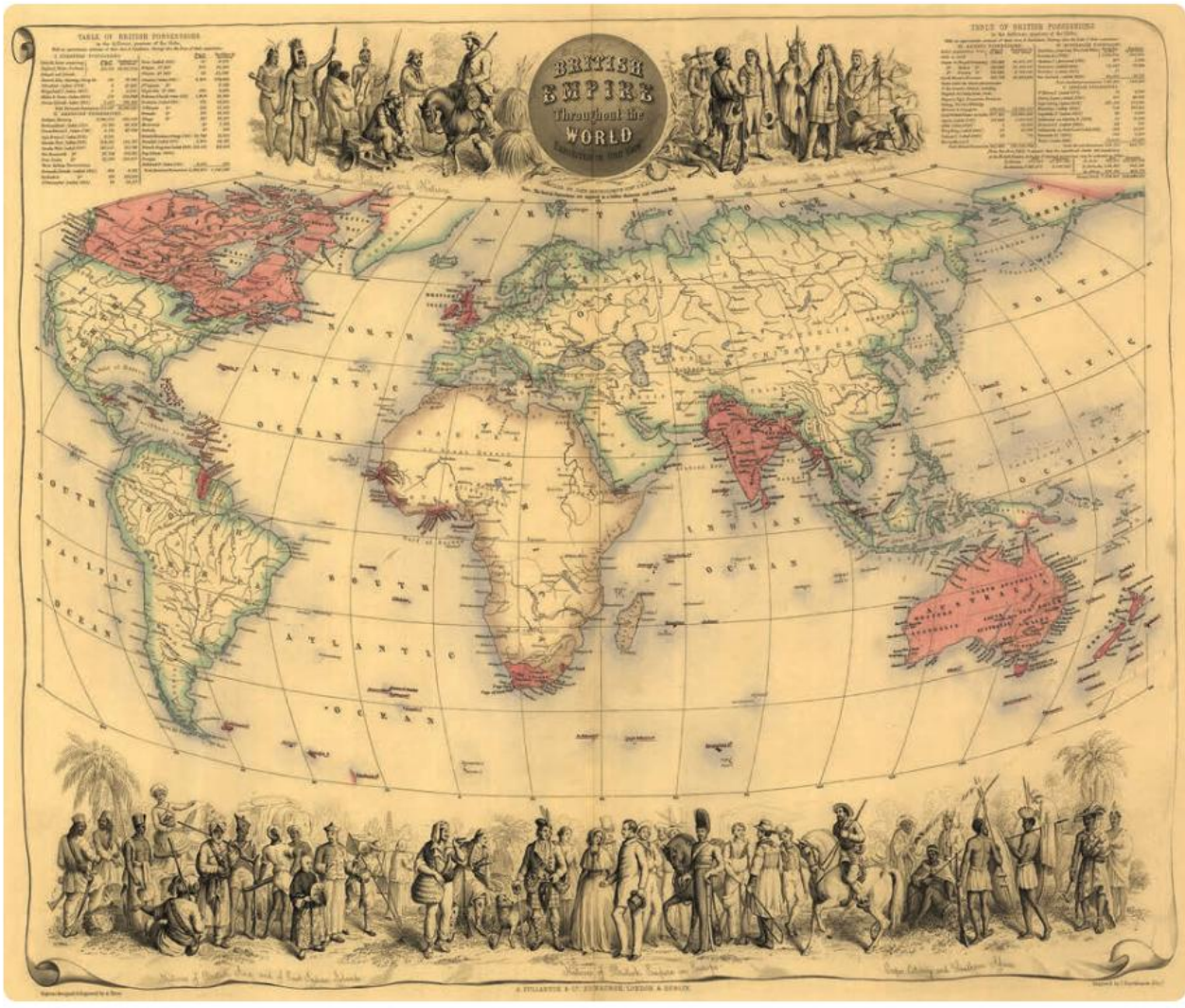
1 In a paragraph, identify two reasons why coal was not used as a major energy source until the Industrial Revolution.
2 Summarise why entrepreneurs were important to the Industrial Revolution.

Applying and analysing

3 In an extended paragraph, appraise the following statement: Ideas were as important as technology in bringing about the Industrial Revolution.
4 **a** Demonstrate how the land enclosure act created a cheap labour force.
b The benefits of land enclosure outweighed the negatives.

UNIT 2.3

The British Empire and raw materials



Source 2.3.1 An 1850 map celebrating the British Empire—marked in pink—and its diverse peoples

Sea strength

During the Industrial Revolution, Britain's growing empire, shown in Source 2.3.1, fed industry with materials and new markets. In return, industry gave the Empire the technologies it required to navigate, exploit and conquer a large portion of the world. The result was the largest free trade area in the world, serviced by a commercial shipping fleet that grew from 3300 vessels in 1702 to 9400 in 1776.

This commercial shipping fleet brought goods and foods flooding into Britain, and fed the further growth of industry and the British population—from six million people in 1760 to nine million people in 1801. In turn, increasing economic dependence on imports and exports between Britain and its colonies necessitated the building of an ever-more-powerful navy to protect Britain's colonial possessions and the shipping lanes to and from them.

Source 2.3.2 Slaves cut ripe sugar cane in the British colony of Antigua in the West Indies, in a painting by William Clark, 1823

Sugar rush

In 1640, British settlers on the Caribbean island of Barbados, having failed in their attempts to grow cotton or tobacco, found sugar cane springing up in its place. Sugar cane was required to make sugar and only grew in the tropics, so a huge enterprise developed to feed Europe's insatiable appetite for sweetened foods. The labour needed to grow such large amounts of cane soon outstripped the available population. In response to the labour shortage, unscrupulous traders started shipping in slaves from Africa—in total, about six million over 100 years. The result, along with death and misery for the slaves, was a British monopoly on sugar that lasted a century (see Sources 2.3.2 and 2.3.3).

Source 2.3.3 A monument by artist Clara Sornas in the former slave market in Stonetown, Zanzibar, Africa. Here African prisoners were sold to slave traders from Britain and other nations.

Source 2.3.4 In a cartoon from 1798, Napoleon Bonaparte wrestles with a British sailor, a 'Jack Tar', for world domination.

Britain and France at war

During the Napoleonic Wars (1803–1815), the British Royal Navy blocked French trade with the Caribbean and France's sugar supplies ran low. In response, French ruler Napoleon Bonaparte poured resources into a new method of making sugar, using sugar beet, which could grow in Europe. This eventually led to a sugar beet industry that produced sugar more and more cheaply. As a result, by 1850 the price of sugar had fallen so low in Europe that ordinary people could afford it for the first time.

A world-wide marketplace

By 1815, Britain had the most powerful empire in the world. The Royal Navy protected trade routes that enriched Britain and generated taxes, which in turn helped pay for an even bigger navy. Imports included sugar from the West Indies, tobacco from North America, spices from India and tea from China. Merchants were able to invest in this trade with minimal government interference, producing three main effects:

- spectacular economic growth
- fortunes for lucky investors
- slavery and human suffering.

Consequences

In Britain, children and adults of the Industrial Revolution worked in factories for very low wages that left them living in malnutrition and squalor. The even less fortunate slaves died in droves in America and the Caribbean harvesting sugar and tobacco, which was carried back to Britain for massive profits.

The violent history of tea

An imbalance of trade

By 1800, the British were importing nearly 6 million tonnes of tea a year from China, but paying heavily for it because the Chinese wanted silver rather than goods in exchange. Pottery, woollen apparel and scientific instruments were offered for trade but declined by Emperor Qian Long. Over a period of fifty years, Britain paid 27 million pounds sterling to the Chinese, and sold just 9 million pounds sterling of British products back to the Chinese. The British needed to find a product the Chinese wanted and reverse the trade imbalance.

> *We possess all things and of the highest quality [and] I set no value on strange and useless objects.*

Source 2.3.5 Emperor Qian Long in a letter to King George III

The British solution

The solution was to import the addictive drug opium that was harvested from poppies and import it to China. The British had a ready supply of opium from the recently conquered Indian Bengal. There were willing British businessmen ready to be part of the opium trade, such as William Jardine and James Matheson, who set up a trading company named Jardine, Matheson & Co in 1832.

Emperor Yongzheng had banned the sale and smoking of opium in China in 1729 but demand for the drug remained. Jardine and Matheson, as well as other British traders, set out to exploit that demand. British authorities did nothing to stop British entrepreneurs in the opium trade, because taxes on the traders' profits raised millions of pounds for the British treasury. The Chinese government was not happy with this arrangement. In 1839, Emperor Daoguang declared a war on drugs and had his soldiers raid warehouses operated by British traders, confiscating approximately 20 000 chests of opium.

First Opium War

The British entrepreneurs were outraged when they learned that their opium had been seized. In response, William Jardine sailed to London and lobbied the then Foreign Secretary, Lord Palmerston, who saw China's actions as a threat to Britain's balance of payments. The Royal Navy was mobilised to aid the opium

traders, arriving at the Pearl River Delta in June 1840 with a fleet of sixteen warships. Opposing them was a far larger Chinese fleet, but the British were equipped with a new ship made of iron, the *Nemesis*, which could fire exploding rockets up to 2 kilometres. The Chinese with their sailing junks and traditional canons were wiped out, with the battle and subsequent bombardments estimated to have cost 25 000 Chinese lives at the expense of sixty-nine British sailors lost (see Source 2.3.6).

Unequal treaty

In 1842, the Chinese signed a treaty with Britain in which they opened five ports to foreign trade, paid compensation for money lost to the opium traders during the war, and gave the port of Hong Kong to Britain for the following 155 years. It was a humiliation that China has not forgotten.

> ***Textbooks from elementary school, to middle school to high school, to university highlight the wrong doings of the so-called imperialists. We have become part of what they call the Patriotic Education Programme, to educate Chinese youths like me so that we remember what you have done to us.***

Source 2.3.7 Dr Zheng Yangwen, University of Manchester, talking about Chinese youth being educated about the impact of Britain's imperialism on China

Source 2.3.6 The *Nemesis* destroying Chinese Junks, Edward Duncan, 1843

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why did Britain require an increasingly powerful navy in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries?
2. Using information from this unit, list six characteristics that support the claim that Britain's was the most powerful empire in the world by 1815.
3. Who were William Jardine and James Matheson?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Source 2.3.1. How is the relationship between the British and the populations they colonised or enslaved represented? Are these representations accurate and fair? Discuss.
5. Construct a storyboard that illustrates the sequence of events leading to war with the Chinese over opium.
6. Explain your understanding of the way Britain conducted itself in China during this time. What is your opinion of the fact that the Chinese still place emphasis on this period in their history?

UNIT 2.4

Inventions of the industrial age

Spinning wheels and shuttle looms

At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, cloth had been produced in almost the same way for hundreds of years. Small groups of people in their homes or in workshops used spinning wheels and looms to produce cloth. Spinning wheels created thread from cotton fibre or wool. The thread was then stretched over a loom and a shuttle (a pencil-like piece of wood) was used to weave the thread into cloth by hand. This process was labour intensive and time consuming.

The flying shuttle

In 1733, John Kay patented the flying shuttle. The flying shuttle was a loom that had a shuttle tugged along grooves by a cord. The shuttle shot back and forth in a fraction of the time it took to move the shuttle by hand. This meant that cloth could be woven much faster, and could be wider because the operator was not restricted by the width of their arms.

The spinning jenny

In 1764, James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny. This was a spinning wheel with eight smaller wheels instead of one, allowing the operator to spin eight threads at once.

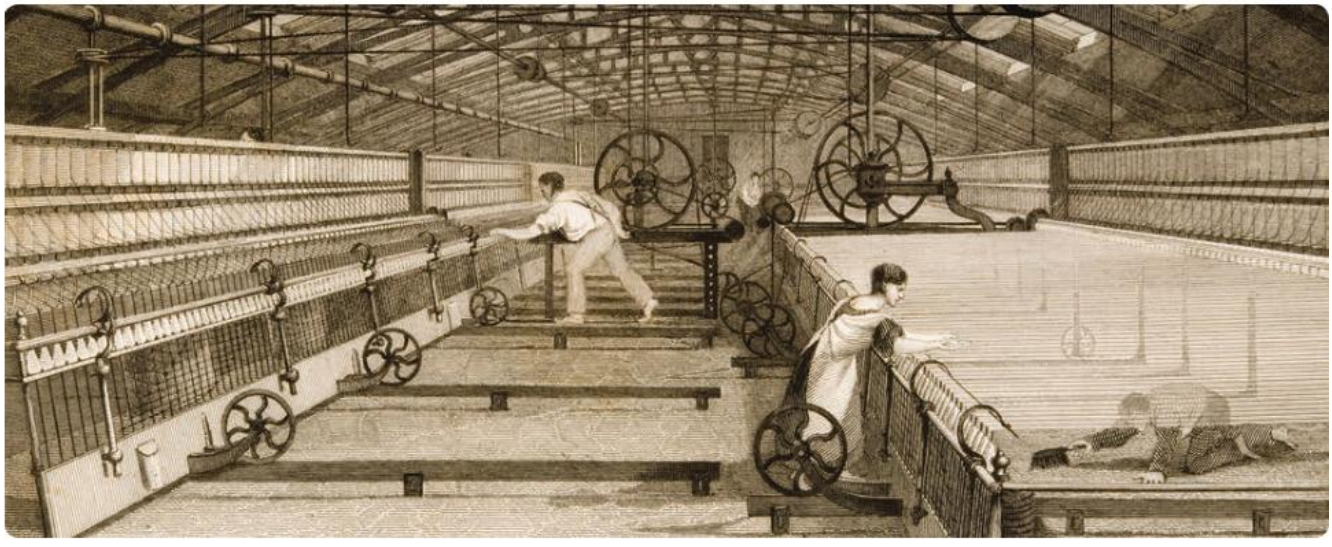
The first factory

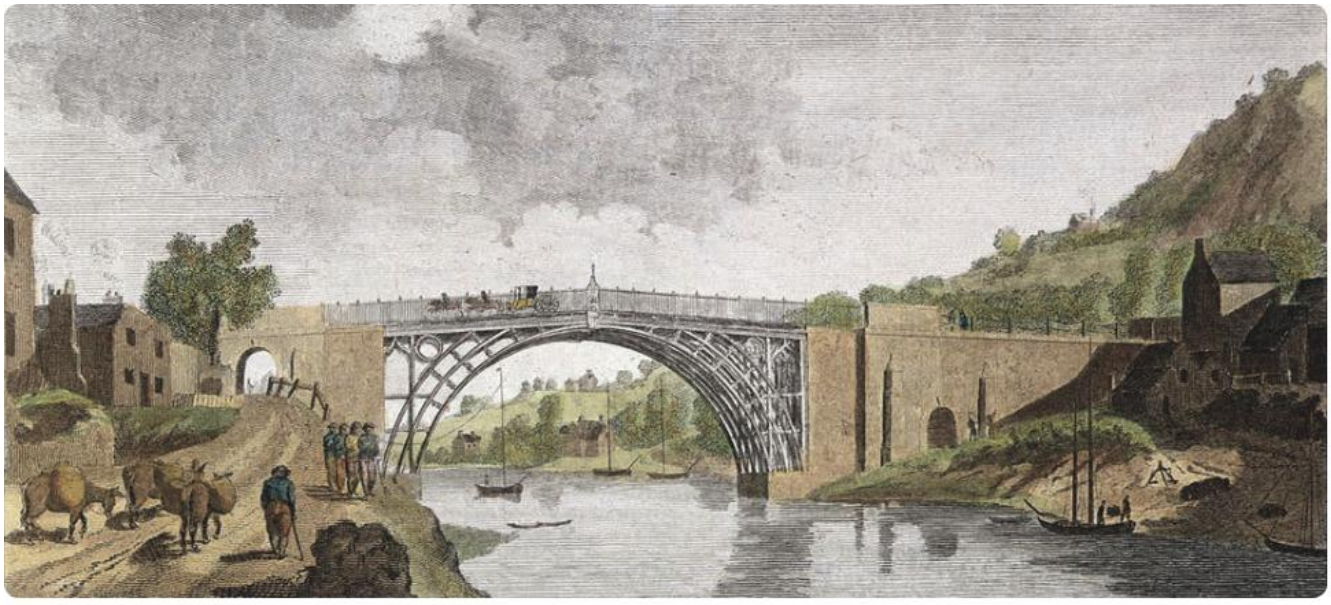
Richard Arkwright installed a water frame, a spinning machine powered by a water wheel, in a cotton mill in Cromford in 1771 (see Source 2.4.1). He then added weavers and their machines and created the world's first factory. Arkwright's cotton mill was also the first to introduce a continuous process. This means raw materials such as cotton or wool arriving at the factory and, after a series of operations, being turned into a product.

Metallurgy

Due to the widespread availability of coal, there were breakthroughs in metallurgy. Abraham Darby built the first blast furnace in Shropshire in 1709. This furnace produced coke, a concentrated form of coal. Coke enabled Darby to heat metals to higher temperatures than ever achieved before, and at a lower cost than by burning charcoal. This enabled him to produce a 'pig iron' that was then refined to make wrought iron and cast iron. This iron was used for pots and pans, steam engines and the famous Iron Bridge over the River Severn (shown in Source 2.4.2).

Source 2.4.1 Workers using Crompton's **spinning mule** at a cotton mill in the 1830s, in an engraving by J. Tingle





Source 2.4.2 The world's first iron bridge, built over the River Severn in 1881, Samuel Ireland, 'Picturesque Views of the River Severn', London, c. 1795

Steam

A steam-powered device was first described by the ancient Greek mathematician, Hero of Alexandria in the first century CE. But the first practical application of the idea had to wait until 1698, when Thomas Savery marketed a steam pump, which was used in water works and mines. Unfortunately, its power output was poor.

In 1712, Thomas Newcomen produced the world's first commercially successful steam pump. It was safer and more powerful, working at around five horsepower units compared to Savery's, and could pump water out of coal mines hundreds of metres deep, thus providing the Industrial Revolution with its main power source.

Watt's improvements

In 1778, Scottish engineer James Watt perfected a new engine design that was five times more efficient and used about 75 per cent less coal than Newcomen's steam pump. Watt went into partnership with ironworks owner Matthew Boulton to build and sell their new machine. Their partnership lasted twenty-five years and made both men rich, in part because of clever marketing. The machines, which were over 7 metres tall and had to be housed in a building, could be paid off in instalments over three years using money miners saved on the cost of coal.

The locomotive

Various people had the idea of using steam to power rail or road vehicles, but the size and weight of engines had made this impractical. In 1804, British inventor and mining engineer Richard Trevithick invented the locomotive that was built at an ironworks in South Wales and used on the world's first railway line. The first passenger railway opened in 1825, using a locomotive designed by George Stephenson. In 1829, Stephenson built his famous 'Rocket' locomotive, and in 1830 the Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why was the blast furnace a significant invention of the industrial age? Write a short paragraph answer giving at least two reasons.
2. Sketch a flow chart that includes the different steps in the development of steam pumps. Start with the Miner's Friend.

Applying and analysing

3. Create an annotated visual display showing the key development in textile production during the Industrial Revolution. Use main headings and subheadings to organise your ideas.
4. Construct a Y-chart that explores what the inventions of the industrial age would have sounded like, looked like and felt like. Make sure you cover all the inventions described in this unit, as well as inventions selected from other units in this chapter.

UNIT 2.5

Rise of the middle class

Progressive Britain

Although eighteenth-century Britain may seem harsh and unequal, compared to other nations at the time it was progressive. In Britain, there was the comparatively equal application of the law. It was considered most newsworthy when, in 1760, Lord Ferrers was hanged for murdering his servant.

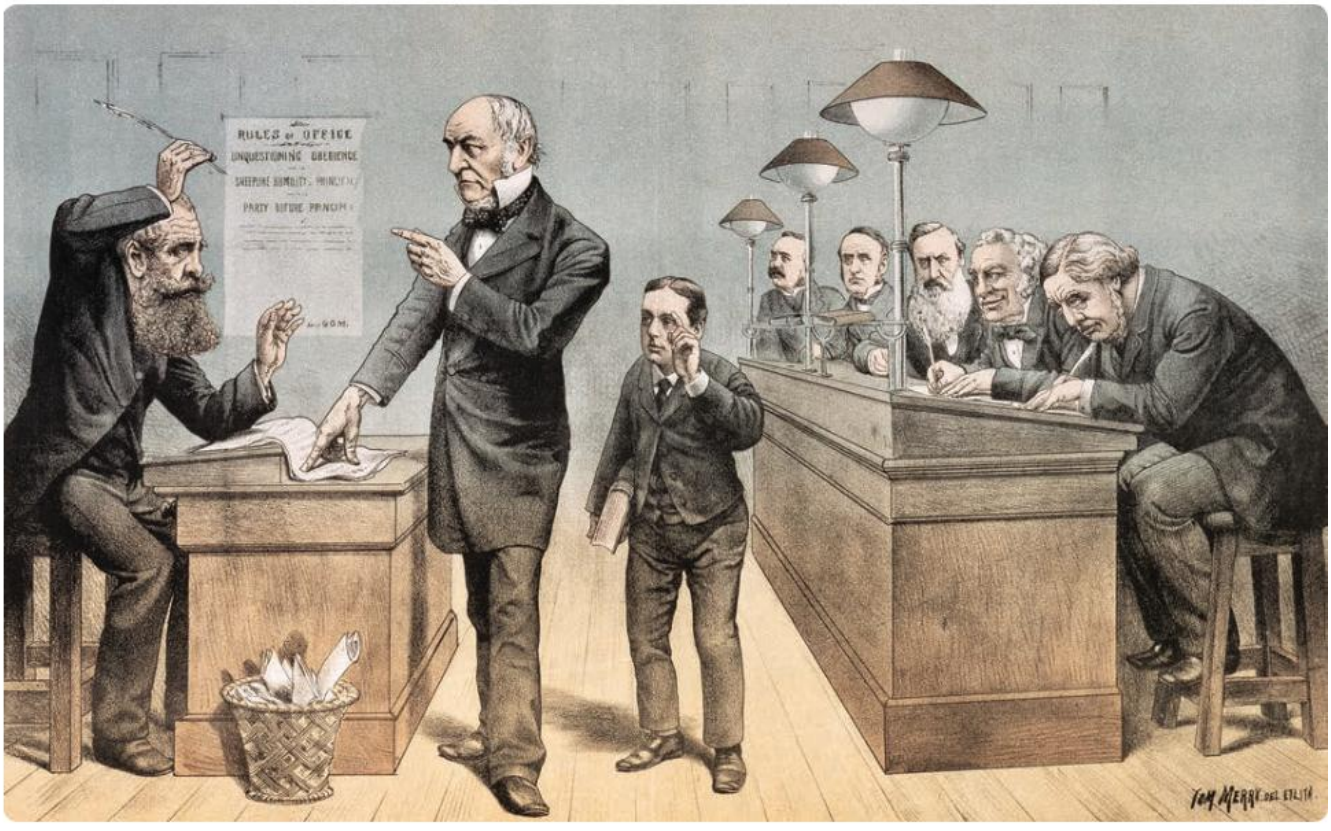
> *... astonished to discover that the tolls on the new turnpikes were paid regardless of rank and without remission for noblemen.*

Source 2.5.1 Pierre-Jean Grosley, Londres, 1770, translated by Thomas Nugent and published in 1772 under the title *A Tour to London; Or New Observations on England and its inhabitants*, by M. Grosle

A class in the middle

The rise of a middle class of people is one important development associated with the Industrial Revolution. A middle class is a group between the titled upper classes and mega-rich (who often used their wealth to buy titles and become part of the upper class), and the lower classes who were desperately poor. This middle class included shopkeepers, craftspeople, doctors, clerks and lawyers (see Source 2.5.2). What they had in common was marketable skills that won them a higher income than the lowest workers but, unlike the very rich or holders of inherited fortunes, they were dependent on others to buy their services so they could maintain their positions.

Source 2.5.2 Clerks, members of Britain's 'middling class', Tom Merry, 1 May 1886



A nation of shopkeepers

The rise of the middle class in Britain affected the character of the nation. Due to the middle class having to work for a living, they contributed new ideas to the debates on the issues of the time. The middle-class debates were often influenced by commercial interests. It is this outlook that Napoleon ridiculed when he allegedly described the English as 'a nation of shopkeepers'.

Law and order

Crime wave

Some of the factors that produced Britain's Industrial Revolution also led to the First Fleet setting sail for Botany Bay in 1787. The enclosure of common lands that drove families off their farms and into cities not only created workers to fill the factories, but also a number of people driven to crime by desperation. Prior to 1749, there was no official police force and authorities merely posted rewards for criminals. The hope was that acquaintances would report them. In this environment, fear of crime became widespread.

Harsh penalties, prison hulks and riots

The government's only available response was to increase penalties, so that relatively minor theft could be punished by transportation or death. The application of the death penalty for minor crimes was not very effective, however, because juries would not convict and judges would not condemn in any but the clearest cases.

So convicts piled up in stinking prison hulks, which were the de-masted remains of once-proud warships, tethered up in harbours and left to rot. Not only was this an expensive and unsightly solution, but also created fear among the middle and upper classes who were worried about a possible uprising by the desperate prisoners. This fear was fuelled by stories common at the time of factory workers rioting over feelings of dislocation and inequality. There were more than 100 riots over food prices in thirty British counties between 1756 and 1757, as well as violent industrial disputes. In one case, weavers near Bristol attacked a fellow weaver for 'working under price', dunked him in a river and beat him so severely he lost an eye.

> *Dear wife it dose not troble me to much Being Confined hear as Being parted from you and my dear Child Dear wife we are among a deal a differnd Soarts of peple But If I live to Serve my time oute as I trust In god I Shall you may depend upon it I Shall Returne to Ingland and then I hope we Shall Spend the Remander of our Days in this world in love and happyness togater.*

Source 2.5.3 Thomas Holden, who was sentenced to seven years' transportation for taking an illegal oath to fight for workers' rights, writing to his wife from the ship that would take him to Australia

DID YOU KNOW?

One benefit of the scientific fervour of the time was that nutrition was better understood. By the time the First Fleet sailed in 1787 scurvy—a disease resulting from lack of vitamin C, which causes delirium and bleeding gums—had almost been eliminated, and shipboard diet improved to the extent that, in general, when the 'human cargo' of the First Fleet arrived in Sydney in 1788 they were in better shape than when they left England.

Source 2.5.4 A case of scurvy recorded by Henry Walsh Mahon from his time aboard the convict ship *Barrosa*, 1841, The National Archives, United Kingdom

Industrialisation in Australia

By the early nineteenth century, and under British rule, the young colony of New South Wales began to industrialise. In 1812, the colony's first **turnpike** or toll road was opened between Sydney and Parramatta, and in 1813 the first steam mill was established on Darling Harbour.

Traders from near and far

In 1813, the monopoly on trade to and from Australia, which had been held by the British East India Company, was abolished. Vessels belonging to many different companies and nations began trading through Australian ports, among them whaling ships from the United States. From 1842, after the first Opium War forced the Chinese to open up some of their ports to Western trade, shipping to Australia grew again, as clippers started making round-the-world trips between Europe, the United States, Australia and China.

The clipper

Clippers were sailing ships, sometimes with iron hulls, that they dominated the carrying of cargo and passengers between Australia and the rest of the world for most of the nineteenth century (see Source 2.5.5). In 1854, the clipper *Red Jacket* set records by sailing from New York to Melbourne in sixty-seven days, and then back to Liverpool in seventy-three days. In contrast, the fastest vessel of the First Fleet took 250 days to travel from Portsmouth to Sydney Cove, a roughly comparable distance.

A hybrid economy

Australia's economy remained overwhelmingly **pastoral** throughout the nineteenth century and nearly half the wool used in British mills by 1850 came from Australia. The technological and industrial infrastructure needed to transport, process and ship the products produced by Australia's farms and stations continued to grow.

Growth in mining

From the 1850s, mining also started to become an important industry. Coal had been dug up around Newcastle since the colony's early days, but output had been small. Coal production in Australia increased after the gold rush in California began in 1849. Newcastle's was the closest coal to the United States' west coast.

Source 2.5.5 A bustling Circular Quay in Sydney in the 1880s, Australian National Maritime Museum

Source 2.5.6 Sheep Station Point, River Turon gold fields NSW, W. L. Walton, published 1853, National Library of Australia

A golden future

By the time of the Industrial Revolution's commonly agreed end, around 1850, Australia was well on the way to becoming an urbanised and industrialised society. But rather than slowing down, population and infrastructure building exploded from 1851, with the start of the Victorian and New South Wales gold rushes.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Identify an aspect of British society that led visitors to conclude that Britain was a progressive society.
2. Sketch a social pyramid that represents the class structure of Britain at the time of the Industrial Revolution. Annotate your pyramid with key facts about the different groups.
3. How did the authorities respond to the increasing fear of crime, and what were the consequences of their policies in both the short and long term?

Applying and analysing

4. In an extended paragraph, describe the outlook and mentality of the up-and-coming middle classes and explain how this affected the course of Britain's development.
5. Study Source 2.5.5. Describe the scene observed in Sydney.
6. In a short essay, evaluate the role of the Industrial Revolution in the settlement and transformation of Australia.

UNIT 2.6

Impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Building roads

The state of the roads

Before the Industrial Revolution the roads of early Georgian England were considered a national disgrace. The poor state of the roads was clearly an obstacle to growing commerce. For example, the 5-kilometre long road between central London and one of its suburbs, Kensington, was reckoned to be impassable due to the amount of mud.

> *'... deep Ruts full of water with hard dry Ridges [in winter, roads were full of mud] 'which rises, spues and squeezes into the Ditches'.*

Source 2.6.1 From 'England and the English in the eighteenth century', The Social History of the Times, 1891, William Connor, Sydney

DID YOU KNOW?

When the King of Spain visited England in 1703, a 60-kilometre journey through the countryside took him and his retinue forty hours, during which they did not get out of their coaches except when they overturned or got stuck in the mud.

The Turnpike Act

A major factor in the transformation of Britain's roads was the Turnpike Act of 1707. The Turnpike Act enabled residents to maintain roads running through their districts by erecting gates made of metal bars or 'pikes' and charging strangers who travelled through them. But improvement was gradual. Some travellers complained that they were charged on roads that had not been properly repaired. Anger at the Turnpike Act is shown in Source 2.6.2. However, by 1770 the turnpikes offered a genuinely national network of relatively efficient transport. In the 1720s the major provincial cities of Manchester, York and Exeter were over three days' journey from London, but by 1780

Source 2.6.2 The Welsh rebelled against paying turnpike tolls during the so-called Rebecca Riots of 1839–1843. John Leech, published 1843

they could be reached in twenty-four hours, making it easier for goods and people to travel between cities. This resulted in an expansion of trade.

Hunger and malnutrition

For centuries chronic hunger and malnutrition were the norm for average people. Until 1750, life expectancy in Britain was about thirty-five years, mainly due to malnutrition. At the same time, the better-fed citizens of the American colonies were much taller and had a life expectancy of forty-five to fifty years.

Source 2.6.3 A representation of the poor of Whitechapel, displaced by the Industrial Revolution, Gustave Doré, 1872

The Malthusian Trap

It took the British scholar Reverend Thomas Malthus to identify the pattern that had limited the growth of nations for centuries, which became known as the Malthusian Trap. As soon as a nation produced a surplus of food, the population would grow until it used up the available supply. Then, as soon as a bad crop or some other disaster occurred, people would starve and the population would decline.

Breaking free

During the course of the Industrialisation Revolution, Britain broke out of the Malthusian Trap. Better transport by road and canal enabled farm produce to be carried to markets in greater amounts and more cheaply. And famine was reduced because localised crop failures were alleviated by food transported in from further afield. The advent of the railways, in the 1830s, increased the efficiency of transport still further, to the extent that in highly developed nations today—for the time being at least—famine is a thing of the past.

Inequality

An unintended outcome of people's ability to travel with greater ease was that they saw more of the nation they lived in, and heard from others who travelled, which made worrying comparisons of rich and poor even more obvious.

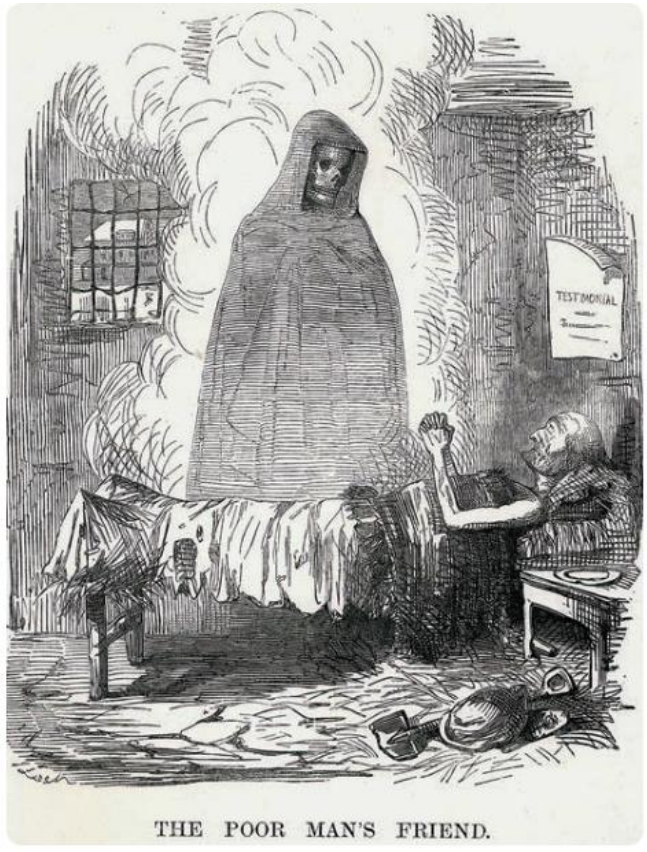
'God's own appointment'

For centuries inequality between classes of people had been accepted as—in the words of one clergyman—'God's own appointment'. Each group in society had their place and it was God's will. It was the role of poor people to be physical labourers, and work in the farms, mines and factories.

But such attitudes became less accepted as the Industrial Revolution saw the gap between rich and poor grow increasingly wide. Successful entrepreneurs were making fortunes and the middle classes could barter their skills for decent salaries. Many farmers, however, were left starving as a result of land enclosures, and craftspeople suffered too, when they were made redundant by machines (see Source 2.6.4).

Poverty

Many people who were not living in poverty believed the problems of the poor were not caused by lack of a proper income but by vice, drunkenness, gambling and excessive sexual indulgence. And it followed from this belief that workers should not be paid more because, as the Scottish physician George Fordyce



Source 2.6.4 This cartoon suggests that death would be preferable for an ill or aged worker, compared to the workhouses of the Industrial Revolution. Cartoon, John Leech, *Punch*, London, February 1845

wrote, they would merely spend it drinking. According to Fordyce, workers who had spare money would spend it on alcohol, while the women did not behave like proper ladies. The views of Fordyce and others like him were challenged by many, including the campaigning cleric John Wesley.

> *... that in a town's backstreets he found poor folk half starved with cold and hunger, but not one of them unemployed who was able to crawl about the room. So wickedly, so devilishly false is that common objection: They are poor because they are idle.*

Source 2.6.5 John Wesley writing in 1753

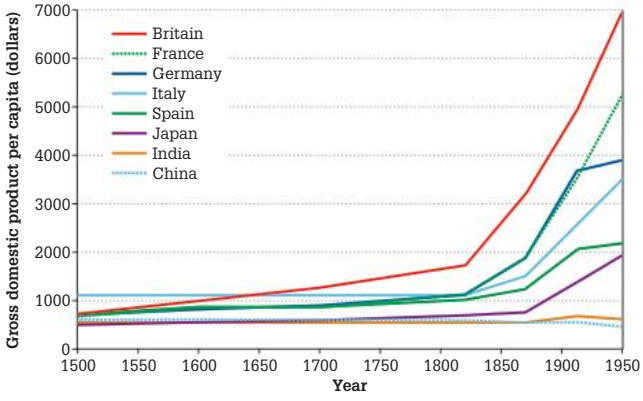
Economic growth

Today, when highly developed economies grow at about 2 per cent per year, and the powerhouse economies of India and China at more than 5 per cent

per year, it might be surprising to learn that Britain's economy grew by only 0.5 per cent per year or less during the Industrial Revolution (see Source 2.6.6).

What seems like a low growth figure, however, must be compared with what went before it. According to the University of California economist Gregory Clark, before 1760 the average rate of economic growth was very close to zero. For example, he estimates economic growth between 1000 and 1500 at about 0.02 per cent per year, and economic growth between 1500 and 1750 at about 0.045 per cent per year.

A growth rate in Britain of just under 0.5 per cent between 1760 and 1860 therefore meant wages, allowing for inflation, rose by 55 per cent. While this may not be a large pay rise, it was an increase significant enough to mark the period of the Industrial Revolution as a unique time for the world economy.



Source 2.6.6 This graph shows the gross domestic product per capita of Britain and some European and Asian nations between 1500 and 1950.

Source 2.6.7 Trade unionists in modern Britain display traditional union banners during a demonstration, London, 1992

Trade Unions

When entrepreneurs such as Richard Arkwright brought textile-making machines together in a single building and made employees work together for specified shifts, they did it to increase efficiency and make more money. But this had an unintended outcome. Employees were able to organise themselves to improve their working conditions more easily than when they worked in their own homes. Employees realised that if all or most of them stopped working at the same time—what is known a strike—they could stop a factory from operating.

Unions of workers, known as trade unions, were formed. These were organisations whose membership consisted of workers and union leaders, united to protect and promote their common interests. Being a member of a trade union allowed members to negotiate with employers with one powerful voice. Many employers were forced to pay their workers more Trade Unions are still working to protect workers rights today, as shown in Source 2.6.7.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. In your own words, explain the Malthusian Trap.
2. What did the Bishop of Thetford mean when he said that the poor were 'the Hands and Feet of the Body Politick'?

Applying and analysing

3. Examine Source 2.6.2. How did the Welsh view the turnpikes? Answer in an extended paragraph, with direct reference to the source.
4. Examine Source 2.6.4. What does the illustrator include in this representation to help us to understand the plight of this worker? Identify four things and explain their significance.
5. Construct a PMI (plus, minus, interesting) to contrast the different attitudes to the poor and beliefs about poverty communicated in this unit. Write down positive attitudes or beliefs, negative attitudes or beliefs and other interesting information.
6. Examine Source 2.6.6.
   a. What evidence does it provide that Britain led the Industrial Revolution?
   b. What evidence does it provide about the impact of the Industrial revolution worldwide?

Source Study

UNIT 2.7

Working conditions

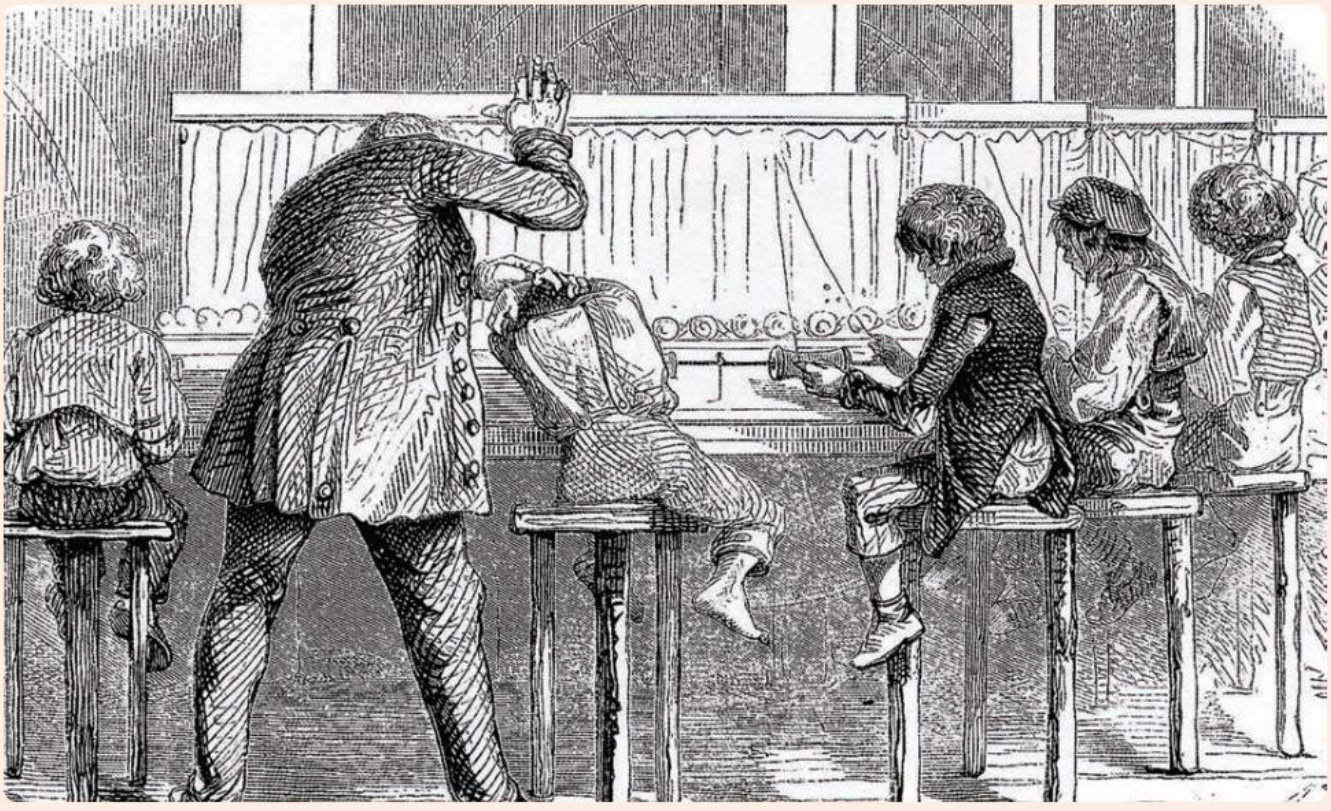
Working families

Before the Industrial Revolution, most families lived in rural villages, farming small plots of land or plying trades such as carpentry or blacksmithing. Their children learned the skills they would need by watching and helping their parents in their work. But because of a number of factors, many farming families were forced off their land, while factories, mines and mills sprang up offering desperately needed work.

Starting as young as 5 years of age (although the average was around 10), children would work alongside their mothers in coal, lead and tin mines, breaking, sorting and washing ore and transporting it to the surface. The women and children were paid less than the men who did the digging. Overall wages were so low that families needed the combined wages of husband, wife and children just to survive.

DID YOU KNOW?

In the books of the famous British academic and author J. R. R. Tolkien, the hobbits' shire is intended as a celebration of English life before industrialisation. The character, Saruman represents technology and modernity. When he starts ripping up trees and replacing them with mining pits and smoky forges, Saruman turns away from the 'good' side.



Source 2.7.1 Children working on bobbins (spindles or cylinders around which yarn or thread is wound) in London, from an engraving in an 1848 issue of the French magazine *Les Musée des Familles* (Museum of Families)

Source 2.7.2 A 'trapper' in a nineteenth-century Lancashire coal mine, from the *Cyclopaedia of Useful Arts and Manufactures* by Charles Tomlinson. A trapper was a child who would crouch in a mine tunnel and open trapdoors to allow coal carts to pass through.

Child labour

Children worked twelve to sixteen hours each day. It was reported that some five-year-olds were taken away from their homes by mill-owners who lodged them in crowded sheds near the factory gates and kept them at work for as long as they could stay awake.

The life of a chimney sweep

Work was very dangerous, especially for chimney sweeps. The parents of these boys had to pay their employer to take them on as apprentices, but so many of the boys died that laws were passed to ensure that employers did not receive their final instalments until after the boys had finished their apprenticeships. The final payment was considered to be an incentive for employers to keep their sweeps alive.

Still, many died—most commonly from cancer of the scrotum (caused by coal dust collecting in the folds of their skin), burning and suffocation. It was also common for boys to get stuck in chimneys, despite their employer's policy of feeding them as little as possible to keep them thin.

Physical deformities

Many children suffered lifelong injuries due to their working conditions. Long hours standing up and repetitive work crippled bodies. Also, most machinery in cotton mills did not have safety guards and children would lose a hand crushed by machines or hair could become caught and scalps ripped off.

Human cost

Beyond the death of each child worker was a lifetime of grieving for parents and siblings. Children often died young and parents suffered their loss for the rest of their lives.

> *Up to twelve or thirteen years of age, the bones are so soft that they will bend in any direction. The foot is formed of an arch of bones of a wedge-like shape. These arches have to sustain the whole weight of the body. I am now frequently in the habit of seeing cases in which this arch has given way. Long continued standing has also a very injurious effect upon the ankles. But the principal effects which I have seen produced in this way have been upon the knees. By long continued standing the knees become so weak that they turn inwards, producing that deformity which is called knock-knees and I have sometimes seen it so striking, that the individual has actually lost twelve inches of his height by it.*

Source 2.7.3 Dr Samuel Smith gave evidence to the 1832 Parliamentary committee into child labour. The committee was chaired by Michael Sadler who had earlier attempted to introduce a Bill regulating mill working conditions.

Opposition

The British government did nothing to make workers' lives better. Instead they passed the Combination Acts of 1799 and 1780. Offenders could be punished by three months in prison.

> *The master is 'naturally tempted to by his Situation to be proud and over-bearing, to consider his People as the Scum of the Earth, whom he has a right to squeeze whenever he can; because they ought to be kept low, and not to rise up in Competition with their Superiors'. While workers were led to think 'it no crime to get as much Wages, and to do as little for it as they possibly can, to lie and cheat, and do any other bad Thing; provided it is only against their Master, whom they look upon as their common Enemy'.*

Source 2.7.4 Measures like the Combination Acts were criticised by the Welsh economist, political writer and churchman Reverend Josiah Tucker from the viewpoint of both worker and employer.

Regulation for women and children

Eventually, the British parliament passed laws to regulate child labour, starting with the Cotton Factories Regulation Act of 1819, which set the minimum working age at 9 and the maximum working hours at twelve per day. But these restrictions were easily evaded because there were no inspectors to see that they were enforced. In 1883, the Regulation of Child Labour Law was changed to create paid factory inspectors, and in 1847 the Ten Hours Bill limited working hours for women and children to ten hours per day.

Dangers of the job for adult men

> *Some I have seen with red eyes and green hair; the eyes affected by the fires to which they are exposed, and the hair turned green by the brass works.*

Source 2.7.5 Writer Robert Southby observed workers in a metal foundry, Birmingham

It would be a lot longer before men's hours and conditions improved. Coal miners worked such long hours in increasingly deep pits that rather than go home and clean up before sleeping, some slept as well as worked underground. Some men fell ill with fatality-causing black lung disease (pneumoconiosis), caused by coal dust irritating their lungs. Miners risked sudden death each day from explosions or the collapse of pit props. (Often pit props were a luxury, and coal was piled up in columns to stop roofs from caving in.)

Machines under attack

Many workers resented the fact that machines were transforming their lives. Cloth workers and knitters were skilled tradesmen who took pride in their work and jealously guarded the traditional privileges of belonging to their own guilds to which their expertise entitled them. In the 1750s, spinners attacked machines known as jennies, in the 1770s hosiers smashed Arkwright's stocking frames, and in 1776 a mob of armed rioters destroyed machinery and set fire to a factory.

After the passing of a new set of Combination Acts in 1800, opposition became more organised and what became known as Luddism erupted.

WHEREAS,

Several EVIL-MINDED PERSONS have assembled together in a riotous Manner, and DESTROYED a NUMBER of

FRAMES,

In different Parts of the Country:

THIS IS

TO GIVE NOTICE,

That any Person who will give Information of any Person or Persons thus wickedly

BREAKING THE FRAMES,

Shall, upon CONVICTION, receive

50 GUINEAS

REWARD.

And any Person who was actively engaged in RIOTING, who will impeach his Accomplices, shall, upon CONVICTION, receive the same Reward, and every Effort made to procure his Pardon.

☞ Information to be given to Messrs. COLDHAM and ENFIELD.

Nottingham, March 26, 1811.

Source 2.7.6 Reward poster issued to encourage people to inform against Luddites in Nottinghamshire

The strange story of Ned Ludd

The man who would become the most celebrated and demonised character in England in the first decade of the 1800s is said to have been a simple fellow living in the village of Anstey, near Leicester. According to a 20 December 1811 article in *The Nottingham Review*—for which there is no independent verification—Ludd was either being 'whipped for idleness' or 'taunted by local youths' when he smashed two knitting frames in a 'fit of passion'. News of the incident, said to have happened around 1799, spread until it became common in the district to joke, whenever machinery was damaged: 'Ned Ludd did it'.

By 1811, opposition to poor wages and working conditions exploded in a series of attacks by groups of rioters in armed parties, who were directed by commanders regularly called General Ludd in the newspapers.

The name 'General Ludd' started appearing at the bottom of pamphlets, in letters threatening factory owners and in songs. Unsurprisingly, 'the dread name Ludd' was mentioned with fear at the dinner tables of the rich, while working men believed that to disobey an order given on its authority was to risk immediate death. Even nannies telling bedtime stories would keep children in line by telling them that otherwise 'Ned Ludd will get you!'

Luddites—good or bad?

Luddites did not smash all labour-saving machinery. A newspaper reported in 1811 that the rioters only smashed four out of six weaving machines; the two that were not smashed were owned by businesses that had not lowered wages. At a time when trade unionism was outlawed historian E. J. Hobsbawm said machine breaking could be seen as a way workers could demand better wages and conditions. Some Luddites resorted to murder. In April 1812, businessman William Horsfal, who had previously successfully fought off an attack on his mill, was shot near the town of Huddersfield.

> *As soon as he fell after being wounded, the inhuman populace surrounding him reproached him with having been the oppressor of the poor—they did not offer assistance—nor did any one attempt to pursue or secure the assassins who were seen to retire to an adjoining wood.*

Source 2.7.7 A report on the murder of William Horsfal, *Leeds Mercury*, April 1812

> *These men were willing to dig, but the spade was in other hands; they were not ashamed to beg, but there was none to relieve them. Their own means of subsistence were cut off; all other employments pre-occupied; and their excesses, however to be deplored and condemned, can hardly be the subject of surprise.*

Source 2.7.8 Among the most reasonable responses at the time came from the now famous poet Lord Byron delivering his maiden speech to the British Parliament on 27 February 1812.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

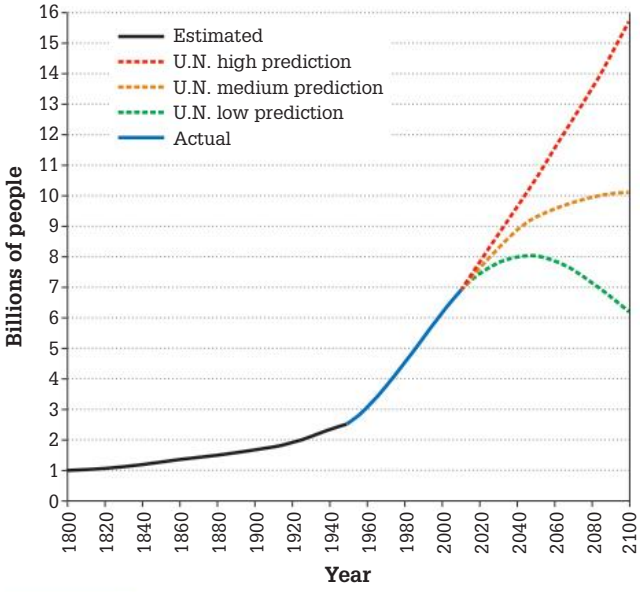
1. Identify at least four dangers associated with working in mines.
2. What was the purpose of the Combination Acts and how did ordinary workers respond?
3. Who was Ned Ludd? Was he General Ludd? Explain.

Applying and analysing

4. Construct a cartoon strip or storyboard of five or six frames to illustrate child labour during the Industrial Revolution. Make sure you cover both the physical and emotional/psychological aspects of children's lives.
5. Examine Source 2.7.6. In what ways does the design and wording of this poster encourage people to inform against Luddites in Nottinghamshire? Identify and discuss at least three ways.
6. Today, the term 'Luddite' has a negative connotation, meaning a person who fears technology and wants things to stay the same. Is this true to the spirit of Luddism? Express your view in an extended paragraph.

UNIT 2.8

Consequences of the Industrial Revolution



Source 2.8.1 World population and projected population from 1800 to 2100 based on United Nations' projections and US Census Bureau historical estimates

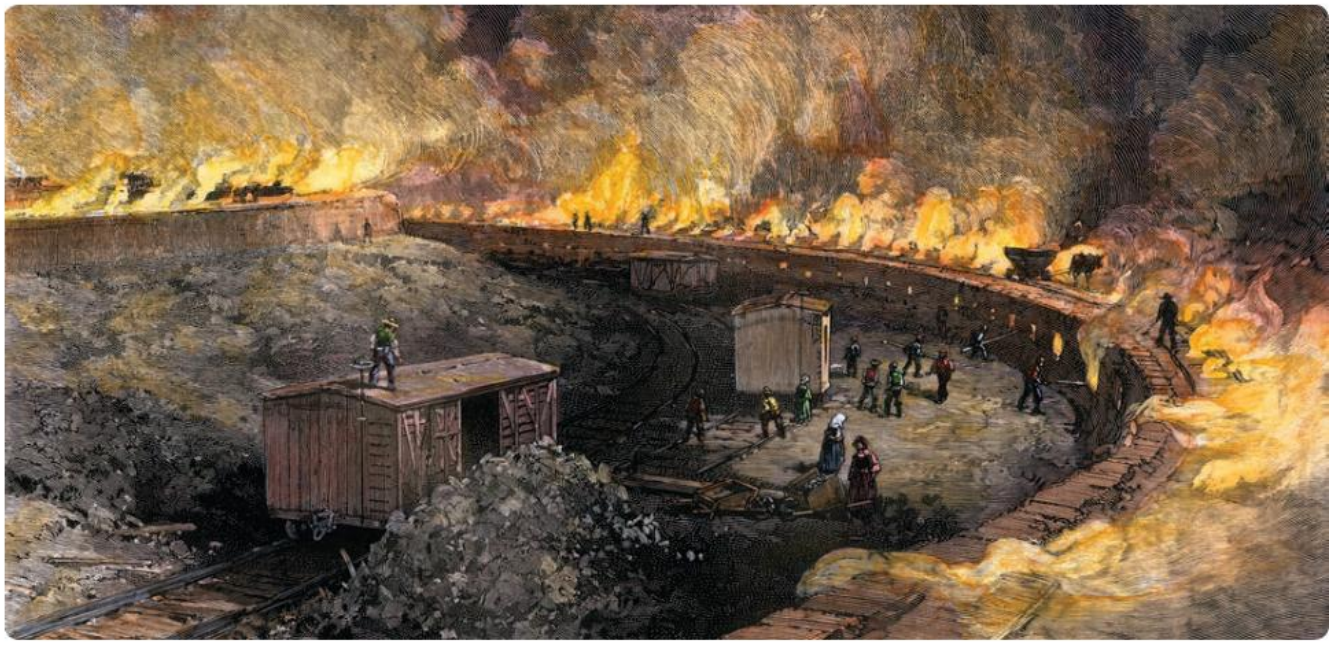
Source 2.8.2 Steel industry workers at the coke furnaces of Pennsylvania, United States in the 1880s

Population

Perhaps the most dramatic and lasting change caused by the Industrial Revolution was the explosion in the global population. Our species evolved some 200 000 years ago. By 0 CE, historians estimate that the worldwide human population was about 150 to 200 million people, rising to about 300 million by 1000.

During the next seven or eight centuries, population growth was around 0.1 per cent per year. By the mid-eighteenth century the world's population is estimated to have been between 700 and 800 million people, about six and a half million of whom lived in Britain.

By 1851, census figures show the British population had risen to 27 533 755—nearly a five-fold increase in 100 years. As more nations adopted the medical and industrial innovations of the industrial age, the world's population grew from about 1.3 billion in 1850 to today's figure of just over seven billion. As shown in Source 2.8.1, the numbers are expected to continue to rise until at least 2040.



The worst of times

As the world's population grew and work became more industrialised, cities expanded, resulting in crowding, poverty and disease. From the 1830s, these changes were the subject of lively public debate.

The view that tends to dominate today is the negative one due to the continuing popularity of the works of Charles Dickens, Romantic poets such as William Blake, who wrote of Britain's 'dark satanic mills',' and Mary Shelley, who wrote her 1818 novel *Frankenstein* as a warning about the dangers of the Scientific and Industrial Age.

Birth of socialism

The inequality between people produced by the Industrial Revolution was a major force in the creation of socialism, a political ideology that opposes a free market society and instead believes that wealth should be allocated according to people's needs. One of socialism's founders was Friedrich Engels, whose father sent him to Manchester in 1842 to work at a family-owned cotton mill. The 22-year-old Engels observed the lives of the city's workers and published *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1845. The book was highly critical of workers' living conditions. Engels argued that the quality of life and material well-being of rural workers was much better before the introduction of machinery and their move to towns to work in factories (see Source 2.8.2).

In 1848, Engels and Karl Marx published *The Communist Manifesto*, which united socialist political parties around the world in the belief that the free market economic system, as exemplified by Britain's Industrial Revolution, oppressed ordinary workers and was bound to collapse. *The Communist Manifesto* went on to influence the politician and political theorist Vladimir Lenin, who led the 1917 Bolshevik Revolution in Russia.

The best of times

Others, including historian Emma Griffin of the University of East Anglia, look beyond the image of nineteenth-century cities as depressing places—dark, crowded and full of disease where people died young. Griffin claims it is easy to forget that rural life at the time could be stifling where people lived in close proximity to their extended family, with their employer knowing everything they did during and after work. Cities not only offered work opportunities but cultural experiences.

When rural people arrived in the expanding cities their journals and letters often express isolation and loneliness, says historian Lawrence Goldman of the University of Oxford. But this feeling lessened as city dwellers developed new forms of community beyond the traditional family and village such as trade unions, friendly societies and the Methodist churches, which boomed in the early 1800s. Not everybody moved to—or stayed in—cities out of desperation. Large cities such as Manchester were exciting places where there was much happening.

The second Industrial Revolution

The second Industrial Revolution was a continuation of the first. It saw the industrial and economic processes pioneered by Britain spread to Western Europe, the United States and Japan. Its culmination came in the early twentieth century with the Ford Motor Company using an assembly line to produce its Model T car.

The assembly line

The first step was the use of machine tools, machines that mass-produced interchangeable parts for other machines. This meant that if one part broke it could be fixed or replaced using spare parts.

The inspiration for the Ford Motor Company's ground-breaking assembly line came from a 'disassembly line' at a Chicago meat-processing plant. Animals were slaughtered and their carcasses carried on a powered conveyor belt past a line of workers. A visiting Ford employee noticed that by repeatedly carrying out one cutting action, workers performed faster and did a more precise job. Taken together, the work of all the workers produced a fully butchered carcass.

It did not take a lot of imagination to see that by reversing this process a hugely complex item such as a car could be built faster by relatively low-skilled workers. It took years to perfect the process but by 1913 Ford was producing cars about eight times faster than it had in 1908 (12.5 hours versus 1.33 hours when an assembly line was used).

Paint it black

The assembly line was so efficient that it produced an unforeseen problem—paint did not dry fast enough! Faced with a bottleneck in manufacturing, Ford opted to paint all the Model Ts 'Japan black', the paint that dried the fastest. This led company owner Henry Ford to joke that customers could get the Model T in any colour they liked 'as long as it's black'!

Source 2.8.3 Workmen at Ford's Michigan assembly line in 1913

The impact of mass production

Mass production meant that craftspeople were replaced by workers carrying out simple and often mind-numbing, repetitive tasks. The upside was that goods were produced cheaply and in vast numbers, leading to more jobs and cheaper goods. The cost of a Model T, for example, dropped from $825 in 1908 to $575 in 1912, allowing more Americans to own cars. Ford's assembly line can be seen in Source 2.8.3. This transformed society in many ways. One way was that, because workers could commute more easily from where they lived to where they worked, vast residential suburbs outside crowded inner cities began to be built.

DID YOU KNOW?

One of the first attempts to implement a mechanised assembly line was in 1797, when businessman Eli Whitney won a contract from the US Government to make 10 000 muskets (a type of gun). Previously, craftspeople had made each gun separately, producing its parts by hand using files, saws and suchlike. As a result, each gun was unique, and if it broke another skilled person was needed to make a replacement part to fit that particular gun.

Consumerism

The simple machines of the early Industrial Revolution planted the seeds of consumerism, which dominates life in economically developed countries today. A consumer society is one in which the purchase of material goods is encouraged. Success is measured in terms of growth in the **gross domestic product (GDP)** and a recession (in which the GDP fails to grow) is bad news. Most people who live in more economically developed countries have jobs that pay enough to eat well, and to buy fashionable shoes and clothing, cars, mobile phones and other electronic equipment (see Source 2.8.4).

Need for speed

Thanks to the radio, telephone, television and the internet, it is easy to think that communication consists of words or digital data sent along wires or in waves to anywhere in the world in a fraction of a second. But in the 1700s, information only travelled as fast as a person could travel in a day. For thousands of years, the maximum speed was that of a horse!

This changed during the Industrial Revolution in response to the demand for freer and more efficient trade, leading to networks of turnpike roads,

Source 2.8.4 A print advertisement announcing the new 1950 Frigidaire refrigerator

canals and, eventually, railways. One unintended consequence was that rural folk who used to travel only a handful of miles beyond their villages in their lifetimes saw more of the world and were exposed to new ideas.

Industrial society's need for speed led to the invention of the electric telegraph in the 1840s, and the internet in the 1990s. But as in the 1700s, there are unintended consequences of unrestricted communication. For example, the internet has expanded our relationships, but has produced cyber-bullying and websites promoting terrorism.

Environmental costs

One downside to industrialisation and consumerism has been environmental pollution. In the period 1700 to 1800, environmental pollution was mainly limited to regions where mills churned out coal smoke. Problems could also be reduced at the local level by the introduction of cleaner technologies. But worldwide, the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, produced by burning coal and other fossil fuels, has risen dramatically since the Industrial Revolution, and the majority of scientists believe this to be a significant contributor to global warming.

Some people believe that part of the solution is for people to dramatically reduce their energy consumption, even if this means fewer luxuries, or having to pay more for energy. Means of reducing energy consumption include carbon taxes or emissions trading schemes, which make it more expensive to buy the most polluting forms of energy. Others argue that government intervention to force people to use less energy will just hurt the poorest members of society and do no good as developing nations will carry on industrialising.

Some people see a solution in the entrepreneurial innovation that produced the Industrial Revolution in the first place. As fossil fuels become harder to extract and more expensive, it will become increasingly profitable for business people to develop and market alternative energy sources such as solar, wind and wave power.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the second Industrial Revolution.
2 In your own words, outline the views of historians Griffin and Goldman on the Industrial Revolution.

Applying and analysing

3 Examine Source 2.8.4. Based on how the 1950 Frigidaire is represented visually and in written text in this source, who might be persuaded to buy it and for what reasons? Share your thoughts in an extended paragraph.
4 Construct a T-Chart that contrasts the evidence presented in this chapter about whether the Industrial Revolution led to the 'best of times' or the 'worst of times'. Review the evidence and express your own opinion in an extended paragraph.
5 Imagine that you were asked to write a feature newspaper article in 1930 about Ford's Model T. Write this article in a way that covers a range of perspectives, for example Henry Ford's, an assembly-line worker and a person who had just bought a car.

Investigating History

UNIT 2.9

The Industrial Revolution

Cause and effect

Design an annotated visual display (AVD) identifying the main causes and effects of the Industrial Revolution in Britain. Make sure you include both short- and long-term effects. Use headings, subheadings and colour to structure your AVD and enhance its readability. Present your information in a range of ways, including art, photography, tables of statistics, graphs/charts and your own sketches.

Annotated map

Create a large annotated map detailing the spread of the Industrial Revolution beyond Britain. At a minimum, represent timeframes (for example, earlier and later spread and impact), and the movements of people (for example, slaves, convicts, merchants, settlers), raw materials and products (for example, cotton, opium). You may wish to use tracing paper to 'layer' your map.

Art and the Industrial Revolution

Complete a research report on how art is used to represent the Industrial Revolution. Select a minimum of four primary sources for your analysis, perhaps including Source 2.9.1. In the body section of your report, include an analysis of each artwork. For each artwork, answer the following questions.

a When and where was the source produced?
b Who is the author?
c What do you see, that is the literal features?

Source 2.9.1 Miss Kennedy Distributing Clothing at Kilrush, from *The Illustrated London News*, 22 December 1849

d What are the key messages the artist is trying to convey? What particular elements in the artwork convey this and how?

e What aspects of the Industrial Revolution are reflected in this representation?

f In the conclusion of your report, respond to the following question: Based on your knowledge and understanding of the Industrial Revolution, how well do these artworks represent the period in time in which they were created?

Read all about it!

Create the front page for a London daily newspaper from around 1812. Include a range of news and human-interest stories about, for example, increases in industrial output, labour conditions and the government's response. You might like also to include stories of General Ludd. To attract the reader's attention, lay your front page out with short paragraphs, text in columns, catchy titles and one or more illustrations, maps or graphs. Complete a plan first, and show it to a peer or teacher for feedback.

Perspectives diary

Create a series of six diary entries from the perspective of either a poor or a middle-class person who lived in Britain during the Industrial Revolution. In each diary entry, make sure to include:

- a date and place
- an account of events as they happened
- observations about change over time
- opinions and feelings about what you've experienced 'in character'.

Complete a plan first, and show it to a peer or teacher for feedback.

Glossary

enclosure process lasting from the 1500s to the 1800s of enclosing formerly common lands and creating large, privately owned farms

free trade trade between countries that is not hindered in any way

gross domestic product (GDP) value of all the goods and services produced within a country in a given period of time, usually one year

monopoly when a business or government has exclusive control over a product or service

pastoral relating to rural areas where animals are raised

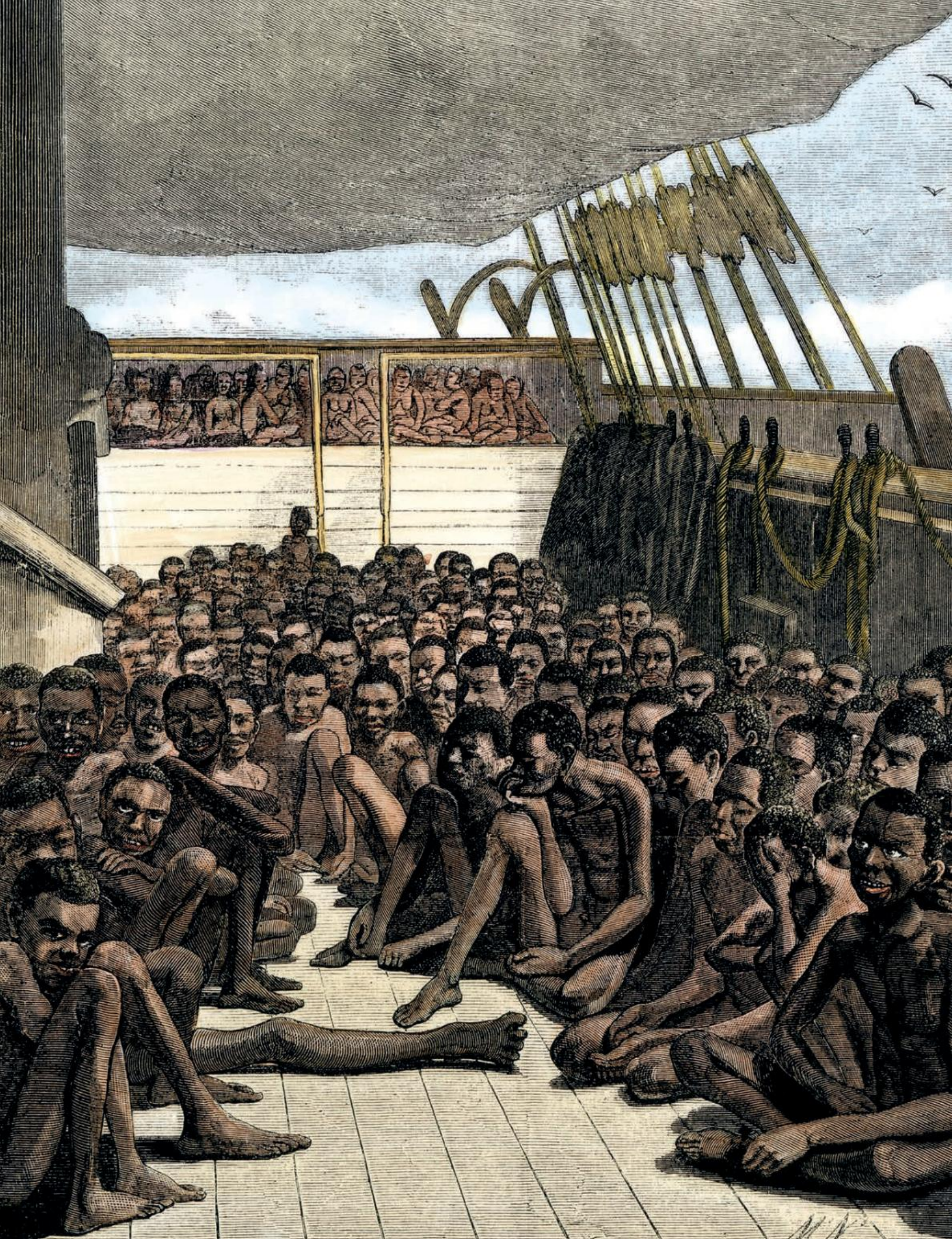
patent owning the copyright to a product

redundant a person, product or service that is no longer required

spinning mule invention that combined a spinning jenny and a water frame

steam engine use of boiling water to produce steam pressure to drive an engine

turnpike gates erected on roads by local residents that travellers had to pay to pass through, thus providing funds for road maintenance



CHAPTER
3

Movement of peoples: 1750–1901

Introduction

In 1750, the Industrial Revolution brought dramatic changes to Britain, resulting in technological innovation, increased trade and manufacturing, and unprecedented population growth. Some people chose to travel across the seas in search of a better future. Others, in chains, were victims of a time that accepted slavery and the forced exile of **convicts**. As a consequence, the world experienced a global movement of people, which had an impact that would not be fully understood for many years.

Source 3.0.1 Nineteenth-century illustration of the deck of the captured slaveship *Wildfire* brought into Key West Florida in 1860

Source 3.0.2 Timeline of the slave trade and Australia, 1750–1901

UNIT 3.1

The Industrial Revolution and movement of people

Source 3.1.1 Hogarth's illustration displaying England's addiction to alcohol, particularly beer, 1751

Growth of towns

The Industrial Revolution brought significant changes to Britain's economy and society. With the development of machines and steam power, goods were produced more quickly and cheaply in factories, and in large quantities. Poor people from rural districts flocked to the towns to work, which led to the development of housing suburbs, areas in close proximity to factories that housed working men and women. Between 1760 and 1815, London's population is estimated to have grown from 750 000 people to 1.4 million; making London the largest city in the world at that time.

Due to the fast construction and limited government regulation concerning building requirements, houses were built very close together and poorly constructed. These developed areas became slums due to overcrowding, disease, excessive consumption of **gin** and malnutrition (see Source 3.1.1). In 1788, an estimated one million people lived below the **'bread line'**.

Increased crime

During the medieval period, most people lived in a village under the jurisdiction of the nobility who owned their land and made every decision. As people moved to cities, they became anonymous. With limited accountability and desperate living conditions, crime became a means of survival, resulting in overcrowded prisons. Crime rates increased dramatically in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. Between 1800 and 1827, 2243 men and 95 women were hanged in Britain. The average number of executions per year was 80; however in 1801, 219 people were hanged. The major crime was against property: theft, burglary and highway robbery.

County Palatine of LANCASTER,
HUNDRED of SALFORD.

MARCH 18, 1790.

THE very great and truly alarming Increaſe of ROBBERIES of every Kind in different Parts of this Hundred, being ſuch, that Perſons cannot now travel the Roads, or ſleep in their Houſes, or turn their Cattle into the Fields, without the moſt imminent Danger of Thieves, who have added (in many Inſtances) Cruelty and Barbarity to Robbery.

Source 3.1.2 Newspaper article, 18 March 1790

DID YOU KNOW?

Prisoners in Britain were held in old ships called hulks. A hulk could be up to 65 metres long, the same size as six buses, and could hold up to 300 convicts. Between 1776 and 1795, nearly 2000 out of almost 6000 convicts held on hulks died, the majority from diseases such as typhoid and cholera.

It is discovered that a child, when 10 years old, can learn to make a stocking in a few weeks, & that he can be taught the art perfectly by paying a master 1s per week for 2 years, the child re-ceiving, in the meantime, all his earnings, ex-cept that 1s.

...

Parents have no longer any control over their children but, on the contrary, are dependant upon, & governed by, them. Boys and girls leave the homes

...

of their fathers, Thò of the same trade, & work & lodge with others in the same village, whenever it is more agreeable to them to do so than to remain under the parentage roof the consequence of which is that, partly to keep them out of greater mischief, & partly to re-tain some benefit from their labour parents allow their children, while at home, to please themselves in everything.

Source 3.1.3 Extract from a letter written to Sir Robert Peel, c. 1829, describing the stocking-making industry that was flourishing in Leicestershire, which discusses the effect of child labour on children's behaviour.

Sending convicts to Australia

The Industrial Revolution was in full force when Britain lost its American colony as a result of the War of Independence in 1776, forcing the government to look for an alternative penal settlement. A short-term solution, which involved keeping prisoners in old ships called hulks on the River Thames, was losing support. The prison hulks were decrepit and sickness and death were rife. On 24 March 1786, action was finally taken following a prison riot on a hulk at Plymouth. Home Secretary Lord Sydney ordered arrangements to be made to establish a colony in Australia. The country was chosen as the new **penal colony** because of its distance from Britain and the opportunities it provided to secure flax and timber, and trade routes with China. Between 1788 and 1868, approximately 160 000 people were sent as convicts to Australia.

Emigration to Australia

A benefit of the Industrial Revolution was improvement in transportation, with the building of better roads, new railways and faster ships. This influenced the movement of people by improving the ease, safety and time it took to move from town to town, and from country to country. The First Fleet took about eight months to sail to Australia from Britain. By the time of Australia's Federation in 1901, this had reduced to a month.

Few free people emigrated to Australia in the early days of colonisation. Free settlers often had to fund their own transport, which resulted in only a few wealthy and government or military families making the journey. By 1820, Australia was looking more enticing as farmers began to flourish and more land became available inland for sheep grazing. **Emigration** increased significantly in the 1850s as a result of the discovery of gold, sparking a wider movement of people from many different countries. The Irish Potato Famine of 1845–1852 also saw greater numbers of British people emigrating worldwide, with 1.75 million coming to Australia over the next 50 years.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

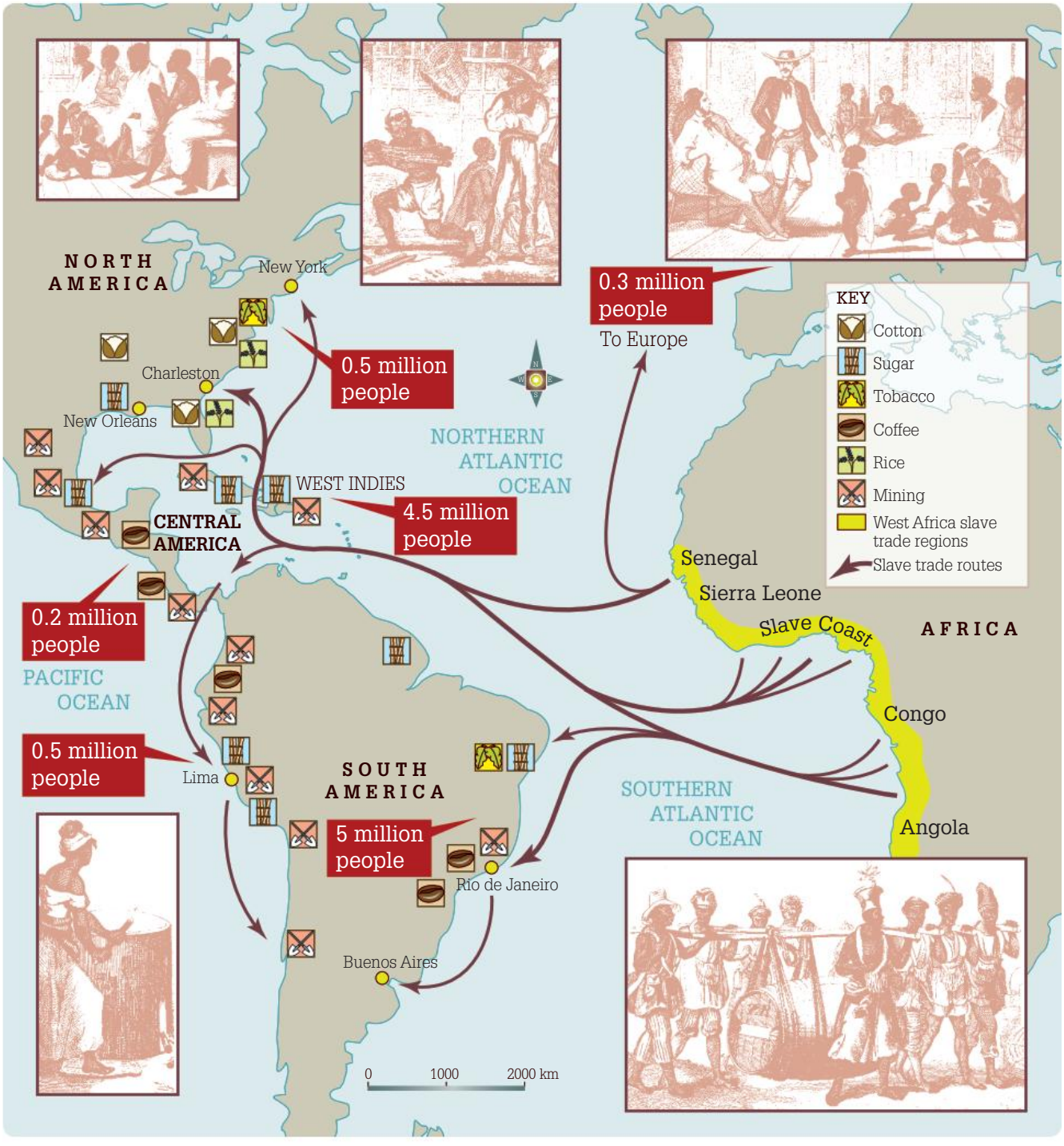
1. What benefit did machines and steam power have on the production of goods in Britain during this time?
2. Why did crime rates dramatically increase during the Industrial Revolution?
3. List three reasons why convicts were sent to Australia.
4. In your own words, explain how the Industrial Revolution influenced the decision to send convicts to Australia.

Applying and analysing

5. Use Figure 3.1.2 to answer the following questions.
   - **a** Identify two facts from the source and provide a reason why they are significant to the topic of study.
   - **b** What is the main concern being expressed?
   - **c** How would you describe the general feeling of the public, as expressed in this source?
6. The Industrial Revolution is widely understood to have increased rates of crime in Britain. What other factors may have contributed?

UNIT 3.2

Movement of slaves and convicts



Source 3.2.1 Movement of slaves out of Africa, 1650–1860

Movement of slaves

The **slave** trade was a very profitable business, driven by profit-hungry proprietors who used free labour in the production of sugar, tobacco and cotton plantations. Ships sailed from Europe to West Africa with manufactured goods that were traded for slaves. Slaves were delivered to the Americas before returning with commodities produced on the slave plantations, such as cotton and sugar, outlined in Source 3.2.1. The movement of these people resulted in tragedy: the loss of identity, loss of culture and alienation from the basic rights of humanity.

Movement of convicts and free settlers

The First Fleet's journey took seven months; sailing down the coast of Africa and across to South America before visiting Cape Town and heading to New South Wales. The Great Circle route was adopted in the 1850s. People rushed to the goldfields, risking wild seas and using the strong winds of the 'Roaring Forties' to reduce travel time. By 1901, with the invention of the steamship and the construction of the Suez Canal in 1869, ship travel between Australia and Britain had been reduced to just thirty days. Bales of wool could be sent back quickly to Britain as the wool industry became highly successful in Australia (see Source 3.2.2).

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms 'plantation' and 'Roaring Forties'.
2 Examine Source 3.2.1.
   a List three cities in the United States that received slaves from Africa.
   b What commodities were grown in or around those cities?
   c From which countries did the cities of Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro receive slaves?
   d What was another name given to the West Coast of Africa?
3 Examine Source 3.2.2.
   a Describe the difference between the original route and the Great Circle Route. Why did travel routes change?
   b Identify two benefits from using the Suez Canal.

Applying and analysing

4 Examine Source 3.2.1. Why do you think the slave trade is referred to as a triangular trade?
5 Using Sources 3.2.1 and 3.2.2, explain what these sources tell you about the movement of people during the period 1750–1901.

Source 3.2.2 Movement of convicts and free settlers from Britain to Australia, 1788–1901

UNIT 3.3

Transatlantic slave trade

Trade in human cargo

Between the mid-1500s and the late 1800s, more than 11 million African people were forcibly taken to the **New World** and sold as slaves. Expanding European empires needed a workforce to help build their new colonies and a solution was found along the West Coast of Africa. In exchange for manufactured goods such as gunpowder, woollen cloth and copper wire, African leaders provided men and women as slaves.

In the years preceding its banning in 1807, the slave trade was the second highest earning trade for Britain. During the 1760s, Britain sent forty slave ships a year to the West Coast of Africa, with London bankers financing the trade.

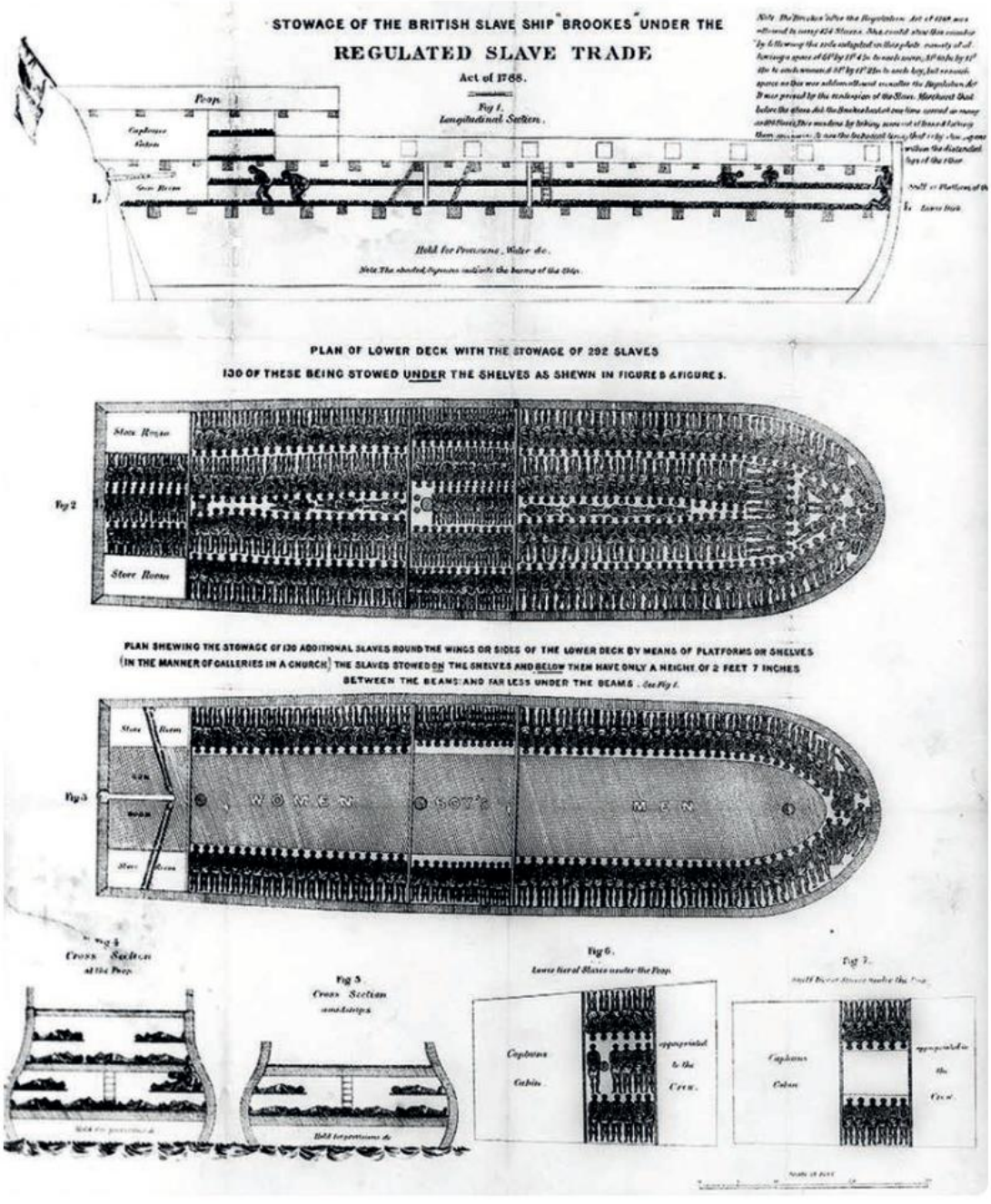
March to the coast and departure

European slave-trading forts along the African coast were used as collection points for African slaves. In order to meet the demand of Europeans for slaves, African tribes fought with each other. Sometimes captives were forced to walk up to 32 kilometres a day to the forts, chained together at the neck (see Source 3.3.1). Once arriving at the forts the captives would languish for weeks in overcrowded holding cells, known as barracoons. Conditions in these forts prior to departure accounted for many deaths during this time (see Source 3.3.2). The most terrifying experience was the journey from the forts to the slave ships waiting in the harbour for departure. Slave captain Thomas Phillips wrote that people jumped from their boats in chains to drown rather then leave their country a slave.

Source 3.3.1 Caravan of slaves, *Travels into the African Interior*, 1795, Biblioteca Nazionale Marciana, Venice

I saw him take a gun, a piece of cloth, and some lead for me, and then he told me that he must now leave me there, and went off. This made me cry bitterly, but I was soon conducted to a prison, for three days, where I heard the groans and cries of many, and saw some of my fellow captives. But when a vessel arrived to conduct us away to the ship, it was a most horrible scene; there was nothing to be heard but the rattling of chains, smacking of whips, and the groans and cries of our fellow-men. Some would not stir from the ground, when they were lashed and beat in the most horrible manner. I have forgot the name of this infernal fort.

Source 3.3.2 *Thoughts and Sentiments on the Evil and Wicked Traffic of the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species*, by Ottobah Cugoano, 1787. Ottobah Cugoano was born in Africa. He was sold into slavery in the West Indies but was later bought by an English merchant and freed.



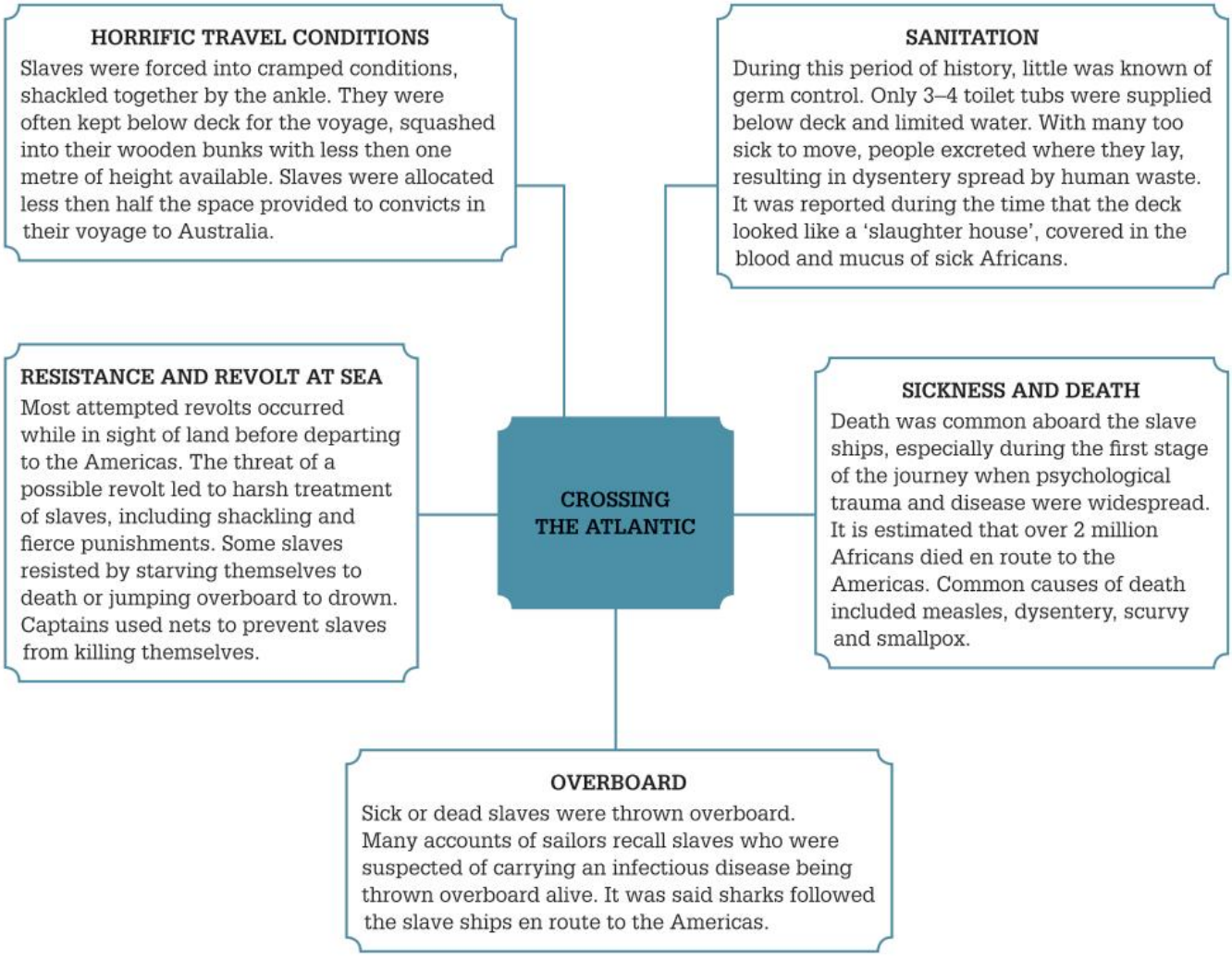
Source 3.3.3 Diagram of the English slave ship *Brookes*, regulated by the Slave Trade Act of 1788. Slaves were treated as **chattels** and forced to travel in inhumane conditions. Slave ships were instructed to carry the maximum number of slaves possible in order to maximise profits from their sale.

Middle passage: crossing the Atlantic

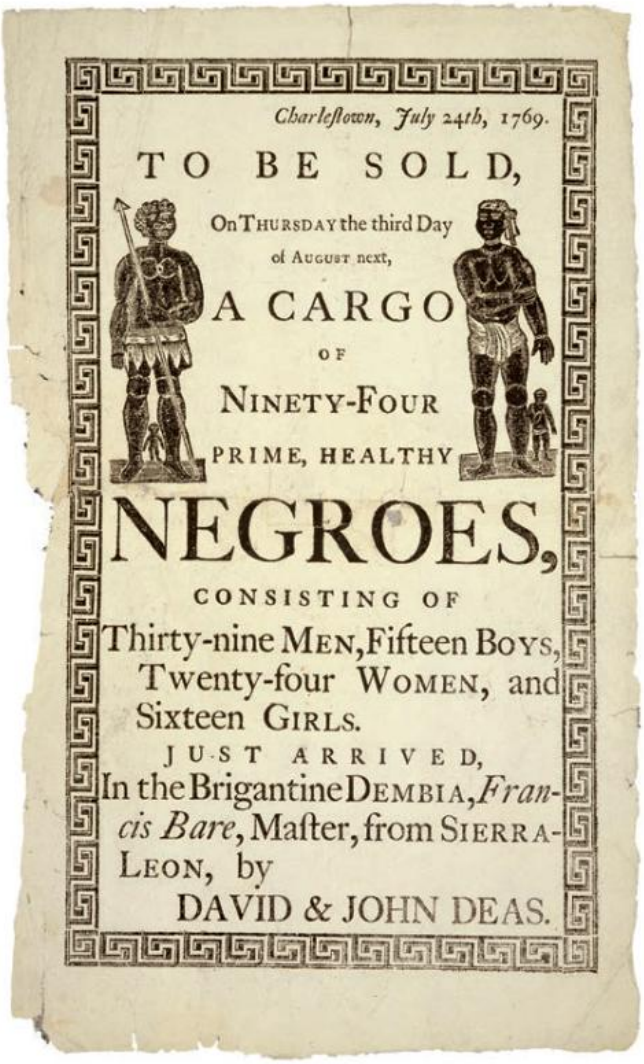
The crossing of the Atlantic was a horrendous ordeal for a slave. Once the slave ships were loaded with their 'cargo' they sailed across the ocean, following the route set out by Columbus. The voyage could take forty days for the larger ships but sometimes up to six months. There were many dangers when undertaking this journey, including wild storms, sea pirates, the doldrums (long windless spells) and Spanish ships attempting to steal both ships and slaves.

Selling and seasoning

On arrival in the Americas, slaves experienced another tragic ordeal as they were separated once again from each other in preparation for sale. The process involved slaves being washed, shaved and any diseases disguised from potential buyers (see Sources 3.3.5 and 3.3.6). Once sold to slave traders at the ports, a process known as seasoning commenced, which involved being branded by their new owners, taught new languages and given a new identity. Buyers in North America preferred 'seasoned' slaves—those who had already worked in the Americas—and this process worked to ensure better sale prices on their arrival. It was a degrading process and many slaves died during this time, some by taking their own lives.



Source 3.3.4 Conditions on board the overcrowded slave ships were horrific. The result of these atrocious conditions was widespread disease and death.



Source 3.3.5 Nineteenth-century engraving depicting the humiliation Africans endured as they were subjected to physical inspections before being sold, Library of Congress

Source 3.3.6 Poster advertising the sale of a shipment of slaves, Charlestown, North America, 1769, American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Massachusetts, United States

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms 'barracoons', 'dysentery', 'seasoning'.
2. What did slave traders provide to African leaders in exchange for slaves?
3. Who financed the slave trade in Britain?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Sources 3.3.1 to 3.3.6 and use the information in this unit to do the following activities.
   - **a** Take notes on your observations of the treatment of the African people under slavery.
   - **b** Use your notes to write a paragraph that describes the conditions faced by Africans as they crossed the Atlantic to become slaves in the Americas.
5. Why do you think such poor treatment of slaves was allowed to continue for so long?

Source Study

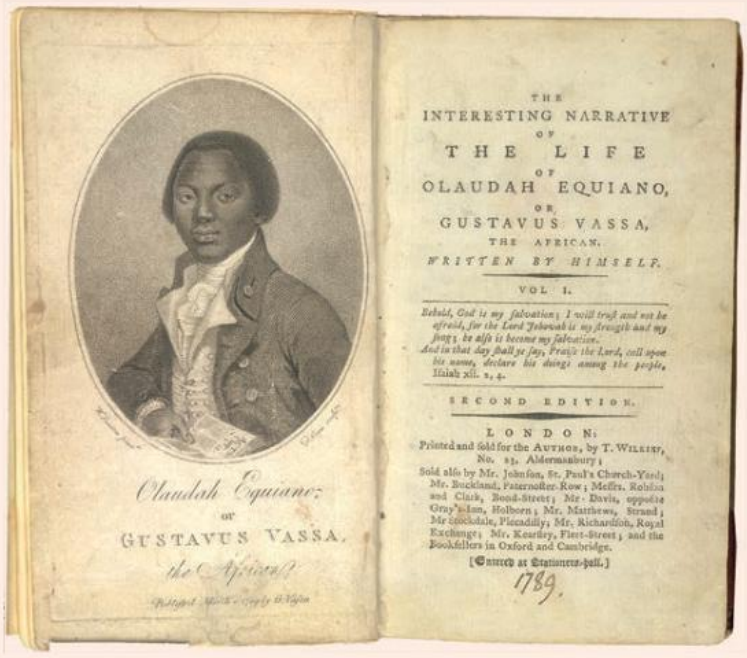
UNIT 3.4

The experience of Olaudah Equiano

Background

Olaudah Equiano's story demonstrates the determination of a man to construct his own future in a time in history that did not recognise the value of Africans for more than slavery. Believed to have been born in present-day Nigeria in about 1745, Olaudah was bought and sold multiple times before buying his own freedom. Olaudah is significant because of his testimony about the Atlantic slave trade and his active involvement with the anti-slavery movement.

Sources 3.4.2 to 3.4.6 help us as historians to construct the story of Olaudah's experiences as a slave.



Source 3.4.1 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London, British Library. Title page of the book Olaudah wrote to tell his experiences as a slave in the Americas

> *The closeness of the place, and the heat of the climate, added to the number in the ship, which was so crowded that each had scarcely room to turn himself ... the air soon became unfit for respiration, from a variety of loathsome smells, and brought on a sickness among the slaves, of which many died ... This wretched situation was again aggravated by the galling of the chains ... The shrieks of the women, and the groans of the dying, rendered the whole a scene of horror almost inconceivable.*

Source 3.4.2 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London, British Library. The narrative is a first-hand account of the slave trade.

> *One day, when we had a smooth sea and moderate wind, two of my wearied countrymen who were chained together (I was near them at the time), preferring death to such a life of misery, somehow made through the nettings and jumped into the sea; immediately, another quite dejected fellow, who, on account of his illness, was suffered to be out of irons, also followed their example ... Those of us that were the most active, were in a moment put down under the deck; and there was such a noise and confusion amongst the people of the ship as I never heard before, to stop her, and get the boat out to go after the slaves. However, two of the wretches were drowned, but they got the other, and afterwards flogged him unmercifully, for thus attempting to prefer death to slavery.*

Source 3.4.3 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London, British Library

Arrival in the West Indies

The ship arrived in Barbados, an island in the West Indies. Colonial sugar plantations were established on several islands in the West Indies due to rising demand for sugar in Europe.

Many merchants and planters now came on board, though it was in the evening. They put us in separate parcels, and examined us attentively ... We were conducted immediately to the merchant's yard, where we were all pent up together, like so many sheep in a fold, without regard to sex or age. As every object was new to me, everything I saw filled me with surprise ... We were not many days in the merchant's custody, before we were sold after their usual manner, which is this: On a signal given (as the beat of a drum), the buyers rush at once into the yard where the slaves are confined, and make choice of that parcel they like best ... In this manner, without scruple, are relations and friends separated, most of them never to see each other again.

Source 3.4.4 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London, British Library

Freedom

The words of my master were like a voice from heaven to me: in an instant all my trepidation was turned into unutterable bliss; and I most reverently bowed myself with gratitude, unable to express my feelings, but by the overflowing of my eyes, while my true and worthy friend, the Captain, congratulated us both with a peculiar degree of heart-felt pleasure ... who could do justice to my feelings at this moment! Not conquering heroes themselves, in the midst of a triumph—Not the tender mother who has just regained her long-lost infant, and presses it to her heart ... Not the lover, when he once more embraces his beloved mistress, after she had been ravished from his arms!—All within my breast was tumult, wildness, and delirium! My feet scarcely touched the ground, for they were winged with joy, and, like Elijah, as he rose to Heaven; they 'were with lightning sped as I 'went on'. Every one I met I told of my happiness, and blazed about the virtue of my amiable master and captain.

Source 3.4.5 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London, British Library. Olaudah's response to receiving news that he could purchase his freedom at the age of 21.

Soon after my arrival in London, I saw a remarkable circumstance relative to African complexion, which I thought so extraordinary, that I beg leave just to mention it: A white negro woman, that I had formerly seen in London and other parts, had married a white man, by whom she had three boys, and they were every one mulattoes, and yet they had fine light hair.

Source 3.4.6 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London, British Library. In the time before 1784, Olaudah left the sea-faring way of life and lived in London where he noticed amazing changes.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Who was Olaudah? Explain his importance to historians in their understanding of slavery.
2. Reread Source 3.4.2.
   - **a** When was the source produced? Is this source a primary or a secondary source?
   - **b** For whom was this source created?
   - **c** What is this source about?
   - **d** Why did the author produce this source?
   - **e** What type of source is this?
   - **f** How does the author show their point of view in this source? Provide an example.
3. Study Sources 3.4.1 to 3.4.6.
   - **a** Create a timeline of events depicted in these sources.
   - **b** Choose three key events from different sources. Write two sentences for each event; one sentence describing the event and another explaining why you believe it is significant.

UNIT 3.5

The journey to Australia

The convicts

When the convicts sailing on the First Fleet departed London in 1787, few thought they would return. Most men and women who set out for Australia were poorly skilled, convicted of crimes for petty theft such as stealing food. The average age was 27, with boys as young as 9 and women as old as 70. They knew little of the journey ahead for them on the southern oceans, or the nature of the harsh Australian climate. For many, apprehension of the unknown and illness as a result of living in the hulks awaiting transportation added to the horror of their exile.

The sea journey

The first journey undertaken by convicts to Australia lasted over six months. The journey was often dangerous as the threat of disease was constantly high. Scurvy, dysentery and typhoid were the greatest threats, as convicts spent much of their time under the deck in poorly sanitised conditions.

On rare occasions convicts might be allowed on deck for an hour, providing time to wash themselves and breathe fresh air. The cat o' nine tails was used to flog convicts who misbehaved, often resulting in infections. Convicts who failed to follow orders were shackled and chained below deck for the duration of the journey. The last part of the journey was terrifying for convicts as they were forced to sit in darkness during the wild storms of the southern oceans. Convicts who sailed on the Second Fleet were so sick on arrival that many could not walk and fainted when brought on deck.

On arrival in Australia, convicts were assigned to work parties or to individuals. One way we know about convict experience is through songs sung and passed down, forming a folk history of the colony (see Source 3.5.1). As food production increased in the colony, the threat of starvation decreased. It was not long before there was more food available for convicts than there had been in Britain.

Oh come listen for a moment lads and hear me tell my tale: How o'er the seas from England I was condemned to sail. The jury found me guilty And says the judge, says he: 'Oh, for life, Jim Jones, I'm sending you across the raging sea.

And take my tip before you ship to join the iron gang: Don't get too gay on Botany Bay or else you'll surely hang. Or else you'll hang,' he says, says he, 'And after that Jim Jones, It is high upon the gallows tree, the crows will pick your bones.'

Well, the sea it flew in torrents and the pirates came along; But the soldiers all on board our ship, they were full five hundred strong. They opened fire and soon they drove that pirate ship away. Oh I'd rather have gone on a pirate ship than gone to Botany Bay.

Where day and night the irons clang and like poor galley slaves. We toil and toil and when we die we fill dishonoured graves. But by and by I'll break my chains and into the bush I'll go; And I'll join the brave bushrangers there, Jack Donahue and Co.

And one dark night when everything is silent in the town, I'll kill the tyrants one by one and I'll shoot the floggers down. I'll give the law one little shock; remember what I say: Oh they'll yet regret they've sent Jim Jones in chains to Botany Bay.

Source 3.5.1 Songs were used to capture the experiences of convicts. They were sung to a variety of tunes and many were not written down until years later.

Source 3.5.2 Steerage accommodation. Married couples shared the top bunk and children slept in the bunk below. Steerage passengers brought their own bedding and eating utensils but basic foods such as flour, rice, biscuits and preserved meat were provided. Alexander Turnbull Library

Free settler experience

Emigrants travelling to Australia experienced many of the same problems as convicts—dangerous seas, threat of disease, long journeys and confinement below deck in storms. They were also not immune to homesickness, boredom from the monotonous journey or the apprehension of the unknown awaiting them in this new land (see Source 3.5.2).

Settlers passed time on their journey in various ways—writing in a journal, playing cards or, if the weather was fair, spending time on the deck. Many who travelled to Australia were too poor to travel first class, which would have entitled them to fresh meat and cabins instead of bunks. Most travellers endured the cramped conditions of sleeping below the ship's water line, where infectious diseases spread rapidly and people were often sick.

On arrival in Australia the new settlers sought free land from the government. Many came with high hopes but limited farming skills. They had to clear land for farming and grazing and build their homes, often with the help of free convict labour. Those who were successful had the opportunity to improve their social status well beyond what would have been possible if they had stayed in Britain.

Innovation in travel

Improvements in transport were made from the 1840s as steam engines began to be used to power ships. The use of iron-hulled ships in the 1880s allowed safer, more efficient travel. They were less susceptible to fire and more structurally sound. Electric lighting also reduced the chance of fires from tipped lanterns and the introduction of refrigeration on ships in the late 1870s improved the transportation of food.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Create two columns headed 'convicts' and 'emigrants'. List the experiences of each group in the appropriate columns.
2. Using your answers from activity 1, identify similarities and differences between the experiences of convicts and emigrants who travelled to Australia. Are any of the results surprising?
3. How did innovations in sea travel improve the conditions for people emigrating from Britain?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Source 3.5.1.
   - **a** According to the ballad, how long is Jim Jones sentenced for?
   - **b** What warning does the judge give to Jim Jones? What significant differences can you see between what the judge says and people's expectations of the criminal courts today?
   - **c** Why do you think this song was popular among convicts in Australia? Do you think Australians today would still identify with the themes in this source?
5. Examine Source 3.5.2. Describe the conditions in steerage accommodation.

UNIT 3.6

Convict way of life

Early days as a convict

Life in the colony for convicts was harsh for the convicts sent from Britain to Australia. They were the labour force for the British government, expected to develop a sustainable **agrarian** society within two years. With limited knowledge of the land, primitive tools and rugged conditions in which to live, the early years were a time of survival for both convict and free man alike. Many would have chosen prison over this hellish exile they had been given.

Accommodation

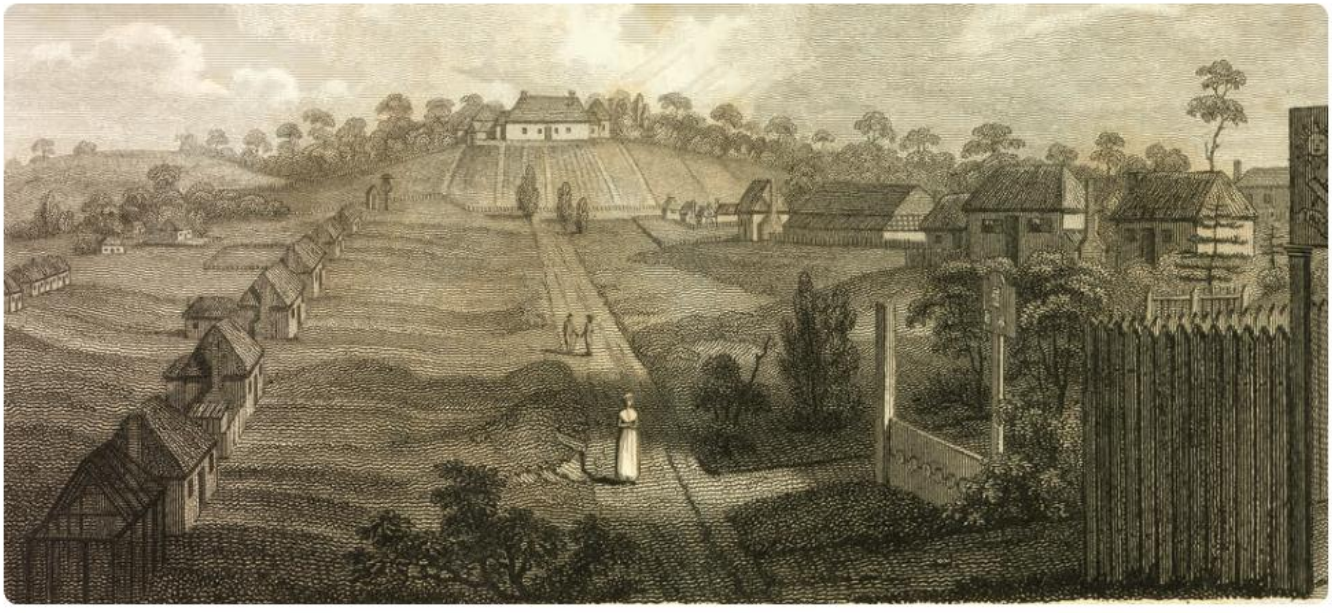
Sydney developed in precisely the opposite manner to the vision held for the colony by the British authorities. Rather than prison cells or specified holding areas, convicts built shelters for themselves that resembled small dwellings. This created numerous problems as these shelters could be used to hide stolen goods and make illegal liquor, and provided a sense of independence contrary to their position as convicts.

Work in the camps

The earliest days of convict labour were disastrous. Convicts refused to work and insisted on a task-work system that enabled them to head back to camp once they had completed their daily assignment. Set with the option of accepting these terms or no work at all, authorities were left with little choice. In some cases convicts are known to have pursued leisurely activities, working on their gardens or building bonfires (see Sources 3.6.1 and 3.6.2).

> *... walked out to visit the Bonfires, The Fuel of One of Which, a number of Convicts had been two Days collecting ... it was really a noble Sight, it was piled up for several Yards high round a large Tree; where, the Convicts assembled, singing and Huzzaing ...*

Source 3.6.1 Officers and convicts enjoyed the same experiences.



Source 3.6.2 Parramatta, James Heath, 1798. Arthur Phillip's new town imposed regularity and control through effective planning, National Library of Australia

Restoration of order

Captain Arthur Philip quickly realised the need to find a new settlement site that was properly planned and would restore order to the new colony. Quality soil was found at a site that was initially named Rose Hill. In 1791, Phillip renamed it Parramatta and the colony moved its main base to the new area. Life once again changed for convict men and women as order was restored and they were housed in orderly huts that resembled prison barracks rather then private dwellings.

Irish convicts

In 1804, there was a convict uprising at Castle Hill, a Government farm where the majority of convicts were Irish, sent there by the British soon after open rebellion in Ireland, (see Source 3.6.3). Conditions at Castle Hill were harsh and cruel and many of the Irish convicts did not recognise British rule. The uprising was short and the punishment brutal.

Source 3.6.3 Convict uprising Castle Hill, 1804, National Library of Australia

DAILY LIFE AND ROLE OF CONVICTS IN THE COLONY

WORK FOR THE GOVERNMENT

Most convicts were assigned to the government working in different jobs depending on their skill set.

Convicts who were literate might work as clerks while those with trade skills, such as carpentry and blacksmiths, were used to help build houses, wharves and infrastructure for the new settlement.

The worst jobs, such as road building, were kept for poorly behaved convicts.

ASSIGNED TO OFFICERS, FREE SETTLERS AND EX-CONVICTS

Convicts could be assigned to private individuals. They would work on the land, clearing trees, establishing farmland and looking after livestock.

LOCKED UP?

The majority of convicts in the mid-1830s worked for the authorities and free settlers, with only 6 per cent 'locked up'.

WOMEN

Women only made up 20 per cent of the first convicts. They were assigned in a similar way to men; however, their tasks were mainly those of domestic duties.

Women were believed to be most useful as wives or mothers, which effectively freed them from subjugation.

PUNISHMENT

Convicts were often flogged with the lash for misbehaviour. The worst-behaved convicts might work in chain gangs or be sent to penal settlements holding repeat offenders. These had the worst conditions, with flogging, leg-irons and solitary confinement used widely.

FEMALE FACTORIES

Unassigned women were sent to factories where they produced wool, linen, yarn, blankets and other textile supplies required for the colony.

Often the factory served as a holding area for women until they were assigned.

TICKET-OF-LEAVE

This system was used from 1801 allowing well-behaved convicts to work for a master of their choice for a wage.

This could be reversed for poor behaviour.

Source 3.6.4 The majority of convicts worked for the government for no pay. The most affordable way of keeping convicts in the colony was by assignment. This involved convicts being assigned to individuals who used them for cheap labour.

Changes over time

The daily life of a convict changed over time as the colony grew and new settlements were created to support the increasing shipments of convicts from Britain and free settler expansion. Life was different in each settlement depending on its location and purpose (see Source 3.6.5). The penal settlement in Port Arthur was designed for hardened convicts who reoffended. Convicts in Freemantle, Western Australia, had to build their own prison and were subject to strict daily routines (see Source 3.6.6).

Regulations surrounding convict labour were limited. Private employers came to regard assigned convicts as a right. Arguments concerning this issue were common during Governor Macquarie's governance as his ambitious building plans made considerable demands on the convict workforce.

Hope for the future

Opportunities for convicts improved under the administration of new governors. Initially conceived to save money, tickets-of-leave were first handed out by Governor King in 1801 to those who could support themselves. A ticket-of-leave can be seen in Source 3.6.7. Good behaviour or time served over a period of years might also allow a convict to qualify for leave. Governor Macquarie (1810–1821) caused much controversy by insisting that emancipates be treated as social equals, restoring dignity to condemned felons. In 1821, Governor Brisbane finally set down regulations for ticket-of-leave eligibility, also creating a Certificate of Freedom for those who failed to receive a pardon. Ex-convicts were provided with small parcels of land with assigned convicts to encourage self-sustainability and further develop the colony.

Date	Settlement	Description
1788	Sydney Cove, NSW	Established by Captain Arthur Philip with the First Fleet. It remained a penal settlement until 1840 when transportation officially ended. Also known for the historic Hyde Park Convict Barracks.
1789	Norfolk Island	Initially abandoned in 1813, it was reoccupied as a place for secondary punishment for recalcitrant prisoners.
1803	Hobart, Van Diemen's Land	Conceived as a colony for free settlers, convicts were required for labour. Convict numbers increased rapidly, with the last ship arriving in 1853.
1804	Newcastle, NSW	Established on the 'Coal' River (Hunter River) for secondary punishment for recalcitrant prisoners. Reoffenders were used to mine coal. Short-lived as free settlers arrived and a site further away was required.
1821	Port Macquarie, NSW	Established for educated males who posed a threat to the government. Disbanded once free settlers arrived.
1821	Sarah Island, Van Diemen's Land	Established for male and female secondary offenders. Closed in 1833 after many escapes and because of its isolation.
1824	Moreton Bay, NSW	Established as an exploratory penal settlement that moved up to current Brisbane. Closed in 1842 as free settlers moved into the region.
1824	Fort Dundas, Melville Island, Timor Sea	Established with convict labour to signify a British trade presence. Abandoned in 1829.
1825	Maria Island, Tasman Sea, Van Diemen's Land	Established as a place for secondary punishment for recalcitrant prisoners. Manufactured woollen cloth. Closed twice, in 1832 and 1850.
1832	Port Arthur, Van Diemen's Land	Established as a place for secondary punishment for recalcitrant prisoners and an attempt to consolidate penal settlements in Van Diemen's Land. Infamous for its hardship, it remained a penal settlement until 1877.
1833	Point Puer, Van Diemen's Land	Established for male juvenile prisoners. Closed in 1848.
1837	Port Phillip Bay, NSW	Modern-day Melbourne. A total of 2500 convicts sent there before 1850. It became a separate colony named Victoria in 1851.
1850	The Swan River Colony, WA	Established by convicts with a military detachment to signal a British presence after rumours that the French were interested in the area. Suffered a severe labour shortage until convict ships began arriving. A total of 9668 convicts sent there from Britain.

Source 3.6.5 By 1850, many new penal settlements had been established, each with their own unique stories of success, horror and sometimes failure.

No prisoner shall disobey the orders of the overseer or any other officer ... or be guilty of swearing or any other indecent or immoral expression or conduct, or any assault, quarrel or abusive language, or smoking inside the ward, cell, privy cookhouse, washhouse, or workshops, or any talking or other noise during meal hours, or after the silence-hours at night; leaving the square allotted as their exercise ground on any pretence, except to the closet, or converse or hold intercourse with any other prisoner or tradesman employed about the yard, except as authorised by the prison rules, or cause annoyance by singing, whistling or making unnecessary noise.

Source 3.6.6 The convict establishment in Fremantle contained strict rules. Failure to follow these rules resulted in swift punishment.


ML DOC

TICKET OF LEAVE.

NO. 28/102

COLONIAL SECRETARY'S OFFICE,

NEW SOUTH WALES.

16th May 1828.

IT is His EXCELLENCY the GOVERNOR'S Pleasure to DISPENSE with the Attendance at Government Work of William Anson who was tried at Waterford Summer Assizes 1823 Convict for Seven years arrived per Ship Kapite Forbes Master, in the Year 1824 and to permit him to employ himself (off the Stores) in any lawful Occupation within the District of Parramatta for his own Advantage during good Behaviour; or, until His EXCELLENCY'S further Pleasure shall be made known.

By His Excellency's Command.

Source 3.6.7 Ticket-of-leave 16 May 1828, State Library of New South Wales

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'ticket-of-leave'.
2. Using Source 3.6.2 and the text, explain why Governor Phillip moved the settlement from Sydney Harbour to Parramatta. Provide at least two reasons.
3. Using Source 3.6.4, write down the main roles of a convict in the colony. List them in chronological order.
4. Using the text and one source of your choosing, write a short paragraph that describes how a convict's life changed in the early years of the colony.

Applying and analysing

5. Examine Source 3.6.5 and answer the following questions.
   - **a** What is the main message communicated in this source?
   - **b** Where are the majority of settlements established? Can you notice anything unusual about some locations?
   - **c** Why do you think there was a significant gap in establishing new settlements between 1804 and 1821? Deduce possible reasons for this inconsistency.
6. Working in pairs, read Sources 3.6.1 and 3.6.6.
   - **a** What observations can you make about the differences in these sources.
   - **b** What reasons can you give and how does this reflect changes in the colony?

UNIT 3.7

The emancipists

> *Some of the Most Meritorious Men of the few to be found, and who were Most Capable and Most willing to Exert themselves in the Public Service, were Men who had been Convicts!*

Source 3.7.1 Extract from a letter written in 1819 by Lachlan Macquarie to John Thomas Bigg explaining his emancipist policy.

From convict to freedom

The convicts who arrived in Australia between 1788 and 1868 had been convicted of a variety of crimes with different sentences. A convict who worked hard, came with or acquired a skill and was willing enough to contribute to the colony could find their sentence shortened and the opportunity given to assist in the building of the new society. There were different ways that convicts could be released: ticket-of-leave, completion of their sentence, conditional pardon or a full pardon. In the early years, convicts who had completed their sentence were known as expirees while those receiving a conditional or full pardon were known as emancipists. By the 1850s, the term 'emancipist' was often used to describe all ex-convicts.

Although Australia had been founded as a convict colony, it was not long before the social landscape began to change. Along with increased numbers of free settlers attracted by land grants and convict labour, emancipists formed a large part of the population (see Source 3.7.2). During the first twenty-two years of Australia's colonisation, the government provided land to assist emancipists in establishing themselves in the colony. Many emancipists had come to see Australia as a land of opportunity that offered new beginnings and the same rights as free settlers. Their experience, however, reflected something very different. They found themselves excluded from positions of public office and suffered prejudice as a result of their criminal backgrounds.

Source 3.7.2 *The costume of the Australasians*, c. 1817, Edward Charles Close, State Library of NSW. This sketch depicts the changing social landscape of the Australian colony—civil and military officers, free settlers, soldiers, emancipists and serving convicts.

Governor Lachlan Macquarie

Lachlan Macquarie became governor of the colony of New South Wales in 1810. His instructions from England focused on social reform, improving the moral conditions of the colony and developing its self-sustainability. While he is widely know for his building projects and welfare reforms, Macquarie believed that convicts could be reformed. He saw no reason why a convict who had served their time or been pardoned and was of good character should not return to their previous rank in society.

New opportunities

Macquarie believed in rewarding individuals based on merit and, as a result, appointed emancipists to positions of authority and trust. This included allowing emancipist lawyers to practise law in the Supreme Court and appointing four emancipist magistrates. Francis Greenway was an emancipist architect who worked closely with Macquarie to build many well-known structures in Sydney, including St James' Church in Sydney.

Resistance to change: the exclusives

In adopting this policy of appointing emancipists to positions of authority, Macquarie alienated himself from the support of influential free settlers in the colony. The exclusives were a group of free settlers and British officials who sought to exclude emancipists from public office and from full civil rights (see Source 3.7.3). Notable exclusives were John Macarthur, a prominent agriculturalist and co-founder of the Australian wool industry, and Samuel Marsden, chaplain to the colony.

> *I have considered them [emancipists] as having once been tainted, unfit for associating with afterwards; & tho' I have no objection to meet them on public occasions I certainly would not wish & never intend, to make them companions at my table or of my society.*

Source 3.7.3 An exclusive's objections reflected by soldier and magistrate Archibald Bell who lived during the time of Macquarie. From *The Evidence of the Bigge Reports*, Vol. 1, Melbourne, 1971

Macquarie continued to defend emancipists, and opportunities for emancipists outlasted the opposition raised by exclusives. In 1842, the British government granted a constitution to the colony that included a democratic representative model, inclusive of emancipists.

> *It will be for us all to become a reformed people, unless time be given us to breathe, contemplate and amend, before those new supplies of delinquency and guilt are sent out to us, which we are condemned by this gentleman for possessing ... and I cannot avoid saying that this country should be made the home and a happy home to every emancipated convict who deserves it.*

Source 3.7.4 Macquarie fiercely defended his belief in convict reformation and was critical of British criticism. Letter to Viscount Sidmouth in Refutation of Henry Grey Bennett, issued as a pamphlet in London, 1821

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms 'emancipists', 'exclusives'.
2. How would you describe the general way of life for an emancipist in the years before 1810?
3. Using Source 3.7.1, explain what qualities Macquarie valued in a person?
4. Outline how the emancipist's way of life changed after 1810. Give examples.

Applying and analysing

5. Examine Source 3.7.2.
   a. Briefly describe the costumes you can observe in Source 3.7.2.
   b. Women are absent from this source. What does this tell you about the position of women in the early 1800s?
6. Examine Sources 3.7.2 and 3.7.3. How does class in 1800s Australia appear to be developing?
7. What does Source 3.7.4 tell you about social attitudes in the 1800s?
8. Use Sources 3.7.3 and 3.7.4 as starting points to research the different attitudes regarding emancipists.

UNIT 3.8

The free settlers

Early years

There was a strong attempt in the early years of Australian colonisation to make the colony as similar to England as possible. Trees were cut down for farming, towns were established in an orderly fashion and clothing reflected the culture of England rather then the climate of Australia (see Source 3.8.1). For the majority of the nineteenth century, free settlers in Australia would consider England as 'home'. They were attracted by the allure of free or cheap land, convict labour and opportunities not available in crowded cities. From 1831, workers were encouraged to migrate from Ireland and Britain to provide the colonies with needed skills. Over time, children born to settlers and emancipists embraced their new status as **currency lads and lasses**, children of this new land.

Source 3.8.1 *Surveyors*, Samuel Thomas Gill, 1864, State Library of Victoria

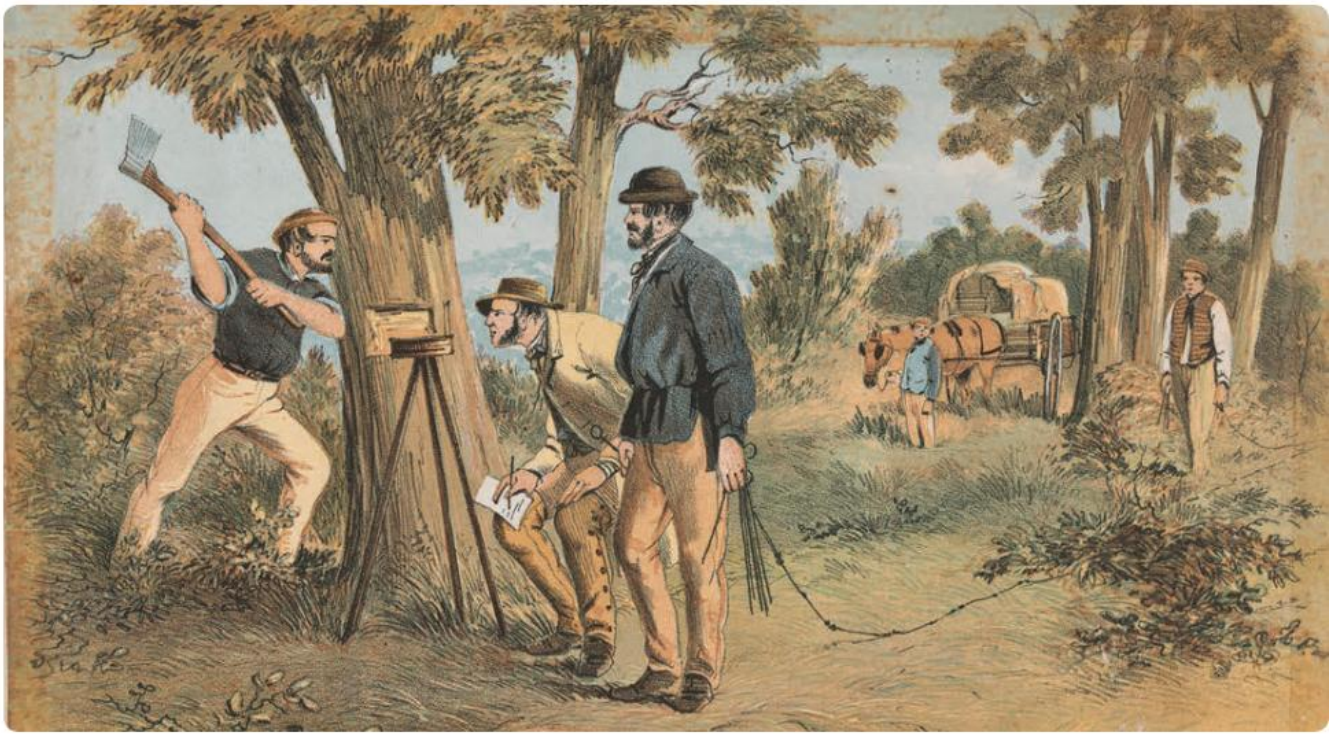
Growth of the wool industry

John and Elizabeth Macarthur arrived in the colony in 1790 with John as a lieutenant in the New South Wales Corps. In 1793, they moved into Elizabeth Farm that they had built on the 100 acres (40 hectares) of land given to them to clear and improve. John purchased a flock of Spanish merino sheep from South Africa and was very successful in breeding them.

In 1807, John Macarthur sent his first shipment of Australian wool to London. It was much finer, softer wool then had been produced previously and it was in high demand. Raising sheep was well suited to the Australian climate and the wool industry soon became the backbone of the Australian economy.

An expanding settlement

The growth of the wool industry sparked a period of significant expansion in land use. For free settlers, owning land with assigned convict labour to get



them started was a symbol of wealth and power (see Source 3.8.2). However, a new conflict was emerging in the colony over the allocation of land. Traditionally wealthier people were allotted large grants of land while emancipists were provided small grants, often restricting their ability to make a living. The government's attempt to restrict and control land settlement during these early years was met with contempt.

Our farm is now become one of the best (for a small farm) in the district. It consists of 800 acres of which we have cleared better than a hundred, seventy acres being now under cultivation; the remaining [frontier] is fenced in and subdivided into grazing paddocks for the brood mares and one or two dairy cows ... Our home which was a miserable hut when I arrived is now a substantial edifice ... we have not at present a free man on the farm & when our convicts are free I do not know what we shall do unless emigration is kept up incessantly, of which I see at present no prospect ... It was a most fortunate thing for me that I came out at the time I did, one month later and I should not have got convicts, in which case I must have looked out for a situation, or have been ruined in attempting to settle up the country with free servants at most exorbitant wages. The great drawback here to an Englishman fond of sport is the total absence of game of any kind to give variety to a country life.

Source 3.8.2 Letter from Arthur Way in September 1842 to his brother Benjamin, who lived in Durham, England

Squatters

As soon as new trails were made into inner New South Wales, people ignored the government's policy and took the land they found. These people were known as **squatters**, claiming their right to the land as nobody else was using it.

In 1836, Governor Burke made squatting illegal. Due to the enormous demand from Britain for Australian wool, the authorities had to find alternatives to removing squatters and created Crown land that could be leased. Squatters were allowed to buy a licence to graze sheep and cattle. By 1845, Australia had become Britain's chief supplier of wool.

In 1847, the government allowed squatters to purchase the land they leased for £1 an acre (0.4 hectares). By the middle of the nineteenth century, wealthy squatters had become powerful with pastoral leases the size of some European countries. Settlers often followed the new penal settlements being established along the Eastern coast. With most of the good land taken in New South Wales and Victoria, settlers moved westward to South Australia and further north to Queensland, up to Moreton Bay.

Squatters and free selectors

When the mayhem of the 1850s gold rush disappeared, thousands of men returned from the goldfields and demanded that squatters give up some of their land for small farming. Despite protests from squatters, the government saw this as the cheaper option to raise money for development and attract more migrants to the colony. The New South Wales government passed the Free Selection Acts, allowing areas of 40–320 acres (16–129 hectares) of land to be purchased at £1 per acre.

The **selectors** who took up this offer had to meet a number of conditions, including improving the land's value over time, living on the land and staying there for three years. The squatters took advantage of the new laws and many extended their land holdings, often purchasing the best areas, including watering holes. Over time many selectors walked off the land.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms 'squatter', 'selector', 'emancipist'.
2. What was the reason for increased expansion of settlement into inland Australia?
3. How did squatters justify their decision to take land that they did not own?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Source 3.8.1. Describe what is happening in this image.
5. Reread Source 3.8.2.
   - **a** What improvements had the writer made to his property since arriving?
   - **b** To what does he attribute his success in making his property successful?
   - **c** What do you notice about his attitude in the final sentences in his letter? What does this tell you about settlers during this time period?

UNIT 3.9

Impacts on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people

Convict arrival

In January 1788, Governor Arthur Phillip, in command of the First Fleet, sailed into Botany Bay. With eleven ships and just over 1000 people in his care, he set about following his orders exactly by making early contact with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to minimise resentment or conflict. The impact of the arrival of these convicts and officers on Aboriginal people was initially more symbolic then physical. On the 26 January 1788, the Union Jack was raised and the land declared a possession for His Majesty, dispossessing the original owners of their land and country.

> *You are to endeavour by every possible means to open an intercourse with the natives, and to conciliate their affections, enjoining all our subjects to live in amity and kindness with them. And if any of our subjects shall wantonly destroy them, or give them any unnecessary interruption in the exercise of their several occupations, it is our will and pleasure that you do cause such offenders to be brought to punishment ...*

Source 3.9.1 Governor Phillip's instructions

Early contact

Governor Phillip was instructed to maintain good relations with Aboriginal People (see Source 3.9.1). Within an hour of anchoring in Botany Bay, Phillip and some officers were in a boat exploring the north shore of the bay and making their first contact with the Eora People. Initially apprehensive and waving their spears, they accepted the gifts offered by Phillip. As time passed and the convict settlement began clearing land in Port Jackson, Aboriginal people became angry at the felling of trees and the intention of the British to stay on their land. Aboriginal people had always lived off the land and the impact as the land was plundered to supply the needs of large numbers of people was enormous (see Source 3.9.2).

> *While the people were employed on shore, the natives came several times among them, and behaved with a kind of cautious friendship. One evening while the seine was hauling, some of them were present, and expressed great surprise at what they saw, giving a shout expressive of astonishment and joy when they perceived the quantity that was caught. No sooner were the fish out of the water than they began to lay hold of them, as if they had a right to them, or that they were their own; upon which the officer of the boat, I think very properly, restrained them, giving, however, to each of them a part. They did not at first seem very well pleased with this mode of procedure, but on observing with what justice the fish was distributed they appeared content.*

Source 3.9.2 An account of Aboriginal Australians in 1787 by John White. From *Journal of a Voyage to New South Wales*, 1790

Convict interaction

As supplies were unloaded in Port Jackson and the convicts, marines and a handful of free settlers started to make camp, there was little of the order and control traditionally associated with a convict colony. Convicts were free to roam the landscape, and were able to practise bartering in an attempt to improve their situation. They bartered goods (whatever they found or their rations) and services. Phillip had given orders that no person interfere with the weapons and tools left on the beach by the Aboriginal people. However, this was often ignored by the convicts, reflecting a limited understanding of the cultural practices and sharing traditions of the people whose land they were inhabiting (see Source 3.9.3). Convicts also brought with them deadly viruses from Europe, which the original inhabitants had no resistance to, such as smallpox, syphilis and influenza.

Source 3.9.3 Aboriginal people spearing fish and others diving for crayfish, while a group sits beside a fire cooking fish, c. 1817, National Library of Australia

Source 3.9.4 *Corroboree at Newcastle*, Joseph Lycett, c. 1818, State Library of NSW

> *Every precaution was used to guard against a breach of this friendly and desirable intercourse, by strictly prohibiting every person from depriving them of their spears, fizgigs, gum, or other articles, which we soon perceived they were accustomed to leave under the rocks, or loose and scattered about upon the beaches ... the convicts were everywhere straggling about, collecting animals and gum to sell to the people of the transports, who at the same time were procuring spears, shields, swords, fishing-lines, and other articles from the natives, to carry to Europe; the loss of which must have been attended with many inconveniences to the owners, as it was soon evident that they were the only means whereby they obtained or could procure their daily subsistence; and although some of these people had been punished for purchasing articles of the convicts, the practice was carried on secretly, and attended with all the bad effects which were to be expected from it.*

Source 3.9.5 *An Account of the English Colony of NSW*, Vol. 1 by David Collins

Bennelong and Colby

After eleven months of failed attempts to make sustained contact with Aboriginal people, and under instructions from King George to establish good relations with them, Governor Phillip resorted to capturing a man named Arabanoo from the Eora People. Shortly afterwards Arabanoo died of smallpox and in 1789 Phillip captured two more men, Bennelong (Baneelon) and Colby (Colbee). After a period of time both men escaped, but Bennelong renewed contact with Phillip as a free man and showed him new areas of the Sydney region not yet discovered. In 1792, Bennelong travelled with Phillip back to England, returning in 1795 as a respected advisor to Governor Hunter. While this interaction demonstrated the benefits of working with and understanding Aboriginal people, it could not stop relationships from deteriorating as more of their land was taken by settlers to graze sheep and areas were fenced off as private property.

Impact of free settlers

Resentment over the settlement expansion soon escalated to serious conflict that saw both Aboriginal people attacked and settlers killed in a struggle that followed the expanding frontier. In 1790, Pemulwuy, later known as the first resistance leader in Australia, speared and killed John McIntyre, Governor Phillip's

gamekeeper. Pemulwuy continued to actively lead a resistance movement that led to a drastic new policy being implemented in 1801 under Governor King, in the region of Parramatta. This included firing at Aboriginal people on sight and declaring Pemulwuy an outlaw. The policy was lifted once Pemulwuy was killed in 1802 and relative stability resumed in the region.

Impact of squatters

In May 1813, Gregory Blaxland, William Lawson and William Charles Wentworth set off with a local guide and three convict servants to find a passage over the Blue Mountains. Their success was heralded throughout the colony and set in motion events that would have a significant impact on Aboriginal people of that region. Without any thought to the original inhabitants of the land, squatters quickly rushed to secure and fence the best areas of land. The frontier shifted dramatically and with it an increase in hostile contact between settlers assuming their right to the land and Aboriginal people protecting the sacred sites that had been theirs for thousands of years.

> *It has long been in Serious Contemplation with me to Endeavour to Civilize the Aborigines.*

Source 3.9.6 Macquarie was aware that Aboriginal people had been expelled from their lands and sought to improve their condition.

Governor Lachlan Macquarie

Lachlan Macquarie's attitude to Aboriginal people during his governorship was consistent with his policies towards all people in the colony; he sought to improve their position. In 1814, Macquarie attempted to 'civilise' Aboriginal people through setting up the Native Institution for Aboriginal children (see Source 3.9.6). However, he faced an ongoing dilemma. Aboriginal people assumed shared ownership of property and any animal could be killed for food. This was in stark contrast to a European sense of private property. Cultural clashes ensued as settlers claimed the actions of Aboriginal people broke colonial laws. Macquarie extended his efforts further by offering small parcels of land to those Aboriginal people who wished to become settlers. In 1816, he undermined his own good intentions when he ordered the capture and killing of Aboriginal people who had attacked settlers along the Hawkesbury–Nepean River. At the end of this short campaign, fourteen men, women and children were killed.

The impact of convict and settlers on the Indigenous people of the region was to undermine their traditional laws and rituals, remove them from their land which was sacred and bring starvation, disease and despair to a once proud people.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What challenges would Governor Phillip have had in maintaining good relations with Aboriginal people?
2. Who was Bennelong and how do you know he had friendly relations with the British?
3. How did settlers justify their decision to take land that was not theirs?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Source 3.9.2. What does this tell you about how Aboriginal people viewed the resources of the land?
5. Reread Source 3.9.5.
   - **a** Make three observations about the actions of convicts described in this source.
   - **b** What differences in culture can you see between the two groups of people listed here?
   - **c** How might the actions of convicts have an impact on Aboriginal people in the short term and the long term?
6. Think about Governor Macquarie's decision to open the Native Institution.
   - **a** Why did Macquarie try and 'civilise' Aboriginal people?
   - **b** What problems would Aboriginal people have with Macquarie's approach?
   - **c** What impact might these attempts by Macquarie have had on Aboriginal people?

UNIT 3.10

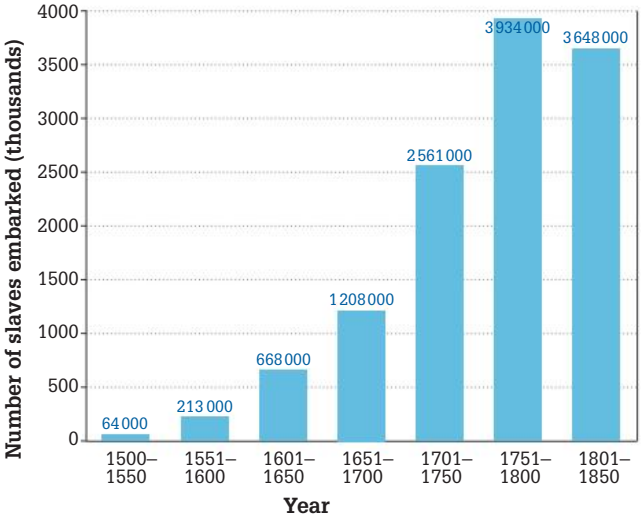
Legacy of slavery

Slave populations

The movement of slaves worldwide resulted in millions of people relocating across the globe, taking with them their culture and beliefs. The decision to enjoy the short-term economic gains of exploiting Africans as cheap labour left an indelible stain that history cannot erase. The Industrial Revolution that produced much significant advancement in Western civilisation was fuelled by slavery and owed much of its success to this exploitation. It would be many more years before the longer-term consequences of slavery, such as racial prejudice and the deprivation of equal human rights for Africans, would be fully understood.

	Africa	Americas	Britain
Immediate consequences	▪ Millions of people were removed from Africa. ▪ Remained underdeveloped compared with Western nations. ▪ Lost much of its independence due to increasing economic ties with Europe.	▪ Economic growth fuelled by the production of key commodities, especially cotton. ▪ The invention of the cotton gin in 1793 led to increased production of cotton and the demand for slaves. Two-thirds of slaves were involved in this industry. ▪ Provided a large workforce that catapulted the American nation economically forward. Africans were excellent workers, highly capable and skilled in farming.	▪ Enormous economic benefit. Second largest trade in Britain at the time. ▪ Cotton from the Americas fuelled the main industry of the Industrial Revolution, production of textiles. ▪ Cloth produced in the textile industry was the most popular trading item for purchasing slaves.
Long-term consequences	▪ With many of Africa's producers and consumers enslaved, it fell behind other nations economically. It became reliant on an external market of slave trading and gained nothing in return. ▪ Weakened politically with the 'Scramble for Africa'. By 1914, the African continent had been divided up and colonised by Europeans. Only Liberia and Ethiopia remained uncolonised. ▪ Racial prejudice was widespread. Colonialists believed indigenous people were incapable of governing themselves.	▪ Dependence on the cotton industry and African slaves as a form of cheap labour. ▪ The issue of slavery became a contentious issue and contributed to the secession of states and the Civil War 1861–1865. ▪ Introduction of African culture, music, beliefs and values. ▪ Millions of Africans living in America. Between 1492 and 1820, five times more Africans were moved to the Americas than Europeans. ▪ Most of America's great enterprises began with the use of African slave labour. ▪ Racism became engrained in American society. The Jim Crow laws were enacted between 1876 and 1965. They mandated segregration between White Americans and African Americans in public spaces.	▪ Profits from the Americas continued to flow into Britain even after the slave trade was abolished in Britain in 1791. ▪ Increase in consumption of the commodities, such as sugar. ▪ Issues of racism, although it was not as prevalent as it was in the Americas.

Source 3.10.1 Immediate and longer-term consequences of transporting African slaves to the Americas and the impact on Africa, the Americas and Britain



Source 3.10.2 The transportation of slaves corresponds with the Industrial Revolution.

Slavery: not new but different

When transatlantic slavery to the Americas commenced in the late 1600s, it was not the first time slavery had occurred. What was new was the distinctive racial character of this slavery. What had commenced as a profit-driven enterprise by Europeans solidified over time into a Eurocentric ideology. Western economic prosperity flourished during this time with the Industrial Revolution bolstering the trade due to the increased ability to manufacture and trade goods. People viewed slaves as chattel, to be exploited economically and degraded culturally (see Source 3.10.2).

Abolition movement

In 1776, the American Declaration of Independence stated that 'all men are created equal'. This statement would challenge many Americans who saw their nation as hypocritical. The right to 'life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness' was being denied to African Americans. In the 1760s, anti-slavery campaigns began in America and in 1788 were initiated in Britain.

Key abolitionists

In England, it took William Wilberforce thirty years of advocating in parliament to see the end of the transportation of slaves. The bill was finally passed in 1791 and implemented 1808. Key **abolitionists** in America included William Lloyd Garrison, who ran a publishing firm advocating for immediate emancipation of slaves, and Frederick Douglass, a former slave who lectured around the world and was highly esteemed by the African community.

> *But could I be heard by this great nation, I would call to mind the sublime and glorious truths with which, at its birth, it saluted a listening world ... It announced the advent of a nation, based upon human brotherhood and the self-evident truths of liberty and equality ... Apply these sublime and glorious truths to the situation now before you. Put away your race prejudice. Banish the idea that one class must rule over another. Recognise the fact that the rights of the humblest citizen are as worthy of protection as are those of the highest, and your problem will be solved.*

Source 3.10.3 Frederick Douglass, former slave, commenting on the persistence of racial prejudice in the United States, 1894

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What reasons would African leaders have for trading their own people into slavery?
2. Why do you think the British government supported the African slave trade?
3. Define the term 'emancipation' in your own words.

Applying and analysing

4. Imagine you are captured in Africa and sent to the Americas as a slave. What would it be like to know you could never go home or see your family again?
5. Why do you think racism existed in a country that so strongly supported the Declaration of Independence?
6. What do you think is the true legacy of the Industrial Revolution considering its reliance on the production of cotton in the Americas?
7. Was racism an unintended consequence of the slave trade or an inherent characteristic?
8. Has the movement of slaves made the world a better place?
9. What evidence would you use to support your view?

UNIT 3.11

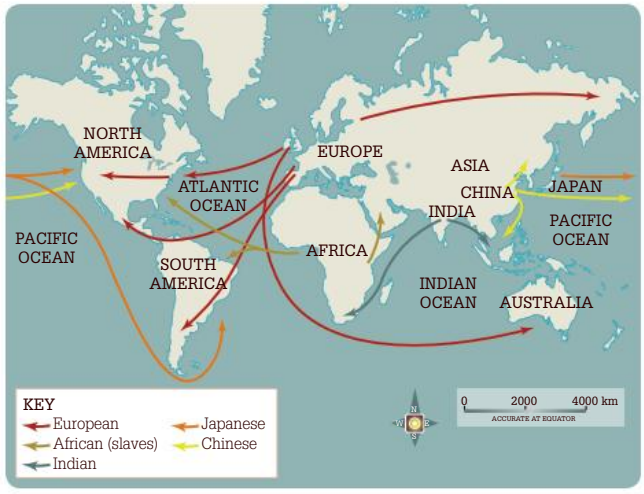
Migration and the development of Australia

A global movement

In 1851, a prospector found gold in New South Wales and eight months later gold was discovered in Ballarat, Victoria, resulting in a rush of people to the area. The movement of people during this time reflected the increasing global expansion brought about by the Industrial Revolution and the continued development in technologies.

Impact of convicts

The transportation of over 160 000 convict men, women and children to Australia provided a cheap workforce for the new colonies. Government work programs utilised the labour force to build infrastructure, and free settlers used assigned labour to clear land for farming and grazing. The impact of convicts on the development of Australia is outlined in Source 3.11.2.



Source 3.11.1 Major world migration flows since 1700

Source 3.11.2 The short- and long-term impacts of convict transportation on the development of the Australian nation

SHORT-TERM

SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS

Fewer women led to a male-dominated society

Increase in population of non-Indigenous Australians with a larger percentage of convict origin

'Stain' of convict heritage

ECONOMIC IMPACTS

Convicts were used as cheap labour

Assigned convict labourers enabled free settlers to settle into the colony without the need to pay for labour

POLITICAL IMPACTS

In the early years Australia was seen as simply a penal settlement

Macquarie insisted on restoring emancipists to their original position in society, which caused political uncertainty and criticism, for example the Bigg Report

LONG-TERM

SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS

Freed convicts were often extremely resilient and able to become successful

Emancipists made significant contributions to architecture, business and medicine

ECOMOMIC IMPACTS

Once convicts had served their sentence they often chose to stay in Australia, becoming the primary producers

Successful emancipist Mary Reibey founded the Bank of NSW

POLITICAL IMPACTS

Ex-convicts were included in the 1842 colonial constitution given by the British government

The decision not to exclude convicts from social and civil rights enabled the acceptance of convicts into Australian society

Impact of free settlers

Emigrants to Australia had a significant impact on the development of Australia (see Source 3.11.3). Most immigrants were from Britain or Ireland, resulting in a strong British cultural heritage. By the time convict transportation ended in 1868, the population stood at 1.5 million people. There was now a paid workforce, a generation of workers born in the colonies and an increase in the number of women to almost equal proportion to men. The gold rush of the 1850s saw a dramatic increase in workers from Asian nations, and concern regarding the protection of the colonies' economy began to emerge.

ACTIVITIES

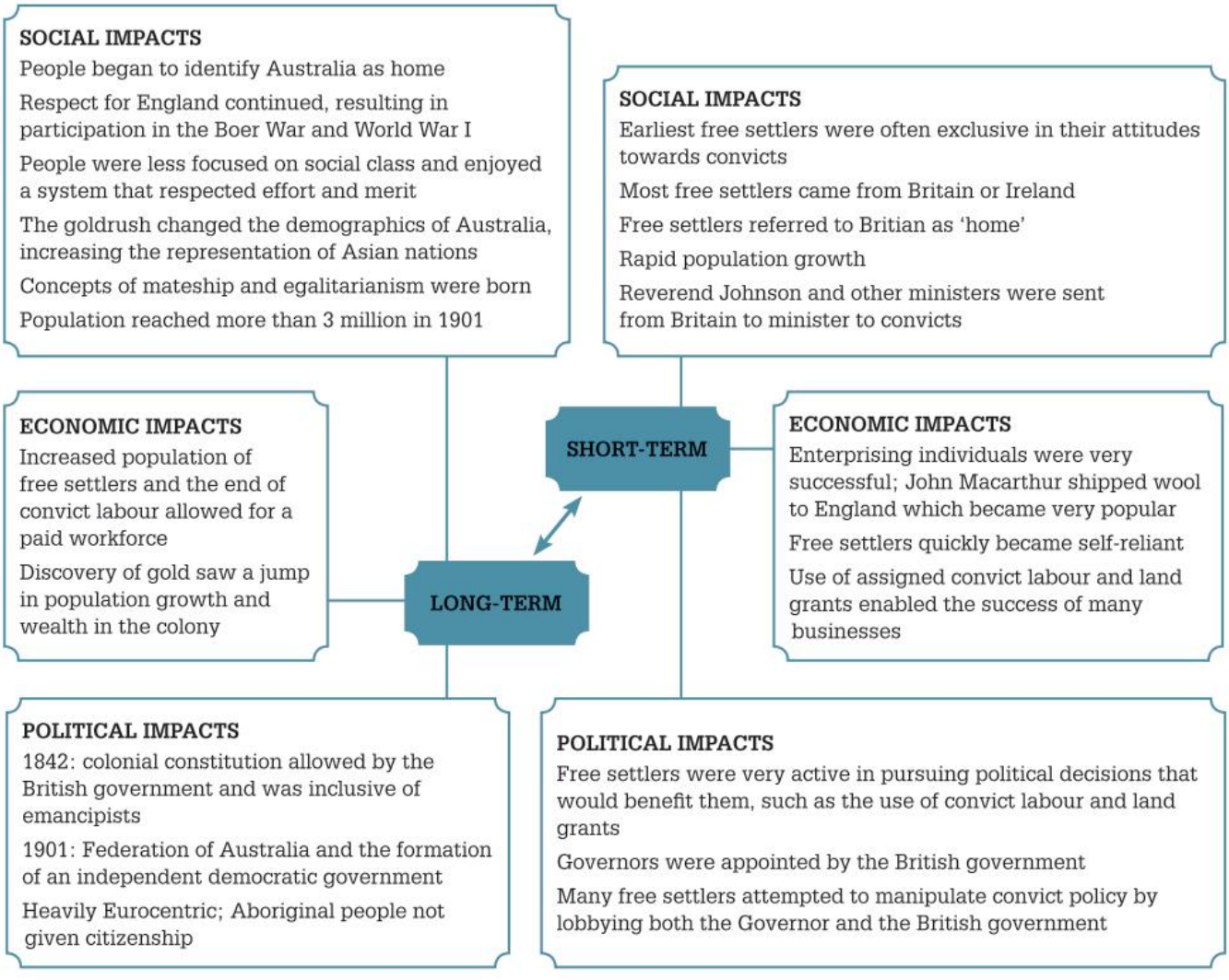
Remembering and understanding

1. When and where was gold discovered in Australia?
2. Examine Source 3.11.1. Describe the pattern of movement.

Applying and analysing

3. Examine Sources 3.11.2 and 3.11.3 and do the following activites.
   - **a** List and rank the five impacts from each source that you believe to be the most significant.
   - **b** Look at your choices and choose one impact from either source that you believe has had the most significant effect on the development of the Australian nation. Write down three arguments to support your view.

Source 3.11.3 The short- and long-term impacts of immigration on the development of the Australian nation



Investigating History

UNIT 3.12
Movement of peoples: 1750–1901

Famous Australians in the early years

This activity involves undertaking research on a famous person who was alive during the early years of European settlement in Australia. Choose one person to research from either category A or B and complete the tasks following.

Category A

- Margaret Dawson
- Francis Greenway
- Mary Reibey
- Martin Cash
- Francis MacNamara (Frank the poet)
- Mary Bryant
- Joseph Wild

Category B

- Governor Macquarie
- William Wilberforce
- William Lloyd Garrison
- Fredrick Douglass
- Olaudah Equiano
- Reverend John West
- Harriet Beecher Stowe

a Who is your chosen individual?
b What do you already know about the person?
c When did they live and what important events happened in their early years?
d Provide details of their achievements or significant events they were involved in.
e How do you know about the events in their lives (types of historical evidence)?
f What impact did they have on their world? Was it positive or negative?
g Why is your individual significant in this time period of history?

News report

Imagine you are a modern-day newsreader reporting on British social issues leading up to and including the date 1786. Create a news bulletin or podcast that highlights some key issues from the time. Include in your news bulletin:

- background information to the social issues
- an event that shaped or influenced the issue such as the riot on the hulk at Plymouth
- government laws to solve social issues such as the Gin Act or Poor Act.

Travel health and safety check

You and a partner have been asked to complete a Travel Advisory Health and Safety Check on board a slave ship departing from London. During the ship's next journey you have been asked to document each key stage with written observations, drawings and personal interviews or comments from slaves or slave traders. Please note what takes place, the health and treatment of the slaves and anything else of importance.

As a guide to your trip remember that the stages are as follows:

- **Stage 1** London to the West Coast of Africa to pick up slaves
- **Stage 2** Middle Passage to take slaves to the Americas
- **Stage 3** Unloading of slaves and journey back to London.

Please present your report as either a written document to be submitted with pictures attached, or organise your report so it can be presented orally, as a formal presentation.

Guide to New South Wales

Welcome to our Lonely Colony writing team. You and a work colleague have been asked to construct a guide to living in New South Wales before 1901. We know that this is a big task so you can pick one of three time frames to focus on:

- early years, 1788–1809
- forming years, 1810–1846
- later years, 1847–1901.

After choosing your time frame, research some key points that will act as headings in your guide. Make some notes under the following headings before beginning your report.

Section A: Plan your trip

- Brief historical overview: an account of significant events that took place during this time.
- Significant people: two important individuals who contributed to this time period. Say why they are significant and find a picture or quote so we can learn more about them.
- Housing: the sort of housing most common at this time. Find a picture to include in your guide.

Section B: Survival guide

- Transport: how people will get around when visiting.
- Money: what currency is used and what sort of cost people should expect to pay for various items.
- Deadly and dangerous: include any information about the dangers people might encounter.

Present your guide in an imaginative way. We need to sell this guide and get people to visit this strange land.

Source 3.12.1 *The Immigrants' Ship*, by John Charles Dollman, 1884, Art Gallery of South Australia. These passengers are probably assisted migrants. Steerage passengers could come up to the deck in fine weather.

Glossary

abolitionist person who favours the ending of a process such as capital punishment or slavery

agrarian growing produce on the land

'bread line' line of people buying food discounted for the poor and hungry; to be below the bread line means being unable to afford food already discounted for the poor

convict person subjected to transportation after being convicted of a crime by a judicial authority

chattel personal possession or property

currency lads and lasses first generation of children born in Australia; currency was the name given to the type of money introduced by Macquarie in Australia, thus inferior to the sterling that came from England

emigration process of leaving one's country of birth to settle permanently in another country

gin clear alcoholic spirit distilled from grain or malt and flavoured with juniper berries; widely sold and drunk in England leading to widespread crime, the primary reason for the *Gin Act 1751*

New World name given to North and South America by the Europeans

penal colony place where convicts were transported to serve out their sentences for a crime committed in their home country

selector person who purchased land from the government under the Free Selection Act

slave someone who is the property of another person

squatter person who uses land without paying for it

CHAPTER
4

Progressive ideas and movements

Introduction

The modern age was shaped by a number of ideas and movements, all of which brought significant changes to Western society and government. Each of these ideas was based on a unique set of beliefs about the nature of human beings, their role in society, how they should be governed and their relationship to peoples from other societies.

Source 4.0.1 Parisians swear their allegiance to the Constitution of 1790, which made the Catholic Church subordinate to the French government Jean-Baptiste Lesueur

Source 4.0.2 Timeline of progressive ideas and movements

UNIT 4.1

The Enlightenment

Origins of the Enlightenment

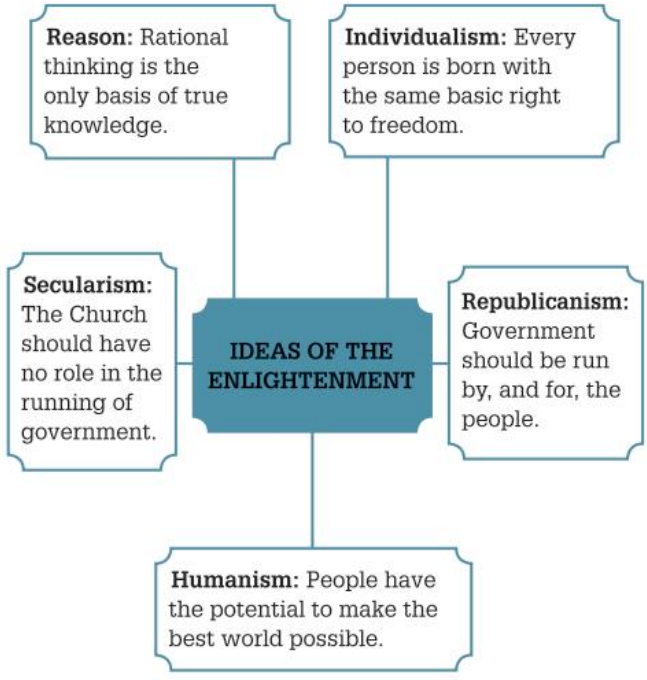
Scientific discoveries in the seventeenth century gave rise to a new belief that human beings, through the use of reason, could explain the nature of the universe. By the eighteenth century, this way of thinking had developed into an intellectual movement known as the Enlightenment. The thinkers of the Enlightenment believed that human beings were born with a capacity to reason, so they could solve their own problems. This belief, known as humanism, cast doubt on age-old beliefs based on superstition and tradition.

With its focus on rational thinking, the Enlightenment saw the development of more refined scientific methods. Controlled experiments were devised to test new hypotheses about the natural world. Results that could be repeated time after time, under exactly the same conditions, gave rise to new scientific theories in disciplines such as astronomy and chemistry. Universities became important places for discoveries in medicine and physics.

Ideas of the Enlightenment

Truth through reason

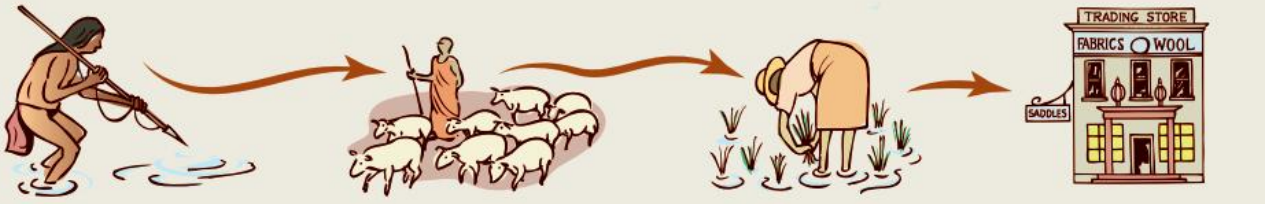
Philosophers of the Enlightenment wanted to change the nature of the society in which they lived. Many of their criticisms were published in the *Encyclopédie*, a collection of over 75 000 articles and illustrations, which was edited by Denis Diderot and published between 1751 and 1766. This monumental work contained entries on subjects such as philosophy, politics, economics, religion, music, biology and physics. The purpose of the *Encyclopédie* was to challenge ideas and practices for which there was no rational basis. Much of its criticism was targeted against the Catholic Church, which promoted the belief in divine revelation—the view that knowledge of the universe comes supernaturally from God (see Source 4.1.1).



Source 4.1.1 Main ideas of the Enlightenment

The Rights of Man

As he looked at the eighteenth-century world around him, the philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau saw a society full of inequality and injustice. In France at this time ordinary citizens had very few rights. King Louis XVI of France ruled in the interests of the monarchy and nobility, often creating laws just for the benefit of this privileged few. His authority was confirmed by the Catholic Church, which for centuries had taught people to believe in the divine right of kings. This was criticised by Rousseau, whose book *Social Contract* was published in 1762. Rousseau claimed that every person was born with the same rights of freedom and happiness, and that any ruler who abused these basic rights was unjust. He argued that a republic, a system of government run by and for the people, was the only legitimate form of government.



STAGE 1: Hunting and gathering—nomadic people follow their food sources

STAGE 2: Pastoralism—animals are herded within a large area

STAGE 3: Agriculture—crops are produced repeatedly in a given area

STAGE 4: Commerce—goods are produced, bought and sold for profit

Source 4.1.2 The Enlightenment view of human progress

Civilisation and 'progress'

Throughout Europe, the Enlightenment led to a widespread belief in human progress, outlined in Source 4.1.2, and the view that European society was the most advanced form of civilisation. Writers such as Nicholas de Condorcet, Adam Smith and Thomas Macauley wrote the history of European civilisation as a story of great progress. This reflected an optimistic belief that human beings could successfully master their environment, improve society and establish for themselves the best world imaginable.

Eurocentrism

As new parts of the world were explored, many Europeans came to see themselves as being more advanced than other peoples. Non-Europeans were defined according to their lack of 'progress'. While some, such as the Chinese, practised a system of agriculture, others such as the Aboriginal Australians and Torres Strait Islanders were classed as nomadic hunters and gatherers who could not improve their own lot. This type of thinking is called Eurocentric, since it sees European ideas and values as being the best for everyone.

The belief that European society was modern while others were primitive was often used to justify the taking and settlement of other people's lands.

This view has greatly diminished over recent times. The problem of global warming has caused many people to realise that indigenous people throughout the world have traditionally used their land and the environment in a sustainable way.

DID YOU KNOW?

During the eighteenth century, some people conducted vampire hunts and exhumed the corpses of supposed vampires. Such thinking troubled the Enlightenment philosopher Voltaire who said, 'What! Is it in our eighteenth century that vampires exist?'

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Answer true or false to the following statements.
   - **a** Thinkers of the Enlightenment believed people were born with reason.
   - **b** The Catholic Church welcomed the ideas of the Enlightenment.
   - **c** Rousseau was the first to propose belief in the divine right of kings.
   - **d** The Enlightenment was based on the idea of European progress.
   - **e** The Enlightenment gave rise to the view that all cultures are equal.

Applying and analysing

2 During the eighteenth century, pamphlets became a popular way to communicate new ideas to a wide audience. Imagine that you are one of the thinkers mentioned in this unit. Produce an information pamphlet designed to promote your ideas to as wide an audience as possible.

3 Take part in an open forum discussion on the following topic: Over time human society has changed for the better. In preparation, think carefully about the positive and negative uses of technology and science.

UNIT 4.2

The American War of Independence

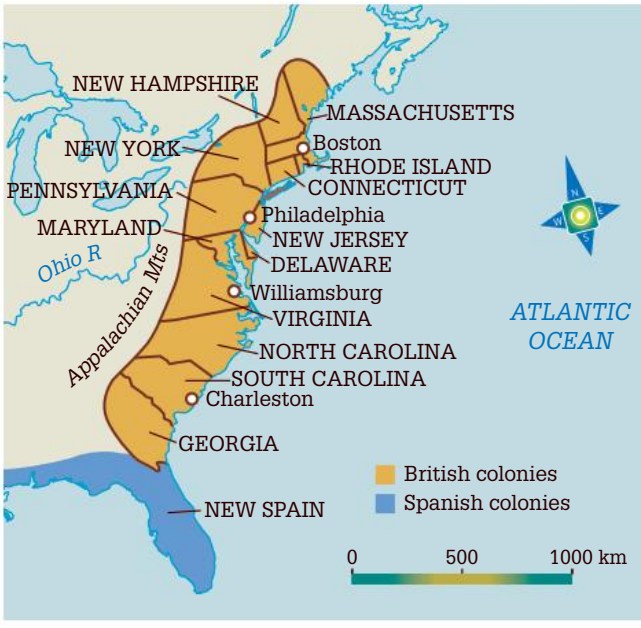
Influential ideas and events

A growing sense of independence

In 1750, North America was home to settlers from France, Britain and Spain (see Source 4.2.1). Many of the first British settlers had emigrated because they wanted freedom of religious expression. Many also saw an opportunity to make money by exporting crops such as cotton and tobacco. Being so far away from Britain helped the colonists develop a growing sense of independence.

'No taxation without representation'

Winning the Seven Years War meant that Britain had removed the French from North America. The war had, however, also put the British government heavily into debt. It was widely felt in Britain that since their army was in North America to protect the interests of the colonists, it was only fair that they should help pay its costs. To help raise this money, the British parliament passed the Stamp Act in 1765, which imposed a tax on legal and official documents, including newspapers. This led to an outcry from the colonists who rallied behind the slogan of 'No taxation without representation'. Many of the colonists believed that it was unfair to be subject to taxes created by a parliament in which they could not vote. Their protest was taken further by refusing to buy British goods that were taxed.



Source 4.2.1 British colonies on the east coast of North America, 1750

The Boston Tea Party

One of the most popular goods boycotted by the colonists was tea. Concerned that the profits of the East India Company would suffer, the British government allowed the company to sell its tea directly to the American colonies. This made the price of British tea far cheaper than black market alternatives and threatened to end the colonists' boycott. In Boston, a public campaign denouncing tea drinking as an unpatriotic act soon gathered pace. On the evening of 16 December 1773, a group of radical protesters disguised as Mohawk natives boarded the ships of the East India Company, dumping 342 chests of tea into Boston Harbor, illustrated in Source 4.2.2. Within days, similar 'tea parties' took place in other colonies.

In response, the British government closed Boston Harbor until all the tea and the tax owed on it was paid. In response, representatives from twelve of the thirteen colonies formed the First Continental Congress on 5 September 1774. The Congress urged the British government to allow the American colonies a far greater say in the running of their own affairs.

The Declaration of Independence

Fighting between British soldiers and colonial militia groups known as 'minutemen' first took place at Lexington on 19 April 1775. This was the start of a war between American 'patriots' and the British 'redcoats' that would continue for the next six years. With the signing of the Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776, the Americans announced that they were fighting for the principles of freedom and equality and the right to self-government.

Source 4.2.2 *The Destruction of Tea at Boston Harbor*, Nathanial Currier, c. 1846, Library of Congress

> *We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed, that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government …*

Source 4.2.3 Excerpt from the American Declaration of Independence, 1776

Role of George Washington

General George Washington was able to create a Continental Army of part-time soldiers made up of ordinary farmers and craftsmen, many of whom lacked any previous military experience. By adopting guerrilla tactics, Washington was often able to attack the superior British army without having to fully engage them in battle. Despite the early loss of territory, the Americans had the advantage of being able to bring in reinforcements very quickly. The British were forced to wait for up to six weeks for new reinforcements to arrive from across the Atlantic.

In 1778, American chances of victory were given a major boost when the French and Spanish declared war on Britain. The French navy was able to ensure a constant supply of weapons, ammunition and food to the Americans. With the defeat of the British at Yorktown on 19 October 1781 by Washington's army, American victory was guaranteed. The end of British rule in North America was officially declared on 3 September 1783 with the signing of the Treaty of Paris.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why did British colonists in North America gradually develop a sense of independence?
2. What was the purpose of the American Declaration of Independence?
3. Why was George Washington's Continental Army able to defeat the British?

Applying and analysing

4. Produce a front-page news report the day after the Boston Tea Party. In your report include the following:
   - a catchy headline
   - the correct date
   - basic details about what actually occurred
   - a brief explanation about why the event occurred
   - a point of view about the event (it can be either British or American).
5. Read Source 4.2.3 carefully. Critics of the Declaration of Independence say that it was not applied to everyone. Can you suggest which groups of people living in North America at the time were not considered as equals with 'unalienable rights'?

UNIT 4.3

The French Revolution

Importance of the French Revolution

The French Revolution is regarded as one of history's great turning points and its influence echoed well beyond eighteenth-century France. By the turn of the century, the monarchies of Europe felt threatened by the revolutionary passion that had spread from France. The French Revolution would change the map of Europe forever.

Ideals such as the right to vote, equality before the law, freedom of speech and the right to a fair trial were all enshrined in law during the French Revolution. Careers within the civil service and military became open to talent rather than noble birthright. As a result, the French Revolution is said to have marked the rise of the 'common man' and the emergence of the modern era.

Not everyone in France at the time supported the changes produced by the revolution. Opponents were mainly supporters of the monarchy who had a lot to lose from the reforms it introduced.

Source 4.3.1 Revolutionary eighteenth-century cartoon showing the First and Second Estates crushing the Third Estate beneath a rock of taxes and obligations, Musée Carnavalet

Source 4.3.2 The women's march to Versailles, 1789, Bibliotheque Nationale

Influential ideas and events

The end of absolute monarchy

Until 1789, the king in France had virtually unlimited powers. He could make new laws, declare war and order the arrest of suspected opponents without the agreement of anyone else. This is why his government was called an absolute monarchy.

The structure of French society (known as the ***Ancien Régime***) had the king's subjects divided into three 'estates' below him. These were:

- First Estate: priests, monks, nuns, bishops and archbishops of the Catholic Church
- Second Estate: the smallest estate, which consisted of the French nobility
- Third Estate: the largest estate, which was made up of all other subjects not belonging to the first two estates. The inequality between the Estates is shown in Source 4.3.1.

The Estates-General

In 1789, King Louis XVI faced a severe financial crisis that threatened to bankrupt his government. In an attempt to deal with this he called a meeting of the three estates, known as the Estates General. Because it was by far the largest, representatives of the Third Estate demanded double the representation of the two other smaller estates. When this was not given, the leaders of the Third Estate met on a nearby tennis court to demand that France be given a new constitution based on the equality of all citizens. This 'tennis court oath' was a direct challenge to the authority of the King as it called on all citizens of France to support a new National Assembly.

The storming of the Bastille

The storming of the Bastille on 14 July 1789 showed just how frustrated ordinary people had become with King Louis's inaction. People in Paris began to realise that the King was powerless to stop the growing revolution. Shortly after the storming of the Bastille, the National Assembly issued decrees making taxation fairer and abolishing the Feudal System. A Declaration of Rights and a constitution were also introduced for the first time. These changes reduced the King's powers considerably, although Louis did not initially accept them.

Birth of the French Republic

With food shortages causing civil unrest, 7000 women of Paris marched to the King's palace at Versailles (see Source 4.3.2). There they demanded he give them grain and return with them to Paris. Louis was fearful of his life and agreed to go to Paris. Once there, the royal family was placed under house arrest at the Tuilleries Palace. In 1791, Louis agreed to accept a new constitution, making him a constitutional monarch.

The free communication of ideas and opinions is one of the most precious rights of Man. Every citizen may, accordingly, speak, write, and print with freedom, but shall be responsible for such abuses of this freedom as shall be defined by law.

Source 4.3.3 Excerpt from the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen*

The storming of the Tuilleries Palace

Despite giving his verbal support, Louis was secretly plotting with other monarchies in Europe to invade France and restore his absolute rule. His queen, Marie Antoinette, had come from Austrian royalty and was hated by most ordinary French people. In 1792, France declared war against Austria and soon after Austria and Prussia formed an alliance against France. To the ordinary people of Paris, this made the royal family enemies in their midst. On 10 August 1792, an angry crowd stormed the Tuilleries Palace and demanded that Louis be tried for treason. The following month, the newly convened National Convention voted to put Louis on trial and make France a republic.

Influential individuals

Robespierre in the Reign of Terror

As the war with Austria continued, people grew more and more fearful that an invasion would take away all of the hard-won rights of the revolution. Fear then turned to paranoia, resulting in the September massacres of prisoners by the Parisian mob. The Jacobins in the National Convention supported these attacks. They also wanted the King executed, which occurred on 21 January 1793 when Louis was beheaded by guillotine (see Source 4.3.4). This marked the beginning of a period known as the Reign of Terror in which the Jacobins and their supporters set about executing all suspected opponents of the republic. The largest group of victims came from the Vendée region, which had risen in revolt against the National Convention. The Committee for Public Safety, led by Maximillien Robespierre, led the Terror. Even fellow Jacobins were not safe from Robespierre's obsession. Eventually, when it was feared that Robespierre had become a dictator, he was arrested and executed.

The rise of Napoleon Bonaparte

The Jacobins had drawn most of their support from the Parisian mob and Robespierre had been their hero. To prevent another Terror, a new constitution was introduced limiting the voting rights of ordinary citizens. This created a legislature with two houses—the Council of Five Hundred and the Council of Ancients. These two councils elected five men known as the Directory to lead the government.

As wars against Austria, Prussia and Russia began to result in higher taxes and less food, the Directory became more and more unpopular. If not for the military brilliance of the young general Napoleon Bonaparte, France would have faced certain invasion. On his return to Paris in 1799, Bonaparte took part in a coup d'état to overthrow the Directory. It was replaced with a three-man consulate and Napoleon was declared First Consul. Within five years, Napoleon would be crowned as Emperor of France.

DID YOU KNOW?

Before the French Revolution, only upper-class lawbreakers were decapitated. Lower-class criminals were hanged and 'kept their head on'.

ACTIVITIES

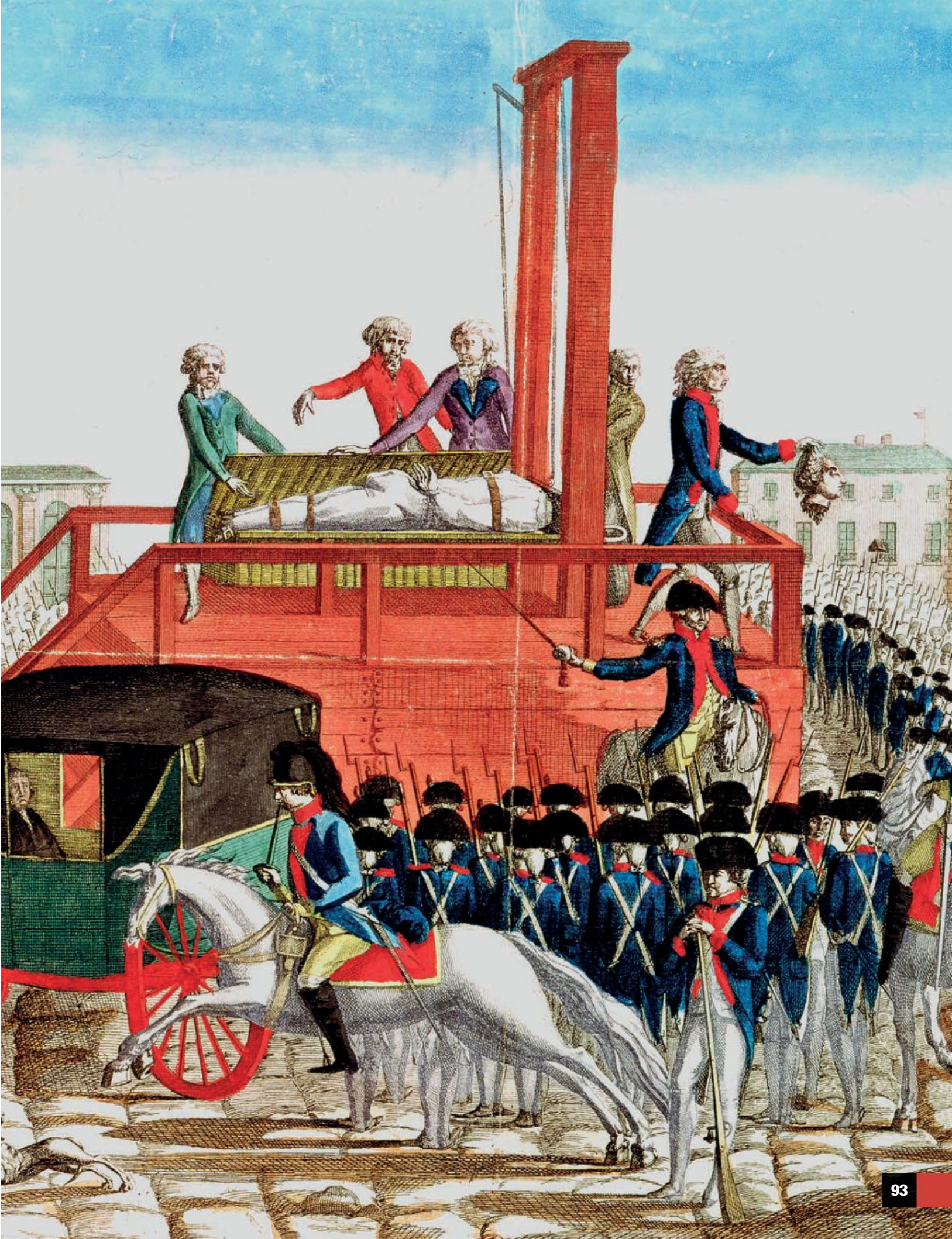
Remembering and understanding

1. What is the historical significance of the French Revolution?
2. What is meant by the term 'absolute monarchy'?
3. Explain how the storming of the Bastille was a turning point in the French Revolution?
4. What rights were guaranteed by the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen*?

Applying and analysing

5. Using a blank triangle, create a social hierarchy that shows the order, members and size of each of the three estates in the *Ancien Régime*.
6. Create a mind map that highlights the main features of the Reign of Terror. Include key people, groups, events and outcomes of this period.
7. Napoleon Bonaparte famously said of the French Revolution, 'The revolution is over. I am the revolution'. By reading the section on 'The Rise of Napoleon Bonaparte' and through your own research, explain what you think he meant. Give evidence for your reasoning.

Source 4.3.4 Execution by guillotine of King Louis XVI of France, 1793, engraving, c. 1790s, Bibliotheque Nationale



Source Study

UNIT 4.4

Propaganda of the French Revolution

Source 4.4.1 *Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen*, produced during the French Revolution, 1789, Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris

Mass propaganda

Mass **propaganda** was first used during the French Revolution to completely change the mind-set of the nation. Once the people of France no longer considered themselves as subjects of the king, they were to aspire to be the model citizen or 'republican man'. This ideal embodied the virtues of patriotism and self-sacrifice for the common good.

New symbols for a new era

In a society where most people could not read or write, images were important to promote the ideals of the French Revolution. These were often adaptations of Christian symbols with which people were already familiar. Images of the Virgin Mary gave way to those of 'Lady Liberty'. The Declaration of Rights was sometimes depicted as the two tablets of the Ten Commandments in the Bible (see Source 4.4.1).

Pyramids appeared frequently in artworks of the French Revolution; the equal angles of the pyramid stand for equality between all members of society. Common items that had once depicted the *Ancien Régime* were substituted with revolutionary equivalents. With the abolition of the monarchy in 1793, Lady Liberty appeared as the Queen of Hearts in packs of playing cards. Certain chess pieces were also renamed, for example, the Bishop became the 'fool' and the castle the 'tower' (meaning dungeon or prison).

Types of revolutionary propaganda

Written sources

One of the most influential and widely circulated pamphlets during the French Revolution was called '*What is the Third Estate?*' written by Abbé Sieyès in January 1789. Although Sieyès was a member of the clergy and belonged to the First Estate, he was sympathetic to the grievances of the Third Estate. The pamphlet convinced members of the Third Estate of their need for double representation at the Estates-General.

Oral sources

The records of spoken words and songs are considered oral sources of history. Soldiers fighting for the revolution sang *La Marseillaise* from Marseilles on their way to Paris after the storming of the Bastille. Despite its bloodthirsty chorus, *La Marseillaise* has been France's national anthem since 1795.

To arms, citizens!
Form up your battalions
Let us march, Let us march
That their impure blood
Should water our fields.

Source 4.4.2 The original chorus of *La Marseillaise* is still sung today

Visual sources

The figure of Marianne, the goddess of liberty, was perhaps the most famous character created during the Revolution. She was an adaptation from Roman times and represented virtue, purity and innocence. Marianne was depicted as a young woman often carrying a pike with a liberty bonnet at the end.

Physical sources

The revolutionary cockade was an important way for people to show their support for the revolution. Containing the red, white and blue of the tricolour, the cockade was usually worn on a hat or lapel. Another enduring symbol of the Revolution was the Phrygian cap (also known as the 'liberty bonnet'). First worn by freed Roman slaves in ancient times, it was adopted during the French Revolution as a symbol of citizenship and freedom from oppression.

Source 4.4.3 *Allegory of Liberty*, painted by Nanine Vallain, 1793–1794, Musée de la Révolution Française de Vizille

Source 4.4.4 The Phrygian cap and tricolour cockade are still worn as symbols of liberty in France today.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What is propaganda and why was it used so widely during the French Revolution?
2. How did propagandists during the French Revolution adapt symbols with which people were already familiar?
3. What were the symbols that were worn during the French Revolution and why were these important?

Applying and analysing

4. Make a copy a Phrygian cap, a revolutionary cockade or another physical propaganda item from the French Revolution. Write an explanation of the origins of the item and its significance to the revolution.
5. Conduct research into the revolutionary calendar introduced in France. Present the findings of your research in a report that shows:
   - reasons why the original calendar was changed, by whom and when
   - names of the months and their equivalents today
   - meaning of each month name
   - how time was divided and the years renamed
   - who abolished the revolutionary calendar and why.

UNIT 4.5

Impact of the Industrial Revolution

Beginning of the factory system

Mass production allowed capitalists to make goods quickly, cheaply and in large quantities by employing many workers. The steam engine provided power for these factories to operate. The Soho Manufactory, established by Matthew Bolton, was the first factory to use a production line of workers, each with their own specific task to perform over and over again.

Trade and transport

The development of the steam train and ship meant that goods being produced in British cotton mills and other factories could travel much faster and further than ever before. New markets were established as goods could be moved around the country and throughout the empire at a much faster rate. As a result, the demand for British textiles grew and mill owners began to employ women and children, as they were cheaper sources of labour.

Lives of the working poor

Working conditions

As the number of factories grew in Britain, competition between factory owners led many to find cheaper and more efficient ways of operating. As a result, very little money was spent making factory conditions safer and workers were expected to work from twelve to sixteen hours a day. The risk of injury or even death at work was a daily reality for many workers since there were no rules about the safe use of machinery.

Child labour

It was not uncommon for textile mills to employ children as young as six to perform tasks requiring small hands and nimble fingers. In the coalmines, young children were often used to open and close mineshaft doors. In the cities, wealthier families paid children to clean the soot and grime from their chimneys.

> *Poor infants … you are compelled to work as long as the necessity of your needy parents may require, or the cold blood avarice of your worse than barbarian masters may demand … You are doomed to labour from morning to night for one who cares not how soon your weak and tender frames are stretched to breaking.*

Source 4.5.1 Robert Oastler, an outspoken critic of child labour in nineteenth-century Britain

Living conditions

> *The dwellings of the labouring manufacturers are in narrow streets and lanes, blocked up from light and air, crowded together because every inch of land is of such value that room for light and air cannot be afforded them. Here in Manchester, a great proportion of the poor lodge in cellars, damp and dark, where every kind of filth is suffered to accumulate because no exertions of domestic care can ever make such homes decent.*

Source 4.5.2 Robert Southey on the living conditions in a London poorhouse, 1808

Connections to Australia

A 'working-man's paradise'?

After the gold rushes, Australia experienced an economic boom and major cities developed rapidly. Living and working conditions for unskilled workers in inner-city working-class districts were generally poor. Many were paid by piece-rate and earned barely enough to survive on. For skilled workers, however,

the economic boom of the nineteenth century brought relatively high wages, shorter working hours and the opportunity for social advancement. To these workers, who had the protection of trade unions, Australia was seen as a 'working-man's paradise'.

Factory reform in Britain

1802 Factories Act: limits daily working hours for children to 12; bans night work

1819 Cotton Mills Act: makes it illegal to employ children under 9 years of age

1831 Labour in Cotton Mills Act: makes it illegal to force workers under 21 to work at night

1833 Factories Act: Further reduces working hours for children in textile mills

1847 Factories Act: Limits the working week to 58 hours (10 per day)

1850 Factories Act: sets working hours for women and children to 6 a.m.–6 p.m., with time out for meals

1878 Factories Act: applies rules from previous Acts to all industries; makes education compulsory for children up to 10 years of age

1891 Factories Act: makes it illegal to employ women within four weeks of the onset of childbirth

Source 4.5.3 Factory acts in Britain

The Depression of the 1890s

An economic depression during the 1890s led to widespread unemployment. This economic downturn brought new pressures for trade unions. As unemployment increased, union membership also declined. With a surplus of available workers, employers no longer had to attract the best skilled workers by offering high rates of pay. Worker anger at the lack of employment opportunity as well as the decline in pay and working conditions led to a series of 'Great Strikes' during the 1890s (see Source 4.5.4). These ultimately failed due to the willingness of governments to use troops to break picket lines that tried to prevent non-unionised workers from entering the workplace.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What was mass production and how did it change the nature of work?
2. What new technology from the Industrial Revolution changed the nature of transport?

Applying and analysing

3. Using ADAMANT, analyse one of the written sources in this unit.
4. Write a discussion on whether or not Australia in the nineteenth century should be considered a 'working-man's paradise'. Plan your discussion by comparing improvements for workers with the ongoing difficulties of life and work.

Source 4.5.4 Troops removing shearers during the 1891 'Great Strike' National Library of Australia

UNIT 4.6

Capitalism

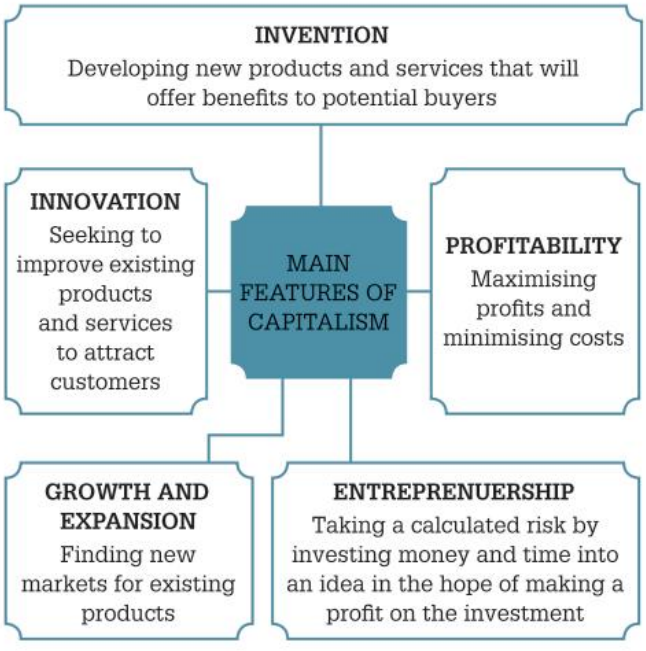
Origins of capitalism

Capitalism is an economic system based on competition between sellers. Capitalists are individuals who invest their money, time and effort into an idea or activity designed to make a profit. Capitalism has driven technological change, resulting in economic growth, employment and increased personal wealth for the majority of people in Western society.

The 'Protestant work ethic'

In 1905, German sociologist Max Weber explained the origins of capitalism in *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. Weber believed that capitalism emerged during the Reformation of the sixteenth century, when Protestant Christianity had made a virtue out of hard work and profit making, while Catholicism tended to value religious work as being more important.

Main features of capitalism



Source 4.6.1 Main features of capitalism

Responses to capitalism

Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*

Adam Smith was a Scottish philosopher and economist who wrote at the time of the Industrial Revolution. He was the first to propose the concept of gross domestic product (GDP) as a way of measuring a nation's wealth. Smith's view was that, through trade, the needs of everyone could be satisfied because:

- workers earn income by selling their skills and labour
- business owners earn profits by producing what customers need
- buyers acquire a good or service that improves their quality of life.

Karl Marx's *Das Kapital*

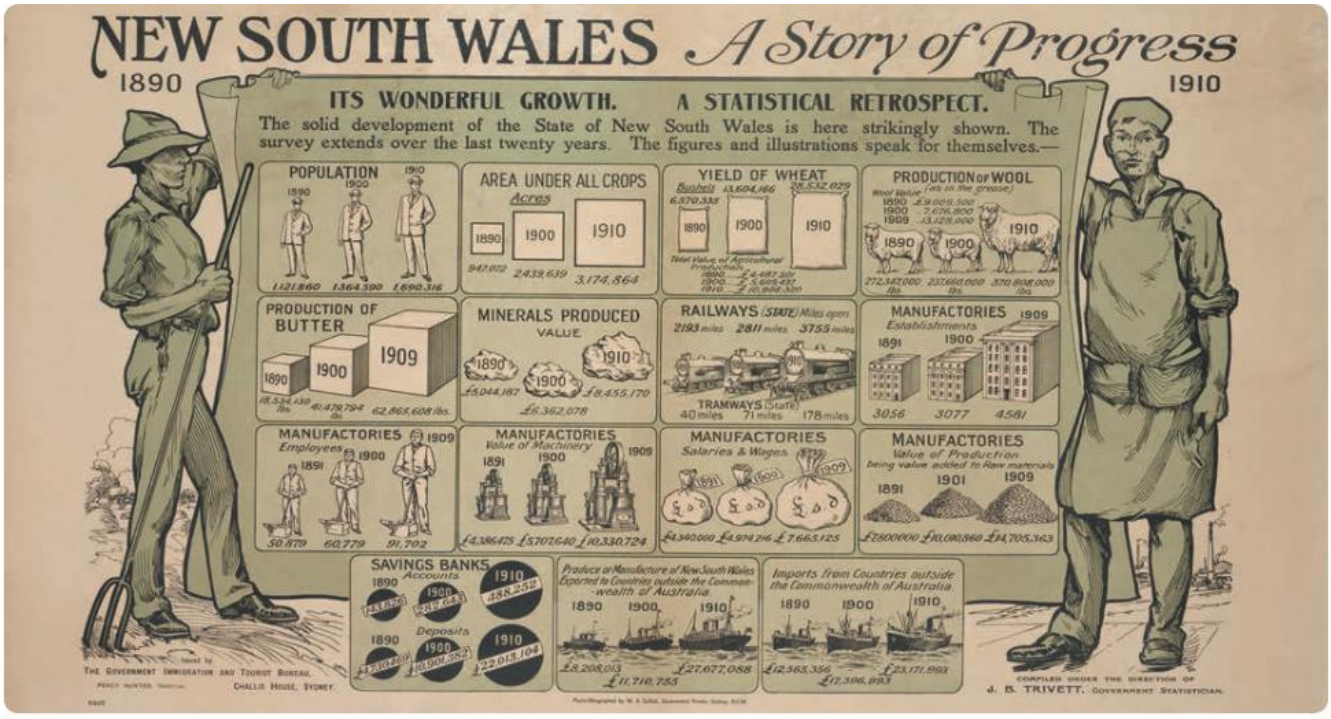
First published in 1867, Karl Marx's *Das Kapital* offered a critical view of the development of capitalism. He argued that capitalism contained the seeds of its own destruction. As more and more workers were driven into poverty, eventually the whole system of capitalism would collapse, as the mass of workers would rise up in revolution and take ownership of businesses.

Impacts of capitalism

Capitalism in colonial Australia

Owning land was highly unlikely for many people in England. The thought of acquiring property and becoming wealthy attracted those who could afford the sea passage to Australia. The discovery of gold in the 1840s soon led to an increase of emigrants from Europe and China to 'strike it lucky'.

As the population of Sydney grew food production increased, but people still wanted to import the things they missed from England such as tea, sugar and tobacco. Entrepreneurs imported everything the colony could not make for itself, and many of them became very rich. As well as the importers, there were also the producers (see Source 4.6.2).



Source 4.6.2 Government advertisement, State Library of NSW

International capitalism

The search for natural resources, foreign products, cheap labour and new markets led to the expansion of the British Empire around the globe. Until 1813, the very powerful British East India Company controlled all of this business. The Portuguese, Dutch and French also had large companies with monopolies over trade in their empires. These monopolies played a major role in developing the market for slaves, spices, cotton, tea, and many other goods that were unavailable in Europe.

Making capitalism fairer

Many working people responded to the growing power of capitalists by forming trade unions. Over time, governments in both Britain and Australia sought to regulate capitalism by introducing laws to make it a fairer system for workers. Examples include:

- introduction of the eight-hour working day
- introduction of a minimum wage
- improvements in workplace safety
- taxes on business in order to provide benefits to society.

Despite Marx's predictions about its collapse, capitalism survived a number of major challenges during the first half of the twentieth century. These included World Wars I and II, the rise of communism and the Great Depression.

Capitalism today

The development of shipping containers and maritime technology has made it much easier to move large amounts of manufactured goods around the world. From the 1980s, governments have been committed to reducing tariffs and making international trade easier. E-commerce, through websites such as eBay and Amazon, has further stimulated trade between buyers and sellers in different countries.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What were the two major periods of history that gave rise to capitalism?
2. What role did capitalism play in the growth of Sydney?
3. What major challenges has capitalism survived in the twentieth century?

Applying and analysing

4. Script an imaginary conversation between Adam Smith and Karl Marx, showing their different perspectives towards capitalism.
5. Using the information in this unit, create a PMI table for capitalism (plus, minus and interesting).

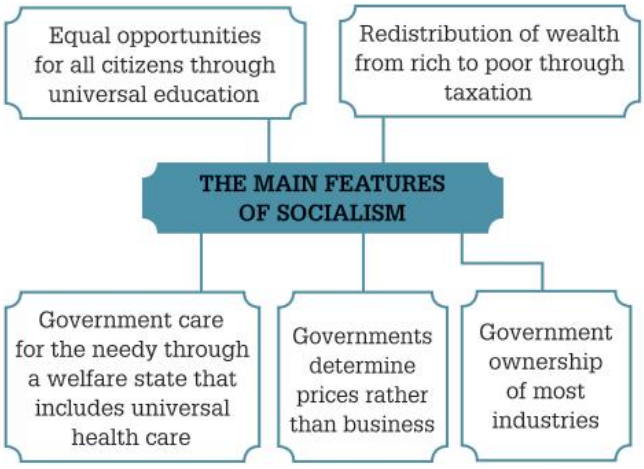
UNIT 4.7

Socialism

Origins of socialism

During the Industrial Revolution, a number of prominent men such as Henri Saint-Simon, Charles Fourier and Robert Owen began to think about alternatives to capitalism. These early socialists believed that at least some profits should be given to the workers. A wealthy industrialist himself, Robert Owen established self-supporting communities that provided free medical care, evening classes for adults and free child minding for his 2500 workers.

Main Features of socialism



Source 4.7.1 Main features of socialism

Changing nature of socialism

Communism: revolutionary socialism

The inequalities produced by industrialisation were criticised by Karl Marx, who in 1848 co-wrote *The Communist Manifesto* with Friedrich Engels. Marx's theory of revolutionary socialism was known as communism. He believed that a class struggle between employers and employees would eventually lead to a revolution and the final destruction of capitalism. A classless society would then emerge where people would work for the benefit of their communities instead of an employer.

Fabianism: democratic socialism

The Fabian Society was founded in London in 1884 with the aim of advancing socialism democratically. Fabian socialists believed that socialism could not be achieved through violent revolution, but only by the slow and gradual process of law reform. As more and more workers were given the right to vote, Fabians believed that they would elect representatives to parliament who would change the law to improve their wages and working conditions and provide universal health care and education for ordinary people.

Impacts of socialism in Australia

The eight-hour day

The Australian Eight Hour movement campaigned to limit the working day to just eight hours. On 21 April 1856, the Victorian parliament passed legislation guaranteeing an eight-hour working day for all skilled workers in the building industry (see Source 4.7.2). This was a world first and by the end of the decade, most of Victoria's skilled workforce had been given the eight-hour day.

The Australian Labor Party

The failure of the 'Great Strikes' of the 1890s showed that employers could overcome striking workers if supported by the government and police. Trade unionists therefore hoped that by getting elected to parliament they could control the government. In 1891, Australia's first political party, the Australian Labor Party, was formed. Throughout the 1890s, Labor representatives sought to introduce a basic living wage and an extension of the eight-hour day to all workers.

Impact of socialism on the world

The Bolshevik Revolution, 1917

In 1917, a small group of Marxists known as Bolsheviks seized government in Russia. The Bolshevik Revolution established the world's first communist government, known as the Soviet Union, run for and by the workers. Once in power the

Source 4.7.2 Trade union membership certificate, 1911, State Library of New South Wales

Bolsheviks gave ownership of the land to the peasants, seized the financial assets of the rich, abolished all ranks in society, and introduced the eight-hour day and worker's compensation insurance. By the 1930s, however, instead of becoming a true workers' state, the Soviet Union became a repressive dictatorship in which millions of workers were deported to labour camps.

The welfare state

Since World War I democratic socialism has had a major impact on the way Western governments see their role. Over time, the creation of a **welfare state** has resulted in a progressive tax system, where wealthier citizens and businesses pay higher rates of tax than the poor. Governments have used this revenue to provide the basic needs of ordinary people, such as:

- free and compulsory education
- universal health care
- unemployment benefits
- maternity leave allowance
- public transport.

Responses to socialism

Right-wing opposition

While socialist ideas are referred to a 'left-wing', opposition to socialism is a feature of right-wing political thinking. Right-wing opponents of socialism typically believe in the freedom of the individual to earn profits without government interference. Some economic liberals have even argued that 'tax is theft'. During the Irish famine, for example, British businessman James Wilson opposed sending food aid to Ireland, stating, 'It is no man's business to provide for another'.

Socialism today

Communist nations

A few nations today are still governed by communist parties, although they are far less rigid in their policies than they once were. These nations include China, Vietnam and Cuba. Today, in China, capitalism is actively encouraged by the government and is one of the reasons why the Chinese economy continues to grow. Only North Korea remains a strictly communist government in which the state runs all major business activity.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Who are the winners and losers in a socialist system?
2. What were the achievements of the Eight Hour movement in Australia?
3. How did the Bolsheviks in Russia attempt to create a socialist society?
4. Why have economic liberals been critical of socialism?

Applying and analysing

5. Compare communism with Fabian socialism by constructing a table that looks at the aims and methods of both.
6. Create an imaginary social networking page for any of the socialist thinkers mentioned in this unit. Include a digital photo, a brief biography and a list of achievements. Present other historical information through blog entries, messages to friends, likes and dislikes.

UNIT 4.8

Egalitarianism

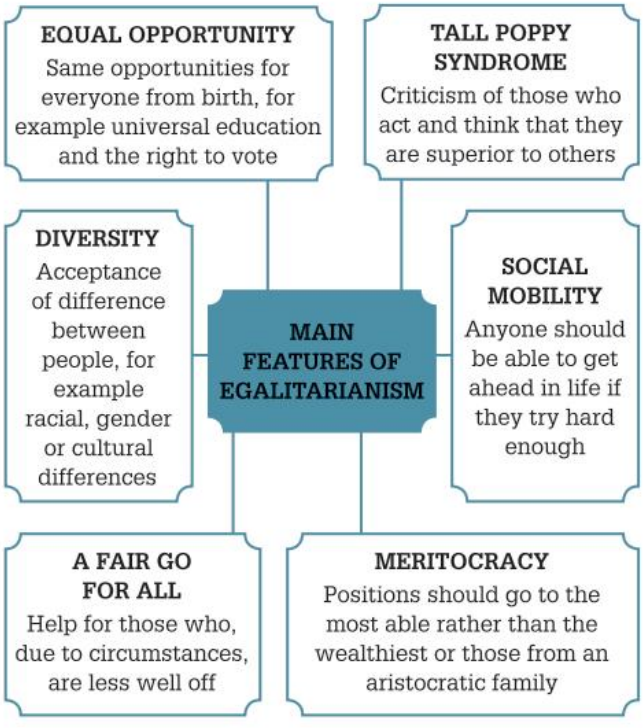
Origins of egalitarianism

The term 'egalitarianism' comes from the French word *egalité*, which means 'social and political equality'. It was popularised during the French Revolution with the slogan '*Liberté, egalité, fraternité*'. After the revolution, careers in the government and army were given to those most capable of performing the job rather than those from noble birth. This concept is referred to as meritocracy.

Emergence of Australian egalitarianism

Throughout the nineteenth century, Australia developed a far less rigid class system than Britain. Opportunities for advancement attracted new settlers from Britain, many of who had never owned land previously. Such opportunities led to greater social mobility in Australia compared to Britain.

Main features of egalitarianism



Source 4.8.1 Main features of egalitarianism

Egalitarianism in early New South Wales

In the decades after European settlement, many convicts who had served their sentences decided to remain in New South Wales. These emancipists demanded equality before the law with the exclusivists who were free settlers, government officials and military officers. Governor Macquarie wanted to treat the emancipists as equals and appointed several of them to positions of responsibility, even making an emancipist, Andrew Thompson, magistrate of the colony. The exclusivists, who thought that convicts and their children were born criminals, opposed the influence of the emancipists. Many exclusivists also wanted to increase their own land holding and limit the number of people being given land grants by the governor.

In 1842, the colony of New South Wales received its first constitution. This gave the right to vote to all men who owned property regardless of whether they were emancipists or exclusivists.

Impacts of egalitarianism

The Australian Legend

During the nineteenth century, Australia was seen as a land of opportunity for British settlers who were attracted by the prospect of owning their own land. This was something most immigrants could not have dreamed of in Britain. Although many settlers to Australia experienced poverty and financial ruin, many came here with the belief that if they worked hard and had a bit of good luck, they could improve their lives.

DID YOU KNOW?

Prime Ministers Bob Hawke, John Howard, Julia Gillard and Kevin Rudd were all educated in Australian government secondary schools.

The difficulties of outback life were abundant. They made the practice of a collectivist 'mateship' essential ... The hazards and hardships, but above all the loneliness of up-country life were such that, to make life tolerable, often merely to preserve it, every man had habitually to treat every other man as a brother.

Source 4.8.2 Historian Russel Ward, *The Australian Legend*, 1958

Universal education

By 1880, the colonial parliaments of South Australia, Victoria and New South Wales had all passed laws making primary education free and compulsory. Not only did such laws create a literacy boom in the decades that followed, they also brought an end to child labour. Equipped with the ability to read and write children from poorer families now had the opportunity to become skilled workers and earn higher rates of pay. The introduction of universal education therefore played an important role in bringing greater **social mobility** to Australia.

Changing nature of egalitarianism

The same people calling for a 'fair go' did not apply this principle to those who they considered below them—Aborigines, non-White immigrants and women.

Historian Humphrey McQueen has pointed out that racism was one of the earliest and strongest Australian characteristics to emerge. According to McQueen, the destruction of Aboriginal life and the treatment of Asian immigrants showed that exclusion, rather than egalitarianism, was the attitude of most people.

Indeed, so widely accepted were these (racist) attitudes that it is, highly likely that they were not even considered racist. They were just naturally Australian.

Source 4.8.3 Humphrey McQueen, *A New Britannia*, 1970

Since the 1970s, other historians such as Anne Summers and Marilyn Lake have rewritten women into Australian history, demonstrating that throughout much of Australia's history, the concept of a 'fair go' simply did not apply to females.

Egalitarianism today

Egalitarianism today is often expressed in the principle of a 'fair go for all'. However, the debate about whether or not Australia is truly an egalitarian society remains ongoing. Those who believe Australia is an egalitarian country point to the following:

- Race Discrimination Act, 1975
- Sex Discrimination Act, 1984
- Prime Minister Bob Hawke ends knighthoods in Australia, 1986
- Equal Opportunity Commission Act, 1986
- Australia's first female Prime Minister, Julia Gillard, takes office, 2010.

Those who reject the view that Australia is an egalitarian society, highlight the following growing inequalities:

- women's pay is 17.6 per cent less than that of men
- there is a widening gap between rich and poor
- Aboriginal unemployment is 16.6 per cent compared with 5 per cent nationally
- asylum seekers are denied basic human rights
- same-sex couples are denied the right to marry.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What is a meritocracy and what are its benefits?
2. Who were the exclusivists and the emancipists? Which were the more egalitarian and why?
3. List examples in Australian history where egalitarianism has and has not been practised.

Applying and analysing

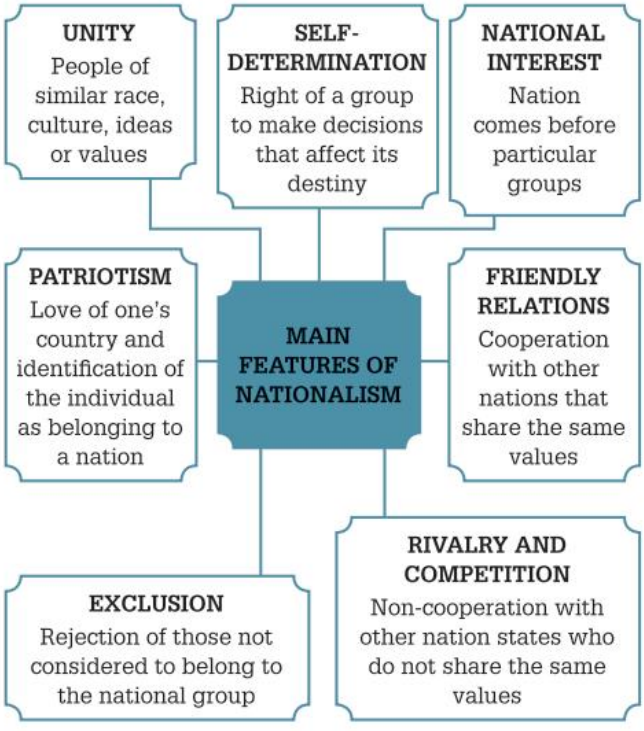
4. Using evidence from the text and your own research, write an exposition (a one-sided argument) to support your view that Australia today is or is not an egalitarian society.
5. Imagine that you have been asked by your school principal to submit a proposal on ways to make your school more egalitarian. Write a proposal in a report format to indicate the major changes proposed.

UNIT 4.9

Nationalism

Origins of nationalism

Nationalism is the belief that people of similar ideals, race or culture ought to belong to the same nation state. During the nineteenth century, nationalist ideas were based on beliefs about the superiority of one racial group over others. At the time, many people of British origin believed that the Anglo-Saxon race was the most civilised in the world. Most viewed the peoples Britain had colonised as primitive and in need of British rule.



Source 4.9.1 Main features of nationalism

Responses to nationalism

Nationalism was one of the most influential ideas of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Different expressions of nationalism can be seen in:

- the establishment of new nations, for example the unification of German states in 1871; Federation of Australian colonies in 1901
- growing overseas empires, for example the 'Scramble for Africa' that took place among European empires during the late nineteenth century
- national rivalries, for example competition and growing tension between major European powers before World War I
- movements of resistance, for example the Indian National Congress formed in 1885 to demand a greater say for Indians in the government of the British Raj (the period of British rule in India)
- demands for self-government, for example Black nationalism in the United States during the early twentieth century that demanded a separate homeland for African Americans
- denial of rights to ethnic minorities, for example the persecution of Jews in Russia in the early twentieth century.

Responses to nationalism in Australia

The Bulletin

The development of Australian nationalism owed a great deal to *The Bulletin*, a popular Sydney weekly that was distributed Australia-wide. Despite the fact that most people lived in urban areas, the 'bushman's bible' as *The Bulletin* called itself, placed a strong emphasis on Australian themes and tales from the bush. Its short stories, poems, editorials, news articles and cartoons were written to appeal to an audience of single males who were constantly on the move looking for work. *The Bulletin* glorified the bush at a time when Australian towns and cities were experiencing high unemployment, crippling strikes and clashes between workers and authorities. For many workers, the bush was seen as a place to retreat to from the troubles of the city.

Poets such as Henry Lawson and Banjo Paterson were regular contributors to *The Bulletin*. Both men, icons of Australian literature, gave the bush a very special place in the emergence of Australian identity.

Source 4.9.2 *On the Wallaby Track*, Frederick McCubbin, 1896, Art Gallery of NSW. An example of artwork from the Australian Heidelberg School

> *No nigger, no Chinaman, no lascar (Indians), no Kanaka (South Pacific Islanders), no purveyor of cheap coloured labor is an Australian*

Source 4.9.3 This quote appeared in *The Bulletin*, 2 July 1887 to explain what the editors meant by 'Australian'

The Heidelberg School

At around the same time, the artists of the Heidelberg School were beginning to portray the Australian bush as they actually saw it. By choosing to paint outdoors on location, artists such as Arthur Streeton and Tom Roberts were able to capture the natural colours and light of the Australian bush (see Source 4.9.2). Their artwork often included scenes of bush life, with ordinary people living and working in the bush. This was different to previous paintings of the Australian bush, which tended to portray it like the English countryside and without people.

The changing nature of nationalism in Australia

The importance of sport

Sport was an important aspect of popular culture in colonial Australia and played a major role in the development of patriotic feelings. Patriotism is defined simply as pride in one's country. Skill on the sporting field was seen as proof that Australians were capable of beating anyone. Early Australian sporting achievements did much to foster a sense of national pride. In 1877, the popularity of cricket in the Australian colonies led to the establishment of the first Australian team. In March that year, Australia defeated England at the Melbourne Cricket Ground in the first test match ever played. In 1882, the touring Australian side defeated England at the Oval in London. Most English people could not believe that a team from the colonies was capable of defeating their side. *The Sporting Times* newspaper in England went as far as issuing a mock obituary, announcing the death of English cricket. To commemorate their famous victory, the touring Australians were given a small urn containing the burnt remains of the bails used in the test match. Australians had proven themselves by beating the British at their own game.

White Australia

Fear of non-White foreigners was another notable feature of early Australian nationalism. This was often based on ethnic stereotypes and ignorance of other cultures but was typical of the racist attitudes of the time. As a small and isolated population, Anglo-Australians feared that racial intermixing would weaken their ability to compete with other races and would eventually threaten their own survival. The first law passed by the new Commonwealth Parliament in 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act, designed to prevent non-Whites from entering the new nation (see Source 4.9.4).

Impacts of nationalism

Independence movements

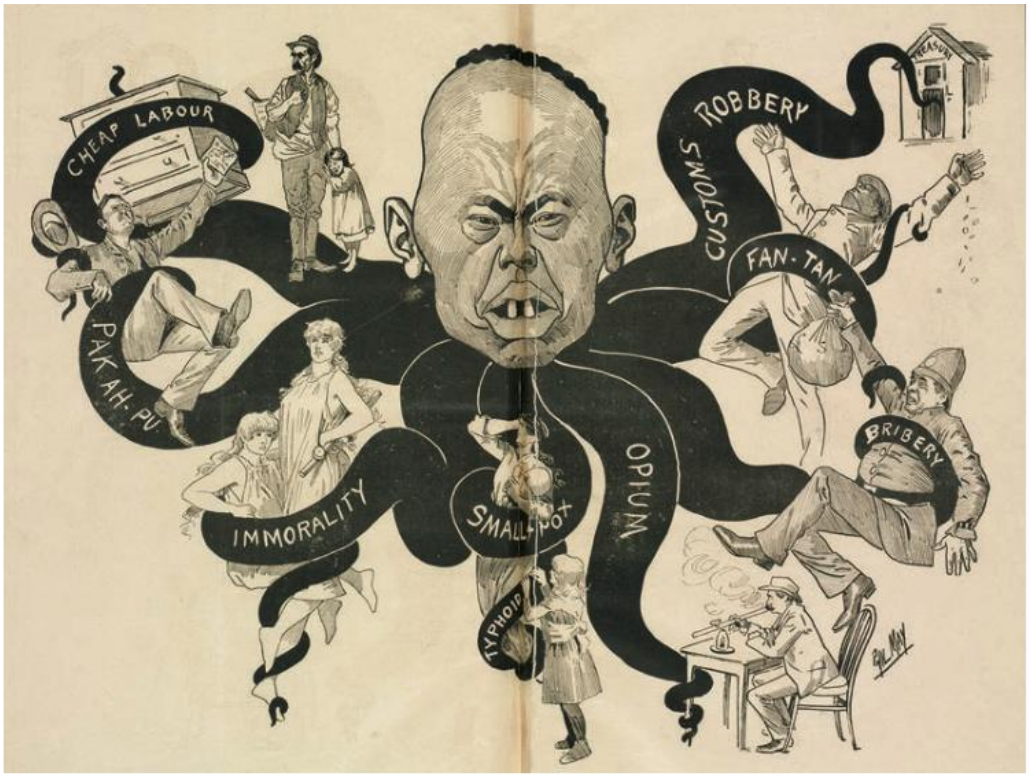
With the expansion of European empires throughout Asia and Africa, many independence movements were formed to resist foreign rule. European rule had brought central government to many regions formerly ruled by native princes or powerful military leaders. After the arrival of Europeans and the impact of colonisation, many indigenous people developed a greater sense of their own racial and cultural identity. This growing awareness led to new movements of resistance against foreign rule in India (against the British), Vietnam (against the French), the Dutch East Indies (against the Dutch), and in Africa (against most European empires).

German unification and expansion

National rivalries between the major European powers sometimes led to crises when war seemed inevitable. In 1871, under the leadership of Otto von Bismarck, twenty-five German-speaking states unified to become a single nation. The new Germany was far more capable of exerting influence throughout Europe. This was seen as a major threat to France, which bordered the new German nation. Before long tension between the two European powers developed as Germany, under the leadership of Kaiser Wilhelm II, sought its 'place in the sun' by acquiring its own overseas empire.

The outbreak of World War I

Growing tensions between the major European powers saw them form alliances in order to defend themselves against a future attack by an enemy. As well as growing distrust between France and Germany, Britain and Germany had entered into a naval race. Britain wanted to maintain its dominance on the seas, while Germany sought to build a fleet capable of taking a greater share of international trade. To do so, Germany needed colonies and began looking to the few places in the world that had not yet been claimed by other European empires. To check Germany's growing influence, Britain, France and Russia joined together in an alliance called the Triple Entente, while Germany, Italy and Austria–Hungary formed the Triple Alliance.



Source 4.9.4
The Mongolian Octopus—his grip on Australia, Phil May, *The Bulletin*, 21 August 1886

Source 4.9.5 Australian soccer fans cheer their side on

Nationalism today

Patriotism

Patriotism today is much less jingoistic than it was in the past. **Jingoism** is an aggressive form of patriotism that sees people of other nations or ethnic groups as inferior. Today, rather than being demonstrated through war, nationalism is mainly played out on the sporting field. Watch any soccer World Cup, Ashes test match, or cross-Tasman netball match to see just how passionately people support their country (see Source 4.9.5).

Racism

Racism is a belief in the inferiority of other racial groups and is evident wherever people are discriminated against on the basis of their ethnic origins. It comes from a fear of difference and a lack of understanding between different cultures. While **multiculturalism** has been a success in terms of the range of cultural imports it has brought to countries, some people have seen the arrival of greater numbers of foreign migrants as a threat to their way of life. In Australia, fears over the arrival of asylum seekers have often resulted in racial stereotyping.

Globalisation

The process of globalisation has led to the reduction of trade and cultural barriers between nation states. The world is becoming increasingly inter-connected through technology such as the internet and satellite television. The world's largest corporations are said to be transnational, because their operations span the globe and they employ people from many different countries. Globalisation has led to the emergence of the global citizen, that is, someone who believes that they belong to the world community first and a national community second.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What is nationalism and in what different ways has it been demonstrated?
2. How has Australian nationalism been expressed, both positively and negatively?
3. How was nationalism a major cause of the outbreak of World War I?

Applying and analysing

4. Take part in a class discussion on the following topic: 'Nationalism—a force for good or bad in the world?' Prepare for your discussion by listing as many historical examples of nationalism that you can locate, making a judgement as to whether the outcome of each was positive or negative.
5. Interview someone who was not born in Australia. Find out whether they have had a positive or negative experience of Australian nationalism. To do this you will need to clearly explain what nationalism is and how it can be expressed.

UNIT 4.10

Imperialism

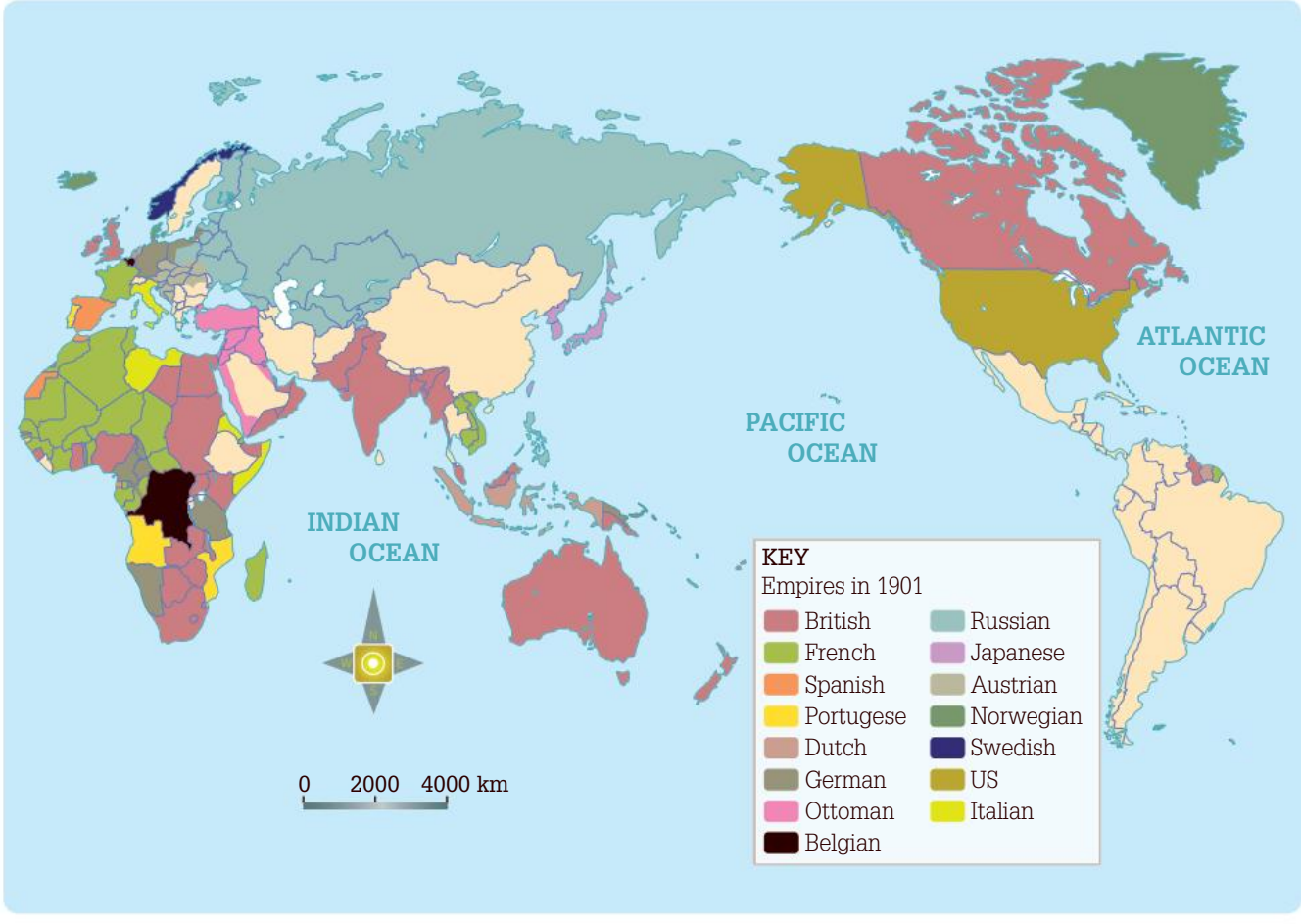
Origins of imperialism

Imperialism occurs when an outside power exercises influence over another area and its people. Ancient empires such as the Babylonians, Persians, Romans and Mongols all expanded their territories by conquering others. Better shipping and navigation from the late sixteenth century led to the beginning of an age of exploration. By the eighteenth century, the British had become the dominant naval power and, as a result, its empire spanned the globe. Source 4.10.1 shows the world and empires at the beginning of the twentieth century.

Main features of imperialism

British colonisers recognised three ways of acquiring new territory:

- by winning wars of conquest and taking land as part of the peace settlement, for example New Zealand
- by purchasing new lands with the signing of a treaty with other people, for example some parts of India
- by declaring newly 'discovered' territories to be ownerless, or ***terra nullius***, and therefore free to claim, as occurred in Australia.



Source 4.10.1 World empires before 1901

Source 4.10.2 British girls in sedan chair carried by Indian servants, c. 1895

Impacts of imperialism on the world

The British Empire

In 1800, the British controlled about 20 million people living outside Britain (see Source 4.10.2). By 1900, this number had risen to 400 million or a quarter of the world's entire population. The major regions of the British Empire included the Indian subcontinent, the West Indies, Australia, Africa and the 'Far East' (present-day Malaysia and Singapore).

The French Empire

Under Napoleon Bonaparte, France controlled most of continental Europe. This period is known as the First French Empire and lasted from 1805 to 1815. The empire ended in 1815 with Napoleon's defeat at the battle of Waterloo. After the French invasion of Algeria in 1830, a period known as the Second French Empire began. This was characterised by overseas expansion into Africa, Indochina and Polynesia.

Impacts of imperialism in Australia

The Australian colonies

In 1788, a fleet of eleven ships carrying 786 convicts arrived in Botany Bay, on the east coast of Australia. These convicts and the officers in charge of them established the first penal settlement in Australia. In later years, other settlements were established:

- Van Dieman's land (1803)
- Port Phillip (1803, but abandoned the following year)
- Moreton Bay (1823)
- Swan River (1829).

Disease and dispossession

Wherever they encountered European settlers for the first time, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were exposed to new and deadly diseases such as smallpox and influenza. Within a year of the arrival of the First Fleet, the Cadigal of the Sydney Cove area had been virtually wiped out by a virus that their immune systems could not fight. Driven off their land, many Aboriginal People were eventually restricted to areas for which White settlers had no use. This removal of Aboriginal People from their land is referred to as **dispossession**.

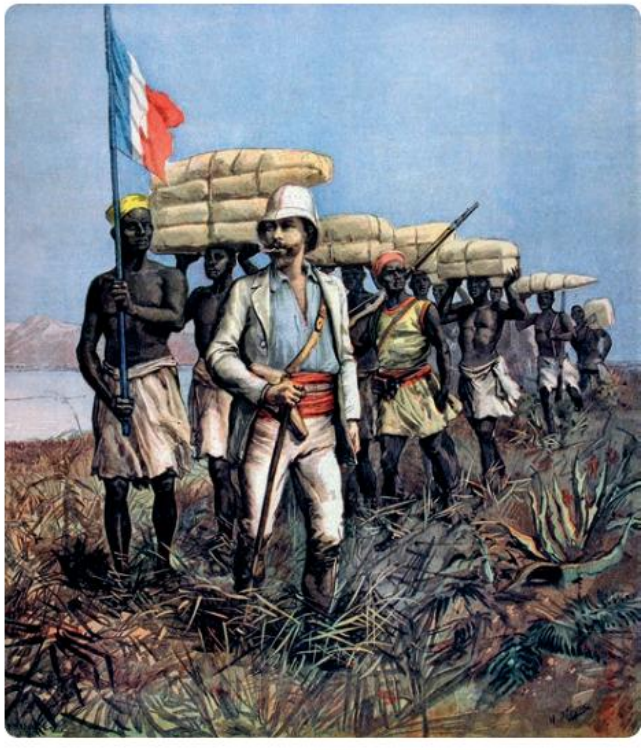
Changing nature of imperialism

From 'old' to 'new' imperialism

By the late nineteenth century, older empires such as the Spanish, Portuguese and Ottoman were well in decline. Several rising powers had come onto the world scene, including the United States, Germany and Japan. At the same time, advances in weapons and naval technology made it easier for Europeans to conquer other peoples. These changes had an impact on the nature of European imperialism. Differences between 'new' and 'old' imperialism are shown in the table below.

	Old imperialism	New imperialism
Beginning	Early seventeenth century	Late nineteenth century
Motivation	Wealth and trade	Civilising the 'uncivilised'
Type of influence	Economic control	Political control
Imperial power	Huge trading companies	National governments
Extent of influence	Ports and coastal areas	Entire regions

Source 4.10.3 Comparison between 'old' and 'new' imperialism



Source 4.10.4 Lieutenant Mizon and bearers in Upper Congo, Africa. *Le Petit Journal*, 9 July 1892

The 'Scramble for Africa'

The era of 'new' imperialism led to a 'scramble for Africa'. At the Berlin Conference in 1885, fifteen European powers divided the map of Africa into various 'spheres of influence'. These were regions where each power was recognised as the main imperial force. About thirty new colonies were established, making 110 million Africans the subjects of European empires (see Source 4.10.4). By 1914, European powers controlled about 94 per cent of Africa.

Responses to imperialism

China's response

China resisted Western intrusion into its affairs and preferred to remain isolated. Its army and navy lacked the technology to match Western threats and it was defeated in the Opium Wars (1839–1860). Against its will, China was forced to open its doors to Western trade and Christian missionaries. This led to a loss of traditional Confucian values and a series of large-scale rebellions against foreign influence.

India's response

In 1857, Indian soldiers within the army of the British East India Company mutinied. The mutiny quickly became a major rebellion, which required British government troops to restore order. This began a period known as the British Raj, during which the British government took over from the East India Company as the political authority in India. Over time, Indians responded in different ways to British rule. While some English-educated Indians embraced British rule, others joined the Indian nationalist movement and demanded greater freedoms and independence.

Japan's response

Japan had remained isolated for over 200 years before Westerners arrived seeking to open its doors to trade. Although at first the Japanese resisted Western intrusions, by 1868 a new policy of modernisation was pursued. The Japanese emperor reformed the Japanese industry, military and government according to Western ideas and principles. These advancements allowed Japan to emerge as an Asian empire capable of defeating the might of the Russian empire in 1905.

Imperialism today

Decolonisation

In the decades after World War II, the devastation of war meant that Britain could not afford to maintain its empire. This process of ending colonial rule is

Source 4.10.5 Even remote parts of the world are now interconnected through the internet

known as **decolonisation**. Former British colonies that became new nations at this time included India (1947), Egypt (1952), Malaysia (1957), Kenya and Singapore (1963).

In some cases, colonial powers fought against indigenous freedom fighters to maintain their control. Such was the case in Vietnam, where the French army were defeated by Vietnamese nationalists known as the Viet Minh. This ended nearly 100 years of French rule in Vietnam.

Cultural imperialism

In the era of globalisation, youth culture is being increasing shaped by the attitudes, fashions and products shown on television, the internet and in movies (see Source 4.10.5). Most of this comes from the United States and has led to what some have called the 'Americanisation' of global culture. This is an example of cultural imperialism by those who fear that the world is losing its cultural diversity.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. In what three ways did the British expand its empire?
2. What effects did British imperialism have on Aboriginal People?
3. How did the responses of China, India and Japan to imperialism differ?
4. What is decolonisation and why did it occur after World War II?

Applying and analysing

5. Prepare and deliver a two-minute oral presentation to the class on the rise and fall of one major European empire.
6. Write an explanation of the major differences between 'old' and 'new' imperialism. Conduct your own research as to why imperialism changed in the late nineteenth century.

UNIT 4.11 Chartism

Main features of Chartism

Chartism was a nineteenth-century movement. The Chartist movement derived its name from the People's Charter of 1838, which demanded full and fair democracy in Britain.

The People's Charter called for six main reforms.

1. Full male suffrage: all males aged 21 years and over should have the right to vote.
2. Secret ballot: voters should be allowed privacy to cast their ballots.
3. Removal of land ownership as a qualification for voting: property rules denied the majority of people the right to vote.
4. Payment for parliamentarians: this would allow people to seek election without financial loss.
5. Equal-sized electorates: this would guarantee that each vote was worth the same, regardless of where it was cast.
6. Annual elections: parliamentarians should be accountable to the electorate every year.

Source 4.11.1 'The Charter—the common scene', showing what some wealthier citizens thought would happen in parliament if the masses were granted the right to vote, cartoon, 1843, George Cruikshank.

Responses to Chartism

Government suppression

By the 1840s, the British Chartist movement began to demand an extension of voting rights to all males over 21. Chartists conducted mass demonstrations, which sometimes became violent. They demonstrated their widespread support by collecting 3.5 million signatures to a petition calling for the British parliament to pass electoral reform. This petition was rejected and, in 1842, Chartists organised a general strike that threatened to cripple the nation's economy. In response, British soldiers were used to break the strike, arrest Chartist leaders and crush further protest.

Opposition from landowners

During the nineteenth century, wealthier land-owning classes believed that 'mob rule' would result if ordinary people were given the right to vote. Events such as the Reign of Terror in France (1793–1894) had convinced political leaders that commoners could not be trusted with the vote. Consequently, most of the early modern democracies denied the franchise (or the right to vote) to ordinary people by making the ownership of property a requirement of voting. As a result, the interests of wealthier citizens were promoted above those of ordinary working people (see Source 4.11.1).

Impacts of Chartism

British Chartists

During the 1850s, several leading Chartists were elected to the British parliament and played an important role in the passing of the 1867 Electoral Reform Act, which gave the franchise to a greater number of men. In 1872, the British parliament introduced voting by secret ballot, thus ensuring that the true will of each voter was represented at the ballot box. By the turn of the century, however, the majority of British workingmen still did not have the right to vote. This occurred much later, in 1918, immediately after World War I.

Chartist success in Australia

Chartism was to prove far more successful in the Australian colonies than in Britain. Many of the leaders of the Eureka rebellion drew their inspiration from the British Chartists. Several had in fact been transported to Australia for involvement in Chartist strikes and demonstrations in Britain during the 1830s.

Within a year of the Eureka rebellion in 1854, its leader Peter Lalor had been appointed to the Victorian Legislative Assembly. He played a crucial role in the Victorian parliament, ensuring the passage of important democratic reforms such as full male suffrage, introduction of the secret ballot, pay for parliamentarians and annual elections. Shortly after this, other colonial parliaments also granted similar reforms. For this reason, Eureka has been called 'the birthplace of Australian democracy'.


The Australian Woman's Sphere

MELBOURNE, OCTOBER, 1900.

VOTERS AND VOTELESS.

Source 4.11.2 Front cover of *The Australian Woman's Sphere*, October 1900, State Library of Queensland

The changing nature of democracy

Women's suffrage movement

Women's suffrage groups demanded equal voting rights to men. Many campaigned tirelessly, producing information leaflets (see Source 4.11.2), holding public rallies and debates, sending delegations to lobby parliament and gathering petitions. By the turn of the century, governments were responding to their protests.

- 1894: South Australia became the first colony to give women the right to vote
- 1899: Western Australian women were given the right to vote
- 1902: Almost all Australian women (Aboriginal Australian women were the exception) were permitted to vote in federal elections
- 1964: Aboriginal women were permitted to vote in federal elections

Compulsory voting

Compulsory voting was first introduced in Australian in 1912. This made Australia one of just a few countries in the world to make voting compulsory. While it was never one of the Chartist aims, compulsory voting, like the secret ballot and equal-sized electorates, is designed to make sure that the true will of the majority is expressed at elections.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. From where did the Chartist movement get its name?
2. From where did opposition to Chartism come from?
3. Why has the Eureka Stockade been called 'the birthplace of Australian democracy'?
4. Why was compulsory voting introduced to Australia in 1912?

Applying and analysing

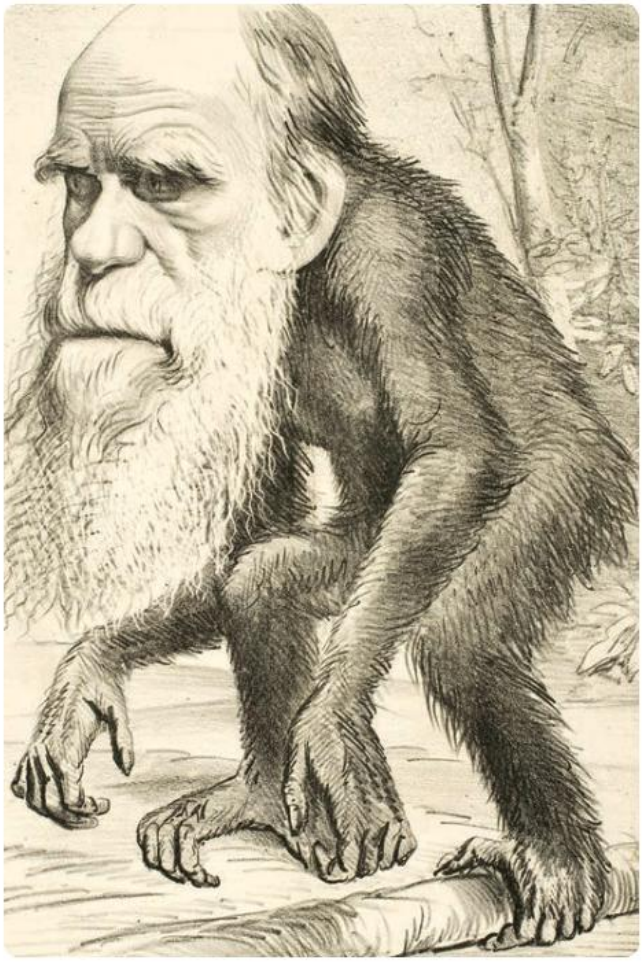
5. Explain how the six points of the 1838 People's Charter helped to guarantee the will of the majority.
6. Using Source 4.11.1 and information found through your own research, explain why some people were opposed to granting all male citizens the right to vote.

UNIT 4.12

Darwinism

Origins of Darwinism

Darwinism draws its name from the work of Charles Darwin. Darwin was a biologist whose book *On the Origin of Species*, published in 1859, set forth the theory of natural selection. In 1836, Darwin travelled aboard the HMAS *Beagle* to the Galapagos Islands, where he documented the existence of plant and animal species that existed nowhere else. On his return to England, Darwin developed a scientific theory that accounted for the emergence of new species based on their ability to survive and adapt to new conditions. Darwin's theory was also known as the theory of evolution.



Source 4.12.1 Cartoon caricature of Darwin

Main features of Darwinism

During his voyage, Darwin collected specimens of animals only found in the Galapagos Islands. He accounted for these rare species by suggesting that in each generation, a few members of a species are born with characteristics that make them better suited to the environment. These individuals pass their traits onto the next generation, while less-suited members of the species eventually died out. Darwin referred to this process as the 'survival of the fittest'. His 1871 book, titled *The Descent of Man*, went a step further by claiming that human beings had descended directly from apes. Darwin even suggested that people's behaviour and emotions were characteristics that were passed down from their biological ancestors.

Responses to Darwinism

Reactions from religious groups

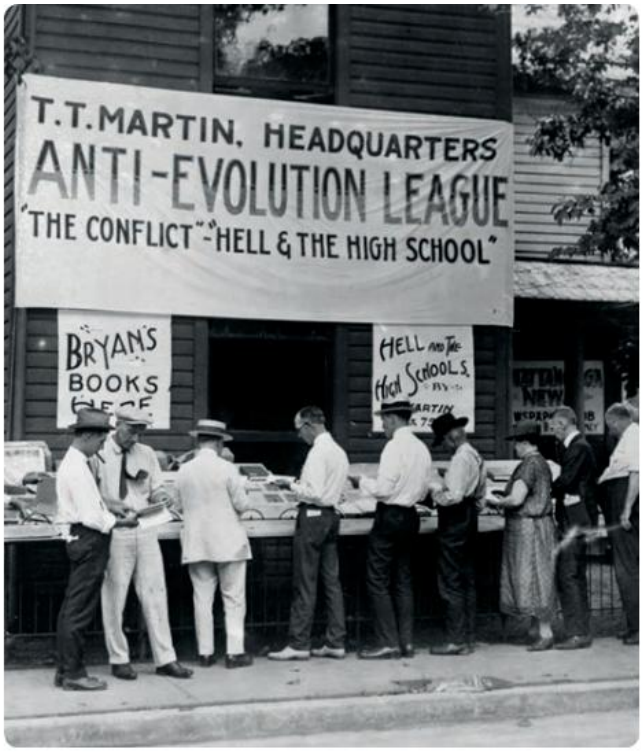
For many religious leaders of the day, Darwin's claim that humankind had descended from apes challenged the Christian belief that people had been made in the image of god. Darwinism also explained the existence of living things without a creator. In 1874, Charles Hodge, a Presbyterian theologian published *What is Darwinism?* in which he heavily criticised Darwinism.

> *... denial of design in nature is virtually the denial of God. Mr. Darwin's theory does deny all design in nature ... What is Darwinism? It is Atheism.*

Source 4.12.2 Charles Hodge, '*What is Darwinism?*', 1874, *The Hornet*, 22 March 1871

The Scopes Monkey trial

By the 1920s, the teaching of evolution in science classes had become a hotly contested issue in the southern states of the United States. In March 1925, the state of Tennessee made it illegal to teach evolution in schools. A few months later, John Scopes, a science



Source 4.12.3 Anti-evolution bookstand in Dayton, Tennessee, during the Scopes trial, 1925

teacher in the small town of Dayton was charged with breaking this law. During the court proceedings, Scopes' lawyer attempted to discredit the biblical account of creation, including the story of Adam and Eve. The trial became a media sensation throughout the country. It pitted science against religion, academic against preacher, and raised questions about whether or not the Bible could be taken literally. Scopes was eventually found guilty and fined $100 in what the media had dubbed 'the monkey trial' (see Source 4.12.3).

Changing nature of Darwinism

The work of Gregor Mendel

One of the greatest challenges to Darwinism was the lack of proof for how positive traits were replicated from one generation to the next. When *On the Origin of Species* was published, most biologists believed that an individual's character traits were simply a blend of those from its parents. This was a major challenge to Darwinism, as it meant that successful traits could be diluted over just a few generations of breeding. Ironically, it was the work of a Catholic monk, Gregor Mendel, which supported Darwin's theory by showing that genetic characteristics are passed down in their entirety from both parents. This meant that successful mutations could be fully inherited over many generations.

Social Darwinism

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Francis Galton began to apply Darwin's ideas to human ethnic groups. **Social Darwinism** is the theory that groups compete with one another for survival, just as species of plants and animals do. Social Darwinists believed that humans could be ranked in terms of their intelligence and ability to survive and prosper. They also believed that weaker races of people would eventually die out, since they did not have the capacity to compete with superior races. At the time Europeans saw themselves as superior to Asians, Africans and Australian Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples. Although Social Darwinism seemed to provide a scientific basis for these views, it has since been discredited as a pseudo-science (or 'fake' science).

Darwinism today

Creation science and intelligent design

Creation scientists in the United States have strongly opposed the teaching of evolution in public schools. In 1987, the US Supreme Court ruled that state laws forcing the teaching of creation science instead of evolution were unconstitutional.

As recently as 2009, the Texas Board of Education voted that intelligent design must be taught alongside Darwinism. Supporters of intelligent design claim it to be a science, believing that the biological complexity of life could not have evolved by a random process such as natural selection.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What did Darwin's theory of evolution claim?
2. Why were some people outraged by Darwin's book *The Descent of Man*?
3. What did 'the monkey trial' demonstrate about attitudes towards the teaching of evolution in US schools?
4. Why has Social Darwinism been called a pseudo-science?

Applying and analysing

5. Speak to your science teacher and conduct your own research into what makes a theory scientific. Using this set of criteria, evaluate whether or not Darwinism can be considered a scientific theory?

Investigating History

UNIT 4.13

Progressive ideas and movements

Rules?

1 Imagine that your class has crash-landed on a deserted island. After several weeks you realise that it may be years before you are rescued. It is important that you all pull together in order to survive. Questions about how to obtain food and medical care will be vital to your survival. This is a summary of the people you are stranded with:
   - 15 people less than 10 years of age
   - 23 people over 70 years of age
   - 314 people women
   - 412 people men
   - 52 people either sick or disabled
   - 63 people with medical training (1 nurse, 2 doctors)
   - 75 people with experience in business
   - 84 professionals (including a teacher, a psychologist, a social worker and a lawyer).

   Everyone in the class should be allocated a role before dividing into four groups. You can decide these groups based on age, gender or level of education, for example placing all the children together, dividing up the doctors and so on.

   Your group needs to come up with a set of ten to twelve rules that will help the community survive for the next two years. You will need to consider issues such as the leadership of the community, the food supply, punishment for wrong-doers, incentives for those with the best skills, how to look after the sick and elderly, ways of bringing the community together, and plans for a future rescue.

   Discuss your rules with the rest of the class and then debrief by considering which of the 'isms' mentioned in this chapter could be applied to the hypothetical scenario.

Source 4.13.1 Light and sound show commemorating the Eureka Stockade at Sovereign Hill, Victoria

Essay: Ideas and movements in Australia

Conduct independent research in response to the following essay question: Explain the impact of one significant idea or movement on the development of Australia.

Plan your essay, making sure it follows this structure.

- An introduction that identifies the key features of the idea or movement, and broadly states the different ways in which it contributed to the development of Australia.
- A body made up of paragraphs. These should each expand on one of the issues outlined in the introduction. Remember that your explanation must show how the idea or movement brought change to Australia.
- A conclusion that summarises the overall impact of the idea or movement on Australia.
- A bibliography that acknowledges the sources of your information.

Influential people

Select one of the influential people mentioned in this chapter or choose someone else with the help of your teacher. Compile a personalised memoir with information about:

- family and early life
- education
- people and ideas that influenced them
- major writings
- basic ideas and beliefs
- impact of their ideas on the world and/or Australia.

Illustrate your memoir with a variety of clear and relevant digital images, primary and secondary quotes, and a detailed timeline.

Glossary

absolute monarchy rule by a king or queen who has full law-making authority

Ancien Régime 'old' system that no longer exists

cultural imperialism enforcement of a foreign culture onto a local one

decolonisation process of reducing colonies and empire

dispossession loss of land without prior agreement or compensation

emancipists convicts (and their children) who had served their sentence

Enlightenment eighteenth century intellectual movement that promoted rational thought as the basis of knowledge

humanism belief that human beings have the capacity to make the best world possible

jingoism extreme and negative expression of nationalism

mass production use of machines and product line to manufacture large quantities of goods

meritocracy system where the most capable are appointed to positions of leadership

monopoly exclusive trade

multiculturalism view that a country is made richer by the co-existence of people from different cultures

progressive tax taxation system that increases with level of income

propaganda information that is designed to influence the political views of others

Social Darwinism belief that human races follow the same natural laws of selection as plants and animals

social mobility ability of individuals to rise above the socio-economic situation into which they were born

terra nullius Latin for 'vacant land', meaning that no one supposedly owns it

welfare state system where the government takes responsibility for looking after the health and well-being of its citizens

CHAPTER
5

Making a nation

Introduction

Less than a century after the arrival of the British in Australia, six separate British colonies had been established across the continent. As a growing sense of Australian identity developed, the colonies became one nation on 1 January 1901. This marked the beginning of independent nationhood for the Commonwealth of Australia.

Source 5.0.1 A 1938 poster advertising the 150-year celebrations of British settlement in New South Wales, National Library of Australia

Source 5.0.2 A timeline of Australia before and after Federation

UNIT 5.1

European settlement by 1900

Expanding the empire

Throughout the eighteenth century, British colonisers acquired new territory for their empire in three ways:

- by winning wars of conquest and taking land as part of the peace settlement, for example New Zealand
- by purchasing new lands with the signing of a treaty with other people, for example some parts of India
- by declaring newly 'discovered' territories to be ownerless, or terra nullius, and therefore free to claim, as occurred in Australia.

The first two ways acknowledged the original owners of the land, while the third, *terra nullius*, did not.

Terra Nullius and dispossession

The concept of *terra nullius* ignored the fact that there were people already on the Australian continent. When James Cook explored the east coast of Australia in 1768–1771, he believed that a treaty with the local inhabitants was unnecessary. This was because they were so few in number and showed no sign of European land 'ownership', such as agricultural crops, fenced livestock or permanent houses. Since he could find no obvious political authority to deal with, Cook felt justified in claiming the entire 400 million hectares of Australia on behalf of the British Empire. This was despite the fact that he had explored just a small and very narrow section of the east coast.

On 26 January 1788, after the arrival of the First Fleet, Governor Arthur Phillip formalised the British colonisation of Australia with a flag-raising ceremony at Sydney Cove (see Source 5.1.1). Such symbols were important to the British as they 'proved' ownership of the land. Land grants given to new settlers by Governor Phillip failed to consider that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples had occupied that land for generations. Soon fences were erected, animals put to pasture and houses built. This taking of the owners' traditional land without any prior agreement or compensation is referred to as dispossession.

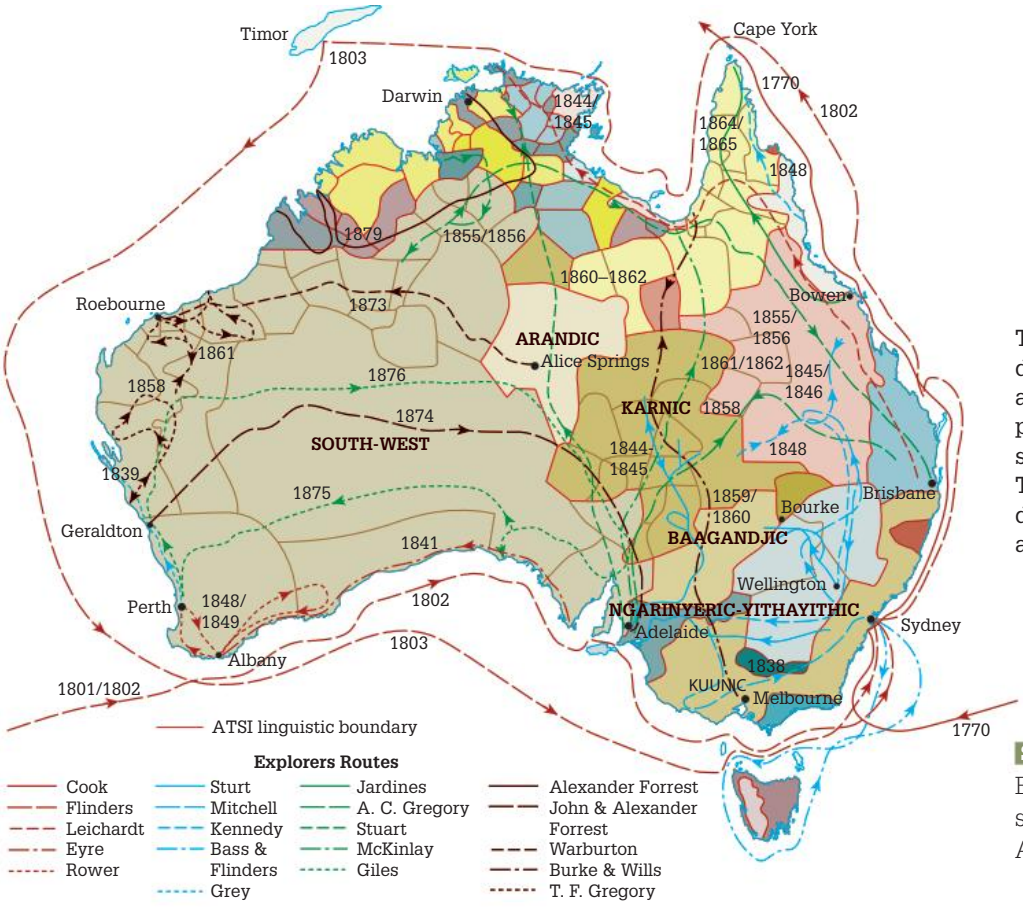
Source 5.1.1 *The Founding of Australia by Captain Arthur Phillip.* Painted by Algernon Talmadge, 1937, State Library of NSW

The spread of European settlement

As the first European population around Sydney Cove increased, so did the need for farming land to feed the growing colony. The discovery of the Hawkesbury River in June 1789 provided an important inland route to better pastoral lands. Early settlement spread northward along the coast towards the Hawkesbury River, then westward along the river itself. In 1790, Governor Phillip issued the first land grant at Rose Hill (renamed Parramatta in 1791) to former convict James Ruse, with the instruction to establish a farm. However, vast open pastures needed for large-scale farming and grazing were not available along the coastal fringe. The long-term viability of New South Wales depended on the opening of new lands further westward, beyond the Blue Mountains.

Moving westward

The crossing of the Blue Mountains by William Lawson, Gregory Blaxland and William Wentworth in 1813 opened up new pastoral lands to feed a growing population. To ease its own population pressures, the government of Britain introduced an assisted passage scheme to encourage people to emigrate to the Australian colonies. New settlers took up



The exact size and distribution of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people prior to European settlement is not known. This maps shows the different linguistic regions around 1836.

Source 5.1.2
Extent of European settlement over Aboriginal lands, 1900

this challenge, as they hoped to make their fortune as property owners—something that was virtually impossible in Britain.

With further inland and coastal exploration of the continent, new British colonies were established:

- 1803 Van Diemen's Land (later the colony of Tasmania)
- 1824 Moreton Bay (later the colony of Queensland)
- 1829 Swan River (later the colony of Western Australia)
- 1834 Port Phillip District (later the colony of Victoria)
- 1834 South Australia (the only colony settled by free settlers rather than convicts).

The British concept of *terra nullius* meant that there was no recognition of the original owners of the land (see Source 5.1.2). Driven off their land, many Aboriginal People were eventually moved into areas for which European settlers had no use. Often restricted and unable to return to their traditional lands, Aboriginal People experienced a strong sense of loss. As they came into contact with European settlers for the first time, many died from smallpox and influenza.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What does *terra nullius* mean?
2. Why did James Cook believe a treaty with Aboriginal People was unnecessary?
3. Construct a timeline that shows when the colonies of Tasmania, Queensland, Western Australia, Victoria and South Australia were established.
4. What was the effect of Europeans moving into traditional Aboriginal land?

Applying and analysing

5. Examine Source 5.1.2. Construct a Venn diagram to illustrate the movement of European settlers onto Aboriginal lands.
6. Assume the point of view of either a European settler or an Aboriginal inhabitant. Write a diary entry illustrating what is taking place on the land. Predict what is likely to result.

UNIT 5.2

European settlement and the environment

Europeans and the environment

From the time of European settlement of Australia in 1788, the new inhabitants altered the landscape. As the new settlement grew, settlers began to explore further afield in search of grazing and pastoral land. They cleared the land of native flora to grow crops, which resulted in deforestation and the destruction of native animal habitats. The new arrivals also introduced foreign species of both plants and animals, often to the detriment of the local flora and fauna.

Acclimatisation Societies

Many new settlers wanted to make their new home, Australia, more like their old home, Europe. One way they could achieve this was by importing plants and animals from the old country. The Acclimatisation Societies were groups of people who joined together to bring in plants and animals from elsewhere, in order to 'improve' the Australian environment.

Impact on the environment

Since the arrival of European settlers, hundreds of species have become extinct in Australia, including birds, mammals, frogs and more than sixty plant species. Many other species are thought to be threatened or vulnerable.

By 1900, hundreds of new plant species had also been introduced by European settlers. A number of these introduced plants have become invasive and, in some cases, are now a major concern. Some species such as wheat and other grains have become important crops.

Introduced animals have also caused problems. Rabbits and foxes, for example, pose a direct threat to native wildlife. Other introduced species such as sheep and cattle have had an impact on the environment, but have also provided a source of income for the nation.

The rabbit as a pest in Australia

> *... the rabbit menace in Australia today is so great that it would be almost impossible to exaggerate its possibilities. (1935)*

Source 5.2.2 Once it was introduced, the rabbit did not take long to become a pest in Australia.

Rabbits arrived in Australia with the First Fleet in 1788. The domesticated rabbit provided early settlers with a source of meat and the wild rabbit

Introduced species	Impacts
Birds	Species such as the common myna and starlings compete with native birds for food and nest sites.
Fish	Species such as the European carp and the brown trout compete with native species.
Dogs	Dogs were introduced through Aboriginal settlement and increased with European settlement. Wild or feral dogs can cause destruction of animal stock.
Cats	Domestic cats were introduced with early European settlers. Domestic or feral cats can destroy native birds and mammals.
Foxes	The European red fox was released near Melbourne in 1845 for sport hunting. Taking only 50 years to cross Australia, it has become a major pest preying on many native species.
Rodents	The house mouse and the rat could have entered Australia on or even before 1788 via visiting European ships. The house mouse can sometimes reach plague proportions in wheat belt regions.

Source 5.2.1 Impact of selected introduced animal species.
Victorian Department of Planning and Community Development

Source 5.2.3 Construction of the Number 1 Rabbit Proof Fence began in 1901. This photograph was taken in 1926. National Library of Australia

was introduced later for hunting. Thomas Austin is credited with releasing twenty-four wild rabbits on his property near Geelong in Victoria in 1859. The rabbits spread across the country at about 130 kilometres per year and by 1900, the rabbits had reached the Northern Territory and Western Australia.

Rabbits cause significant damage to the environment through grazing and feeding on newly planted vegetation and trees. Rabbits also cause damage to grain crops and sustain predators such as cats and foxes. This increases pressure on native animals. Between 1901 and 1907 a fence, known as the Number 1 Rabbit Proof Fence initially and later the State Barrier Fence, was constructed to keep rabbits (along with other vermin) from the eastern states out of Western Australia.

The fence, although inadequate, was one solution to the overwhelming environmental problems that rabbits had caused. Unfortunately, by 1902 rabbits had already been found west of the initial fence, which prompted the construction of the second fence, built in 1905.

The Rabbit-proof Fence.—Mr. A. Crawford, the chief rabbit inspector, returned on Thursday from a visit of inspection to the rabbit-proof fence at Barrambie. He found that the rabbits had established themselves in large numbers outside the fence along the stone ridges, and that, owing to the carelessness of residents of Barrambie in leaving the gates open, many of the rodents had got through to the country between the outer and inner fences. He has decided to recommend to the Minister that deviation should be made with the fence for some distance, in order to keep the township and Barrambie mine well away from it.

Source 5.2.4 The rabbit-proof fence proved a limited barrier to determined rabbits. *The West Australian*, 7 December 1901, p. 11

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Draw a mind map to illustrate the effect that European settlement had on the environment in Australia.
2. Who was responsible for releasing wild rabbits into Australia? When did this occur?
3. What damage do rabbits cause to the environment?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Sources 5.2.2, 5.2.3 and 5.2.4. Write a government report explaining the environmental concerns rabbits are causing, what has been done to prevent their spread and how effective this has been so far.
5. The landscape in Australia has also affected settlement. Construct a PMI chart showing how the unique environment of Australia affected the early settlers.

Source Study

UNIT 5.3

Contact between Indigenous peoples and settlers

An empty land

The concept of *terra nullius* ignored the fact that there were people living on the Australian continent. When James Cook claimed the entire 400 million hectares of Australia on behalf of the British Empire, he did so after exploring a very narrow section of the east coast. James Cook used European ideas of land 'ownership' to make the British claim.

Source 5.3.1 Tasmanian poster showing Aboriginal People and Europeans the consequences of breaking the law, 1866, National Library of Australia

After the arrival of the First Fleet and the first flag-raising ceremony on 26 January 1788, other symbols of ownership of land were set down. These included the construction of permanent buildings, the fencing of land, putting animals to pasture and the planting of crops. Aboriginal people were dispossessed from their lands by land grants given to new settlers.

Aboriginal resistance

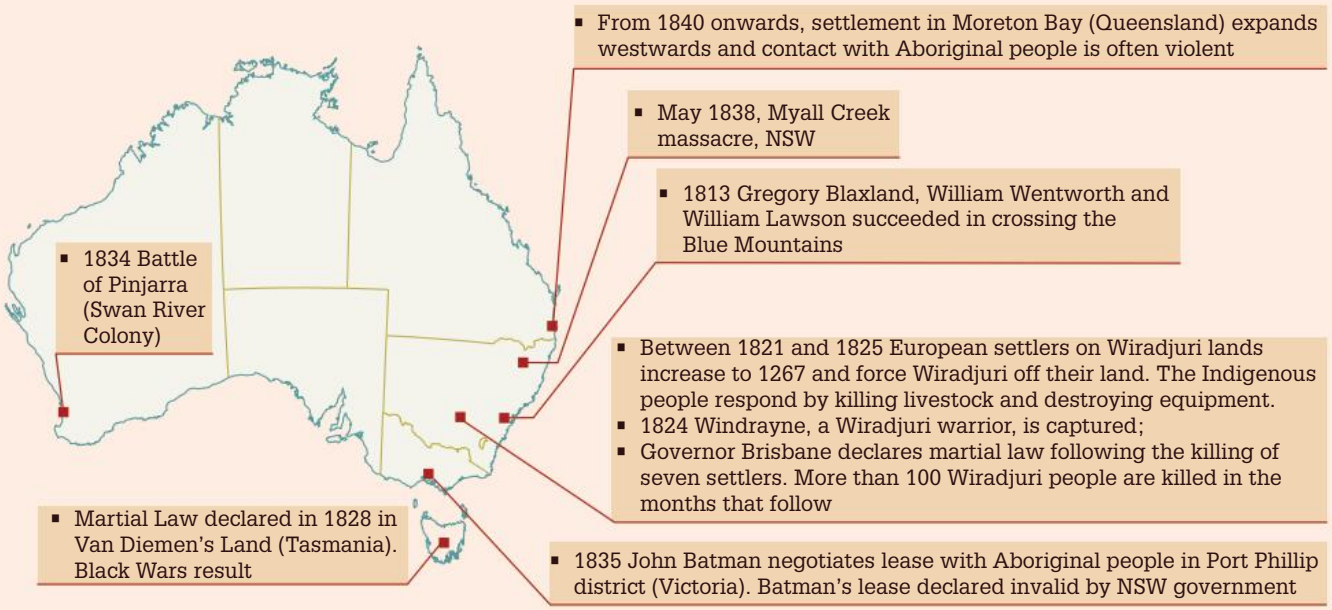
As the colonies expanded, settlers came into conflict with Aboriginal people. The original inhabitants responded to the loss of their traditional land by killing livestock for food, which in turn led to reprisals.

Impact of European settlement

European settlement was a very bad experience for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. Initially they avoided the new settlers; however as contact increased, violence and disease followed. The new arrivals brought with them diseases such as smallpox and measles to which the original inhabitants had no resistance. Smallpox killed half of the Indigenous people in the Sydney area within the first year of European settlement. European and Indigenous views of land ownership were also very different.

> *Black men. We wish to make you happy. But you cannot be happy unless you imitate the white man. Build huts, wear clothes and be useful ... you cannot be happy unless you love God ... love white men ... learn to speak English.*

Source 5.3.2 Governor Gawler of South Australia, 1838



Source 5.3.3 Selected key resistance between Aboriginal people and Europeans

> *An extraordinary calamity was now observed among the natives. Repeated accounts brought by our boats of finding bodies of the (Aborigines) in all the coves and inlets of the harbour, caused the gentlemen of our hospital to procure some of them for the purpose of examination and anatomy. On inspection it appeared that all the parties had died a natural death: pustules, similar to those occasioned by the small pox, were thickly spread on the bodies; but how a disease ... could at once have introduced itself ... seemed inexplicable.*

Source 5.3.4 An early account of the effect of European diseases on Aboriginal people, 1789

> *The wild black fellows do not understand your laws, every living animal ... and every edible root ... are common property. A black man claims nothing as his own but his cloak and his weapons and his name. He does not understand that animals or plants can belong to one person more than another.*

Source 5.3.5 In 1843, Yagan, a Victorian Aboriginal man, explained the difference between European and Aboriginal notions of ownership.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What is the message to both groups in Source 5.3.1?
2. What is Governor Gawler really saying in Source 5.3.2?
3. Create a timeline of Aboriginal resistance from the dates given in Source 5.3.3.

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Sources 5.3.4 and 5.3.5.
   - **a** What do the sources have in common?
   - **b** How do the sources describe contact between European settlers and Aboriginal People?
   - **c** In your opinion, was conflict always likely to occur? Explain.
5. Complete a flow chart illustrating the contact between Aboriginal People and European settlers from initial contact to later conflict.

UNIT 5.4

The experiences of non-Europeans in Australia

A new life in Australia

From 1850 to 1900, approximately seven million people left China in search of opportunities in South-East Asia, the United States, Canada and Australia. This mass exodus was the beginning of what is today known as the Chinese **diaspora**. It is estimated that up to 90 000 Chinese migrants came to Australia. Other non-Europeans who came to Australia were:

- approximately 62 000 South Pacific Islander People, who worked on the sugar-cane fields in Far North Queensland
- approximately 3000 Japanese, who came to Broome in Western Australia as pearl divers
- approximately 2000 Afghans, who came to South Australia as camel drivers.

The Chinese experience

The first Chinese in Australia were probably fishermen from Indonesia looking for sea cucumbers. The majority of Chinese arrived during the Victorian gold rushes and were instantly disliked. At the goldfields the Chinese organised themselves into large groups with each person having an allocated role. These groups meant they had limited contact with the other diggers thus avoiding trouble with the European miners.

Competition between European and Chinese miners often led to conflicts over pieces of ground thought to contain gold. Many European miners resented the Chinese simply for being different. Rumours spread about Chinese opium addiction, disease, gambling and general immorality. Anti-Chinese Leagues were established throughout Victoria and later New South Wales to pressure governments into restricting Chinese immigration.

1750s Chinese traders visit Australia in search of sealskins and sandalwood

Pre–1840 First Chinese migrants (sailors whose contracts expired in Sydney or had jumped ship) settle in New South Wales

By 1850 In New South Wales nearly 3000 Chinese, mostly indentured labour known as Coolies (unskilled workers bound to their employer for a set period of time, usually a few years, who could not resign even if they grew dissatisfied with their pay and working conditions, which were much worse than those of free workers)

1850s Chinese (as well as Europeans and Americans) attracted to the Victorian gold rush

1852–1853 About 500 Chinese migrants leave Hong Kong for Melbourne

By 1854 More than 2000 Chinese in the colony of Victoria (most are single young men who expect to stay in Australia for a year or two, make their fortune and return home to China to get married—the new arrivals are met by angry crowds and face regular abuse and violence on the goldfields)

June 1855 Victorian government enacts a law that limits the number of Chinese arrivals to one person per 10 tonnes of cargo carried by a ship; new Chinese arrivals are forced to pay an arrival tax of £10 (most get around the law by disembarking in Adelaide and travelling to the Victorian goldfields on foot)

1857 South Australian government applies similar immigration laws

1857 Chinaman's Flat: European miners set fire to the Chinese camp, forcing the inhabitants to flee in terror and abandon their diggings; in Ararat, Chinese miners robbed of gold because they had not paid their £1 residence ticket (many European miners also had not paid)

1861, 1877, 1886 Anti-Chinese sentiment leads to the introduction of restrictions on Chinese immigration in New South Wales in 1861, Queensland in 1877 and Western Australia in 1886

June 1861 Chinese camp at Lambing Flat destroyed in the first of six riots over ten months during which 250 Chinese are injured

Source 5.4.1 Key events in the Chinese experience in Australia

Fourteen men,
And each hung down
Straight as a log
From his toes to his crown
Fourteen men,
Chinamen they were
Hanging on the tress
In their pig-tailed hair
Honest poor men,
But the diggers said 'Nay!'
So they strung them all up
On a fine summer's day.
There they were hanging
As we drove by,
Grown-ups on the front seat,
On the back seat I.
That was Lambing Flat,
And still I can see
The straight up and down
Of each on his tree.

Source 5.4.2 'Fourteen men' by Mary Gilmore refers to the anit-Chinese riots in New South Wales, 1860–1861

Pacific Islanders in Queensland

Blackbirding involved deceiving Pacific Islander People into coming to Australia, sometimes by offering small items of little worth or making false promises of high wages. Blackbirding was usually conducted by agents for plantation owners, who relied on cheap 'Kanaka' labour to carry out the long and difficult work of harvesting sugar cane.

Between 1863 and 1904, approximately 62 000 South Pacific Islander People arrived in Queensland and worked on sugar plantations in the far north (see Source 5.4.3). In most cases these people were promised good wages and food as well as a year-long contract and then a passage home. In reality conditions were much harsher and contracts were mostly for three years

Blackbirding was made illegal in 1872 although the practice continued for another thirty years.

Source 5.4.3 Kanaka labourers on a Queensland pineapple plantation, National Library of Australia, c. 1890s

Afghans in South Australia

Not long after the settlement of South Australia in 1836, exploration of the interior of the continent began. In early attempts to explore the 'Red Centre', horses and bullocks were used to transport equipment and materials across the desert, but these animals proved incapable of enduring long periods without water. They also had difficulty in walking across sand for long distances.

In 1839, the first camels were imported to Australia to improve transport across the Simpson Desert (see Source 5.4.4). Camels had earned a reputation as 'ships of the desert' due to their ability to survive harsh desert conditions carrying great loads.

Cameleers and 'ships of the desert'

Most Europeans had very little experience handling camels, and so specially trained camel drivers known as cameleers were brought to Australia. Although they came from several different places throughout central Asia and India, most cameleers were Afghans. Australians referred to them simply as 'Ghans' (short for Afghans). All were single Muslim men who had signed three-year contracts to live and work in central Australia.

In 1886, 100 camels and thirty-one Afghan cameleers arrived in South Australia. By 1900, it was estimated that there were about 15 000 camels and 2000 Afghans in Australia. These men played an important role in the inland exploration of the continent, carrying vital supplies and mail from South Australia to the north. The Overland Telegraph, which connected Adelaide and Darwin in 1872, could not have been built without the assistance of the Afghan cameleers. They also helped to establish the rail connection between Adelaide and Port Augusta, and carried mail and equipment between isolated outback settlements.

Japanese in Western Australia

From the middle of the nineteenth century, buttons and belt buckles made out of pearls and mother-of-pearl shells were popular in Britain and the United States. Such demand led to the establishment of Western Australia's pearling industry around Shark Bay in the 1850s. Pearlers initially used Aboriginal women to dive for oysters, since they had excellent lung capacity. These divers could descend to depths of up to 13 metres, at times as far as 2 kilometres from shore. This was before diving suits, oxygen tanks, snorkels and masks had been developed

Source 5.4.4 Camels being unloaded at Port Augusta, 1890s, State Library of South Australia

Source 5.4.5 Japanese pearl divers, Broome, 1910, State Library of Western Australia

and their simple method was known as skin diving. It was a very risky activity and up to half the divers died as a result of drowning, shark attack, the bends or cyclones.

The discovery of the precious South Sea pearl in the 1870s attracted many Japanese, Malay and Chinese pearlers to Western Australia. In 1881, Broome was established as a pearling town and by the following decade it had earned a reputation as the pearling capital of the world. The invention of diving suits and simple breathing apparatus allowed divers to go deeper and stay underwater longer. Japanese divers were considered the best at their trade, as they seemed to cope better with high water pressure. This meant that Japanese divers soon replaced Aboriginal divers. They worked as indentured labourers, initially receiving no wages but instead paying off the debt they owed to their employers for their travel costs to Australia (see Source 5.4.5).

By 1910, the town of Broome had a population of 4000 people, which included 3000 Japanese, Malays and Chinese, all of whom had some connection to the pearling industry. Many divers died during the heyday of Broome's pearling industry and the Japanese cemetery in Broome has over 700 graves of Japanese divers.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Which were the main groups of non-Europeans who came to Australia?
2. Define the words 'Coolie' and 'blackbirding'.
3. Why did Chinese people come to Australia during the 1850s?
4. Using the information in this unit, label a map of Australia showing where non-Europeans worked.
5. Construct a Venn diagram to explain the similarities and differences between two groups of non-Europeans who came to Australia.

Applying and analysing

6. Examine Source 5.4.2 by using ADAMANT.
   - **a** How useful would you consider this source for examining the events at Lambing Flats?
   - **b** How would the use of primary and secondary sources differ in regard to examining an event such as this?
7. Choose one of the groups mentioned in this unit. Write a short letter back home to explain your reasons for coming to Australia and the conditions you have encountered.
8. Imagine you are a museum curator. You have been assigned the role of producing an exhibition on the contribution of non-European migrants to Australia. Write the final signage board that summarises the contribution of migrants up until 1900.

UNIT 5.5

Living and working conditions before Federation

Living in the city

An influx of immigrants as a result of the gold rushes led to the rapid development of Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide. By 1888, Melbourne was the largest city in Australia and the second largest in the British Empire.

The 1850s to the 1890s was a boom period during which Australian workers become the best paid and least overworked in the world. Labour shortages meant that employers were forced to offer high wages to attract workers and Australia earned a reputation as a 'working-man's paradise'. These benefits, however, were mainly for the workers who had a skilled job rather than those who were unskilled and on lower incomes.

In 1856, the eight-hour day was introduced and workers found themselves with more leisure time. Sporting events, particularly on Saturdays, became very popular, as did swimming and reading at the beach. Reading was popular and local councils began to provide books at municipal libraries.

Housing booms in Sydney and Melbourne in the 1880s led to the creation of new outer suburbs connected by road, rail and tramway. At the close of the nineteenth century, almost two-thirds of Australia's 3.76 million people lived in urban centres.

This rapid development also caused problems. The densely populated working districts by the water were often characterised by offensive smells and piles of rotting garbage. Toilets were usually nothing more than a tin bucket located in the backyard 'dunny' or shed. Behind each backyard ran an alleyway just large enough for the nightman's horse and cart. It was the nightman's job to collect the sewage from each house and dispose of it in the nearest waterway.

In 1900, Sydney experienced an outbreak of **bubonic plague** caused by serious rat problems and a lack of sanitation. Overall, it is estimated that about 500 people throughout Australia died of the bubonic plague at the beginning of the twentieth century. Population growth also led to inner-city crime. Young working-class men known as larrikins caused problems with anti-social behaviour such as petty crime, drinking and gambling.

Source 5.5.1a Doing the block, Melbourne, c. 1880, State Library of Victoria

Those from the richest families inherited their wealth and did not have to work at all.

Source 5.5.1b Nurses from Royal Prince Alfred Hospital, Sydney, 1900, State Library of Victoria

Upper–middle–class men obtained a university education, training as doctors, lawyers and engineers. Women trained as teachers and nurses.

Source 5.5.1c Library staff at the State Library of Victoria, 1895, State Library of Victoria

The lower middle classes were white-collar workers (clerical and office workers). They received a higher income than unskilled labourers. As a result, they could afford bigger houses on the outer fringes of the city.

Source 5.5.1d Sydney slums, c. 1880s State Records of New South Wales

For unskilled city workers poverty was a daily reality. Inner-city areas were overcrowded and unhygienic and high rents often meant families had to cram together.

Source 5.5.1e A **selector's** farmyard, Kanimbla Valley, c. 1900 Blue Mountains City Library

Selectors were small-scale farmers who typically owned between 60 and 100 acres (between 24 and 41 hectares) of land. Many lacked the expertise to succeed in Australian conditions.

Source 5.5.1f Shearers, c. 1870s National Library of Australia

Shearers performed an essential role in the rural economy, as without their skill, sheep could not be shorn and the wool exported. Shearers were itinerant workers not bound to any single employer. During the 1830s, when the wool industry was in its growth phase, shearers could sell their services to the squatter willing to pay the most. The best shearers could shear up to 200 sheep a day using hand-operated blade shears, earning £1 for every 100 sheep shorn.

Working in the city and country

By the beginning of the twentieth century, life in Australia's cities and rural areas was very different from that of a century before. New cities had been established and vast areas of bush turned into agricultural land.

The two-roomed house is built of round timber, slabs and stringy-bark, and floored with split slabs. A big bark kitchen standing at one end is larger than the house itself, veranda included.

Bush all around—bush with no horizon, for the country is flat. No ranges in the distance. The bush consists of stunted, rotten native apple-trees. No undergrowth. Nothing to relieve the eye save the darker green of a few she-oaks, which are sighing above the narrow, almost waterless creek. Nineteen miles to the nearest sign of civilisation—a shanty on the main road.

The drover, an ex-squatter, is away with sheep. His wife and children are left here alone.

Four ragged, dried-up-looking children are playing about the house. Suddenly one of them yells: 'Snake! Mother, here's a snake!'

The gaunt, sun-browned bushwoman dashes from the kitchen, snatches her baby from the ground, holds it on her left hip, and reaches for a stick.

'Where is it?'

'Here! Gone in the wood-heap;' yells the eldest boy—a sharp-faced urchin of eleven. 'Stop there, mother! I'll have him. Stand back! I'll have the beggar!'

Source 5.5.2 'The drover's wife', Henry Lawson, 1892

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Where was most of Australia's population living by the end of the nineteenth century?
2. Explain how the life of an unskilled worker was different from that of a skilled worker during the 1900s.
3. Define the term 'larrikin'.
4. Why had Australia earned the reputation as a 'working-man's paradise' by the end of the century?

Applying and analysing

5. Examine Source 5.5.2. What does it tell you about rural life at the time?
6. Use the sources to compare the experiences of people in the city with those in rural areas. Where would you have preferred to live and why?

UNIT 5.6

Developments leading to Federation

The emergence of self-government

Early government in the colony of New South Wales relied on the British government for support. A series of governors were appointed to rule the fledgling colony from the time of the British arrival in 1788. As a penal colony until the middle of the nineteenth century, New South Wales was not considered capable of self-government.

By 1823, the first step towards responsible government (one that is accountable to the representatives of the people) was taken with the passing of the *New South Wales Act 1823* by the British parliament. For the first time, some members of the colony were able to have a say in the law-making process. In 1842, limited voting rights were introduced—an elector had to be male and a qualified land-owner. By 1850, the New South Wales government was given the power to create its own constitution and in 1856 it became a fully responsible government.

Self-governing colonies were set up in other colonies and eventually full male suffrage (voting rights) was established.

New South Wales	1842
South Australia	1855
Victoria	1855
Tasmania	1855
Queensland	1858
Western Australia	1890

Source 5.6.1 Dates of self-government for colonies

Campaign for women's suffrage

Despite the introduction of important democratic rights in the Australian colonies, women were still denied the right to vote until the 1890s. In 1902, Australia became the first country in the world to give women both the right to vote in federal elections and also the right to be elected to parliament. New Zealand had granted women the right to vote in 1893.

The Suffragettes were women who campaigned for the right to vote in elections. The first women's suffrage groups emerged from earlier organisations such as the Social Purity Society, which were concerned with bringing an end to sexual abuse, prostitution and drinking of alcohol. Members of the Social Purity Society realised that their aims could only be achieved if women were able to elect their supporters to parliament. As a result, the Women's Suffrage League of South Australia was created in 1888.

In the nineteenth century a woman's place was considered to be in the home. Suffragettes argued that a government 'by the people' should include government by women because laws affected women as well as men.

Women's suffrage groups used a variety of ways to campaign for the right to vote. These included:

- information leaflets (see Source 5.6.2)
- holding public rallies and debates
- sending delegations to lobby parliament
- gathering petitions.

The most famous petition was collected in Victoria and contained 30 000 signatures. It was presented to the Victorian Premier, James Munro, in September 1891.

Joining the colonies together

The Commonwealth of Australia officially came into existence on 1 January 1901 when all six former British colonies became the member states of a new and independent nation. Although there were many compelling reasons for Australia nationhood not all colonies agreed that Federation (or joining the colonies together) was a positive step.

The two largest colonies, New South Wales and Victoria, were bitter rivals and many of the smaller colonies resented the attitudes of the larger colonies.

Source 5.6.2 Poster titled 'What We Want' demanding female equality in 1893, State Library of Queensland


EQUAL
OPPORTUNITIES
FOR ALL
QUEENSLAND
PROSPERITY.
LABOUR
PLATFORM

Reasons for Federation.

- Australian nationalism
  Nationalism, or the loyalty and devotion to a nation, began to emerge and people believed the colonies should federate to form one unique nation.
- Immigration restriction
  There was a widespread belief that immigration should be restricted to people from Europe. Becoming one nation would mean that immigration could be controlled.
- Security and defence
  A national defence force was seen as a more effective way of dealing with potential threats.
- Free trade
  Trade barriers and tariffs existed between the colonies and many traders wanted these abolished.
- Improved communications
  By 1880, all capital cities had been connected by telegraph, and a telephone cable had been laid between Sydney and Melbourne.
- Need for a single rail network
  Each colony used different rail gauges and federating would mean standardisation.
- Support from Britain
  Britain was encouraging responsible government as managing such a large empire was proving costly and problematic.

Reasons against Federation.

- Protectionism
  Protectionism refers to a set of economic policies that protects local industry from external competition. In the colonies high tariffs (taxes) were imposed on goods bought from other colonies to encourage people to buy locally. Those against Federation argued that removing protection would mean local businesses would suffer.
- Loss of colonial power
  Many colonies wanted to retain their own power. Smaller colonies were concerned that larger colonies would dominate and larger ones did not want to have their taxes spent on smaller ones.
- Distance between the colonies
  Transport methods were still slow and many of the more remote colonies (such as Western Australia) could not see any benefits to Federation.
- The Labour Movement
  Trade unions had secured many benefits for workers and were concerned a federal government would overturn them.
- Cheap labour
  Many non-European immigrants had provided cheap labour for Queensland. Sugar-cane farmers feared Federation would restrict immigration.

Discussions about Federation were put on hold when the economic depression of the early 1890s occurred.

Source 5.6.3
Anti-Federation cartoon, *Daily Telegraph*, 1899

The colonies decide

1891 Sir Henry Parkes resigned as Premier of New South Wales and asked Edmund Barton to lead the Federation movement in the colony. Federation leagues were established.

31 July 1893 Seventy-four delegates gathered at Corowa on the New South Wales–Victorian border for a people's conference to discuss Federation. It was agreed that each colony should elect ten representatives to a Constitutional Convention, which would be responsible for creating a draft federal constitution that would be put to a **referendum**.

1897–1898 A second Constitutional Convention was held attended by the majority of colonies. Queensland (who feared an end to cheap Pacific labour) and Western Australia (who wanted to look after its own interests) did not attend. New Zealand had considered but decided against joining with Australia in a federation.

March 1897 Basic principles of a federal constitution were agreed at the Second Constitutional Convention in Adelaide. Government would consist of a **bicameral parliament** based on Britain's Westminster system. New federal laws would be proposed in the Lower House (House of Representatives) and the Upper House (Senate) would be a house of review. Each state would be allowed an equal number of senators regardless of size. The British monarch would be the official head of state.

June 1898 Voters from New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania and South Australia participated in referendums and the majority of voters in total from all four colonies accepted the draft constitution. The referendum was not carried because voters in New South Wales did not support the draft Constitution.

January 1899 Colonial premiers agreed to amend the draft to address New South Wales' concerns. The support of Queensland was gained.

20 June 1899 A second referendum was held in every colony except Western Australia. A clear majority 'yes' vote was recorded in all five voting colonies.

5 July 1900 The British parliament passed the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution bill, giving approval for the creation of a new Australian nation.

31 July 1900 Western Australia agreed to federate.

1 January 1901 The Commonwealth of Australia officially came into existence.

Source 5.6.4 Events leading to Federation

DID YOU KNOW?

Victoria was the first electorate in the world to introduce the secret ballot.

The words of the *Victorian Electoral Act 1863* wrongly stated that 'all people' who owned property were entitled to vote. Some wealthy women took advantage of this by casting their votes in the 1864 Victorian election. The mistake was fixed the following year, however, as it was never the intention to allow women to vote!

A critic of Federation, Sir William Lyne, was almost the first Prime Minister of Australia when Australia's first Governor-General, Lord Hopetoun, appointed a caretaker government without asking the colonial premiers. Edmund Barton became Australia's first actual Prime Minister.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Describe how the early colony of New South Wales was governed.
2. Define the term 'responsible government'.
3. Examine Source 5.6.1. Which colony was the last to receive self-government? Explain why you believe it was later than others.
4. Why were the voters of Western Australia reluctant to join an Australian Federation?
5. Examine Source 5.6.2 and use your own words to summarise the argument presented in the leaflet.
6. Examine Source 5.6.4. What does it tell you about the difficulty of governing Australia and dealing with state issues?

Applying and analysing

7. Complete a mind map of the development of self-government in Australia. Be sure to use different colours, pictures and diagrams in addition to words.
8. Examine Source 5.6.3. Use ADAMANT to analyse the cartoon.
9. Imagine you are one of the following and argue your case for or against Federation:
   - a wealthy Victorian industrialist in favour of protectionism
   - a trade unionist in Western Australia
   - a Queensland sugar-cane farmer
   - a businessman who travels by rail.

UNIT 5.7

The Australian Constitution

Rules governing the new nation

The Australian Constitution is an important written set of rules that create and control the way in which the nation (and the states) is governed. When the Commonwealth of Australia came into existence in 1901, the Constitution also came into effect.

The Constitution has 128 sections, divided into eight chapters. In addition to the national Constitution, each Australian state has its own constitution. The two territories (the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory) have self-government acts, which were passed by the federal parliament.

Following are the main features of Australia's federal system of government, as set out in the Constitution:

- a federal parliament and government
- a parliament with two houses (known as bicameral), the Upper House (Senate) and Lower House (House of Representatives)
- the monarch (who is referred to as the crown) who is the Head of State and represented by the Governor-General
- six state governments, responsible for state matters
- a division of power between the federal and state parliaments
- the High Court of Australia, which is the highest court in Australian and the final court of appeal; the High Court also interprets the Constitution.

Referendum

Australia's Constitution can only be changed by a referendum put to the people. For a referendum to pass, a majority of states and a majority of people must vote 'yes'. The role and powers of state and federal governments can change as a result of interpretation of the Constitution by the High Court.

Source 5.7.1 Postcard on the birth of Australia, 1900, National Archives of Australia

State and federal roles

The Constitution (sections 51 and 52) outlines areas for which federal parliament is responsible. If it is not listed in sections 51 and 52 of the Constitution then it is, usually, an area of state responsibility.

Federal responsibilities	State responsibilities
Trade and commerce	Schools
Postal and telecommunication services	Hospitals
Currency	Roads and railways
Immigration	Public transport
Defence	Mining and agriculture
Weights and measures	Police
Foreign policy	Prisons
Social security	Utilities such as electricity and water supply

Source 5.7.2 Federal and state responsibilities as defined by the Australian Constitution

Since Federation, the Constitution has evolved slowly, ultimately giving more power to the federal government. This has occurred in two ways.

- High Court cases
  In 1983, the Tasmanian government wanted to dam the Franklin River. The federal government was able to stop this from happening because of Australia's international obligations as a result of the area being World Heritage listed.
- State referrals
  State governments can refer their powers to federal government. In 1942, during World War II, all states and territories referred the power to collect income tax to the federal government.

The role of the Governor-General

The Governor-General is appointed by the British monarch to be the monarch's representative in Australia, usually for a term of five years and on the recommendation of the Prime Minister. The roles of the Governor-General are outlined in Chapter 2 of the constitution and are constitutional, ceremonial and civic:

- approving bills passed through the House of Representatives and the Senate
- starting the process for a federal election
- meeting foreign heads of state and ambassadors
- attending Anzac ceremonies
- opening and attending national and international meetings and conferences
- visiting places hit by national disasters.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. In your own words define the Australian Constitution.
2. Use ADAMANT to examine Source 5.7.1. Explain the difference between the two maps of Australia. What does the phrase 'The birth of a nation at the century's dawn' refer to?
3. Explain how Australia's Constitution can be changed.
4. Examine Source 5.7.2. Think about the following situations and determine which level of government takes responsibility for each one.
   - **a** A group of illegal immigrants arrive by boat on Christmas Island.
   - **b** A new children's hospital is to be built in New South Wales.
   - **c** You apply for a passport to go on holiday to Bali.
   - **d** The people of Australia are asked if they want to become a republic.
   - **e** An out-of-work person applies for unemployment benefits.
   - **f** A national campaign which encourages people to take out private health cover is started.

Applying and analysing

5. Australia is not the only nation to have a constitution. Most nations have some type of document that defines the rules of government. Other organisations such as sporting clubs also have constitutions to define the rules by which the club will be organised or governed. Use either your school or a sporting club you are involved with and design your own constitution. Think about the types of issues the organisation may face, what your constitution will need to cover and how many sections will be required (allocate a new section for each type of rule).
6. Complete a PMI (plus, minus, interesting) chart to respond to the following statement: Australia's system of government should change from a constitutional monarchy (where the British monarch is Australia's official head of state and the Governor-General represents the monarch) to a republic.

UNIT 5.8

The Australian Constitution: rights of women and Indigenous people

A constitution for all Australians

The Australian Constitution was intended to unite Australia, but not everyone was included in the agreement. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, for example, were specifically excluded from the Australian Constitution.

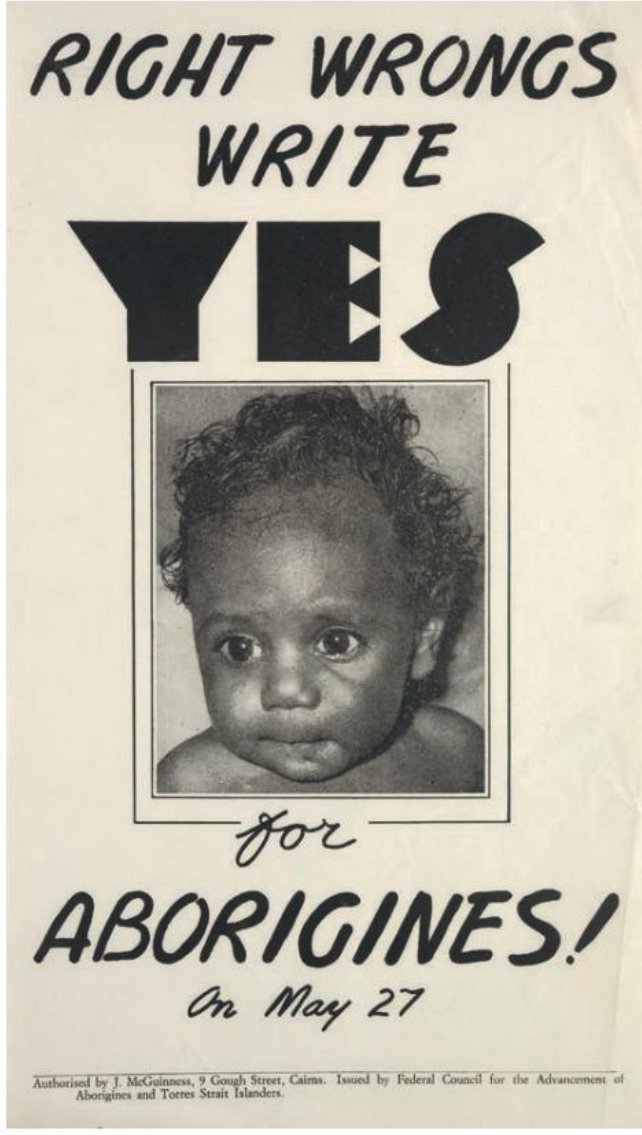
Aboriginal People and the Australian Constitution

The 1901 Constitution that joined the colonies together and formed the Federation of Australia did not permit the federal government to count original inhabitants in any census (count) of the population. The Constitution also did not allow the federal government to make any laws affecting Aboriginal People—this was seen to be a state responsibility.

> *51 The Parliament shall, subject to this Constitution, have power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of the Commonwealth with respect to:-*
>
> *...(xxvi) The people of any race, other than the aboriginal people in any State, for whom it is necessary to make special laws.*
>
> *127 In reckoning the numbers of the people of the Commonwealth, or of a State or other part of the Commonwealth, aboriginal natives should not be counted.*

Source 5.8.1 Sections 51 and 127 of the original Australian Constitution

In 1967, Australians voted to include Aboriginal People in the census (count) of the population and give the federal government the power to make laws for Indigenous Australians. The referendum saw the highest 'yes' vote ever recorded in a federal referendum with 90.77 per cent of the people voting for the change. The whole of section 127 was removed from the Constitution and the words '... other than aboriginal people in any State ...' were removed from section 51. The 1967 referendum did not give Indigenous Australians the right to vote, this had previously been granted before the federal elections in 1962.



Source 5.8.2 'Yes' vote poster, 1967 Referendum, State Library of NSW

Women and the new nation

Women were given the right to vote in federal elections (and the right to stand for election) as one of the first tasks of the new federal parliament. South Australia and Western Australia had already given women the right to vote in 1895 and 1900 respectively and those states that had not enfranchised women (Victoria, Queensland, New South Wales and Tasmania) were forced to catch up. The Constitution did not bar women from being elected and women such as Vida Goldstein, Nellie Martel and Mary Ann Moore Bentley stood for federal parliament elections in 1903.

It was not until 1921 that the first woman was elected to an Australian parliament. Edith Cowan (Nationalist, West Perth) served in the Western Australian Legislative Assembly until 1924. The first women in the federal parliament were Dame Enid Lyons (who later went on to be appointed to the Cabinet) and Dorothy Tangney who were both elected in 1943.

Source 5.8.3 Edith Cowan

DID YOU KNOW?

The Australian Constitution does not include a right to 'freedom of speech'. The four rights guaranteed in the constitution are:

- trial by jury
- the privileges and immunities of state citizenship
- equal protection under the law
- freedom and no state religion (this means the government cannot establish a religion to which all peoples must belong).

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Examine Source 5.8.1. Summarise sections 51 and 127 of the Constitution in your own words.
2 Using Source 5.8.1, complete the following table.

Australian Constitution sections	What this meant for Aboriginal People	Proposed change to the Constitution	What this meant for Aboriginal People
e.g. 51. The Parliament shall, subject to this Constitution, have power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of the Commonwealth with respect to:- ...(xxvi) The people of any race, other than the aboriginal people in any State, for whom it is necessary to make special laws.			
127			

3 Examine Source 5.8.2 and complete the following questions.
   a What is the message of this poster?
   b Why has this particular photograph been used?
   c Explain whether you believe the poster is likely to have been influential.

Applying and analysing

4 Write a paragraph comparing the way in which the rights of Aboriginal People and women were affected by the Constitution.
5 Unlike many other democratic nations, Australia does not have a 'Bill of Rights' document that defines and legally protects the rights and freedoms of people. Some people argue this belongs in the Constitution. Discuss whether or not you think having a Bill of Rights in the Constitution would have had any impact on the rights of women and Aboriginal People.

UNIT 5.9

White Australia and the Immigration Restriction Act

The White Australia policy

The first two laws passed by the new parliament formed the basis of the **White Australia policy**, which was designed to maintain the racial purity of the new nation. Throughout the nineteenth century most Australian colonists had the belief that people from British or European heritage were superior to those of other cultures. The view was that the race should be kept 'pure' and that foreigners were likely to pose a threat to wages and working conditions.

On 17 December 1901, the Pacific Island Labourers Act was passed, allowing for the deportation of Pacific Islander People from Queensland.

Six days later, on 23 December, the Immigration Restriction Act was passed, effectively prohibiting the entry of all non-Europeans into Australia. Rather than simply banning the entry of all non-Europeans into Australia, all non-Europeans were to be given a fifty-word dictation test. This test gave the White Australia policy a look of respectability. It allowed the government to claim that its basis for exclusion was an immigrant's level of education rather than their race.

Prime Minister Edmund Barton: 'I do not think that the doctrine of the equality of man was really ever intended to include racial equality. There is no racial equality. There is that basic inequality. These races are, in comparison with white races… unequal and inferior.'

Attorney-General, Alfred Deakin: 'Unity of race is an absolute essential to the unity of Australia.'

Billy Hughes: 'Our chief plank, is of course, a White Australia. There's no compromise about that. The industrious coloured brother has to go—and remain away!'

Source 5.9.1 On a White Australia—Prime Minister Edmund Barton, Attorney-General Alfred Deakin and Billy Hughes

Racism and keeping Australia 'pure'

Apart from nationalism, Australians were concerned that allowing non-Europeans to enter the country would compromise living standards. Australians feared that Asians would work hard for lower wages and lesser conditions, which would then force the rest of the population to do the same. Another reason for restricting immigration into Australia to only those of European descent was a fear that Asians would overrun the country with their large populations. The argument was that these large numbers of people would support Asia in the event of a war and Australia's defence would be compromised.

End of the policy

In 1934, customs officials tried to prevent Egon Erwin Kisch from entering Australia by giving him a dictation test in Scottish Gaelic. Kisch was an anti-Nazi activist who came to Australia to attend an anti-war congress. On arriving, Kisch refused to take the discriminatory test. A legal team took his case to the High Court where they proved that the customs official administering the test was unable to speak Scottish Gaelic himself, even though he had been born in Scotland!

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Examine Source 5.9.1.Outline the arguments in support of the White Australia policy.
2. How was immigration of non-Europeans restricted?

Applying and analysing

3. Examine Source 5.9.2 and evaluate it using ADAMANT.
4. Discuss the likely effect of the Immigration Restriction Act on Australia. Propose reasons for its demise in 1973.

Source 5.9.2 Political cartoon on the White Australia policy *The Bulletin*, 1901

THE YELLOW-TRASH QUESTION.

ASIATIC INVADER: "Better you catchee 'nother piecee box."

UNIT 5.10

Social legislation: Harvester Judgment and pensions

Protecting workers

In the decades after Federation, the new federal parliament was responsible for the introduction of social reforms that were among the most progressive in the world.

In 1904, the Australian Labor Party (under John Watson) took office, becoming the first national labour government anywhere. Watson could only form a minority government by gaining the support of the Protectionists, who were led by Alfred Deakin. During his four months in office, Watson introduced the Conciliation and Arbitration Bill into parliament. In December 1904, the Bill was passed and a Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Court was established.

The main role of the court was to prevent industrial disputes by mediating between representatives of the employer and the trade union. When this failed, the court would act as an umpire to bring about a settlement to the industrial dispute. Importantly, the court also had the power to create an award, or industry-wide set of conditions, which applied to all workers.

> *... is a wage of 36s. per week fair and reasonable, in view of the cost of living in Victoria? I have tried to ascertain the cost of living— the amount which has to be paid for food, shelter, clothing, for an average labourer with normal wants, and under normal conditions. Some very interesting evidence has been given, by working men's wives and others; and the evidence has been absolutely undisputed ... The usual rent paid by a labourer, as distinguished from an artisan, appears to be 7s.; and taking the rent at 7s., the necessary average weekly expenditure for a labourer's home of about five persons would seem to be about £1 12s. 5d.*

Source 5.10.1 Excerpt from Justice Higgins' judgment in the Harvester case, 1907

The Harvester Judgment

The federal government was not able to create legislation that would protect workers (the Constitution did not allow it to interfere in wages and working conditions), so the government encouraged employers to be fair by waiving an excise tax if workers were paid 'fair and reasonable' wages.

In October 1907, the new court heard the case of H.V. McKay, the owner of Sunshine Harvester Works, after Mr McKay applied for a remission of the duty. That is, he believed his workers were being paid 'fair and reasonable' wages so he applied to waive the excise tax he paid on the machinery he exported overseas. His application was opposed by the trade union representing his workers who argued that the workers were being underpaid at 36 shillings (around $163 today) per week.

The court needed to define 'fair and reasonable' wages. The new court's President, Henry Higgins, heard the case, which was to become known as the **Harvester Judgment**. He took into consideration what a worker would need to be paid to support a family with food, clothing, health and transport, and decided that 7 shillings per day (42 shillings per week) was a reasonable minimum wage.

This was more than Mr McKay was paying his workers and he was ordered to pay £20 000 in excise duty. Mr McKay refused to pay and took his case to the High Court of Australia. He won but his reputation was damaged and the minimum wage was applied to later cases.

The case was important because it was a more than 25 per cent increase in the average unskilled wage of the time and took into account the idea of paying workers what they needed to live on rather than what a business was prepared to pay.

I am a married woman living in Bay Street, Port Melbourne. I have six children. My husband is secretary to the Agricultural Implement Makers' Union. I do not know what he earns but he gives me £2-10-0 [two pounds, ten shillings] a week. This is not enough to keep the family going.

Kate Russell, Testimony 1907, Ex parte HV McKay Harvester Case, Federal Court Arbitration and Conciliation

Source 5.10.2 One piece of testimony heard during the Harvester case

Social legislation

In the decades after Federation, the new federal parliament passed several new laws designed to improve the lives of injured workers, new mothers and older people. Such **social legislation** was virtually unheard of anywhere else in the world.

Source 5.10.3 Australian social legislation

Act	What it did
Invalid and Old Age Pension Act, 1908	Introduced the payment of a pension of ten shillings a week to those over the age of 65 or who were prevented from work due to a disability.
Workers Compensation Act, 1912	Paid compensation to any federal government employee who was injured or made sick through their work.
Maternity Allowances Act, 1912	Paid £5 to every woman considered part of the Commonwealth of Australia on the birth of a child. Worth more than two weeks pay at the time.

The minimum wage: 'All damn fine, but are we going to be guaranteed a minimum of bad conditions, so's we can pay without going further into debt?'

Source 5.10.4 From *The Bulletin,* 16 October 1919. Reproduced with permission of National Library of Australia

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2013, Fair Work Australia set the minimum wage at $15.96 per hour or $606.40 per week for adults.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Who introduced the Conciliation and Arbitration Bill into parliament and what was the court's main role?
2 What prevented the federal parliament passing legislation that would protect workers?
3 In your own words summarise what the Harvester Judgment was about.
4 Which were the three groups that benefitted from the new social legislation?

Applying and analysing

5 Examine Sources 5.10.1 and 5.10.2.
   a What did Justice Higgins consider in order to determine a 'fair and reasonab1le' wage for workers?
   b If one pound (£) was made up of 20 shillings and a shilling was made of 12 pence, what was the total amount Justice Higgins concluded was the average weekly expenditure for a worker?
   c Explain why you believe Justice Higgins spoke to the wives of the workers rather than the workers themselves?
   d Kate Russell (see Source 5.10.2) said her husband was the secretary to the Agricultural Implement Makers' Union (the union complaining about Mr McKay). Explain whether this fact makes any difference to the reliability of the source.
6 Complete a PMI (plus, minus and interesting) chart for the introduction of the new social legislation. Consider the groups that would not benefit.

Investigating History

UNIT 5.11

Making a nation

Celebrating settlement

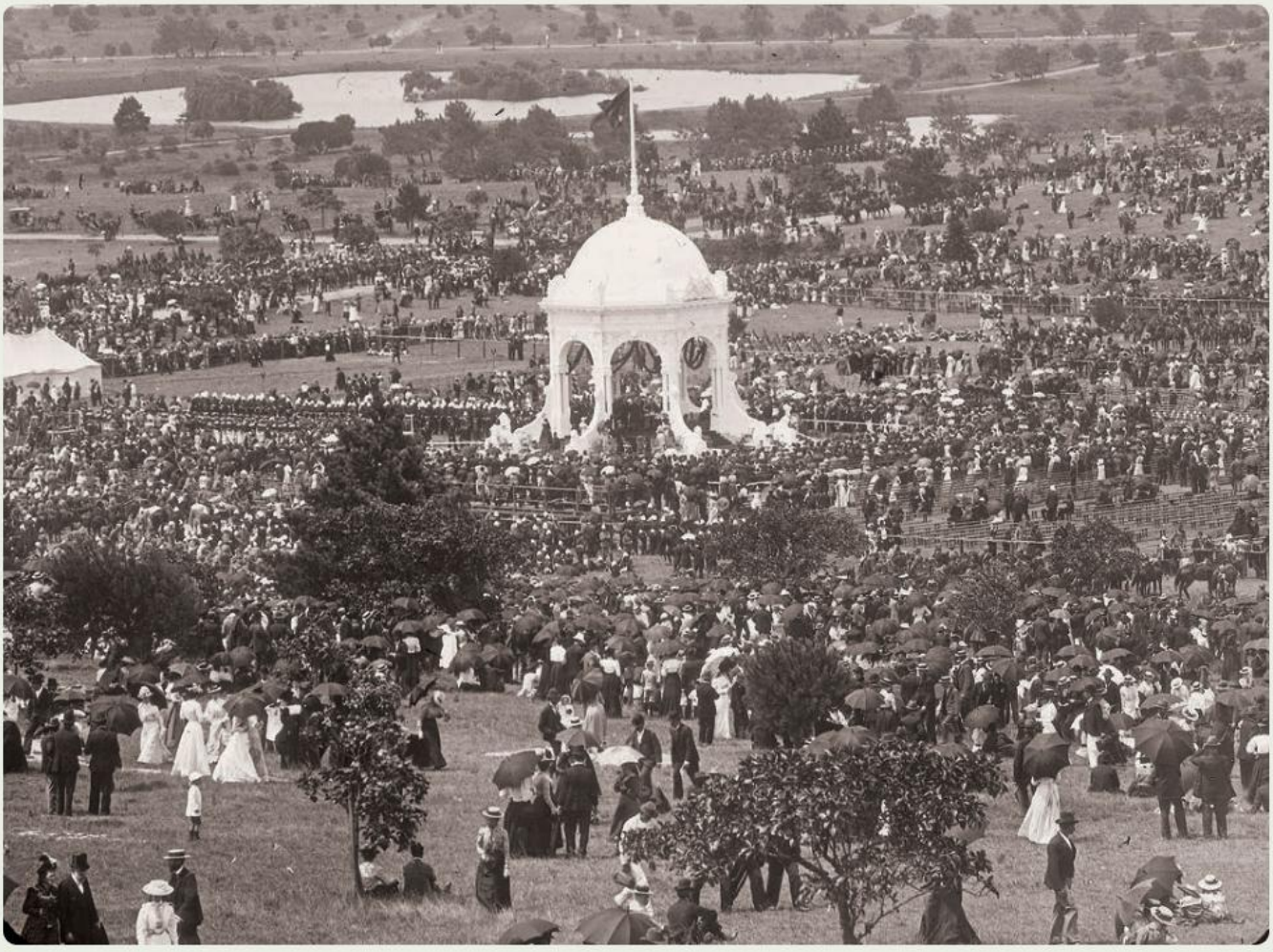
After the initial European settlement of Australia, the British soon began exploring other parts of the land and extending their settlement. The six Australian colonies were settled at different times and for a variety of reasons. Australian states and territories today celebrate these settlements in different ways.

Imagine you are a government official working in your own state or territory. You have been given the task of developing ideas for a celebration day for your region.

a Work in groups of four to research the development of the British colony that has become your state (or discuss an alternative with your teacher).

b Find out when the region was discovered and first settled and the reason for its settlement. Prepare a mind map of your researched information.

c Once you have completed your research, brainstorm some possible names for your celebration day and some ways in which it could be celebrated. Be sure to acknowledge and include the contributions of all members of your community.



Source 5.11.1 Sydney, 1901—the celebration of Australia as a nation, National Library of Australia

The Suffragette movement

A number of women made important contributions to nineteenth-century Australia. In particular, the women who fought for female suffrage (the right to vote) had a significant impact on Australian society.

a Choose one woman who has played an important role in attaining equal rights for women within the political process. Significant women include:
- Edith Cowan
- Louisa Lawson
- Vida Goldstein
- Enid Lyons
- Dorothy Tangney
- Henrietta Dugdale.

b Imagine you are an Australian museum curator in charge of a new display on women's suffrage. Choose one of the women above (or another of your choosing) to research.

c Organise your research under the headings:
- personal life
- main beliefs
- contribution to equal rights for women.

d Use your research to prepare a museum signage board that would explain the contributions of the woman. Be sure to include source material and photographs if possible, and design your board to be both visually appealing and informative.

Newspaper report

Create a nineteenth-century newspaper report for your local or state/territory newspaper on one event that took place between Aboriginal People and the new European settlers. Your report will need to be written using a newspaper report structure such as who, what where, when, why and how. It should contain the following:
- what happened (for example, the Myall Creek Massacre or cases of Aboriginal People dying of Western diseases)
- who was involved
- where the event took place
- when the event took place
- why the event occurred
- how those involved were affected.

Glossary

bicameral parliament parliament with two houses

bubonic plague contagious bacterial disease spread by rats; symptoms include fever, delirium and death

diaspora group of people dispersed around the world

Harvester Judgment judgment heard in the new Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Court that established the definition of a 'fair and reasonable' wage and set the minimum wage thereafter

referendum political vote referred directly to the general electorate. In Australia, referendums are required to change the constitution

selector small-scale farmer, typically owning between 60 and 100 acres of land

social legislation laws designed to protect vulnerable groups such as older people, new mothers and injured workers

White Australia policy set of laws designed to maintain the racial purity of Australia

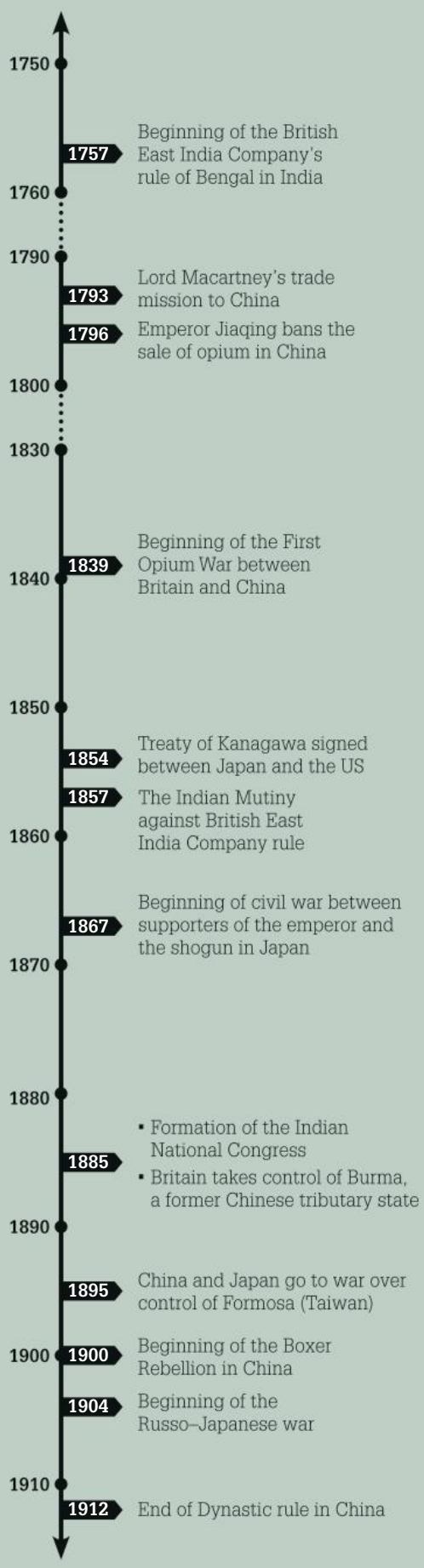

福地源一郎ハ天保十四年長崎
に生る聰慧五才にて字を能写す
七才にして書を読む幼稚より幕
臣たらんとて志し壮年にて政
府の事に欧州各国へ航るること
三回後市井に退き商業社會
を益を明治六年日報社々長と
なり西南の乱に戦地の実況を
視察し天顔に咫尺し親く
奏上なし且論理文勢暢達に
して真に仙筆とも云べし実に明
治の一傑俊なり
東江述
真生
清親

CHAPTER
6

Asia and the world

Introduction

In the 1700s sea travel became more advanced and European traders looked to Asia for raw materials and products. Chinese silk and porcelain, and spices and silk from India were among the most popular items. Over time European powers gained more control and power in Asia.



Source 6.0.1 The journalist Fukuchi Gen'ichiro, a colour woodblock print by Kobayashi Kiyochika, 1877, British Museum

Source 6.0.2 A timeline of European engagement in Asia

UNIT 6.1

Geographical, political and economic features of nineteenth-century China

Source 6.1.1
China during the height of the Qing Dynasty

Geographical features

At its height at the end of the eighteenth century, the Qing Empire included eighteen administrative provinces, as well as **protectorates** including Inner and Outer Mongolia, Tibet and Xinjiang, shown in Source 6.1.1. China's weaker Asian neighbours recognised its military and economic power, and were eager to maintain good relations with their powerful neighbour.

Role of leaders in the Qing Dynasty

Emperor

The emperor was the absolute ruler and head of the Qing Dynasty. All policies were determined by him, as were all official appointments and dismissals. He commanded the army and made treaties with foreign powers. It was commonly believed that the emperor received his authority to rule directly from God. For this reason he had the title Son of Heaven. As long as the emperor governed for the benefit of his subjects, he would keep his mandate (right to rule).

Grand Council

The Grand Council served as the emperor's closest advisors. Only members of the royal family were entitled to sit on the Grand Council, which was usually made up of between five and six councillors. All imperial edicts and court letters were drafted by the Grand Council and then presented to the emperor for approval.

The Board of Civil Office				
Board of Revenue	**Board of Rites**	**Board of War**	**Board of Punishments**	**Board of Public Works**
▪ Taxes and government finances	▪ Civil service examinations ▪ Court and temple rituals, ▪ Visits of foreigners to the imperial court	▪ Green Standard Army (internal police force)	▪ Legal system, including the courts and prisons	▪ Building works ▪ Minting of coins

Source 6.1.2 The responsibilities of the Six Boards

Six Boards

The Six Boards were part of the 'outer court' and administered less important matters. Only the emperor could issue orders to the Six Boards. Source 6.1.2 shows the order or importance of the Six Boards and the responsibilities of each.

Censors

Censors acted as the eyes and ears of the emperor throughout China and were mainly responsible for discovering secret opposition, corruption or poor performance by local officials. Censors could criticise any official as they saw fit, either publically or in private to the emperor.

Economic features

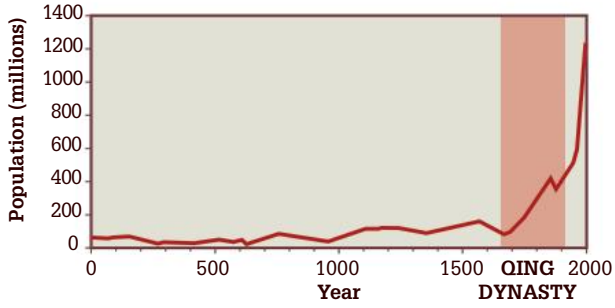
Up until the fourteenth century, the Chinese economy was larger than that of Europe. However, from around the sixteenth century new shipping technology resulted in the rise of European economies. By the nineteenth century, China's economy was stagnant and Britain dominated international trade.

Importance of agriculture

Nineteenth-century China was an agricultural economy. Since the vast majority of people were peasants, most government revenue came from land and poll taxes (taxes collected per person). These had to be paid twice a year in the form of money, grain and compulsory labour. Most peasants resented the requirement to work for the government as it took them away from their land.

Population growth

The Chinese population began steadily increasing from the middle of the eighteenth century due to an extended period of economic prosperity and internal peace. By 1850, China's population had reached over 450 million (see Source 6.1.3). This resulted in a rural land shortage that caused widespread poverty and famine. Increasing taxes and corrupt officials made the peasants' situation worse.



Source 6.1.3 Chinese population growth over time

Regional trade

In order to receive China's protection, its smaller neighbours were required make special pilgrimages to pay tribute to the Chinese emperor in Peking (present-day Beijing). These tributary missions often involved thousands of envoys, courtiers and merchants. Visiting envoys submitted their petitions before the emperor and presented their tribute in the form of gold, silver and expensive gifts. In return, the emperor would promise to protect the tributary state from invasion and would send support in times of hardship.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why was the emperor referred to as the Son of Heaven?
2. Outline the roles of the Grand Council, the Six Boards, and the Censors.
3. What were 'tributary missions' and why were they important to Chinese trade?

Applying and analysing

4. Create a concept map showing the reasons why the Qing Emperor was an absolute ruler.
5. Use the information and sources in this unit to construct flashcards. These should have questions on one side and short answers the reverse side.

UNIT 6.2

Chinese society and culture in the nineteenth century

Structure of Chinese society

The nobility

All Manchu families belonged to one of eight Manchu Banners, into which the imperial army was organised. Members of each banner were called bannermen.

Leaders from areas conquered by the Manchus were also be made Bannermen as a way of ensuring their loyalty.

There were nine ranks of nobility apart from royal family. All noblemen passed their titles onto their eldest son, the eldest son's title would be one rank lower than his father's.

The commoners

Ordinary people belonging to a reputable occupation were referred to as commoners. This was according to the **Confucian** principle that those who use their minds should rule over those who use their strength. These people were called 'good people' and belonged to one of four occupations.

Scholar-officials

Scholar-officials were the moral guardians of society who were experts in Confucianism. They often gave public lectures and produced pamphlets calling for virtuous and honourable behaviour. Scholar-officials had to pass a rigorous examination in order to obtain the literary degree needed to work in the civil service. Years of study could be richly rewarded with high status and many privileges (see Source 6.2.1).

Peasants

Peasants made up about 80 per cent of the population during the late Qing Dynasty. Since food production was the basis of the economy, peasants were seen as important. In order to control such a large population, the Qing rulers forced peasants to spend some of the year working for no pay on public works such as roads, bridges, defensive walls, dams and canals. Theoretically, peasants were permitted to sit for the civil service examination, though in reality it took years of study to pass—time that the average peasant could not afford away from their land.

Source 6.2.1 *Receiving the Scriptures*, a scroll painting by Qing Dynasty painter Huang Shen, 1687–1772

Artisans and craftsmen
Artisans and craftsmen included doctors, architects, priests, brewers, tea producers and silk makers. These occupations required training or a special skill was passed down from father to son. If he became successful, an artisan could hire apprentices and labourers to work for him. Since they owned no land, artisans and craftsmen could not be taxed, and therefore lacked the same rights and status of peasants.

Merchants
Merchants were considered to be at the bottom of the social ladder, regardless of how wealthy they became. This was because Confucian scholars frowned upon the pursuit of profit at others' expense. Nevertheless, the growing demand for tea and silk by Europeans throughout the nineteenth century saw some merchants become incredibly wealthy.

The classless
About 1 per cent of Chinese society during the Qing Dynasty sat outside the social ladder. These were people such as prostitutes, actors and slaves who were denied the rights of ordinary commoners. This group was referred to as 'mean people'. The law forbade mean people from marrying 'good people'.

Lives of men, women and children

Marriage
Marriages were arranged by fathers and were seen as the extension of a family rather than the creation of a new one. After getting married, a woman was expected to join her husband's family. A married woman was expected to submit to her husband and faithfully serve her in-laws, especially her mother-in-law. When her husband died, a woman then had to submit to her son.

Family
Daily life in Qing China involved interactions with numerous relatives—parents, siblings, grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins. A typical home for a wealthier family could have up to 100 members living together. However, only the blood relatives of the father were considered to be true family. In wealthier families, servants, maids, and even **concubines** were also part of the household (see Source 6.2.2). Becoming a concubine was one of the very few ways for a Chinese woman to improve her position in the world.

Children
Children were expected to obey their parents when they were young and later, to look after them in old age and sickness. A disrespectful child would bring great shame to their family. Since daughters would one day leave the family home to live with their in-laws, most parents wanted to have boys so that they would be looked after in their old age. It was the eldest son who was responsible for carrying on the family name and leading ancestral worship. Girls were usually referred to simply as Daughter Number One, Daughter Number Two, etc.

Source 6.2.2 German artist's impression of Chinese concubines, around 1880

Religion and culture

Importance of Confucianism

Confucianism is a humanist philosophy, not a religion, because it is concerned with how people should behave rather than with supernatural gods. During the late Qing dynasty, Confucianism was a belief system that had been universally accepted in China for several centuries.

Source 6.2.3 *Confucius*, 1770, Granger Collection

The five virtues

Confucian thought is built around the concept of virtue, that is, ideals or ethics that all people should aspire to for the benefit of all. The five virtues of Confucianism are:

- Integrity—do what you promise to do and fulfill your obligations to others
- Humanness (or altruism)—do to others what you would have them do to you
- Righteousness—do what is right and just
- Etiquette (or propriety)—show your respect by following custom and ritual
- Knowledge—find out as much about the world and avoid errors due to ignorance.

Filial piety

According to Confucian teaching, filial piety was the basis of all moral behaviour. This is an ethic based on a deep respect for elders or superiors, and kindness towards inferiors. Confucius identified five relationships in which filial piety was to be observed. These required strict observance of one's own role in order to make a harmonious society. In order of importance, these relationships are shown in Source 6.2.4.

1 Ruler (benevolent) and subject (loyal)
2 Father (loving) and son (obedient)
3 Older brother (gentle) and younger brother (respectful)
4 Husband (good) and wife (attentive)
5 Older friend (considerate) and younger friend (deferential)

Source 6.2.4 The five basic relationships of Confucianism

Daoism

Daoism was founded by the ancient Chinese philosopher Laozi in the sixth century BC (BCE). The Chinese word Tao means way or path—but it is best understood as a force that runs through everything. Daoism is considered a religion due to the belief in a supernatural deity that is to be worshipped, albeit one that exists in and through everything. Since the Tao exists in everything, Daoism teaches that everything in the world is connected and must be kept in balance—a concept represented by the ying-yang symbol (see Source 6.2.5).

Source 6.2.5 The ying-yang symbol of Daoism

During the period of the Qing Dynasty (1644–1912) Taoist influence declined. At this time, China underwent a revival of interest in Confucianism, which was generally considered to be a more practical belief system. However, since Daoism was a native Chinese religion that was popular with the masses, the Qing rulers, who were Manchus, were always highly suspicious of it.

Buddhism

Buddhism originated in India during the fifth century BC (BCE) and probably came to China some time during the Qin Dynasty (221–206 BC). Buddhism quickly grew in popularity with ordinary Chinese, since it offered new opportunities for younger sons who had had little chance of owning land. Under the Qing emperors, Buddhism fared better than Daoism mainly because the Manchus had already shown a strong interest in Tibetan Buddhism before conquering China. Buddhism includes the following main beliefs:

- Reincarnation—Buddhists believe that all living things are reborn, or reincarnated.

For many Buddhists, therefore, death is seen as a temporary end—a transition between one life and the next. The state a living thing is reborn into depends on the karma they achieved in their last life.

- Karma—simply means 'acting or doing' and any kind of intentional act is considered to be either good or bad karma. According to Buddhists, every birth is influenced by the karma of the person's previous life.
- Avoid harm—since Buddhists believe animals and even ghosts can be reborn into human beings, they strive to bring happiness to all living things. By following the five precepts of harmlessness (see Source 6.2.6), Buddhists seek to avoid harm to all including themselves.

1 Avoid intentionally killing any living thing
2 Avoid stealing from anyone
3 Avoid sexual misconduct
4 Avoid intoxicants
5 Avoid lying

Source 6.2.6 Five precepts of harmlessness according to Buddhists

DID YOU KNOW?

In the nineteenth century, the practice of foot binding or 'lotus feet' was common for Chinese women. Having lotus feet forced a young woman to take dainty steps. The process of foot binding began at around the age of three, before the arch of the foot had had a chance to develop. All ten toes were folded back and broken, as was the arch of each foot (see Source 6.2.7).

Source 6.2.7 An unwrapped lotus foot

Ancestor worship

Most Chinese families were dedicated to the daily worship of their dead ancestors. This practice drew on elements of Confucianism, Daoism and Buddhism. One room in every house contained a number of wooden spirit tablets, one for each ancestor. Incense was offered to dead ancestors in the hope that their spirits could help living family members succeed in this world.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Which groups in Chinese society were considered to be 'good people' and 'mean people'?
2 Why were Chinese peasants ranked higher than merchants?
3 Identify two examples of women's low status in nineteenth-century Chinese society.
4 Why were sons preferred over daughters?
5 Define the following terms: virtue, filial piety, Tao, and karma.
6 Why is Confucianism not considered to be a religion?
7 What happened to Daoism during Qing rule?
8 Why did Buddhism become more popular during the Qing Dynasty?

Applying and analysing

9 Use the information in 'Structure of Chinese society' to construct a social hierarchy pyramid. This should show the status, from highest to lowest, of each group in nineteenth-century Chinese society.
10 Construct a table that compares and contrasts Confucianism, Daoism and Buddhism.
11 Consider whether or not the five basic relationships of Confucianism could exist in your own family, school and government today.
12 Investigate the origins and purpose of the Eight Manchu Banners. Also find out what was distinctive about each of the eight banners. Present your information, images, video and sound in a digital format of your own choice.

UNIT 6.3

Contact between China and Europe

Early missionary contact

Jesuit missionaries

Jesuit missionaries were among the first European visitors to China. In 1630 one of the missionaries, Johan Adam Schall von Bell, a learned astronomer, was appointed to the court of Emperor Shunzhi. As a result of his importance to the emperor, the Jesuits were permitted to build churches throughout China. Within a few decades the number of Christian converts had risen to around 150 000.

Protestant missionaries

In 1807, the first Protestant missionary Robert Morrison arrived in China. He worked at translating the Bible into Chinese and was the first to produce a Chinese–English dictionary. In 1826, Emperor Daoguang forbade Chinese from converting to Christianity. Those who refused to renounce their faith were banished to the province of Xinjiang, where they were given to Muslim rulers as slaves. Foreign missionaries responsible for conversions were punished (see Source 6.3.1).

> *He who propagates the religion, inflaming and deceiving the people, if the number be not large, and no names be given, shall be sentenced to strangulation after a period of imprisonment.*

Source 6.3.1 Quoted in Robert Samuel Maclay (1861), *Life among the Chinese: with characteristic sketches and incidents of missionary operations and prospects in China*, Carlton & Porter. p. 336

Early trade contact

European trade

In 1685, Emperor Kangxi first allowed Europeans to trade with China. In China, however, there was very little demand for European goods. The Chinese were determined that China should remain self-sufficient and insisted that all foreigners had to pay for their goods with silver. This resulted in a large **trade deficit** for Britain.

First European trade mission

Until 1793, no European diplomat had ever visited the Chinese emperor. However, in 1792 Emperor Qianlong was informed that Britain's Lord Macartney was coming as part of a tributary mission to celebrate his eighty-third birthday. The eighty-four members of Macartney's mission brought with them an array of gifts for the emperor including a planetarium and mechanical instruments. On 14 September 1793, Macartney finally met with Qianlong but refused to perform the full ceremonial kowtow. Due to Macartney's lack of respect, Qianlong refused to agree to the requests of the British government (see Source 6.3.2).

> *Formerly Portugal presented tribute;*
> *Now England is paying homage.*
> *They have out-travelled Shu-hai and Heng-chang*;*
> *My Ancestors' merit and virtue must have reached their distant shores.*
> *Though their tribute is commonplace, my heart approves sincerely.*
> *Curios and the boasted ingenuity of their devices I prize not.*
> *Though what they bring is meagre, yet,*
> *In my kindness to men from afar I make generous return,*
> *Wanting to preserve my good health and power.*
>
> * Famous travellers in Chinese mythology

Source 6.3.2 Poem written by Emperor Qianlong about Macartney's mission to China, quoted in *The Rise of Modern China*, by Immanuel C. Y. Hsu, 1983

Trade between Britain and China was therefore slow to develop, although by 1800 tea accounted for approximately 90 per cent of all British trade with China. By then the British East India Company was importing over 10.5 million kilograms per year.

Change and continuity

Continuity by limiting European contact

To restrict the activity of foreigners in China, a unique system of trade known as the Canton System was introduced. All foreign trade had to be conducted through the port of Canton in the far south of the empire. Interaction between foreigners and ordinary Chinese people was not allowed and all dealings had to be with one of thirteen government-appointed Hong merchants. All foreigners were subject to Chinese law, which many Europeans objected to (see Sources 6.3.3 and 6.3.4).

1. No foreign women or firearms are permitted in the factories.
2. All foreigners must leave Canton after the trading season (October to January).
3. All captains must register their ships with the Chinese authorities in Macau.
4. Foreigners can move freely only within 100 yards of their factory.
5. Foreign factories are not permitted to employ Chinese maids.
6. Foreigners are not permitted to row their boats in the Pearl River.
7. Foreigners are not permitted to learn Chinese or purchase Chinese books.
8. No foreigner is permitted to make direct contact with Chinese people.
9. All trade must be conducted via the Hong merchants—no foreigner is permitted to directly communicate with private Chinese merchants.
10. Hong merchants are not permitted to go into debt to foreigners.

Source 6.3.3 Regulations on foreign trade in Canton

Changes from the Opium trade

Opium is produced from the sap of the opium poppy and turned into powder which is then used mainly for medicinal purposes, but is also a highly addictive drug. Towards the end of the eighteenth century opium became increasingly popular in China and illegal smuggling fed the growing demand for the drug. In 1796, Emperor Jiaqing banned the sale of opium but this had little effect. In 1833, the British government ended the British East India Company's opium monopoly (exclusive trade) in India. This flooded China with cheap opium (see Source 6.3.5).

Year	Number of chests imported
1729	200
1790	4000
1820	5000
1830	16000
1838	28000
1858	70000

Source 6.3.5 Growth of opium imports into China

It is estimated that at the height of the opium trade there were as many as ten million addicts throughout China and that about 20 to 30 per cent of government officials were opium users. This had severe social and economic consequences, as addicts became withdrawn and apathetic and spent most of their income on opium. Opium addiction was a problem for all classes of Chinese.

Source 6.3.4 *The Hongs at Canton* c. 1820, artist unknown. Note the flags being flown.

China's response to illegal opium

In 1839, Lin Zexu was appointed as the imperial commissioner responsible for destroying the opium trade. He had over 1600 Chinese opium dealers arrested and confiscated over 42 000 pipes used to smoke opium. Commissioner Lin even wrote to Queen Victoria, pleading for her to stop the trade (see Source 6.3.6).

> *We have heard that in your own country opium is prohibited with the utmost strictness and severity: this is a strong proof that you know full well how hurtful it is to mankind. Since then you do not permit it to injure your own country, you ought not to have the injurious drug transferred to another country, and above all others, how much less to the Inner Land [China]!*

Source 6.3.6 Extract from a letter from the Imperial Commissioner Lin Zexu to Queen Victoria in 1839

On 18 March 1839, Lin ordered all foreign merchants to hand over their opium within three days and sign a pledge to never sell it again. When the merchants ignored this, he closed the port of Canton to all foreign shipping and seized control of the British factory with 350 people inside. They were only freed when the British government agreed to destroy 20 000 chests of opium, but they demanded financial compensation for the loss.

Changes from the Opium Wars

In response to the destruction of opium, the British navy sent a fleet of warships to seize control of Canton and other coastal ports. Chinese wooden junks stood no chance against British steam-powered, iron-hulled ships. In 1842, the British fleet was able to occupy Shanghai and then proceed up the Yangtze River towards Nanking, bombarding several coastal towns along the way. Hostilities ceased on 29 August 1842, when the Chinese agreed to sign the Treaty of Nanking. This ceded control of Hong Kong to Britain and opened four new ports to British shipping. In addition, China agreed to pay the equivalent of $9 million in compensation for the opium that had been destroyed. In 1844, France and the United States took advantage of China's defeat by obtaining similar **unequal treaties**. These effectively ended the Canton system of trade and allowed the western powers to penetrate inland China.

Changes from the opening of China

For the next decade, Chinese authorities were reluctant to carry out the terms of the unequal treaties. This led to a second Opium War in 1856, with even worse consequences for the Chinese. The Treaty of Tientsin in 1858 required that eleven new ports be opened to foreign shipping and that all foreigners, including Christian missionaries, be allowed to travel freely throughout China (see Source 6.3.7). Previous laws that made foreigners subject to Chinese law were also abolished.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. How did emperor Daoguang respond to the spread of Christianity in China?
2. Explain how and why trade between China and Britain first began to develop.
3. What did the failure of Lord Macartney's trade mission show about attitudes between Europeans and Chinese?
4. Why did the opium trade develop and how did the Chinese try to deal with it?

Applying and analysing

5. Examine Source 6.3.3. Explain how each regulation aimed to limit European contact. Also discuss whether or not you think each would have been effective or not.
6. Analyse the Opium Wars by creating a five-column table with the following headings:
   - Causes (reasons for the outbreak of war)
   - Course (turning points during the war)
   - Consequences (results of the war)
   - Characters (important individuals or groups involved)
   - Controversies (issues which were or are still debated).
7. Carefully examine Source 6.3.2. Write a similar poem from the perspective of the Commissioner Lin Zexu towards the growing opium trade in 1839.

Source 6.3.7 China: the cake of kings and emperors, 1898, *Le Petit Journal*


KIAO-TCHÉOU
PORT-ARTHUR
CHINE

UNIT 6.4

Consequences of contact with Europeans

Consequences of contact

Positive consequences of contact between China and Europe include:

- Beginning of modernisation
- New economic opportunities
- Reform of Qing government
- Chinese emigration worldwide
- Beginning of trade relations
- New cultural awareness.

Negative consequences of contact between China and Europe include:

- Defeat and humiliation in war weakened China military
- Increased opium imports and addiction
- Loss of China's prestige in Asia
- Influx of foreign ideas
- Taiping and other rebellions weaken the Qing Dynasty
- Decline in traditional cottage industries
- Territorial losses to Russia
- Concessions made by the Unequal treaties.

Consequences of the Opium Wars

Economic impacts

With the opening of several new 'treaty ports' after the Opium wars, China experienced an influx of foreign goods. This led to a serious decline in traditional cottage industries. Canton suffered the most, since the city had been the only port open to European traders for well over 150 years. As a result, there was a mass movement of people from Canton to Shanghai. This brought with it enormous social problems such as homelessness and crime.

Religious impacts

China's southern provinces were the first to experience an influx of Christian missionaries from the West. Christianity appealed to the growing number of people who had been forced to leave their homes in search of work. This led to tension. Christians accused Buddhists and Taoists of superstitious idol worship, while Christians were accused of accepting a foreign faith.

The Taiping Rebellion

The most serious of the rebellions against the Qing Dynasty at this time was the Taiping Rebellion. The Taiping Rebellion became a fourteen year civil war that resulted in the deaths of around twenty million soldiers and civilians (see Source 6.4.2). The leader of the rebellion was Hong Xiuquan, a recent Christian convert. Establishing a capital for his Taiping Heavenly Kingdom in Nanking, Hong eventually built a civilian army of over one million men. As they gained control of new territory, the Taiping rebels:

- redistributed the land equally to all men and women over the age of sixteen
- destroyed temples and shrines and forbade ancestor worship
- introduced measures to support the sick and disabled
- prohibited opium smoking, foot binding, slavery and prostitution.

> *I have no hope of any good ever coming of the (Taiping) rebel movement…*
>
> *They do nothing but burn, murder and destroy… They have held Nanking eight years, and there is not a symptom of rebuilding it. Trade and industry are prohibited.*

Source 6.4.1 Alexander Michie, An Englishman who visited the Taiping Heavenly Kingdom (Nanking) in 1861 (quoted in *Hsu, The Rise of Modern China*, Oxford University Press, 1983, p. 245)

Chinese society unaffected by contact

Continuity of the Qing Dynasty

The Taiping rebellion was eventually crushed in 1864 with the help of foreign armies. This occurred only after the rebels began to threaten foreign trade. By guaranteeing the continuation of foreign trade, the Qing Dynasty was able to draw support from European powers.

Source 6.4.2 The Taiping Rebellion, 1850

The shock of defeat in the Opium Wars and later, the near success of the Taiping Rebellion led to a period of 'self-strengthening' by the Qing dynasty. The Qing Dynasty survived for nearly another fifty years, mainly because its officials recognised the need to modernise China. In 1898, during the 'Hundred Days of Reform', economic, military, political and educational changes were made.

Continuity of Confucian ideas

This survival of the Qing Dynasty relied on the willingness of ethnic Chinese to fight for, rather than against their Manchu rulers. This was because the Protestant beliefs of the Taiping rebels undermined important Confucian values. Many Chinese could not understand the Protestant view that all believers are equal, since this threatened to destroy the roles and responsibilities between superiors and inferiors in society.

China and the world in 1900

China begins to look abroad

As part of the 'self-strengthening' policy, Chinese students were encouraged to study overseas to find out about Western scientific knowledge. As a result, small-scale industry began to emerge, including gun factories, shipyards and textiles factories. In 1861, the first Office for Foreign Affairs was established and Chinese officials were encouraged to learn foreign languages.

New and old enemies

In 1884, China went to war with France over control of Annam (part of present-day Vietnam) and lost. Annam had long been one of China's tributary states. In 1885, the British followed the French example and added Burma, another of China's tributary states, to their vast Empire. In 1895, after a short and decisive naval battle against Japan, China was forced to **cede** its most important tributary state, Korea. This was the first time in centuries that China had been defeated by another Asian power.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Outline two impacts of the opening of China after its defeat in the Opium Wars.
2. Who was Hong Xiuquan? What did he believe and attempt to do?
3. Why was the Qing Dynasty able to survive the Taiping Rebellion?

Applying and analysing

4. Negative consequences for some are often positive consequences for others, and vice versa. Decide for whom these are positive and negative consequences. Show your thoughts in a comparison chart.
5. Imagine that the year is 1839 and you are Commissioner Lin Zexu. Faced with solving the problem of the British Opium trade, consider the options are realistically available to you. Think about both intended as well as unintended outcomes of all of the available options. You may include real decisions and actions made by Commissioner Lin.

UNIT 6.5

Assessing the Boxer Rebellion

Causes of the rebellion

Growing unrest and anti-Western feeling

In 1898, the Yellow River burst its banks; the flood led to crop failure and famine directly affecting over two million people. Widespread poverty and hunger led to frustration and anger. Banditry and violence became common throughout the countryside. To protect their villages from looting, a movement of Chinese martial artists called the 'Righteous and Harmonious Fists' arose. Nicknamed Boxers by the British, this movement turned into a large peasant revolt intent on ridding China of all foreign influence.

Many Chinese blamed their problems on the arrival of foreigners and turned to the Boxers. It was believed the Boxers had mystical powers that would enable them to defeat the foreigners. These powers included spells that, if chanted correctly, would supposedly make the individual invulnerable to bullets.

Course of the Boxer Rebellion

Attacks on Christians

The Boxer Rebellion began in the province of Shandong in northern China. At first, the Boxers attacked churches throughout the countryside. Chanting slogans such as, 'Destroy what is foreign' and, 'Kill the foreign devils', the Boxers and their supporters ripped up railway tracks and telegraph lines.

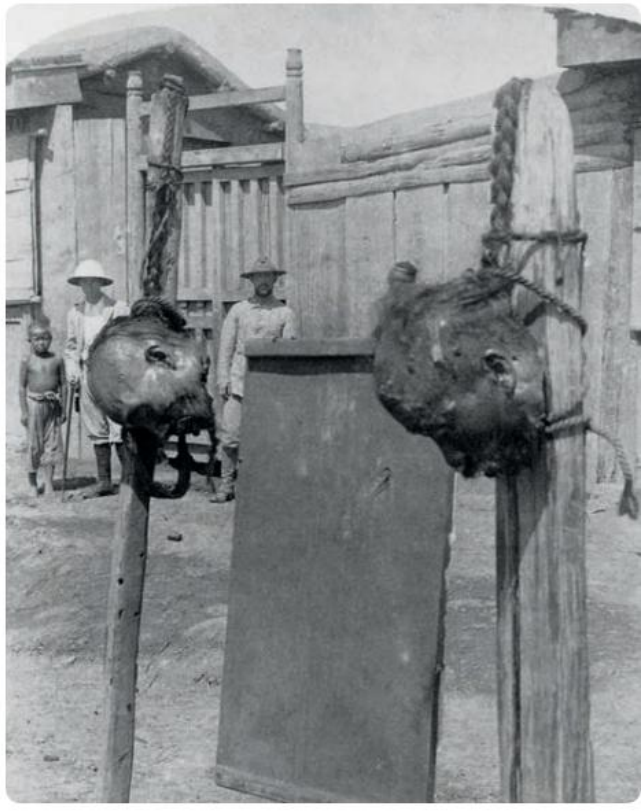
The Siege of Peking

By 1899, the Boxer movement had grown into a considerable force and spread northwards to Peking, where it aimed to destroy foreign embassies. The Boxers also wanted to overthrow the emperor Guangxu, whom they blamed for allowing the spread of foreign influence. For fifty-five days, the Boxers laid siege to Peking, trying to destroy the foreign embassies and kill the diplomats, their families and the Chinese Christians who took refuge there. During the siege, sixty-six foreigners were killed and over 150 wounded.

Fearing the overthrow of the Qing Dynasty, Cixi the dowager empress (widow of the previous emperor) sided with the Boxers. With the support of anti-Western officials within the palace, Cixi deposed her own son, Guangxu, and had him imprisoned. On 21 June 1900, Cixi promised to support the Boxers.

Western intervention

In response to the attacks upon their embassies, Britain, France, Russia, Germany, Austria–Hungary, the United States, Italy and Japan formed the Eight-Nation Alliance and sent a multinational force of 50 000 troops. In July 1900, the first foreign forces arrived with badly needed supplies and took revenge on the Boxers (Source 6.5.1). Over the next year, the forces of the alliance gradually gained control over the provinces of northern China.



Source 6.5.1 The heads of two Boxer rebels, tied by their hair queues to stakes, outside Tianjin's West Gate, 1901

Consequences of the rebellion

Relations with foreign powers

On 7 September 1901, the Dowager Empress Cixi signed the Boxer Protocol, a peace agreement that forced the ruling dynasty to pay around $333 million. China was prohibited from importing weapons and ammunition, and all anti-foreign activity was to be punishable by death.

Rise of Chinese nationalism

Sensing the decline of Manchu power, many Han (ethnic Chinese) saw an opportunity to overthrow the Qing dynasty. The belief that the Han should rule China is known as Chinese **nationalism**. In 1911, Chinese nationalists finally overthrew the Qing Dynasty and established a new **republic**. This brought an end to over three centuries of Manchu rule and more than 2000 years of dynastic rule in China.

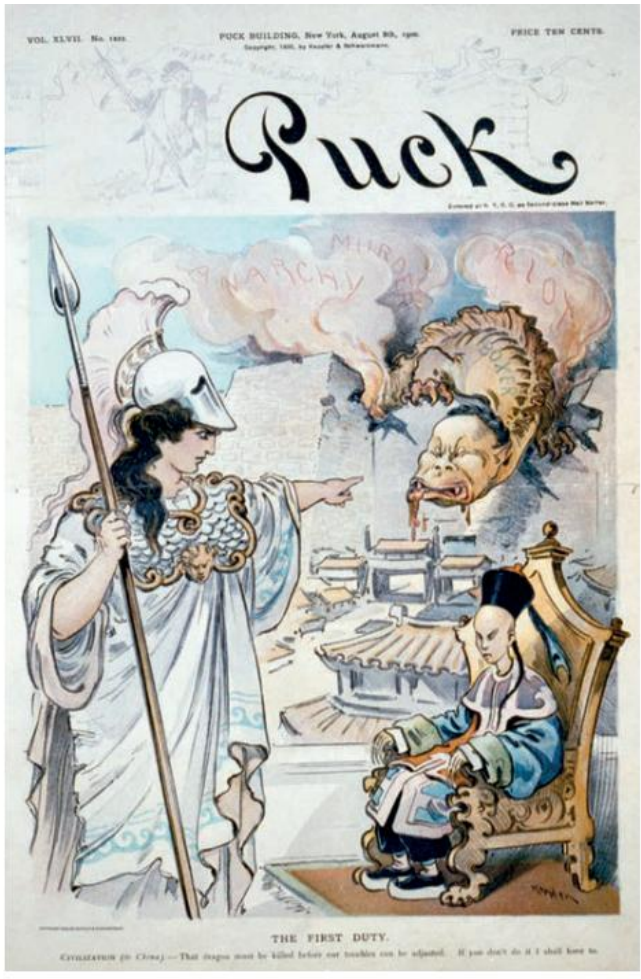
Chinese perspectives

Folk memories abound of an event that transformed the country's relationship with the West, and its own view of itself.

Source 6.5.2 'A Righteous Fist', *The Economist*, 16 December 2010

Source 6.5.3 *China for the Chinese*, 1891. Popular Chinese print calling for attacks on foreigners

A Western perspective



Source 6.5.4 Civilisation is telling the Chinese emperor to slay the Boxer dragon, otherwise she will be forced to do it, *Puck*, c.1900

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Identify the events that occurred in the following years: 1898, 1899, 1900, 1901, 1911.
2. Who were the Boxers and why did many Chinese peasants support them?
3. Explain how the Boxer Rebellion affected the Qing emperor Guangxu.
4. How were the Boxers eventually defeated?

Applying and analysing

5. Compare and contrast Chinese and Western perspectives of the Boxer Rebellion (Sources 6.5.2 to 6.5.4).

UNIT 6.6

Main features of nineteenth-century Japan

Geographical features of Japan

Japan is an archipelago, with the four largest islands being Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu. In Shinto mythology, it was said that the islands of Japan were the offspring of two of the gods. Japan has lush vegetation but is quite mountainous, so most crops are grown in tiered terraces. Mount Fuji and Japan regularly experiences earthquakes and volcanic eruptions as it is situated on a continental fault line.

Political features

Tokugawa Rule

In 1603, a powerful warlord by the name of Tokugawa Ieyasu took control of Japan. The Tokugawa clan established a military government known as the *bakufu*, with the shogun at its head. For the next two and a half centuries, Ieyasu's descendants ruled as the shoguns of Japan. The Tokugawa controlled about 40 per cent of the land and divided the rest among nobles, or daimyo (see Source 6.6.1).

Role of leaders in nineteenth-century Japan

The shogun and the emperor

Real power in nineteenth-century Japan lay with the shogun. Since he was the commander-in-chief of the army, the shogun ruled as a military dictator. The shogun, his relatives and allies controlled the most fertile and important regions of Japan. The shogun also controlled Japan's foreign affairs and trade.

Although he was believed to be divinely appointed, the emperor was merely a figurehead who gave all political authority to the shogun, who ruled on his behalf. The emperor's role was mainly ceremonial, as he was the head of the Shinto religion, Japan's dominant religion.

Daimyo

The daimyo were nobles who controlled the majority of the land. Each daimyo was the head of a large clan and fief (region) granted to them by the shogun. Each daimyo had the power to make new laws within their fiefs, unless instructed otherwise by the shogun.

There were two classes of daimyo:

Inner daimyo

- had fought alongside the Tokugawa clan
- held most of the high-ranking positions and therefore more powerful.

Outer daimyo

- had fought against Tokugawa clan
- had less position and power.

The power of the shogun

To limit the daimyos' powers, the shogun ordered that all daimyo and their armies had to spend a period of time at the shogun's castle in Edo (present-day Tokyo). The march to Edo was a long and costly exercise and they were required to stay for six months. Each alternate year, the wives and families of the daimyo were also ordered to Edo, where they were effectively kept hostage by the shogun. This system was known as alternate attendance.

The economy

A feudal economy

By 1750, Japan had been a **feudal** economy for more than a century. This meant that the major economic activity was the production of food and other natural resources. Drought and food shortage were relatively infrequent. In a feudal society, wealth is determined by the amount of land owned. The ruling Tokugawa clan made sure of its power by controlling around 40 per cent of all the land in Japan, the rest being divided among the daimyo.

Movement and trade

Throughout the nineteenth century, Japan's society and economy underwent significant change. As travel between towns and villages increased, merchants saw an opportunity to set up stalls, teahouses (see Source 6.6.2), textile shops and restaurants along the way. Land ownership became less important for creating wealth. Cities such as Edo grew substantially at this time, as many artisans, craftspeople and merchants sought new business opportunities among the hundreds of thousands of travelling samurai.

Source 6.6.1 Extent of Tokugawa control

Dutch trade

Except for a small outpost of Dutch traders, no foreigners were allowed to trade in Japan. To restrict their movement, Dutch merchants were confined to a small island off the coast of Nagasaki known as Deshima. The Dutch presence allowed the Tokugawa rulers to keep informed about important developments outside Japan. It was through these Dutch traders that the ruling class of Japan saw new products and ideas from the West for the first time.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Who was Tokugawa Ieyasu and why is he significant in Japanese history?
2. What was the system of alternate attendance and why did it exist?
3. How did the Japanese economy begin to change in the nineteenth century?

Applying and analysing

4. Use Source 6.6.1 plus the information in this unit to explain how the Tokugawa clan controlled Japan.
5. Why would travel between towns and villages bring about change in Japanese society?

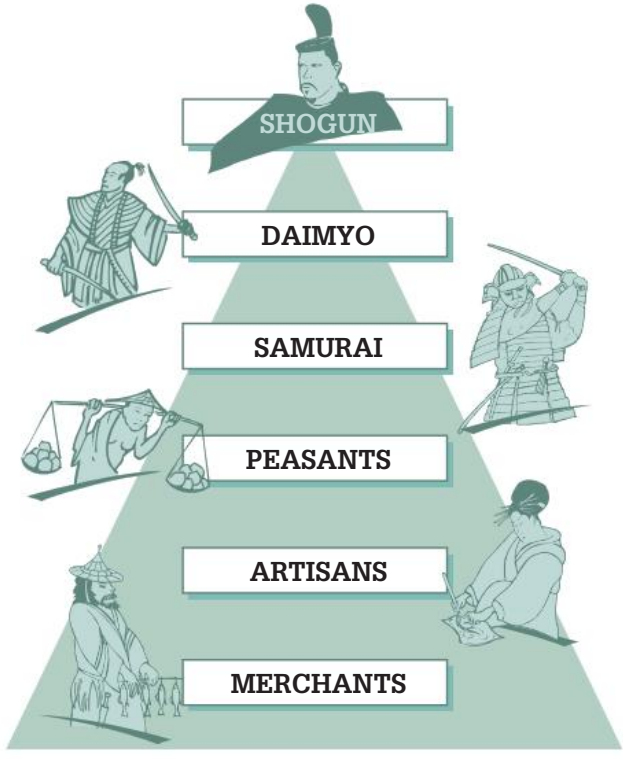
Source 6.6.2 Japanese travellers at a teahouse, c. 1863

UNIT 6.7

Japanese society and culture in the nineteenth century

Structure of Japanese society

After gaining the shogunate, the Tokugawa introduced a strict class system or **hierarchy** to Japan. This helped to bring stability to Japan after nearly a century of civil war and social upheaval. Individuals were forbidden from changing their social class. Under the shogun and the daimyo, there were other groups in Japanese society.



Source 6.7.1 Japanese feudal society during the Tokugawa period

Samurai

Samurai means 'one who serves' and referred to Japanese men of noble birth who were the protectors of their lords and their lands. They were the Japanese equivalents of knights. Samurai made up about six per cent of the population, but by the nineteenth century, their numbers were in decline due to centuries of peace. Many samurai then took on roles as administrators of the daimyo's land and possessions. If he took offence, a samurai could kill any person considered to be below them. All commoners had to dismount from their horses when they encountered a samurai.

Peasants

By far the largest group was the peasants, making up around 90 per cent of population. Peasants were farmers and labourers who produced food crops, including rice, wheat and barley. They were the backbone of the economy and their work was considered highly important. Much of the rice they produced was taken by their ruling daimyo in the form of tax. Peasants rarely, if ever, left their village and to do so required a special permit from the daimyo.

Chōnin

This group included those who bought and sold things. There were two groups of *chōnin*: artisans and craftspeople, and merchants. The *chōnin* were at the bottom of the social ladder because business and money lending was not thought of as a noble pursuit. *Chōnin* were typically townspeople, as this is where wealthier people came to buy things. Throughout the nineteenth century, the wealth of the *chōnin* increased greatly and many began to dress and act like samurai. Nevertheless, they lacked the same status as other classes.

Eta: the 'untouchables'

Eta were social outcasts who were considered impure, mainly because they worked in occupations associated with death. The term *Eta* means 'much dirt'. *Eta* inherited their lowly status and many were born 'untouchable' because of a crime committed by a grandparent or even great-grandparent. *Eta* lived in ghettos in the outskirts of town, where they worked as leather producers, butchers, undertakers or any occupation associated with death. They were also executioners.

Source 6.7.2 Samurai—ancient warrior of Japan, nineteenth-century photo

Religious beliefs and cultural values

Shinto

Shinto is a native Japanese religion that developed from around the eighth century BC (CE). The word Shinto means 'way of the gods' and followers believe that all natural elements, including wind, water, fire and land features have their own spirits. These gods are known as *kami*, and are called upon by people when they require help. It is believed that *kami* will only help if the individual is free from all impurity.

Buddhist influence

Since Shinto is more a system of religious practises than specific beliefs, it has combined well, or syncretised, with Buddhism. Another reason for this **syncretism** is that Shinto is considered to be useful for daily life, while Buddhism addresses issues of death and suffering. Under Tokugawa rule, Buddhist influence declined as Confucianism became more popular. This was because Confucianism taught that subjects ought to show deep respect and obedience to their ruler.

Life in nineteenth-century Japan

Village life

Since most people in nineteenth-century Japan were peasants, hard, physical work was a daily experience. Rural families lived in villages, which were administered by councils representing the male leaders of the families. At this time, a family could consist of numerous aunts, uncles, and cousins as well as mother, father, siblings and grandparents. Peasants were required to help build public works such as roads, bridges and canals. Other village work included silk production, textile making, and sake brewing.

Towns and cities

Japanese towns tended to grow around castles, where the daimyo resided. This was because artisans and craftspeople were needed to produce weapons, armour and clothing for the samurai. Towns and cities were divided into special quarters for the different classes. Samurai would only mix with artisans and merchants out of necessity. There were also labourers who cooked, cleaned, mended clothing and helped repair the castle.

Growth of the merchant class

During the nineteenth century, Japan's merchant class grew. Unlike peasants, merchants did not require a special permit to leave their village. Movement between towns and villages was common. Many flocked to Edo, which had become a large city due to the fact that the daimyo and their armies had to spend large periods of time there paying homage to the shogun.

Women and children

Wives

Most women held a lowly status in nineteenth-century Japan. A wife was the servant of her husband, father and son. Opportunities outside the family home were virtually non-existent. If her husband chose to divorce her, a woman could either return to her own family but to do so brought great shame upon them. A woman could seek a divorce, but this required her to become a nun and live in a temple for two years. Some wealthier women, however, enjoyed special privileges.

Source 6.7.3 Peasant labourers, c. 1890

A woman has no other lord; she must look to her husband as her lord and must serve him with all worship and reverence, not despising or thinking lightly of him. The Way of the woman is to obey her man.

Source 6.7.4 Excerpt from *The Great Learning for Women*, written by Kaibara Ekken, c.1729

Geisha

Geisha were professional female entertainers who accompanied wealthier men in public. They were not prostitutes, although geisha did often perform sexual favours for her client. Unlike prostitutes, however, being a geisha was considered a worthy occupation for wealthier women. A geisha could train for up to seven years learning how to read poetry, sing, dance, play games and make conversation. This apprenticeship would usually begin at the age of six, after which a geisha had to work hard to develop a good reputation.

Children

In Shinto, children are seen as gifts of the gods. When they turned three, five and seven, a child was taken to the local shrine, where their parents would promise to take good care of them. As far back as the sixteenth century, Portuguese missionaries observed that Japanese parents rarely hit their children. Children were, however, raised to have the utmost respect for the adults on their family. Only sons could inherit their father's land, so it was important to have sons.

Changes in society

The changing role of the samurai

By 1800, centuries of peace meant that the traditional role of the samurai as warriors was no longer important. Many samurai turned their attention to learning, art and administration.

As their influence declined, however, many samurai became poorer and some turned to a life of crime. More traditional samurai reacted to this by reasserting the ancient Code of *Bushido*, sometimes known as 'The Way of the Warrior'. At the heart of *Bushido* was unquestioning loyalty to one's ruler. Nothing that brought shame to the leader would be tolerated. According to the Code of *Bushido*, death was preferable to shame—even one's own death.

Dutch Learning

Shortly after coming to power in 1603, Tokugawa Ieyasu shut Japan off from contact with foreigners. This 'closed country' policy, known as *sakoku*, lasted for over two centuries. During that time, foreign influences such as Christianity almost died out. However, by the nineteenth century a few samurai had begun to learn about Western science and medicine, through books that had been smuggled from the few Dutch traders on Deshima. Over time, these samurai became less interested in tradition and more focused on new ideas, which became known as 'Dutch learning'.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Draw a social pyramid of Japanese society in the nineteenth century. Include details about peoples' rights.
2. Why were peasants considered the backbone of the economy?
3. What are *kami* and why are they important to followers of Shinto?
4. Explain the syncretism between Shintoism and Buddhism.
5. Describe what life was like for women and children in nineteenth-century Japan.

Applying and analysing

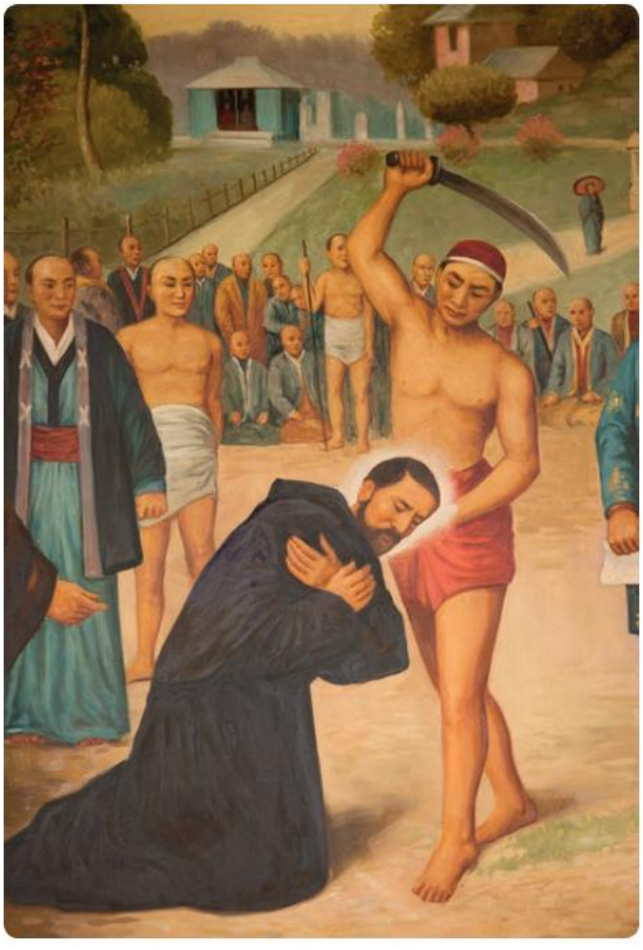
6. Annotate your social pyramid from question one with at least two adjectives to describe each social group.
7. Use your answers to questions one, five and six to help you construct a Venn diagram which compares and contrasts two groups of your choice from Japanese society.
8. **a** How and why did the role of the samurai change over time?
   b What differing effects did this have on the samurai?
9. **a** With a partner, brainstorm the possible effects on a society of being isolated from the rest of the world. Were there more positive or negative effects? Explain.
   b As a group, discuss the restrictions which would have to be applied to stop contact with the rest of the world. Consider also why a modern-day country may wish to isolate itself.

UNIT 6.8

Contact between the West and Japan

Early missionary contact

The first Christian missionary in Japan was Spanish priest Francis Xavier, who arrived in 1549. By the end of the century, the number of missionaries had grown to about 300 000. Although Japan's ruler, Hideyoshi, had initially welcomed Christian missionaries, towards the end of his life he began to suspect that their growing numbers might lead to a foreign invasion. To deter the Christians, in 1597, Hideyoshi ordered the crucifixion of twenty-six Christians, including nine foreign missionaries (see Source 6.8.1).



Source 6.8.1 Painting depicting the execution of a Catholic monk in Japan. Mural painting in San Augustin Church, Manila, Philippines

The end of isolation

Hideyoshi's actions did not deter foreign interest in Japan, and they kept coming. In:

- 1609, the Dutch began trading at Nagasaki
- 1613, British ships began calling at Japanese ports
- late 1700s, Russian, British and US ships had begun appearing off the Japanese coast (usually seeking to replenish supplies on their return from China)
- 1805, the Russians sought permission to have a **trade envoy** reside in Japan.

American interest in Japan

Over the next few decades, the United States of America developed a strong interest in the Pacific region. US steamers travelling to China were in need of a coaling station and US whaling ships also needed a base, as several had recently been shipwrecked off the coast of Japan. The Americans were also concerned that if they did not act soon, the British would eventually dominate the Pacific trade.

Impact of Commodore Perry's arrival

In 1852, American president Millard Fillmore announced that a naval force under the command of Commodore Matthew Perry would proceed to Japan to negotiate a trade agreement. On 8 July 1853, Perry's squadron of four gunboats arrived at Edo Bay. Local Japanese were alarmed at the sight of huge black ships with powerful cannons and the strong military force that accompanied Perry ashore.

> *Many of these large ships-of-war destined to visit Japan have not yet arrived in these seas, though they are hourly expected… as evidence of (our) friendly intentions, (we) have brought four of the smaller ones.*

Source 6.8.2 From Perry's letter to the Japanese emperor, dated 7 July 1853

Perry's return

The arrival of Russian ships in the port of Nagasaki prompted Perry's return sooner than he had expected. On this occasion, his squadron contained eight gunboats. After stalling for time, the Japanese entered into negotiations with Perry. On 31 March 1854 the first ever treaty was signed between Japan and a Western power. The Treaty of Kanagawa:

- opened a few minor ports to US shipping
- allowed for a US consul to reside at Shimoda
- the United States of America was given 'most favoured nation' status, which meant that any future benefits given to another power would automatically be given to them.

Impact of the Kanagawa Treaty

The Kanagawa treaty was the first of several unequal treaties between foreign powers and Japan. Within a year similar agreements had been made with the Russians, the British and the Dutch. On each occasion, Japan was pressured into making trade deals, which gave very little in return. In 1858, Townsend Harris, the first US consul to Japan, succeeded in having four additional ports opened to US trade. The Harris Treaty also granted freedom of religious expression to Americans residing in Japan and made them subject to US rather than Japanese law. For their part, the Americans agreed not to sell opium into Japan.

Negative consequences for Japan

Civil unrest

The end of isolation was a major humiliation for the Japanese. People blamed the shogun for not standing up to the foreign powers and anti-foreign feeling quickly spread throughout Japan. A popular movement called *Sonno Joi* (meaning 'revere the emperor, expel the barbarians') began actively resisting foreign intrusion into Japan. *Sonno Joi* also led the call for the restoration of the emperor as the political ruler of Japan (see Source 6.8.3).

Conflict with Western powers

In September 1862, a samurai warrior belonging to the powerful Satsuma clan murdered a British merchant. The British government demanded justice in the form of a £100 000 indemnity, a formal apology and the arrest of the offending samurai. When these demands were not met British ships bombarded the city of Kagoshima for three days.

In June 1863, Emperor Komei summoned the shogun to his palace and demanded that he tear up Japan's foreign treaties, expel all foreigners and close all ports to foreign trade. As this was impossible to carry out, within days anti-foreigners had fired on US, French and Dutch ships in the Shimonoseki Straits. In response, a combined Western fleet destroyed Japanese boats, and demanded an indemnity of US $3 million, well in excess of the damage they had sustained.

Source 6.8.3 Japanese artwork depicting the battle of Ueno in which the shogun's army was finally defeated, Yoshitoshi, 1873

The end of the shogunate

The bombardment by foreign ships showed Japan's military weakness and further undermined the authority of the shogun. In 1867, a civil war broke out between supporters of the emperor and forces loyal to the shogun. After the defeat of the shogun's army, the shogunate was officially abolished on 3 January 1868, bringing to an end over 250 years of Tokugawa rule in Japan and restoring the emperor's power.

Positive consequences for Japan

Restoration of the emperor

Emperor Komei died in 1867 and his 17-year-old son Mutsuhito found himself the ruler of Japan. The new emperor took the title Meiji, meaning 'enlightened rule', and moved the capital to Edo, which was renamed Tokyo. This period, known as the Meiji restoration, began an era of modernisation in Japan.

The strength of the foreign military had also convinced the anti-foreigners that resistance to foreign intrusion was pointless. They reasoned that if Japan were equally powerful, foreign powers would be less likely to interfere. To modernise, however, Japan would be required to accept foreign ideas and adopt foreign technology. Mutsuhito promised to reorganise Japanese society (see Source 6.8.4).

Source 6.8.4 Emperor Mutsuhito, who took the title of Meiji or 'Enlightened' Emperor

End of feudalism

Almost immediately, the Meiji Emperor abolished the centuries-old feudal system. This ended control by the daimyo over vast regions of Japan and gave the emperor central authority over the entire country. Most daimyo voluntarily handed over their lands in exchange for a substantial pension. The 400 000 members of the old warrior class, the samurai, were also paid pensions to give up their feudal entitlements. Most had to supplement this income by seeking new business opportunities or by joining the army or civil service. New factories relied on the movement of people to the cities and many thousands of peasants took up these new opportunities.

Emerging industry

Foreign economists were asked to help reform the economy and, in 1882, Japan's first central bank was established. This allowed for investment in foreign trade, industrial expansion and greater agricultural production. Initially, new industries were owned and controlled by the government but uring the 1880s, these large state-run enterprises were sold. Improvements in shipping technology also led to the establishment of an export trade, and railway lines between major cities made commerce more efficient.

Benefits of foreign ideas

Within the space of a few decades, Japan's society, economy, government and military had changed completely. Japanese students were encouraged to travel abroad and learn about foreign thought and culture. Before long, a craze for foreign literature, art and ideas spread throughout Japan. Authors began writing novels and poems in European styles and European dress and fashions began to appear. Japan borrowed the following ideas from the West:

- Latest engineering practices from the USA (see Source 6.8.5)
- Medical and scientific advancements from Germany and France
- Compulsory education for boys and girls from the USA
- Organisation of the army from France and later Germany
- Legal system based on France's Napoleonic Code.

Continuity after European Contact

Class divisions

Japanese society continued to be stratified, or divided into classes, which were difficult to rise from. Although feudal titles were abolished, most

daimyo became governors of their former domains. These men remained incredibly wealthy, as they had been richly compensated for giving up their land. The samurai were also paid a sizeable annual pension and many became government officials and business leaders. Despite the fact that new opportunities were made available to merchants and peasants, most ordinary people were not able to rise above the class into which they had been born.

Political power

Although the shogunate had been abolished, ordinary Japanese continued to have little say in the running of government. Power was initially transferred from one man, the shogun, to another, the emperor. The emperor exercised this power by appointing a small council of advisors, known as the *genro*, to rule in his name. These men tended to come from the Emperor's own family or from the most powerful clans.

The 'Way of the Samurai'

Although samurai were prevented from carrying their traditional two swords, adherence to the Code of Bushido (sometimes known as the way of the warrior) remained an important ideal for many. The same pride in defending the honour of their leader was now shown towards the emperor. Many former samurai became officers in Japan's army and navy and continued to devote themselves wholeheartedly to their leaders.

Source 6.8.5 Hiroshige III, 1871. Japanese blockprint showing Americans demonstrating how a steam train operates. Note the steam ships in the background.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What action did Hideyoshi take to deter foreign interest in Japan?
2. List the foreign nations interested in making contact with Japan.
3. Which country developed the strongest interest? Explain why.
4. Define the Meiji Restoration.

Applying and analysing

5. Evaluate the Treaty of Kanagawa, considering what impact it would have had on Japan.
6. Use the information from the section 'Negative consequences for Japan' to construct a flow chart which depicts the end of shogunate rule in Japan
7. What political benefit did Mutsuhito gain by taking the title of Meiji?
8. Evaluate the changes in Japanese society after the Meiji restoration using a concept map to demonstrate your interpretation.

UNIT 6.9

Japan and the world in 1900

The rise of Japanese nationalism

Shinto revival and emperor worship

By 1900 decades of humiliation by the West had led to instability in Japan. This inspired many Japanese to look towards becoming strong again. After the emperor had been restored to power, people began to pledge their loyalty to him, and loyalty to clan, daimyo or domain vanished. Shinto also experienced a revival, but now people were openly encouraged to worship the emperor and pray for his protection. The introduction of compulsory education also helped the spread of Japanese nationalism.

Japan's military development

Japan's new government wanted Japan to become an imperial power, equal in status with the European nations. The Chinese had always seen the Japanese as inferior, but in 1871, agreed to sign a treaty with Japan. For the first time both countries recognised one another as equals.

In 1872, **conscription** for all males over twenty years of age was introduced. Japan began producing modern weapons and sent officers to train in European military academies. Warships were purchased from Britain and three large naval bases were constructed. After several years, Japan started constructing its own modern battleships.

Japan's position in the world

Japan sought to exercise its advantage over China by seeking to trade with nearby Korea. Korea was largely under Chinese control, having been a tributary state of China for centuries. While both China and Japan had ended their isolation, Korea remained firmly closed to all foreign trade. Fearing that Korea could be easily overrun by one of the European powers, Japan looked to establish its own **sphere of influence** there. In 1876 the Treaty of Kanghwa was signed by Korea and Japan, but only after Japan had threatened to use force. This treaty ignored China's role in Korea and allowed Japanese traders to come to Korea. This led to protests by the Chinese.

> *We shall someday raise the national power of Japan so that not only shall we control the natives of China and India as the English do today, but we shall also possess in our hands the power to rebuke the English and to rule Asia ourselves.*

Source 6.9.1 Yukichi Fukuzawa, a leading Japanese thinker, 1882

War with China

In 1894, Chinese and Japanese troops arrived in the Korean capital, Seoul, both claiming that they had come to help suppress a local rebellion against the Korean king. Although the Koreans themselves easily crushed the rebellion, Japanese troops remained. When the Korean king refused to break off relations with China, he was imprisoned and a pro-Japanese was government installed. This led to an official declaration of war by China in July 1894 (see Source 6.9.2).

Within a month, Japan had occupied most of Korea and then entered Manchuria, a border state of China. In February 1895, following their naval defeat at Wei Hai Wei, the Chinese surrendered. In the resulting peace settlement, China gave up its control of Korea and ceded the Island of Formosa (present-day Taiwan) to Japan. China was also forced to pay a huge indemnity for the cost of the war.

1902 Anglo–Japanese Alliance

Japan's growing importance was recognised in 1902 with an alliance with Britain. The Anglo–Japanese Alliance was the first military alliance between a European and an Asian power. The Alliance declared mutual friendship and stated that if one of them declared war on a third power, the other would remain neutral. Both also agreed to support the other if it were jointly attacked by two or more powers. Through the alliance, Britain hoped to prevent the Russian Empire from spreading further southwards, as this would have threatened British India. The Anglo–Japanese alliance bolstered Japan's confidence (see Source 6.9.3).

Source 6.9.2 The defeat of the Chinese at Phungtao, Kobayashi Kiyochika, 1894

Source 6.9.3 *Punch*, 1902

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Explain the rise of Japanese nationalism.
2. List the factors which lead to the development of Japanese military power.
3. Why was the Anglo–Japanese alliance significant?

Applying and analysing

4. What aims does Yukichi Fukuzawa express in Source 6.9.1? Give at least two quotes from the extract to support your answer.
5. Summarise the events leading up to, and during Japan's war with China by selecting the key events to include in either a flow chart or series of key statements on a slideshow.
6. Examine Source 6.9.3 carefully.
   - **a** What is the evidence for the military nature of the Anglo–Japanese alliance?
   - **b** Explain the meaning of the quote from Rudyard Kipling (British nineteenth-century author) that appeared below the original cartoon.
     "Oh, East is East, and West is West ...
     But there is neither East nor West, Border, nor Bred, nor Birth,
     When two strong men stand face to face, tho' they come from the ends of the Earth!"

Source Study

UNIT 6.10

Assessing The Russo–Japanese War

Causes of the war

Expanding empires

In 1902, Russian and Japanese soldiers had fought side by side as part of an Eight-Nation alliance that helped suppress the Boxer Rebellion in China. While the troops of other nations had left, Russian soldiers occupied Manchuria, a northern province of China that bordered Korea.

Problems in Russia

Russia's economy was severely restricted by most of its ports freezing over for many months of the year. To address this issue, Russia leased Port Arthur in Korea from the Chinese. This did not please the Japanese who had grown suspicious of Russia. At the same time, the government of Tsar Nicholas II faced with riots and protests and it was believed that a quick victory against the Japanese would help restore the Tsar's authority.

Course of the war

On 8 January 1904, the Japanese attacked the Russian fleet in Port Arthur, leading to a declaration of war by both countries. For the next twelve months, Admiral Togo succeeded in blockading the Russian fleet, preventing it from leaving Port Arthur. This allowed the Japanese army to land along the entire Korean peninsula. Unable to supply its troops effectively, Russia suffered defeat after defeat. By August, Port Arthur was under heavy Japanese attack from both land and sea. By December, the entire Russian fleet had been destroyed.

Consequences of the war

The Treaty of Portsmouth

On 5 September 1905, the Treaty of Portsmouth was signed between Russia and Japan. Russia handed over control of Port Arthur to the Japanese and promised to leave Manchuria. Russia also agreed to acknowledge Korea as part of Japan's sphere of influence and also ceded the island of Sakhalin to Japan. These were humiliating terms for the Russians, as never before had a European empire been defeated by an Asian nation.

Source 6.10.1 Russian and Japanese empires in 1904

Decisive battles

There were two important battles that decided the outcome of the war; The Battle of Mukden and the Battle of Tsushima. Russia lost both battles. At the Battle of Mukden on 20 February 1905, Russia suffered nearly 90 000 casualties and 22 000 soldiers became Japanese prisoners of war. The naval Battle of Tsushima on 27 May 1905, lasted less than 24 hours. The Japanese navy destroyed or captured all eight Russian battleships and six of its nine destroyers. Japanese victory at Tsushima ended the war.

Impact of the war on Japan

Although most Japanese took great pride in their victory, the war had taken a huge toll. Nearly 50 000 soldiers and sailors had been killed, more than half by disease. Many Japanese believe the benefits did not surpass the losses. Russia was not required to pay for the cost of the war, as was usually required of a defeated power.

Perspectives of the war

Japanese perspectives

Source 6.10.2 Japan as the god of peace stamping on a Russian war ship and holding aloft Tsar Nicholas II, c. 1904

Source 6.10.3 Japanese blockprint artwork showing their victory at Port Arthur, c. 1905

Russian perspectives

Source 6.10.4 Russian postcard showing Japan bullying China and trampling on Korea, c. 1905

Source 6.10.5 Russian cartoon with Russuan naval song lyrics, c. 1904

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why was Port Arthur considered important for both Russia and Japan?
2. Identify the positive and negative consequences of the war for Japan.

Applying and analysing

3. Create a flowchart showing how the events of the war were related.
4. Examine Sources 6.10.2 and 6.10.3. What techniques has the creator of each source used to show a Japanese perspective of the war?
5. What did the Russian government of Tsar Nicholas II hope to achieve with propaganda?

UNIT 6.11

Key features of India in the nineteenth century

The Mughal Empire

The Mughals were Muslims from Persia. Babur, the first Mughal emperor, possessed the same military skill as his great ancestor, Genghis Khan. Babur was the first Muslim general to use muskets and cannons, which helped him to defeat an army four times the size of his own. In 1526, he captured northern city of Delhi and established Mughal rule in India.

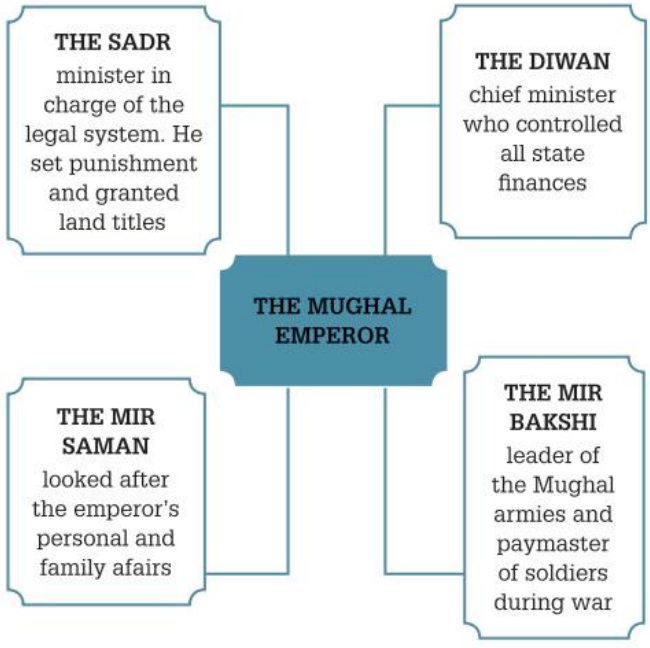
Source 6.11.1 Map of the Mughal Empire, 1750

Role of leaders in Mughal India

The Mughal Emperor

Before 1757, the emperor exercised total political, military and religious authority in Mughal India. Mughal emperors were Muslims who ruled over a majority Hindu population. The emperor saw himself as a 'king of kings', the most important of the many rulers throughout India.

Leaders within the Mughal Empire



Source 6.11.2 Leadership roles within the Mughal Empire, at the time of Akbar

The economic importance of India

Proclaimed Mughal Emperor at 13 years of age, Akbar ruled from 1556 to 1605. It was a golden age for the Empire. Akbar extended the Empire, managed to unite many smaller and often hostile kingdoms and brought strong central government to India. This helped to raise more tax revenue which was used to build some of the remarkable monuments, mosques and palaces.

To connect his growing empire, the Akbar built an elaborate network of roads, which promoted trade between different towns and provinces. Domestic trade grew significantly but there was little demand for European goods. Europeans were forced to buy Indian goods with silver and gold rather than with items produced in Europe.

Bear in mind that the commerce of India is the commerce of the world and he who can exclusively control it is the dictator of Europe.

Source 6.11.3 Peter the Great, Tsar of Russia, 1682–1725

Early European trade

The Mughals were keen to benefit from trade with Europeans. After the arrival of the Portuguese in Goa (see Source 6.11.4), merchants from Holland, Britain, France and Denmark all established bases on the Indian coast. The new European bases were factories used solely for the purpose of trade, no missionaries were allowed. Private armies protected these bases, as disputes between European traders were not uncommon.

India offered an array of goods for Europeans, such as spices needed for the preservation of meat; silks and indigo dye for fine clothing; potassium nitrate for gunpowder manufacture; and opium, which was used for medicinal purposes.

Source 6.11.4 Mughal artwork depicting Portuguese traders, late sixteenth century

The British East India Company

In 1612, King James I of England sent a trade mission to the court of Emperor Jahangir to request permission to establish new trade outposts throughout India. Jahangir welcomed the British envoy Sir Thomas Roe and invited the British to trade wherever they wished. This marked the beginning of a long period of British trade interest in India. As Britain's naval dominance grew, so did its influence in India.

By 1750, the British East India Company was the dominant European power in India. This occurred at the same time that Mughal control in India was in serious decline. In 1757, soldiers of the British East India Company defeated the nawab of Bengal and his French allies at the Battle of Plessey. This victory established company rule over the region of Bengal. For the next one hundred years, the Company extended its control by allowing mini-states such as Bengal to exist, as long as native rulers favoured British interests.

Role of leaders in British India

The British Governor-General

In 1774, Warren Hastings became the first British governor-general of India. His term in office lasted for more than a decade, during which time he was responsible for introducing codified (written) law, law courts and a civil service. He expanded the territory under company control by winning a series of wars against the Marathas and the last remaining Mughals. To maintain control of such a large territory, Hastings had to transform the British East India Company into a political and military institution, rather than just a commercial one.

The District Collectors

District Collectors were appointed by the British East India Company to collect taxes from the inhabitants of the territories they controlled. Many district collectors grew incredibly wealthy, usually illegally and were referred to in Britain as nabobs. These men lived lavish lifestyles on large estates. Due to the lack of European women, many nabobs took Indian mistresses, who were known as *bibi*. Within the privacy of their own estates, nabobs often dressed as Indians and adopted Indian customs.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Who were the Mughals?
2 Why was Akbar considered a great ruler?
3 Why did Europeans see India as an important place for trade?

Applying and analysing

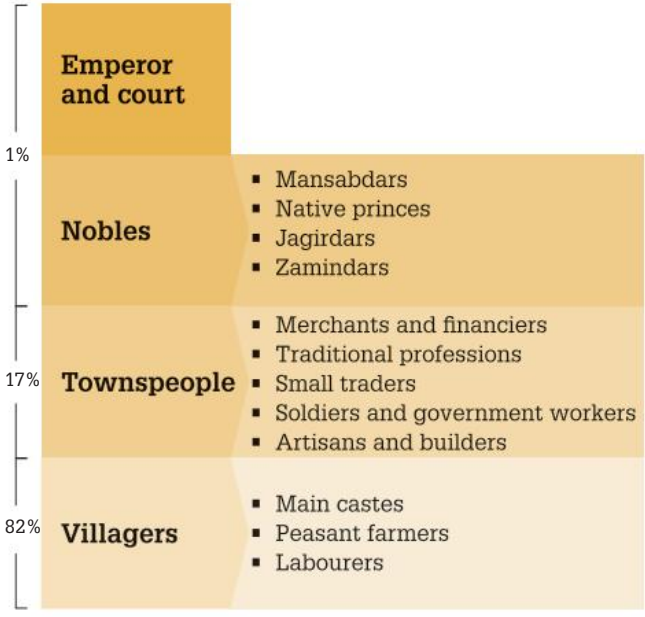
4 Construct a timeline of events in India from the arrival of the Mughals until the end of the 1700s.

UNIT 6.12

Indian society and culture

Structure of Indian society

Indian society was divided into the following structure.



Source 6.12.1 The structure of Indian society in Mughal times

The nobility

The royal family and nobility made up about one per cent of the population. Men of noble birth were awarded a *mansab* (rank) by the emperor. As a result, those of rank were known as *mansabdars*. The ranking system was complex, but provided men of noble birth with the opportunity to improve their status. Each rank received a payment in the form of either money or land. *Jagirdars* ruled as regional kings of vast territories given to them by the emperor. Zamindars were regional Hindu rulers who were permitted to keep their lands, as long as they collected taxes from the peasants working on their estates.

The caste system

Over many centuries prior to Mughal rule, Hindus had organised their society into four hierarchical **castes**. Individuals were born into the caste of their parents. Intermarriage between the castes was strictly forbidden. A person's occupation was also determined by their caste, so it was difficult for anyone to improve their position in life. Generally, the higher castes were vegetarian, while the lower caste ate meat. Ancient Hindu texts stated the following hierarchy:

- Brahmins—priests
- Kshatriyas—warriors and rulers
- Vaisyas—merchants and skilled traders
- Sudras—peasant labourers and domestic servants
- Dalits—no caste; considered 'untouchable'; performed 'unclean' jobs such as cleaning, disposing of human and animal waste, slaughtering animals and collecting rubbish.

Source 6.12.2 Babur, Mughal emperor of India 1526–30, depicted invading Persia

Living and working in Mughal India

The peasant's life

Mughal India was a rural economy and most people were peasants involved in food production. Members of land-owning caste leased their land to peasant farmers who in turn paid labourers to cultivate it. By 1700, up to half of what a peasant family produced was paid in tax. Taxes were paid to the zamindar on crops, houses, cattle, and even weddings and festivals.

Source 6.12.3 A village scene from Mughal times, c. 1770

Since they were permitted to use any available land, peasants often moved from one area to another. This was permitted by the zamindar, so long as he received his taxes. Frequent periods of drought meant that peasants had to store food at harvest time. During times of famine, peasants could become so desperate that they would sell themselves and their children as slaves to wealthier families.

Village and town

A typical peasant village consisted of about 100 families. Houses were built of mud and cow dung and had roofs made of thatched straw. Houses of the *patel* (village chief) and *patwari* (village accountant) were often two-storey and had several rooms, including a bathroom and kitchen (see Source 6.12.3).

A village council known as the panchayat met to hear grievances, petition the zamindar, settle disputes and ensure that order was kept. Each village included around ten families of skilled artisans and craftspeople, such as blacksmiths, carpenters, cobblers, potters, barbers, weavers and astrologers. These workers did not receive payment but were paid in kind with food at harvest time.

To cater for the growing needs of the nobility, luxury handicraft trades developed within towns and cities. A highly skilled artisan therefore had opportunity to be paid in cash and could build wealth for himself.

Marriage and family

Traditional Indian families during the nineteenth century were patriarchal, meaning that the father was the head of the family and inheritance was through males. Child marriage was common in Mughal times. Marriages were arranged by the parents of both families and required the bride's family to pay a dowry to the groom's. For peasant families this would be in the form of food and basic items such as cloth. Richer families would require cash and luxury items such as silk, jewellery and fine clothes. Families with daughters therefore faced a heavy financial burden. This sometimes led to the infanticide of daughters.

Peasant families were typically large, and children were put to work as soon as they were physically able. Having lots of children was also thought of as a kind of insurance for old age—the more offspring the better the chances of being cared for when old.

Mughal women

Women of the ruling Mughals were secluded from men, but took part in a range of literary and artistic pursuits. Mughal women were well-educated, as the Mughal Emperor always saw to it that his wives and concubines had a Lady Teacher or *Atun Mama*. Women of the ruling Mughals typically learned Persian, Arabic, theology and history and some even learned the Qur'an by heart. Women within the emperor's harem learned how to sing, dance and play musical instruments. Most of these wealthier women wore fine clothing (see Source 6.12.4).

> *Their dresses are superb and costly, perfumed with essence of roses. Every day they change their clothes several times.*

Source 6.12.4 Niccolao Manucci, an Italian traveller who worked in the Mughal court

Hindu women

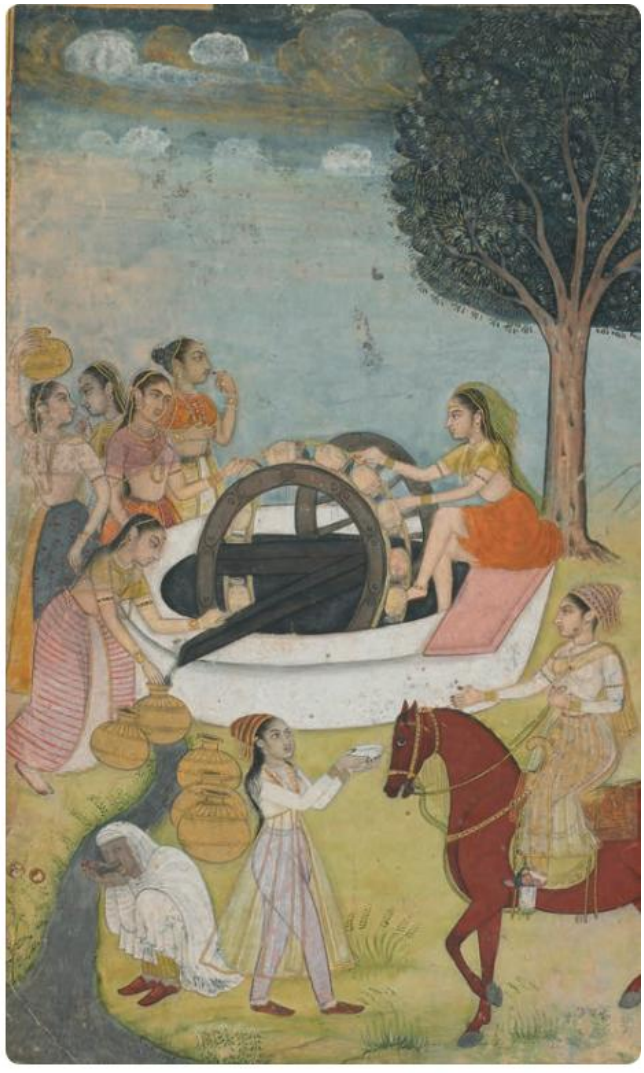
For the majority of Hindu women living in villages, life was much tougher. Collection of water was a woman's responsibility and they could carry several full cisterns on their heads, one on top of the other. Women also did most of the planting, weeding, collecting firewood, and even breaking of stones for use in cement (see Source 6.12.5). Older village women acted as midwives for the younger females within the family. Unlike the Muslim women of the Mughals, Hindu women were free to associate with men, and most worked alongside their husbands in the fields.

Sati

A woman from a higher caste could not remarry after the death of her husband, and a woman of lower caste simply could not afford to pay a second dowry. Over many centuries, a practice known as sati had developed among Hindu widows, whereby they committed suicide by throwing themselves into the flames of their deceased husband's funeral pyre, shown in Source 6.12.6. Mughal and later British rulers tried to outlaw sati, but the economic reality for many poorer women was that life became intolerable once their husbands died.

Religion and cultural

Nineteenth-century India was the most religiously diverse society in the world. India was the birth-place for four of the world's largest religions:



Source 6.12.5 A Mughal miniature artwork depicting women at a well, seventeenth century

Hinduism, Buddhism, Sikhism and Jainism. For centuries, Hinduism remained the dominant religion of India.

Mughal religious policy

The Mughals, who were Muslims, accepted that to maintain their rule they would have to tolerate other religions. After capturing Delhi in 1526, the first Mughal emperor Babur ordered that no cows be killed, since Hindus considered these sacred. He even compensated farmers whose land was destroyed during the fighting. This approach helped unify a diverse region made up of many local kingdoms and different religious traditions. Under most of the Mughal emperors, Hindus were allowed to express their religion freely and to build temples.

Source 6.12.6 An eighteenth-century European representation of sati

Akbar, the third Mughal emperor, appointed Hindu as well as Muslim advisers. Over time Akbar began to see much value in other religions. Each Thursday he would meet with Hindu, Muslim, Christian, Jain and Zoroastrian scholars to find out what all religions shared in common. He eventually established his own religion, called the Divine Faith, which took what he thought were the best elements of Hinduism, Islam and Christianity.

Religion in British India

> *India is pre-eminently a land of idols and of strange gods… Graven images and heathen temples—we had heard of such things with the hearing of the ear, and read of them in Bible story at our mother's knee; but no sooner does youthful soldier or civilian land in India, than lo! his eye beholds them everywhere around, endless in number.*

Source 6.12.7 *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine*, December 1857, pp. 643–664

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Who are the Dalits?
2. Why were British rulers unable to completely abolish sati?
3. Which religions consider India their birth place?
4. Who established the Divine Faith? Explain why he did so.

Applying and analysing

5. Use the information in this unit to create a social pyramid for Indian society.
6. Were people able to escape the caste system? Explain.
7. Construct a Venn diagram to compare and contrast the lives of Hindu and Muslim women in India.
8. Examine Source 6.12.7, identify and explain the bias displayed in this description of India.

UNIT 6.13

Consequences of European contact on India

Changes due to British rule

British education

In 1835, Thomas Macaulay argued that it was in Britain's interests to create a new class of Indians that was 'English in taste, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect'. He believed this could be achieved through the establishment of English-speaking schools and universities.

By 1854, English universities had been established in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, and there were English primary and secondary schools right throughout British India. This was a remarkable achievement, since there were no government schools in Britain itself at the time.

In order to enter the British civil service, Indians had to sit a very competitive exam at one of the English universities. This system attracted many children from wealthier Indian families, and by 1918, Calcutta University had become the largest university in the world, with about 27 000 students.

Source 6.13.1 Park cricketers in Kolkata, India. Note the British architecture in the background.

Spread of English

Many of the printing presses established in India produced only English material. This assisted the spread of English throughout India. By 1911, printing was the second largest industry in Calcutta, the capital of the **British Raj**. By this time, every city in British India also had its own local language newspaper. Textbooks, however, were the most popular books published. Many of these stressed the benefits of British rule and the inferiority of Indian values. They promised a bright future to students who ended up working in the British civil service in India. Despite this, there was only a 10 per cent pass rate in the university entrance exams.

Spread of Christianity

Under company rule, no missionary had been allowed to live on the trading bases. In 1813, however, the British government ended the exclusive trade rights of the British East India Company. This opened India to new merchants and allowed more missionaries to stay for longer. Britain experienced an **evangelical revival** at this time, which saw an increase in church attendance and a new enthusiasm to preach the gospel to people of other religions, especially in India.

For Hindus and Muslims, conversion to Christianity brought great shame to their families and many reacted by disinheriting children who converted. In 1850, the British introduced the Caste Disabilities Act, which protected the property rights of individuals who converted to Christianity from other religions. The removal of this obstacle helped the spread of Christianity in India.

DID YOU KNOW?

The game of cricket was originally introduced as a way of teaching the Victorian virtues of fair play and self-control. Playing cricket soon became a way for wealthier Indians to show their loyalty to the British Empire, but later became a way of 'beating the English at their own game'.

Source 6.13.2 British architecture of Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus, Mumbai. Note the red double-decker bus—another legacy of British rule in India.

Spread of western values

Many wealthier Indians adopted English culture, language and lifestyle, and came to see British ways as being superior to Indian ways. They criticised India's 'backwardness' and cultural practices, such as the caste system. Many educated Indians believed that this system discriminated against the majority of Indians who belonged to the lower castes or had no caste. Many Indian supporters of the British even gave up their Hindu vegetarianism, believing that it stunted their growth. Common practices, such as child marriage and a ban on widows from remarrying were questioned for the first time.

Modernisation

Throughout the nineteenth century, India was seen as the 'jewel in the crown' of the British Empire. This belief reflected the British view that they had transformed India into a civilised and prosperous society. Unlike other European colonisers, the British could proudly to point to the development of a road and rail network, schools and universities, hospitals, a large civil service and greater rights and freedoms for the natives under their control. A vast administration had led to the growth of major cities in British India. The introduction of clocks, a fairly recent contribution of the industrial age, helped organise thousands of civil servants. Office work began and ended at a set time each day. Railway timetables also were based on precise timing.

India and the world by 1900

Emergence of Indian nationalism

British-educated Indians became increasingly aware of their rights as they were taught about the development of British democracy. Many believed that it was time for British rule to end. Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Indian nationalism had emerged as a significant movement. The formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885 attracted many educated Indians who were critical of British rule.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why did Britain promote education in India?
2. What virtues was cricket supposed to teach?
3. How did the British promote the spread of Christianity?

Applying and analysing

4. Use the information in this unit to create a flow chart of significant events during British rule of India.
5. Create a PMI chart about the consequences of British rule in India.

UNIT 6.14

Assessing the 'Indian Mutiny' of 1857

Mutiny or war of independence?

There has been much dispute between Indian and British historians about the naming of the Great Rebellion of 1857. While the British at the time saw it as a localised **mutiny** that was not supported by most Indians, Indian historians have tended to view it as a large-scale revolt against foreign rule. They claim that what began as a particular problem quickly attracted large-scale support from Hindus and Muslims. Some have even called it a war of independence.

The sepoy revolt

To protect its territorial interests, the British East India Company created an army of Indian soldiers. Known as sepoys, these soldiers had helped oust the French from India and defeat local nawabs who opposed British rule. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, the sepoy army was about 150 000 strong, making it one of the largest armies in the world. By 1852, this number had grown to 233 000. Regular pay and a pension on retirement meant that enlistment in the sepoy army was considered prestigious. A bright red coat with gold buttons gave the sepoy a distinct look. Only men of British origin could become officers.

Source 6.14.1 The storming of Delhi, 1857

In 1852, a new type of rifle, the Lee Enfield, was supplied to the sepoy army. This rifle used a special type of paper cartridge greased with fat from pigs and cows to keep the gunpowder dry. Hindu and Muslim soldiers refused to bite the end of the cartridge open because Hindus regard the cow as sacred, while Muslims consider the pig unclean. (Some historians now consider that the Hindu and Muslim soldiers may have been misled about this use of pig and cow fat on the rifles.) Although the new cartridges provided the immediate reason for the revolt, tension had been developing for some time. Many Hindus and Muslims felt discriminated against and were angry about growing numbers of conversions to Christianity.

Key features of the rebellion

In May 1857, eighty-five sepoys were arrested for refusing to touch the new cartridges. After attacking their barracks and killing their British officers, growing numbers of rebels marched to Delhi and occupied the city, shown in Source 6.14.1. There they attempted to restore one of the Mughal descendants to the throne. In a short time, the rebellion spread throughout the north of India to the Punjab and Bengal regions. Within weeks the rebels had also taken the cities of Cawnpore and Lucknow. In Cawnpore, all 400 English inhabitants, including women and children, were killed.

The British were forced to call for reinforcements from home. Although the rebel force had grown to a formidable size, it lacked clear goals about what to do next. Delhi was quickly recaptured and the leaders of the rebellion rounded up and executed (see Source 6.14.2).

Impacts of the rebellion

Immediate effects

With the help of loyal sepoys from the Punjab, British soldiers began to take revenge on villages that had supported the rebels. Rebellious sepoys were executed without trial. Some were even tied to the mouths of cannons and blasted to pieces.

Source 6.14.2 'Suppression of the Indian Revolt by the English', Vasily Vasilievich Vereshchagin, 1884

Long-term impacts

The British Raj

The Great Rebellion of 1857 brought significant changes to the nature of British rule in India.

- Only British officers were given charge of the artillery.
- More British soldiers were incorporated into the army.
- British East India Company rule ended.
- Direct British government rule in India was established, known as the British Raj.
- The British Parliament appointed a new viceroy.
- In 1858, Queen Victoria announced that:
  - all her Indian subjects would be protected under British law;
  - religious tolerance would be shown in all affairs;
  - new opportunities would be provided for Indians to join the civil service;
  - the land rights of native princes would be respected. This revoked an earlier law under which the British could claim land if no male heir existed to inherit it.

The Princely states

In keeping with the promise to acknowledge the rights of native rulers, India was divided in two—British India and Princely India. British India consisted of the territory that had been ruled by the British East India Company. This made up about 60 per cent of the subcontinent. Princely India was made up of 562 Native States. Native princes were permitted to implement their own laws, but the British could intervene if trouble arose. This was their reward for not taking part in the rebellion against the British. Over time, many of these princes proved to be the greatest supporters of the British.

Fighting for the Empire

Indians fighting for the British Army never again rebelled on the scale they did in 1857. Instead, they went on to play a major role in Britain's war effort during World War I. By the end of World War I, about 827 000 Indian volunteers had joined the British army. The pay of eleven rupees a month attracted many recruits. Many of the officers in the Indian Army were British. About 62 000 Indian soldiers died during World War I, which is roughly the same as the number of Australians who died.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Who were the sepoy?
2. Create a timeline of events from the beginning to the end of the rebellion.
3. What part did Indian soldiers go on to play in World War I? Why were they keen to participate?

Applying and analysing

4. Choose two or three events from your timeline and discuss their impact on the course of the rebellion.
5. Create a PMI table about the long-term impact of the rebellion on British rule in India.
6. British and Indian historians have different opinions about the name of the rebellion. What do you think it should be called? Why?

Investigating History

UNIT 6.15

Asia and the world

Religion in Asia

1 **a** Examine the history of one of the following religions or world views within an Asian society you have studied: Confucianism, Shinto, Daoism, Shamanism, Cao Daism, Mahayana Buddhism, Theravada Buddhism, Islam, Sikhism, Hinduism, Catholicism, Protestantism.

b Organise your research under the following section headings:

- Origins of the religion
- Main beliefs and important texts
- Number, location and type of followers
- Main ceremonies and symbols
- Organisation of the religion.

c Use your research to create a report to present to the class. Your report could take the form of:

- an annotated visual display
- a slide show presentation
- a written report
- an oral presentation.

Make sure that you include fully labelled images, maps and graphs to support your information, and a bibliography.

Western influences in Asia

Write an extended discussion of the impacts of Western contact on an Asian society you have studied. In planning your response, make sure it is well structured. It should have:

a an introduction that identifies the Asian society and outlines the positive and negative changes that occurred as a result of Western contact

b a body made up of a series of paragraphs. Each paragraph should focus on one change, showing how and why it was either positive of negative

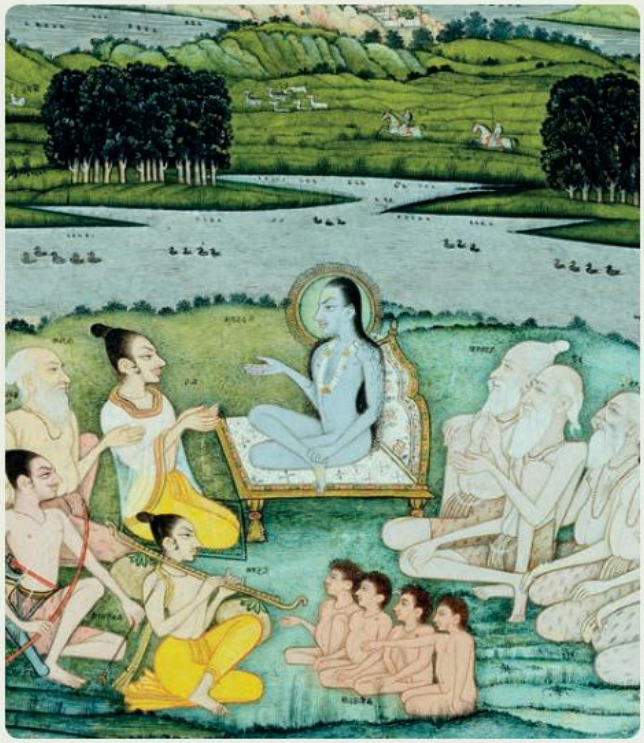
c a conclusion, that sums up the key points and makes a final judgement about whether the impacts were mainly positive or mainly negative

d a bibliography that acknowledges the sources of your information.

Horseshoe debate

Prepare for a horseshoe debate by making a list of arguments for or against the following proposition: The opening of Asia during the nineteenth century benefited only the foreign powers.

Unlike a traditional debate in which you would have to argue for the affirmative or the negative, a horseshoe debate allows you to change sides as you become more or less convinced by the arguments of your class members. The classroom should be structured with seating in the shape of a horseshoe or 'U'. On the right of the horseshoe are those who agree with the proposition and on the left are those who disagree. By sitting further to the left or right you are informing everyone that you either strongly agree or disagree with the proposition. Those who are uncertain will sit in the middle of the horseshoe, but need to decide to which side they lean.



Source 6.15.1 Mughal miniature painting depicting Shuku Deva addressing King Parikshit and a group of Sadhus, 1670

To ensure the debate runs smoothly it is important that everyone makes a brief opening statement after seating themselves. Feel free to change seats as you change your mind. At the end, debrief by noting how the horseshoe looked at the beginning of the debate and how it looks at the end. Discuss the most convincing arguments, one way or the other, and give feedback to the class about whether or not you finished the debate with a new point of view.

Travel guide: nineteenth-century Asia

Design a nineteenth-century travel guide for an Asian society you have studied. The market for your travel guide is Westerners in the nineteenth century, so consider their values and view point in your planning. While you may create your travel guide using ICT, the information you provide must be relevant to the period. Your travel guide should contain the following sections:

- historical overview of the country before to the nineteenth century
- ways of travelling to and from the country
- ways of travelling around the country
- important cultural beliefs and practices
- how different people live and work
- how the society is ruled and organised
- safety and survival tips.

Illustrate your travel guide with a suitable cover, relevant images, and back cover blurb that 'sells' your nineteenth-century Asian destination to Westerners.

Glossary

British Raj period of rule by the British government in India (*raj* is a Hindi word for 'rule')

caste one of four main groups in Hindu society, each with different rights and privileges

cede to lose control of a territory

concubine a long-term mistress of a married man, often living as part of the man's household

Confucian relating to the teachings of the philosopher Confucius

conscription compulsory service in the armed forces

evangelical revival a renewed enthusiasm for the gospel and its teachings

feudal a system of land ownership where all land was controlled by the ruler of the society

hierarchy a pyramid-shaped social structure with few elites at the top and a mass of commoners at the bottom

mutiny a rebellion against the constituted authority

nationalism belief that people of the same race, culture or ideals ought to belong to the same nation state and rule themselves

protectorate region controlled by a foreign power, with native rulers kept in place to rule on their behalf

republic a country in which ultimate power is held by the people entitled to vote and the head of state is a representative of them, not a hereditary monarch

sphere of influence a region where one foreign power is recognised as the controlling power

syncretism the merging together of two religions or traditions

trade deficit when the value of a country's imports is higher than its exports

trade envoy a government official given the task of establishing trade links with a foreign power

unequal treaties one-sided treaties that usually benefited Europeans

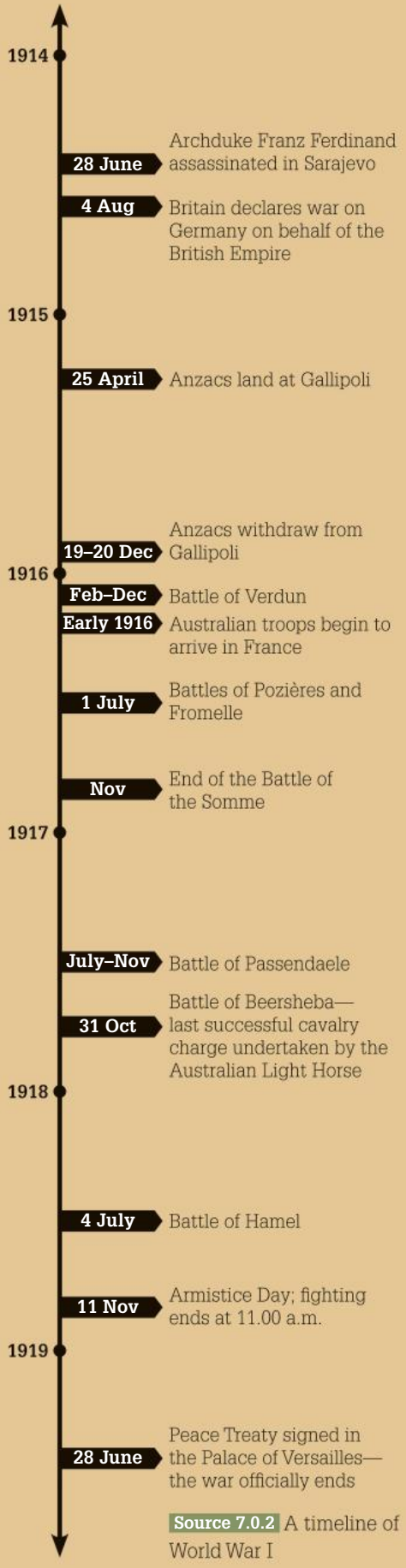
CHAPTER
7

World War I

Introduction

Adventure, glory, patriotism, bravery, duty, loyalty to King and Empire—these were the words that described the expectations and ideals confronting Australian men in 1914 when war was declared. These ideals, although ingrained in them since childhood, were to be sorely tested in the years that followed. The expectation of a short war in 1914 turned into the horror of trench warfare, and war was never to be viewed in the same way again.

Source 7.0.1 Remember Gallipoli! South Australian recruiting poster depicting troops coming ashore at Anzac Cove, c. 1915–18, Australian War Memorial



Source 7.0.2 A timeline of World War I

UNIT 7.1

Causes of World War I

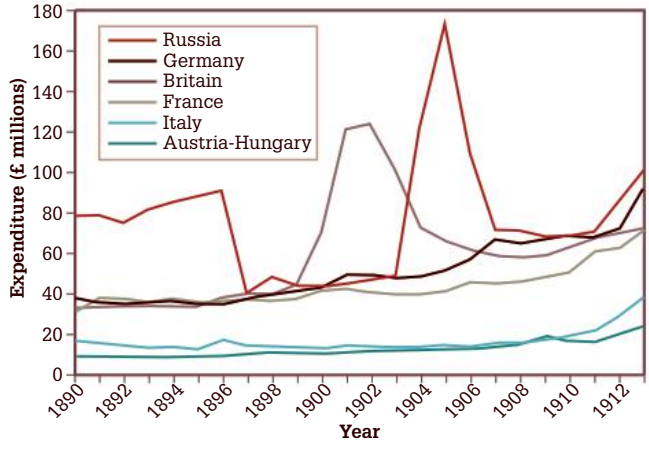
The alliance system

In 1882, a defensive **alliance** was formed by Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy. Known as the Triple Alliance, it was initiated by Germany because of a fear that France would attack Germany after defeating France in the Franco–Prussian War in 1871. In 1894, France and Russia formed the Dual Entente.

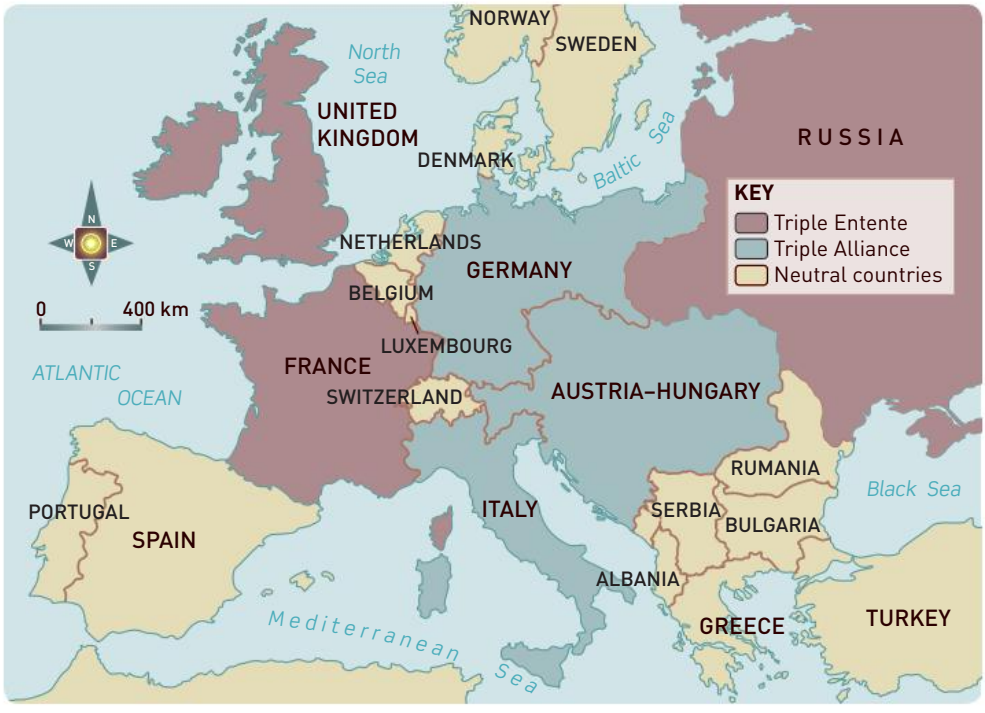
During the 1800s, Britain was more interested in empire building in Africa and Asia than in European affairs. However, by the beginning of 1900, Britain began to engage more with Europe, and in 1904 signed a treaty with France called the Entente Cordiale. In 1907, a new alliance between France, Britain and Russia was signed creating the Triple Entente (see Source 7.1.1).

The arms race

A major consequence of the alliance system was an increasing demand for more money to be spent on armaments (now called the arms race). The statistics in Source 7.1.2 show how different countries increased their spending on military development.



Source 7.1.2 Arms race expenditure



Source 7.1.1 Alliances in Europe, June 1914

International tensions

The nations of Europe became increasingly distrustful of each other in the early years of the twentieth century. France and Britain argued over colonial borders, especially in Africa. Germany wanted to expand its influence through developing its own colonies and challenged the right of France to exert influence over non-European peoples in Morocco. In 1905 and 1911, there were two incidents involving Germany and France over Morocco, with Germany being forced to back down both times by Britain and France.

In Europe, Russia was concerned about Austria–Hungary's intentions in the Balkans. This area had been under the control of the Ottoman Turks for over 400 years. As the Ottoman Empire began to unravel, Austria–Hungary annexed the Balkan states of Bosnia and Herzegovina. This move annoyed other European nations and Serbia, which had wanted to expand its influence in these states. There were wars in the Balkans in 1912 and 1913. This led to a conference in London attended by the great European powers, with the aim to prevent more war. Tensions in Europe, however, were still growing in 1914 when the heir to the Austrian throne made a visit to Sarajevo in Bosnia.

The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand

The final step to war was the **assassination** of Archduke Franz Ferdinand who was the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne. On 28 June 1914, the Archduke and his wife made a visit to Sarajevo. After surviving an attempted assassination, they were attacked again on their way to the hospital to visit those injured in the first attempt. The attacker was Gavrilo Princip, a member of a Serbian organisation called the Black Hand. This second attack was successful and both the Archduke and his wife were killed.

After the assassination, the Austrian government demanded a greater role in Serbian affairs. Germany backed Austria in its stance against Serbia while Russia backed Serbia. The alliances between the various countries were evoked and the world moved to world war within six weeks.

Events leading to war

5 July Germany gives support to Austria–Hungary, called the 'blank cheque'

23 July Austria sends a list of demands to Serbia, including one to allow Austrian officials to enter Serbia

25 July Serbia replies accepting all the demands except the one to allow officials into the country

26 July Austria–Hungary begins shelling the Serbian capital, Belgrade

30 July Russia mobilises its army; Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany sends a telegram to Tsar Nicholas of Russia asking him to stop the mobilisation

1 August Germany declares war on Russia; Germany announces its own mobilisation; France orders the mobilisation of its army in support of Russia

2 August Germany sends troops towards Belgium, a neutral country, as German troops need to pass through Belgium to reach France and win the war quickly

3 August Britain honours a treaty it signed in 1838 to protect Belgium and sends an ultimatum to Germany—leave Belgium or we will declare war

4 July Germany refuses to comply with Britain's ultimatum; Britain declares war on Germany on behalf of the British Empire; as part of the British Empire, Australia is now also at war

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1 Explain why countries needed to spend more money on armaments.
2 Explain why there were tensions in the Balkans.

Assessing and analysing

3 Refer to Source 7.1.2. How much was each alliance spending on armaments in 1890, 1900, 1905, 1910 and 1914?

UNIT 7.2

Enlisting in the army

Initial enthusiasm for the war

In August 1914, when news reached Australia that Britain had declared war, Australia was in the middle of an election campaign. Both the Australian Prime Minister Joseph Cook and opposition Labor leader, Andrew Fisher declared support for the British Empire.

During the election campaign, the opposition leader Andrew Fisher delivered his famous the line that Australia would support Britain 'to the last man and the last shilling'. The Labor Party won the election and Andrew Fisher became Prime Minister.

With both political sides publically backing the war, it is unsurprising that the majority of the Australian population at the time also gave its support. Many young men rushed to enlist, fearing the war would be over before they had a chance to join the fight at the front.

Enlisting

Initially there were so many men wanting to enlist that the Australian army could set very high standards and be quite selective. As a result there were men who missed out because they did not meet the army's height or fitness requirements. These restrictions were changed as the war unfolded and more men were needed.

Young men under 18 needed their parents' permission to enlist although many under this age did join, both with and without permission. In 1914, the upper age limit was 38 although there were men who dropped their age in order to join up.

Early reasons for enlisting

Young men enlisted for different reasons.

Patriotism

Many had been raised to be loyal to their king and country. These men believed it was their patriotic duty to support the Mother Country Britain, and to fight for the Empire.

Adventure

Many lived rather boring lives involving daily work on a property or in a mundane city job. Enlisting offered the opportunity to travel to France and have a great adventure.

Peer pressure

Peer pressure also played its part. Many men joined with their mates as they felt that to do anything else was to let down their friends down (see Source 7.2.1). Women also made it clear that they preferred a man in uniform so many men enlisted out of concern that women would no longer be interested in them.

Source 7.2.1 A recruitment poster, 1915, Australian War Memorial

Later reasons for enlistment

Commitment

After initial enthusiasm started to wear off and the first high casualty rates from Gallipoli were made public, the number of enlistees began to fall. Some men still joined because they felt a commitment to those who had already died (see Source 7.2.2). There were a number of instances of a younger brother joining up after the death of an older brother, believing that they needed to finish the job for their sibling.

Propoganda

Schools were also involved in war **propaganda** with many boys' schools, both public and private, encouraging school leavers to enlist once they finished school. There was competition among different schools in an area to see which one had the highest percentage of young men enlisted. Even 'old boys' groups encouraged their members to enlist.

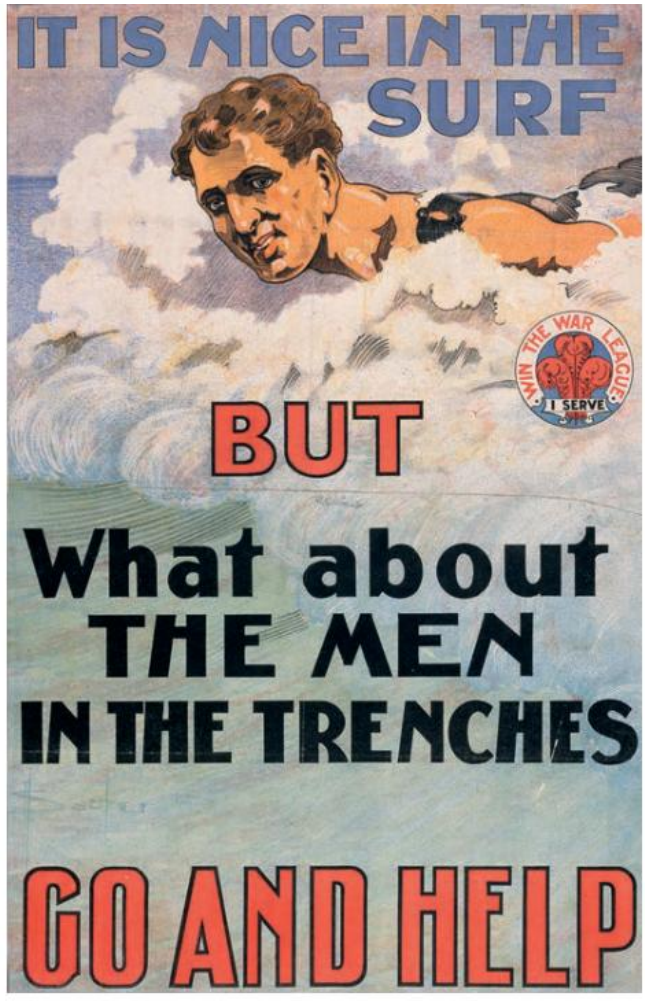
The government also became involved conducting strong propaganda campaigns with posters published in newspapers across the country. These posters played on the emotions—patriotism, mateship, family, sportsmanship and hatred of the enemy.

The white feather

Women played their part by publicly shaming men who looked fit and healthy enough to enlist. They did this by handing men a white feather, which signified that they regarded the recipient as a coward. While many men were shamed into enlisting, there were others who would not be pressured into fighting a war they did not believe in. There were also men who were unable to enlist as their job in Australia was seen as too important to let them go and fight.

> *I didn't know of anybody who sent one or whose sons got them but I know that it was very evident that some of the women whose brothers or sons or husbands went to the war if there was any young men living nearby they would send them white feathers. It was very cruel, very cruel to do that.*

Source 7.2.3 Anita Ryall, *Australians at War*, oral stories



Source 7.2.2 A propaganda poster, 1917, Australian War Memorial

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. List the reasons given why men enlisted in the army.
2. How did schools assist the enlistment process?
3. What did the white feather represent?

Assessing and analysing

4. Examine the two sources and explain how someone seeing each poster might be convinced to enlist. In your answer consider the content of each poster as well as the emotions to which it is appealing.
5. Rank the reasons why men enlisted from the most to least important. Justify your ranking.
6. Create your own poster to encourage someone to enlist. Focus on one or more emotions.

UNIT 7.3

Where Australians fought in World War I

Source 7.3.1 World map showing where Australians fought during World War I

Early Australian campaigns: 1914–1915

In October 1914, Australia began its first military action in New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago (off the New Guinean coast) where the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force drove the German military out. Australia's next engagement was naval and resulted in the HMAS *Sydney* attacking and disarming the German ship the SMS *Emden*. These two events were triumphs against the might of Germany and provided an important boost in morale for Australian troops.

Australia's next engagement, and perhaps its best known, was the landing at Gallipoli in April 1915. The last Anzac departed the cove on 20 December 1915; British troops did not leave until 8 January 1916.

After Gallipoli, Australian forces were divided across two main battle areas. The Australian Light Horse continued to fight against the Turks in Palestine while the **infantry** units went to France to fight the Germans.

Australia in the Middle East: 1916–1918

After their withdrawal from Gallipoli the Australian Light Horse returned to Egypt for more training. They were to fight the rest of the war as mounted infantry. The Light Horse would ride to battle and then dismount and fight as infantry troops.

In 1916, Australia was fighting to defend the Suez Canal against the Ottoman Turks. The Suez Canal was an essential waterway linking Europe to the Indian Ocean and losing control of the canal would have made the supply route to Britain much longer. Having secured the Suez Canal, Australian troops were then involved in reconquering the Sinai Peninsula. From Sinai, Australian forces were able to fight through the Turks and push their way into Palestine. This was a campaign fought not in the trenches but in dry, hot areas that had little vegetation and few settlements.

The most notable Australian military achievement in the Middle East was the Battle of Beersheba (31 October 1917) where the Australian Light Horse charged the Turkish guns, securing the wells as the town fell. After taking Beersheba, the Australian Light Horse, with the rest of the British force, moved to Jerusalem and took the city on 9 December 1917. Throughout 1918 they continued to move through the Ottoman Empire, occupying Lebanon and Syria. Finally, on 30 October 1918, Turkey surrendered.

Australians on the Western Front 1916–1918

After their departure from Gallipoli, the infantry was reorganised and moved. In France, the troops fought against the German Empire in trenches stretching from the North Sea to the Swiss border. Most of the ensuing battles between 1916 and 1917 followed a typical pattern of **bombardment** before sending waves of infantry across an area called *No Man's Land* towards the enemy.

The first troops had arrived in March 1916 and by the middle of the year they were involved in the Battle of the Somme. This was a major battle, which saw many hundreds of thousands of **casualties** on both sides, and lasted from July to November. However, by the end of the battle both sides found their positions relatively unchanged. With the trench lines in Europe barely moving, Australia forces were in a **stalemate**.

In 1917, the British army, of which Australian troops formed a small but valued contingent, continued to attack German lines with the major offensive occurring at Passchendaele, near Ypres, in the second half of the year.

The beginning of 1918 started badly for the Allies. After the Russian surrender, Germany was able to free up a large number of troops from the Eastern Front and send them west. This was Germany's last offensive move as they had a limited window of opportunity before US forces brought in millions of fresh troops backed by their strong economy. The Germans were initially successful but by the middle of the year the Allies were gaining the advantage. Australian troops played their part in battles such as Hamel. The allied offensive officially began on 8 August (the Black Day for the German Army according to the German commander, Paul von Ludendorff) where Australians took part in conflicts around Amiens, Mont St Quentin and Peronne. On 11 November 1918 the war ended, with Australia having played its part in the success of the Allies.

RAN and Australian Flying Corps

The Royal Australian Navy played its part throughout the war transporting troops and supplies. World War I also saw the start of air warfare and Australia responded by establishing the Australian Flying Corps. The men in this unit served in both the Middle East and France as observers to support the ground troops.

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. List the areas of the world in which Australian troops fought.
2. Explain what happened to the Australian army after the Gallipoli campaign.
3. Identify a major new form of fighting for the Australian military that began in World War I.

Assessing and analysing

4. With reference to Source 7.3.1, describe the extent and location of Australia's involvement in World War I.

UNIT 7.4

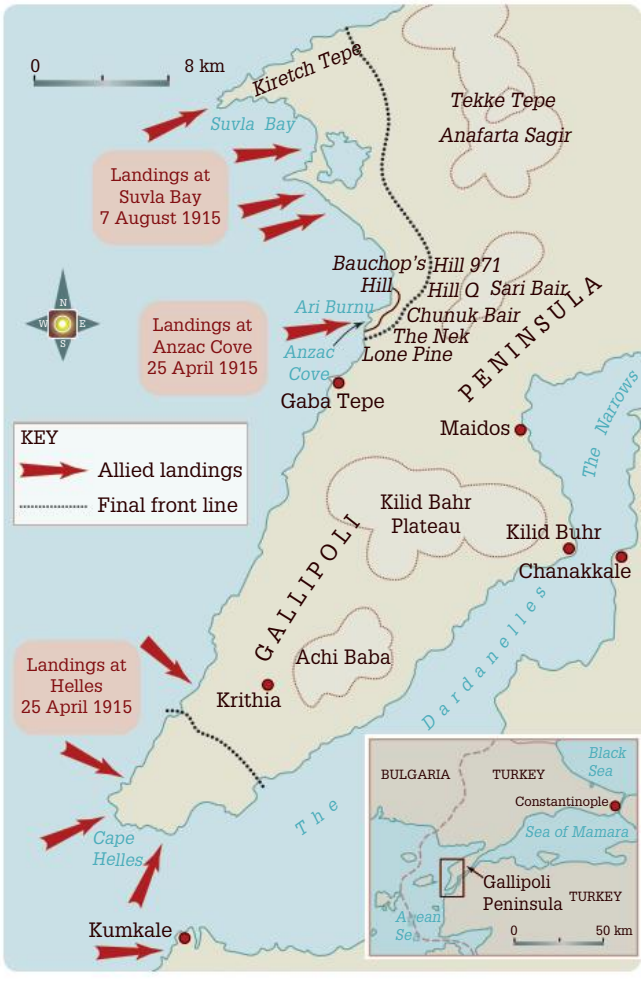
The Gallipoli campaign

Aim of the campaign

By December 1914, the war in Europe was at a stalemate. The British devised a plan to attack Turkey, believing Germany would send troops from the Western Front to assist the Turks.

Britain's plan was:

- to force battleships through the Dardenelles, which would allow the allies to capture Constantinople
- to then open the supply routes to Russia
- to bombard the peninsula from battleships, making it easier for allied troops to land.



Source 7.4.1 Gallipoli Peninsula

The plan failed because:

- the naval bombardment failed to remove the Turks who were able to damage a number of allied ships by laying mines
- the allied bombardment stopped early so the Turks were able to retreat back into their trenches
- a number of craft were damaged or destroyed during the landings
- the Anzac troops were supposed to land at Gaba Tepe but landed further north on the wrong beach.

Landing at Gallipoli

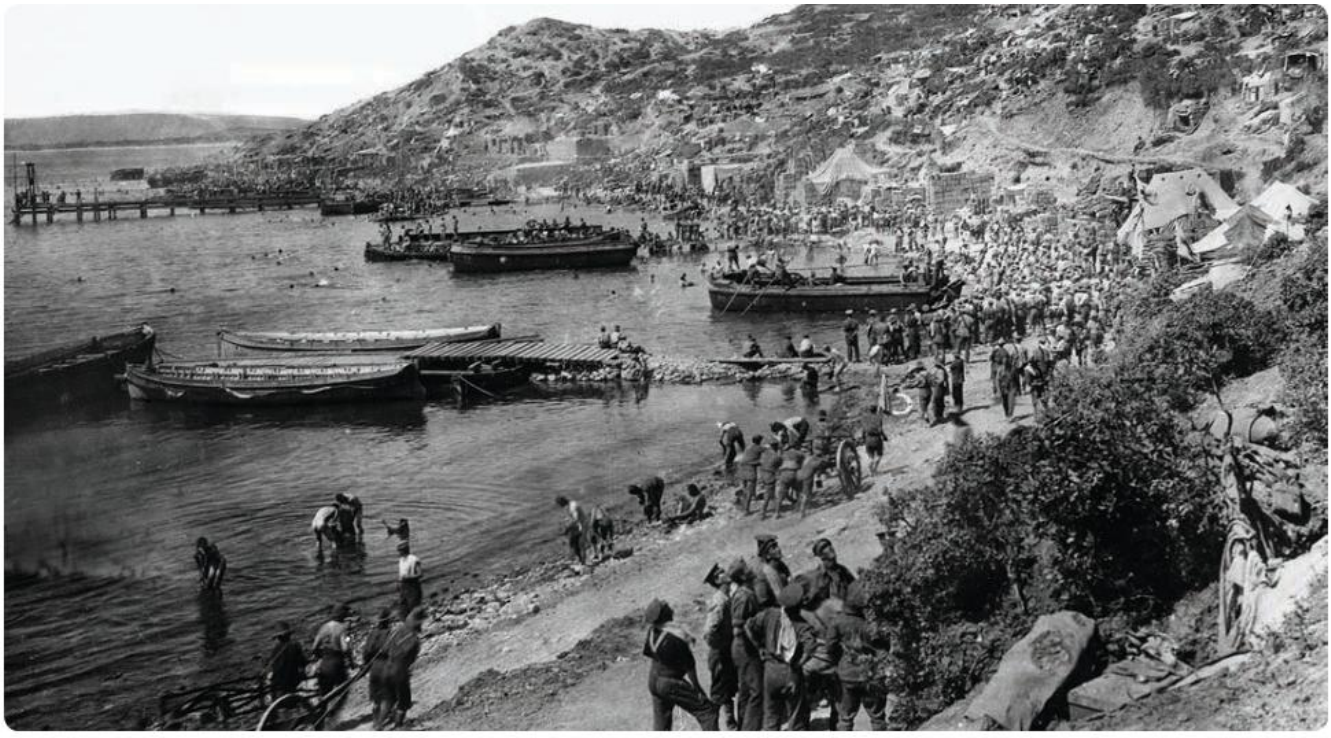
At dawn on the 25 April 1915, 16 000 Anzac troops landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula (see Source 7.4.1). They were immediately faced with steep cliffs rather than a soft beach. At the top of the cliffs the Turks were waiting and were able to fire on the invading forces as they arrived on shore (see Source 7.4.2).

During the first day the Anzacs managed to force their way ashore to advance about 900 metres. Over 600 men were killed and another 2000 injured. By the end of April, 27 000 troops had landed and trench warfare was established.

Lone Pine and The Nek

As the summer unfolded the decision was made to launch two new offensives. The first was at Lone Pine where the Australians were to distract the Turks from the British landings at Suvla Bay, on the Gallipoli Peninsula. Australian forces surprised the Turks by attacking from tunnels dug between the two trench lines and then removing the logs that had been covering the Turkish trenches.

On 7 August, the 3rd Light Horse Brigade launched a series of four extraordinary attacks in an area known as The Nek. They had to attack over a distance of about 30 metres but the Turks were so well positioned in their trenches that the Australians were simply massacred by machine-gun fire. It was initially reported that the Brigade had successfully reached the Turkish trenches so more troops were ordered to advance in what soon became a suicidal mission.



Source 7.4.2 Landing at Anzac Cove, 1915

The charge of the 3rd Light Horse Brigade is one of Australia's most famous and tragic battles; over 230 men died in 45 minutes.

Conditions at Gallipoli

> *... diarrhoea, dysentery and paratyphoid attacked thousands. Only the serious cases were evacuated ... The rest struggled on even fainting at their posts, but indomitably eager. Their uniform was like no other in the war ... Half naked, they dug, they tunnelled, carried food, water and ammunition up the dusty tracks, swept their trenches free of refuse, or patiently searched their clothes for the vermin that nightly attacked them*

Source 7.4.3 C. E. W. Bean, *The Story of Anzac* (Official History of Australia in World War I 1914–1918, Vol II), Australian War Memorial, 1941

The Anzacs were known as 'diggers' because they spent so much time digging trenches as protection from the Turkish machine-guns. The men used sandbags as they could absorb some of the force of the shells. The Anzacs lived in the trenches for the rest of the year. Conditions were hard; heat and flies meant diseases such as dysentery were common.

Withdrawal

By December it was clear that the Gallipoli campaign was a failure and the decision was made to withdraw. This was no light undertaking. The troops were ordered to keep silent at night as they began their evacuation so that the Turks did not realise that they were leaving. Over the two nights of the carefully planned and executed operation, the troops were successfully removed with only two casualties.

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1 Why did the allies plan an offensive at Gallipoli?
2 Which part of the Gallipoli campaign was most successful? Why?

Assessing and analysing

3 Refer to Sources 7.4.1 and 7.4.2. Explain how the location and terrain of the peninsula made the Gallipoli mission difficult.
4 Refer to Source 7.4.3. What difficulties did the soldiers experience?

UNIT 7.5

The Western Front, 1916

Trench warfare

After leaving Gallipoli, Australian infantry units were transferred to France to join the fighting there. The Australian army was reorganised into five divisions and over the next two years, for the most part, they fought directly under British command. During this time they experienced the horrors of trench warfare and took part in battles such as Verdun and the Somme.

In France, the Australians found themselves living in trenches as they had done in Gallipoli. The trenches were long holes in the ground reinforced with timber and sandbags, with wooden floors called duckboards (see Source 7.5.1). The aim was to provide some protection from enemy fire. The trenches in which Australians fought were fairly basic. However as the war developed, improvements were added which made life somewhat more comfortable.

The trench system

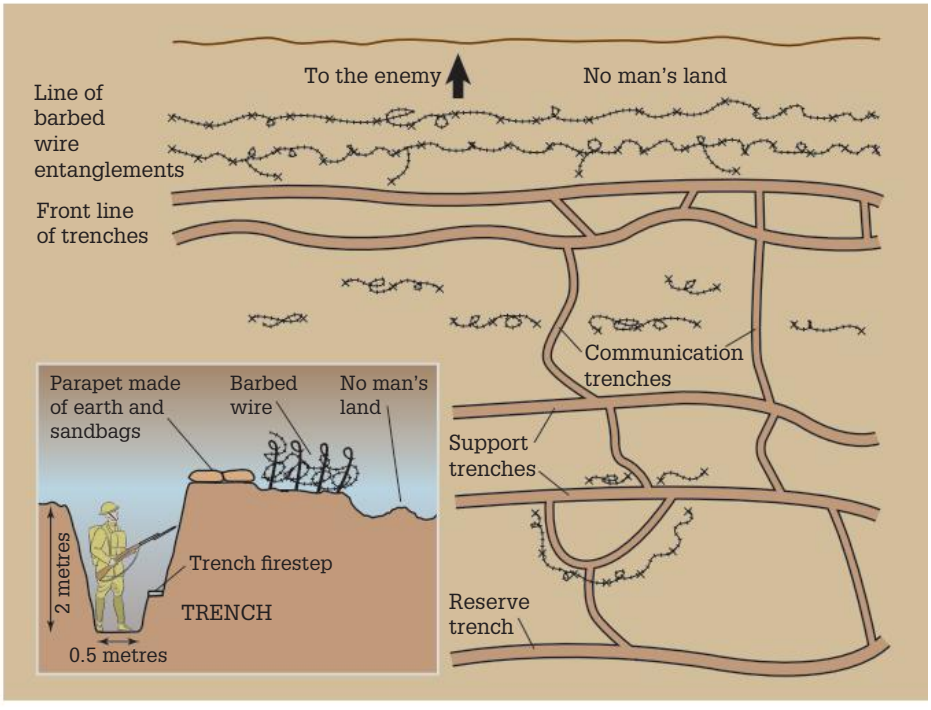
The trench system which criss-crossed northern France and Belgium consisted of a series of trench lines:

- the front line trenches from which attacks were launched and which spearheaded the defences
- the support lines, which were designed to hold the soldiers during bombardments and also from which reinforcements and supplies could be taken up to the front lines
- the reserve line where the troops waited until called up to the front lines closer to the battle.

These lines were joined together by communication trenches. These theoretically allowed the men to move safely between the three lines of trenches.

Once a major offensive was launched, the trenches tended to become confusing places and often failed to offer any real protection for the men. Between the Allied and Central Powers' systems of trenches was the area called No Man's Land, because neither side controlled the area. No Man's Land was not safe for anyone.

Barbed wire was strung in front of the trenches to act as an additional line of defence. While attacking the enemy, it was not uncommon for soldiers to get stuck on the barbed wire and die there as their comrades were unable to reach them and cut them down.



Source 7.5.1 Model trench

Life in the trenches

Living in the trenches involved a basic routine—sleeping, eating or simply waiting around for something to happen. Boredom was a major problem, as was disease. Food and water was often in

short supply depending on the ability of the support personnel to move supplies up to the front. Hot meals were supplied whenever possible but often troops ate tinned food such as bully beef. Fresh water was not always available and usually had to be rationed.

The trenches offered limited shelter from the elements (see Source 7.5.2). However, as the war developed, dugouts were built for the men to shelter in when sleeping and for the officers to use for planning.

In the trenches it was common for the men to suffer from diseases such as dysentery due to poor diet and sanitation. Another common disease was trench foot, which was caused by standing in mud or water for too long. The foot literally rotted and when the boots were removed, part of the foot would come away as well.

Men in the trenches also suffered **shell shock**, which was caused by the constant noise of the shelling and falling bombs. At first sufferers of shell shock were regarded as cowards, however by the end of the war the affliction was recognised as a consequence of time spent in the trenches.

Source 7.5.2 Men of the 53rd Battalion, AIF, in the front line minutes before the attack at Fromelles, France, 19 July 1916, Australian War Memorial

The Somme

The Somme is a river in northern France, close to the border with Belgium. The region surrounding the river is also known as the Somme and was the location of a series of battles during World War I.

- **1914 October** Battle of Ypres (first)
- **1915 April** Battle of Ypres (second)
- **1915 May** Battle of Festubert
- **1916 February to August** Battle of Verdun
- **1916 June to November** Battle of the Somme
- **1916 July** Battle of Fromelles (the Somme)
- **1916 July to September** Battle of Pozières (the Somme)
- **1917 July** Battle of Ypres (third)
- **1918 July** Battle of Hamel
- **1918 August** Battle of Amiens

The Battle of the Somme

1 July 1916 has been remembered as the worst day in the history of the British army This was the first day of the Battle of the Somme, with casualties of over 58 000. Nearly a third of the casualties died. Before the battle was over, 1 100 000 men had become casualties with 300 000 of those casualties killed in action. The Australian casualties were about 32 000 for the five months of battle.

The battle had been planned as a joint French and British offensive while the Russians launched their own assault in the east. The idea was that the Germans would be forced into a defensive position in two major battles. The plan was quite simple: launch a massive bombardment to weaken the German trenches and force them out of their defences, allowing the French and British soldiers to walk across No Man's Land and take the territory from the Germans. However, the Germans launched their own offensive against the French at Verdun, forcing the British to take on the bulk of the fighting on the Somme.

The French and British plan failed because the German trenches could withstand heavy bombardment. The French and British artillery also stopped early enough to allow the German soldiers to prepare for their advance. As the allied troops left the trenches, they were killed by the German machine gunners.

The battle settled into another stalemate that continued until November 1916 (see Source 7.5.3).

Fromelles 19–20 July 1916

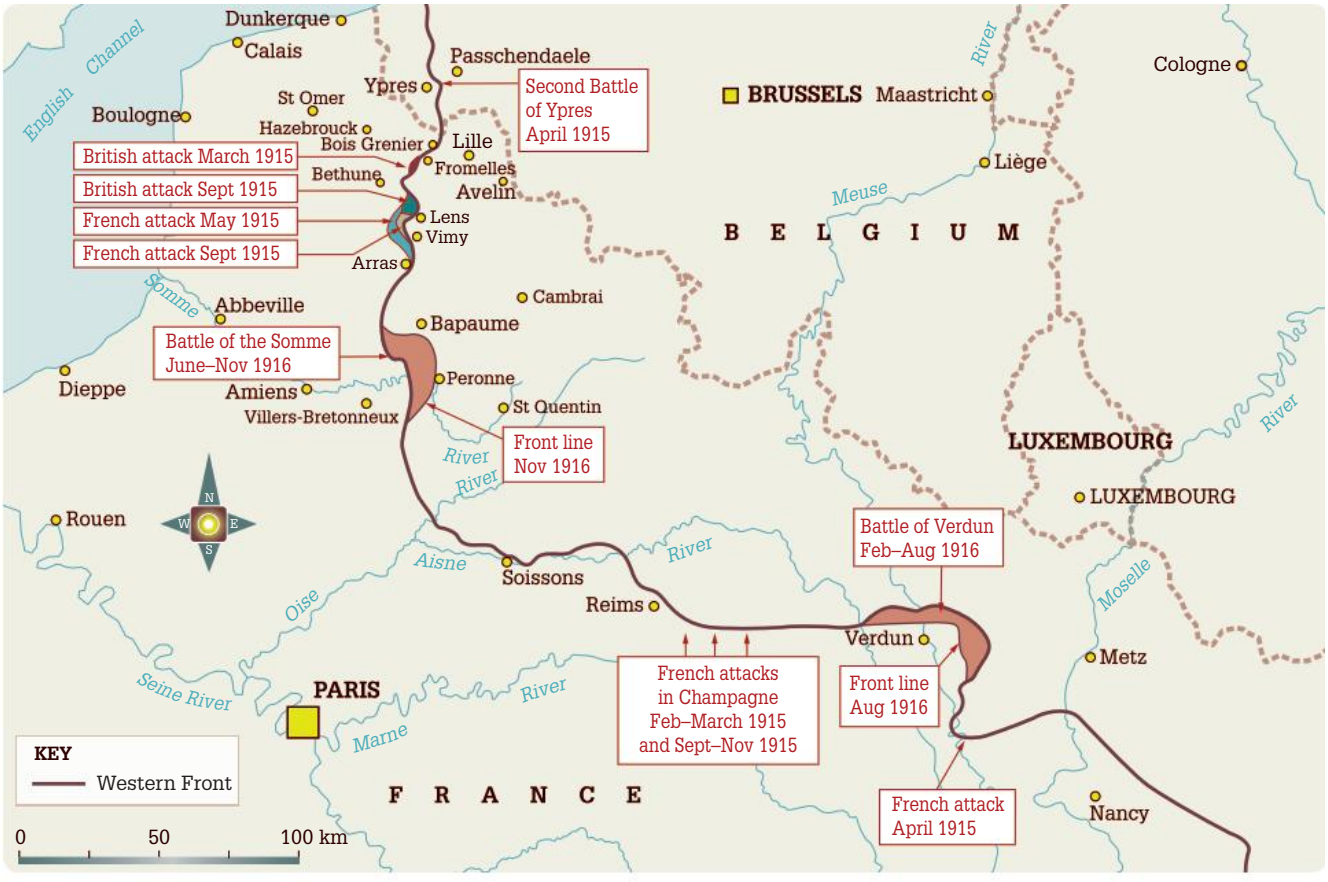
Fromelles was the first time Australian forces saw action in France, however it was at a great cost. Like many other battles on the Western Front, the plan was to begin with an artillery bombardment before launching the infantry across No Man's Land to the German lines. Despite initially taking about 1000 metres of land, the battle was not a success. Although the Australians managed to damage a section of German lines during the initial bombardment, they were not destroyed. As a result, the Australians were cut to ribbons as they advanced. Fromelles was one of the worst twenty-four hours in Australia's military history, with over 5000 casualties (see Source 7.5.4).

Pozières 23 July – 3 September 1916

The small town of Pozières was an important German defensive position. Australians fought here alongside British forces and again sustained many casualties. Their strategy was a typical plan of attack—artillery bombardment followed by an infantry advance. This time the artillery bombardment destroyed the town and used gas to attack the German trenches.

After the bombardment, the Australians launched themselves from No Man's Land where they had been positioned during the battle. The idea was to surprise the Germans with how quickly they could move up to the trenches.

Within twenty-four hours the Allies had taken Pozières. In retaliation, the Germans started to bombard the town, which was interpreted by the Australians as being a prelude to a much larger attack. Australian forces responded by asking the British to increase their bombardment. The consequence of this increased offensive was that the Australians suffered over 5000 casualties during the battle.



Source 7.5.3 Major offensives on the Western Front, 1915–1916

The Germans launched further attempts to retake the town and the Australians responded with their own attacks, trying to push the Germans out of range of the town. Finally, by early August, Australian troops could see green fields beyond the mud and destruction of Pozières. They had taken and held the town, successfully stopping the Germans attempted takeover.

> *Some crack German regiments were employed, but the Anzacs went for their men, and put in terrible bayonet work. After a fierce contest the Australians and New Zealanders obtained the upper hand ... It was the most horrible night any soldiers ever experienced. By daybreak on Monday we had a firm footing in the village. 'The fighting at Pozières' continued the London officer, 'has proved that the Anzacs would face a wall of iron and go through it'.*

Source 7.5.5 The Battle of Pozières as reported in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 28 July 1916

Source 7.5.4 Captured Australians arriving at the German collecting station on the morning of 20 July during the Battle of Fromelles, which took place on 19 and 20 July 1916, Australian War Memorial

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. When did the Australians arrive in France?
2. What was the aim of the Battle of Verdun?
3. Describe what happened on the first day of the Battle of the Somme.
4. Outline the events of the Battle of Fromelles and the Battle of Pozières.
5. Describe life in the trenches, covering aspects such as reasons for the trench system, food and water, and disease.

Assessing and analysing

6. Refer to Source 7.5.5. How does this account agree with the general description given in the text?

Source Study

UNIT 7.6

The textbook battle—Hamel

The main thing is always to have a plan; if it is not the best plan, it is better than no plan at all.

Source 7.6.1 Lt General Sir John Monash

Preparation

The Battle of Hamel, France, in 1918 was the first time that an Australian Corps was commanded by an Australian general. The general in charge was John Monash. Before the battle began, Monash insisted on telling everyone involved the objectives of the campaign. This ensured that they all knew their roles in achieving the objective. Monash was meticulous in his preparations. Supplies were placed in appropriate positions and he arranged for them to be delivered by either air or on tanks.

The true role of infantry was not to expend itself upon heroic physical effort, not to wither away under merciless machine-gun fire, not to impale itself on hostile bayonets, but on the contrary, to advance under the maximum possible protection of the maximum possible array of mechanical resources, in the form of guns, machine-guns, tanks, mortars and aeroplanes; to advance with as little impediment as possible; to be relieved as far as possible of the obligation to fight their way forward.

Source 7.6.2 Lt General Sir John Monash comments on tactics

Monash prepared by:

- training troops to work with the tanks
- colour-coding tank and infantry units so that it was easier to keep the organisation together during the smoke and confusion of battle
- banning troops from moving into position during daylight hours as this would have alerted the Germans to the coming advance
- using planes to cover the noise of the moving tanks
- ordering high explosive and smoke bombs to be dropped regularly on the town at around 3.00 a.m. every morning to condition the Germans to expect air attacks at this time. Australian troops were then able to move up quite close to the lines before the Germans realised it was a real infantry attack.

Battle

The Australians were able to begin the attack with the element of surprise on 4 July 1918. At 3.00 a.m. the artillery barrage began. The artillery and the creeping barrage did their job by damaging the enemy positions, especially their artillery batteries and supply lines. A creeping barrage involved the artillery adjusting the distance the shells landed in front of the troops. By adjusting these shells to stay approximately 75 metres in front of the advancing line, the troops were provided with cover.

Source 7.6.3 Artist's impression of the Battle of Hamel, University of Newcastle

Source 7.6.4 US and Australian soldiers in Pear Trench, Le Hamel, 4 July 1918, Australian War Memorial. The ruined village of Hamel is in the background.

The troops worked in conjunction with the artillery and tanks to advance to the German lines. They were aided by the smoke and dust created by the artillery.

Within ninety-three minutes of the attack beginning, the Australians and Americans troops, who were part of the offensive, had achieved all their objectives, which included capturing the town and taking many Germans prisoner. Planes were used in the battle for reconnaissance. This helped in moving troops quickly from one place to another as the pilots had identical maps to those being carried by the commanders on the ground. The pilots could plot where the troops of both sides were and then the map could be parachuted to the ground commanders. Communication in this battle was a matter of minutes, rather than the hours it had taken in the early years of the war. Fighting continued for the next two days while the Allies consolidated their gains from the first ninety-three minutes of the attack.

Results

Eight hundred Australians and 170 Americans were killed in action; more were injured. About 1400 Germans were captured and approximately 2000 were killed.

The war continued until November and the style of allied attacks was altered to follow Monash's blueprint.

On the 5th April 1918, when the enemy delivered a very heavy attack against the position occupied by the Battalion near Hébuterne he went through the enemy's intense barrages with communications for Battalion Headquarters. He showed a total disregard for his own safety and seemed obsessed solely with the idea of getting his dispatches through. He is recommended for distinction.

Source 7.6.5 From the Military Medal citation for Private Arthur R. Eastburn, 16th Battalion, who was killed in action near Hamel, 24 June 1918, aged 23

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. Who was the Australian commander at the Battle of Hamel?
2. List the preparations that Monash made for this battle.
3. Explain why this battle was so successful so quickly.

Assessing and analysing

4. Study Source 7.6.2. Compare Monash's criticism of British tactics to his preparations for the Battle of Hamel.
5. Study Source 7.6.3. What does the picture say about the conditions at the battle of Hamel?

UNIT 7.7

The conscription debate

Volunteers and conscripts

In World War I all Australian servicemen were volunteers. After war was declared many Australian men rushed to enlist. However, as the casualty figures started to emerge from the Gallipoli campaign, the number of enlistees began to drop.

In 1916, the majority of the Australian forces were involved in the massive battle of the Somme with its very high casualty rate. The Battle of Fromelles resulted in over 5000 casualties in twenty-four hours. The number of replacement troops enlisting back in Australia was not enough to replace those injured and dying in France.

When the Australian Prime Minister, Billy Hughes, visited Britain during the summer of 1916, the British government suggested that he introduce conscription (compulsory military service) in Australia. The Prime Minister agreed but the Australian Labor Party (ALP), which he led, did not. Hughes decided to take the question to the Australian people in a **referendum**.

1916 referendum

The 1916 referendum on the issue of conscription was a very divisive time in Australia's history. The Prime Minister led the 'Yes' campaign while the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Melbourne, Daniel Mannix, led the 'No' campaign.

'Yes' campaign

The 'Yes' campaign was supported by the Reinforcements Referendum Council and the majority of the press. The 'Yes' campaign focused its arguments on the promise to support Britain and the men already serving (see Source 7.7.1). The Prime Minister travelled across the country promoting the 'Yes' arguments. He found support from Protestants as they viewed conscription as a sign of loyalty to the Mother Country. He also found support with women who had family serving, including those who had already lost a loved one to the war or who believed conscription would share the burden of war more evenly across the classes.

'No' campaign

The 'No' campaign focused on the wrongness of trying to force young men to fight in a war when they did not want to do so. People who supported the 'No' vote included many Roman Catholics, a large percentage of the working class, the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) who were a socialist group, the Quakers and the Women's Peace Army.

Archbishop Mannix, originally from Ireland, had opposed to the war from the outset, describing it as a 'sordid trade war'. Although not a politician, he was an outspoken advocate for the 'No' vote and was supported by the ALP (see Source 7.7.2).

The question

The question was put to the Australian people on 28 October 1916: Are you in favour of the government having in this grave emergency the same compulsory powers over citizens in regard to requiring their military service, for the term of this war, outside the Commonwealth, as it now has in regard to military service within the Commonwealth?

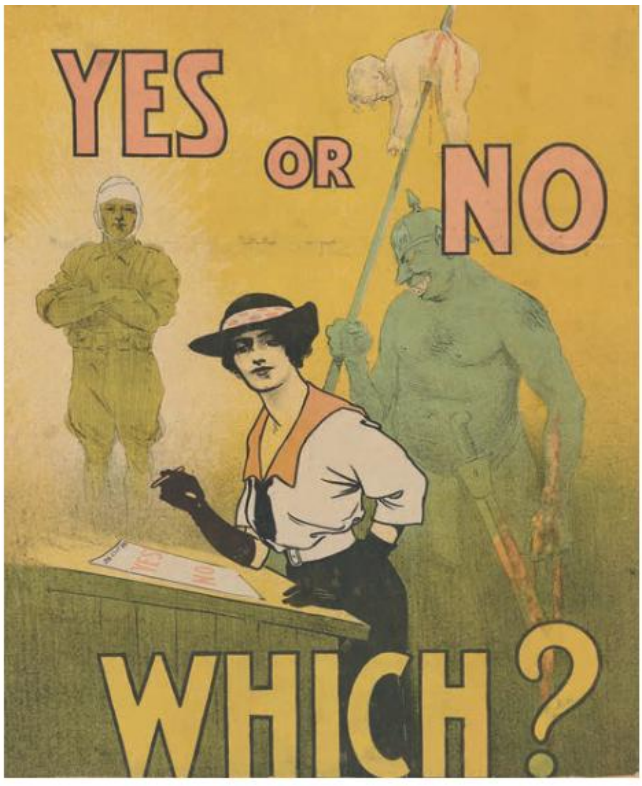
The outcome

All referenda in Australia need a double majority: a majority of the population and a majority of the states. The vote was 1 087 577 'Yes' and 1 160 033 'No' votes. Three states voted 'Yes' so the result was a 'No' vote on both criteria.

Hughes was disappointed and was forced to leave the ALP as they passed a vote of no confidence in his leadership. He took a number of other members of the ALP with him and they formed a new party with the Liberals. This new party was called the Nationalists and they went on to win a large majority in the federal election in May 1917.

1917 Referendum

Hughes took his huge win in the election in May as an indication that he might be successful in winning a second referendum on conscription. In December 1917, Hughes once again put the issue of conscription



Source 7.7.1 Campaigning for the 'Yes' vote, poster, 1917, National Library of Australia

Source 7.7.2 Campaigning for the 'No' vote, 1916, Australian War Memorial

to the Australian people. This time the question was simpler: Are you in favour of the proposal of the Commonwealth Government for reinforcing the Australian Imperial Force overseas?

The campaigning was just as strong as it had been in 1916 with similar arguments being put forward. Once again the Australian people voted 'No' with 1 181 747 'No' votes to 1 015 59 'Yes' votes.

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. Why did the Prime Minister believe that Australia needed conscription?
2. What is meant by a 'double majority' when referring to an Australian referendum?
3. What was the result of the two different referenda?

Assessing and analysing

4. Study Sources 7.7.1 and 7.7.2. Explain the arguments for and against conscription in Australia in 1916 and 1917.
5. Create your own propaganda poster for either the 'Yes' or the 'No' campaign.

UNIT 7.8

Propaganda, censorship and enemy aliens

War Precautions Act

Shortly after the war was declared, the Australian parliament passed the *War Precautions Act 1914*. Under the Act the government was able to censor the press and people's personal mail and establish **internment** camps for people who were considered a security risk.

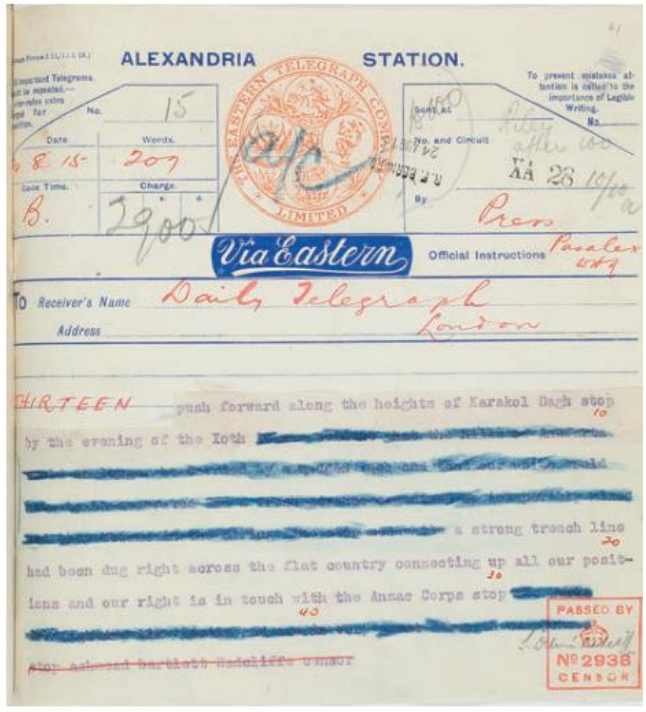
Propaganda

During World War I, government propaganda was used to encourage recruitment and conscription. Other propaganda encouraged women to become involved on the home front and promoted hatred of the enemy.

There was no sign of nerves or excitement ... Not waiting for orders or for the boats to reach the beach, but, springing out into the sea, they waded ashore, and, forming some sort of rough line, rushed straight on the flashes of the enemy's rifles ... The Turks in the first trench were either bayoneted or they ran away ...

Then this race of athletes proceeded to scale the cliffs without responding to the enemy's fire ... but then [their] blood was up, they rushed northward and eastward searching for fresh enemies to bayonet ... I have never seen anything like the wounded Australians before ... they were happy because they knew that they has been tried for the first time and not found wanting ... There has been no finer feat in this war than this sudden landing in the dark ... These raw colonial troops proved worthy.

Source 7.8.1 An early newspaper account of the landing at Gallipoli, Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett dispatch, *Hobart Mercury*, 8 May 1915. The account is a piece of propaganda and not an accurate reflection of what occurred.



Source 7.8.2 A telegram sent by Ashmead-Bartlett to the *Daily Telegraph* in London, reporting on the Gallipoli campaign, State Library of NSW. Note the heavy military censorship.

Propaganda was mainly in the form of posters, which appeared in the press and in public places. Posters were created to play on emotions such as mateship, fear, self-respect, community esteem and hatred of the Germans. Propaganda also took the form of newspaper editorials, speeches by prominent people in towns and communities, and local events held to support the war effort.

Censorship

Censorship was the process by which information released to the public was controlled and limited by the government (see Source 7.8.2). Although it was impossible to hide the casualty figures, the government only allowed positive information about the Australian involvement in the war to be made public.

Source 7.8.3 Internment camp at Holsworthy, c. 1917, National Library of Australia

The most obvious censorship was the censoring of letters going to and from the troops at the front. These letters were read by the soldiers' commanding officers to ensure that they contained nothing that could reflect badly on the war effort.

Enemy 'aliens'

Enemy 'aliens' were people who had been born (or whose parents or grandparents had been born) in one of the enemy nations, particularly Germany and Turkey. There was a fear that these people may actually be spies for the enemy. In 1915, naturalised British subjects of German descent were also categorised as enemy 'aliens'.

According to the 1911 Census, there were over 33 000 people of German origin living in Australia. These people had to report to their local police stations on a regular basis. In many cases they were locked up in internment camps.

Due to the heavy anti-German propaganda at the beginning of the war, there was a strong anti-German attitude in the population. Australians would avoid German-owned shops, German dogs such as dachshunds were kicked, and there was verbal abuse and physical attacks against Germans in the streets. People of Germanic origin were encouraged to anglicise their names and even the town of Hahndorf in South Australia changed its name to Ambleside. It was changed back again in 1935.

Internment camps

Internment camps were established throughout the country to house approximately 7000 people regarded as enemy aliens. The camps were often in remote areas of the country although there was one at Holsworthy in south-western Sydney. Other New South Wales camps were at Bourke, Berrima and Trial Bay.

Holsworthy's camp housed about 6000 men, both internees and prisoners-of-war. Over the course of the war the camp developed to include theatres, restaurants and cafes, small businesses, social clubs and educational facilities. Many internees left the camp better educated than they had been when they entered while others developed new skills to help them in the years ahead.

The camp at Bourke was different as internees were lodged in the town at houses, hotels and even the local jail. Internees were also not necessarily Australian Germans but Germans who had been brought to Australia from British territories in South-East Asia such as modern-day Malaysia, Singapore, Sri Lanka and Hong Kong. Although they had more physical freedom than internees in places such as Holsworthy, the types of activities that developed in other camps did not develop in Bourke, partly due to the small number of internees.

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. Define the terms 'censorship', 'enemy aliens', 'propaganda'.
2. Explain why the government introduced censorship.
3. Describe the differences between the internment camps at Holsworthy and Bourke.

Assessing and analysing

4. Study Source 7.8.1.
   - **a** What words and phrases show that it is an example of propaganda?
   - **b** How accurate an account is this of the first day at Gallipoli?
   - **c** Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett was an experienced war correspondent. Do you think this makes his work more or less reliable and why?
5. Compare Sources 7.8.1 and 7.8.2.

UNIT 7.9

Australian women in World War I

New roles for women

When war was declared, there were clearly defined gender roles for men and women in Australia. There were many occupations that were considered unacceptable for women. However, with the outbreak of war, many women wanted to be involved in the effort and do all they could to assist the fighting men. These women wanted to contribute as doctors, cooks, drivers, signallers, stretcher-bearers and nurses. They wanted to do jobs behind the lines, which could then free up men for front-line duties. The government, however, was not interested in having women become involved in the war effort beyond the nursing profession (see Source 7.9.1). Throughout the war, despite pressure from Australian women, the government refused to send any woman to the front unless she was a nurse.

DID YOU KNOW?

Although there were female doctors in Australia during the war, the Australian government refused to send them overseas. In response, some female doctors enlisted in foreign medical corps.

Nurses

Australian women were sent to serve as nurses at the same locations as the men. The only exception was Gallipoli. While the men were fighting on the peninsula, the nurses were on nearby Greek islands such as Lemnos where they worked in the hospitals. The working conditions were not ideal due to the

Source 7.9.1 A nurse assisting in an operation at the 1st Australian Casualty Clearing Station in November 1917, Australian War Memorial

hot climate, often undrinkable water, and food that was hard to digest. Frequently the nurses themselves succumbed to disease because of exhaustion and poor sanitation.

When the men moved to France and the Middle East, the nurses followed. A casualty clearing station was the first stop for an injured soldier. Nurses in the stations were in the same situation as the male doctors. Putting nurses in these dangerous locations was unthinkable in 1914; however by 1917 it became accepted. A total of 2139 Australian nurses served overseas during the war.

Bravery awards

Sister Pearl Corkhill from New South Wales was awarded the Military Medal for her actions during two attacks by the Germans on her casualty clearing station in 1918.

At home

The women who were left at home also wanted to participate in the war effort. However, due to Australia's distance from the front, there was not the same sort of war work for women in Australia as there was in Britain or Germany. Many working-class women continued in their pre-war jobs, but for some middle-class women this was a time when they took on new roles and responsibilities (see Source 7.9.2).

Volunteer organisations

The Red Cross

The patron of the Red Cross was Lady Helen Munro-Ferguson, who was the wife of the Governor-General. During the war, the Red Cross expanded into almost every town and suburb across the country. The women who worked for the Red Cross knitted more than a million socks for the men at the front as well as other garments such as mittens. Even school children were encouraged to knit during classes and in their breaks.

Australian Comforts Fund

The Australian Comforts Fund provided tobacco, homemade cakes and biscuits, condensed milk, newspapers and other luxuries to the troops. The ladies raised funds to purchase these goods and arranged the collection, packing and dispatch of these comfort packages. The packages also included knitted items such as socks and sometimes a letter to cheer up its recipient.

Women in the workforce

When men were sent to the front, women replaced them in the workforce.The percentage of women in the workforce during the war rose from 24 per cent in 1914 to 37 per cent in 1918. Women worked mostly in occupations such as clothing and footwear, which had been dominated by women in the pre-war years. When a women did take a job previously held by a man, it was at a lower wage and there was often an understanding that when the man came home he would take up his job again.

Source 7.9.2 Women members of the Australian Red Cross packing comforts to be sent to servicemen overseas

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. Identify the two main areas in which women assisted the war effort.
2. Identify three places where Australian nurses served.
3. How did the Australian Red Cross become more involved in Australian society during the war?

Assessing and analysing

4. What evidence is presented in the text that attitudes towards women changed during the war?
5. Refer to Source 7.9.1. What can be learnt from this source about the working conditions of nurses close to the front?
6. Refer to Source 7.9.2. How does this source reveal the role of women on the home front?

UNIT 7.10

Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples in World War I

Federal Defence Act

In 1914, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples were not regarded as Australian citizens. As a result, the official government policy, as stated in the Federal Defence Act in 1903 and every update until the war began, was that 'full-blooded' or **'half-caste'** Aboriginal Peoples were not allowed to enlist. As a consequence of this ruling, Indigenous Australians initially were not legally allowed to join the military.

Enlisting

When war was declared, many Aboriginal men did try to enlist and were refused simply on the basis of their race. Like other young men, they wanted to serve their country and sought adventure overseas. The pay of 6 shillings a day was another attraction as Aboriginal people were some of the lowest paid workers in Australian society at the time. Another reason that has been put forward is that Aboriginal men wanted to prove that they were as good as the 'White' men.

As the decision about who could enlist was left largely to the recruiting officer, Aboriginal men had to convince this individual that they were not Indigenous if queried. There are no precise figures about how many Aboriginal men did serve, although the Australian War Memorial estimates there were more than 400 over the course of the war. The reason an exact number of serving Aboriginal men is not known is because ethnicity was never recorded on the enlistment documents.

Rules relaxed

As the number of volunteer troops dropped, it became harder to justify denying men the right to enlist based on their race. By 1916, the officers in charge of recruitment were told to allow Indigenous volunteers to enlist. It was also made clear that their duties would be limited to non-combatant roles such as drivers, stretcher-bearers and signallers.

Even though Aboriginal men were allowed to enlist there was still a restriction based on parentage. All Aboriginal men who wished to serve had to prove that they had at least one European parent. At this time these men were described officially as 'half-castes' while those with no European ancestry were described as 'full-bloods'. These descriptions remained in place well into the twentieth century.

Distinguished duty

For conspicuous gallantry and devotion to duty on 29th/30th September, 1918. During an attack on the village of Bony, on the 30th September, 1918, several bombing parties were held up by heavy Machine Gun and Trench Mortar fire. Corporal Knight handled his Lewis Gun Section with great skill and worked forward to a suitable position, he then placed his gun in position, handed over to No. 1 and proceeded M.G.C. to push forward and reconnoitre the enemy position. This necessitated moving over country which afforded no cover, other than shell holes, for a distance of 200 yards. This was carried out in broad daylight and in full view of the enemy lines and under Heavy Machine Gun, Trench Mortar and Artillery fire. In spite of difficulties he succeeded in reaching a position from which he located several Machine Guns and Trench Mortars, which were at the time playing on our position. He then returned to our lines with the valuable information which he had obtained and artillery assistance was brought to bear with success on the positions indicated.

Source 7.10.1 The Citation for Corporal Albert Knight, *London Gazette*, 11 March 1920, *Commonwealth of Australia Gazette*, No 31, 10 June 1920

Although the official policy was clear, Indigenous troops served at Gallipoli in 1915, and then in both the Middle East and France. Once in the army, the soldiers found that their comrades treated them as equals (see Source 7.10.2). This was probably because they had volunteered to enlist in the first place and were suffering the same privations as the other men. Like the rest of the serving troops, the majority of Aboriginal servicemen were anonymous although some earned commendations for bravery. Three Indigenous men who were awarded the Distinguished Conduct Medal (second only to the Victoria Cross) were Albert Knight, Harry Thorpe and William Irwin. Others such as William Rawlings were awarded the Military Medal.

Source 7.10.2 Trooper Dalton, an Aboriginal serviceman who fought with the Australian Light Horse, Australian War Memorial, c. 1916

Like the numbers of those serving, the data regarding how many Aboriginal men died or were injured during the war is unknown. What is acknowledged is that at least one, Private Douglas Grant, was captured. The Germans were fascinated by Grant and had him studied by anthropologists before sending him to a camp with other black prisoners.

Returning home

When the troops returned to Australia, Aboriginal servicemen had to go back to the reserves and missions and the protection of the government. They still were not seen as citizens or equal to men of European descent. No Aboriginal serviceman was given land under the soldier settlement scheme that was put in place after the war to help returning soldiers. The families of killed servicemen were also treated differently (see Source 7.10.3).

> *Whenever she (Cyril Righey's daughter, Aileen) wanted to buy clothing, she had to order from a department store catalogue and her goods would be sent to her by mail. If she wanted cash, she had to apply to the Repatriation Department. It appears that she was the only child of a soldier killed in action who had to do this.*

Source 7.10.3 From *Ngarrindjeri Anzacs*, Dorothy Kartinyeri, 1996

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. What restriction was placed on Aboriginal men who wanted to enlist in the army?
2. When did the restrictions get lifted?
3. Why did Aboriginal men want to fight?
4. Approximately how many Aboriginal men are thought to have joined the army during World War I?
5. How were the returned Aboriginal servicemen treated?

Assessing and analysing

6. Refer to Source 7.10.1. Explain what is learnt about the role of Indigenous soldiers from this citation.

UNIT 7.11

Aftermath of World War I

Armistice

11 November 1918 has become known as Armistice Day as it was on that day that fighting on the Western Front officially ended. Over the next six months, the Australian troops and support personnel came home.

After Armistice Day, the first decision made by the Australian government was to bring men home in the order in which they left Australia, rather than as a combined force. This meant that the men who had been away since the initial ships left for Europe were on the first ships to come home. These men had experienced over four years of war, including battles at Gallipoli and the Western Front.

The men left in Europe spent their time travelling and seeing the sites of France and Britain. The opportunity to travel was one of the main reasons men had enlisted. Some also engaged in educational courses aimed at helping their employment opportunities.

Source 7.11.1 An Australian soldier recovering in a British hospital, Australian War Memorial

Returning to civilian life

When the soldiers returned to Australia, they had some difficulties adjusting to a peacetime society again. The problems they faced included:

- re-establishing family relationships, especially with wives and children
- finding jobs
- communicating with civilians about the war
- dealing with the injuries they had suffered, both psychological and physical.

Men who returned from war experienced different long-term effects. These ranged from men who would talk openly about the war, while others were more reserved and spoke about their experiences only with close friends and family, or would not talk about it at all. Some men were able to rebuild their lives and returned to their former jobs or gained new ones. They settled into being husbands and fathers and marched proudly on Anzac Day.

Other returned soldiers were not fortunate; the war had changed them and they were restless in civilian life. Many of these men struggled to remain in employment. There was another large group of men who had been badly wounded during the war (see Source 7.11.1). They had lost limbs, become blind, suffered from mustard gas attacks, and had burns and injuries that would never fully heal.

Government support

At the beginning of the war the government introduced war pensions for veterans before forming the Department of Repatriation in 1917. In 1918, it established the idea of soldier settlements, which gave returned servicemen a plot on which to farm and start a new life (see Source 7.11.2). Many failed in their attempt as the settlements were too small and the soldiers often did not have the skills to be successful farmers. By the start of World War II, around 60 per cent of the settlers had left their plots.

Civilians

After the war ended, civilians had to absorb approximately 300 000 ex-servicemen back into their communities. For women, this meant an official return to pre-1914 attitudes with the expectation that they would leave any jobs previously held by men. Employers were not so happy with this arrangement as they paid female employees less money than they paid their male employees. Another problem for women was that they had become accustomed to running their families. Once the men were home, women had to relinquish control and return to being housewives. For many women, the end of the war also meant the end of their voluntary wartime activities.

> *... that was the war to end all wars. No wars ever ended a war. I don't think there's any place for war. The history of wars has never been for any peace. I wouldn't do it again.*

Source 7.11.3 Ted Smout, former Corporal, member of the 3rd Sanitation Section AIF 1915–1919. Australian War Memorial

Source 7.11.2 Soldier settlement, Mullumbimby, 1921, State Records, NSW

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. How did the government organise the return of the servicemen once the war was over?
2. List the types of problems that confronted a returning soldier.
3. Identify the ways that the government tried to help the soldiers.
4. List the problems that women had to deal with after the men came home.

Assessing and analysing

5. Study Source 7.11.2 carefully. Describe the conditions of the soldier settlement.
6. Imagine that you were either a returned soldier or his wife. Write an account of how you coped during the first six months after you (or your husband) returned home.

UNIT 7.12

Commemorating World War I

Remembering

Anzac Day is a commemoration that Australia shares with New Zealanders. When the war ended, it was time to count the cost and to rebuild the nation. But it was also important to remember the sacrifice of those who had left Australia to fight.

Australia's population at the time of the war was approximately 4.5 million. Over 400 000 enlisted; 324 000 were sent overseas to serve in Gallipoli, the Middle East, the Western Front, or in the navy or newly formed Flying Corps. Of these, 155 000 were wounded and another 61 000 were killed.

Anzac Day through the years

The first Anzac Day was acknowledged in London and elsewhere on 25 April 1916, which was the first anniversary of the landings at Gallipoli. Every year since, Australians and New Zealanders across the country have taken the time to remember the troops who made these landings.

The dawn service commemorates the time when the first boats landed at Anzac Cove. Not only does New Zealand join with Australia for this commemoration but also Turkey. Turkey regards Anzac Cove as a special part of its history and has made it a point of honour to care for the graves of Australians as well as their own people.

Those heroes that shed their blood and lost their lives ... You are now lying in the soil of a friendly country. Therefore rest in peace. There is no difference between the Johnnies and the Mehmets to us where they lie side by side now here in this country of ours ... you, the mothers, who sent their sons from faraway countries wipe away your tears; your sons are now lying in our bosom and are in peace. After having lost their lives on this land. They have become our sons as well.

Source 7.12.1 The first president of Turkey Kemal Attaturk speaking in 1934. Attaturk had been a general at Gallipoli.

Turkey has honoured these words ever since. Today many young Australians travel to Gallipoli each year to attend the dawn service. Sites of other battles, such as Villers–Bretonneux in France, are also places of pilgrimage for Anzac Day services.

Anzac Day marches occur in many communities. Large marches are held in each state capital, but many other cities and towns have their own march to honour their local servicemen.

Source 7.12.2 The Lone Pine diorama, Australian War Memorial

Today, many young people take part in Anzac Day ceremonies as a tribute to their fathers, grandfathers and great-grandfathers who fought for Australia or Australia's allies in various wars. Even though the enemy at Gallipoli was Turkey, their soldiers' descendants also participate in Anzac Day marches because Anzac means as much to them as it does to Australians as a symbol of national pride.

War memorials

There are over 2000 war memorials across Australia as many communities built one for their local men (see Source 7.12.3). Due to the majority of soldiers who died being buried overseas, war memorials were places where families and friends could commemorate and grieve. The Australian War Memorial in Canberra lists every Australian who has died in any conflict. The list of names from World War I still outnumbers the total from all other conflicts combined. The Memorial has the following sections:

- the Commemorative Area with the Pool of Reflection and the Eternal Flame
- the Hall of Memory with the names of the dead from all conflicts
- the Hall of Valour where the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier now lies
- museum galleries dedicated to each war.

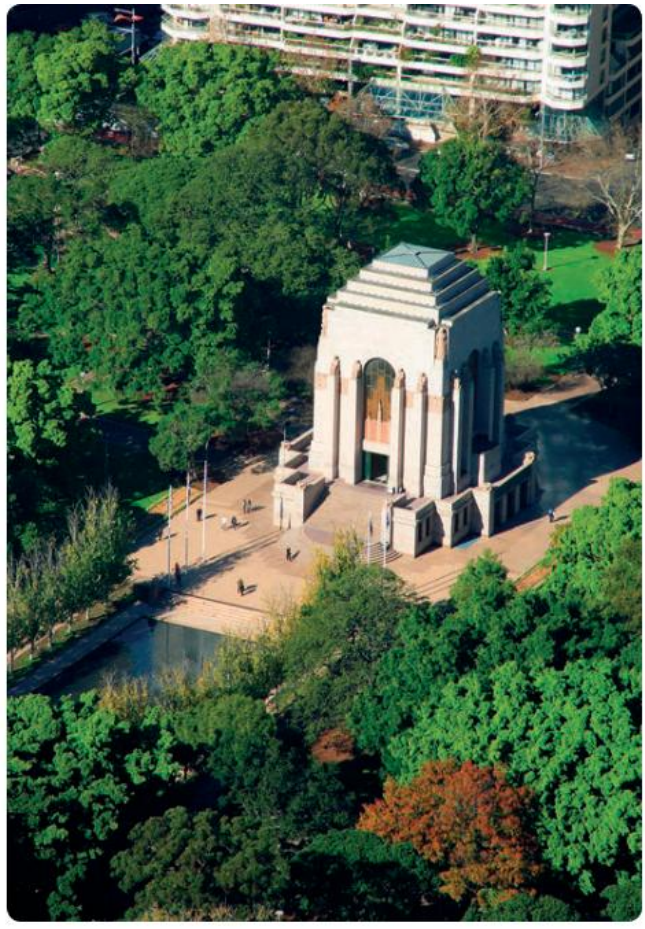
At the Australian War Memorial, fallen servicemen are listed alphabetically under the Navy, Army or Air Force and Battalion. Listing names alphabetically was an initiative of Charles Bean, the official war historian who argued that in death all men are equal.

Returned and Services League

The Returned and Services League (RSL) assists ex-servicemen and servicewomen and their families. Many suburbs or towns have a branch or sub-branch of the RSL. Every night at these clubs, there is an acknowledgement of those who died with a minute's silence and the reciting of The Ode.

> *They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old; Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn. At the going down of the sun and in the morning we will remember them.*

Source 7.12.4 The Ode from 'For the Fallen' by Laurence Binyon



Source 7.12.3 The Anzac Memorial in Sydney

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. How many Australians died in World War I?
2. When was the first acknowledgement of Anzac Day?
3. List the three countries that acknowledge Anzac Day as a major day in their history.
4. What is the role of the RSL?

Assessing and analysing

5. Refer to Source 7.12.2. The diorama clearly shows the problems at Lone Pine. How does it educate Australians about conditions at the battlefield?
6. Refer to Source 7.12.4. This verse is one of the middle verses of a much longer poem. Why do you think this verse became associated with those who had died during the war?

UNIT 7.13

The Anzac legend

Creating the legend

Since the first ANZACs landed at Gallipoli, the Anzac legend has grown to the point where it is difficult to separate myth from the reality. The legend has been promoted by governments as shown in Source 7.13.1, and in popular culture in films such as *Gallipoli* and *1915*.

Early stories

When the Allies withdrew from Gallipoli some of the early stories told to the public in Australia were exaggerations. The reasons for this were complex, but include the following.

- It was the first major war involving Australia since Federation so it was seen as a chance for Australia to prove itself on the world stage as a new nation.
- The Australian public had heard stories about the poor behaviour of some of the troops in Egypt while in training and wanted to counteract that poor impression.
- The public wanted to believe that the Australian troops were just as good as the best soldiers from the empire.
- Australians wanted to have a sense of pride and a national identity that was recognised as equal to those of other nations.

Source 7.13.1 In 1965, Australia Post released stamps commemorating the 50th anniversary of the Anzac landing at Gallipoli.

Charles Bean

The Australian government appointed an official war correspondent who visited Gallipoli to record events. His name was Charles Bean. Bean's work, both during and after the war, contributed to the creation of the Anzac legend. While at Gallipoli, Bean assisted in the creation of a work by the troops called *The ANZAC Book*. This book included many humorous stories from the troops about the conditions under which they were fighting. However, Bean was very strict about what was allowed in this book. He would not allow any content that contradicted the image that he, Ashmead-Bartlett a journalist, and the Australian government were keen to present to the Australian public. Items that referred to fear or cowardice were excluded.

> *No words of mine could ever convey to readers at their firesides in Australia, New Zealand and the Old Country, one-half of what all their boys have been through, nor is my poor pen capable of telling them of the never-failing courage, determination and cheerfulness of those who have so willingly fought and given their lives for their King and country's sake. Their deeds are known to the Empire, and can never be forgotten, while if any copy of this little book should happen to survive to fall into the hands of our children, or our children's children, it will serve to show them to some extent what their fathers have done for the Empire, and indeed for civilisation, in days gone by.*

Source 7.13.2 Extract from the introduction to *The ANZAC Book*

General Birdwood's introduction (See Source 7.13.2) to *The ANZAC Book* was propaganda to promote the troops and the war. The book was widely sold as a fundraiser to people in Australia who wanted to read about the troops' experiences.

Alternative perspectives

Assessing the Anzac legend

There is no question that many of the stories that contributed to the Anzac legend are true. The job of an historian is to sort through the stories, identify myths and ascertain the facts.

The Anzac legend has many elements—mateship, independent spirit, courage and resilience. The myth is the assumption that these qualities only existed in the Anzacs and were not present in other troops or in the people at home.

It is worth examining these qualities to see if they only applied to the Anzacs.

- Mateship
  The essential point of mateship is never letting your mates down. In Britain entire villages or workplaces joined up and fought together in 'Pals' Battalions.
- Independent spirit
  Australians were often described as larrikins and disrespectful of authority. Yet this was a feature of many soldiers.
- Courage
  The belief that Australian troops never shirked their duty as soldiers but in reality some did.
- Resilience
  Anzacs were considered resourceful, even ingenious when needed. However, soldiers of other nations were equally resilient.

> *In September 1915, Bean committed to his diary a lengthy appraisal of the Australian soldier in which he acknowledged that fear, cowardice and reluctance were the 'true side of war' but he added: 'I wonder if anyone would believe me outside the army'.*

Source 7.13.3 An extract from '*The Anzac Book* and the Anzac Legend: C. E. W. Bean as Editor and Image Maker', D. A. Kent, *Historical Studies*, Vol 21, no 84, April 1985

Glorifying war

When analysed, the creation of the Anzac legend makes sense in its own time. With the benefit of almost a century of hindsight, historians are more critical; not of the Anzacs themselves and their achievements, but of the way their story was manipulated by the government of the day and continues to be used.

> *The myth of Anzac has become more significant in recent years, ubiquitous even, with what I have called the militarisation of Australian history, mightily subsidised by the Howard government in the 1990s and early years of this century. War stories have figured ever more prominently in our culture, in our school rooms, on our TV screens and in our bookshops, but they do not usually tell of the perpetual state of warfare, as once colonist described it, entailed in the colonisation of Australia. To represent this phase of warfare in the Australian War Memorial would challenge the legitimacy of the nation-building project at the heart of Anzac and the Australian War Memorial. Modern Australian history has rather been defined by the exploits of the expeditionary forces sent to engage in military operations overseas, which began not with our participation in WW1, of course by the way, but in the Boer War in South Africa.*

Source 7.13.4 Dr Marilyn Lake interview, 'Hindsight', Radio National ABC, 2009

ACTIVITIES

Knowledge and understanding

1. List four reasons why the government and press would allow exaggerated accounts of the landings at Gallipoli to be published.
2. Identify the types of entries that were not permitted into *The Anzac Book*.
3. Identify the four elements of the Anzac legend.
4. **a** Name the official war correspondent sent by the Australian government.
   b Outline his importance in creating the Anzac legend.

Assessing and analysing

5. Analyse the Australian Government's reasons during World War I for creating the Anzac legend. Explain whether we, as modern historians, should be critical of their actions or not.
6. Refer to Source 7.13.2. Explain how General Birdwood's introduction aided in the creation of the Anzac legend.

Investigating History

UNIT 7.14

World War I

Being an historian

Historians spend a lot of their time looking at documents, both official and unofficial. These documents often take the form of letters, diaries, photographs, cartoons, newspaper reports, memorials, enlistment documents, service records, officer reports and maps, and are vital when learning about individuals and events related to World War I. Having gleaned all the relevant information from these sources, historians then synthesise the material to write an account of an individual or battle.

In this investigation you will do what historians do. You are to locate a number of different sources from a specific period of the war that relate to either a person or a battle. You will then create a report about that person or event, incorporating the evidence you gained from the sources.

The aim of this investigation is for you to use primary sources from the time and not to rely too heavily on secondary sources for your information.

Making your selection

Choose one of the following:

- Sir John Monash
- John Simpson Kirkpatrick
- Albert Jacka VC
- a soldier from your local area
- a member of your family
- the Battle of Beersheba
- the Battle of Bullecourt
- the Battle of Passchendaele.

Finding sources

Places where you should be able to locate necessary sources from the time include:

- Australian War Memorial website
- your local war memorial and/or RSL club
- the archives of local, state and national papers
- local institutions that existed at the time of the war such as schools and churches
- local libraries and the State Library of New South Wales.

When presenting history, you must acknowledge the sources you used. Your teacher will guide you on how to do this as there are a number of accepted formats.

You could present your report in one of the following ways:

- written essay
- PowerPoint presentation
- oral presentation
- storybook
- empathy task where you imagine you are either the person or a participant.

Information to be included

In your report you need to cover the following points.

a For an individual study:
- family background and childhood
- life before the war
- when the person joined the war
- the state of the war at the time they joined
- what they actually did during the war (this should be about 75 per cent of your final report), including a photograph
- the impact of the war on the rest of their lives.

b For a battle:
- background to the battle
- location of the battle, including a map
- objectives of the battle
- how the battle unfolded (this should be about 75 per cent of your final report)
- living conditions related to the battle
- achievements of the battle.

Horseshoe debate

Prepare for a horseshoe debate by making a list of arguments for or against the following proposition: Conscription in Australia should have been made law.

Unlike a traditional debate in which you would have to argue for the affirmative or the negative, a horseshoe debate allows you to change sides as you become more or less convinced by the arguments of your class members. The class should be seated in the shape of a horseshoe or 'U'. On the right of the horseshoe are those who agree with the proposition and on the left are those who disagree. By sitting further to the left or right you are informing everyone that you either strongly agree or disagree with the proposition. Those who are uncertain sit in the middle of the horseshoe, but need to decide to which side they lean.

To ensure the debate runs smoothly, it is important that everyone makes a brief opening statement once they have sat down. Feel free to change seats as you change your mind. At the end, debrief by noting how the horseshoe looked at the beginning of the debate and how it looks at the end. Discuss the most convincing arguments and give feedback to the class about whether or not you finished the debate with a new point of view.

Glossary

alliance agreement between nations to support and protect each other

artillery large guns that could fire over great distances and cause a lot of damage

assassination murder of a public figure

bombardment continuous shelling by the artillery as preparation for an attack or invasion

casualties people who were killed, wounded or taken prisoner during a war

'half-caste' now considered offensive, used to describe an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander person who had one parent who was European

infantry foot soldiers

internment restriction of enemy 'aliens' during the war

propaganda information given to the public to influence the way they think

referendum vote to change the constitution of Australia, which requires a majority of the people and a majority of the states

shell shock psychological and physical trauma of soldiers to continued bombardment

stalemate state of war where neither side is able to make progress

Source 7.14.1 Battle of Beersheba 31 October 1917, Australian War Memorial


ABBOTT

CHAPTER
8

World War II

Introduction

Twenty-one years after the 'war to end all wars' finished, the impact of the Treaty of Versailles on Germany, the lack of power of the new League of Nations, the aggression of Adolf Hitler and international inaction all contributed to the outbreak of World War II. The war spread across Europe, North Africa, Asia and the Pacific, involving more armed forces and resulting in death both of soldiers and civilians on a much greater scale than ever before.

Source 8.0.2 Timeline of World War II

Source 8.0.1 Harold Abbott painted this soldier looking over his shoulder after Singapore was defeated and surrendered in 1942. Perhaps as many as 20 000 Australians were captured and imprisoned in Changi. Australian War Memorial

UNIT 8.1

Causes of World War II

Treaty of Versailles

At the end of World War I, the major victorious **Allies** met to impose terms on Germany. The treaty, signed in 1919 at Versailles in France, aimed to punish and limit future German expansion. However, the Allies created new hostility because of clauses in the treaty that laid the blame for World War I completely on Germany. The main tenets of the treaty were:

- Germany to pay huge reparations to the Allies for their military expenditure in World War I
- Germany to drastically reduce its defence forces
- territory to be taken away from Germany, including coal reserves (10 per cent), agricultural land (15 per cent), iron reserves (48 per cent) and industry (10 per cent).

The Great Depression

In October 1929, the stock market in the United States collapsed and triggered a worldwide economic depression. In Germany, the poverty and unemployment caused by the Great Depression were extreme. Germany was suffering hyperinflation because the government ordered the Central Bank to print more money; as a consequence the German Mark became worthless (see Source 8.1.1). In addition, Germany was still paying huge reparations as a result of their defeat in World War I.

The rise of the Nazi Party

In the 1932 elections the Nazi Party, led by Adolf Hitler, gained the largest number of popular votes. The party won on a platform which promised to invigorate the German economy and proposals to avoid paying World War I reparations.

In 1932, the Reichstag (the German parliament), influenced by the Nazi Party, elected the Nazi Herman Goering as President. Goering forced new elections under which the Nazis hoped to gain more power. Although losing some seats, the Nazi Party retained enough influence to ensure that the new Chancellor had to resign. By 30 January 1933, President Hindenburg appointed Hitler as Chancellor.

Hitler's actions

In 1934, Hitler began rebuilding the army, and building new warships and a German air force, the *Luftwaffe*. The air force gained experience and new tactics (***Blitzkreig***) during the Spanish Civil War of 1936. Germany provided support to the Nationalists, a fascist rebel group aiming to overthrow the Spanish government.

In 1936, Germany invaded the Rhineland in defiance of the Treaty of Versailles. In the same year, Hitler signed alliances with the fascist leader in Italy, Benito Mussolini, creating the Rome–Berlin Axis Pact, and with General Tojo Hideki of Japan, creating the Anti-Comintern Pact. In 1937, Italy signed the Anti-Comintern Pact, establishing the three **Axis Powers**.

Source: 8.1.1 Hyperinflation in Germany in 1923 as paper money became almost worthless

Source 8.1.2 The British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain's meeting with Hitler in September 1938 led to the Munich Agreement.

The policy of appeasement

During the mid to late 1930s, the official policy of Britain was appeasement. To avert another war with Germany and to create a barrier against the spread of communism from Russia, Britain and France sought to work with Hitler's demands. In 1938, Hitler occupied Austria, forcing it to 'reunify' with Germany. When France and Britain asked Hitler to explain, he promised that ***Anschluss*** was the end of Germany's expansionism. Six months later the situation reoccurred over Sudetenland—a region of Czechoslovakia where many ethnic Germans lived.

Over the course of three meetings the British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain and Hitler settled on the Munich Agreement (see Source 8.1.2), which allowed Hitler to seize Sudetenland provided he did not invade Czechoslovakia. Despite the agreement, Hitler invaded Czechoslovakia in March 1939. In light of Hitler's false promises, Britain and France allied with Poland to deter Hitler from invading it. But German troops invaded Poland on 1 September 1939 and as a consequence Britain and France were at war against Germany.

Weakness of the League of Nations

After the end of World War I the League of Nations had been established to help keep world peace. However, it failed against the aggression of Germany, Italy and Japan.

Japan and Italy

In 1931, during the Great Depression, Japan, a country with few valuable natural resources, needed resources to aid its economy. The government, dominated by the military, decided to seize them. The Japanese army invaded Manchuria (north China), which was rich in iron, coal and farming lands. The League condemned Japan, which resulted in Japan resigning from the League and continuing its conquests. When Italy invaded Abyssinia (current-day Ethiopia) in 1935 the League of Nations again condemned the attack, but essentially did nothing. In 1937, needing more resources, Japan attacked China, slowly working down the coast to South-East Asia.

Reasons the League failed

The League of Nations failed partly because not all countries had joined—the most notable example being the United States. Russia and Germany were not even allowed to join at first. By leaving the League, Germany, Italy and Japan could continue their aggressive action. As the League also had no armed forces, it relied on nations to step into conflicts on its behalf and nations had neither the money nor the military power to do so. The only real action the League could take against another member was trade **embargo**, but as League members were still allowed to trade with non-member nations this was not particularly effective.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 What four factors led to World War II?
2 How did the Treaty of Versailles affect Germany?
3 How did the Great Depression help Hitler to come to power?
4 What documents established Germany, Italy and Japan as the Axis Powers?

Applying and analysing

5 Why did Britain and France follow a policy of appeasement towards Hitler?
6 Write a short paragraph explaining why the League of Nations could not stop conflict.

UNIT 8.2

Reasons for enlisting

Motives for enlistment

The reasons for and the rate of volunteering varied according to the perception of the urgency of the situation in relation to Australia. The highest rate of recruiting for the Second **AIF** (**Australian Imperial Force**) occurred after the German invasion of France in May 1940. A key event that saw a dramatic growth in enlistment was Japan's entry into the war in 1942. Despite increased enlistment, the urgent need for manpower even relaxed some prejudices. In 1941, a Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion was formed and sent overseas in 1943 to Dutch New Guinea.

Duty, nationalism and work

In post-war surveys, duty was the first and foremost reason men gave as their reason for enlisting (see Source 8.2.1). Nationalism or patriotism was also cited and loyalty to the British Empire rated after these reasons. In 1939, Australia's unemployment rate was nearly 9 per cent as a result of the Great Depression. Enlisting in the army provided many men with a job.

Adventure

Duty was seen as the moral incentive but overseas service also offered excitement. One soldier wrote that when his unit returned to Australia, they would 'tell of thier [sic] adventures to a very eager crowd'. The desire for adventure reflected the desire to break away from boring or unhappy civilian lives. Historian Gavin Long points out that for the young, inexperienced and largely uneducated men enlisting in the AIF, overseas travel and war were a 'great adventure'.

> *Perhaps the call to adventure was the greatest motivation for volunteers.*

Source 8.2.1 G. H. Fearnside an Infantry soldier in World War II

Although a sense of duty applied throughout the war years, enlistments fell slowly after 1943, when it was perceived that the danger of invasion from Japan had dissipated.

Source 8.2.2 Recruitment poster for the AIF, 1943, Australian War Memorial

Criteria for enlistment

The criteria to enlist in the AIF changed over the course of the war:

- 1939: age 20–35, with a minimum height of 5 feet 6 inches (167.6 centimetres)
- 1940: age 20–40, with a minimum height of 5 feet (152 centimetres)
- 1941: age 19–40, with no change to height regulations
- 1943: age 18–40, with no change to height regulations.

Some soldiers lied about their age in order to enlist. More than half the volunteer recruits for World War II were industrial labourers and clerical staff. This was despite the image many had of the Australian soldier as a man from the land with a resourceful nature and many bush skills.

The typical soldier

The archetypical Australian enlisting for service in the AIF was likely to be white (from 1940, Indigenous Australians were rejected by the Defence Act, which excluded 'full-blooded Aborigines'); Australian born (in keeping with the ethnicity of most white Australians at this time); aged in their 20s (reflecting the large number of very young men); of good health; medium to tall; with a school-leaving age of 14; and originally a manual worker.

The RAAF was seen as the glamour service and enlistments featured a higher number of educated men (see Source 8.2.3).

Source 8.2.3 An RAAF recruitment poster, 1940, Australian War Memorial

Indigenous Australians' motivations

Indigenous service also reflected a sense of duty to protect Australia although there was the attraction of being treated and paid as an equal with non-Indigenous soldiers. Participation, both official and unofficial, as coast watchers spotting Japanese troop, ship and aircraft movements to relay back to authorities was strong among Aboriginal People along northern Australia's threatened coasts.

Manpower regulations

During the course of the war certain occupations were classified as reserved occupations. People employed in these industries could not enlist because their occupations were deemed to be too important. Occupations that fell under this category were medical practitioners and certain types of miners and engineers essential for the supply of equipment for the war.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Describe the archetype of the average man enlisting in the AIF.
2. Which arm of the defence forces was seen as the most desirable? Why do you think this was the case?
3. Why did Aboriginal People enlist in the AIF?
4. What were the most significant motives for men to enlist?

Assessing and analysing

5. Draw a timeline of the rates of enlisting. Include specific events that affected enlistment.
6. Study Sources 8.2.2 and 8.2.3.
   a. Describe the similarities and differences of each recruitment poster.
   b. Explain why you think the differences exist.

UNIT 8.3

Where Australians fought

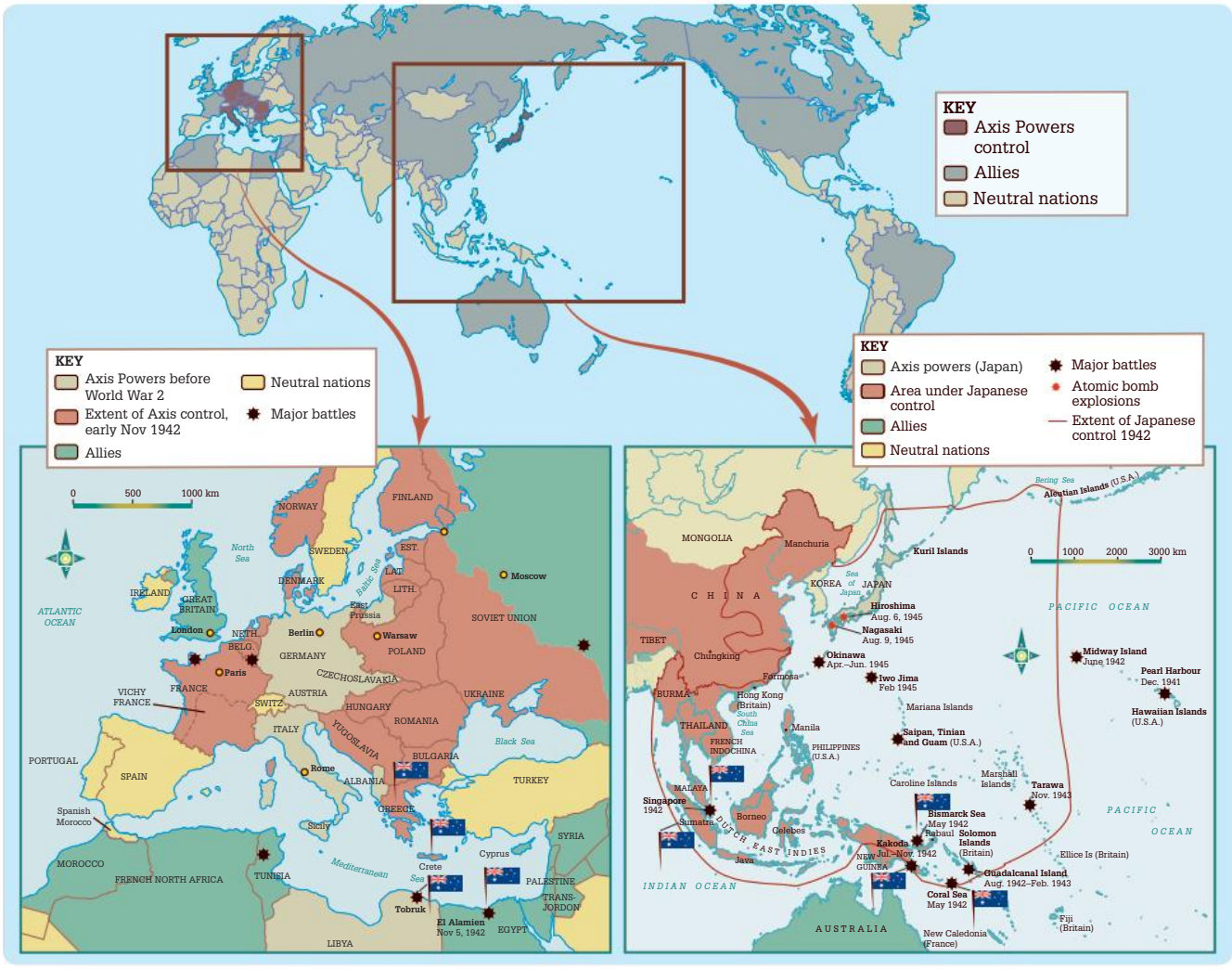
Australian Infantry Force

The different divisions of the AIF fought around the following regions:

- 6th Division: North Africa (Tobruk), Greece and Crete in the Mediterranean Sea, New Guinea/ Pacific (see Source 8.3.2)
- 7th Division: Syria, Lebanon and New Guinea/ Pacific
- 9th Division: Egypt (Battles of El Alamein)
- 8th Division: served with British and Commonwealth forces defending Malaya and Singapore; after Singapore fell in 1942, they were captured and became prisoners of war.

With Japan's victory in Singapore, the Australian government, population and military assumed a Japanese invasion was imminent. The 6th and 7th Divisions were ordered to return and defend Australia by the Prime Minister John Curtin, despite British Prime Minister Churchill's objections.

Source 8.3.1 Different locations of Australian troops



Source 8.3.2 Australian troops were besieged in 1941 in Tobruk, North Africa, refusing to surrender against the German Afrika Korps. They were nicknamed the 'Rats of Tobruk'. Australian War Memorial

The Commonwealth Militia Force

Two Commonwealth Militia Forces (CMF) were sent to New Guinea to defend Port Moresby from the Japanese. The CMF was poorly armed and trained, and it was not intended that they serve overseas. However, they were the only Australian troops in New Guinea until the 6th and 7th Divisions returned from Europe and North Africa.

Royal Australian Navy

The Royal Australian Navy (RAN) served initially in the Mediterranean where the cruisers *Sydney* (later sunk by the Germans in 1941) and *Perth*, with RAN destroyers, regularly fought the Italian navy. All of the RAN's ships in the Mediterranean were later withdrawn to the Pacific and Indian oceans where they served either with the British Fleet to protect convoys or supported American operations, notably in the Battle of the Coral Sea and the Asia-Pacific region.

Royal Australian Air Force

The Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) units and squadrons aided British and US forces over the oceans around South East Asia, flew from coastal airfields in Britain to attack German forces off Norway, and bombed Japanese shipping and submarines along the northern coasts of Australia. The RAAF also flew many missions in support of British operations in North Africa and RAAF units remained in the Middle East for the duration of the war. Hundreds of Australians also flew with British Royal Air Force (RAF) units in Britain, India and Burma as part of the RAF's Commonwealth squadrons.

Attacks on Australia

In 1942, the Japanese attacked the northern coasts of Australia. Darwin was bombed in February 1942, with more raids occurring in April, June, July and November of that year, and in March 1943. The last raid occurred in November 1943. Towns in northern Queensland and Western Australia were also bombed during the same time period. In May 1942, Sydney was attacked by midget Japanese submarines and shelled by another submarine.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. List the major locations where Australian forces fought around the world.
2. What happened to the 8th Division for most of the war?

Applying and analysing

3. Create a timeline of events from 1939 to 1945.
4. Study Source 8.3.2. Identify the conditions of the Battle of Tobruk.
5. Identify the key decisions the Prime Minister John Curtin and the Australian government made in 1942. Why did they make these decisions?

UNIT 8.4

Impact of the aeroplane

Use of air power in war

Aeroplanes provided a long-distance attack on infrastructure and other targets that artillery could never reach. The aeroplane also provided valuable reconnaissance ability as it provided a way of to looking at an enemy's movements, ships, military build up or weaknesses, and permitted fast attacks and defence movements.

The weapons of air power

Bombers were large planes holding many bombs of varying size (see Source 8.4.1). They could fly great distances and drop their bombs in different ways for different effects. Targets were almost always vulnerable to aircraft attack—even warships at sea. To fight the bomber, it was necessary to build fighter planes that were heavily armed with multiple machine guns with which to shoot down the bomber either (preferably) before or after bombs were dropped.

Effects of aerial bombing

Aerial reconnaissance as well as aerial attack meant that military success now depended enormously on air power superiority over the enemy. At the Battle of the Coral Sea in 1942, the two fleets never saw each other—all attacks were delivered by air.

Air power was not just an additional weapon but became the paramount weapon of war. In early 1945 Dresden, a city in Eastern Germany, had a dramatic increase in its population of 750 000 people because of refugees fleeing the Eastern Front. Between February 13 and 14, Allied bombers dropped approximately 4500 tons of high explosives and incendiary bombs on the city. The bombs devastated an area of around 34 square kilometres. An estimated 35 000 to 135 ,000 people were killed; the true figure has never been known due to the unspecified number of refugees in the city.

On a single night in March 1945, an estimated 100 000 people were killed and 41 square kilometres of the city destroyed during the firebombing of Tokyo.

Source 8.4.1 The Lancaster bomber, Australian War Memorial

Use of air power by Hitler

Hitler had devised the Blitzkrieg tactic using air power to paralyse an enemy before sending in swift ground forces to destroy them. Bombers destroyed rail junctions, communications centres, fuel supplies, trains, military headquarters and other key targets to prevent the enemy from transporting and communicating with its own forces. This tactic worked extremely well in Europe where distances were relatively short to fly and few nations had enough advanced fighters to prevent the German bombers from attacking at will.

Use of air power by Japan

In the Pacific Japan had, for a short time, the best air force. The Japanese had recognised the power of bombing and how it could destroy battleships. Like other nations at that time, Japan had developed its own aircraft carrier—a ship that was essentially a floating airport and storehouse of bombers and fighters. In their attack on Pearl Harbor, the Japanese sailed six aircraft carriers to Hawaii and launched 353 bombers, torpedo planes and fighters in two waves to sink or damage the American Pacific fleet, in particular the American aircraft carriers.

Despite sinking or damaging eight US Navy battleships and eleven other major naval vessels, and killing 2402 Americans, the Japanese Admiral Yamamoto (who had planned the attack) later lamented the attack was not a complete success because it did not destroy the US aircraft carriers absent from Pearl Harbor that day—a recognition that destruction of US air power was crucial to the success of Japan in World War II. In 1941, when Japan entered the war, the RAAF did not have at its disposal a single fighter aircraft it could use to defend Australia. In response, the Commonwealth Aircraft Corporation (CAC) was organised to design and build an aircraft that would be an interim response. In February 1942, the Australian Boomerang was delivered (see Source 8.4.3). The Boomerang flew missions in New Guinea, the Solomon Islands and Borneo but was later replaced by Spitfires and Kittyhawks.

Source 8.4.3 The CAC Boomerang was the only Australian-designed and built fighter plane.

Source 8.4.2 The bombing by Japanese carrier-borne aircraft on 19 February 1942 caused devastation to Darwin as it had at Pearl Harbor in December 1941, Northern Territory Library.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What aircraft was designed and built by the Australian government for the Pacific War?
2. Describe the Battle of the Coral Sea.
3. What was the role of fighter aircraft?

Applying and analysing

4. Why was controlling the air vital to controlling the ground? Provide examples for the war in Europe and the Pacific.
5. Explain why Pearl Harbor was ultimately a failure for the Japanese.
6. What is the *Blitzkrieg* tactic? Explain why it was successful.

Source Study

UNIT 8.5

The fall of Singapore

Defending the island

Singapore was the key to the British defence strategy in the Asia-Pacific region. It was also a naval base Britain created as the leading naval power in the Asia-Pacific region.

The troops

In 1941, British and allied troops flooded into Malaya and Singapore to protect the peninsula and island. A total of 130 000 soldiers from Britain, India, Australia, Malaya and Singapore dwarfed the 60 000 to 65 000 Japanese advancing on them. The AIF 8th Division was also protecting Australia from the southern march of the Japanese.

Air power

The defence of Singapore required many weapons and a great deal of ammunition. In particular, it needed between 350 and 550 aircraft. This number of aircraft never eventuated and much of what was there, an estimated 150 aircraft, was antiquated. Despite the best efforts of the pilots, including three squadrons of the RAAF, Singapore's defences and the city itself was bombed by Japanese air power.

Source 8.5.1 Signing of the surrender in Singapore February 1942. Lithograph of a Japanese painting showing General Percival second; General Yamashita is opposite him. Australian War Memorial

There must be no thought of sparing the troops or population; commanders and senior officers should die with their troops. The honour of the British Empire and the British Army is at stake.

Source 8.5.2 Sir Winston Churchill sent this telegram to the troops defending Singapore on 10 February 1942

Underestimating the enemy

The local press [British in Malaya], by consistently disparaging the quality of the enemy's air force, and otherwise showing a poor opinion of his general efficiency, helped to build up a dangerously complacent attitude and in Malaya ease and complacency flourish without outside assistance.

Source 8.5.3 Extract from a British report on the fall of Singapore, 1942

Promised air parity [equality with Japanese air power] in January! Continual vague talk of counteroffensive which never happened, presumably because the Japs retained the initiative and we continued to conform to his movements ... Why were beach defences not prepared? They may have been in some parts; there certainly was not as much as a strand of wire or a trench on the North East.

Source 8.5.4 Extract from a report by an officer who escaped Singapore, 1942

Source 8.5.6 Mealtime on the Burma Railway, drawing by Murray Griffin, POW, 1943, Australian War Memorial

The British military in Singapore had been over confident, believing they would easily defeat any Japanese attack. On 10 December 1941, two British warships—the battleship *Prince of Wales* and the battle cruiser *Repulse* had gone to the Malay coast where the Japanese had landed. But the British RAF had lost nearly all its aircraft in Japanese attacks on Singapore by 9 December 1941, just two days after Pearl Harbor. Without RAF protection from Singapore, both ships were sunk by Japanese aerial torpedo bombers.

The attack on Singapore

The Japanese did what the British least expected and:

- did not attack by sea as anticipated
- came through Malaya not Singapore

Source 8.5.5 Japanese POW camps across South-East Asia

- entered the jungle which the British thought impenetrable and so were able to bypass British defences blocking roads
- advanced with great speed using light tanks and soldiers on bicycles and the British had no time to reorganise defences.

When the British and allied troops retreated to Singapore island:

- beach defences had not been built so defenders were not protected and there were no obstacles to a Japanese landing
- the Japanese air force bombed key defence points and infrastructure.

With the water supply running low, constant bombing and little or no anti-aircraft ammunition, General Percival (overall commander) surrendered to General Yamashita on 15 February 1942.

Prisoners of war

All troops captured at Singapore, many tens of thousands of British, Indian, Malay and Singaporean troops and 22 000 Australians became Japanese prisoners of war (POW). They were sent mainly to Changi POW camp in Singapore where they suffered terrible treatment.

Japanese Imperial Army soldiers had been taught with ***Bushido*** beliefs that an enemy who surrendered dishonoured their country and family. As a result, allied prisoners received whatever treatment the Japanese thought fit to give. Japan had not signed the Geneva Convention on POW treatment, which detailed the standard of humane treatment expected for prisoners. POWs lived a life of work, beatings and torture, were deprived of food and medical attention, and suffered arbitrary death.

Source 8.5.7 Changi, c. 1945, State Library of Victoria

Source 8.5.8 An Australian prisoner of war showing the effects of malnutrition while working on the Burma Railway, 1945, Australian War memorial.

Changi POW camp

Changi was a collection of British Army barracks and a small civilian prison spread across several sites. The Changi complex held as many as 70 000 POWs, usually with five men in a room originally built for one person. The harsh conditions also caused illnesses such as malaria, beriberi, dysentery and infections from wounds, which increased the death rate among the prisoners. Coupled with the terrible treatment they received and despite their physical condition, POWs were forced to work for food and groups of POWs at Changi were constantly sent to other camps in the Japanese-occupied areas to work. Failure to work to a Japanese soldier's satisfaction meant beatings at the very least. Disrespect often resulted in torture and brutal death such as beheading.

Thai–Burma Railway

Prisoners gave their guards inventive nicknames: 'The Boy Bastard', 'The Boy Bastard's Cobber', 'Fishface', 'Poxy Paws', 'Babe Ruth', 'Gold Tooth', 'Paddle Feet', 'The Snake', 'Modern Girl', 'The Spitting Gunso', 'The Boy Shoko', 'The Black Bomber', 'Maggot', 'Boofhead', 'Snake Eyes', 'Charlie Chaplin', 'Barrel Guts', 'Wire Whiskers', 'Tom Mix', 'Cookhouse', 'Foghorn', 'Woof Woof'.

Source 8.5.9 Nicknames given to Japanese guards by the Australian POWs. Nicknames remained one of the few ways prisoners could retaliate against men who controlled their lives.

In 1943, Japan's military needed to supply its troops who were fighting the Allies in Burma so decided to build a railway to link Thailand with Burma. About 60 000 Allied POWs and 200 000 Asian labourers were forced to build 420 kilometres of track by hand through dense jungle. Constant physical labour, lack of food and the unhealthy tropical environment caused the deaths of at least 2800 Australians, as well as more than 11 000 Allied prisoners and perhaps 75 000 Asian workers. Amid the suffering and death, individuals such as Weary Dunlop—a courageous leader and compassionate surgeon—became famous for never giving up and always helping others.

ACTIVITIES

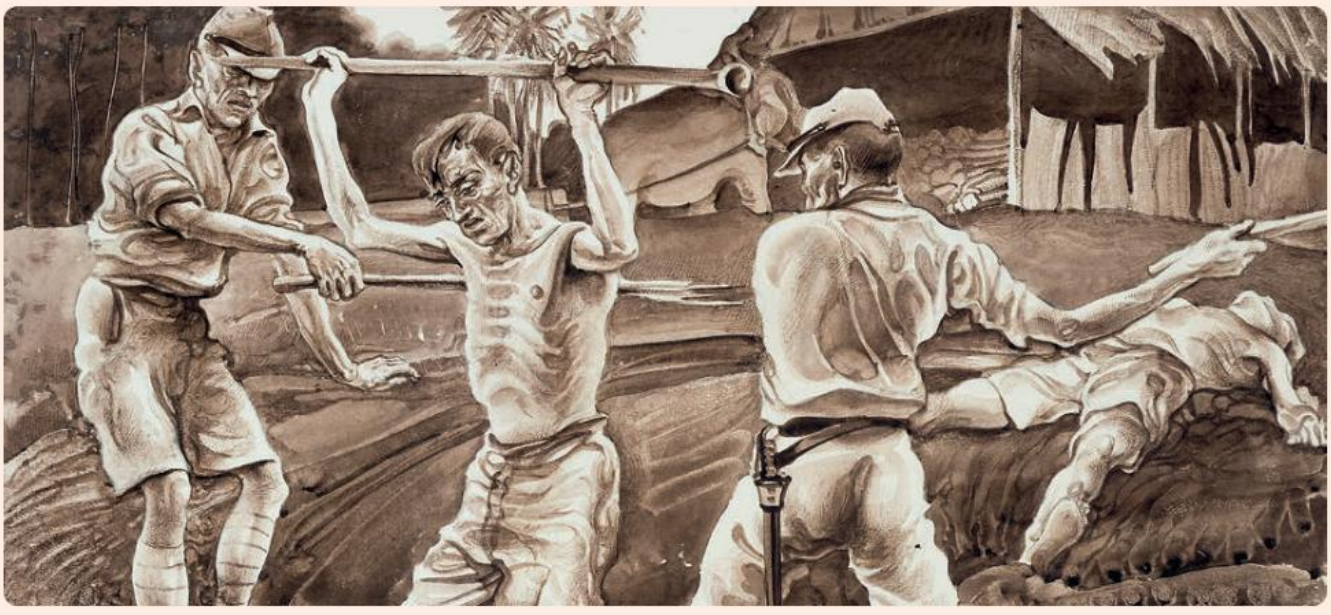
Remembering and understanding

1 Why didn't the British have sufficient aircraft protecting Singapore before the Japanese attack?
2 What tactics did the Japanese use to defeat the British in Malaya?

Applying and analysing

3 Study Source 8.5.1. What evidence can you find that helps prove the following assertions?
   a The British were deeply disappointed.
   b The Japanese were proud of their achievement in defeating the British.
4 Study Source 8.5.3.
   a What opinion did the British have of Japan's fighting ability?
   b How do you think this affected defence preparations?
5 Study Source 8.5.3.
   a What weaknesses in Singapore's planned defences are referred to by the writer?
   b Why do you think the state of the defences was as suggested by the writer?
6 Study Sources 8.5.6 and 8.5.8. What can you see in these images in relation to food deprivation, private belongings and comfort, climate effects and conditions encouraging disease?

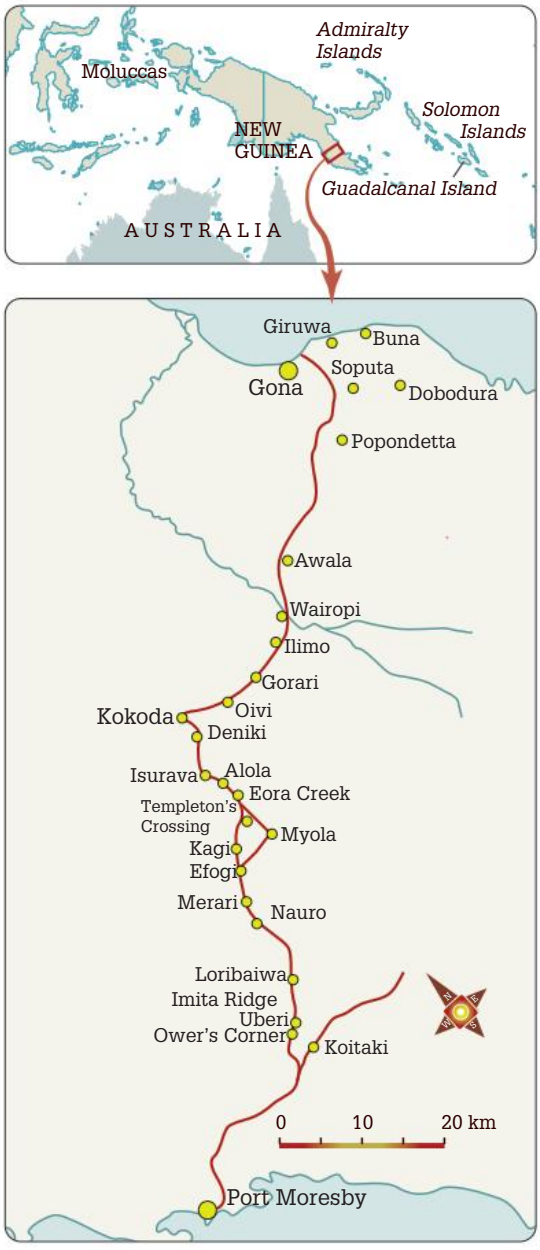
Source 8.5.10 An incident on the Burma railway, drawing by Murray Griffin, POW, 1946, Australian War Memorial



UNIT 8.6

The New Guinea campaign 1942

Source 8.6.1a Extent of Japanese occupied/conquered area in Pacific. Note the 'bump' in New Guinea where the airbase at Port Moresby was crucial to their security and ability to attack Australia.



Source 8.6.1b The Kokoda Track—the north–south route between Gona and Port Moresby

Japan advances

In 1942, Japan had a strategy to isolate Australia (not invade) from the United States. The Japanese conquered areas of the Pacific but there was a significant weakness around Papua New Guinea where Australia held Port Moresby—a crucial airport that threatened Japanese areas with possible aerial attack. If the Japanese took Port Moresby, they could fly bombers to attack locations in Australia as far away as Brisbane.

The Japanese navy had earlier tried to invade Port Moresby but had been turned back with major loss in the Battle of the Coral Sea in May 1942. With the loss of air power, the Japanese were forced to land troops, well-equipped with mountain artillery and machine guns, on the northern shore of New Guinea. The aim was to march over the Owen Stanley Range and capture Port Moresby.

Source 8.6.2 Members of 39th Battalion, CMF, parade after weeks of fighting in the Kokoda campaign, 1942, Australian War Memorial

Australia's response

Prime Minister Curtin had ordered the return of the 6th and 7th Divisions from the European and African war zones, but they were not due to arrive until after the Japanese had begun their march. The only troops remaining to Australia were the Civilian Military Force (CMF) or militia. A militia group called Maroubra Force, consisting of the 53rd and 39th CMF battalions, was sent to intercept the Japanese as early as possible along the Kokoda Track leading to Port Moresby. They met in the Kokoda area on 23 July 1942.

The CMF

In 1939, the government reintroduced conscription based on the *Defence Act 1903*, which allowed only for conscription for military service in Australia. Due to the direct threat to from Japan, there was little public outcry. All single men aged 21 were required to join the Citizens Military Force (the CMF) to prepare them for 'home defence' (see Source 8.6.2).

By late 1941, Japanese forces had begun moving south in the Pacific, taking territory and threatening Australia. This threat converted newly elected Labor Prime Minister John Curtin from an opponent of conscription to proponent. The next year, conscription to the CMF was extended to all men aged 21–35 and all single men aged 35–45. In February 1943 Curtin enacted the Defence (Citizen Military Forces) Act to expand the definition of 'home defence' to include a wider area of South East Asia so militia (conscripts) could defend Australia further afield.

In 1942, as the European war worsened, the total number of militia had reached more than 250 000 men. During 1939–1940, the keenest young men and some of the more experienced had volunteered for the AIF, lured by patriotic pride and expectations of adventure. The CMF, being largely conscripts, was therefore comparatively low on enthusiasm, skills and experience.

DID YOU KNOW?

Militia troops were derogatively referred to among AIF soldiers as 'chocos' (chocolate soldiers who melted under heat of battle) and 'koalas' (a protected species, which could not be shot or exported).

MILITIA UNITS FIGHT JAPS AT KOKODA—Enemy's Match in Jungle Warfare

SOMEWHERE IN AUSTRALIA Sun: Australian troops who have given such a good account of themselves in Jungle skirmishes around Kokoda are normally enlisted militia units. This can now be revealed following several weeks of stiff fighting, during which they have held up the advance of numerically superior Japanese forces, and inflicted heavy casualties in daring raids.

Source 8.6.3 Geoffrey Hutton, war correspondent, *The Argus,* 24 August 1942

Saturday 29 August, 1942—bullets everywhere—hell on earth amongst the clouds in the mountains.

Source 8.6.4 Extract from the diary of Private Stewart John Clarke 2/14 Battalion, describing the Kokoda Track

Kokoda Track fighting

The two CMF battalions numbered a total of 1600–1700 men and were vastly outnumbered by the attacking Japanese force, which was made up of 13 500 men with more troops still in Buna. The poorly trained and equipped CMF engaged in fighting retreats slowing the Japanese advance. Despite heavy losses, the CMF battalions repelled and evaded the Japanese force until the 7th Division arrived late in August. The commander of the Maroubra Force, Brigadier Arnold Potts, aided by Lieutenant-Colonel Ralph Honner, believed that the CMF would surely lose to the well-equipped, more numerous Japanese. However, they believed that a slow fighting retreat would at least force the Japanese to advance warily and slowly as they stopped to respond to Australian holding actions, and this would use up time.

The fighting conditions were extraordinarily difficult. The Owen Stanley Range consists of steep mountains that can rise to 4000 metres. Troops marched on steep slopes, usually covered in mud and jungle, at a terribly slow pace. Heat, humidity, vision obscured by dense jungle, malaria, frequent saturating rain, insects, mud, breathing difficulties at altitude, lack of food, lack of sleep, forever moving on, all added to the great danger of fighting a well-equipped and more numerous enemy which killed prisoners.

Victory on the Kokoda Track

By mid-September, the fight was now led by the returned 7th Division, which had quickly adapted to the jungle conditions, for example learning to dye their uniforms jungle green for camouflage. The 7th Division fought the Japanese advance to a standstill just outside Port Moresby by which time the Japanese supplies had been exhausted. Only around 5000 retreating Japanese soldiers survived to reach bases at Buna and Gona. In 1943, all Japanese soldiers were slowly, and with much bloodshed, ejected from New Guinea or killed. Famous battlefields on the northern New Guinea coast include Buna, Gona, Milne Bay and Sanananda.

Factors helping the Australians

The near impassable terrain prevented military transport of food, medicines and ammunition to the troops. The difference between the Australian and Japanese supply problem was the 'Biscuit Bomber'—planes dropping supplies by parachute. The Australian forces were thus advantaged because of aircraft, which was able to drop just enough supplies. The local population also supported them. They did not fight but acted as bearers of wounded soldiers and carried supplies to the Australians. Many soldiers owe their lives to the New Guineans who they called 'Fuzzy Wuzzy Angels'.

Source 8.6.5 Imita Ridge—the 'Golden Stairs', 1942. When climbing the stairs, soldiers had to lift their leg over logs and put their foot down on the step in what was frequently a puddle of mud and water up to 15 centimetres deep. Australian War Memorial

Source 8.6.6 The 25-pounder guns of B Troop, 14th Field Regiment, Royal Australian Artillery, being pulled through dense jungle in the vicinity of Uberi on the Kokoda Track, September 1942, Australian War Memorial

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why did the Japanese want to capture Port Moresby?
2. Explain why were there no regular AIF troops to help the CMF in July 1942.
3. What were the differences between the CMF and AIF?
4. Who began conscripting men for the CMF in 1939?
5. Where could the CMF be sent to fight after the change to legislation in 1943?

Applying and analysing

6. Construct a timeline of the events referred to in the unit. Label clearly as CMF, AIF, US and Japanese troops actions.
7. 'Armies march on their stomachs.' What relevance has this quote to the New Guinea campaign?
8. Study Source 8.6.3. Why can the skirmishes around Kokoda 'now be revealed'?
9. Do you think the AIF would have still called the CMF forces 'chocos' and 'koalas' at the end of the war? Explain.

UNIT 8.7

The Holocaust

Genocide

Genocide is the act or process used to kill an entire ethnic group or race. Throughout human history none has been as systematic and brutal as the **Holocaust** of World War II and the murder of more than six million people.

German anti-Semitism

Anti-Semitism or hostility against the Jews has been recorded back to ancient times and was not unique to Germany or Europe in the 1930s and 1940s. The Nazi Party came to power with a policy of making Germany great again after the humiliating defeat of World War I and part of this policy included creating a pure 'Aryan' or 'master race'. There was no place in the new Germany for racial, social or political enemies. This included Jews, Slavs, Sinta/Roma people (often referred to as gypsies), political dissidents, criminals and homosexuals.

Hitler's anti-Semitism

Adolf Hitler's anti-Semitism was outlined in his book *Mein Kampf*, which was published in two volumes in 1925 and 1926.

> *The Jewish way of reasoning thus becomes quite clear ... lusting after blood and money, the whole earth would become the prey of that hydra. Should Germany be freed from its grip, a great menace for the nations of the world would thereby be eliminated.*

Source 8.7.1 *Mein Kampf* by Adolf Hitler

> *My conduct is in accordance with the will of the Almighty Creator. In standing guard against the Jew I am defending the handiwork of the Lord.*

Source 8.7.2 *Mein Kampf* by Adolf Hitler

Germany 1933–1938

When the Nazi Party came into power in 1933 they increased propaganda against the Jews, blaming them for Germany's post-war economic problems. They then began to systematically take away the rights of Jews so that they:

- were banned from working in the government
- had their shops and businesses boycotted
- had the right to vote removed
- had their German citizenship revoked
- were banned from the army
- were banned from marrying non-Jews
- were expelled from German schools.

Germany 1938–1941

From 1938 the Nazi authorities encouraged violent mobs to attack Jews. This violence culminated in *Kristallnacht* or the 'night of broken glass' when at least 7000 Jewish-owned businesses were destroyed and 1688 synagogues were destroyed. During this period, Jews were forced to live in certain areas of the city in ghettos and the number of Jews sent to **concentration camps** increased. From 1941 all Jews had to wear the Star of David on their clothing.

The 'final solution'

In 1941, Germany controlled Poland, the Baltic States and Byelorussia. In these territories there were an estimated 4.3 million Jews. German Waffen-SS units began their systematic murdering. In 1942, the Wannsee Conference held in Berlin sought a 'final solution to the Jewish problem'. The solution was deportation or extermination of all Jews from German-occupied territories.

Concentration camps

The term 'concentration camp' describes the prison camps created by the Nazis. Concentration camps, or death/extermination camps were specially designed killing centres. Every type of camp experienced death on a daily basis. When Jews, criminals and others were rounded up, the most physically able were housed in

labour camps as a holding centre before going out to work each day in the local area. The majority of these workers died of starvation. The SS operated the most important killing centres. Both SS men and women beat victims regularly, even to death, in order to get more work from them.

Systematic death

Starvation and brutality were features of every type of camp. The brutality started before victims even arrived. From the moment of identification, victims were herded (with violence) into ghettos or other holding centres awaiting further 'processing'. When 'ready', the German authorities herded victims onto transport, usually cattle trains. Conditions on the trains were crowded, with people forced to stand up without water or food for days before arriving at the concentration camps (see Source 8.7.3). Then they undressed, apparently for showers, and entered special buildings in large naked groups. The doors were locked and Zyklon B gas pellets dropped onto the floor. This was the systematic and shocking end for millions of victims (see Source 8.7.4). Before this mechanised system was fully developed or if the victims were far from these special-purpose centres, mass shootings were the norm and bodies were burned and buried in common graves.

Source 8.7.3 Jewish women and children on their way to their deaths at Auschwitz, Yad Vashem Photo Archive

Source 8.7.4 Czesława Kwoka, age 14, went to Auschwitz with her mother. Within three months, both were dead. Wilhelm Brasse, the photographer (and fellow prisoner) recalled: 'She was so young and so terrified … She cried but she could do nothing.', Auschwitz_Birkenau Museum

Concentration camps liberated

As the Allies invaded German-occupied areas between 1944 and 1945, they liberated the concentration camps. In many of the camps, the German guards tried to destroy evidence of their crimes by quickly shooting the remaining prisoners or burning them alive while locked in their sleeping quarters. In many cases, Allied officers forced captured SS and Gestapo to load bodies onto trucks or perform other tasks they had ordered prisoners to do.

Nuremberg Trials

At the end of the war the Allies held a war crimes tribunal in the German city of Nuremberg from1945 to 1947. Many German officers were executed for their crimes.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'genocide'.
2. In what document did Hitler first reveal his hatred of Jews?
3. Which group supervised the operation of the 'final solution'?

Applying and analysing

4. Explain how Hitler and the Nazis were able to take away the rights of Jewish people in Germany.
5. What other groups of people were also killed?
6. Why do you think these other groups were targeted?

UNIT 8.8

Atomic warfare

Manhattan Project

In 1939, President Roosevelt established the Advisory Committee on Uranium, which was charged with determining whether the creation of a nuclear fission weapon was possible. The committee confirmed the possibility and the president made the decision to commence production of atomic bombs. In September 1942 this secret work, codenamed the Manhattan Project, commenced.

By 1943, there were more than 100 000 scientists, engineers and clerks spread across the United States who were working on the Manhattan Project. In July 1945, the first atomic bomb was tested successfully in New Mexico.

Now I am become Death, the destroyer of worlds.

Source 8.8.1 J. Robert Oppenheimer (chief scientist on the Manhattan Project) after viewing the atomic bomb test at Los Alamos 1945

The end of the war in Asia

In July 1945, Japan refused to surrender unconditionally. Soon after, President Truman stated that an atomic bomb was the only way to end World War II quickly and force Japan's unconditional surrender with minimal bloodshed.

On 6 August 1945, an atomic bomb, dropped by US B-29 bomber *Enola Gay*, destroyed Hiroshima, Japan (see Source 8.8.2). An estimated 80 000 people were killed instantly. Three days later, the B-29 *Bockscar* released a second atomic bomb on Nagasaki and approximately 50 000 people were killed.

Long-term effects of the bomb

By 1950, it is estimated that another 200 000 people had died as a result of radiation poisoning and related causes. These two bombs represent the only nuclear attack in history.

Six days after the second atomic bomb had been dropped on Nagasaki, Japan surrendered. The horrific effects on the bombs' victims shocked observers, who described cities reduced to ash and watched terribly injured people just waiting to die. The development and use of nuclear weaponry hailed a new era in war.

Divided opinions

The ethics of the decision to use atomic bombs in World War II continues to divide academics and society in general. The shocking effects, both immediate and long term, on the civilian population (including children, families and Korean forced labourers) conflicts with the belief of many that war should target 'those responsible'. Others argue that the war, if fought conventionally, would have inflicted a great number of deaths both in Japan and America. However, a number of historians discount this as the President Truman's main motivation in using nuclear weaponry. Other motives put forward by these historians include the desire to assert power over communist Russia, show strength in the domestic political arena, satisfy scientific curiosity and justify the immense expenditure on the research and development of the bombs.

The nature of an atomic explosion

The bomb that destroyed Hiroshima was called 'Little Boy'. Experts suggest it had 13–16 kilotons of TNT in destructive power. In turn, the Nagasaki bomb had about 21–23 kilotons of TNT and was called 'Fat Man'. As a reference, 1 megaton of TNT is enough energy to power an average household for more than 100 000 years (1000 megatons = 1 kiloton).

The atomic explosions created waves or blasts of high pressure that killed people instantly, as well as blowing apart buildings and structures. In Hiroshima, steel-framed buildings 4 kilometres away from the centre of the blast were destroyed. Resultant flying debris caused further death and injury.

Source 8.8.2 A view of the devastation caused by the atomic bomb that was dropped on Hiroshima in Japan on 6 August 1945

In the first few milliseconds of an atomic blast, a wave of UV radiation is released that can raise the temperature on a person's skin by 50 degrees, even when they are nearly 4 kilometres away. This flash radiation would have instantly killed people and set fire to flammable materials in the area.

The blasts also emitted gamma rays and neutrons, causing radiation injury and illness. Even if not immediately deadly to people in the area, they caused many deaths as a result of organ failure, internal bleeding and cancer in the succeeding months.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 What were the names of the planes that dropped the atomic bombs on human targets?
2 Why did President Truman believe it was necessary to drop atomic bombs on Hiroshima?

Applying and analysing

3 Discuss the arguments for and against dropping the atomic bombs on Japan.
4 Study Source 8.8.2. Describe the scene.

UNIT 8.9

Propaganda, censorship and enemy 'aliens'

Source 8.9.1 Propaganda poster of World War II, 1943, Australian War Memorial

Propaganda in Australia

In World War II Australia, propaganda was formalised in the Department of Information created by the Australian government's *National Security Act 1939*, and guided by the Director-General of Information, Keith Murdoch. The department produced propaganda in the form of posters, news articles, radio programs and films shown before movies.

Propaganda exaggerated positive events, actions and thoughts while negative events and actions were minimised or ignored. This extended to oversimplification of difficult issues and hyperbole in place of reporting. Propaganda also manipulated the public using emotion and fear. In the early stages of the war, propaganda vilified the Germans and Italians. When the Japanese entered the conflict and Australia was directly threatened the propaganda escalated to new levels, and the Japanese were vilified to the point of stereotype and racism (see Source 8.9.1).

Censorship in Australia

During World War II, the Australian government amended the National Security Act so that radio, film and all printed materials could be regulated. The Department of Information was granted significant powers to withhold or release information to the public. The government even had the power to force newspapers to print the government's 'view' on issues.

The government used these powers to suppress information that might cause panic among the public or turn public support against the war effort. For example, the government tried to conceal the knowledge that Australia was ill-equipped for war and largely isolated from its Allies. A specific example of censorship occurred when Melbourne's newspaper, *The Argus*, wrote about two air raids on Darwin on 21 February 1942. The headline read: '17 killed in raids on Darwin: 6 enemy planes shot down'. In reality, almost 250 people had died. It was argued that this downplaying of negative news prevented alarm in Australian society.

The department also had the power to censor soldiers' letters. The government read private letters and could remove any information considered sensitive to the military effort (see Source 8.9.2). Telephone calls were also monitored and could be cut at any point.

Source 8.9.2 Poster urging people to be careful not to discuss military information in private letters, 1943, Australian War Memorial

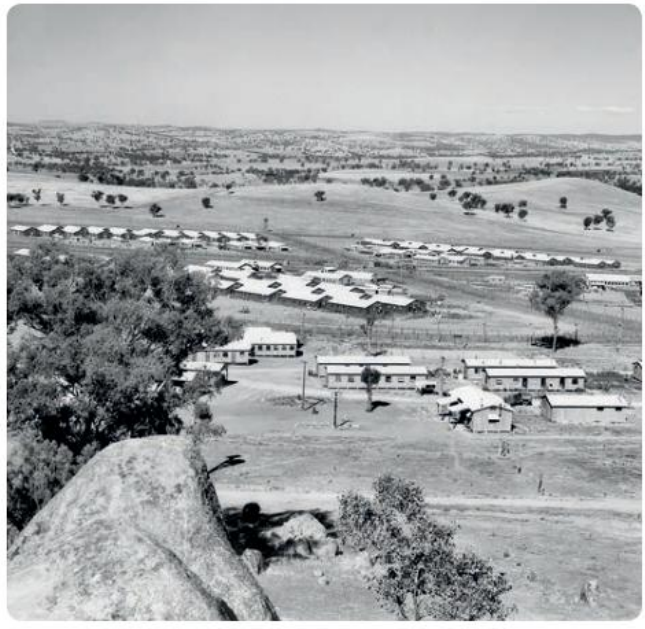
'Enemy aliens'

With the coming of the war, nationals of countries at war with Australia were deemed 'enemy aliens'. As soon as war was declared in 1939, more than 1000 German men were arrested and interned in special camps for the rest of the war. When Italy entered the war, thousands of resident Italians were also interned. Similarly, Japanese nationals were later detained. During the war, as many as 7000 Australian residents were held in **internment camps** across Australia and approximately 8000 people were sent to Australia to be interned. The camps were generally located away from major cities to ensure that the 'spies' were isolated from the enemy.

Well-known large camps across Australia included:

- Enoggera, Queensland
- Harvey, Western Australia
- Hay, New South Wales
- Holsworthy, New South Wales
- Loveday, South Australia
- Rottnest Island, Western Australia
- Tatura/Rushworth, Victoria
- Cowra, New South Wales (see Source 8.9.3).

Internment camps varied in standard. In many camps the internees grew fruit trees and tended vegetable gardens. At first, however, camps were often hastily built and bare of all but accommodation buildings. Cowra camp saw the unsuccessful revolt of the Japanese, a large majority of whom were POWs, in the Cowra Breakout on 5 August 1944. During the breakout a total of 231 Japanese and four Australian soldiers were killed.



Source 8.9.3 Internment camp, Cowra, New South Wales, 1944, Australian War Memorial

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What government legislation created a department for censorship?
2. Why do you think 'enemy aliens' were kept in camps far from main cities?
3. Discuss the reasons the government censored the real details about the raid on Darwin?

Applying and analysing

4. Study Source 8.9.1. Describe how the enemy is shown. How would this make people feel?
5. Do you think censorship during the war was appropriate? Explain.

UNIT 8.10

Australian women in World War II

New opportunities

World War II saw major growth in the role and status of women. As men went to war and jobs became vacant, women became the main source of labour. By taking on roles as radio operators, mechanics clerks and farmers, women broke free of the home and their traditional roles (see Source 8.10.1).

New roles for women

As men left for military service, women did both paid and unpaid work in both military and commercial spheres. They were trained for highly skilled positions such as radar operators and intelligence analysts, transport roles such as drivers and pilots, service roles such as cooks and nurses, and labour roles such as farmers and mechanics. Their places of work varied from production lines to shipyards, offices, airfields and farms, and their tasks varied from sewing uniforms to nursing injured soldiers, answering telephones and building aircraft.

At the beginning of the war, women's pay was as low as 54 per cent of the men's rate. By the war's end, this had risen to approximately 70 per cent, and in jobs that had traditionally been male only the rate had risen to as high as 90 per cent of the men's rate.

Source 8.10.1 Six women workers representing the WRANS, AWAS, WAAAF, AWLA, AAMWS and a munitions worker on a wartime poster. The poster aimed to encourage women to help the war effort. Australian War Memorial

Female POWs

Women were not permitted to serve in battle; however, approximately 3500 Australian military nurses served in battle zones. A number of these women became POWs in Singapore and Japan among other places. Their accounts, like those of the men, reveal the inhumane treatment they received as prisoners of the Japanese, including lack of food and filthy conditions.

> *They felt, I think, that if we didn't eat we might die and that'd be a jolly good idea.*

Source 8.10.2 Military nurse Florence Syer talking about her time in a Japanese POW camp

The varied role of women in war

Women with families also had significant new roles to fill at home. They continued to perform their traditional tasks of cooking, cleaning and caring for children. They also had to manage the finances and the additional difficulties of rationing and, often, smaller incomes.

Women's organisations

The Federal Government organised women into groups to support key military needs. The following organisations were officially sanctioned and promoted as suitable for women in Australia during World War II.

Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force

The Women's Auxiliary Australian Air Force (WAAAF) was formed in March 1941. Women performed most air force roles, including skilled technical work as signallers, pilots and mechanics, intelligence work and service roles such as cooks

Source 8.10.3 WAAAF members cleaning and overhauling a RAAF plane, 1945, Australian War Memorial

and stewardesses, making up 10 per cent of RAAF ground staff. More than 18 000 women were serving by October 1944 and, in total, 27 000 enlisted during the war (see Source 8.10.3).

Australian Women's Army Service

The Australian Women's Army Service (AWAS) was formed in August 1941. Women who enlisted were required to be single and between 18 and 45 years of age. They performed skilled technical work as telecommunications officers and mechanics, did administration work and filled service roles as cooks and support staff. Approximately 20 000 members were serving by January 1944 and, in total, more than 24 000 women joined the service during the war. Members served with the Royal Australian Artillery, helping in Fixed Defence positions, for example operating anti-aircraft gun radars and searchlights. They also served overseas towards the end of the war, with 350 of their members in New Guinea.

Women's Royal Australian Naval Service

The Women's Royal Australian Naval Service (WRANS) was officially formed in October 1942 although training had begun in April of that year. Most members took on work as telegraphists, clerks, drivers, cooks, stewardesses and orderlies, but some had roles as technical specialists involved in classified work. Approximately 3000 women served over the course of the war.

Australian Women's Land Army

The Australian Women's Land Army (AWLA) was formed in July 1942. Members enrolled full time for twelve months or as temporary members to assist during peak periods. More than 2000 permanent members and 1000 auxiliaries were serving by December 1943. Women performed roles in all aspects of agricultural life, and were therefore crucial to food production. The land army was a civilian organisation (government plans to make the AWLA a fourth women's military service did not eventuate before the war ended) and members were paid by the farmers who employed them, not the government. Many women worked on family farms outside the AWLA, as women already working or living on a farm were not eligible to become members.

Australian Army Medical Women's Service

The Australian Army Medical Women's Service (AAMWS) was formed in 1942. Most women were from the Red Cross or St John Ambulance volunteers. More that 8500 women served as nurses, nurse's aides and technicians in military hospitals in Australia and overseas.

Women after World War II

Immediately following the end of the war, many women had to return to their former roles as wives and mothers. The government aimed to support returning servicemen to take up their former employment. However, the wartime experience and responsibilities of women, whether in government, or business was still deeply valued. And for some businesses, retaining skilled and experienced women on staff was an advantage—especially as women were still cheaper to pay.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Explain how women helped the Australian Defence Forces (army, air force and navy).
2. Why were some women caught by the enemy when they were not allowed into battle zones?
3. Why did some businesses think it was an advantage to hire women rather than men after the end of the war?

Applying and analysing

4. How were women's lives affected by working in income-producing occupations?
5. Discuss how the war changed the life of working women.

UNIT 8.11

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People in World War II

Volunteering to fight

Despite being banned from joining the armed forces, many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men still volunteered, fought and died for Australia during World War II. Aboriginal women also joined the four women's services. Many Aboriginal men who did not enlist instead worked for the military in other roles. World War II allowed Aboriginal Australians to receive wages and education, and to make social contacts they had no access to previously.

> *There was a job to be done ... all of a sudden the colour line disappeared.*

Source 8.11.1 Oodgeroo Noonucal (formerly known as Kath Walker), poet and AWAS signaller (a number of Aboriginal women also joined the four women's services)

More than 3000 Aboriginal Australians served in the AIF, CMF, RAAF and RAN (see Source 8.11.2). To avoid the restriction against their enlistment at the beginning of the war, some men concealed their backgrounds. More than 3000 Aboriginal men who did not enlist worked observing the coastlines, watching for Japanese ship and aircraft movements.

Special military units in the north of Australia were set up to employ these men.

- North Australia Observer Unit (NAOU) soldiers were also known as 'Nackeroos'. They patrolled northern Australia from the Kimberley to the Gulf of Carpentaria, watching out for Japanese landings.
- Torres Strait Force was a military command unit, equipped by the RAN, which patrolled the Torres Strait shipping route. Soldiers received one third of non-Indigenous soldiers' pay.
- Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion, formed in 1941, was the only Indigenous battalion in Australian history. Nearly every Torres Strait Islander male enlisted. Initially patrolling the Northern Territory to protect the Torres Strait, the group trained as a military unit and became an official battalion in 1943. They were initially paid only one-third the rate of non-Indigenous soldiers although their pay was raised somewhat after a strike in late 1943.
- Northern Territory Special Reconnaissance Unit mainly comprised Yolngu men from Yirrkala lands. The unit patrolled Darwin and East Arnhem Land and the men were paid in tobacco, pipes and fishing equipment.

Source 8.11.2 Indigenous volunteers in the Australian Military Forces (**AMF**) at Wangaratta, 1945, Australian War Memorial

Source 8.11.3 Sergeant Leonard Waters, 78 Squadron, RAAF, possibly in the cockpit of his P40 fighter plane, *Black Magic*, 1945, Australian War Memorial

Treatment in service

Aboriginal Australians employed in the unofficial military units received low wages and were subject to continued discrimination and social isolation. Those enrolled in the official military forces (the militia, AIF, RAAF and RAN) received pay equal to that of non-Indigenous enlistees. Most were treated with respect within their own units, although there were cases of discrimination, usually from people outside of their units. On returning to civilian life, Aboriginal Australians were usually not recognised for their efforts. They were not eligible for veteran benefits (including land allotments) received by non-Indigenous servicemen, and generally they returned to the same treatment they had experienced pre-war. Today, World War II Aboriginal servicemen and women march proudly on Anzac Day.

Leonard (Len) Waters

Leonard (Len) Waters, shown in Source 8.11.3, was born at Euraba Mission, New South Wales, in 1924. In August 1942, Waters joined the RAAF, first working as a ground staffer. He then trained as an aircraft mechanic, and in 1943 began training as a pilot. He finished fourth in his course. Waters was posted to Noemffer Island, western New Guinea, as a pilot. In his Kittyhawk fighter, *Black Magic*, he made more than ninety sweeps and attacks in service, and was promoted to Flight Sergeant in January 1945. Waters is the only known Aboriginal pilot in World War II.

Civilian Aboriginal and Torres Strait Island labour

Northern Australia was a hive of activity during World War II. Directly threatened by the Japanese, Aboriginal People of northern Western Australia, Northern Territory and Queensland made conspicuous contributions to the war effort. The coasts of northern Australia were the bases and ports (Darwin in particular) for the fight against the Japanese. Here, Aboriginal Australians performed valuable labour tasks for the military and helped sustain the infrastructure needed to support the huge numbers of Australian and US forces in the area. Many Aboriginal Australians had contact with visiting African-American soldiers. Receiving higher pay and having gained some civil rights within their society such as the right to vote, these African-American men served as great models to Indigenous Australians.

In Katherine, in the Northern Territory, Aboriginal Australians who lived near the army unit performed a variety of tasks for the military. They made cement, cut down trees, tended fruit and vegetable gardens, slaughtered cattle for food, stacked ammunition, worked as hospital orderlies at Katherine Hospital and dismantled machines for repair. Throughout northern Australia in general, Aboriginal Australians did work for the military that varied from locating unexploded bombs to recovering crashed aircraft, building roads for bases and towns and building airfields. Towards the end of the war, the army was employing approximately 20 per cent of the Northern Territory's Aboriginal population.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. How much were Indigenous soldiers paid in the Northern Territory service?
2. What was the role of the Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion?
3. How did Aboriginal People not in the armed forces help the military?
4. Why were the coasts of northern Australia at risk from the Japanese?

Applying and analysing

5. Study Source 8.11.1. How did the actions of the Australian army prove this quote correct?
6. Discuss the impact of contact among African-American soldiers and Indigenous soldiers.

UNIT 8.12

Post-war Australia

World War II casualties and deaths

The total number of World War II deaths from all causes was more than 50 million (with some estimates placing the number as high as almost 80 million). In World War II, almost one million Australian men and women out of a population of seven million served in the military. About 40 000 Australian military personnel and 700 Australian civilians died (a low number of civilian deaths compared to other countries involved in the war). More than 30 000 Australian servicemen became POWs—two-thirds of them in Japanese camps, where approximately 8000 died.

Returning soldiers and war widows

At the close of the war, Australian soldiers began returning from all over the world in various states of health. These men needed to be rehabilitated and retrained for civilian work. Returned soldiers were granted government assistance to ease the difficulties of living and working, and received war service, repatriation and disability pensions.

The Depression years had seen few houses built and although Australia was spared the massive destruction some other countries experienced during the war, virtually no building had occurred during this period. As a result, returning soldiers often lived with relatives and many families shared houses. A house-building boom soon ensued.

The war had made many wives widows and children fatherless, and they also needed help. Government assistance included war widows' pensions, which had been introduced in 1942 (although they'd existed in New South Wales from 1926). Organisations such as Legacy, which targeted this issue, also assisted families.

Post-war government

During wartime, the federal government had assumed control of many aspects of economic and social life, including income taxation (previously controlled by the states). After the war, Ben Chifley's Labor government continued to ensure that it had a strong presence in the everyday life of Australians. The Chifley government also used the opportunity provided by Australia's booming economy to extend more benefits to society.

> *I try to think of the Labour movement ... as a movement bringing something better to the people, better standards of living, greater happiness to the mass of the people. We have a great objective—the light on the hill—which we aim to reach by working the betterment of mankind not only here but anywhere we may give a helping hand.*

Source 8.12.1 Extract from Prime Minister Ben Chifley's 1949 'light on the hill' speech

Source 8.12.2 Prisoners of Changi POW camp greet Allied soldiers, 19 September 1945, Australian War Memorial

Source 8.12.3 Nurses and babies at Queen Victoria Maternity Hospital in Adelaide, South Australia in July 1957, the busiest month of that year

The Chifley government regulated wages, rent and the banking system. Specific contributions included creating the Commonwealth Employment Service, extending the age pension, injecting federal funds into public housing, introducing the Pharmaceutical Benefits Scheme (PBS) and helping establish the Australian National University. Chifley also directed the government purchase of Qantas and established the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme and the Australian Security Intelligence Organisation (ASIO).

Post-war social and economic changes

Family life changed as a higher percentage of people married and had children, and did so earlier than in previous generations. The children born in this period became known as 'baby boomers' (see Source 8.12.3). The burgeoning housing industry extended the suburbs, which required new infrastructure, and the increased use of cars required new roads to be built. With the housing boom, the rate of home ownership increased, moving from 40 per cent in 1947 to over 70 per cent in the 1960s.

Industry and commerce, which had been concentrated on war production returned to producing commodities, textiles, food and other materials needed for post-war life.

Manufacturing became a major part of the national economy, with lawn mowers, clotheslines, washing machines and refrigerators all being produced as a result of World War II production lines increasing in size and variety. For the first time, Australian agriculture was not the biggest sector of the economy—it now competed with steel production, chemicals and commodities.

New technologies

Technology first devised in wartime, or further developed to aid the war effort, spurred a great post-war boom in commodities, commerce, medicine and other areas. For instance, the development of jet aircraft and pressurised cabins revolutionised passenger travel. Penicillin was also mass-produced and distributed for the first time. Other technological developments during the war included navigation systems and radar—the technology behind early radar systems and the cavity magnetron, a high-powered vacuum tube that generates microwaves and that led to the invention of the microwave oven. Synthetic rubber and oil and, of course, nuclear energy were also products of the war.

Immigration

In 1945, the Department of Immigration was established and Arthur Calwell became the first Immigration Minister. World War II and the Japanese threat had shown that Australia's population was too small to defend the country. In addition, the country also required a larger labour force to achieve economic growth. Not only were Australians encouraged to start families, but immigration was also promoted. Calwell used the slogan 'populate or perish' to encourage public acceptance of the government policy.

While British migrants were still preferred by the government, Australia now accepted all white Europeans. Many Europeans came to Australia to escape the devastation war had inflicted on their homelands. By 1955, one million new migrants had arrived (see Source 8.12.4).

Source 8.12.4 European migrants arrive in Sydney, 1950

In 1958, immigration was relaxed further with the abolition of the dictation test, which had been designed to be too difficult for non-British migrants to pass. At this time, huge infrastructure schemes such as the Snowy Mountains Hydro-Electric Scheme and the development of the Murrumbidgee Irrigation Area had begun. These schemes were only possible because of migrant labour, which was hugely significant in building and changing Australian society.

Alliance with the United States and the Cold War

During World War II, the Japanese were moving closer towards Australia and Britain had a limited presence in the Pacific. There was concern in the Australian government that Britain would not be able to defend Australia. When the United States declared war on Japan following the bombing of Pearl Harbor in December 1941, Australia realised that the United States would be more capable of coming to its aid in a crisis. This would be confirmed in February 1942 by the fall of Britain's naval base at Singapore. As a result, Australia allied its future with that of the United States.

> *Without any inhibitions of any kind, I make it quite clear that Australia looks to America, free of any pangs as to our traditional links or kinship with the United Kingdom.*

Source 8.12.5 Prime Minister John Curtin, 27 December 1941, in the Melbourne *Herald*

Fear of communist Russia had begun even during the war with its crushing victory over the Germans, which had been largely unassisted by the Allies. Following the war, the possibility of Russian communism spreading caused panic in democratic capitalist countries, in particular the United States. The battle for power and dominance between the democratic United States and its Allies and communist Russia and its Allies was termed the Cold War (see Source 8.12.6). When, in 1949, Russia tested its first atomic bomb, the arms race escalated, fostering suspicion and hostility between Russia and the United States. The two superpowers never fought directly although they did provide support to opposing sides in other nations' wars, such as the Korean War and the Vietnam War.

Source 8.12.6 A vote NO' poster concerning the Communist Party Dissolution Bill referendum, 1951, Communist Party of Australia, Victorian State Committee

Within Australia, as an ally of the United States, similar attitudes towards communism developed. In 1949, Liberal Robert Menzies used Australians' fear of communism in his (successful) election campaign. Once elected, Menzies and his Liberal government continued to show its support of the United States' war on communism. Australian troops were committed to the same South-East Asia conflicts that the United States entered and, in 1950, the government enacted the Communist Party Dissolution Bill in an attempt to abolish the Communist Party in Australia. The bill also allowed for the prosecution of party members and barred them from public office. The bill was later found to be unconstitutional by the High Court. In 1951, Menzies held a referendum on allowing the Dissolution Act, which was unsuccessful (see Source 8.12.6).

Cultural shifts

The closer association with the United States during the war, including the arrival of nearly one million American troops, brought US technologies and trends to Australia. The arrival of television in 1956, and with it American programs, advanced the awareness of American culture, including consumerism, in Australia. This shift to a more consumerist society stimulated Australian manufacturing and business. Rock music, too, arrived with television in the 1950s, as well as US fashions. Other technologies such as the polio vaccine, jet aircraft, the Victa® lawnmower and synthetic fibres such as nylon changed lifestyles in the areas of health, transport and living standards. Australia showcased its new wealth and technology when it hosted the Olympic Games in Melbourne 1956.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Approximately how many Australians died in Japanese POW camps during World War II?
2. What problems faced the newly returned soldiers in Australia after the war ended?
3. What happened to the Australia's birth rate after the war?
4. How was post-war immigration to Australia different from pre-war immigration?
5. What was the Cold War?

Applying and analysing

6. How did Australian culture change in the post-war years.
7. Brainstorm how the Australian economy benefits from increased government control?
8. How do you explain the slogan 'populate or perish' and increased migration to Australia?
9. Identify how the threat of communism dominated Australia's foreign policy after World War II.
10. Study Source 8.12.5. How did John Curtin's speech have an impact on Australia's foreign policy both during and after World War II?

Investigating History

UNIT 8.13 World War II

Weaponry of World War II

Many new efficient weapons were developed in World War II. New tactics (methods of fighting) were also introduced that changed warfare.

You can make your own digital scrapbook of World War II weapons by creating a multimedia presentation illustrating a collection of weapons used during the conflict.

1. Find and collect images for each of these World War II weapons:
   - aircraft carrier, for example a Japanese aircraft carrier such as the *Shokaku* or *Akagi* and/or a US aircraft carrier such as the Yorktown or Lexington
   - dive bomber planes, for example a Douglas Dauntless or *Stuka*
   - torpedo bomber planes, for example Fairy Swordfish, *Grumman* Avenger
   - bomber planes, for example the Lancaster bomber, the Flying Fortress, the B29 Superfortress
   - fighter planes, for example the Spitfire, the P40, the *Mitsubishi* Zero
   - tanks, for example the Sherman, the Tiger
   - submarines, for example German U-Boats
   - machine guns, for example the Sten gun, *Schmiesser*
   - battleships, for example *Tirpitz*, *Bismarck*, *Prince of Wales*, *Missouri*.
2. Place each image on a separate slide of your multimedia presentation.
3. Write a very short summary of the technology's capabilities, for example speed, carrying capacity, fire power/rate, size, bomb load and defences appropriate to that technology to accompany each image.
4. On the slide after each image, write an explanation of how the weapon demonstrated major developments and improvements over their World War I equivalents, overcame problems of warfare or created a new advantage for the nation that used it.

Research and discussion

Aircraft attacks were often highly specialised for specific purposes, demonstrating the exceptional flexibility of air power. In pairs or small groups, research one mission where aircraft was able to win or significantly affect a battle or theatre of war.

Present the evidence that air power superiority gave significant advantage or even won the campaign or battle in one of the following events:

- Battle of Midway, June 1943
- Battle of Britain, July–October 1941
- Attack on Pearl Harbor, December 1941
- Raid on Schweinfurt, October 1943
- Marianas Turkey Shoot, June 1944
- Operation Bodeplatte January, 1945.

As a class, discuss the aims and limitations on both the attackers and defenders, their advantages and disadvantages and the end results.

Source study

Study Source 8.13.1.

1. Who is this poster aimed at?
2. What is a Beaufort?
3. Why would Beauforts help protect Australia?
4. Who is it suggested are attacking Australia?
5. What do the images of submarines and planes (along the northern coasts) suggest?

Make an annotated timeline of their life from 1941 to 1945. Add other significant millstone dates to the timeline. In you annotations, describe each event in 20–50 words.

Letter writing

Imagine you are a teenager in Australia during World War II. Write a letter to friend describing everyday life. In your letter include information about:

- rationing (food, petrol, clothing etc.)
- blackouts
- schooling
- men and women in uniform.

Women at war

Vivian Bullwinkel was an Australian nurse who was captured by the Japanese. Bullwinkel and her group of nurses left Singapore by ship. Japanese bombers attacked and sank her ship. Bullwinkel and the nurses were captured on an island they had swum to and were machine-gunned by the Japanese. Bullwinkel survived. She hid for some days before surrendering. Bullwinkel then spent three and half years in a Japanese POW camp.

Research the life of Vivian Bullwinkel or another female POW.

Source 8.13.1 World War II government poster, 1942, Australian War Memorial. Posters such as these carried sophisticated messages with much symbolism.

Glossary

AMF conscripted Australian military forces

allies countries that opposed the Axis Powers—Britain, Soviet Union (Russia), United States, China, France, Australia and New Zealand

Axis Powers Germany, Italy and Japan and included their controlled allies such as Hungary and Romania

Blitzkrieg German for 'lightning warfare' in which massive aerial bombardment on infrastructure is followed by rapid overwhelming ground attacks

Bushido 'way of the warrior'—a code of honour and conduct for samurai warriors established in medieval Japanese history and similar to the medieval code of chivalry for European knights

concentration camp brutal prison for those perceived to pose political, intellectual, religious, racial threats to the German state

embargo ban on trade and commerce with a country as a form of pressure or punishment against its international policies or aggressive acts

genocide mass extermination, or its attempt, of an entire cultural ethnic group of people in order to wipe them out of existence

Holocaust genocide of Jews and others, including communists and mentally ill people by Hitler and the Nazis; death sites include Auschwitz, Belsen, Buchenwald and others

internment camp camp where people of German, Italian and Japanese background were kept in Australia during World War II to prevent them from conducting any enemy activity

Second AIF Australian Imperial Force in World War II (the First AIF served in World War I)

Index