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VICTORIAN CURRICULUM

Geraldine Carrodus | Richard Smith

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VICTORIAN CURRICULUM

Geraldine Carrodus | Richard Smith

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contents

Contents by skill viii

Using *Oxford Big Ideas History* x

Concepts and skills

Chapter 1
The history toolkit **4**

1A What are the historical concepts?

1.1 Historical concepts 6

1B What are the historical skills?

1.2 Historical skills 14

1.3 Ask questions and conduct research 15

1.4 Sequence events and use historical terms and concepts 18

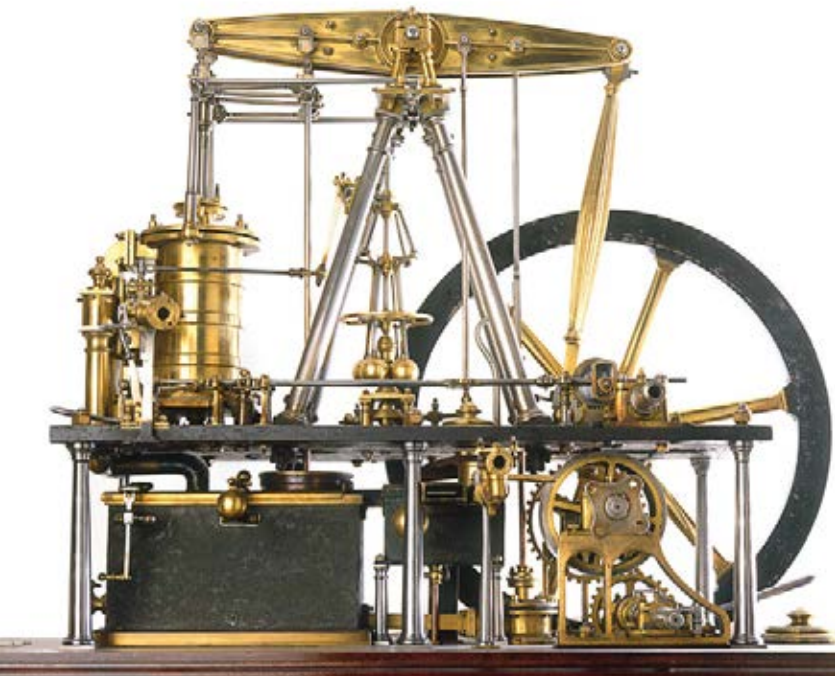
1.5 Use historical sources as evidence 20

1.6 Analyse different perspectives and interpretations 24

1.7 Communicate your findings 26

1C What are the career opportunities for historians?

1.8 Careers in history 28



Unit 1 The Industrial Revolution

Chapter 2
Introduction to the Industrial Revolution **30**

2A What factors shaped the world from 1750 to 1918?

2.1 The birth of the modern world 32

2B How did technology and industry shape the modern world?

2.2 Key events of the Industrial Revolution 34

Chapter 3
The Industrial Revolution **38**

3A What developments and innovations led to the Industrial Revolution?

3.1 The Industrial Revolution: a timeline 40

3.2 The Industrial Revolution in Britain 42

3.3 Why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain 44

3.4 Developments in agriculture 46

3.5 Developments in cotton, wool and iron production 48

3.6 Developments in transport 52

3.7 Significant individual: Isambard Kingdom Brunel 56

3.8 Expansion of factories and mass production 58

3.9 The spread of the Industrial Revolution 60

3.10 Later developments in technology and science 62

3A Rich task: Inventions of the Industrial Revolution 64

3B How did the Industrial Revolution affect the lives of men, women and children?

3.11 Working conditions 66

3.12 Living conditions 68

3B Rich task: Working conditions for children during the Industrial Revolution 70

3C What were the short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution?

3.13 Short-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution 72

3.14 The emergence of socialism and trade unions 74

3.15 Long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution 78

3C Rich task: Population growth in Britain during the Industrial Revolution 82

Unit 2 Australia and Asia

Chapter 4
Introduction to Australia and Asia **84**

4A **What factors led to the colonisation of Australia?**

4.1 Australia and British imperial expansion 86

4B **What factors led to the colonisation of Asia?**

4.2 Asia and European imperial expansion 88

Chapter 5
Australia (1750–1918) **92**

5A **Why were British colonies established in Australia and who was affected?**

5.1 Australia (1750–1918): a timeline 94

5.2 The first Europeans arrive 96

5.3 The colonies of Australia 100

5.4 Development of the colonies during the 1800s 106

5.5 The impact of early colonisation on Indigenous people 108

5.6 Ongoing effects of colonisation on Indigenous populations 110

5.7 The Australian gold rushes 114

5.8 The experiences of the Chinese in Australia before 1900 118

5.9 The experiences of other non-Europeans in Australia before 1900 120

5A Rich task: The impacts of European colonisation on Australia's Indigenous population 122

5B **How did key events and ideas influence the development of Australia?**

5.10 Emerging Australian identity 124

5.11 The impact of gold 126

5.12 The development of Australian culture 128

5.13 The idea of a united Australia 130

5B Rich task: The White Australia debate 132

5C **What was life in Australia like at the start of the 20th century?**

5.14 The road to Federation 134

5.15 Reasons for Federation 136

5.16 Significant individuals: people who helped to shape the nation 138

5.17 Australia becomes a nation 140

5.18 Living and working conditions in Australia around 1900 143

5.19 Legislation that shaped a nation 146

5C Rich task: Arguments for and against Federation 148

Chapter 6
China (1750–1918) **150**

6A **What were the main features of Chinese society around 1750?**

6.1 China (1750–1918): a timeline 152

6.2 Traditional Chinese social structure 154

6.3 Chinese traditions 158

6.4 Chinese culture 160

6A Rich task: Qing style and fashion 162

6B **What was the impact of Europeans on Chinese society from 1750 onwards?**

6.5 Early contact with the West 164

6.6 The opium trade 166

6B Rich task: The impact of Europeans on Chinese society 168

6C **How did China respond to foreign influence and how was Chinese society organised by 1918?**

6.7 China's internal problems 170

6.8 Significant individual: Empress Dowager Cixi 172

6.9 The Boxer Rebellion 174

6.10 Divided responses to Western influence 176

6.11 Revolutionary movements 178

6.12 The 1911 Revolution and the end of imperial rule 180

6.13 China moves into the 20th century 182

6C Rich task: The last emperor 184

Chapter 7
Japan (1750–1918) **186**

7A **What were the key features of Japanese society around 1750?**

7.1 Japan (1750–1918): a timeline 188
7.2 The size and power of Japan in 1750 190
7.3 Social organisation 192
7.4 Japanese culture: beliefs and arts 196
7A Rich task: Edo 198

7B **How did Japanese society change as a result of contact with Western powers?**

7.5 Contact with the West 200
7.6 The arrival of US Commodore Perry 202
7.7 The Meiji Restoration 204
7B Rich task: The Satsuma Rebellion 208

7C **How was Japanese society influenced by world events and how did Japan interact with the world at the start of the 20th century?**

7.8 A major world power 210
7.9 Japan at war 212
7.C Rich task: Japan in World War I 214

Chapter 8
India (1750–1918) **216**

8A **What were the key features of Indian society around 1750?**

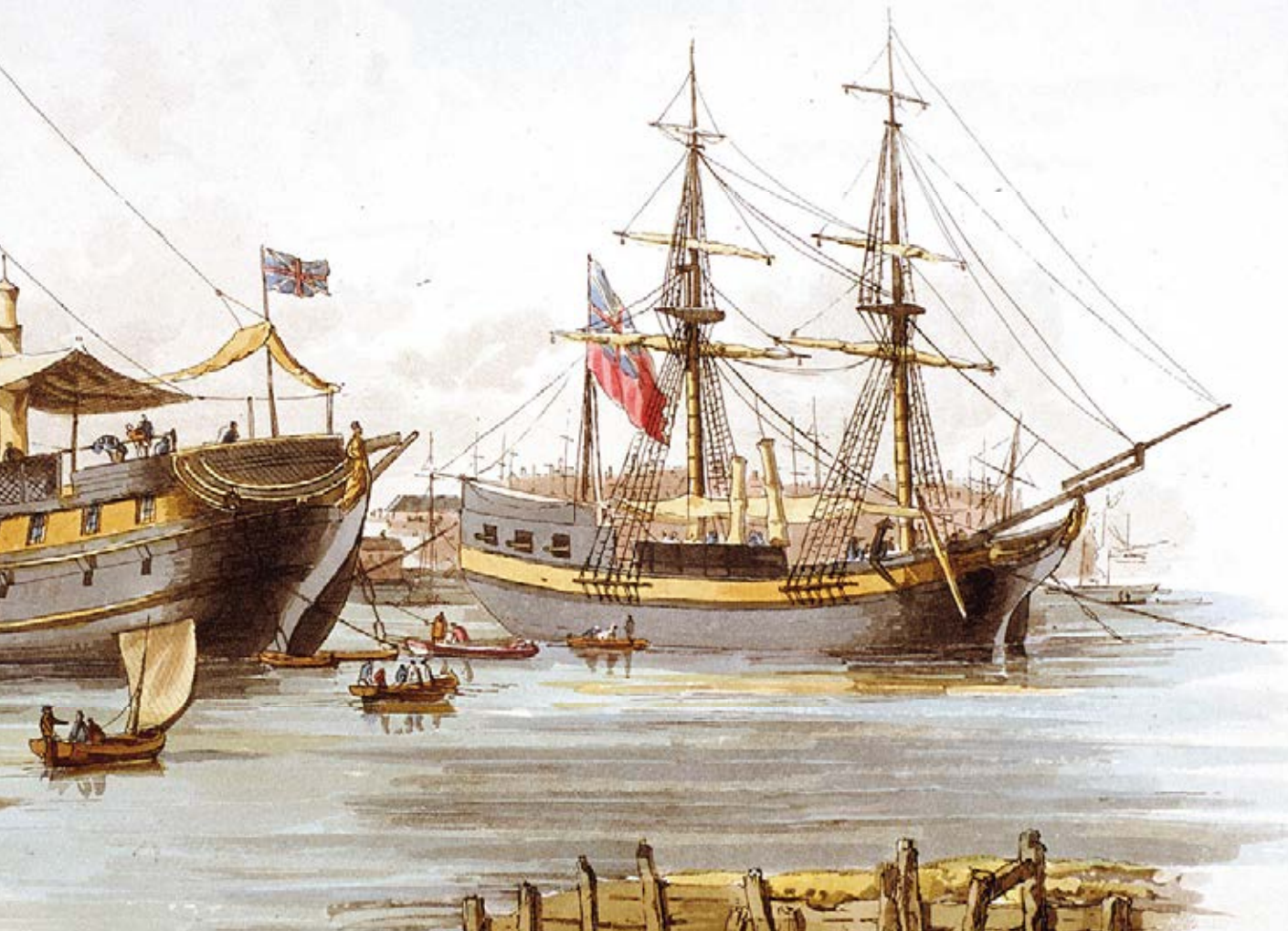
8.1 India (1750–1918): a timeline 218
8.2 The Mughal Empire 220
8.3 Social structure and government in the Mughal Empire 222
8.4 Mughal culture 224
8A Rich task: Caste 226

8B **How did Indian society change as a result of contact with Western powers?**

8.5 The British East India Company 228
8.6 The Indian Rebellion, 1857–58 232
8.7 The British Raj 234
8.8 Significant changes to Indian society under British rule 236
8B Rich task: Modernising India 240

8C **How was Indian society influenced by world events and how did India interact with the world at the start of the 20th century?**

8.9 Forming an Indian identity 242
8.10 Significant events in India and the world 244
8C Rich task: Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (1869–1948) 246



Unit 3 Australia at war (1914–1945)

Chapter 9
Introduction to Australia at war (1914–1918) **248**

9A What were the key events of World War I?
9.1 Key events of World War I 252

9B What was the significance of World War I?
9.2 The significance of World War I 254

Chapter 10
World War I (1914–1918) **256**

10A What were the causes of World War I?
10.1 World War I: a timeline 258
10.2 Background to World War I 260
10.3 Causes of World War I 262
10.4 The outbreak of World War I 266
10.5 Australia's entry into World War I 269
10A Rich task: Why Australians enlisted to fight 272

10B How and where was World War I fought?
10.6 The nature of warfare in World War I 274
10.7 Where World War I was fought 277
10.8 The Western Front 279
10.9 Trench warfare 282
10.10 The Gallipoli campaign 284
10.11 The end of the war 288
10B Rich task: Life in the trenches 290

10C What impact did World War I have on Australia?
10.12 The impact of war on Australian society 292
10.13 The impact of war on Australian women 294
10.14 The conscription debate 296
10.15 Anti-German sentiment in Australia 298
10.16 The impact of war on Australia's international relationships 300
10C Rich task: Conscription 302

10D How is World War I remembered and commemorated?
10.17 Anzac Day and the Anzac legend 304
10.18 Other forms of commemoration 308
10D Rich task: The ANZAC legend today 310

Glossary 312
Index 316
Acknowledgements 326

contents by skill

History skills

Skill	Chapter	Page
Asking questions to guide a historical inquiry	1	15
Creating a timeline	1	19
Analysing political cartoons	1	22
Creating an audiovisual presentation	1	27
Creating and delivering an audiovisual presentation	3	64
Using information from a range of sources as evidence in a historical argument	3	71
Using graphs to communicate historical information	3	82
Generating different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry	5	123
Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past	5	133
Writing a historical discussion using evidence from sources that are referenced	5	148
Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources	6	163
Developing a written historical argument	6	168
Generating questions about the past to inform a historical inquiry	6	185
Identifying and locating relevant sources using ICT	7	199
Creating and presenting an audiovisual presentation	7	209
Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past	7	215
Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past	8	227
Creating and presenting an audiovisual presentation	8	240
Writing a historical discussion	8	247
Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources	10	272
Identifying and locating relevant sources, using ICT and other methods	10	291
Identifying the origin, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources	10	303

Using *Oxford Big Ideas History*

Oxford Big Ideas History is a brand-new series developed and written to meet the requirements of the Victorian Curriculum: History – across Years 7–10.

Focus on inquiry

Each chapter of *Oxford Big Ideas History* is structured around key inquiry questions from the Victorian Curriculum. Each unit of the text supports teachers and students as they adopt an inquiry-based approach to the key learning areas in the Humanities.

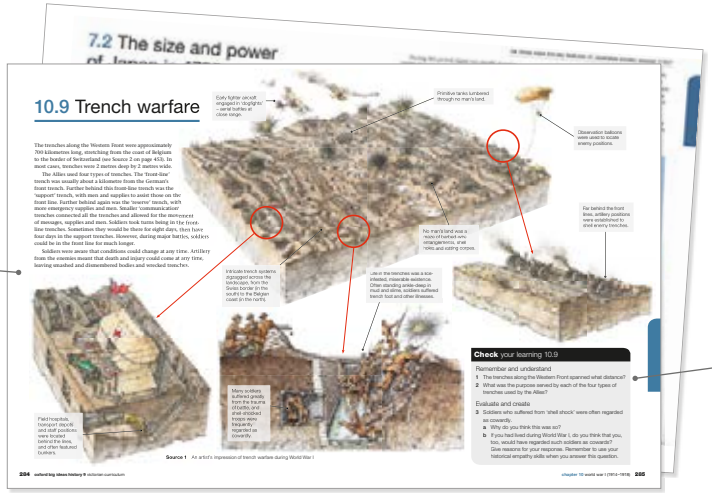
The learning sequence in each chapter is clearly set out under key inquiry questions. Students are encouraged to use their prior knowledge and make predictions at the start of each new topic.

Stunning full-colour photography generates discussion and interest.

Focus on engagement

Each unit of the Student book combines a range of engaging source materials – such as photographs, videos, data tables, graphs and illustrations – with supporting questions and activities.

Source materials – such as photographs, infographics, political cartoons, graphs – simplify difficult concepts and engage reluctant learners.

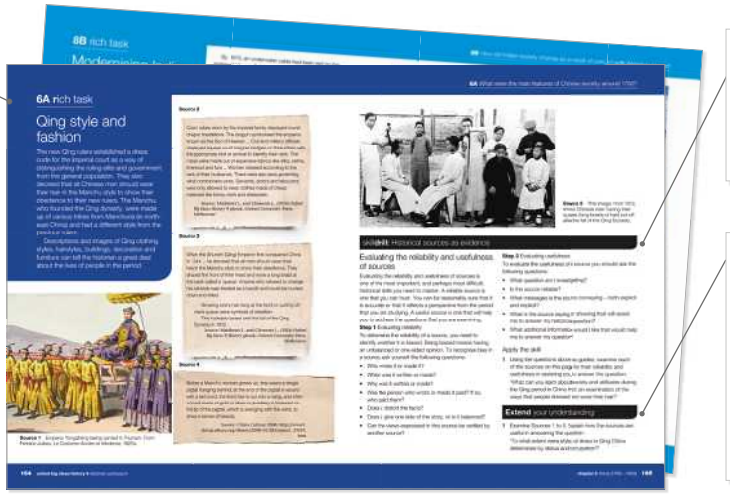


Check your learning activities accompany every unit, allowing students to consolidate and extend their understanding. These are graded according to Bloom's Taxonomy – catering for a range of abilities and learning styles.

Focus on concepts and skills

Complete coverage of all concepts and skills provided in stand-alone reference ‘toolkits’. All of these concepts and skills are also integrated throughout the text so students can see them at work in context.

Rich task activities encourage students to apply the knowledge and skills they have learned in each chapter to a new and interesting case study, event or issue.



Skill drill activities guide and support students step by step as they learn and apply key skills.

Extend your understanding activities challenge students to conduct further research, or complete group work, to deepen their understanding of an issue or skill being investigated.

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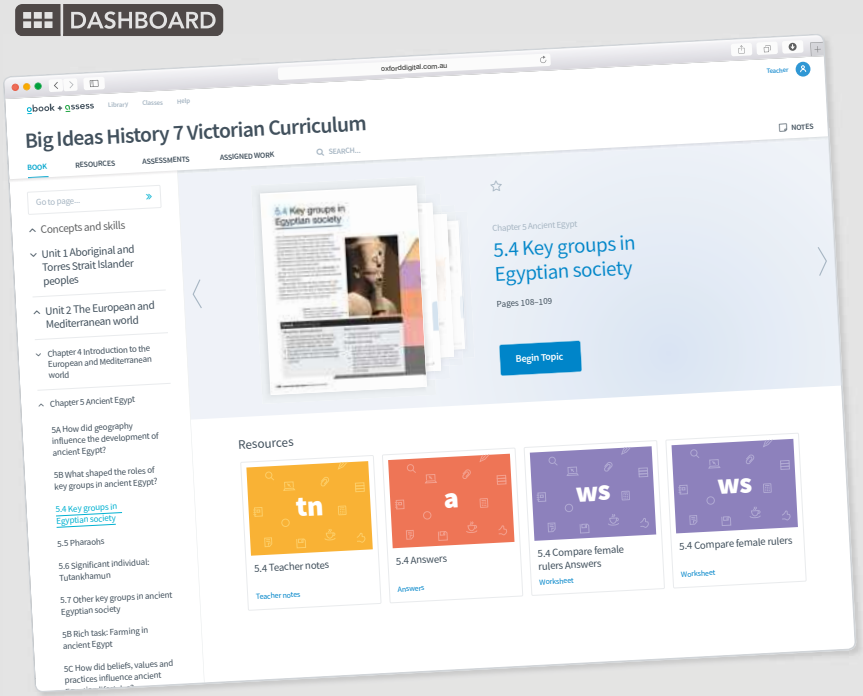
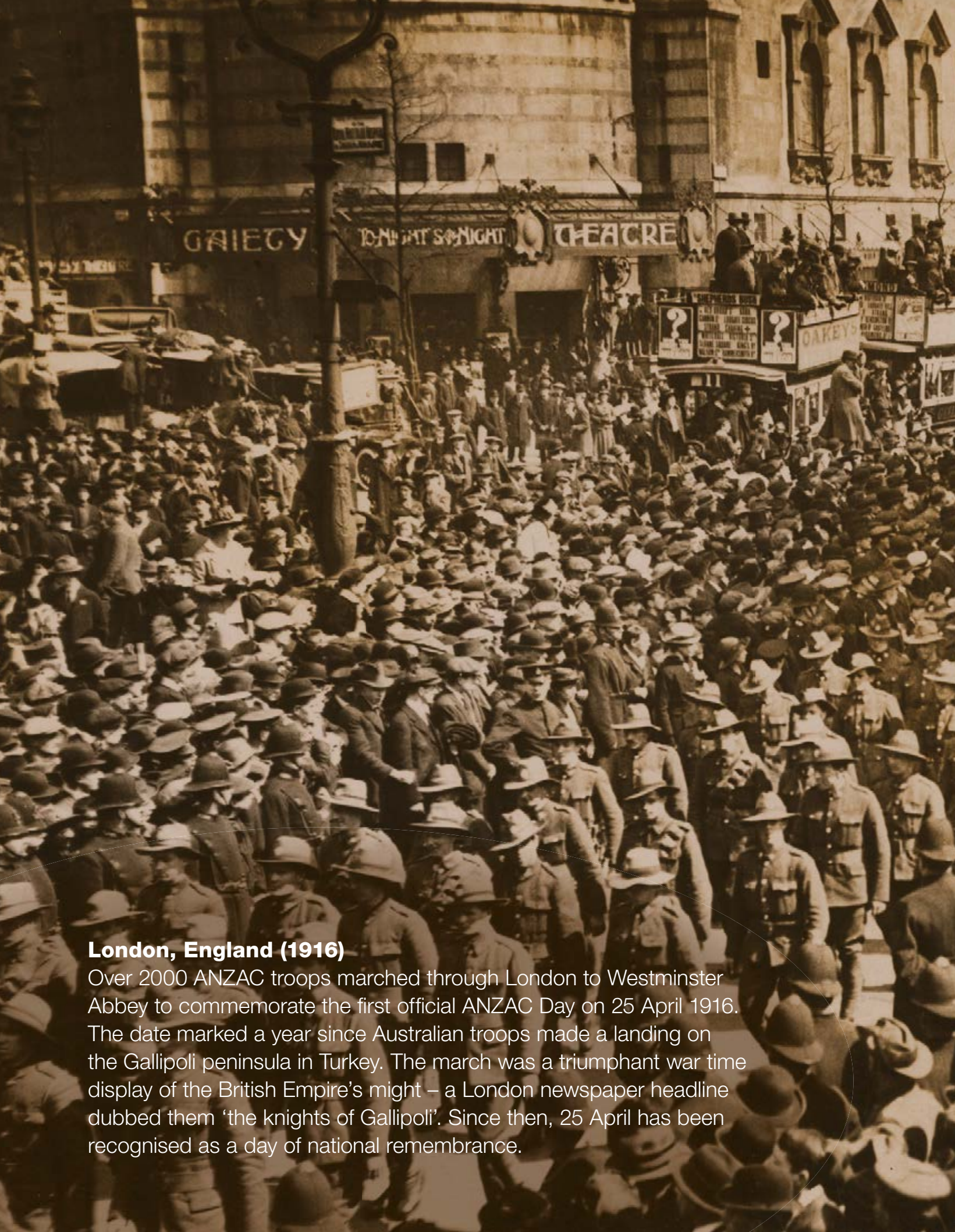




London, England (1916)
Over 2000 ANZAC troops marched through London to Westminster Abbey to commemorate the first official ANZAC Day on 25 April 1916. The date marked a year since Australian troops made a landing on the Gallipoli peninsula in Turkey. The march was a triumphant war time display of the British Empire's might – a London newspaper headline dubbed them 'the knights of Gallipoli'. Since then, 25 April has been recognised as a day of national remembrance.

history

Concepts and skills

Unit 1 The Industrial Revolution

Unit 2 Australia and Asia

Unit 3 Australia at war (1914–1918)

Concepts and skills

The history toolkit

History is the study of the past. Historians seek to piece together pictures of what life was like in days gone by. They also look for patterns – what has remained the same, what has changed and why.

Historians follow a process of **historical inquiry** in order to understand the past. They ask questions, form opinions and theories, locate and analyse **sources**, and use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past. Oral accounts, documents, **artefacts** and **archaeological** finds form the basis of research and investigation in history.

Historians investigate important events from the past and want to know more about them. To help in their investigations, historians use a range of concepts and skills. Each of these is like a tool that can be used to help you understand how events that took place in the past have influenced our modern world. As you master the concepts and skills, you will gradually fill your toolkit.

1A
What are the historical concepts?

1B
What are the historical skills?

chapter 1

Source 1 This photograph – taken during the Gallipoli campaign of World War I in 1915 – shows the Australian camp at Anzac Cove in Turkey. Today, Anzac Day is one of Australia's most important national commemoration days. It marks the anniversary of the landing of Australian and New Zealand forces at Anzac Cove during World War I.

1C

What are the career opportunities for historians?

1.1 Historical concepts

Historians use seven concepts to help them investigate and understand the past. At times you will use several of these concepts at once; at other times you may focus on just one. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian. The seven key concepts in history are:

- perspectives
- continuity and change
- cause and effect
- evidence
- empathy
- significance
- contestability.

Perspectives

The concept of **perspectives** is an important part of any historical inquiry. A person's perspective is their point of view – the position from which they see and understand events going on in the world around them. People often have different points of view (or perspectives) about particular events, historical figures, civilisations or artefacts depending on their age, gender, social position and their beliefs and values. Just like anyone else, historians have perspectives, which can influence their interpretation of the past and the ways in which they write about it. Regardless of their own perspectives (and what they may think about something personally), historians must try to understand the different values and beliefs that shaped and affected the lives of people who lived in the past.

For example, the period from 1750 to 1914 was a time when the European powers competed with each other to expand their territories and influence around the world by acquiring colonies. This was known as **imperialism**. The European powers spread their reach over Asia, Oceania and Africa, desperate to get hold of the valuable natural resources found in these countries. By the beginning of the 20th century, most of Asia and Africa were ruled by foreign powers.

European **colonies** were forced to adopt the laws, languages, customs and religions of their imperial masters. Over time, Europeans also shared new technologies with their colonies. They established roads, railways and communication networks, modernising many of these nations.

Source 1 By the beginning of the 20th century, the British Empire covered one-quarter of the world's total land mass and ruled over around one-fifth of the world's total population. For these reasons it became known as the 'empire on which the sun never sets'.

From the perspective of most Europeans at the time, the Indigenous cultures of Asia, Oceania and Africa were inferior. They saw it as their right and duty to bring European culture and belief systems to the 'backward' societies they colonised.

From the perspective of the Indigenous populations in these regions, the arrival of Europeans was seen as an invasion of their lands that resulted in the devastation of their traditional ways of life. In the worst instances, as with Belgian rule in the Congo, the Indigenous population was subjected to a brutal, violent rule with a great loss of life.

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that, over time, some things stay the same, while others change. This concept is referred to as **continuity and change**. Examples of continuity and change can be seen across every civilisation at any given period of time.

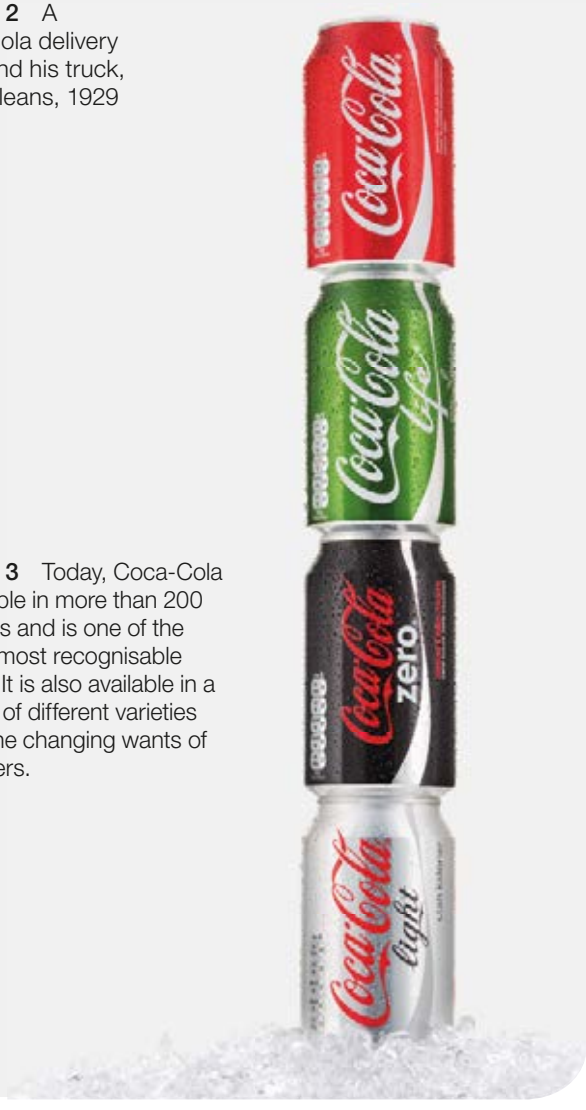
Historians refer to aspects of the past that have remained the same over time as continuities. Aspects of the past that do not stay the same are referred to as changes. Change can occur within a certain civilisation or specific time period, but also across different civilisations and time periods.

Many aspects of history influence how we act and live today. For example, during the **Industrial Revolution**, a number of companies began producing products that have now become household names all around the world. One of these brands is Coca-Cola. This syrupy, carbonated cola drink made to a secret recipe was first produced by a pharmacist named Dr John S Pemberton in the United States city of Atlanta. The Coca-Cola logo (see Source 2) has been used in a distinctly recognisable form since 1885. This is an example of historical continuity.

However, Coca-Cola also provides many examples of historical change:

- During the first year, sales averaged a modest nine servings per day in Atlanta. Today, daily servings of Coca-Cola beverages are estimated at 1.8 billion globally.
- The first servings of Coca-Cola were sold for 5 cents per glass, whereas today a can of Coke generally retails for around 2 dollars.
- In the early years, Coca-Cola also contained cocaine from coca leaves. When cocaine became a restricted drug in the United States, the coca leaves used in the recipe were changed to be cocaine-free.
- In 1985, the company introduced a new formula and branded it 'new Coke', but a consumer backlash forced a return to the traditional recipe.
- Recent awareness about the dangers of a high consumption of sugar has seen the introduction and success of sugar-free options such as Diet-Coke and Coke Zero.

Source 2 A Coca-Cola delivery driver and his truck, New Orleans, 1929



Source 3 Today, Coca-Cola is available in more than 200 countries and is one of the world's most recognisable brands. It is also available in a number of different varieties to suit the changing wants of customers.

Cause and effect

The concept of **cause and effect** is used by historians to identify chains of events and developments, both in the short term and in the long term. Cause and effect aims to identify, examine and analyse the reasons why events have occurred and the resulting consequences or outcomes. It helps to think of cause and effect as the 'why' and 'what' of history.

Sometimes the link between cause and effect is very clear. For example, heavy rain over many weeks (cause) leads to flooding and the destruction of crops (effect). However, often this link is not quite so obvious. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event or action. There can also be many effects (outcomes). Sometimes the effects are simple to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even become obvious until long after the event.

When Edward Hargraves found gold near Bathurst in New South Wales in 1851, it was the first gold to be found in the region. The find quickly triggered the first Australian gold rush. The chance to strike it rich was irresistible for thousands of people who flocked to the goldfields in New South Wales and Victoria from around Australia and overseas. In the 10 years after the first discovery of gold (cause), the population of Australia more than doubled from 405 400 to 1 145 600 (effect).

The discovery of gold and the subsequent gold rushes in New South Wales and Victoria resulted in a range of effects – some short term, others long term. Short-term effects included:

- the arrival of large numbers of **immigrants** from Britain, Germany, Poland, the United States and China
- further **dispossession** of Indigenous people from their land
- discrimination and violence against Chinese miners on the goldfields
- unsanitary conditions in the gold camps leading to outbreaks of dysentery and typhoid
- establishment of businesses such as shops, traders and transporters to support the gold miners.

Long-term effects included:

- huge increases in the amounts of money flowing into the economies of New South Wales and Victoria through taxes and increased spending
- a growth in overseas trade
- improvements in infrastructure including the construction of grand public buildings, roads, train and tram networks, and sewerage systems as well as the creation of schools, churches, libraries and other community amenities.

Source 4 The Australian gold rushes of the mid-1800s brought people and wealth to Australia and led to a period of growth and expansion, as these illustrations of Melbourne in 1860 show.

Evidence

Evidence is the information gathered from historical sources. The concept of evidence is an essential part of historical inquiry. Evidence can come from many different sources; for example, interviews and accounts from people who lived at the time, letters, diaries, films, maps, newspapers, buildings, paintings, photographs, song lyrics, nursery rhymes, clothing, photographs and even cartoons. But how do we use these sources to piece together the story of the past? We can make an educated guess (called a **hypothesis**) and then look for evidence to support it.

Evidence can be gathered from two types of sources:

- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated, for example, during an event or very soon after. Examples of primary sources include official documents, such as laws and treaties; personal documents, such as diaries and letters; photographs or films; and documentaries. These original, firsthand accounts are analysed by historians to answer questions about the past.
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation. Examples of secondary sources include writings of historians, encyclopaedia entries, documentaries, history textbooks, films, illustrations, reconstructions and websites.

Historians do not always agree on evidence, even when it is coming from the same source. They often have different opinions or points of view. This is why historians are constantly searching for new sources of evidence. They need to use a range of different sources to help them gain a more complete picture of the past.

Source 5 This photograph taken in 1915 shows Australian troops charging a Turkish trench during the final days of the Gallipoli campaign. The photograph clearly shows the rocky terrain of the Gallipoli Peninsula and is an example of a primary source. War photography became a part of warfare at all levels for the first time during World War I. As well as documenting military offensives, photographs were used for surveying and mapping territory and for propaganda campaigns. Photographs were not only taken by military photographers, they were also taken by ordinary soldiers in order to document their personal experiences.

Source 6 This still from the 1981 feature film *Gallipoli* starring Mel Gibson shows Australian soldiers in battle during the Gallipoli campaign. The movie recreates the experiences of a number of Australian soldiers who fought as part of the Anzac forces. It is an example of a secondary source.

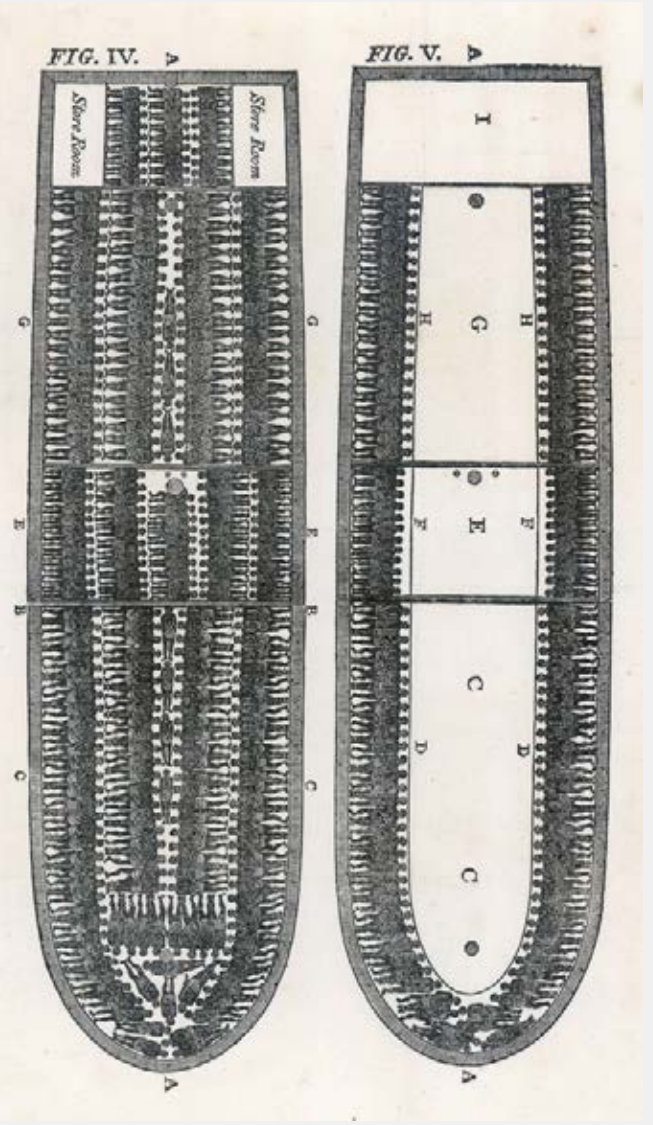
Empathy

The concept of **empathy** helps us to understand the impact of past events on particular individuals or groups. This includes an appreciation of the circumstances they faced and the motivations, values and attitudes behind their actions. Put another way, empathy is the ability to 'walk in someone else's shoes' – to be aware of and sensitive to their feelings, thoughts and experiences.

Empathising brings history to life. It connects us as human beings regardless of how much time has passed. For example, by the beginning of the 18th century the slave trade was well established in many parts of the world. It is estimated that up to 12 million African people may have been shipped to the Americas as **slaves**. After capture, slaves were packed into ships for transportation to the Americas. Slave ships were extremely crowded and conditions were inhumane (see Source 7). Slaves were kept below decks for most of the long journey in dark and filthy conditions with no ventilation. They were kept chained and were given no medical assistance if they fell ill. From a modern perspective, it is easy to view this treatment of other human beings as barbaric and wrong, and to feel empathy for those slaves who suffered as a result of this treatment. Slavery was outlawed in most countries around the world in the 1800s and since this time, the vast majority of people have come to think of slavery as cruel and unacceptable. However, this has not always been the case.

For historians, applying the concept of empathy during a historical inquiry into the slave trade encourages them not to judge events and people by modern standards. It requires an appreciation of the social norms of the period in order to better understand people's motives and actions. Although it may be difficult, a reasoned inquiry means you also need to empathise with slave owners and traders. The slave owners truly believed that they were doing nothing wrong – even George Washington, the first President of the United States, was a slave owner. African slaves were believed to be inferior to white men in intellect, in fact they were considered to be childlike, but to be physically stronger than white men and well suited to the heat. It was considered the 'natural order' for the slaves to be 'looked after' by their owners. Some Christian teachings at the time also supported this view, as did theories such as **social Darwinism**. In addition to these factors, owning slaves was legal. As a result of these factors, slavery was common across the Caribbean and Southern American states, where there were severe labour shortages. Without slaves, the landowners would not have been able to produce their crops of cotton and sugar that were in demand in Europe.

Although empathy does not excuse the actions of people in the past, it does allow us to understand them better.



Source 7 A plan of the British slave ship *Brookes* in 1789. This shows it carrying 454 slaves, 'tightly packed', after the Slave Trade Regulation Act of 1788, which was introduced to improve conditions on slave ships. Before the Act, the *Brookes* carried between 609 and 740 slaves.

Significance

The concept of **significance** relates to the importance assigned to aspects of the past. This includes people, events, developments, discoveries, movements and historical sites. History is full of so many important events, significant people and interesting places that we could never study all of them. Instead, we need to make a judgment about which of these is worthy of study. In order to determine if a person, event, development, discovery, movement or site is historically significant, historians may ask the following questions:

- How important was it to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected by it?
- To what degree were people's lives affected by it?
- How widespread and long-lasting were its effects?
- Can its effects still be felt today?

For example, the **French Revolution** has been said to have laid the groundwork for the birth of the modern world across Europe. Why would a revolution affecting a single country be considered so significant? The French Revolution took place in 1789, starting with the demand for a government under the king that was more representative of the people. It ended with the king being executed, along with many members of the **aristocracy**. The political and social ideals of the French Revolution went on to inspire many other developments around the world. Some legacies of the French Revolution that are still significant today include:

- the introduction of a representative government in France guided by the understanding that rulers could only govern with the consent of the people
- the introduction of the **separation of powers** between three arms of government – executive, legislative and judicial branches
- the creation of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (see Source 8); a fundamental document in the history of human rights around the world based on the idea that all citizens should have equal rights and opportunities in society
- the realisation that royal power and the 'right to rule' in many countries across Europe could no longer be taken for granted
- the democratisation of rule in different countries across Europe and the establishment of many representative **democracies** around the world.

Source 8 The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, 1789

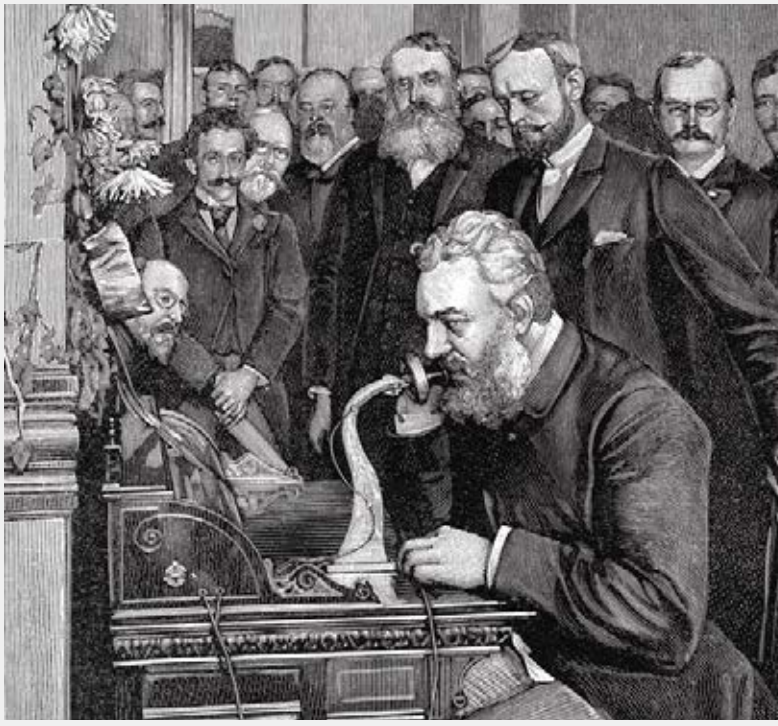
Contestability

The concept of **contestability** relates to explanations or interpretations of past events that are open to debate. Historians around the world often have access to very different sources. Artefacts, such as jewellery and weapons, may have been damaged, or artworks may be incomplete. Written records may contain errors, or might have been changed after they were written. Some records may even have been completely destroyed. This can lead historians to draw different conclusions about what they are seeing. Even historians studying the same sources can sometimes come to very different conclusions about what the evidence is telling them. This is one of the exciting things about history – it is open to debate. There is often no right answer, and historians are always seeking a more complete understanding of the past.

The Industrial Revolution was a time of great change. In a short amount of time, new inventions and innovations brought about huge changes to the way people worked, lived, communicated and travelled. For example, the invention of the telephone revolutionised the way in which people communicated all around the world. Scottish-born inventor Alexander Graham Bell has long been credited with inventing the telephone. Certainly, he was the first to patent it in the USA, in 1886, after conceptualising and developing a version of the telephone (see Source 9). However, many historians contest this belief.

Other inventors were also working on similar inventions at the same time as Alexander Graham Bell. Among them were Antonio Meucci, Innocenzo Manzetti and Thomas Edison (see Source 10). Many historians credit these inventors with the development of the first voice communication apparatuses. Unfortunately, it is difficult to prove who was first because many of the electronic components that would eventually become part the telephone were being developed separately around the world by many different people at the same time.

For this reason, the inventor of the telephone will always be contested by historians. One thing that cannot be contested is the fact that no single person was solely responsible for the invention.



Source 9 An artist's impression of Alexander Graham Bell making the first telephone call between New York and Chicago, 18 October 1892

Source 10 An illustration from the 1940s showing an image of Thomas Edison surrounded by his inventions – including the telephone.

Check your learning 1.1

Remember and understand

1 What is the difference between a primary and secondary source? Give an example of each type of source.

2 The red-and-white logo of Coca-Cola (and its distinctive font) has been around since 1885. Which historical concept is this an example of?

3 Which historical concept would be most helpful to historians attempting to understand the factors that allowed the slave trade to continue for so long?

4 The Industrial Revolution was a time of great invention. Why is it sometimes difficult to credit only one person with a particular invention? When historians disagree about particular events and facts, which historical concept is this an example of?

Apply and analyse

5 Look again at the types of questions historians ask to decide if events, discoveries, people or sites are historically significant. For example:
- How important was it to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected by it?
- To what degree were people's lives affected by it?
- How widespread and long-lasting were its effects?
- Can its effects still be felt today?

a Use each of these questions to determine the historical significance of the following:
- **i** the French Revolution
- **ii** the discovery of gold in Australia
- **iii** the making of the film *Gallipoli*
- **iv** the introduction of a new formulation of Coca-Cola in 1985 (marketed as 'new Coke').

b Discuss your responses as a class. Did you all draw the same conclusions?

6 Examine Source 1 showing the extent of the British Empire at the start of the 20th century.

a What motivated countries such as Britain to form empires? What perspective did the British adopt towards the people and places they colonised?

b Why is the historical concept of perspectives useful when conducting a historical inquiry into imperialism?

Evaluate and create

7 Directors and production staff on historical feature films like *Gallipoli* invest a lot of time and money to achieve a high level of historical accuracy in the settings and costumes they use. Despite this, many of these films also tend to reflect a modern view of the event and the people involved. Think of a historical film you have seen and assess its usefulness as a historical source.

8 Create a flow chart to show the causes and effects (both short term and long term) of the gold rushes on Australian society.

9 Using a selection of new images and examples, create a poster or audiovisual display that briefly explains all seven of the historical concepts discussed in this section.

1.2 Historical skills

History has been described as the study of 'who we are and why we are the way we are'. Historians examine the past and try to explain what they find. Like detectives at the scene of a crime, they follow a process of historical inquiry – they pose questions, locate and analyse sources, use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past, and then communicate their findings.

To conduct a historical inquiry, historians need a range of skills. By studying history you will gradually master each of these skills. Some of them you will find easy to master, while others may take a little longer. As you develop each new skill you will have gained another important tool for understanding and explaining events and people that have shaped our world.

You will already be familiar with many of these skills from your studies in junior history. This year you will revisit each of the skills and learn to apply them more effectively. The skills you will be learning are organised into five broad categories (see Source 1).

Each category represents the stages of a historical inquiry and contains a number of more specific skills that you will be practising.

It might help you to think of each of these skills as individual tools in your toolkit. For some historical inquiries, you may only need to use one tool; for others, you may need to use all of them.

Source 1 The five stages of every historical inquiry and the skills commonly used at each stage

Stages of historical inquiry	Historical skills used
Stage 1 – Ask questions and conduct research	• Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry. • Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods.
Stage 2 – Sequence events and use historical terms and concepts	• Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events and developments in different periods and places. • Use historical terms and concepts.
Stage 3 – Use historical sources as evidence	• Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources. • Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in a historical argument. • Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources.
Stage 4 – Analyse different perspectives and interpretations	• Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past. • Identify and analyse different historical interpretations (including your own).
Stage 5 – Communicate your findings	• Develop texts, particularly descriptions and discussions that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced. • Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies.

Source 2 Historical skills can help you to become a time detective.

1.3 Ask questions and conduct research

Generate and select different kinds of questions to inform a historical inquiry

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking big questions. From these big questions, historians develop a hypothesis (theory) about who, what, where and why certain events took place.

These questions then help to frame the process of inquiry and act as a guide for the collection of evidence. The photograph in Source 1 shows a group of Australian troops stationed in Egypt at the start of World War I.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Asking questions to guide a historical inquiry

Historical sources often form the basis for historical inquiries. In order to plan out the scope of an inquiry – and work out what research needs to be done – historians often begin by asking a series of questions. For example, a historian looking at Source 1 might ask:

- Who are the people in this photograph?
- Where are they?
- When was the photograph taken?

While these questions provide an interesting starting point for planning and research, some questions are better than others. By asking the questions above (known as closed questions), you will often discover a range of facts to follow up on. Closed questions usually have a right or wrong answer (or can be answered yes or no). This is a good start, but often isn't enough.

In addition to asking closed questions, it is important that you ask more complex questions (known as open-ended questions). Open-ended questions don't have simple answers that can be seen as right or wrong. These questions involve more complex issues and can help frame your inquiry in more depth. For example, open-ended questions about Source 1 might include:

- Why did the Australian soldiers in the photograph enlist to fight in World War I?
- What types of experiences did these Australian soldiers have fighting overseas in Egypt?
- How were Australian soldiers treated by Egyptians?
- How did Australian soldiers treat Egyptians?

Source 1 This photograph taken on 10 January 1915 shows the original Australian officers and men of the 11th Battalion, 3rd Brigade in the Australian Imperial Forces (AIF) are spread over the side of the Great Pyramid of Giza in Egypt.

The best historical inquiries are guided by a combination of closed and open-ended questions, so knowing the difference is key!

Apply the skill

1. Look at Source 1 carefully. Generate two closed questions and two open-ended questions of your own that will help guide a historical inquiry into Australia's involvement in World War I.
2. Think about the kind of information you will need to collect in order to answer your questions. Work out where you might be able to locate this information.
3. Are there any questions for which you have not been able to find reliable evidence or information? What reasons might there be for this?

Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Sources provide information for historians. They can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records in books or online. Some examples of sources include human remains, coins, cave paintings, textbooks, journals, online databases, newspapers, letters, cartoons and diaries.

Locating a range of relevant sources is a valuable skill that usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues at your school and local library
- using online search engines such as Google, Yahoo and Bing
- visiting museum and government websites
- looking at newspaper and magazine archives
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing older family members about the past, and examining family antiques and keepsakes.

Using ICT to locate relevant sources

Although printed books and newspapers are valuable sources of information, most research today is conducted online. In order to ensure that sources gathered online are accurate, reliable and relevant, a number of guidelines should be followed:

- Search engines such as Google are useful research tools, but much of the material on these sites is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information or material that is out of date. When using search engines like Google or Yahoo, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools will also have a website devoted to providing information about developing good research skills.
- A reliable way of searching for sources is to use sites linked to educational institutions, government departments, reputable companies, museums and universities. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (Internet address). Some of the most common domain names are listed in Source 2 along with some information about their reliability.
- Avoid blogs posted by unknown individuals. If you happen to find information relevant to your investigation on a blog or social media site, always verify it by using a more reliable source.

Domain name	Description
.edu	The site is linked to an educational institution such as a university or school. These sites are generally very reliable.
.gov	The site is linked to a government institution. These sites are generally very reliable.
.net	This site is linked to a commercial organisation or network provider. Anyone is able to purchase this domain name and generally there is no one to regulate the information posted on the site. As a result, these sites may be unreliable.
.org	This site is linked to an organisation. Generally, these organisations are not for profit (e.g. Greenpeace, World Vision International, British Museum). If the organisation is reputable and can be contacted, it generally means that the information provided has been checked and verified by that organisation. You need to be aware of any special interests that the organisation may represent (e.g. particular religious, commercial or political interests) as this may influence what they have to say on a particular issue. If you are unsure about the reliability of information found on a website with this domain name, check with your teacher or librarian.
.com	This site is linked to a commercially based operation and is likely to be promoting certain products or services. These domain names can be purchased by anyone, so the content should be carefully checked and verified using another, more reliable source.

Source 2 Some common domain names and their characteristics

Source 3 There are many different types of Internet domain names, but not all can be trusted to provide relevant and reliable information.

- Never cut and paste information from the Internet straight into your own work. Taking someone else's work, ideas or words and using them as if they were your own is called plagiarism and can result in very serious consequences.

Recording relevant sources

As you identify and locate relevant sources, it is essential that you record details to include in your list of references or bibliography.

When citing (mentioning) a book in a bibliography, include the following, in this order, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s)
2 year of publication
3 title of book (in italics)
4 edition (if relevant)
5 publisher
6 place of publication
7 page number(s).

EXAMPLE:

Carrodus, G., Smith, R., 2016, *Oxford Big Ideas History 9 Victorian Curriculum,* Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 16–17.

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
2 year of publication or date of web page (last update)
3 title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
4 date of posting
5 organisation name (if different from above)
6 date you accessed the site
7 URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets <…> .

EXAMPLES:

1 'Life during World War I, 1918', 2009, EyeWitness to History, accessed 24 March 2016, <http://www.eyewitnesstohistory.com/WWI.htm>.

2 Ferguson, L. State Library of Victoria, 2016, 'Australia and WWI', accessed 4 July 2016, < http://ergo.slv.vic.gov.au/explore-history/australia-wwi>.

Source 4 A lot of historical research today is carried out online.

Check your learning 1.3

Remember and understand

1 List three different examples of sources. Next to each example, write where it can be found.

Apply and analyse

2 Use the table below and list two advantages and two disadvantages of using the different search methods shown.

Search methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Using a library catalogue	• •	• •
Conducting an Internet search	• •	• •
Interviewing an older family member	• •	• •

3 Examine the following sites. Decide whether you think they are reliable. Explain why.
- **a** Australian National Museum, www.nma.gov.au
- **b** The Coca-Cola Company, www.coca-cola.com.au
- **c** Oxford University Press, www.oup.com.au
- **d** Wikipedia, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_War_I

Evaluate and create

4 Create a handbook or class wiki providing tips on good research techniques. Share it with other students in your year level or post it on your school intranet.

1.4 Sequence events and use historical terms and concepts

One of the most helpful things historians can do to get a better understanding of the past is to organise events in the order they took place. This is known as **chronology**. Chronology can help us organise things that happened over a short period of time (like a day or week) or a long period of time (like thousands of years). We can also use chronology to look at events that happened in one place or one society, or compare events across many different places and societies.

Use chronology to show the relationship between events

Chronology allows us to develop an ordered sense of time. Once events have been ordered chronologically, we are able to use a range of historical concepts such as cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change to analyse them in detail. The best way to order events chronologically is to create a **timeline**.

Use historical terms and concepts

Just like scientists and mathematicians, historians share a common language. They use historical terms and concepts to clarify what they are talking about and share their findings. Source 1 lists and defines some important historical terms you will come across during your study of the making of the modern world.

Source 1 Some useful historical terms you will learn while looking at the making of the modern world

Term	Definition
assimilation	the process by which a minority group adopts the language and customs of a dominant population; in the mid-1900s assimilation of Indigenous Australians into white society became official government policy
capitalism	an economic system under which the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are privately owned by individuals or corporations and run to generate profits; as opposed to state-owned and controlled systems such as socialism and communism
census	a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can include age, occupation, income, religious beliefs etc.
emigration	to leave one country or region to settle in another
empire	a group of countries and/or areas, often with different languages and having different cultures, ruled by a central power or leader (known as an emperor)
federation	the process by which separate colonies or states form a unified nation with a central government; the Commonwealth of Australia was established in 1901 after the six colonies were joined
immigration	the act of entering and settling permanently in a country or region to which a person is not native
imperialism	the process of gaining and maintaining control over other countries, regions or territories for economic or strategic (military) reasons
industrialisation	a process in which a society or country transforms from an economy based mainly on agriculture and farming into one based on manufacturing and industry
propaganda	information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society; propaganda can take many forms (e.g. posters, flyers, advertising campaigns, films) and is designed to promote a particular cause or course of action and/or damage the cause of an enemy
reparations	money paid by one country to another as compensation for damage, injuries and deaths it has caused during war
socialism	an economic system under which the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned and resources are allocated to the people according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism
urbanisation	a term used to describe the increase in the numbers of people living in urban areas (i.e. cities) versus rural areas (i.e. farms)

skill**drill:** Chronology

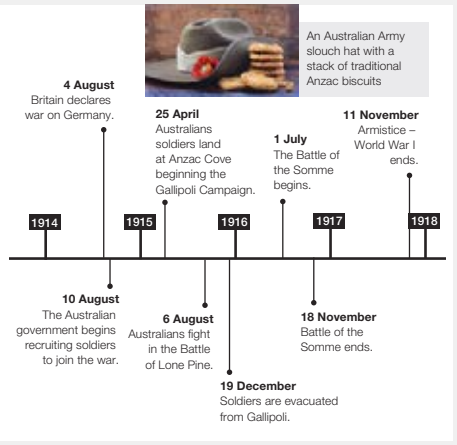
Creating a timeline

Historians use timelines to sequence time and order important events chronologically. They help divide large sections of time into smaller periods so that events (like the births and deaths of important people, wars and discoveries) can be arranged in the correct order. Timelines can look quite different, but essentially they all work in the same way. You should already be very familiar with creating timelines, but Source 2 provides a simple example and some basic reminders. Follow these basic steps when creating a timeline:

Step 1 Work out the length of time you want to represent on your timeline, then divide it evenly into suitable blocks of time – in this case, 50 years. A timeline showing what you did yesterday might be divided into hours; one showing key events in the 19th century might be divided into decades.

Step 2 To represent a huge span of time, you may need to break your timeline into sections using a jagged line. This break shows that a section of time has been left out and will ensure that your timeline will fit on the page! Just make sure no important events fall in the time you are leaving out.

Step 3 Mark specific dates onto the timeline. These dates need to be accurately plotted so that they appear in chronological order (from left to right). If an exact date is not known, the abbreviation *c.* (from the Latin word ***circa***, meaning 'around') is placed in front of it (e.g. *c.* 1700).



Source 2 A sample timeline showing Australia's involvement in some key events of World War I

Step 4 Plot important dates and events on the timeline, describing the events that took place. Include pictures and captions if appropriate.

Apply the skill

1 Create your own timeline based around one of the following topics:

- development of weapons and technology during World War I
- key battles of World War I
- America's involvement in World War I
- the role of women during World War I.

Your timeline should have at least eight entries and feature at least two images with captions. You will need to conduct some research online to complete this task.

Check your learning 1.4

Remember and understand

1 Why do you think history has been described as the study of 'who we are and why we are the way we are'? Do you think this is an accurate description?

2 In your own words, define the term 'chronology'? Why is it an important skill for historians?

3 What is one of the most useful tools for organising significant historical events into chronological order?

Evaluate and create

4 Choose a significant issue or event of interest to you that took place between 1750 and 1918. Conduct research and create a timeline that features a number of entries related to the issue or event you have chosen. Some events you may like to examine include:

- the invention of the telephone or motorbike during the Industrial Revolution
- how the Commonwealth of Australia was formed through a process known as federation
- World War I.

a Your timeline should include at least six entries related to the issue or event. Each entry must include the date and a brief description.

b You should also include images related to at least two of the entries on your timeline.

c Present your timeline electronically or as a poster.

1.5 Use historical sources as evidence

Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources

As explained earlier, historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

- primary sources – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after
- secondary sources – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but it is important to understand:

- where they came from (origin)
- why they were created (purpose)
- the historical setting in which they were created (context).

These factors are important because they provide clues about the perspective of the person who made the source, as well as the attitudes and beliefs that were common at that time. All sources are influenced by the author's own point of view. In some cases the author may even have been paid (or forced) to write in a particular way or to ignore certain facts. This is referred to as **bias** and is often aimed at persuading the reader to agree with the author's point of view. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate all of the sources they use.

Asking 'who', 'what', 'when' and 'why' questions will help you identify the origin and purpose of the sources. For example:

- Who wrote, produced or made the source?
  - Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source?
  - Is the creator a member of a particular group, religion or organisation?
- What type of source is it?
  - Was the source created at the time of the event or afterwards?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
  - How old is the source?
  - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
  - Is the source complete?

Source 1 The origin and purpose of these sources is different even though they are both related to World War I.

Source A is a primary source – a photograph of the camp and supplies taken on 25 April 1915 shortly after the landing of troops at Anzac Cove.

Source B is a secondary source – a still from the movie *Gallipoli* starring Mel Gibson filmed in 1981 showing Australian soldiers in battle during the Gallipoli campaign.

- Why was it written or produced?
  - Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
  - Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source?
  - What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?

Use information from a range of sources as evidence

By this stage of your historical inquiry, you will have located and collected a variety of different sources and types of information. Now it is time to process and synthesise the most relevant information, which you will use as evidence to support your hypothesis. There are a number of different ways to organise large amounts of information so that you can decide quickly and easily which sources provide the most useful, relevant and reliable evidence.

Using graphic organisers to help you process and synthesise information

Graphic organisers are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A decision-making chart like Source 2 can help you do this.

Source 2 A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might process, compare and select sources

RESEARCH TOPIC: 'What was the significance of the Gallipoli campaign?'			
HYPOTHESIS: That the Gallipoli campaign played a significant role in the formation of the Australian identity, both at the time and to this day.			
Source number:	Type of source:	Pros and cons:	Reference:
Source 1 WWI Gallipoli – Australian Army website	Secondary source (but includes many primary sources too)	Pros: - good selection of primary sources like photos - includes lots of interviews - information is factually correct and detailed Cons: - information is a bit one sided, only Australian opinions included, no others	http://www.army.gov.au/our-history/history-in-focus/WWI-gallipoli
Source 2		Pros: Cons	
Source 3		Pros: Cons	
Source 4		Pros: Cons	
Recommended sources in order of relevance and usefulness:			
1 2 3 4			

Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of sources

A useful source, whether primary or secondary, is one that will add to your understanding of a historical inquiry. The source needs to be relevant to your investigation and must also be reliable. The conclusions you draw about the sources you have found will determine their usefulness. In many cases, this means separating fact from opinion.

- A fact is something that can be proved beyond doubt and across multiple sources (e.g. the Anzacs landed at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915).
- An opinion is something based on what a person (or persons) believes to be true but cannot necessarily be proven (e.g. Gallipoli is Australia's most important military campaign of all time).

A simple way to detect whether a statement is fact or opinion is to look closely at the language used. The use of words such as 'might', 'could', 'believe', 'think' and 'suggests' all indicate that an opinion is being expressed.

The following questions will help you determine the reliability and usefulness of a source:

- Does it provide factual information or opinion?
- Does it provide information that is supported and reinforced by evidence from other sources?
- Does it provide enough information and sufficient detail to help me answer the inquiry question?
- Is it balanced or does it present one point of view (in other words, is it biased)?

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Analysing political cartoons

Political cartoons appear in newspapers, magazines and online. They are as popular today as they were in the past because they use humour and satire to pass comment on a range of topical political and social issues. They tend to present caricatures of important political figures from the time, exaggerating their physical features for effect.

Political cartoons taken from a particular period of history can be excellent primary sources because they provide a rich combination of fact and opinion from the time. However, they often tend to present a particular point of view on an issue and are not always balanced in their approach. For this reason, it is important that you are able identify examples of bias and separate fact from fiction when using them in your research.

The expression on the monster's face is menacing and scary.

Australia is shown as an unsure helpless boy watching on while Europe is murdered by Germany.

The text suggests that if Australia does not help Europe, Germany will invade next and the same thing will happen here.

The shape and design of the helmet suggests that this monster is a German soldier.

Europe is shown as a poor, defenseless woman being terrorised by a strong and evil monster. This is designed to make Australians angry and want to help her.

The cartoon is designed to make people vote 'YES' in the conscription referendum, so this text directs their anger towards doing this.

Source 3 An example showing how a political cartoon can be analysed

When analysing political cartoons, follow these steps:

Step 1 Begin by identifying the following things:

- the title of the cartoon (if available)
- date the cartoon was first published
- the name of the publication it appeared in and (if possible) the types of readers it was aimed at.
- the name of the artist (if available).

Step 2 Identify the political event or issue being shown in the cartoon. Look for visual clues to help you work this out. Keep in mind that there may be certain aspects of political cartoons that you do not fully understand. You may not be familiar with all of these issues presented (or they may not be clearly explained in the cartoon). Don't let this stop you from analysing those aspects of the cartoon that you are familiar with. You can also search for key words on the Internet to help you understand things that are unclear.

Step 3 Once you have identified the political issue, try to identify the person (or people) and situation shown in the cartoon. Look at what they are doing and wearing. Analyse how they are behaving or interacting with other people shown. Are they wearing unusual clothing, posing in a certain way or shown with particular facial expressions?

Step 4 Examine any other visual clues or devices that the cartoon uses to convey its message. What symbols does it use? Are these important and do they evoke a personal or emotional response for the reader? How are the characters represented?

Apply the skill

1 Follow the steps outlined to analyse Source 4.

Source 4 'Such a simple question' World War I anti-conscription cartoon, *Australian Worker*, 1917.

Check your learning 1.5

Remember and understand

1 Which of the following is an example of a primary source?

- **a** letter written by an Australian soldier during the Gallipoli campaign to his wife in Australia
- **b** photograph of Australians visiting Anzac Cove to commemorate soldiers who died during the Gallipoli campaign of World War I.

2 Provide two reasons why graphic organisers are useful tools when processing and synthesising information from a range of different sources.

Apply and analyse

3 Give two reasons why it is important to know the origin and purpose of every source used in a historical inquiry.

4 What words help indicate that a writer is expressing an opinion rather than a fact?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct an online search to locate other graphic organisers that may be useful to help you process and synthesise information from a range of historical sources.

Some graphic organisers of use to you may include KWL charts, fishbone diagrams and PMI charts. Once you have examined other types of graphic organisers, make a decision about which ones you think are most useful to you.

1.6 Analyse different perspectives and interpretations

Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect many different perspectives, interpretations and values from the past. These may include personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view. For example, an extract from the diary of Ellis Silas presents a very personal account of his experiences during the Gallipoli campaign in 1915. This account is one of many that can help you to gain a more thorough understanding of the experiences of soldiers during the Gallipoli campaign.

'We are relieved from the firing line – the battle still raging; every nerve strained. Australians have done splendidly, holding a very difficult position; have been much troubled with snipers. Am glad I have done my duty. First wash for a week – go down to the Water Hole, which is always covered by Turkish snipers – it was safer in the trenches than here – all around this spot are dead and wounded who have been hit when dodging round this corner; however, one must drink, even if the price be Death. Make dug-outs in our rest camps, but men are continually caught by the snipers. Many are commencing to suffer from dysentery, though the spirit of the men is splendid, always ready for a joke.'

Source 1 Extract from the diary of Ellis Silas, an artist and soldier fighting with the Anzacs at Gallipoli. It is taken from 'The Diary of an Anzac', ML MSS.1840, Mitchell Library, State Library of New South Wales

Source 2 Detail from a studio portrait of of Ellis Silas, London, 1919 [AWM P02801.001]

Many other sources provide evidence on different aspects the war and the Gallipoli campaign; from the perspectives of Australian and New Zealand troops, English troops and Turkish troops.

It is only when we consider a range of different perspectives revealed through all of the available sources that we can begin to form a realistic picture of what World War I was like for all involved and make judgments about the significance of these events.

Source 3 *Roll Call*, Ellis Silas, 1920, oil on canvas, 101.8 x 153.1 cm [AWM ART02436]

Check your learning 1.6

Remember and understand

1 Historical sources always reflect the perspective of their writer. Give two examples of factors that may influence a writer's point of view or perspective.

Apply and analyse

2 List three key pieces of information about the conditions at Gallipoli during World War I as presented in Source 1, 'The Diary of an Anzac'. How might an account written from the perspective of a Turkish soldier differ?

3 Source 1 is a primary written source taken from 'The Diary of an Anzac' by Ellis Silas. It was written in 1915 by an English soldier and artist at Gallipoli.

a Do you think this piece of writing presents a balanced and reliable description of conditions at Gallipoli? Why/why not?

b Source 3 is a painting by Ellis Silas produced in 1920 that was commissioned and paid for by the Australian War Records Section. Do you think it shows a different perspective from Source 1 (diary)? Why/why not?

1.7 Communicate your findings

Develop texts, particularly descriptions and discussions

Historical writing requires you to describe and explain events using evidence from a range of sources. You will often be required to outline the significance of a past event while providing reasons for the event and referring to relevant evidence. Different types of sources need to be used to ensure that historical writing presents a balanced view and is supported by reliable evidence. The two most common and useful text types you will use this year are descriptions and explanations.

Writing descriptions

Descriptions give clear information about people, places or objects at particular moments in time. They focus on the main characteristics or features of particular people or things. They 'paint a picture' in words for readers.

Descriptions must be well planned. Use the structure in Source 1 or ask your teacher for a template. Descriptions must always follow a set structure, and events must be organised in chronological order.

Structure of a description	
Introduction	Introduce the subject. State the name of the person or event. Outline why the topic is important.
Body	Provide details about the person or event (including dates and important facts). Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. Quotations and descriptive words should be used where relevant.
Conclusion (optional)	Revisit the most important details and provide a concluding statement.

Source 1 Structure of a description

Writing explanations

Explanations tell how or why something happened. They provide the reader with a greater understanding of the causes and effects of past events. Use the structure in Source 2 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Explanations must be clear and factual. They should not contain opinions or emotional language. There must be supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made.

All historical writing needs to be acknowledged. At the end of your writing you must always include a full reference list or bibliography. This list shows your readers the range of different sources of evidence you used and where they can be found. For detailed information on this, refer to the skill 'Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods', which was covered on page 16.

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	Clearly state the main idea or aim. Briefly outline the reason/s why an event occurred and its effect/s.
Body	Each idea must be supported by evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. Language should be precise and not contain emotional words. Personal opinions (e.g. 'I' or 'my') should be avoided.
Conclusion (optional)	Provide a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body. State a conclusion drawn from the evidence.

Source 2 Structure of an explanation

Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies

The presentation of your findings is one of the most important aspects of your inquiry because it draws together all of the sources, evidence and findings of your investigation.

There are a number of ways to effectively and impressively communicate your findings. For example:

- oral – speeches, class presentations, re-enactments, interviews and role plays

- graphic – posters, cartoons, graphic organisers and models
- written – descriptions, explanations, class newspapers, scripts, letters and diaries
- digital – audiovisual presentations, websites, films, blogs, wikis and apps.

All of these communication forms can add colour and life to the presentation of historical information.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Creating an audiovisual presentation

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation, there are several steps to follow.

Step 1 Gather your research

Make sure that you have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images and/or photographs. If you have been working in a group, this may involve collating your research with other members of your class.

Step 2 Plan and create your presentation

Once you have gathered your research, you will need to decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi. Alternatively, you may like to create a website or short film to show to the class. How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher. It is important to check these before your presentation so that you can ensure you are meeting all criteria.

Step 3 Deliver your presentation

Regardless of the format you have chosen, there are some things to keep in mind:

- Practice makes perfect – rehearse your presentation before coming to class, especially if you are working in a group. Make sure each member of the group knows exactly what they have to do.
- Prepare for the worst – make a backup copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as data loss.
- Engage the audience – make eye contact, do not read from your notes and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make your text and layout as visually appealing as possible.
- Check for errors – make sure any audio and visual material contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly – focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish strongly – your presentation should end on a high note!

Apply the skill

1 Follow the steps outlined above to prepare and present a brief audiovisual presentation on an aspect of World War I that interests you.

Check your learning 1.7

Remember and understand

1 What is the purpose of a description? How is this different from the purpose of an explanation?

Apply and analyse

2 Your teacher has asked you to provide a written report on the significance of the Gallipoli campaign. Would it be more appropriate to write a description or an explanation? Explain your choice.

Evaluate and create

3 Imagine that all members of your class have been asked to present an audiovisual presentation focusing on the short- and long-term effects of the Gallipoli campaign during World War I. Your teacher has asked each member of the audience to create a peer evaluation form that can be used to assess each presentation. Create five assessment criteria to be included on the form that can be used to assess the most important aspects of each presentation. Present your five assessment criteria in order of importance.

1.8 Careers in history

There are a wide range of jobs and careers linked to the study of history. Because many aspects of society, culture and technology change so quickly these days, the need to preserve stories and artefacts from the past has become more important than ever. An appreciation of events from the past can help members of a community or citizens of a nation avoid repeating costly mistakes (such as wars) and make better plans for the future.

Today, many employers recognise that historical research and analysis skills are essential for a wide range of careers. As a result, these skills are in demand and there are many jobs and career paths linked to your study of history at school. Some jobs relate to the study and protection of our heritage, while others involve working out in the community. A selection of these jobs is listed in Source 1.

Studying and protecting our heritage

Many historians are involved in collecting, conserving and restoring important artefacts and records from the past. Historians are also involved in selecting and protecting significant objects and records from the present day so they can be studied by future generations. These collections are kept in museums, art galleries, government buildings and not-for-profit organisations. They can be accessed and used by anyone interested in finding out more about the past. Historians work in a wide range of fields. There are curators who look after precious collections, exhibition designers who help to present artefacts to the public and education officers who organise talks and presentations for the public, especially school students. A new and growing career path for historians involves studying, photographing and cataloging rare and important artefacts and physical collections so that they can be displayed online. Online collections allow people all around the world to access important historical sources from the past.

Source 1 Studying history can lead to many interesting and exciting career paths.

Studying and protecting our heritage	Working out and about	Related opportunities
Museum curator	Archaeologist	Writer
Art gallery manager	Tour guide	Information manager
Oral historian	Film and TV consultant/ Location scout	Lawyer
Archivist	Building restoration	Publisher
Conservator	Heritage officer	History teacher
Exhibition designer	Documentary film maker	Film and TV production assistant
Genealogist	Urban planner	Records management
Museum education officer	Surveyor	Foreign affairs

Career profile: Michelle Stevenson – Coordinator of Humanities Collection Online

Michelle Stevenson works for Museum Victoria on the development and implementation of digital projects using objects from Museum Victoria's large collections. Museum Victoria's collections cover everything from Indigenous Australian history to Antarctic exploration to film and television in Victoria. Because of this, a strong and broad knowledge of Australian history is essential. Michelle has worked on a range of projects, including:

- creating digital labels for exhibitions in the museum's galleries
- working with developers to create historic walking-tour apps
- project managing the creation of virtual exhibitions to be viewed online.

Michelle creates some of this content herself and relies on all her historical skills when she is researching and writing about different collections and objects. Depending on the project, this can include using books and journal articles, archival materials and other collection materials and conducting interviews. Michelle believes history is all about stories. She loves uncovering the hidden stories behind objects from the past and sharing them with other people.

Michelle's other passion is alpine skiing. She has found a clever way to combine her love of history with her love of the sport. She is currently completing a PhD in the history, development and significance of skiing

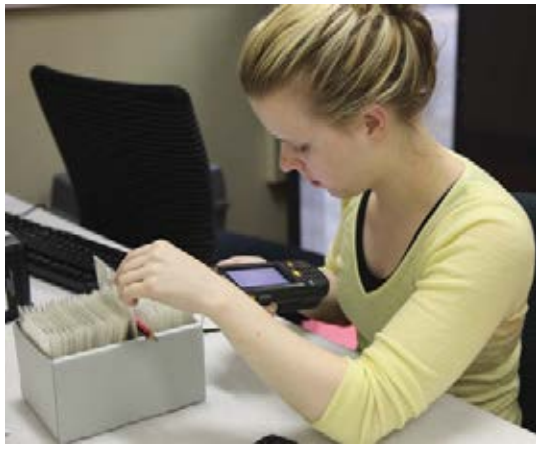
in Australia and in her free time is curator of the National Alpine Museum of Australia, a small community museum that explores stories of Australian alpine life and winter sport.

Working out and about

Not all career paths in history mean you will be working inside. Studying history also provides many opportunities for people who prefer to travel or spend their time outdoors. Urban planners help to plan the development of towns, cities and buildings in Australia and all around the world. They work with councils to decide on appropriate uses for land. They need to have an understanding and appreciation of heritage issues in cities and recommend new developments that blend in with older buildings. Specialist planners are known as heritage officers. They look at the conservation value of older areas and buildings, deciding what should be kept or restored. Before any big, new development happens, archaeologists may also be called in to work with heritage officers and explore the area for evidence of past use. Old urban areas can be a treasure trove of objects from the past – old pots, coins, bottles and even bones can be important objects from our past that need to be protected.

Related opportunities

Bill Gates, the founder of Microsoft and one of the richest men in the world, has often employed history graduates. Gates commented that he prefers history graduates because of the way they learn to think about the world and because they are able to consider many different aspects of an issue at once. History graduates are also sought after in fields such as law, politics and foreign affairs. History not only teaches us to understand more about societies and cultures around the world today but also how to locate, evaluate and analyse information. Most importantly, a study of history teaches us to test assumptions and support statements and hypotheses with evidence. The ability to sift through large amounts of information and work out what is important in the detail is essential in professions such as law and politics.



Source 2 Michelle Stevenson helps share Museum Victoria's collections with new audiences online.

Check your learning 1.8

Remember and understand

1 What reasons does Michelle Stevenson give for her love of history?

2 What sort of projects is Michelle Stevenson involved with at Museum Victoria?

Apply and analyse

3 What skills do history graduates have that make them sought after in areas such as law and foreign affairs?

4 Why do you think it is important for an urban planner to have an understanding of history?

Evaluate and create

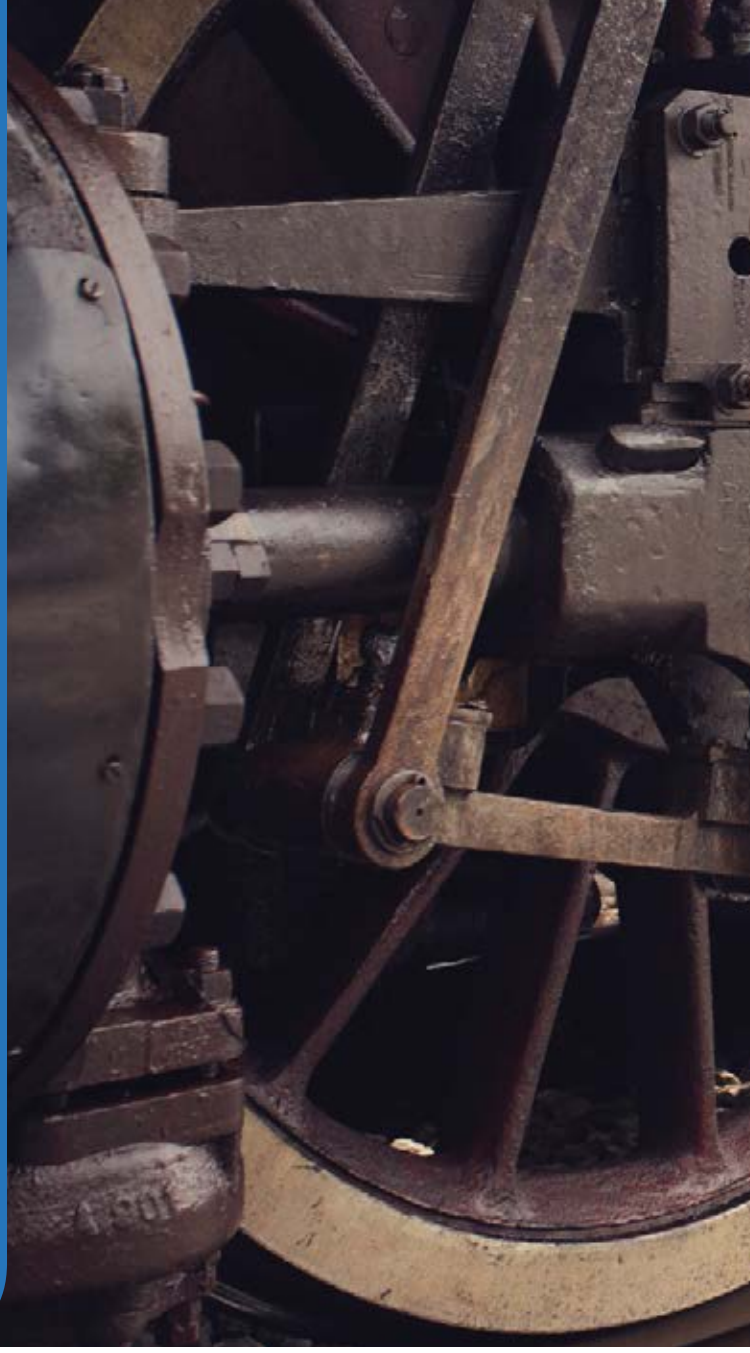
5 Create a design brief for a historical walking-tour app of your school's local area.

- **a** What landmarks would you include?
- **b** How would you present information in an interesting visual format?
- **c** Write the guide's commentary for the app.

Unit 1 The Industrial Revolution

Introduction to the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution was an era of change all over the world. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, most people lived in small rural communities, growing their own food and making many of the items they needed themselves. Over the course of the Industrial Revolution all of this changed. New technologies were introduced allowing goods to be produced in huge numbers in factories. The iron and textile industries transformed and there were huge changes in transportation, communication and banking. While the Industrial Revolution brought about an improved standard of living for many, it also resulted in many negative changes for the poor and working classes.



2A

What factors shaped the world from 1750 to 1918?

2B

How did technology and industry shape the modern world?

chapter 2

Source 1 The invention of the steam engine was one of the most significant events leading to the Industrial Revolution. It led to the development of many steam-powered engines and machines such as the steam locomotive.

The Industrial Revolution

This unit is mandatory:

- The Industrial Revolution.

It must be completed by all students.

2.1 The birth of the modern world

Most historians agree that the modern world (also known as the industrial world) developed from the 1750s onwards. They use the term 'modern world' to describe this period mainly because the developments that took place from this time onwards are familiar to people in Western societies today – for example, systems of law and government still followed in countries like Australia, Britain and the United States all took shape at this time. Other examples include:

- the mass production of goods in factories (see Source 1)
- the mass movements of people to cities and towns
- the establishment of trade unions and workers' rights
- mass migration of people from across Europe to colonies in the **New World**
- the start of rapid transport and mass communication
- organised public education and schools.

The expansion of European empires

From the late 16th century onwards, major European powers – such as Britain, France, Spain and Portugal – all competed to increase their control of new territories across the globe – a practice known as **imperialism**. Colonies were valued not only for the additional power and military advantages they could provide, but also because they delivered access to a range of raw materials like timber, cotton, coal and gold. These materials became the driving force behind the development of a range of industries in Europe. They also made imperial powers extremely wealthy.

Source 1 Factories such as this one in Vermont, USA, were the driving force of the Industrial Revolution. They allowed raw goods to be manufactured and sold in large quantities. Much of the workforce at the time consisted of young children.

Raw materials from **colonies** across the British Empire fuelled the **Industrial Revolution**. These materials included wool and gold from Australia; cotton, sugar and tobacco from the Americas; gold and diamonds from Africa; and spices, fabric and tea from India.

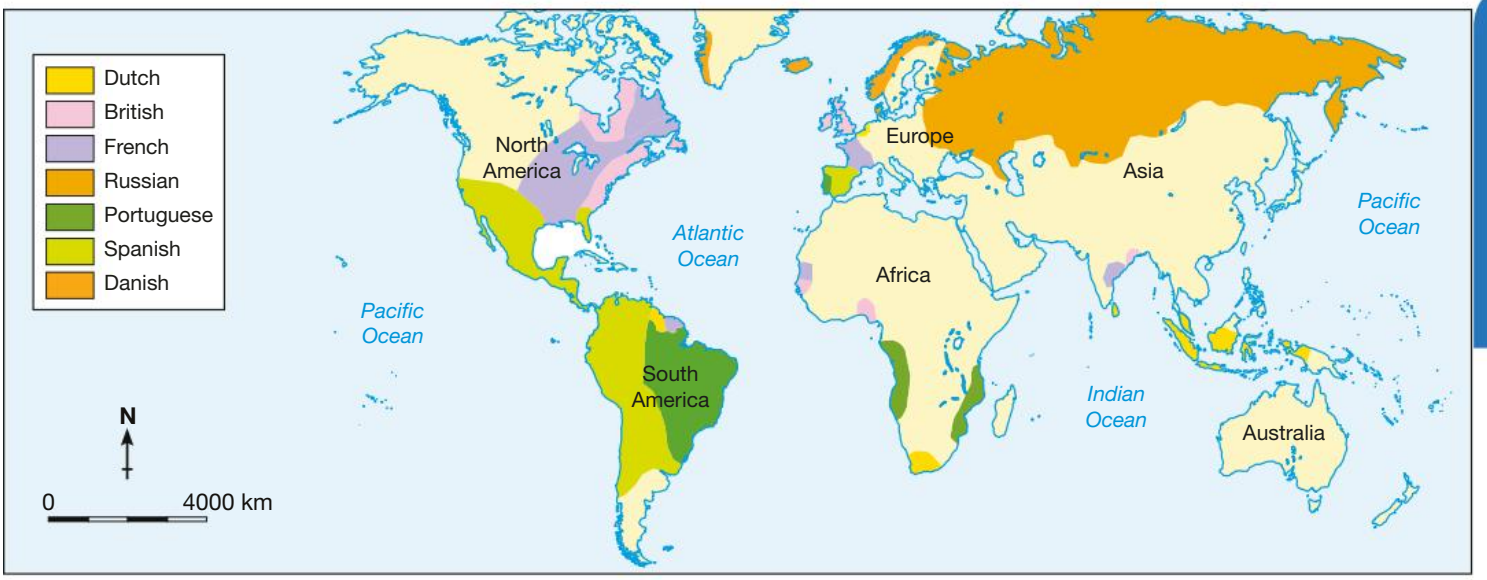
In addition to raw materials, the overseas colonies became valuable markets in which to sell the products manufactured from those raw materials for a profit (e.g. cloth made from cotton and cigarettes made from tobacco). In this way, European empires profited not once, but twice from their colonies around the world.

A comparison of world maps in 1750 and 1900 reveals how quickly European empires expanded their territories over a period of 150 years (see Sources 2 and 3).

Newly formed countries such as Italy and Germany aggressively looked for colonies at the end of the 19th century so that they could compete with the major powers in Europe such as Britain and France. This rivalry over colonies around the world was one of the key factors that contributed to the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

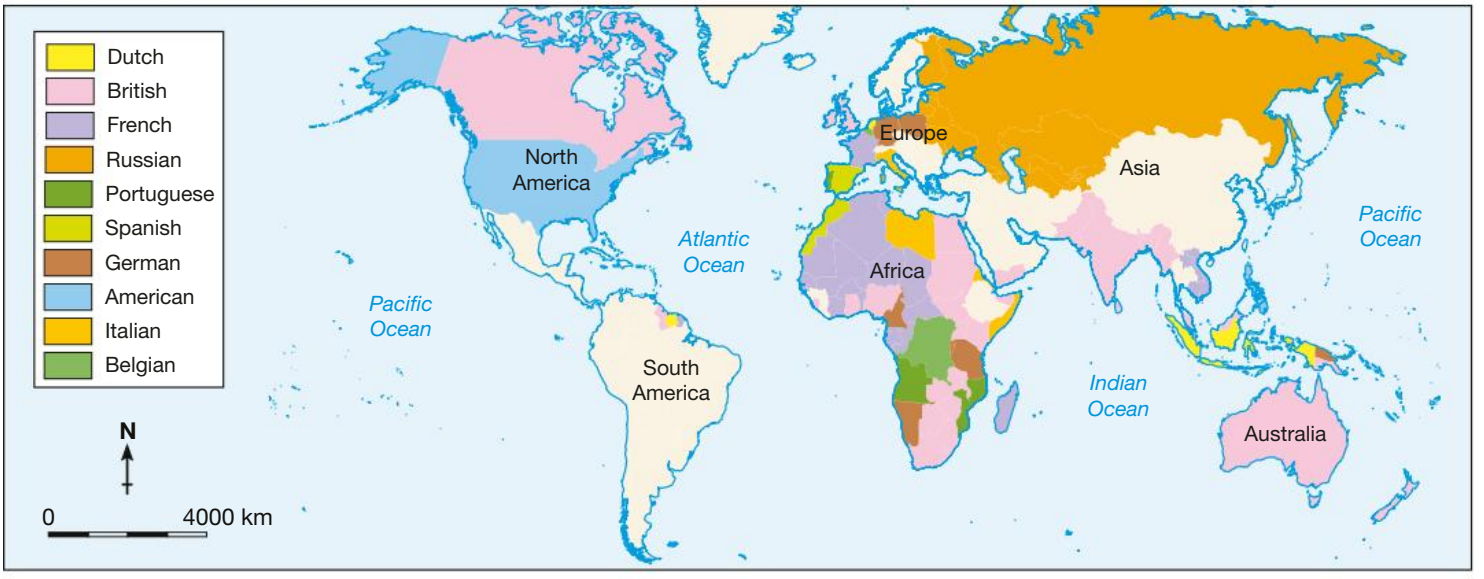
At the end of World War I in 1918, the British Empire reached its peak. By that time, it controlled approximately a quarter of the world's population and land mass. Many of these colonies were vital during World War I, as they provided local support and supplies for the British war effort.

WORLD: COLONIAL EMPIRES IN 1750



Source 2 Source: Oxford University Press

WORLD: 2 COLONIAL EMPIRES IN 1900



Source 3 Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.1

Remember and understand

1 What is meant by the term 'modern world'? When do most historians agree it began?

2 Why were distant colonies such important assets to European powers during the 19th century? In what ways did imperial powers profit from them?

3 What percentage of the world's total population and land mass did Britain control by 1918?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Sources 2 and 3.

a List the three European powers that controlled the most overseas colonies in 1750.

b List the three European powers that controlled the most overseas colonies in 1900.

What changes in European empires and territories took place between 1750 and 1900?

2.2 Key events of the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution first began in Britain around 1750 after a series of changes in farming practices paved the way for the country to increase its population and improve its production and manufacturing methods. These changes in farming methods – now referred to as the **Agricultural Revolution** – were gradual. They began in the middle of the 17th century and continued through the 19th century. Without them, the Industrial Revolution would not have taken place. One of the main features of the Agricultural Revolution was the fencing off of thousands of small areas of common land that had previously been used by local farmers to grow food. These smaller areas of land were joined to create larger farming areas. This process, known as the **enclosures**, benefited wealthy people who were granted rights to farm these larger areas of land for

Source 1 Textiles industry: the spinning jenny, invented in 1764

Source 2 Manufacturing industry: the steam hammer, invented in 1840

profit. The enclosures, together with innovations in farming machinery and animal breeding, meant that more crops could be grown and animals could be raised by far fewer people. Overall, farming became much more efficient but this took place at the expense of poor people who relied on common land for their daily needs.

During the Agricultural Revolution, farm workers and their families were forced from their homes, and people moved away from rural villages to towns and cities in search of work. They became a new class of workers that fuelled the spread of the Industrial Revolution. They provided a much-needed labour force to operate the new factories and mills in rapidly expanding cities.

Key inventions and innovations of the Industrial Revolution

The first industries that were transformed by innovations in the Industrial Revolution were related to the production of iron, coal, cotton and wool. Inventions and new practices in one industry tended to affect others. For example, the development of coal-powered steam engines led to an increased demand for coal. The expansion of new and deeper coalmines required better steam engines for the pumping machines that removed water from the bottom of mines. Improved steam engines could power hundreds of spinning and weaving machines and led to the spread of large factories and mills across England. As steam engines developed, they also powered new modes of transport, including steam-powered trains and ships, and were later used to generate electricity.

Source 3 Transport industry: the steam train, invented in 1801

Source 4 Communications industry: the telephone, first patented in 1876

Living and working conditions

Working conditions for British factory and mine workers in particular were harsh and demanding during the Industrial Revolution. Men, women and children worked in unsafe conditions and for many hours – six days a week and up to 16 hours a day. Through the 19th century, demand for reforms to regulate working conditions grew louder in Britain, particularly for child labour. This led to a series of government inquiries and legislation that regulated the minimum employment age, wages and the length of the working week. By the 1870s, for example, no child under 10 could be employed in factories and education for children under 10 was compulsory.

Living conditions for factory workers were also appalling. Many workers lived in slum areas close to the factories where they were employed (see Source 6). Families had no choice but to live in overcrowded conditions, often with no access to fresh water or proper sewerage. Consequences of these unhygienic living conditions included regular outbreaks of disease, a low life expectancy (just 29 years, in Liverpool in 1865) and a high infant mortality rate.

Many writers of the time were appalled by the plight of the working poor whose work seemed unrewarding and whose lives were cut short by poverty, disease and injury. This period led to calls for social reform and also saw the formation of workers' groups, such as **trade unions**.

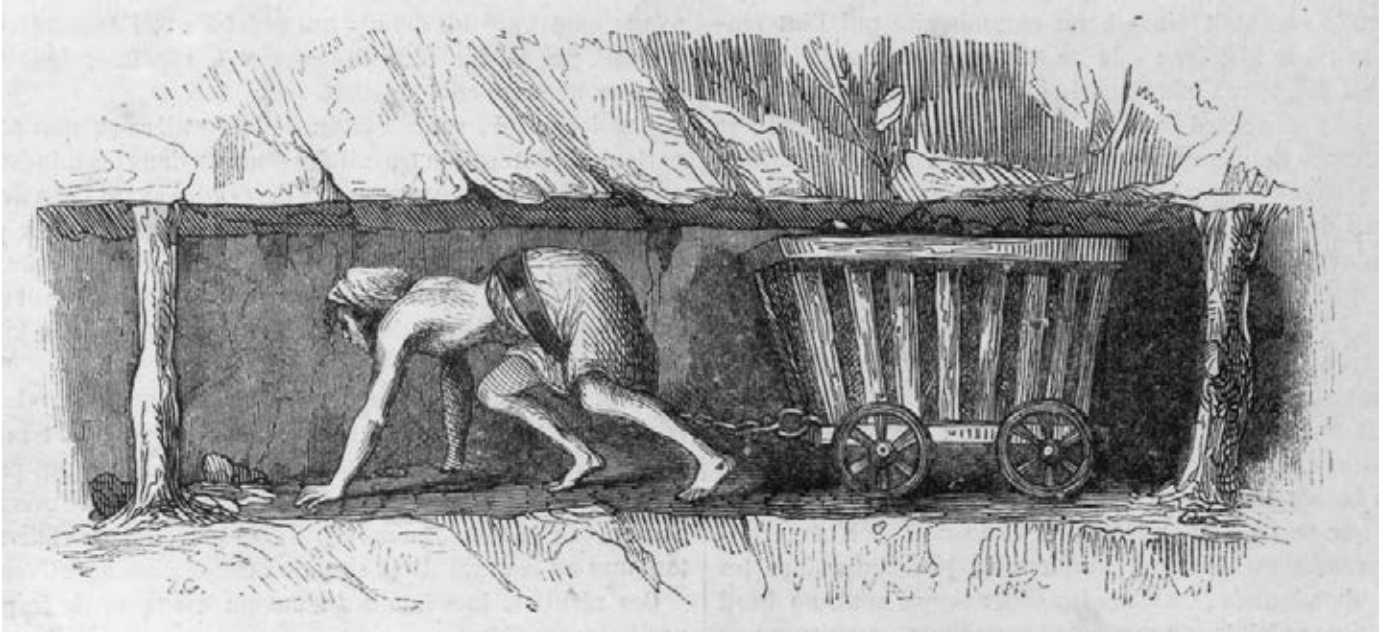
Towards the end of the period, conditions improved for many people. Slums were torn down to be replaced by new houses that provided heating, running water and sewerage systems. There were also a number of other benefits for workers in cities brought about by the Industrial Revolution. For example:

- improvements in farming made food cheaper and more plentiful
- mass-produced goods such as clothing and furniture became more affordable
- improved public transport allowed workers to live away from factories in the newly developed suburbs
- street lighting transformed city life, encouraging people to enjoy entertainment at theatres and in music halls at night.

Long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution in Britain

The Industrial Revolution had significant impacts for Britain and its people. It transformed Britain's economy, which became (for a time) the world's leading economic and industrial power. Britain's population quadrupled from an estimated 6.5 million people in 1750 to more than 27.5 million in 1850 as living standards improved and death rates decreased.

Britain changed from an agricultural society to an urban society, with most people living in towns and cities where work could be found. In the growing towns and cities, a 'middle class' emerged: people who were neither landowners nor workers, such as bankers, shopkeepers, teachers and administrators. Suburbs surrounding the cities later developed.



Source 5 This illustration shows a girl employed as a 'hurrier' at a coalmine. Her job was to pull heavy coal carts along dark, narrow tunnels, using a harness and belt.

Source 6 People living in a 19th-century London slum. Conditions were often crowded and unsanitary.

Check your learning 2.2

Remember and understand

1 Why was steam power so important to the Industrial Revolution?
2 Name the four industries that underwent great change during the Industrial Revolution.
3 What were the enclosures? What effect did they have on farmers using common land to grow food?

Apply and analyse

4 In a class discussion, share your knowledge of working conditions for children during the Industrial Revolution. How do they compare with working conditions around the world today?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct some additional research and write a 250-word description of what life in a typical city in Britain would have been like for a factory worker during the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution

The **Industrial Revolution** was a period of rapid technological change that took place from around 1750 to 1914. It began in Great Britain before quickly spreading to Europe and other parts of the world. Huge developments in farming and manufacturing changed not only the way things were produced and sold, but also how people lived and where they worked. The changes were so significant that they revolutionised many societies.

The RMS *Titanic* was one of the most important achievements of the Industrial Revolution. On 10 April 1912 after more than a century of industrial development, it set out from England on its maiden voyage to New York. The night *Titanic* sank, over 1500 people died. Like the Industrial Revolution itself, the *Titanic* was an immense achievement and a triumph of technology. It was also a disaster.

3A

What developments and innovations led to the Industrial Revolution?

1. The Industrial Revolution was brought about by a range of technological, economic and social changes. As a class, brainstorm some examples of each.
2. Do you agree that we are in the middle of a digital revolution?

3B

How did the Industrial Revolution affect the lives of men, women and children?

1. During this period people gave up farming to find work. How do you think this affected their lives?
2. What do you think living conditions would have been like at the time?

chapter 3

Source 1 The RMS *Titanic* leaving Southampton, England, on its maiden voyage to New York, 10 April 1912

3C

What were the short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution?

1 Industrialisation had many impacts on society and the environment. In pairs or small groups, brainstorm as many changes as you can that were brought about by the Industrial Revolution – both in the short term and long term.

3.1 The Industrial Revolution: a timeline

A woman using a spinning jenny

1709
Abraham Darby discovers how to make coke from coal – a more efficient fuel in the production of iron.

1710
Thomas Newcomen builds a steam engine to pump water from coalmines.

1765
James Hargreaves' spinning jenny allows one worker to make eight times the previous amount of yarn.

1792
Inventor William Murdoch uses coal gas for house lighting.

1580 | 1700 | 1750 | 1800

1589
William Lee invents the stocking frame, a mechanical knitting machine for knitting stockings. It played an important role in the early part of the Industrial Revolution.

1733
John Kay invents the flying shuttle, allowing weavers to make larger sections of fabric at greater speed, increasing demand for yarn.

The flying shuttle introduced a more efficient way of weaving.

1775
James Watt creates an efficient steam engine.

1779
Steam-powered mills with automatic weaving machines begin to be built.

1793
Eli Whitney invents the cotton gin (engine), which can clean large quantities of raw cotton.

A stocking frame, *c.* 1770

Source 1 A timeline of the key events of the Industrial Revolution

Brunel's engineering feat: the Thames tunnel

The steamship *Great Eastern* laying the first successful Atlantic cable

The Brooklyn Bridge under construction, *c*. 1878

1811
Riots begin, lasting until 1815, in which workers smash up factories and equipment in protest, fearing machines will replace them. These people become known as Luddites.

1821
Michael Faraday demonstrates the principle of an electric motor.

1825
Isambard Brunel starts building a tunnel under the Thames River; work is completed in 1842.

1839
The world's first screw-propelled steamship, SS *Archimedes*, is built in Great Britain.

1850

1863
Bulk steel creation is made possible through the open-hearth process created by Siemens-Martin; the use of steel combined with reinforced concrete enables the construction of skyscrapers.

1866
First transatlantic telegraph cable is laid.

1876
Alexander Graham Bell patents his 'acoustic telegraph', or telephone.

1883
The first 10-storey skyscraper is built in Chicago and the longest suspension bridge at this time, the Brooklyn Bridge in New York, is completed.

1885
Karl Benz uses an internal combustion engine in the first 'automobile'.

1900

1903
The Wright brothers carry out the first powered heavier-than-air flight.

1908
Henry Ford uses a production line (assembly line) to produce the Ford Model T.

1915

1912
The *Titanic*, then the world's largest passenger steamship, hits an iceberg in the north-west Atlantic Ocean and sinks; 1517 people die.

Check your learning 3.1

Remember and understand

1 What was the 'flying shuttle' used for, and when was it invented?
2 When was the first transatlantic telegraph cable laid?

Apply and analyse

3 Using the timeline, calculate how many years there were between when the first steam engine was invented and the first aeroplane flight.

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some Internet research to find out the dates of some other significant inventions and discoveries that occurred during the Industrial Revolution. Add these events to a new timeline in your notebook.

3.2 The Industrial Revolution in Britain

Britain before 1750

Before 1750, Britain was an agricultural society. Around 80 per cent of people at the time lived and worked on small farms in rural areas. Most farms harvested small crops each year and raised small herds of livestock (such as sheep and cattle). Despite the small scale of most English farms, agriculture was still the main economic activity in Britain.

Source 1 A 19th-century artist's impression of rural life in Britain before the Industrial Revolution

By comparison, manufacturing, mining and trade employed relatively few people in Britain. For the most part, manufacturing was small and localised. Tools used in the manufacture of most goods (such as carts, mills and looms) were basic and powered by people, animals or waterwheels that harnessed the power of fast-flowing rivers and streams.

Towns and villages at the time were small and self-contained. Roads linking villages were poor and most people travelled on foot or by horse. In fact, Britain's road system had not improved much since the fall of the Roman Empire, around 1300 years earlier. As a result, most people rarely travelled far from the places where they lived and worked.

In most cases, the working day began at sunrise and ended at sunset. People's diets were inadequate and average life expectancy was short. Illness was common because of poor hygiene, bad or non-existent sewage systems, and polluted water supplies.

British society was divided into strict social classes according to wealth and position based on birth. The aristocratic (noble) families made up only 1 per cent of the population but controlled about 39 per cent of Britain's wealth. Noble gentlemen did not involve themselves in farming, trades or professions. Instead, they invested much of their wealth in land.

There is no single event that marks the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in Britain, but the industries that first experienced it were connected with the production of iron, coal, cotton and wool.

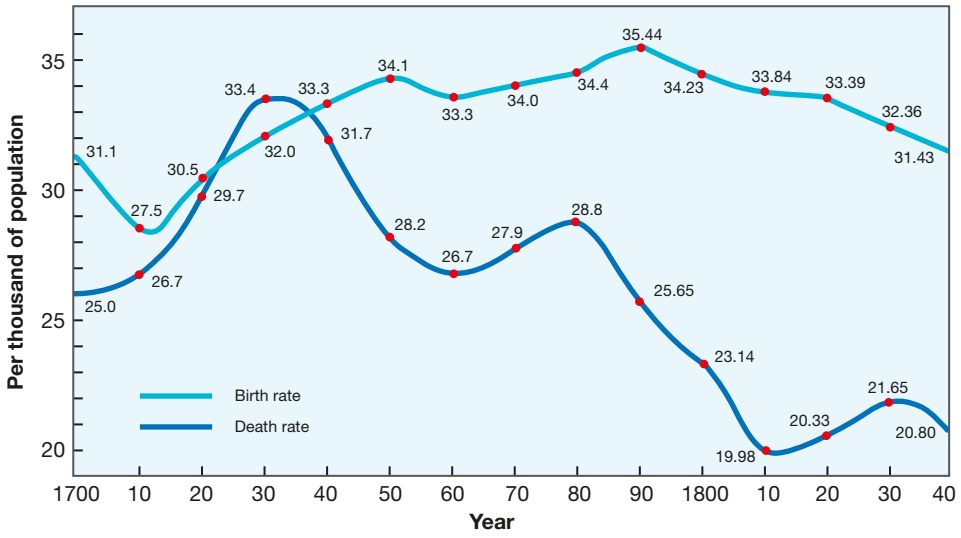
The Industrial Revolution begins

During the Industrial Revolution, Britain's population quadrupled from an estimated 6.5 million people in 1750 to around 32.5 million in 1900. This increase was mainly a result of improved living standards and declining death rates. The population of Britain moved from rural to urban communities, and Britain was transformed through the development of:

- *factories and textile mills* – the Industrial Revolution led to thousands of new factories and mills being built across Britain. These factories relied on large numbers of workers and machinery to manufacture massive quantities of goods in one place. The growth of factories and textile mills transformed Britain's economy and society.
- *modern towns and cities* – great industrial and commercial cities like London and Manchester grew as people moved to towns and cities to work at the new factories, mills and metal foundries. Before the Industrial Revolution, 80 per cent of the population lived in the countryside and only 20 per cent in cities. **Industrialisation** reversed this pattern. By 1850, 80 per cent of people in Britain were living in a major city or town and only 20 per cent remained on the land.
- *new sources of power* – the development of steam power and electricity transformed the manufacturing, agricultural transport and communications industries, having a major impact on people's everyday lives.

Supplies of coal became vital to fuel steam engines and, later, electrical power stations.

- *improved transport and communications* – as the population grew, towns became linked by new canals, roads and railway lines. New modes of transport were also invented to replace horse-drawn carriages (see Source 3). As travelling conditions improved, people travelled more and lived less isolated lives. Later, new communication technologies like telegraph and telephone systems were also introduced.



Source 2 Population change in Britain, 1700–1840

The growth of cities and industries also saw the emergence of a new social class that became known as the 'middle class'. This new group of people came from a broad range of backgrounds and were neither wealthy aristocratic landowners nor impoverished factory workers. Instead, they included wealthy industrialists and merchants, as well as bankers, shopkeepers, teachers, doctors, lawyers, and the increasing number of managers, clerks and government officials. People earning middle-class salaries could afford fine clothing, furniture, ceramics and other household items. It was this class of people that drove the demand for mass-produced consumer goods. They also drove the need for more schools, universities and libraries. The political power of the British middle class increased throughout the 1800s.

Source 3 This painting from 1831, *The Progress of Steam, A View in Regent Park 1831,* humorously shows suggested replacements for horse-drawn carriages.

Check your learning 3.2

Remember and understand

1 When and where did the Industrial Revolution begin?

2 List five key features of British society in the century before the Industrial Revolution began.

Apply and analyse

3 Write a paragraph explaining how life changed for British people between the mid-1700s and the late 1800s.

4 Using Source 2, describe the changes that took place in Britain from 1700 to 1840.

5 Before the Industrial Revolution, 80 per cent of people lived and worked on the land. How had this trend changed by 1850?

Evaluate and create

6 Historians still argue about why Britain became such a powerhouse of the Industrial Revolution, while other European countries were slower to modernise. The Netherlands and France were two other countries that might have had an Industrial Revolution first. Conduct some Internet research to identify some of the reasons why this didn't happen.

3.3 Why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain

One of the key factors that led to the start of the Industrial Revolution in Britain was its authority and wealth as an **empire**.

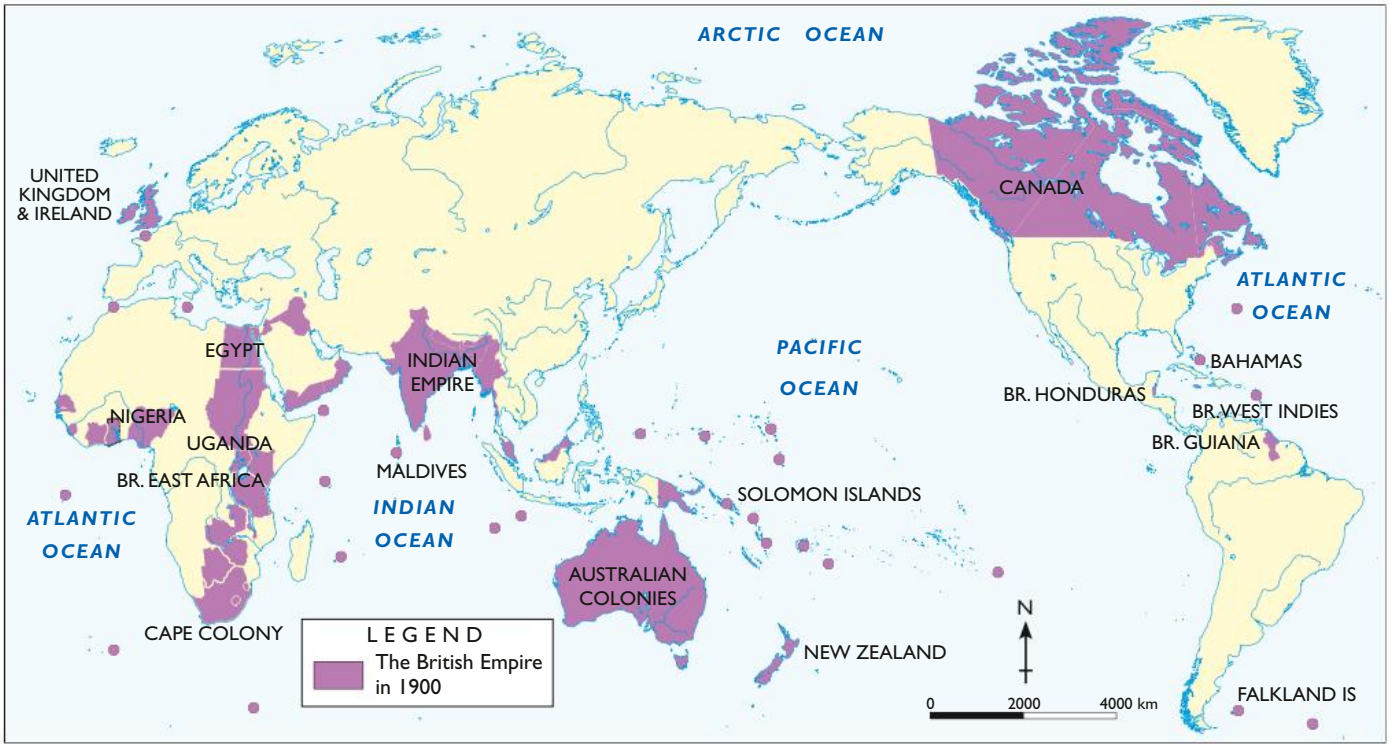
Rise of the British Empire

The expansion of the British Empire took place in two phases:

- The first phase was the establishment of the earliest British **colonies** in North America in the 1600s. Over the next 200 years, Britain, France, Spain, the Dutch and Portuguese all laid claims to new territories around the world, including the Americas, Asia, Africa and the Pacific.
- The second phase was linked to a series of wars fought between the European powers in the 18th century and early part of the 19th century. Britain's superior naval strength ensured that it succeeded in becoming the dominant imperial power, despite the loss of many of its American colonies in the **American War of Independence** between 1775 and 1783.

By 1900, the British Empire had expanded to cover around a quarter of the Earth's surface and ruled over a quarter of the world's population (see Source 1). Many of Britain's colonies provided the raw materials, workforce (in the form of slaves) and customers needed to drive the Industrial Revolution. Britain controlled more colonies, and therefore had access to more raw materials than any other country, including sugar from Australia and the West Indies, wool from Australia and New Zealand, cotton and tea from India, rubber from Malaya, gold from Australia and South Africa, coffee from Jamaica and Africa, wheat from Australia and Canada, and timber from the vast pine forests of Canada.

WORLD: BRITISH EMPIRE 1900



Source 1

Source: Oxford University Press

Source 2 Britain relied heavily on a strong navy and experienced fleets of merchant trading ships.

Other factors

In addition to the power of the British Empire, historians have proposed a range of reasons why Britain was the first country to experience the Industrial Revolution and why it became the world's leading economic and industrial power for a time. The answer lies in a combination of factors related to Britain's history, geography and culture. Some of these are discussed briefly below:

- *Britain's coal supplies* – Britain was fortunate to have large supplies of coal, a vital fuel for the steam power that drove the Industrial Revolution. None of the other European powers had such large quantities of accessible coal.
- *naval power and trading power* – as an island nation, Britain had always relied on skilled sailors, a strong navy and experienced fleets of merchant ships. Its largest merchant trading company was the East India Company (EIC). At its peak, the EIC rivalled many smaller European powers in terms of wealth and influence.
- *individual freedom and the capitalist spirit* – unlike many of the other European powers, there was a greater measure of individual and intellectual freedom in Britain. These freedoms provided a fertile ground for those willing to try new methods and take risks. In other parts of Europe, government restrictions and less individual freedom limited opportunity.
- *stable government* – before the start of the Industrial Revolution, Britain had enjoyed a prolonged period without much political or social conflict, compared to many other countries in Europe. This sense of stability and order encouraged the growth of business.
- *superior banking system and capital for investment* – increased trade meant that financial services in England – such as banking, investment and insurance – expanded to support and protect that trade. Britain's banking sector was more advanced and modern than those of other European countries. There was a ready supply of capital (money) available at very low rates of interest. This meant that money was available to start up new businesses and pay for experiments to develop new inventions. Two of the key inventions of the Industrial Revolution, the steamship and the telegraph, were important in helping Britain administer their colonies around the world.

Check your learning 3.3

Remember and understand

1 List the main changes that took place across Britain between 1750 and 1850.
2 Why were large coal deposits in Britain so significant during the Industrial Revolution?
3 What was the name of the largest British merchant trading company?
4 List three colonies under British rule and the raw materials they provided to fuel the growth of industries in Britain during the Industrial Revolution?

Apply and analyse

5 What percentage of the Earth's surface was under British rule by 1900?
6 Use Source 1 and your own research online to answer the following: By 1900, 25 per cent of the world's total population was ruled by the British. How many people was this?

3.4 Developments in agriculture

From the mid-1600s, changes in farming and agriculture across Britain paved the way for the Industrial Revolution. Many historians believe that without these changes industrialisation would not have been possible from 1750 onwards. The changes that took place in agriculture were brought about by demands for more food to support Britain's growing population. Collectively, these changes are referred to as the **Agricultural Revolution**.

During the Agricultural Revolution, forests were cleared, grazing pastures were turned over to crop growing, and low-lying marshes were drained to grow even more crops. Small plots of farmland were consolidated into larger, more efficient fields under the **enclosures.** As a result, over 100 years Britain increased its farmlands by 30 per cent.

For the first time, agriculture became a business. Instead of just growing food to eat, farms began producing surplus amounts of food with the goal of selling it for profit. Landowners began investing more money in better livestock, fences and farming equipment. They also moved to growing high-yield crops such as wheat and barley. Improved farming techniques and equipment led to increases in crop production. For example, the amount of wheat produced in Britain increased by 75 per cent between 1700 and 1800.

The enclosures

More than 4000 Enclosure Acts (laws) were passed by the British Parliament during the Agricultural Revolution. These Acts transferred areas of common land that had previously been worked by small groups of local farmers into the hands of private landowners. These smaller areas of land were then joined together to create large farms that were enclosed by hedges or stone walls. This meant that local famers could no longer graze their animals or farm the land (see Source 1). Other land, which until then had been known as 'waste land', was also enclosed. By 1790, three-quarters of all farming land in Britain was enclosed by wealthy landlords. These landlords then rented this land to tenant farmers.

The process caused a great deal of social unrest as many poor people were forced off the land they had farmed free of charge for generations. Many flooded into the cities and became part of the new industrial working classes, while others sought new lives abroad.

Source 1 Stone walls like these were built to enclose what was once common land.

Crop rotation

Despite the hardship it caused for many poor farmers, the new commercial approach to farming led to improved management of the crops. For centuries, farmers had practised a process known as crop rotation, which involved leaving a field fallow (unused) for a period in order to avoid exhausting the soil. However, in 1730 a landowner by the name of Charles Townshend introduced a new method of crop rotation on his farm that became known as the 'four-field system'. He grew wheat in the first field, barley in the second, root vegetables (such as carrots and turnips) in the third and clover in the fourth. Each season, the crops were rotated (shifted around), which meant that no field was left fallow and the soil in each field was kept high in minerals and nutrients (like nitrogen). Wheat and barley were harvested for humans, while the fallow period was now replaced by clover, which could be used for grazing animals. The development of the four-field system earned Charles Townshend the nickname Turnip Townshend.

Improved farm machinery and methods

By the early to mid-1800s, new farming machinery was in use. There were new mechanical drills for planting seed, reaping machines for harvesting crops (see Source 2) and threshing machines to separate the valuable grain from the stalks of wheat and barley plants. These machines made farming more efficient and increased the profits that could be earned from the land. Each year, the amount of land that could be prepared, farmed and harvested in a season increased. By the 1840s, fertilisers were widely used, once again raising the productivity of the land.

Along with improvements in crop production came improvements in animal breeding and rearing. From the late 1700s onwards, the agriculturalist Robert Bakewell began selective breeding of livestock on his property. He developed a new breed of quick-fattening sheep with finer wool and tastier meat, called the New Leicester. Bakewell also bred cattle for beef production. His ideas produced stronger animals that were noted for their larger size and better quality.

Source 2 Cyrus McCormick's reaping machine of 1831 led to huge improvements in how grain was harvested.

key**concept:** Empathy

The effects of the enclosures

By applying the key concept of empathy, historians are able to understand the effects of the enclosures from the point of view of all those involved. While many wealthy landowners saw the enclosures as a way of increasing productivity and profits, many thousands of ordinary farmers in Britain saw them as the destruction of their way of life. The enclosures denied them access to the lands that had supported their families for centuries and in many cases their property was destroyed. Some landlords permitted their tenants to dismantle their houses and take the wood away to build elsewhere. Others simply burned the homes and property of their tenants.

Between 1775 and 1850, over 25 000 Scots were forced from their homes in the Highlands of Scotland by landowners wanting to enclose the land. This process became known as the 'Highland Clearances'. These farmers were left homeless and without the ability to grow their own food (see Source 3).

Source 3

> Their wretchedness was so great that [they] … were obliged to subsist upon broth made of nettles, thickened with a little oatmeal. Those who had cattle [resorted to] bleeding them and mixing the blood with oatmeal, which they afterwards cut into slices and fried.
>
> James Loch, *The Sutherland Improvements*, 1820

For more information on the key concept of empathy, refer to page 10 of 'The history toolkit'.

Check your learning 3.4

Remember and understand

1 What did the 'enclosure' of land mean?
2 Approximately how many Acts did the British Parliament pass that related to enclosure in the 1700s and 1800s?
3 What innovation led to Charles Townshend's nickname Turnip Townshend? Why was this innovation important?
4 What was Robert Bakewell known for?

Apply and analyse

5 Write a short paragraph explaining how new machinery affected the harvesting of crops.

Evaluate and create

6 The Enclosure Acts resulted in improvements in the farming industry, but it also led to a number of social problems for farmers who had previously had free access to land. With a partner, write and role play a conversation between a landowner who has benefited from the Enclosure Acts and a farmer who has lost both land and income as a result of the Enclosure Acts. In this conversation, ensure each person describes and explains the effect the Enclosure Acts have had on their lives and livelihood.

3.5 Developments in cotton, wool and iron production

Some of the most important developments and innovations of the Industrial Revolution took place in the production of cotton, wool, coal and iron. However, arguably the most important 'invention' of the Industrial Revolution was not a single item of equipment or technology at all. Instead, it was a way of producing goods on a large scale using many workers and specialised machinery on one site. This method of production became known as the **factory system**.

The factory system

Before the introduction of the factory system, manufacturing often took place in small workshops or in local workers' cottages (hence the term 'cottage industries'). Local trades and crafts people such as blacksmiths, wheelwrights (wheel makers), cartwrights (cart makers), potters, millers and weavers used their skills, muscle power or water power to largely hand-make items. In contrast, the factory system brought together large numbers of workers in a single site or factory. Few of these workers were skilled because most of the manufacturing was done by machines. Instead, the many workers performed tasks that were repetitive and required little skill. The machines were powered at first by water with waterwheels, then by steam and next by electricity. The factory system itself was made possible by a combination of the technological innovations and knowledge that emerged during this period.

Cotton and wool production

The first factories of the Industrial Revolution were cotton mills. Inventions such as the flying shuttle, spinning jenny, water frame (Source 1) and Crompton's mule (Source 2) in Britain paved the way for the mass production of cotton and wool.

The flying shuttle

The flying shuttle, invented by John Kay in 1733, introduced a more efficient way of weaving on hand-looms. It only required one weaver to shoot the yarn from one side of the width of the loom to the other.

Source 1 Arkwright's water frame

This was especially useful for very wide looms. Weavers could produce cloth much more quickly, increasing the demand for spun yarn.

The spinning jenny

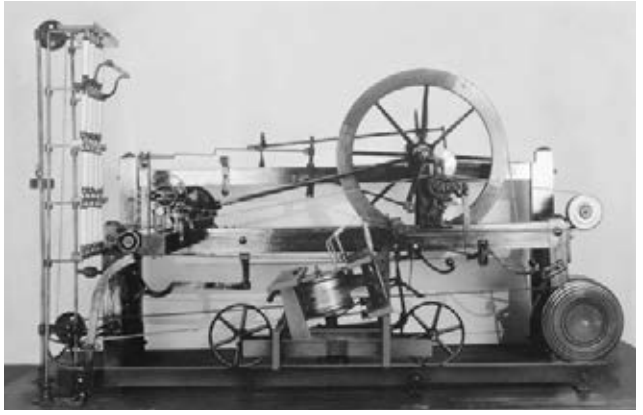
The spinning jenny, a machine invented by James Hargreaves in 1765, helped increase the supply of yarn. It could spin eight threads at once, whereas the traditional spinning wheel could only spin one thread at a time.

The water frame

The water frame, invented by Richard Arkwright in 1768, was a spinning frame that improved on James Hargreaves' invention, as it could be powered by a waterwheel and produce yarns of any type.

Crompton's mule

Crompton's mule was invented in 1779 by Samuel Crompton by combining the spinning jenny's carriage and the water frame's rollers. It allowed a single power source to spin multiple machines, and worked with wool



Source 2 Crompton's mule

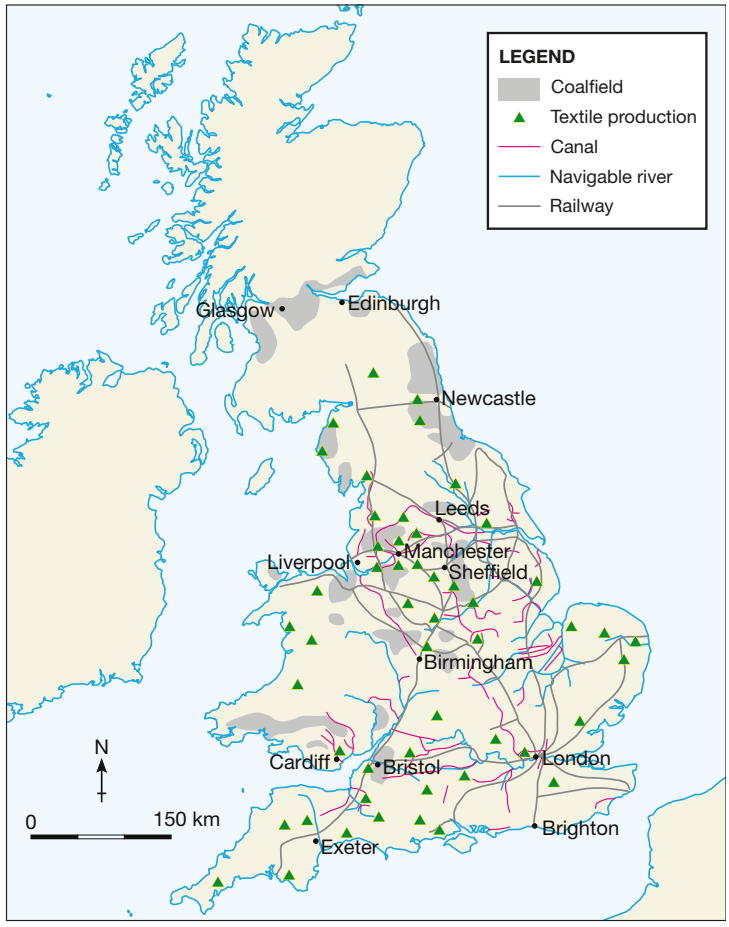
or cotton yarns. However, it still required a skilled weaver to operate. These spinning mules were developed further so they could be operated by unskilled workers. Steam power was later applied to the spinning mules for use in cotton-spinning factories.

By the middle of the 1760s, Britain had become the centre of cotton production, importing raw cotton from India and the United States. The raw cotton went to the mills where machines were used to spin the raw cotton into yarn, and then weave the yarn into cloth. The very first mills were powered by waterwheels, so they needed to be located close to strong-flowing rivers and streams. After the development of steam power, mill owners were able to build mills in cities – closer to a constant supply of workers and potential customers.

As a result of these developments, over time the skills of traditional weavers (see Source 4) were no longer needed. Weavers were replaced by workers who were only required to feed the raw cotton or cotton yarn into machines. Many mill owners, keen for increased profits, wanted their machines running all of the time. This meant long working hours – up to 16-hour working days – and shift work for labourers. Because mill workers did not need to be skilled, women and young children became part of the workforce as they were cheaper to employ.

Overall, conditions for workers during the first decades of the Industrial Revolution were poor. Brutally long hours for low pay, in badly lit and uncomfortable conditions became commonplace. Although harsh working conditions for the men, women and children working in factories and mines were common, there were also exceptions. For example, at the cotton mills operated by Robert Owen in New Lanark in Scotland, the children of workers were well cared for and educated.

BRITAIN: TEXTILE PRODUCTION AND COALFIELDS, EARLY 19TH CENTURY



Source 3 Source: Oxford University Press

Source 4 Weavers originally worked from their homes, using their own looms, rather than in factories.

Iron production

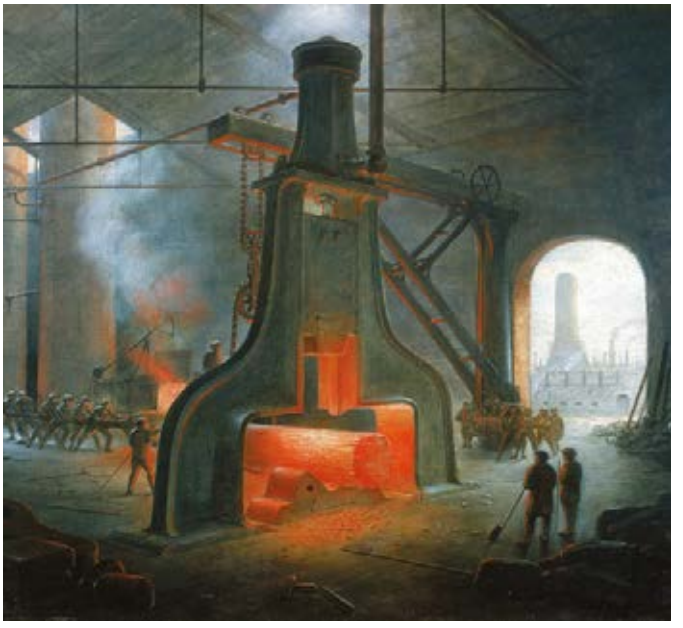
Before the Industrial Revolution, iron producers had to heat (smelt) the iron ore (rock) to extract the raw metal or 'pig iron' from it. Generating the necessary heat to smelt the iron ore required charcoal, but making charcoal was time-consuming and demanded large quantities of wood. Because of this, wood supplies across Britain were dwindling. In 1709, Abraham Darby, an iron producer at Coalbrookdale in Derbyshire, England (see Source 5), found a way to bake coal to make a substance known as coke. Coke was a new, smokeless fuel that burned much hotter than ordinary coal. Quickly, coke replaced charcoal as the fuel used to smelt iron ore. Iron foundries were established near coalfields (rather than forests), and the iron and coal industries became strongly linked.

Other innovations also made the smelting process more efficient. In 1784, iron producer Henry Cort was able to combine two processes, known as 'puddling' and 'rolling', which made the large-scale production of pig iron possible. The amount of pig iron smelted in Britain rose from 25 000 tonnes in 1728 to 60 000 tonnes in 1788. By 1796, Britain was producing 125 000 tonnes.

As production increased, new uses were found for iron. Iron utensils such as knives and forks became common, as did iron pots and pans for household kitchens. Iron was also used as a building material in factories and houses, transforming the design of buildings. For example, in 1851, London's Crystal Palace had a roof and walls made of iron frames and giant panes of glass. By this time, British pig-iron production was 2.25 million tonnes, 18 times as much as in 1796. Similarly, the French put iron to use in 1889 building Gustave Eiffel's famous tower (see Source 6). The Eiffel Tower is an iron lattice structure created as the centrepiece of the 1889 World's Fair in Paris. It is 324 metres tall – as high as an 81-storey building – and remained the tallest structure in the world until 1930.

Source 6 The Eiffel Tower under construction, 1889

Source 5 Coalbrookdale ironworks operating at night, 1801

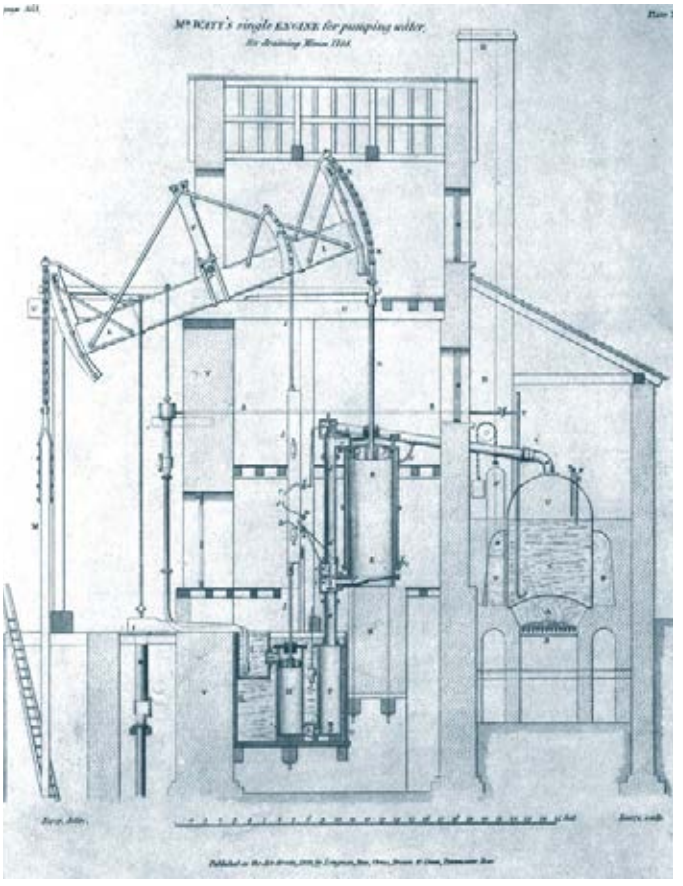


Source 7 Foundry workers using a large steam hammer to shape red-hot iron, Manchester, England, 1832

The development of the steam engine

The invention of the steam engine revolutionised manufacturing and transport, and was later used to generate electricity. Coal supplies were vital to fuel the Industrial Revolution, and the ever-increasing demand for coal led to the opening of new mines and the deepening of older mines. The digging of deeper mines in turn required better pumping systems to keep water from flooding lower levels. Two inventors, Thomas Savery (around 1698) and Thomas Newcomen (around 1710) developed early steam engines to pump water from mines.

While repairing a Newcomen steam engine, engineer James Watt realised that he could greatly increase its efficiency. Watt did not invent the steam engine but in 1769, he developed an improved version that was more practical and powerful. In 1775, Watt formed a partnership with Matthew Boulton to manufacture the new steam engines (see Source 8). Over the next 25 years, their firm manufactured almost 500 steam engines. They were used not only in the mining industry, but also in cotton-spinning factories, flour mills, breweries and sugar cane crushing mills around the country.



Source 8 James Watt's steam engine for pumping water from mines

Check your learning 3.5

Remember and understand

1 What were some of the problems with using charcoal in the process of extracting iron from iron ore?
2 What is coke, and what difference did it make to the iron-making process?
3 Name some of the new uses and products that developed from the availability of mass-produced iron.
4 What was one of the major reasons for the increase in demand for coal during the 1700s?
5 List three effects of the increased demand for coal during the 1700s and early 1800s.
6 Why was the cotton industry regarded as a 'cottage industry' prior to the Industrial Revolution?

Apply and analyse

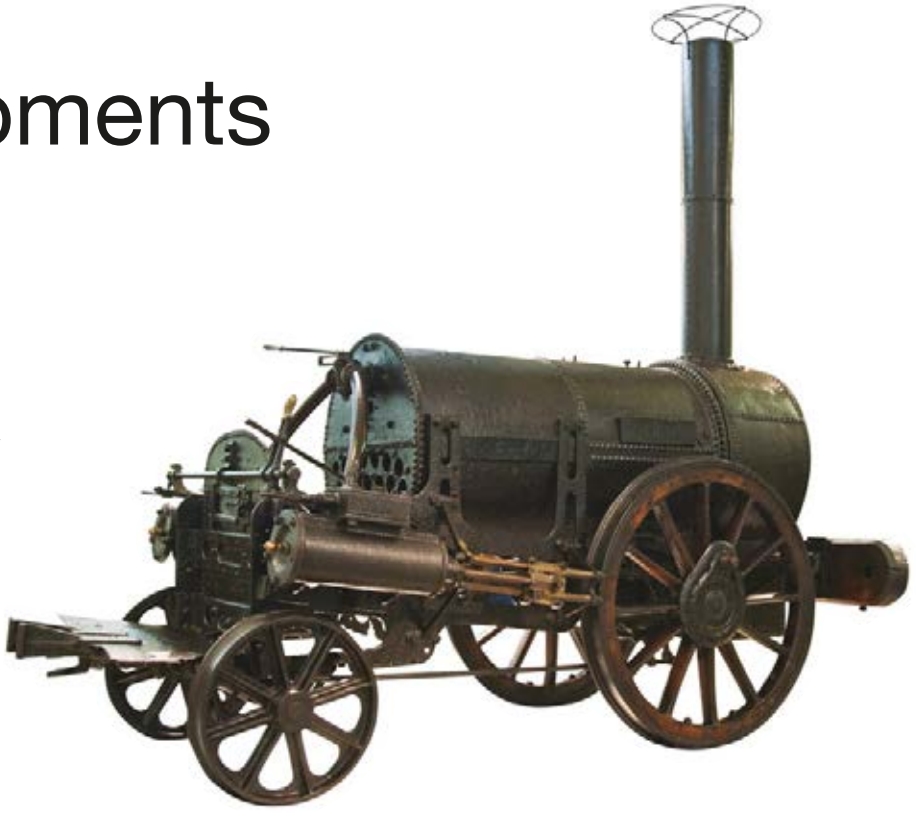
7 Explain why the iron production and coal-mining industries became so closely linked during the Industrial Revolution.
8 Why was James Watt's invention so important at this time in history?
9 In your opinion, which of the four inventions discussed was the most important for the textile industry in Britain? Justify your response.

Evaluate and create

10 Create a poster that shows how new inventions transformed the textile industry during the Industrial Revolution. Make sure you include labelled diagrams or illustrations.
11 Imagine you are an 80-year-old weaver in the late 1700s. Write a short account of how your life and work practices have changed over your lifetime because of new inventions in the textile industry.

3.6 Developments in transport

At the start of the Industrial Revolution, transport in Britain was slow and costly, regardless of whether people travelled by road, river or sea. From 1750 onwards, growing numbers of wealthy merchants and **industrialists** started demanding quicker and cheaper forms of transport to move coal to their factories, ship their products to markets and speed up travel between cities. As a result, a number of new inventions and improvements were made in the area of transport.



Source 1 The original Stephenson's 'Rocket' locomotive, from 1829, now housed at the Science Museum in London

New inventions

Steam locomotives

The first steam locomotive was built by English engineer Richard Trevithick in 1801. Unlike modern locomotives, it was driven on roads rather than rails. In 1804, Trevithick was the first person to drive a steam locomotive on the rails of a tramway.

The first locomotive built and used for commercial purposes was known as the Stephenson's Rocket. It was invented by George Stephenson (see Source 1) in 1829 and remains one of the most famous steam locomotives. From this point on, the designs of steam locomotives became more sophisticated. They also became far more powerful and capable of reaching greater speeds.

Steamships

The first commercial steamship was developed by an American named Robert Fulton in 1807. Like the steam locomotive, the steamship went through many different designs and improvements over the next 100 years. For example, the more resilient screw propellers were

Source 2 The launch of SS *Great Britain* in Bristol in 1843

developed to replace the easily damaged paddle wheels of the early steam ships. By 1838, ships were crossing the Atlantic Ocean driven purely by steam power. In 1843, the great British engineer Isambard Kingdom Brunel (see the Significant Individual section on pages 56–7) launched the SS *Great Britain*, the first iron-hulled steamship with a screw propeller designed to cross oceans. Steamships quickly began to replace sailing ships as the preferred means of ocean-going transport. Although their cargo space was reduced by the large amount of space required for storing coal, they were faster and more reliable.

The internal combustion engine

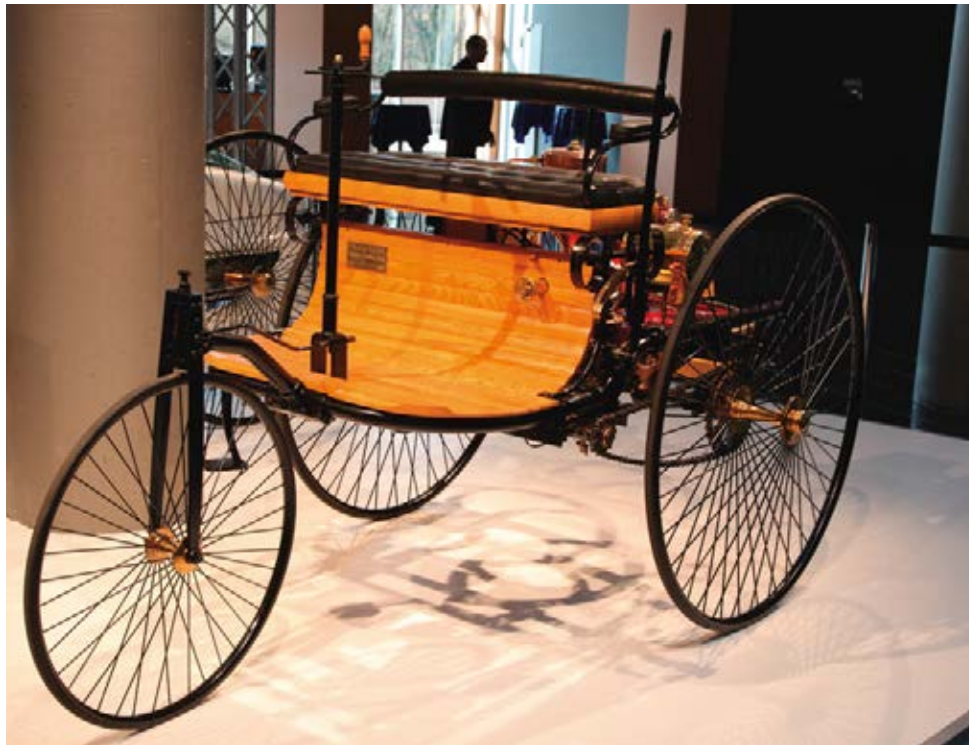
While the steam engine was useful for factories, trains and ships, it was too large to use in smaller businesses and smaller vehicles. In 1859, Belgian engineer Etienne Lenoir developed an engine that sucked coal gas and air into a cylinder, where it was ignited by a spark, pushing down a metal piston that turned a wheel. This invention became the basis for the internal combustion engine – the same engine that is used in all modern cars and engines.

German engineers Gottlieb Daimler and Wilhelm Maybach experimented with an engine that used a new fuel, which later became known as gasoline or petrol. Daimler first used it in 1885 to power a wooden bike called the Daimler Reitwagen (see Source 3). A year later, another German designer and engineer named Karl Benz patented the world's first petrol-powered car known as the Benz Patent-Motorwagen (see Source 4).

As internal combustion engines became more reliable and powerful, cars became more and more common. At first, private cars were painstakingly built by hand. Their high cost meant they became the toys of the very rich. It was not until 1908 that Henry Ford made the dream of owning a car possible for the common people. He did this by adapting the factory system to create an affordable car known as the Ford Model T. By using an **assembly-line** technique with a sequence of specialised workers who repeated the same task on a series of components, he was able to produce cars much more cheaply and quickly.

The internal combustion engine also allowed for the development of an engine that would be light yet strong enough to power flying machines. American brothers Wilbur and Orville Wright used a petrol engine connected to two propellers fitted onto a wooden glider to fly for 59 seconds in 1903. Powered flight was to develop rapidly, triggered by World War I.

Source 3 The world's first motorcycle built by Gottlieb Daimler, 1855



Source 4 The first Mercedes Benz motorcar, 1886

Other transport improvements and innovations

As new modes of transport became available, demand for new and improved roads, bridges, canals, and railway lines grew rapidly.

Improved roads and bridges

In the early 1700s, most roads in Britain were built and maintained by local inhabitants who carried out repairs only when absolutely necessary. This meant that most roads outside London were in very poor condition. A few roads were managed by turnpike trusts – agencies that collected fees from travellers in return for keeping the roads in good condition (see Source 7). By the early 1800s, pressure from industrialists such as Josiah Wedgwood (ceramics), John Wilkinson (iron) and Matthew Boulton (coin minting) led to a dramatic increase in the number of turnpike trusts. By the 1830s there were more than 1000 such trusts. As a result, roads improved and travel times decreased.

As roads improved, demand for more reliable and convenient ways of crossing rivers grew. In 1779, Abraham Darby began building the world's first cast-iron bridge to link a small mining town with nearby factories in the town of Coalbrookdale. A toll was charged for using the bridge which became known as the Iron Bridge (see Source 5). The bridge became famous in 1795 when it remained standing after a major flood. After that, many more bridges were built using iron rather than stone.

Railways

The world's first railway line was built in 1825 between the coalfields in Darlington and the seaport of Stockton in north-east England. It combined two innovations – the steam engine (formerly used to pump water from mines) and rail-mounted mining trucks (formerly pulled by horses).

Railways added a whole new phase to the Industrial Revolution. In 1830, a new track linking the Manchester cotton industry to the port of Liverpool opened to transport goods for export. This was the first railway to link two major cities. Throughout the 1830s and 1840s, the building of rail tracks and strong, iron bridges for new train routes meant that iron production doubled at this time.

Development of railways in Britain grew rapidly, with permission for the construction of 438 new lines granted by parliament between 1844 and 1846. More workers were needed in the iron factories to meet railway orders, and another 200000 men were employed, just for laying railway tracks. By 1848, over 40 million train journeys were made in Britain.

Before the Industrial Revolution, the journey from London to Edinburgh – just over 640 kilometres – took between 10 and 12 days by horse-drawn coach. By 1836, the travel time had dropped to just under two days by train. By 1850 – when all of Britain was linked by rail – this had dropped to around 12 hours (see Source 6).

Travel for holidays became more common and some commodities became more readily available. These included fresh flowers and milk, delivered to London on early morning 'milk trains' from Cornwall and Devon in the south-west.

Source 6 Changes in travel times (in hours) between London and other key cities, 1836 and 1850

CITY	1836	1850
Edinburgh	43	12.5
Liverpool	24	6.6
Exeter	18	4.75
Birmingham	11	3
Brighton	6	1.25

Source 5 This bridge in the town of Ironbridge, England, designed by Thomas Pritchard and built by Abraham Darby in 1779, is the world's first iron structure.

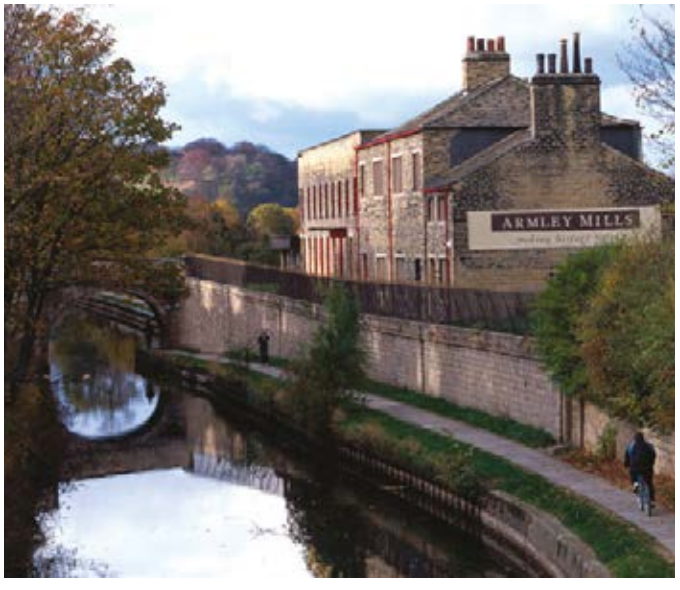
Source 7 An artist's impression of Tyburn Turnpike in London in 1813 showing the toll house and a toll being collected from a horseman passing through the gate

Source 8 The Forth Railway Bridge in east Scotland under construction. By the time of its completion in 1890, it was the longest bridge of its kind.

Just like roads, these new railway lines required strong, reliable bridges that could carry locomotives and their cargo across wide rivers and gorges. The designs of iron bridges – already being used to carry cars and other small vehicles – were modified so they would be strong enough to carry much larger, heavier loads over larger distances (see Source 8). The surge in demand for these types of railway bridges in turn led to increased demand for iron production.

Canals

Over 100 canals were dug across Britain from 1760 to 1820, linking the major rivers and creating a transport network for the transportation of food and freight. One of the longest canals was the Liverpool to Leeds canal at 204 kilometres long. Work on it was begun in 1770 and finished in 1816.



Source 9 Canals, such as this one in Leeds, played an important role linking mills with the sources of their raw materials.

Initially, barges pulled by horses walking beside canals transported crops from the country the city and manufactured goods from the city back to the country. The canals were also used to move coal and other heavy goods, replacing the slower method of coastal shipping. As the high price of coal was mainly due to the costs of moving it (rather than mining it), new canals caused the price of coal to drop by half. The new lower price fed even faster growth in cotton mills. Cheaper coal transport also dropped the price of cotton weaving, increasing the profits for mill owners.

Check your learning 3.6

Remember and understand

1 How did developments in the use of canals lead to a drop in coal prices?

2 Use the information provided to answer the following:
   - **a** How were roads maintained in Britain before the Industrial Revolution?
   - **b** What led to better upkeep of roads during the early 1800s?
   - **c** Where and when was the world's first railway line built?

3 What commodities became more easily available as a result of improvements to the railway network in Britain?

4 How were ships powered prior to steam power?

Apply and analyse

5 What evidence is there in Source 2 to suggest that the launch of the SS *Great Britain* was a significant historical event? In groups, construct a list of modern events that you believe to be equally significant. Discuss your lists as a class and decide which characteristics or impacts of both events make them significant.

6 Why was steam power regarded as 'more reliable' than earlier forms of transport? What role did it play in furthering the Industrial Revolution?

Evaluate and create

7 Conduct some additional online research in order to design a poster advertising the advantages and benefits of one of the following inventions:
   - the Stephenson's Rocket
   - the Daimler Reitwagen
   - Benz Patent-Motorwagen.

3.7 Significant individual: Isambard Kingdom Brunel

Isambard Kingdom Brunel was a British engineer, builder and inventor who lived during the Industrial Revolution. During his lifetime, Brunel worked on the first-ever tunnel under the River Thames; engineered the Great Western Railway, along with all its bridges and tunnels; and designed the world's first iron-hulled, steam-powered and propeller-driven ship. For these reasons he is often described as one of the most significant individuals in British history.

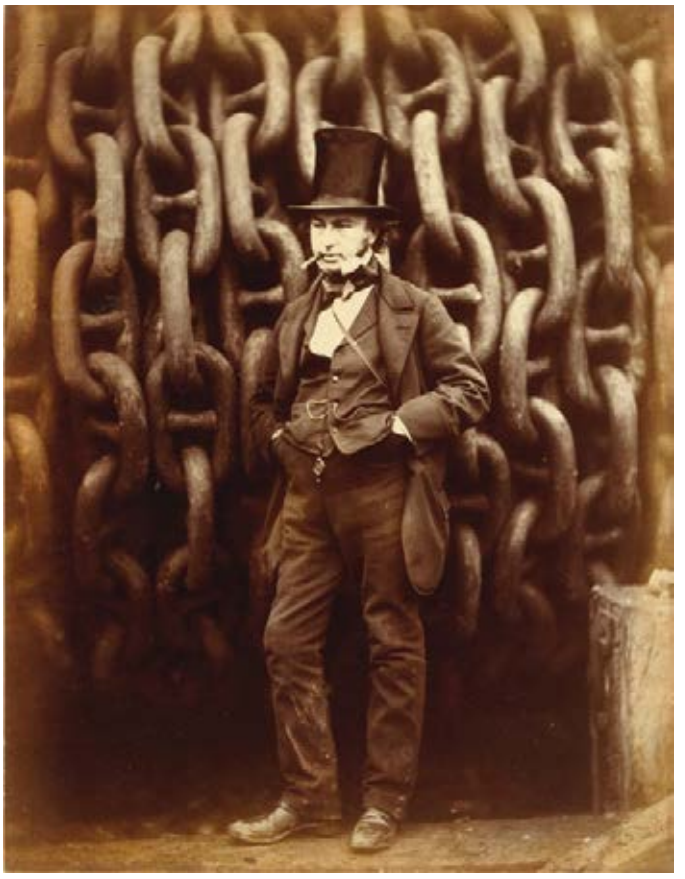
Early life

Brunel was born in 1806 in the town of Portsmouth in south-east England. His father was a French civil engineer who taught him technical drawing and observational techniques from the age of four. When Brunel was 15, his father was sent to prison for failing to pay debts of more than £5000. After three months, however, the British government ended up paying off his debts to keep him from offering his engineering skills to the Russians.

Although Brunel received a traditional education, his main hobby was building model boats. After completing an apprenticeship as a clockmaker in France, Brunel returned to Britain, where he worked with his father on a ground-breaking engineering project – the Thames Tunnel – a railway line under the river. This project was plagued by accidents and challenging engineering problems, but eventually resulted in success. It also provided many opportunities for Brunel to develop his skills.

Bridges and railways

Although there was strong competition from other engineers, the young Brunel's plans for the Clifton Suspension Bridge (see Source 3) in south-west England beat all other contenders. Brunel replaced old-fashioned designs with a modern look. He believed that innovation and experimentation were important and would be welcome: 'I am opposed to the laying down of rules or conditions to be observed in the construction of bridges lest the progress of improvement tomorrow might be embarrassed or shackled by recording or registering as law the prejudices or errors of today.'



Source 1 Isambard Kingdom Brunel, in front of the launching chains of the SS *Great Eastern*, *c.* 1850

At the age of 27, Brunel was appointed the chief engineer for the Great Western Railway, whose tracks eventually stretched 230 kilometres from London to Exeter. Brunel surveyed the route himself in order to ensure the trains would have the smoothest passage. He also designed numerous iron bridges to carry the trains, as well as massive iron-supported train sheds and buildings, such as the vast Paddington station in London. Brunel was personally involved in the design of the railway itself, claiming that the 'standard gauge' was a relic from the days when rails were only used for mining carts, and that better speeds could be obtained by using wider rails.

A new kind of ship

Before the Great Western Railway was complete, Brunel announced that he had a vision of an even greater project – the construction of a steam-powered ship that would allow passengers to continue their journey all the way from the English coast to New York. In 1838, his paddle steamer the SS *Great Western*, made of wood but reinforced with iron, crossed the Atlantic in 15 days. By 1843, Brunel's ship the SS *Great Britain* was the first truly 'modern' ship, built entirely of iron, and with a six-bladed screw propeller instead of a paddle wheel. Late in his life, Brunel began work on the SS *Great Eastern* (see Source 2), the largest steamship built before the 20th century. It was designed for the long return journey to India and Australia without refuelling, as it was believed at this time that there was no coal in Australia.

Brunel's legacy

Brunel hoped to retire to Brunel Manor, a house and garden that he had designed himself to enjoy in his old age. However, he died from a stroke in 1859, and did not live to see it finished. Brunel is remembered as one of the pioneers of the Industrial Revolution, although history largely remembers his successes, not his failures. Many Victorian critics hated his noisy trains, and thought his bridges were eyesores. His proposed 'broad gauge' rail size, although more efficient and comfortable for passengers, was eventually phased out because it did not match other lines in the country. He was nearly killed during the construction of the Thames Tunnel and, although the SS *Great Eastern* was the largest ship ever built at the time, it ran over budget and struggled to make a profit once launched. Also Brunel did not live to see some of his most famous monuments. Neither the Clifton Suspension Bridge nor the SS *Great Eastern* were completed until after his death.

Despite this, Brunel's achievements were so long-lasting that many of them are still in use today. The Thames Tunnel is part of the London railway network, and dozens of Brunel's British bridges are not only still standing, but also carrying modern trains and traffic.

Source 2 The SS *Great Eastern* steamship, designed by Isambard Kingdom Brunel

Source 3 Clifton Suspension Bridge, as it stands today in Bristol

Check your learning 3.7

Remember and understand

1. What did Brunel train as before taking a job with his father's firm?
2. Why did the British government bail Brunel's father out of prison?
3. What two design innovations set the SS *Great Britain* apart from earlier ships?
4. Which of his creations have stood the test of time?

Apply and analyse

5. Conduct some research to discover why Brunel's first steamship was called the SS *Great Western*.
6. What evidence is there to suggest that things did *not* always go Brunel's way?

Evaluate and create

7. Isambard Kingdom Brunel was a brilliant engineer who designed and built ships, bridges and tunnels. Conduct some research to find out more about Brunel and create a PowerPoint (or other kind of visual display with words and images) presentation to inform others about his work and influence.

3.8 Expansion of factories and mass production

Progress and developments from the 1850s brought about advances in engineering and machine tools. Machinery both shortened the time required to make a product and reduced the number of people that were necessary for its production. Workers were needed to look after the machines, but they did not need to be skilled. Instead, production became focussed on producing large volumes of machine-made goods at far lower prices – a system known as mass production.

Cotton became Britain's chief export, replacing wool. British cotton goods accounted for 5 per cent of all national income. People such as Richard Arkwright, the inventor of the water frame in 1768, had predicted that production would become centralised, with all workers in the process being housed in one location. Many production centres turned into factory towns, with housing for the workers located close to the mill. Manchester was one of the largest, with a population that grew from 25 000 to 300 000 between 1777 and 1851.

There were some obvious benefits. The overall standard of living improved, and salaries increased from £25 in 1750 to £44 in 1860. However, the new production methods also created new problems, leaving many skilled cottage workers jobless, and encouraging a factory system that only valued large-scale production at low cost. Furthermore, the role of the worker became closely linked to ensuring that the machinery produced a certain quantity of goods or material rather than ensuring it was of a certain quality. Employment was offered to women and children because they could be paid less. Factories became notorious for poor safety conditions and harsh working environments. Until parliamentary reform began to regulate these working conditions, workers had to endure long hours and mindless repetitive tasks, unsanitary work areas, and conditions in which they either froze or roasted depending on the season of the year.

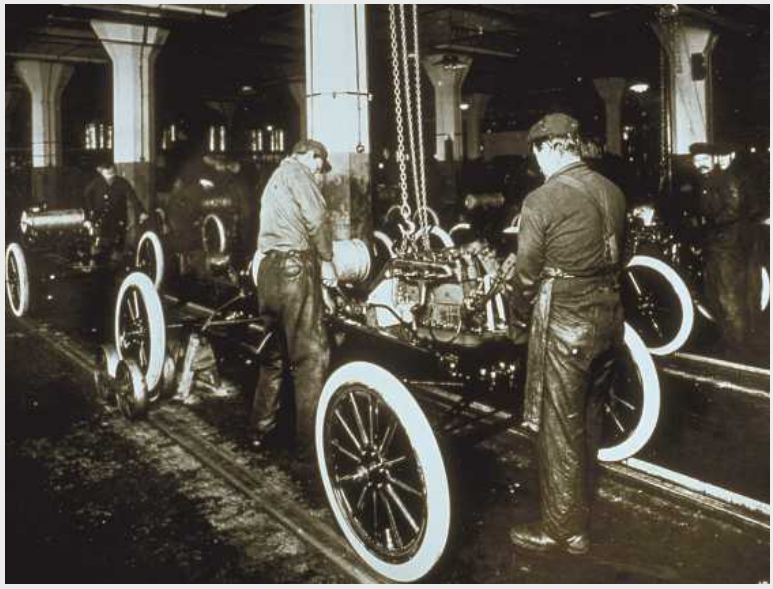
Portrayals of the period often show the workers as if they themselves were machines or part of machines churning out their products in gloomy, smoke-ridden environments.

Source 1 An illustration of power-loom weaving in a textile factory, 1834

key**concept:** Continuity and change

The assembly line

Henry Ford (1863–1947) was an American industrialist who introduced the concept of the assembly line for mass production of consumer goods. Although it has changed significantly because of advances in technology, it is still used in many factories today. The assembly line adapted the factory system to a new purpose with a sequence of specialised workers repeating the same task on a series of components. The Ford Model T (1908) was the first affordable automobile. It was initially available in grey, green, blue or red. By 1914, Ford had famously insisted on a new policy, that his car should be available in 'any colour … so long as it is black'.



Source 3 The assembly-line production of the Ford Model T, as seen here in a photo from the early 20th century, made automobile ownership more than a dream for many.

Source 2

> I will build a car for the great multitude. It will be large enough for the family but small enough for the individual to run and care for. It will be constructed of the best materials, by the best men to be hired, after the simplest designs that modern engineering can devise. But it will be so low in price that no man making a good salary will be unable to own one and enjoy with his family the blessing of hours of pleasure in God's great open spaces.
>
> Henry Ford, *My Life and Work,* 1922

Ford was unusual for his time, in that he promoted high wages for workers and low prices for consumer goods. This approach would become known as Fordism. This, he believed, would allow ordinary people, not just those who were well off, to take part in what he imagined would be the peace-enhancing qualities of consumerism.

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change, refer to page 7 of 'The history toolkit'.

Check your learning 3.8

Remember and understand

1 Why were women and children popular choices as factory workers?
2 Why did workers need less skill to work in factories in the Industrial Revolution than previously?
3 What were two of the benefits of new production methods and two of the drawbacks?
4 What innovation allowed Henry Ford to manufacture the first truly affordable automobile?

Apply and analyse

5 Write a short paragraph explaining how industrialisation led to the creation of 'factory towns'.
6 Using the information provided and your own research, define the term 'Fordism' in your own words.

Evaluate and create

7 Imagine you are a worker in an 19th-century factory. Write a short account of a typical day in your life, making sure you highlight the advantages and disadvantages of factory work in those times.

3.9 The spread of the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution in Britain marked a major turning point in human history. Almost every aspect of daily life was influenced in some way. At around 1850, a whole series of new developments in technology led to even greater technological and economic progress. Many historians describe the period from 1850 to 1914 as the 'second' Industrial Revolution. The discovery of electricity offered yet another source of power for industry and further changes in lifestyle (see Source 1). It also led to new forms of communication, such as the telegraph and the telephone.

Recognising the potential for earning money from new inventions and markets, investors gave strong financial support to the new technologies. Although Britain attempted to stop the spread of industrial knowledge beyond its borders, it was not successful. Ideas, machines and designs were soon copied abroad. Britain began to regard technology itself as a new export. Manufacturing spread across Europe and then into other parts of the world.

Source 1 With the discovery and harnessing of electricity, people quickly found ways to use it that made their lives easier.

Europe

One of the first countries abroad to be affected by the industrial developments in Great Britain was Belgium. Belgium was similar to Great Britain in many ways, with a strong textile trade and many potential investors. It also benefited from the large reserves of coal as a source of energy. Belgium's iron exports to the rest of Europe grew as it built blast furnaces (furnaces for melting ore to produce metals such as iron) and developed railways to transport goods.

France's development was slower. France had a primarily agricultural economy until much later in the 1800s. In coastal areas such as Normandy, however, the textile industries modernised in reaction to competition from Britain and Belgium.

Germany had large deposits of coal and iron ore, and these were quickly exploited using the new technologies. Between 1870 and the start of World War I in 1914, Germany developed at such a rate that its manufacturing output outstripped Britain's.

Source 2 France's emergence as an 'industrial' country, with industries such as large-scale coal mining, came later than Britain's.

USA

After the birth of the United States of America following the War of Independence, American industry began to grow rapidly, especially in the north-east of the USA. By 1900, the USA had a larger percentage of world manufacturing than Britain. The USA was rich in natural resources and as settlements expanded into the western regions of the country, more and more of these raw materials became available to American manufacturers. American inventors and inventions proved to be as important as any in Britain in moving the world into the modern era.

Japan

By 1868, Japan had been effectively cut off from Western influences for 260 years, after the shogun (military leader) expelled all Christian missionaries from the country and closed the borders to all foreigners. The arrival of American warships in the 1850s led to the Meiji Restoration – a period in Japanese history when the emperor was returned to power as the figurehead of a new, modern government, and trade with the West increased dramatically. Initially, large quantities of goods were imported from Europe and the Americas. Over time, however, Japan became the first country in Asia to become industrialised, as it swiftly adopted Western ideas and inventions. Japanese goods became highly sought after overseas, particularly tea, silk, cotton fabrics and buttons. Japan also imitated the West in its adoption of an aggressive policy of overseas expansion, seizing territory in China and Korea in the late 19th century.

Australia

The British decision to establish a penal colony in Australia in 1788 was largely an attempt to solve some of the problems faced by Great Britain that were a consequence of the Industrial Revolution. Rising prison populations were the result of increased crime rates in the new factory towns and among unemployed farm labourers. It was thought that this problem could be resolved by transporting criminals to a distant land.

By 1813, a steam mill was operating in Sydney, major roads had been constructed to transport goods to and from the seaports and a strong pastoral (stock-raising) industry had developed inland. By the mid-1830s, Australia had also become a colonial destination for free British migrants. As other colonies were settled, the development of transport links increased. Railways were in use in Australia by the 1850s, as well as steamship travel along the coast and major rivers. Wealth from the discovery of gold gave the Australian colonies opportunities to develop new railways and take advantage of new technologies such as the electric telegraph and electric lighting.

Despite these advances, Australia's industrial development was in many ways hectic and unplanned. This became apparent after **Federation** in 1901, when the new country was found to have three different rail gauges, which made it impossible to transport goods across state borders without changing trains. In addition to this, the states had conflicting ideas about industry (and its development or protection) and disagreed about **tariffs** (taxes) and their use.

Source 3 The settlement of Sydney, *c.* 1870

Check your learning 3.9

Remember and understand

1 List some of the countries that were affected by the Industrial Revolution after Britain.

Apply and analyse

2 Write a short paragraph comparing and contrasting the 'first' Industrial Revolution in the 1750s and the 'second' Industrial Revolution 100 years later.

3 Explain how the Industrial Revolution differed in Britain and one other European country.

4 Name three areas in which Japan's modernisation followed a Western model, and name the countries from which it copied.

Evaluate and create

5 What evidence was there in 1901 that the development of Australia had been hectic and unplanned?

3.10 Later developments in technology and science

Chemistry

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, scientific thought worked on the theory that four basic elements – fire, earth, water and air – were the components of all things. Scientists began to extend this with the first creation of a table of chemical elements in 1789. This marked the beginnings of the modern periodic table. French chemist Antoine Lavoisier identified 23 elements. He named different chemical compounds made by the combination of these chemical elements and developed a system that recognised the weight of atoms.

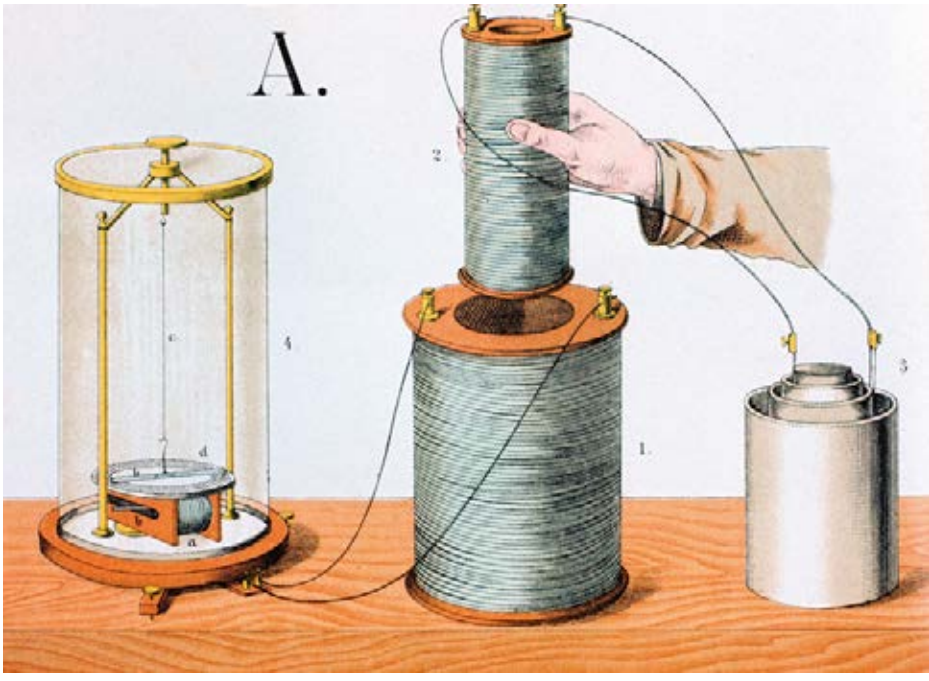
During the 1800s, other scientists broke down over 70 000 chemical compounds, often in search of new materials for inventions or for improvements to existing materials. In the process, they discovered how to make petroleum, vulcanised rubber, Portland cement and synthetic dyes. Polish–French researcher Marie Curie (see Source 1) isolated the element radium and coined the term 'radioactivity', which would become a controversial source of power after the Industrial Revolution.

Electricity

In 1791, Italian scientist Luigi Galvani discovered that he could make a dead frog's legs twitch if he struck them with a spark. His fellow experimenter Alessandro Volta recognised the potential of Galvani's discovery, and developed a technology to store the energy ('electricity') in a cell or battery. This ability to store and use power was to be successfully developed over the following few years, creating a new energy source.

In the 1880s, electric power stations were built. These stations offered an alternative to steam engines for driving machines and to gas for lighting. Electricity was not the work of one person or nation. The English scientist Michael Faraday produced the first continuous flow of electric current. His work in electromagnetic induction (see Source 2) was the basis for dynamos and other electric motors. He produced current by rotating a coil between the two poles of a horseshoe magnet. A dynamo turned the mechanical power needed to rotate the coil into electric current. This current could then drive a machine by using the energy.

Source 1 Physicist and chemist Marie Curie in her laboratory

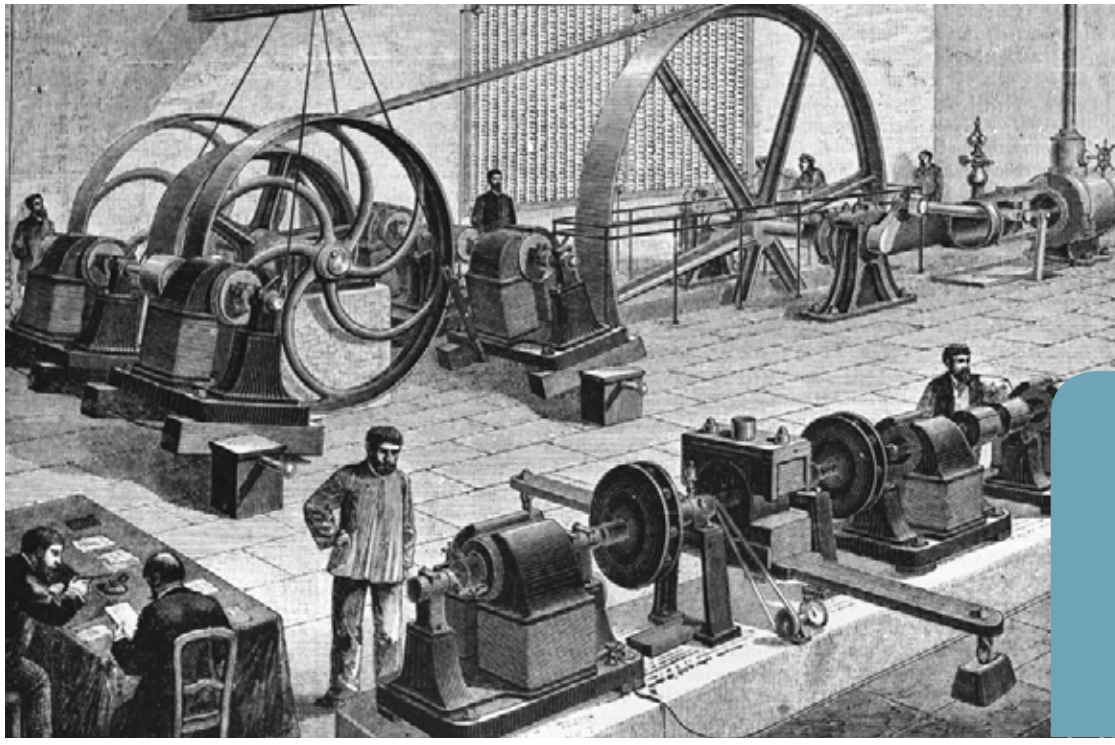


Source 2 Faraday's electromagnetic induction experiment, 1882

Power stations were first built as a source of power for electric lighting. Developed through the work of Joseph Swan, an Englishman, and Thomas Edison, an American, they produced 'Ediswan' bulbs to light houses and streets.

Power stations initially used steam engines to turn the dynamos to generate electricity. In 1884, Charles Parsons invented the steam turbine, which allowed for a greater speed of rotation by forcing a blast of steam along a tube, turning a rotor at great speed.

Factories driven by electricity were cleaner and safer, as they did not require the large belts used to drive machinery like those in steam-powered stations. Newer industries mainly used this new power source, and, unlike coal-powered industries, they could be located anywhere, as long as there were power lines to carry the electric current. In some areas water was used to drive the electric turbines (hydroelectric power), so factories could be built in areas such as Scotland where there was limited coal.



Source 3 An 1887 woodcut showing an early power station

Wires were strung around Britain to carry power to factories and homes. Power grids were created to share the electricity produced and to service high-demand areas such as cities. A reliable supply of electricity meant that factories no longer relied on a supply of coal to power them. As a result, they were free to move away from coal mines in the north and west of Britain closer to cities in the south like London.

Communications

The discovery of electricity helped to develop an invention that revolutionised mass communications – the telegraph. The telegraph allowed text messages to be transmitted long distances without the need to physically deliver a letter. Telegraphs were sent using a coded system of sounds to represent the alphabet. For example, Morse code used short electrical impulses (dots) and slightly longer ones (dashes) to spell out the letters of messages.

In 1851, London and Paris were linked by an undersea cable and by 1858, the first transatlantic cable was laid, stretching from Europe to North America. By 1866, this transatlantic cable allowed rapid communication between Britain and the USA. The telegraph helped to bind together the distant parts of the British Empire and was an important part of the development of Australia. From 1858, the Australian capital cities were all linked by telegraph. The Australian overland telegraph from Darwin to Port Augusta in South Australia was completed in 1872. This, together with new undersea cables, provided an instant communication channel between Australia, Britain and Europe for the first time.

Check your learning 3.10

Remember and understand

1 In what year was the modern periodic table first developed?
2 Which scientist was responsible for the discovery of the element radium?

Apply and analyse

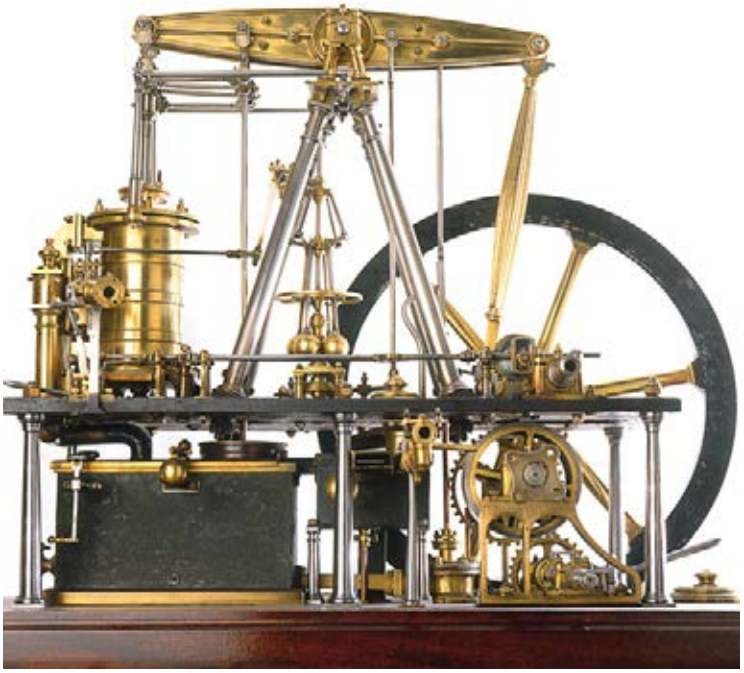
3 Describe some of the advantages of the first electric power stations.
4 Why was the development of the battery so important for users of electricity?
5 How did the growth of electricity-powered factories lead to a general movement of population from the north to the south?

3A rich task

Inventions of the Industrial Revolution

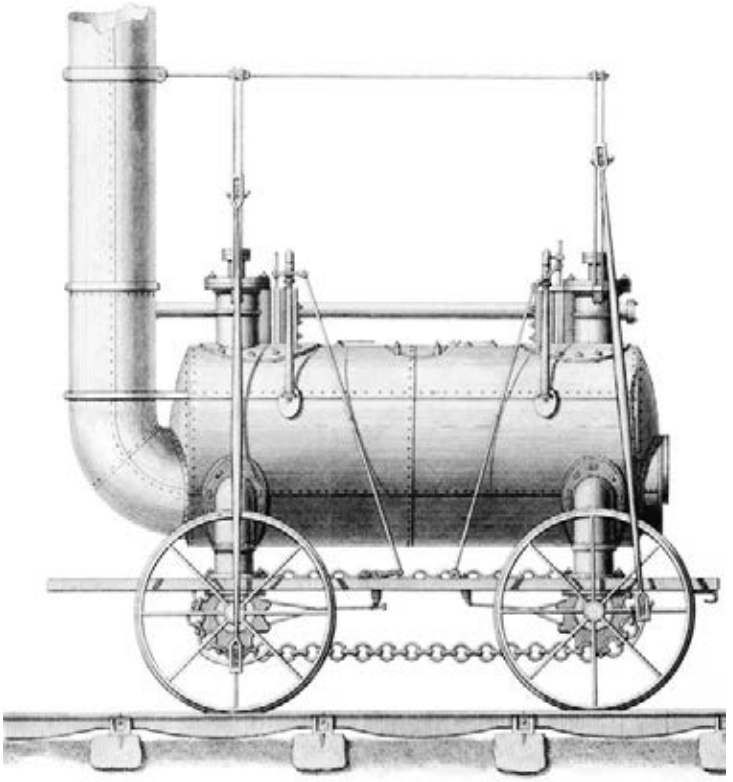
During the Industrial Revolution, new technologies and inventions transformed the way that people lived and worked. Major changes in farming, mining, agriculture, communication and manufacturing changed almost all aspects of life.

In this chapter, you have learnt about many significant inventions from the Industrial Revolution such as the flying shuttle, the spinning jenny, the steam engine, the internal combustion engine, electricity and the telegraph. These are only a few of the many inventions and discoveries that changed the way people lived and worked at the time. Others include the sewing machine, the telephone, the light bulb, the phonograph, the circular saw, the battery, the typewriter and even the first revolver. All of these inventions contributed to the modern world in some way.



Source 1 A reconstruction of James Watt's steam engine

Source 2 The flying shuttle allowed the thread to be shot back and forth across a wider weaving bed, producing much wider lengths of cloth much faster.



Source 3 George Stephenson's locomotive *Blucher* was the first successful steam-powered train. It was completed and tested on the Cillingwood Railway on 25 July 1814.

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Creating and delivering an audiovisual presentation

You have probably created several PowerPoint presentations already. You may have also tried out some other audiovisual presentation software, such as Prezi, which is freely available on the Internet. Whichever program you choose, it is important to use it effectively, and avoid some common problems of these types of presentations. Use the following steps to help you avoid these issues.

Step 1 Design your presentation

- Plan your presentation carefully so it has a clear beginning, middle and end.
- Make sure you present the content in clear, concise dot-point form, *not* as large slabs of text.
- Don't fill up your PowerPoint with lots of random pictures that are not related to the content. Make sure each visual is accompanied by a caption that explains why it is relevant to the presentation.
- A common mistake is to have objects and text moving on the screen in a way that just distracts the audience. Use graphics, sounds, video, animations and transitions only if they add value to the point being made, not just because you think they will look or sound good.
- Use a design that ensures your audience can clearly see and read the slides. Make sure there is enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the slide, and make sure your font size is large enough.

Step 2 Deliver your presentation

- When delivering a PowerPoint presentation to an audience, you should do more than just stand up and read out the text on each slide. Instead, talk in a way that develops and expands on the points on each slide. Carefully plan in advance what you are going to say during each slide. Record this plan on cue cards, and refer to these cards during your speech to remind you what to say.
- One thing at a time! At any moment, what is on the screen should be the thing you are talking about. Your audience will quickly read every slide as soon as it's displayed. If there are four points on the slide, they'll have read all four points while you are still talking about the first point. Plan your presentation so just one new point is displayed at any given moment. Navigate to the next point only when you are ready to talk about that next point.
- Speak clearly – not too fast, not too slow. Vary your tone and pitch to make your presentation more interesting.
- Make eye contact with different members of your audience. *Do not* just look down at your cue cards.

Apply the skill

1 Research, prepare and present an audiovisual presentation about three significant inventions created during the Industrial Revolution that were not discussed in this section. Use the following questions to structure your presentation:
   - **a** Who invented it?
   - **b** When was it invented?
   - **c** How did it work?
   - **d** Why was it significant?

2 Your presentation should be well researched and based on relevant and reliable sources. For detailed information on this skill, refer to page 27 of 'The history toolkit'.

Extend your understanding

As you listen to the presentations of your classmates, complete the peer assessment proforma below. Ask your teacher to photocopy several copies so that you can complete one for each presentation you listen to.

Name of presenter:		**Name of person completing peer assessment:**
Component of presentation:	What did the presenter do well in this regard?	What could the presenter improve upon in this regard?
PowerPoint design:		
Oral presentation:		

Give each classmate your completed peer assessment. Collect the peer assessments that your classmates completed as they listened to your presentation. Read their feedback, and then complete a short self-assessment by responding to the following questions:

- What did I do well in terms of my PowerPoint design?
- What could I improve in terms of my PowerPoint design?
- What did I do well in terms of my oral presentation?
- What could I improve in terms of my oral presentation?

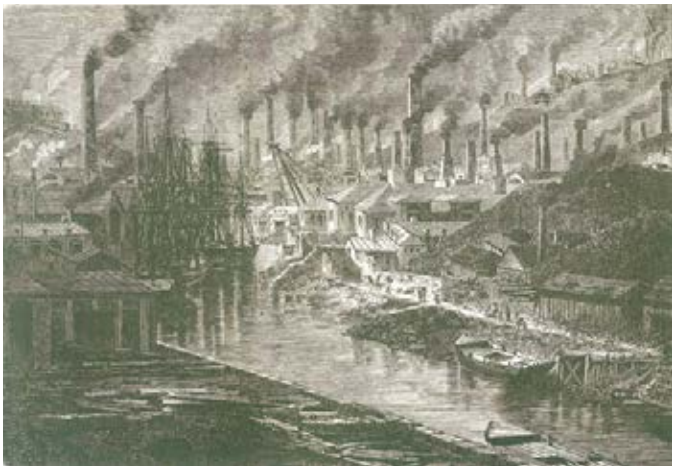
3.11 Working conditions

While it cannot be denied that the Industrial Revolution improved living standards of most people across Britain, these improvements came at a high price. The obvious winners were the industrialists, the people who owned the mills, the factories and the mines. The new middle class also benefited from technological advances, making their lives more comfortable. However, many more people were forced to give up their traditional rural lifestyle for a life in one of the new industrial cities – working long hours and living in cramped and unsanitary conditions.

Britain's 'dark satanic mills'

The working conditions and experiences of men, women and children during the Industrial Revolution varied from person to person and from one industry to the other. The proportion of people in Britain working in manufacturing in 1801 was estimated at 40 per cent. By 1871, this had risen to 60 per cent. Many people across Britain were still employed in agriculture, construction, domestic service or smaller workshops, and their working lives remained largely unchanged. However, life was very different for those in the factories and who struggled to survive on low wages and were forced to work in harsh conditions, as owners operated for a time without any government regulation.

Factory and mine owners often cut corners with safety and conditions in the pursuit of higher profits. This included enforcing long working hours and using cheaper labour in the form of women and children.



Source 1 A 19th-century engraving showing copper foundries in Swansea, Great Britain

Long working days took their toll on families, and children were dragged into working life with little opportunity for education.

The phrase 'dark satanic mills' was first used by the English poet William Blake in 1808. It was frequently used in the 19th century to refer to the miserable working conditions of labourers in Britain. Many writers of the time were appalled by the plight of poor people whose work seemed endless and unrewarding, and whose lives were cut short by poverty, disease and injury. One of these concerned individuals, Friedrich Engels, a German industrialist and philosopher, wrote extensively about this situation (see Source 2).

Source 2

> … a mass of children work the whole week through in the mills or at home, and therefore cannot attend school. The evening schools, supposed to be attended by children who are employed during the day, are almost abandoned or attended without benefit. It is asking too much, that young workers who have been using themselves up twelve hours in the day, should go to school from eight to ten at night. And those who try it usually fall asleep, as is testified by hundreds of witnesses in the Children's Employment Commission's Report. Sunday schools have been founded, it is true, but they, too, are most scantily supplied with teachers, and can be of use to those only who have already learnt something in the day schools. The interval from one Sunday to the next is too long for an ignorant child to remember in the second sitting what it learned in the first, a week before.
>
> Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844*

Child labour

When the Industrial Revolution began, children were seen as ideal employees. They were small enough to fit between the new machinery, they were cheap to employ and their families were grateful for the extra income. At the time, there was no real concern about their education being affected as education was not compulsory. Most working-class families could not afford to send their children to school anyway.

Source 3 An artist's impression of a group of mill workers in Manchester, *London Illustrated News*, 1840

Source 4 Children working in factories were frequently exploited and injured.

Children often started work at the age of four or five. Their jobs were often simple, but physically demanding and dangerous. They included collecting dropped fluff from underneath the weaving machines or acting as helpers in coalmines. In many cases, child workers were orphans provided to the factories or mills by the local authorities.

Children's pay was well below that of adults – often about 20 per cent of the full adult wage. Wages for children were sometimes paid in the form of vouchers that could only be used at stores owned by the factory owner. There, the children could use them to purchase clothing or basic foods such as flour. This system allowed the factory owner to avoid paying wages in cash and helped them to make extra profits on sales.

Even with long hours and low pay, children could still earn more in the factory towns than in the country. Over time, social reforms raised the minimum age, shortened the working day, increased wages and introduced some form of education.

Child labour in factories also declined as complex machinery became more difficult for children to handle. In other areas, such as mining, their use as labourers was limited or barred. It is hard for us now to imagine their lifestyles or the conditions in which these children worked. Source 5 comes from evidence given to a British government inquiry into child labour in factories in 1833.

Source 5

> I work at Mr Wilson's mill. I think the youngest child is about seven. I daresay there are 20 under 9 years. It is about half past five by our clock at home when we go in … We come out at seven by the mill. We never stop to take our meals, except at dinner.
>
> William Crookes is overlooker in our room. He is cross-tempered sometimes. He does not beat me; he beats the little children if they do not do their work right … I have sometimes seen the little children drop asleep or so, but not lately. If they are catched asleep they get the strap. They are always very tired at night … I can read a little; I can't write. I used to go to school before I went to the mill …
>
> Evidence from a young textile worker, Factory Inquiry Commission, Great Britain, Parliamentary Papers, 1833

Check your learning 3.11

Remember and understand

1 Why did women and children make up a large part of the industrial working population in the early years of the Industrial Revolution?

Apply and analyse

2 In Source 5, what do you believe the young worker is trying to say about working conditions in the factory and the treatment of other child workers?

Evaluate and create

3 Summarise Friedrich Engels' findings in Source 2 about the condition of the working class in England.

4 Why might a writer such as Friedrich Engels be biased in his view? Carry out some research into his political beliefs and show how they might have influenced his writing.

5 Write a newspaper report in the role of a 19th-century reporter investigating child labour in a cotton mill. Describe what the children's work day is like and make recommendations for reform.

3.12 Living conditions

In the 1750s, before the Industrial Revolution began, only 15 per cent of the population of Great Britain lived in towns or cities. By 1850, the urban population had risen to 50 per cent. By 1880 it had risen again to 80 per cent. This process of **urbanisation** was due to changes in farming practices, production methods and the lure of new jobs in the factory towns. Between 1801 and 1871, the proportion of the British population working in manufacturing rose from 40 per cent to 66 per cent. All of these changes had dramatic effects on how people lived.

Conditions for the rich and poor

Huge differences between the living conditions of the rich and poor in Britain existed long before the start of the Industrial Revolution. Prior to 1750, Britain's feudal history and strict class system dictated how people lived and where they worked. From 1750 onwards, rapid changes in technology and society gave birth to a new social class (known as the 'middle class'). Despite this change, the Industrial Revolution was initially responsible for widening the gap between rich industrialists and poor factory workers even further. Some key facts about living conditions for different social classes in the 1800s are included in Source 3.

On top of the social hierarchy were the **aristocracy.** These people included people of royal blood – dukes, earls, lords and barons – with strong family traditions and reputations. They were often landowners who lived off rental income and led privileged lives as members of 'high society' who lived in manors and stately homes. They possessed enormous wealth, land and political influence. In this world, good breeding and a title were seen as more important than wealth – this was assumed.

The middle classes included factory owners, industrialists, doctors and lawyers whose generous incomes allowed them to establish their homes on the outskirts of the new towns and cities where the air was clean and there was more space for larger homes. These areas grew as a result of new railway lines that allowed the rich to commute from home to work in the city.

By contrast, the majority of the working class lived closer to the factories, in slum areas with poor sanitation. Houses were built back-to-back to save space. New apartment blocks were also built quickly and cheaply to meet demand. There were very few building or fire regulations so accidents and house fires were common. There was no proper sewerage, no fresh water and little or no garbage disposal. In Liverpool in 1865, 40 per cent of young children died in such conditions, and the average life expectancy was just 29 years. Birth rates were low, but the population continued to grow due to the constant flow of people from the countryside. Those who endured such conditions often turned to alcohol and other drugs to help them cope with the harsh conditions. Crime was widespread, particularly in the slums of the larger cities such as London (see Source 2).

Source 1 There were enormous differences between the living conditions of the rich and poor in Britain prior to the Industrial Revolution.

Source 2

> … the social order makes family life almost impossible for the worker. In a comfortless, filthy house, hardly good enough for mere nightly shelter, ill-furnished, often neither rain-tight nor warm, a foul atmosphere filling rooms overcrowded with human beings, no domestic comfort is possible. The husband works the whole day through, perhaps the wife also and the elder children, all in different places; they meet night and morning only, all under perpetual temptation to drink; what family life is possible under such conditions? Yet the working-man cannot escape from the family, must live in the family, and the consequence is a perpetual succession of family troubles …
>
> Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844*

Source 3 Conditions for British social classes during the 1800s

Living conditions for the aristocracy (nobility)	Living conditions for the middle class	Living conditions for the poor
• Birth mattered more than income. The poor and lazy cousin of a duke would be acceptable in high society over a millionaire industrialist from a lower class. • Some lords had large country houses, and town houses in London. They were waited on by servants. • During the 1800s, members of the aristocracy dominated all levels of government. • A young aristocratic lady who was eligible for marriage would 'come out' as a debutante, when she was presented to Queen Victoria. On this special occasion she wore a white dress and a headdress. • Boys of the nobility had governesses and nannies, then attended elite schools. Girls were mostly educated at home then prepared for marriage. Some girls went to boarding school. By the late 1800s, a small number were able to go to university.	• Many middle-class people aspired to join the upper classes. Wealthy middle-class businessmen would socialise with the aristocracy. Some donated large sums of money to be granted a knighthood. • Middle-class people lived in houses in the suburbs and commuted to work in the city. Even the poorest middle-class home would have a servant. • Many middle-class Victorian women enjoyed shopping – the first department store opened in London in 1863. • Over time, some middle-class women sought a university education. They also became involved in the women's **suffragette** movement. • Many middle-class boys went to grammar schools. Girls increasingly went to school, but were still expected to find a husband and learn how to run a home.	• Working-class people lived in cramped houses in city slums and had no access to running water or sewerage systems. • Crime in the slums was rife and overcrowding led to the spread of many diseases. • At the start of the 19th century, few poor people received an education. In 1880, a new law made primary school compulsory for all children. • Working-class leisure activities included playing or watching football, bicycling clubs, reading the newspaper and attending the music hall.

As urban areas grew, new technologies were applied in building, even in workers' housing. Planned, drained and uncluttered new urban settlements replaced slums. Public transport allowed workers to live further away from their work places. Cities began to develop suburbs. In 1863, the first part of London's underground railway network opened, linking suburban trains to the city centre. By the 1870s, the ability to create skyscrapers allowed for even denser retail and office areas in city centres, where land was more expensive.

Better street lighting helped transform the atmosphere of the cities at night, encouraging leisure activities later in the day and after dark, as people felt safer.

Source 4 An artist's impression of poor people in Whitechapel, a London slum

Check your learning 3.12

Remember and understand

1 Why did people move from rural areas to the towns and cities during the Industrial Revolution?
2 Where did most unskilled workers live in Britain during the Industrial Revolution and in what sort of conditions?
3 Why did the population of factory cities continue to grow, despite low birth rates?

Apply and analyse

4 What was the average life expectancy in Liverpool in 1865? Did people tend to actually die at this age, or was there another factor that lowered life expectancy?
5 Write a paragraph describing how, after a bad start, the Industrial Revolution started to improve living conditions for city dwellers.

Evaluate and create

6 Using the statistics provided and information gathered on the Internet, create three graphs that illustrate the key changes in urban populations that took place in Britain from 1750 to 1880.

3B rich task

Working conditions for children during the Industrial Revolution

Many of the early textile factory owners employed large numbers of children. Children were seen as good workers because they were paid less, and were small enough to crawl under the machines to repair broken threads. They were often forced to do this when the machines were operating, and many children were injured as a result. The factory owners paid **overseers** to make sure the children worked as hard as they could. The more work the children did, the more the overseers were paid.

It was not until the 1830s when certain politicians, concerned about the working conditions that had developed as a result of industrialisation, began introducing laws to regulate the factories in terms of conditions like the use of child labour and the length of the workday.

Each of the following sources provides different views about the nature of working conditions for children during the Industrial Revolution.

Source 2

Q: Explain what you had to do.

A: When the frames are full, they have to stop the frame, and take the flyers off, and take the full bobbins off, and carry them on to the roller, and then put the empty ones on.

Q: Suppose you slowed down a little, what would they do?

A: Strap us. The girls had black marks on their skin many a time, and their parents dare not come in about it, they were afraid of losing their work.

Q: What part of the mill did you work in?

A: In the card-room. It was very dusty. The dust got up my lungs, I got so bad in health. When I pulled the baskets all heaped up, the basket pulled my shoulder out of its place and my ribs have grown over it. I am now deformed.

An extract from an interview with Elizabeth Bentley, who began working in factories at the age of six. The interview was conducted as part of a parliamentary inquiry into conditions in the textile factories in 1832.

Source 1 This photograph, taken in 1908, shows a young barefoot girl standing next to a spinning frame in her workplace, a North Carolina cotton mill.

Source 3

I have visited many factories, both in Manchester and the surrounding districts, during a period of several months and I never saw a single instance of corporal punishment inflicted on a child. The children seemed to be always cheerful and alert, taking pleasure in using their muscles. The work of these lively elves seemed to resemble a sport. Conscious of their skill, they were delighted to show it off to any stranger. At the end of the day's work they showed no sign of being exhausted.

An extract from 'The Philosophy of Manufactures', 1835, by Dr Andrew Ure. Dr Ure was a supporter of the new industries.

Source 4

… In such an establishment [i.e. a factory] … between 700 to 1400 persons, of all ages and both sexes, almost all working by the piece, and earning wages of every amount between two shillings and 40 shillings a week, are engaged in producing one ultimate effect, which is dependent on their combined exertions. Any stoppage, even any irregularity in one department, deranges the whole. A strict and almost superstitious discipline is necessary to keep this vast instrument going for a single day. Now how, ask the mill-owners, could this discipline be kept up, if the sub-inspectors were at liberty to walk over our establishments at all hours; listen to the complaints and jealousies of all our servants, and at their instigation [urging] summon us as criminals before the magistrates?

An extract from a letter of complaint by Nassau Senior, a factory owner, to parliament after the Factory Act of 1833 was introduced to give some protection to child workers. He believed that the Act would allow government inspectors to interfere with the smooth running of cotton factories.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Using information from a range of sources as evidence in a historical argument

The **primary sources** that historians use to form opinions and arguments about the nature of working conditions for children in the early-19th-century factories tell different stories. It is the job of historians to analyse these sources, identify what evidence they provide to support or refute (not support) particular arguments, and come to a conclusion about their usefulness and reliability.
It is important to:

- identify who created each source and the reason why it was created
- identify any potential bias
- write your argument, using the sources as evidence
- explain why each particular source supports your argument
- give reasons why you consider the sources that do not support your argument to be not as important or as valid.

Apply the skill

1 Examine Sources 2–4 carefully and complete a copy of the table below in your notebook.

	Source 2	Source 3	Source 4
What evidence does this source provide about conditions in factories for children during the Industrial Revolution?			
Who wrote or created it?			
Why was the source created?			
Is the source reliable?			

2 Once you have completed the table, use the information you have gathered to write an historical argument about the working conditions for children in the early 19th century, using the plan provided below.

- **Title:** What were conditions like for children in Britain working in 19th-century factories?
- **Introduction:** The Industrial Revolution led to a massive increase in … (introduce the context of your piece and the focus on the working conditions of children within that context).
- **Paragraph 1:** Some sources say … (explain which sources indicate that conditions were bad; give examples of some of the bad conditions).
- **Paragraph 2:** However, other sources say … (explain which sources indicate that conditions were acceptable or necessary; give examples of some of the arguments provided).
- **Paragraph 3:** We have to be careful about which sources we use because … (explain the problems with some of the sources in terms of reliability and bias).
- **Conclusion:** Overall, the evidence suggests … (summarise the evidence and give your informed opinion about the nature of working conditions for children in this period).

Extend your understanding

1 Some important people were strongly opposed to the use of child labour in factories during the Industrial Revolution. Eventually, parliament passed several Acts that attempted to impose regulations that would lead to improved conditions for children. Use the Internet to find out about this legislation, and complete a new table in your notebook:

Name of Act	Year it was introduced	How did it attempt to improve conditions for children?	How effective was it?

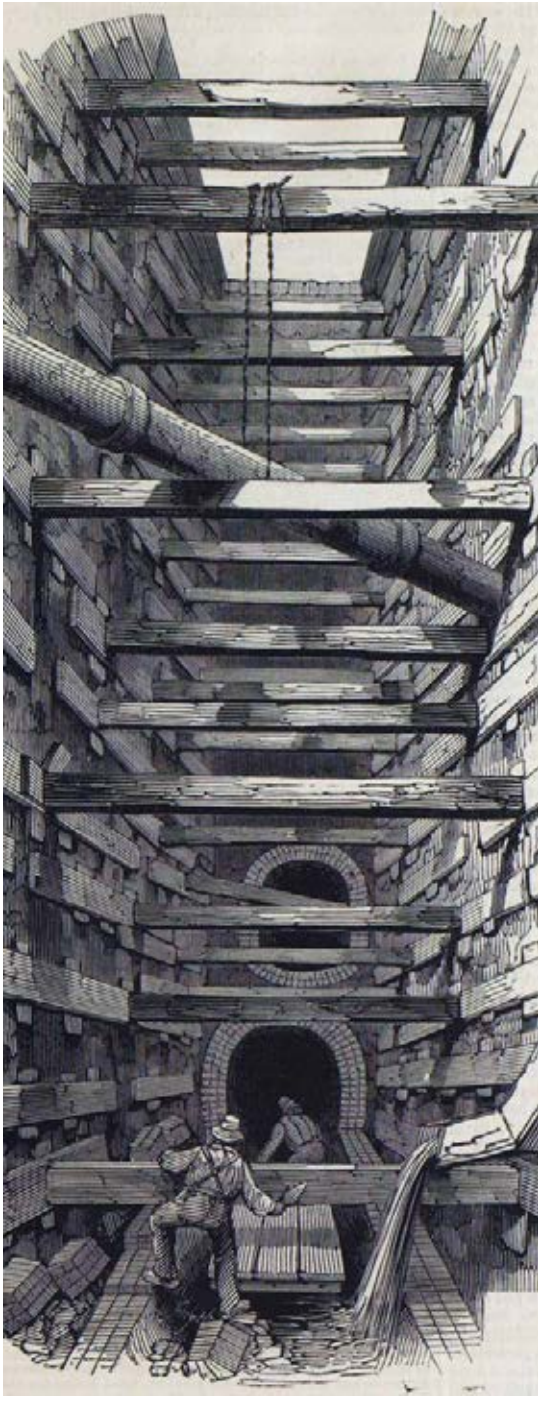
3.13 Short-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Between the 1750s and 1914, Britain, the USA and most countries in Europe transformed into industrial societies. New technologies and production methods changed societies in positive and negative ways in both the short and long term. Growth in the development of cities, changes in living and working conditions and the introduction of new laws became apparent fairly quickly. Other changes took place over much longer periods and were not initially obvious. Indeed, many argue that we are only now beginning to see many of the long-term effects of the Industrial Revolution.

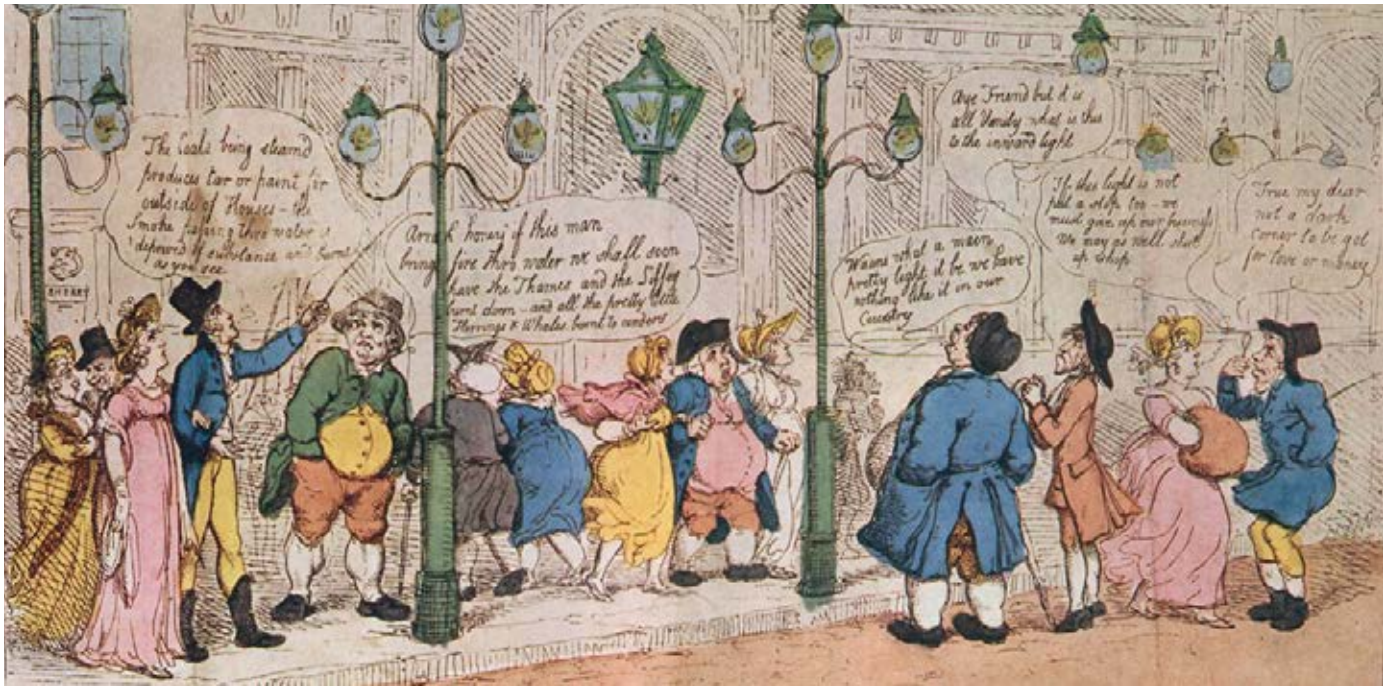
Population growth and urban planning

One of the most obvious short-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution was the dramatic increase in world population. In 1750, the population of England and Wales was around 5.5 million people. By 1900, this figure was around 32.5 million. Throughout Great Britain and the rest of Europe, there was a mass movement of people from the rural areas to the growing cities. In 1801, only 17 per cent of the population of Europe lived in the cities. By 1891, this had grown to 54 per cent. In Britain, the growth cities were Leeds, Manchester and Birmingham, as well as London. After terrible initial problems with disease caused by poor or non-existent sanitation, city reform began with the introduction of some **urban planning**. Over time, conditions in the urban slums of factory towns and cities improved. The tenements (overcrowded rooming houses) were pulled down and replaced with new urban settlements, with positive consequences for residents. For example:

- Residents in new housing, who previously had no running water and shared an outside toilet, now had access to running water, central heating and improved sewerage systems (see Source 1) that included their own toilets. Health conditions improved and there were fewer outbreaks of disease.
- Planned, drained, and uncluttered and open spaces were created for sport and entertainment.
- Gas-powered (see Source 2), and then electric, street lighting helped transform the atmosphere of the cities at night, reducing the gloomy, dangerous streets and encouraging leisure activities after dark, such as visits to theatres and music halls.
- Cities began to develop suburbs (outlying communities) and new public transport systems allowed workers to live further away from the factories in which they worked. First there were horse-drawn trams and then came cable trams or electric trolley systems. The opening of London's underground railway network in 1863 encouraged more people to use public transport to move between their homes in the suburbs and work. As the population increased, so did the transport capacity and new lines were developed to service growing areas.



Source 1 The building of a London sewer, 1845



Source 2 'A peep at the lights in Pall Mall' is a satirical look at people's reactions to the new invention of gas-burning streetlights in London in 1807.

Improvements in living standards

There were other positive consequences of the Industrial Revolution in the lives of many people.

- Improvements in agriculture throughout the period of the Industrial Revolution reduced the risk of famine through crop failure. Increased food production also meant that people could afford better food in larger quantities, which in turn helped them stay healthier.
- Sport was encouraged in 'leisure time' in order to keep workers healthy. Sport and recreation became more important as working hours reduced during the 19th century.
- Mass entertainment, such as theatres and spectator sports, developed alongside newspapers and magazines for people of all classes. Literature was no longer just for the wealthy and learned.
- The development of railways meant that travel times were speedier. It also meant that travel for leisure was affordable, even for the working classes.
- Mass-produced consumer goods, such as clothing and crockery, became more affordable.
- The use of the telegraph and telephone meant that news could quickly be reported from around the world. Industrialists, merchants and ordinary people benefited from these more immediate ways of communicating, as well as from faster postal times from improved road and rail networks.

Historians and economists agree that standards of living did improve in the 19th century, although they disagree about the timing of its benefits to the working class. For example, were large improvements in the lives of working-class people evident in the early or mid-1800s? Some studies have shown that workers' incomes grew rapidly from the 1820s. However, others contest whether this indicator of improvement balanced out the negative consequences of the Industrial Revolution, such as the harsh working conditions, high rents and crowded living conditions, and pollution.

Check your learning 3.13

Remember and understand

1 Identify the ways in which cities began to change in the second half of the 19th century.

2 Explain why sport and entertainment became more popular in this period.

Apply and analyse

3 Using Source 2 outline the ways in which the introduction of street lighting changed people's way of life.

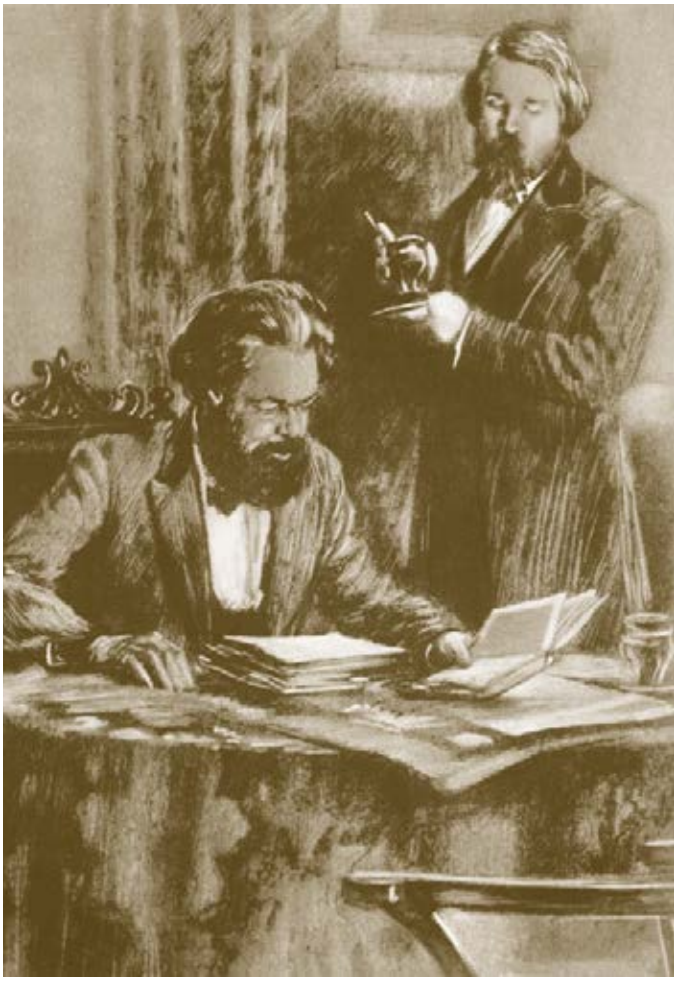
Evaluate and create

4 In two columns, list the positive and negative aspects of the Industrial Revolution for working-class Britons in the 19th century. Decide whether it was a positive or negative development for the working class, giving reasons for your decision.

3.14 The emergence of socialism and trade unions

Urbanisation brought with it new social classes and social divisions. Investors (**entrepreneurs**) could earn vast fortunes. Their luxurious lifestyles and homes reflected their new status, a world removed from the poverty-stricken conditions of many of their employees.

Many workers found it hard to adapt to their new lives in the city. Some embittered workers began to demand better conditions and political rights. The result was a rising interest in social revolution, with philosophers and activists such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels gaining a following among the working classes.



Source 1 An illustration showing Karl Marx (seated) and Friedrich Engels

In his influential book, *Capital: A Critique of Political Economy* (1867), German philosopher Karl Marx suggested that the Industrial Revolution was driven by an economic system known as **capitalism**. Marx argued that capitalism was based on the exploitation of the workers by the owners of land, factories, railways and roads, shops and banks for profit. For capitalism to work, it relied on an 'army' of urban workers who would work for less than the value of their labour. Later theorists would build on Marx's work to promote alternative systems that they argued would deliver a fairer distribution of wealth.

These ideas were the beginning of **socialism**. They laid the foundations for the **welfare state** (under which the state took responsibility for all its subjects, rich or poor) and also for **communism** (under which the state attempted to abolish ownership of private property).

Luddites

The first violent reaction to the Industrial Revolution occurred in Britain in 1811, when factory owners and manufacturers in Nottingham received threatening letters signed by 'General Ned Ludd and the Army of Redressers'. In protest at wage reductions and job losses caused by the adoption of stocking frames and automated looms in textile mills, former weavers attacked factories, smashed machines and killed the owner of one cotton mill. In response, the British Parliament made it a capital offence (a crime punishable by death) to destroy machines. Twenty-three **Luddites** (as the protestors became known) were executed in 1812 and many more were transported to Australia as punishment.

The Luddites were stamped out, but their actions showed that there was a need for political action that would benefit workers and improve the conditions that they were forced to accept.

Poor Laws and the rise of Chartism

In 1834, the British Parliament attempted to deal with changing social and economic conditions by reforming the 233-year-old Poor Law. The *Poor Law Amendment Act 1834* decreed that any poor or homeless person requiring assistance from the state (except for the old and sick) had to enter a government **workhouse**. These institutions kept people off the streets but often fed their residents poorly, worked them extremely hard and broke up families.

Widespread discontent over the Poor Law Amendment Act reminded many people that they had little say in government. Reform bills in 1832 had extended the right to vote, but only to about 600 000 out of three million men over the age of 21. At this time, all members of parliament were required to own property, which limited the number of men who could afford to stand for office. In 1838, a group of reformists published a People's Charter written as a bill that could be presented to parliament, demanding a better life for people through the use of parliamentary change (see Source 3).

The movement in support of the People's Charter became known as **Chartism**. It spread through Great Britain and in June 1837, Chartists held a general meeting at the British Coffee House in Cockspur Street, London. One faction wanted to use peaceful persuasion while another suggested physical force, even revolt.

The House of Commons rejected the Chartist petition, even though it had 1.2 million signatures. The Chartists suggested that a general strike be called on 12 August but then called it off. Other groups were involved in destroying factory machinery and in strikes, often clashing with police and soldiers. By 1840, over 500 Chartists had been put in prison.

A second petition was drawn up in 1842 and presented to parliament in May, this time with over three million names. Again it was rejected by parliament. A third petition was drawn up in 1848, when revolutions in Europe encouraged a revival of the Chartist ideas. This petition was signed by two million people but again it was ignored. As a result, many Chartists gave up on Britain and **emigrated** to other countries such as the USA, Italy and Australia.

Source 3 The Chartist claims

The six points of the People's Charter

1 A VOTE for every man twenty-one years of age, of sound mind, and not undergoing punishment for crime.

2 THE SECRET BALLOT—To protect the elector in the exercise of his vote.

3 NO PROPERTY QUALIFICATION for members of Parliament—thus enabling the constituencies to return the man of their choice, be he rich or poor.

4 PAYMENT OF MEMBERS, thus enabling an honest tradesman, working man, or other person, to serve a constituency, when taken from his business to attend to the interests of the country.

5 EQUAL CONSTITUENCIES, securing the same amount of representation for the same number of electors, instead of allowing small constituencies to swamp the votes of larger ones.

6 ANNUAL PARLIAMENTS, thus presenting the most effectual check to bribery and intimidation, since though a constituency might be bought once in seven years (even with the ballot), no purse could buy a constituency (under a system of universal suffrage) in each ensuing twelve-month; and since members, when elected for a year only, would not be able to defy and betray their constituents as now.

Source 2 An illustration of a Chartist meeting in 1848

Source 4 An artist's impression of Robert Owen's cotton mill at New Lanark in 1818. Unlike many industrialists at the time, Owen supported the rights of workers at his mills and established one of the largest trade unions.

Emergence of trade unions

Over time, workers found ways of banding together to protect their interests. Skilled workers realised that they needed to protect their jobs and incomes (in case of illness or injury) so they would not become victims of the Poor Laws. As a result, many formed Friendly Societies. Workers each paid a weekly subscription to their Friendly Society that would provide them with a small income during illness, an old-age pension, or money for a funeral when they died.

Some industries developed trade clubs, which quickly developed into unions that fought for common aims, such as higher wages. A union's main weapon against employers and industrialists was the threat of work stoppages known as strikes. The Combination Acts of 1799 and 1800 banned workers in Britain from meeting to demand increased wages or shorter working hours. If caught, the punishment for this crime was three months in jail.

After protests and debate, **trade unions** were legalised in 1825, swiftly leading to the establishment of groups such as the National Association for the Protection of Labour, with over 100000 members. The largest union was the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union, established in 1833 by a mill owner, Robert Owen. Unlike many other mill owners, Owen supported the welfare of his workers. He abolished child labour in his mills (for those under the age of 10), and provided schooling and good housing. He also paid good wages, including sick pay.

The Factory Acts

The Factory Acts were inspired by complaints about the employment of child labourers, who worked long days in appalling conditions. In 1802 and 1819, British politician and industrialist Robert Peel was instrumental in passing laws that restricted the hours that children had to work. Unfortunately, many mill owners had influence over local judges, so these laws were not enforced. By 1830, most of the 250000 mill workers in Britain were still under the age of 18.

In a push to reduce the working day to 10 hours, social reformer Lord Ashley succeeded in making it illegal for children under the age of nine to work at all. Those under 13 could work only a 48-hour week and, those aged 14–18, a 69-hour week. In addition, all children were to receive two hours of schooling per week, and inspectors were appointed to enforce the new rules.

In 1840, the Royal Commission on Children's Employment discovered that women and children were expected to carry loads of coal of up to 150 kilograms either on their shoulders or dragged behind them through narrow, low passages. A Mines Act was passed in 1842, banning all females as well as boys younger than 10 from working underground. Other European countries introduced similar laws: in France in 1841 and in Prussia in 1839, laws limited the working hours of people under the age of 16 and banned the employment of children under nine in mines and factories.

In 1847, women in factories were restricted to a 10-hour day, which effectively reduced many of the men's hours as well. The final major change for this period came in 1874, when a maximum of 56 hours' work a week was introduced – 10 hours a day from Monday to Friday, and six hours on Saturdays.

Emergence of modern lifestyles

Robert Owen was not the only factory owner who came to see that happier workers would work harder. Titus Salt, an industrialist and politician from the English town of Bradford began experimenting with the idea of providing well-built homes with drainage for his employees, as well as a local hospital, public baths, churches and schools.

In France, workers were allowed to gradually buy the cottages in which they lived. These workers' cities also had schools, hospitals and baths. Similar 'cities' were developed in other European nations.

Improving health conditions led to fewer outbreaks of disease and more efficient workers. Even the harshest of mill owners began to clear slums. Cesspools were removed, tenements (overcrowded rooming houses) were pulled down, and open spaces were created for sport and entertainment. Sport was encouraged in 'leisure time' in order to keep workers healthy.

Increased leisure time led to other changes. Mass entertainment, such as theatres and spectator sport, developed alongside newspapers and magazines for people of all classes – not just literature for the well educated.

Compulsory education for children eventually grew into educational opportunities for other workers, with Mechanics' Institutes offering courses in technology and self-improvement. Eventually, these broadened to offer other subjects, including literacy and arithmetic.

Improvements in agricultural production gave people better diets and reduced the risk of famine through crop failure. Workers could now afford more and better food that, in turn, helped them stay even healthier.

Source 5 Young American boys working as mine helpers, *c.* 1900, before the introduction of child labour laws in the USA

Check your learning 3.14

Remember and understand

1 What did Karl Marx think was the driving force behind the Industrial Revolution?
2 Look at the first point of the People's Charter in Source 3. What large group was left out of their demands for voting rights?
3 In your own words define the term 'Luddite'.
4 Prior to 1825, what was the legal punishment if workers gathered to discuss demands for higher wages?

Apply and analyse

5 Read Source 3. In your own words, explain what a 'property qualification' was. Why did the Chartists want to abolish the property qualification for members?
6 Explain how workers benefited from joining Friendly Societies.

Evaluate and create

7 Many people today who avoid using computers or new technology are called 'Luddites'. Given what you have learnt, describe how the original 'Luddites' differ from modern-day 'Luddites'.
8 Create a poster advertising a Chartist meeting. Include the six proposals shown in Source 3 on your poster, ensuring that you explain each proposal in your own words so that they can be understood by young people today.

3.15 Long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Although it is impossible to accurately identify a date on which the Industrial Revolution came to an end, many historians argue that this coincided with the beginning of World War I in 1914. In the century since then, many of the long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution have started to become apparent. Some of these long-term impacts are positive while others are negative.

Long-term population growth and global inequality

Although rapid population growth was one of the major short-term effects of the Industrial Revolution, in the 100 years since then world population has continued to rise. Today, this growth has slowed in the industrialised nations but continues to increase rapidly in the developing world. In 1801, world population was approximately one billion people. By 2027, this number is estimated to exceed eight billion. Many academics now argue that this number of people is unsustainable and is placing the world's resources at risk from overuse.

In the short term, the advantages brought by the Industrial Revolution – including higher standards of living, education, better food and medical treatment – only benefited the industrialised world. Other areas of the world – such as the colonies of major European powers – were left behind or exploited for their resources. Today, these countries are striving to bring themselves into line with the developed countries and former imperial powers that controlled them in the past.

In many ways, increased levels of global trade have allowed the industrialised world to export many of the problems of the Industrial Revolution – long hours, poor working conditions, child labour – to developing countries.

Source 1 An abandoned 19th-century lead mine

Environmental impacts

One of the most significant long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution is related to the environment. New sources of air and water pollution were introduced that we are only now beginning to acknowledge as directly linked to 19th-century industrial processes. Coal burnt in the production of steam power produced heavy layers of smog that hung over the factory towns and cities. Evidence of the effects of this pollution was found when modern scientists tested hair samples from famous people such as Isaac Newton and Napoleon Bonaparte. They discovered high concentrations of lead and mercury.

Today, not much has changed. The modern world is still heavily dependent on fossil fuels such as coal and oil. Not only do we use petroleum products in our cars, ships and planes, we also use them in the manufacture of our iPads, smartphones, computers and similar devices. The only difference is that these fuels we burn to maintain our affluent lifestyles are running out.

Source 2 The effects of industrialisation are seen in scenes such as this, where chemicals from a nearby chemical plant have killed the trees.

Air pollution

The British were aware of the soot and dirt that hung over their industrial towns, but they could not foresee the long-term effects of their industry into the 21st century. They did not realise fossil fuels such as coal and oil could run out or have a global environmental impact. The Industrial Revolution left humanity dependent on carbon fuels (such as petrol and gas). In recognition of this, governments worldwide are encouraging the search for greener energies through policies aimed at limiting carbon production or taxing those that produce it.

The developing world and its growing economies, particularly those of India and China, have copied the example of the industrialised nations by becoming large producers of pollution as they strive to improve the living conditions and wealth of their populations (see Source 3).

By the mid-1900s, the effects of these changes to the Earth's atmosphere were becoming apparent. In the 1960s, a new environmental movement sought to stem the tide of pollutants flowing into the planet's ecosystem. It is now widely accepted that pollution has changed the Earth's climate and could lead to further unexpected changes.

Source 3 Today, modern China follows the example set by Britain in the 1800s.

Water pollution and sewage difficulties

The Industrial Revolution led to the building of many factories, tanneries and industrial buildings along the banks of the Thames. Waste from these industries, along with the flow of the London cesspits, badly polluted the river. By 1833, salmon could no longer be found upstream from London Bridge. The Building Acts of 1844 and 1847 improved sanitation in the city *itself,* but only by dumping more sewage into the river.

The river was toxic to fish but was still used to provide drinking water for people. This led to four serious outbreaks of cholera between 1831 and 1866. Pollution continued as the city's population grew and more industries developed. This problem was not resolved until late in the 20th century. The first salmon in 150 years returned to the Thames in 1974.

It was not until the 1960s, long after the Industrial Revolution, that people truly came to recognise the problems caused by industrial waste and ground contamination from new industries. Leftovers from production, by-products and waste were dumped or burned off. Large areas of land were damaged or poisoned by unknown or unrecognised chemicals dumped without any special care or consideration. The run-off from some of these chemicals often entered the water supply. Rivers, creeks and underground water supplies were affected, while dangerous elements such as lead entered the food chain through animals' drinking the water or through infected food.

Source 4 Modern cleaning of the Thames; this device collects floating rubbish, such as plastic and wood.

key**concept:** Significance

'Smellbourne'

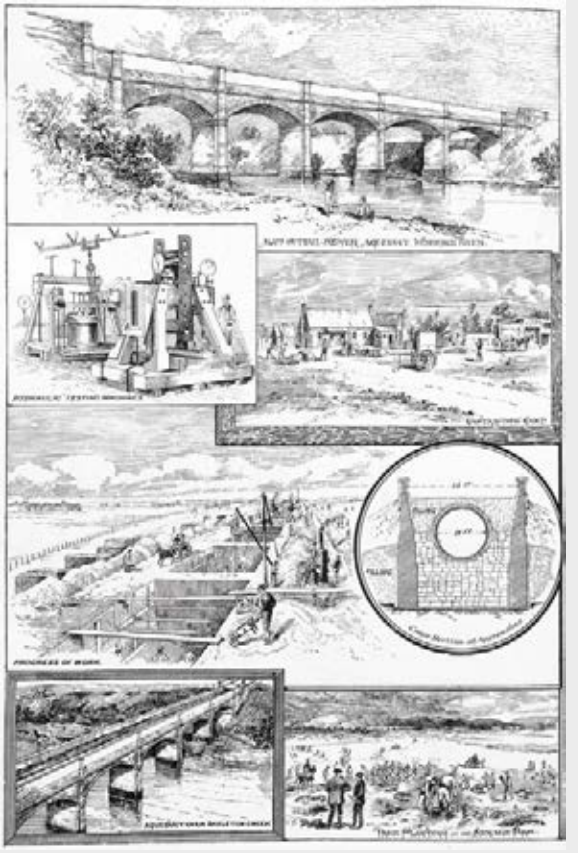
In the 1850s, the majority of sewage and human waste from houses across Melbourne was emptied into open drains that flowed into street channels. This waste mixed with other waste from stables and industries making these open street channels extremely smelly. As a result, Melbourne was given the nickname 'Smellbourne'.

Although there was a collection system (waste products collected from outhouses or 'dunnies' behind city homes by 'nightmen') it was disorganised and often resulted in the outbreak of diseases like typhoid.

After hundreds of people died, the Melbourne and Metropolitan Board of Works (MMBW) was established to build an underground sewerage system and a treatment plant at Werribee. This treatment plant still operates today.

The system was opened in February 1898, when the chairman of the MMBW, Mr Fitzgibbon, proudly stated, it 'was not a question of how much the scheme was going to cost, but how much it was going to save in the lives of the citizens'.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.



Source 5 An engraving showing works on the new sewerage scheme for Melbourne, 1892

Source 6 A modern example of the effects of deforestation in Haiti

Deforestation and land clearance

During the Industrial Revolution, forests were cleared to an ever greater extent, at first for fuel and building materials, then to make space for new farmland. A rising population required more buildings; railways required miles of wooden sleepers. Land was also cleared to build the new factories and mills, and to create the housing areas around them where the workers could live. In many cases, the forests lost contained old-growth trees that had stood for decades. These trees had held together soil on mountain slopes or soaked up rainwater. The loss of these trees led to landslides and to floods downstream.

Check your learning 3.15

Remember and understand

1 In what ways did the Industrial Revolution encourage an increase in overall world population?
2 Use the information provided to complete the following tasks:
   - **a** Why was Melbourne nicknamed 'Smellbourne'?
   - **b** How did Melbourne resolve its difficulty with sewage?
   - **c** Why is the Melbourne sewerage system still considered significant to this day?
3 What effect did industrialisation have on waterways such as the Thames?
4 What were the unexpected consequences of the removal of trees from some mountain areas?

Apply and analyse

5 Write a paragraph describing some of the long-term environmental effects of the Industrial Revolution.
6 Explain why the Industrial Revolution did not benefit developing countries such as India.
7 Over the centuries, what has been the relationship between industrialisation and outbreaks of serious diseases and illnesses? Use examples from this text and from your own research to answer this question. Provide examples to support your answer.

Evaluate and create

8 Create a poster that advises people how to limit their pollution of waterways.
9 Write a letter to the newspaper arguing the need to investigate alternative energy sources of industrial and domestic power.

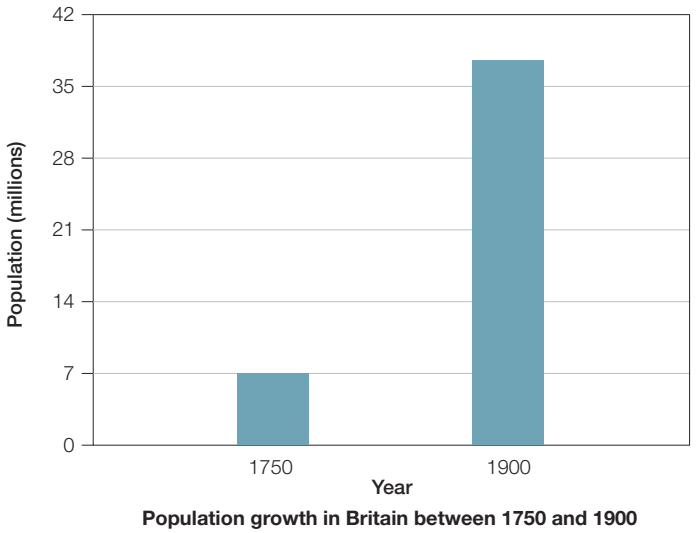
3C rich task

Population growth in Britain during the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution meant the transformation of countries' populations from being predominantly rural to being predominantly urban. In England, millions of people migrated from farming areas to the cities springing up near the coal and iron fields. The population of Manchester, England, grew from 25 000 in 1772 to 303 000 by 1850. Overall in Britain, the number of cities with populations of 50 000 or more rose from three in 1785 to 31 in 1860. By 1850, Britain had become the first nation in history to have a larger urban than rural population.

Source 1

Britain	1750	1900
Population	7 million	37 million
People living in towns	13%	87%
Life expectancy	Men: 31 years Women: 33 years	Men: 45 years Women: 48 years
Deaths at birth	65%	15%



Population growth in Britain between 1750 and 1900

Source 2 Graph showing population growth in Britain between 1750 and 1900

skill**drill:** Continuity and change

Using graphs to communicate historical information

Sometimes, complicated numerical information presented in writing or in tables can be difficult to understand. Historians need to be able to read and interpret this information and communicate it visually. Graphs can be a very effective communication form for historians. They can condense information, make a point clearly and concisely, and show relationships and trends visually.

Bar graphs are very useful for showing how something has changed over time. Use the following steps when constructing a bar graph:

Step 1 Decide upon a title for the bar graph. The title should say what the graph is about in a very specific and concise way. For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 1, the title 'Population of Britain between 1750 and 1900' is more specific than the title 'Population of Britain', or the title 'Population between 1750 and 1900'. It is also more concise than the title 'The changing population of Britain between the years 1750 and 1900'.

Step 2 Determine the labels for the *x*-axis (the horizontal axis). The *x*-axis is usually used to show items, categories or time periods. To determine the labels, you need to consider the data you are using to make your graph. For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 1, we have put two labels on the *x*-axis: 1750 and 1900.

Step 3 Draw the *x*-axis and mark where the bars will be.

Step 4 Determine the scale for the *y*-axis (the vertical axis). The *y*-axis is usually used to show the frequency of something happening or the amount. Again, you need to consider the data you are using to make your graph. (For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 1, we have used a numerical scale which goes from zero to 37 million). You then need to choose an appropriate scale interval (e.g. 1 cm = 10 million).

Step 5 Draw the *y*-axis and mark your chosen intervals with the appropriate numerical labels (e.g. 10 million, 20 million).

Step 6 Write an appropriate *y*-axis title beside the *y*-axis and an appropriate *x*-axis title underneath the x-axis. For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 1, the *y*-axis title is 'Population' and the *x*-axis title is 'Year'.

Step 7 After looking closely at your data, draw each bar. If the value falls between two of your marked intervals on the *y*-axis, approximate where the correct value would lie.

Step 8 Each graph should be uniquely numbered, for example, 'Figure 1'. (Note that all other images such as diagrams, pictures, photos and maps are also included in this numbering series.)

Step 9 Whether creating your own graph using another source's data, adapting their graph, or reproducing their graph as a whole, you must quote (cite) the source. Place the citation below the graph, and precede it by either 'Source:' (for an exact reproduction) or 'Data source:' (when you have modified the original).

Apply the skill

Using the information in Source 1, follow the steps outlined to create three bar graphs in your notebook that show:

1. the difference in life expectancy of men and women in Britain in 1750 and 1900
2. the difference in the number of babies that died at birth in 1750 compared to 1900
3. how many more people were living in towns in 1900 compared to 1750.

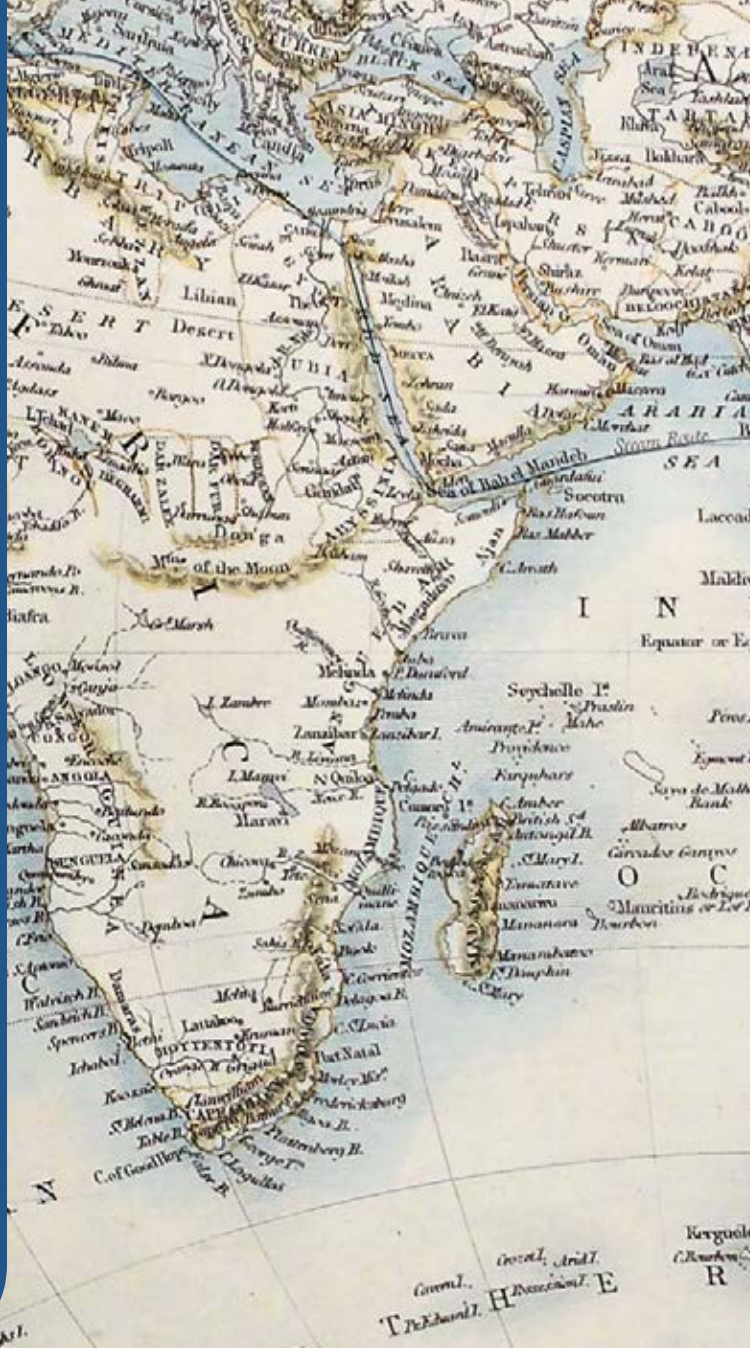
Extend your understanding

1. Conduct some independent Internet research to find out why populations increased so rapidly during the Industrial Revolution, both generally and within cities. Using the information you have gathered, write a 200-word historical explanation describing the population boom and the reasons why it occurred.

Source 3 Manchester's population grew rapidly between 1772 and 1850.

Unit 2 Australia and Asia

Introduction to Australia and Asia



In the years between 1750 and 1918 powerful nations across Europe competed with each other for control over new world territories in order to build empires. European nations were motivated by the desire for greater wealth and power to establish colonies in new regions of the world. By gaining access to raw materials and resources (like gold and spices) as well as control over Indigenous populations in these new colonies, European empires were able to build strong armies and finance massive building projects at home. The nations of Britain, France, Germany, Russia and the Netherlands in particular competed to establish colonies across Asia and in Australia.

In this unit, you will have the opportunity to learn more about the reasons behind this expansion and examine some of the effects that it had on the original inhabitants of these regions.

4A

What factors led to the colonisation of Australia?

4B

What factors led to the colonisation of Asia?

Source 1 This illustrated world map, published in London in 1851, shows the location of European colonies across Asia and in Australia.

Australia and Asia

This unit offers a choice of four topics:

- Australia (1750–1918)
- China (1750–1918)
- Japan (1750–1918)
- India (1750–1918)

You must choose AT LEAST ONE of these topics for study.

4.1 Australia and British imperial expansion

Australia's settlement by the British was largely a result of changes brought about by the **Industrial Revolution** in Britain and Europe. The mass movement of people from rural farming villages across Britain to the new factory towns in search of work led to harsh living conditions and overcrowding. In turn, this led to a rise in crime rates and an increase in the numbers of prisoners held in jails. Ultimately, the **penal colonies** established in New South Wales and other parts of Australia were seen by Britain as a solution to its overcrowded jails and social problems.

Australia's settlement was also linked to Britain's expansion of its colonies, at a time when European nations were competing for power and wealth around the world. Exports of wool, timber and sugar from its Australian colonies increased the wealth of the British Empire, and contributed to Australia's developing economy.

Over time, Australia became a place where hard-working ex-convicts and free migrants could build new lives and be granted new opportunities – particularly in the boom decades of the 1850s after the discovery of gold. **Convicts** and **free settlers** provided the labour that helped build a new nation. Some also brought progressive political ideas with them that would go on to play a crucial role in the establishment of Australia's democratic system of government and the formation of a national identity.

Impacts on Indigenous Australians

From the earliest days of British settlement, all colonies around Australia shared the same view of the Indigenous peoples. The concept of ***terra nullius*** (a Latin term meaning 'empty land' or 'land belonging to no one') was applied to the land and generally accepted by the colonists. This concept justified the British belief that they were entitled to the land and all of the resources it provided. The actions of the white settlers had a dramatic effect on Australia's Indigenous

Source 1 A view of Sydney Cove in 1794

Source 2 A view of the settlement of Sydney, *c.* 1870

Source 3 The Commonwealth of Australia was formed on 1 January 1901 through a process known as Federation. Prior to this time, Australia was made up of six separate British colonies in Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia, and Western Australia.

populations. Indigenous Australians were **dispossessed** of traditional lands, killed by disease and isolated by government policies that removed them from their homelands and placed them on **reserves** or in **missions**. As a result, traditional cultures and ways of life were changed forever.

Federation makes a nation

Over time, Australia transformed from a group of independent penal colonies established by the British to a united and prosperous democratic nation. Although six colonies established across Australia were settled separately by the British, they shared many common characteristics – culture, language, political systems and religion.

During the second half of the 19th century, Australian colonists became increasingly aware of the fact that they also shared many common goals and beliefs. As a result, the idea of nationhood began to grow. Many other nations – such as the United States, France, Italy and Germany – were formed after revolution or war. In Australia, progress towards **Federation** was a gradual and peaceful process. A series of referendums (national votes) and constitutional conventions led to the development of the Constitution of Australia in 1900. This series of documents – the most important of which is known as the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia – outlined the supreme laws of the Commonwealth Government (also known as the Federal Government). It also established the relationship between the Federal Government and the states and territories of Australia in 1900. Following a positive vote from the majority of the people in each colony, the Australian nation was created in 1901.

Check your learning 4.1

Remember and understand

1 How did imperialism affect Indigenous Australians during the 19th century?

2 Describe the concept of *terra nullius* in your own words.

3 Describe the process that changed Australia from a collection of separately governed states to a unified nation.

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Sources 1 and 2. They show Sydney in 1794 and 1870. During this time, Australia's non-Indigenous population increased from an estimated 3500 people to 1.6 million people.

- **a** Describe the continuities and changes that can be seen between these two depictions of Sydney, 76 years apart.
- **b** What developments and events during this period would have contributed to these changes?
- **c** Locate a photograph of Sydney Harbour and the Rocks today. What continuities and changes can you see?

4.2 Asia and European imperial expansion

Societies and cultures across Asia emerged and developed as powerful and unique empires over thousands of years. Until the mid-18th century, many Asian societies remained largely isolated from Western societies. Contact between East and West was limited to a few established trading ports across Asia. From 1750 onwards, however, a number of European powers – particularly Britain, France and the Netherlands – challenged the authority and **sovereignty** of a number of traditional Asian societies as they competed to expand their empires around the world. By the end of the 19th century, most Asian countries had been occupied by a European power (Source 1).

ASIA: EUROPEAN TERRITORIES, 1900

China

In 1750, China was ruled over by the Qing Dynasty and China was the supreme power in East Asia. The Chinese Government kept out foreign influences. As a result, the Chinese court and Chinese society remained largely unchanged for hundreds of years.

Japan

In 1750, Japan was technically under the rule of an emperor. Although the emperor commanded great respect, the real power lay with his military leader, the shogun. From 1603 to 1867, a powerful **dynasty** of shoguns known as the Tokugawa shogunate controlled Japan.

India

In 1750, most of modern-day India was part of the Mughal Empire with an all-powerful and absolute emporer. The emperor had a *diwan* (government) to administer the empire, divided into provinces.

Dutch East Indies

The Dutch East Indies were colonised by the Dutch in 1800. The 1700 islands were each home to different communities all with their own leaders. This archipelago (chain of islands) is now known as Indonesia.

Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press

China

Trade: Around 1750, China mainly traded with its Asian neighbours. In addition to this, it exported large quantities of porcelain (known as 'china') and tea to Europe. By comparison, the Chinese expressed little interest in importing goods from Europe.

Foreign influence: British traders finally found an answer to the trade imbalance in the drug opium – a highly addictive drug made from poppies. The drug became widely used and the British flooded the Chinese market with it from 1773 onwards making huge profits. China tried to stop this trade by going to war with Britain and France (Opium Wars 1839–42 and 1856–60). Defeated, China was forced to sign a series of unequal treaties with Britain, France, Germany and Russia. The treaties allowed these nations to set up their own trading hubs in China with their own laws and businesses. China was also made to pay **reparations** (fines) to the Europeans. These moves crippled China politically and financially.

Impact: Chinese military strength and weaponry was no match when it came to fighting the Europeans. Towards the end of the 1800s, China attempted to modernise its army and society, but growing unrest across the nation led to a rise in nationalist movements and anti-European protests. Ultimately, the ruling Qing Dynasty was overthrown in 1911.

Source 2 British traders flooded the Chinese market with the drug opium from around 1773. This engraving shows an opium den in China around 1880.

Japan

Trade: European traders had been visiting Japan since the mid-1500s. However, from 1635 until 1853, the shogun banned all European ships from entering Japanese waters (except for Dutch ships which had limited access to islands off the mainland). It was also illegal for any Japanese person to leave the country. This period, known as *sakoku* meaning 'chained country', stopped foreign influence over Japan and protected the shogun's power.

Foreign influence: Japan's period of isolation ended in 1853 with the arrival of a fleet of American warships commanded by Commodore Matthew Perry. The United States forced Japan to open its doors to trade with the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854.

Impact: The Japanese recognised that there was little they could do to prevent the increasing influence of foreigners. They recognised that modernisation would put the country in a stronger position. Japan modernised its government, economy and army over a period known as the Meiji Restoration. By the end of the 19th century, Japan had an army and a navy to rival many other modern powers and began attempts to create its own empire. Japan went to war with China in 1894 and with Russia in 1905 and defeated them both, gaining control over parts of China and Korea.

Source 3 A United States postage stamp issued on the centenary (100-year anniversary) of the opening of Japan in 1853 showing Commodore Matthew Perry.

India

Trade: The Portuguese, Dutch, French and British all had trading companies in India from the 1600s. India was a source of valuable trade items such as tea, silk and spices. By 1800, the British controlled all Indian trade. India was a source of the British Empire's land, money, employment and military strength. In the late 19th century, the Indian army made up half of the British Empire's troops and a quarter of Indian taxes went straight back to Britain.

Foreign influence: By 1800, the British East India Company had built up its private armies and taken political control over most of India. An uprising by *sepoys* (Indian soldiers employed by the British East India Company) in 1857 known as the Indian Rebellion led to the British government taking control of India in 1858. This period of British rule, known as the British Raj, lasted for almost a century.

Impact: India had until this time operated as a series of semi-independent provinces. New technologies introduced by the British allowed for mass transportation and long-distance communication, bringing the different regions of India closer together. By 1880, India had over 9000 miles of railway and the cable telegraph across India. This in turn led to nationalist movements such as the Indian National Congress, started in 1885, campaigning for self-rule. Independence was finally achieved in 1947.

Source 4 An illustration from 1857 showing British soldiers fighting Indian *sepoys* during the Indian Rebellion

Dutch East Indies

Trade: The Dutch East India Company was set up in 1602 to profit from the spice trade and break Portuguese control over this market. In 1619, the company established a capital in the port city of Batavia (now Jakarta). The Dutch East Indies were important to the trade of coffee, tea, sugar and spices, particularly pepper, as well as tin, copper and timber.

Foreign influence: When the Dutch East India Company was disbanded in 1800, its territories were taken over by the Dutch Government and renamed the Dutch East Indies. The Dutch East Indies helped to make the Netherlands a rich, industrialised nation. It produced most of the world's quinine (a substance used to treat malaria) and pepper, as well as over a third of the world's rubber, and a fifth of its tea, sugar, coffee and oil.

Impact: The Indigenous peoples of the archipelago became the primary workforce on plantations established by the Dutch. The Dutch were well settled in the East Indies and influenced the development of the country's institutions. The Dutch were removed by the Japanese occupation during World War II, and Indonesia became an independent nation in 1949.

Source 5 A replica of the Dutch East India Company cargo ship *Batavia*. Ships such as this were used to ship goods like coffee, tea, spices and timber from the Dutch East Indies back to Europe.

key**concept:** Continuity and change

Exploring continuity and change in Asian societies

As you explore the history of Asian societies and the impact that contact with European powers had on them, it will help you to keep in mind the key historical concept of continuity and change. In particular, the related concepts of 'transformation' and 'change within tradition' are useful lenses through which to view different Asian societies. These concepts are defined below and some examples of each are provided in Source 6.

- *Transformation* – this concept relates to sweeping change that was often brought about by military action and, at times, occupation by Western powers (that is, change from the outside).
- *Change within tradition* – this concept relates to change brought about by traditional leaders, heads of government, or religious and cultural institutions (that is, change from within).

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change, refer to page 7 of 'The history toolkit'.

Source 7 King George V and Queen Mary, attended by young Indian princes at the 1903 Imperial Durbar in Delhi. British monarchs were called emperors and empresses of India, rather than kings or queens, to remind Indians of the symbolic power of past emperors of India. They also held grand ceremonies in Delhi, called the Imperial Durbar, to demonstrate the wealth and strength of the British Empire. This echoed the *durbars* of earlier times, when Mughal emperors held court in great splendour.

Source 6 Examples of transformation and change within tradition

Transformation	Change within tradition
The rule of the once-mighty Mughal emperors in India was undermined by European trading companies. By 1800, the British East India Company had taken political control over most of India. In 1858, the British Government took over direct control of India.	The British Government deliberately kept some of the traditional leadership structures and practices after they took direct control of Indian territories. For example, India's princes retained their local power and the rights of traditional landlords were respected.
In 1853, Japan was forced by Western powers to open its borders to Western trade. This change resulted in a change of leadership in Japan and the creation of a more Western-style Government under the rule of Emperor Meiji, who was influenced by Western ideas and beliefs. This period became known as the Meiji Restoration.	During the Meiji Restoration, beginning in 1868, much of the real power rested with the same powerful clans that had once dominated Japan.

Check your learning 4.2

Remember and understand

1 List the main reasons why European countries competed to colonise territories across Asia?

2 Which Asian country managed to isolate itself from Western powers for more than 200 years? What was this period known as and what was it designed to achieve?

3 What name was Indonesia known by before it gained independence from the Netherlands? Why was it colonised in the first place?

Apply and analyse

4 How did China and Japan's policies of isolation affect their abilities to defend themselves against attacks and interference from foreign powers?

5 Why was India considered to be 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown' of Britain's colonies?

Unit 2 Australia and Asia

Australia (1750–1918)

A **nation** is a group of people united by a common language, history and culture that live in a clearly defined area. The story of Australia's journey from **convict** dumping ground to democratic nation is a dramatic and exciting one. In 1901, after more than 100 years of European settlement, the six separate British colonies across the continent joined together to create the Commonwealth of Australia – a process known as **Federation**. Each **colony** shared many common characteristics – culture, language, political systems and religion. They also shared a belief that the Indigenous people of Australia had no claim over the land they had inhabited for tens of thousands of years. The characteristics and beliefs of people from each of the original colonies heavily influenced the newly formed nation of Australia and continue to do so to this day.

5A

Why were British colonies established in Australia and who was affected?

1 In what ways do you think the arrival of British settlers to Australia impacted on the Indigenous population? Think about these effects both in the short and long term.

5B

How did key events and ideas influence the development of Australia?

1 The Australian gold rush of the 19th century had huge impacts on the economy and influenced Australia's development as a nation. Why do you think this was the case?

chapter 5

Source 1 This Indigenous rock painting of a tall ship at Nanguluwur in Kakadu, Northern Territory, provides evidence of the interaction that Indigenous Australians had with early settlers. It also stands as a reminder of the changes that took place as a result of contact with the British.

5C

What was life in Australia like at the start of the 20th century?

1 In the early 1900s, Australia experienced a period of great progress and prosperity. However, the benefits of this prosperity were not available to all Australians. Which groups do you think might have faced hardship and social discrimination at this time?

5.1 Australia (1750–1918): a timeline

A cottage in early Hobart, 1806

1770
James Cook's landing at Botany Bay in HMS *Endeavour* on 29 April 1770

1803
Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania): first settlement at Risdon Cove on the Derwent River, followed by the Hobart settlement in early 1804

1824
Queensland: Moreton Bay convict settlement

1750

1800

1788
New South Wales: first settlement at Sydney Cove

1813
First crossing of the Blue Mountains, New South Wales, leads to British expansion inland.

1829
Western Australia: Swan River Colony

An artist's impression of explorers Gregory Blaxland, William Wentworth and William Lawson crossing the Blue Mountains in 1813

Zealous Diggers at Bendigo, painting by ST Gill, 1854

Children at work in the Berry's Creek school, Victoria, in the 1890s

1835
Victoria: settlement of Port Phillip colony and the foundation of Melbourne

1836
South Australia: settlement of Adelaide

1838
Myall Creek Massacre, New South Wales

1850

1851
Start of the Australian gold rushes

1856
Introduction of the eight-hour working day

1872
Free, compulsory and secular (non-religious) education

1900

1901
Australian colonies federate, creating the Commonwealth of Australia.

1902
The Commonwealth Franchise Act grants the vote to most Australian men and women over 21.

1907
The Harvester Judgement introduces a minimum wage for Australian men.

1914
Start of World War I

The statue of Colonel William Light on Montefiore Hill in Adelaide, overlooking the city. Colonel Light was one of the founders of South Australia and was the surveyor responsible for the fine layout of Adelaide.

Banner created to celebrate the 50th anniversary of the achievement of the eight-hour working day

Check your learning 5.1

Remember and understand

1 In what year was New South Wales first settled by the British?
2 When did the Australian gold rushes begin?
3 In what year was a law introduced to limit the working day to eight hours?

Apply and analyse

4 Use the timeline to calculate the exact number of years between when the British first settled Australia and the founding of the Commonwealth of Australia through Federation.

5.2 The first Europeans arrive

Source 1 An oil painting depicting the arrival of the First Fleet

James Cook and European exploration of Australia

In 1768, James Cook, a British Navy Lieutenant and highly capable navigator, was appointed commander of a ship called the *Endeavour*. He was instructed to sail to New Holland – a name that had been given to Australia by Dutch explorers in the 1600s. Cook's commands were to investigate the plants and animals he found there, and examine the available natural resources and the native population. In addition to these tasks, he was ordered to befriend the Indigenous people and take possession of the land for Britain.

Cook claimed the east coast of Australia in the name of Britain in 1770, and took back favourable reports of the soil and climate. He gave mixed reports of the Indigenous people.

Cook was generally sympathetic, without ever acknowledging that they had any claim to the land.

Source 2

> … In short, they seemed to set no value upon anything we gave them, nor would they ever part with anything of their own for any one article we could offer them; this in my opinion argues that they think themselves provided with all the necessaries of Life and that they have no superfluities [luxuries].
>
> Journals of Captain James Cook (JC Beaglehold, *The Journals of Captain James Cook*, Hakluyt Society, 1974)

The decision to settle Botany Bay

One of the places where Cook had landed in 1770 was Botany Bay, just south of Port Jackson. As a result of information from Cook's voyage, Britain decided to establish a **penal colony** there. There were several factors that contributed to Britain's decision:

- The **Industrial Revolution** taking place in Britain at the time meant that many people from rural areas had moved to the towns and cities seeking work.

Source 3 Prison hulks on the Thames River, London, 1805. These hulks were usually old naval ships that were no longer seaworthy.

Source 4 An artist's impression of the view at the Swan River Colony (Western Australia), 1834

Those unable to find work turned to crime to survive. This increase in crime rates meant that British prisons became very overcrowded.

- Because of the overcrowding in British jails, convicts started being imprisoned on empty ships moored in British harbours. These rotting ships were called 'hulks' (see Source 3). Over a short period, these hulks also became extremely crowded and full of disease. The government feared that those diseases would spread to the general public unless these prisoners were removed.
- Before the **American War of Independance**, some British prisoners had been transported to the American colonies, but after the Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776, they refused to accept any more convicts from Britain.
- As a result of the Industrial Revolution, British factories and industries were hungry for raw materials such as wood, coal and minerals. It was hoped that Australia would provide many of these resources.

For example, Norfolk Island, off the coast of New South Wales, was seen as a valuable source of hard timber (suitable for making ships' masts) and flax (a type of grass used for making sails).

- Britain was keen to maintain its role as the leading seafaring and colonial nation. Having a colony in the 'Great South Land' was a good way of doing this. It also meant that Britain would be able to keep pace with French explorers who were colonising new territories in the Pacific.

The First Fleet

The **First Fleet** of 11 ships set sail for Australia from Portsmouth, England, on 13 May 1787. Despite poor weather, the fleet finally arrived at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788. On arrival, however, the area was declared unsuitable for settlement. The fleet moved on to Sydney Cove, landing on 26 January. The fleet's commander, Captain Arthur Phillip, became the first governor of Britain's first Australian colony, New South Wales (see Source 5).

The voyage

The First Fleet was made up of two warships, six convict ships and three supply ships. On board were naval officers, four companies of marines for protection, administrators and their families, and male and female convicts. For the time, the fleet was very well stocked, and three stops were scheduled to take on fresh supplies.

Conditions on the ships were crowded. Prisoners spent a great deal of time below deck in poorly ventilated darkness. Barred and bolted hatches let in little light and air, and many convicts were chained together. The ships were infested with rats, cockroaches and fleas, so diseases spread quickly and easily.

Captain Phillip was aware of the poor conditions on the First Fleet, but tried to look after the health of convicts. They were allowed on deck regularly to wash and breathe fresh air, and were checked by a medical officer. Convicts were given full rations, but only around 1 litre of water per person each day. The First Fleet convicts arrived in Australia with a surprisingly low death toll.

Source 5 Captain Arthur Phillip

The Second Fleet

In 1790, the **Second Fleet** of three ships arrived in Sydney. It had left England with 1000 convicts on board, but conditions were worse than on the First Fleet, and the death toll was higher. The Second Fleet was run by slavers (slave traders) who said they would take the convicts to Australia – dead or alive – for a fixed sum. Many convicts were not given their full ration of food because the slavers planned to sell any unused rations when they arrived in Sydney. Two hundred and sixty-seven convicts died on the voyage. In addition to the 267 deaths, 480 convicts became dangerously ill during the journey from scurvy, dysentery and fever. On arrival in Sydney, many could not walk to shore without help. Conditions on one convict ship were so poor that 30 per cent of the convicts on board died – the highest of any Australian convict ship.

The food that arrived in the colony on board the Second Fleet saved the settlers of the First Fleet from certain starvation. However, the convicts arrived in such poor health that they soon became more of a drain on the colony's resources than a help.

On the Second Fleet's return to Britain, stories of convict suffering led to legal action against some of the seamen and contractors, and the authorities reviewed the transportation process. Ships were only despatched twice a year, in late May and early September, to avoid the dangerous winter conditions in the southern hemisphere. Independent surgeons were appointed to supervise the treatment of convicts, and bonuses were paid for their safe arrival.

After the First and Second Fleets, convicts continued being transported to the eastern colonies until 1850, when transportation to Western Australia began, lasting until 1868.

Convict life

The living and working conditions of convicts in Australia varied greatly according to the region they were sent to and the years in which they were sent. In the early years of the colony, most convicts were forced to work on vital public works, such as roads and buildings. At this time, the governor decided the convicts' food and clothing rations. Some convicts were also assigned as unpaid servants to farmers and townspeople. By the 1820s, the majority of convicts in New South Wales worked for private employers, including former convicts.

In 1801, Governor King introduced the 'ticket of leave' system for good behaviour, which allowed prisoners to choose their employers and receive wages (see Source 6). Some of these ticket-of-leave convicts,

such as Mary Reiby, went on to become prosperous and influential citizens. Occasionally, heroic acts carried out by convicts were rewarded with an absolute or conditional pardon.

On the other hand, punishments for offences committed by convicts after transportation were severe. The Coal River settlement (later known as Newcastle, New South Wales), Norfolk Island (in the Pacific Ocean, 1600 kilometres east of Sydney), and Macquarie Harbour (Tasmania) were all established to deal with convicts who had reoffended while serving their original sentences. For this reason they became known as places of secondary punishment. Of these sites, Norfolk Island was the harshest and was reserved for the 'absolute worst' convicts. Here, solitary confinement and hard labour in a chain gang were standard. The degrading treatment they received there was designed to punish rather than reform, as a warning to convicts on the mainland.

Between 1840 and 1844, Captain Alexander Maconochie attempted to introduce a more humane system at Norfolk Island, but it did little to change the views that convicts had about the island. In 1843, Governor Gipps commented, 'they would go anywhere rather than remain on Norfolk Island'.

About 12 per cent of the convicts transported to the Australian colonies were female. They were mainly guilty of minor offences such as theft and vagrancy (homelessness). Contrary to popular belief, not one was transported for prostitution, but sources do suggest that some female convicts resorted to prostitution on the voyage and after arrival in Australia in order to survive.

COLONIAL TICKET OF LEAVE.

Source 6 A ticket of leave, given to well-behaved convicts

The convict legacy

Convicts played a very important role in the establishment of New South Wales and most other Australian colonies. Up to the 1840s, much of the labour that opened the interior and built the towns, roads and bridges, and supported the farmers was provided by convicts.

Between 1788 and the end of transportation in 1868, approximately 160000 convicts were sent to Australia. In 1838, a British House of Commons committee condemned transportation; this, together with local opposition, saw the end of transportation to New South Wales. However, it continued to Van Diemen's Land until 1853. Also, from 1850 to 1868, Western Australia received 7000 convicts.

Check your learning 5.2

Remember and understand

1 What were some of the main reasons behind Britain's decision to establish a penal colony in New South Wales?
2 What happened to convicts who misbehaved or reoffended while serving their sentences in the colonies?
3 What were some of the regulations put in place by British authorities in 1801 to ensure that convict transportation became safer?
4 Briefly describe how the 'ticket of leave' system operated.
5 What percentage of the convicts transported to Australia were female, and what sort of offences were they mainly guilty of?

Apply and analyse

6 How do you explain the different mortality rates between convicts transported on the First Fleet and Second Fleet?
7 Identify some of the contributions made by the convicts to the development of the colonies.

Evaluate and create

8 Do you think Captain Arthur Phillip was a good choice to lead the First Fleet and become the first governor of New South Wales? Justify your position in a 150-word written response based on information in the text and your own Internet research.

5.3 The colonies of Australia

The Australian colonies were established for a range of different reasons. One of the main reasons was to provide a place of punishment for many of the convicts crowding Britain's jails. The colonies also offered the opportunity for poor people from Britain to begin a new life and even own land. They were also a great source of wealth and raw materials for the British government and industry, initially providing timber for shipbuilding, and later supplying wool, minerals and grain.

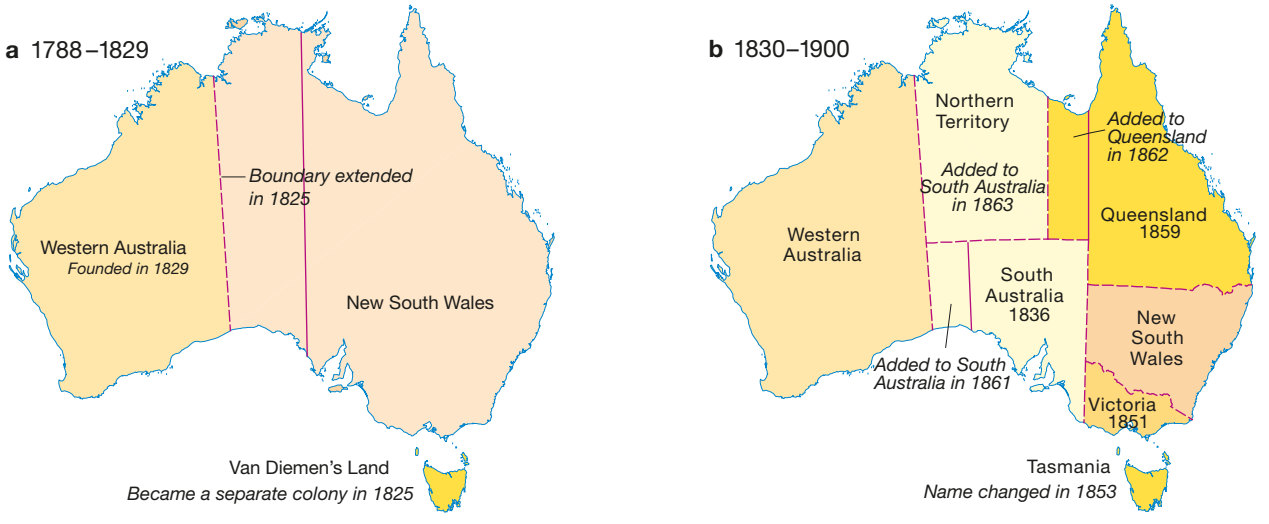
Changing social and economic conditions in Britain during the 18th century led to the first permanent convict settlement in New South Wales in 1788. The process of European settlement of Australia after that time was gradual. New South Wales was later followed by other colonies and districts around the country; some were originally administered from New South Wales, while others were established as colonies in their own right. Over the next century, these colonies gradually became the states and territories of Australia that we recognise today (see Source 1).

Underlying the whole colonial experience was a strong belief in the idea that British values and achievements were superior to those of any other peoples. This belief provided the British with a justification for their perceived right and obligation to take control of Australian lands, without regard for the Indigenous inhabitants.

New South Wales

After his arrival on the First Fleet in 1788, Captain Arthur Phillip remained as the governor of the colony of New South Wales for five years. Phillip represented the British government and was more or less the ruler of the colony. His chief achievement was the survival of the colony and the establishment of Sydney and Parramatta. He was known to be a humane leader, and this extended to his relations with the Cadigal and Wangal Wangal peoples of the Sydney area. Governor Phillip named the suburb of Manly after the strong and 'manly' Aborigines he met in that area shortly after settlement – 'their confidence and manly behaviour made me give the name of Manly Cove to this place'.

In the early days of the colony, the harsh landscape, blazing hot summers and the settlers' lack of experience made farming difficult. In its first two years, the colony came very close to collapsing because of starvation, inadequate shelter and a lack of appropriate equipment. The arrival of the Second Fleet in June 1790 possibly saved the young settlement, but conditions remained harsh. By the time Phillip left, however, farms were almost able to support the New South Wales population.



Source 1 Australian colonial settlements, **a** 1788–1829 **b** 1830–1900

The spread of settlement in New South Wales

From 1788 until about 1810, the colony of New South Wales was confined to an area extending not much more than 100 kilometres in any direction from Sydney. The crossing of the Blue Mountains by explorers William Wentworth, Gregory Blaxland and William Lawson in 1813 allowed settlements to expand inland. Other explorers followed and, by 1850, most of New South Wales had been opened up to British settlers. The land was cleared, allowing farms and small towns to be established.

By the 1830s, although there was still plenty of convict and ex-convict labour, there was a growing move towards bringing free settlers out to Australia. These people initially formed a labouring class, but eventually become landowners. In 1831, an assisted migration scheme was introduced. Under this scheme, potential employers in the colony were able to choose British workers. The workers were then assisted with the cost of their passage to Australia. In return, the assisted settlers (often whole families) would guarantee that they would work for their patrons (employers) for two to three years. Many **assisted migrants** went on to become influential citizens in the colonies. One was Henry Parkes (later Sir Henry Parkes), who went on to become Premier of New South Wales and is remembered today as one of the leaders of the federation movement.

Source 2 A view of Government Farm at Rose Hill, New South Wales, 1791

Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania)

The first European explorer to discover and map large sections of Australia – including the southern island we know as Tasmania – was a Dutchman by the name of Abel Tasman. In the 1640s, Tasman named the island Van Diemen's Land after the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies (modern-day Indonesia).

The first European settlement in Van Diemen's Land was at Risdon Cove on the Derwent River. In September 1803, Lieutenant John Bowen arrived from New South Wales on the HMS *Albion*, which carried 50 passengers, half of whom were convicts.

Source 3 The remains of the penal colony at Port Arthur in Tasmania

Source 4 *The Plough Gang*, an artist's impression of convicts working near the Port Arthur colony

In early 1804, the settlement was joined by over 400 colonists and convicts from the abandoned Sullivan's Bay colony at Sorrento (Victoria). The leader of this expedition, Lieutenant David Collins, moved the settlement from Risdon Cove to Hobart and took over responsibility for the colony from Bowen. Hobart was established as a penal colony and was to become one of the harshest of the convict settlements. Overall, 40 per cent of all convicts transported to Australia were to spend time in Van Diemen's Land.

Over the next 20 years, the colony developed and prospered. **Free settlers** and ex-convicts helped to establish a sheep-grazing industry, and set up sealing and whaling stations. In addition to Hobart, the towns of Richmond and Launceston were established, and industries such as milling, brewing and brick-making developed.

In 1825, Van Diemen's Land, which had been part of New South Wales, became a colony in its own right. In 1853, the name was changed to Tasmania (in honour of Abel Tasman) and it achieved the right to self-government in 1854.

The impact of European settlement on the Indigenous people of Van Diemen's Land (the Parlevar or Palawa people) was more devastating than in most of the mainland colonies. As the settlers and their livestock spread out across the island, Aboriginal people were displaced from their traditional lands and dispossessed of their culture and traditions. The main killer of Aborigines was European disease, but they also suffered as a result of loss of food sources and their traditional skills. Violence against Aborigines also accounted for deaths, although it is difficult to gain accurate figures about such actions because massacres were often covered up or not recorded.

The Tasmanian Aborigines did not accept colonisation and made many attempts to strike back against the settlers. This resulted in a period of tension between the two groups that has been described as guerrilla warfare and the Black War.

In 1832, George Robinson was appointed by the government to gather all remaining Aborigines into a camp on Flinders Island in an attempt to 'remove the problem'. As far as it is known, the last full-blood Tasmanian Aborigine died in 1876, but there are thousands of Tasmanians today who are blood relatives of the original inhabitants of their island.

Queensland

The area around Moreton Bay (now Brisbane) was home to the Jagera and Turrbal people for up to 40 000 years before British settlers arrived. In 1824, a convict settlement was established on the shore of Moreton Bay under the leadership of Lieutenant Henry Miller.

Source 5 A hand-coloured etching showing a convict being flogged at Moreton Bay in 1836

Source 6
The Foundation of Perth 1829 by George Pitt Morison. This painting was commissioned to mark the centenary of the founding of Western Australia in 1929.

A year later it was moved to the banks of the Brisbane River. Over 2200 convicts, most of them hardened criminals, were sent to the settlement between 1824 and 1839.

Officially, free settlers were forbidden from moving into the area, but over time it became increasingly difficult to stop them. The area offered fertile soil and good grazing pastures, and was very attractive to free settlers and colonists from New South Wales.

In 1838, the decision was made to allow free settlers into the area, and the following year the convict settlement was closed. The area remained part of New South Wales until the colony of Queensland was officially proclaimed in 1859.

Western Australia

The area around the Swan River had been occupied by several Indigenous groups for thousands of years before European settlement. These groups lived along the banks of the river where there was an abundant supply of fish, game birds, fruit and berries.

The first European settlement in Western Australia was at King George Sound in 1826. This decision to settle here was prompted by a fear that the French were interested in colonising the area. In 1829, Captain James Stirling established the Swan River Colony in the name of the British government. The main city was Perth, with a port called Fremantle at the entrance to the harbour. Unlike settlements in New South Wales, Hobart, Moreton Bay and Norfolk Island, this new colony was to be a free settlement – free from the stigma of convicts.

The population of the settlement grew slowly. While the idea of a free settlement was appealing to immigrants, they quickly found that there was a drastic shortage of labour. Land prices were low so most free settlers became farmers, leaving few people to work for wages.

This problem eventually led to the demand that convicts be sent to Western Australia. In 1850, at a time when convict transportation was being phased out in the east, it became an important element in the economy of the west. From 1850 to 1868, nearly 10000 convicts, all of them male, were transported to the Swan River Colony. They worked on constructing public buildings – roads, bridges and even prisons. A small number were assigned to farmers, but as the years progressed and the convicts gained their freedom, they began to provide a much-needed labour force for the free settlers.

As in other colonies, the settlers at Swan River did not recognise any claim that the local Aborigines had to the land. Initial interactions between the two groups were friendly but it quickly became obvious that they could not coexist. In the 1830s, following several clashes between Aborigines and settlers, a local elder, Yagan, was killed. This incident was followed by the Battle of Pinjarra (also known as the Pinjarra Massacre), considered one of the worst attacks on Indigenous people in Australia's history.

Information about what happened at Pinjarra is unclear, and estimates of the number of Aborigines killed vary from 10 to 150. This event seems to have marked the end of Aboriginal resistance to European settlement. By the 1850s, most of the Indigenous people in the areas surrounding Perth had been dispossessed of their heritage and connection to the land.

The Port Phillip District (Victoria)

The first attempt to settle the colony that eventually became known as Victoria was made at Sorrento near the mouth of Port Phillip Bay in 1803. Originally, this was to be an administrative district of the colony of New South Wales. The settlers' first contact was made with the peoples of the Kulin nation who lived in the areas surrounding Port Phillip Bay. The Sorrento settlement, however, was abandoned after only a few months because of a lack of fresh water. Unlike New South Wales, Tasmania or Queensland, the colonisation of Victoria was driven by free settlers rather than convicts.

In 1834, the Henty brothers settled illegally in the area around Portland (in Victoria near the current border with South Australia). A year later, John Batman crossed Bass Strait from Tasmania and explored the area around the Yarra River. At the time, Batman claimed to have signed a treaty for around 600000 acres of land from a group of Wurundjeri elders, the local Indigenous people (see Source 7). This area became the site for the establishment of a settlement that would eventually become known as Melbourne. More recently, Batman's claim has been challenged by historians. They contend that other pioneer settlers such as John Pascoe Fawkner and John Lancey actually have greater claim to being the founders of Melbourne.

The Port Phillip district grew quickly, largely because of profits from wool. Melbourne developed as a processing centre and port for wool exports. By 1850, it was an impressive city of 22000 people, with many fine streets and buildings, an art gallery, theatres, hospitals and schools, and beautiful botanical gardens.

Unlike New South Wales, the Port Phillip District was established as a free settlement. From the late 1830s, assisted migrants were brought to the colony to provide a labour force. The opportunities offered in the colony were so great that, by 1850, one in five of these migrants had become landowners.

Despite its economic success, the settlement of the Port Phillip District had a disastrous impact on the Indigenous people of the region. European diseases such as smallpox and measles led to many deaths. Violence and loss of food sources also contributed to the decline of the Aboriginal population. It is estimated that by 1850 the Indigenous population had declined to around 3000.

In 1851, under the Australian Colonies Government Act, the Port Phillip District separated from New South Wales and was renamed the Colony of Victoria in honour of the reigning British monarch at the time, Queen Victoria. Following the discovery of gold in August 1851, Victoria went on to become one of the richest and most progressive of the Australian colonies.

South Australia

South Australia was settled in 1836 on the banks of Adelaide's Torrens River. Its first governor was John Hindmarsh. The colony was based on a plan by Edward Gibbon Wakefield to create an ideal, convict-free society. Land was to be sold at a reasonable price and the money raised was to be used to bring out free settlers as labourers. The colony was founded with the aim of recreating all the best elements of the British homeland.

Source 7 *Batman's treaty with the Aborigines,* JW Burt, 1885, State Library of Victoria (painted to mark the 50th anniversary of the treaty signed on 6 June 1835)

Adelaide was one of the first towns built in South Australia. It was designed by surveyor Colonel William Light (see Source 8). The regular grid of streets and the border of parklands surrounding the city make Adelaide one of the best-planned cities in the world.

The early economy of the new town relied primarily on sheep farming. During the 1840s, the colony spread further inland when deposits of copper were discovered at Burra in 1845. In the 1840s, the foundations of the wine industry were laid by German immigrants in the Barossa Valley and Irish settlers in the Clare Valley.

The Indigenous people of the Adelaide area were the Kaurna people. At the time the colony was established there were between 500 and 1000 Kaurna in the area. Unlike the other colonies, South Australia was not based on the doctrine of ***terra nullius*** ('land belonging to no one' or 'empty land'). The South Australia Act acknowledged the existence of the Indigenous people and stated that no settler could interfere with their enjoyment or use of the land.

There is little evidence of direct violence between Europeans and the Kaurna people, but the Kaurna people fell victim to the same problems as Aborigines in other colonies. The majority died of introduced diseases. Others suffered because their lands were taken, their culture was undermined and their way of life was destroyed.

Source 8 An artist's impression of Colonel William Light, the surveyor and planner of Adelaide

Check your learning 5.3

Remember and understand

1 Where and when was the first settlement established in Victoria, and why was it later abandoned?
2 Why did the Port Phillip colony grow so quickly?
3 Describe Edward Wakefield's plan to create an ideal society in South Australia.
4 In what year did the Port Phillip District separate from New South Wales? What was the name of the new colony and who was it named after?
5 What was the name of the Indigenous people in the Adelaide area? What was different about the way in which Indigenous peoples in South Australia were treated compared with other Australian colonies?
6 What were some of the reasons why the New South Wales colony nearly failed in the first few years after it was established?
7 When did explorers first cross the Blue Mountains?
8 What was Tasmania originally called and why was this name changed to 'Tasmania' in 1853?
9 Convicts were sent to the settlement of Moreton Bay (now Brisbane) between 1824 and 1839.
   a How many convicts were sent to Moreton Bay?
   b Why was this area also so attractive to free settlers?

Apply and analyse

10 List as many different reasons as you can for the establishment of colonies in Australia between 1788 and 1836.
11 What overall benefits were provided to the Australian colonies by the presence of convicts?
12 Why did colonial leaders in Port Phillip, South Australia and (initially) Western Australia take pride in the fact that they were not convict colonies?
13 How and why did European settlement in Van Diemen's Land have such a devastating impact on its Aboriginal people?
14 Explain why Western Australia suffered from a labour shortage. What was the solution to this problem?

5.4 Development of the colonies during the 1800s

At first, the establishment of the Australian colonies centred on the main settlements, which grew to become the capital cities. With the growth of population through **migration** and natural increase, there was a need to expand from these hub settlements. Between 1810 and 1860, much of inland Australia was opened up through many journeys of discovery by adventurers known as 'explorers'.

The land closer to the coast was used largely for agriculture. The drier inland areas were increasingly used for pasture for sheep and cattle. The Industrial Revolution in Britain created a huge demand for raw materials such as wool. The factories of Leeds and Bradford in Yorkshire were hungry for the fleeces of **merino** sheep bred in the Australian colonies.

The population and prosperity of the Australian colonies were also strongly boosted by the discovery of gold in the 1850s.

The opening of the interior

By 1810, it was becoming clear that the crops being shipped to Australia from England to supplement crops grown in New South Wales were not meeting demand. The land around Sydney was filling up quickly with new settlers and it was obvious that more land was needed to grow crops and raise livestock to feed the growing population. It was decided that, to do this, the interior of Australia needed to be opened up to meet the demand for food and living space.

Source 1 An artist's impression of Melbourne, 1880

Transport

As settlers cleared land in the interior to graze cattle and sheep, they established small towns. Roads were made back to the main settlements to transport wool and supplies. Although the Europeans were taking over Aboriginal lands, they were unaware that they were benefiting from Aboriginal knowledge of the areas. Indigenous trading trails had been operating along the clearest and most accessible routes for thousands of years. The sheep farmers moved their sheep along these routes. Later, the first postal services on horseback used the Indigenous trails to deliver mail to farmers.

Source 2 The historic port of Echuca on the Murray River was one of the busiest inland ports during the 19th century.

Echuca was one of the busiest inland ports in the 19th century. Paddle steamers carried cargoes of wool from properties along the Murray–Darling river system to the railway at Echuca and from there goods were transported to Melbourne for export.

Initially, inland travel was on horseback, by stagecoach or by cattle cart. Over time, more efficient modes of transport were introduced. The first Australian passenger railway, linking Melbourne and Sandridge (Port Melbourne), opened in September 1854. Throughout the 19th century, sailing ships grew in number, size and speed. By the 1850s, steamships began travelling to Australia.

By 1860, all the colonies had busy ports in their capital cities. There were also many ports along the inland river systems. The colonists enjoyed regular communication through the network of steamships, railways and the telegraph, which linked the eastern capital cities by the late 1850s.

Check your learning 5.4

Remember and understand

1 Why did the early settlers feel the need to explore and settle regions in the interior of Australia, far away from towns along the coast?

2 How did settlers benefit from Indigenous knowledge and use of the environment?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain why wool was important in the development and expansion of the colonies.

4 Explain why transport was so important to the opening up of the country.

5 In what ways had methods of transport and communication improved by the later part of the 19th century?

Evaluate and create

6 Some of the explorers who went on expeditions to unlock areas of land in Australia's interior included Major Mitchell, Edward John Eyre, John Oxley, and Robert Burke and William Wills (who travelled together). Choose one of these explorers and conduct some research into their life and experiences. Write a 250-word report outlining their achievements. Include at least two historical sources in your report and reference them according to the instructions on page 17 of 'The history toolkit'.

5.5 The impact of early colonisation on Indigenous people

Source 1 This photograph taken on 24 May 1890 shows Aborigines from a local mission gathered at the Court House in Goondiwindi (Queensland) to receive blankets to mark the birthday of Queen Victoria.

For most of the 20th century, most non-Indigenous Australians accepted that Australia was a *terra nullius* before the arrival of the British in 1788. This concept of *terra nullius* underpinned the settlement of the Australian colonies. Europeans took the approach that because the Indigenous people did not fence the land, farm it or build on it (and appeared to have no concept of landownership), they had no claim to ownership of the land. This idea developed in spite of the fact that Indigenous Australians had continuously occupied the land for at least 60 000 years before the arrival of the first Europeans.

Despite what European settlers at the time may have believed, the Aborigines had a deep spiritual connection with the land. This relationship to 'country' was the source of all of their physical, social and spiritual needs. Because they had a concept of shared landownership, they saw no necessity to fence off certain areas or to show possession through the building of permanent structures.

Early contact

From the earliest days of settlement, the impact of European contact with the Indigenous people of Australia was disastrous. Early British explorers and traders introduced new diseases, which Aborigines had little or no immunity to. The settlements that followed the explorers pushed onto Indigenous land, disturbing established territories and introducing new species of animals that would change the face of Australia. The European settlements also threatened the traditional ways of life and spiritual practices of the first Australians.

By the end of the 19th century, the destruction of the traditional lifestyles of Indigenous people was almost complete. In the more remote parts of South Australia and Western Australia, there were small numbers of Aborigines still living according to traditional customs, but, for the most part Aborigines were living on **reserves**, **missions** or **protectorates** set up by the British. A small number also lived and worked on farms and pastoral stations, managing to live lives that straddled both cultures.

The rest of the Aboriginal population lived on the fringes of European **society** – in camps on the edges of towns and cities. These were probably the most disadvantaged of all. Many had lost their links to traditional family and culture; their health was poor, and alcohol and tobacco abuse were common.

At first, European contact was usually accidental. There were sightings and landings before 1788, as sailors tried to establish new trade areas or colonies in the Asian region. There are some records of Aboriginal contact with the Macassans (from the island of Sulawesi in Indonesia), the Dutch, the English and the French before James Cook's arrival in Australia.

Some historians also have argued that a fleet of Portuguese ships sailed around the south coast of Victoria and that one ship – made of mahogany – ran aground near Warrnambool.

First settlers

Historical records of early contact between the first British settlers and the Aboriginal people tend to only be given from a European perspective. Much less importance has been attached to the oral accounts (stories) of these early encounters that have been passed down through generations of Indigenous Australians by word of mouth. Some of the European accounts are from people in official positions and others are kept in private diaries and records. From these accounts it appears that relationships between the Aborigines and settlers in the area around modern Sydney were good for the first 12 to 15 months of contact after the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788.

Records show that soon after the Europeans had landed, Aborigines welcomed them – some even danced with them. Some Aborigines believed that the Europeans were ancestral spirits returning from the sea, as their white skin was the colour of death. The local Aborigines showed the Europeans some good fishing spots and shared the fish that they had caught. Despite these early events, conflict soon developed. Shots were fired at Aborigines who took some shovels from the colony storehouse. After this, the local Aborigines moved away from the colony for some time.

As winter set in and food became scarce, conflict grew between the Aborigines and settlers. The shooting of kangaroos and other animals by the Europeans meant the Aborigines had scarce supplies of winter skins for clothing. The fish stocks, which were always uncertain in Port Jackson, suffered from being fished too heavily by Europeans. Governor Phillip also ordered land to be cleared to grow crops and raise livestock. This led to Aboriginal people being pushed off their traditional hunting grounds.

By the following year, the conflict between the British and the local Cadigal people became more violent, with deaths on both sides. In an attempt to open a line of communication, Governor Phillip ordered that some Aboriginal men be kidnapped in 1789. Governor Phillip aimed to teach these men English language and customs so they could act as ambassadors for the British and pass messages back and forth. The first man taken, Arabanoo, died of smallpox. Two others, Bennelong and Colbee, also caught smallpox but survived. Both men escaped from the colony but Bennelong returned. He learnt to speak English and developed a close relationship with Governor Phillip, teaching him some Indigenous customs and traditions. Bennelong ate at the governor's table and dressed in European clothes. He also accompanied Governor Phillip on a visit to England before returning to Australia in 1795.

Source 2
A portrait of Bennelong dressed in European clothes

Check your learning 5.5

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, define the concept of *terra nullius*.
2. Which groups of people had had some contact with Indigenous Australians before the arrival in Australia by Captain Cook in 1770?
3. What evidence suggests that a Portuguese ship may have been wrecked on the coast near Warrnambool before the British colonised the region?
4. How were the British settlers at Sydney Cove originally welcomed by the local Indigenous peoples?
5. In what ways did the Aborigines help the first settlers?

Evaluate and create

6. What can you learn about the attitudes and values of European colonisers towards Indigenous Australians from the concept of *terra nullius*?
7. Was the kidnapping of Aboriginal men justified in order to promote communication between the settlers and the Indigenous population? Give reasons to justify your opinion.

5.6 Ongoing effects of colonisation on Indigenous populations

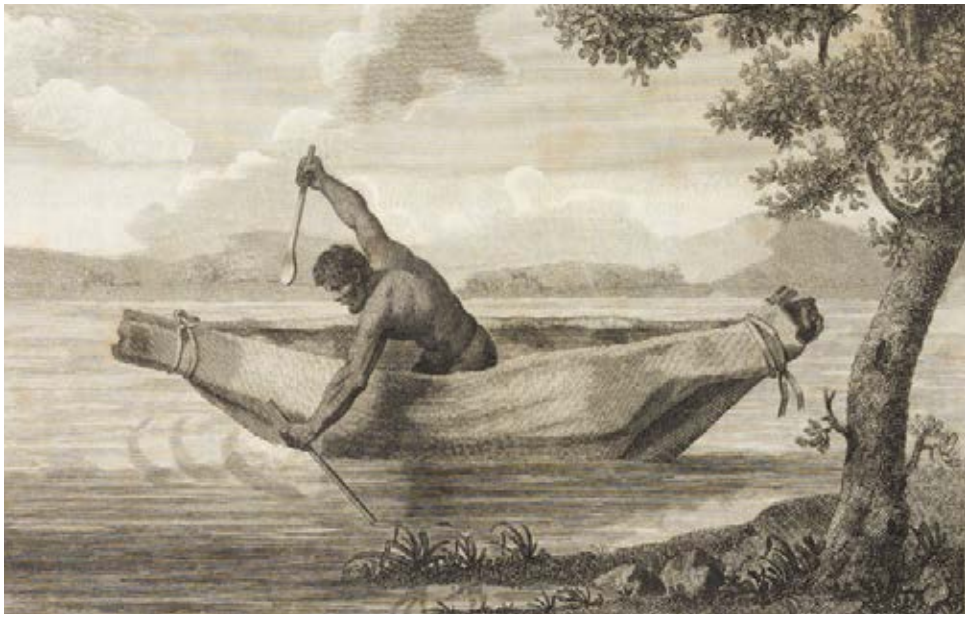
Source 1 This painting, *Collins Street, Melbourne town, 1839,* by William Knight, shows a group of Indigenous Australians overlooking the township of Melbourne (National Library of Australia).

Within a few years of the establishment of every British colony in Australia, the numbers of local Aboriginal people declined dramatically. For example, up to 90 per cent of the local Indigenous groups, such as the Kameygal and Cadigal peoples, are thought to have died after three years of settlement around Botany Bay and Port Jackson. The numbers of Indigenous people surrounding Port Phillip Bay are believed to have declined from over 30000 in 1835 to no more than 5000 in 1850.

Estimates of the Aboriginal population of Australia prior to European settlement vary greatly, from a minimum of 318000 up to 750000. The population was spread throughout the continent but the majority lived in the south-east with large groupings thought to have been established along the Murray River. Indigenous communities lived **semi-nomadic** lives, meaning that they lived for short periods in the same place before moving on in search of different hunting grounds.

Traditional hunting areas and food sources were disturbed as the colony of New South Wales expanded. Food became scarcer in the wild, and traditional hunting and gathering areas used by the Aborigines were cleared for agricultural development. Fences appeared and access to waterholes or sacred sites became difficult or impossible.

European expansion often displaced the Aboriginal people in the more heavily populated areas. In some cases, this resulted in warfare as certain Aboriginal groups were pushed into the territories of other groups. This is something that has rarely been mentioned in historical accounts until recent times.



Source 2 An artist's impression of Pemulwuy in a canoe spearing fish

Armed conflicts also developed between Aboriginal people and the settlers as the Europeans spread out into the interior of the country. In most cases, attempts by local Aborigines to resist European expansion failed – largely because of British fire power.

Diseases

Diseases introduced by the Europeans spread quickly and had a dramatic effect on the Aboriginal population. In fact, they were by far the biggest killer. Diseases such as the common cold and tuberculosis wiped out large numbers of Indigenous people, often a generation at a time. Many diseases that were only mildly dangerous to Europeans were lethal to Aboriginal people, who had no immunity to them.

Syphilis and other sexually transmitted diseases not only caused deaths but also rendered many Aboriginal women infertile, leading to a declining birth rate. Other diseases, including measles and influenza, also spread rapidly throughout the Aboriginal population. Smallpox alone is thought to have wiped out at least 50 per cent of the total Aboriginal population of Australia.

Frontier conflict and resistance

By the late 1700s, conflict between the Europeans and Aboriginal people became more common because more and more European settlements were intruding onto Aboriginal lands. Indigenous people often reacted angrily to these intrusions. Some attacked the farms, stole or killed livestock and speared the settlers. In retaliation, settlers often took revenge into their own hands, carrying out attacks and violent raids on the camps of those thought to have attacked them (see Source 1 on page 122).

In the Hawkesbury area of New South Wales, 26 Europeans and 200 Aborigines died in conflicts between 1794 and 1800. One well-known Aborigine who resisted the Europeans was Pemulwuy. He became famous for launching attacks on the settlers, burning their crops and destroying their huts. In 1801, Governor King offered a reward for Pemulwuy's capture. Pemulwuy was shot and killed by soldiers and the resistance movement fell away for a brief period.

Collaboration

While there were times of conflict, there were also times when Indigenous people and Europeans worked together. Many Aboriginal people joined the police force and became trackers (experts at finding and following animal and human tracks).

In another example of collaboration, Bennelong worked with Governor Phillip to bring Aboriginal people into the settlement. Bungaree sailed with Matthew Flinders between 1801 and 1803. He was taken to help communicate with Indigenous people along the way. However, Flinders did not realise the great differences among the Aboriginal language groups. The further they moved away from the settlement, the more difficult it became for Bungaree to communicate with the local inhabitants. In Port Phillip District, Billibellary, an elder of the Wurundjeri people, also worked closely with the new arrivals in the early years. He attempted to enable his people to move between the two cultures.

Source 3 This wood engraving from around 1873 titled *Marriage of Aboriginal natives,* shows Aboriginal people on a mission near Melbourne being married according to British customs.

Missions and protectorates

The exclusion of Indigenous Australians from the national story was reflected in government policies in all colonies. These policies isolated Indigenous people by moving them onto areas of land known as missions and protectorates. Here they were taught English language and customs, while at the same time being kept away from European communities. During Australia's colonial period, over 211 missions were established. While officially the missions and protectorates were set up to look after Aboriginal people, in fact they caused them a tremendous amount of damage. Even in these early years, hundreds of Aboriginal children were removed from their families (although this did not become official government policy until the 20th century). The first mission was established in 1815 to 'civilise' the Aborigines, which meant teaching them to think and live like Europeans. In 1824, another mission was established at what is now Newcastle in New South Wales. All the Aboriginal people at that mission either died of disease or, if they could, escaped.

In Port Phillip District, the Melbourne Mission was set up under the leadership of George Langhorne in 1837. Its aims were to 'civilise and Christianise' the Aboriginal people. It had little success because they could come and go as they pleased. Also, because it was so close to Melbourne, they became reliant on European products such as white flour, sugar, alcohol and tobacco.

By 1838, the Aborigines' Protection Society had been established in London, but in Australia the Society did little to live up to its name. Conditions in most missions were very poor and family members were often separated before being sent there. Most missions were run by the Church, and Aboriginal people sent there were banned from speaking their own languages, usually forced to wear European clothes and live according to Western customs and traditions (see Source 3). In addition to this, they were forced to adopt the religion of Christianity and were not permitted to practise their traditional spiritual beliefs and customs.

Despite the many failed missions and protectorates, there were a small number of successful ones at New Norcia in Western Australia and Hermannsburg in the Northern Territory. Although Aboriginal people here were still encouraged to adopt British customs, such as cricket (see Source 4), what made these missions stand apart was their respect for Aboriginal culture. These missions acted as sanctuaries for women, children and old people. European workers also helped maintain the Aboriginal culture, teach the local Indigenous language and save Aboriginal **artefacts**.

Dispossession

When the land, culture and way of life of Indigenous peoples are removed, we refer to this as **dispossession**. As the European settlers spread across the country, Aboriginal groups were pushed off their traditional lands and lost many of their customs and languages. The Wiradjuri people from central New South Wales were one group who experienced the full effects of dispossession. As the Europeans crossed the Blue Mountains and settled Bathurst, trees were cleared for sheep- and cattle-grazing, and native animals like kangaroos and possums were killed.

Native grasses and plants were damaged by the hoofs of these introduced animals. Furthermore, Aboriginal links to the land and its features were destroyed by land-clearing, the construction of European huts and yards, and the fencing-off of sacred areas, especially waterholes.

By the late 19th century, there was a general belief among officials that the Aboriginal people would soon die out. A new **protection** policy, sometimes referred to as 'smooth the dying pillow', was developed. On the surface, it involved better treatment for Aboriginal people, but in reality it stripped them even more of their independence, self-confidence and traditional culture.

In 1901, when the colonies federated (united) to form the Commonwealth of Australia, it was made clear that the original people had no place in the new nation. The new federal parliament had no powers to make laws relating to Indigenous people and they were not to be included as members of the population for the purposes of the **census**. Before 1901, some Aboriginal people in several colonies had received the right to vote, but in 1902 this right was removed from all Indigenous people. They were effectively non-existent people in the land they had called home for over 40 000 years. In fact, until the referendum in 1967, Indigenous people were classified under the Flora and Fauna Act, and not counted in the census as citizens.

Source 4 An etching showing the New Norcia mission cricket team

Check your learning 5.6

Remember and understand

1 Give five examples of the negative impact of European settlement on Indigenous people.
2 What was the major reason for the deaths of Indigenous people?
3 What is the meaning of 'dispossession'?
4 Why were European diseases so damaging to the Aboriginal people?
5 What were the aims of the missions and protectorates, and why did they fail?

Apply and analyse

6 Examine Source 1.
   a What messages does this painting give about the impact of European settlement on the Melbourne area and the local Aboriginal people?
   b How is this message conveyed?
   c Imagine a conversation between two of the Aboriginal people in the foreground of the picture. Write the script for such a conversation, drawing on your knowledge of the settlement of Port Phillip and the impact on the Indigenous people.
7 Using information in the text and gathered on the Internet, describe what it meant by the phrase 'smooth the dying pillow'. How did this relate to the policy of Aboriginal 'protection' at the time?

5.7 The Australian gold rushes

The most significant influence on the economic and social development of the Australian colonies in the 19th century was the discovery of gold. Gold tripled the population of the colonies and made Melbourne one of the richest cities in the British Empire. Gold also helped lay the foundations of the democratic nation that would later be established in 1901.

However, the gold rushes in New South Wales and Victoria also strengthened the belief in white superiority that had influenced the colonies since they were first settled. The movement of thousands of people into the inland goldfields led to further displacement of the Indigenous people from their traditional lands. Gold seekers from China also faced discrimination and violence from European settlers.

Gold was first discovered in the Australian colonies from around 1823. The amounts discovered, however, were quite small and were all on government-owned land. This meant that the gold should have been surrendered to the governor, so the finds were not usually reported. In April 1851, Edward Hargraves claimed correctly that 'payable' gold (gold on unclaimed land) had been discovered near Bathurst. The New South Wales government rewarded his discovery with £10000 (pounds). Hargraves immediately announced his find to the newspapers, and with this the Australian gold rushes began.

Shortly after, gold discoveries were announced in Victoria. By the end of 1851, 20000 prospectors (known as **diggers**) were working on the goldfields in Ballarat, Bendigo and elsewhere. Over the coming years, around half the male population of Melbourne and Adelaide left for the Victorian goldfields. The first immigrant ships carrying would-be goldminers arrived in 1852. By 1858, 150000 people were living on the Victorian goldfields. In total, the gold rushes in New South Wales and Victoria brought around 622000 people to Australia in the 10 years after 1851.

Mining methods

Diggers on the goldfields were looking for two main types of gold – alluvial gold and deep reef gold. Alluvial gold was a type of gold that washed up in creek and river beds from underground streams. It was the easiest for most miners to find, and searching for it did not require much equipment. One cheap option was to use a pick, shovel and panning dish to swirl dirt and water from riverbeds to separate the gold. Another method used a piece of wooden equipment called a cradle. This resembled a baby's cradle and could be 'rocked' to catch the gold in a sieve (see Source 2).

By about 1853, much of the alluvial gold had been found and miners turned their attention to the deep reef gold buried many metres below the surface.

Source 1 This painting by ST Gill titled *The New Rush*, shows miners making their way to the Victorian goldfields around 1865; Ballarat Fine Art Gallery.

Source 2 An artist's impression of goldminers using cradles to find alluvial gold

To access deep reef gold, mines had to be sunk deep underground. Expensive machinery and complex processes (such as **puddling**) were needed to separate the gold from the quartz rock in which it was trapped. When this deep shaft mining started, groups of miners began to form companies, pooling their money and labour to operate one mine. Often they would toil for many months before they received any reward for their labours. All miners had to pay a licence fee to the government during this time, something that they bitterly resented. This tax was one of the main factors that let to the **Eureka Rebellion** at Ballarat in December 1854.

Conditions on the goldfields

Living conditions were hard for everyone on the goldfields. In places like Bendigo, for example, around 40 000 people lived close together in tents. Water and fresh food were scarce and sanitation was very poor. Garbage piled up around the diggings and toilets were simply holes dug in the ground. The smell from the camps was unbearable for those who were not used to it. Most of the people living on the goldfields were men, although some women did brave the difficult conditions with their children in order to keep their families together. While some children were able to attend school, education was of varying quality and often depended on the willingness of teachers to give up time looking for gold in order to run classes. Most children were expected to work with their parents looking for gold. Medical care was very poor, and trained doctors were few and far between. Children on the goldfields were much more likely than adults to be injured or to die from disease. Children under the age of five made up a majority of deaths on the goldfields. Many women died in childbirth from a lack of sanitation and medical care.

Unsanitary conditions led to the spread of diseases such as dysentery and typhoid. Illnesses also resulted from a poor diet, as there were few fresh foods. Exotic foods were available but they were very expensive and were not affordable for most miners.

Living and working on the goldfields

Most diggers on the goldfields worked from dawn until dusk, six days a week. In the early years, most miners were able to make a reasonable income from alluvial gold mining and a few even had major strikes, making them instantly wealthy. In reality though, most found very little gold at all and struggled to make a decent living.

Source 3 An artist's impression of children panning for gold

Once most alluvial gold had been found and the mining of deep reef gold began, many miners really began to struggle. There were also, of course, very successful miners like George Lansell, whose profitable mining company in Bendigo earned him the title, 'The Quartz King'. Success stories like this kept new people flocking to the goldfields to test their luck – despite all the hardships.

The people who were most assured of a steady income on the goldfields weren't miners at all, but traders, shopkeepers, transporters and other business people. The miners were so caught up with the search for gold that it was a full-time job for them. This allowed enterprising people to recognise a need for services and supplies in and around the goldfields, so many people built up prosperous businesses. For example, John Chandler and his father, who arrived in Melbourne in 1850, developed a very successful business transporting goods (such as mining tools and supplies) to and from towns on the Victorian goldfields.

key**concept:** Empathy

Food on the goldfields

In order to have a real understanding of the hardships and rewards of life on the goldfields, it is necessary to look closely at how the miners lived. One really good way to empathise with miners is to look at the types of food they ate, because the importance of food in people's lives never really changes. Food is not just for sustenance; it is also a way of connecting with people and celebrating. By examining food on the goldfields we can begin to have some empathy with the miners as real people, even though they lived very different lives from us.

There is a general belief that all miners lived on a boring diet of mutton (meat from sheep), damper and tea. While this was true to a large extent, the diaries and letters from the time provide evidence that more varied and exotic foods were also available. See the list of food items eaten and prices recorded by a party of four diggers in the early 1850s (Source 4).

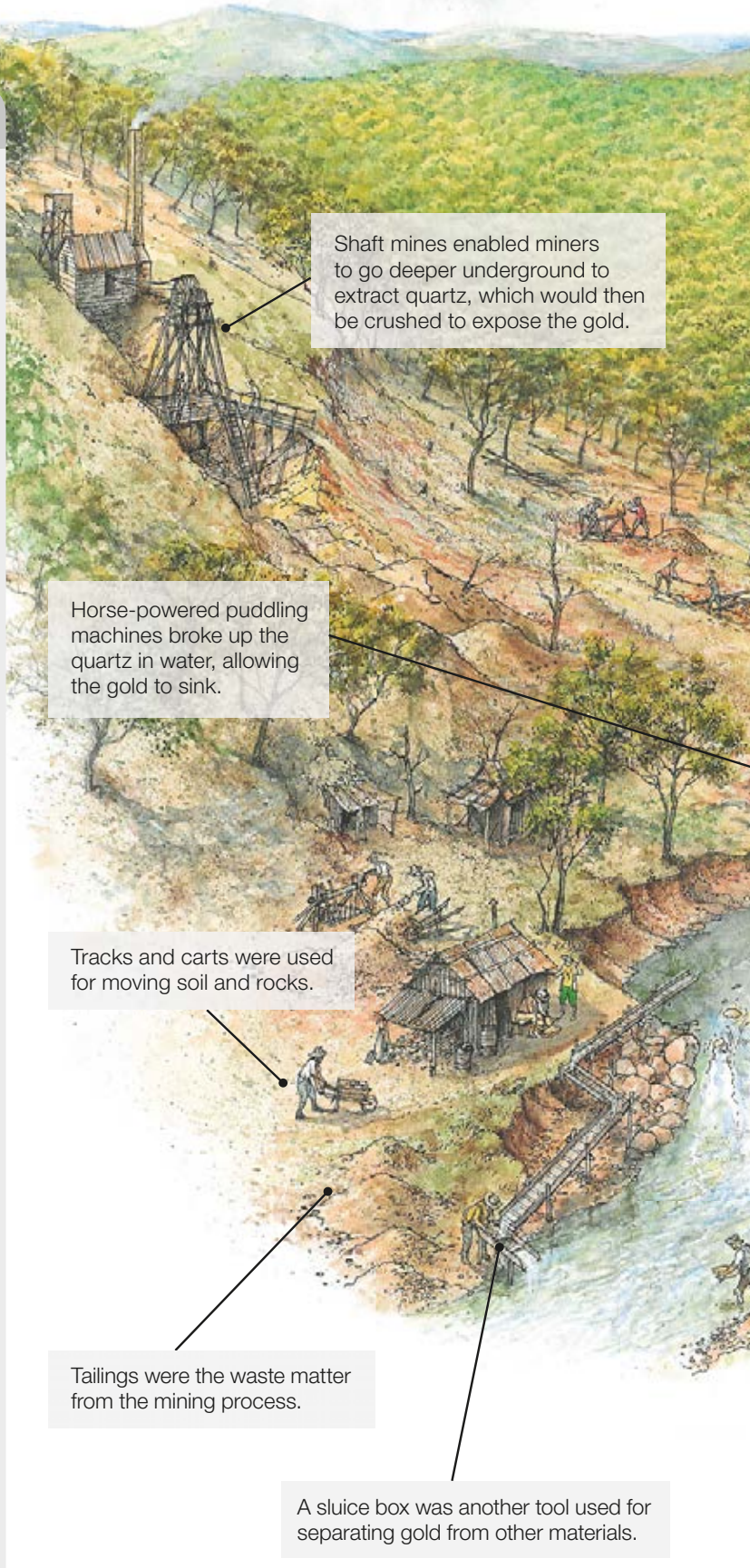
Source 4

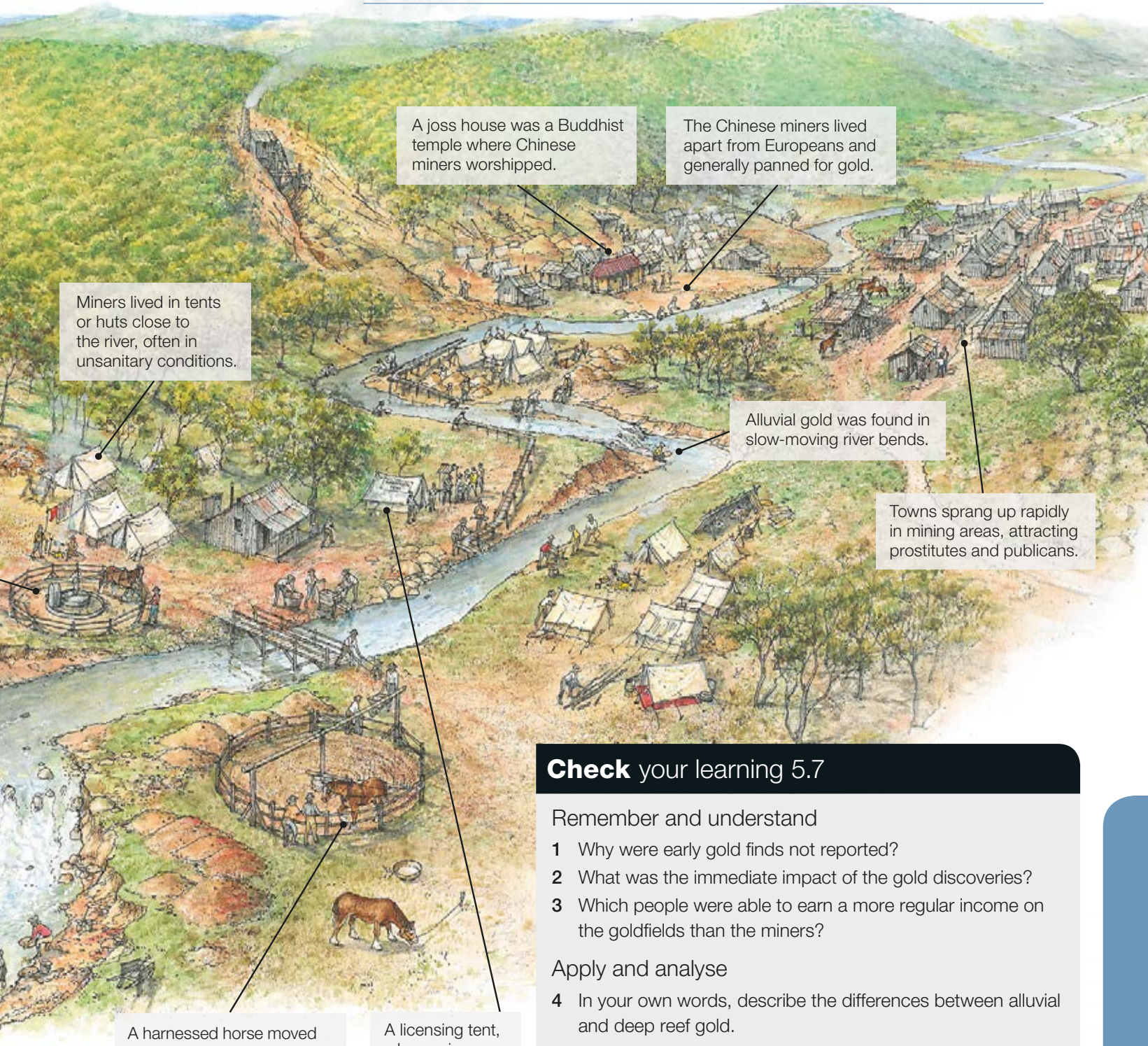
Mutton forequarter 4 shillings
Coffee 2 shillings and 6 pence
Potatoes 6 pence per pound [weight]
Porridge 1 shilling per pound
Tongue 2 shillings and 5 pence per pound
Anchovy paste 1 shilling and 5 pence per pot
Mustard 2 shillings per pot
Pickles 1 shilling per pot
Lemon peel 2 shillings and 6 pence per pound
Hot cross buns 4 pence

(Note: 1 shilling = 10 cents, 6 pence = 5 cents, 5 pence = 4 cents, 1 pound [weight] = 450 grams)

James Selby, a medical practitioner and fossicker on the Victorian goldfields around 1852–54, recorded in his diary that he had 'dined this day with Nankeville [another digger] who regaled me with [gave me] a Cornish pasty … '. He then 'went to drink tea and eat bacon currant fritters with Hunt [another digger] … ' Another miner described 'a collation [collection] of beef steak, cold ham, Dutch cheese, sardines, pickles and damper'. There are also accounts of miners making gigantic Christmas puddings with gold nuggets sprinkled through the mixture!

For more information on the key concept of empathy, refer to page 10 of 'The history toolkit'.





Source 5 A modern artist's recreation of the goldfields

Check your learning 5.7

Remember and understand

1 Why were early gold finds not reported?
2 What was the immediate impact of the gold discoveries?
3 Which people were able to earn a more regular income on the goldfields than the miners?

Apply and analyse

4 In your own words, describe the differences between alluvial and deep reef gold.
5 What evidence do Source 4 and the accompanying quotes provide about the types of food available on the goldfields?

Evaluate and create

6 Imagine that you are a goldminer who immigrated to Australia from Britain during the gold rushes in the 1850s. Use the information in this section to write a letter to your family in Britain about your life on the goldfields. Your letter should contain at least three paragraphs, each focusing on a different aspect of life and work.

5.8 The experiences of the Chinese in Australia before 1900

In the centuries after British settlement, Australia has attracted people from around the globe. Some came in search of riches and new opportunities; others were looking for a place to start a new life. Among them were Afghans from the Middle East, South Sea Islanders from across the western Pacific region and the Japanese. By far the largest group of non-Europeans to journey to Australia over this period of time were the Chinese.

The Chinese

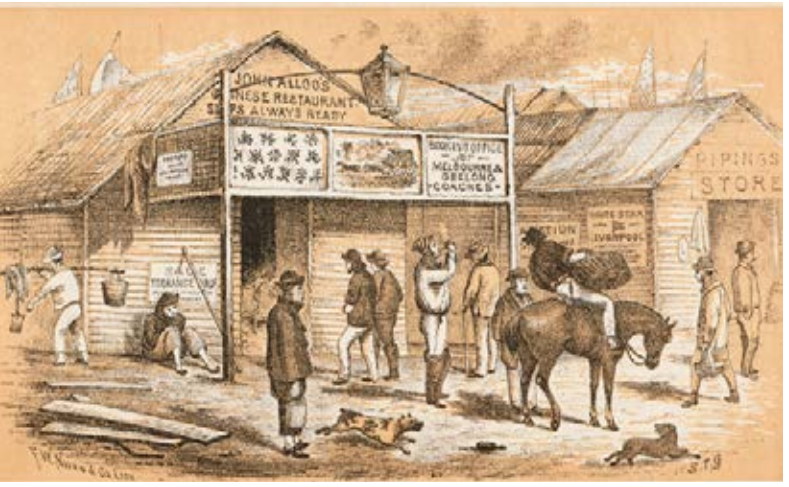
For most Chinese, the main motivation for making the long journey to Australia was the search for gold. During the 1850s Australia was known to the Chinese as *Xin Jin Shan* ('New Mountain of Gold'). Many Chinese immigrants were also political refugees who left China following a bloody civil war that raged across China between 1850 and 1864.

Source 1 A Chinese miner on the goldfields carrying a cradle and other mining tools

By the late 1850s, there were around 40000 Chinese immigrants in Victoria. They represented 25 per cent of the miners in the state at this time. In New South Wales, gold-mining communities were not as large as they were in Victoria. Here, around 60 per cent of all miners were Chinese immigrants. Their language, culture, religion, appearance and clothing meant that the Chinese were often viewed with suspicion by Europeans. They were also accused of introducing exotic diseases and drugs (such as opium) onto the goldfields (see Source 3). As a result, they were regularly the victims of prejudice and racial abuse.

The main reasons for anti-Chinese feeling among Europeans included:

- *racism* – it was assumed that the culture and religion of white, European peoples were naturally superior. The other purely racist notion was that non-whites would contaminate the pure white race of British Australians. These views were widely expressed in parliament, popular literature and cartoons (see Source 3 opposite and Source 3 on page 132. An argument often used by European settlers in the lead up to Federation in 1901 was that a united nation would be better able to make laws to restrict further 'unwanted' immigration.
- *fear of being overrun* – there was also a fear that the arrival of the Chinese in increasing numbers might result in Europeans being overtaken as the largest ethnic group. The Europeans feared they would be dispossessed of their land by the Chinese, just as they had dispossessed the Indigenous Australians.
- *suspicion of an unfamiliar culture* – the Chinese stood out as a cultural group. Their language, religion and appearance meant they were often viewed with suspicion by Europeans. Because almost all Chinese immigrants on the goldfields were male, they were also seen as competition for the relatively small number of women there.
- *jealousy* – having been denied access to the best mining areas near water, the Chinese often reworked claims (pieces of land) that European miners had abandoned. They worked hard to go over the tailings (the clay and soil that had already been worked by previous miners) and were often successful in



Source 2 *John Alloo's Chinese restaurant, main road, Ballarat,* 1855 by ST Gill; lithograph, National Gallery of Australia

Source 3 'The Mongolian Octopus – his grip on Australia', a cartoon that appeared in *The Bulletin* in 1886

finding quantities of gold that had been left behind, causing anger and resentment among the European diggers. The practice of sending gold home to their families was also viewed as taking wealth away from Australians. This was despite the fact that many European miners sent gold home to their families in Europe as well.

Resentment and anger towards the Chinese community flared into violence on a number of occasions. From 1855 onwards, colonial governments in Victoria and South Australia started passing anti-Chinese legislation. Two of the worst incidents occurred shortly after this time. One at Buckland River in Victoria in 1857, and another at Lambing Flat in New South Wales in 1861. 'The Lambing Flat riots' as they became known were a series of riots and attacks against Chinese miners that took place over a period of about 10 months. Mobs of several thousand miners attacked Chinese miners working the goldfields in a number of locations. Over this time, about half of the Chinese miners living there were brutally beaten or injured in the attacks. Only one of the attackers, William Squires, was convicted and sentenced in relation to the attacks.

Despite widespread anti-Chinese feeling, there were some Europeans who showed sympathy and even admiration for the Chinese. Antoine Fauchery, a French miner, described the Chinese as 'strong, industrious and patient'. By the 1870s, the focus of gold mining had moved to Queensland. The decline in alluvial gold mining saw many Chinese people return home, though a small community remained. Some moved on and set up new businesses such as restaurants, trading companies and shops, while others became market gardeners.

Check your learning 5.8

Remember and understand

1 List the main groups of non-European migrants to Australia in the period before 1900. Explain why these groups came to Australia.
2 What did the Chinese call Australia in the 1850s?
3 What were the main reasons for anti-Chinese feeling among Europeans working on the Australian goldfields?

Apply and analyse

4 Look carefully at Source 3. What evidence does this cartoon provide about the way in which Chinese migrants were regarded by many Australians in the 19th century?

Evaluate and create

5 In pairs or small groups, research one of the violent outbreaks against the Chinese on the goldfields during the late 1800s.
   a Your research should cover the following inquiry questions:
      - when and where the riot/outbreak was
      - what happened and why
      - what sources are available
      - whether the riot brought about any changes.
   b Prepare a short written report of around 450 words or create an audiovisual presentation to present your findings to the class.

5.9 The experiences of other non-Europeans in Australia before 1900

The Afghans

From the 1830s onwards, a group of people from the Middle East also began to travel to Australia in search of work. They were experienced camel handlers who managed and tended to the camels that had been imported by the British to help explore and settle Australia's dry and inhospitable interior. Although the cameleers were known as 'Afghans', they came from various parts of the Middle East, Turkey and India. Camels – known as 'ships of the desert' – could survive and work in conditions too harsh for horses, donkeys and bullocks. Many 'Afghans' were employed under short-term contracts that required them to return to their homelands after a few years. By 1900, however, it is estimated that there were around 2000 cameleers living permanently in Australia.

The Afghans faced hostility and suspicion because of their race and they rarely mixed with Europeans outside of work. Many Afghans were Muslim and this only increased the prejudices of many of the Europeans. The Afghans were usually housed on the fringes of settlements, with outback towns typically segregated into sections for whites, Indigenous Australians and the cameleers.

The Afghans made a major contribution to exploration and development of Australia's interior. From the 1860s until the expansion of the railways around 1900, camels were vital for moving people and property. The inland railways and the Overland Telegraph line were two of the great projects that depended on the cameleers.

The combination of Federation and the Immigration Restriction Act meant that any Afghans who left Australia were not allowed to return. Those who stayed to make their homes in Australia could not become citizens because, under the White Australia Policy, they were classified as 'Asian'.

South Pacific Islanders

From the 1860s, the growing of sugar cane dramatically increased in Queensland's tropical north. Harvesting, or cane cutting, was back-breaking work and there was a common belief that it was unhealthy for Europeans to undertake hard physical labour in the tropics. This was due to European ideas about differences between the races. The result was that employers looked to the South Pacific islands for workers and brought in people from the Solomon Islands, New Hebrides (modern-day Vanuatu) and the Loyalty Islands. By the 1890s almost 50000 South Sea Islanders, collectively called Kanakas, had been brought to Australia. Some of the islanders had in fact been kidnapped. Though many were legitimately employed in Australia, many thousands of others were exploited by unscrupulous employers and worked under conditions that resembled **slavery**.

Although historians acknowledge the importance of the contribution of these South Sea Islanders to the

Source 1 Camels carrying timber as part of the construction of the Trans-Australian railway

Source 2 Pacific Islanders loading sugar cane, *c.* 1890

Source 3 A Japanese pearl diver in full diving suit, waiting for the helmet

economic development of Queensland, their treatment on the cane fields is one of the contested aspects of Australian history. There is ongoing debate among historians who have reviewed statistics available about medical conditions and mortality rates among the South Sea Islanders. The experiences of these workers tended to vary depending on whom they worked for, and where and when they were employed.

It is fair to say, however, that islander labour was attractive to some employers because it was cheap and cost them less than employing European labour. Hence employers looked to keep saving money and the islanders were not always as well fed, housed or clothed as they might have been. Pacific Islanders were also vulnerable to European diseases, such as tuberculosis and influenza, which contributed to high death rates. The historian Marilyn Lake noted that in 1883, 'one Islander in every twelve working on plantations died, by 1884 one in seven. In some places the death rate was even higher, reaching 60 per cent on the CSR [a large sugar refinery] estate in Goondi.' Perhaps the most telling statistic is that, in the 1890s, the death rate among South Sea Islanders in Queensland was over 60 for every 1000 workers, while the death rate for other Queenslanders was only 13 for every 1000.

Federation in 1901 saw the gradual deportation of Pacific Islanders as the Pacific Islander Labourers Act was phased in. Amendments or changes to the legislation over the years meant that by 1906, it was decided that Pacific Islanders who had come to Australia before 1879, had been in Australia for more than 20 years, were too old to return home or who owned land in Australia could stay. At present, it is estimated that there are around 20000 descendants of the original Pacific Island labourers living in northern New South Wales and Queensland.

The Japanese

In the 1880s, the Japanese and immigrants from other Asian countries came to Australia to work in pearl diving areas such as Darwin, Broome in Western Australia, and Thursday Island in northern Queensland. Their expertise in deep-water diving was instrumental in developing Australia's pearling industry. Deep-water diving was a dangerous occupation, involving diving suits, helmets and lead-weighted boots. Air was manually pumped to the diver, who walked on or drifted along the seabed. Divers risked injury or death from decompression sickness and shark attacks. Cyclones were also known to shipwreck whole fleets of pearling luggers (special pearling boats).

Like other non-European immigrants, Japanese workers experienced racism from European Australians because of their different appearance and unfamiliar culture. However, unlike other people from Asia, Japanese divers in Broome became exempt from the White Australia Policy after Federation. Originally the government attempted to replace them with divers recruited from the British Navy, but almost all of the group of 12 British divers were killed while diving.

Check your learning 5.9

Remember and understand

1 Outline the contribution that 'Afghans' made to Australia's development in the 19th century.
2 Explain why South Sea Islanders were deported from Queensland after Federation.
3 What happened to the British Navy pearlers that the government employed to try and replace Japanese divers?

5A rich task

The impacts of European colonisation on Australia's Indigenous population

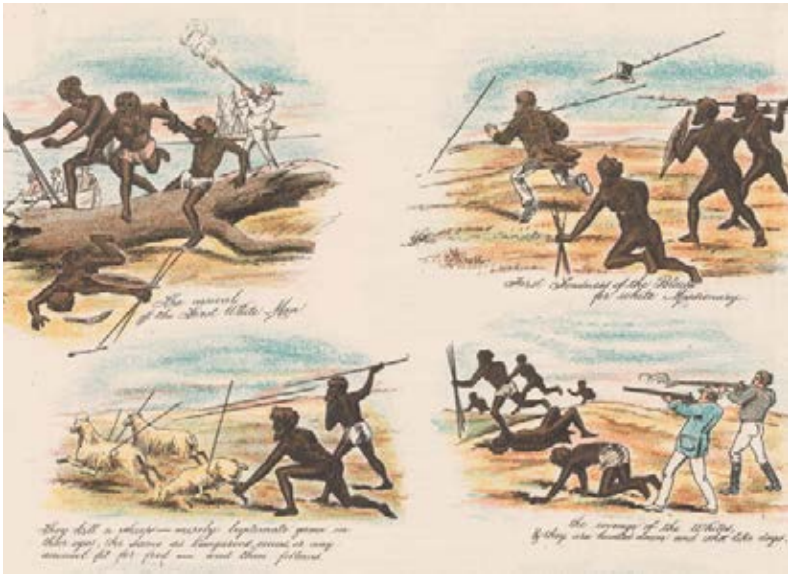
From the earliest days of British **colonisation** of Australia, the impact on the Indigenous population was catastrophic. Although British authorities initially attempted to treat the Aboriginal people well, they still intended to take their land. As more and more Europeans arrived, conflict increased as Aboriginal people were increasingly robbed of their hunting and fishing grounds.

Most early settlements were on the east coast of Australia. Gradually, however, explorers began making long and dangerous expeditions inland. Whenever the explorers found land suitable for farming, settlers would follow them there. Later in the 1800s, Europeans began to expand even further into the infertile parts of the country, searching for gold or other valuable minerals. As explorers and settlers pushed further and further inland, they were also moving into Aboriginal tribal areas. There was often conflict on this frontier as Aboriginal people tried to protect what was theirs.

The conflict was made worse by the fact that misunderstandings existed on both sides. The British settlers at the time considered their civilisation to be superior and looked down on Aboriginal people as primitive natives who needed help. On the other hand, Aboriginal people had no knowledge of European values and did not understand their attitude to landownership.

In many parts of Australia there was open warfare as Aboriginal people fought to defend themselves and their land. They used guerrilla tactics such as making surprise attacks on lone settlers, or spearing sheep and cattle before disappearing back into their land.

These attacks were often worse in times of drought. Usually, however, this led to groups of settlers or mounted police hunting down the Aborigines. On many occasions, this led to the massacre of innocent Aborigines who had taken no part in attacks on settlers. The Aborigines had no weapons to match the European guns, nor could they organise themselves in sufficient numbers to oppose the continuing spread of settlement as more convicts and settlers arrived.



Source 1 '… the revenge of the Whites …', AS Broad (1854–1929), National Library of Australia

Source 2 *Maltreatment of the blacks*, 1880 engraving by CH Hunt, State Library of Victoria

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Generating different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry

One of the first and most important steps in conducting a historical inquiry is to generate or pose key questions. The questions that you generate will frame or direct the research that you then undertake.

Usually, historians generate one broad, overarching or key question for their inquiry, for example: 'How did European colonisation impact on Australia's Indigenous population?' After that, you need to generate more specific questions that are related to your overall inquiry question. You will need to generate a mixture of:

- closed or simple questions (e.g. '*When* did event *X* occur?')
- open or probing questions (e.g. '*Why* did event *X* occur?')
- questions that relate to the process of historical inquiry (e.g. 'What evidence is there?', 'What other sources might be needed?').

The first step in generating questions is to think about what you already know about the topic. Use this knowledge as a springboard for questions that will help you understand the topic in more depth. Use a table like the one following to brainstorm all the things you know in one column. In the second column, use each point in the first column to generate related questions that will help to deepen or build your understanding. Remember to include a mix of the three question types described above.

Overarching inquiry question:

What I already know:	Questions to help me deepen or build my understanding:
Point 1	Question/s related to point 1
Point 2	Question/s related to point 2

Apply the skill

1 Use the process described to generate a range of questions related to the overarching historical inquiry question: 'How did European colonisation impact upon Australia's Indigenous population?' Copy the table below into your notebook.

First, identify what you already know as a result of reading this chapter and the information in this section. List these ideas in the first column.

Then, in the second column, generate related questions that help to deepen or build your understanding. The first one has been done for you.

Overarching inquiry question: 'How did European colonisation impact upon Australia's Indigenous population?'

What I already know:	Questions to help me deepen or build my understanding:
Many Aboriginals were killed as a result of violence on the frontier.	• How many massacres of Aboriginals occurred? (simple or closed question) • Where and when did they occur? (simple or closed question) • Why did they occur? (open or probing question) • What evidence exists of these massacres? (question related to the process of historical inquiry)
Point 2	
Point 3	
Point 4	

Extend your understanding

1 Of all the massacres of Aborigines that occurred in Australia between 1788 and 1928, the Myall Creek Massacre is regarded as one of the most historically significant.

a Conduct some Internet research on the Myall Creek Massacre. Write a 300-word report that addresses the following questions:

- Where and when did it take place?
- Which tribe of Indigenous Australians was involved?
- Who were the white settlers?
- What was the main cause of the conflict?
- What was the result?
- Why is the Myall Creek Massacre regarded as one of the most historically significant massacres of Aborigines in the history of Australia?

5.10 Emerging Australian identity

A sense of Australian identity was slow to develop during the 19th century. Many of the thousands who came to Australia as free settlers or assisted migrants were initially unwilling to bond with their new country. Even though the culture, customs, buildings, gardens, clothing, food, institutions and pastimes were all closely modelled on British styles (see Source 2), many immigrants longed for the day they could return to their British homeland.

This sense of isolation and separation was even stronger for convicts. As Australia was a place of exile, most of the convicts who arrived in New South Wales or Van Diemen's Land felt no link to this strange and often harsh land. Most had also been separated from all family and loved ones in Britain, making the desire to return home greater.

Gradually though, attitudes towards being 'Australian' started to change. Over time, some ex-convicts and assisted migrants who had initially resisted the idea of staying in Australia now began to recognise the many economic and social benefits offered by this new society.

Identifying with Australia

By the late 19th century, many British customs and practices were being altered to suit the different physical and social conditions of Australia. Verandahs were added to British-style houses to keep out the heat. Clothing became lighter and less fussy, and new words and pronunciations began creeping into the language. The words *billy*, *larrikin*, *battler*, *bludger* and *outback* all came into common usage, especially in the bush. The diet of most people in Australia at this time was similar to that of people in Britain, but gradually this became more nutritious because meat, dairy produce and vegetables were more readily available here.

Another influence that brought Australian colonists together was sport. Although Australian Rules football was not played in every colony, it was well established in Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia. The first intercolonial football game was played between Victoria and South Australia in 1879. Cricket was played in all the colonies from the earliest days of their settlement, and the first Test Match against England was played (and won by Australia) in Melbourne in 1877. Horse racing was also a big part of

Source 1 This painting, titled *The Lawn at Flemington on Melbourne Cup Day* by Karl Kahler, *c.* 1887, shows the early influence that sporting events had on the development of Australian identity.

Source 2 An early painting of Oxford Street, Sydney, showing British-style clothing and buildings (Jacob Janssen, 1847)

life in the colonies. The first horse race is recorded to have taken place in Sydney within weeks of settlement. By the 1880s, the Melbourne Cup (see Source 1) had already developed its reputation as 'the race that stops a nation'. Even in the remotest parts of Australia, people followed the results, and the Cup fashions were reported in popular magazines such as *The Bulletin*.

There was also a freer and more egalitarian spirit among the Australian colonists. Most of these changes happened unconsciously over time. Many people believed that they were still living a very British lifestyle. It was only when they travelled to Britain, or welcomed visitors from 'home', that they became aware of how much attitudes and practices were changing between the two countries.

Check your learning 5.10

Remember and understand

1 Why was a sense of 'Australian' identity slow to develop in the colonies during the 19th century?
2 In your own words, define the term 'egalitarianism'. How did this philosophy influence the development of Australian society in the 1800s?
3 Explain how sport contributed to a growing sense of unity among the Australian colonies and influenced the development of an Australian identity.

Apply and analyse

4 What point is Source 3 making about egalitarianism in Australia compared to Britain?
5 How do you explain the fact that most Australians accepted the idea of an egalitarian society even though they often saw evidence to the contrary?
6 Modern-day Australia is regarded as an egalitarian society. Think of three examples of laws or public policies that demonstrate Australia's egalitarianism today.

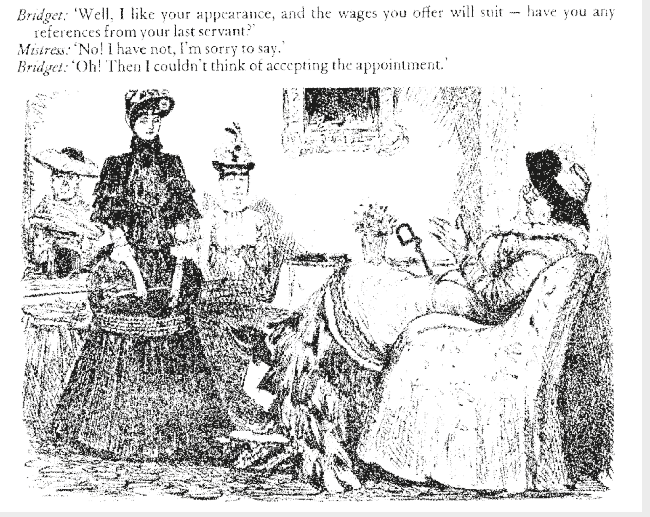
key**concept:** Perspectives

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is the idea of equality among people. The word comes from the French *égal*, meaning equal. Believers in egalitarianism wish for all people to be have equal social status or worth as human beings. They also wish for all people to be given equal opportunities in society.

As the national identity of Australia was forming, many people both here and overseas believed in a society where all had an equal chance to prosper. Unlike in Britain, there was no strict class system. However, this did not mean that there were no class differences. There was still a large gap between the wealthy, the middle class and the poor. There was also a distinction between white people and non-whites. A wealthy and successful Chinese merchant usually had less social acceptance than a white person on a low wage in an unskilled occupation.

However, this egalitarian spirit did mean that the children of convicts or poor immigrants were able to rise to positions of importance in politics, business and the arts. What counted most under Australia's egalitarian social system were hard work, risk-taking and an ability to make the most of the land's opportunities.



Source 3 This cartoon from *Melbourne Punch* (1883) makes fun of the growing sense of equality between the wealthy and the working class in the Australian colonies.

It also meant that people were more inclined to mix with those of other classes. Relations between bosses and workers, **pastoralists** (landowners) and shearers, politicians and voters were far less formal than they were in Britain.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives, refer to page 6 of 'The history toolkit'.

5.11 The impact of gold

Gold brought enormous growth in wealth and population to the Australian colonies. In the 1850s, the value of gold produced was around $21 million (around $1.2 billion today), and by the 1890s, the value was still $18 million (around $1.1 billion today).

For this reason, the period from 1860 to 1890 is known as 'the long boom'. It was a period of great expansion and development in the mining and pastoral industries. The capital cities expanded and many new towns developed in regional areas.

The impact of the 1850s gold rushes was most significant for Victoria, the colony that included the mining towns of Ballarat, Bendigo and Castlemaine. By the end of the 1850s, the colony of Victoria was producing about one-third of the world's gold and was home to around half of Australia's European population. During the gold-rush decades, groups of Germans, Poles and Americans joined a community that had previously been dominated by settlers from Britain.

key**concept:** Significance

'Marvellous Melbourne'

By the end of the 1850s, Melbourne was one of the wealthiest cities of the British Empire. Between 1850 and 1890, fuelled by the gold rush, Melbourne's population grew from 22 000 to half a million. This made Melbourne the second biggest city in the British Empire after London, and larger than many European capitals of the time.

This population growth, along with the enormous wealth of the goldfields, supported a boom that lasted for 40 years and became known as the era of 'Marvellous Melbourne'. This wealth had a huge impact on the development of Melbourne. Many of the buildings and institutions established at this time are still a central part of the life of the city today and provide many of Melbourne's landmarks.

With the arrival of more educated gold seekers from England, there was a corresponding growth in the number of schools, churches, learned societies, libraries and art galleries in the city. The University of Melbourne was founded in 1855 and the State Library of Victoria in 1856. Parliament House, Melbourne, was started in 1855, though not completed until 1929. Ornate office buildings rivalled those of New York and London. Money was poured into lavishly decorated banks, hotels and coffee palaces.

Melbourne's civic pride swelled. The elaborate Royal Exhibition Building was built in 1880 to house the Melbourne International Exhibition. It was a world-class building to show off the latest in commerce and industry, art, science and education.

The city spread out in all directions and wealthy new suburbs were settled. These new suburbs were serviced by train and tram networks that were among the largest and most modern in the world.

In 1891, however, the good times came to an end. Banks closed their doors, stockbrokers panicked and thousands of people betting on the boom continuing lost jobs, homes and savings. Growth in Melbourne slowed for some time and Melbourne entered a more sober era.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.

Source 1 Parliament House in Melbourne is one of many grand buildings built from proceeds of the gold rush during the era of 'Marvellous Melbourne'.

Source 2 Although some miners struck it rich on the goldfield, the majority did not. This painting from 1854, titled *The Invalid Digger* by ST Gill, shows the hardship faced by many diggers in Australia at the time.

The gold rushes had a lasting effect on Australia. The population increased from 437 000 to 1.1 million during the 1850s. Gold money helped to establish overseas trade, improve transport and build roads so that more inland areas could be opened up to farming and settlement. The introduction of coach companies, such as Cobb & Co. in 1853, improved travel within and between the colonies. By 1861, 110 towns and cities were linked by telegraph.

Gold and national unity

Some historians have suggested that the many immigrants who arrived in Australia during the 1850s in search of gold actually slowed down the development of national unity. There is some evidence to support this, but only in the short term. Letters and diaries of gold-rush immigrants suggest that many of them initially saw Australia as a place only of temporary residence. They expected that Australia would provide them with a quick fortune, and then they would return to their homelands in Britain, Asia or Europe. For some, gold did indeed bring great wealth. For most, however, the experience was difficult and unrewarding (see Source 2).

Gold discoveries gave the colonies great wealth and boosted their populations. By the late 1860s, most of the gold-rush immigrants had chosen to stay in Australia. There were generally very high rates of employment across the colonies. Towns and cities developed and settlement continued to expand inland. Gold-rush immigrants settled on small farms, started their own businesses or took jobs working in various trades and professions.

The majority of gold-rush immigrants were still from the British Isles. However, there is evidence that many of them were slightly better educated and more politically aware than the pre-gold arrivals. Achievements such as the right to vote for all men over the age of 25 and the eight-hour day are regarded as having been influenced by the new waves of immigrants after 1851.

Despite their initial doubts, most gold-rush immigrants had increasingly positive attitudes towards their adopted country and its future. They began to identify with the landscape, no longer seeing it as harsh and unforgiving. Life in Australia had many positives – a more relaxed lifestyle, a lack of strict class barriers and the potential prosperity of an economy based on gold and wool. The idea of moving towards a single nation was developing.

Check your learning 5.11

Remember and understand

1 Which colony produced the most gold in the period 1850 to 1900?
2 Which particular goldfields were the richest in Australia?
3 Name two ways in which the discovery of gold assisted in the development of the Australian colonies after 1850.

Apply and analyse

4 Explain why some historians suggest that gold slowed the development of national unity.
5 What role did gold play, in the longer term, to create positive feelings about Australia?

Evaluate and create

6 Many of the accounts of life on the goldfields refer to the spirit of mateship and camaraderie that existed among the diggers. ST Gill's painting *The Invalid Digger* (Source 2) and Weston Bate's research suggest a different situation.
   a Conduct further research to discover which view is more likely to be accurate.
   b Use this material and your own research to write a 500-word essay on the topic: 'Mateship on the goldfields: myth or reality?'. Be sure to include and reference at least two historical sources.

5.12 The development of Australian culture

In the 19th century, Australians began to show their growing national identity through art and literature. Appreciation grew for new styles that were distinctly Australian.

Developments in art

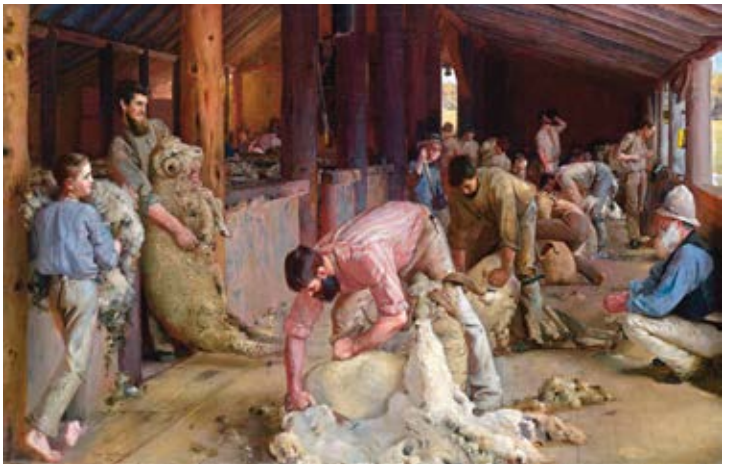
In the early 19th century, painters tended to see the Australian landscape through European eyes. Landscapes were usually depicted by artists as dark and hostile. Human figures tended to be dwarfed by high mountains or trees. Town scenes were often painted in similar ways to those found in Britain. Cottages were quaint and the people were neatly dressed.

It was not until the 1870s and 1880s that artists began to show the Australian landscape and people as they really were. Over time, their work also became more popular and respected. Painters of the Heidelberg School in Melbourne (now referred to as the Australian Impressionists) started painting in the open air. Tom Roberts, Frederick McCubbin and Arthur Streeton were among the first painters to capture the true colours of Australia – blues, golds and greyish greens that had not been used by earlier artists. These colours can be seen in Arthur Streeton's *Near Heidelberg* (Source 1).

Late-19th-century Australian painters presented simpler, everyday themes and more ordinary people. Subjects included bushfires and floods, drovers and shearers. Tom Roberts' famous painting *Shearing the rams* (Source 2) celebrated – and romanticised – the difficult, dirty and often back-breaking work in the shearing shed.

Paintings completed in the early 1800s often showed people as small figures being overpowered by the landscape. By contrast, paintings from the 1880s and 1890s showed people that looked 'at home'. Instead of looking threatened by their environment, they appeared relaxed and at peace. By this time, the beach was increasingly becoming a part of the Australian way of life.

Source 1 Arthur Streeton, Australia, 1867–1943, lived in England 1899–1919, *Near Heidelberg*, 1890, oil on canvas 53.4 × 43.1 cm, National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne Felton Bequest, 1943



Source 2 Tom Roberts, born Great Britain 1865, arrived in Australia 1869, died 1931, *Shearing the rams*, 1890, oil on canvas on composition board, 122.4 × 183.3 cm, National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne Felton Bequest, 1932

Developments in literature

A new body of literature also reflected more Australian themes and subjects. Like artists and painters, early-19th-century writers had tended to portray Australia as an alien and threatening place. By the 1880s and 1890s, however, poets and storytellers were writing positively about Australia. Stories of men who roamed the land and tamed the bush became popular. Magazines such as *The Bulletin*, *The Queensland Worker* and *Dawn* were filled with tales of drovers, selectors, shearers and even bushrangers. Writers such as Joseph Furphy, Barbara Baynton and Banjo Paterson portrayed the bush as a safe and welcoming place to be. Others, such as Henry Lawson, were a little less idealistic. In some of Lawson's stories, such as 'The Drover's Wife', he acknowledges that the bush could be a lonely and even dangerous place.

Despite the rise in distinctly Australian forms of art and literature towards the end of the 19th century, paintings and stories that reflected British themes and styles were still popular. Some critics at the time remarked that the new trends in Australian art and literature could not be considered as serious examples of culture. An art critic described the first exhibition of the Heidelberg painters in August 1889 as 'a pain to the eye'. However, the new body of Australian material was becoming increasingly popular with ordinary Australian settlers. Australian art and literature reflected a developing sense of identification with, and love of, Australia. It also inspired positive feelings about the environment and way of life, and played a role in the shift towards the creation of a unified nation.

The development of Australian icons

Around the same time, depictions of Australian flora and fauna were increasingly being used to promote food products and as decorations on buildings and in stained glass. The use of brand names such as 'Rosella' for tomato sauce (see Source 3), 'Emu', 'Dingo' and 'Ringer' (the fastest shearer) showed a growing confidence in all things Australian. This type of imagery would go on to become an iconic part of Australian culture and society. Many companies still use Australian flora and fauna in their logos today. One of the best known examples of these is Qantas, whose white kangaroo on a red background (known as the 'flying kangaroo') is recognised around the world.

Source 3 The Rosella trademark was first used on bottles of jam and tomato sauce in 1895.

Check your learning 5.12

Remember and understand

1 How did the Australian landscape tend to be depicted by early-19th-century artists?

Apply and analyse

2 Describe the difference between some of the well-known Australian authors in the late 19th century in terms of the ways they portrayed life in the Australian bush.

Evaluate and create

3 Examine Sources 1 and 2 and analyse the features of each in terms of their ties to the established cultures and traditions of Britain and the new traditions and customs of Australia. Copy and complete the following table into your notebook. You may need to conduct additional research on the Internet to help you.

Painting	European features	Australian features
Near Heidelberg		
Shearing the rams		

5.13 The idea of a united Australia

Towards the end of the 19th century, people living in separate Australian colonies began to realise just how much they had in common. All six Australian colonies were settled by people from Britain, all spoke the same language, followed the same customs and traditions and had very similar legal and political systems. Because of these shared goals and ideals, some key individuals began to argue that much could be gained by uniting the separate colonies to form a single nation.

The term 'Australia' was only used occasionally during the early 1800s. One of the first people to do so was William Charles Wentworth, who set up a newspaper called *The Australian* in 1824.

The Australian.

Source 1 The front page of *The Australian* newspaper from Thursday 14 October 1824. The newspaper – which was published in Sydney between 1824 and 1848 – was one of the first to use the term 'Australia'.

However, in the 1850s, goldminers from Europe were still more likely to say that they were going to Bathurst or Ballarat than to Australia. As late as the 1850s, some in Britain used the name 'Botany Bay' to describe the entire country.

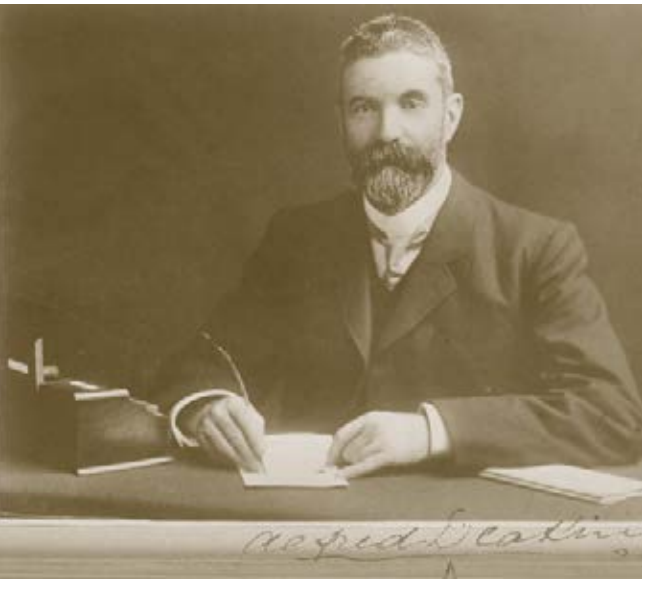
From about 1860 onwards, businesses and organisations were increasingly using the name 'Australia'. The Australian Natives' Association (ANA) was one of the first and most significant organisations to use the word Australia in their name around 1871. The ANA was set up as a 'friendly society' (an early version of modern-day health funds) providing sickness, medical and funeral cover. In the 1880s, its members broadened their purpose, seeking to promote identification with Australia. They pushed for 26 January to be celebrated as Australia's national day, commemorating the arrival of the First Fleet into Sydney Harbour. In the 1890s, they also began campaigning for federation (the unification of separate Australian colonies into a single nation).

The White Australia ideal

Another significant factor that unified people in all of the Australian colonies was a belief in white superiority. The settlers who colonised Australia had a profound belief that European culture and civilisation (and therefore white people themselves) were far more advanced and superior than any others. This belief was clearly demonstrated in the ways colonists treated Indigenous people and non-Europeans (especially Chinese and South Sea Islanders). By the late 19th century, a white Australia was seen by many as an essential foundation for a united Australian nation.

The White Australia ideal was also an important element in Australia's developing sense of national identity. Indeed, one of the main reasons why Australians accepted the move towards federation was to allow for the creation of a strict national policy on **immigration**. Alfred Deakin, who became Australia's second prime minister, was one of many politicians and campaigners supporting federation who argued for the preservation of Australia as a white nation (see Source 4).

Source 2 Sheet music for the 'White Australia' song, composed by WE Naunton, with words by Naunton and HJW Gyles, and performed at the Australian Natives' Association National Fete, 31 January 1910



Source 3
Alfred Deakin, shown here around 1902, was one of the first Australian politicians to begin campaigning for federation. He became Australia's second prime minister in 1903. He was also a strong supporter of the Immigration Restriction Act.

In fact, the very first law passed by the new Commonwealth parliament after Federation in 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act. This act used a range of methods (including a complicated dictation test) to ensure that only 'desirable' (i.e. white) immigrants could enter the country.

Source 4

> The unity of Australia is nothing, if that does not imply a united race. A united race not only means that its members can intermix, intermarry and associate without degradation on either side, but implies one inspired by the same ideas and an aspiration towards the same ideals, of a people possessing the same general cast of character, tone of thought, the same constitutional training and traditions … Unity of race is an absolute essential to the unity of Australia.

Speech by Alfred Deakin on the Immigration Restriction Bill, *Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates*, 12 September 1901

Check your learning 5.13

Remember and understand

1 Around what time did businesses and organisations begin using the name 'Australia'?
2 Which organisation was the first to begin campaigning for federation?

Apply and analyse

3 What role did negative attitudes towards non-whites play in the movement towards federation?
4 What was the Immigration Restriction Act and when was it passed? What methods did the Act use to try to reach its objective?
5 How did the White Australia ideal help to ensure that the process of federation was successful?

5B rich task

The White Australia debate

One of the factors that united Australian colonists in the lead up to Federation was a growing concern that white people would be overrun by the Chinese, Japanese and Pacific Islanders who were coming to Australia to work. After Federation, the first law introduced by the new federal parliament in June 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act, which prevented certain types of people from entering Australia, particularly those who were not white.

In 1887, two Chinese Commissioners, General Wong and E Tsing, were appointed by the Chinese government to visit Australia and report on the conditions facing the Chinese people who had settled here. Source 1 is part of an article published in the *Sydney Morning Herald* in response to the Commissioners' visit.

Source 1

… The COMMISSIONERS, there is every reason to believe, came to Australia, not only to discover how the Chinese who are already here are getting on, but with the object of paving the way for the arrival of others … the Australian colonies could not give way upon such a question as this. The restrictions which have been placed upon Chinese immigration have been adopted deliberately, and with the determination that Australia shall be essentially a European community. We have made up our minds not to be overrun by the Chinese or any other inferior race, and no proposal to relax the precautions which serve to keep back the threatened Chinese invasion would be listened to for a moment.

An extract from an article in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 4 August 1887

Louis Ah Mouy (1826–1918) was a Chinese carpenter who was brought to Melbourne in 1851 under contract to build six houses. After the contract ended, he joined the gold rush and made a fortune discovering gold in the Yea area. He became a leader within the Victorian Chinese community and spoke publicly against the immigration restrictions on the Chinese. Source 2 is an extract from a pamphlet he wrote. It was published in Melbourne as 'The Chinese Question in Australia, 1878–79'.

Source 2

… surely there is room enough in this large continent – many portions of which can never be cultivated by European labour – for some, at least, of the redundant population of China. That country is estimated to contain not much less than 2,000,000 square miles of territory, and 400,000,000 of people. Australia comprises an area of close upon 3,000,000 square miles, and it contains no more than 2,100,000 white people, and a few thousand blacks. In our own land, millions of men, women, and children – yes, millions – think of the horror and pity of it! – have died of starvation during the last year … You do not endeavour to exclude Germans, or Frenchmen, or Italians, or Danes, or Swedes. There are men of all these nationalities here. Then why are Chinese colonists to be placed under a ban? Are we an inferior race? No one can say so who knows anything of our history, our language, our literature, our government … China had reached a very high stage of civilisation when Britain was peopled by naked savages …

An extract from 'The Chinese Question in Australia, 1878–79', Louis Ah Mouy

Source 3 This cartoon published in the magazine *Melbourne Punch* on 10 May 1888 depicts the Australian colonies (shown as pretty white women) using Federation as a means to get rid of 'the Chinese pest'.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary historical sources represent many different perspectives, attitudes and values. The perspectives of the people who create different sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs, their life experiences and the times in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when identifying and analysing different perspectives:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What was he/she trying to get across? Is the message explicit, or are there implicit messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What about the silences – what does the author choose *not* to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? For example, do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology etc. How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 Identify the different groups and individuals who were involved in or affected (directly or indirectly) by the 'White Australia' debate in Australia in the late 1800s. Describe their roles or positions in society.

2 Consider the three sources (Sources 1 to 3) included above. Who wrote or produced them? Identify and analyse the perspectives presented in each of these sources, using the steps provided.

Extend your understanding

1 In recent years, there has been substantial debate in Australia about asylum seekers. Many politicians and journalists have promoted the idea that Australians need to be concerned about a growing influx of 'boat people' – asylum seekers arriving on Australian shores in the boats of Indonesian people smugglers.

a Conduct some research into the asylum seeker issue, and locate a number of primary source documents (e.g. newspaper articles and cartoons) that reveal some contemporary Australian attitudes towards asylum seekers.

b Analyse each source, using the steps provided. Then, create a Venn diagram to help you identify the similarities and differences between:

- Australia's views on immigrants in the late 1800s
- Australia's views on asylum seekers in the early 2000s.

5.14 The road to Federation

In the years leading up to Federation in 1901, there was a shared belief that a unified country would provide ordinary people with the chance to create a better society. Australians had a vision of a nation that included the best qualities of their British heritage, while providing opportunities for all people – not just the wealthy and privileged.

It must be recognised, however, that the road towards Federation was not always a smooth one. There were obstacles that had to be overcome before the people were ready to embrace the idea of a unified nation. These included a strong sense of local identity in some areas, and rivalries between different colonies. Some people were also strongly loyal to the British Crown and resisted any reduction in the amount of British power. There were also disagreements about the exact form and structure of the federation that was to be created. Some people wanted a stronger central (federal) government, while others wanted the state governments to have the greatest power. Then there were those who simply resisted change and were happy for things to continue as they were.

Nevertheless, as the colonies approached the end of the 19th century, most of these obstacles were overcome. A majority of people voted in favour of the creation of the new Australian nation. Several other factors also encouraged this movement towards federation, including defence and economic concerns, and an increasing recognition of 'sameness' among the colonists.

The first significant move towards Federation is regarded by most historians as having begun with a speech given by Sir Henry Parkes in the town of Tenterfield in New South Wales in 1889. In what became known as the 'Tenterfield Address' Parkes called for the colonies to 'unite and create a great national government for all Australia'. In reality, though, the idea of uniting the colonies had been around at least since 1847 when Henry Grey – British Colonial Secretary from 1846 to 1852 – proposed a Federal Assembly. The intention was that this assembly would meet regularly to allow colonial leaders to discuss matters that affected all colonies such as taxes and tariffs, railways, and postage services.

However, the idea was not taken up by the colonial leaders and the movement stalled until the 1880s. The key stages in achieving Australia's Federation are summarised in Source 1.

Check your learning 5.14

Remember and understand

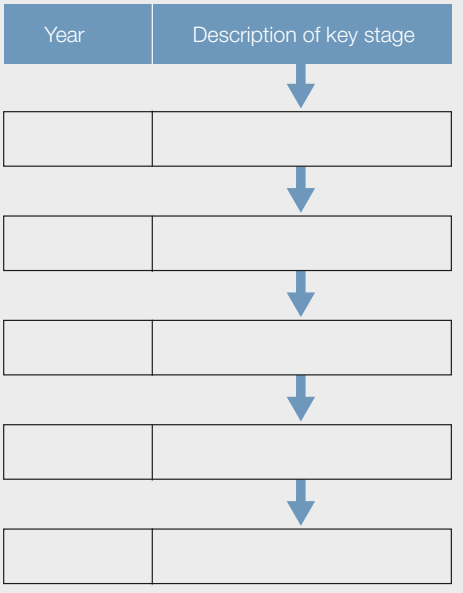
1 When was Federation actually achieved?

2 List some of the main factors that caused people to be wary of federation prior to 1901.

3 List some of the main arguments that were presented in favour of federation prior to 1901.

Evaluate and create

4 Look carefully at Source 1. In your notebook, create a flowchart like the one shown here, and identify five stages that you consider to have been the most important. Put the events in chronological order.



1840

1847
Earl Grey, the British Secretary of State for War and the Colonies, proposes an informal federation of colonies.

1850
Australian Colonies Government Act of 1850 establishes the colony of Victoria and gives colonial governments of Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania the right to pass their own laws (already allowed in NSW).

1850

1867
Intercolonial conference held on uniform postal issues.

Sir Henry Parkes (1815–96)

1880
Intercolonial conference – main issue discussed is Asian immigration.

1870

1883
Federal council forms to start preparing a constitution.

Sir Samuel Griffith (1845–1920)

1880

1881
First Australia-wide census across the colonies, excluding Aboriginal people.

1890
Australasian Federation Conference, attended by delegates from all colonies and New Zealand, calls for the creation of a national convention to consider and report on a Federal Constitution.

1889
A report commissioned in Britain recommends establishing an Australian defence force that can act in unison. Sir Henry Parkes, Premier of NSW, delivers his famous Tenterfield Address in favour of Federation.

1893 onwards
Popular movements in support of federation emerge, including the 'Federation leagues'.

1891
The first Federal Constitutional Convention meets to write a constitution, attended by delegates from all colonies and NZ. A draft constitution is produced in five weeks, led by Sir Samuel Griffith, Premier of Queensland. It is opposed by NSW.

1890

1898
First referendum on the Federal Constitution – passed by Victoria, Tasmania and SA and defeated by NSW. Queensland and WA did not take part.

1897–98
The second Federal Constitutional Convention meets. Delegates from all colonies, except Queensland, draw up a second draft constitution and agree to put it to a referendum.

A souvenir handkerchief created for the celebration of Australian Federation

1900

1899
Second referendum passes following amendments to the Constitution. Western Australia did not take part.

1900
The Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act is passed by the British Parliament on 5 July. WA joins Federation. Queen Victoria proclaims the Commonwealth on 17 September.

1901
Commonwealth of Australia comes into being on 1 January. The first Commonwealth Parliament opens in Melbourne on 9 May.

1910

Source 1 Key stages in the achievement of Federation

5.15 Reasons for Federation

By the 1890s, the idea that the separate colonies of Australia should federate to form a single nation was one that had gained widespread support. The example of the United States – a country that had declared its independence from Britain in 1776 – was of great importance. From the mid-1800s, the United States had become a model for Australia's idea of itself and its future, including its Constitution (set of guiding principles). Improvements in transport and communication brought people in the colonies closer together, and the things that made Australians feel like one people began to seem more important than the things that divided them. As discussed, the 'White Australia' ideal and protecting Australia from non-whites was a major factor in the push for federation. There were also a number of other important factors, including the issues of defence, concerns about the economy and a recognition that many of the colonies shared the same goals.

Source 1 A ribbon promoting a Yes vote in the second referendum for Federation in Australia, 1899

Defence

In the early 1880s, a number of European countries were expanding their territories by setting up colonies in Africa and Asia. Some (such as France) were also interested in setting up colonies in the Pacific region. Some colonists in Australia feared that these moves by European powers might also lead to a takeover of some Australian territory.

Some colonial leaders argued that the colonies could better defend themselves if they united. Two events in 1889 strengthened this view. The first was Major General Sir Bevan Edwards' examination of the defence systems of the colonies. His report to the British government recommended that the colonies form united defence forces and strategies. The second event was the speech given at Tenterfield by New South Wales Premier, Sir Henry Parkes (see Source 2 on page 148). Parkes may have been inspired by Edwards' report, but his address went further. Parkes recommended the creation of an Australian government and set out steps by which it could be achieved.

The economy

Many historians argue that the main driver for federation was economic. Federation would allow branches of businesses, banks, import and export merchants and manufacturers to develop across the borders of different colonies. It would also allow for consistent trading policies. One of the main obstacles to economic progress, it was thought, was that there were two different customs systems operating between the colonies (customs authorities control the flow of goods into and out of the country).

In Victoria, protective **tariffs** (taxes) were placed on all goods entering the colony from interstate or overseas. This made the imported products more expensive and, therefore, 'protected' the manufacturers of locally made goods.

In New South Wales, no extra charge was placed on imported goods. This meant that imported goods were not more expensive than locally produced goods. Supporters of this policy of **free trade** argued that it would be easier to sell their goods overseas and in other colonies if tariffs on incoming goods did not exist.

Removing tariffs imposed between colonies was supported by those who traded across borders, such as the farmers in the Riverina district of southern New South Wales. Although the rich wool-growing region of the Riverina was in New South Wales, it was easier for the farmers to market their wool through Victoria. The wool bales would be transported by riverboat through the Murray–Darling river system to Echuca, then by train to Melbourne. Federation and the removal of inter-colonial tariffs would definitely advantage the Riverina wool growers.

The 1890s depression

Another economic influence on federation came from the 1890s depression. The extended boom from the 1860s, largely the result of gold, came to an end in the early 1890s with large-scale business collapses, a fall in farm prices, and rising unemployment. Many in the eastern colonies, especially in Victoria and South Australia, argued that a centrally managed economy could prevent future depressions or allow them to be better managed.

The view in Western Australia was that a centralised economy would disadvantage the west because conditions there were very different. Western Australia was also concerned that because of its small population, it would not have a significant representation in a national parliament. This issue was addressed by the establishment of a two-house system. The **Senate** is known as the house of review, or the 'states' house', this structure is still part of our Federal Parliament today.

Source 2 Bush hawkers (travelling salesmen) travelled from colony to colony spreading news from one part of the country to the other. Bush hawkers helped colonists to realise that they shared many common goals and fuelled a sense of nationalism.

A growing sense of nationalism

As politicians, business people, shearers, bush hawkers (see Source 2), entertainers and railway workers travelled around the country, from colony to colony, they helped to spread news and stories from other areas. This phenomenon became known as 'the bush telegraph'. The travellers and the people they encountered along the way became increasingly aware that the things that drew colonists together were far stronger than the things that drove them apart. This movement towards a common identity was also reflected in magazines such as, *The Bulletin*, which was widely read throughout the country.

By the 1890s, more than 70 per cent of the people in the Australian colonies had been born in Australia. Although many of their parents still spoke of Britain as 'home', the native-born were more likely to identify with Australia and to feel positively about the culture, customs and way of life. These developments led to a growing sense of **nationalism** that fuelled support for federation. In the lead-up to federation, many appeals were made to the native-born (which did not include the Aborigines) to support the idea of a new nation. These arguments were set out in the pro-federation poster 'To the Australian Born' (see Source 1 on page 148).

Check your learning 5.15

Remember and understand

1 Read the text and answer the following questions:
   - a What are 'tariffs'?
   - b Which Australian colony used tariffs prior to Federation?
   - c Who supported the removal of tariffs, and why?
2 What were some of the other economic benefits that federation seemed to offer the colonies?
3 What was the 'bush telegraph' and what influence did it have on nationalism in Australia?
4 By the 1890s, what proportion of people living in the Australian colonies (not including Aborigines) had been born in Australia?

Apply and analyse

5 Explain the connection between the defence fears of colonists and the arguments for federation.

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct some Internet research and explain how the two-house parliamentary system allows states with smaller populations equal representation in national parliament.

5.16 Significant individuals: people who helped to shape the nation

Australia's emergence as a nation in 1901 was the result of the inspiration and effort of a wide range of colonists from all walks of life. As the colonies developed, there was a growing recognition that Australia was a land with a promising future. The contributions of some of the significant individuals who shaped the nation have been recorded and celebrated. However, for every trade union leader, politician, journalist or feminist there were hundreds of thousands of ordinary men and women who played equally important roles in building the nation.

Source 1
William Spence

William Guthrie Spence

William Guthrie Spence (1846–1921) is known as the father of the Australian trade union movement. The child of gold-rush immigrants, he worked as a miner before helping to form the Amalgamated Miners Association of Victoria in 1874. In the 1880s, he was the key figure in the formation of Australia-wide unions for miners and shearers.

Because these unions had large memberships, they were able to achieve better pay and conditions for workers. After the depression in the 1890s, employers tried to cut back on these gains. Spence then formed the Australian Workers Union, which covered miners, shearers and rural workers. Spence was a strong supporter of federation and was elected to the first Australian Parliament in 1901.

Sir Henry Parkes

Born in England, Sir Henry Parkes (1815–96) emigrated to Australia with his wife in 1839. He had a rich and varied career in commerce, publishing and politics, before serving five terms as Premier of New South Wales, between 1872 and 1892.

Parkes earned the title 'Father of Federation' following his famous Tenterfield Address in 1889.

Source 2 This statue of Sir Henry Parkes was unveiled in 1996 in Centennial Park, Sydney, on the centenary (100th anniversary) of his death.

However, he had proposed the idea of federation as early as 1867 at an intercolonial conference.

In 1881, Parkes proposed that a federal council be set up to start preparing a constitution for federation. The federal council came into being two years later. However, it did not meet with Parkes' approval as he did not believe that New South Wales had enough power to plan and work towards a federation. New South Wales did not take part in its early meetings during the 1880s.

In 1891, Parkes was appointed Chairman of the National Australian Convention, held in Sydney. At this Convention, the first draft Constitution was developed. Over the next few years several obstacles to the federation movement emerged. One was the economic depression of the 1890s. Another was the resignation of Parkes as premier in October 1891. Nevertheless, Parkes continued to promote the idea of unity. He argued strongly for federation in a lecture tour through Victoria in 1893. Parkes died in April 1896 from complications following pneumonia. Five years later the cause he had championed so strongly, federation, became a reality.

Source 3
John Archibald

John Feltham Archibald

John Feltham Archibald (1856–1919) was a key figure in the literary and publishing life of the Australian colonies in the late 1800s and early 1900s. He played a significant role in raising awareness of an Australian national identity.

In 1880, Archibald established *The Bulletin* magazine, which he used to promote Australian art and literature. Nicknamed the 'bushman's bible', *The Bulletin* was read in shearing sheds, country pubs and all the capital cities around Australia. It was the first Australian magazine to pay real attention to local issues. It was also among the first to support values and characteristics that were distinctively Australian.

Ironically, although the magazine claimed to promote equal rights for all, it also campaigned proudly for a white Australia. Some of its cartoons represented the Chinese in a grotesque manner (see Source 3 on page 119). The August 1890 edition included a list of things denounced by *The Bulletin* – this included 'religious interference in politics, foreign titles and the Chinese'.

Archibald died in 1919, having left a bequest for an annual portrait prize. The Archibald Prize has become one of Australia's most prestigious art awards.

Source 4
Catherine Helen Spence

Catherine Helen Spence

Scottish-born Catherine Helen Spence (1825–1910) was one of Australia's earliest feminists and the first woman to run as a political candidate. With her journalistic background, she was always able to articulate her views and opinions. She had a great interest in social reform, especially in relation to the rights of women. Spence was also the first woman to preach in a South Australian church and she worked hard to arrange foster homes for abandoned or at-risk children.

Spence was at the forefront of the movement to gain votes for women. She became vice-president of the Women's Suffrage League in 1891 and played an important role in ensuring that in 1894 South Australian women were the first in Australia to gain the vote.

In 1894, women in South Australia had also won the right to stand as political candidates and Spence was the first to take advantage of this change. She stood as a candidate for one of 10 positions allocated to South Australia for the Federal Constitutional Convention held in Sydney in 1897, becoming the first Australian woman political candidate. Although she was unsuccessful (coming 22nd out of 33 candidates), her action showed that women were very capable of running political campaigns. Spence's role in Federation was recognised nationally by the placement of her image on one side of Australia's 2001 Federation five dollar note, with Sir Henry Parkes 'the Father of Federation' on the other.

Check your learning 5.16

Remember and understand

1 What was one of the major achievements of the trade unions in the 1880s?
2 Why is Sir Henry Parkes remembered as the 'Father of Federation'?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain what you see as the key contribution of each of these individuals to the building of the Australian nation.
4 Explain how the 1890s depression had such a negative impact on union membership and union gains.
5 Why do you think that Catherine Helen Spence was unsuccessful in her attempt to be elected to the Federal Constitutional Convention in 1897?

Evaluate and create

6 Sir Henry Parkes and John Feltham Archibald both contributed to the growth of national unity. Which do you believe made the greatest contribution and why?
7 Imagine that you are Catherine Helen Spence. Prepare and record an audio or video presentation of the campaign speech that you used to attempt to gain election to the 1897 Federal Constitutional Convention. Your speech should deal with the importance of federation and the Constitutional Convention, and list the reasons why you, as a woman, would be an excellent candidate.

5.17 Australia becomes a nation

Source 1 Tom Roberts' painting *The Opening of the First Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia by His Royal Highness the Duke of Cornwall and York, 9 May 1901*

On 1 January 1901, Australia became a nation when the separate, self-governing colonies set up by Britain federated (united). Federation was achieved as a result of two **referendums**, one in 1898 and another in 1899. It is perhaps easy for Australians today to assume that Federation was the result of a natural process that was always going to happen. In fact, the road towards Federation was not always a smooth one, and a closer look at how it was achieved reveals a story full of complications, false starts, twists and turns.

The first referendum failed. A year later, after some changes were made to the Constitution, a second referendum was held. In the second referendum, a majority of people in most of the colonies voted to support a new **Constitution** that would create the Commonwealth of Australia (see Source 3). This time, all colonies except Western Australia voted 'Yes'. The people of Western Australia had been less supportive of federation as they felt isolated from the eastern colonies. The sense of isolation was exaggerated by the fact that there was no rail connection between Perth and the other capital cities. Western Australia also had a small population and many feared that, in a federal parliament, its interests would be swamped by those of the larger colonies (see Source 2).

Source 2

> It is all very well to talk about a Federal Australia. It may be highly sentimental and patriotic, but the stern questions are – Will it pay us? Will it pay the manufacturer of Western Australia to sacrifice his 15 or 20 per cent [tariff income] to meet the more advanced, better equipped and overstocked manufacturer of the eastern colonies?
>
> An extract from a letter by WT White (a concerned businessman in Western Australia) to the *Bunbury Herald*, 31 May 1898

In 1900, delegates from the Australian colonies took the Constitution approved at the referendum to London to have it approved by the British Government. They were so confident that Western Australia would eventually join that they left a space in the Constitution document for the name Western Australia to be inserted. While they were in London, the news came through that the people of Western Australia had also voted to join the federation. Australia became a federation in January 1901, and the first Commonwealth parliament opened in May in Melbourne (see Source 1).

Source 3 Votes for and against federation, Australian colonies

	First vote (1898)		Second vote (1899, 1900)	
Colony	**For**	**Against**	**For**	**Against**
New South Wales	71 595	66 228	107 420	82 741
Victoria	100 520	22 099	152 653	9805
South Australia	35 800	17 320	65 990	17 053
Tasmania	11 797	2716	13 437	791
Queensland	–	–	38 488	30 996
Western Australia	–	–	44 800	19 691

Notes: The first referendum failed in New South Wales because the Parliament there increased the minimum number of affirmative ('yes') votes required to 80 000; Queensland and Western Australia did not take part. In the second referendum Western Australia voted later than the other colonies, in 1900.

Scott Bennett, Department of the Parliamentary Library, *ABS Year Book Australia 2001*

Australia's Constitution

The Constitution of Australia that was signed into effect in 1901 outlined how the new federal government would share its powers with the state governments. It also detailed the limits of these powers and set out how laws would be made and how governments would be formed.

The Constitution splits the power to govern the country between three different areas of responsibility. It says what each of these areas of government (also called the three arms of government) can and cannot do. Each arm of government has to obey the Constitution. The three arms of government are:

- the legislature (this arm creates the laws)
- the executive (this arm approves and administers the laws)
- the judiciary (this arm enforces the laws and decides if they have been broken).

The powers of the different arms of government are independent of each other. This means, for example, that the judiciary cannot influence the executive or the legislature, or the other way round. This is a basic principle of the Westminster system from Britain and is referred to as the **separation of powers**.

Over the last 100 years, some changes have been made to the Constitution but most proposed changes have been rejected. A referendum must be held for every proposed change. To be approved, a referendum must have the support of a majority of voters in a majority of states (that is, in at least four states). Since 1901, there have been 20 referendums, proposing 44 changes to the Australian Constitution. Only eight have been approved.

The structure of the Australian government

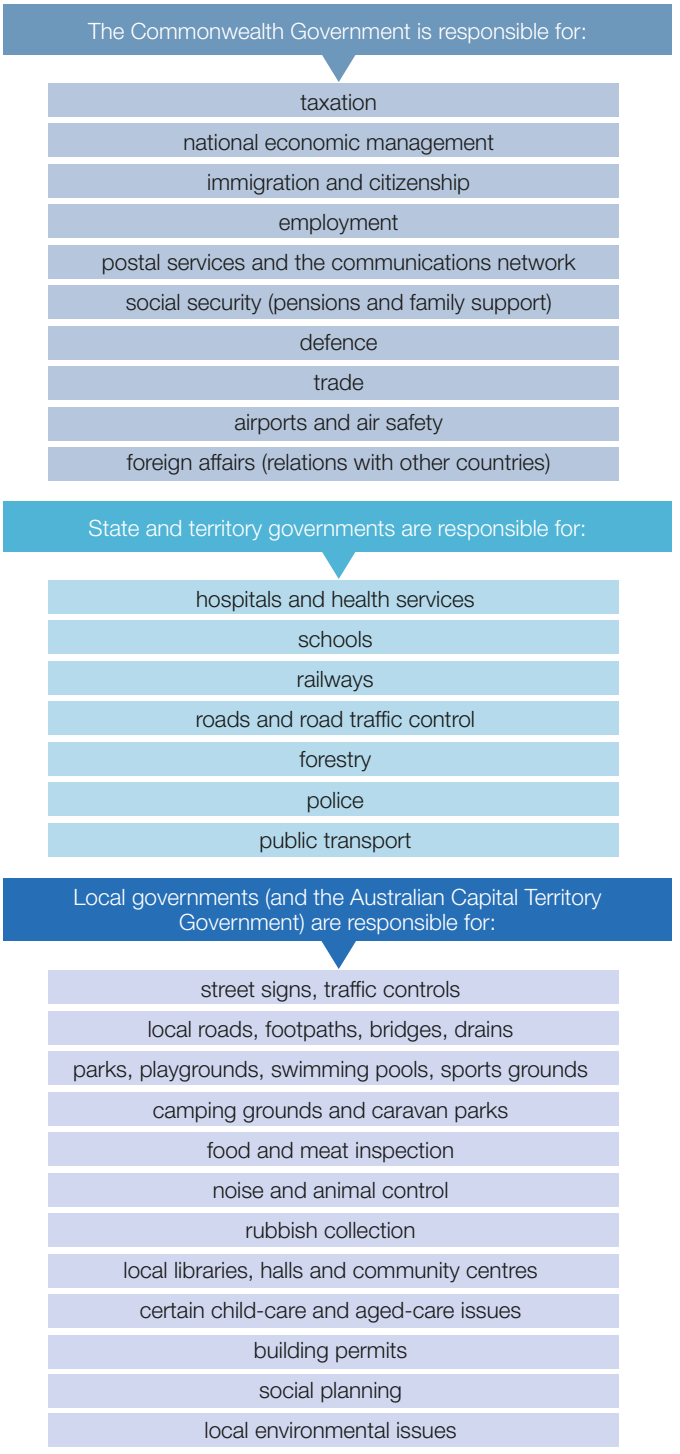
The Australian Government is a federal system, made up of a group of states and territories – the former colonies. The government of Australia has three levels (or tiers) that are outlined in the Constitution. Under the Constitution the states kept their own parliaments and most of their existing powers, but the federal parliament was given responsibility for areas that affected the whole nation. State parliaments in turn gave councils the task of looking after the particular needs of their local communities. These levels are designed to work together to provide Australians with the services they need. The three tiers of government are:

- the Commonwealth Government (also known as the federal government and Australian Government)
- the state and territory governments (one for each of the former colonies)
- local governments (hundreds of local and shire councils).

Source 4 A handkerchief created as a souvenir of Australian Federation in 1901

The Constitution defines the roles and responsibilities of the federal and state governments, but not local governments. Local governments are a responsibility of the relevant state minister for local government.

The areas of responsibility under Australia's three tiers of government are outlined in Source 5.



Source 5 Responsibilities of the three tiers of Australian government

The Commonwealth Government

At the federal level, the government was established as a bicameral system. This means it was made up of two houses of parliament: the **House of Representatives** and the Senate. The House of Representatives, sometimes called the lower house, represents all the people of Australia. It is made up of representatives of electorates that are formed on the basis of population. Therefore the most populous state, New South Wales, has the largest number of seats in the House of Representatives and Tasmania has the smallest. The lower house is responsible for the formation of the government. The government is formed by the party (or parties) with the majority of elected delegates. Generally, the prime minister is leader of that party and is responsible for the overall governing of the nation.

The Senate, sometimes called the upper house, represents the states that make up the Commonwealth. All states are given equal representation, regardless of population. The Senate's role is to monitor and review the actions of the House of Representatives. The Senate also has the right to block the proposed legislation of the government and to send legislation back to the House of Representatives with suggested amendments.

Check your learning 5.17

Remember and understand

1 When was the first referendum over federation, and why was it not passed?

2 What is the Constitution and what purpose does it serve?

3 Read the letter from WT White to the *Bunbury Herald* (Source 2).

- **a** What main argument is he using against Western Australia joining the federation?
- **b** Suggest two other reasons why many Western Australians were not enthusiastic about federation.

Apply and analyse

4 What can you learn from the fact that New South Wales set a higher than 50 per cent target to gain a 'Yes' vote in the federation referendums?

5 Examine the souvenir handkerchief (Source 4). Does anything about it surprise you? Explain your answer.

5.18 Living and working conditions in Australia around 1900

Once Australia became a federation, the issues and ideals that had formed the nation continued to be important. In the early 1900s, Australia was regarded as one of the most progressive nations in the world. In comparison with the rest of the world, the standard of living was high, the pay and conditions of workers were improving, women had more democratic rights than in most other parts of the world, and the sense of Australian identity was developing and becoming stronger.

Living conditions

Despite egalitarian ideals, all Australians did not live equally. In the cities, the wealthy lived in large homes with well-tended gardens and servants to look after their needs (see Source 1). Meanwhile, working people tended to live in humble, overcrowded rented cottages with few facilities (like running water or toilets) and little hope of ever becoming homeowners (see Source 2).

Source 2 A working-class family home in Melbourne, *c.* 1900

These cottages tended to be small inner-city terraces or attached houses built in rows alongside factories. Families with eight or more children would occupy these houses, often with all the children sleeping in one room. The buildings were usually shoddily built from cheap materials and had little insulation.

Source 1 Rippon Lea House in Melbourne in 1903, home to the wealthy Sargood family

While the middle and upper classes could afford proper sewerage and plumbing in their homes, these facilities were not provided in the workers' cottages. The toilet was generally a can with a seat resting on the top of it. It was situated in a small shed outdoors near a back alley. The waste would be taken away by waste collectors called 'nightsoil men'.

These poor housing conditions often led to serious illnesses among the working class. The lack of sanitation encouraged the spread of infectious diseases such as whooping cough, tuberculosis and diphtheria. These diseases often hit the young, and infant mortality rates were high. In 1901, there were 103.6 deaths for every 1000 live births. For the first decade of the 20th century, male children had a life expectancy of 55.2 years and females 58.4 years.

Life at home

At the turn of the century, men were known as the 'breadwinners'. They made up the vast majority of the paid workers and generally were not expected to help out with domestic tasks such as cooking, cleaning and clothes washing. These jobs were almost always carried out by women in the home.

From the late 1880s, innovations such as washing machines were introduced to save time spent on domestic work but were only available to those who could afford them. Clothes washing was a particularly time-consuming task, taking an entire day. It involved making a wood fire to heat up a large basin of water, known as a 'copper'. Clothes were scrubbed by hand on a wooden board, boiled in the copper and then hung out to dry. The 1880s washing machine shown in Source 3 was operated by sealing dirty clothes, soap and water in the drum. The drum was then rocked from side to side, agitating the clothes against the corrugated surface inside.

Before refrigeration, a Coolgardie safe (see Source 4) was widely used to keep perishable food fresh in summer, particularly in country areas where no ice was available. The safes were made of either a metal or wooden frame covered in wet hessian (a rough fabric). They worked on the principle of evaporation to cool food. From around 1900, households in areas that had ice works began using ice chests instead of Coolgardie safes. Ice chests were boxes full of ice similar to the Eskys used today. Ice boxes were used in households up to the 1950s.

Education

After Federation, all children aged between six and 13 were given free access to education through government schools. But many children from poorer families were expected to work as soon as possible to help support the family. Children from wealthy families often attended private schools. Education for girls tended to focus on subjects such as literature, music and French. In addition to these subjects, girls were taught how to run a household – cooking, cleaning and sewing were the focus of these classes. Boys were encouraged to continue with their education through to tertiary level in order to be trained in a profession. Working-class boys by comparison often left school early to learn a trade and start work.

Source 3 A washing machine from the late 1880s

Source 4 Coolgardie safes such as this one from around 1900 were used to keep perishable food cool before refrigerators were invented.

Transport and communication

At the time of Federation, more than 20000 kilometres of track had been laid across the continent, and all states except for Western Australia were connected by rail – although not directly. As the railways had been built by the colonies independently of each other, different gauges (track widths) had been used across the country.

During this period, rail services were starting to replace ships for the transport of goods and passengers. Railways themselves faced competition from another mode of transport from 1900, with the importation of the first motor car from Europe. The first Australian-made motor vehicle, the Thompson steam car, was manufactured in the same year. Although motor cars were exclusively for the rich until the 1920s, the Australian public was fascinated by them.

The birth of aviation also began in this period. Inventors, including Lawrence Hargrave, were experimenting with flying models in the 1880s. In time, this led to the first powered flights from Europe to Australia in the 1920s.

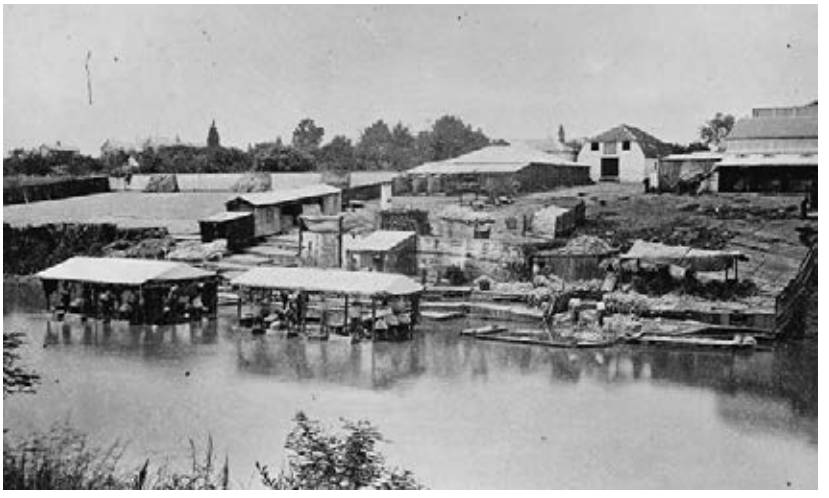
Working conditions

For the average working man, the early years of the 20th century in Australia offered rights and conditions that were unheard of in other parts of the world – a guaranteed basic wage, an eight-hour day (with a half-day on Saturday), a pension if he lived to 65, and assistance should he become disabled or unable to work before that age. As a result, the reputation that Australia had gained during the 19th century as a 'working man's paradise' was once again revived.

Nevertheless, life for working people was by no means easy. Many factory workers toiled in unsafe and unhealthy conditions. The factories were poorly ventilated, were extremely hot in summer, and cold and damp in winter. They tended to be overcrowded. There were no safety regulations for workers working on often poorly maintained machinery. Injuries were common.

Factory workers also had to work long hours. Although the standard was the eight-hour day, many workers were expected to do more, and overtime often went unpaid. These workers had no protection in times of short-term illness and no unemployment benefits. In spite of the overall prosperity of the economy, employment was unpredictable for unskilled and semi-skilled workers. The factories, which were often located in working-class areas, polluted the air and waterways with chemicals and other wastes (see Source 6).

Source 5 This photo of a poor family in Paddington, an inner Sydney suburb, gives a clue to how hard life could be for the poor around 1900. The corrugated-iron shanty has no floor, no electric light or running water.



Source 6 This photograph from around 1870 shows wool-washing on the banks of the Yarra River in Melbourne. The owners of the factories and processing plants that lined the river used it to dump their waste.

Check your learning 5.18

Remember and understand

1 Describe typical living conditions for the working class in Australia around 1900.
2 What access did children have to education after Federation?
3 Why were conditions still tough for workers, despite the introduction of the eight-hour working day?

Apply and analyse

4 What evidence is there that Australia could be called a 'working man's paradise' in the early 20th century? What evidence is there that this was *not* the case?

5.19 Legislation that shaped a nation

One of the government's first priorities after Federation was the introduction of legislation that restricted non-whites from settling in Australia. At the same time, the government introduced some of the world's most progressive legislation for other groups in Australian society. Several of the most significant pieces of legislation are discussed below.

Key legislation

The Immigration Restriction Act 1901

The Immigration Restriction Act was the first law to be passed by the Commonwealth parliament in 1901. This Act became one of the key pieces of legislation that became known as the **White Australia Policy**. Although it did not specifically exclude non-whites from entering the country, it did state that prospective immigrants to Australia could be given a dictation test in any language chosen by an immigration official. Unwanted immigrants were simply given the test in a language they did not understand. The result of this system was that very few non-whites were admitted to Australia. After a few years, non-white immigrants were also far less likely to even apply.

In the early 20th century, only a few were willing to argue against the racism of the majority. A Tasmanian politician, Norman Cameron, argued in parliament against the Immigration Restriction Bill of 1901, as did Melbourne bookseller EW Cole, and Bernard O'Dowd, the editor of the newspaper *Tocsin* (see Source 1).

Source 1

> I know that the coloured races are classed inferior races, but I must admit that I cannot see evidence of their inferiority which do not equally brand the white races of Europe and America as inferior. The notion of inferiority appears to me to be a myth sprung originally from European ignorance and nourished now by a foolish self-conceit.
>
> Bernard O'Dowd, *Tocsin*, 25 April 1901

Source 2 Chinese Arch, Melbourne, 1901, Australian Federation celebrations

Despite the introduction of the Act, there was still a strong Chinese presence in Australia. Many were gold-rush immigrants or their children, and some had developed successful businesses and had positive feelings about the country. At Federation, the Chinese community enthusiastically celebrated the occasion with street arches and parades (see Source 2).

Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902

Another one of the earliest Acts of the new parliament was the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*. This Act extended the vote to all Australian women over 21, at the same time as it denied the vote to all Indigenous Australians. Although at this time, in terms of wages and property rights, women were in no way equal to men, in Australia they now had greater political rights than women in most parts of the world. Indigenous people, however, had no federal voting rights.

Harvester Judgement 1907

One of the most important reforms of this time was the introduction of the principle of a basic minimum wage. The issue of a 'fair and reasonable' wage was first brought to the attention of the courts in 1907 when the owner of the Sunshine Harvester Company of Victoria applied to the Commonwealth Court for permission to sell his farm machinery without having to pay taxes on the sale. The owner, HV McKay, had to show that he was paying his workers a fair wage to avoid paying the tax.

The judge, Justice Higgins, investigated the amount that would be needed under normal circumstances to support a family. He deemed that a minimum weekly wage of 42 shillings a week (roughly $4.20) was enough to support a man, his wife and three or four children in basic comfort. The weekly wage paid by Sunshine Harvesters was only 36 shillings a week. The idea of setting a minimum wage based on a 'living wage' rather than a worker's output was a progressive idea at this time, anywhere in the world.

Source 3 The minimum weekly wage from 1907 (converted from pounds [£] into dollars [$]) and prices of common items around this time

Minimum weekly wage, adult male	$4.20
Loaf of bread	$0.02
Milk (1 litre)	$0.03
Men's cotton shirt	$0.85
Women's shoes	$1.45
Rent of a three-bedroom house (per week)	$1.30
Daily newspaper	$0.01

Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act 1908

The Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act was passed in 1908. This was in response to the growing numbers of people aged over 65 years at this time. The period 1891–1902 saw this number increase by 60 per cent. It came about in recognition of the fact that many invalids (sick or disabled people) and elderly people had no means of supporting themselves. They had worked hard to build the country, paid their taxes and they deserved some help in return.

Maternity Allowances Act 1912

In 1912, the Labor government introduced the Maternity Allowances Act. The aim was to reduce infant mortality (death) rates by improving access to medical services for pregnant women. The government also agreed to pay five pounds (£5) to the mother at the birth of every child.

This lump sum was known as the 'baby bonus' and was designed to encourage women to have more children to build a stronger Australia with a bigger white population. The 'baby bonus' was not available to Aboriginal women.

Consequences for Indigenous people and women

Under the Federal Constitution in 1901, many of the rights extended to citizens of Australia were denied to its original inhabitants:

- Under section 51, the Constitution specifically stated that the federal government had no power to make laws for Aborigines. This power remained in the hands of the states.
- Under section 128, Aboriginal people were not to be counted in the census, effectively denying them membership of the Australian community.

The following groups had the right to vote in Australia's first federal election in March 1901: all men over the age of 21; women in South Australia and Western Australia; and Aborigines in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania (although few Aborigines exercised this right).

However, one of the earliest Acts of the new parliament was the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*. This extended the vote to all Australian women over 21 and denied the vote to all Indigenous Australians. It was not until 1962 that Indigenous Australians in all states were given full voting rights.

Check your learning 5.19

Remember and understand

1 Explain how a basic minimum wage was established in 1907.
2 Which piece of legislation introduced after Federation formed the basis of the White Australia Policy?
3 In your own words, describe the outcome of the Harvester Judgement of 1907. Why was this an important moment for Australians?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think that Chinese colonists were so enthusiastic about celebrating Federation?

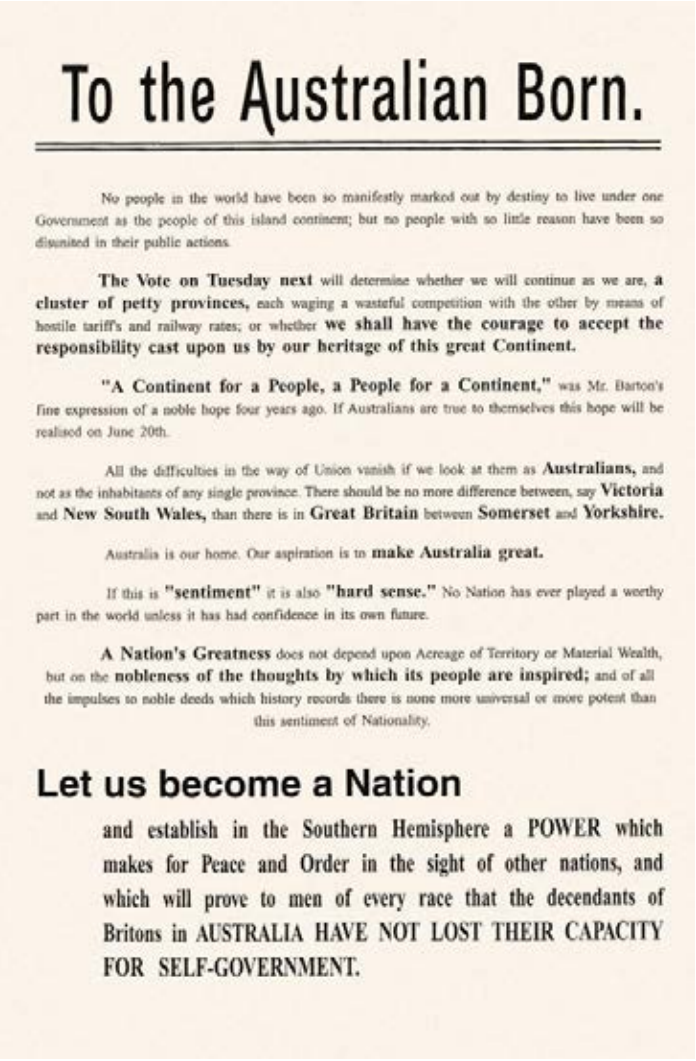
Evaluate and create

5 Women in Victoria were able to vote in federal elections from 1902. However, they could not vote in state elections until 1908. In pairs, prepare a short role play of two minutes between a Victorian suffragette and a man opposed to extending the right to vote to women. The dialogue takes place in 1905.

5C rich task

Arguments for and against Federation

By the end of the 1880s, the debate about whether Australia should become one nation had intensified. There was a range of arguments put forward both in favour of and in opposition to the idea of Federation.



To the Australian Born.

No people in the world have been so manifestly marked out by destiny to live under one Government as the people of this island continent; but no people with so little reason have been so disunited in their public actions.

The Vote on Tuesday next will determine whether we will continue as we are, **a cluster of petty provinces,** each waging a wasteful competition with the other by means of hostile tariff's and railway rates; or whether **we shall have the courage to accept the responsibility cast upon us by our heritage of this great Continent.**

"A Continent for a People, a People for a Continent," was Mr. Barton's fine expression of a noble hope four years ago. If Australians are true to themselves this hope will be realised on June 20th.

All the difficulties in the way of Union vanish if we look at them as **Australians,** and not as the inhabitants of any single province. There should be no more difference between, say **Victoria** and **New South Wales,** than there is in **Great Britain** between **Somerset** and **Yorkshire.**

Australia is our home. Our aspiration is to **make Australia great.**

If this is **"sentiment"** it is also **"hard sense."** No Nation has ever played a worthy part in the world unless it has had confidence in its own future.

A Nation's Greatness does not depend upon Acreage of Territory or Material Wealth, but on the **nobleness of the thoughts by which its people are inspired;** and of all the impulses to noble deeds which history records there is none more universal or more potent than this sentiment of Nationality.

Let us become a Nation

and establish in the Southern Hemisphere a POWER which makes for Peace and Order in the sight of other nations, and which will prove to men of every race that the decendants of Britons in AUSTRALIA HAVE NOT LOST THEIR CAPACITY FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Source 1 A poster encouraging Australian-born citizens to vote for federation, 1899

Source 2

The great question which they had to consider was, whether the time had not now arisen for the creation on this Australian continent of an Australian Government. In other words, to make himself as plain as possible, Australia now had a population of three and a half millions, and the American people numbered only between three and four millions when they formed the great commonwealth of the United States. The numbers were about the same, and surely what the Americans had done by war, the Australians could bring about in peace …

An extract from a speech by Sir Henry Parkes at Tenterfield, reported by the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 25 October 1889

Source 3

Does Sir Henry Parkes forget that we already belong to the greatest and most beneficent Federation the world has ever seen – the Federation of the British Empire? Talk about the 'birth of a nation' was high-flown nonsense! What has all this talk about the United States to do with New South Wales … Queen Victoria is our Queen and Sovereign, and Ministers and people of England have been our most loving friends. Why, then, are we called upon to ignore them?

Sir John Robertson, 1890

Source 4

If the Australian colonies had to rely at any time solely on their own resources, they would offer such a rich and tempting prize. Isolated as Australia would be with forces which cannot be considered efficient in comparison with any moderately trained army, and without any cohesion or power of combination for mutual defence among the different colonies, its position would be one of great danger. The defence forces should at once be placed on a proper footing, but this is however quite impossible without a federation of the forces of the different colonies.

An extract from a report by Major General Edwards on Australia's defences to the New South Wales Legislative Assembly 'Votes and Proceedings', 1889

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Writing a historical discussion using evidence from sources that are referenced

Historians study the past to figure out what happened, why things happened, and how specific events and developments affected individuals and societies. The more we know about the past, the better we can understand how societies have evolved into what they are today.

The answers historians offer are all more or less educated guesses about the past, based on interpretations of various primary and secondary sources of information. Historians also revise earlier explanations of the past, adding new information.

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. They consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence. This involves considering not only various **primary sources** (such as newspapers, photographs, or political and legal documents from the period being studied), but the ideas of other historians, presented in **secondary sources** such as textbooks and on websites. Historical discussions conclude with the writer's own point of view on the question or issue, and include a bibliography that references all sources used in the discussion.

The table summarises the structure of a written discussion:

Introduction	• Introduces the topic, question or issue • Outlines why the topic, question or issue is important
Main body	• A series of paragraphs that outline different arguments or opinions about the topic, question or issue • Each opinion or argument that is presented should also refer to the evidence that supports it
Conclusion	• Sums up the issue and gives the writer's opinion

Any sources that you have used in your written discussion must be referenced. First, you need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. Some examples of how you can do this include:

- 'According to the historian John Hirst …'
- 'The depiction of life in the Australian bush in Hans Heysen's paintings during the late 1800s shows that … '.

You then need to include any sources you have referred to in your discussion in a bibliography. When citing a book in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

- author surname(s) and initial(s)
- year of publication
- title of book (in italics)
- edition (if relevant)
- publisher
- place of publication
- page number(s).

Example:

Carrodus, G and Smith, R 2014, *Oxford Big Ideas History 9 Victorian Curriculum,* Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

- author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
- year of publication or date of web page (last update)
- title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
- organisation name (if different from above)
- date you accessed the site
- URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets.

Example:

Bennett, S, 2001 'Australian Federation', *Australian Bureau of Statistics,* accessed 30 March 2013 <www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf>

Apply the skill

1 Write a discussion outlining the arguments for and against Australian federation in the late 1800s. Use the information and sources in this section, but you will also need to conduct further research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources that provide evidence for and against federation. Make sure you include a bibliography that references all your sources.

Extend your understanding

1 What influences do you think might have made native-born Australians more likely to support federation than people born overseas?

2 Prepare a poster designed to encourage colonists to vote for federation in the 1899 referendum. It should appeal to national identity and at least two other influences on federation.

3 Why was the defence of the colonies used as an argument in favour of federation?

Unit 2 Australia and Asia

China (1750–1918)

Chinese society underwent dramatic transformations between 1750 and 1918. At the start of this period, China was a vast and powerful empire, dominating much of Asia. The emperor believed that China was a superior civilisation and had little need for foreign contact. At the beginning of the period, foreign merchants were only permitted to trade from one Chinese port and China made huge profits from trading tea to the West.

By 1918, China was divided and weak, having lost a series of wars over the drug opium. Foreign nations such as Britain, France and Japan had established key trading ports and 'spheres of influence' within China. New ideas were spreading from the West, challenging Chinese traditions about education, the position of women and the right of the emperor to rule.

6A

What were the main features of Chinese society around 1750?

1 Chinese society was isolated from the rest of the world, particularly the West. Suggest two possible consequences of this isolation.

6B

What was the impact of Europeans on Chinese society from 1750 onwards?

1 One of the products that Western nations used to force China to open up to trade was opium. What impact would this have had on Chinese society and stability?

chapter 6

Source 1 An artist's impression of Shanghai Harbour, c. 1875. Shanghai was one of the treaty ports established for British traders after China was defeated in the first Opium War (1839–42).

6C

How did China respond to foreign influence and how was Chinese society organised by 1918?

1 The Chinese attempted to restrict foreign influence and crush the opium trade, with little success. Why do you think this was the case?

6.1 China (1750–1918): a timeline

Foreign 'factories' or warehouses in Canton

Taiping Rebels in Shanghai in 1853–54

1760
The Chinese emperor bans foreign merchants from trading in all Chinese ports except Canton (modern-day Guangzhou)

1796
China bans the import of the drug opium

1850
The Taiping Rebellion

1750 | 1760 | 1790 | 1800 | 1830 | 1840 | 1850

1773
Britain starts producing the drug opium in India and selling it in China

A Chinese opium den

1839–1842
The First Opium War between China and Britain. China suffers a humiliating defeat and is forced to hand control of Hong Kong to the British.

Source 1 A timeline of key events in Chinese history

Fighting between Boxers and international forces in Beijing during the Boxer Rebellion

Sun Yatsen, the first president of the Republic of China

1856–1860
The Second Opium War between China and the forces of Britain and France. China is defeated and the emperor is forced to allow foreign traders into many Chinese ports.

1884–1885
China defeated in a war with France. China loses control over Vietnam.

1894–1895
China defeated in a war with Japan. The Chinese lose control over Taiwan.

1898–1900
The Boxer Rebellion

1911
The 1911 Revolution; uprisings turn into a national revolt, causing the overthrow of China's last dynasty. China becomes a republic.

1917
China enters World War I after declaring war on Germany

1860 | 1870 | 1880 | 1890 | 1900 | 1910 | 1920

1861
The Empress Dowager Cixi starts her rule when her son is named emperor at the age of five. She is the real ruler of China for the next 47 years.

1861
The start of the Self-Strengthening Movement reforms

The Guangxu Emperor on horseback

1908
Empress Dowager Cixi dies

Check your learning 6.1

Remember and understand

1 How many opium wars was China engaged in?

Apply and analyse

2 What can you learn about Chinese society from the fact that the Empress Dowager Cixi was able to rule for 47 years?

Evaluate and create

3 What evidence is there that the Chinese attempted to resist Western influence?

4 Research and write a short report on the Self-Strengthening Movement.

6.2 Traditional Chinese social structure

In the 18th century, China was largely cut off from the rest of the world. The country had been ruled by the emperors of the Qing Dynasty, also known as the Manchu Dynasty, since 1644. There was a strict social **hierarchy**, with the emperor and nobles at the top and peasants at the bottom. The dominant belief system was **Confucianism**, which encouraged respect for one's ancestors. Chinese society was based on a sense of duty and loyalty between the people and their ruler.

Social structure and system of government

In the 18th century, the Chinese emperor had total authority. He personally directed the army and could over-rule any judgment made by any court. Next in the social order came the government officials, who achieved their positions by performing well in the government examination system (see Source 3). Other classes, in order of wealth (but perhaps not in respectability), were the merchants, artisans

CHINA: BOUNDARIES OF QING DYNASTY AND MODERN CHINA

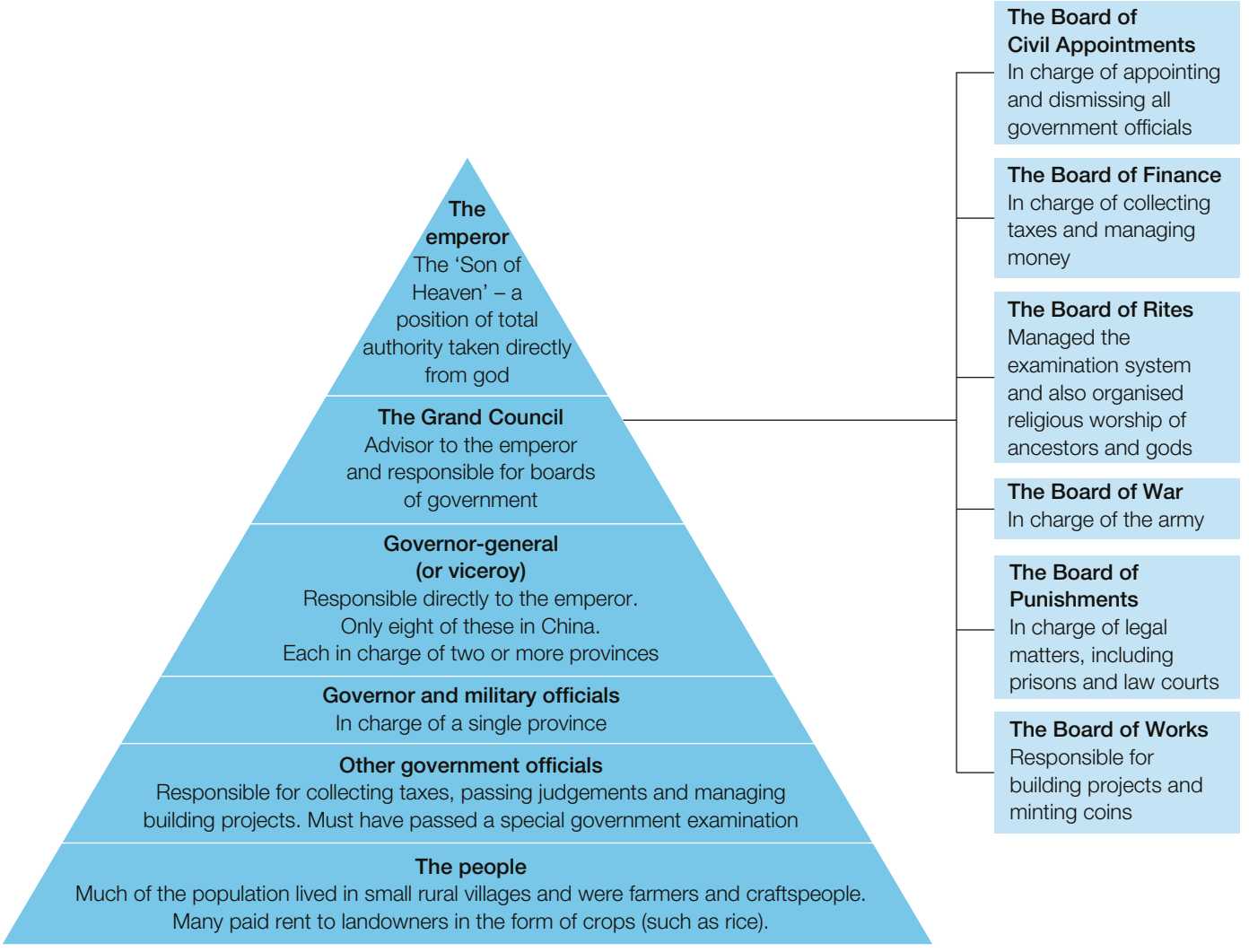
Source 1

Source: Oxford University Press

and craftsmen, and the farmers and peasants. This social order remained unchanged from the time of the first emperor of a unified China in 221 BCE to the late 19th century.

The Chinese believed that the emperor received his power directly from god and he was known as the 'Son of Heaven'. Anyone coming into his presence had to show their respect by performing a **kowtow** (kneeling and bowing their head to touch the ground) three times. Tradition stated that if the emperor was worthy and ruled well, the empire would do well. However, it was also believed that if China faced flood, famine or conflict, this was a sign that heaven was displeased with the emperor and he could be overthrown. During the period of the Qing Dynasty the emperors were able to convince the people that they still had heavenly support.

Source 2 During the Qing Dynasty, the emperor was considered the 'Son of Heaven'. He wielded absolute power and could overrule any decision made by any court in the land. This artwork shows the Yongzheng Emperor, who ruled China from 1723 to 1735.



Source 3 Chinese social structure and system of government under the Qing Dynasty (1644–1912)

Source 4 During the Qing Dynasty, most of the population was made up of peasants. More than 90 per cent of peasants worked as farmers and craftspeople in small rural villages and paid rent to landowners in the form of crops.

Confucianism

The main belief system in Imperial China was Confucianism. Confucianism is not a religion, but a code of behaviour that influences the way that people live their lives.

Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived from 551 to 479 BCE in eastern China. He argued that people should live virtuous lives, respect their elders and rulers and do their best to fulfil their given roles in society. Proper rules governed what people of different classes should or should not do, and how they should behave towards their superiors. Confucius taught that if everyone followed these rules, society would be harmonious. A person should try to treat others kindly, to act nobly and to distinguish right from wrong.

Confucianism encouraged 'ancestor worship'. On important days such as anniversaries of deaths, male descendants offered gifts to their ancestors. During these rituals, men would lay offerings before tablets bearing the names of dead ancestors. Women could not perform these rituals.

The examination system

To become government officials, Chinese men had to pass a special government examination. The test was based on ancient Confucian philosophy, Chinese classics and literature. In theory, any Chinese male was eligible to sit for the examination. However, in reality, poor men did not have the time or resources to prepare for the test and women were not allowed to apply. The government officials formed a class that came to be known as the **Mandarins**. They often lived privileged and luxurious lives.

Source 5 During the Qing Dynasty, Confucianism was the main belief system. Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived from 551 to 479 BCE. His teachings went on to influence imperial Chinese society greatly – and continue to influence modern Chinese society to this day. Rather than a religion, Confucianism was more a code of behaviour.

Source 6 A group of Chinese government officials, referred to by Europeans as Mandarins

Check your learning 6.2

Remember and understand

1 What was the Qing Dynasty also known as?
2 When did Qing emperors first begin ruling China?
3 What was the emperor also known as? Why was he called this?
4 When a person came into the emperor's presence, what was he or she expected to do? What was this ritual designed to show?
5 Who was Confucius and why were his teachings so important to Chinese people?

Apply and analyse

6 Identify two teachings central to Confucianism and explain how they helped to maintain 'social harmony'.
7 Look closely at Source 3 and answer the following questions:
   - **a** What was the main responsibility of the Board of Civil Appointments?
   - **b** What was the main responsibility of the Board of Rites?
   - **c** How important was the examination system in Imperial China?
   - **d** To what extent do you think the Chinese social structure and system of government were equal? Summarise your thoughts in 150 words.

6.3 Chinese traditions

For most people in China during the Qing Dynasty, daily life depended on ancient traditions and beliefs. Most people worshipped their ancestors, farmed the land and used simple technology. Things had changed little over the generations.

Life on farms and rural villages

Only around 6 per cent of the population lived in cities. The rest lived in small farming villages or towns. Most people were peasants who farmed the land. As well as growing crops, poorer peasant families often made extra money by spinning or weaving cotton or silk, or making other handicrafts that they would sell at local markets. Poorer families would often rent their land from wealthier landowners, and had to give them up to 50 per cent of what they grew.

Craftsmen and peasant farmers used simple technology in their day-to-day lives. People and animals, rather than machines, did nearly all the physical work. Farmers used tools such as ploughs, and carts for transporting goods. Weavers used spinning wheels or hand spindles to make silk or cotton thread, and porcelain makers used the same hand-moulding techniques that had been used for centuries.

Lives of women

Women in Chinese society occupied a much lower position than men. They could not inherit property and depended on their fathers or husbands for their livelihood. A virtuous woman was expected to be loyal and obedient to her father or husband.

Women generally took responsibility for domestic arrangements within the home: they cooked, cleaned and raised children. A wealthy woman might have had servants to direct to do this work but poorer women had to do it themselves. Many farming women also worked in the fields or helped make handicrafts for extra income. Daughters were not valued as much as

Source 1 Chinese peasants in southern China planting rice, an activity that required the labour of men, women and children in each village

sons and there is evidence that some families killed baby girls at birth.

Women faced many restrictions on their activities. They were discouraged from interacting freely with men. Women were barred from holding government positions and very few were educated.

Men were free to remarry as soon as their wives died, but many believed that widows should commit suicide rather than remarry.

Foot binding

One of the clearest indications that women were not equal was the painful practice of foot binding. Small feet, or 'golden lilies', were seen as a sign of beauty, and from the age of five, girls had their feet bound with strips of cotton. The toes were folded back and the bones bent until the foot was completely deformed.

Source 2 A woman with bound feet, *c.* 1900

Fifteen-year-old girls often had feet as small as 7 centimetres long.

For women with bound feet, walking could be excruciatingly painful and they often experienced long-term damage to their legs and hips.

Education

There was no such thing as compulsory education in China so most children of peasant farmers received no formal education. Girls learnt household tasks, such as cooking and weaving cloth, while boys learnt to tend livestock and help with planting and harvesting crops.

Schools for boys were established throughout China's provinces. If families could spare their sons from work, they were often willing to pay the school tuition so their sons could sit the government examination. Most boys in middle class and wealthier families attended school.

However, there were differing views about educating women during the Qing Dynasty. Some scholars viewed education for women as necessary only if it was to help educate their sons or to manage household finances. Many women in wealthy households were literate but they had to study at home.

Check your learning 6.3

Remember and understand

1 Briefly describe the way that most Chinese lived in the time of the Qing Dynasty.

Apply and analyse

2 Explain three differences between the lives and status of males and females during the Qing period.

Evaluate and create

3 Conduct some further research on foot binding and create an illustrated PowerPoint presentation that addresses:

- reasons for the practice
- consequences of the practice for girls and women
- what the practice tells you about the status of women in traditional China.

6.4 Chinese culture

During the Qing Dynasty, China had a rich and sophisticated culture. Beautiful buildings, art, music, opera and delicate porcelain were all part of Chinese life. The upper-class Chinese were most likely to be involved in cultural life, but all Chinese appreciated beautiful buildings and objects.

Literature

The Qing emperors encouraged literature. Emperor Qianlong, who ruled from 1735 to 1796, was one of the greatest supporters of Chinese literature. He ordered Chinese scholars to collect thousands of masterpieces of Chinese literature, which he published in a collection called *The Complete Book of the Four Treasuries*. However, Emperor Qianlong was suspicious of any books or poems that contained negative views of the Qing. As a result, over 2000 books were censored and destroyed.

Despite strict censorship practices, writers during the Qing period continued to produce a rich body of literature. One of the most famous novels of the period was *Dream of the Red Chamber* by Cao Xueqin.

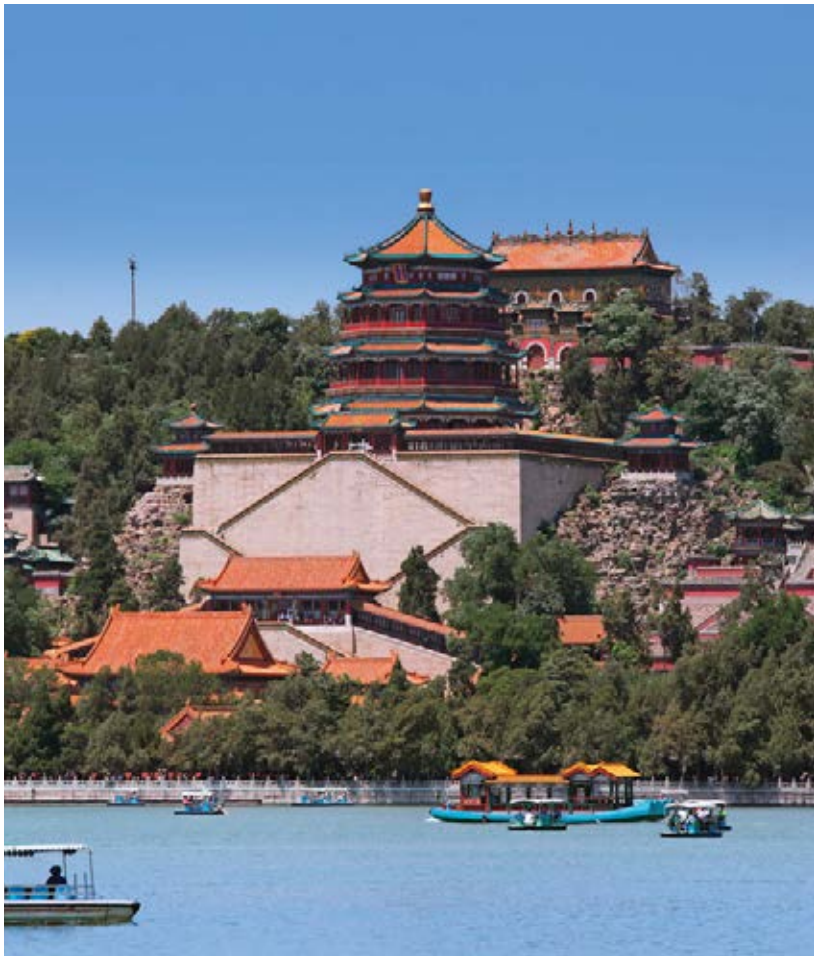
Chinese opera

Between 1790 and the 1840s, a distinctive style of opera evolved. It was known as 'Beijing Opera'. Its performers wore striking make-up and bright costumes to show the personalities and status of their characters. Rather than acting 'realistically', Beijing opera performers used graceful, 'symbolic' movements. Audience members knew that certain gestures were meant to show particular emotions. For instance, a sudden backward somersault expressed the despair a person feels upon losing a loved one. Specific movements were also used to indicate particular actions, for example, lifting a foot meant entering a house.

Architecture

Architecture during the Qing period continued many of the styles and forms from the Ming period before it. New influences included the use of glass and a greater integration of buildings and garden spaces. One of the most significant buildings of the Qing era was the Summer Palace, built between 1749 and 1764.

Source 1
A scene from the Chinese opera *Farewell My Concubine*, a story from 200 BCE, still performed in modern times



Source 2 This modern-day photo of the Summer Palace, now a major tourist attraction, shows paddle boats on Kunming Lake.

Source 3 A painting from the 19th century depicting the manufacturing of porcelain in China using hand-modelling and moulding techniques

The Summer Palace reflected the relationship between buildings, gardens and lakes, according to traditional Chinese principles of design. All aspects of the palace and its grounds were intended to contribute to an overall sense of harmony.

Porcelain

Porcelain is a glazed and baked ceramic material that originated in China in the time of the Han Dynasty, about 2000 years ago. By the Qing period, Chinese porcelain was of such high quality that it was sought all over the world. It was so popular that 'china' actually became the English word for porcelain.

The Qing potters continued many of the styles and techniques made famous under the Ming Dynasty. However, improved glazing methods and the use of higher temperatures for firing led to brighter colours and clearer designs.

Highly skilled artisans were engaged in all aspects of the creation of porcelain and they enjoyed status and a high standard of living.

Check your learning 6.4

Remember and understand

1 How did Beijing Opera performers convey emotion or action?

2 What evidence is there that Chinese porcelain was highly regarded in England?

Apply and analyse

3 What can you learn about the Emperor Qianlong from his attitude to literature?

Evaluate and create

4 Examine Source 3 showing Chinese potters.
- What does the painting show?
- How realistic do you believe this painting to be?

6A rich task

Qing style and fashion

The new Qing rulers established a dress code for the imperial court as a way of distinguishing the ruling elite and government from the general population. They also decreed that all Chinese men should wear their hair in the Manchu style to show their obedience to their new rulers. The Manchu, who founded the Qing dynasty, were made up of various tribes from Manchuria (in north-east China) and had a different style from the previous rulers.

Descriptions and images of Qing clothing styles, hairstyles, buildings, decoration and furniture can tell the historian a great deal about the lives of people in the period.

Source 1 Emperor Yongzheng being carried in Triumph. From Jules Ferrario, *Le Costume Ancien et Moderne*, 1820s.

Source 2

Court robes worn by the imperial family displayed round dragon medallions. The dragon symbolised the emperor, known as the Son of Heaven ... Civil and military officials displayed square court insignia badges on their robes with the appropriate bird or animal to identify their rank. The robes were made out of expensive fabrics like silks, satins, fine wool and furs ... Women dressed according to the rank of their husbands. There were also laws governing what commoners wore. Servants, actors and labourers were only allowed to wear clothes made of cheap materials like hemp cloth and sheepskin.

Source: Matthews L. and Clements J., (2014) *Oxford Big Ideas History 9* obook, Oxford University Press, Melbourne

Source 3

When the Shunzhi (Qing) Emperor first conquered China in 1644 ... he decreed that all men should wear their hair in the Manchu style to show their obedience. They shaved the front of their head and wore a long braid at the back called a 'queue'. Anyone who refused to change his hairstyle was treated as a bandit and could be hunted down and killed.

Growing one's hair long at the front or cutting off one's queue were symbols of rebellion.

This hairstyle lasted until the fall of the Qing Dynasty in 1912.

Source: Matthews L. and Clements J., (2014) *Oxford Big Ideas 9 History* obook, Oxford University Press, Melbourne

Source 4

Before a Manchu woman grows up, she wears a single pigtail hanging behind; at the end of the pigtail is wound with a red cord, the front hair is cut into a bang, and often a bead made of gold or silver or jewellery is fastened on the tip of the pigtail, which is swinging with the wind, to show a sense of beauty.

Source: China Culture 2008. http://www1.chinaculture.org/library/2008-01/28/content_29219.htm

Source 5 This image, from 1912, shows Chinese men having their queues (long braids of hair) cut off after the fall of the Qing Dynasty.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources is one of the most important, and perhaps most difficult, historical skills you need to master. A reliable source is one that you can trust. You can be reasonably sure that it is accurate or that it reflects a perspective from the period that you are studying. A useful source is one that will help you to address the questions that you are examining.

Step 1 Evaluating reliability

To determine the reliability of a source, you need to identify whether it is biased. Being biased means having an unbalanced or one-sided opinion. To recognise bias in a source, ask yourself the following questions:

- Who wrote it or made it?
- When was it written or made?
- Why was it written or made?
- Was the person who wrote or made it paid? If so, who paid them?
- Does it distort the facts?
- Does it give one side of the story, or is it balanced?
- Can the views expressed in this source be verified by another source?

Step 2 Evaluating usefulness

To evaluate the usefulness of a source you should ask the following questions:

- What question am I investigating?
- Is the source reliable?
- What messages is the source conveying – both explicit and implicit?
- What is the source saying or showing that will assist me to answer my historical question?
- What additional information would I like that would help me to answer my question?

Apply the skill

1 Using the questions above as guides, examine each of the sources on this page for their reliability and usefulness in assisting you to answer the question:
'What can you learn about society and attitudes during the Qing period in China from an examination of the ways that people dressed and wore their hair?'

Extend your understanding

1 Examine Sources 1 to 5. Explain how the sources are useful in answering the question:
'To what extent were styles of dress in Qing China determined by status and occupation?'

6.5 Early contact with the West

Under the Qing emperors, China was known as 'The Middle Kingdom'. This term grew from the idea that China was the centre of the world. It was similar to the European description of the large sea between Europe and North Africa as the Mediterranean Sea. Mediterranean also means 'middle of the earth'.

The Qing emperors believed that China was superior to other nations and had no need of contact with others. However, during the 18th century, increasing numbers of Europeans were interested in China. Missionaries and merchants wanted to establish bases in China but they were restricted to Guangzhou. Over the course of the 19th century, Europeans gradually increased their influence in China.

Missionaries

Christian missionaries from European countries believed that theirs was the one true religion. They had no respect for Confucianism, Taoism or Buddhism. Many missionaries and their families came to China in the late 18th century and attempted to convert as many people as possible to Christianity. They started hospitals, schools and orphanages and had the Bible translated into Mandarin. By 1900, there were about 100 000 Christians in the country.

The Chinese emperors mistrusted Christianity. They saw it as a challenge to Confucian values and disliked foreign missionaries moving around their country. Government officials also saw Christian missionaries as potential rivals to their own belief and education systems.

Early traders

For Europeans, China was a rich storehouse of treasures. Tea, silk, spices, porcelain, lacquerware and furniture were highly desirable items. However, European traders were unable to interest the Chinese in buying their products in return. Silver was the only currency that the Chinese would accept. By 1800, British merchants were paying over three and a half million pounds worth of silver to China, in return for tea alone.

In an attempt to change this situation, the British Government sent an ambassador to China in 1793. Earl Macartney's task was to convince the Emperor that Britain should have greater trading rights and that more ports should be opened to Western traders.

Macartney's mission was a failure, largely because of his arrogance. He refused to kowtow to the emperor. Instead, he simply knelt on one knee. As a result, the emperor refused all of McCartney's requests. He was ordered to leave Beijing within two days, taking with him a letter from the emperor to King George III.

Source 1

Macartney brought back an edict [official order issued by a person in power] from the Qianlong Emperor for King George III. 'As your ambassador can see for himself, we possess all things. I set no value on objects strange or ingenious, and have no use for your country's manufactures.'

But the most devastating thing about Qianlong's edict was that it had been drafted even before Macartney's mission arrived in China. The sad truth is that the ambassador never really stood a chance.

Source: 2 extracts from BBC Four program, *Getting Our Way*, Episode 2 – 'Prosperity'

Source 2

You can't conceive of them saying Yes to Macartney's demands. After all, what did he want? He wanted not only trading posts, possibly an island as a base for trade, and above all, he wanted diplomatic relations on an equal footing, and this was quite unthinkable to the Chinese. After all, there could only be one sun in the sky, and that, of course, was China. (Sir Percy Cradock, Ambassador to China, 1978–83)

Source: Extract from BBC Four program, *Getting Our Way*, Episode 2 – 'Prosperity'

Source 3
A caricature published after the return of Britain's failed envoy to China shows Earl Macartney declining to kowtow before the Emperor Qianlong, unlike the men behind him.

The continuing trade imbalance

In Europe, the demand for Chinese goods continued to grow. Apart from tea, Chinese silks, porcelain and artefacts such as fans were very fashionable. There was also a Chinese influence in garden design. Chinese bridges and pagodas became essential elements in the gardens of stately homes. The Chinese, in return, continued to show little interest in European products.

Source 4 The Chinese Bridge at Painshill, the 18th-century estate of Charles Hamilton in Surrey, England

Check your learning 6.5

Remember and understand

1 What products did Europeans want to buy from the Chinese?
2 What was the attitude of the Chinese emperors to Christianity?

Apply and analyse

3 What evidence is there that both the Chinese and the Europeans believed that their civilisations were the most important in the world?

Evaluate and create

4 Examine Sources 1, 2 and 3. Identify the words, phrases or features of the image that suggest the Chinese sense of superiority, and the words phrases and features that indicate the British sense of superiority.
5 Examine Source 3, showing the caricature of Earl Macartney with the Chinese.
   a Explain the context for this picture.
   b Do you think that it is sympathetic to the British or the Chinese? Support your answer with reference to specific features of the picture.

6.6 The opium trade

The British traders were desperate to find a product that the Chinese would be willing to buy. They settled on **opium**, a powerful drug that is highly addictive. British ships began picking up cargoes of opium at Indian ports and selling the drug to Chinese traders.

The opium trade grew quickly. In 1790, private British traders shipped 4000 chests of opium a year into China. By 1822 this had risen to 18 766 chests. By this time, China could no longer sell enough tea to pay for so much opium, so vast amounts of silver started to flow out of China. Qing officials saw that the opium trade hurt China financially and socially. The emperor had made buying opium illegal in 1796, but British traders ignored the ban and continued to sell the drug illegally.

The First Opium War

By the 1830s, the negative impact of the opium trade was being felt in all areas of Chinese life. The economy was severely damaged and the physical and mental wellbeing of many people was under threat. In 1839, the emperor appointed Lin Zexu to attempt to stop the opium trade.

Lin Zexu's first action was to confiscate 20 000 chests of opium in Guangzhou (Canton). He then insisted that British merchants sign a bond (agreement) that they would cease importing opium. The British Government's response was to send naval vessels to China demanding payment for the destroyed opium.

At the same time, another issue was causing tension between the Chinese and the British. The British government demanded that the principle of **extraterritoriality** be followed in China. This meant that if British citizens committed crimes in China, they were subject to British, not Chinese, law.

Lin Zexu wrote a letter to Queen Victoria in which he argued that it was illegal to sell opium in Britain so why should the British sell it in China. He began with the words:

> Suppose the subject of another country were to come to England to trade, he would certainly be required to comply with the laws of England, then how much more does this apply to us of the celestial empire!

Lin Zexu received no reply.

The combination of these tensions led to the outbreak of war between the British and Chinese naval forces in 1840. The British navy was superior to the Chinese and by 1842 the British had taken control of the key Chinese trading ports. Under the Treaty of Nanjing, in 1842, the British extended their political and economic control over China.

Source 1 A Chinese opium den

The key features of the treaty included:

- five new ports to be opened to British traders
- $21 million to be paid to the British in compensation for the destroyed opium
- Hong Kong to be given up to Britain for 150 years
- the principle of extraterritoriality to apply to all British citizens accused of crimes in China.

The Treaty of Nanjing humiliated the Chinese and gave the British much greater influence in China. The opium trade increased and its impact helped to undermine the social system in China and the prestige of the Qing Dynasty.

Source 2 Edward Duncan's 1843 painting of British ships destroying Chinese war junks during the First Opium War

The Second Opium War

Tensions between the British and the Chinese were not resolved by the Treaty of Nanjing. The spread of the opium trade continued to cause resentment. Moreover, the Chinese economy was increasingly weakened by the imbalance of trade. The Chinese believed that they had handed over far too much power to the British, but the British wanted more.

In 1856, Chinese officials boarded *The Arrow*. This was a Chinese ship that had been registered by the British in Hong Kong and was flying a British flag. Britain used the incident as a reason to attack Guangzhou, which led to the outbreak of the Second Opium War.

This time, France joined the British against the Chinese because of recent assaults against their missionaries and sailors. The United States and Russia also offered to send military support to Britain and France but this proved unnecessary. Britain and France easily overpowered Chinese troops and, once again, China was defeated.

Under the 1858 Treaty of Tianjin, the Chinese emperor was further humiliated and China's independence was virtually destroyed. The key features of the treaty included:

- the opening of 10 more ports to foreign trade
- the extension of trading rights to France, Russia and the USA in addition to Britain
- the extension of rights to missionaries to travel throughout China and freedom of religion for all Chinese
- further financial reparations to be paid in silver to Britain and France
- the legalisation of the opium trade.

By 1860, China was a mere shadow of the proud and cultured nation that it had been a century earlier.

Check your learning 6.6

Remember and understand

1 Why did the British introduce the opium trade to China?

2 What were the two main issues that led to the First Opium War?

Apply and analyse

3 Compare the key features of the Treaties of Nanjing and Tianjin. Which do you think would have been the more humiliating to the Chinese? Refer to specific features of the treaties to support your answer.

Evaluate and create

4 Examine Source 1. What can you learn about the place of opium smoking in Chinese society from the image?

5 Imagine that you are Queen Victoria and you receive the letter from Lin Zexu. Write a reply justifying the actions of the British Government and the British traders.

6B rich task

The impact of Europeans on Chinese society

From the mid-18th century, Chinese society was under threat from European influence. By the end of the 19th century, the once proud country of China was weakened and unstable. The main influences on this destabilisation were Christianity, opium and the loss of wealth and territory to Western powers.

Source 1

> The very trick of the cunning barbarians (foreigners) is to weaken our nation with poison (opium). If they now succeed in fooling our people, it means the disintegration of our national defence and the opening up of the same to our penetration.
>
> Source: Yuan Yulim (Magistrate) in a letter to the Emperor in 1836

Source 2 A 19th-century cartoon provides a commentary on the British opium trade in China.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

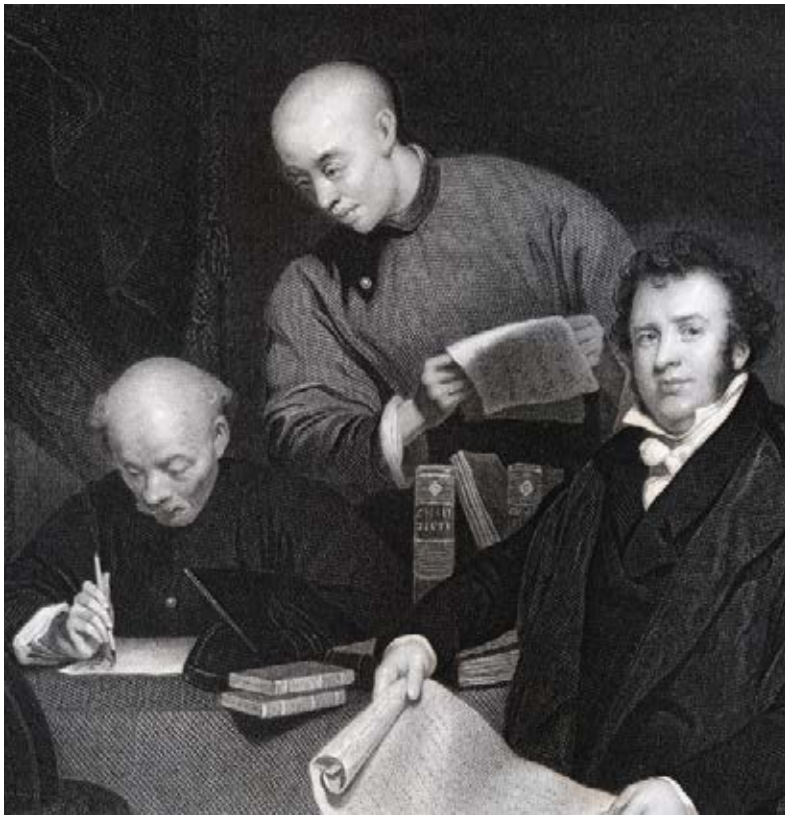
Developing a written historical argument

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. Follow these steps to research and write your own historical discussion:

Step 1 Consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence.

- Consider relevant primary sources.
- Consider the ideas of other historians, presented in secondary sources such as textbooks and websites.
- Record the sources of all of your information.

Step 2 Make a decision as to your view on the issue. Decide what arguments you are going to make, and how you will support them.

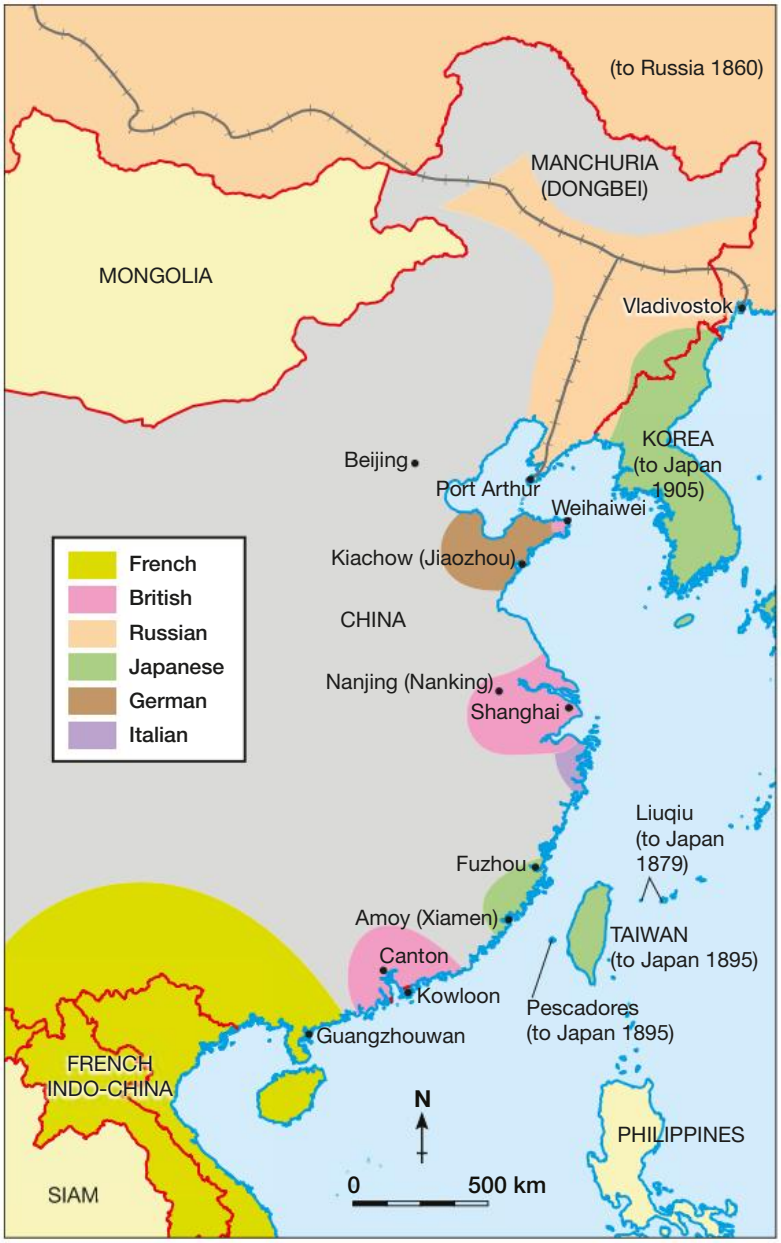


Source 3 A Christian missionary teaching Chinese scholars

Step 3 Write up your discussion. Your discussion should include the features outlined in the table below.

Introduction	Introduces the topic and the issues to be explored
Main body	A series of paragraphs that outline different arguments related to the issue or question. Each point should be supported with evidence.
Conclusion	Sum up the material and give your opinion. Don't say 'I', say something like 'The evidence suggests …'
Involvement of sources in your writing	In addition to footnoting all of your sources, you should indicate the source of some of your information as part of your discussion; e.g. 'According to historian Ronald Laidlaw, China lost the First Opium War because it lacked good leadership and organisation.'
Footnotes and bibliography	All quotes, figures and facts that are not generally known must be footnoted. All written and Internet sources must be acknowledged; e.g. Wood, Michael, 2004, *In Search of Shakespeare*, Maya Vision International.

TERRITORIES PREVIOUSLY PART OF THE QING EMPIRE THAT WERE CONTROLLED BY FOREIGN POWERS BY 1900



Source 4

Apply the skill

Using these and other sources, you are to develop an historical argument on the topic:

'Opium was by far the most destructive influence on Chinese stability and wellbeing during the 19th century.'

Steps in developing your argument:

1. Examine Sources 1 to 4 and conduct some further research into the negative impact of European influence on China between 1750 and 1911.
2. Make notes on the negative influence of the opium trade.
3. Make notes on other influences, especially Christianity and the loss of wealth and territory.
4. Use the material you have gathered to answer the question in essay form. Note that you should consider all influences before deciding whether opium was the most destructive influence.

Extend your understanding

1. The island of Hong Kong was leased to Britain for 150 years under the 1842 Treaty of Nanjing. In 1997, the island was handed back to China. Conduct some research on what has taken place in Hong Kong since 1997. Prepare a written or audiovisual report that addresses some of the following points: government, living conditions, customs and traditions, personal freedoms, contact with mainland China.

6.7 China's internal problems

The Opium Wars put China under huge pressure at a time when China was also facing emerging internal problems. The second half of the 19th century was a difficult period for China, which was struggling economically. Most Chinese were still farming or engaged in small businesses. China did not have modern, large-scale industries such as those found in Europe and the United States. In addition, China's population had more than doubled between 1750 and 1850. Farmland was in short supply and food was sometimes scarce. Large numbers of people moved across the country in search of work and food. This had a disruptive impact on the country.

Many Chinese were unhappy about the recent military defeats by foreigners. They also suffered because of the huge sums of money China was paying to foreign powers. These unstable conditions led to internal rebellions and attempts to bring China into the modern world.

The Taiping Rebellion

By far the largest rebellion was the Taiping Rebellion, led by Hong Xiuquan. Between 1850 and 1864 the Taiping rebels seized control of much of south and central China, establishing their own kingdom for over a decade.

Hong was inspired by Christian-missionary pamphlets and believed he was Jesus' younger brother. He declared that he would establish a new kingdom called the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace, and swore to throw the Qing rulers out of China.

In his new kingdom, Hong promised to turn private property into common property to be shared by all. This attracted many famine-stricken peasants, workers and miners who joined with Hong against the Qing rulers. In 1853, with up to one million followers, Hong captured the eastern city of Nanjing, renaming it Tianjing.

Later attempts by the Taiping rebels to take Beijing and Shanghai failed and they were eventually defeated by combined Qing Dynasty and Western forces. Between 20 and 30 million people died as a result of the Taiping Rebellion. Many died in battles, but others died from starvation and disease.

Source 1 Seal of the Taiping Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace

The Self-Strengthening Movement

The opium trade, the military defeats and the Western influence on Chinese society all created concerns for the Qing emperors. Beginning in the 1860s, the Qing leaders began a limited program of modernisation, known as the Self-Strengthening Movement.

China's outdated navy was one area that needed improvement. The government purchased several modern ships from Europe and experimented with shipbuilding in Shanghai. In 1862, General Zeng Guofan reported that Chinese workers had managed to build a steamboat, but that it was 'very slow'.

China also needed to build up its industry. In the 1870s, they began to build modern factories. In 1875, a factory in the city of Jiangnan began production of modern rifles. In 1877, the first steam engine was used to power a wool mill. Other industries included shipyards and coalmines.

Source 2 A British factory in Hog Lane, Canton, *c.* 1838

However, these projects were only partially successful. Foreigners were still needed to run many factories, as the government could not find Chinese who knew enough about modern science or engineering. By 1900, in spite of the Self-Strengthening projects, China was still not able to compete with modern powers.

Foreign wars

A further humiliation for China was its failed involvement in a number of foreign wars. Around the turn of the 20th century, China suffered defeat at the hands of France, Japan and Russia. These defeats left China even more at the mercy of foreign powers, and demonstrated the backwardness of the Qing rulers.

Check your learning 6.7

Remember and understand

1 What effect did the great growth in population numbers have on China?
2 What did the Taiping rebels achieve?
3 What was the Self-Strengthening Movement?

Apply and analyse

4 Why did the Self-Strengthening Movement achieve only limited success?
5 Why do you think the forces of the Qing Dynasty combined with Western armies to defeat the Taiping rebels?

Evaluate and create

6 Address the following question in essay form:
'To what extent was a lack of modernisation the main reason for China's position around 1900?'
(In your answer you may draw upon information from this and earlier units.)
7 Create a crossword using the names, terms and concepts used in this unit. Swap your crossword with a classmate.

6.8 Significant individual: Empress Dowager Cixi

Empress Dowager Cixi was one of the most significant and powerful women in the history of China. Although China was officially ruled by successive dynasties of emperors – all of them men – for centuries, in reality Cixi was the true ruler of China from 1861 until her death in 1908. She ruled unofficially from behind the scenes during a critical period in China's history. By manipulating a group of conservative and corrupt government officials, Cixi wielded enormous power and influence over the Qing Dynasty and the Chinese people. Her time in power changed the course of Chinese history forever.

Source 1 Early 20th-century portrait of Empress Dowager Cixi by a Western artist

Early life

Cixi was born in Beijing in 1835, the eldest daughter of a low-ranking Chinese government official. Her father died at a very young age, and afterwards Cixi felt unhappy and neglected by her family. At the age of 14, she was nominated to begin training to become a concubine to the ruling Qing Imperial House. In traditional Chinese society, this nomination was considered an honour, but for Cixi it was also a chance to escape a family home where she felt unhappy and unwanted.

In 1851, at the age of 16, Cixi was chosen to become one of the Xianfeng Emperor's low-ranking concubines. The Xianfeng Emperor came to power in 1850 and was the seventh emperor of the Qing Dynasty to rule over China. At this time Cixi moved to the imperial palace in Beijing – known as the Forbidden City.

By the age of 18, Cixi had completed the ritual training to become a royal concubine – a higher position at the imperial court. Although the emperor had many wives and concubines, Cixi was the only one to successfully give birth to a son and heir to the throne, in 1856.

Cixi's rise to power

In 1861, one year after the end of the Second Opium War, the Xianfeng Emperor died. Because the Xianfeng Emperor's only son – who became known as the Tongzhi Emperor – was only six-years old at the time of his father's death, a group of nine people was chosen to rule in the place of the young emperor until he came of age. These people were known as regents. The young emperor's mother, Cixi, was one of the regents.

Initially, it was intended that Cixi would share power with the eight other regents; however, over time Cixi gradually increased her power and was able to overthrow the others. Cixi was an ambitious and clever ruler – putting down many plots and rebellions designed to undermine her position. Around this time, Cixi took on the title of Empress Dowager – a term given to the widow of an emperor.

When her son – the Tongzhi Emperor – died in 1875, Cixi managed to remain in power, continuing in the role of regent but effectively ruling China as Empress. Keen to maintain her power, Empress Dowager Cixi chose a new emperor – her nephew – who was three years old at the time. The new emperor – the Guangxu Emperor – was a sickly boy who was terrified of Cixi.

Resistance to change

In 1888, when the Guangxu Emperor turned 17, Cixi officially surrendered her power and title to the emperor, but behind the scenes she was still plotting to remain in control.

Ten years later in 1898, the Guangxu Emperor attempted to assert his own power by introducing a program to reform China and adopt some more open policies towards the West known as the 'Hundred Days' Reform'. The Emperor wanted to build new railways, build up industry and update the education system to include Western science. He even suggested a limited form of democracy. These reforms alarmed Cixi, who saw them as a threat to her own power. She was very conservative and resented attempts to open China to the West – she had been opposed to the goals of the Self-Strengthening Movement and felt the same way about the 'Hundred Days' Reform'. She effectively overturned almost all the reforms and organised the Emperor's arrest. Cixi's soldiers took the Guangxu Emperor to a small palace in the middle of a lake, connected to land by a single guarded bridge. Guangxu lived as a prisoner until he died in 1908. At this point, Cixi once again took the role as regent.

Despite retaining power, challenges to Cixi's rule continued. In 1899, a group of anti-foreign rebels known as Boxers began protesting against foreign influence in China. In 1900, an event known as the Boxer Rebellion took place (see pages 174–175). During the Boxer Rebellion around 100 foreigners were killed and the foreign headquarters of foreign powers in Beijing were surrounded. Cixi supported the Boxers, but the rebellion was ultimately unsuccessful because foreign troops were far better resourced and armed than the rebels. After the Boxer Rebellion, Cixi was forced to flee the city and accept humiliating peace terms. On her return to Beijing in 1901, Cixi finally agreed to implement some of the reforms that she had overturned as part of the 'Hundred Days' Reform'. They included the modernisation of China's military resources and the abolition of the examination system. These reforms were seen by many as being too little too late.

Source 2

'Our past errors will help us to act more wisely in the future. We must no longer distinguish between Chinese ways and foreign ways. So far we have copied only the outer clothes of the West. We must go further. We must revise ancient methods, stamp out abuses in our system of government and reform completely.'

Source: Edict from the Empress Cixi, 1901. Stokes G and Stokes J, 1967, Modern China: A Documentary History, Longmans, London, page 177

The end of the Qing Dynasty

In 1908, the Empress Dowager Cixi died. The day before her death, the Guangxu Emperor was discovered dead from poisoning. Although there is no hard evidence to prove Cixi ordered the Emperor's death, many historians suspect the Empress Dowager's involvement. After her death, Cixi was buried in the Qing imperial tombs near Beijing and a new emperor – the Xuantong Emperor (also known as Pu Yi) – took the throne at age three. Only three years later the Qing Dynasty collapsed and in February 1912 the Xuantong Emperor was removed from power. Thousands of years of imperial rule in China was over. This led to the creation of the Republic of China and marks the beginnings of modern China.

Check your learning 6.8

Remember and understand

1 What is the meaning of the title 'Empress Dowager'?
2 What is the name of the imperial palace in Beijing? How did Cixi first come to live here?
3 Why was Cixi selected as one of eight regents to rule China after the death of the Xianfeng Emperor?

Apply and analyse

4 What was the 'Hundred Days' Reform' and who moved to introduce it? Was it successful?
5 Why was Cixi opposed to reforming and modernising China?

Evaluate and create

6 Look carefully at Sources 1 and 2. How are Cixi's power and position shown in each of these sources?

6.9 The Boxer Rebellion

Wars, internal problems, poverty and famine all combined to create a climate of dissatisfaction in China by the end of the 19th century. As a result, a number of rebellious groups developed. The most significant of these was the Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists, a group that was unofficially known as the Boxers.

The Boxers were mostly peasants, with semi-religious but anti-Christian ideas. They were religious martial artists, who believed that their training could eventually allow them to develop resistance to foreign bullets. They blamed the foreigners and Christians for China's problems, calling them 'ghosts' or 'devils'. The Boxers quickly gained the support of people in the provinces of northern China, where peasants had suffered decades of great hardship. They protested under the slogan, 'Support the Qing; Destroy the Foreigners'.

THE AREAS OF NORTHERN CHINA DIRECTLY AFFECTED BY THE BOXER REBELLION

Source 1

At first, Empress Dowager Cixi condemned the Boxers' actions publicly. She was afraid that Western nations might use the Boxer attacks as an excuse to send in their military forces again. But in 1900, the Empress Dowager suddenly changed her tone. She suggested that she might even sympathise with the rebels.

The Beijing siege

The most famous event of the Boxer Rebellion took place in 1900, when Boxers began attacking the headquarters (known as legations) of the foreign powers in Beijing. The northern part of China was in severe drought and the Boxers blamed the foreigners. Australian journalist George Morrison kept a diary of his experiences in Beijing in 1900. He reported that the Boxers believed the foreigners had disturbed the feng shui and that this was the cause of the drought. He wrote on 26 April: 'According to my boy (servant), 8 000 000 men are to descend from Heaven and exterminate the foreigners … Then the rain will come.'

In Beijing, representatives of the foreign nations were initially confident that they could fight off the Boxer attack. Then in June 1900, the Boxers cut the rail link between Tianjing, on the coast, and Beijing. Telegraph cables were also destroyed and mail delivery was stopped. This left the foreigners in the Beijing legations isolated. For 55 days, the foreigners were besieged and under constant attack by Boxer soldiers and the Qing army.

The Boxer Rebellion was finally crushed by the military superiority of the foreign powers. Troops were sent from eight countries: Austria–Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Russia and the United States. Britain's force included Sikh soldiers from India and sailors and soldiers from New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia.

Source 2 Japanese troops (who were part of the international force) with the bodies of executed Boxer prisoners

Consequences of the Boxer Rebellion

The Boxer Rebellion had been designed to drive foreigners out of China. Yet, it had the opposite effect, increasing foreign power and influence.

Once the siege of Beijing was over and the Boxers had been defeated, the Qing officials tried to suggest that they had not supported the rebels. However, the foreign powers would not accept this. The foreigners imposed a harsh punishment on the Qing rulers, known as the Boxer Protocol.

Under the Boxer Protocol, China had to pay damages of millions of pounds worth of silver. Moreover, foreign forces occupied Beijing and surrounding areas for over a year. Looting by foreigners was widespread, often in the name of recovering wealth stolen from missionaries.

Over the next two decades some of the money paid by the Chinese in damages was redirected by foreign powers back into China. The foreigners used it to set up banks and build railways and bridges – a form of compulsory modernisation. After the Boxer Rebellion, the Empress Dowager Cixi also realised that she had to make some attempts to change or modernise the way China was governed. She agreed to a wide range of reforms, including the abolition of the government examination system in 1905. But other reforms, such as the introduction of a genuinely democratic form of government, were not implemented.

Check your learning 6.9

Remember and understand

1 What influences combined to create the dissatisfaction leading to the establishment of the Boxers?

2 Which foreign countries helped to crush the Beijing siege?

Apply and analyse

3 Why did the Boxers gain such strong support in northern China?

4 Explain how the outcome of the Boxer Rebellion was the opposite of what was intended? Support your answer with evidence.

Evaluate and create

5 You are an adviser to the Empress Dowager Cixi in 1901. Suggest and explain three steps that the Qing rulers could take to strengthen China and limit foreign power and interference.

6.10 Divided responses to Western influence

From the time that Europeans first started forcing their way into China, there were mixed reactions from the Chinese people. The majority of Chinese, particularly the peasants, resented the Europeans and the Christian missionaries. The Qing rulers and the administrative class also felt threatened and undermined. However, there were aspects of Western influence that appealed to some Chinese, especially merchants and people living in the treaty port cities. New technology and modern ideas about politics gained increasing support over the last decades of the 19th century.

Merchant resentment

Until the First Opium War, the only port open to foreigners was Guangzhou. Trade with Britain had been very profitable for Guangzhou merchants. They blamed the Qing emperor for the Treaty of Nanjing (1842) and the extension of trade through another four ports. They believed that trading rights given to five European powers took away their own power and economic opportunities. Moreover, they resented the failure of the Qing emperor to stop the opium trade.

At the same time, many of those in the treaty port areas and in Hong Kong also came into increasing contact with Western technology. They saw the benefits of railways, wharves, bridges and telegraph services in assisting trade and commerce.

Increasing numbers of the small Chinese middle class began to copy Western ways of living and to take an interest in Western social and political ideas.

Western-style education

One area that interested some Chinese was the Western education system. The traditional examination system, based on the Confucian classics, had existed for over a thousand years. Those who had contact with Westerners became increasingly convinced that education should be broader and should prepare young Chinese for the modern world. By the early 20th century an increasing number of young Chinese were completing their studies in Japan, the USA or Great Britain.

Source 1 A French cartoon from 1898 showing representatives from foreign powers in Europe and Asia carving up Chine (China) while a Chinese official stands by, powerless to stop them

Dr Sun Yat-sen, who was to lead the revolution against the Qing emperors in 1911, received a Western-style education. Although from a peasant background, Sun attended an English-speaking school in Hawaii. Later he studied Western-style medicine at the Hong Kong College of Medicine. Sun learned ideas of nationalism and republicanism from his Western studies.

Source 2 The European influence on China is reflected in these French- and American-influenced buildings along the Bund in Shanghai.

Christianity

There were also mixed attitudes towards Christianity. Many Chinese (including the Boxers) were strongly opposed to Christians and blamed them for many of China's woes. However, others embraced the new religion. This was largely because of the practical contribution of the various Christian churches; they built schools and hospitals, trained nurses and doctors and looked after the poor. The Christian churches also strongly opposed the opium trade, which was the cause of so much Chinese suffering.

New political ideas

Education and contact with Westerners led to the questioning of the role and power of the emperor. It also gave rise to ideas of nationalism. There was a growing belief that China was one country and that it belonged to a unified people. Nationalists also believed that the Chinese people should have a say in running their own country. Pro-nationalist and anti-Qing movements had first emerged after the humiliation of the Opium Wars. These movements grew stronger after the Boxer Rebellion and the harsh terms of the Boxer Protocol.

Check your learning 6.10

Remember and understand

1 What aspects of Western civilisation appealed to some Chinese in the later part of the 19th century?

Apply and analyse

2 Explain how the opium trade and the Opium Wars created resentment among Guangzhou merchants?

3 What roles did Christianity and Western-style education play in the spread of anti-Qing ideas in China in the late 19th century?

4 Examine Source 2. Identify signs that this is a Chinese city and indications of European influence.

Evaluate and create

5 Create a dialogue between a traditional Chinese administrator who supports the Qing emperor and a Chinese merchant who has converted to Christianity and supports change. Each person should speak four times and should make reference to specific details about China up to 1901.

6.11 Revolutionary movements

Following the crushing of the Boxer Rebellion, the Qing administration was at its weakest point in nearly 300 years. Western influence, economic distress and internal divisions created a situation that was ripe for revolution.

A nationalist revolutionary: Sun Yat-sen

The Boxer Rebellion showed that many Chinese wanted foreign interference in their country to stop. On the other hand, many Chinese were also being influenced by foreign ideas. Thousands of Chinese were now travelling overseas to study in Western countries and Japan. Some returned to China with newly adopted customs and beliefs, as well as ideas about how government could run differently. One such individual was Sun Yat-sen.

Sun Yat-sen had left China in his youth and studied in Hawaii and Hong Kong. He was baptised as a Christian in Hong Kong in 1886. Sun led a Revolutionary Alliance of groups who were devoted to expelling the Qing rulers and restoring control of a unified China to the Chinese.

Source 1 Dr Sun Yat-sen

Sun made his first attempt to overthrow the Qing Government in 1895. The attempt was a failure and Sun fled to London and then to Japan. He spent the next 16 years gathering support from mainland Chinese and Chinese expatriates (Chinese citizens living abroad) and planning his next move.

While he was in exile, Sun Yat-sen developed three ideas that were to guide him and his followers in their campaign for an independent Chinese republic. Sun outlined these ideas, known as The Three Principles of the People, in 1905. They were:

- *nationalism* – the unity of all ethnic groups in China and an end to foreign interference
- d*emocracy* – representation of all people in a democratically elected assembly
- *welfare* – quality of life for those groups, with recognition of basic rights to food, clothing, transportation, education, rights and freedoms.

Other revolutionaries

Although Sun was based outside China for many years, he had a growing body of supporters. Many of them were people who had benefited from a Western-style education. Ironically, steps by the Qing administration to modernise and Westernise actually helped to bring about its downfall. Better educated Chinese realised that their country could improve in many ways.

Kang Youwei

One Chinese scholar who supported reform was Kang Youwei. One of his first campaigns was to bring an end to foot binding. This attempt, in 1883, failed but it increased his desire to modernise China while retaining Confucian values. Unlike Sun Yat-sen, Kang believed in a constitutional monarchy. This meant that he wanted a democratically elected government but he was happy to retain the emperor as a figurehead.

Liang Qichao

Another active revolutionary was Liang Qichao. Liang was a scholar and journalist who believed in reform from within. He argued that the Qing leaders should reform China's economy and social practices to be more like Western nations. However, he also wanted to maintain China's traditional culture. Liang took part in

China's first student demonstration in 1895, following the humiliating defeat of China by Japan in the First Sino-Japanese War. The emperor took notice of Liang's ideas in 1898 and ushered in the Hundred Days of Reform. However, the Empress Dowager Cixi felt that the reforms were going too far and Liang was banished to Japan. While there, he used his journalistic talents to spread his revolutionary ideas.

Source 2 Kang Youwei

Source 3 In 1905, Sun Yat-sen outlined three ideas to guide the campaign for an independent Chinese republic. These ideas became known as the Three Principles of the People. These principles still influence Chinese government policy to this day. This sign on the island of Kinmen (governed by Taiwan) faces the Chinese mainland. It reads: 'The Three Principles of the People will unite China'

Source 4 These wooden, silk and gold shoes were designed for the tiny bound feet of a Chinese woman. Kang Youwei was among those who protested against the practice of foot binding. The ancient practice of foot binding was officially banned in 1912, but continued for many years after that date.

Check your learning 6.11

Remember and understand

1 What evidence is there that there was growing dissatisfaction within China in the second half of the 19th century?

2 Identify Sun Yat-sen's Three Principles.

Apply and analyse

3 Explain two ways in which Sun Yat-sen's revolutionary ideas differed from those of Kang Youwei or Liang Qichao?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some further research into the Hundred Days of Reform. Outline the key points of the program under the headings:

- Administrative reform
- Economic reform
- Military reform
- Educational reform.

Suggest three reasons why the program was largely unsuccessful.

6.12 The 1911 Revolution and the end of imperial rule

The turmoil of the opium trade and the influence of the West eventually took their toll on the Qing rulers of China. In October 1911, a republican revolution broke out and in February 1912, the child emperor Pu Yi was forced to abdicate. Almost 300 years of Qing rule was at an end.

Background to the revolution

The Hundred Days of Reform and other attempts to reform China from within met with little success. In 1901, the Empress Dowager Cixi issued an edict in which she proclaimed that she was in favour of modernisation. In the edict, she said, 'All human rules must be subject to alteration. It is not foolish to put fresh strings on a musical instrument.' However, any attempt at reform was too little too late.

Empress Dowager Cixi died in 1908. The new emperor, Pu Yi, was only two years and 10 months old. Nationalists seized the chance and began to call for the end of Qing rule. They suggested that the Qing, who originated in Manchuria, were unwelcome foreigners. They claimed that China could only be truly reformed under *Chinese* control.

In the early years of the 20th century, Sun Yat-sen's Revolutionary Alliance attempted several revolutions. All were put down by Qing troops, but with each revolt the prestige and power of the Qing rulers were weakened.

Outbreak of revolution

As is often the case, the revolution, when it came, took most Chinese people by surprise. It started from a dispute over the ownership of a railway in Sichuan province in China's south-west.

Faced with debts as a result of the Boxer Protocol, the Qing Government was looking for extra sources of income. They decided to seize a privately owned railway

Source 1 Imperial officials flee from Tianjin during the Chinese Revolution in 1911

in Sichuan. The Qing Government had done things like this before, but this time they met with resistance. Local officials organised mass demonstrations, which quickly turned violent. The Qing Government, fearing further uprisings, tried to send in troops from a neighbouring province. However, the troops sided with the protesters.

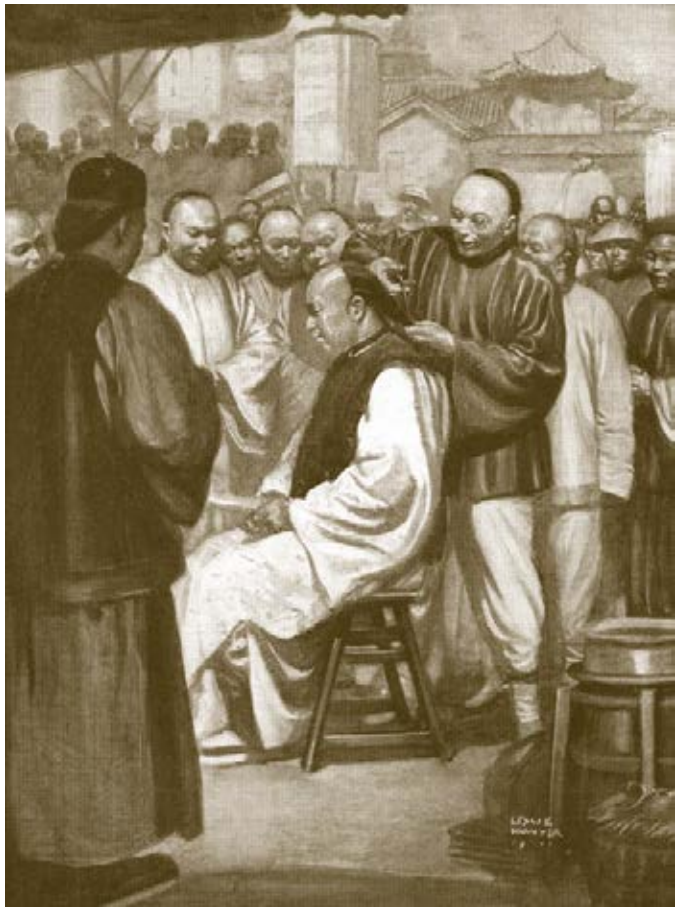
Officials from Sichuan, with the support of troops from neighbouring provinces, declared their independence from the Qing emperors. This set off a chain of uprisings. Province after province followed suit and rebelled. A series of uprisings saw the removal of Qing provincial governors in the southern regions of China, between October and December 1911.

The nationalist revolutionary leader Sun Yat-sen was in the United States, in exile, when the revolution broke out. Reading about it in the paper, he hurried back to China to help to organise a new government in Nanjing. By December 1911, he was provisional president of the new republic, a nation whose leader was elected by the people.

The end of the Qing Dynasty

The chain of uprisings removed Qing governors in the southern provinces, but the Qing rulers in Beijing still held on to power. Because the emperor was only a baby, his father, Prince Juan, was ruling as regent. He asked military leader Yuan Shikai to assist the Qing administration to crush the revolutionaries.

Yuan led the Qing army in a battle against the republicans in the province of Wuhan. Although the Qing army was victorious in the short term, it became obvious that the republican forces had the support of large numbers of the Chinese people. Yuan began negotiations with Sun Yat-sen and the republicans.



Source 2 Chinese men having their 'queues' cut off after the fall of the Qing Dynasty

Sun offered to resign as president in favour of Yuan, if Yuan could persuade the emperor to abdicate (step down from power). Yuan negotiated the emperor's abdication and became president in March 1912.

China became a republic, and thousands of years of imperial rule came to an end.

Check your learning 6.12

Remember and understand

1 Write a brief explanation of the role of the following in the 1911–12 revolution:
- Sun Yat-sen
- Yuan Shikai
- Prince Juan.

Apply and analyse

2 Explain why the Empress Dowager Cixi's 1901 edict was not successful in saving the Qing Dynasty.

3 What do you believe was the main reason for the collapse of the Qing Dynasty and the establishment of the Chinese republic? Support your answer.

Evaluate and create

4 Construct a timeline showing the events that led to the end of the Qing Dynasty, between October 1911 and March 1912.

5 Hold a class debate on the topic:
'By 1901, the Qing Dynasty was doomed.'

6.13 China moves into the 20th century

The new Chinese republic did not have an easy beginning. There were still many tensions and divisions within the country. Some supported the republic while others still yearned for the return of the emperors. There were those who believed that China should modernise along Western lines as quickly as possible. Other Chinese feared the loss of traditional culture and wanted to resist change. This unstable situation was made worse by China's experiences during World War I.

The early republic

Despite mixed feelings within China about the republic, most Western leaders were very supportive. The USA was among the first to acknowledge the new republic and establish diplomatic relations. Britain, Japan, Russia and others soon followed.

There was a brief period of stability. A parliament was established and voting rights were extended to all men over 21, if they owned property or had a basic education. There were two main parties:

- The Guomindang was the more democratic of the two and was supported by Sun Yat-sen and his followers.
- The Jinbudang was supported by Yuan Shikai. It favoured a much more limited democracy.

By 1913, it had become obvious that Yuan Shikai was not interested in a democratic republic. He arranged the **assassination** of several of his enemies and he ignored the wishes of the parliament on a number of financial matters. By 1914, many republicans believed that Yuan had plans to revive the **monarchy** and make himself emperor. He actually achieved this in late 1915, but his period in power lasted less than three months.

China and World War I

When World War I broke out in Europe, Japan joined the allies against Germany. The Germans had held territory in the Shandong Peninsula of China. Japan took advantage of the war situation to invade Shandong. Then, in 1915, Japan presented Yuan Shikai with Twenty-One Demands, aimed at giving Japan enormous control over China. Because he could not rely on support from Europe, Yuan had little choice but to agree to Japan's demands.

Source 1 Yuan Shikai just before his abdication, after his brief period as emperor

Yuan was further humiliated when he was forced to dismantle the emperor system. He died of natural causes several months later. For the rest of World War I, China was divided.

China eventually entered World War I after declaring war on Germany in 1917. The new prime minister, Duan Jirui, believed that this was the best way for China to regain control of Shandong. In addition, China sent 140000 labourers to France and Belgium as paid volunteers, and 100000 of these served near the front lines in Flanders. They dug trenches, carried ammunition and worked in docks, railway yards and arms factories.

Source 2 Men from the Chinese Labour Corps building a road on the Western Front in Europe, *c.* 1917

However, China was to gain little from its participation in the war. At the end of the war, the Treaty of Versailles imposed harsh conditions on Germany. These included a massive **reparations** bill and the dividing of German colonies between the Allies. Instead of returning the Shandong Peninsula to China, Article 156 of the treaty gave Japan control of Germany's colonial territories in China. One of the few rewards given to China was the return of astronomical instruments taken by German troops after the Boxer Rebellion.

At the end of the war, China was again divided and exploited by foreign countries. Few Chinese people experienced the benefits of the 'democratic' revolution. In addition, China was one of the countries hardest hit by the influenza epidemic that swept the world in 1918. Some historians have suggested that, despite the title 'Spanish Flu', the epidemic might have actually originated in China.

Check your learning 6.13

Remember and understand

1 What were the two main political parties in the new republic and what did each stand for?

2 How did Western countries react to the establishment of the Chinese republic in 1911?

Apply and analyse

3 Why do you think that Yuan Shikai's movement to restore the monarchy failed?

4 Why would the Chinese have felt that Article 156 of the Treaty of Versailles was unfair to them?

Evaluate and create

5 Prepare a PowerPoint or video report on the 'Spanish Flu'. In your presentation, you should address the following:

- origins of the disease, including the suggestion that it began in China
- impact across the world, including figures on deaths
- effects of the epidemic on the return of soldiers after World War I.
- impact of the disease on China.

6C rich task

The last emperor

The last emperor of China,– the Xuatong Emperor – was not quite three years old when he ascended the throne, and just five years old when he was forced to abdicate (give up power). It is unlikely that he understood anything of his position or of the tensions surrounding China at the time.

Nevertheless, Pu Yi (as he became known after his abdication) was to continue to be a significant figure in China. Under the abdication agreement he was allowed to continue to live in the Forbidden City. He lived there in considerable luxury until 1924. Pu Yi was still treated as emperor by palace staff. In 1934, Pu Yi accepted an invitation from the Japanese government to become Emperor of Manchukuo. This was a large area of Manchuria that the Japanese had invaded and claimed from China. He remained there until 1945.

Source 2

'Hush' he said, 'Don't cry. Be patient. Everything will soon be over. It will soon be finished.'

Some of the courtiers who were near the throne heard him and after the ceremony they talked with one another in whispers. 'How could a Royal Highness say such a thing as "it will soon be over"?' they asked. 'This is a bad omen.'

They felt that my father's remarks indicated that my reign would be an unlucky one.

Source: Kramer P (ed.), 1967, *The Last Manchu: The autobiography of Henry Pu Yi, Last Emperor of China*, Arthur Barker UK, Chapter 1

Source 3

It was on March 14, 1919, that my father and my Chinese tutors introduced me to Mr Reginal Fleming Johnstone in the Yu Ching palace. First, in accordance with protocol, I sat on my throne and he bowed to me. I then stood up and shook hands with him. Then he bowed again and withdrew. Later he re-entered and I bowed to him to show my respect for him as a teacher. After this ceremony was over he began to give me lessons in the company of one of my Chinese tutors.

Source: Kramer P (ed.), 1967, *The Last Manchu: The autobiography of Henry Pu Yi, Last Emperor of China* Arthur Barker UK, Chapter 7

In 1949, when China became a communist nation, Pu Yi was forcibly returned to China and imprisoned. After his release, the former emperor worked in a mechanical repair shop and later as a gardener in the botanical gardens. He died in 1967.

Many years after his 1908 coronation, Pu Yi wrote an account of the day. He explained that towards the end of the long ceremony, he began to cry. He recorded his father's response:

Source 1 An image of the baby emperor – the Xuantong Emperor – also known as Pu Yi, from the 1987 film *The Last Emperor*.

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Generating questions about the past to inform a historical inquiry

One of the first and most important steps in conducting an historical inquiry is to generate or pose key questions. These questions will direct your research.

Usually, historians generate one broad, overarching or key question for their inquiry, for example:

'How was the Emperor Pu Yi able to continue to live a privileged life and to hold power, even after the collapse of the Qing Empire?'

You can use the following steps to help you develop questions to guide your historical inquiry.

Step 1 Think about what you already know about the topic. Use this knowledge as a springboard for questions that will help you to understand the topic in more depth.

Step 2 List in point form all the things that you already know about the topic.

Step 3 List in point form all the things that you would like/need to know about the topic.

Step 4 Use these two lists to develop a series of questions that will aid your research. Remember to include a mix of three types of questions that include:

- closed questions, e.g. '*When* did Pu Yi become emperor?'
- open questions, e.g. '*Why* was Pu Yi still treated as an emperor after 1912?'
- questions that relate to the process of historical inquiry, e.g. 'What evidence is there that ... ?' and 'What other sources might be needed to further explain ... ?'

Apply the skill

1 Examine the sources in this rich task and conduct further research on Pu Yi. Use the process described above to generate a range of questions related to the overarching question:

'How was the Emperor Pu Yi able to continue to live a privileged life and to hold power, even after the collapse of the Qing Empire?'

2 Use your research and the questions you have developed to prepare a radio documentary that addresses this question. Use Chinese music as a background for your presentation.

Source 4 A Japanese poster from the time that Pu Yi was Emperor of Manchukuo, 1934 to 1945

Extend your understanding

1 In 1987, a film was made about Pu Yi called *The Last Emperor*. The film was praised for its rich and opulent portrayal of the life of Pu Yi. It has also been criticised for inaccuracies.

Watch the film *The Last Emperor*. Identify at least three incidents in the film or aspects of the portrayal of Pu Yi that seem different from the historical accounts of the man and the period.

2 Write an evaluation of the film as a historical resource.

Unit 2 Australia and Asia

Japan (1750–1918)

By 1750, Japan was in the middle of a long period of peace. From 1603 to 1868, the Tokugawa family ruled Japan as shoguns, or military leaders, from their capital in Edo (modern-day Tokyo). During the Tokugawa period (or Edo period) the samurai class dominated Japanese society. Japan was cut off from the rest of the world, with the shogun forbidding foreigners from entering Japan's ports.

The Tokugawa period ended in 1868 with the Meiji Restoration. From 1868 onwards, the Japanese authorities, led by the emperor, experimented with new models of government and methods of education. They modernised the army and navy. They built steel and chemical factories, and established shipping companies and postal systems.

By the turn of the 20th century, Japan had become a powerful modern nation. In 1894–95, Japan defeated China in the first Sino-Japanese War. Then, in 1904–05, Japan surprised the world by defeating Russia – the first defeat of a European power by an Asian country in 500 years.

7A

What were the key features of Japanese society around 1750?

1 In the 18th century, Japan was a feudal society ruled by shoguns, who were military leaders and the heads of powerful Japanese clans. How do you think they became more powerful than Japanese emperors, even during times when there were no wars?

7B

How did Japanese society change as a result of contact with Western powers?

1 For 200 years, Japan shut itself off from all contact with other countries. This changed in 1854 when Japan agreed to open its ports to American trade. Can you think of possible reasons why Japan decided to change its policy of isolation?

chapter 7

Source 1 *The Great Wave off Kanagawa*, a woodblock print by the artist Katsushika Hokusai (1760–1849)

7C

How was Japanese society influenced by world events and how did Japan interact with the world at the start of the 20th century?

1 By the start of the 20th century, Japan had transformed into a powerful, modern nation. Compared to China and Russia, however, Japan was a much smaller country, yet managed to defeat both these countries in significant wars at that time. How do you think Japan achieved this?

7.1 Japan (1750–1918): a timeline

Mutsuhito, the Meiji Emperor, 1852–1912

1825
The shogun orders Japanese captains to sink foreign ships approaching Japan 'without hesitation'.

1790
The number of foreign ships seeking to land in Japan starts to increase. Many of these are Russian and American ships seeking shelter from storms.

1868
The Meiji Restoration returns the emperor to power, ending the Tokugawa period. Edo is renamed Tokyo.

1600 1700 1800 1850

1853
US Commodore Matthew Perry arrives in the port of Edo and demands that Japan open to trade.

1600
Tokugawa Ieyasu establishes the Tokugawa shogunate, which rules Japan until 1868.

Samurai armour from the Tokugawa period

Commodore Matthew Perry meeting imperial commissioners at Yokohama, Japan, 1854

Source 1 A timeline of key events in Japan during the period 1750–1918

A book illustration depicting a Japanese soldier in combat against the Chinese during the Sino-Japanese War

An illustration from a French journal showing a Russian ship being hit by a Japanese torpedo during the Russo-Japanese War

1871
Japan starts to modernise. The Iwakura Mission travels around the world in search of modern ideas and technologies.

1877
The Satsuma Rebellion. Anti-modern samurai rise up to defend their traditional way of life.

1894–95
The Sino-Japanese War. Japan defeats China.

1900

1904–05
The Russo-Japanese War. Japan surprises the world by defeating Russia.

1914
Japan fights alongside Britain, Australia and the other Allied powers in World War I.

1915
Japan presents its '21 Demands' to China.

1918

1919
Paris Peace Conference. Japan demands and receives China's Shandong province from Germany as a spoil of war. However, a Japanese proposal to outlaw racism is vetoed.

A Japanese flag flies over the wreck of a gun left by the Germans when they withdrew from Tsingtao (Qingdao), China, 1914.

Check your learning 7.1

Remember and understand

1 Who ruled Japan from 1600 to 1868?
2 Who successfully demanded that Japan open up its ports to international trade?
3 What was the Iwakura Mission?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think Japan surprised the rest of the world when it defeated Russia in 1905?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct some Internet research to create a timeline of Japan's involvement in World War I (1914–18), including up to 10 events.

7.2 The size and power of Japan in 1750

In 1750, Japan had slightly different borders from those it has today. Almost all of the population lived on the three main islands of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu. The northern island of Hokkaido was also technically under Japanese rule, but in fact most Japanese lived on the southern tip of the island. They traded and occasionally fought with Hokkaido's Indigenous Ainu people. Japan also received some tribute (money paid by one country to another in return for peace and trade), from the Ryukyu Islands to the south, which were officially under Chinese control.

To the west lay the vast Chinese empire, ruled by the Qing Dynasty in Beijing. Between China and Japan sat Korea, while Russia held territories to the north and north-west.

The Tokugawa shogunate

Since 1600, Japan had been ruled by the Tokugawa family. Japan had an emperor, who lived in Kyoto, but the real power lay with his military leader, the shogun, who was based in Edo. The Tokugawa shogun made laws, took command of military matters and dealt with foreigners.

JAPAN AND SURROUNDING COUNTRIES IN 1750

Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press

Source 2 A portrait of Tokugawa Ieyasu (1543–1616), the founder and first shogun of the Tokugawa shogunate

During this period, Japan was mostly at peace. Unlike Europe at this time, Tokugawa Japan fought no major wars. There was also stability within Japan. The other Japanese lords were not nearly as powerful as the shogun and dared not challenge his rule. Droughts and famines sometimes brought protests from farmers, but the military stopped these easily.

Japan was cut off from the rest of the world. From 1635, the shogun forbade Japanese people from leaving the country and ordered any Japanese returning home after living overseas to be executed. Foreigners were not welcome. The only exception was about 2000 Chinese traders living in the southern city of Nagasaki. They were not allowed to travel anywhere else in the country. Dutch traders were not even allowed to set foot in the city. Instead, they could only land on a bleak, artificial island called Dejima in Nagasaki harbour. Other foreigners, such as the Spanish and Portuguese, were banned completely. As a result, the Japanese lived in a kind of time warp. Most Japanese people, including the rulers, remained unaware of advances in science and technology taking place elsewhere in the world.

Source 3 Himeji castle, rebuilt in 1600 by the feudal lord Ikeda Terumasa under the Tokugawa shogunate

Check your learning 7.2

Remember and understand

1. Who were the Tokugawa?
2. How were the borders of Tokugawa Japan different from those of Japan today?
3. In which cities did the emperor and shogun reside?

Apply and analyse

4. Why do you think the shogun forbade any contact with foreigners?

Evaluate and create

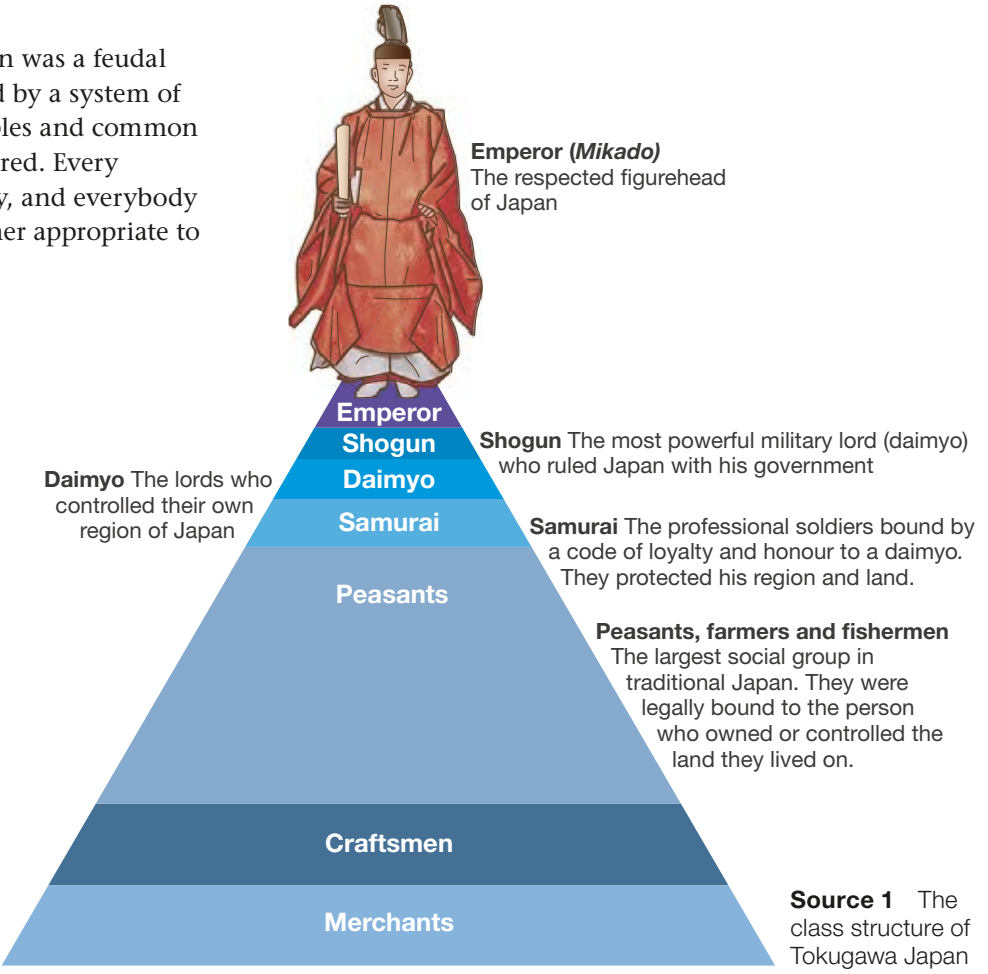
5. Conduct some Internet research to find out more about Dejima, the island in Nagasaki harbour where Dutch traders had to stay when visiting Japan. Present your findings in a paragraph, describing when it was constructed and how it was organised.

7.3 Social organisation

During the Tokugawa period, Japan was a feudal society; that is, a society organised by a system of obligations between the ruler, nobles and common people. Society was rigidly structured. Every person had a role to play in society, and everybody was expected to behave in a manner appropriate to their class.

The class system

At the very top of the social hierarchy sat the emperor. Although he possessed no real power in Japan, he commanded great respect. Below the emperor came the nobles: the shogun and the other daimyo and their families. The rest of Japanese society was officially divided into four classes: samurai, peasants, craftsmen and merchants. It was very rare for a person to move between classes.



Source 1 The class structure of Tokugawa Japan

The emperor

According to legend, the emperor was a direct descendant of the sun goddess Amaterasu. The Japanese name for the emperor was Tenno, or 'Heavenly Sovereign'. By 1750, the emperor was little more than a figurehead with no real power. Instead, the emperor's role was ceremonial. He was the head of state and officially granted the Tokugawa family their titles and the right to govern. In reality, he lived isolated in his palace in Kyoto surrounded by his servants. Though he had enormous prestige, he and his imperial court had little to do with the business of government and the shogun in the capital of Edo.

The shogun

The real ruler of Japan was the emperor's leading general, or shogun. The shogun lived at Edo Castle where he and his advisers governed Japan. The shogun was responsible for the welfare of the country as a whole and, in particular, for relations with foreign powers. The shogun was expected to protect Japan from foreign interference.

The Tokugawa shoguns were extraordinarily wealthy. The Tokugawa extended family directly controlled about one-third of Japan's agricultural land. They held the important domains closest to the centre of the country and along the major trading routes between the biggest cities. This helped each shogun maintain his position above other, rival noble families.

Daimyo

Japan was divided into roughly 250 large areas called *han* (domains). A hereditary (passing automatically from parent to child) lord or daimyo ruled each domain. Large domains had their own castles. The daimyo often made their own laws and set their own taxes. In addition to this, they commanded impressive armies.

The shogun regarded some of the daimyo with large domains and armies as a potential threat and sought

ways to limit their power. One method the shogun used to control the daimyo was a system called *sankin kotai* (meaning 'alternate attendance'). Under *sankin kotai*, the daimyo who served the shogun most closely as retainers would spend 6 months of every year in Edo. All other daimyo were required to visit the capital city of Edo every other year and to live there for a year, before returning home to their domains.

The shogun also demanded that all daimyo spend large amounts of money building public works such as roads and seawalls. Alliances between daimyo were outlawed. The shogun also had the right to approve or disallow marriages between noble families, preventing the formation of potential alliances against the Tokugawa family. Finally, the shogun used spies to keep track of what the daimyo were doing.

Samurai

Around this time, samurai (warriors) made up about 6 per cent of the total population. Each samurai wore a pair of swords – one short, one long – as a mark of their status. They protected and served their daimyo.

Samurai lived according to a strict set of values. These included loyalty to one's lord, self-sacrifice, courage and honour. They were supposed to be highly disciplined and skilful in the use of their weapons. A samurai was also meant to be frugal – despising money and commerce. A common saying of the time stated that a good samurai 'does not even know the price of rice'.

Samurai expected to be treated with respect by those below them. Members of lower classes had to bow when a samurai passed by; if they were riding a horse, they had to dismount. Anyone who failed to do so risked death – samurai had the right to cut off their head on the spot.

By 1750, the samurai had not been required to take part in any real fighting for around 150 years. There were no wars, so they mostly functioned as officials, accountants and policemen, wearing their swords for show rather than anything else. Many were more like sportsmen than warriors.

Some samurai held important government positions with good salaries. But many lower-ranking samurai were very poor. In theory, all samurai received a wage from their daimyo. In many domains, though, the allowance was not enough to live on. Samurai had to make money elsewhere. Many borrowed from merchants. Others took jobs secretly, teaching swordsmanship or making small goods for sale. In the worst situations, a samurai might sell his swords or try his luck at gambling.

Source 2 Soldiers force commoners to kneel down as the shogun approaches; to remain standing, or even to look at the shogun, could mean immediate execution.

Source 3 Three samurai warriors dressed in their armour, photo *c.* 1900

Peasants

Peasants were the largest group in Japanese society at this time, making up around 80 per cent of the population. Most peasants were farmers, but the class also included woodcutters, fishermen and workers in mines. Though not as highly regarded as samurai, peasants were still accorded official respect because they produced the food that all other classes depended on.

Life for most peasants was very hard. Taxes were high and most farmers had to deal with poor living conditions, hunger and disease. Laws prohibited peasants from enjoying many of the luxuries of other classes such as decorative clothing and rich foods. In some villages, peasants were even banned from brewing sake (rice wine). Peasants were bound in service to their daimyo and needed special permission to travel.

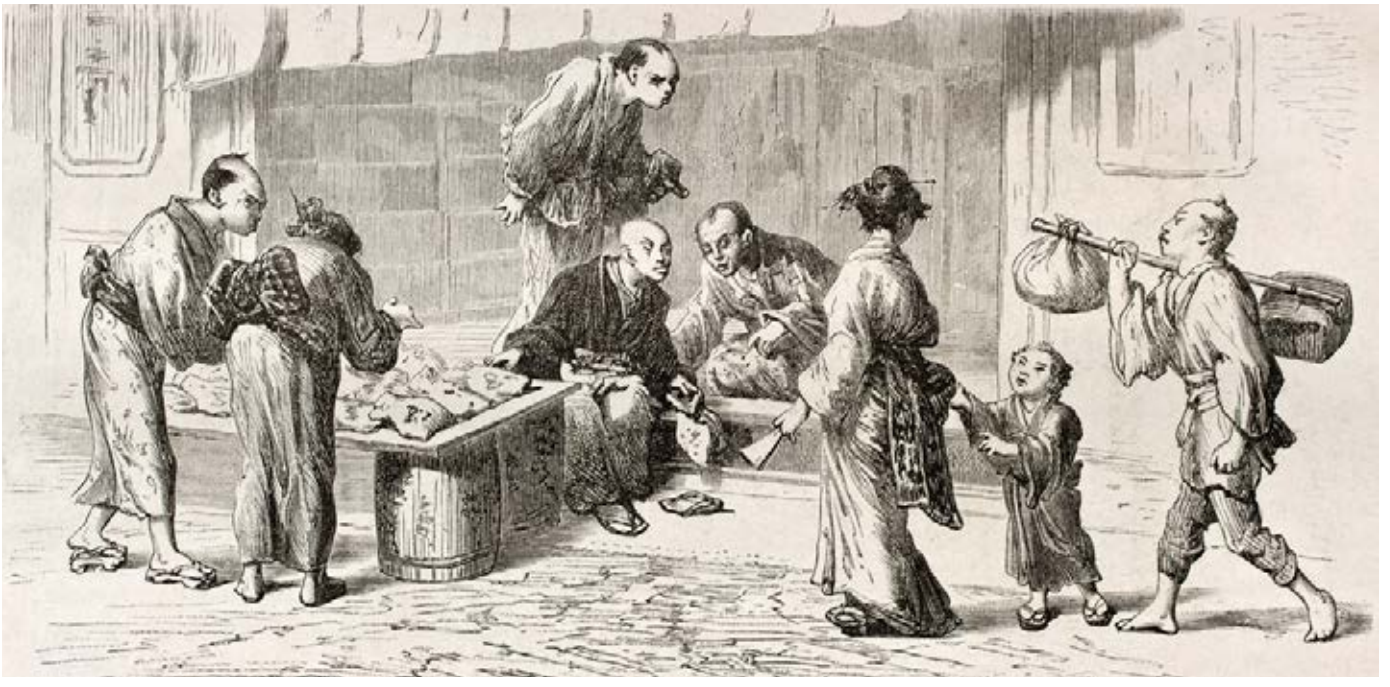
The shogun forbade peasants from carrying weapons such as long swords, short swords, bows, spears and muskets. Nonetheless, the peasants often rebelled during times of famine, using farming tools as weapons. They protested against the burden of taxes and sometimes tried to seize grain stores. The daimyo easily and harshly suppressed these uprisings using their samurai forces, usually executing the leaders.

Source 5 Japanese peasants in black coats from the Edo period

Craftsmen and merchants

The next class under the peasants were the craftsmen. Craftsmen were those who made goods and tools, including blacksmiths, printers, boatbuilders and carpenters. Craftsmen received less official respect than peasants because, in theory, people could live without the goods they made.

At the bottom of the class structure were the merchants. The merchants made nothing useful and did not govern, or keep order, like the samurai. Instead, they lived by trading and transporting goods, lending money and opening shops. Although Tokugawa society needed their services, other classes commonly regarded merchants as parasites who lived off the real labour of others.



Source 4 An engraving depicting Japanese grain merchants from the Edo period

Outcasts

Tokugawa Japan included many groups of people who fell below the five official classes. Butchers, undertakers, executioners and leatherworkers lived in separate quarters of villages and towns. Prohibitions forbade them from socialising with other classes, dressing like them, or entering their homes. Other Japanese thought of them as unclean. Other outcasts included criminals, prostitutes, actors and travelling musicians.

Outcasts were not always poor. Successful entertainers in the cities could maintain a good standard of living and even have some kind of social recognition. Undertakers and leatherworkers often managed to do fairly well financially since there was constant demand for their services.

Life for women in Tokugawa Japan

Women in Tokugawa Japan occupied a subordinate position to men. They were normally dependent on men both financially and socially. Japanese philosopher Kaibara Ekken argued that women should accept men's guidance and obey them in all circumstances. He suggested that women submit themselves to the 'three obediences' during the span of their lives. First, a woman lived with her father and obeyed his commands. Once she married, she lived with her husband and deferred to him. Then, if her husband died, she obeyed the commands of her son. Whereas men could take several concubines and other lovers in addition to their wives, women were expected to be faithful to their husbands.

Life was particularly hard for peasant women. They often worked in the fields alongside their fathers and husbands, as well as carrying out domestic chores such as cooking and cleaning. When times were very harsh, poorer peasant families might sell their daughters rather than starve. Girls were often sent to brothels, where they remained until they paid off any debts owed by the family.

Source 6 An illustration of three women from the Edo period

Check your learning 7.3

Remember and understand

1. How much power did the emperor have? Explain your answer.
2. Identify three methods the shogun used to control the daimyo.
3. Explain why some people were considered outcasts even though they were not necessarily poor.
4. Who were women expected to obey during their lifetimes according to philosopher Kaibara Ekken?

Apply and analyse

5. Summarise what life was like for the following three classes of people in Tokugawa Japan: peasants, craftsmen and merchants.

Evaluate and create

6. Imagine you are a samurai in Tokugawa Japan. Write a short account of a typical day in your life, highlighting both the advantages and disadvantages of your status at that time.

7.4 Japanese culture: beliefs and arts

Different belief systems played an important role in shaping Japan during the Tokugawa period. Two and a half centuries of peace under the Tokugawa shogunate helped the Japanese arts to flourish.

Beliefs

Three main influences on Japanese society during this period were the Shinto and Buddhist religions and Confucian philosophy.

Shinto is Japan's native religion. Shinto taught that many features of the natural world, such as people, animals, trees, mountains and rivers, are *kami* (spirits). To maintain one's wellbeing, it was important to conduct rituals at Shinto shrines. There were many different rituals. Some helped a person to acknowledge important *kami*. Others helped a person to cleanse themselves of impure deeds.

Buddhism arrived in Japan in the 7th century. Over time, many Japanese people came to follow both Shinto and Buddhist beliefs. Buddhism was based on the teachings of Gautama Buddha, who was born in India in the 6th century BCE. Buddha taught that life was suffering and that all people were trapped in a cycle of birth and rebirth, or reincarnation. To escape this cycle, one had to achieve enlightenment or freedom from desire. Buddhism remained popular under the Tokugawa. One particular type of Buddhism, called Zen, particularly appealed to samurai because it emphasised self-awareness and control. The Tokugawa expected every person in Japan to register with a Buddhist temple.

The other major influence on Japanese society at this time was Confucianism. Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived from 551 to 479 BCE in eastern China. He argued that people should lead virtuous lives. They should respect their elders and leaders and do their best to fulfil their given roles in society. The official class structure of Tokugawa Japan derived originally from Confucian teachings. The shogun embraced Confucian philosophy because it emphasised social stability and loyalty to the ruler – in this case, the shogun.

Source 1 A monk meditating by a Zen rock garden. The garden is designed to stimulate meditation and the white gravel represents water or space.

Arts

The arts during the Tokugawa period included 'high' art forms such as *noh* theatre and the tea ceremony, as well as the 'low' art forms such as kabuki theatre and puppet shows. Whether high or low, nearly all arts drew on stories from the distant past.

The high arts

Respectable entertainment for noble families and samurai included the 'high' arts. Among these were *noh* theatre (see Source 2) and the tea ceremony. By 1750, both *noh* and the tea ceremony were old practices, stretching back hundreds of years.

Noh was a highly ritualised form of theatre in which actors wore symbolic costumes and carved wooden masks to communicate to the audience which characters they were meant to portray. The actors chanted or sang their lines rather than speaking naturally.

The tea ceremony was another highly formal practice. During the ceremony, a host prepared tea for one or several guests. Tradition dictated every action of the tea ceremony, from the precise actions used by the host in pouring the tea to which side of the cup each guest would drink from. Conversation also followed a formal order.

The low arts

The 'low' arts included the more popular forms of literature and theatre. Each city had its own entertainment district called the *ukiyo* (meaning 'floating world'), full of theatres, public baths and drinking places. Within the *ukiyo*, people could mix and 'float' above the cares of everyday life.

Two of the most popular entertainments of the floating world were the kabuki (see Source 3) and *bunraku* theatres. Kabuki presented more action-filled stories than the *noh* theatre. It had complicated plots and needed more actors than *noh*. *Bunraku* was a kind of theatre that used puppets instead of actors. Puppeteers manipulated the puppets in full view of the audience, while special 'chanters' performed the voices of the puppets from the side of the stage.

Source 2 A *noh* performance in Kyoto

Source 3 An 1865 woodblock print of a kabuki drama

Woodblock printing

Artists captured life in the entertainment districts in colourful woodblock prints known as *ukiyo-e*, meaning 'pictures of the floating world'. Woodblock printing was cheap and popular. To make a woodblock print, the artist carved the outlines of the design onto a master block and applied ink to create the overall shape of the picture. Next, the artist added colour by carving other blocks to exactly match areas of the first. It took great skill to overlay the different colours so that they fitted together perfectly. The designs could be extremely sophisticated. Common subjects for the *ukiyo-e* included famous kabuki actors, landscapes and scenes from society.

Check your learning 7.4

Remember and understand

1. Identify the three main belief systems in Japan during the Tokugawa period.
2. Explain why the shogun embraced Confucianism.
3. What qualities did Zen Buddhism emphasise?

Apply and analyse

4. Why do you think Japanese society during the Tokugawa period differentiated between 'high' and 'low' arts?
5. Examine the woodblock of a kabuki performance in Source 3.
   - List four things you notice about this picture.
   - How many different blocks would have been needed to make this print?
   - What are the main differences between this kabuki theatre and a modern theatre in Australia?

Evaluate and create

6. There was also a strong literary tradition during the Tokugawa period. Poetry was one of the popular genres. Conduct some research into haiku, which are short three-line poems. Compose your own haiku in English.

7A rich task

Edo

By 1750, Edo (modern-day Tokyo) was the world's largest city, with more than one million inhabitants. Only 150 years earlier, Edo had been a much smaller fishing town, surrounded by swamps, but the city grew quickly after the first Tokugawa shogun chose Edo as his capital in 1603. The shogun lived and governed from Edo Castle at the city's heart.

Edo contained many mansions for the daimyo and their servants. The most important daimyo had their mansions within the outer moats of Edo Castle itself, whereas lesser daimyo built their homes further away. The castle was huge, with a complicated system of courtyards, bridges and guarded gates. Outer stone walls were up to 12 metres high and stretched for approximately 16 kilometres.

Source 1 Edo in 1844–48. East is at the bottom of the map. Note the Tokugawa seal in the centre of the map.

Beyond the castle and the residences of the lesser daimyo lived the townsfolk. These included merchants, fishermen and workers. As the city grew, they built their houses over former swampland, which they filled in with rubble left over from the building of Edo Castle. Eventually, they started to reclaim land from the sea as well. Because of this, Edo was full of canals, waterways and bridges.

The most famous bridge was the Edobashi (Edo Bridge), which crossed the Nihonbashi River. Its western end was the starting point for two main highways between Edo and the imperial city of Kyoto. Markets thrived under and around the bridge, selling many different kinds of goods. The area near Edo Bridge was also a financial district, home to moneylenders and important businesses. With so much activity, Edo was constantly changing.

Source 2
A woodcut of the Edo Bridge, with a clear view of Mount Fuji, Japan's highest mountain, in the background, by Utagawa Hiroshige

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identifying and locating relevant sources using ICT

Being able to locate relevant primary and secondary sources using the Internet is an important historical skill. However, you need to keep in mind that not all information you find on the Internet is necessarily true, accurate, reliable or useful. So, in addition to being able to find source material online, you need to be able to evaluate the reliability, credibility and usefulness of the information you find.

Use the following steps to apply this skill:

Step 1 Identify key words related to your topic and type these into a search engine such as Google. (Use only these key words; do not type in whole sentences or questions.)

Step 2 Add further relevant key words to refine your search if you cannot find what you want on your first attempts.

Step 3 Look beyond the first page of results. The best results do not always appear first.

Step 4 Assess the reliability of each site by asking yourself:

- Who is the author or creator? If it is an individual, do they have their credentials listed (e.g. a degree or a title)? If it is an organisation, is it a reputable organisation like a government or university department?
- What is the purpose of the website? Is it trying to inform, persuade or sell?
- Is the site objective? Is the author's point of view **biased**?
- Is the information accurate? Can the information be verified if you cross-check it with other sources of information?
- Does the site contain spelling mistakes or grammatical errors? (If so, this is usually an indication that the site is not particularly reliable.)

Apply the skill

1 Conduct an Internet search to locate and identify relevant and reliable material about everyday life in Edo during the Tokugawa period, using the steps outlined above.

2 From the reliable information sources you have found, prepare a table for completion of the positives and negatives of living in Edo during the Tokugawa period. See the table below as an example of the sort of table you will need to set up. Remember to record the URLs of the sites you have found in the fourth column of the table.

Positives	Negatives	Neither positive nor negative	Information source

Extend your understanding

1 Why did Edo grow so quickly during the Tokugawa period?

2 What did the inhabitants of Edo do to give themselves more space for building?

3 Examine the map of Edo (Source 1).

a Copy or trace the main outlines of the map into your notebook.

b Look carefully at the layout of the city. Using different colours, shade in the locations of the following features according to your best guesses based on the information above:

i the residence of the shogun

ii the mansions of the daimyo

iii areas of artificial land, reclaimed from swamps or the sea.

c Give reasons for your choosing the locations you have.

d Use the library and/or the Internet to do some more research on the layout of Tokugawa Edo. Explain whether your guesses for Question 3b were accurate.

7.5 Contact with the West

The Tokugawa shogunate's policy of isolation from the rest of the world lasted from 1641 to 1853. By the mid-19th century, Western powers such as Britain, Russia and the United States were pushing for Japan to open up to international trade and commerce. These countries wanted to sell their goods in Japan and moor their ships in Japanese ports. They put pressure on the Tokugawa shogunate to change their isolationist position.

Early encounters with the West

Europeans had been visiting Japan since 1543, when the first Portuguese sailors ran aground on one of its southern islands. For several decades after this, Portuguese, Spanish, English and Dutch traders all came to Japan. But in the 1600s, the shogun banned Spanish and Portuguese ships from entering Japanese waters, suspecting them of plotting to undermine his rule. The English ships went elsewhere. Only the Dutch traders were allowed to stay. They had to live on a small, artificial island called Dejima in Nagasaki harbour. The Dutch could not set foot on the mainland, and could only receive visiting ships a few times a year. All other Westerners were strongly discouraged from entering the country. This was the start of the government's official policy of isolation, which was to last for the next 200 years.

Throughout the Tokugawa period, a limited number of Japanese scholars learnt Dutch so that they could study foreign books. Foreign knowledge was called *rangaku* (meaning 'Dutch studies'). Through *rangaku*, these scholars read about some of the scientific advances made in the West in disciplines such as medicine and astronomy. They also learnt about events in the outside world.

The threat of Christianity

One of the main reasons the Tokugawa shoguns wanted to exclude foreigners was the threat that Christianity would spread throughout the country. The early Portuguese and Spanish ships had brought Catholic missionaries with them who had converted hundreds of thousands of Japanese.

The first Tokugawa shogun, Ieyasu (ruled 1603–05), feared that Christian missionaries would unite his enemies against him. He also distrusted Christianity because it asked believers to give their loyalty to the Pope – a foreigner – before their loyalty to the shogun. Then, in 1637, a massive uprising known as the Shimabara

Source 1 *Nagasaki harbour*, by Kawahara Keiga, *c.* 1800–50. Dutch and Chinese ships lie at anchor near the small, fan-shaped island of Dejima, north of the city. Dejima was a Dutch trading post from 1641 until 1853.

Source 2 Japanese in Nagasaki prove their loyalty to the shogun and their contempt for Christianity by treading on a crucifix, 1760.

Source 3 A 19th-century Japanese woodblock print showing foreign steamships in Nagasaki harbour

Rebellion took place in southern Japan. Tens of thousands of Christians protesting against tax increases and famine were killed by a samurai army. After this event, Christianity was made illegal.

Throughout the 18th and early 19th centuries, Christianity was virtually invisible in Japan. Dutch traders living on the island of Dejima were not allowed to have Bibles or crucifixes. Authorities searched foreign books and censored references to Christianity. Despite this, small numbers of believers carried on worshipping in secret.

Fumi-e

Perhaps the most remarkable illustration of the Tokugawa shogunate's determination to keep Christianity out of Japan was the annual ritual of *fumi-e*. Each year, every person in Japan had to visit their local Buddhist temple to complete the ritual. On arrival, each person had to show their contempt for Christianity by treading on a crucifix or a picture of Jesus or the Virgin Mary. Anyone who refused to walk on the Christian images could be questioned. If they refused to deny their Christian faith, they were tortured or killed.

Growing concerns over foreign contact

From the 1790s onwards, increasing numbers of foreign ships started to visit Japan. Many were American and Russian ships seeking shelter from storms. Others were ships making clear attempts to overcome Japan's strict restrictions against foreigners. In response to attempts by foreign ships to defy these restrictions, in 1825, the shogun commanded Japanese ships to fire on foreign vessels 'without hesitation'. Despite this, international pressure was growing for Japan to lift its restrictions on foreign trade and to allow foreign ships in its harbours.

Check your learning 7.5

Remember and understand

1 Why was Christianity illegal in Tokugawa Japan?
2 What did the Japanese have to do to prove that they were not Christians?
3 What was the Japanese word for 'foreign studies'? What did it actually mean?

Apply and analyse

4 Write a short paragraph explaining why the Tokugawa shogunate banned nearly all trade and interaction with foreigners.

Evaluate and create

5 Imagine you are a Dutch trader on Dejima (see Source 1). Write a letter home to your family describing your hopes and fears, events on the island, and your impressions of the Japanese.

7.6 The arrival of US Commodore Perry

In 1853, 60-year-old US Commodore Matthew C. Perry arrived in Japan with four warships of the United States navy. Perry was there to deliver a letter from the US president, asking for trade to be established between the United States and Japan. It also requested the right for American ships to be able to refuel and take in food and water at Japanese ports, and for better treatment of American sailors.

Having sailed around Edo Bay, Perry demanded to be allowed to land and deliver his letter 'to the emperor' (by which he meant Japan's true ruler – the shogun). Realising that their ships and weapons were no match for Perry's, the government agreed. Perry landed and handed the message to a senior official.

The shogun and his advisers knew that their military would be powerless against the Americans if they refused. In March 1854, the Japanese reluctantly agreed to sign a treaty (known as the Treaty of Kanagawa) granting limited trading rights to the Americans. They opened up the ports of Shimoda (on the Izu peninsula to the south-west of Edo) and Hakodate (on the northernmost island Hokkaido) to American ships and allowed an American consul to live in Shimoda. More deals soon followed.

To celebrate the signing of this treaty in 1854, the Americans and the Japanese exchanged gifts and provided entertainment. The Japanese put on a display of sumo wrestling. The Americans brought with them champagne and whiskey, an electric telegraph system and a working model steam train, complete with tracks, for the Japanese officials to ride on.

Source 1 US Commodore Matthew C. Perry

Source 2 An 1853 Japanese watercolour of Commodore Perry

Source 3 Commodore Perry's gift of a railway to the Japanese in 1853

key**concept:** Significance

The unequal treaties

Two years after the signing of the Treaty of Kanagawa, the US Government started to demand a new agreement. The new American ambassador to Japan, Townsend Harris, urged the Japanese to grant more rights to American traders. Ambassador Harris argued that Britain had used its military power to seize control of large parts of China in the Opium Wars of 1839–42, and was again at war with China in 1856. He also implied that by signing an agreement with the United States first, the Japanese would be able to prevent the same thing from happening to them.

Harris was successful and, in 1858, Japan and the United States signed the Treaty of Shimoda. This was the first of the so-called 'unequal treaties' between Japan and various Western powers. Over the next 10 years, Japan signed such treaties with the United States, Britain, Russia, France, Prussia and the Netherlands. The unequal treaties gained the name because almost all historians agree that they were unfair. They benefited the Western powers at the expense of weaker Japan.

Treaty ports

The unequal treaties granted Western powers (such as the United States, Britain and Russia) the right to live and trade in specific Japanese ports. These ports came to be known as 'treaty ports'. Foreigners could also practise their religion in the treaty ports. Though these ports were still Japanese, foreigners controlled many aspects of life within them.

Extraterritoriality

Extraterritoriality was an agreement that Westerners who broke Japanese laws were not tried and sentenced by Japanese courts or officials. Instead, they were arrested and then handed over to Western diplomats, who would judge them themselves. To many Japanese, this part of the treaties was doubly humiliating. First, it implied that Japanese laws did not matter; second, it showed that the foreigners did not trust Japanese legal officials to be fair.

Low tariffs

Tariffs are taxes that governments around the world place on imported goods. The idea behind tariffs is to make foreign goods more expensive, so that people within a country buy locally made items instead. The unequal treaties limited Japanese tariffs on foreign goods to about 5 per cent of an item's cost. But Western countries generally imposed tariffs of around 15 or 20 per cent. This uneven arrangement gave Western countries an unfair advantage in trade.

'Most-favoured nation' status

Each country who signed an unequal treaty with Japan demanded 'most-favoured nation' status. The countries that became 'most-favoured nations' received all the benefits of any new agreements that Japan signed with anyone else. Over time, this meant that Japan inevitably gave away more and more privileges, since each time one country wanted something new, the other countries claimed it as well.

Check your learning 7.6

Remember and understand

1 Give two reasons why the United States wanted Japan to open its harbours to foreign ships.

2 Describe the main features of the unequal treaties.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine the Japanese watercolour of US Commodore Matthew C. Perry (Source 2).
   - **a** What attitude towards Commodore Perry does the artist convey? Explain which features of the picture give you that impression.
   - **b** What does this picture reveal about Japanese attitudes to foreigners at this time?

4 Some historians have suggested that the gifts given by Commodore Perry to the Japanese at the signing of the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854 were meant to make a point to the Japanese officials. What point do you think he might have been making with these gifts?

Evaluate and create

5 In your opinion, which was the worst feature of the unequal treaties for Japan? Why?

7.7 The Meiji Restoration

By the 1860s, Tokugawa Japan was in crisis. The shogun appeared helpless to stop the increasing power of foreigners within Japan. Critics blamed the shogun for signing the unequal treaties and demanded that he expel the Westerners from the country. In 1863, the emperor decreed that 'the subjugation of the hated foreigner is the greatest of national tasks facing us'. Several domains, including the powerful south-western territories of Satsuma and Choshu, called for the shogun to resign.

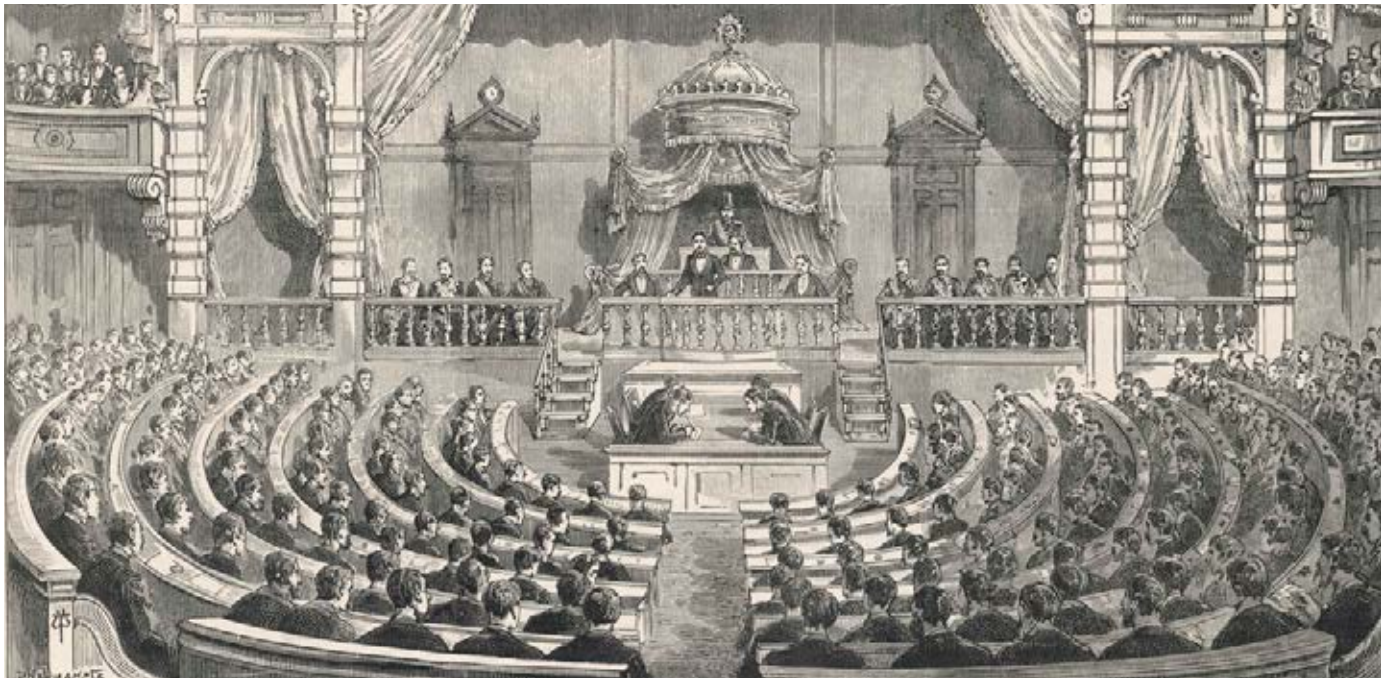
Satsuma and Choshu were traditional enemies of the Tokugawa family. Both domains called for a return to 'true' Japanese values. They started to agitate for the removal of the shogun and restoration of the emperor's power. Choshu embarrassed the shogun by firing on foreign ships from its forts, in breach of the treaties. Meanwhile, the Choshu and Satsuma daimyo were arming their soldiers with modern weapons secretly bought from the foreigners.

In 1867, Emperor Komei died. His son, Mutsuhito, was proclaimed as the Meiji emperor the same year at 17 years of age. Meiji means 'enlightened rule'. In January 1868, the Satsuma and Choshu daimyo together rebelled against the shogun. Although the shogun's soldiers greatly outnumbered them, the Satsuma and Choshu forces had better weapons and equipment and were able to win. They captured Edo and renamed it Tokyo, meaning 'Eastern capital'. The last Tokugawa shogun resigned. This signalled the start of the Meiji period.

New ideas

The emperor did not rule alone. His chief advisers and officials were all men from Satsuma and Choshu. They did not want Japan to end up carved up like India or China – both of which had proved too weak to protect themselves against European aggression. Britain, France, Germany and Russia had forcibly taken over much of India's and China's territory and government. The Meiji emperor and his advisers feared that unless they built up Japan's strength quickly, their own country might follow. The Meiji government realised that they needed to create a modern army and navy, and upgrade local industry with the latest technology.

Source 1 Emperor Mutsuhito returning to his palace in Tokyo after the Meiji Restoration



Source 2 The Japanese Parliament is opened by the emperor in Tokyo, 29 November 1891

key**concept:** Evidence

The Charter Oath

The Meiji reformers saw that to win the respect of the Western powers they needed to change many aspects of Japanese society. After taking power in 1868, the Meiji emperor signed a 'Charter Oath', outlining five principles for the new society. The Charter Oath promised that the new era would allow ordinary people more personal freedom as well as a greater say in government.

Source 3 The five articles of the Charter Oath

ARTICLE 1. Deliberative assemblies shall be widely established and all matters decided by public discussion.

ARTICLE 2. All classes, high and low, shall unite in vigorously carrying out the administration of affairs of state.

ARTICLE 3. The common people, no less than the civil and military officials, shall each be allowed to pursue his own calling so that there may be no discontent.

ARTICLE 4. Evil customs of the past shall be broken off and everything based upon the just laws of nature.

ARTICLE 5. Knowledge shall be sought throughout the world so as to strengthen the foundations of imperial rule.

A new type of government

After the introduction of the Charter Oath, the traditional class system was abandoned and all men theoretically became eligible to rise to government positions, as long as they possessed the necessary talent. Government no longer belonged to the daimyo and samurai classes. One of the greatest changes was the abolition of the domain system. Traditional domains governed by daimyo were reorganised into prefectures with their own new borders. In many cases, former daimyo continued to wield power as governors of the new prefectures, but the positions were no longer hereditary, and some daimyo were removed from power completely.

Eventually, the Meiji government adopted a constitution setting out the rights of Japanese citizens and the responsibilities of government. The constitution was based on the German model. It reserved great powers for the emperor and his advisers, but nevertheless introduced a limited form of democracy.

The Iwakura Mission

In 1871, the Meiji government sent a group of ambassadors and scholars abroad on a 2-year journey. Named the Iwakura Mission after its leader Iwakura Tomomi, the group travelled to the United States, Britain and other European countries, Egypt, Ceylon (modern-day Sri Lanka) and China. The aim of the mission was to observe Western methods of education, industry and government. They also hoped to argue for an end to the unequal treaties.

Though the Iwakura Mission failed to convince the Western powers to revise the unequal treaties, it did successfully bring back vital information about Western habits, values, industries and systems of government. On their return to Japan in 1873, members of the mission recommended many reforms. They advised the Meiji government that Japan should borrow ideas from different European countries based on their strengths. As a result, Japan based its new legal system on the French model, organised its navy according to the British model, and based its school system on the Prussian approach.

Adopting Western ways

Over the next 40 years, Western customs and values spread across Japanese society. Christianity was decriminalised in 1871 and the imperial court adopted Western dress for formal occasions in 1869. Over the next 2 years, Western-style dress was introduced for government officials, and railway and post-office workers were given Western-style uniforms. Japanese men and women were encouraged to wear Western clothing, including morning suits and dresses with bustles (see Source 4). Adopting Western dress was a way of showing that Japan had become progressive and modern.

These Western ways were not always well received by the Japanese population. In 1877, government officials attended a Western-style fancy-dress ball. The event caused widespread outrage – most Japanese felt that their leaders were not showing the dignity required of their positions.

Source 5 Members of the Iwakura Mission in 1872. Iwakura Tomomi is sitting in the middle, in traditional Japanese dress.

Education and industry

The Meiji government invested significant sums of money to transform Japan's education systems. It paid Western experts to come to Japan to teach medical science and establish universities. One year after the Meiji Restoration, the government opened Tokyo University.

The Meiji government also set up a new ministry of education to manage the new education system. The ministry was to ensure that all new schools and universities taught Western science alongside more traditional Japanese subjects.

Source 4 Empress Shoken promoting Western dress, 1887

The government also used Western experts to help set up a number of industries in Japan. The government was careful, however, not to repeat the mistakes made by other Asian countries such as China, which they thought had become too reliant on foreign expertise. Instead, they ensured that foreign advisers stayed for a short period of time (usually only a few years) and that they taught their skills to Japanese before they left.

The government also made the important decision to pay for the establishment of new industries such as railways, mines and shipyards themselves, rather than allow foreigners to build them. Although it would have been far less expensive in the short term to allow foreign investment, the government wanted to ensure that the new industries were in Japanese hands. For this reason, they also eventually sold these companies off cheaply to Japanese businessmen, keeping vital infrastructure under Japanese control.

The new Japanese army

The reform that arguably caused the greatest conflict among the Japanese was the creation of the new Japanese army. During the Tokugawa period, each daimyo had maintained his own army of loyal samurai, but the Meiji government was determined to create a single modern conscript army. This new army was to be organised and trained along Western lines. To achieve this, three of the largest prefectures – Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa – first combined their forces to create a new imperial guard.

Having set this example, the Meiji government expanded the force, equipping it with modern guns and training methods. In 1873, the government introduced nationwide military **conscription** (mandatory military service) for all men on turning 21. They were expected to serve 4 years in the armed forces.

Source 6 Modern Japanese school uniforms are still based on 19th-century Prussian fashions.

Check your learning 7.7

Remember and understand

1 What was 'restored' during the Meiji Restoration?
2 What was the Iwakura Mission and what did it hope to achieve?
3 The samurai were effectively abolished as a class in the 1870s. What happened to them?
4 Why were the emperor and empress promoting Western dress?

Apply and analyse

5 Look at Source 6. Japanese school uniforms are echoes of the uniforms found in 19th-century Prussia. With your class, brainstorm elements in Australian everyday life that have been adopted from other countries or eras.

Evaluate and create

6 Read the five articles of the Charter Oath signed by the Meiji Emperor in 1868. Then copy and complete the table below, describing what you think the Charter Oath implies about the class system, democracy and education.

	Which article?	What does it say?
The class system		
Democracy		
Education		

7B rich task

The Satsuma Rebellion

Not all Japanese were happy with the creation of a modern military armed with firearms that deprived the former samurai of their traditional lifestyle. Military conscription turned every man into a soldier, undermining the status of the samurai as the warrior class. While many samurai joined the new military forces as officers, others clung to their traditions. Samurai from the former Satsuma domain felt especially cheated. After all, they had been behind the restoration of the emperor. They had wanted to rid Japan of foreigners, but had not wanted to see the end of their way of life or the destruction of their livelihoods.

In 1876, the Meiji government prohibited samurai from wearing the pair of long and short swords. This was a final affront. The samurai code emphasised that a samurai's swords were a symbol of his honour and class – giving them up meant accepting a final loss of prestige in the new Japan.

In 1877, the Satsuma samurai rose up in revolt. A samurai named Saigo Takamori led 15 000 men against the new Imperial Japanese Army, which numbered well over 30 000 troops. Both sides used rifles but, unlike the Satsuma samurai, the Imperial Japanese Army could replace lost men with new conscripts.

Even so, the vastly outnumbered samurai forces fought so fiercely that the war lasted for 8 months. Eventually, imperial troops surrounded the Satsuma rebels and defeated them. Only about 40 rebels survived. Saigo was wounded in the final battle, but committed suicide before being captured. Overall, the Satsuma Rebellion claimed 30 000 lives. It was the first major test of the new Japanese army.

Source 1 The defeated samurai rebels of Satsuma surrender to the soldiers of the modern Japanese army, 1877.

Source 2 The modernisation of the army and the resulting Satsuma revolt inspired the movie *The Last Samurai*.

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Creating and presenting an audiovisual presentation

A popular way to present the findings of a **historical inquiry** is to create an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation, follow these steps:

Step 1 Make sure you have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images.

Step 2 Decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi. Or you may like to create a website or a short film. How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher.

Step 3 When delivering your presentation, keep the following in mind:

- Rehearse your presentation, especially if you are working in pairs. Make sure you both know exactly what you have to do.
- Make a back-up copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as loss of data.
- Engage with your audience. Make eye contact, do not read from your notes, and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make sure your text and layout are as visually appealing as possible.
- Make sure all your material is correct and contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly, focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish your presentation on a high note.

Apply the skill

1 Many people today regard Saigo Takamori as a hero. Others disagree. With a partner, use the Internet or the library to find out more about Saigo and the Satsuma Rebellion. Prepare a presentation for the class in which you each present one side of the argument. Make sure that you include at least two historical sources (such as an image or quotation) in your presentation.

Extend your understanding

1 Watch the 2003 US movie *The Last Samurai*. Write a brief review of the movie, including your opinion on the accuracy of the historical context depicted in the movie.

7.8 A major world power

The victory of the Imperial Japanese Army over the Satsuma rebels proved that the new, unified military could function effectively. During the 1880s and 1890s, Japan continued to strengthen its army and navy. It equipped its officers with Western-style uniforms, up-to-date weapons, steamships and iron-hulled vessels.

The Meiji government also pressed ahead with industrialisation, building weapons and textile factories, and large-scale mines for coal and metals. Tokyo and other Japanese cities grew rapidly, connected by modern railways and new roads.

As a result, by the start of the 20th century, the United States and European nations acknowledged Japan as a major world power. The Japanese wanted these countries to recognise them as equals. To achieve this, they thought it was important to do two things. First, they had to convince the Western powers to end the unequal treaties that treated Japan as inferior. Second, the Japanese had to prove their new-found military power by capturing new territories.

Source 1 The 'Rising Sun' military flag of the Imperial Japanese Army

Nationalism and imperialism

Two important ideas helped to shape Japanese thinking around the turn of the 20th century. The first was **nationalism**, the idea that all the people in a country belonged to the same nation and shared a national identity.

In 1750, Japan was made up of a group of separate domains, each with its own laws, taxes and armed forces. Although, in theory, the shogun ruled over all domains, in reality, most people had little sense of connection to other parts of the country. Daimyo even sometimes called their domains 'countries' when talking about them.

By 1900, the situation was very different. Ordinary people shared a single government and they could contribute to government through elected representatives. This helped build national pride.

The new education system also emphasised Japanese unity. Teachers encouraged students to feel loyalty to the nation and to work for its betterment. Japanese people around the country took an interest in Japan's relationships with the rest of the world. They celebrated Japan's military successes and looked forward to the end of the humiliating unequal treaties.

The second idea was in the importance of **imperialism**, expanding Japan's influence, wealth and territory by taking over control of other countries. The Japanese saw that the powerful countries of the West had increased their power by exploiting weaker countries. Britain, France, the United States, Germany and Russia had all used their military might to seize territory from other nations. Alternatively, they forced weaker countries to sign unfair agreements – as they had already done to Japan. The nearest example of Western imperialism was in China, where the European powers had taken over dozens of treaty ports and significant areas of the countryside. The Japanese realised that if they were to be taken seriously by the West, they needed to become imperialists as well. From the 1870s onwards, Japan started to expand into nearby countries. Ultimately, this led to conflict with other Asian nations and eventually with Russia.

Revision of the unequal treaties

From 1871 to 1893, the Meiji government appealed to the Western powers to end the unequal treaties. In 1894, the British were the first nation to do so. Other countries followed in 1897. The Western powers promised completely equal relations by 1911 – a sign that they recognised Japan as a 'civilised', modern nation, perhaps even a 'great power'.

Source 2 An American cartoon showing Japan and European nations ready to dismember China in their imperialist struggle for territory, 1900

This was a notable victory for the Japanese, who had felt humiliated by the unfair agreements. The treaties had been evidence that the Western powers regarded Japan as inferior. Despite this advance, the Americans and the Europeans continued to distrust the 'non-European' Japanese. Although they agreed to end the unequal treaties, they continued to restrict Japanese immigration and trade.

Check your learning 7.8

Remember and understand

1 In your own words, explain the meaning of 'nationalism'.
2 Explain why Japan decided to become imperialist.
3 Why did the Japanese want to abolish the unequal treaties?

Apply and analyse

4 Historians suggest that Japan at the start of the 20th century was influenced by the idea of nationalism.
   a Use this table to compare what you know about nationalism in Meiji Japan to your observations about nationalism in Australia today.

Evidence of nationalism in Meiji Japan	Evidence of nationalism in Australia today

   b Hold a debate with members of your class on the topic: 'Nationalism is strong in modern Australian society.'

Evaluate and create

5 Examine Source 2. Find out more about the struggle over China among Japan and European powers. Write a brief description of the situation with reference to the imperial powers depicted in the cartoon.

7.9 Japan at war

By the end of the 19th century, Japan had an army and a navy to rival many other modern powers and began attempts to create its own empire. Japan went to war with China in 1894 and with Russia in 1904, and defeated them both.

Source 1 Japanese soldiers landing in China during the Sino-Japanese War, 1894–95

The Sino-Japanese war (1894–95)

In 1874, Japan fought China for control of the Ryukyu Islands. Japan won and formally claimed the Ryukyu Islands as part of its territory, turning them into the Okinawa Prefecture.

China and Japan clashed again, this time over Korea. Traditionally, Korea paid tribute only to China even though Korea was geographically very close to Japan as well as China. After the Ryukyu conflict, Japan demanded that China not send troops to Korea without warning.

In 1893, the Korean government asked the Chinese to send troops to help it suppress a local rebellion. Japan wanted to send the same number of soldiers. At first, China refused, but in the end both countries sent occupying forces, and argued about when and where their troops could be stationed. In 1894, this quarrel erupted into what became known as the Sino-Japanese War.

The war and its outcomes

At the start of the war, most foreign observers expected China to win because it was a much larger country and had many more soldiers and ships than Japan. However, Japan's troops were better organised and trained, and its equipment better maintained. Although Japan had the smaller force, it won nearly every battle. The Japanese destroyed much of the Chinese fleet and captured the Korean city of Pyongyang. They then crossed into China, taking control of the strategically important Liaodong Peninsula and parts of the northern province of Manchuria. Japanese forces also sailed south. They captured the Chinese-held Pescadores Islands near Taiwan.

The Treaty of Shimonoseki

In 1895, the Chinese accepted defeat. On 17 April, Chinese diplomats signed the Treaty of Shimonoseki with Japan. In it, China handed over Taiwan and the Pescadores Islands and also 'leased' the Liaodong Peninsula to Japan. This last territory was especially significant because the Liaodong Peninsula guarded the sea route to Beijing, the Chinese capital.

The Triple Intervention

Japan's easy victory alarmed Russia who was also trying to expand its empire in eastern regions of Asia and northern China. Only a few days after the Treaty of Shimonoseki, Russia persuaded its allies Germany and France to order Japan to return Liaodong to China. Realising that its forces were not yet ready to fight these three Western powers all at once, Japan reluctantly accepted.

Russia then bought a 25-year lease on Liaodong and built a valuable railway that connected the peninsula to the Trans-Siberian Railway and Europe. It also established a powerful naval base at Port Arthur on the Liadong Peninsula. Japan was outraged by Russia's actions. Over the next 10 years, the hostility with Russia continued to simmer, turning into war in 1904.

Source 2 A cartoon in the British magazine *Punch* shows the British view of the Sino-Japanese War.

Source 3 The Russian Bear in a tug-of-war with Japanese troops while the world watches; from the lid of a box of Christmas crackers, 1907

The Russo-Japanese war (1904–05)

As Russian presence in Asia grew stronger, Japan became increasingly concerned. Russia had forced them to give up Liaodong after the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–95. To the north, Russian lands were expanding dangerously close to the Japanese island of Hokkaido. Japan needed to protect its interests in the region.

In 1904, Japanese Admiral Togo Heihachiro made a surprise attack on Port Arthur, badly damaging the Russian fleet and trapping the survivors in a long siege. Russia sent its army via the Trans-Siberian Railway and despatched its Baltic Fleet to rescue the Pacific Fleet trapped at Port Arthur.

The Trans-Siberian Railway was not equipped to move massive numbers of troops, horses and weapons, and the response was slow. When the Russian soldiers reached Manchuria, they became bogged down in weeks of combat against Japanese soldiers with newer equipment. Even so, the Russians believed the Japanese would be easily defeated.

Outcome of the war

In 1905, Admiral Togo sank the Baltic Fleet at the Battle of Tsushima. With Port Arthur doomed, the Russians surrendered. The United States arranged the Treaty of Portsmouth, in which Japan took over Russia's lease on Liaodong, Russia's railway in Manchuria and the lower half of Sakhalin Island, north of Hokkaido. However, the treaty was not welcomed in either country. A Russian revolt seriously weakened the authority of the tsar (Russian emperor); while there were protests in Japan from a public who thought their victory merited more territory.

Japan's victory surprised and shocked the West. The plucky underdog had defeated the much larger Russia, leading some to call the Japanese the 'British of Asia'. Others began to see Japan as a dangerous threat to international peace.

Check your learning 7.9

Remember and understand

1 Why was the Liaodong Peninsula so important?
2 What reasons did Japan have for going to war with Russia in 1904?
3 How was the Treaty of Portsmouth received in Russia and Japan?

Apply and analyse

4 Look at Source 2.
   - **a** Who are the two figures in the picture supposed to represent? How do you know?
   - **b** What explanation can you give for the contrasting size of the two figures?
   - **c** What do you think this cartoon suggests about British attitudes at the time to the Sino-Japanese War? Explain your answer fully.

Evaluate and create

5 Design the front page of a newspaper from 5 September 1905, the day Russia formally surrendered to Japan. Decide whether your newspaper will be from Japan, Russia, the United States or another country. Whichever country you choose, make sure that the image, headlines and text convey the attitude of your paper to the news.

7C rich task

Japan in World War I

Japan fought in World War I on the side of the Allies (primarily alongside the armies of Britain, France and Russia), seizing German colonies in the Pacific and escorting convoys through far-eastern waters.

Japanese marines helped the British suppress a mutiny by Indian troops in Singapore in 1915 and, throughout the war, Japanese industry sold arms and other equipment to the Allies. A few Japanese ships performed escort duties in the Mediterranean, sailing on 348 missions and rescuing over 7000 Allied personnel from damaged or sinking ships.

Many among the Allies felt that Japan was not doing its fair share, however. Instead, they believed that Japan was pursuing a private agenda. Japan was happy to seize German possessions but ignored, for example, German raiders such as the *Wolf*, preying on Allied ships in the Pacific.

Source 1 A Japanese siege gun in action against the German port of Tsingtao, China, 1914. The Siege of Tsingtao was fought by Japan and Britain against imperial Germany. Photo taken by an unknown Japanese photographer.

Source 2

Australian George Morrison, a former journalist turned adviser to the Chinese government, summed up contemporary suspicions in his diary:

> Japan, while the Australian fleet was busy, nipped in and seized the Marshall Islands, enormously rich with phosphate. What policing was it which permitted the preying of the German raider *Wolf* on British shipping for 15 months …? Did the Japanese in the common cause do anything to facilitate the movement of Australian foodstuffs to the Allies? The Marshall Islands surrendered to the British, not to the Japanese. It was the action of the Australian fleet in seizing Guam, etc. which enabled the capture of the island … Japan slipping in behind our backs.

George Morrison, quoted in C. Pearl, *Morrison of Peking*, Penguin Books Australia, 1970

Bolstered by its status as an Allied power, Japan also presented China with the '21 Demands', which were designed to increase Japanese control of Manchuria and of the Chinese economy. The demands were divided into five groups: confirmation of Japan's railway and mining claims in Shandong province; granting of special concessions in Manchuria; shared control of the Han-Ye-Ping mining base in central China; access to harbours, bays and islands along China's coast; and Japanese control, through advisers, of Chinese financial, political and police affairs. Britain and the United States opposed these demands. The last group of demands would reduce China to little more than a puppet state, and was vigorously opposed and eventually dropped. Japan gained little in the final settlement of its demands, and lost prestige and trust of its allies, Britain and the United States.

The Paris Peace Conference

At the Paris Peace Conference of 1919, the international community set up a League of Nations devoted to maintaining world peace. Japan proposed a racial equality clause in which all members would be treated equally, 'regardless of race or nationality'. The idea was vetoed by several of the other nations, largely because of the threat it presented to their immigration policies and restrictions back home.

Billy Hughes, the Australian delegate at the conference, threatened to walk out if it were even discussed, noting that '95 out of 100 Australians rejected the very idea of equality'.

Source 3
Kyle Mizokami, an expert on defence and security issues in Asia, especially Japan, comments:

> A deep-seated racism pervaded amongst the Allies and their treatment of Japan. While much Allied mistrust was well-founded in Japan's obvious imperial ambitions, the scope of the country's ambitions was, to some, more evidence of 'yellow peril' challenging the Western order. Unequal trade conditions between Australia and New Zealand and Japan created friction, while Australia's 'Whites Only' policy rankled.
>
> K. Mizokami, 'Japan's baptism of fire: World War I put country on a collision course with West', *Japan Times*, 26 July 2014

With the racial equality clause defeated, the conference placated the Japanese by allowing them to keep hold of the former German colony of Shandong, a vast area on the Chinese coast. The decision caused riots back in China and led Wellington Koo, the Chinese delegate, to refuse to sign the Treaty of Versailles that officially ended World War I.

Source 4
Paul Reinsch, the US Minister to China, resigned in 1919, saying:

> If [Japan], with all the methods it is accustomed to apply, remains unopposed, there will be created in the Far East the greatest engine of military oppression and dominance that the world has yet seen.

skill**drill:** Continuity and change

Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different **perspectives**, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs; by their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when applying this skill:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? Is the message explicit or implicit? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What does the author choose not to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? Do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology. How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 Consider Sources 1, 2, 3 and 4. Who wrote or created them? Identify and analyse the perspectives portrayed in each source, using the steps above.

Extend your understanding

1 Consider Billy Hughes' comments at the Paris Peace Conference that '95 out of 100 Australians rejected the very idea of equality'.
- **a** What is your own reaction to this comment?
- **b** Based on your own observations, do you think that Australian values about race and equality have changed? Explain your answer.

2 Paul Reinsch warned that Japan would become the 'greatest engine of military oppression and dominance that the world has yet seen'.
- **a** Based on what you have read, do you think his fears were justified?
- **b** What evidence did he actually have in 1919?

Unit 2 Australia and Asia

India (1750–1918)

By 1750, the Mughal Empire that had ruled over the Indian subcontinent for two centuries was losing its power. European trading companies saw the weakened empire as a chance to increase their political influence in the region. The Battle of Plassey in 1757 marked the beginning of the British East India Company's rise to power. After winning the battle, the Company became the official ruler of Bengal in 1765. By 1857, the Company controlled most of India.

In 1857–58, groups around India rebelled against British rule in an uprising known as the Indian Rebellion. The rebels were unsuccessful, but the rebellion drew attention to problems within India. As a result, rule was handed over to the British government.

During British rule, new systems of government and technologies transformed Indian society. For Britain, India was the most valuable part of its huge empire. Indians, however, did not have much say over how their country was run. As the 20th century approached, new groups emerged to demand more power for the Indian people and self-rule for India.

8A

What were the key features of Indian society around 1750?

1 In what ways do you think the arrival and establishment of European trading companies in India affected the lives of the Indian population, which was mostly an agricultural society?

8B

How did Indian society change as a result of contact with Western powers?

1 In 1857, an uprising of Indian soldiers serving the British East India Company turned into a widespread anti-British movement across India. What do you think may have motivated rebellion among Indian people against British rule?

chapter 8

Source 1 A painting of sepoys (professional Indian soldiers who served in the British East India Company armies) and British soldiers fighting each other during the Indian rebellion in 1857.

8C

How was Indian society influenced by world events and how did India interact with the world at the start of the 20th century?

1 Rapid advances in mass communication near the start of the 20th century meant that people across India could connect with each other in new ways. How do you think this might have helped the Indian population to push for a stronger national identity and independence from British rule?

8.1 India (1750–1918): a timeline

Lord Clive meeting with Mir Jafar after the Battle of Plassey. Mir Jafar, his general, is appointed the new *nawab* by the British.

1765
The British East India Company becomes the government in the provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.

1773
The British Parliament passes the Regulating Act. The British East India Company must create an organised system of government in its Indian territories. Warren Hastings becomes the first British Governor-General in Bengal.

1600 | 1700 | 1750 | 1800

1600–1750
European trading companies establish trading bases in India. The British and French East India companies are strong competitors for Indian trade.

1757
The Battle of Plassey. Colonel Robert Clive of the British East India Company defeats Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula of Bengal.

1857
The Indian Rebellion. An uprising among sepoys (professional Indian soldiers who served in the British East India Company armies) sparks a widespread rebellion against British rule. The last Mughal emperor is sent into exile.

1858
Queen Victoria of Great Britain announces that the British Government will take over from the British East India Company as ruler of India.

A painting of sepoys and British soldiers fighting each other during the Indian Rebellion

Source 1 A timeline of key events in India during the period 1750–1918

A portrait of Queen Victoria

Dadabhai Naoroji

Gandhi dressed in the simple clothes of an Indian villager

1850

1874
The British East India Company closes down.

1877
Queen Victoria is declared Empress of India.

1885
The Indian National Congress (INC) is formed. Its members lobby for greater representation of Indian people in government.

1892
Dadabhai Naoroji becomes the first Indian Member of Parliament in the British House of Commons.

1900

1905
The partition of Bengal sparks mass protests.

1911
The British announce the move of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi at the 1911 Delhi Durbar.

The Delhi Durbar in 1911

1914
The start of World War I. Over one million Indian troops serve in the war as part of the British army – 74 000 lose their lives.

1915
Mohandas K. Gandhi returns to India after two decades working as a lawyer in South Africa. He begins to travel around India by train to speak at rallies in support of non-violent resistance to British rule.

1918

Check your learning 8.1

Remember and understand

1 In what year did the Battle of Plassey take place, and who were the combatants?
2 Which group caused a widespread rebellion against British rule in India, and in what year did this occur?
3 What was the aim of the Indian National Congress in 1885?

Apply and analyse

4 Using the timeline, calculate the number of years that the British East India Company was active in India.
5 Conduct some research to find out where Indian troops fought during World War I.

8.2 The Mughal Empire

For two centuries, most of the provinces of India had been part of a single vast empire, ruled by a series of powerful emperors called the Mughals. The Mughal Empire emerged in the 16th century. The first Mughal leader was called Babur. He invaded Delhi and nearby territories in 1526. Babur came from a region in the north, known today as Uzbekistan (in Central Asia). He was from a Persian–Islamic culture and was said to be a descendant of the famous Mongol warrior-ruler Genghis Khan.

Babur's descendants conquered more and more territories until, by the 17th century, the Muslim Mughal dynasty controlled most of India. This was a diverse region that included the Sikh lordships in the north-west, the Hindu Rajputs in the north and the Marathas (also Hindu) in the south. They also ruled over parts of modern-day Pakistan, Afghanistan and Bangladesh.

Source 2 The Mughal emperors had expanded their empire by being great warriors and diplomats. This painting shows a Mughal army going into battle, *c.* 1750–70

Building the Mughal Empire

Between the mid 16th century and the late 17th century, the Mughal emperors expanded their empire using powerful armies. Warfare, defence and military diplomacy were central to Mughal rule. The Mughal emperors constantly built alliances with neighbours, suppressed rebellions at home and invaded new territories. Capturing more land gave them new resources, new armies and increased money from taxes.

THE MUGHAL EMPIRE AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT, *C.* 1600

Source 1 (Note: present-day place names have been used.) Source: Oxford University Press

Before fighting an enemy ruler, the Mughal emperor would offer two options. The local ruler could stand his ground and fight to the end – but if defeated, this meant death or banishment and the loss of his lands. Alternatively, he could choose to surrender without a fight and continue running his kingdom as a part of the Mughal Empire under the direction of the Mughal emperor. Many local rulers opted for their lands to become part of the Mughal Empire. They would receive important status in the imperial power structure. In return, they took on the Mughal system of government and swore loyalty to the Mughal emperor. They were also obliged to give the Mughal emperor local men to fight in his armies and to pay taxes to the Mughal Empire.

Another form of alliance the Mughals used was intermarriage – marrying the daughters of other dynasties as a way of creating partnerships with provinces. The third Mughal emperor, Akbar (ruled 1556–1605), was particularly skilled at forming these alliances. He formed many alliances with the Rajputs (Hindu rulers in northern India) by marrying Rajput princesses. Akbar had around 30 wives.

Source 3 The Mughal emperor Akbar

Source 4 The Marathas fought the Mughals and then the British East India Company for their independence.

A fading empire

By 1750, many Mughal provinces were breaking away from the Mughal emperor. Rulers from old royal dynasties began to reclaim their power. Mughal-appointed *nawabs* (governors) were claiming power in their own right and challenging the control of the emperor.

There were a number of reasons for this decline in Mughal power. The last strong Mughal emperor was Aurangzeb, who ruled from 1658 to 1707. Although Aurangzeb was a powerful leader, he was also a zealous Muslim and alienated the Hindu Rajput rulers by imposing Islamic law on the empire. After Aurangzeb's rule, many lesser Mughal emperors followed with short reigns that were characterised by the extravagant lifestyles of the elite, and weak and corrupt leadership.

Unrest in the empire grew. One of the strongest challenges to Mughal rule came from a group of allied warlords called the Marathas. The Marathas were a Hindu caste from the province of Maharashtra in the centre-west of India. The Marathas fought for independence from the Mughal Empire from 1681 to 1707. After defeating the Mughals, the Marathas created their own empire, which lasted until 1818.

As trading companies such as the French East India Company and the British East India Company sought to strengthen their positions on the Indian subcontinent, they competed with each other for influence, making treaties and alliances with local rulers. This further undermined the Mughal Empire because local rulers, in attempts to boost their own power, made private deals with the foreigners.

In the end, the Mughal emperors became symbolic emperors, without the real power to match the title. The last Mughal emperor, Bahadur Shah II, was 'in power' until 1857. Despite the end of Mughal rule, Mughal culture was still important across the Indian subcontinent. Mughal styles of architecture, art and literature continued to flourish.

Check your learning 8.2

Remember and understand

1 Who were the Mughals?
2 Explain one way the Mughal emperor Akbar expanded his territory.
3 Describe two reasons for the decline of the Mughal Empire.

Apply and analyse

4 What two choices did Mughal rulers offer their enemies before battle? Why do you think the Mughals made such an offer?

Evaluate and create

5 Imagine that you are the ruler of a small country. One day, the Mughals attack you. Before the battle, the Mughal Emperor offers you the choice: stand and fight, but lose everything if you are defeated; or accept Mughal rule and become part of his empire.
   a Which option would you choose?
   b Explain why you would choose this option, using what you know about the Mughals from the text.

8.3 Social structure and government in the Mughal Empire

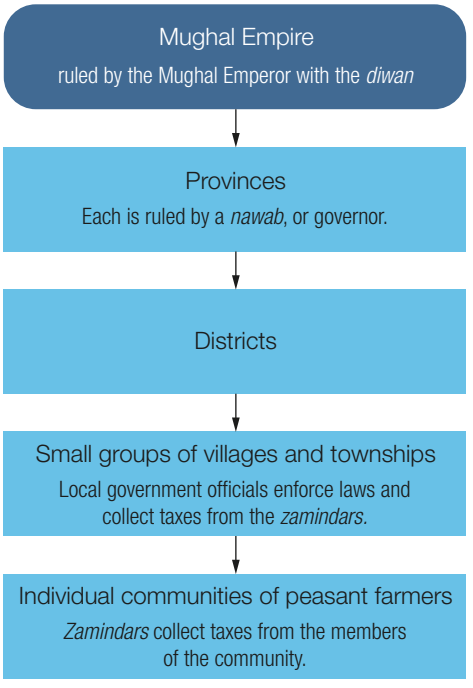
The Mughal Empire at its peak covered most of the Indian subcontinent. To administer such a vast empire required a well-organised government and stable social structure.

The emperor

The emperor was the absolute ruler of the empire and was all powerful. He had two key responsibilities in running the empire – to protect the state and expand the empire. The emperor was also the chief administrator of the empire, the law-maker and chief dispenser of justice, and the commander-in-chief of the army. From the time of Akbar (1556–1605) onwards, the emperor also became God's representative on Earth and interpreter of Islamic law.

The emperor had a *diwan* (government) to carry out the central administration and look after the collection and expenditure of wealth within the empire. There were also individual ministers responsible for areas such as religious matters and the moral development of subjects.

Source 1
The organisation of government under the Mughal Empire



The provinces and *nawabs*

Under the central *diwan* of the Mughal emperor, the empire was divided into provinces, each of which was managed by a *nawab* (governor). The ministers of the *diwan* would communicate the emperor's orders to the *nawab*, who would carry out the order in his province. In this way, each *nawab* was responsible for upholding the supremacy of the emperor and the administration of his province.

The *zamindars* and peasant farmers

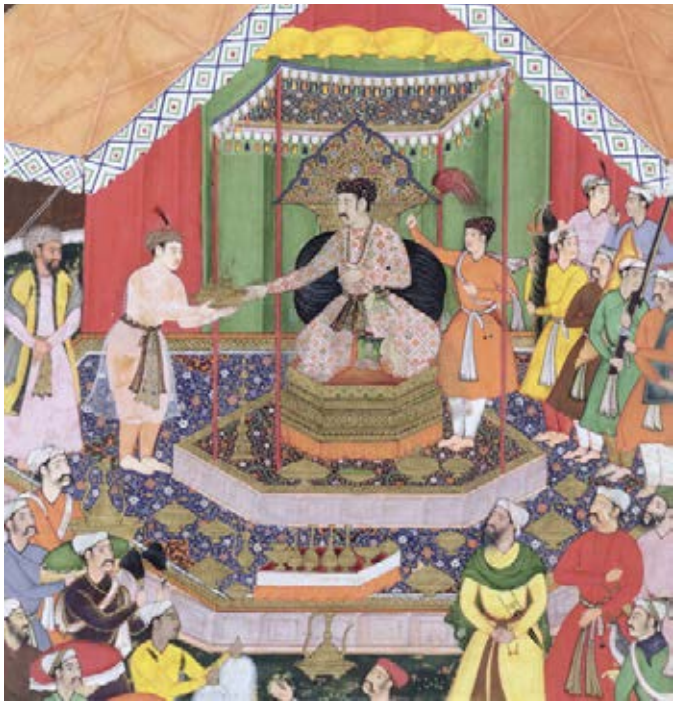
For administrative purposes, each province was divided into districts. In turn, each district contained several small groups of villages or townships. These smaller areas were managed by *zamindars* who acted as tax collectors, administrators and law enforcers for the area.

Zamindars ranged from small landholders in the villages to descendants of old ruling families who retained large portions of their ancestral lands. The role of *zamindar* for an area was inherited, and these administrators managed the communities of peasant farmers on their lands.

Under the Mughal system, peasant farmers also had hereditary rights to the land. The right to live on and farm land could be passed from one generation to the next, and farmers could not be removed from the land unless they failed to pay their taxes. As the tax collector, the *zamindar* delivered these taxes to the Mughal authorities, and was allowed to keep a percentage for himself. *Zamindars* were the contact between government and local communities, and in their role could become extremely wealthy.

Other groups

The Indian subcontinent remained mostly an agricultural economy under the Mughal emperors. However, other groups were also important to the running of the empire.



Source 2 The emperor receiving visitors in the Mughal court. The emperor is seated on an elevated platform, *c.* 1590–98.

Source 3 A village woman working alongside her husband in the fields at harvesting time, *c.* 19th century

The Mughal Empire retained strong armies throughout its existence. Within the responsibilities of each administrative area was the duty to maintain a decent-sized army. Even *zamindars* would have their own troops that they financed.

Trade was important, and across the empire there was a strong trade in textiles such as cotton and silk, along with sugar cane, spices and indigo (a dark blue dye). Merchants and traders formed a middle class within the empire, along with craftsmen and artists.

Women and family life under the Mughals

During the rule of the Mughals, men held all positions of responsibility in government, religion and family life. Women were excluded from many areas of work and public life. In general, women's roles focused on the home and the family. Upper-class women might manage a team of servants to do domestic work, while in families who had no servants, cleaning, cooking and child raising were the responsibility of female family members. Female peasant farmers also worked in the fields alongside their husbands – mainly through necessity.

Large extended families often lived together. It was common for families to make group decisions about their children's careers and marriages. The ideas of loyalty and duty to one's family were important. Family members could have different responsibilities towards each other, depending on their place in the family. For example, younger family members had to respect the authority of older family members.

Generations of the same family often worked in the same profession and had similar social status. Families normally passed down belongings and social power from one generation to the next.

Check your learning 8.3

Remember and understand

1 List the principal areas of responsibility of the emperor.

2 What kinds of goods were commonly traded across the Mughal Empire?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain the importance of the *nawabs* and their role in the Mughal system of government.

4 Describe the role of the *zamindar* in farming communities.

Evaluate and create

5 Examine Source 3 and re-read the text on women and family life. Write a paragraph describing a day in the life of a peasant woman during the rule of the Mughals.

8.4 Mughal culture

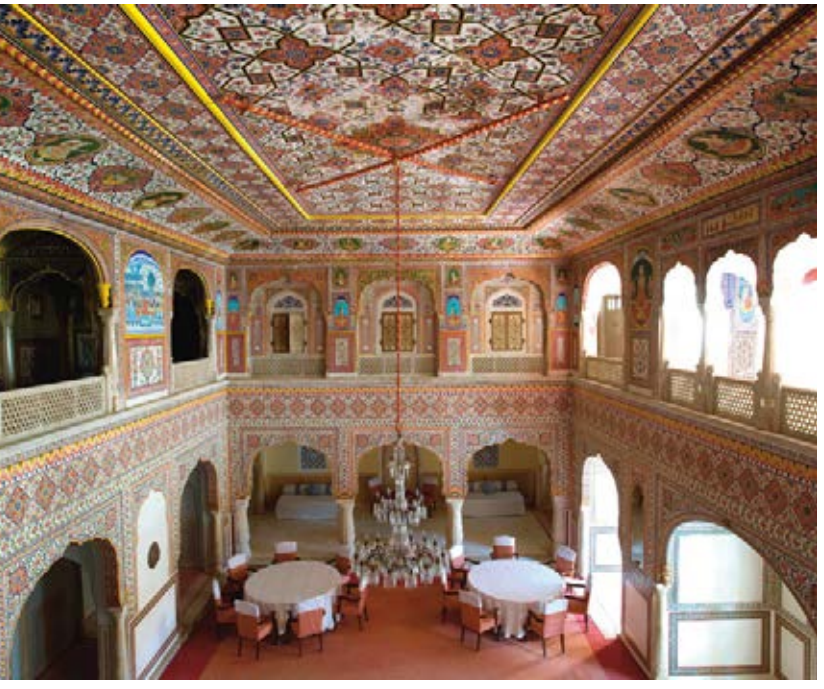
Mughal imperial power and culture centred on the royal court in the emperor's palaces. The Mughal emperors were great patrons (supporters) of learning and the arts.

The court

Members of the imperial court included extended family, servants, military officials, administrative officials, advisers, historians, record keepers, religious advisers, musicians and artists. The hierarchy of the court reinforced the emperor's supreme position. The emperor literally maintained a higher position than those around him. When meeting with lesser rulers, messengers or advisers, the emperor would sit on an elevated platform to demonstrate his superiority. His officials and guests stood or sat around him, arranged according to their importance.

The *durbar*

The *durbar* was the public hall within the palace where the emperor met with visitors. The *durbar* was often used to receive important guests, such as ambassadors from other regions. The splendour of the *durbar* was a demonstration of the emperor's wealth and power. *Durbars* in Mughal palaces were large open rooms with grand pillars and walls of sandstone and marble.



Source 1 An example of a *durbar* hall. This one is part of the Samode Palace located outside Jaipur. Notice the intricate detailing on the walls and ceiling done in a Mughal Rajput style.

Fine fabrics, with intricate prints and embroidery, hung on the walls and covered the ground. People sat on cushions rather than chairs, although sometimes the emperor would have a throne.

In keeping with the Mughals' Islamic beliefs, women were not permitted to mix with men in the *durbar*. Women in the Mughal court lived in separate, restricted quarters.

Even as Mughal power faded, the Mughal emperors continued to use the *durbar* to show off their imperial culture. Other rulers in India who wanted to show their power within imperial society also adopted the use of *durbars*. Later, even the British used the term *durbar* for the processional events they held to demonstrate their power in India.

Mughal arts

The Mughal period was a vibrant time in architecture and the arts. The Mughals were influenced by Persian arts and culture that came from the area known today as Iran. In addition to Persian influences, Mughal artists looked to regions of the Middle East and the Mughal lands of origin (in modern-day Uzbekistan) for inspiration. All across India, there were also many other rich local artistic, architectural and cultural traditions that were incorporated into the Mughal style – some that had been developed over thousands of years.

Architecture

The Mughals used grand architectural designs to demonstrate the power of the empire. Their buildings combined Persian traditions with inspiration from Hindu architecture. The most famous is the Taj Mahal (see Source 2), built between 1631 and 1648 by the emperor Shah Jahan in memory of his beloved third wife in Agra.

Near the Taj Mahal stands one of India's most famous forts – the Red Fort of Agra (see Source 3), founded in 1565 by the emperor Akbar. The Red Fort was a sign of imperial strength in India. A fort is a building designed to defend an area from attacking armies.

The Mughals established forts throughout their territories, usually on hilltops so that they could see their enemies approaching from great distances. Forts housed armies and, in some cases, large communities. They could contain palaces and even whole cities.

Buildings such as the Taj Mahal and the Red Fort of Agra survive as symbols of Mughal power. They are now World Heritage sites.

Source 2 The Taj Mahal

Source 3 The Red Fort

Source 4 A miniature painting of a Mughal couple with female attendants and musicians

Painting and other arts

In addition to advances in architecture and design, the Mughals also promoted the fine arts. They commissioned paintings, poetry and music. Many Mughal artists preferred to paint highly detailed pictures called miniatures. These miniatures showed scenes from life at court (see Source 4), and today give historians an idea of what court life was like.

Mughal emperors also patronised the workshops of artisans, who made textiles, embroidery, metalwork, glassware and jewellery. From these workshops came the beautiful objects and treasures that filled the Mughal courts.

Check your learning 8.4

Remember and understand

1 Explain the purpose of the *durbar*.
2 Name one famous example of Mughal architecture that still exists in India.
3 Why were forts important to the Mughals?

Apply and analyse

4 The Mughals displayed fine clothes, jewels and elaborate architecture to encourage others to see them as powerful. In what ways do politicians or other powerful people today use similar tactics?

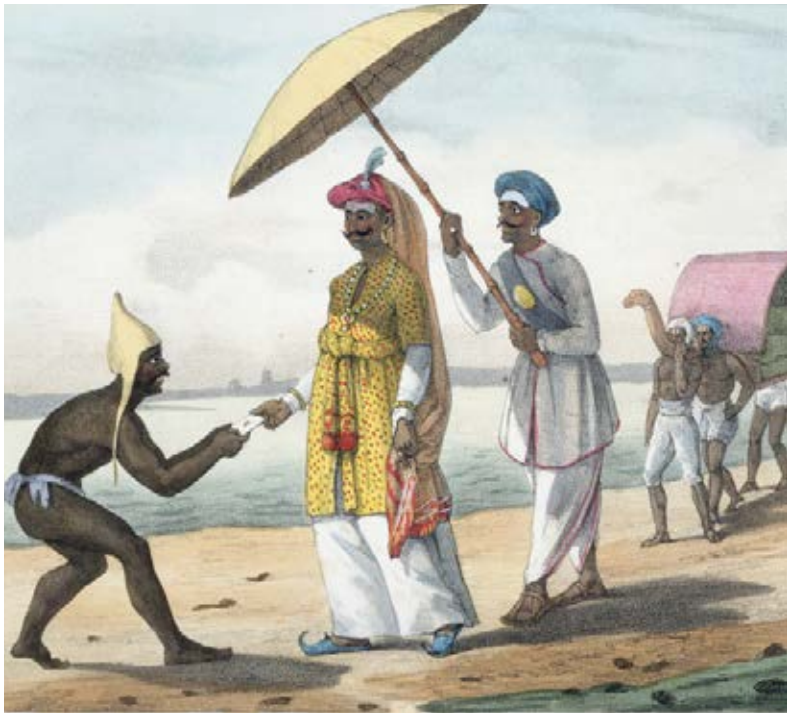
Evaluate and create

5 Examine Source 4. Design and draw your own Mughal miniature. In it, you could draw a scene from Mughal India, or you might choose to show a scene from Australian life today. Whatever you decide to show, try to imitate the Mughal style.

8A rich task

Caste

According to the Hindu caste system, society is divided into groups with defined social positions, or **castes** (hereditary social classes). An individual is born into a caste and remains in that caste for life. This idea of a set caste had a significant impact on Indian society over the centuries. Certain professions and social positions were reserved for specific castes, limiting the prospect of social mobility for large sectors of the population. People were also expected to marry within their caste. The lower castes, in particular the *dalits* (untouchables), were excluded from many areas of life.



Source 1 French lithograph of a ***brahmin*** presenting an outcast with alms (charity), *c.* 1830

There were four main castes: *brahmin* (priests), *kshatriya* (warriors), *vaishya* (farmers and merchants) and *shudra* (labourers). Each caste was also divided into many more subcategories, which traditionally defined a person's occupation. The *kshatriya* caste, for example, included warriors, kings, nobles and officials who worked in royal courts.

Castes were ranked in order, from high to low. *Brahmin* were at the top. They held absolute religious authority and members of other castes treated them with the highest degree of respect. Next came the *kshatriya*, who wielded physical power. *Kshatriya* ruled as princes, soldiers and officials. Below the *kshatriya* came the *vaishya*, who did not rule but still served useful functions in society by growing food and managing trade. At the bottom were the *shudra*, who worked for others. Over time, the caste system expanded to include thousands of subcategories reflecting the many different roles people had in society. The lowest group of all were the *dalits*. They were people who were considered too low to even be part of the caste system. Traditionally, they carried out occupations such as cleaning up waste. Their touch was considered impure and contact with them was believed to defile the purity of high castes. *Dalits* were excluded from many areas of society.

Views on the caste system

The Indian caste system has been a hotly debated issue for centuries. Below are two different points of view.

Jotirao Puhle (1827–90), a 19th-century Indian social reformer, was against *brahmin* domination and considered caste as slavery.

Source 2

It has been conjectured that the Brahmins have ruled this country for more than 3000 years. They had come originally from distant lands, outside India, invaded it, attacked the original inhabitants of this land, conquered and forcibly turned them into slaves and oppressed them in several different ways. … The Brahmins … composed several treatises which they claimed to have obtained directly from God. … It was the decree of God, they wrote, that the *shudras* should diligently serve them and try to please them throughout their lives. Only then, they wrote, would their lives be fulfilled and their birth itself would be justified.

Jotirao Puhle (1873), 'Slavery', in G. P. Deshpande (ed.), *Selected Writings of Jotirao Phule*, Leftword, New Delhi, 2002

Herbert Risley (1851–1911), a British colonial administrator and member of the Indian Civil Service, conducted extensive studies on Indian tribes and castes. He applied the caste system as a useful administrative tool to identify and classify millions of Indians in the 1901 census.

Source 3

… caste in India is something more than what is called a social system. … For Hindus, caste is bound up with their religion, and its observance is enforced by the authority of most Indian Muhammadans [Muslims]; and it extends even to the relatively small communities of Christians. Thus it forms the cement that holds together the myriad units of Indian society. In the words of Sir K. Sheshadri Iyer, the great Dewan of Mysore, 'the whole social fabric of India rests upon caste.' Were its cohesive power withdrawn or its essential ties relaxed, it is difficult to form any idea of the probable consequences. … Order would vanish and chaos would supervene.

Sir Herbert Risley, *The People of India*, London, 1915

Changes

Since the mid 20th century, India has implemented laws and social initiatives to protect and improve the lives of its *dalit* population. This has been more successful in the cities where castes are less obvious. Discrimination against *dalits* in rural villages is still common. Overall, though, the measures have been successful. In 1997, India elected its first *dalit* as president, K. R. Narayanan.

skill**drill:** Continuity and change

Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different **perspectives**, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs; by their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when applying this skill:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? Is the message explicit or implicit? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What does the author choose not to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? Do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology. How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 Consider Sources 1, 2 and 3. Who wrote or created them? Identify and analyse the perspectives portrayed in each source, using the steps above.

Extend your understanding

1 Conduct some research to locate some additional primary source documents that help to illustrate the perspectives of these groups of individuals. Identify and analyse these perspectives, using the process outlined in Step 5 above.

8.5 The British East India Company

By 1750, European trading companies had already been established in India for around 150 years. Initially, the trading companies were attracted to India as a source of valuable commodities such as tea, silk, minerals and spices. These were transported back to Europe and sold for large profits. Companies from Britain, France, Portugal and the Dutch Republic competed with each other for India's trade.

As the trading companies worked to expand their markets, they became more involved in local politics. Local rulers were willing to provide favourable trading conditions in return for the support of these foreign companies in their quest for more power and territory. The British East India Company emerged as the most powerful of these trading companies and began to take power for itself.

Arrival of the British East India Company

The British East India Company was founded by a group of merchants in London on 31 December 1600. Queen Elizabeth I granted the Company a royal charter (legal written permission) to travel the oceans, to trade internationally and to defend its ships using weapons.

Source 2 East India House – headquarters of the East India Company in Leadenhall Street, London, 1802

The charter also gave the Company a monopoly on trade in Asia – meaning it was the only British company with permission to trade there.

The Company negotiated with the Mughal emperor Jahangir for the right to set up trading bases, initially at Surat (1618), in the province of Gujarat on the north-eastern coast, and later in Madras (now Chennai) (1639) and Bombay (now Mumbai) (1668). The Company exchanged silver for goods such as saltpetre (a substance used to make gunpowder), indigo (a dark blue dye) and textiles such as cotton, silk and calico. A booming industry sprang into life.

Source 1 The Port of Cheringhee, Calcutta, in 1798

Source 3 Lord Clive meeting with Mir Jafar after the Battle of Plassey, 1762

Source 4 Portrait of Robert Clive, Governor of Bengal

In 1670, King Charles II granted the British East India Company the right to claim territory, mint money, keep an army, declare war, sign peace treaties and rule any area it conquered. The Company effectively became its own nation.

British East India Company bases attracted Indian merchants, tempted by the business opportunities they offered. New centres of industry and, in some cases, whole cities grew up around the company bases. The most striking example of this is Calcutta (now Kolkata), in the province of Bengal. Before the arrival of the British East India Company, this area was a collection of villages, but over time it grew into one of India's major cities. The Company had a prosperous and expanding trading base in Calcutta. Around three quarters of the goods it bought from Indian farmers and traders came from Bengal, India's richest province.

Taking control of Bengal

Siraj-ud-Daula, the *nawab* of Bengal, resented the British East India Company's increasing trade and military strength in Calcutta and saw it as a threat to his authority. When Siraj-ud-Daula saw the British building new fortifications without permission, in preparation for conflict with the French, his allies, he attacked the Company base and took control of Calcutta.

The Company quickly sent reinforcements under the command of Colonel Robert Clive. In 1757, Colonel Clive attempted to overthrow the *nawab* in the Battle of Plassey. Many historians consider this battle to be the first step towards British rule in India.

Clive won the battle – not through military power, but through trickery. Before the battle, he secretly persuaded a large section of the *nawab*'s armies under General Mir Jafar to switch sides. In return, Clive promised to make Mir Jafar the new *nawab*.

Mir Jafar's troops arrived at the battle with the rest of the *nawab*'s armies. Siraj-ud-Daula's troops numbered 50 000, while Clive only had 3000. However, when fighting began, Mir Jafar's troops refused to fight. This left the *nawab*'s army in disarray. Siraj-ud-Daula retreated but was captured and killed by Mir Jafar's men. After this victory, Clive declared Mir Jafar the new *nawab* of Bengal.

The British East India Company received special trading rights in Bengal. Additionally, in 1765, the Company became the official administrator and tax collector of the provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. Robert Clive himself gained the title of Governor of Bengal. In effect, the British East India Company had become the ruler of Bengal.

The Company Raj

The British East India Company's success in Bengal had a profound effect on the direction the Company was to take in India. Within 80 years, the Company came to replace the Mughal Empire as the ruler of most of India. Historians use the phrase 'the Company Raj' to describe the period in which the British East India Company ruled India. *Raj* means 'royalty,' 'reign,' or 'kingdom' in a number of Indian languages. During this period, the Company's role evolved from that of a trading company to that of a governing body. The Company also replaced many traditional rulers with its own governors and administration, and started to introduce British systems of law and property.

Limiting the powers of the Company

By 1772, the Company started experiencing financial difficulties. Even though its officials were visibly generating vast personal fortunes, the Company had to borrow money from the British government to continue trading. Meanwhile, poverty spread through Bengal. Between 1769 and 1773, a devastating famine hit peasant communities in Bengal, killing approximately one-third of the population. While people starved, the Company continued to impose heavy taxes in famine-struck areas and hoard rice and grain. The Company's actions during the famine were designed to protect the traders – an appropriate approach for a business, but not for a ruler.

In 1772, the British Parliament set up an inquiry to investigate the Company's affairs. Members of Parliament accused the Company of corruption. A minority wanted the British Government to take over from the Company in India. As a compromise, the British Government passed new laws between 1773 and 1786 that aimed to make the Company more responsible and stamp out corruption. A Board of Control was set up to monitor Company policy.

The Regulating Acts

In 1773, the British Parliament passed the first of a set of laws called the Regulating Acts. The *Regulating Act 1773* banned Company officials from private trading and accepting bribes. It also officially recognised the Company's rule in Bengal. The Company was now required to create an organised system of government in its Indian territories.

key concept: Perspectives

The Company as ruler

As the power and territory of the British East India Company increased in India, and many of its officers and employees accumulated great riches, it appeared on the surface as if the Company was a great success.

For ambitious young Britons who wanted to move up in the world, India looked like a land of opportunity. Working for the British East India Company was not only a chance to make money, it was also a chance for a person to change their position within Britain's own class system. In India, middle-class Britons who rose high in the Company's ranks could live the lives of nobles. They could have mansions, servants and spend money extravagantly. Some returned to Britain with vast fortunes. They could then buy their way into the upper classes there and, in some cases, obtain positions in government.

On the other hand, stories of British East India Company officers being involved in corruption and mismanagement in India had been reaching Britain for decades. In theory, the British East India Company's head office in London managed the Company. In practice, however, Clive and his colleagues were in control of their own business. Letters between London and India had to travel by ship. This meant that instructions from the head office could take more than 6 months to arrive.

By the early 1770s, worries about the Company's actions were increasing. Some people raised concerns that Company officials were acting like cruel dictators or behaving like royalty and showing off their wealth.

New rules

After 1773, the British Parliament renewed the British East India Company's charter every 20 years. Each time, it added new rules to the charter. In 1813, the British government ended the Company's monopoly on trade. Other British traders were now allowed to trade in India. The government also ordered the Company to let Christian missionaries enter India. Until then, the Company had banned missionaries, in order to avoid damaging trade relationships with Hindus and Muslims.

In 1833, the *Government of India Act* ordered the Company to stop commercial trade across India. From

INDIAN SUBCONTINENT: EXPANSION OF BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY

Source 5 Source: Oxford University Press

this point on, the sole focus of the Company became governance of the provinces. This included financing public works, such as the establishment of a postal service and the building of railways.

During this period of rule, the Company continued to expand its territories in India by forming economic and political alliances, and waging war. By 1857, the British East India Company controlled most of India.

Check your learning 8.5

Remember and understand

1 What was the British East India Company and why did it go to India?
2 Explain how Calcutta became a major city.
3 Explain the significance of the Battle of Plassey.
4 Define the term *raj*.

Apply and analyse

5 How did people in Britain view the actions of the British East India Company in Bengal? Provide reasons for their views.
6 Describe how the Regulating Act of 1773 was to make the British East India Company behave more responsibly.

Evaluate and create

7 Based on information in these pages and further research, create a timeline that traces the history of the British East India Company from its beginning until 1857. Include up to 15 major events and illustrate your timeline with images that relate to some of these events.

8.6 The Indian Rebellion, 1857–58

In 1857, an uprising among sepoys (professional Indian soldiers who served in the British East India Company armies) turned into a widespread anti-British movement. Many sepoys came from warrior castes (hereditary social classes) and saw military service as a profession. Sepoys did not necessarily join the army out of a feeling of duty to their British rulers, although some may have developed loyalty over time. In 1857, around 80 per cent of the Company's troops in India were sepoys, approximately 200 000 troops. They were crucial to British power in India.

Origins of the rebellion

By 1857, there was a growing unrest among the Indian population. Some groups felt the Company Raj threatened their social positions, religions and ways of life. People in India were also angered by wars, harsh taxes and their exclusion from positions of government and administration.

This tension spread among the sepoys as well, and some sepoys grew angry at their working conditions. The Company paid British soldiers more than Indian soldiers and treated them with more respect. High-caste Indian soldiers, who were used to high social status, felt insulted by this treatment. New rules also allowed the British to send Indian soldiers to serve outside of their home provinces, away from their families and religious communities.

The Enfield rifle

The spark that finally ignited tensions that led to the Indian Rebellion was the Enfield rifle. The Company introduced this new type of rifle to its armies in 1857. To load the Enfield rifle, soldiers had to insert cartridges containing bullets. Before they inserted a cartridge, they had to bite it open. The cartridge had a special grease coating called tallow to make it slide easily into the rifle. A rumour spread among the sepoys that the tallow was made from either pig fat (forbidden to Muslims) or beef fat (forbidden to Hindus). A group of sepoys rebelled in May 1857, shooting their commanding officers. The rebellion soon spread to other dissatisfied groups across India.

Source 1 A hand-coloured engraving by Frederic Shoberl, *c.* 1820s, of two sepoys from the British East India Company army

Emperor of India

The British response to these uprisings was slow, and sepoys won victories in many provinces. The peak of the rebellion came when a group of rebels took over the city of Delhi. There, they seized on the ageing Mughal emperor, Bahadur Shah II, as a symbol of the resistance. The Company Raj had allowed the Mughal emperor to remain in Delhi, where his power had been reduced to the point that it extended no further than within his own court. Bahadur Shah II was a very old man, who may not actually have been very interested in the rebellion. Nonetheless, the rebels declared him their leader – and they wanted to restore him to real power as the emperor of India. This symbolic victory inspired more and more people to rise up. The rebellion spread widely through northern and central India, including major uprisings in the cities of Lucknow and Cawnpore (now Kanpur).

The Siege of Delhi

Eventually British reinforcements arrived from England to aid the Company armies. British troops surrounded Delhi. In a period known as the Siege of Delhi, the British troops and the rebels faced each other off for 4 months. Eventually, the British forces stormed Delhi and took control. They sent Bahadur Shah II into exile and executed his sons and grandsons. By the end of 1858, the rebellion had been crushed and the British regained control.

Atrocities

During the rebellion, both the rebels and the British committed terrible atrocities. There were reports of rebels massacring British communities, including unarmed civilians, women and children. In Cawnpore, for example, the rebel Nana Sahib offered a safe retreat to the British stationed there, only to turn on them as they left, killing the men and taking the women and children hostage. These 200 women and children were later killed as British forces got closer. The massacre at Cawnpore became an infamous story among the British.

English soldiers also acted without restraint. After their victory in Delhi and in cities such as Cawnpore and Lucknow, British soldiers took revenge. Reports emerged of soldiers looting the cities and torturing and murdering Indian rebels, suspected rebels and civilians by the thousands.

Check your learning 8.6

Remember and understand

1 Who were the sepoys and why were they important to the Company Raj?
2 Explain how the introduction of the new Enfield rifle led to the rebellion of the sepoys.
3 Why were some Indian groups growing unhappy with Company rule?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 2. Describe in a paragraph what you think is happening in this scene. Use the information in the text and further research online for reference.

Evaluate and create

5 The Indian Rebellion of 1857 has also been called the Great Rebellion, the Indian Mutiny, the Sepoy Rebellion, the Sepoy Mutiny, the Revolt of 1857, the Uprising of 1857 and the First War of Indian Independence. Debate still continues on the most appropriate name for the events of 1857–58. Which name do you think is the most appropriate? Provide reasons for your choice.

Source 2 A painting of the fighting in Lucknow, one of the cities that faced a major uprising against the British in 1857. This watercolour by Orlando Norie is entitled *The 93rd Highlanders entering the breach at the storming of the Secundra Bagh, Lucknow, 16 November 1857*

8.7 The British Raj

Reports of the Indian Rebellion, especially the atrocities committed by both sides, caused widespread shock across Britain. As a result, the British government finally took Indian rule away from the British East India Company. The *Government of India Act 1858* gave direct control to the British government. All of the Company's Indian territories, possessions and armies were handed over to the British government.

This began a period of British rule that historians call the British Raj, which lasted for almost a century. The British East India Company existed for 16 more years but in 1874, 274 years after it was founded, it closed down. The British Raj promised to rule with more respect for local customs; however, the British continued to have a profound influence on the form of Indian institutions and to impose British values on Indian society.

Source 1 A portrait of Queen Victoria painted in 1858

Queen Victoria's proclamation

In 1858, Britain's Queen Victoria (ruled 1837–1901) issued a written proclamation (statement) explaining that the British Crown and British Government were now the rulers of India. In addition, Queen Victoria stated that Britain would protect inheritance rights and 'respect the rights, dignity and honour of native Princes', that Britain would not attempt to impose Christianity, that people of any 'race or creed' could be given jobs in the administration, and that the British Government would try to respect 'ancient rights … and customs'. In short, the British Government would rule India for the good of its people.

The proclamation was an attempt to reassure the Indian people. It addressed some of the reasons for the rebellion. The aim was to show that the people of India did not need to worry about a return to the old policies of the Company Raj under the new government.

Structure of the British Raj

Under the new system, the Council of India became responsible for India. Based in London, council members all had to have at least 10 years' experience working in India. The council leader was called the Secretary of State for India. The British leader in India was called the Viceroy of India. At this time, the British Raj covered the areas that are today the modern countries of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. The Indian population was around 10 times larger than the population of Britain.

Under the British Raj, over 400 Native States or Princely States continued to be officially ruled by Indian princes. These princes enjoyed local power but still had to obey the Viceroy of India. Indian princes had no control over military forces, foreign affairs or communications. This meant that no Princely State was able to go to war or sign deals with other provinces without British approval.

The 'jewel in the crown'

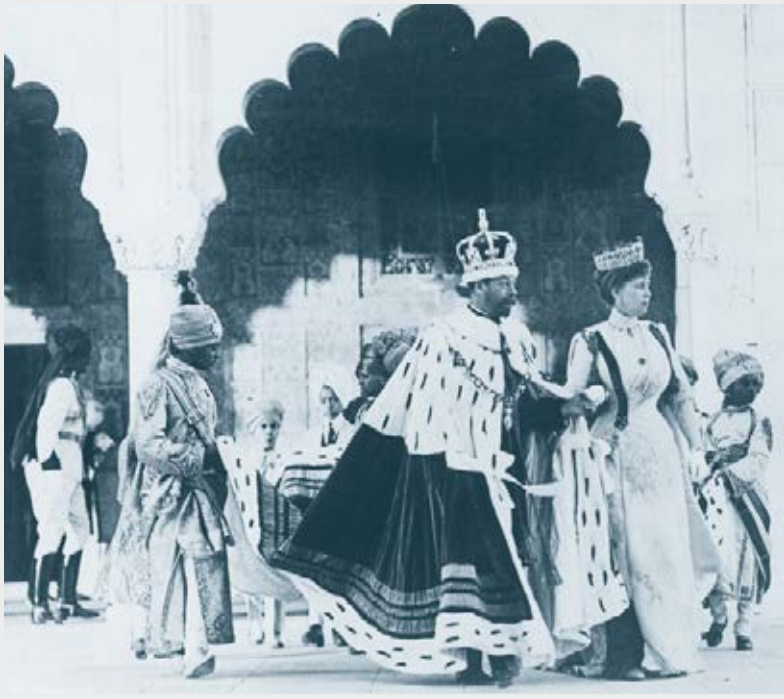
India had now become the most important territory in the British Empire. Prime Minister Disraeli famously called it 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown'. It was a source of land, money, employment and military strength. In the late 19th century, the Indian army made up around half of the British Empire's total troops. It was central to Britain's power in the Asian region. Indian taxpayers paid for this army and the salaries of British government officials in India. In addition to this, a quarter of Indian taxes went back to England. Trade with India also remained important. India also had symbolic power – the British Empire looked very powerful to other countries because of its ability to control India.

key **concept:** Continuity and change

Imperial Durbars, 1877–1911

In January 1877, the British Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, and Viceroy of India, Lord Lytton, declared Queen Victoria the Empress of India. They believed that many Indians still felt strong ties to Mughal imperial culture and that calling Queen Victoria 'empress' would remind Indians of the symbolic power of past emperors. Lytton organised a grand ceremony in Delhi to celebrate the declaration that same year. It was called the Imperial Durbar or Delhi Durbar.

Like the Mughal *durbars* of earlier times, this ceremony aimed to demonstrate the supreme power of the new empire through dazzling displays of wealth and strength. Lytton invited 400 Indian princes and their followers to attend. There was also a parade of 15 000 British soldiers in their striking red uniforms and medals.



Source 2 King George V and Queen Mary, attended by young Indian princes, at the 1911 Imperial Durbar in Delhi

The British Raj continued to hold Imperial Durbars in 1903 and 1911. In 1903, the *durbar* celebrated the crowning of the new King of Great Britain and Emperor of India, Edward VII. There was a grand parade in Delhi. The Viceroy of India, Lord Curzon, sat in a golden seat on the back of an elephant, sheltered by a golden parasol. Thousands of troops marched and rode horses. There was an exhibition of fine carpets, jewellery, paintings, gold and silverware. In 1911, the Imperial Durbar celebrated the crowning of King George V as emperor. For the first time ever, the emperor himself travelled to India to attend.

British imperial beliefs

To its supporters, the British Empire did not just symbolise military power and wealth, but also the spread of British culture. Some believed that Britain had a 'moral duty' to spread its values throughout the world. They believed India had been a 'backward' empire before the intervention of the British – undeveloped, lawless and uncivilised. Some people in Britain believed that for these reasons, the Indian people should be grateful for British rule.

Check your learning 8.7

Remember and understand

1 In what year did the British Government take control in India?
2 What did Queen Victoria hope to achieve with her proclamation?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain why the British called their kings and queens 'emperors' and 'empresses' of India and celebrated with Imperial Durbars when they were crowned.
4 Why was India considered to be 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown'?

Evaluate and create

5 Queen Victoria has placed you in charge of planning the first Imperial Durbar in 1877. Write a set of instructions to the people who work for you, explaining what you want to happen as part of the celebrations.

8.8 Significant changes to Indian society under British rule

Significant changes occurred in Indian society during the period of British rule. British leaders experimented with new laws and systems of government and looked for ways to combine existing Indian beliefs and laws with British ideas.

Source 1 A Hindu servant attending to a British colonial man, *c.* 1910

A new administration

The rule of law

In the early years of British East India Company rule, Indian law consisted of a number of the fragmented systems that had existed under the Mughal Empire. Various ethnic and religious communities across India were allowed to operate under different laws, traditions and beliefs. These 'laws' were enforced in different ways, including community agreement to settle local legal disputes. Within these village 'courts', punishment could be severe, including imprisonment, whippings and amputations.

In 1772, the Governor-General of the Company's Indian dominions, Warren Hastings, started to put in place a legal system in the British style but appropriate for Indian society. Hastings recognised that the main laws in Indian society were based on the teachings of the Muslim and Hindu religions. As a result, he decided to create one system of laws for Hindus and one for Muslims, based on the 'ancient laws' of these religions.

Once Hastings had established this set of written laws, he set about changing the way traditional laws were enforced – in particular, he introduced Western-style courts, with trials and judges.

Some attempts were also made to change some of the Indian customs that the British thought were cruel or barbaric. One example was the banning of *sati*. Under this practice, when a man died and his body was cremated, his wife also had to burn herself to death on his funeral pyre. *Sati* was a tradition in some Hindu communities but was not widespread. Hindu reformers joined British reformers in calls to ban it. In 1829, the Company Raj banned *sati* in its territories.

The Indian civil service

One of the most significant changes to Indian society brought about by British rule was a new administration based on the British model. The Company Raj had put in place its own system of administration called the Indian Civil Service. This system continued under the British Raj.

In 1858, when the British Government took over control of India, young men who wanted to join the civil service had to study at British universities. They studied Indian law, accounting, history and languages. They then sat competitive examinations to gain entry into the civil service. Examinations were only open to men under 24, with this age limit later reduced to 19.

Although the civil service was open to Indians, few could afford to travel to Britain to study there. By 1914, the number of Indians in important roles in the civil service was only 5 per cent.

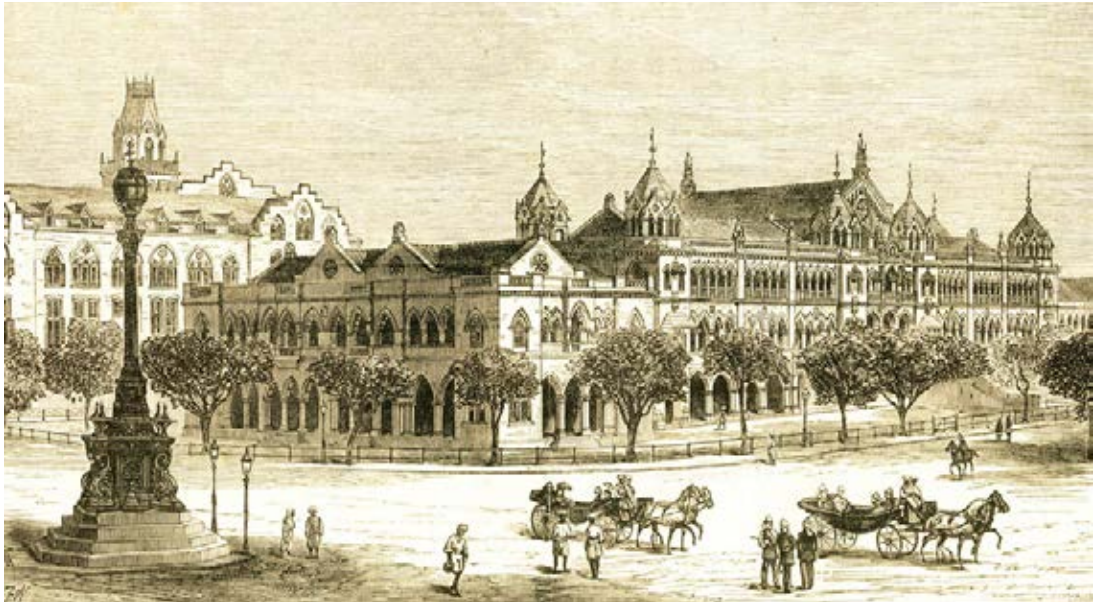
Source 2
An illustration of a Hindu woman committing *sati* by jumping into her husband's funeral pyre

An English education

Other major initiatives set up by the British related to language and education. In 1802, the British made English the official language of India, replacing Persian. Over time, in addition to officials using English, Indians from different regions, religions and ethnic backgrounds used English to communicate with each other. English became the language of the Indian education system.

The British introduced a system of primary schools, high schools, colleges and universities, based on the stages in their own system. Through education, the British hoped to create a small 'class' of Indians educated in English who would help spread Western ideas and values in India.

Despite these reforms, the great majority of Indian people still had no access to education. By the end of the 19th century, only 5 per cent of the Indian population could read. Higher education in India tended to be reserved for the higher castes, and girls and women had the least access to education. There were clear limitations to the education reform introduced by the British during this period. This did lay the foundation for an Indian education system, however, and it continues in a British model to this day.



Source 3 A British school in Bombay (now Mumbai)

Changes in the agricultural economy

Private property

Before British rule, many Indian societies had systems of collective ownership and land use. Instead of personally owning land, people had rights to use the land in particular ways. *Zamindars* (officials) had the right to collect taxes from farmers and, in turn, farmers had the right to cultivate the land. In some cases, these rights were passed from one generation to the next.

From 1793, the British East India Company introduced a system of private property. They gave the *zamindars* private property rights over the land they collected tax from, in return for the *zamindars* agreeing to a higher land tax.

This caused dramatic changes in many communities. The *zamindars* struggled to meet the higher land tax despite putting pressure on the farmers to produce more. Many smaller *zamindars* had to sell their lands, and *zamindars* with larger holdings and who had enough wealth to pay the taxes bought up the lands. Over time, this created a system similar to England's upper-class landowners, and some *zamindars* became extremely powerful figures.

Farmers were the worst off under the new system because they no longer had any collective rights to the land they farmed. They became less powerful at the same time as the pressure for them to produce more increased. Also, because of the high taxes, the new landowners were reluctant to make any improvements to their land, and agricultural production for many stayed at subsistence level.

New crops

Under the British Raj, India's farming economy also changed. When the British first arrived in India, India's biggest export was hand-woven fabric made from cotton grown in India. With the onset of the Industrial Revolution, new machinery in British factories was used to produce fabric more cheaply at home in Britain. As a result, British citizens stopped buying hand-woven cotton from India. In fact, the British started selling machine-made cotton to India. The Indian cotton industry suffered greatly from this reversal.

India became a greater exporter of raw materials such as cotton, jute, tea, opium, wheat and tobacco. The commercialisation of the farming of these crops in particular regions led to the loss of farmland that had previously been used to grow food for the local population. Some historians believe this contributed to the famines of the 18th and 19th centuries. These famines are discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Tea and opium

Two crops that did become very important during the time of British rule in India were tea and opium. There was huge demand for tea in Britain. During the 18th century, most of the tea drunk in Britain came from China. There was also great demand for other Chinese goods such as spices and chinaware. On the other hand, there was much less demand for British goods in China. The British wanted something that they could trade in China to make things more balanced.

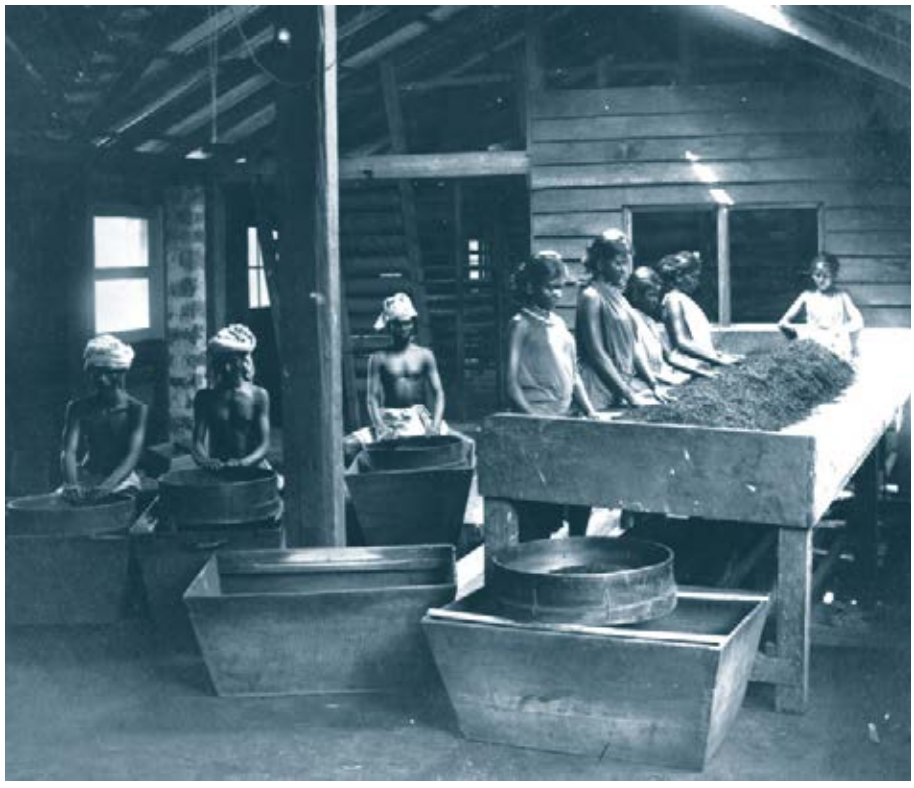
Source 4 Stacked cotton bales in Bombay, *c.* 1890

Source 5 Opium from Patna, India, bound for China during the mid 19th century

Around 1780, the British East India Company began selling opium grown in India to China. Opium is a powerful drug that is better known today as a major ingredient in morphine and heroin. Many people in China became addicted to opium and it became a very profitable industry for the Company. Some historians believe opium contributed up to 20 per cent of British India's overall income.

To reduce its dependence on China, Britain also started to grow tea in India. India had no tea trade before the British, even though native Indian varieties of the tea plant grew wild in the Assam province, in the north-east of India. In 1833, the British East India Company began to develop commercial production of Assam tea. In 1848, a Scottish botanist called Robert Fortune disguised himself as a Chinese merchant and travelled into areas of China that were forbidden to Europeans. There, he purchased 20000 tea plants, which he smuggled back to the Darjeeling region in West Bengal, in India.

The tea industry rapidly expanded, consuming huge areas of land for tea plantations. By 1880, Britain was buying more Indian tea than Chinese tea. By the beginning of the 20th century, Assam had become the leading tea-producing region in the world. India had become the largest producer of tea in the world and the largest consumer of tea as well.



Source 6 Indian workers drying tea leaves, 1880

Check your learning 8.8

Remember and understand

1 Why was it hard for Indian people to get positions in the Indian Civil Service?
2 What did the British hope to achieve by introducing a British system of education in India?
3 Explain the difference between private ownership and collective ownership of land.
4 Describe how the role of the *zamindars* changed under the British.
5 Explain the effects of technology on the Indian cotton industry.

Apply and analyse

6 In 1802, the British made English the official language in India, and English also became the language of the Indian education system. Can you think of two advantages and two disadvantages of this change?

Evaluate and create

7 Imagine that you are a British Member of Parliament in 1895. There is a debate in parliament about whether the opium trade should be banned. The opium British India sells to China adds a lot of money to the British economy. However, in China the opium trade is bad for its economy and for people's health. Would you support banning the opium trade? Why or why not?

8B rich task

Modernising India

During British rule, new technologies and new infrastructure made dramatic changes to life in India.

During the first years of British rule in India, the Industrial Revolution (1750–1850) was taking place in Britain. New machines allowed the mass production of goods, including fabrics. New kinds of steam engines transformed industries such as mining and transport. During this time, the steam train was also invented.

The Industrial Revolution had a major impact in India. India was a massive country that had until this time operated as a series of semi-independent provinces. With new technologies introduced by the British allowing for mass transportation and long-distance communication, the different regions of India were brought closer together.

The first railway began operating in India in 1851. In the years that followed, British investors poured massive amounts of money into Indian railways. By 1880, India had over 14 000 kilometres of railway that linked all the major cities. In some areas the British government also improved roads. In some areas they built canals to deliver water to farms. Steam ships made travel between countries much quicker and increased the speed of communication between India and Britain.

The cable telegraph, a new device that could send electrical signals over long distances along an electric cable, also revolutionised communication. The Company Raj introduced the first cable telegraph system in India between 1851 and 1856, allowing instant communication between telegraph operators in major cities.

By 1870, an underwater cable had been laid on the seabed between Britain and India, allowing telegraphs to be sent between the two countries. In 1902, the first wireless telegraphs (where messages were sent along electromagnetic waves in the air using Morse code) were introduced. Five years later, in 1907, the first telephones were introduced, but access to them initially was restricted to the wealthy.

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Creating and presenting an audiovisual presentation

A popular way to present the findings of a **historical inquiry** is to create an audiovisal presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation, follow these steps:

Step 1 Make sure you have have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images. If working in a group, collate your research with the other members of your group.

Step 2 Decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi. Or you may like to create a website or a short film. How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher.

Step 3 When delivering your presentation, keep the following in mind:

- Rehearse your presentation, especially if you are working in a group. Make sure each member of the group knows exactly what they have to do.
- Make a back-up copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as loss of data.
- Engage with your audience. Make eye contact, do not read from your notes, and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make sure your text and layout are as visually appealing as possible.
- Make sure all your material is correct and contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly, focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish your presentation on a high note.

Source 1 The Victoria Terminus (now called Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus) in Mumbai was built in 1887. Today, it still operates as a busy urban railway station.

Apply the skill

1 Research, prepare and present an audiovisual presentation on the introduction and development of one of the following new technologies to India during British rule: railways, telegraphy or canal construction. Use the following questions to help structure your presentation:

- When was the technology introduced in India?
- Where in India was it introduced? Provide examples of different construction or installation projects.
- What was the aim of introducing the technology?
- What was the impact of the technology?

Extend your understanding

1 In the 19th century, new forms of communication and media transformed Indian society. List them in a table and explain how they helped people communicate and share information. Underneath, list the forms of communication and media in Australian society today and how they help us. A couple of examples have been provided to get you started.

Type of communication or media	How does it help people communicate?
INDIA e.g. telegram	People can send information instantly over long distances.
AUSTRALIA e.g. mobile phones	People can have conversations from any location with people in other places.

8.9 Forming an Indian identity

Under British rule, India had become a single country, with defined borders, one government and an official language. Advances in mass communication meant people could connect with each other in new ways, yet India still contained a great diversity of ethnic, linguistic and religious groups. Across the country, people debated what it meant to be Indian. Many British-educated Indians began to use the language and concepts of their rulers to argue for their rights and independence.

The importance of mass communication

As printing presses became steadily cheaper and more widespread, the number of newspapers in many different languages multiplied. These papers gave their readers a shared understanding of news and issues in India, even though only a small percentage of the population could read.

Though Indians still had little control over the running of their country, there was an explosion of other types of public expression. People formed voluntary organisations and lobby groups to discuss political, religious and social issues. They distributed political and educational pamphlets. New works of literature and theatre commented on social issues and politics.

Source 1 The *Times of India* press room, 1898

Western-educated Indians who spoke different Indian languages could now communicate with each other in English, opening up new possibilities for discussion.

Re-thinking identity

New forms of communication meant people who had once seen themselves as part of only local groups, could now connect with other people like themselves from across India. Many Indians had only seen themselves in relation to their own village or region. Now, they connected with similar people all around India. People across India of the same caste, for example, formed organisations and lobbied for their caste interests and rights.

Another impact of this period of reflection and change was a growing divide between Hindus and Muslims. Most people in India were Hindus. As people lobbied for more Indian representation in government, Muslims became increasingly aware of their minority status. They felt that only Muslims could represent Muslim interests in government and lobbied for legislative councils to have seats reserved for Muslims. Meanwhile, some Hindus came to see themselves as the 'original' inhabitants of India, oppressed by Muslims under Mughal rule and then by the British. Such views, while not held by all Hindus and Muslims, contributed to growing tensions that would have an impact for years to come.

The emergence of nationalism

Alongside these shifts in existing group identities, a new group voice began to emerge. Indian nationalists promoted the idea that all Indians had a single group identity.

Nationalism is the belief that people are bound together by belonging to a country or nation, rather than by religious beliefs or by loyalty to a particular ruler. In a nation, people follow the same laws and have a shared history.

Nationalism became increasingly popular across Europe during the 19th century. Many early supporters of Indian nationalism were Western-educated Indians who had spent time in England. Indian nationalists believed that Indians should have the power to choose their own government and manage their own affairs.

Source 2 Bal Gangadhar Tilak, an early figure of Indian nationalism

Source 3 The first Indian National Congress, 1885

They lobbied for *swaraj* (self-rule). They opposed British rule in India.

Significant individuals in the early days of the Indian nationalist movement included Gopal Krishna Gokhale (1866–1915), Dadabhai Naoroji (1825–1917) and Bal Gangadhar Tilak (1856–1920). Gokhale lobbied for education to be available to all Indians, for greater representation in government and more employment opportunities for Indians.

Naoroji became the first Indian Member of Parliament in the British House of Commons. There, he argued against the use of Indian taxes in Britain.

Tilak argued for education to include more Indian history and culture than British. To spread a message of resistance to the British, he made use of religious festivals, such as Ganpati, a celebration of the Hindu elephant god Ganesh. This tactic allowed him to spread the nationalist message to people beyond the British-educated elite.

The Indian National Congress

In 1885, a new organisation called the Indian National Congress (INC) formed in Bombay (now Mumbai). Its members were mostly British-educated Indians who had spent time in London. Many were lawyers, journalists and teachers. Among them were Ghokale, Tilak and Naoroji.

To begin with, the INC did not lobby for self-rule. Instead, it lobbied for increased participation by Indians in government in the running of their own country. It also used petitions and meetings to call for less military funding, and the chance to sit civil service exams in India instead of London.

Over time, the INC became increasingly focused on Indian self-rule. In 1907, the INC split into two factions. Tilak led a group that argued Indians should use any means necessary, including violence, to achieve self-rule. Against Tilak stood moderates such as Gokhale, who believed in non-violent protest and changing laws through consultation.

As the INC began to grow into a major political force, the British government began to pay more attention to its demands.

Check your learning 8.9

Remember and understand

1 In your own words, give a definition of nationalism.
2 Name two ways in which mass communication was important to Indian nationalism.
3 What does *swaraj* mean?

Apply and analyse

4 British authorities in India referred to the nationalist Bal Gangadhar Tilak as 'the father of the Indian unrest'. Provide possible reasons for this. You may need to do some further research.

Evaluate and create

5 Research one of the significant individuals of the Indian nationalist movement and prepare a biography, including their background, education, professional occupation, main achievements and any other significant life events.

8.10 Significant events in India and the world

Disaster and discontent

Around the turn of the 20th century, many factors contributed to discontent among Indians. A range of disasters had a terrible impact on India's farming communities. Around 1895–96, bubonic plague spread through several regions. Bad weather patterns caused crops to fail in some areas and famines followed. The worst famine in Indian history, in 1876–78, caused an estimated six million deaths. A similar famine struck in 1896–97, leaving at least five million dead. Changes in trade meant that 'cash crops' for sale overseas, such as cotton, filled land that could otherwise have been used to grow food.

At this time, the British government's continued use of Indian taxes and natural resources to cover costs in Britain caused anger among Indian citizens. For example, a large percentage of India's taxes still paid for British military spending. The British Raj used the army in wars outside of India, in places such as China, Africa and the Middle East.

The partition of Bengal

In 1905, the Viceroy of India, Lord Curzon, split Bengal into two separate provinces. His stated reason was that Bengal, containing around 50 million people, was too big to govern as one province. Administration would be easier if the region were broken into smaller areas. This partition sparked mass protests against British rule.

Many Bengalis were outraged. They saw Bengal as their homeland and now it was divided. Many perceived the partition as an attempt to reduce Bengali power – and to divide the province along religious and ethnic lines. East Bengal now had a largely Muslim population. The people in West Bengal now joined with Assam to form a new region, in which Bengalis were a minority.

Outrage spread across India. The Indian National Congress (INC) called for a boycott of British goods. Some groups reacted violently. In 1908, one Indian protester threw a bomb at a British magistrate. It missed his carriage and hit another, killing two British women. The government reacted to the protests with strict measures.

Source 1 Women, left bone thin and starving by a famine, beg in the streets.

Protesters were arrested, newspapers censored and public meetings suspended. Bal Gangadhar Tilak was imprisoned for writing a newspaper article in support of the bombers.

The partition of Bengal was cancelled in 1911 as a result of the protests and boycott. Tilak was released in 1914 and formed a new organisation called the Indian Home-Rule League. The league called for a system in which all Indian provinces and religions were equal.

World War I

During World War I, over one million Indian troops served on the side of Britain and the Allies. As well as troops from British states, some of the Princely States sent their own troops, including the Bikaner Camel Corps and the Jodhpur Lances. Indian troops served in places such as France, Belgium, Mesopotamia, Palestine and East Africa. Around 74 000 died. This included almost 5000 casualties at Gallipoli.

Source 2 Indian cavalrymen in Paris during World War I, 1915

Source 3 This letter was sent to a soldier serving in France in World War I by a family member back home in India.

To Sowar Abdur Razzaq Kahn (in France), 1915

Be attentive to your duty. This is your opportunity for showing your courage, when people from all corners of the world under the dominion of King George V are sacrificing their lives … For one who seeks promotion over the heads of others, war is the best opportunity. Promotion thus gained is the reward of courage and devotion. It is not the promotion … won in peace time by flattering … officers and putting on their socks and boots. Such conduct is the work of a coward and a slacker. You must be careful to keep out of the ranks of such people. Do not think 'perhaps I may be shot'. No one can escape the fate allotted to him.

Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah, Northwest Territories (present-day Pakistan)

In David Omissi, ed., 1999, *Indian Voices of the Great War: Soldiers' Letters, 1914–18*

Indian princes and politicians raised large sums of money to support the war effort. Indian industry helped with supplies such as metals and cloth. Taxes were increased to pay for the war effort and there were food shortages. In addition to these hardships, in 1918, there was an influenza epidemic.

After their sacrifices in the war, many Indians felt that the British should reward them with self-government – if not as an independent nation, then as a largely self-governed colony, like Australia. There was an atmosphere of expectation, but nothing happened. In fact, the British government clamped down further on dissent.

Despite these crackdowns, the movement for Indian independence grew stronger through the decades following World War I. The INC continued to lobby for self-rule, and one major figure to emerge at this time to fight for independence was Mohandas K. Ghandi. Ghandi became the leader of the INC in 1920.

Check your learning 8.10

Remember and understand

1 How many people died in the famines of 1876–78 and 1896–97?
2 What factors contributed to these famines?
3 Why were Bengalis unhappy with the partition of Bengal in 1905?
4 List four places in which Indian troops fought in World War I.

Apply and analyse

5 Read the excerpt from the letter in Source 3.
   a What does Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah encourage Sowar Abdur Razzaq Kahn to do?
   b Who does Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah criticise in the letter, and why?
   c How does Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah encourage Sowar Abdur Razzaq Kahn not to be afraid?
   d Do you think the writer of this letter supports British rule in India? Why or why not?

8C rich task

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi (1869–1948)

Mohandas K. Gandhi was born in a coastal town in the Indian province of Gujarat. As a young man he travelled to London to study law. He then worked as a lawyer in South Africa for two decades. He saw many injustices there and became a political activist. In England and South Africa, Gandhi began to form new ideas about Indian identity. In South Africa, he saw members of the Indian community bonding over their shared Indian identity – not just their particular region, religion or caste. This created a new perspective for Gandhi about the distinctive qualities of India.

Source 1 Mohandas K. Gandhi at a spinning wheel

Gandhi also developed a unique system of spiritual and political beliefs. He rejected materialism – the desire for wealth, property and valuable possessions. He believed this to be a Western quality. He rejected industrialisation and the use of industrial machinery. He advocated vegetarianism and non-violence. He rejected discrimination against the *dalits* (untouchables), calling them instead *harijan* (children of God).

Gandhi's dream of independence was not just about self-rule but a restructured Indian society. His ideal model for human society was a version of village life, where people worked using traditional methods and looked after one another. Despite his own Hindu beliefs, Gandhi believed the independence movement should be a coalition of religious communities, rather than be divided along religious lines.

Gandhi returned to India in 1915 and became involved with the Indian National Congress. Gandhi started a widespread movement of non-violent protest and non-cooperation. This action included strikes, boycotting British goods, resigning from public office, ignoring British institutions such as schools and courts, and not paying taxes. If arrested, protesters would serve time in prison rather than resist violently. Gandhi called his policy of passive resistance *satyagraha* (truth force).

Like Talik, Gandhi recognised the power of visual language, religious symbols and public gatherings as a way to reach non-educated Indians. He replaced his Western-style clothes with the loincloth of a Hindu holy man, a garment made of hand-spun fabric. He encouraged his followers to reject mass-produced goods and support local artisans such as weavers. He caught the train across India, travelling third class. At each stop, he spoke at mass rallies, sometimes to crowds of thousands.

Gandhi's followers called him Mahatma Gandhi. *Mahatma* means 'great soul' in Sanskrit and is used in a similar way as the English word 'saint'. In the eyes of many, he became a god-like figure. Rumours spread in some farming communities that he possessed magical powers. Meanwhile, newspapers spread his striking image and his beliefs throughout the country.

At the same time as holding mass appeal, Gandhi was a brilliant legal and political negotiator. As a lawyer trained in Britain, he was able to use British legal concepts to argue against British politicians.

In 1920, the INC, recognising his mass appeal, declared Gandhi their leader. Gandhi became the driving force in the journey to Indian independence, which would finally happen in 1947. Tragically, Gandhi was assassinated by a political extremist in 1948, only 5 months after Indian independence was declared.

Source 2 This German cartoon (*c.* 1930s) from the satirical magazine *Kladderadatsch* depicts a peaceful India (the elephant) moving towards freedom under the guidance of Gandhi despite the frantic efforts of the British to halt it by brute force.

skill**drill:** Historical significance

Writing a historical discussion

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. Follow these steps to write your own historical discussion.

Step 1 Consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence.

- Consider various **primary sources**, such as newspapers, photographs or political and legal documents from the period being studied.
- Also consider the ideas of other historians, presented in **secondary sources** such as textbooks and websites.

Step 2 You need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. A couple of examples of how you can do this include:

- 'According to the historian Judith Brown …'
- 'The image of Gandhi at a spinning wheel is symbolic of …'

Step 3 Conclude with your own point of view on the question or issue.

Summary of the structure of a written discussion	
Introduction	• Introduces the topic, question or issue. • Outlines why the topic, question or issue is important.
Body	• Outlines different arguments or opinions about the topic, question or issue in a series of paragraphs. • Each opinion or argument that is presented should also refer to the evidence that supports it.
Conclusion	• Sums up the issue and gives the writer's opinion.

Step 4 Include a bibliography that references all sources used in the discussion. When citing a book in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

- author surname(s) and initial(s)
- year of publication
- title of book (in italics)
- edition (if relevant)
- publisher
- place of publication
- page number(s).

Example:

Brown, J. M., 1977, *Gandhi's Rise to Power: Indian Politics, 1915–1922*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 123–39.

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

- author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
- year of publication or date of web page (last update)
- title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
- organisation name (if different from above)
- date you viewed the site
- URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets.

Example:

Gandhi, M. K., 1960, 'India and the Non-Violent Way', *The Mind of Mahatma*, viewed 7 August 2016, <http://www.mkgandhi.org/momgandhi/chap31.htm>

Apply the skill

1 Write a 300-word historical discussion on the following topic:
'Mohandas Gandhi inspired the Indian people to gain independence from Britain through non-violent means.'
Use the information in this section together with your own research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources of information to provide evidence about the significance of Gandhi in India's struggle for independence from British rule. Make sure you include a bibliography of all your sources, using the referencing conventions outlined above.

Extend your understanding

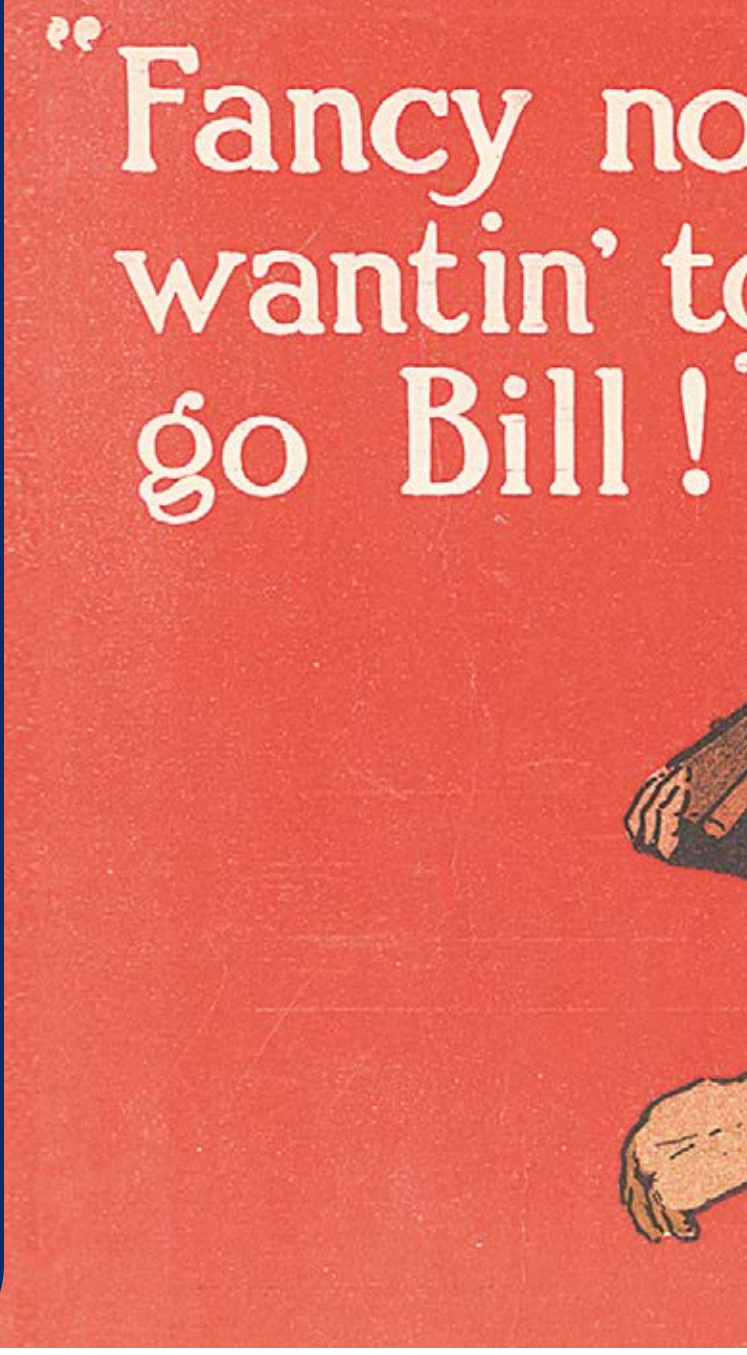
1 Gandhi worked as a lawyer in South Africa from 1893 to 1914. In South Africa, he witnessed injustices and became involved in the civil rights movement. Use a library or the Internet to find out about South Africa.
- **a** What was apartheid?
- **b** What was the civil rights movement?
- **c** Make a list of similarities and differences between South Africa and India *c.* 1900.

Unit 3 Australia at war (1914–1945)

Introduction to Australia at war (1914–1918)

World War I was a global conflict that played a key role in defining world history in the 20th century. World War I became known as a 'total war' because it was the first war in which people from all sectors of society became involved in the war effort, not just soldiers. Nations around the world – including Australia – committed not only their armed forces to the war effort but also their industries and resources. Many of the conflicts, attitudes, prejudices and grievances that make the international news today can still be traced to the effects of World War I.

A study of Australia's involvement in World War I is important because it helps us to better understand Australian society and the wider world in which we live today.



9A
What were the key events of World War I?

9B
What was the significance of World War I?

chapter 9

Source 1 An Australia poster from 1917 encouraging Australians to enlist and fight in World War I

Australia at war (1914–1945)

This unit is mandatory:

- World War I (1914–1918).

It must be completed by all students.

9.1 Key events of World War I

World War I fundamentally changed many aspects of Australian government and society. Our country's involvement in World War I also played an important part in the development of our idea of Australia as a nation, and our place in the world. Knowing about the history of Australia at war helps us to gain a clearer understanding about the world beyond our shores, and about how our own history, national character and identity developed. It can also be argued that a historical study of the causes of World War I is important in a world where there are weapons capable of mass death and destruction. Understanding how wars begin may be one of the keys to preventing them.

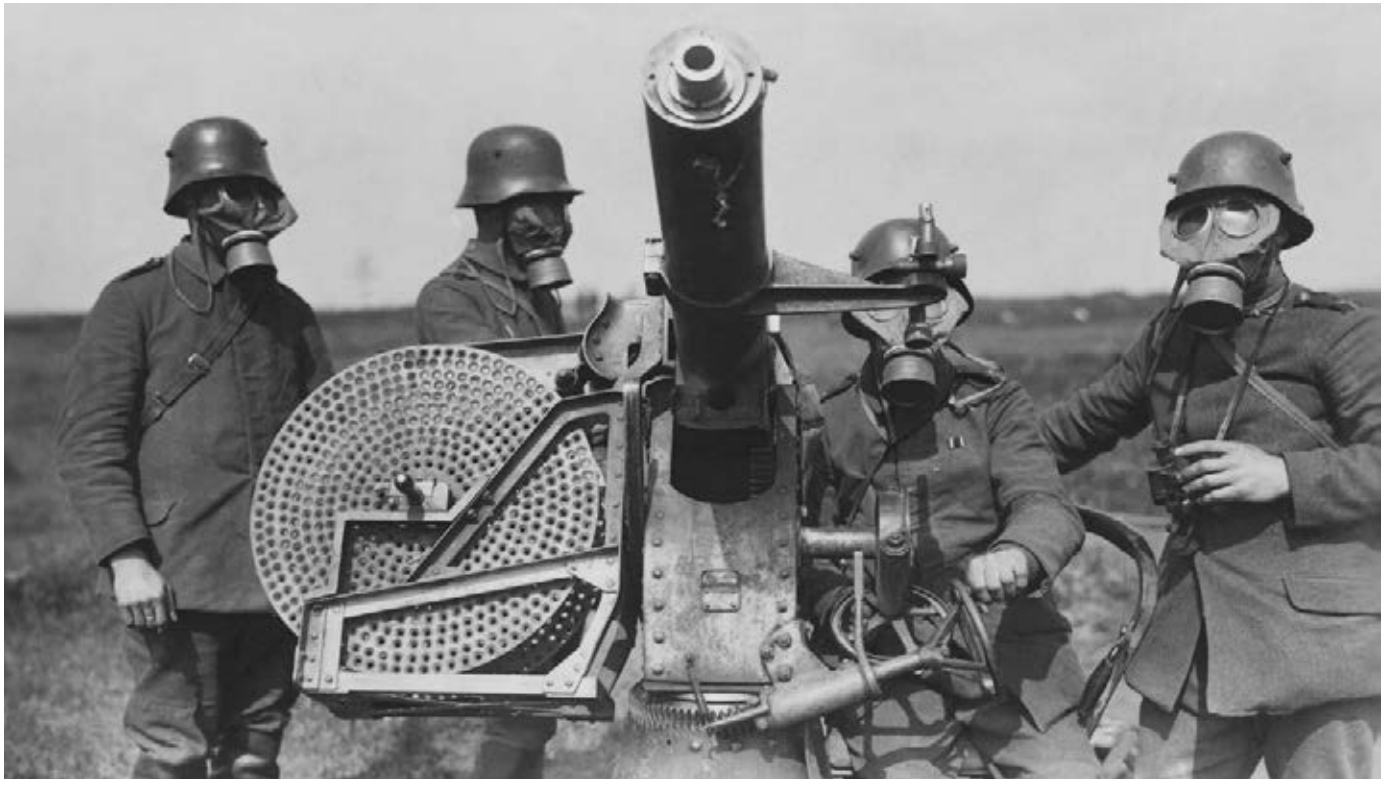
In *Unit 3 – Australia at war (1914–1945)* you have the opportunity to learn in detail about:

- the main causes of World War I and the reasons why men enlisted to fight
- the places where Australians fought and the nature of warfare (including the Gallipoli campaign)
- the impact that the war had on Australia and the world (including the changing role of women and the public debate around compulsory military service, known as **conscription**)
- the ways in which the war is commemorated (including debates about the nature and significance of the Anzac legend).

World War I was a horrific experience for those involved. The statistics are damning. It is estimated that 10 million people were killed and 20 million wounded as a result of actual combat. Although official statistics vary, most countries involved suffered horrendous losses. There are also civilian casualties to be taken into consideration. Australia lost over 50 000 men, a huge toll in a population of 4.5 million, it meant over 1 per cent of the population were victims of the war.

A study of World War I can sometimes be overwhelming given the complexity of the events and number of countries involved. The following tables provide a quick reference to some of the main issues and events of World War I and Australia's involvement in them. They provide an overview and summary of all content within the depth study and can be used to help you navigate the topic and guide your understanding of key points.

Source 1 On 25 April 1915, members of the Australian Imperial Force (AIF) landed on the beach at Anzac Cove in Turkey with troops from New Zealand, Britain, and France. This was the first major military action fought by Australian and New Zealand forces during World War I. Each year it is commemorated on Anzac Day.



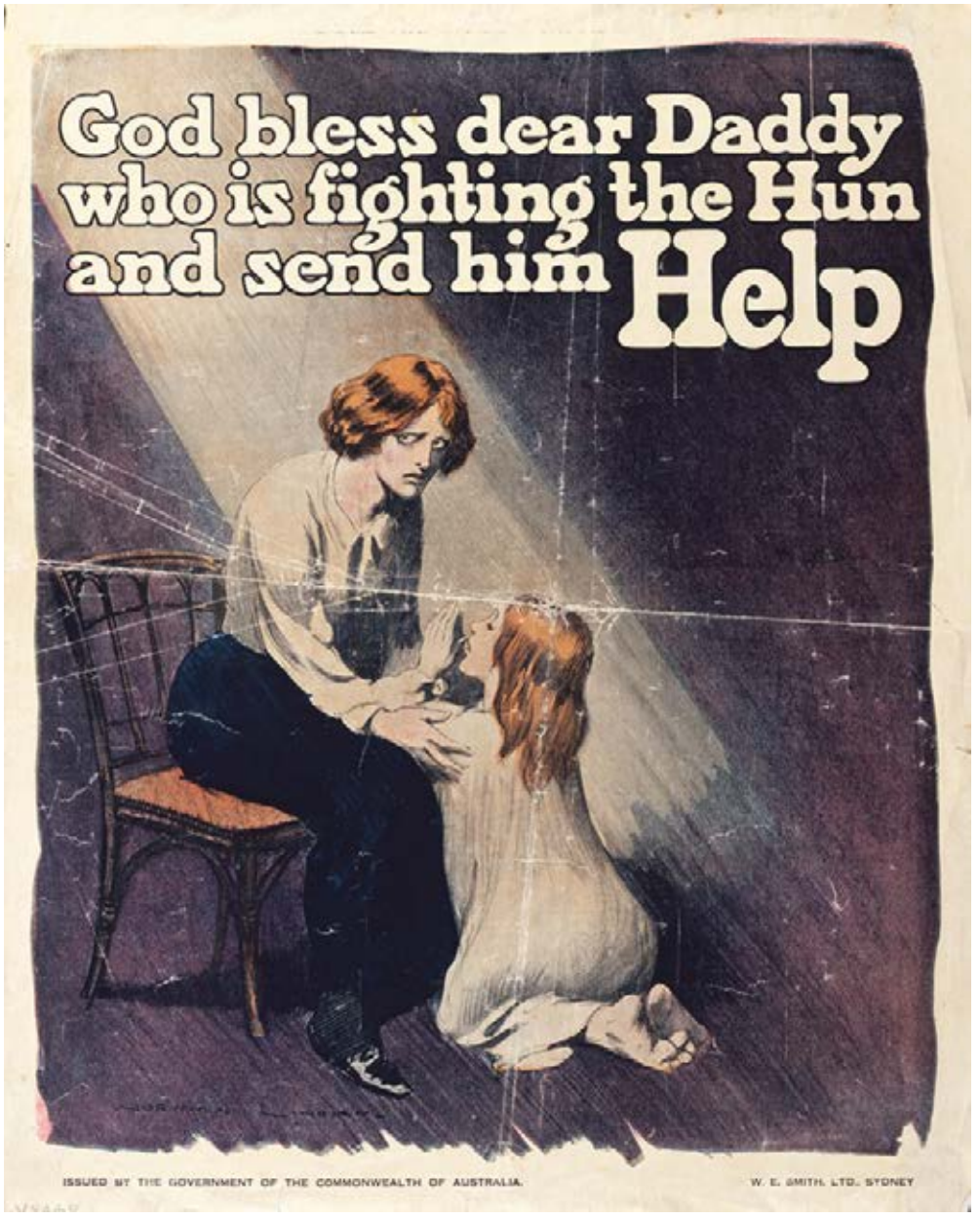
Source 2 New weaponry such as machine guns and poisonous gas changed the nature of warfare from previous wars.

An overview of the causes of World War I, why men enlisted and where Australians fought		
Causes of World War I	See Topic 10.3	• Long-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1914, including nationalism, rivalry over colonies, the arms race in Europe, Europe's alliance system and military plans • Events leading to war after the 'July crisis', which followed the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand
Where was World War I fought?	See Topic 10.7	• Major campaigns involving Australian forces: Gallipoli campaign (Turkey) 1915; campaigns on the Western Front (France and Belgium) 1916–18; campaigns in the Middle East 1916–18
Australia's entry into World War I	See Topic 10.5	• Varied reasons motivated men to enlist, including loyalty to Britain, spirit of adventure, experience of war unknown to most Australians

An overview of significant campaigns and the scope and nature of warfare		
The Gallipoli campaign	See Topic 10.10	• Landing of troops at Anzac Cove on 25 April 1915 • Attacks and counter attacks by Anzac and Turkish soldiers over eight months, including fighting at Lone Pine and the Nek • Withdrawal of Anzac troops in December 1915
The Western Front	See Topic 10.8	• Defensive warfare using machine guns, trenches and barbed wire • Series of attacks and counter-attacks using artillery fire, then infantry charges involving close fighting with rifles, bayonets and grenades • Appalling conditions for soldiers living in the trenches
The nature of warfare in World War I	See Topic 10.6	• Theatres of war in World War I: the Middle East, the Western Front and the Eastern Front in Europe, the North Sea, Turkey, northern Africa • New weapons technology – machine guns, heavy artillery, poison gas, tanks, planes and Zeppelin airships • New communications technology – telephone, wireless radio • Both sides evenly matched, resulting in stalemate on the Western front

An overview of the impact of World War I on Australia at home		
The conscription debate	See Topic 10.14	• During World War I, a decline in enlistments and heavy casualties on the Western Front caused Prime Minister Billy Hughes to call for two plebiscites (public votes) on compulsory military service (conscription) in 1916 and 1917, with both resulting in a majority of 'no' votes (see Source 4). • The conscription debate was a hugely divisive issue in Australian society.
Use of government propaganda	See Topic 10.14	• During World War I, the government issued pro-conscription and anti-German **propaganda**, including flyers and posters. Propaganda was designed to glorify the efforts of Australian soldiers overseas, maintain public anger towards the enemy, motivate people to join the war effort and regulate their behaviour.
Changing roles of women	See Topic 10.13	• During World War I, women moved into previously male occupations to support the war effort, with an expectation they would return to domestic roles and traditional occupations after the war.
Internment of 'enemy aliens'	See Topic 10.15	• During World War I, people with German backgrounds or who were born in countries at war with Australia were interned (imprisoned) in remote camps to isolate them from the general public.
Wartime controls and censorship	See Topic 10.12	• During World War I, extension of Commonwealth powers allowed the government to collect income tax, censor media and communications, control the movement of 'enemy aliens', among other wartime controls.
Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples	See Topic 10.5	• During World War I, Indigenous Australians attempting to enlist were initially turned away, but by 1916 changes were made so that 'half-castes' could enlist. Over 400 Indigenous Australians fought in the army, although at this time they could not vote and were not counted as Australian citizens.

Source 3 Tins of Fray Bento and Heinz eaten by soldiers during World War I



Source 4 An Australian propaganda poster produced in Australia around 1918. The poster was designed to encourage Australians to vote in favour of compulsory military service (conscription) in a public vote that was held in Australia during the war. The word 'Hun' is a derogatory term used to refer to Germans.

Check your learning 9.1

Remember and understand

1 How many Australian men died during World War I?

2 In your words, define the term 'conscription'. Why was the conscription debate in Australia so divisive?

Apply and analyse

3 What is propaganda and why was it used by the Australian Government during World War I?

Evaluate and create

4 Search the Internet to find examples of Australian propaganda from World War I designed to achieve the following goals:
- regulate the day-to-day behaviour of civilians
- maintain public anger towards the enemy
- motivate people to join the war effort.

9.2 The significance of World War I

World War I left Europe devastated. In January 1919, the victorious nations met at the Paris Peace Conference in France to come up with a plan for rebuilding Europe and ensuring peace in the future. After months of negotiations, the **Treaty of Versailles** was signed on 28 June 1919. This document officially ended World War I and forced Germany to accept responsibility for starting the conflict. It also ordered Germany to pay **reparations** to the Allied Powers.

As a result of the war, the map of Europe was redrawn. Four major European empires – the Austria–Hungary Empire, the Russian Empire, the German Empire and the Ottoman Empire – were broken up and a number of new countries were created in their place. The ruling monarchies of these empires all lost power. The Russian Tsar was overthrown by a communist revolution in 1917; Austria–Hungary was broken up into a number of newly formed states including Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia; and Turkey emerged as a modern, secular republic after the break-up of the Ottoman Empire.

However, World War I was not only a historically significant event in Europe. Far way in Australia, the events and experiences of the war had major effects on our nation's society and relationships with other countries. Australia had become a nation after Federation in 1901. Unlike many other countries, such as the United States and France, the founding of the Australian nation was achieved without the need for revolution. Instead, the Australian people created a nation founded on the principles of modern democracy through peaceful means. The events of World War I, such as the ill-fated invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula in 1915, are often described as our 'coming of age' as a nation and our 'baptism of blood'. In many ways, World War I provided an opportunity to create a national story that expressed our national character and identity.

Source 1 Parade of Australian soldiers at the trenches on the Western Front, following capture of Pozières on 23 July 1916

An overview of the significance of the wars to Australia		
Impact of the wars on returned soldiers and civilians	See Topic 10.18	• Over 300 000 Australians served overseas during World War I, with around a quarter of a million servicemen returning to Australia at the end of the war. Many returned with physical or psychological injuries. Their care and families' financial responsibilities fell on women in the community. The government established a Repatriation Department in 1917 to provide health, compensation, housing and job training for veterans.
Commemorating the war	See Topic 10.18	• Commemoration services on Anzac Day and Remembrance Day both linked to World War I • Aspects of commemoration services still linked to World War I
Different perspectives on the Anzac legend	See Topic 10.17	• The birth of the Anzac legend and its significance today • Differing perspectives on the place of Gallipoli in defining Australia's national identity • Differing views on what Australia should most celebrate

Source 1 An Anzac Day parade, commemorating Australian soldiers who fought in World War I and all wars since

Check your learning 9.2

Remember and understand

1 What European empires disappeared after World War I?
2 Why do so many Australians regard the Gallipoli campaign as a significant event?
3 What is the Treaty of Versailles?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think the Gallipoli campaign has been described as Australia's 'coming of age' and 'baptism of blood'? Do you think these descriptions are accurate? Justify your response.

Unit 3 Australia at war (1914–1945)

World War I (1914–1918)

World War I is often called 'the Great War', 'the first modern war' or 'the war to end all wars'. It was the first war in which modern machine guns, chemical weapons, tanks, fighter aircraft and submarines were used to cause devastation on a global scale. Regardless of what it is called, the events of World War I destroyed entire cities and towns and took the lives of millions of soldiers and civilians.

At the end of World War I, the map of Europe was redrawn. Once-powerful **empires** were broken up and new nations were created in their place. The war also tested Australia's commitment to Great Britain. Although Australia displayed a strong sense of loyalty to Britain by committing troops and resources, the Australian public was divided over the issue of **conscription**.

Today, the sacrifice of those who fought and died in World War I is commemorated in many nations around the world – including Australia.

10A

What were the causes of World War I?

1 There were several short-term and long-term factors that led to the outbreak of World War I in 1914. Make some predictions about what some of these might have been.

10B

How and where was World War I fought?

1 During World War I, there were major developments in warfare and weaponry. Much of this new technology was blamed for extending the war. Why do you think this might have been?

chapter 10

Source 1 Trench warfare was a major part of the fighting that took place across Europe during World War I. This photograph shows the remains of a fallen soldier photographed in the trenches during World War I. It illustrates the horror of daily life in the trenches for soldiers on both sides.

10C

What impact did World War I have on Australia?

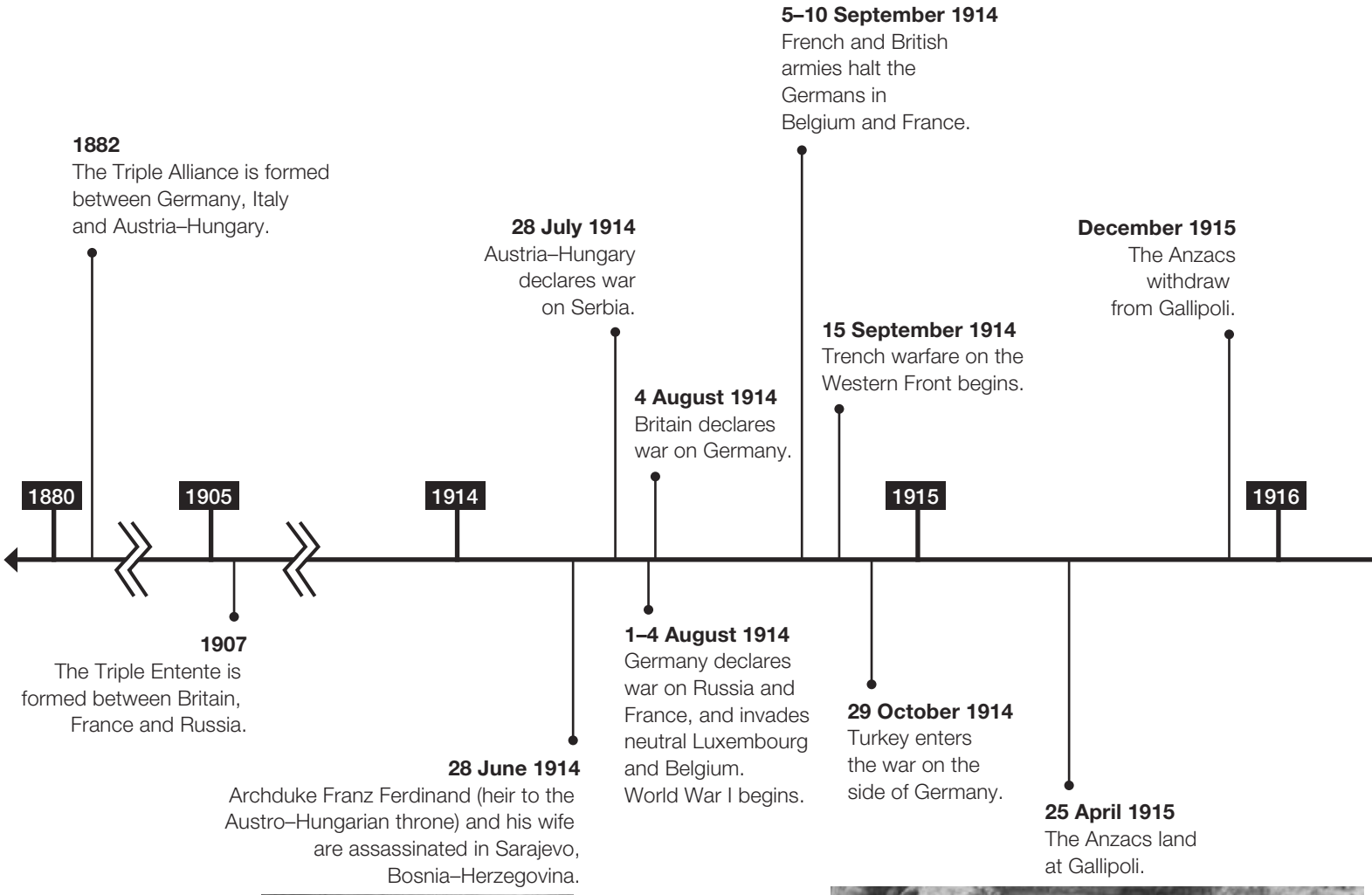
1 World War I had a significant impact on people at home in Australia, especially for women and people of German background. Explain why and how the war might have affected these two groups of people in particular.

10D

How is World War I remembered and commemorated?

1 It has been argued that wars are essential to a nation's development and sense of national identity. Do you believe this is true? Discuss your ideas as a class, making reference to the way in which World War I is commemorated each year.

10.1 World War I: a timeline



Franz Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria

Australian soldiers at Gallipoli

A key moment in the Russian Revolution; the storming of the Winter Palace in 1917

The signing of the Armistice between the Allies and Germany in a railway carriage in the French forest of Compiègne on 11 November 1918

March 1916
The Australian Imperial Force (AIF) joins the fight against Germany on the Western Front.

July–November 1916
The Battle of the Somme; tanks are used for the first time.

28 October 1916
The first referendum on conscription is held in Australia.

April 1917
The USA enters the war.

1917

1917
Fighting continues on the Western Front. Battles are fought at Passchendaele, Ypres, Pozières and Bullecourt.

October 1917
Communist revolution in Russia

March 1918
The Ludendorff Offensive begins – a final attempt by Germany to break through the Allied lines and win the war.

April 1918
Australian troops recapture the town of Villers-Bretonneux in France – costing the lives of around 1200 Australian troops.

1918

8 August 1918
The Battle of Amiens begins. This day will later come to be known as the 'Black Day for the German Army'.

July 1918
The Battle of Le Hamel

11 November 1918
The Armistice (ceasefire) is signed; World War I ends.

1919

January–June 1919
The Paris Peace Conference is held to decide the fate of Germany; the Treaty of Versailles is drawn up.

Check your learning 10.1

Remember and understand

1 When did Britain declare war on Germany?
2 When did the USA enter the war?
3 On what day did World War I end?

Apply and analyse

4 Using the timeline, calculate how long the Gallipoli campaign lasted.
5 Conduct some research to discover why 8 August 1918 became known as the 'Black Day for the German Army'.

10.2 Background to World War I

The outbreak of World War I in 1914 was the result of a complex interaction of tensions that had been building between countries in Europe for more than 20 years. National rivalries, jealousies over territory, competition over economic progress, competition over the size of armies and navies, and the race to colonise new parts of the world all contributed to the tension.

The last major war in Europe (the Franco–Prussian War) was fought between France and a number of independent German kingdoms. The war ended in 1871 when the French were defeated. As a result of their victory, the German states unified to form the German Empire (Germany). After unification, Germany attempted to limit France's power and secure its place in European politics by developing a system of alliances with other countries across Europe. This system changed the way in which many European countries interacted with each other and resulted in the development of two major alliances. All of the most powerful European countries belonged to one or the other of these alliances. These countries believed that their alliances would act as a deterrent to war because if a member of one alliance was attacked by a member of the other alliance, all the members of both alliances would have to become involved. This became known as 'balance of power' politics.

Source 1 An English recruitment poster from World War I

Europe in the lead-up to war

In 1901, the situation in Europe appeared peaceful. Queen Victoria had occupied the British throne for over 60 years and many of her relations and descendants had married into royal houses all over Europe (see Source 2). As a result, many of the royal families of Europe were closely related. Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany and King George V were all first cousins (see Source 3). The wife of Tsar Nicholas II was also one of Queen Victoria's granddaughters.

In the lead-up to World War I, it seemed unlikely that close relations would become involved in armed conflict – let alone fight on opposing sides.

Europe seemed prosperous during this time. The **Industrial Revolution** had transformed Western Europe, with new production methods and advances in technology affecting almost every sector of society. Governments had made improvements in health care, sanitation and assistance for the poor. Roads, canals and railways were making trade and transport cheaper and more accessible. Literacy levels were also rising. On the whole, members of the middle classes across Europe had fought for greater political rights and now enjoyed a higher standard of living. The working classes had also won some basic rights, such as the right to vote in Britain after 1867.

However, this prosperity masked both international and domestic tensions. Despite their close family ties and relationships, there were jealousies among many of the royal families in Europe. Issues such as the different rates of economic progress, the size of colonial empires and the development of weapons, armies and ships all caused rivalry between major European nations.

For example, the rate of economic progress and improvements in the standard of living were unevenly spread across Europe. The Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries led to many advances in Britain and Germany, but had little impact on the nations of Eastern Europe such as Austria–Hungary, the Balkan states and Russia. This contributed further to the rivalry between nations. Even in industrialised nations like Britain and Germany there was a huge gap between rich and poor.

Many working-class families lived in cramped, unsanitary conditions or in urban slums. Women were still not allowed to vote in Europe, and new political movements divided people along class and ethnic lines. Many governments and people were afraid of the rising influence of radical political movements like **socialism** and **anarchism**.

So although Europe seemed to be peaceful before World War I, these rivalries and tensions bubbled away beneath the surface.

Source 2 Queen Victoria (seated front centre) photographed with members of her extended family in 1894. Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany is seated front left.

Source 3 Tsar Nicholas II of Russia (left) with his cousin King George V of England (right) – their mothers were sisters

Check your learning 10.2

Remember and understand

1. Which country was responsible for developing a system of alliances in the 1870s?
2. Why did European countries at the time believe that these alliances would help to prevent war?
3. Explain how it was that so many of Europe's royal families were related.

Apply and analyse

4. How would you summarise the social and political situation in Europe around 1900? Explain your answer.

Evaluate and create

5. Conduct some research into the meanings of socialism and anarchism. Why do you think governments in the early 1900s would have been afraid of the growing influence of these movements?

10.3 Causes of World War I

There were four main factors that contributed to the growing tensions between European countries in the lead-up, to World War I including:

- the alliance system
- nationalism
- imperialism
- militarism.

The alliance system

One of the key factors that led to the outbreak of World War I was the **alliance system**. From the 1870s onwards, Europe's leading nations grouped themselves into two alliances. Over time, these alliances became more formal and legally binding. In 1882, the **Triple Alliance** was formed between the countries of Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy. In 1907, the **Triple Entente** was formed between the countries of Britain, France and Russia (see Source 2). *Entente* is a French word meaning an 'understanding' or 'alliance'. By joining one of these alliances, each participating nation promised to provide military support if one of its members was attacked by a member of the opposing alliance.

Ironically, one of the main goals of the alliance system was actually to prevent the outbreak of war. It was assumed that no single country would go to war against another if there was a risk that a small conflict between two nations could easily build into a large conflict between many countries.

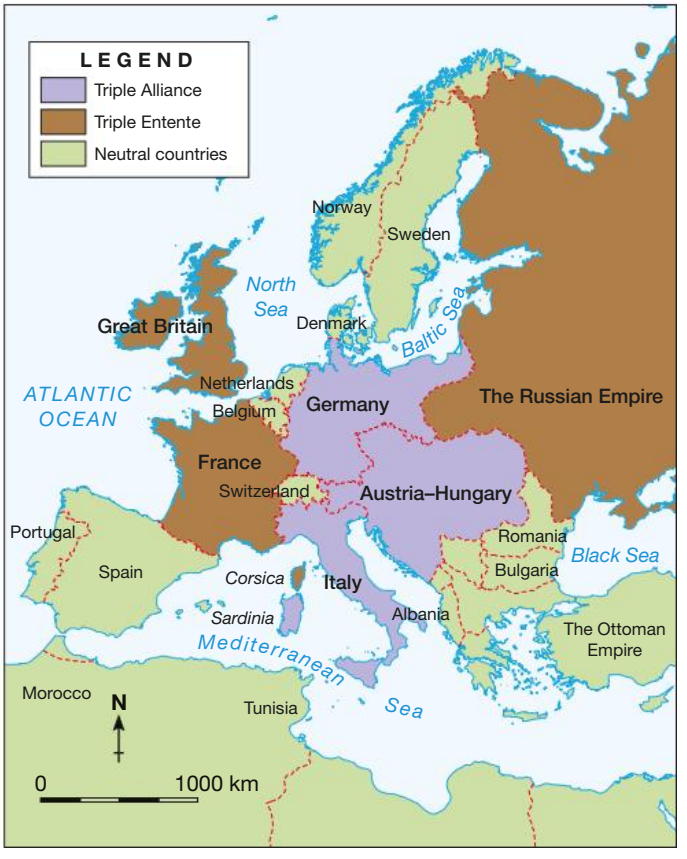
Unfortunately, the alliance system had the opposite effect (see Source 3) and over time these alliances increased the tension between Triple Alliance and Triple Entente countries.

In addition to the key countries shown in Source 2, many other countries, colonies and territories around the world were drawn into the alliance system (see Source 3).

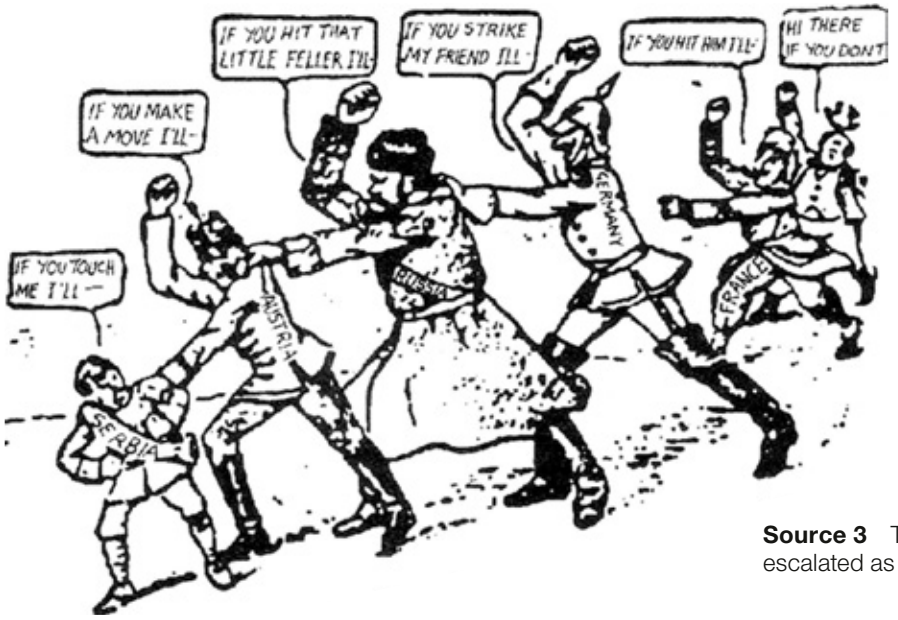
EUROPE: BEFORE THE OUTBREAK OF WORLD WAR I

Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press

EUROPE: DEVELOPMENT OF ALLIANCES 1879–1907



Source 2 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 3 This cartoon illustrates how World War I escalated as a result of the alliance system.

For example, all British colonies (such as India) and dominions (such as Australia and New Zealand) automatically became part of the Triple Entente. Japan had signed a treaty with Britain in 1902 that also meant that they could all be drawn into war if a conflict broke out in Europe. Bosnia–Herzegovina was also considered a member of the Triple Entente because Russia was a key supporter of Bosnia–Herzegovina's bid for independence from Austria–Hungary. A conflict between Bosnia–Herzegovina and Austria–Hungary would therefore become a conflict between all the countries that were members of the two alliances.

Nationalism

Nationalism was another important factor that contributed to the outbreak of war in 1914. Put simply, nationalism is a sense of pride in, and a love of, one's nation. Nationalism grows out of an understanding of common goals and beliefs between the people of a nation – for example, a shared language, culture and history. In Europe, nationalism played an important role in the lead-up to World War I.

Nationalism can either unite or divide the people of a nation or region. For example, feelings of nationalism contributed to the unification of many small German kingdom states to form the German Empire (Germany) in 1871. A sense of nationalism also encouraged cooperation between Germany and Austria–Hungary, because German-language speakers ruled both empires.

However, Austria–Hungary was not only made up of people who thought of themselves as Germans and spoke the German language; it was also made up of many other ethnic and language groups, such as Hungarians, Serbians and Bosnians.

From around 1900 onwards, a number of ethnic groups began fighting for independence from Austria–Hungary. One region attempting to assert its independence was Bosnia–Herzegovina, an area in south-eastern Europe known as the Balkans (see Source 1 on page 262). In the years before World War I, Bosnia–Herzegovina was under the control of Austria–Hungary. However, Bosnia–Herzegovina was made up of many different ethnic groups, including Bosnians, Serbs and Croats, who did not see themselves as historically, ethnically or culturally linked to either Austria or Hungary. Instead, some of the people of Bosnia–Herzegovina wanted to join with Serbia to form their own nation.

Russia had been supporting moves by Bosnia–Herzegovina to become independent and unite with Serbia, so when a Serbian youth was accused of assassinating Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria in 1914, Russia was drawn into the conflict that followed.

Imperialism

Another factor that led to tensions between European countries in the lead-up to World War I was **imperialism**. Imperialism is a policy by which a country increases its power by gaining control over new

territories to create an empire. This is usually carried out for financial and strategic reasons.

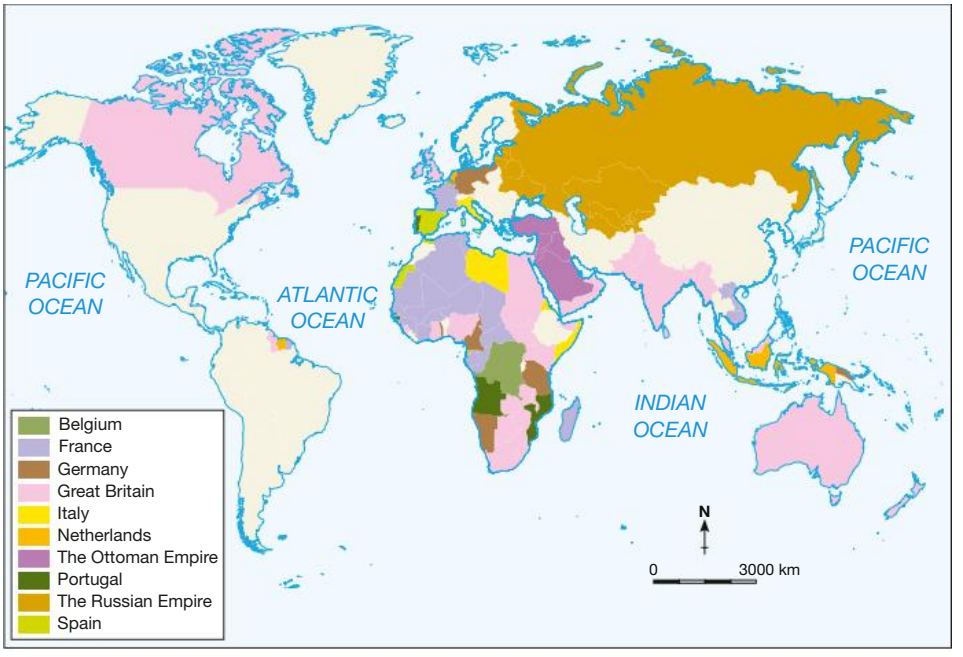
European powers, such as Britain, Spain, France and Portugal had been building empires around the world since the 15th century. Since that time they had claimed new territories and colonised much of North and South America, Australia and parts of Asia (see Source 4). By the late 19th century, European nations were engaged in a new wave of imperialism. This time, they competed to be the first to claim new territories across Africa. Historians often refer to this period as the 'scramble for Africa'.

The main rivals in the race for new colonies in Africa were Britain, France and Germany. At this time, Britain had the largest empire, with **colonies** and **dominions** (such as Australia) all over the world. France also had many colonies around the world. Germany, however, had only been a unified nation since 1871 and was still trying to build a large colonial empire in order to compete with France and Britain. In 1905, and again in 1911, Kaiser Wilhelm (William) II, the ruler of Germany, attempted to block further colonial expansion by France. He did this by sending German troops to take control of a number of French colonies in North Africa. In both cases, France, with Britain's support, resisted Germany's attacks, resulting in the defeat of Germany. Once again, these events escalated the tension between major European powers.

Militarism

Militarism is the belief that all nations should build and maintain strong armed forces so that they are prepared to defend themselves against attack or promote their national interests. In the lead-up to World War I, many European countries competed with each other not only over the size of their empires, but also over the size of their armies. Between 1870 and 1914,

WORLD: EUROPEAN EMPIRES BY 1914



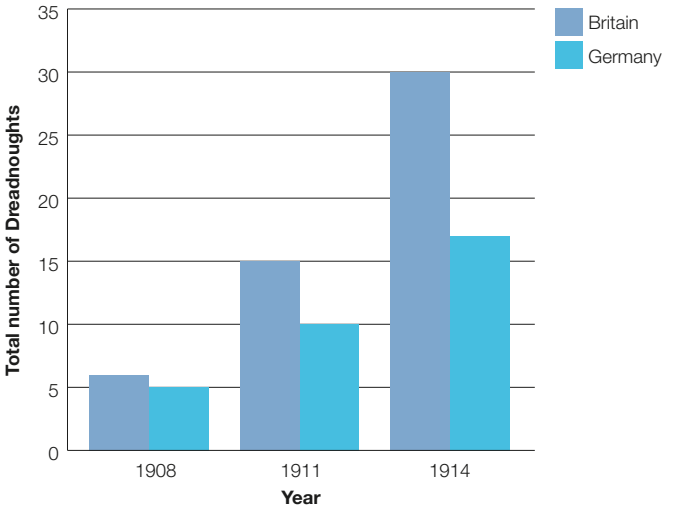
Source 4 Source: Oxford University Press

Source 5 Military spending and soldier numbers of key European powers, 1913–14

Country	Size of population (millions)	Military spending (US$ millions)	Soldier numbers (millions)
Germany	67	60	8.25
Britain	45.8	50	0.75
France	39.6	40	1.5
Austria–Hungary	52.8	22.5	0.65
Russia	139	15.5	1.25
Italy	35.5	10	0.75

military spending in many European countries increased on average by about 300 per cent. After 1871, all the major European nations except Britain also introduced conscription, which meant that all men over the age of 18 were forced to serve a minimum period in the armed forces such as the army or navy.

By 1900, Britain had developed the largest and strongest navy in the world. It needed a navy of this size to administer and control its huge overseas empire. When Germany started to build up its own navy, Britain became suspicious. Germany and Britain began competing over who could build the most 'Dreadnoughts' – a very fast, powerful and heavily armoured battleship (see Source 7). By early 1914, even though the leaders of Europe were still talking of peace, they were clearly involved in an arms race and were preparing for war.



Source 6 Graph comparing the growth in numbers of Dreadnoughts held by the British and German navies in the lead-up to World War I

Source 7 A picture taken of the Royal Navy's HMS *Dreadnought*. It made such an impact when introduced in 1906 that all battleships built after that time became known as 'Dreadnoughts'.

Check your learning 10.3

Remember and understand

1 Define the following terms in your own words:
   - **a** imperialism
   - **b** nationalism
   - **c** the alliance system.

2 What were the two major alliances formed before World War I? Which countries were the members of the two alliances?

3 Why was Germany's colonial empire so much smaller than Britain's in the lead-up to World War I?

Apply and analyse

4 Using Sources 5 and 6, explain what is meant by the term 'arms race'. Explain the possible reasons why major European powers began to increase the size of their armed forces between 1900 and 1914.

Evaluate and create

5 Do you think an arms race necessarily means that war is likely? Give reasons for your answer.

10.4 The outbreak of World War I

The event that finally triggered the outbreak of World War I in 1914 took place in the Balkan states. The Balkans is an area of south-eastern Europe made up of countries such as Romania, Serbia, Greece, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Bulgaria (see Source 2). The Balkan states were politically very unstable in the lead-up to World War I. Three major imperial powers were actively involved in the region: Austria–Hungary, the Russian Empire and the Ottoman (Turkish) Empire.

The complex relationships between these powers made the Balkans a potential crisis point. Austria–Hungary controlled parts of the Balkans. In 1908 Austria–Hungary annexed (took control of) Bosnia–Herzegovina. Different ethnic groups in Bosnia–Herzegovina, such as the Serbs, did not see themselves as either Austrian or Hungarian and wanted to join together to form their own nation. They began a nationalist movement and began protesting to achieve independence from Austria–Hungary. The Russian Empire supported the Serbian nationalists because they wanted Bosnia–Herzegovina to become part of Serbia.

The emperor of Austria–Hungary was aware of this growing tension in the Balkans. Believing that the people of Bosnia–Herzegovina would be charmed and won over by a royal visit, he sent his nephew, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and the Archduke's wife Sophie, on a goodwill visit to the city of Sarajevo. On 28 June 1914, while many people lined the streets to welcome the royal couple, a Serb nationalist by the name of Gavrilo Princip took the opportunity to show his feelings towards their imperial rulers. During the parade, he shot and killed the Archduke and his wife (see Source 3).

EUROPE: 1914

Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press

DETAIL OF THE BALKAN STATES IN 1914

Source 2 Source: Oxford University Press

Source 3 An artist's impression of the assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife in Sarajevo

The 'July Crisis' and declarations of war

From that point on, the results of a single event in the Balkan region of south-eastern Europe escalated into a European war. The key to the spread of the conflict was the complex alliance system that developed in Europe between the 1870s and 1907.

Immediately after the **assassination**, Austria–Hungary blamed the government of neighbouring Serbia. The following month was a confusing and frantic period of bluff, threats and negotiations between key European powers that became known as the 'July Crisis'. The Austrians issued a series of 10 harsh demands to Serbia. Serbia agreed to nine of the demands, but to accept all would have meant that Serbia lost any real independence, so negotiations broke down.

Exactly one month after the assassination, Austria–Hungary declared war on Serbia. The next day, Serbia turned to its ally Russia for support. Russia was also a Slavic nation and promised to protect Serbia against Austria–Hungary and its ally in the Triple Alliance, Germany. Russia then began preparing its army for war. On 31 July, Germany demanded that Russia stop these preparations. When Russia did not respond, Germany declared war. At the same time, the Germans also asked the French government what its intentions were. France issued a vague response, stating that it would 'follow its own interests'. In reality though, France was obligated to support its ally Russia as both were members of the Triple Entente.

The Schlieffen Plan and the invasion of Belgium

At this point, Germany was faced with hostile forces preparing for war on both its eastern and western borders. This was a threat that Germany had feared ever since France and Russia became members of the Triple Entente in 1907. The German response was to use a special military plan devised by a military strategist called Alfred von Schlieffen. It became known as the Schlieffen Plan. The Schlieffen Plan called for German troops to launch an all-out attack on France by passing through neutral Belgium. The aim was that the French forces could be defeated before the huge Russian army was ready to go to war. That way, Germany would not have to fight France and Russia at once. Instead, with France defeated, it was thought that Germany could concentrate solely on fighting Russia. The Schlieffen Plan was based on the following assumptions:

- Russia would take at least six weeks to get its army ready for war.
- France would be easily defeated in six weeks.
- Belgium would not resist any German attack.
- Britain would remain neutral.

The main problem with the Schlieffen Plan was that it violated Belgium's neutrality. Britain had signed a treaty with Belgium in 1839 guaranteeing to come to its defence if another country attempted to invade its borders. As a result, the German invasion of Belgium forced Britain to become involved in the growing conflict.

Source 4

Key dates in the lead-up to World War I	
28 June 1914	Archduke Franz Ferdinand is assassinated.
23 July 1914	Austria–Hungary presents 10 demands to Serbia.
25 July 1914	Serbia agrees to only nine of the 10 demands.
28 July 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Serbia.
29 July 1914	Russia promises support for Serbia.
1 August 1914	Germany declares war on Russia.
3 August 1914	Germany declares war on France and invades Belgium.
4 August 1914	Britain declares war on Germany (Australia becomes involved).
6 August 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Russia.
23 August 1914	Japan (an ally of Britain) declares war on Germany.
29 October 1914	Turkey enters the war on the side of Germany.
23 May 1915	Italy enters the war on the side of the Triple Entente.

The war escalates

On 3 August 1914, British Prime Minister Herbert Asquith and Foreign Secretary Sir Edward Grey sent a message to the German government announcing that Britain would declare war if Germany did not withdraw its troops from Belgium by midnight. There was no response to the message, so on 4 August 1914, Britain and its empire found itself at war with Germany.

Italy was also a member of the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria–Hungary. It was expected that Italy would join the war on their side. However, under the wording of the Triple Alliance, members were not to support each other if one had been the aggressor. Italy used this clause to remain neutral at the start of the war and to switch to the Triple Entente in May 1915.

Turkey entered the war on the side of the Triple Alliance in October 1914. It was against Turkey that Australia's first land battles took place. The USA also came into the war, on the side of the Triple Entente (or Allies), in April 1917 after German submarine attacks on passenger ships resulted in the deaths of hundreds of American civilians.

key**concept:** Contestability

The Schlieffen Plan

Historical events can become contestable with the release of new sources of information. The Schlieffen Plan is a good example of this because it has become the accepted explanation of German tactics in 1914. More recently, however, historians like Terence Zuber have used material released from German archives after the fall of the Berlin Wall to challenge this view. They argue that the 1905 Schlieffen Plan was not a practical war plan, but actually a theoretical training exercise. This argument is based on inconsistencies between the 1905 Schlieffen Plan and the German mobilisation plans implemented in 1914.

Zuber points out that the Schlieffen Plan was for a war against France on a single front, yet in 1914 Germany was planning for a war against France and Russia. The actual document outlining the Schlieffen Plan was also in the possession of Alfred von Schlieffen's daughters in 1914, rather than with the military.

Historians have to be prepared to accept the emergence of new evidence that challenges accepted beliefs. The Schlieffen Plan has long been accepted as fact, but as Zuber argues, it can now be regarded as contestable.

For more information on the key concept of contestability, refer to page 12 of 'The history toolkit'.

Check your learning 10.4

Remember and understand

1 Which European power took control over Bosnia–Herzegovina in 1908?
2 Which Balkan state believed that Bosnia–Herzegovina should break away from Austria–Hungary and join it? Why did Russia support this move?
3 Why did Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife tour Sarajevo?
4 Why did Serbia refuse to comply with the last of 10 demands issued by Austria–Hungary after the assassination?
5 What was the event that involved Britain in the war in Europe?

Apply and analyse

6 Explain why there is now historical debate surrounding the importance of the Schlieffen Plan in understanding Germany's actions at the start of World War I?

Evaluate and create

7 Use the information provided to construct a flow chart that clearly explains the key events that lead to the outbreak of World War I in 1914.
8 Using the Internet conduct research about the difference between the 1905 Schlieffen Plan and the plans used by Germany in 1914. Put this information into a table to compare the two plans.

10.5 Australia's entry into World War I

Before the outbreak of World War I, Europe had been relatively peaceful for over 40 years. The last major war (the Franco–Prussian War) had been fought in 1871, meaning that a whole generation of young men and women across Europe had grown up with no real experience of war. The same was true of Australia. Apart from a small number of soldiers who had fought for Britain in Africa during the late 1800s, Australians had no experience of war and had little understanding of what it meant.

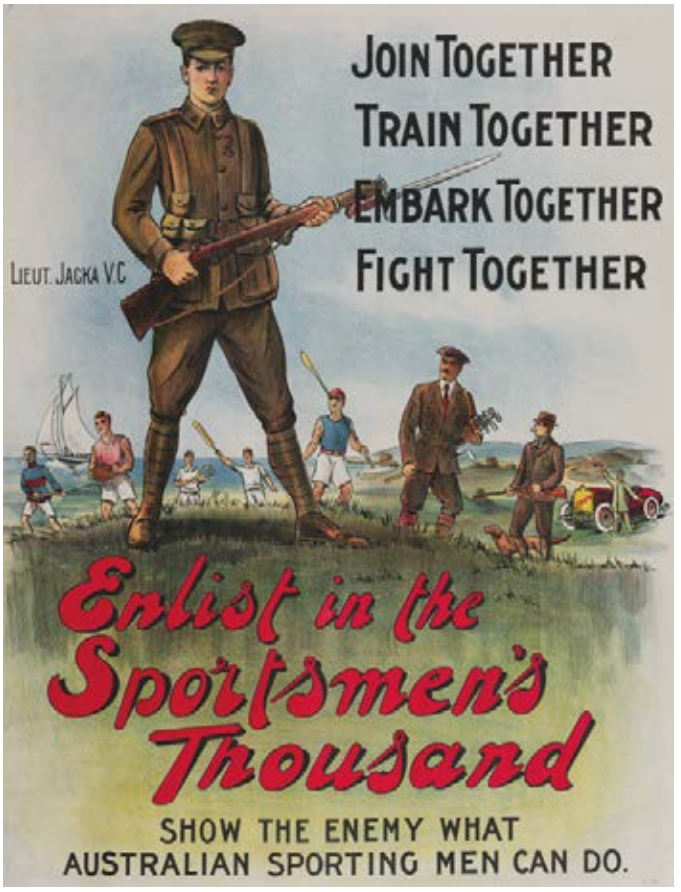
Largely as a result of this inexperience, there was a perception that war was glorious, exciting and heroic. Young people, especially boys, were brought up on military stories and were taught military drills in school. In these stories, the heroes were rarely wounded or killed; they won their battles effortlessly, and the drills taught them to obey orders and work together. This idealistic outlook on war and military involvment encouraged a romantic view of military action.

The great adventure

When World War I began in 1914, Australia had been a single, federated (united) country for only 13 years. Although Australia was a self-governing country, it was still a dominion of the British Empire and was obliged to follow the instructions of Britain in many areas of government. As a result, when Britain declared war on Germany, Australia automatically became involved, as did all other countries that were part of the British Empire.

In Australia, a wave of enthusiasm for the war effort swept the country. The men of Australia rushed to enlist in the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). According to legend, many were concerned that the war might end before they got to Europe. The Australian government initially promised to supply 20000 men to the British war effort by the end of 1914 – in reality, the number of men enlisted by this time was around 50000.

Source 1 An Australian recruitment poster from 1915



Source 2 An Australian recruitment poster from 1917

The reasons for enlistment were varied and complex. Some men were driven by a desire to show what their new nation could contribute to a world conflict. Others went to war purely out of loyalty to 'the mother country' – Britain. Many of the first wave of volunteers who enlisted to fight were former British soldiers. Others were British citizens who happened to be living in Australia. In addition to these people, some wanted to show their support for Britain in case Australia should need Britain's help at some stage in the future.

There were young men who joined out of a spirit of adventure. These men saw the war as an opportunity to leave home, see the world, meet beautiful foreign women and experience life beyond Australia's shores. Whole football and cricket teams joined, as did groups of workmates from businesses and factories in cities and country towns. Many women encouraged their husbands, boyfriends, brothers and even fathers to enlist. Many young women preferred to socialise with men in uniform.

The opportunity to earn a good income also acted as an incentive. The pay was 6 shillings (60 cents) per day, a figure calculated to match the average wage of Australian workers, minus the cost of rations. The promise of regular pay also encouraged many unemployed men to volunteer. As the war progressed, hatred of the enemy also became a motivation for enlistment. Propaganda stories (often exaggerated) of German atrocities were used in recruiting campaigns.

In every city and town, recruiting rallies were held. Platforms would be set up with the Australian and British flags side by side as a backdrop to the speeches. High-profile sportsmen such as footballers, cricketers and athletes would be planted in the crowd. When the call went out for young men to step forward and sign up, it was frequently one of these sportsmen who led the charge.

Among those who offered to enlist were also Aboriginal Australians. Only 400 Aborigines were accepted for service – all others were rejected on the basis that they were not 'of substantial European origin or descent'. When Australian soldiers returned from World War I, there were many benefits available to them to assist their readjustment to civilian life. Aboriginal soldiers, however, were denied access to these benefits.

Of course, not all motives for joining the war effort were noble. There were stories (perhaps just rumours) of soldiers changing their names before enlisting in order to get away from their wives or other commitments. Others enlisted to escape the boredom of jobs they hated, to leave school early, or to escape the strict rules and confines of their family homes.

Those who had fought in the Boer War (1899–1902) in Africa had some understanding of the brutality of war but, for most, war seems to have meant adventure. Based on all of the thoughts that ran through the heads of those who enlisted, particularly in the first few months, the idea of death or even injury seems to have been very much in the background.

Questioning voices

Despite the positive response by many, not all Australians were enthusiastic about the war. Some argued that it was not Australia's war and that Australian troops would make little difference to the final outcome of the war. Others were opposed to the war because they were **pacifists** – people who are opposed to violence and war. One group of pacifists were the Jehovah's Witnesses, a religious group whose beliefs prevented them from participating in any armed conflict or wars.

There was also a small group known as **conscientious objectors** – people who opposed war and refused to perform military service because it went against their beliefs, religion or conscience. The Women's Peace Army, led by a woman named Vida Goldstein (see Source 3) was a women's organisation made up of pacifists and conscientious objectors. Their mission was to mobilise women in Australia who opposed the war. Goldstein, who was also a well-known **suffragette** (a woman demanding the right to vote), attracted large numbers of people to public meetings.

Finally, there was a small number of Australians who did not enlist because they were afraid, or because they believed it was in their best interests financially to stay at home. Very few records relating to these people exist today, but we do know that those who were reluctant to go to war often used excuses such as poor health or family responsibilities to explain their decision not to enlist.

In total, however, all of the groups who objected to the war only made up a small percentage of the total population. In 1914 and through most of 1915, the dominant feeling towards the war was positive and supportive. It was only as the harsh reality of war became clear to Australians that this initial enthusiasm began to fade away.

Source 3 Vida Goldstein, president of the Women's Peace Army, was both a suffragette and a pacifist.

Check your learning 10.5

Remember and understand

1 What was the attitude of most Australians to war before 1914? Why did they hold this attitude?
2 What were three reasons why an Australian might have wanted to enlist?
3 Why were some Aboriginal Australians not accepted for service?
4 Why were some people or groups not enthusiastic about the war?

Apply and analyse

5 Examine the two recruiting posters (Sources 1 and 2).
   a Identify the techniques used on these posters to encourage Australian men to enlist such as:
      - the overall message of the poster (what it wants the viewer to do)
      - any emotions the poster taps into
      - the effect that the poster may have had on people at the time.
   b Now identify the key features, such as:
      - symbols and images
      - words
      - arrangement of the images and words
      - colours of the posters.
   c Which poster do you think would have been more successful at the time? Justify your answer based on the techniques and elements used.

Evaluate and create

6 Use a range of print and digital resources to locate and print a series of recruitment posters from World War I (two of which must be Australian). Be sure to include posters from a range of different countries that were involved in World War I. Analyse these posters, looking for points such as:
   - appeal to sense of national identity
   - appeal to sense of adventure and excitement
   - appeal to sense of outrage and anger at the enemy.

   Create a PowerPoint presentation in which you identify the key features and techniques of the posters in each category. Discuss whether you think each poster was successful in encouraging people to get involved in the war effort and why.

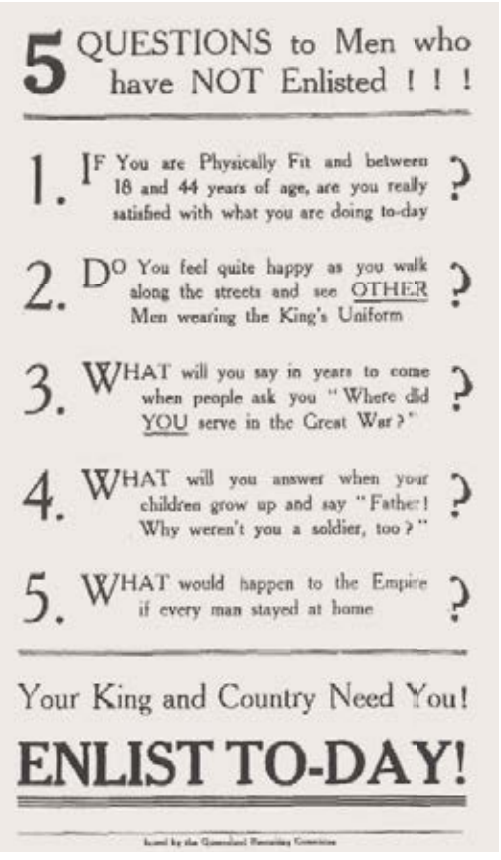
10A rich task

Why Australians enlisted to fight

When Britain declared war on Germany, Australia (part of the British Empire) was also obligated to enter the war. The Prime Minister of Australia Joseph Cook said in August 1914:

> …Whatever happens, Australia is part of the Empire, right to the full. When the Empire is at war, Australia is at war.

All major political parties, churches, community leaders and newspapers seemed to support Australia's entry to war. It was seen as a moral and necessary commitment. There was a rush to the recruiting offices. Early in the war, only the very fittest and healthiest men were accepted.



5 QUESTIONS to Men who have NOT Enlisted ! ! !

1. IF You are Physically Fit and between 18 and 44 years of age, are you really satisfied with what you are doing to-day ?
2. DO You feel quite happy as you walk along the streets and see OTHER Men wearing the King's Uniform ?
3. WHAT will you say in years to come when people ask you "Where did YOU serve in the Great War?" ?
4. WHAT will you answer when your children grow up and say "Father! Why weren't you a soldier, too?" ?
5. WHAT would happen to the Empire if every man stayed at home ?

Your King and Country Need You!

ENLIST TO-DAY!

Source 1
A recruitment poster for World War I issued by the Queensland Recruiting Committee

Source 2

Turn your eyes to the European situation and give the kindest feelings towards the mother country at this time. I sincerely hope that international arbitration will avail before Europe is convulsed in the greatest war of any time. All, I am sure, will regret the critical position existing at the present time, and pray that a disastrous war may be averted. But should the worst happen after everything has been done that honour will permit, Australians will stand beside our own to help and defend her to our last man and our last shilling.

An excerpt from a speech by Andrew Fisher, Leader of the Opposition (later Prime Minister), in 1914 just before the outbreak of war

Source 3

I wasn't eighteen. I was working on the lathe [carpentry tool], next to another chap … I said to him 'Why don't you enlist?' I said 'I'll enlist if you do'… I went right up to Victoria Barracks and enlisted. We left the factory and I had to get my father's signature. Well, I forged that.

Stan D'Altera (in A Thomson, *Anzac Memories*, Oxford University Press, p. 27)

Source 4

I have joined the Australian Army … it's not bad money here, 5/- [shillings] a day and clothes and food … nearly as good as cabinet making and not half as hard. You may [think] it's funny [my] turning up such a good job, but … this [employer] had only about three days work left for us … things are so bad out here for there is a drought on and we haven't had any rain for months, so I thought I would join the army.

Corporal RE Antill in a letter to his parents, 1914 (defencemagazine)

Source 5

I have enlisted and I don't regret it in the very least. I believe it is every young fellow's duty. There are far better men than any of us have already gone… we are the sort of men who ought to go.

Private AJ McSparrow (in B Gammage, *The Broken Years*, p. 7)

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources is one of the most important, and perhaps most difficult, historical skills you need to master. The first thing to understand is that these terms '*reliable*' and '*useful*' are not interchangeable. A source can be both unreliable and useful at the same time, or both reliable and not useful at the same time.

Step 1 Evaluating reliability

To determine the reliability of a source, you need to identify whether it is biased. Being biased means having an unbalanced or one-sided opinion. **Bias** is found in secondary and primary sources. It is natural for people to show their opinion when they write something. To recognise bias in a source, ask yourself the following questions:

- Who wrote it or made it?
- When was it written or made?
- Why was it written or made?
- Was the person who wrote or made it paid? If so, who paid them?
- Does it distort the facts?
- Does it give one side of the story, or is it balanced?
- Can the views expressed in this source be verified by another source?

By finding the answers to these questions, you can come to a conclusion about whether the source is biased. Make sure you give specific reasons for your conclusion. You need to explain how and why a source is biased, and how this bias affects its reliability. The more biased the source, the less reliable it is. But remember, no single source is ever completely reliable or unreliable.

Step 2 Evaluating usefulness

Some historical sources are more useful than others. But sources are not simply useful or not useful in their own right. They are useful or not useful depending on what you wish to find out from them.

Just because a source is biased does not automatically mean that it is not useful. It may be extremely useful if you are investigating the opinions of a particular group at a particular time. However, if you are investigating 'the facts' of an event, a biased source may be much less useful.

For example, anti-Chinese **propaganda** during the gold rushes may be very useful when considering Australian attitudes towards migrants in the 19th century, but not much use as evidence about the important role that Chinese migrants played in the development of the Australian economy. So to reach a conclusion about whether a source is 'useful', you need to be very clear about *what* you want to use the source for.

Use the following steps to evaluate a source's usefulness.

- Be clear about what historical question you are investigating.
- Identify whether the source is biased/reliable using the process described.
- Look at what the source is telling you and compare it to what you need/would like to know. Remember to consider both explicit and implicit messages.
- Ask yourself: what are the uses of this source for answering my historical question?
- Ask yourself: what are the problems of using this source to answer my historical question?
- Make a final judgement about the source's usefulness for your purposes.

Apply the skill

Read each of the sources provided in this section. Then, using the steps provided:

1. Evaluate each source's reliability.
2. Evaluate how useful each source would be in explaining the factors that motivated Australian men to enlist.
3. Evaluate how useful each source would be in explaining the methods used by the Australian Government to encourage men to enlist.

Be sure to explain how you reached your conclusions.

Extend your understanding

1. Think about some of the reasons why young men decided to enlist for World War I. Do you think the same reasons apply for young Australians who enlist to fight in wars today?
2. Visit the Australian Army Reserve website.
   - **a** Identify some of the methods used by the creators of the website to encourage Australians to join the Reserves.
   - **b** Create a Venn diagram to demonstrate the similarities and differences between these methods.

10.6 The nature of warfare in World War I

Unlike earlier wars, World War I was fought across a large part of the world and involved many countries. Britain, France and Russia fought against Germany and its allies on the Western Front (a zone of fighting in Western Europe). Germany also fought against Russia on the Eastern Front (a zone of fighting in Eastern Europe). There was also fighting in Turkey and the Middle East, and in North Africa. Finally, there were small conflicts in the Pacific Ocean, where a combined effort of Japanese and Australian forces took over German colonies in New Guinea. The common feature across all regions and theatres was the emergence of new technologies.

New technologies

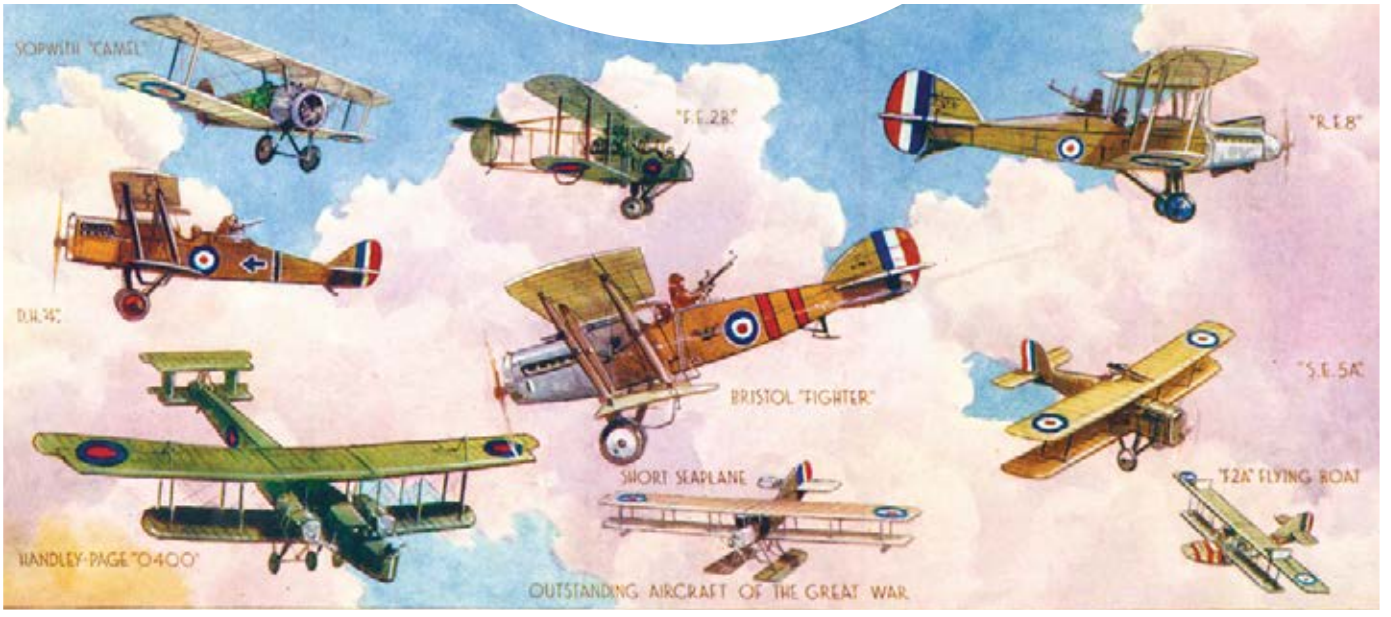
Over the course of World War I, many new technologies were introduced and existing technologies such as military vehicles and weapons were improved. Developments in powerful long-range weaponry, such as the machine gun and heavy artillery, were particularly important. Deadly new chemical weapons and gases were also a significant development.

Much of this technology is blamed for extending the war, as the conflict quickly became an evenly matched battle of technology and tactics, with neither side able to break the deadlock. Unlike earlier wars, in which the soldiers moved around constantly to gain an advantage, both sides on the Western Front were forced to dig **trenches** for protection, bringing the armies to a stalemate.

Guns and artillery

Machine guns, which had first been used during the American Civil War, were improved for use in World War I (see Source 2). Many were capable of firing up to 600 rounds of ammunition (bullets) per minute in short bursts. Facing one machine gun was similar to facing 250 soldiers with standard rifles. Although these new machine guns often overheated and were heavy and difficult to move through the mud, they were devastating when used against oncoming troops.

Heavy artillery guns were also used widely in World War I for the first time. Like canons, these guns could fire large shells over a long distance, usually projecting them in an arc to land on the target from above. Like machine guns, heavy artillery guns were heavy and difficult to move. They were usually mounted on wheels that often became bogged down in the mud or got stuck in bomb craters.



Source 1 British aircraft like the ones shown here played a vital role in World War I.

Source 2 British machine gun operators wearing gas masks fire on the enemy during the Battle of the Somme in 1916.

Gas

In April 1915, Germany introduced poison gas as a weapon of war (see Source 4). Chlorine, which was blown over the enemy trenches, burned and destroyed the respiratory tracts (airways) of anyone without a gas mask, causing terrible pain and death. Other gases were introduced throughout the war, including mustard and tear gas. Poison-gas attacks were so horrific that the use of chemical and biological weapons was banned under a treaty signed in 1925 known as the Geneva Protocol.

Tanks

The British army introduced the first tanks into the war in September 1916 at the Battle of the Somme in France. While they were successful at overcoming barbed-wire obstacles and trenches, the mechanical unreliability of these early tanks meant they were not always so useful. The first tanks were designed and built quickly, so they frequently broke down or became stuck in muddy trenches. The crews inside the tanks had to endure unbearably hot and noisy conditions, almost constantly choking on the fumes inside the cab. By the end of 1917, improvements in the design and manufacture – and tank battle tactics – made tanks more effective.

Source 4 A soldier and dog wearing gas masks work to find the wounded in areas where poison gas has been used.

Aircraft

Large-scale aerial warfare was conducted for the first time during World War I. At first, small planes were used to scout for enemy positions. Later, planes armed with machine guns were used in aerial combats, known as **dogfights**.

Huge airships called **zeppelins** (named after their inventor Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin) were used by the Germans in the first air raid over England in January 1915. Made of a cylindrical metal frame covered with fabric and filled with gasbags full of hydrogen, zeppelins were able to fly higher than conventional aircraft and drift almost silently over their targets. This made zeppelins difficult to shoot down with normal anti-aircraft guns. The ability to hit targets accurately from a zeppelin was poor though, and they were also vulnerable to strong winds that could blow them off course. Towards the end of the war, zeppelins were largely replaced by multi-engine bomber planes, such as the Gotha G.V. bomber (see Source 3). Britain responded with its equivalent, the Handley Page Type O bomber (see Source 1, bottom left corner).

Source 3 German airmen attach a 100-kilogram bomb to the underside of a Gotha G.V. bomber.

War at sea

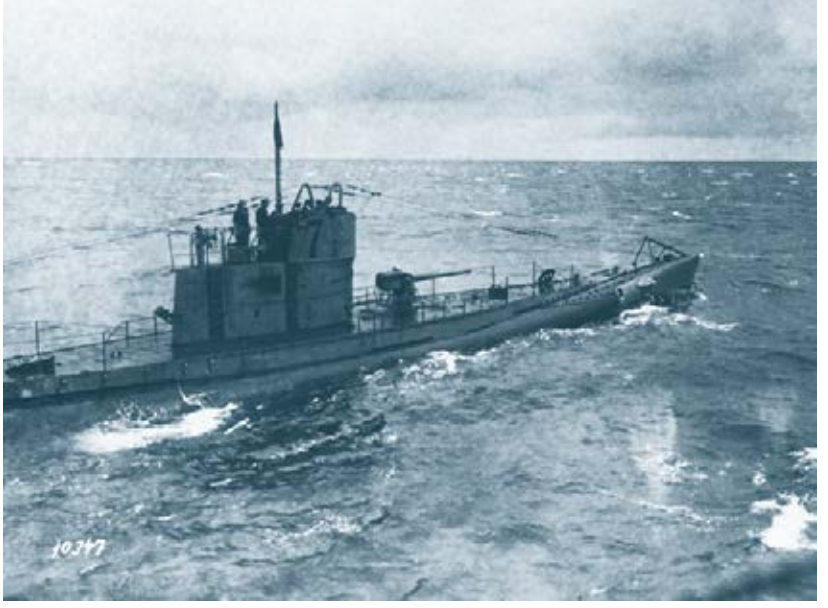
In 1914, the sea was vital for transportation, trade and communications. Protecting the sea lanes in your own waters – or striking at those of the enemy – was an essential part of the war effort.

Submarines were widely used during World War I. Initially they were used by the Germans to attack and sink trade ships carrying imported food and vital goods between allied countries. German submarines were commonly referred to as U-boats, short for *Unterseeboote* (undersea boats). U-boats were able to disrupt the movement of goods and people by sea and struck fear into those travelling by sea.

Another naval tactic that reduced the ability of ships to carry soldiers and supplies was the laying of underwater mines (explosives) in the North Sea. Although agreements had been made regarding where mines could be placed, neither side was very strict when following them. Mines made the North Sea a very dangerous place for ships. This was also a problem for the **neutral nations** of Norway and Sweden, which were heavily reliant on the North Sea for fishing and trade with the rest of the world.

Communications

Advances in communication technologies during World War I allowed faster contact between commanding officers behind the scenes and soldiers fighting on the front line. The development of telephone and wireless (radio) systems allowed instant reports from the battlefield to be passed to command centres. Tactical decisions could be made much more quickly. On the downside, telephone lines had to be laid in each new location where fighting took place and were easily damaged by artillery. Wireless radios were also very heavy and difficult to move. Despite the increased use of these new technologies, soldiers still acted as runners to relay information. Motorbike couriers, carrier pigeons and even dogs were used at times (see Source 6).



Source 5 A surfaced German U-boat during World War I

Source 6 Dogs were sometimes used to carry messages to and from the battlefield. This dog is bringing orders to a soldier in the trenches.

Check your learning 10.6

Remember and understand

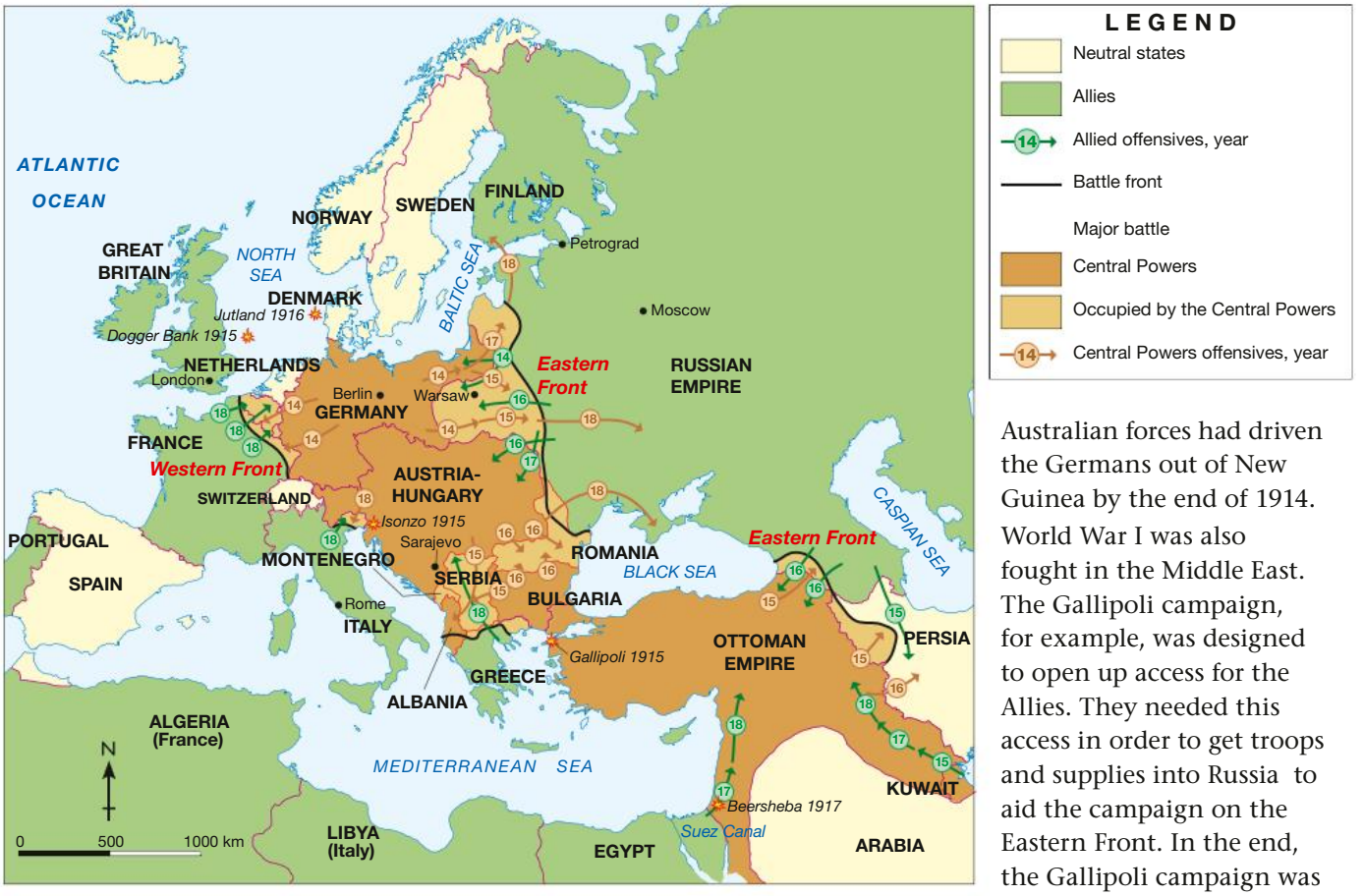
1. Identify three ways in which the technologies used in World War I were different from those used in earlier wars.
2. In what ways did submarines change the way World War I was fought?

Apply and analyse

3. Do you think new developments in technology actually prolonged the war? Explain your answer.
4. Why do you think that the use of poison gas was banned under the Geneva Protocol in 1925, while the use of other types of weapons was not?
5. What were the advantages and disadvantages of new developments in communication technologies?

10.7 Where World War I was fought

WORLD WAR I: MAJOR BATTLES AND ALLIANCES



Source 1 Source: Oxford University Press

In World War I, the greatest loss of life took place in Europe. Many of the best-known land battles of World War I were played out in an area in France and Belgium known as the Western Front (see Source 1). However, the Eastern Front was also very important, especially in terms of the conflict between Germany and Russia. A third front, along the border between Italy and Austria, was the scene of fierce fighting and great loss of life.

Because so many European nations had large colonial empires, people from all over the world participated in the conflict. Members of the British Commonwealth (such as Australia, India, South Africa, Canada and New Zealand) were involved in the conflict. The war came close to Australia because Germany had colonies in Samoa and New Guinea. As early as August 1914, New Zealand forces occupied German Samoa with no loss of life.

Australian forces had driven the Germans out of New Guinea by the end of 1914. World War I was also fought in the Middle East. The Gallipoli campaign, for example, was designed to open up access for the Allies. They needed this access in order to get troops and supplies into Russia to aid the campaign on the Eastern Front. In the end, the Gallipoli campaign was abandoned, but not before the deaths of around 140 000 soldiers from countries including Britain, Canada, France, Australia, New Zealand, India and Turkey. More than half of those killed were from Turkey.

Following the withdrawal from Gallipoli in December 1915, some of the Allied troops, including the Australian Light Horse, were redeployed to Palestine where they fought alongside Arab tribes against Turkish troops from the Ottoman Empire.

Japan, a rapidly modernising nation, was also involved on the side of the Triple Entente. In response to a request from Britain in 1914, Japanese ships led raids on German naval vessels around Chinese waters. The Japanese further provided 17 battleships to assist British naval actions in the Mediterranean Sea and in South Africa. Japan also took advantage of the war situation to extend its power and influence in China.

key**concept:** Contestability

Lawrence of Arabia

When World War I began, TE Lawrence (see Source 2) was a university student, specialising in the study of Middle Eastern archaeology. In October 1914, he became a member of British intelligence and shipped out to Cairo in Egypt. Over the course of the war, Lawrence became a close adviser to an Arabic prince by the name of Emir Faisal. Lawrence and Faisal helped to unite a number of Arabic tribes and convince them to fight against the troops of the Ottoman Empire. During the war, the Ottoman Empire was a member of the Central Powers fighting against the Allies (see Source 1). Lawrence convinced the Arabic tribes to support British troops and military strategies.

Lawrence also worked with the Arab tribes against the Ottoman Turks and supported their demands for independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1916 – an event known as the Arab Revolt. His adventures earned him the title 'Lawrence of Arabia' and made him a popular hero in Britain during the war. Later, Lawrence's reputation as a heroic figure was questioned by historians who contested the accuracy of his reports and writings about the role he played in the Arab Revolt.

For more information on the key concept of contestability, refer to page 12 in 'The history toolkit'.

Source 2 TE Lawrence – also known as Lawrence of Arabia – in 1915

The USA enters the war

At the start of the war in 1914, the USA remained a neutral country, but its sympathies definitely lay with the members of the Triple Entente – Britain, France and Russia. In the early years of the war, the USA continued to trade with Britain and provided indirect support for the war effort in Europe by transporting supplies across the Atlantic Ocean.

In an attempt to stop this trade, the Germans began to use submarine warfare. On 7 May 1915, the British passenger ship *Lusitania* was sunk by a German submarine, killing 1198 passengers (see Source 3). Among the dead were 128 Americans.

Following the sinking of two more British ships carrying American passengers, Germany agreed to stop submarine attacks on ships carrying civilians. This pledge lasted until March 1917, when German submarines sank more American ships. As a result of these attacks, on 6 April 1917, the USA declared war on Germany.

Another suggested motivation for the USA joining the war was the large amount of money that American bankers had lent to the British and French. It was important that the Triple Entente countries win the war in order for them to pay back the debt to the USA.

The USA also supplied extra food, facilities and money to fund the final months of the campaign.

Source 3 A sketch of the passenger ship *Lusitania* sinking on a trip from Liverpool to New York after it was hit by a torpedo from a German U-boat

Check your learning 10.7

Remember and understand

1 World War I was predominantly a European war. Why then were people from so many other parts of the world involved?

2 What was the main purpose of the Gallipoli campaign?

Apply and analyse

3 What impact do you think the early Australian and New Zealand successes in the Pacific would have had on attitudes to war in Australia?

Evaluate and create

4 Using the information provided, together with your own research, identify the main reasons why the USA became involved in World War I. Which do you believe to be the most important? Why?

10.8 The Western Front

The most common image that comes to mind when people think about World War I is the image of the trenches, and the mud, blood and barbed wire that were features of the long, drawn-out war on the Western Front. Although this was generally regarded as the most important area or 'theatre of war' in which the war was fought, there were also many others (see Source 1).

At the start of the war in August 1914, the Germans had marched through Belgium into France. Fierce resistance from the British and French stopped them from moving further into France. However, the Allies were unable to drive the Germans back, and by Christmas 1914 there was a deadlock. The Germans and the Allies faced each other across a line of trenches (see Source 1) that stretched from Ostend on the Belgian coast in a south-easterly direction to the Swiss border (see Source 2 for more detail).

Many historians see the Western Front as the defining experience of World War I. New weapons, such as gas and tanks, were introduced there. Defensive tactics using machine guns, trenches, barbed wire and artillery meant that rather than a rapid war of movement, war on the Western Front became bogged down in a senseless series of attacks and counter-attacks, each achieving little but costing millions of lives.

Source 1 French soldiers wait in their trenches on the Western Front during World War I.

Breaking the stalemate

Between 1915 and 1918, many attempts were made to break the stalemate of trench conflict. These attempts tended to follow a pattern. Initially there would be a long and sustained artillery attack – opposing trenches would be bombarded with explosive shells. These attacks could go on for a few hours or sometimes for many days. It was believed that this would force the defending troops underground, destroying their fortifications and clearing the way for troops to cross **no man's land** (the narrow strip of land between opposing trenches that belonged to neither army).

Weighed down with heavy equipment, soldiers would cross the strip of territory to their opponent's trenches.

EUROPE: THE WESTERN FRONT IN 1915

Source 2 The two-trench system along the Western Front ran unbroken from the Belgian coast to Switzerland. Source: Oxford University Press

Source 3 Allied soldiers at the Battle of the Somme, 1916

Source 4 The remains of Commonwealth soldiers who died during the Battle of Fromelles, and objects recovered at the site, are recorded by specialists of the Oxford Archaeology Institute after being recovered in mass graves in Fromelles

Struggling through mud-filled shell holes created by their own artillery, they might learn that the bombardment had not destroyed the barbed-wire obstacles between the lines. More frightening still was the possibility that the artillery attack had failed to destroy the enemy's position. Often, as soldiers made their way across no man's land, the enemy would emerge from deep bunkers to fire on them with machine guns.

Generally, such assaults on enemy trenches failed to achieve their goals. Confusion, smoke, noise and death turned plans into chaos. If attackers reached enemy lines, hand-to-hand (or one-on-one) combat with rifles, bayonets, pistols and grenades often followed. If ground was gained, it could be retaken in a counter-offensive only weeks later. The only real consequence of most of the battles that took place on the Western Front over four years was death and injury.

The Somme

The first Battle of the Somme (in an area along the banks of the Somme River) was one of the most costly attempts to break the stalemate of the trenches. Between July and November 1916, the Allied forces tried to break through German lines. Focused on a 19-kilometre front in northern France, the soldiers managed to push the Germans back by about 8 kilometres. These gains came at an enormous price. The initial 'softening up' bombardment used over 1.5 million shells in a week-long attack. British deaths on the first day of the assault are estimated at over 19000. Thirty-five thousand were injured and 2000 were counted as missing. French casualties for the first day alone were around 7000.

Later in the Somme campaign, Australian and New Zealand troops fought at Pozières from 23 July to 8 August 1916. After making early gains, Australia suffered over 23000 casualties. By the end of the Somme campaign, casualty figures for the Allies were around 620000 dead and wounded, and 500000 for the Germans.

Australian engagements on the Western Front

Australians fighting on the Western Front between 1916 and 1918 were engaged in numerous battles that earned more than 50 Victoria Crosses for the soldiers who participated. The Victoria Cross is the highest Commonwealth military decoration for valour 'in the face of the enemy'. Australians again distinguished themselves in battle and earned a reputation for courage and toughness, especially in 1918, under the leadership of General Sir John Monash.

There was also terrible loss of life. In battles along the Somme, and at towns such as Passchendaele, Villers-Bretonneux, Ypres and Amiens, thousands of soldiers were killed or wounded, often for little gain in the futile 'game' of trench warfare.

Two of the most destructive battles involving Australians were at Fromelles in northern France in 1916 and at Bullecourt, closer to Paris, in 1917. At Fromelles, an attack on the German trenches was designed to draw German attention away from an onslaught on the German lines 80 kilometres to the south, on the banks of the Somme River.

The attack was unsuccessful and the cost was terrible. In one day, 1917 Australian soldiers were killed and over 3600 were injured, some to die later of their injuries. This event has been described as 'the worst 24 hours in Australia's entire history'.

Because the Germans quickly regained any territory they had lost, the Australians had no opportunity to bury the dead. The Germans buried many in mass pits. During the 1920s, most of the bodies were reburied in Commonwealth War Graves cemeteries, but one mass grave remained undiscovered until 2007. In that year, as a result of painstaking research by war historian Lambis Englezos, a burial site was identified on the edge of the town of Fromelles. It has since been confirmed that up to 400 Australian soldiers are buried in this mass grave. The process of identifying these soldiers and preparing them for reburial (see Source 4), with full military honours, in a newly built cemetery is slow and delicate. Up to 75 soldiers have been positively identified so far through the use of DNA technology.

Nurses on the Western Front

At the start of the war, a small number of women wanted to join the services but were told that war was 'no place for ladies'. The only women allowed to enlist and serve overseas were nurses.

The nurses worked under appalling conditions, especially on the Western Front where makeshift field hospitals were often set up in trenches behind the lines (see Source 6). The nurses became known as 'the roses of no man's land'.

Over the course of World War I, 2562 Australian nurses joined the AIF as members of the medical units. Out of this number, 2139 served overseas in the Middle East and on the Western Front. Twenty-five women lost their lives while serving overseas and 388 received military honours.

Source 5

> I cannot remember what came next, or what I did, except that I kept calling for the orderly to help me and thought he was funking [showing cowardice], but the poor boy had been blown to bits. Somebody got the tent up, and when I got to the delirious pneumonia patient, he was crouched on the ground at the back of the stretcher. He took no notice of me when I asked him to return to bed, so I leaned across the stretcher and put one arm around and tried to lift him in. I had my right arm under a leg, which I thought was his, but when I lifted I found to my horror that it was a loose leg with a boot and a puttee on it. It was one of the orderly's legs which had been blown off and had landed on the patient's bed. The next day they found the [body's] trunk about 20 yards away.
>
> Sister Kelly, an Australian nurse in France describing her experiences when a bomb hit a casualty clearing station behind the lines

Source 6 A nurse in a makeshift hospital on the Western Front

Check your learning 10.8

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, define 'the Western Front'.
2. Why had the war become 'bogged down' on the Western Front by the end of 1914?
3. What was 'no man's land'?
4. Describe the pattern followed in most of the attempts to break the stalemate on the Western Front.
5. Why is the first Battle of the Somme regarded as one of the most disastrous battles of the war?

Apply and analyse

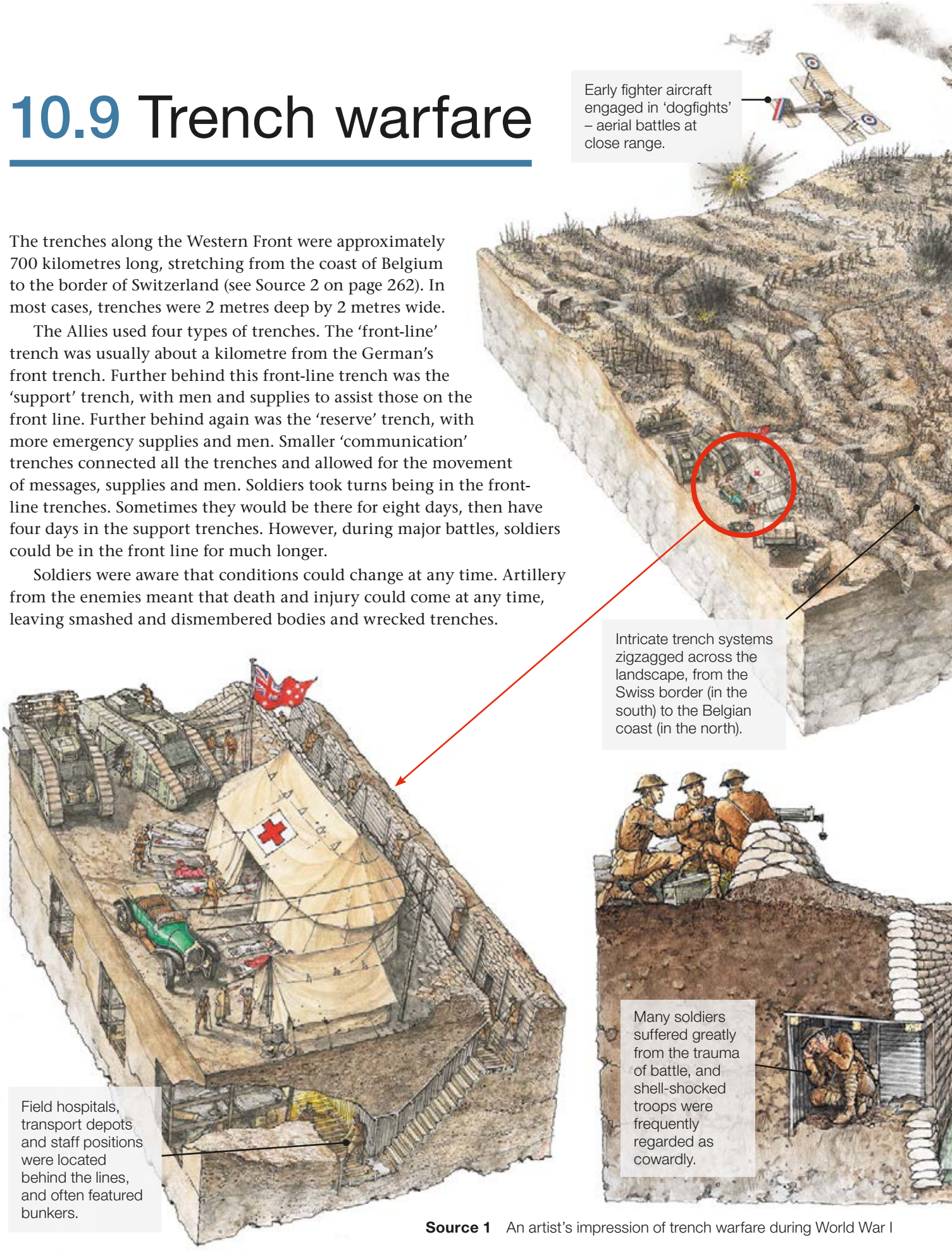
6. What qualities did nurses need to possess in order to do their jobs successfully under such difficult circumstances?
7. When it was obvious that little or nothing was gained through repeated assaults on enemy trenches, why do you think military commanders continued to order these assaults?
8. Despite their knowledge of terrible loss of life and injury, soldiers continued to take part in the assaults on the Western Front. Suggest three reasons why they did so.

10.9 Trench warfare

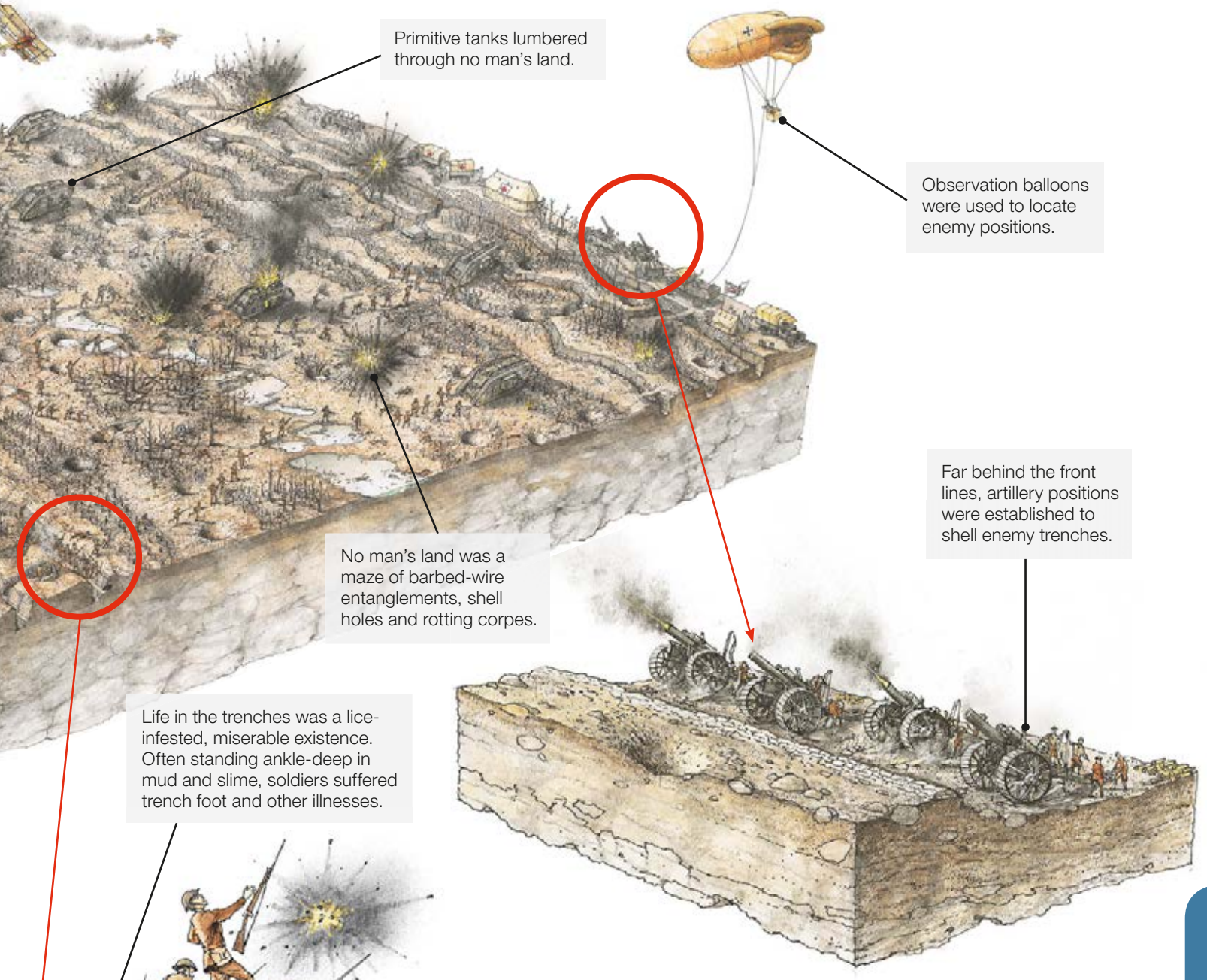
The trenches along the Western Front were approximately 700 kilometres long, stretching from the coast of Belgium to the border of Switzerland (see Source 2 on page 262). In most cases, trenches were 2 metres deep by 2 metres wide.

The Allies used four types of trenches. The 'front-line' trench was usually about a kilometre from the German's front trench. Further behind this front-line trench was the 'support' trench, with men and supplies to assist those on the front line. Further behind again was the 'reserve' trench, with more emergency supplies and men. Smaller 'communication' trenches connected all the trenches and allowed for the movement of messages, supplies and men. Soldiers took turns being in the front-line trenches. Sometimes they would be there for eight days, then have four days in the support trenches. However, during major battles, soldiers could be in the front line for much longer.

Soldiers were aware that conditions could change at any time. Artillery from the enemies meant that death and injury could come at any time, leaving smashed and dismembered bodies and wrecked trenches.



Source 1 An artist's impression of trench warfare during World War I



Check your learning 10.9

Remember and understand

1 The trenches along the Western Front spanned what distance?

2 What was the purpose served by each of the four types of trenches used by the Allies?

Evaluate and create

3 Soldiers who suffered from 'shell shock' were often regarded as cowardly.

- **a** Why do you think this was so?
- **b** If you had lived during World War I, do you think that you, too, would have regarded such soldiers as cowards? Give reasons for your response. Remember to use your historical empathy skills when you answer this question.

10.10 The Gallipoli campaign

In an attempt to break the stalemate that had developed on the Western Front, Winston Churchill (Britain's First Lord of the Admiralty), who was in charge of the Royal Navy, argued for an attack on Turkey. Turkey was part of the Ottoman Empire and an ally of Germany. The Gallipoli campaign, as it became known, was the first major battle of World War I for Australian troops. It took place on the Gallipoli Peninsula in Turkey. Although many Australian men who enlisted in the early months of the war believed they would be travelling to Europe to fight against the Germans, many were instead sent to fight against the Turks.

Formation of the Anzacs

When the war began in 1914, there was an enthusiastic response from people in Australia and New Zealand. Initially the two military forces of Australia and New Zealand were separate. The Australian troops formed the First Australian Imperial Force; and the New Zealanders formed the First New Zealand Expeditionary Force.

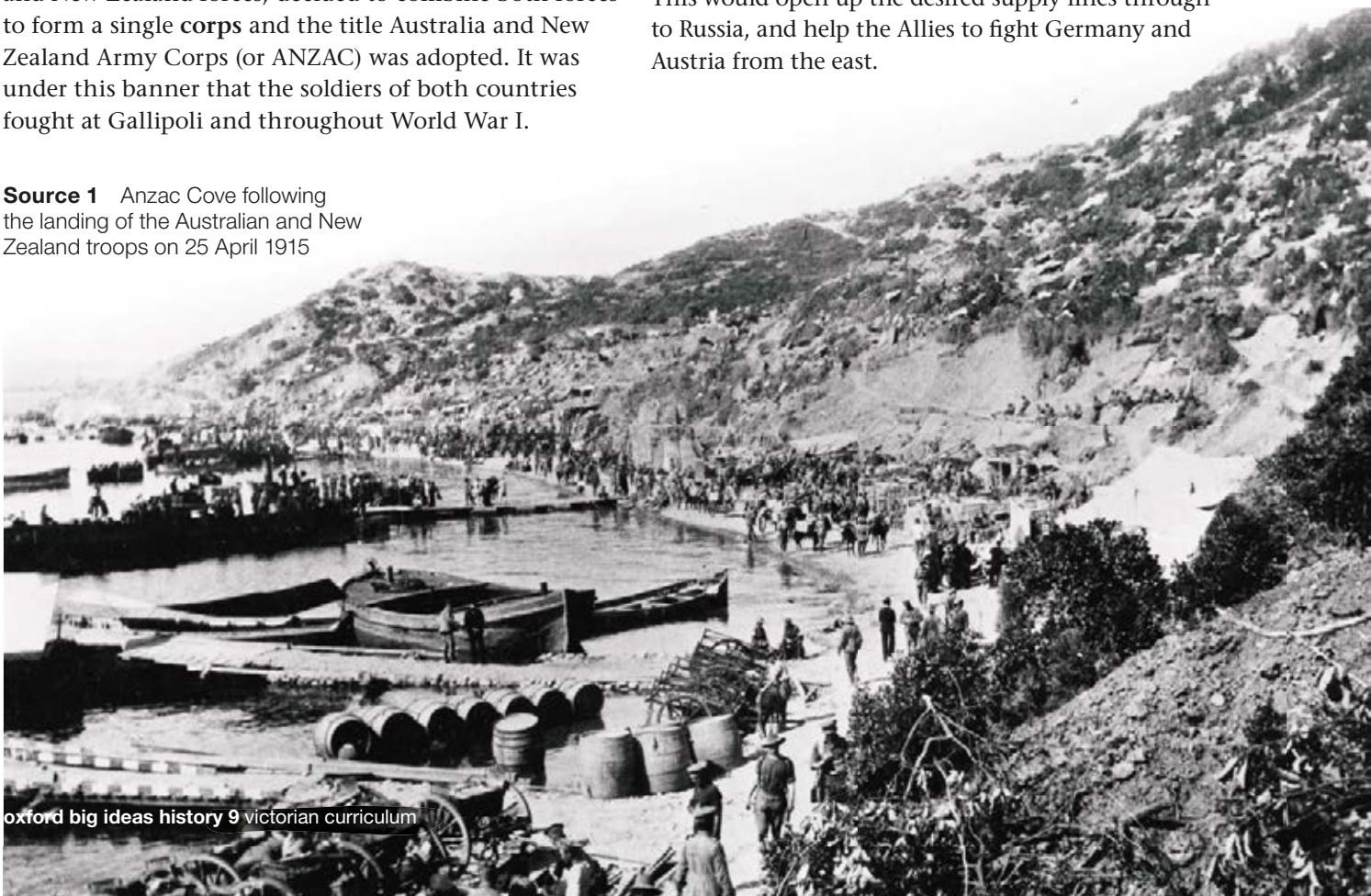
Early in 1915, as the two forces were training in Egypt, General Birdwood, commander of the Australian and New Zealand forces, decided to combine both forces to form a single **corps** and the title Australia and New Zealand Army Corps (or ANZAC) was adopted. It was under this banner that the soldiers of both countries fought at Gallipoli and throughout World War I.

The Gallipoli landing

The Gallipoli campaign was launched because Britain and France needed to move troops, equipment and weapons to allied troops in Russia. In order to do this they needed to travel across the Mediterranean Sea, pass through Turkish waters and cross over the Black Sea into Russia (see Source 3). As a result, the plan required Turkey (part of the Ottoman Empire and an ally of Germany) to be forced out of the war.

The first part of the campaign plan was launched in March 1915. This involved a naval attack through the Dardanelles – a sea passage from the Mediterranean Sea to the Black Sea (see Source 4). This action failed because the entrance to the Dardanelles had been laid with underwater mines. Three Allied battleships were destroyed by these mines, and another three were badly damaged.

A plan was then developed to launch a land attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula from the Aegean Sea coast. The hope was that the Allies would surprise the Turks, defeat them quickly and then march on to take control of the Turkish capital, Constantinople (now known as Istanbul). This would open up the desired supply lines through to Russia, and help the Allies to fight Germany and Austria from the east.



Source 1 Anzac Cove following the landing of the Australian and New Zealand troops on 25 April 1915

On 25 April 1915, ground troops from Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, India and the British dominion of Newfoundland (now part of Canada) landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The campaign was in trouble from the beginning. As the Australian and New Zealand troops landed at what is now called Anzac Cove, they faced cliffs up to 100 metres high and heavy gunfire from behind the Turkish fortifications. Those soldiers who made it to the beach were unprotected as they faced the Turkish guns. The Anzacs managed to secure the beach and made limited progress up the cliffs and inland.

Although the plan had been to take 7 kilometres of territory, the day ended with barely a single kilometre achieved. More than 600 Australian soldiers were killed on the first day of the campaign. On hearing news of the disastrous landing, the British commander of the campaign, General Sir Ian Hamilton, ordered the troops to 'dig, dig, dig until you are safe'.

Source 2

It is stated in messages from Cairo that the majority of wounded who have arrived there deny the stories of Turkish atrocities. They state that the Turks are fighting most fairly. In one case, a Turk dressed the wounds of a British soldier under fire. Another left his water bottle with a wounded Australian. An Australian who was taken prisoner, but subsequently escaped, stated he was very well treated.

An extract from the Melbourne newspaper *The Argus*, 22 June 1915

Hamilton's decision to persist with the campaign was supported by news of the success of the Australian submarine *AE2*. On 25 April 1915 (the same day as the landing), the *AE2* became the first Allied warship to penetrate the Dardanelles. It attacked a Turkish gunboat but was eventually discovered on 30 April and destroyed.

In May 1915, the Turks launched a great counter-offensive to take back the territory taken by the Allies, but were driven back.

ALLIANCES IN EUROPE AND THE MIDDLE EAST

Source 3 Source: Oxford University Press

DETAIL OF THE GALLIPOLI PENINSULA

Source 4 Source: Oxford University Press

In August 1915, the Australians and New Zealanders launched two famous diversionary attacks – the Battle of Lone Pine and the Battle of the Nek. The Australians captured Lone Pine, in fighting so fierce that seven Victoria Crosses were awarded to their men. At the Nek, a charge by Australian troops cost the lives of 234 in an area about the size of three tennis courts.

Despite these battles, the situation on Gallipoli remained largely unchanged for the eight months of the campaign.

Over this time, respect grew between the Turkish soldiers and the Anzac troops on the battlefield. Each side saw the other as honourable, and agreements were made to hold fire and bury the dead respectfully (see Source 2). Both sides had an amnesty (agreement) to enable a number of dead Turkish soldiers to be buried under the Red Crescent flag of their nation. Over time, the two sides even began trading with each other.

Conditions at Gallipoli

Conditions at Gallipoli were extremely difficult for the Anzacs. As the Turks held the high ground, the Anzacs were always exposed to enemy fire. Nowhere was safe. They were in constant danger day and night, from snipers (expert shots) or artillery bombardment from the Turkish guns.

The Allies landed in the Turkish spring, and a sweltering summer followed. When winter arrived, the bitter cold and snow took its toll on the troops. For men used to the mild weather conditions in Australia, the icy north wind and snowfalls cut right through protection offered by their uniforms and light blankets. Frequent rainfalls flooded the trenches and turned the battlefields to mud.

Despite the rain and snow, drinking water was in short supply. It had to be shipped in to the troops, and this could be difficult if a supply ship ran into problems. Water was rationed carefully and soldiers were so conscious of the shortages that they often shaved with leftover cold tea. Food was more plentiful, although lacking in variety. Rations commonly included canned meat, corned beef (called 'bully beef') and hard biscuits. Fresh food was rarely available.

Poor health was a major problem. More Australians and New Zealanders died or were forced into hospital as a result of disease rather than enemy action. Painful conditions and diseases such as trench foot, dysentery, diarrhoea and gastroenteritis were common in the damp conditions of the trenches. Illness was also spread by rats, lice, flies and mosquitoes. Many pests were attracted by the strong odour of decomposing bodies and human waste. Poor sanitation and food-handling practices meant the germs were often transferred to food and water supplies.

Source 5

We landed on Gallipoli in what we were wearing and continued to wear it day and night until the socks were the first garments to become unwearable, and they were cast out and we went barefoot in our boots.

There were parasites which caused an abominable itch to which ever part of the skin where they operated. They lived and bred mainly in the seams of the inner garments and as there was no hot water or chemicals available for their control or destruction the field was open for them to multiply and flourish. The best control means available was to wear the clothing inside out and then there were no seams next to the skin for the pest to hide away in and breed. This I did with my flannel shirt, but I simply could not come at wearing my trousers inside out, even though many of the other men did. It simply looked too awful.

An extract from a letter that Lieutenant Frank Boyes wrote about conditions at Gallipoli

Source 6 Australian soldiers resting in a trench at Gallipoli

Withdrawal

In December 1915, the Anzacs were finally ordered to withdraw from Gallipoli. To hide the fact that they were leaving, they rigged up some rifles to fire at random. They did this by attaching tins to the rifles' trigger mechanisms with string. When the tins filled with water dripping from other tins suspended above, their weight caused the triggers to be pulled and the rifles to fire. This tactic became known as the 'ghost guns of Gallipoli'. Soldiers also carefully wrapped the horses' hooves in cloth to muffle the sound of their leaving. The last Australian soldiers were evacuated overnight on 19–20 December. Because of its efficiency, the silent withdrawal is usually remembered as the most successful part of the Gallipoli campaign.

Over the course of the campaign, 8709 Australians died, and 19 000 were wounded. Over the same period, over 80 000 Turks were killed. During their time on Gallipoli, the '**diggers**' – as Australian troops became known – displayed a courage and ingenuity that would form the basis of the Anzac legend. This legend would contribute to the Australian sense of identity over the course of the 20th century.

The Australian Light Horse

Following the withdrawal from Gallipoli, the Australian infantry were deployed to the Western Front in France and Belgium. However, the mounted troops remained to continue fighting against the Turks in Egypt. They became involved in what was known as 'the Sinai and Palestine campaign'.

The Australian Light Horse was a combination of cavalry and mounted infantry that had been developed during the Boer Wars in Africa (1899–1902). Traditional cavalry forces were becoming obsolete as nations developed more powerful infantry and artillery weapons. However, Australia's vast distances made military leaders reluctant to do away with mounted soldiers. The answer was a mounted force of trained infantry soldiers who would ride swiftly into battle, but fight on the ground like regular infantry. Australian mounted troops made a significant contribution to the defeat of Turkish troops in the Middle East.

The most famous battle fought by the Light Horse was the Battle of Beersheba in October 1917. The charge was aimed at capturing the important Turkish base of Beersheba, and has been called the last successful cavalry charge in history (see Source 7).

Source 7 *The Charge of the Australian Light Horse at Beersheba, 1917*, George Lambert (1920)

Check your learning 10.10

Remember and understand

1 What does the term 'ANZAC' stand for?
2 What was the outcome of early attempts by Allied forces to pass through the Dardanelles?
3 Where was the Australian infantry (soldiers who fought on foot) deployed to after the Gallipoli campaign? What happened to members of the Australian Light Horse (soldiers who fought on horseback)?

Apply and analyse

4 Write a paragraph explaining why the Gallipoli campaign was ultimately unsuccessful.
5 Why do you think the Anzac soldiers earned high praise, even though they did not achieve what they hoped to?
6 Explain why some people argue that the withdrawal of the Anzacs from Gallipoli was the most successful part of the campaign.

Evaluate and create

7 Do you think the Gallipoli landing and the Anzac legend would have become as central to Australian culture and folklore if it had not been the nation's first experience of war? Explain your answer.
8 Draw a sketch of the beach at Anzac Cove where the troops landed during the Gallipoli campaign (see Sources 1 and 4). Label your sketch, and highlight the difficulties that the soldiers faced on arrival.

10.11 The end of the war

After the failure of the Gallipoli campaign, the stalemate on the Western Front dragged on through 1916, 1917 and into 1918 with little change. By early 1918, troops on both sides were exhausted, resources were depleted and morale was at rock bottom. For the original Anzacs who had enlisted with such enthusiasm in 1914, there was a feeling that the war would never end.

The USA's involvement

Although the USA did not declare war on Germany until 1917, it had been involved in the war from the beginning, supplying the Allies with weapons and supplies.

After German submarines sank ships carrying American civilians, Americans were outraged and put pressure on their government to enter the war. US President Woodrow Wilson (see Source 1) initially campaigned for a peaceful end to the war, but was unsuccessful. When the Germans announced in March 1917 that they would continue to sink any ship that approached Britain, including passenger ships carrying civilians, this was the catalyst for the USA to finally intervene.

On 3 April 1917, President Wilson made a speech declaring that the USA would enter the war and restore peace to Europe. Three days later, they officially declared war on Germany. American troops joined the French and British in the summer of 1918.

Russia's withdrawal

As the United States was entering World War I, Russia was getting ready to get out. In 1917, Russia became swept up in an internal revolution. The new communist government, wanting to focus on internal troubles, looked for a way to remove Russia from World War I. Negotiating separately from the rest of the Allies, Russia signed the Brest-Litovsk peace treaty with Germany on 3 March 1918.

With the war over against Russia, Germany was able to divert its troops in the west in order to face the new American soldiers.

Events on the Western Front

The freshness and enthusiasm of the American troops made a huge difference to the Allied troops on the Western Front. After years of almost constant defeat and huge numbers of casualties, by early 1918 the Allies had begun to slowly gain the upper hand over the Central Powers (Germany, Austria–Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria).

The Battle of Le Hamel

In July 1918, Australian and American soldiers launched an attack on the Germans in and around the town of Hamel in northern France. The battle was planned and commanded by an Australian by the name of Lieutenant General John Monash.

The Battle of Le Hamel in July 1918 was said by some to be the most well-prepared battle in World War I. General Monash distinguished himself by developing and using innovative tactics for coordinated infantry, artillery, tank and aircraft attacks. This meant that Allied battle objectives were achieved in 93 minutes. Using conventional tactics would have meant that the fighting would have lasted for weeks, with much higher casualty rates.

Source 1 US President Woodrow Wilson

The Battle of Amiens

The Battle of Amiens, which began on 8 August 1918, was an important event because it would come to mark the final offensive by the Allies before bringing the war to an end. Allied forces advanced over 7 miles on the first day and, from then on, German defences were continually penetrated and forced to retreat. For this reason, the first day of the battle is often referred to as the 'Black Day for the German Army'.

Source 3 Victorians celebrating Armistice Day in Melbourne in 1918

This battle also marked the end of trench warfare on the Western Front, as fighting became mobile once again.

On 26 September 1918, from their retreated position at the Hindenburg Line, the Germans were infiltrated by the Allies in only hours. German commanders began accepting that defeat was imminent.

The Armistice

At 5 am on 11 November 1918, the head of the German delegation, Matthais Erzberger, signed the **Armistice** (ceasefire) that marked the end of 'the war to end all wars'.

The terms of the Armistice were written by French Marshal Ferdinand Foch, and required the Germans to withdraw troops, surrender artillery, trucks, aircraft and naval vessels, return prisoners of war, and make promises about repatriation (repaying the costs of the war). The Armistice also stipulated that the fighting was to end later that day, at 11 am Paris time (i.e. the 11th hour of the 11th day of the 11th month). The news was quickly given to the armies during the morning of 11 November, but even after hearing that the Armistice was due to start at 11 am, intense warfare continued right until the last minute.

While the Armistice put an end to the fighting, it was initially only to last for 30 days and it did not determine how peace could be secured and maintained. The ceasefire was made permanent the following year when members of the Commonwealth and the League of Nations signed the **Treaty of Versailles**. The treaty (a binding agreement) was the official document that ended World War I and outlined the terms of surrender between the victorious Allies (including Australia, Britain and the USA) and the defeated Central Powers (including Germany, Austria–Hungary and the Ottoman Empire).

News of the Armistice spread quickly around the world. People celebrated by dancing and singing in the streets. But at the same time as people celebrated, many were also overcome with sadness and horror as they reflected on the millions of soldiers who had lost their lives, or the many more who returned home with physical and mental scars.

Check your learning 10.11

Remember and understand

1 In what ways was the USA involved with the war before their official entry into it in 1917?
2 What event finally triggered the USA into declaring war on Germany?
3 When and why did Russia withdraw from the war against Germany?

Apply and analyse

4 How and why did the entry of American troops into the war on the Western Front contribute to the defeat of the Germans?

Evaluate and create

5 Even after the Armistice was signed at 5 am on 11 November 1918, there were many more casualties later that morning before the official ceasefire at 11 am. For each of Britain, France, the USA, Canada and Germany conduct some research to find out:
   a What was the name of the last soldier killed?
   b What time did they die?
   c How and why were they killed?

Present your findings in a short report.

10B rich task

Life in the trenches

The trenches that soldiers dug during World War I were typically around 2 metres deep by 2 metres wide. On both sides, conditions were barbaric, although German trenches tended to be better engineered and more comfortable than the French and British equivalents. To avoid snipers (marksmen trained to 'pick off' enemy soldiers from concealed locations), soldiers spent most of the daylight hours under the trench line – most attacks took place at dusk or in the early morning when visibility was poor. Soldiers were often bored during the day, and caught brief moments of sleep where they could. Those falling asleep on watch could be severely punished.

Source 1 German soldiers display the result of a night's rat-catching in a trench on the Western Front.

The soldiers had to share the trenches with millions of rats (see Source 1) that fed on the remains of dead soldiers left on the battlefields. With so much available food, some rats grew to be as large as cats. They bred constantly and spread disease as they ran over the faces of the sleeping soldiers.

Lice were also constant companions that lived and laid eggs in the seams of the soldiers' uniforms. The troops were often unable to bathe or change their clothes for weeks at a time. Even when washed, it was almost impossible to rid clothes of the lice eggs. Lice were responsible for the spread of 'trench fever'. If soldiers were fortunate enough to end up in military hospital, it took them up to 12 weeks to recover from this painful illness.

Relentless rain turned the trenches to canals of stagnant mud. Trench foot, acquired from standing for long periods in wet, muddy conditions, was a fungal infection that caused swelling. Serious cases could result in amputation. The winter of 1916 was one of the harshest on the Western Front. The cold was so intense that water was carried to the troops as blocks of ice.

Source 2

We are lousy, stinking, ragged, unshaven, sleepless. Even when we're back a bit we can't sleep for our own guns. I have one puttee [fabric strip wound around the lower leg for protection], a dead man's helmet, another dead man's gas protector, a dead man's bayonet. My tunic is rotten with other men's blood and partly splattered with a comrade's brains. It is horrible but why should you people at home not know.

Excerpt from a letter written to his family by John Alexander Raws, a South Australian soldier, who spent only four weeks on the Western Front before he was killed on 23 August 1916

Source 3

Enormous noise. Continuous explosion. A deserted landscape. Complete immobility of everything. Men were eating, smoking, doing odd jobs but no one was fighting. A few were peering in periscopes or looking through loopholes. I tried, but could see nothing but upturned empty fields. Then suddenly there was a terrific crash which flung me yards. I picked myself up and did my best to laugh. Nearby a man lay with a tiny hole in his forehead and close to him another limped with blood pumping out of his leg. They were both carried away. A casualty was not a matter for horror but for replacement. I regarded the incessant bombardment as temporary and expected every moment to see men going over the top to put the guns out of action. Nothing happened, however. That was how I first saw war.

RH Mottram, from RH Mottram, John Easton and Eric Partridge, *Three Personal Records of the War,* Scholartis Press, London, 1929

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identifying and locating relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Being able to locate relevant primary and secondary sources using the Internet is an important historical skill. However, you need to keep in mind that not all information you find on the Internet is necessarily true, accurate, reliable or credible. So, in addition to being able to find source material online, you need to be able to evaluate the reliability and credibility of the information you find.

Use the following steps to apply this skill:

Step 1 Identify key words related to your topic and type these into a search engine such as Google. (Use only these key words – do not type in whole sentences or questions.)

Step 2 Add further relevant key words to refine your search if you cannot find what you want on your first attempts.

Step 3 Look beyond the first page of results. The best results do not always appear first.

Step 4 Assess the reliability of each site by asking yourself:

- Who is the author or creator? If it is an individual, do they have their credentials listed (e.g. a degree or title)? If it is an organisation, is it a reputable organisation like a government or university department?
- What is the purpose of the website? Is it trying to inform, persuade or sell?
- Is the site objective? Is the author's point of view biased?
- Is the information accurate? Can the information be verified if you cross-check it with other sources of information?
- Does the site contain spelling mistakes or grammatical errors? (If so, this is usually an indication that the site is not particularly reliable.)
- Is the information current? Can you find evidence of recent updates?

Apply the skill

1 Conduct an Internet search to find relevant, credible and reliable source material about life in the trenches during World War I using the steps outlined.

2 Copy the data chart below into your workbook. Read the source material you have located and record the key points in the appropriate column. Make sure you also record the URLs of the sites you have used.

Life in the trenches – data chart

	URL	Food, clothing and shelter	Hygiene	Entertainment	Mateship	Injury, death and medicine
Source 1						
Source 2						
Source 3						
Source 4						

Extend your understanding

1 Read the letter written from the trenches by John Raws (Source 2).

a Why do you think he felt that people at home should know what he was going through?

b What impact do you think such letters would have had on the views of war at home? Suggest several responses.

2 Use the text and sources included here, as well the notes you have recorded in the data chart as a result of your research, to write three brief diary entries from the perspective of a soldier that describes life in the trenches. Write one diary entry about a calm period, another about a bombardment, and the final diary entry about the lead-up to 'going over the top'.

10.12 The impact of war on Australian society

World War I had a significant impact on Australian society. A young nation with a population of less than five million in 1914 lost over 60 000 young men as a result of the war. Many of these men were the fittest and most able of the male population. As a percentage of total troops sent to war, Australia's losses were the highest of any of the Commonwealth nations (see Source 2). A summary of the numbers of those who served and of the numbers of deaths and other casualties makes it clear that Australia made a major sacrifice for the Allied war effort.

The initial enthusiasm with which most Australians greeted the outbreak of war did not last. By the middle of 1915, the reality of war began to dawn. Following the landing at Gallipoli, Australians received the news of more than 2000 deaths. As a result, many in the nation took a more sober view or became disillusioned. There was still strong support for the war and the soldiers, but any excitement had evaporated.

By late 1916, Australia was a bitterly divided country. Not only was there a growing dissatisfaction with the war, but a real sense that there was 'inequality of sacrifice'. Many working-class Australians felt that they had contributed the most in terms of enlisting soldiers, and that they were also being exploited at home. There was a perception that middle- and upper-class people were less affected by the war. Some were even seen to be profiting from lucrative government war contracts. These perceptions were not always accurate, but they still had an impact on the growing divisions in the nation.

The War Precautions Act

In 1914, the federal government passed the War Precautions Act, which gave the government increased powers for the duration of the war. This Act gave the federal government the legal right to, among other things, monitor and **intern** German–Australians, impose a direct income tax, censor letters and publications, and set fixed prices for certain goods.

Source 1 An Australian poster from 1917 encouraging Australians to enlist. After heavy casualties on the Western Front, Britain pressured Australia to make a bigger contribution to the war effort.

Source 2 A comparison of British Commonwealth casualties, World War I

Country	Total soldiers sent to war	Total casualties (captured, missing, wounded or killed)	% of casualties
Britain	5 000 000	2 535 424	50.71
Canada	422 405	210 100	49.74
Australia	331 781	215 585	64.98
New Zealand	98 950	58 526	59.01
India	1 096 013	140 015	12.77

Statistics from *Australian Campaigns in the Great War*, Lt The Hon. Stanisforth Smith

Impact on the Australian economy

World War I had a major economic impact on Australia and other nations. The cost of providing weapons, ammunition and supplies to the forces at home and overseas was vast. To meet these expenses, the federal government introduced income tax. It was also necessary to borrow funds from overseas. Australia borrowed heavily from Britain to build vital wartime infrastructure, such as expanded railways. Australia would take over 20 years to pay back loans taken out during the war.

The redirection of raw materials to the war effort and the needs of wartime industries caused **inflation**. As a result, the cost of living in Australia rose by up to 50 per cent during the war years. The war also disrupted international trade. Naval blockades and the use of shipping for military purposes meant fewer ships were available to move trade goods to overseas markets. The Australian government had introduced **tariffs** (taxes) on imported goods to protect its local wartime supplies. Many countries looked elsewhere for trade and discovered new sources in Japan and the USA.

Source 3 Aspro was developed in Australia as a direct result of the war.

On the positive side, however, Australia developed new industries. The fact that fewer goods could be brought in from overseas meant that inventive Australians began to develop alternatives that were made here. By the end of the war, 400 new products were being manufactured in Australia. The Newcastle steelworks, opened in 1915, was flourishing, the Australian National Shipping Line had been established and the role of the Commonwealth Bank expanded considerably.

One new product, developed as a direct result of the war, was a medication called Aspro (see Source 3). Before the war, aspirin (which at the time was a trademarked German-made pain reliever called Aspirin) had been widely used for pain relief in Australia. After the outbreak of war, the use of Aspirin became unpopular and unpatriotic because it was made by the German company Bayer. Two Australian pharmacists, George Nicholas and Henry Smith, analysed Aspirin and came up with an Australian version, which they called Aspro. Aspro became one of the most widely used over-the-counter medicines available in Australia.

There were people who profited from supplying goods needed for the war effort. These included farmers who supplied wheat, dairy products and meat to feed the soldiers here and overseas. Wool was in great demand for soldiers' uniforms (see Source 4) and munitions factories were working overtime to support the war effort.

Source 4 Wool, used to make soldiers' uniforms, was a valued commodity during the war.

However, many workers felt that they were not sharing in the wartime profits. Wages fell but the cost of living rose. This led to some resentment and even strike action in the coal industry, and on the railways and the wharves. These strikes drew much criticism. The strikers were described as unpatriotic and selfish, and they were largely unsuccessful.

Check your learning 10.12

Remember and understand

1. How many Australian men died in World War I? How does this figure compare with the losses suffered by other Commonwealth nations?
2. What were some of the factors causing division in Australian society by 1916?
3. What did the Australian federal government do in order to cover the great cost of the war effort?

Apply and analyse

4. Explain how the war influenced Australian manufacturing.

Evaluate and create

5. Aspro was developed because Bayer Aspirin was no longer imported from Germany. Research other products that were imported from Germany and Austria before the war to see if the bans placed on them led to the development of Australian alternatives.

10.13 The impact of war on Australian women

Historians often describe World War I as the first 'total war', because it was the first time that nations had mobilised all of their industries, resources and citizens for the war effort. Before World War I, most people's involvement in wars was usually limited to paying taxes and worrying about friends and family members engaged in fighting overseas. By comparison, 'total war' placed many new pressures on those left at home.

With so many men away at war, there was an expectation that women would take on many duties that had previously been the responsibility of men. Women did a great deal of voluntary work, including fundraising and assisting with recruiting. They also moved into previously male domains in the workforce, such as working in munitions factories. In Britain, women were also able to join the armed forces, but only for home defence.

Most women were supportive of involvement at the start of the war and more than 2000 served, generally as nurses. While these women faced dangerous conditions overseas, the women on the home front also found their lives changing.

Source 1 This photograph, taken in 1915, shows women making uniforms at the Commonwealth Clothing Factory in Melbourne. Women were offered better working conditions and wages here than those offered by private employers, but they were also expected to work extremely hard for the war effort.

Women in the paid workforce

Before the war, most women had been homemakers, with a small number working in traditionally female roles such as teaching, nursing, dressmaking or domestic work. However, with around 500 000 young men off at war, women wanted to support the war effort at home. There was some resistance by **trade unions** to hiring women in traditionally male jobs, as it was thought that this might lower wages. However, women were able to take on some traditionally male roles, such as store clerks and bank tellers. The government controlled war-related work and women were rarely able to gain jobs in these areas.

The Australian Women's Service Corps was formed with the aim of training women to take over male jobs in the services at home, to free more men to fight overseas. However, women were told that their services were not necessary.

Source 2

> The Australian Women's Service Corps, which has a membership of 1000, and which was formed recently with the object of training women to undertake the duties of motor-drivers, orderlies, clerks, and kitchen hands, in order to release men for fighting purposes, a few weeks ago made an offer to the Defence authorities to provide 700 women for such duties. A reply has been received from Mr T. Trumble, secretary of the Defence department, thanking the corps for its patriotic offer, but intimating that there are no positions available wherein the services of women could be utilised.
>
> *The Argus*, Melbourne, 4 January 1917

By the end of the war, the percentage of women working outside the home had risen by about 13 per cent. However, there was an expectation after the war had finished that women who had taken on the traditional roles and jobs of men would return to the home, making way for returned soldiers.

Women's voluntary work during the war

During World War I, women were strongly encouraged to help the war effort by joining voluntary organisations. Vast numbers of women and girls sewed and knitted to ensure that the troops had warm clothing, and raised money to help those affected by the war.

Women who took on voluntary work developed skills and confidence. For many women, especially younger ones, these opportunities helped to shape their lives as the nation moved into the 1920s.

Australian Red Cross

After it was founded in Melbourne in 1914, the Australian Red Cross grew to have branches in every state of Australia. Women volunteering for the Red Cross attended working bees where they made packages for the men serving overseas. These packages included things like soap, toiletries, food, clothing and medical supplies. The Red Cross also raised money to assist soldiers' families, and established homes for wounded soldiers to recover in.

Source 3 Australian Red Cross poster, 1914–18

Australian Comforts Fund

The Australian Comforts Fund was established in 1916. Their main goal was to raise money, which they used to provide 'comfort boxes' for the soldiers. These boxes contained things like knitted socks, pyjamas and cigarettes.

Women and recruitment

Women were also active in influencing and encouraging men to enlist. Some women refused to speak to men who had not enlisted. Other women sent white feathers, a symbol of cowardice, to men who had not enlisted.

Images of women were regularly used in posters published by the government to encourage recruitment. Women were portrayed as 'helpless and vulnerable victims', in need of Australian soldiers to protect them from the 'evil Germans'.

Other women encouraged men not to enlist. Vida Goldstein, for example, was a Melbourne woman who actively promoted pacifism (opposition to war) and formed the Women's Peace Army in 1915.

Check your learning 10.13

Remember and understand

1 What roles were open to Australian women during World War I?

2 Describe some of the main activities of the volunteer organisations that existed to help the war effort.

Apply and analyse

3 Why do you think the offer of the Australian Women's Service Corps was rejected?

Evaluate and create

4 Put yourself in the role of a business operator during World War I. When one of your male employees enlisted, you employed a young woman who has proved to be excellent. You have spent time and money developing her skills and knowledge. When your former employee returns from the war, he expects to be re-employed. He has lost a leg and is suffering from shell shock. You have to decide what to do. You cannot afford to employ them both.

a On a sheet of paper, write all the arguments for sacking the woman and re-employing the man. On the other side, list the reasons in favour of keeping the young woman and telling the man to look for work elsewhere.

b Decide which candidate you should employ to fill the position. Write a letter to the unsuccessful candidate explaining your decision and outlining the reasons for it.

10.14 The conscription debate

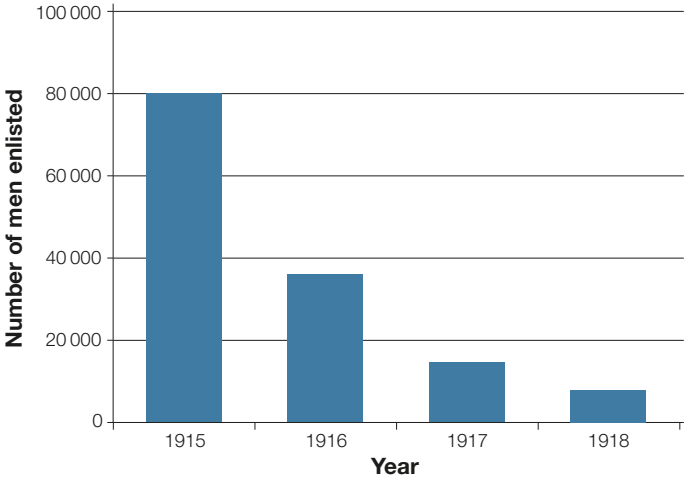
Despite the changes brought about in Australia by World War I, it did not impact on the Australian home front to the same degree as in France, Belgium, Italy, Russia, Turkey and Britain, where fighting took place. In these countries, civilians suffered through food shortages and regular military attacks. Because of the immediate danger faced, all of these countries had systems of conscription (compulsory service in the army) during the war. In Australia, however, service was not compulsory. This did not stop it from becoming one of the most divisive and bitter arguments of the war.

Enlistment

When the war began in 1914, many Australian men saw participation in the war as an exciting and noble cause. Men flocked to enlist as most expected the war to be over quickly. But as the war dragged on and information about the number of deaths and casualties emerged, volunteer numbers began to drop. Although there was a peak in enlistments after Gallipoli, from late 1915 numbers steadily declined.

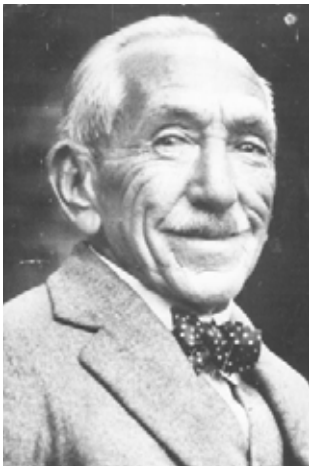
As the numbers of men enlisting declined, the Australian Government tried to pressure men to enlist through propaganda campaigns that either encouraged or shamed men into enlisting. The process of asking people to enlist is called recruitment.

Recruitment became an issue when the Australian Prime Minister William Morris (Billy) Hughes returned from a visit to Britain and the Western Front in 1916.



Source 1 Enlistments in the First AIF 1915–18

Over 27 000 Australian soldiers had just been killed in the first five weeks of the Battle of the Somme in July 1916. Due to the decline in the number of Australian volunteers, heavy Australian losses and the critical state of the war on the Western Front, Hughes announced that there would be a **referendum** (a special national vote) to give the Commonwealth Government the power to force men of military age to join the army.



Source 2 William Morris (Billy) Hughes

Hughes believed that Australia needed at least 7500 men to enlist per month if it was to maintain its fighting strength. To achieve this, he announced that we needed to introduce conscription. This was despite the fact that only a year earlier he had declared, 'In no circumstances would I agree to send men out of this country to fight against their will.'

The conscription plebiscites

The issue of conscription triggered a major debate around Australia. In October 1916, Australians were asked to vote for or against conscription in a **plebiscite** (a public vote or opinion poll). A plebiscite is similar to a referendum, but its outcome is not legally binding and does not result in a change being made to the Constitution. The 1916 plebiscite was narrowly defeated. Most of Hughes' Labor parliamentarians were opposed to conscription and, as a result, the Labor Party split. At the end of 1916, Hughes and 24 of his supporters left the Labor Party and formed a new party known as the Nationalist Party. The Nationalist Party was made up of Hughes and his supporters, along with most of the former members of the Liberal Party. One year later, in 1917, a second plebiscite was held. Again, it was defeated. Hughes could still have introduced conscription, because the results of the plebiscites were not legally binding, but he chose not to.

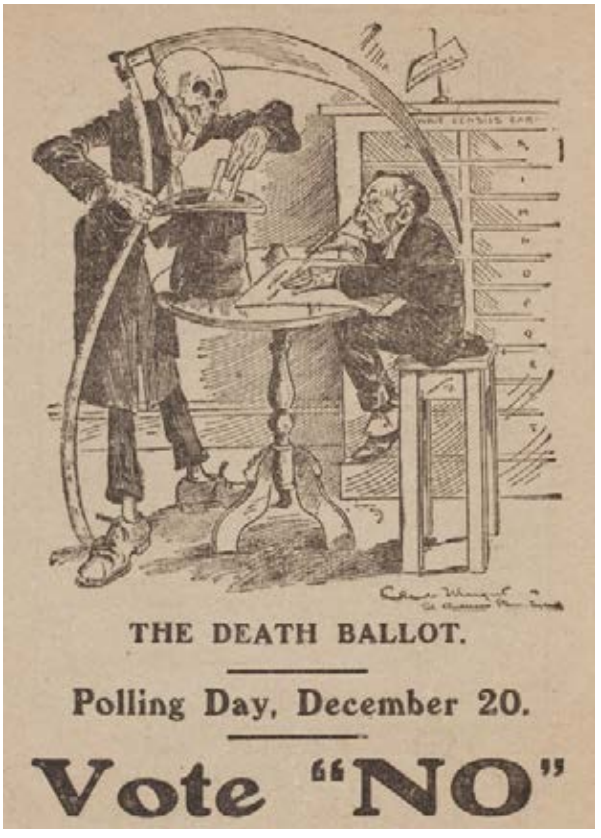
Australia divided

Supporters of conscription tended to be middle- and upper-class people of British and Protestant background. These people, known as pro-conscriptionists, argued that it was the patriotic duty of Australians to continue to support the war effort. They accused opponents of being lazy and selfish, of being 'German lovers' and of letting down the thousands who had already given their lives. In pro-conscription propaganda, images of noble Australian soldiers and their families are shown suffering for the good of the country as they fight the Germans.

Opponents of conscription were more likely to be working class, Catholic and of Irish background. Catholic Archbishop Daniel Mannix was the unofficial leader of the anti-conscription campaign and he urged Catholics to vote 'no'. Those who opposed conscription claimed that Australia had already given enough of its young men. They said that it was not really Australia's war. They also argued that several hundred thousand soldiers had gone voluntarily to the war and that it was not necessary to force Australians to fight. Anti-conscription propaganda urged people to vote 'no' in the plebiscite or 'Death Ballot' (see Source 4).

Many trade unionists opposed conscription, arguing that the war was a **capitalist** war and should not be supported. Some trade unionists also argued that if the majority of able-bodied Australian men were sent to the front, employers would begin to employ non-whites at lower wages, undermining the gains that Australian workers had made. Women were equally divided on the issue and were used by both sides of the campaign. Images of women and children frequently appeared in conscription propaganda (see Source 3).

Source 3 A pro-conscription poster produced in Australia around 1918. The word 'Hun' is a derogatory term being used here to refer to the Germans.



Source 4 An anti-conscription cartoon, printed in 1917, from the No Conscription Council Campaign Comittee

Check your learning 10.14

Remember and understand

1 Why do you think both sides of the conscription debate used women, especially mothers, in their propaganda?

Apply and analyse

2 Why do you think that Billy Hughes held two plebiscites when he had the power to introduce conscription without the nation's support?

3 Can you explain why middle- and upper-class people were more likely to support conscription than working-class people?

Evaluate and create

4 Do you think the war might have affected Australia differently if conscription had been introduced? Conduct some additional research and write a 250-word report to outline the possible effects of conscription on the war effort and the home front.

10.15 Anti-German sentiment in Australia

Throughout the second half of the 19th century, many Germans had settled in Australia. Most German settlers arrived in Port Adelaide, and then moved on to settle in areas such as the Barossa Valley (in South Australia), the Riverina (in New South Wales) and south-east Queensland. Many German immigrants found these regions suitable for wheat and dairy farming, the planting of vineyards and wine making. By 1914 over 100 000 people of German descent lived in Australia. Many of these had been granted full Australian citizenship before 1914, while others were second- and third-generation Australians. On the whole, German–Australians were a well-established and well-liked community prior to the outbreak of the war.

The outbreak of war

With the rising tension between the British and German Empires, German–Australian communities began to find themselves the subject of suspicion and hostility in Australia. When war broke out in 1914 this changed to outright aggression.

At the time, many German–Australians had come to think of themselves as Australian first. Indeed many of them enlisted in the AIF. For example, the first Australian commander of the AIF, General John Monash, was the son of German migrants.

However, when Australia and the rest of the British Empire were at war with Germany, German–Australians were considered potential threats to national security.

Many Anglo–Celtic Australians believed the German–Australians had divided loyalties or even that they were spies. Almost overnight, German–Australians became the target of hate campaigns. Propaganda and vicious rumours were circulated (see Source 1). Life became very difficult for anyone of German descent.

Two months after the war began, the Australian Government created more tension between British–Australians and German–Australians with the introduction of the War Precautions Act. The Act authorised the Commonwealth government to do whatever it felt necessary to secure the safety of the nation. This Act, together with later regulations and Acts, set out a number of restrictions on the lives of people of German descent. In particular, it specified that all '**enemy aliens**' (foreign residents from enemy nations) had to register and report weekly to local police stations or military authorities, pledge their allegiance to Australia and the British Empire, and inform the authorities of any change of address.

Source 1 This 1916 poster shows Australia renamed 'New Germany', and Australian cities given German names; such scare tactics were common during World War I.

Source 2 Holsworthy Internment Camp in Liverpool, New South Wales

Internment

Over the course of the war, nearly 7000 people were classified by the government as 'enemy aliens' and imprisoned in **internment camps**. Most of these people were of German or Austro–Hungarian descent who had been residents in Australia when the war broke out. Some had lived here for many years or had even been born in Australia. There were no hearings or appeals.

Initially, internment camps were set up all across Australia, but in July 1915, all internees were moved to camps in New South Wales. Here, the three main internment camps were at Trial Bay Gaol, Berrima Gaol and Holsworthy Army Barracks. Germans who were not placed in camps were carefully watched by the police and neighbours.

Hostility towards Germans in Australian society at the time was so strong that many people of German or Austrian heritage decided that life inside the internment camps would be preferable. Many of them had lost their jobs and could not feed their families. During the war, 1500 people chose to enter internment camps voluntarily.

Other reactions to 'enemy aliens'

In response to the threat of German–Australians, the government closed down German schools and changed the names of towns that it thought sounded 'too German'. In New South Wales, Germantown became Holbrook; in Tasmania, the town of Bismarck became Collinsvale; and in Victoria, Mount Bismarck was renamed Mount Kitchener – after the British Field Marshal, Lord Kitchener. In Townsville, the German Gardens became the Belgian Gardens.

Many families of German descent changed their names to stop harassment from the government and a war-mad community. German schools and churches were closed, German music was banned, and German food was renamed.

After the failure of the second conscription plebiscite in 1917, the anti-German campaign was increased further. People of German descent were stopped from joining the army, and from holding civil positions such as local councillors or Justices of the Peace.

Many Australians also refused to work beside people of German descent, striking until they were sacked from their jobs. People refused to buy anything from German-owned businesses.

Source 3 Australian propaganda cartoons such as this one by artist Norman Lindsay (published around 1915) did much to fuel anti-German sentiment in Australia. The cartoon shows a 'Hun' (a derogatory word used to refer to Germans) as a brutal ape-like monster reaching out to crush the world, the blood of its victims dripping from Europe down towards Australia.

Check your learning 10.15

Remember and understand

1. How many people of German descent were living in Australia at the start of World War I?
2. What were some of the suspicions held about German–Australians after war broke out? Who held these views?
3. What restrictions were placed on German–Australians as a result of the War Precautions Act?
4. Why did some German–Australians voluntarily enter internment camps?

Apply and analyse

5. Negative attitudes towards Germans, even those who were born here or were naturalised Australians, were widely held by British–Australians during World War I.
   - **a** How do you explain this reaction?
   - **b** Do you think the same reaction would happen today if Australia were at war with a country from which many Australian citizens had migrated?

10.16 The impact of war on Australia's international relationships

World War I had a significant influence on the growth of Australia as a nation; in fact, many historians describe it as 'our nation's coming of age'.

When World War I broke out in 1914, Australia was still a very young nation. **Federation** – the process by which six British colonies united to form the Commonwealth of Australia – had only taken place in 1901, so this was the first time Australia had ever committed its own troops and fought under its own flag (rather than the flag of Great Britain). To this day, World War I remains the most costly conflict ever for Australia in terms of the number of deaths and casualties suffered. In total, around 300 000 men enlisted from a total population of less than five million. Of these, more than 60 000 were killed and around 155 000 were wounded. As a percentage of total population, this meant that Australia's sacrifice was greater than that of any other country in the war. This sacrifice gave Australia a certain amount of influence and acknowledgement on the world stage that it had not had before the war.

Australia gets a seat at the table

After the war ended in 1918, the victorious Allied Powers met to discuss terms for the surrender of the defeated Central Powers. The talks, held in Versailles outside Paris, became known as the Paris Peace Conference. In 1919, Australian Prime Minister William 'Billy' Hughes travelled to Paris to attend. He was away for 16 months and at the end of this time signed the **Treaty of Versailles** on behalf of Australia – the first time Australia had signed an international treaty. Hughes' major achievement at the Paris Peace Conference was to gain a mandate (permission) for Australia to govern the former German colony of New Guinea. He also strongly supported arguments for severe **reparations** (penalties and fines) to be placed on Germany.

Source 1 Australian soldiers carry Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes – fondly called 'the little digger' – along George Street, Sydney in triumph after returning home from the Paris Peace Conference.

Australia's relationship with Britain

World War I brought about many changes for Australia's relationship with Britain. The service of the Australian troops in the Middle East and on the Western Front earned high praise from the British military command. By the end of the war, Australia's relationship with Britain was still strong, but Australia was a little more independent.

This growing self-confidence was shown through Australia's contributions at the Paris Peace Conference (see Source 2). During the 1920s and 1930s other steps were taken towards independence. In 1931, the British parliament gave Australia the right to make its own foreign policy and trade treaties.

Despite these changes, loyalty to Britain remained strong. One way that this was shown was through responses to the many royal visits after the war. For example, in 1920, the Prince of Wales visited Australia and was greeted with enthusiasm everywhere he went.

When the Great Depression hit Australia in 1929, Prime Minister James Scullin initially relied on advice from Britain and the Bank of England. The close

relationship with Britain was also reflected by Prime Minister Robert Menzies when he announced in 1939, 'Great Britain has declared war upon her (Germany) ... as a result, Australia is also at war.'

Australia's relationship with Asia

Prior to World War I, Australia did not have a very positive relationship with Asia. Instead, Australia's international relationships were heavily focused on Britain and countries in Europe. At the time, Australia also had very strict and discriminatory immigration laws towards people from Asia.

One of the outcomes of the Paris Peace Conference was the formation of the League of Nations – an international organisation designed to prevent future wars and promote peace. When the charter (founding statement) for the League of Nations was debated, Japan argued that a clause be added outlining 'the equality of all nations and fair treatment of all peoples'. Prime Minister Hughes argued strongly against this clause being added and was successful. The Japanese were offended by Australia's position on the issue and it strained relations for many years. Despite this, trade between Australia and Japan increased steadily (as it did with other Asian countries such as China).

In the 1930s, Japan began to flex its military muscle in Asia and expand its territory by force. As a result, Australia was forced to take a more independent approach to foreign policy. Australia's closeness to Asia meant that the government had to look at Australia's interests in its own region and respond to local events.

Australia's relationship with the USA

Prime Minister Hughes gained considerable respect from world leaders at Versailles, but not from everyone. Hughes was a demanding presence at the Conference and was able to secure a number of victories for Australia in the negotiations. Hughes often disagreed with US President Woodrow Wilson, who described him as 'a pestiferous varmint'.

Despite these tensions between Prime Minister Hughes and President Wilson at Versailles, relations between Australia and the USA were largely positive in the 1920s and 1930s. Australia began to increase its diplomatic relations with America and trade between the two countries also increased. After the war, there was also an increasing interest among Australians in American culture, especially films and music.

Over time, trade and military agreements with the United States led to Australia looking away from Europe and strengthening ties with the United States. Although the Australian government had extended military connections to the USA as far back as 1908, it was only in the lead-up to World War II that the United States came to be seen as a major ally of Australia.

Source 2 At the end of World War I, the leaders of the victorious Allied Powers met in Paris. This photograph of the Paris peace talks shows Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes seated in the centre of the front row.

Check your learning 10.16

Remember and understand

1 What was the Paris Peace Conference and when was it held?
2 What was Prime Minister Hughes' major achievement at the Paris Peace Conference?
3 What was the League of Nations and what was it designed to achieve?

Apply and analyse

4 Why was Australia's relationship with Asian countries strained around the time of World War I?
5 Why did US President Woodrow Wilson describe Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes as 'a pestiferous varmint'?

Evaluate and create

6 Despite increasingly close relationships with Asia and the USA, many Australians still support the idea of the British Queen as Australia's Head of State. Research the arguments for and against this issue. Conduct a class debate on the topic: 'Australia is mature enough to choose its own Head of State.'

10C rich task

Conscription

The issue of conscription was one of the most bitter and divisive debates in Australian history. Even though both plebiscites were defeated, and achieved no change at all, the impact on the nation was lasting. The issue divided friends, neighbours, workmates and even families. Well into the 1920s the scars of these bitter battles could be felt in the Australian community. Prime Minister Billy Hughes and Archbishop Daniel Mannix were two of the most important figures in the debate, with Hughes being the greatest proponent of conscription and Mannix being its loudest critic.

Source 1

Britain has raised, I say, an army and navy of over five million men. She has raised more than one-tenth of her total population. We have raised, at the outside, about one-twentieth…The time has come when (Australia) must do better…

Does anyone who loves his country… doubt that if Germany wins in this war she will lay her predatory hands on this country of ours? … Is there in the world a greater prize than Australia? … I tell you, and I am armed with knowledge, that our position is hopeless … We may say what we like, but once the Allies' line is broken in France… there is an end of us. Get that into your minds. But for the allied armies and the British navy we are doomed men. We may bleat and we may struggle, but we are like sheep before the butcher, and nothing can save us.

… Tens of thousands of our kinsmen in Britain have died that we might live free and unmolested. Is there one man who will say that we ought not to pay the debt we owe to Britain, with our lives if need be, for shielding our country with the bodies of her glorious soldiers and sailors from the scorching blast of war? Australians! This is no time for party strife. The nation is in peril, and it calls for her citizens to defend her. Our duty is clear. Let us rise like men, gird up our loins and do that which honour, duty and self-interests alike dictate.

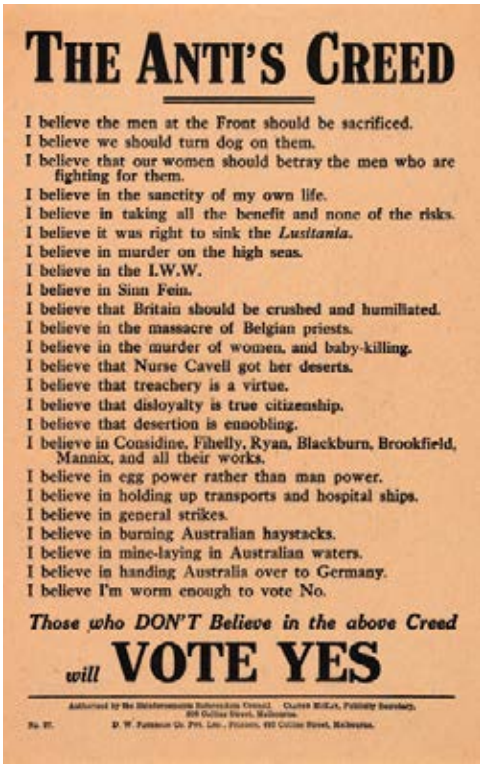
An excerpt from a speech by Prime Minister Billy Hughes, 18 September 1916

Source 2

… It is only twelve months since the people of Australia pronounced their emphatic verdict … that Australia is a democratic country, and that there is no room here for slavery and conscription. Now you are asked to pronounce on the same question again. I hope that your answer will be the same as before, but more emphatic and decisive.

We are quite ready to hear anything that the conscriptionists have to add on what they said on the previous occasion. Many things said then have since been unsaid, because they were untrue. This time, I hope that, even at the cost of some effort, they will stick as closely as they can to the truth. We were told a year ago that we should vote for conscription because there was some great secret locked up in the bosom of the Prime Minister. I hope there is no secret there now! Let us hear the worst. Indeed, we are likely to get very gloomy news from this to the taking of the referendum. We always get the news that fits the occasion. At other times, all our battles are victorious and our losses are very light. But now the Allies will suffer one defeat after another – and all for the lack of conscription in Australia and of a few more Australians in the trenches. Do not take my word for this. Just watch the papers. Wait and see what they have ready for you during the next few weeks. You will be appealed to as if everything depended on what Australia does or leaves undone …

Excerpt from a speech delivered by Archbishop Daniel Mannix to 6000 people, two months before the second conscription plebiscite in 1917



THE ANTI'S CREED

I believe the men at the Front should be sacrificed.
I believe we should turn dog on them.
I believe that our women should betray the men who are fighting for them.
I believe in the sanctity of my own life.
I believe in taking all the benefit and none of the risks.
I believe it was right to sink the *Lusitania*.
I believe in murder on the high seas.
I believe in the I.W.W.
I believe in Sinn Fein.
I believe that Britain should be crushed and humiliated.
I believe in the massacre of Belgian priests.
I believe in the murder of women, and baby-killing.
I believe that Nurse Cavell got her deserts.
I believe that treachery is a virtue.
I believe that disloyalty is true citizenship.
I believe that desertion is ennobling.
I believe in Considine, Fihelly, Ryan, Blackburn, Brookfield, Mannix, and all their works.
I believe in egg power rather than man power.
I believe in holding up transports and hospital ships.
I believe in general strikes.
I believe in burning Australian haystacks.
I believe in mine-laying in Australian waters.
I believe in handing Australia over to Germany.
I believe I'm worm enough to vote No.

Those who DON'T Believe in the above Creed

will VOTE YES

Source 3
A leaflet produced by the 'Reinforcements Referendum Council', a pro-conscription group in Melbourne, Victoria, in 1917

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identifying the origin, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Historians use primary and secondary sources to gather evidence about the past. Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but sources will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of the time they were created in. All sources are affected by the author's own point of view, and in some cases an author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or ignore certain facts. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources. Historians need to identify:

- what a source is and where it came from (origin)
- what life was like when the source was created (context)
- why the source was created (purpose).

Ask yourself the following questions to identify the origin, context and purpose of a source:

Step 1 Identify origin

- What type of source is it?
- Who wrote, produced or made the source? What do you know about their age, gender, occupation, position in society or religious background?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
- How old is the source?
- Is it an eyewitness account or was it written by someone at a later date?
- Is the source complete?

Step 2 Identify context

- What was life like when this source was created?
- What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?
- What was the political environment like at the time the source was created?
- What sort of common prejudices and social norms existed at the time that may have influenced the author or the source?

Step 3 Identify purpose

- Why was the source written or created?
- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the author have anything to gain personally from the source?
- Does it give a detached, balanced account?
- Were there political reasons for the creation of the source?
- Is it propaganda?

Apply the skill

1 Identify the origin, context and purpose of the three sources in this section (Sources 1, 2 and 3) by following the steps provided.

a For each source, work through the questions listed in steps 1, 2 and 3. Create a table in which to record your answers at each step. In order to answer some of these questions, you will need to draw on information from this chapter. You may also need to conduct some additional research about Prime Minister Billy Hughes, Archbishop Daniel Mannix and the Reinforcements Referendum Council.

b Once you have completed your analysis of the three sources, write a 300-word report that explains the origin, context and purpose of each.

Extend your understanding

1 Many women wrote letters to newspapers arguing for and against conscription during World War I. Choose one side of the conscription debate and write a letter to the editor from the perspective of a parent whose son is a soldier on the front line.

10.17 Anzac Day and the Anzac legend

Source 1 The Shrine of Remembrance opened in Melbourne in 1934 to commemorate Victorians who gave their lives in World War I. Similar war memorials exist in towns and cities across Australia.

Even before World War I had ended, Australians began looking for ways in which the whole nation could recognise the efforts of the Australian forces and commemorate their sacrifices. Today, we continue to remember World War I with two official commemoration days – Anzac Day and Remembrance Day – along with a number of other symbols and traditions.

For Australians, commemoration of World War I has always been closely tied to the Gallipoli landing on 25 April 1915. Despite Australians being involved in more successful campaigns and battles during World War I, it is Gallipoli that has come to symbolise Australia's war experience.

Despite the disastrous landing and loss of life, Australians at home met the news from Gallipoli with a sense of pride. In the first news reports that reached Australia, the soldiers were praised for their courage and gallantry. British war correspondent (journalist) Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett wrote of the Anzacs, 'There has been no finer feat in this war than this sudden landing in the dark and storming the heights, above all holding on whilst the reinforcements were landing'. (*The Argus*, 8 May 1915). His views were echoed by British General Sir Ian Hamilton.

Source 2

> … History contains no finer record of dauntless bravery than is here described, while the knowledge of the magnificent part taken in this spectacular drama by our own gallant troops will thrill every heart in our own land.
>
> Ian Hamilton, 'Australia's Glorious Day: The Official Story of the Landing and Attack by Our Combined Forces at the Dardanelles'

The greatest praise of all came from King George V, who stated that the diggers had 'indeed proved themselves worthy sons of the Empire'.

Anzac Day commemoration

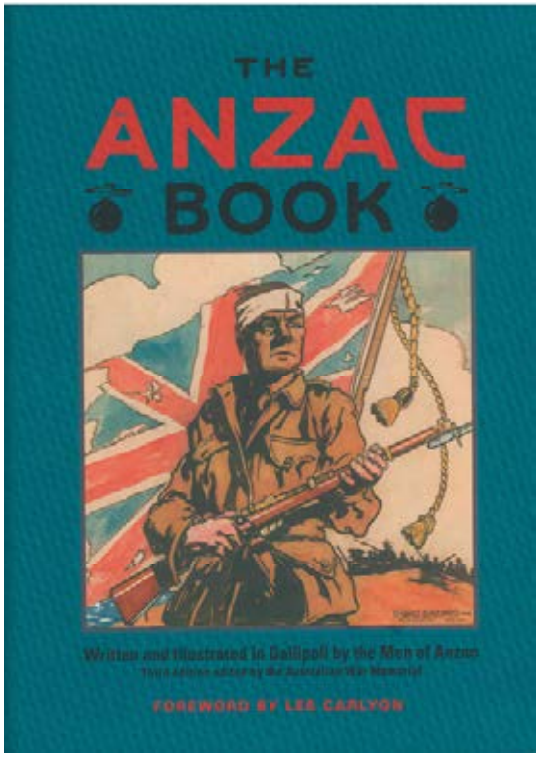
Anzac Day, 25 April, was made a day of commemoration in 1916. That year, ceremonies and marches were held all around Australia. A march was also held in London, England, where the Anzac troops were hailed by local newspapers as 'The Knights of Gallipoli'. By 1927, Anzac Day had become a public holiday in Australia, with marches and dawn services held around the country annually.

The events of 25 April 1915, on a peninsula in Turkey, continue to resonate with Australians today. More than any other event in Australia's history, the Gallipoli landing occupies a special place. A legend has developed around Gallipoli that grows stronger as the years pass. Schoolchildren learn about the Gallipoli landing and relish legends such as the story of Simpson and his donkey. Hundreds of thousands of Australians join in or watch Anzac marches through large capital cities and small country towns. Many more take part in commemorations and wreath-laying ceremonies at war memorials throughout the country.

Each year, increasing numbers of young Australians find their way to Gallipoli to be present at the Anzac Day dawn service there. It has become something of a rite of passage. Anzac ceremonies, wherever they are held, traditionally conclude with the words from Laurence Binyon's poem 'For the Fallen':

Source 4

> 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.
>
> 'For the Fallen', Laurence Binyon



Source 3 Cover of *The ANZAC Book*, a collection of stories, poems, sketches and reminiscences by the Australian soldiers at Gallipoli, edited by CEW Bean

Source 5 A dawn memorial service is held on 25 April each year at Anzac Cove, Gallipoli.

Origins of the legend

The significance of the Gallipoli campaign, and the origin of the Anzac legend that surrounds it, can largely be linked to the fact that it was the first time that Australia had fought in a war as a nation. Australia had only existed for 13 years as a united country at the time it went to war. Australians at home waited eagerly for accounts of the first encounter of the Australian Imperial Force. When news of the first battles at Gallipoli appeared in Australian papers on 8 May 1915, the fact that the landing had been a failure was almost completely overlooked.

Commentators at the time, and in the years since 1915, have developed the theme that Gallipoli was a defining national experience. It has been said that 'Australia became a nation on the shores of Gallipoli'. Historians have referred to the Gallipoli experience as Australia's 'baptism of blood' or 'baptism of fire'. Australian historian Bill Gammage wrote of the experience, 'The circumstances of a national army, an arena, a brave enemy … led three nations, Australia, New Zealand and Turkey, to create national traditions from the Gallipoli Campaign'.

It has also been suggested that, although they were enemies, a sense of respect developed between the Anzac soldiers and the Turks. Engraved at Anzac Cove are the words written in 1934 by Kemal Atatürk, Commander of the Turkish 19th Division during the Gallipoli campaign, and the first President of the Turkish Republic, from 1924 to 1938:

Source 6

> 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 here in this country of ours. You, the mothers, who sent their sons from far away 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.
>
> Memorial written by Kemal Atatürk, 1934

Source 7 Anzac soldiers in the trenches using periscope rifles

Source 8 'A present from home – "Do they think we're on a bloomin' picnic?" ', cartoon from *The ANZAC Book*, 1916, edited by CEW Bean, p. 64

Source 9 As this photo (taken on 19 August 1966 during the Vietnam War) indicates, Australian soldiers have maintained the spirit of 'mateship' in battle first evident at Gallipoli 50 years earlier.

key**concept:** Significance

Alec Campbell

Source 10 Alec Campbell

The last living direct Australian link to the Gallipoli campaign was lost on 16 May 2002 with the death of Alexander William ('Alec') Campbell, aged 103. Campbell enlisted in the AIF at age 16, after lying about his age to meet the required minimum age of 18. Campbell landed at Gallipoli in November 1915. He carried ammunition, supplies and water to the trenches. He was discharged on medical grounds around a year later. Campbell's funeral in 2002 was attended by the then Prime Minister John Howard and the chiefs of the defence forces. On this day, around Australia and overseas, flags were flown at half-mast to pay respect to this final link to Gallipoli.

For more information on the key concept of significance, refer to page 11 of 'The history toolkit'.

Check your learning 10.17

Remember and understand

1. What was the immediate reaction in Australia to the news of the Gallipoli landing?
2. In what year was Anzac Day made a day of commemoration?
3. In what year did Anzac Day become a public holiday?

Apply and analyse

4. Why do you think the Gallipoli landing is such a significant event in Australia's history?
5. The Anzacs were fighting the Turks on their home soil. They could be said to have invaded Turkey. However, there seems to have been a mutual respect between the two peoples, which has grown through the years. What reasons can you think of to explain this? Conduct research online to help you if necessary.

Evaluate and create

6. Re-read the memorial written by Kemal Atatürk (Source 6). Imagine you are one of the mothers whose sons are buried at Gallipoli. Write a letter of gratitude to Atatürk.

10.18 Other forms of commemoration

Symbols, traditions and events that commemorate war are important elements in almost all nations. Well-tended war cemeteries can be found wherever significant battles have been fought. The Australian War Memorial in Canberra is one of the most visited sites in Australia. War memorials, avenues of honour and statues of war heroes can also be found in virtually every Australian town and city.

The legacy of World War I has shaped many aspects of Australian society and culture over the course of the 20th century, both positively and negatively. The restrictions on trade imposed by the war forced Australia to develop new industries.

The War Service Homes scheme was responsible for the development of new suburbs – streetscapes of comfortable Californian bungalows that are so desirable today. New hospitals, including the Repatriation General Hospital established in Hobart in 1921, were set up to care for those who had returned from war with physical or, sometimes, mental injuries. The Returned and Services League (RSL), established in 1916, continues to provide support and advocacy for the veterans of any war that Australia has engaged in over the past century.

Source 1 During World War I, red poppies were the first plants to bloom on the battlefields of France and Belgium. Today, the red poppy has become a symbol of sacrifice and remembrance.

Remembrance Day

Anzac Day is the main day for war commemoration in Australia and New Zealand. However, Remembrance Day, 11 November, is a more general recognition of the sacrifices made in war. This date marks the day and the hour when the Armistice (ceasefire) was signed, bringing an end to World War I.

In many countries, people pause for one minute at 11 am on Remembrance Day to remember those who gave their lives in war. Red poppies are worn to symbolise the dead. Red poppies grew wild along the Western Front and also in Turkey. At these ceremonies, the poem 'In Flanders Fields' (see Source 2) is frequently read.

Source 2

In Flanders fields the poppies blow
Between the crosses, row on row,
That mark our place; and in the sky
The larks, still bravely singing, fly
Scarce heard amid the guns below.
We are the Dead. Short days ago
We lived, felt dawn, saw sunset glow,
Loved and were loved, and now we lie
In Flanders fields.
Take up our quarrel with the foe:
To you from failing hands we throw
The torch; be yours to hold it high.
If ye break faith with us who die
We shall not sleep, though poppies grow
In Flanders fields.

'In Flanders Fields', John McCrae (1872–1918)

The Australian War Memorial, Canberra

The Australian War Memorial in Canberra is Australia's national memorial to all those who have died or participated in the wars of the Commonwealth of Australia. It was opened in 1941, but the idea for it was conceived on the shores of Gallipoli.

Charles Bean (1879–1968), a journalist, was Australia's official war correspondent during World War I. He went ashore on Gallipoli on 25 April 1915 and stayed close to the front line for the rest of the war. It was he who, in 1918, first imagined how the Australian War Memorial would appear.

Source 3

> … on some hill-top – still, beautiful, gleaming white and silent, a building of three parts, a centre and two wings. The centre will hold the great national relics of the A.I.F. One wing will be a gallery – holding the pictures that our artists painted and drew actually on the scene and amongst the events themselves. The other wing will be a library to contain the written official records of every unit.
>
> CEW Bean, 1918, cited in Australian War Memorial website

The Australian War Memorial features a Roll of Honour that lists all those who died in World War I, as well as a Commemorative Roll which lists all those who died as a result of war injuries after the war finished.

Source 4 Charles Bean at work on war histories in his Victoria Barracks office, Sydney, *c.* 1935

Source 5 An aerial view of the Australian War Memorial, Canberra, 1945

Check your learning 10.18

Remember and understand

1. Why are red poppies worn on Remembrance Day?
2. What is the purpose of the RSL?

Apply and analyse

3. Why do you think that wars and war experiences are such significant elements of so many national stories?
4. What is the main purpose of the Australian War Memorial? What information is featured there?

Create and evaluate

5. The poem 'In Flanders Fields' (Source 2) is often read at Remembrance Day ceremonies. Think carefully about the emotions and sentiments that it expresses. Write your own poem that also reflects these sentiments and that commemorates World War I.

10D rich task

The Anzac legend today

The Anzac legend has not remained static. It was expected that as the last of the World War I diggers died, the significance of Gallipoli would begin to fade. There was some decline in interest in Anzac Day in the decades after World War II, but since the 1980s Anzac Day has grown in significance.

The reasons for this resurgence of interest in the Anzac legend and the Gallipoli story are complex. The attention paid to the declining numbers of World War I veterans combined with the popularity of films such as *Gallipoli* have brought the events of 1915 to the attention of the wider community. The pilgrimage of Gallipoli survivors in 1990, to mark the 75th anniversary of the campaign, brought widespread media and popular awareness of the Gallipoli landing.

Today, interest in Anzac Day has never been stronger. School assemblies, church services, television and radio programs and even sporting events are linked to the commemoration of the Gallipoli landing. The nation commemorated the centenary of Gallipoli in 2015, and the place of the Anzac legend is firmly and securely at the centre of national consciousness.

Yet despite the significance of Anzac Day in Australian society, opinions on its origins and importance vary. The following sources (see Sources 1 to 3) show how Australians have debated the meaning of the Anzac legend across time.

Source 1

No one can express all that this day means to us Australians and New Zealanders. 'It is', said Australia's great historian Manning Clark, 'about something too deep for words.' But in the stillness of the early dawn, and in the silence that will settle once more along this shoreline, we feel it in the quiet of our hearts. The sense of great sadness. Of loss. Of gratitude. Of honour. Of national identity. Of our past. Of the spirit, the depth, the meaning, the very essence of our nations. And of the human values which those first Anzacs – and those who came after them – embodied and which we, their heirs, must cherish and pass to the future.

May they rest with God.

Address by His Excellency the Governor-General Sir William Deane at Gallipoli, 25 April 1999

Source 2

HR: [Anzac Day] is a day on which Australia remembers the war dead from all wars and grieves and mourns their death and their sacrifice. But there's another quite different aspect of it, and that is it's suggesting that the actual landing at Anzac was an event of overwhelming historic importance, and in fact many people would argue, and do so, that is was the creation of the Australian nation.

… We … fully accept and appreciate that every nation has some kind – some day – in which to remember the sacrifice of those who have gone to and have died in war, or have suffered in war. There's no problem with that whatsoever. It is what is built upon that. We are simply pointing out that the whole interpretation of Australian history is distorted by this view of Anzac.

AG: Australia's achievements in nation building and social areas – a living wage and decent working conditions, the 1967 referendum relating to Aborigines – all these things … are cast aside in favour of a new militarised view of history.

HR: [Governments in the last 15 years] have put a great deal of money, particularly addressed at children, … at schools, curriculum material, films … an unprecedented amount of government money going into promoting a particular view of history.

… we can only presume it was done with a view that Australians needed a unifying myth; they needed something to feel proud about their country. But …, by 1914, Australia was … a society which would be the envy of many countries even today. And yet the argument of the militarists is that this achievement wasn't as great because, at the time, there was this view that nations didn't become complete until they'd had their baptism of fire.

… Our argument is not with the mourning-aspect of Anzac Day, it's more with the way in which a whole interpretation of history has been built upon that and, in a way, sanctified by that.

An extract from an interview with the historian Professor Henry Reynolds, ABC, News, *AM,* Brisbane, 24 April 2010. Henry Reynolds [HR] is speaking with reporter Annie Guest [AG] about the book *What's Wrong with Anzac? The Militarisation of Australian History,* UNSW Press, 2010, which he and Professor Marilyn Lake co-edited.

Source 3 Australian soldiers in a boat heading towards Anzac Cove, 25 April 1915 (AWM AQ2781)

skill**drill:** Historical sources as evidence

Identifying and analysing different historical interpretations

As explained earlier, historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

- **primary sources** – objects or materials created or written at the time being investigated
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated.

Much of the historical study and research you will complete in secondary school involves reading secondary sources (for example, textbooks and websites about the historical period you are studying). While these secondary sources at first glance may appear to provide a balanced, objective and unbiased view of historical events or periods, this is not always the case. All historians write from a particular perspective. There is no single objective, unbiased 'truth' – instead, all historians have to interpret historical events and issues from their own perspectives. Historians must use evidence to support their interpretations, but there is no absolutely 'correct' way of interpreting evidence. They are also required to use (or disregard) different sources of evidence to support many different interpretations. For example, many historians writing in the early 1900s about the British settlement of Australia presented this in a very positive light, and more or less ignored the negative experiences of Indigenous Australians.

For these reasons, it is very important that you are able to identify and analyse different historical interpretations. Ask yourself the following questions:

- What historical event is being interpreted?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as negative in this interpretation?
- What motives or characteristics are being attributed to the humans involved in this interpretation?
- What primary sources are used to support the interpretation? How?
- What primary sources might have been left out of or ignored by this interpretation?
- Does this interpretation involve a critique of other interpretations? If so, what is being said about other interpretations?

Apply the skill

1 Consider Sources 1 and 2. Using the questions above as a guide, identify and analyse the way that the writer of each source has interpreted the events that occurred on 25 April 1915 on the shores of Gallipoli. Write a 250-word report explaining your findings using additional background information from the Internet if required.

Extend your understanding

1 Interview 10 people (males and females of various ages and occupations). Use these interviews, plus other material in this chapter, to write an article for your school newsletter titled: 'What Anzac Day means to Australians today'.

2 The Peter Weir film *Gallipoli* (1980) is thought to have played an important role in the revival of interest in the Anzac legend. View the film and suggest why it may have had this impact. Refer to specific features of the film (scenes, characters, incidents, symbols and music).

Glossary

A

Agricultural Revolution, the a period of agricultural development and advances in farming methods that took place in Britain from the mid-1600s until the late 1800s and paved the way for the Industrial Revolution

alliance system, the a series of agreements (alliances) formed between various European powers to work together to achieve shared goals; one of the factors contributing to the outbreak of World War I (*see also* Triple Alliance and Triple Entente)

American War of Independence, the a revolutionary war fought between Britain and the 13 British colonies in North America (1775–83); leading ultimately to independence and the formation of the United States of America

anarchism a social and political theory that all government and laws should be abolished and people should live in free communities where individuals govern their own behaviour

archaeology study of human history through the excavation of sites and the examination of physical remains

aristocracy a group of people who (through wealth or birth) belong to the upper class of a society or civilisation

armistice an agreement made by warring parties (e.g. countries) to stop fighting in order to negotiate peace

artefact any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, the remains of a building)

assassination the murder of a prominent political or religious figure in a surprise attack

assembly line machinery that is arranged in sequence so that something can be assembled quickly and efficiently

assisted migrant a person wanting to settle in Australia whose transportation costs were paid by the government in exchange for a set period of unpaid work on arrival

B

bias a prejudicial view or attitude towards someone or something that is not altered by the presentation of facts and evidence to the contrary

C

capitalism an economic system under which investment in, and ownership of, the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are privately owned by individuals or corporations and run to generate profits; as opposed to state-owned and controlled systems such as socialism and communism, a supporter of this political system is called a capitalist

castes hereditary social classes in India with defined social positions and occupations

cause and effect a key concept in history: the link between what causes an action and the outcome of that action; an appreciation of the fact that events that take place (both short term and long term) are linked and can have impacts on people and places for many years to come

census a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, religious beliefs etc.

Chartism a British working-class movement for political reform that took place in the 1830s; a People's Charter was drawn up in 1838 calling for a range of reforms to make the political system more democratic (including the right to vote for all men over the age of 21); the movement's supporters were called Chartists

chronology a record of events in the order they took place

circa a Latin word meaning 'around' or 'approximately' (abbreviated as '*c.*')

colonisation the process of setting up outposts or settlements in other lands by a country, kingdom or empire, often for reasons of trade or defence

colony an outpost set up by a country, kingdom or empire, often for social, financial or strategic (military) reasons

communism an economic system in which the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned (by the state) and goods are distributed equally according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism

Confucianism Chinese belief system that emphasises respect for one's ancestors

conscientious objector in wartime, a person who is opposed to the war and refuses to perform military service because it goes against their beliefs, religion or conscience

conscription the compulsory enlistment of people to serve in the armed forces

Constitution the political principles on which a country or society is based and that guide its government; also, a written document that outlines these principles

contestability a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of historical sources, historical events or issues put forward by other historians

continuity and change a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that while some aspects of a society stay the same over time (continuity), others will develop and transform (change)

convict a person found guilty of a crime and sentenced by a court to serve some kind of punishment

corps a large grouping of troops within an armed force that performs a certain function (e.g. the Royal Australian Infantry Corps and the Royal Australian Army Medical Corps)

D

democracy a political system based around the idea that the citizens of a society should have control over the way in which they are governed

digger a miner, especially someone who digs for gold; also an informal term used to describe soldiers from Australia and New Zealand; first used during World War I

dispossession to deprive a person or people of the possession or occupancy of land and property; when the British colonised Australia in the 18th century, large numbers of Indigenous Australians were dispossessed of their ancestral lands, their hunting grounds and water resources; they were also cut off from their spiritual and cultural heritage as a result of dispossession

dogfight a close-range aerial combat between fighter planes

dominion a self-governing nation or state under British sovereignty in the later part of the 19th century and part of the British Empire; British dominions (at various times) included former colonies such as Australia, Canada, India and New Zealand

dynasty a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other (e.g. the Qing Dynasty in China); power is often passed from father to son

E

egalitarianism a social and political theory that gained popularity in the 18th century, promoting the idea of equality among all people regardless of their position in society; the term is taken from the French *égal*, meaning 'equal'

emigration to leave one country or region in order to settle in another

empathy a key concept in history: the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their special circumstances and values into consideration

empire a group of countries and/or areas, often with different languages and having different cultures, ruled by a central power or leader (known as an emperor)

enclosures the act of seizing land (especially common farming land) by putting a hedge or other barrier around it; during the Agricultural Revolution over 4000 Enclosure Acts (laws) were passed by the British Parliament granting ownership of common farming land to private owners

enemy alien an immigrant from an enemy nation (during times of war) who had settled in Australia before the conflict broke out (e.g. people of German heritage already living in Australia during World War II became known as enemy aliens)

entrepreneur a person who sets up a business in the hope of making a profit

Eureka rebellion a violent uprising led by gold miners in Ballarat, Victoria in 1854 and a significant event in the development of Australian democracy; gold miners protesting against the expense of mining licences rose up against British troops resulting in the deaths of at least 27 people; also referred to as the Eureka Stockade

evidence a key concept in history: the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

extraterritoriality a principle where people abroad are subject to the laws of their own country rather than local laws

F

factory system, the a system of manufacturing goods on a large scale using many workers and specialised machinery located on a single site; first adopted in Britain during the Industrial Revolution

federation the process by which separate colonies or states form a unified nation with a central government; the Commonwealth of Australia was established in 1901 after the six colonies were joined

First Fleet, the the name given to the 11 ships carrying convicts and British officers that left Britain in 1787 to establish a penal colony in New South Wales

free settler a person who leaves their homeland by choice to settle in a new country or colony

free trade an economic policy under which governments do not restrict or interfere with the trade of goods and services between countries by applying tariffs (taxes) to imported goods or providing subsidies (financial payments) to protect local manufacturers

French Revolution, the a revolution in France started in 1789 that saw the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of a democratic system of government

H

hierarchy an organisation that ranks people one above the other depending on the power they hold

historical inquiry the process of examining historical evidence, conducting research and asking questions about it to find out about the past

House of Representatives the lower house in the Australian federal parliament with one member elected for each electorate (a voting area with set boundaries based on population)

hypothesis a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven

I

immigration the act of entering and settling permanently in a country or region to which a person is not native

imperialism the process of gaining and maintaining control over other countries, regions or territories for economic or strategic (military) reasons

Industrial Revolution, the the name given to the period of rapid development in manufacturing and industry from 1750 to 1900 particularly in Britain

industrialisation a process in which a society or country transforms from an economy based primarily on agriculture and farming into one based on manufacturing and industry

industrialist a person who owns or manages an industry

inflation a general increase in the prices of goods and services accompanied by a fall in the value of money or currency

intern to imprison or keep confined in a particular place

internment camp a prison camp set up to confine enemy aliens, prisoners of war or political prisoners

K

kowtow to kneel and bow the head to touch the ground, as a sign of respect

L

Luddite a member of a group of workers led by Ned Ludd who rioted and broke machinery from 1811 to 1818 in protest against loss of work due to the use of labour-saving machinery

M

Mandarins a class of Chinese government officials in Imperial China

merino a breed of sheep prized for their fine wool

migration the movement of people from one place to another

militarism a focus within a country on boosting the strength of the military by growing the armed forces and spending on military equipment

mission (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century (usually by Christian missionaries) to accommodate, educate and convert Indigenous Australians into Christians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

monarchy a system, state or country ruled by a monarch (e.g. a king or queen)

N

nationalism a sense of pride in, and love of, one's country; also the idea that one nation's culture and interests are superior to those of another nation

neutral nation a country that decides not to take part in a war or to favour one side or the other

New World a term that started being used by Europeans in the late 1400s to describe the new lands being discovered around the world (particularly the Americas and later Australia)

no man's land an area of land between two opposing armies that is unoccupied or unclaimed

O

opium an addictive drug popular in Imperial China

overseer a person who supervises workers, common in factories during the Industrial Revolution

P

pacifist a person opposed to violence and war

pastoralist a farmer of sheep or cattle, usually on a large-scale farm

penal colony a colony set up primarily to receive and contain prisoners from the home country

perspectives a key concept in history: a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their knowledge, culture or beliefs

plebiscite a direct vote by all electors in a country, city or state on an specific and important issue

primary source a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

propaganda information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society; propaganda can take many forms (e.g. posters, flyers, advertising campaigns, films) and is designed to promote a particular cause or course of action and/or damage the cause of an enemy

protection a government policy introduced in Australia from 1850 onwards designed to give the government extensive power over the lives of Aboriginal people (including the regulation of where they lived, where they worked, who they married and what languages they spoke); under this policy, a number of reserves and missions were established around Australia and many Aboriginal people were forced to move and live there

protectorate a district under the protection of a protector (a government official responsible for the Indigenous population)

puddling the process of separating gold from rock sludge using water

R

referendum (in Australian history) a national vote of the people on actions proposed by the government; any proposed changes to the Australian Constitution must be put to a vote in a referendum

reparations money paid by one country to another as compensation for damage, injuries and deaths it has caused during war

representative democracy a system of democratic government in which certain people are elected by the public to represent their interests in parliament

reserve (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century in Australia (usually by colonial powers) to accommodate, educate and 'civilise' Indigenous Australians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

S

Second Fleet, the the name given to the six ships carrying free settlers, convicts and supplies from Britain to the colony of New South Wales that arrived in 1789

secondary source a source created after the time being studied

Senate the upper house in the Australian federal parliament with an equal number of members representing each state (currently 12 members)

separation of powers a principle that guides the way Australia is governed; the power to govern is divided between the parliament, the executive and the judiciary to avoid one group having total control; each branch of government works within defined areas of responsibility and keeps checks on the actions of the other branches

significance a key concept in history: the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

slave a person who is the legal property of another person and who is forced to work for that person without pay

slavery the practice or system of owning slaves

social Darwinism the theory that persons, groups and races in society are subject to the same laws of natural selection as plants and animals in nature; based on a theory proposed by Charles Darwin in the mid-1800s (*see* Darwinism)

socialism an economic and political system under which investment in, and ownership of, the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned and resources are allocated to the people according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism

society a community of people living in a particular area who have shared culture, customs and laws

source any item (e.g. artefact, building, document) that has been left behind from the past; historical sources can be divided into two categories depending on when they were created (see primary source and secondary source)

sovereignty the independent authority and right for a nation or region to govern itself without interference from external powers

suffragette a woman seeking the right to vote through organised campaigns and protests

supply and demand a concept central to the theory of capitalism; supply refers to the amount of a good or service produced by a company that is available for sale; demand refers to the amount of that good or service that people are willing to buy at a specific price

T

tariff a tax (usually applied to goods being imported or exported)

terra nullius a Latin term meaning 'land belonging to no one' or 'empty land'; a concept used by the British to justify the settlement of Australia based on the idea that Indigenous Australians did not own the land or possess any claim to it

timeline a visual representation of time showing a sequence of related historical events in chronological order

trade unions an organised group of workers formed by the workers to protect their rights and ensure that their interests are taken into account by company owners and governments

Treaty of Versailles, the the treaty (binding agreement) that ended World War I and forced Germany to accept responsibility for starting the war and to pay reparations

trench the extensive system of ditches used in World War I to move troops and shelter them from enemy gunfire, as well as a place from which to fire on the enemy

Triple Alliance the alliance formed between Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy from 1882 to 1915

Triple Entente the alliance formed between Great Britain, France and Russia that formed the basis of the Allied Powers during World War I

U

urban planning carefully planned development of cities, in comparison to unregulated and haphazard expansion

urbanisation a term used to describe the increase in the numbers of people living in urban areas (i.e. cities) versus rural areas (i.e. farms)

W

welfare state a system whereby a nation attempts to ensure that all citizens, including the poorest, have their basic needs met through health care, education, housing and pensions

White Australia Policy, the a term used to describe a series of government policies introduced after Federation in 1901 that prevented 'non-white' immigrants from settling in Australia, favouring instead those from certain European nations (especially Britain); these policies were progressively overturned between 1949 and 1973

workhouses public institutions for the very poor, where they could receive food and lodging in return for work

Z

zeppelin a large airship with a rigid frame filled with gas; commonly used across Germany to transport goods and people in the early 20th century

Index

A

Aborigines' Protection Society 112
Adelaide
—city planning 105
AE2 (Australian Submarine) 285
Afghans in Australia 120, *120*
Agricultural Revolution 34–5, 46–7
Ah Mouy, Louis 132
Ainu people 190
aircraft in World War I *274,* 275, *275*
Akbar (Mughal Emperor) 220, *221,* 222
alliance system in World War I 262, *262*
alluvial gold *117*
Amalgamated Miners Association 138
American War of Independence 44, 97
Amiens 280
Amiens, Battle of 288
anti-German sentiment *298,* 298–9, *299*
Anzac Cove *250, 284,* 284–5, *285*
1915 *5, 20*
Anzac Day *304,* 304–5, *305*
Anzac legend *306,* 306–7, *307,* 310
Kemal Ataturk 306
Arab Revolt 278
Arabanoo 109
archaeology 4
Archibald, John Feltham 139, *139*
aristocracy 11, 68, *68*
Arkwright, Richard 58
Arkwright's water frame 48, *48*
Army of Redressers 74
artefacts (Aboriginal) 112
artefacts (in historical inquiry) 4
artillery 275
Ashley, Lord 76
Aspro 293, *293*
Asquith, Herbert (Prime Minister) 268
assassinations 182
assembly-lines 53, 59
assimilation 18
assisted migrants 101
audiovisual presentations 26–7
Aurangzeb (Mughal Emperor) 221
Australasian Federation Conference (1890) 135
Australia
—anti-German sentiment *298,* 298–9, *299*
—art and literature 128–9
—conscription debate 296–7, *297*
—depression 1890s 137
—developing identity 124–5
—early economy 136–7
—Federation 134–7
—ideas of unity 130–1
—immigration policies 130–3
—industrialisation 60
—international relations 300–1
—internment 292
—life in 1900 *143,* 143–4, *144, 145*
—national unity 127
—nationalism 137
—nurses at World War I 281, *281*
—relationship with Asia 301
—relationship with Britain 300–1
—and the USA 301
—women in workforce 294, *294*
—working conditions c1900 145
—World War I battlefields 280–1
—World War I entry 269–71
—World War I impact 292–301
—World War I recruitment *269,* 269–70, *270*
—(*see also* Indigenous Australians)
Australian, The 130, *130*
Australian colonies 92, *100,* 100–4
—communications 107, *107*
—'explorers' 106, 107
—gender balance 99
—grazing 107
—Indigenous trading trails 107
—the interior 106
—migration 106
—transport 107, *107*
Australian Colonies Government Act (1850) 135
Australian Comforts Fund 295
Australian Constitution 141–2
Australian Imperial Forces (AIF) 269
1915 *15*
Australian Impressionists 128
Australian Light Horse 277
—Battle of Beersheba 287, *287*
Australian National Shipping Line 293
Australian Natives Association (ANA) 130
Australian Red Cross 295, *295*
Australian Submarine *AE2* 285
Australian War Memorial 308–9, *309*
Australian Women's Service Corps 294
Australian Workers union 138
Austria-Hungary 263, 266, *266*
automobiles 41

B

Babur (Mughal Emperor) 220
Bahadur Shah II (Mughal Emperor) 221, 232–3
Bakewell, Robert 47
Balkan states *266,* 266–7
Barossa Valley 105
Bass Strait 104
Batavia 90
Batman, John 104
Baynton, Barbara 129
Bean, Charles 309
Beersheba, Battle of 287, *287*
Beijing Opera 160
Beijing siege 174
Belgium
—industrialisation 60
—iron exports 60
Bell, Alexander Graham 12, *12,* 41
Bengal 216
—British East India Company 218, 229–30
—famine 230
—partition 219, 244–5
Bennelong 109, *109,* 111
Bentley, Elizabeth 70
Benz, Karl 41, 53
Benz Patent-Motorwagen 53, *53*
Berry's Creek School *95*
bibliographies 17
Billibellary 111
Black War (Tas) 102
Blake, William 66
Blaxland, Gregory 94, *94,* 101
Blue Mountains 94, *94,* 101
Bosnia 266, *266*
Botany Bay 96
Boulton, Matthew 51, 54
Bowen, Lieutenant John 101
Boxer Rebellion 153, 173–5, *174, 175*
brahmin 226
Brest-Litovsk Treaty 288
Brisbane settlement 103
Britain
—before 1750 42, *42*
—agriculture 46–7
—banking system 45
—capitalist spirit 45
—coal supplies 45
—colonies in Australia 92
—cotton production 49
—growth of cities 42–3

—life expectancy 68
—living conditions 35, 68–9
—naval power 45, *45*
—population growth 42–3, *43*
—stable government 45
British East India Company 90, 216, 221
—arrival in India 228–9
—in Bengal 218, 229–30
—closes 219
—established across India 218
—introduces private property 238
—monopoly ends 230–1
—rules India 229–31, *231*
British Empire *6,* 32, 44, *44,* 86–7
British Raj 234–5
—private property 238
Brookes (slave ship) *10*
Brooklyn Bridge 41, *41*
Brunel, Isambard Kingdom 41, 53, *56,* 56–7
Buddhism 196
Bullecourt 280
Bulletin, The 125, 129
Bund (Shanghai) *177*
Bungaree 111
bunraku theatre 197

C

Cadigal people 109, 110
Cameron, Norman 146
Campbell, Alexander William (Alec) 307
canals 55, *55*
Capital: A Critique of Political Economy (1867) by Karl Marx 75
capitalism 18, 74, 297
careers in history 28–9, *29*
cartoons *22,* 22–3, *23*
cause and effect 8
census 18
census (Australia) 113
Chandler, John 115
change within tradition (historical concept) 91
charcoal 50
Charles II (King) 229
Chartism 75, *75*
chemistry
developments 62
Chennai 228
child labour 35, *36,* 66–7, *67,* 70, *70,* 76, *77*
China
—air pollution *79*
—assassinations 182
—bans opium trade 152, *152*
—becomes a republic 153
—borders *154*
—Christian missionaries 164
—early republic 182
—education 159
—extraterritoriality 166–7
—foreign influence 89
—foreign power territories 166–9, *169*
—hierarchy in society 154
—impact of colonial powers 89
—impact of Europeans 168–9
—internal problems 170–1
—Japan invades 182, 189
—lives of women 158, *159*
—monarchy 182
— 1911 Revolution 180–1
—opium trade 89
—Opium Wars 166–7
—Qing Dynasty ends 89
—responses to the West 176–7
—revolutionary movements 178–81
—rise of nationalism 177
—rural life 158, *158*
—social structure 154–5, *155*
—trade 89, 164–5
—war reparations 89
—Western education 176–7
—World War I 182
Chinese
—culture 160–1
Chinese Bridge (Painshill, England) *165*
Chinese in Australia *118,* 118–19, *119*
chlorine gas 275
Christianity
—in China 177
—in Japan 206
chronologies 18–19
Churchill, Winston 284
Cillingwood Railway 64
Cixi (*see* Empress Dowager Cixi)
Clare Valley 105
class system in Britain 68
Clifton Suspension Bridge 56, *57*
Clive, Robert 218, *218*
—governor of Bengal 229, *229*
coal gas for lighting 40
Coal River settlement 99
Coalbrookdale 50, *50*
coalfields *49*
Cobb & Co 127
Coca-Cola *7*
coke 50
Colbee 109
Cole, EW 146
Collins, Lieutenant David 102
Collins Street, Melbourne town, 1839 by William Knight *110*
colonial empires 32–3, *33,* 263–4
colonies 6, 32–3, *33,* 44, 264
colonisation 84
Combination Acts, The (1799 & 1800) 76
Commonwealth Bank 293
Commonwealth Franchise Act (1902) 95, 146, 147
Commonwealth of Australia 87
—beginnings 135
—constitution 87, 140
—establishment 140–2
—federalism 141–2
—opening 140, *140*
—structure 140–2
Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900 135
communicating findings 26–7
communications in war 276
communism 74
Complete Book of the Four Treasuries, The 160
Compton's mule 48–9, *49*
Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844, The by Friedrich Engels 66, 68
Confucianism 154, 156
—in Japan 196
Confucius 157, *157*
Congo 6
conscientious objectors 271
conscription 250, 256, 302
contestability 12
continuity and change 7
convicts 86, 92
—legacy 99
—life in Australia 98–9
—punishment *102*
Cook, Captain James 96
—at Botany Bay 1770 94
Cook, Joseph (Prime Minister) 272
copper foundries *66*
cotton exports 58
cotton gins 40
cotton mills *76*
cotton production 48–9
craftsmen (Japan) 194
crop rotation 46
Crystal Palace (London) 50
Curie, Marie 62, *62*

D

Daimler, Gottlieb 53
Daimler Reitwagen 53, *53*
daiymo 192–3
dalits 226, 246
Darby, Abraham 40, 50, 54
'dark satanic mills' 66
Dawn 129
Deakin, Alfred 130, *131*

decision-making chart 21, *21*
Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (1789) 11, *11*
deforestation 81, *81*
Dejima 200
Delhi, Siege of 233
Delhi Durbar (1911) 219, *219*
democracy
—spread 11
Derwent River 94, 101
descriptions 26, *26*
diggers 114, 287
dispossessed peoples 87
dispossession of Indigenous Australians 8, 112
—(*see also* Indigenous Australians)
diwan 222
dogfights 275
dominions 264
Dream of the Red Chamber by Cao Xueqin 160
Duan Jirui 182
durbars 224
—Imperial durbars 235
Dutch East India Company 90
Dutch East Indies
—foreign influence 90
—impact of colonial powers 90
—trade 90

E

East India House *228*
Eastern Front 277, *277*
Echuca 107
Edison, Thomas 12, *12,* 63
Edo 186, 198, *198*
education
—compulsory 77
education reforms in Australia (1856) 95
Edwards, Sir Bevan 136
egalitarianism in Australia 125
Eiffel, Gustav 50
Eiffel Tower 50, *50*
eight-hour working day 95
electric motors 41
electricity
—development *62,* 62–3
—discovery 60, *60*
—generation *62,* 62–3, *63*
Elizabeth I (Queen) 228
emigration 18
empathy 10
Emperor Bahadur Shah II *216–17*
Emperor Pu Yi 180, 184
empires 18, 32–3, *33,* 256
Empress Dowager Cixi 153, *172,* 172–3
—death 180
Enclosure Acts 46
enclosures 34–5, 46–7
Enfield rifle 232
Engels, Friedrich 66, 74, *74*
Englezos, Lambis 281
entrepreneurs 74
environmental damage 79
Eureka Rebellion 115
Europe
—industrialisation 60
European society 108
evaluating historical sources 22–3
evidence in historical inquiry 9
examination system in China 157
explanations in historical inquiry 26, *26*
extraterritoriality 166–7, 203

F

factories in Britain 42
—development 58–9
—system 48
—working conditions 35
Factory Acts 70, 76
Factory Inquiry Commission 67
facts and opinions 22
Faisal (Emir) 278
Faraday, Michael 41
Farewell My Concubine 160
Fauchery, Antoine 119
Fawkner, John Pasco 104
Federation of Australia 18, 61, 87, 92, 134–7
—reasons 136–7
—referendums 135
Ferdinand, Archduke Franz 266, *267*
Ferdinand, Sophie 266, *267*
fertilisers 47
First Fleet 97–8, 100, 109
—at Botany Bay *96*
Flinders, Matthew 111
flying shuttle 40, *40,* 48
Foch, Ferdinand (Marshall) 289
foot binding 159, *159*
Ford, Henry 41, 53, 59
Ford Model T 41, 53, 59
Forth Railway Bridge *55*
Fortune, Robert 239
The Foundation of Perth 1829 by George Pitt Morison *103*
France
—in China 167
—industrialisation 60
free settlers 86
—Port Phillip District 104
—Queensland 103
—South Australia 104
—Tasmania 102
free trade 136
French East India Company 221
—established across India 218
French Revolution 11
Friendly Societies 76
Fromelles 280, *280*
Fulton, Robert 52
fumi-e *200,* 201
Furphy, John 129

G

Gallipoli campaign *5, 9,* 24–5, *25,* 277
conditions 286, *286*
formation of the Anzac corps 284
landing 284, *284, 285*
Lone Pine 286
—the Nek 286
—Victoria Crosses 286
—withdrawal 287
Gallipoli (film 1981) *9, 20*
Gandhi, Mohandas 219, *219,* 245, 246, *246*
gas lighting *73*
gas warfare 275
Gates, Bill 29
Geneva Protocol 275
George III, King 164
German Empire 263
German Samoa 277
Gipps, Governor (NSW) 99
Gokhale, Gopal Krishna 243
gold rush (Australia) 8, 61, 95, *95,* 104, 114, *114, 115*
—impacts 126–7
goldfields (Australia) *116–17*
—disease 115
—food and diet 116
—living conditions 114, *127*
—mining methods 114–15
Goldstein, Vida 271, *271,* 295
Government of India Act (1833) 230, 234
Grand National Consolidated Trades Union 76
graphic organisers 21
graphs 82
Great Wave off Kanagawa, The by Katsushika Hokusai *186–7*
Great Western Railway 56–7
Greece 266, *266*
Grey, Earl 135
Grey, Sir Edward 268
Griffith, Sir Samuel 135, *135*
Guangxu Emperor 172–3
Guangzhou
—trade 176
Guomindang party 182

H

Hakodate 202
Hamilton, Sir Ian 285, 304
han 192
Hargreaves, Edward 8, 114
Hargreaves, James 40
harjan 246
Harris, Townsend 203
Harvester Judgement (1907) 95, 146
Hastings, Warren 218, 236
Hawkesbury (NSW)
—conflict with local peoples 111
Heidelberg School of Art 128
Henty Brothers 1104
heritage 28
Hermannsburg (NT) 112
Herzegovina 266, *266*
Higgins, Justice 147
Highland Clearances 47
Himeji Castle *191*
Hindus in India 242
historical concepts 6
historical findings 26–7
historical inquiries 14–27
historical inquiry 4
historical skills 14
historical sources
—evaluation of 22–3
—primary 20
—secondary 20
historical terms 18, *18*
HMS *Albion* 101
HMS *Dreadnought* *265*
HMS *Endeavour* 94, 96
Hobart *94,* 102
Hokkaido 190
Hong Kong 169
Honshu 190
House of Representatives 142
Hughes, William Morris (Billy) (Prime Minister) 296, *296,* 300–1, *301*
—on conscription 302
'Hundred Days' Reforms' 173
hydroelectricity 63

I

ICT tools *16,* 16–17
immigration 8, 18
Immigration Restriction Act (1901) 131, 146
Imperial Japanese Army 210
imperialism 6, 18, 32, 86–7, 263–4, *264*
—British 235
—Japan 210
India
—British Raj 234–9
—caste system 226–7
—civil service 236
—contact with the West 216
—contribution to World War I 245
—diversity 220
—English education 237
—English the official language 237
—export crops 238, *238*
—famine *244,* 244
—foreign influence 90
—governed by the British East India Company 229–30, *231*
—growing nationalism 242–3
—impact of colonial powers 90
—Indian Home-Rule League 245
—industrialisation 240–1
—national identity 242–3
—plague 244
—private property 238
—rule of law 236
—trade 90
Indian civil service 236
Indian Home-Rule League 245
Indian National Congress 90, 219, 243, *243*
Indian Rebellion 90, 218, *218,* 232–3
—atrocities 233
Indigenous Ainu 190
Indigenous Australians
—collaboration with settlers 111
—conflict and resistance 111
—conflict with the first settlers 109
—disease 111
—dispossession 112
—Flora and Fauna Act 113
—in Goondiwindi (Qld) 1890 *108*
—impact of colonisation 86–7, 108–13, *122,* 122–3
—impact of Federation 147
—missions 112
—population crash 110–11
—protection policies 112–13
—relationship to 'country' 108
—right to vote 147
—*terra nullius* 108, 109
—welcome the first settlers 109
Indigenous populations 6, 110–11
Indigenous rock paintings
—Nanguluwur (Kakadu, NT) *93*
Indigenous trading trails 107
Indonesia 88, 90
Industrial Revolution 7, 12, 30, 32–7, 38
—and Australian settlement 86–7, 96
—begins in Britain 42–5
—child labour 66–7, *67*
—impacts in Britain 35–7
—inventions 64–5
—living conditions 68–9, 72–3
—long term impacts 78–81
—population growth 36, 72
—'second' revolution 60
—short term impacts 72–3
—urbanisation 68–9
—working conditions 66–7
—world-wide 60–1
industrial world 32
industrialisation 18, 42
industrialists 52
inequality 78
inflation 293
influenza epidemic 245
internal combustion engine 53
internment 292, *298,* 299
Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act (1908) 147
inventions 64–5
iron foundries 50, *50*
Ironbridge *54*
Iwakura Mission 189
Iwakura Tomomi 205, *206*

J

Jafar, Mir 218, *229*
Jagera people 102
Jahangir (Mughal Emperor) 228
Japan
—'21 Demands' of China 189
—arts 196–7, *197*
—bans foreign trade 188
—'British of Asia' 213
—Charter Oath 205
—Christianity 200, *200*
—contact with the west 200–3
—contribution to World War I 189
—early western trade 200
—emperor 192
—foreign influence 89
—geography 190, *190*
—impact of colonial powers 89
—imperialism 210
—industrialisation 61
—invades Shandong 182
—isolation 190–1
—Iwakura Mission 205, *206*
—legal system 206
—life for women 195, *195*
—navy 206
—new army 207
—new constitution 205
—new parliament 205, *205*
—outcasts 195

—reformed education 206
—religion 196, *196*
—revision of treaties 210–11
—rise of nationalism 210
—Shimabara Rebellion 200
—social structure *192,* 192–5
—trade 89
—Treaty of Kanagawa 1854 202
—Treaty of Shimado 203
—at Versailles 301
—as a world power 210–15
—World War I 214, 277
Japanese in Australia 120
Jehovah's Witnesses 271
Jinbudang party 182
joss houses *117*

K

kabuki theatre 197, *197*
Kaibara Ekken 195
Kameygal people 110
Kanagawa, Treaty of 1854 202
Kanakas 120
Kang Youwei 178, *179*
Kanpur uprising 232, *233*
Kaurna people (SA) 105
Kay, John 40
King, Governor (NSW) 98, 111
King George Sound
—settlement (1826) 103
Komei, Emperor of Japan 204
kowtow 155
kshatriya 226
Kulin nation 104
Kyushu 190

L

Labor Party
—and conscription 296
Lake, Marilyn 121
Lambing Flats riots 119
Lancey, John 104
land clearances 81, *81*
Langhorne, George 112
Lansell, George 115
Last Emperor, The 184
Launceston 102
Lavoisier, Antoine 62
Lawrence, TE (Lawrence of Arabia) 278, *278*
Lawson, Henry 129
Lawson, William 94, *94,* 101
Le Hamel, Battle of 288
lead mining *78*
League of Nations 301
Lee, William 40
leisure time 77
Lenoir, Etienne 53
Liang Qichao 179
Liberal Party
—and conscription 296
Light, Colonel William *95,* 105, *105*
Lin Zexu 166
locomotives 52, 53
London Sewer *72*
Lucknow uprising 232, *233*
Ludd, General Ned 74
Luddites 41, 74
Lusitania 278

M

Macartney, Earl 164, *164*
Macassans 108
machine guns 275
Maconochie, Captain Alexander 99
Macquarie Harbour (Tas) 99
Mahatma Gandhi (*see* Gandhi, Mohandas)
Manchester 82–3, *83*
Manchu Dynasty 154
Mandarins 157, *157*
Manly Cove 100
Mannix, Daniel (Archbishop)
—on conscription 302
Manzetti, Innocenzo 12
Marathas 221, *221*
'Marvellous Melbourne' 126, *126*
Marx, Karl 74, *74*
mass entertainment 77
Maternity Allowances Act (1912) 147
Maybach, Wilhelm 53
McCormick, Cyrus 47, *47*
McCubbin, Frederick 128
Meiji Restoration 61, 186, 188, 204–7
—Charter Oath 205
—Iwakura Mission 205, *206*
—(*see also* Japan)
Melbourne *8*
—1880 *106*
—1839 *110*
—foundation 104, *104*
Melbourne Cup (1887) *124*
Melbourne Mission 112
merchants (Japan) 194, *194*
merino sheep 106
Meucci, Antonio 12
Middle Kingdom 164
militarism *264,* 264–5
Miller, Lieutenant Henry 102
mills
—steam-powered 40
Mines Act (1842) 76
mines (naval) 276
missions
—for Indigenous Australians 87, 108, 112–13
modern world 32
monarchy 182
Monash, Sir John 280, 288, 298
Moreton Bay settlement 94, 102–3
Morrison, George 174
morse code 63
'most-favoured nation' status 203
Mottram, RH 290
Mughal Empire 88, 216
—architecture 224–5, *225*
—arts 224–5, *225*
—culture 224–5
—government 222, *222*
—history *220,* 220–1
—life of women 223, *223*
—role of emperor 222, *223*
—social structure 222–3
Mumbai 228
Murdoch, William 40
Murray River 110
Muslims in India 242
mustard gas 275
Mutsuhito, Emperor of Japan 188, *204,* 204–7
Myall Creek Massacre (NSW) 95

N

Nagasaki Harbour 200
Nagasaki Harbour by Kawahara Keiga *200*
Nanking, Treaty of 1842 166–7, 176
Naoroji, Dadabhai 219, *219,* 243
Narayanan, K. R. 227
nation
—definition 92
National Association for the Protection of Labour 76
National Australian Convention 138
nationalism in Europe 263
Nationalist Party
—and conscription 296
naval build up in Europe 265
nawabs 221, 222
Near Heidelberg by Arthur Streeton 128, *128*
Netherlands
—colonies 90
New Guinea 277, 300
New Holland 96
New Norcia mission 112, *113*
New South Wales
—colonial settlement 100–1
New World 32

Newcastle 99
Newcomen, Thomas 40, 51
Nicholas, George 293
1911 Revolution in China *180,* 180–1
noh theatre 196, *196*
Norfolk Island 97, 99
nurses in World War I 281, *281*

O

O'Dowd, Bernard 146
—open-hearth process 41
opinions and facts 22
opium trade 152, *152,* 166–7
—Indian exports 238–9
Opium Wars 152–3, 166–7
Ottoman Empire 266, *266,* 278
overseers 70
Owen, Robert 49, 76, 77

P

Pacific Islander Labourers Act 121
pacifism 271, 295
Palawa people (Tas) 102
Paris Peace Conference 189, 214
Parkes, Sir Henry 101, 134–6, *135,* 136, 138, *138*
Parlevar people (Tas) 102
Passchendale 280
pastoralists in Australia 125
Paterson, Banjo 129
peasants
—Japan 194, *194*
—Mughal India 222–3, *223*
Peel, Robert 76
Pemulwuy 111, *111*
penal colonies 86–7, 96
People's Charter 75
Perry, Commodore Matthew 89, 188, *188,* 202, *202*
perspectives 6
Phillip, Captain Arthur 97–8, *98,* 100
—kidnaps local Aborigines 109
Philosophy of Manufactures, The (1835) by Dr Andrew Ure 70
pig iron 50
Pinjarra Massacre 103
Plassey, Battle of 216, 218, *229*
plebiscites 296
The Plough Gang painting of convicts *102*
political cartoons *22,* 22–3, *23*
pollution
—air 79, *79*
—water 80, *80*
Poor Law Amendment Act (1834) 75
Poor Laws 75, 76
population growth 78, 82–3
—and the Industrial Revolution 36
porcelain (Chinese) 161, *161*
Port Arthur *101*
Port Arthur (China) 212
Port of Cherinhee (1798) *228*
Port Phillip District 104
—colonial settlement 104
—decline of Indigenous people 110
—gold rush 104
—impact on Indigenous people 104
—Kulin nation 104
—separated from NSW 104
—Wurundjeri people 104, *104*
Portland settlement 104
Portsmouth, Treaty of 213
presentations 26–7
primary sources 9, 71
Princip, Gavrilo 266, *267*
prison hulks 97, *97*
Progress of Steam, A View in Regent Park 1831, The (1831) *43*
propaganda 18
protection policies 112–13
protectorates for Indigenous people 108, 112–13
puddling 115, *116*
Puhle, Jotirao 226

Q

Qing Dynasty 88, 154, 158, 159, 160, 172–3
—end 180–1
—style and fashion *162,* 162–3, *163*
Queensland 94
—colonial settlement 102–3
Queensland Worker, The 129
questions and research 14, 15–17

R

racism and Chinese in Australia 118–19, *119*
radioactivity
—discovery 62
railways
—development 54–5
—Melbourne (1854) 107
rangaku 200
Raws, John Alexander 290
Red Fort of Agra 224–5, *225*
Redressers, Army of 74
referendums 296
Regulating Act 1857 218
Reiby, Mary 99
Remembrance Day 308
reparations 18, 183, 300
—World War I 254
Repatriation General Hospital 308
representative government 11
research and questions 14, 15–17
reserves for Indigenous people 87, 108
Richmond 102
Risdon Cove settlement 94, 101, 102
'Rising Sun' flag *210*
Risley, Herbert 227
RMS *Titanic* 38, *39,* 41
roads
—development 54–5
Roberts, Tom 128
Robinson, George 102
Roll Call by Ellis Silas (1920) *25*
Romania 266, *266*
Rose Hill (NSW) 1791 *101*
'Rosella' 129, *129*
Royal Commission on Children's Employment (1840) 76
Royal Exhibition Building 126
rural life
—Britain 42, *42*
Russia
—in China 167
Russian Empire 266, *266*
Russo-Japanese War 186, 189, *189,* 213, *213*

S

Saigo Takamori 208
Salt, Titus 77
samurai 193, *193*
sankin kotai 193
sati 236, *237*
Satsuma Rebellion *208,* 208–9, *209*
satyagraha 246
Savery, Thomas 51
Schlieffen Plan 267, 268
Second Fleet 98
secondary sources 9
Self-Strengthening Movement 153, 170–1
semi-nomadic existence 110
Senate (Commonwealth of Australia) 137
Senior, Nassau 70
separation of powers 11, 141
sepoys 90, 232, *232*
Serbia 266, *266*
shaft mines *116*
Shandong 182, 189
Shanghai Harbour 1875 151
Shearing the rams by Tom Roberts 128, *128*
Shikoku 190
Shimabara Rebellion 200
Shimada, Treaty of 203

Shimoda 202
Shimonoseki, Treaty 212
Shimonoseki, Treaty of 212
Shinto 196
shogun 88, 192
shudra 226
Siemens-Martin 41
significance 11
Silas, Ellis 24, *24*
Sino-Japanese War 186, 189, *189,* 212, *212*
Siraj-ud-Daula 218, *229*
skyscrapers 41
Slave Trade Regulation Act (1788) 10
slavery 10
sluice box *116*
slums *37,* 68–9, *69*
'Smellbourne' 80
Smith, Henry 293
social Darwinism 10
socialism 18
—emergence 74
Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists (The Boxers) 174–5
Somme 280, *280*
Sorrento settlement (Victoria) 102, 104
sources 4, 17
South Australia
—colonial settlement 95, 104–5
—German immigrants 105
—Irish settlers 105
—Kaurna people 105
—rejects *terra nullius* 105
South Sea Islanders in Australia 120, *121*
—Pacific Islander Labourers Act 121
—slavery 120
Spence, Catherine Helen 139, *139*
Spence, William Guthrie 138, *138*
spinning jenny *34,* 40, *40,* 48
Squires, William 119
SS *Archimedes* 41
SS *Great Britain* *52,* 53, 57
SS *Great Eastern* *41,* 57, *57*
SS Great Western 57
State Library of Victoria 126
steam engines *31, 64*
—created 40
—development 51, *51*
—invention 35, *35*
steam hammer *34*
steam locomotives 52, 53
steam power
—development 42–3
steamships 52, *52*
steel development 41
Stephenson, George 52
—Blucher, The 64
Stephenson's Rocket 52, *52*
Stevenson, Michelle 28, *29*
Stirling, Captain James 103
stocking frame 40, *40*
Streeton, Arthur 128
submarines 276, 288
suffragettes 69, 271, *271*
Sullivan's Bay Colony (Victoria) 102
Sun Yat-sen 153, *153,* 176, 178, *178,* 180
Sunshine Harvester Company 146
Swan, Joseph 63
Swan River Colony 94
—1834 *97*
—Battle of Pinjarra 103
—establishment 103, *103*
—opens to convicts 103
Sydney *61,* 94
—1794 *86*
—1870 *87*
—1847 *124*

T

tailings *116*
Taiping Rebellion 152, 170, *170*
Taj Mahal 224–5, *225*
tanks 275
tariffs 61, 136, 203
—in Australia 293
Tasman, Abel 101
Tasmania 94
—Black War 102
—colonial settlement 101–2
—impact on Aborigines 102
tea
—Indian export 238, *239*
tea ceremonies 196
tear gas 275
telegraph
—invention 63
telephone *35*
'Tenterfield Address' by Sir Henry Parkes 134, 135, 136
terra nullius 87, 105
textile mills 42, 49, *49, 58*
Thames tunnel 41, *41*
Thames Tunnel 56
Tianjin, Treaty of 1858 167
Tilak, Bal Gangadhar 243, *243*
timelines 18–19, *19*
Times of India 242
Titanic 38, *39,* 41
Togo Heihachiro, Admiral 213
Tokugawa Ieyasu 188, *190,* 200
Tokugawa period 186
Japanese society 192–5
Tokugawa shogunate 88, 188, 190–1, 200
—abdication 204
Tokyo 186
Tongzhi Emperor 172
Torrens River 104
'total war' 294
Townshend, Charles 46
trade unions 294
—emergence 74–6
—origins 36
Trans-Siberian Railway 212
transatlantic cables 41, 63
transformation (historical concept) 91
transport
—development 52–5
—improvements 43
treaty ports 203
trench warfare *256–7, 282–3,* 290, *290*
Trevithick, Richard 52
Triple Alliance 262–3
Triple Entente 262–3
Triple Intervention 212
Tsing, E 132
Tsingtao, Siege of 214, *214*
Turkey
—enters World War I 268
Turrbal people 102
Tyburn Turnpike *54*

U

ukiyo districts 197
'unequal treaties' 203
—revision 210–11
United Sates of America
—in China 167
—industrialisation 61
—in Japan 202–3
University of Melbourne 126
urban planning 29, 72
urbanisation 18, 68–9
Ure, Dr Andrew 70

V

vaishya 226
Van Diemen's Land 94
—colonial settlement 101–2
—(*see also* Tasmania)
Versailles, Treaty of 1919 254, 289, 300–1
Victoria
—colonial settlement 104
—foundation of Melbourne 95
—Port Phillip settlement 95
—(*see also* Port Phillip District)
Victoria Crosses 280
Victoria (Queen) 166, 218, 219, *219,* 234
Volta, Alessandro 62

W

Wakefield, Edward Gibbon 104
war photography 9
War Precautions Act 1914 292
War Service Homes 308
Washington, George (President of USA) 10
Watt, James 40, 51
—steam engine *64*
weavers
—redundant 49, *49*
Wedgwood, Josiah 54
welfare state 74
Wentworth, William 94, *94,* 101, 130
Western Australia 94
—colonial settlement 103
—(*see also* Swan River Colony)
Western Front 277, *277, 279,* 279–83
—no man's Land 279
—stalemate 279
—trenches 279, *279, 282–3*
White Australia Policy 121, 130–3, *131, 132,* 136, 146
—'White Australia' song *131*
Whitney, Eli 40
Wilkinson, John 54
Wilson, Woodrow (President) 288, *288,* 301
Wiradjuri people 112–13
women in workforce 294, *294*
Women's Peace Army 271, 295
Women's Suffrage League 139
Wong, General 132
woodblock printing in Japan 197, *197, 198*
wool production 48–9
workhouses 75
working conditions 35, 66–7
World War I 32, 78, 95
—Amiens 288
—anti-German sentiment *298,* 298–9, *299*
—Armistice 289, *289*
—Australia enters 269–71
—Australia's contribution 269–73, 284–7, 304–7, 310
—battlefields 280–1
—causes 262–5
—China's contribution 182–3, *183*
—communications 276
—escalation 267–8
—impact on Australia 292–301
—India's contribution 219, 245
—neutral nations 276
—outbreak 266–8
—recruitment *269,* 269–70, *270*
—Russia withdraws 2888
—significance *245,* 254, *255*
—theatres of war *277,* 277–81
—trenches 274, *282–3,* 290, *290*
—USA enters the war 278, 288
—weaponry 251, 274–6
—women in workforce 294, *294*
—women volunteers 295, *295*
worldmap 1851 *85*
Wright brothers 41
Wurundjeri people 104, *104,* 111

X

Xianfeng Emperor 172
Xin Jin Shan ('New Mountain of Gold') 118

Y

Yagan (Indigenous elder at Swan River) 103
Yarra River 104
Yongzheng Emperor 155
Ypres 280
Yuan Shikai 181, 182, *182*

Z

zamindars 222, 238
Zealous Diggers at Bendigo (1854) by ST Gill *95*
Zen Buddhism 196
zeppelins 275

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Chapter 3: Alamy/Lordprice Collection, 3.6: 2/The Print Collector, 3.14: 4;

The Bridgeman Art Library, 3.12: 1; **Corbis**, 3.2: 3, 3.4: 1, 3.5: 2, 3.6: 1, 3.6: 3/Bettman, 3.14: 1, 3.14: 5, 3.9: 1, 3.9: 3, 3.10: 3/Olivier Coret, 3.15: 6/Robert Cousins, 3.7: 3/Heritage Images, 3.1:1 (Spinning Jenny), 3.5: 7, 3.6: 7/Hannes Grobe, 3.10: 2/Ocean, 3.15: 3/Patrick Ward, 3.6: 9; **Getty Images**/Dean Allison Photography, 3.15: 1/George Bernard, 3.2: 1/British Library, 3.11: 2 Getty/DEA, 3.3: 2, 3.11: 1/Francis Frith, 3C: 3/Dave King, 3A: 1/Lambert, 3.8: 3/Print Collector, 3.4: 2/Rischgitz, 3.14: 2/Science & Society Picture Library, 3.5: 1/Paul Serusier, 3.5: 4/SSPL, 3.1: 1(stocking frame), 3.5: 5, 3.5: 8/Ullstein Bild, chapter opener; **iStockPhoto**, 3.15: 4; **Library of Congress**, 3.1:1 (Thames tunnel); **National Maritime Museum**, Greenwich, 3.1:1 (Atlantic cable); **Shutterstoc**k, 3A: 3, 3.1: 1 (glider plane), 3.6: 4, 3.6: 5, 3.8: 1, 3.9: 2, 3.15: 2; **State Library of Victoria**, 3.15: 5;

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Chapter 6: Alamy/The Art Archive, 6.2: 4/EPA, 6.11: 3/Granger, 6.8: 1/Pictorial Press, 6.9: 2/Paul Postle, 6.5: 4/Universal Art Archive, 6.13: 1/World History Archive, 6C: 4; **The Bridgeman Art Library**, 6A: 1, 6.1: 1 (horse), 6.1: 1 (rebellion), 6A: 5, 6.2: 3, 6.3: 1, 6.4: 3, 6.5: 3, 6.7: 2, 6.11: 2/Peabody Essex Museum, Salem, Massachusetts, USA 6.1: 1 (factories); **Corbis**, 6.4: 1; **Getty Images**/Bettman, 6.1: 1 (Sun Yasen), 6.11: 1/Stanley Bielecki, 6C: 1/Kacherhoffer Clement, 6.1: 1 (den), 6.6: 1 /Galerie Bilderwelt, 6.13: 2/Hulton Archive, 6.12: 1/Photo, chapter opener/George Rinhart, 6.10: 2/Science & Society Picture Library, 6.11: 4/Universal Images Group, 6B: 3, 6.2: 6; **Harvard Art Museum**, 6B: 2; **Library of Congress**, 6.3: 2; **Mary Evans Picture Library**, 6.12: 2; **Shutterstock**, 6.1: 1 (poppies), 6.4: 2;

Chapter 7: Alamy/Artoloro Quint Lox Limited, 7.5: 1/EDU Vision, 7.7: 5 /Granger Historical, 7.8: 2/Junichi Kusaka, 7.7: 6; **The Bridgeman Art Library**, 7C: 1, 7.2: 2, 7.5: 3, 7.9: 1/Archives Charmet, 7.7: 1/Arthur M. Sackler Gallery, Smithsonian Institution, USA, 7.4: 3; **Corbis**, 12B: 1, 7.1: 1 (armour), 7.1: 1 (flag), 7.1: 1 (Perry), 7.1: 1 (ship), 7.1: 1 (war), 7.3: 2, 7.3: 3, 7.3: 5, 7.3: 6, 7.4: 1, 7.4: 2; **Getty Images**/Bettman, 7.6: 1/Print Collector, 7.5: 2; **The Kobal Collection**, 7B: 2; **Library of Congress**, chapter opener; **Mary Evans Picture Library**, 7.7: 2, 7.9: 3; **Shutterstock**, 7.1: 1 (Mutsuhito), 7.2: 3, 7.3: 4, 7.8: 1; Courtesy of the University of Texas Libraries, **The University of Texas** at Austin, 7A: 1;

Chapter 8: Alamy/Chronicle, 8C: 2/Ian Dagnall, 8.5: 4/Dinodia Photos, 8.8: 3/Hemis, 8.4: 1/Lanmas, 8.8: 2/Pictorial Press, 13C: 1, 8.6: 1; **The Bridgeman Art Library**, chapter opener, 8.1: 1 (battle), 8.2: 2, 8.2: 4, 8.3: 2, 8.3: 3, 8.4: 4, 8.5: 1, 8.6: 2, 8.7: 1, 8.8: 5, 8.9: 3, 8.10: 2; **Corbis**, 8.2: 3, 8.7: 2; **Getty Images**/Jagdish Agawal, 8.9: 2/Phlip and Elizabeth De Bay, 8A: 1/Hulton Archive, 8.1: 1 (Dadabhai), 8.8: 1, 8.8: 6/Soni Rakesh, 8B: 1/Ullstein Bild, 8.1: 1 (Gandhi) /University History Archive, 8.8: 4; **Granger**/National Geographic Stock, 8.10: 1; **Mary Evans Picture Library**, 8.5: 2; **Shutterstock**, 8.4: 2, 8.4: 3;

Chapter 9: AAP Image, 9.2: 2; **Corbis**, 9.1: 3, 9.1: 4, 9.2: 1/Hulton-Deutsch Collection, 9.1: 2; **National Library of Australia**, chapter opener; **Shutterstock**, 9.1: 1;

Chapter 10: Australian War Memorial, 10D: 3, 10.5: 1, 10.5: 2, 10.10: 6, 10.10: 7, 10.11: 3, 10.13: 1, 10.14: 3, 10.15: 2, 10.16: 2, 10.17: 3, 10.17: 7, 10.17: 8, 10.17: 9, 10.18: 4, 10.18: 5; **Corbis**, chapter opener, 10B: 1, 10.6: 1, 10.6: 3, 10.6: 5 /Bettmann, 10.1: 1 (Franz Ferdinard), 10.1: 1 (soldiers), 10.2: 2/Stefano Bianchetti, 10.1: 1 (Armistice) /Heritage Images, 10.1: 1 (Revolution) /Hulton-Deutsch Collection, 10.6: 2, 10.8: 1/Mikael Libert, 10.8: 4/National Geographic Society/Herbert E. Gregory, 10.12: 4/National Geographic Society/Underwood & Amp Underwood, 10.6: 4/Leonard de Selva, 10.4: 3/Sygma, 10.7: 2; **FairfaxPhotos**/Mike Bowers, 10.17: 5; **Getty Images**/Popperfoto, 10.8: 3, 10.10: 1/ Roger Viollet, 10.8: 6; **Imperial War Museum**, London, 10.6: 6; **National Library of Australia**, 10.15: 1, 10.5: 3, 10.12: 1; **Newspix**/News Ltd, 10.14: 2, 10.17: 10; **Shutterstock**, 10.11: 1, 10.17: 1, 10.18: 1; **State Library of Victoria**, 10.15: 3;

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