ROBERT DARLINGTON | GRAEME SMITHIES | ASHLEY WOOD

JACARANDA

HISTORY ALIVE 9

AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM | SECOND EDITION

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Second edition published 2018 by
John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd
42 McDougall Street, Milton, Qld 4064

First edition published 2012

Typeset in 11/14 pt Times LT Std

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ISBN 978-0-7303-4662-3 (paperback)

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Front cover image: © Hulton Archive/Stringer/Getty Images

Cartography by MAPgraphics Pty Ltd, Brisbane and Spatial Vision

Illustrated by various artists, diacriTech and Wiley Composition Services

Typeset in India by diacriTech

Printed in Singapore by
C.O.S. Printers Pte Ltd

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This textbook contains images of Indigenous people who are, or may be, deceased. The publisher appreciates that this inclusion may distress some Indigenous communities. These images have been included so that the young multicultural audience for this book can better appreciate specific aspects of Indigenous history and experience.

It is recommended that teachers should first preview resources on Indigenous topics in relation to their suitability for the class level or situation. It is also suggested that Indigenous parents or community members be invited to help assess the resources to be shown to Indigenous children. At all times the guidelines laid down by the relevant education authorities should be followed.

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HOW TO USE
the *Jacaranda History Alive* resource suite

The *Jacaranda History Alive* series is now available on the learnON platform for an optimal learning experience. The features described here show how you can use *Jacaranda History Alive* most effectively.

Links with our times draw connections between today and the period under study.

An illustrated timeline shows the chronology and key events of the period under study.

An interactive version of the timeline is available on learnON.

How do we know about . . . ? spreads explore the evidence available for studying this period of history.

DEPTH STUDY 2: AUSTRALIA AND ASIA

TOPIC 7
Asia and the world: China (1750–1918)

7.1 Overview

Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

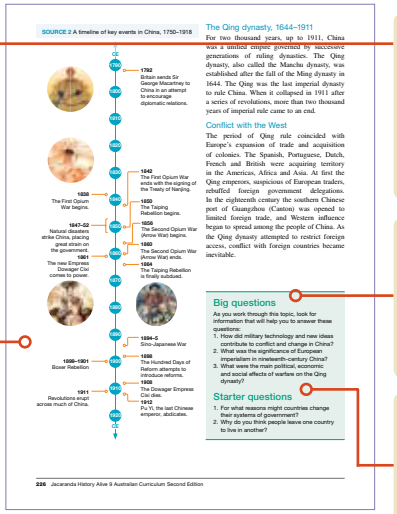
7.1.1 Links to our times

Today China has the world's second largest economy and is Australia's most important trading partner. Australia exports raw materials such as iron ore and wool to China, and imports clothing, computers, telecommunications equipment and many other goods. China's trade with foreign countries began to flourish in the nineteenth century, but it was not always as amicable and organised as it is today. Foreign ignorance of China's Confucian-based culture, and China's long isolation from the rest of the world, resulted in more than a century of strained international relations.

SOURCE 1 Australian Prime Minister Malcolm Turnbull, accompanied by Chinese Premier Li Keqiang, receiving a guard of honour during an official visit to China. China's relations with the West have not always been as amicable as they are today.

TOPIC 7 Asia and the world: China (1750–1918) 225

Each topic's opening spread orientates students to provide a clear starting point for the topic.


SOURCE 2 A timeline of key events in China, 1750–1918

1792 Britain sends Sir George Macartney to China in an attempt to encourage diplomatic relations.

1839 The First Opium War begins.

1842 The First Opium War ends with the signing of the Treaty of Nanjing.

1850 The Taiping Rebellion begins.

1856 The Second Opium War (Arrow War) begins.

1860 The Second Opium War (Arrow War) ends.

1864 The Taiping Rebellion is finally subdued.

1894–5 Sino-Japanese War

1898 The Hundred Days of Reform attempts to introduce reforms.

1900 The Dowager Empress Cixi dies.

1912 Pu Yi, the last Chinese emperor, abdicates.

1947–52 Natural disasters strike China, placing great strain on the government.

1991 The new Empress Dowager Cixi comes to power.

1899–1901 Boxer Rebellion

1911 Revolutions erupt across much of China.

The Qing dynasty, 1644–1911

For two thousand years, up to 1911, China was a unified empire governed by successive generations of ruling dynasties. The Qing dynasty, also called the Manchu dynasty, was established after the fall of the Ming dynasty in 1644. The Qing was the last imperial dynasty to rule China. When it collapsed in 1911 after a series of revolutions, more than two thousand years of imperial rule came to an end.

Conflict with the West

The period of Qing rule coincided with Europe's expansion of trade and acquisition of colonies. The Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, French and British were acquiring territory in the Americas, Africa and Asia. At first the Qing emperors, suspicious of European traders, rebuffed foreign government delegations. In the eighteenth century the southern Chinese port of Guangzhou (Canton) was opened to limited foreign trade, and Western influence began to spread among the people of China. As the Qing dynasty attempted to restrict foreign access, conflict with foreign countries became inevitable.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:
1. How did military technology and new ideas contribute to conflict and change in China?
2. What was the significance of European imperialism in nineteenth-century China?
3. What were the main political, economic and social effects of warfare on the Qing dynasty?

Starter questions

1. For what reasons might countries change their systems of government?
2. Why do you think people leave one country to live in another?

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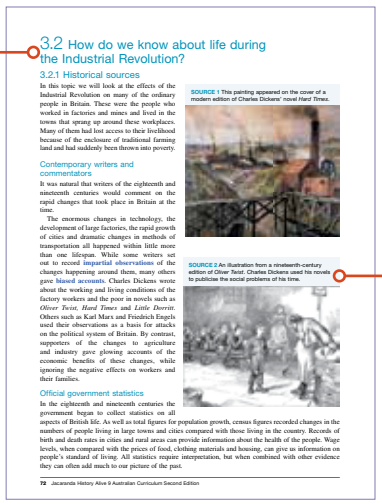
Big questions are based on the Australian Curriculum inquiry questions.

Starter questions prompt students to think about what they already know about the content of the topic.


3.2 How do we know about life during the Industrial Revolution?

3.2.1 Historical sources

In this topic we will look at the effects of the Industrial Revolution on many of the ordinary people in Britain. These were the people who worked in factories and mines and lived in the towns that sprang up around these workplaces. Many of them had lost access to their livelihood because of the enclosure of traditional farming land and had suddenly been thrown into poverty.

Contemporary writers and commentators

It was natural that writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries would comment on the rapid changes that took place in Britain at the time.

The enormous changes in technology, the development of large factories, the rapid growth of cities and dramatic changes in methods of transportation all happened within little more than one lifespan. While some writers set out to record **impartial observations** of the changes happening around them, many others gave **biased accounts**. Charles Dickens wrote about the working and living conditions of the factory workers and the poor in novels such as *Oliver Twist*, *Hard Times* and *Little Dorrit*. Others such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels used their observations as a basis for attacks on the political system of Britain. By contrast, supporters of the changes to agriculture and industry gave glowing accounts of the economic benefits of these changes, while ignoring the negative effects on workers and their families.

Official government statistics

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the government began to collect statistics on all aspects of British life. As well as total figures for population growth, census figures recorded changes in the numbers of people living in large towns and cities compared with those living in the country. Records of birth and death rates in cities and rural areas can provide information about the health of the people. Wage levels, when compared with the prices of food, clothing materials and housing, can give us information on people's standard of living. All statistics require interpretation, but when combined with other evidence they can often add much to our picture of the past.

SOURCE 1 This painting appeared on the cover of a modern edition of Charles Dickens' novel *Hard Times*.

SOURCE 2 An illustration from a nineteenth-century edition of Oliver Twist. Charles Dickens used his novels to publicise the social problems of his time.

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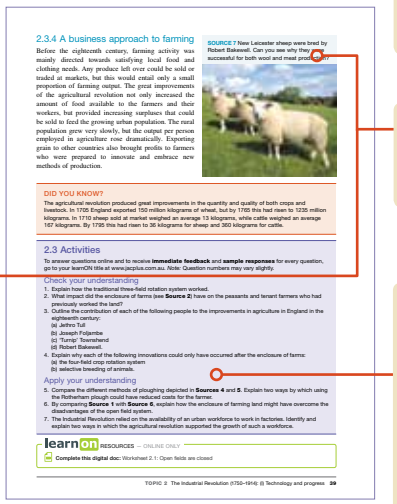
How do we know about . . . ? spreads explore the evidence available for studying this period of history.


2.3.4 A business approach to farming

Before the eighteenth century, farming activity was mainly directed towards satisfying local food and clothing needs. Any produce left over could be sold or traded at markets, but this would entail only a small proportion of farming output. The great improvements of the agricultural revolution not only increased the amount of food available to the farmers and their workers, but provided increasing surpluses that could be sold to feed the growing urban population. The rural population grew very slowly, but the output per person employed in agriculture rose dramatically. Exporting grain to other countries also brought profits to farmers who were prepared to innovate and embrace new methods of production.

SOURCE 7 New Leicester sheep were bred by Robert Bakewell. Can you see why they were successful for both wool and meat production?

DID YOU KNOW?

The agricultural revolution produced great improvements in the quantity and quality of both crops and livestock. In 1700 England exported 150 million kilograms of wheat, but by 1765 this had risen to 1235 million kilograms. In 1710 sheep sold at market weighed an average 13 kilograms, while cattle weighed an average 167 kilograms. By 1795 this had risen to 36 kilograms for sheep and 360 kilograms for cattle.

2.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain how the traditional three-field rotation system worked.
2. What impact did the enclosure of farms (see **Source 2**) have on the peasants and tenant farmers who had previously worked the land?
3. Outline the contribution of each of the following people to the improvements in agriculture in England in the eighteenth century:
   (a) Jethro Tull
   (b) Joseph Foljambe
   (c) 'Turnip' Townshend
   (d) Robert Bakewell.
4. Explain why each of the following innovations could only have occurred after the enclosure of farms:
   (a) the four-field crop rotation system
   (b) selective breeding of animals.

Apply your understanding

5. Compare the different methods of ploughing depicted in **Sources 4** and **5**. Explain two ways by which using the Rotherham plough could have reduced costs for the farmer.
6. By comparing **Source 1** with **Source 6**, explain how the enclosure of farming land might have overcome the disadvantages of the open field system.
7. The Industrial Revolution relied on the availability of an urban workforce to work in factories. Identify and explain two ways in which the agricultural revolution supported the growth of such a workforce.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY
Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.1: Open fields are closed

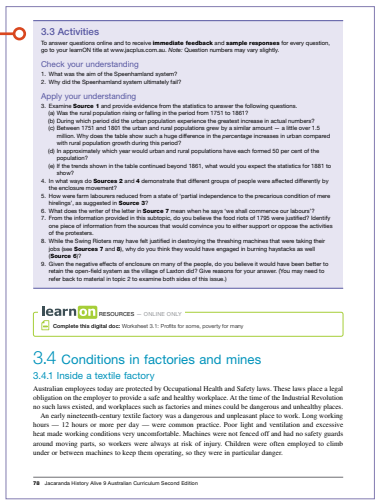
TOPIC 2 The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914): (i) Technology and progress 39

Sources are clearly identified in the activities.

Activity headings are based on the historical concepts and skills identified in the Australian Curriculum.

Check your understanding questions challenge the students' knowledge of the topic.

Apply your understanding questions asks students to closely examine the sources in line with the inquiry approach of the Australian Curriculum.


3.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What was the aim of the Speenhamland system?
2. Why did the Speenhamland system ultimately fail?

Apply your understanding

3. Examine **Source 1** and provide evidence from the statistics to answer the following questions.
   (a) Was the rural population rising or falling in the period from 1751 to 1861?
   (b) During which period did the urban population experience the greatest increase in actual numbers?
   (c) Between 1751 and 1801 the urban and rural populations grew by a similar amount — a little over 1.5 million. Why does the table show such a huge difference in the percentage increases in urban compared with rural population growth during this period?
   (d) In approximately which year would urban and rural populations have each formed 50 per cent of the population?
   (e) If the trends shown in the table continued beyond 1861, what would you expect the statistics for 1881 to show?
4. In what ways do **Sources 2** and **4** demonstrate that different groups of people were affected differently by the enclosure movement?
5. How were farm labourers reduced from a state of 'partial independence to the precarious condition of mere hirelings', as suggested in **Source 3**?
6. What does the writer of the letter in **Source 7** mean when he says 'we shall commence our labours'?
7. From the information provided in this subtopic, do you believe the food riots of 1795 were justified? Identify one piece of information from the sources that would convince you to either support or oppose the activities of the protesters.
8. While the Swing Rioters may have felt justified in destroying the threshing machines that were taking their jobs (see **Sources 7** and **8**), why do you think they would have engaged in burning haystacks as well (**Source 6**)?
9. Given the negative effects of enclosure on many of the people, do you believe it would have been better to retain the open-field system as the village of Lanton did? Give reasons for your answer. (You may need to refer back to material in topic 2 to examine both sides of this issue.)

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY
Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.1: Profits for some, poverty for many

3.4 Conditions in factories and mines

3.4.1 Inside a textile factory

Australian employees today are protected by Occupational Health and Safety laws. These laws place a legal obligation on the employer to provide a safe and healthy workplace. At the time of the Industrial Revolution no such laws existed, and workplaces such as factories and mines could be dangerous and unhealthy places.

An early nineteenth-century textile factory was a dangerous and unpleasant place to work. Long working hours — 12 hours or more per day — were common practice. Poor light and ventilation and excessive heat made working conditions very uncomfortable. Machines were not fenced off and had no safety guards around moving parts, so workers were always at risk of injury. Children were often employed to climb under or between machines to keep them operating, so they were in particular danger.

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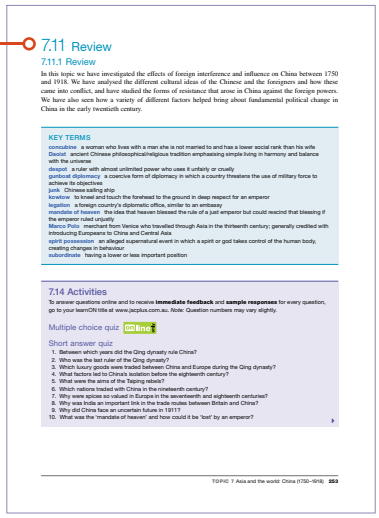
Activity headings are based on the historical concepts and skills identified in the Australian Curriculum.

The *Review* subtopic at the end of each topic provide students with a range of different opportunities to consolidate what they have learned in each topic.

Most topics include a *SkillBuilder* that teaches students a key historical skill. The skill is defined, its importance is clearly explained and a step-by-step approach is presented.



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Inside your *Jacaranda History Alive learnON*

Jacaranda History Alive learnON is an immersive digital learning platform that enables real-time learning through peer-to-peer connections, complete visibility and immediate feedback. It includes:

- a wide variety of embedded videos and interactivities
- sample responses and immediate feedback for every question
- SkillBuilders
- collaborative activities
- and much more.

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Oil on canvas 123.4 x 184.6 cm; **153**/Godfrey Charles Mundy *Mounted Police and Blacks* 1852 Lithograph on Paper 10.9 x 18.2 cm Image 30 x 43.8 cm; **174**, **246** (bottom), **269**, **288**, **292** (top), **292** (bottom), **294** (top); **270**/Arthur Burgess *Emden beached and done for*, 9 November 1914. 1920. Oil on Canvas 168.5 x 254.5 cm; **272**/Lambert, George *Anzac, the landing 1915*, 1920–1922 oil on canvas overall: 190.5 x 350.5 cm; **274** (top)/Negative No. A00847; **274** (Bottom), **284** (bottom right)/Public Domain; **278** (bottom)/Fred Leist, *Australian infantry attack in Polygon Wood*, 1919. Oil on canvas 122.5 x 245 cm; **280**/Neg number E00732; **281** (left)/Neg number P07670.003; **281** (right)/Negative No. E00825; **283** (left)/Hannan, Jim *An appeal from the Dardanelles: will they never come?*, 1915 offset lithograph on paper overall: 225 x 200 cm; **283** (right)/Wall, C *Remember Gallipoli!*, 1915–1918 photolithograph on paper overall: 63.6 x 81.4 cm; sheet: 54.4 x 64.6 cm; **284** (bottom left)/Unknown Artist *Most emphatically I say no!*, c 1914–1917 offset lithograph on paper sheet: 76.4 x 101.7 cm; **287**/RC00317 • bpk: **60** (top)/Berlin/Lutz Braun • Bridgeman Art Library: **189** (left) • Bridgeman Images: **1**/*Henri de La Rochejaquelein 1772–94 at the Battle of Cholet*, 17th October 1793 oil on canvas, Boutigny, Paul Emile 1854–1929/Musee dHistoire, Cholet, France; **4** (top)/Battle in the rue de Rohan, 28th July 1830, 1831 oil on canvas, Lecomte, Hippolyte 1781–1857/Musee de la Ville de Paris, Musee Carnavalet, Paris, France; **102**/*The Last of England*, 1852–55 oil on panel, Brown, Ford Madox 1821–93/Birmingham Museums and Art Gallery; **236**/*China: The reception of the Macartney Mission at the Qing Court*, 1792./Pictures from History • Creative Commons: **21** (top), **122** (A), **203**; **21** (bottom)/© Wikimedia Commons; **110**, **227** (top), **227** (bottom), **230**, **231**, **232** (bottom), **238**, **239**, **246** (top), **249** (top right), **252** (top)/Public Domain; **232** (top)/© ralphrepo; **235** (top)/John Thomson • Getty Images Australia: **32**/Historical; **35**, **48**, **58** (C)/Science & Society Picture Library; **37** (top)/Steve Allen; **37** (bottom)/Time & Life Pictures; **40**/Edward Henry Corbould; **45**, **49**, **234**, **241**, **252** (bottom)/Hulton Archive; **46** (A)/Dorling Kindersley; **58** (B)/Imagno; **60** (bottom)/Fox Photos; **89**/Hulton Archive/Print Collector; **105** (A) (B)/Historical Picture Archive; **108**/Leemage; **109**/Fotosearch; **115** (top)/Hulton Archive/Stringer; **122** (C)/Sheldon Levis; **137**/Kristian Dowling; **181**/Robert Cianflone; **225**/Lintao Zhang; **228** (top)/Apic/Contributor; **228** (bottom)/Royal Photographic Society; **242**/JHU Sheridan Libraries/Gado; **249** (top left)/Fotosearch/Stringer; **250**/VCG • Historic Houses Trust: **122** (B)/© Patrick Bingham-Hall • Ipswich Library: **182** (top)/Image courtesy of Picture Ipswich, Ipswich City Council • Joy Allison: **77**/www.laxtonhistorygroup.org.uk • MAPgraphics: **278** (top) • National Archives UK: **88** (bottom), **117** • National Gallery of Australia: **130**/S.T. Gill, 1818 England - Australia 1880 *Prospecting* 1865 from *The Australian Sketchbook* Melbourne: Hamel & Ferguson, 1865 lithograph, printed in colour, from mulitiple stones; **151** (bottom)/John GLOVER England 1767 - Australia 1849 *Mount Wellington and Hobart Town from Kangaroo Point* 1834 oil on canvas 76.25 x 152.4 cm; **189** (right)/Lionel Lindsay *The Free Selectors daughter* 1935 etching, National Gallery of Australia, Canberra Bequest of Alan Queale, 1982 © National Library of Australia • National Library of Australia: **23**, **120**, **223**; **209** (left)/*Portrait of Vida Goldstein*/Waterhouse • Northern Territory Archives: **243** (top)/Service, Ah Toy Family Collection, NTRS 234, Photographic proof-sheets 1979–1985, CP 812/1 • Out of Copyright: **22**, **30** (top), **30** (bottom), **43** (C), **69**, **72** (top), **72** (bottom), **76**, **80**, **81** (top), **81** (bottom), **108** (top left), **122** (D), **126**, **136**, **137**, **141** (A), **142**, **153** (bottom), **169** (bottom), **179**, **181, 200** (bottom), **202**, **204** (bottom), **209** (right), **212** (top left), **212** (bottom), **213, 214, 217** (top), **217** (bottom), **219** (left), **219** (right), **221** (A), **221** (B), **221** (C), **221** (D), **245, 254, 296, 298** (bottom right)/© National Library of Australia; **38** (A)/Science Museum/Science & Society Picture Library; **105** (A), **130**, **153** (top), **157**, **170**, **171** (bottom), **174** (top), **206**, **208**, **210**, **244**; **118** (top)/State Library of New South Wales, Mitchell Library, [a128112]; **118** (bottom)/State Library of New South Wales, Mitchell Library, [a928087]; **141** (B)/State Library of New South Wales [a109003]; **143**, **224**/National Library of Australia; **144**, **163**/Mitchell Library, State Library of New South Wales; **146**, **183**, **190**, **197** (top), **198**/State Library of Victoria; **147** (B)/Rex Nan Kivell Collection NK759. 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TOPIC 1
The modern world and Australia (1750–1918)

1.1 Overview

Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

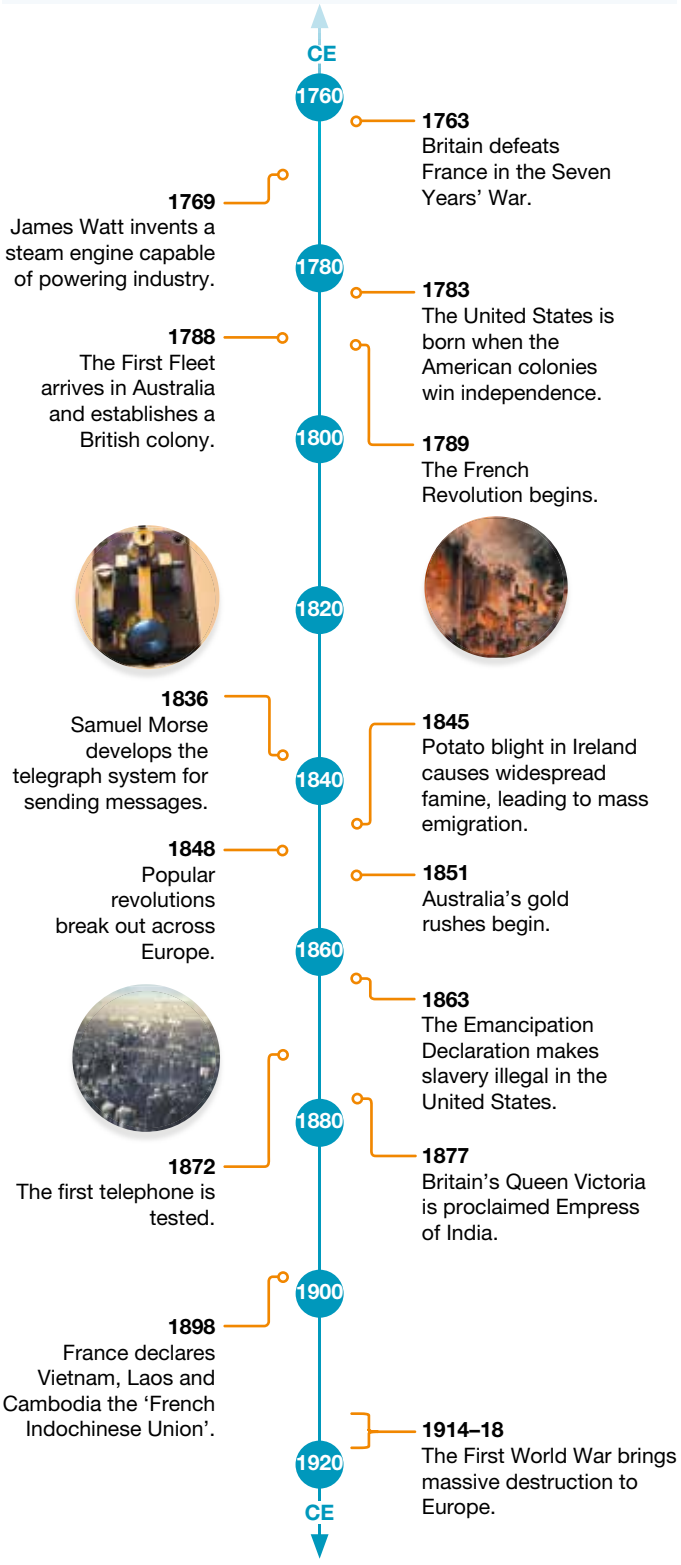
1.1.1 A changing world

Between 1750 and 1918 the world experienced enormous changes. These affected the ways people provided for their needs, how and where people lived, their rights, how they were governed, and what they believed. We can recognise four main kinds of change that had a huge impact on the world. These were:

- the Industrial Revolution, which saw the mass production of goods, changing the countries involved from agricultural societies to industrial societies
- growth in the overseas empires of several European powers
- the movement of vast numbers of people from continent to continent through slavery, convict transportation and immigration
- the emergence of new ideas that changed the ways many people thought about their societies and their rights.

SOURCE 1 Many great changes that shaped the modern world came about through revolutions and wars. This nineteenth-century French painting depicts conflict in a French town in 1793 during the bloody civil war that followed the French Revolution.

SOURCE 2 A timeline of the modern world, 1750–1918



We can recognise the significance of some of these changes by considering examples of how things were at the beginning and end of this period. In 1750 Australia was populated entirely by Indigenous groups whose ways of life had changed little over at least 50 000 years. By 1918 the overwhelming majority of Australians were of European descent and Australia was fighting in a world war on behalf of the British Empire.

Technological changes were just as dramatic. The ships that brought convicts and settlers to Australia in 1788 were made of timber and powered by wind. The steam engine would completely change manufacturing and transport. During World War I, from 1914 to 1918, several nations built massive steel battleships powered by steam. From 1832 the camera would change the ways people could record events. The first powered aircraft flight of 1903 would open the way to future air travel, and four years later radio would start a new age of communication.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. What changes took place in movements of people across the world between 1750 and 1918?
2. How did technology contribute to change?
3. How did new ideas contribute to change?
4. How, where and why did colonisation by European empires take place, and what was its impact?

Starter questions

1. The telegraph was the first system for sending messages along wires. How do you think messages had to be sent before the telegraph was invented?
2. How different would life have been without telephones?
3. Why do you think Europeans thought they had the right to colonise other people's lands?
4. Look at **Source 1** and decide whether you think that wars in the late eighteenth and the nineteenth centuries would have been more or less destructive than modern wars, and why you think this.

1.2 How do we know about the world from 1750–1918?

1.2.1 Primary sources

In this topic we will look at some of the great changes that transformed the world between 1750 and 1918. We know more about this age than about medieval and early modern times because more evidence has survived. For this period of history we have an enormous range of primary sources.

Mass media and personal records

The period saw a growth in education. Consequently, increasing numbers of people were literate and were able to record their thoughts in letters and diaries. They were also able to read newspapers, magazines, pamphlets and books. This age saw the rise of mass-circulation newspapers that recorded and commented on the news of the time. Pamphlets came to be widely used by people who wanted to circulate ideas and bring about changes in society. Books were expensive by modern standards but the latter part of this period saw the rise of public lending libraries.

Official sources

Governments in many countries increased their roles in society in this period. To do so they needed to gather and record information about their people. Generally, if the activities of a person or group were of interest to a government, then official records would be kept. For example, if a person was sent to Australia as a convict, there would usually be official records providing information about the crime the person was charged with committing, the trial and the sentence. There would also be records of the convict's ship, date of transportation and date of completion of sentence. In contrast, for many free migrants who came to Australia during the nineteenth century there are very few records, because governments were much less interested in them. For similar reasons, we have little information about the working conditions of people in Britain before industrialisation. As influential people became concerned about the appalling conditions in mines and factories, official inquiries were set up to gather evidence and their findings were recorded.

Visual sources

We also have many physical traces of this age such as roads, railways, bridges and machinery. Artists created visual sources through paintings, sketches and cartoons. The invention of photography in the 1830s ushered in a new era for visual sources, but early photographic methods required long exposure times, so action shots were not possible until the late nineteenth century.

SOURCE 1 In Britain in 1816, a parliamentary committee was appointed to investigate the working conditions of children in the cotton textile industry. In the following extract from its report John Moss answers the committee's questions.

[Q] Were you ever employed as the master of the apprentices at a cotton mill?
[A] I was engaged to attend the apprentice-house at Backbarrow. I was over the children.
…
[Q] What were the hours of work?
[A] From five o'clock in the morning till eight at night.
[Q] Were fifteen hours in the day the regular hours of work?
[A] Those were the regular hours of work.
…
[Q] What time was allowed for meals?
[A] Half an hour for breakfast and half an hour for dinner.
…
[Q] When the works were stopped for repair of the mill, or for any want of cotton, did the children afterwards make up for the loss of that time?
[A] Yes.
[Q] When making up lost time, how long did they continue working at night?
[A] Till nine o'clock, and sometimes later; sometimes ten.
…
[Q] Did the masters ever express any concern for such excessive labour?
[A] No.
…
[Q] Did the children sit or stand at work?
[A] Stand.
[Q] The whole of their time?
[A] Yes.
[Q] Were there any seats in the mill?
[A] None.
[Q] Were they usually much fatigued at night?
[A] Yes, some of them were very much fatigued.
…
[Q] Were any children injured by the machinery?
[A] Very frequently.

SOURCE 2 *Battle in the rue de Rohan, 28 July 1830* was painted in oil on canvas by French artist Hippolyte Lecomte in 1831. It depicts mostly working class revolutionaries fighting in the streets of Paris during the revolution of 1830 in France. The revolutionaries are seen exchanging fire with government soldiers in the building at the rear.

SOURCE 3 The great Chartist meeting on Kennington Common on 10 April 1848, recorded in a black and white photograph with applied colour by William Kilburn. The Chartist movement was an attempt by British workers to improve working conditions through political action. The Chartists gathered signatures on petitions demanding the vote and other rights for workers. Most of their demands were not achieved until the beginning of the twentieth century.

1.2.2 Gaps in evidence

Despite the abundance of sources from this period, there are still significant gaps in our evidence because some groups did not keep written records, because sources have been lost or destroyed, and because many people could not read or write.

1.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why do we know more about the world between 1750 and 1918 than medieval and early modern times?
2. The period from 1750 and 1918 saw a growth in education. What impact did this growth have on mass media?
3. What kind of people did the government record information about during this period?
4. In what decade was photography invented?
5. Why are there still gaps in our evidence from 1750–1918?

Apply your understanding

6. Read **Source 1**.
   (a) What important information does this source provide on conditions in which children worked in Britain during the early nineteenth century?
   (b) What might this source tell us about attitudes to children at this time?
   (c) Do you think all children would have been treated like this or only working-class children?
   (d) What conclusions can we draw about that time from the fact that a parliamentary committee was set up to investigate conditions?
7. (a) Describe what is happening in **Source 2**.
   (b) With which side do you think the artist might have sympathised? What clues did you use to form this opinion?
8. (a) Describe the scene in **Source 3**.
   (b) With which side do you think the photographer might have sympathised? What clues support this opinion?
   (c) Do you think a photograph is necessarily more impartial than a painting?
9. Write an extended paragraph explaining how useful these three sources would be for a study of attempts to improve life for working people during the first half of the nineteenth century.

1.3 European empires in the late eighteenth century

1.3.1 Social classes

Imperialism means extending control over foreign territories, usually through the creation of empires. In the late eighteenth century there were empires within Europe and several European countries had empires outside Europe.

In the late 1700s almost all European countries were ruled by kings, most of whom still held wide powers. Most people lived in the countryside and worked in agriculture. There was an enormous gap between the aristocrats and the overwhelming majority of the underprivileged. In western Europe most people were free peasants but they were poor, unlike wealthy landowners who lived in mansions on vast country estates. The gap was even greater in eastern Europe, where the poor had fewer rights.

1.3.2 Empires in Europe

In the eighteenth century many of today's modern states did not yet exist. What is now Italy was then several states, and there were more than 300 independent states in what later became Germany. The Hapsburg dominions (the Austro-Hungarian Empire) covered much of central Europe. The Hapsburg monarchs were also the traditional rulers of the Holy Roman Empire, but they wielded no real power through this outdated organisation. All of the Balkan Peninsula was ruled by the Turkish Ottoman Empire, while much of eastern Europe and Central Asia belonged to the Russian Empire.

SOURCE 1 A map of Europe in 1789

1.3.3 Europe's overseas colonies

From the early sixteenth century Spain controlled most of South America while Portugal controlled Brazil. Spain also colonised parts of Central and North America. Most of Asia and Africa was still controlled by traditional local rulers in the late eighteenth century. The Portuguese had established a few small African and Asian colonies, but most were taken from them by the Dutch. In the seventeenth century the British and French were the main European imperial rivals in North America and India. After the Seven Years' War (1756–63) Britain gained France's colonies in North America. The British also extended their influence in India.

DID YOU KNOW?

In the late eighteenth century in the Russian Empire the **tsar** had absolute power. He was supported by a privileged class of **nobles**. Most Russian **serfs** could be bought and sold. Serfdom also persisted in other parts of eastern Europe.

1.3.4 Revolution in America

Just 12 years later Britain's original 13 North American colonies rebelled. Fighting began in April 1775. On 4 July that year the rebels issued a Declaration of Independence. Many American colonists had resented British laws preventing them from expanding further westward and from trading with other countries. They were also angry about having to pay taxes to the British on newspapers and legal documents. They refused to pay these taxes on the grounds that as colonists they were not represented in the British Parliament. Clashes soon led to open warfare.

SOURCE 2 This map of eastern North America at the outbreak of the American Revolutionary War in 1775 shows the British province of Quebec (taken from France in the Seven Years' War), the 13 British colonies on the Atlantic coast and the Indian Reserve. The Indian Reserve was created by Britain in 1763 to assign lands for native North American tribes that had been Britain's allies during the conflict with France. Territory to the west of the Indian Reserve was still claimed by Spain.

1.3.5 Britain loses North American colonies

The British had support from loyalists among the colonists and from several native North American tribes, including the Iroquois, their old allies against the French. However, France entered the war on the rebel side to avenge its earlier losses of colonies to Britain, and it was soon joined by Spain and the Netherlands. To make things even more difficult for the British, a League of Armed Neutrality was formed by Prussia (the most powerful of the German states), Russia, Sweden and Denmark to prevent the British from stopping ships that supplied the rebels. Britain now faced threats to its empire in other parts of the world too. In 1781 British forces surrendered to French and American forces at Yorktown, Virginia. In 1783 the Treaty of Paris ended the war and marked the birth of the United States of America. Britain still held Canada and just five years later founded the colony of New South Wales in Australia.

1.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What does *imperialism* mean?
2. Make a timeline of events that changed the map of North America between 1756 and 1783.
3. In which part of Europe was the gap between rich and poor greatest?
4. Name five European powers that had overseas colonies in the eighteenth century.

Apply your understanding

5. Study **Source 1**. Compare it with a map of modern Europe and use it to identify:
   (a) three European countries whose borders were much the same in 1789 as they are today
   (b) two modern countries that were formed from several states that existed in 1789
   (c) three European empires that have since been replaced by different states.
6. Study **Source 2**.
   (a) Apart from Quebec, what North American territory did Britain add to its empire through the Seven Years' War?
   (b) Do you think the 13 British colonies along the Atlantic coast could have thrown off British rule without foreign help?
7. After winning independence from Britain in 1783, the United States took away the rights of native North Americans to the lands in the Indian Reserve. How would native North Americans have regarded this act by a new nation that called itself the home of liberty?

learnon RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 1.1: The rise of imperialism

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **European imperial expansion into Asia**
- **Egalitarianism: The American Revolution**

1.4 The French Revolution — a turning point in history

1.4.1 The ancien regime

A revolution brings about a complete change in the power relations between different groups within a society. The French Revolution was the most important political and social event of the eighteenth century because it took away the powers of the old French ruling classes and inspired oppressed peoples outside France. It created equality under the law. Many of the old ruling class lost more than their privileges. They lost their heads to the blade of the **guillotine**.

Under the ancien regime (old order) everyone in France belonged to one of three Estates.

- The First Estate was the clergy of the Roman Catholic Church, which owned much land but did not have to pay taxes.
- The Second Estate was the landowning aristocracy (nobles), who also paid no taxes. Increasingly, they were seen as a greedy class who contributed nothing and lived off the sweat of the peasants.
- The remaining 95 per cent of people belonged to the Third Estate. It included the urban middle classes, workers and the peasants, who formed the biggest class but had no privileges and paid many kinds of taxes.

1.4.2 The revolution begins

In the eighteenth century, educated French people began to be influenced by the ideas of Enlightenment thinkers who challenged such notions as the inequality of the three Estates and the claim of kings to rule by **divine right**.

The revolution began when the privileged classes tried to resist reforms. Louis XVI was an **absolute monarch**. However, by 1789, after decades of extravagance and costly wars, France was bankrupt. The only solution was to tax the wealthy classes. But the First and Second Estates rebelled, and the king was forced to call a meeting of the **Estates General**, which had not convened for about 200 years. The nobles and clergy thought they would be able to keep their privileges because, by tradition, the First and Second Estates could outvote the Third. But Louis XVI agreed that the Third Estate should have twice as many representatives as each of the other two Estates.

When the Estates General met, the Third Estate declared that it represented the nation. It called itself the National Assembly. It was joined by some lower clergy. When Louis ordered the National Assembly to disperse, it refused. Instead it wrote a **constitution**.

The National Assembly succeeded because two other revolutions were taking place in 1789. The sans-culottes were suffering from bread shortages and high prices. On 14 July 1789 they stormed an old Paris prison called the Bastille, which was seen as a symbol of the ancien regime. In the countryside, hungry peasants rioted and burned the castles of nobles. These events frightened the privileged classes who wanted to preserve the old ways.

SOURCE 1 Painting of a **sans-culottes**, by Louis-Leopold Boilly (1761–1845). The flag carried by this sans-culottes is the tricolour that was adopted as the new French flag. For such people the Revolution of 1789 did not go nearly far enough.

Achievements of the National Assembly

- On 4 August 1789 the National Assembly abolished **feudal dues** and other noble privileges. In future, all citizens would answer to the same laws.
- In October it issued the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen*. These rights included freedom of the press, freedom of speech, and the right to decide what taxes should be paid and how they should be spent.
- It also confiscated Church lands, provided for the election of clergy, abolished the purchase of official jobs and abolished restrictions on trade.
- On 3 September 1791 it issued the constitution under which France would be governed. This reduced the king's powers and provided for a Legislative Assembly to be elected by all adult men who had enough income to pay a set amount of tax.

The power of the common people was demonstrated on 5 October 1789, when a vast crowd of women marched on the royal palace at Versailles and forced the royal family, whom they did not trust, to return with them to Paris, where they could be watched.

SOURCE 2 An engraving by an unknown artist of the time showing women marching on Versailles

1.4.3 The second French Revolution

The middle classes and most peasants benefited from the revolution, but the sans-culottes gained little. Women and poorer men still did not have the vote, and a higher income was required for a man to stand for election to the Assembly. Further, the Assembly passed laws denying workers the right to strike and to form unions to defend their interests.

The cause of the sans-culottes was taken up by the **radical** Jacobins. They wanted to take the revolution further and they soon became the dominant group in the Legislative Assembly. In August 1792 sans-culottes attacked the king's palace. In response, the Legislative Assembly **deposed** the king, imprisoned the royal family and agreed to hold fresh elections in which almost all Frenchmen could vote for a National Convention.

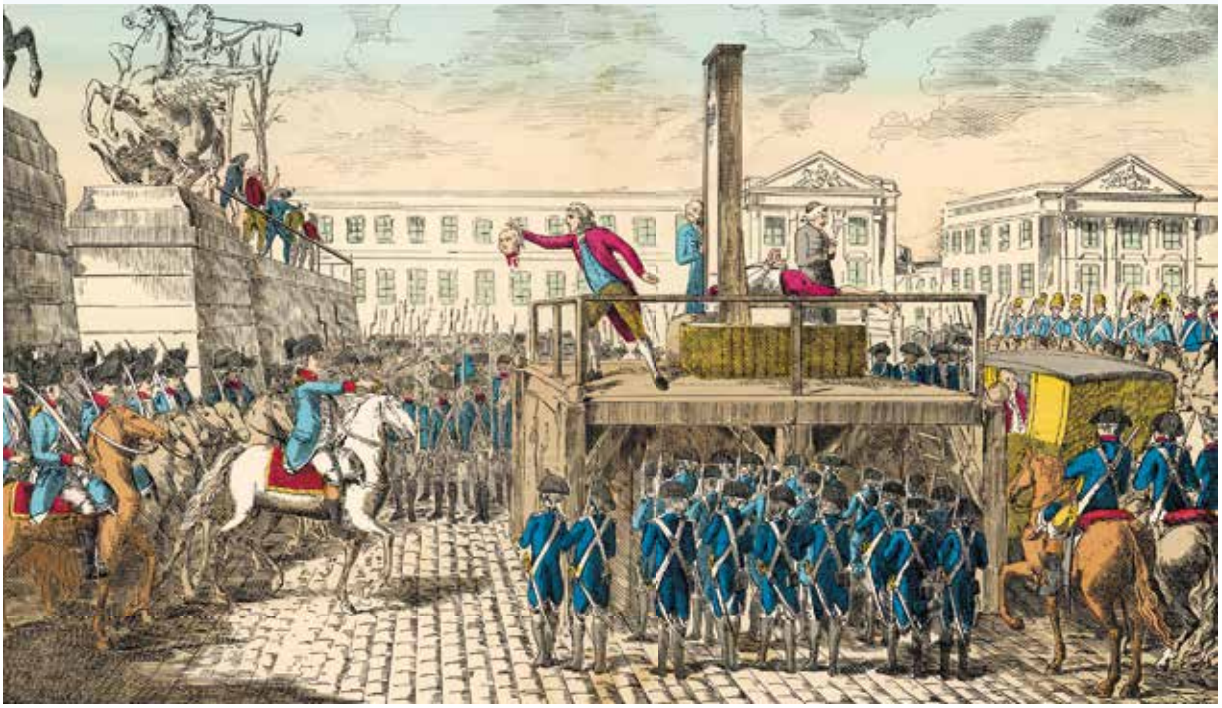
The National Convention first met on 21 September 1792, just weeks after crowds had entered Paris prisons, killing suspected supporters of the monarchy and anti-revolutionary priests. The Convention abolished the monarchy and put the king on trial for treason.

1.4.4 The Reign of Terror

France was now a **republic** and in January 1793 Louis XVI was executed by guillotine. A Revolutionary Tribunal was formed to try 'enemies of the revolution'. Fears of foreign invasion had been growing since August 1791, when Austria and Prussia called on other powers to unite and restore the old order in France. In April the Committee of Public Safety was formed to deal with threats of royalist uprisings in many parts of France and from a coalition of foreign monarchies, including Austria, Prussia, Spain, Russia and Britain, which was trying to crush the French republic.

Fear of invasion and counter-revolution fuelled the Reign of Terror, in which enemies of the revolution were killed. Many nobles and royalists were executed, as were the leaders of the Girondins, whose radicalism was less extreme than the Jacobins'. Throughout the country, thousands who rebelled against the government met a similar fate. The Committee of Public Safety, dominated by the Jacobin Maximilian Robespierre, introduced the **Levée en masse**.

SOURCE 3 Artwork showing the execution of Louis XVI, 21 January 1793



During 1793 the revolutionary armies drove back foreign threats and crushed the royalist rebellions, but in 1794 the revolutionaries turned on each other. Robespierre and his followers executed several Jacobins they considered too revolutionary. They then executed Georges Jacques Danton and his followers, who were considered corrupt.

DID YOU KNOW?

The Jacobin Republic was a period of terror and bloodshed but also a time of social reforms. It gave relief to the poor, attempted to control food prices, wrote a democratic constitution, planned a system of public education and abolished slavery in the French colonies. These efforts to create a fairer society were more far-reaching than those attempted by the Assemblies before and after.

1.4.5 The end of the Jacobin Republic

Jacobin rule came to an end in July 1794 when other members of the Convention overthrew and executed Robespierre and his followers. After their own short reign of terror against the radicals, these men swept away the powers of the Revolutionary Tribunal and the Committee of Public Safety, wiped out the gains of the sans-culottes and returned power to the middle classes.

SOURCE 4 The Proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick, commander of the foreign armies that aimed to invade France and overthrow the French Revolution, 25 July 1792

Their Majesties the [Austrian] emperor and the king of Prussia having intrusted to me the command of the united armies which they have collected on the frontiers of France, I desire to announce to the inhabitants of that kingdom [that] … the city of Paris and all its inhabitants without distinction shall be required to submit at once and without delay to the king [Louis XVI] … and to assure to him, as well as to the other royal personages, the inviolability and respect which the law of nature and of nations demands of subjects toward sovereigns … Their said Majesties declare … that … if the least violence be offered to their Majesties the king, queen, and royal family, and if their safety and their liberty be not immediately assured, they will inflict an ever memorable vengeance by delivering over the city of Paris to military execution and complete destruction, and the rebels guilty of the said outrages to the punishment that they merit …

SOURCE 5 Saint-Just, a Jacobin leader of the Reign of Terror, wrote these notes about the need for equality just months before he and Robespierre were executed in July 1794.

I challenge you to establish liberty so long as it remains possible to arouse the unfortunate classes against the new order of things, and I defy you to do away with poverty altogether unless each one has his own land … Where you find large landowners you find many poor people … Man must live in independence, each with his own wife and his robust and healthy children. We must have neither rich nor poor … We must have a system which puts all these principles in practice and assures comfort to the entire people.

1.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Which different social groups rebelled against the old order in France in 1789?
2. What were the main reasons for discontent?
3. Describe three reasons for the success of the 1789 Revolution.
4. Which groups benefited from the 1789 Revolution?
5. Which groups lost their power and privileges?
6. Why was there a second, more radical revolution in France?
7. How did that second revolution come to an end?

Apply your understanding

8. (a) Why did people such as the man in **Source 1** support a second revolution?
   (b) How has the artist portrayed this sans-culottes?
9. Describe the dress and weapons of the women in **Source 2**. To what social class would they have belonged?
10. Study **Source 3**. What events led to the king being executed as a traitor?
11. Read **Source 4**.
    (a) According to the Duke, what did the Austrian emperor and the king of Prussia aim to achieve by intervening in France?
    (b) What threat did they make to the French revolutionaries and to the people of Paris?
    (c) Why would absolute monarchs such as the Austrian emperor and the Prussian king have been so determined to crush the French Revolution?
    (d) How does this source help to explain why the Jacobins conducted a Reign of Terror?
12. Read **Source 5**.
    (a) What did Saint-Just say about land, poverty and the need for equality?
    (b) Why would the sans-culottes have supported such ideas?
    (c) Which social classes in France would have opposed such ideas?
13. Why would the governments of other countries have wanted to overthrow the French Revolution?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 1.2: Revolution in France

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Egalitarianism: The French Revolution**

1.5 The Industrial Revolution

1.5.1 Making changes

The Industrial Revolution was arguably the most important period of change in modern history. It marked the beginning of the technological revolution that continues to affect our lives. Before the Industrial Revolution, people produced things they needed in ways that had not changed in centuries. The Industrial Revolution saw new ideas being applied to producing goods. It began in Britain in the mid eighteenth century. By the mid nineteenth century it had effected enormous changes in the ways people worked and lived, and these changes had begun to spread around the world.

1.5.2 The agrarian revolution

Traditional farming practices engaged most of the rural population in food production. There was little or no surplus workforce for manufacturing. During the agrarian revolution in eighteenth-century Britain, the application of new scientific methods transformed farming. Changes included:

- selective breeding of livestock to produce more meat and wool
- a new, more productive system of rotating crops to improve soil
- changes in land ownership as common land that had been shared by villagers was enclosed by wealthy landowners, creating larger farms on which the new methods could be applied.

Such changes forced many small farmers and labourers off the land. They had little choice other than to drift to towns in search of work. Meanwhile, these changes produced increased wealth for large landowners that could be invested in agriculture and manufacturing.

1.5.3 Trade, transport and manufacturing

Trade grew because of wealth from Britain's colonies and because of improved transport with the building of canals, roads and, after 1830, railways. These developments encouraged the growth of banking to finance new industries and create more wealth.

Britain's Industrial Revolution began in the textile industry. In the mid eighteenth century, spinning and weaving were done by farming families and agricultural labourers at home in the evenings after toiling in the fields all day. By the end of the century textile work was done almost entirely in factories using machines.

Several inventions revolutionised the textile industry. From 1764 the spinning jenny spun eight threads at a time instead of one. In 1769 Richard Arkwright's new water-powered spinning machine produced thread even faster. As a result, spinning began to move out of farm cottages to factories located near streams. After the invention of James Watt's steam engine in 1769, steam power became an even more practical option. The steam engine was applied to the cotton textile industry in the 1780s. Such developments created a demand for machinery. That, in turn, increased demand for iron and coal and led to the growth of factories in regions that produced these resources.

So changes in one industry affected many industries. All of this meant increased demand for factory workers, raw materials and markets. Britain was able to take advantage of these developments and become the 'workshop of the world' because it had resources, wealth from colonial trade, and ships to import raw materials and to export manufactured goods.

1.5.4 Working conditions

Over the nineteenth century the proportion of Britain's population that worked in factories and mines increased enormously. Between 1841 and 1901 the population of England and Wales rose from 16 million to 35 million. Almost all of this increase was absorbed by the growing cities and towns. Industrial workers paid a high price for the wealth that was produced. Long hours for low pay under appalling conditions were normal in most industries. A 60-hour working week was customary for most workers in the 1860s.

SOURCE 1 A map showing major sites of industry in Britain during the Industrial Revolution

SOURCE 2 From Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working Class in England*, 1848. Engels was describing conditions in the growing industrial city of Manchester in northern England. Often the workers' housing was owned by factory owners. The workers had to pay rent out of their small wages.

> The … cottages are in bad order, never repaired, filthy, with damp, unclean cellar dwellings; the lanes are neither paved nor supplied with sewers, but harbour numerous colonies of swine … The mud in the streets is so deep that there is never a chance, except in the driest weather, of walking without sinking into it ankle deep at every step.

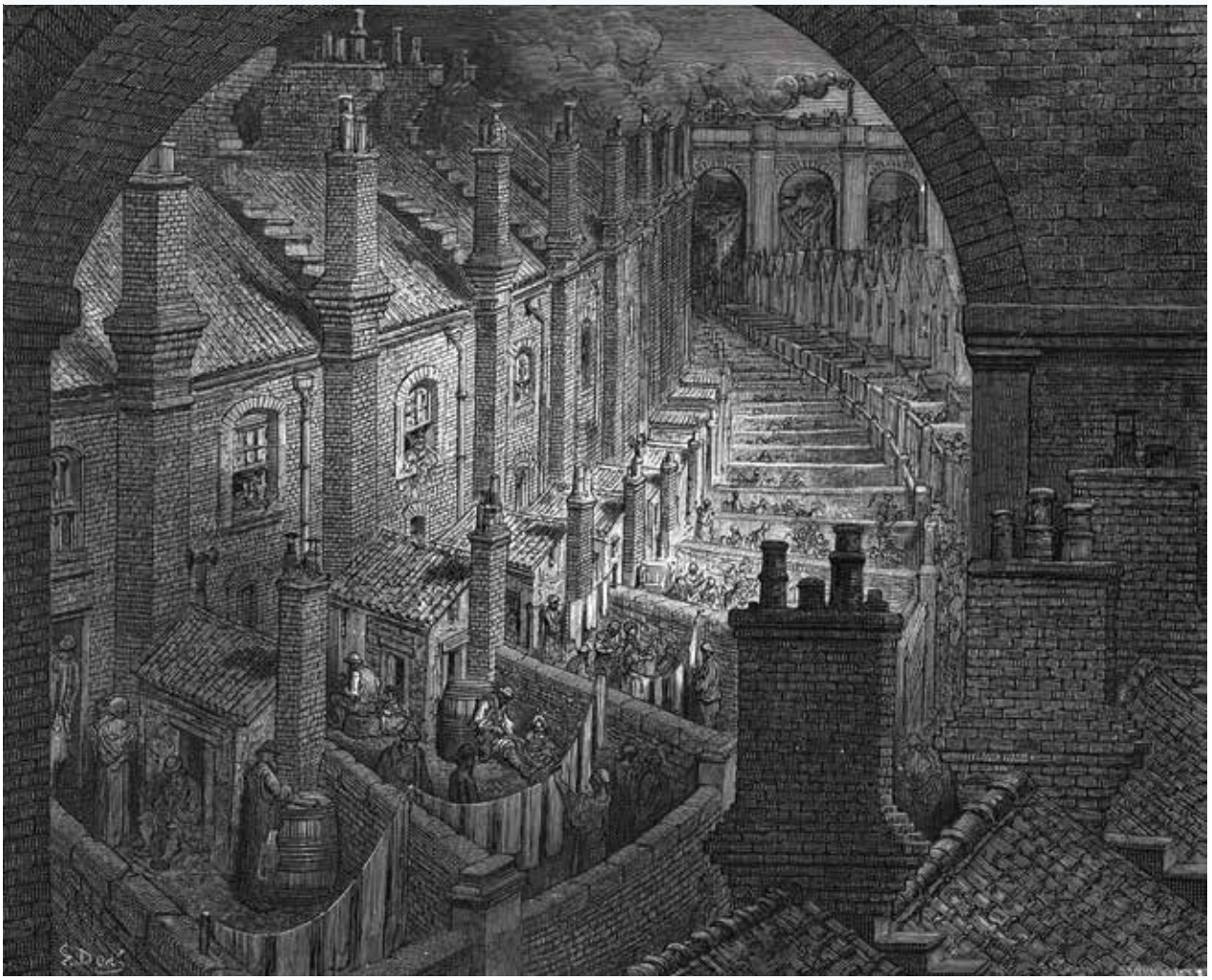
SOURCE 3 From the evidence of Nichol Hudderson to the Children's Employment Commission, 1842

> … is lame now and will always be lame. His leg was set wrong at first. One leg is shorter than the other. The pit makes him sick. Has been very bad in his health since he went down the pit … The heat makes him sick … Feels worst when he first goes down in the morning; at 3 o'clock in the morning; and when he comes up at 6 0'clock [in the evening] he feels sick … very seldom when he gets home can he eat very much … Has known three boys killed … The rope broke when the corf [basket] was going down, and they fell to the bottom.

1.5.5 Trade unions

Workers tried to improve their conditions by forming trade unions. Some skilled workers' organisations had existed before the Industrial Revolution. However, in 1799 such organisations were banned under the Combination Acts, which made it illegal for workers to join together to fight for better pay and conditions. When these Acts were repealed in 1824, workers used strikes and **pickets** to try to win some justice. In 1825 the British government again virtually outlawed these tactics.

SOURCE 4 This engraving by French artist Gustave Doré was published in 1872 in a book called *Over London — by Rail from London: A Pilgrimage*. It shows the cramped and unhealthy conditions in which many of London's working class lived.



Despite this resistance trade unionism grew rapidly in the 1820s, especially in the textile industry. For a time during the 1830s British trade unionism reflected a concern not only with the immediate issues of pay and conditions but with fundamentally changing society. Some unionists worked to form cooperative societies, running their own businesses so eventually there might be no need for the capitalists who owned the factories.

Trade unions in Australia

Although Australia was not a highly industrialised country, it inherited its trade union traditions from Britain. The first Australian unions emerged in the 1840s, but unionism became stronger between the 1860s and the 1880s. There were huge strikes during the 1890s, when employers tried to destroy many of the gains won by Australian workers. Although these strikes were defeated, at the beginning of the twentieth century Australia had one of the highest levels of trade union membership in the world.

DID YOU KNOW?

Australian trade unions succeeded in winning an eight-hour working day for some skilled tradesmen in the 1850s. But many other workers, including women and children, worked 10 or more hours a day for much lower wages.

1.5.6 The Industrial Revolution and Australia

During the British Industrial Revolution, Australia became a significant supplier of primary products to Britain, especially wool and wheat. Mining also prospered, famously with the gold rushes that began in the 1850s, and later with other minerals. Manufacturing, in contrast, accounted for only a small part of the Australian economy.

Iron rails and telegraph wires

The new forms of transport and communications associated with the Industrial Revolution had a huge impact in Australia because of its great distances. Railways grew from the 1850s. New South Wales, Queensland and Victoria each used a different **track gauge**. In 1883 New South Wales and Victoria were linked by rail as their lines met on the Murray River. However, because of different gauges, neither colony's trains could run on the other's tracks. People and goods moving between the colonies had to change trains at the border.

Linking the colonies and the world

News from the outside world reached Australia by ship, so Australians often learned of overseas events months after they occurred. Reducing this isolation became possible following the invention of the electric telegraph by Samuel Morse and Alfred Vail in 1836. The first telegraph system began operating in England in 1837. The telegraph carried messages along wires by electric pulses. Morse code enabled telegraph operators to send messages in combinations of short marks called 'dots' and longer marks called 'dashes' that represented different letters. Trained operators could then translate these messages.

The eastern Australian colonies were linked by telegraph wires in 1859. In the following decade undersea telegraph cables linked much of the world, though not yet Australia. In 1870 the South Australian government reached an agreement with the British–Australian Telegraph Company. The company would extend its undersea cable from Java to Darwin, and the South Australian government would build the Overland Telegraph from Darwin to Adelaide. The 3200-kilometre line was completed in 1872, finally linking Australia by cable to London. An exchange of messages now took only hours rather than weeks.

SOURCE 5 The Old Telegraph Station at Alice Springs was midway along the Overland Telegraph Line between Darwin and Adelaide. It had to be staffed 24 hours a day to boost the Morse code signals so they were carried along the great distance of the line.

SOURCE 6 Telegraph operators sent coded messages to the next station along the Overland Telegraph using these Morse code keys.

1.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. List three changes that contributed to the agrarian revolution.
2. What was the Industrial Revolution?
3. What advantages enabled Britain to become 'the workshop of the world'?
4. As Britain's population increased, where did the extra people go to work and live?
5. What difficulties did early British trade unions face?
6. How did technology transform transport and communications in Australia?

Apply your understanding

7. Read **Source 2** and look at the details in **Source 4**.
   (a) How does Engels describe the conditions of the houses and lanes in which factory workers lived in Manchester?
   (b) Describe the details of the scene in **Source 4**.
   (c) What would it be like to have to live in such conditions while working at least a 60-hour week in a dirty, dangerous factory or mine?
8. Read **Source 3**.
   (a) What has happened to the health of the boy discussed in this source?
   (b) What are his working hours?
   (c) What other evidence does this source provide of the dangers of working in the pit (mine)?
9. Using **Source 1,** locate the main sites of economic activity and population growth during the Industrial Revolution.
10. Using **Sources 5** and **6,** explain why the telegraph system would have required much more labour than modern communications systems.
11. Why do you think the boy in **Source 3** had put up with such terrible conditions?
12. While workers were enduring such conditions, who do you think was enjoying the benefits of the Industrial Revolution?
13. If Britain was 'the workshop of the world' in the nineteenth century, to which country could that title be given today? Give the reasons for your answer.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 1.3: Analysing a visual source

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Industrial Revolution**

1.6 Nationalism and imperialism

1.6.1 Roots of nationalism

By the beginning of the twentieth century almost all of Africa and much of Asia would be controlled by European empires. Nationalism became an important force during this period. In some cases nationalism encouraged imperialism through the belief that some races had the right to rule over others. In others, nationalism inspired people to fight for their independence from empires.

The French Revolution instilled an unprecedented sense of pride in the French nation. People fought not as subjects of a king but as loyal citizens of the nation itself. However, nationalist ideas also spread from France in unintended ways. In lands conquered by French armies during the Revolutionary Wars, other groups discovered a sense of national identity as they resisted French rule. This was even more marked during the wars waged by the French Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte, who seized absolute power in 1804 and ruled France until his defeat in 1815.

1.6.2 Nationalist struggles

When Napoleon was defeated, the old rulers of Europe tried to 'turn back the clock'. Wherever possible, the former ruling families were restored to their thrones and people who wanted reforms were suppressed. But nationalism continued to cause unrest. Nationalists in the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian empires wanted the right to form their own nations. Greece won autonomy from the Ottoman Empire in 1829. Belgium became independent from the Netherlands two years later.

Nationalist sentiment grew in many small countries during the nineteenth century, including Britain's oldest colony, Ireland. Among Italians and Germans in their many states there were those who wanted to create one Italy and one Germany. Both countries achieved national unity by 1870, although not entirely in the ways dreamed of by idealistic nationalists.

Several South American colonies achieved independence from Spain in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Later, in the twentieth century, nationalist ideas would inspire struggles for independence in Asia and Africa.

1.6.3 The imperialist scramble

A final round of empire building took place in the late nineteenth century. After unification, Italy and Germany sought their own colonial empires. For European powers, colonies were a source of national prestige but, more importantly, they provided valuable markets and sources of raw materials. In the mid nineteenth century Europeans knew little about Africa apart from the Arab north, the Portuguese and Dutch settlements and some coastal regions. But by 1914 Britain, France, Belgium, Germany and Italy had laid claim to nearly all the continent.

1.6.4 Imperialism spreads

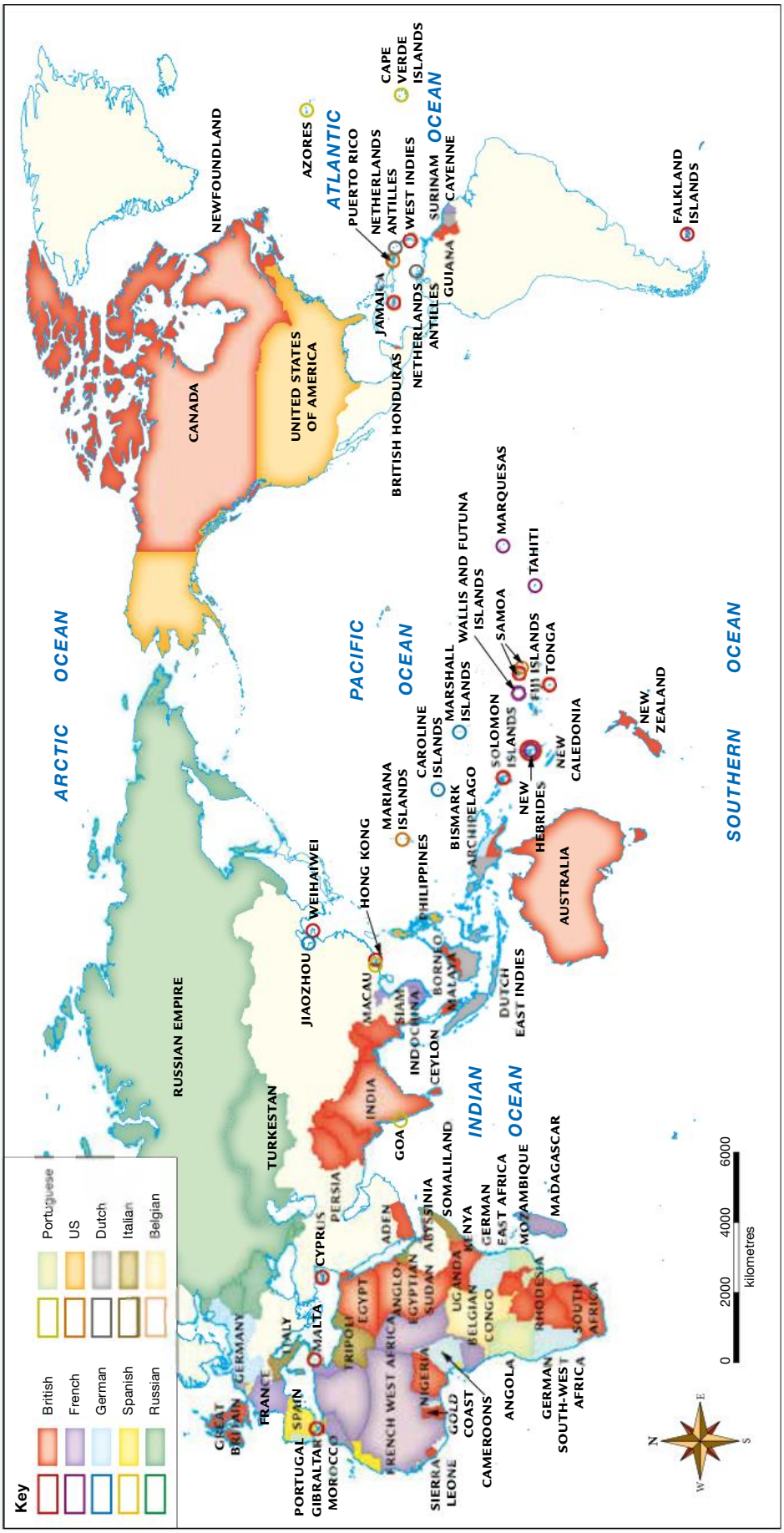
All Pacific Islands peoples came under colonial rule during the nineteenth century, and European powers seized more territories in Asia. The British had been extending their power in India since the start of the seventeenth century and, in 1877, Britain's Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India.

In South-East Asia only Thailand avoided colonisation. The Dutch extended their control through Indonesia. Britain took Malaya and Burma, and the French took Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos. How colonised peoples responded depended on local circumstances. Cambodia's king welcomed French protection because he feared losing territory to his more powerful neighbours. But in Vietnam there was fierce resistance to the French. China avoided being colonised but it was forced to give small territories, ports and trading rights to European powers, Japan and the United States.

DID YOU KNOW?

By the late nineteenth century two kinds of nationalism had developed in Australia. Imperial loyalists felt loyalty to the British Empire and were proud that Australia was part of it. Radical nationalists wanted Australia to be independent from Britain.

SOURCE 1 A map of European and US colonies by 1914



1.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain what you understand by *nationalism*, *imperialism* and *colonisation*.
2. How did the French Revolution influence the development of nationalism?
3. Explain why some nationalists could be supporters of imperialism while other nationalists opposed it.
4. Name two European countries that were unified during the nineteenth century.

Apply your understanding

5. Study **Source 1**.
   (a) Make a list of British colonies in Africa.
   (b) Make a list of British colonies in Asia and the Pacific.
   (c) List the colonies of the French Empire.
   (d) What was left of Spain's once great empire by 1914?
   (e) Where had Germany and Italy obtained colonies?
6. Until the mid-twentieth century there was a saying: 'The sun never sets on the British Empire'. What do you think this was supposed to mean?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 1.4: Nations become empires

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **European imperial expansion into Asia**
- **Imperialism and Africa**
- **Nationalism: Napoleon Bonaparte**
- **Nationalism: The Congress of Vienna**

1.7 Global population movements: slaves, convicts and migrants

1.7.1 Movements of people

During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries many millions of people moved from continent to continent. Vast numbers of slaves were moved by force from Africa to the Americas. Many thousands of people were transported as convicts, mainly from Britain and Ireland. At first convicts were sent to Britain's American colonies. After the American Revolution they were sent to Britain's Australian colonies. Many millions of Europeans and some Asians moved as free migrants to Australia and, in vastly greater numbers, to America.

1.7.2 Slaves

From the sixteenth century European slave traders transported African slaves to the Americas. It has been estimated that by the start of the seventeenth century one million African slaves had been transported to Spanish and Portuguese colonies in the Americas. From the mid seventeenth century the Dutch, British and French became the main transporters of African slaves to America.

Slave labour formed the backbone of the economies of British and French colonies in the Caribbean and Britain's southern colonies in North America. In 1775, when the American Revolution began, there were at least half a million African slaves in what became the southern states of the United States of America.

Abolition of slavery

In 1807, following a campaign led by William Wilberforce, the British Parliament abolished slave trading throughout the British Empire. Eight years later France also abolished the slave trade. However, these measures did nothing to change the lives of those who were already slaves or of their children who would be born into slavery. It was not until 1833 that Britain abolished slavery itself and ordered that all slaves throughout the empire be freed.

In the southern states of the United States, plantation owners profited from slave labour to produce cotton that was exported to British textile factories. Slavery was not abolished in the United States until the civil war between the industrial northern states and the southern 'slave states'. The war began in 1861, when the southern states attempted to **secede**. In 1863 President Abraham Lincoln issued his Emancipation Proclamation. It outlawed slavery but it could not actually free any slaves until the Union (northern) armies occupied the South. Slavery ended with the Union victory in 1865, but African Americans continued to suffer brutal oppression and discrimination in the southern states for another hundred years. Even today, many African Americans are among the most disadvantaged people in the United States.

SOURCE 1 A family of slaves, photographed on a plantation in South Carolina, United States, in 1862

SOURCE 2 A slave market, photographed in Atlanta, Georgia, United States, in 1864

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1808 the US government banned the importing of slaves into the United States, but it did not free the slaves who were already there. In several southern states slave-breeding programs were used to increase slave numbers.

1.7.3 Convicts

During the eighteenth century poverty and harsh laws resulted in many British and Irish people becoming convicts. Some convicts were violent criminals, but many more were ordinary people who were forced by poverty into committing small crimes. To try to reduce crime, the British government made almost 200 crimes punishable by death. Other crimes were punished by long prison sentences.

SOURCE 3 Some statistics on convicts from L. L. Robson, *The Convict Settlers of Australia*, 1965

	Male	Female
Percentage transported for crimes involving stealing	81	83
Percentage of first offenders	22	23
Percentage sentenced to seven years' transportation	51	74
Percentage sentenced to 10 years	7	8
Percentage sentenced to 14 years	11	8
Percentage sentenced for life	27	8
Native to England (per cent)	56	23
Native to Ireland (per cent)	32	34

Thousands of convicts had been sent to Britain's American colonies, but American independence ended that option. Prisons became terribly overcrowded, so many convicts were kept on rotting decommissioned ships called hulks. In 1786 the British government began to send convicts to New South Wales. It was considered a good place for a convict colony because the climate and soil were suitable and convicts would have nowhere to escape to.

The First British settlement in Australia was founded on 26 January 1788 at Sydney Cove. More than 160 000 men, women and children were sent as convicts to New South Wales and later, as they were founded, to other Australian colonies.

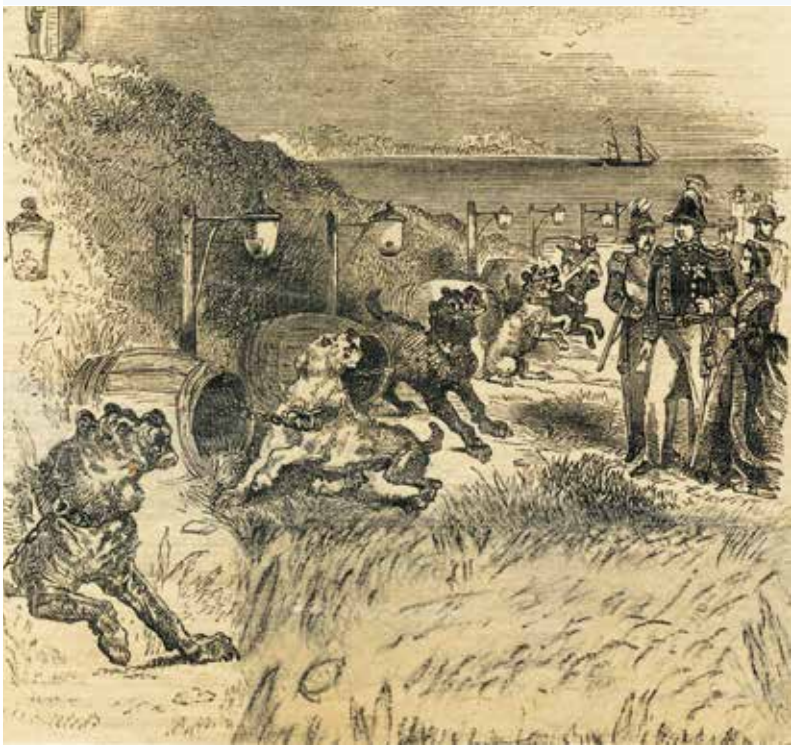
How were convicts treated?

On the voyage to Australia convicts were often treated brutally, being kept in chains, poorly fed and crowded together below decks. Conditions improved by the 1820s. When they arrived in Australia convicts entered a system that was like a lottery. Some who had useful skills were set free early, but others suffered great cruelty. Some convicts worked for the government and were free to work for themselves in their spare time. Others were assigned as servants to officers, free settlers and even ex-convicts. Whether they were treated well or badly depended on the person for whom they worked.

SOURCE 4 From the *Report of the Select Committee on Transportation*, presented in the British Parliament in 1838

> Transportation … is slavery as well; and the condition of the convict slave is frequently a very miserable one … he might be fortunate in obtaining a ticket of leave, or a conditional pardon, and finish his career by accumulating considerable wealth. Or he may be the wretched … slave of some harsh master, compelled by the lash to work.

SOURCE 5 A sketch of bloodhounds on Eaglehawk Neck, Tasmania, used to prevent the escape of convicts



Punishments and rewards

As punishment for wrongdoing during their sentences, convicts could be put into chain gangs, where they worked chained together, or sent to a secondary penal settlement. These settlements, such as Norfolk Island and Macquarie Harbour, were places of terrible suffering. The most common punishment was flogging with a vicious whip called the cat o' nine tails.

Convicts who behaved well or were lucky could receive a ticket-of-leave. This meant they could work for themselves during the remainder of their sentences. A convict who received a conditional pardon was free but could not leave the colony. A full pardon allowed an ex-convict to return home, although few could afford to do so.

1.7.4 Migrants

The main destination of free European migrants was the United States of America. Between 1830 and 1910 at least 26 million people, most of them poor Europeans, migrated to the United States. They included many Irish, who fled a terrible famine in the 1840s. Migrants also included many Germans, Italians, Poles, Czechs, Serbs, Croats and Jews from central or eastern Europe. They came to escape poverty and oppression at home, but they became cheap labour for America's factories, railways and mines, and tenants in America's growing urban slums.

1.7.5 Australia's changing population

The Australian colonies could not long remain large prisons. Ex-convicts, or emancipists as they were called, made up a significant part of the population, as did their children and the children of those still serving sentences. The first free settlers had been soldiers and officials. They were followed by wealthy free settlers attracted by land grants, free convict labour and profits from wool. From 1831 workers were also encouraged to migrate to provide the colonies with needed skills. The British government even helped them to migrate, at least partly because it feared many of the poor could become rebellious if they remained in Britain and Ireland. By 1851 convicts made up only 1.5 per cent of Australia's population.

The gold rushes brought a new influx of migrants. Sixty-seven thousand people arrived by ship in Port Phillip Bay during just the last six months of 1852. Between 1851 and 1861 Australia's population rose from 400 000 to 1.2 million. Immigration continued but at a much slower pace after the gold rushes. By 1901 Australia's population stood at just under 4 million.

SOURCE 6 A convict tramway, drawn in Australia and published in London in 1852

1.7 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Create a timeline of significant developments affecting slaves, convicts and migrants between 1775 and 1910.
2. Explain the following terms: assigned convicts; chain gangs; secondary penal settlements; tickets-of-leave; conditional pardons; full pardons.
3. Which countries were the main transporters of slaves from the mid seventeenth century?
4. Why did slavery continue in the British Empire even after Britain banned the slave trade in 1807?
5. For how long after the Emancipation Proclamation did African Americans continue to suffer?
6. Why did Britain send convicts to Australia?
7. During which part of the nineteenth century did Australia receive the most immigrants?
8. How many people migrated to the United States between 1830 and 1910?

Apply your understanding

9. Explain how you would use **Sources 1** and **2** as evidence of slavery in the United States.
10. Using **Source 3** for evidence, write a paragraph explaining the characteristics of the typical convict. For example, you could say that most convicts of both sexes were transported for theft.
11. How does **Source 4** support the view that the convict system was a lottery?
12. Work in small groups to decide on six questions that you would ask about **Sources 5** and **6** to use as evidence in an investigation of the experiences of convicts in Australia.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 1.5: Analysing statistics

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Movement of peoples**
- **Convict transportation to Australia**

1.8 Progressive ideas and movements

1.8.1 The influence of the French Revolution

Another development of great significance was the emergence of new ideas and movements that changed the ways many people thought. Several of these ideas and movements helped to create more free and fair societies in Europe during this period, and in later times they would inspire struggles for national liberation in Europe's colonies.

Only a small, privileged class of aristocrats had any say in government in the eighteenth century. The French Revolution temporarily overthrew that system but the old order was restored throughout Europe when the Revolution was defeated. Various movements struggled for more democracy, but they differed greatly on what 'democracy' meant and whether it also meant a more equal society.

1.8.2 Liberalism

Liberalism was the belief that people should be equal under the law and have individual liberties. Liberals also wanted free trade and a share in government. Most liberals were members of the growing middle

classes. However, while industrial growth increased the size and influence of the middle classes, it also increased the size of the industrial working class. Workers supported liberal demands, but they also wanted a say in government and reforms to improve their living standards.

In 1848 democratic revolutions broke out across Europe. At first they appeared to succeed, but in most places the old ruling classes soon regained power. One reason for their failure was that many liberals feared sharing power with the working class more than they hated the old rulers.

SOURCE 1 From Giuseppe Mazzini, an Italian nationalist who took part in the revolutions of 1848

… the people arose; not only in France, but in almost every country in Europe … They arose, at first, following and supporting those wealthier classes who had undertaken to fight … [but the people were] deceived by their leaders, who, as soon as they had acquired their own rights, turned against them …

1.8.3 The Chartist movement

Between 1837 and 1847 British workers attempted to improve their lives through political action. The Chartists drew up a petition to Parliament. Its demands included votes for all adult men, payment for members of Parliament and the abolition of property qualifications that prevented poorer men from standing for election to Parliament.

One and a half million people signed the first petition, but it was rejected by Parliament, which was controlled by the middle and upper classes. A general strike was called in protest but it was defeated because of high unemployment. An isolated revolt in Wales was brutally crushed by the government.

In 1841 three and half million people signed a second petition, which included demands for better wages and laws to improve factory conditions. Its rejection by Parliament triggered a wave of strikes before arrests and hunger forced people back to work. After a third petition was rejected in 1847, Chartism declined. However, most Chartist demands were achieved by the beginning of the twentieth century.

1.8.4 Socialism

There were many influential socialist thinkers in the nineteenth century. They shared a belief in greater economic and political equality. They believed this could be achieved only by workers owning and running enterprises collectively or by the state owning these enterprises on their behalf. Significant socialist thinkers included the British reformer Robert Owen and the French socialist Louis Blanc.

Marxism

Marxism is the name given to the ideas of Karl Marx, a nineteenth-century German philosopher. Marx believed that history was shaped by struggles between social classes. He predicted that revolutions throughout Europe would completely change societies. As the Industrial Revolution proceeded, those who had nothing but their ability to work — the **proletariat** — would overthrow the **bourgeoisie**. The workers would then create a socialist society in which wealth would be shared fairly. Marx thought that socialism would eventually lead to a stage of even greater equality that he called 'communism'. In 1917 a faction that described itself as Marxist seized power in Russia, but the system it introduced had little in common with the society Marx had imagined.

SOURCE 2 Statues of Karl Marx (seated) and Friedrich Engels (standing) in Berlin, Germany

SOURCE 3 From Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, *The Communist Manifesto*, 1848

Society as a whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps, into two great classes directly facing each other — the bourgeoisie and proletariat … The Communists … openly declare that their ends can only be attained by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions. Let the ruling classes tremble at a Communist revolution. The proletariat have nothing to lose but their chains. They have the world to win. Working men of all countries unite!

1.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain what you understand each of the following terms to mean: liberalism; socialism; Marxism.
2. Describe one reason for the failure of the 1848 revolutions in Europe.
3. What were the demands of the Chartists?
4. Why do you think the Chartists did not also demand votes for women?
5. What did Karl Marx mean by 'class struggle'?

Apply your understanding

6. In **Source 1** what does Mazzini say about the role of middle-class liberals in the 1848 revolutions?
7. Why would workers have felt betrayed by such liberal leaders in 1848?
8. Study **Sources 2** and **3.**
   (a) Why do you think *The Communist Manifesto* was published in 1848?
   (b) What changes that had taken place since 1750 led Marx to state, 'Society as a whole is more and more splitting up into two great hostile camps'?
   (c) The statue in **Source 2** was erected while East Germany was a communist state (from the late 1940s to 1989). Why do you think it remains in Berlin?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 1.6: Ideas on the move

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

› **Capitalism and socialism**

1.9 SkillBuilder: Understanding a historical debate

1.9.1 What is a historical debate?

One of the most important concepts in history is contestability. This means that many interpretations of the past are open to debate. Sometimes this is because of lack of evidence. At others it is because historians bring different perspectives to an investigation.

Why is it important to understand a historical debate?

Very often one interpretation of an event comes to be popularly accepted as the truth. It is thought to be the only possible interpretation. To better understand this issue, let's look at an example. In topic 8 you will study the First World War, including the Gallipoli campaign. But you will already be familiar with the story of the Anzac landing at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915 because it is commemorated every year in Australia on Anzac Day.

For much of the twentieth century, most Australians believed that the terrible losses Australian troops suffered during the landing and, to an extent, the failure of the Gallipoli campaign, resulted from the troops being landed at Ari Burnu, north of their intended landing place below Gaba Tepe. Charles Bean, Australia's official war historian during World War I, stated that the Anzacs were put ashore at the wrong place. He wrote that 'the carefully laid plans had been torn to shreds by the current that had carried the tows [landing craft] too far northward'. Other historians and most people in general accepted this view, believing that the soldiers failed to gain the territory needed for the campaign's success partly because of the landing error.

More recently, several historians have challenged that view. This is common in historical work, partly because historians writing soon after events do not always have all the evidence they need. For example, Bean could not draw on the military intelligence that went into planning the Gallipoli campaign because it was kept secret for 50 years.

1.9.2 How to understand a historical debate

To understand a historical debate we need to recognise how a new interpretation challenges an earlier argument. To do this we follow these steps:

1. Identify the main argument of the earlier interpretation.
2. Identify the main argument of the later interpretation and how it differs from the earlier interpretation.
3. Explain the details used to support the argument of the later interpretation.

Example

SOURCE 1 From Denis Winter, 'The Anzac landing — the great gamble?' in *Journal of the Australian War Memorial*, April 1984, pp. 15, 18

The problem to be resolved is whether the landing at Anzac was a simple piece of bad luck or whether it was part of Birdwood's plan … An unsuspected sea current provides the strongest point in favour of failure being due to factors beyond human control … But the case against the current is a strong one. Earlier work around the peninsula with submarines meant that the navy was well aware of swift currents around the landing point … the possibility of an unsuspected or unmeasurable current may be discounted …

Colonel W. R. McNicol … gave an address … on the anniversary of the landing, saying that the position attacked was identical with orders …

In this example, we can say the following:

1. The earlier interpretation (Bean) claimed that plans for the landing were undermined by currents that forced the troops' landing craft north of their intended landing place.
2. Winter argues that this is wrong because the Anzacs were landed where they were intended to be landed.
3. Winter supports his argument by pointing out that the Navy knew all about the strength of the currents and, a year later, an Australian officer stated that their landing position was as planned.

1.9.3 Developing my skills

Using the previous example, try applying the same steps to analyse the way that another interpretation, shown in **Source 2**, challenges views.

1. Identify the relevant arguments in Bean's and Winter's interpretations.
2. Identify the main argument of Roberts' interpretation and how it differs from these earlier interpretations.
3. Explain the details used to support Roberts' interpretation.

SOURCE 2 From Chris Roberts, 'The Landing at Anzac: a reassessment', in *Journal of the Australian War Memorial*, April 1993, pp. 27–9

Birdwood's aim of taking the Turkish defenders by surprise was achieved. A landing north of Gaba Tepe had not been expected and the small garrison defending Anzac Cove put up a brief resistance before fleeing inland … By about 5.00 a.m. the high ground overlooking Anzac Cove had been captured …

Therefore, there is little ground for claiming, as Bean concludes, that the misplaced landing was a major reason for the failure of the ANZAC assault to achieve its intended objective.

Indeed, there is strong evidence that the error was fortunate. Birdwood himself believed so. The strongest Turkish defences were at Gaba Tepe and these covered the original landing beach and its seaward approaches … Birdwood and others believed that heavy casualties would have been experienced had the landing gone as planned.

SOURCE 3 *The beach at Anzac*, painted by war artist Frank Crozier in 1919

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 1.7: Understanding historical debate

1.10 Review

1.10.1 Review

In this Overview we have looked at some of the big changes that took place in the period from 1750 to 1918. Chief among these changes were: the Industrial Revolution; the spread of imperialism, including a final wave of empire building in Africa, the Pacific and South-East Asia; the mass movement of people through slavery, convict transportation and migration; and the emergence of ideas and movements aimed at creating a better world.

KEY TERMS

absolute monarch a ruler who governs alone, unrestrained by laws or constitution
bourgeoisie capitalist middle classes; the owners of the means of production, distribution and exchange — that is, factories, shipping, banks and other businesses
constitution rules for government
depose remove from power
divine right chosen by God to rule
Estates General representatives elected by the three French Estates
feudal dues obligations and payments imposed on peasants since the Middle Ages
guillotine device designed to execute people by decapitation (cutting off their heads)
Levée en masse mass conscription, forcing people to fight to defend the state
nobles aristocrats, a hereditary privileged class just below a monarch
picket a line of workers formed to stop strike-breakers entering a workplace
proletariat the working classes, especially industrial wage-earners
radicals those who advocate far-reaching political and social changes
republic a form of government that relies on popular representation rather than a monarchy
sans-culottes in revolutionary France, working-class people of the cities
secede break away to form a separate country
serfs peasants who were bound to the land they worked. In Russia they could be bought and sold by the landowner.
track gauge the distance between the two parallel tracks of a railway line
tsar the absolute ruler of the Russian Empire

1.10 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz online only

Short answer quiz

1. Name two new types of sources of evidence that emerged during this period.
2. Name two empires that included several countries within Europe.
3. What colonies did Britain gain and what did it lose in North America in the late eighteenth century?
4. Under the French ancien regime, who made up each of the three Estates?
5. What was the Reign of Terror during the French Revolution?
6. Why were many factories at first located near streams during the British Industrial Revolution?
7. For how many hours in a week did most factory employees work by the 1860s?
8. What were the main aims of trade unions?
9. What was changed in Australia by the Overland Telegraph?

10. Describe the two kinds of nationalism that emerged in Australia during the nineteenth century.
11. What were two motives for European imperialism?
12. Which South-East Asian countries were claimed as part of the French and British empires during the nineteenth century?
13. When was slavery abolished in the British and French empires and in the United States?
14. How many convicts were transported to Australia?
15. What were the aims of the Chartists?

Apply your understanding

16. What ideas motivated Europeans to interfere in the affairs of China (as shown in **Sources 1** and **2**) and other Asian countries?
17. What do you think the men in **Source 1** would have understood about their small role in the imperial venture?
18. (a) How do you think the British and other imperialist powers justified the event shown in **Source 2**?
    (b) How do you think such events might have contributed to the rise of Chinese nationalism?
19. Do you think we would know much about events like that in **Source 2** without photographic evidence? Give reasons for your answer.
20. Form small groups to research the life and ideas of one of the following nineteenth-century thinkers:
    (a) Adam Smith
    (b) Louis Blanc
    (c) Giuseppe Mazzini
    (d) Karl Marx
    (e) Charles Darwin.

SOURCE 1 A group of Australians who fought in the Australian Naval Contingent in China in 1900. The contingent was sent to help the imperialist powers, including Britain, Germany, Russia, the United States and Japan, to suppress the Boxer Rebellion in China.

SOURCE 2 Boxer prisoners beheaded in China in 1900. The Boxers were a group of Chinese who launched a rebellion against foreign interference in China. They killed Christians and besieged the British Legation (embassy). An international force from the imperial powers crushed the rebellion. The British arranged the execution of many Boxer leaders. Massacres and other atrocities were committed by the international force.

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Go online to access additional end of topic resources such as interactivities and printable worksheets.

Try out this interactivity: The making of the modern world timeline (int-2961)

Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 1.8: Crossword
Worksheet 1.9: Summing up
Worksheet 1.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic, several big questions were posed. Use the knowledge you have gained to answer these questions.

1. What changes took place in movements of people across the world between 1750 and 1918?
2. How did technology contribute to change?
3. How did new ideas contribute to change?
4. How, where and why did colonisation by European empires take place, and what was its impact?

TOPIC 2 The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914): (I) Technology and progress

NOTE TO TEACHERS AND STUDENTS:

Due to the range and complexity of the curriculum content, the Depth Study *The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914)* is covered over two topics. Teachers should select the material from both topics that best meets the needs of their students, rather than attempting to cover all the content from both topics.

2.1 Overview

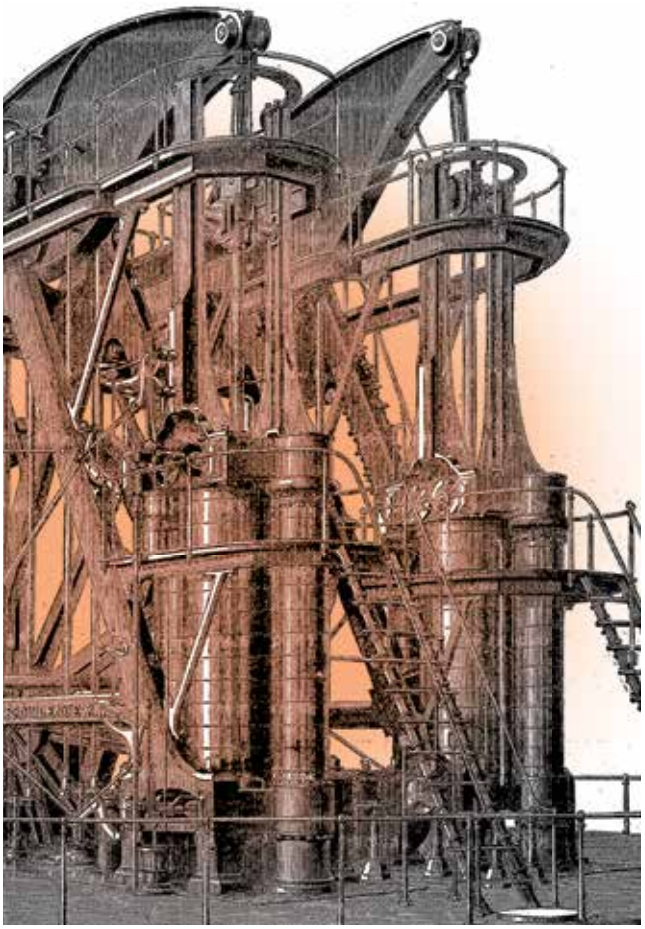
Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

2.1.1 Links with our times

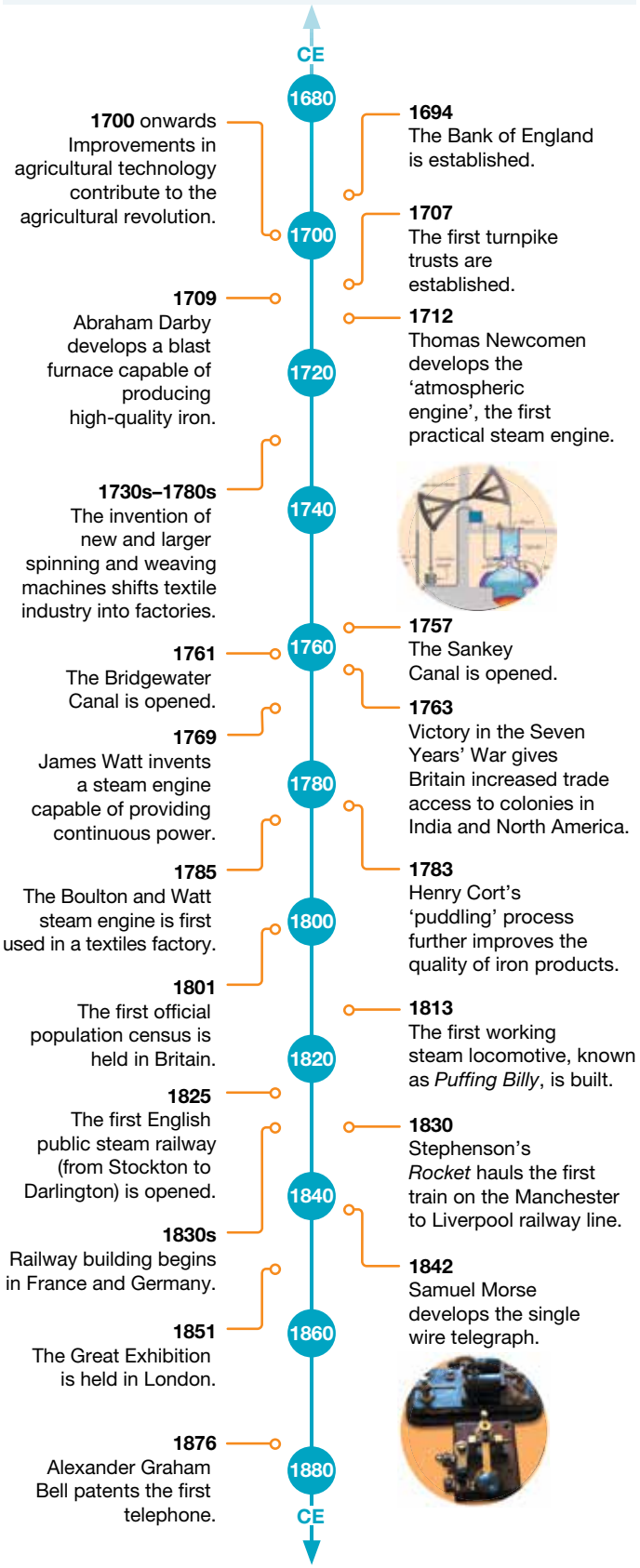
It is said that today we are living through a technological revolution that has dramatically changed the way we communicate and process information. The telephone was invented in 1872 and remained largely unchanged until the arrival of mobile phone technology in the 1980s. Since the late 1990s the development of smartphone technology, touch screens, and the ability to capture and transmit images has revolutionised the way we communicate with one another.

For most of you these changes may not seem very revolutionary. But your parents and grandparents used old-style landline telephones most of their lives. To them, the modern mobile phone and its huge variety of applications represents a communications revolution that has taken less than twenty years to occur.

SOURCE 1 The invention of the steam engine was a major factor in the progress of the Industrial Revolution.



SOURCE 2 A timeline of technology and progress during the Industrial Revolution



What do we mean when we speak of the Industrial Revolution? What is a revolution? Most historians think of a revolution as a time of very rapid change. Historical change usually takes place through a series of small steps that can be easily understood by people living through the time. Every now and then change speeds up and, within a generation or less, old ways of doing things disappear. These old methods are superseded by completely new and unfamiliar ones that have not been used before.

To the people of the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the changes that took place in manufacturing, transport, agriculture, trade and living conditions were every bit as revolutionary as the technological changes that are happening all around us today.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. In what ways did developments in agriculture during the eighteenth century contribute to the Industrial Revolution?
2. What major technological innovations contributed to the progress of the Industrial Revolution?
3. In what ways was Britain in 1850 dramatically different from Britain in 1750?
4. Why did the Industrial Revolution begin in Britain, rather than in any other country?

Starter questions

1. What do you think are the main differences between industrial and agricultural societies?
2. From what you know of different countries around the world, list those you would consider to be industrialised and those you would consider to be primarily agricultural.
3. Aside from communications, what other examples of rapid change can we see in the world today?
4. What do we mean by *progress*? Is progress always a positive thing?

2.2 How do we know about the Industrial Revolution?

2.2.1 Why industrial 'revolution'?

In this topic we will look at the great technological changes that took place in Britain during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. These changes completely reshaped the way in which food, clothing and other necessities were produced. New materials and sources of power, along with new forms of transport, transformed a society that had not changed dramatically since the Middle Ages. This transformation is the source of many of the features of our way of life today. Britain provided an inspiration for the other countries of Europe and North America, which soon experienced industrial revolutions of their own. In more recent times, countries such as China and India are making their own transitions to modern industrialised nations.

The term *Industrial Revolution* was first popularised by the English historian Arnold Toynbee in the late 1870s and early 1880s. Historians such as Toynbee looked at the society in which they lived and compared it with what they knew of English society a little over a hundred years earlier. To these observers the nature and speed of the changes they documented were 'revolutionary' because they brought about radical changes in the way many people lived. So how do we know about the changes that occurred during the period in history known as the Industrial Revolution?

2.2.2 Inventions and patents

Early in the eighteenth century, farming in Britain was carried out largely as it had been for hundreds of years. The processing and manufacture of goods took place on a small scale in local villages and small towns. By the middle of the nineteenth century, new methods of crop management, **animal husbandry** and new inventions had completely transformed the agricultural landscape. Clothing and other goods were no longer made by hand in homes or small workshops but in factories using large machines. We know about these changes because the creators of new inventions took out **patents** on their inventions. Patents could be issued only when the inventor submitted a full written description of their invention, and many of these descriptions survive today. By the mid nineteenth century, steam was driving machinery of all types. We can trace the development of steam power by examining the models of early steam engines that still exist, and the diagrams and descriptions submitted by their inventors when applying for patents.

2.2.3 Contemporary writers

Many of the creators of new farming methods wrote books and pamphlets publicising their methods. Other writers of the time wrote first-hand accounts of the improvements in agriculture they had observed. By the mid nineteenth century, writers were also commenting on working conditions in newly built factories and life in the rapidly growing cities. Clearly, some very dramatic changes had occurred within people's lifetimes, and writers of the time were keen to document these changes.

2.2.4 Census figures

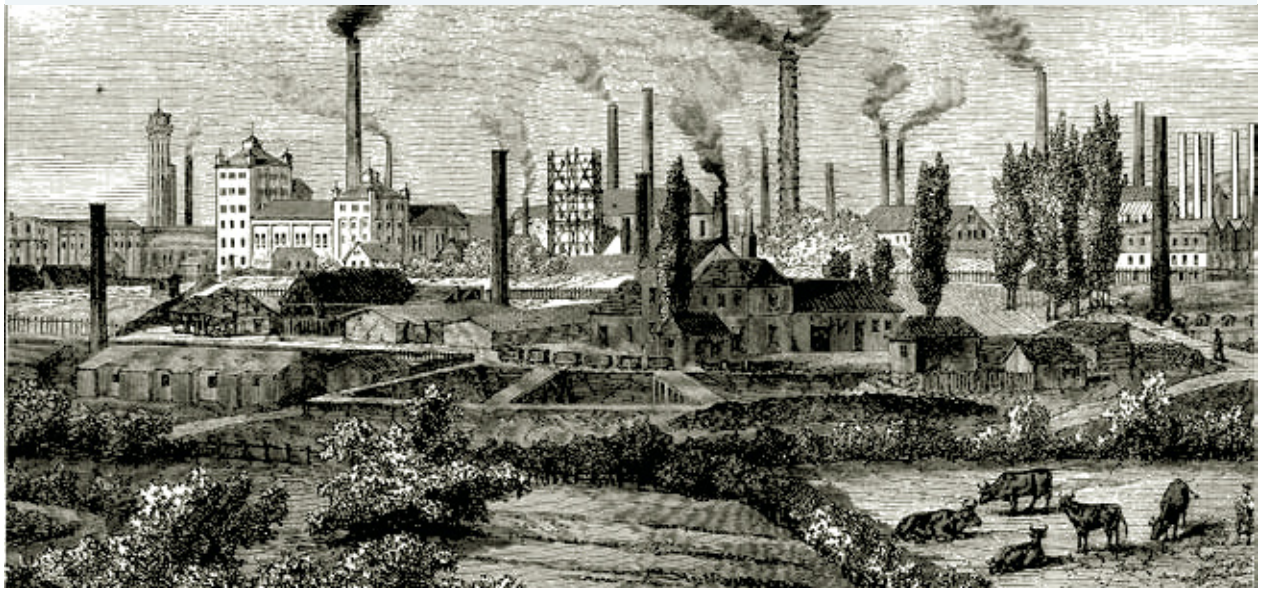
When the first complete population census of England and Wales was taken in 1801, the population was measured at 8.8 million. By 1881 the population had virtually tripled to 25.9 million. Never before in history had population growth on this scale been recorded over such a relatively short period of time. These same census figures show a change from a predominantly **rural population**, engaged mainly in farming, to an **urban population**, engaged mainly in employment in manufacturing.

2.2.5 Paintings and drawings

In the eighteenth century, British artists were famous for producing paintings of country landscapes. By the early nineteenth century, artists began to record scenes of the new industrial towns that accompanied the

Industrial Revolution. These often contrasted dramatically with the peaceful calm of the country scenes, showing billowing smoke from factory chimneys and the busy activity of the industrial town. Changes in transport, such as the development of railways, also attracted the attention of artists. Many paintings and drawings were produced to celebrate these new developments.

SOURCE 1 Contemporary artists depicted the growth of factory production, located in large towns.



SOURCE 2 A drawing of the opening of the first British railway line in 1825

2.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What sort of significant changes are evident in population census figures for nineteenth-century Britain?
2. How can the work of writers and artists inform us of the types of changes occurring during the Industrial Revolution?

Apply your understanding

3. Examine **Source 1**. What evidence is there in this picture of the types of changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution?
4. What impression of the new industrial towns do you believe the artist of **Source 1** was trying to create for viewers of this work?
5. What evidence can you see in **Source 2** that a completely new form of transport was being celebrated?
6. Using examples from the information provided in this subtopic, explain why late nineteenth-century historians believed the changes of the previous hundred years were a revolution.

2.3 The agricultural revolution

2.3.1 Traditional open-field farming

At the time of the Industrial Revolution major changes in farming practices were already occurring throughout Britain. These changes completely revolutionised agriculture. Increases in farm production provided food for the growing population, particularly the expanding urban workforce.

The traditional open-field village was based on **subsistence farming**, producing only enough food for its inhabitants, who were peasants or tenants of the landowner. It usually involved the rotation of different activities across three large fields. One field would carry a crop of wheat or rye, and one a crop of barley, while one would be allowed to lie **fallow**. Each year the crops would be rotated, so each field would lie fallow for one year in every three. Each village household was allotted a number of strips in each field. These would usually be spread out so that everyone had equal access to the best land. There was also an open area of common land where everyone had the right to graze livestock and collect firewood. Grazing also took place in the fallow field, helping to fertilise it, making it ready for planting the following year.

SOURCE 1 Three-field rotation meant that one-third of the land would lie idle each year.

A Wheat or rye B Barley C Fallow

Disadvantages of the open-field system

The open-field system had worked well for centuries, and in 1750 about half of all farming in England still relied on this approach. But the system had a number of disadvantages.

- It was very inefficient because:
  - one-third of the land was left unplanted each year
  - pathways separating the strips of land were not used for crops
  - time was wasted when each farmer had to look after a number of strips scattered across the different fields.
- Weeds and animal diseases could spread easily when everyone was sharing so much of the available land.
- There was very little opportunity to try new crops or new methods, because everyone had to grow the same crops and work together.

2.3.2 Enclosure

The agricultural revolution involved three main developments:

- enclosure of the open fields
- the adoption of new techniques of farming
- the change to a more business-oriented approach to farming.

Enclosure involved the consolidation of open fields into single farms, owned by one farmer, and separated from neighbouring farms by hedges or low stone walls. This process had begun as early as the sixteenth century, when some wealthy landowners began to enclose their land, voiding the rights of peasant farmers to pursue their traditional strip farming. If the newly enclosed farm was large enough, it could be subdivided and smaller farms leased out to these same peasants. The peasants were forced either to become paid employees on the enclosed farm or to seek work in nearby towns. Enclosure gave the farmer/landowner greater control over the total area of the farm; less productive land was wasted, and animals were kept separate from neighbours' livestock.

SOURCE 2 Stone walls were often used to enclose farms during the eighteenth century.

2.3.3 Adoption of new techniques of farming

Increased control over their farms and stock allowed farmers to adopt new, more efficient methods of farming. These included the following.

Jethro Tull's seed drill

Traditionally seed was scattered by hand into ploughed furrows. This often meant a lot of wastage as the wind could blow much of the seed away or birds could eat it. In 1700, agricultural inventor Jethro Tull developed a horse-drawn seed drill that could plant three rows of seed at a time. A hole would be drilled for seeds to be dropped in, the hole covered and the drill moved forward to the next planting position. It is estimated that this invention produced a five times bigger crop for the same area of land than had been achieved using the old methods.

SOURCE 3 Jethro Tull's seed drill, as seen in this nineteenth-century illustration, revolutionised the planting of crops in England.

The Rotherham plough

In 1730 Joseph Foljambe patented the Rotherham triangular plough. This plough had an iron blade and was lighter and easier to handle than the rectangular wooden ploughs that had been used previously. Instead of being drawn by a team of four oxen, and requiring both a ploughman and an ox driver, the Rotherham plough could be drawn by two horses and handled by one person. The Rotherham plough proved to be quicker and more efficient, and significantly reduced costs for farmers.

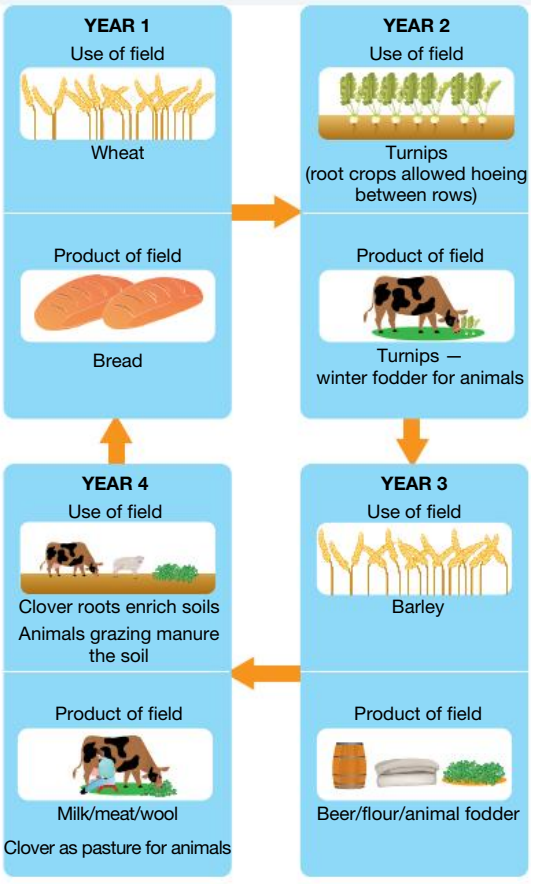
SOURCE 4 Traditional ploughing required a team of four or more oxen, an ox driver and a ploughman to operate the heavy rectangular wooden plough as shown in this artwork based on fourteenth-century illustrations.

SOURCE 5 The Rotherham plough, developed in 1730, could be operated by one ploughman and two horses as shown in this twentieth-century artwork.

Changes in crop rotation methods

As the open fields were enclosed, new systems of crop rotation were introduced. The most successful of these was the four-crop rotation system introduced on his own estates by Lord Charles Townshend, or 'Turnip' Townshend as he became known. His farm was divided into four fields, with wheat in the first, turnips in the second, barley in the third, and clover in the fourth. Each year the crops would be rotated by one field, so that in the second year, the first field would contain clover, the second wheat, the third turnips and the fourth barley. This rotation continued over a four-year cycle. The planting of clover and turnips following the crops of wheat and barley helped replace nutrients in the soil, and therefore helped produce better crops the following year. The clover was used as a nutritious summer food for livestock, while turnips could be fed to animals in winter. This meant that livestock no longer needed to be slaughtered before each winter, as had traditionally been the case.

SOURCE 6 Four-crop rotation in one field



Improved stock breeding methods

Farmers such as Robert Bakewell began selective breeding of sheep and cattle. Only the largest and strongest animals were mated, and this produced offspring with the best characteristics. Bakewell also cross-bred different types of sheep to produce the best breeds for both wool and meat production. His New Leicester breed, introduced in 1755, proved to be a great success.

2.3.4 A business approach to farming

Before the eighteenth century, farming activity was mainly directed towards satisfying local food and clothing needs. Any produce left over could be sold or traded at markets, but this would entail only a small proportion of farming output. The great improvements of the agricultural revolution not only increased the amount of food available to the farmers and their workers, but provided increasing surpluses that could be sold to feed the growing urban population. The rural population grew very slowly, but the output per person employed in agriculture rose dramatically. Exporting grain to other countries also brought profits to farmers who were prepared to innovate and embrace new methods of production.

SOURCE 7 New Leicester sheep were bred by Robert Bakewell. Can you see why they were successful for both wool and meat production?

DID YOU KNOW?

The agricultural revolution produced great improvements in the quantity and quality of both crops and livestock. In 1705 England exported 150 million kilograms of wheat, but by 1765 this had risen to 1235 million kilograms. In 1710 sheep sold at market weighed an average 13 kilograms, while cattle weighed an average 167 kilograms. By 1795 this had risen to 36 kilograms for sheep and 360 kilograms for cattle.

2.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain how the traditional three-field rotation system worked.
2. What impact did the enclosure of farms (see **Source 2**) have on the peasants and tenant farmers who had previously worked the land?
3. Outline the contribution of each of the following people to the improvements in agriculture in England in the eighteenth century:
   (a) Jethro Tull
   (b) Joseph Foljambe
   (c) 'Turnip' Townshend
   (d) Robert Bakewell.
4. Explain why each of the following innovations could only have occurred after the enclosure of farms:
   (a) the four-field crop rotation system
   (b) selective breeding of animals.

Apply your understanding

5. Compare the different methods of ploughing depicted in **Sources 4** and **5**. Explain two ways by which using the Rotherham plough could have reduced costs for the farmer.
6. By comparing **Source 1** with **Source 6**, explain how the enclosure of farming land might have overcome the disadvantages of the open field system.
7. The Industrial Revolution relied on the availability of an urban workforce to work in factories. Identify and explain two ways in which the agricultural revolution supported the growth of such a workforce.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.1: Open fields are closed

2.4 The population explosion

2.4.1 Before the eighteenth century

The period of the agricultural and industrial revolutions saw rapid population growth throughout Great Britain, but particularly in England and Wales. Improved farming methods appear to have been one cause of the population explosion that occurred between 1750 and 1850. The increase in population provided a ready workforce for newly industrialised factory production.

Population figures for most of Great Britain before the nineteenth century are estimates only, as the first official census was not held until 1801. The best information suggests that population levels had moved up and down dramatically between 1300 and 1700. From a high of close to 6 million people in 1300, the influence of the **Black Death** and years of **famine** had seen the population depleted to around 2 million by 1500. During the sixteenth century the population appears to have doubled, but it grew more slowly during the first half of the seventeenth century, reaching only about 5 million by 1650. Disease epidemics such as the Great Plague of the 1660s had caused the population to level out during the second half of the seventeenth century and, by 1700, it remained at about 5 million.

SOURCE 1 The Black Death, which struck Europe in the late 1340s, kept the population low in Britain for centuries, as shown in this seventeenth-century engraving.

2.4.2 Early eighteenth-century growth

The British population began to increase steadily again during the first half of the eighteenth century, reaching six million by the late 1750s. Eradication of the plague and improvements in medical science saw a fall in the death rate. By mid century the changes in agriculture had begun to have an impact, increasing the supply of good-quality food capable of feeding a larger population. Dietary deficiency diseases such as **scurvy** and **rickets** declined as food quality improved, leading also to a decline in the **infant mortality rate**.

DID YOU KNOW?

Bubonic plague, or the Black Death, was caused by bacteria carried by a flea that was a parasite of the black rat. Its eradication in England after the 1660s is said to have occurred because of the arrival in England of the larger brown rat. Brown rats, which did not carry the disease-causing flea, soon drove the black rats out of their habitat.

SOURCE 2 Edward Jenner pioneered vaccination against smallpox in 1796, as shown in this nineteenth-century artwork.

SOURCE 3 Population growth in England and Wales, 1761–1881

Year	Population
1761	6 146 000
1781	7 042 000
1801	8 893 000
1821	12 000 000
1841	15 914 000
1861	20 066 000
1881	25 974 000

Source: From J. Gardiner and N. Wenborn (eds), *The History Today Companion to British History*, London, 1995, p. 610

The population explosion

The population really took off in Britain after 1760, doubling over the next sixty years, and doubling again in the following sixty years (see **Source 3**). Agricultural improvements meant that good crops could be relied on every year, removing fears of periodic famine that had been common for centuries. Fresh meat was now available in winter; cheaper potatoes could be eaten all year round, and dairy produce such as butter and cheese was enjoyed more widely. In the latter part of the eighteenth century vaccination against diseases such as smallpox began to reduce deaths from infectious diseases. The widespread use of child labour in factories and mines in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries appears to have encouraged many families to have more children as a means of increasing family income.

SOURCE 4 As seen in this artwork from 1840, all members of a family, including mothers and children, were often employed in English textile factories.

2.4.3 Impact of the population explosion

The Industrial Revolution saw small-scale domestic production superseded by factory production. The rapid growth in population provided a market for the products of these new factories, with cheap clothing readily available because of improvements in textile production. The growing demand provided incentives for the owners of factories to increase production and improve their methods. The population explosion also provided a workforce to work in these factories. While wages were not high (see topic 3), if all members of the family were employed, they could earn enough to provide for the basic essentials of food, clothing and shelter.

2.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why did population levels in Britain fluctuate widely between 1300 and 1700? Refer to **Source 1** in your answer.
2. Identify and explain three factors that caused the population to rise steadily after 1700.

Apply your understanding

3. Using **Source 3** and other information in the subtopic, construct a graph depicting population growth in England and Wales between the years 1701 and 1881. You may use a bar graph or a line graph; make sure your graph is to scale.
4. What conclusions can you draw from **Source 4** about the conditions experienced by women and children working in factories?
5. If you were the owner of a clothing factory in eighteenth-century Britain, explain two ways in which a growing population might assist you to expand your business.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.2: Cause and effect wheel

2.5 Power: from horses, wind and water to steam

2.5.1 Horse power

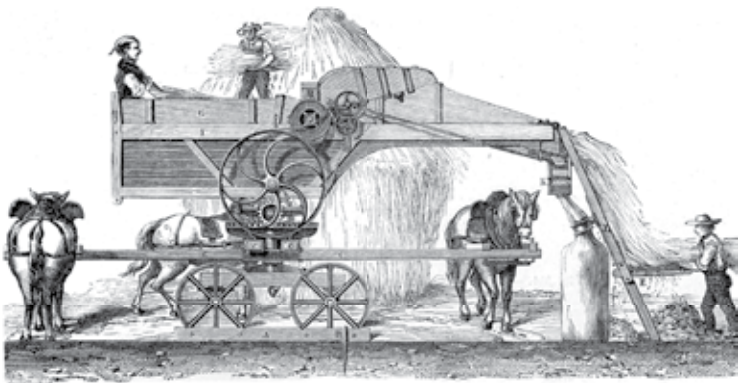
The early years of the Industrial Revolution relied on traditional sources to provide power for agricultural use, for machinery in factories and for transport. With the development of a viable steam engine, steam power rapidly replaced horse, wind and water power.

The oldest form of power available to humans was their own physical muscle power. Horses, donkeys and oxen had been used as beasts of burden since ancient times, and were still commonly used in the eighteenth century. Long-distance travel was usually carried out on horseback or in a horse-drawn cart or carriage. Poor people who did not own a horse tended not to travel more than a day's walk from their homes. Carts drawn by teams of oxen were used to transport goods over long distances, and teams of oxen had been used for centuries to plough the fields.

Horses in agriculture and mining

With the coming of the agricultural and industrial changes of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, there was a continuing reliance on horses as a source of power. For example, the horse-powered threshing machine was used to separate grain from the stalks and husks of the wheat plant (see **Source 1**). This machine was invented in 1784 by a Scotsman, Andrew Meikle. Small ponies, known as pit ponies, were used to haul carts full of coal in underground

SOURCE 1 Andrew Meikle's threshing machine, shown in this engraving from c. 1850, is an example of a horse-powered machine.



coalmines. Canal boats or barges used to move goods were hauled along by horses walking along tow-paths on the canal bank (see **Source 2**).

SOURCE 2 Barges were towed along canals by horses as shown in this c. 1880 artwork.

2.5.2 Water power

Water power had been used in England since ancient Roman times. A water wheel with blades or buckets around its rim would be driven by flowing water, usually from a swiftly flowing stream or river (see **Source 3**). The power generated by the turning water wheel was used to mill grain into flour. Early sawmills used water wheels to power large circular saws. Many of the first textile mills in England were powered by water, with the force of the water sufficient to drive machines in multi-storey factory buildings.

SOURCE 3 A medieval flour mill with water wheel

SOURCE 4 Richard Arkwright's Masson Mill on the Derwent River in Derbyshire, which was powered by a giant water wheel.

2.5.3 Wind power

Like water power, wind power had been used in England for centuries. The wind had been used to drive ships since ancient times, and sailing ships were the standard form of sea transport for several hundred years until the mid nineteenth century. Windmills were introduced to England in the twelfth century. They were used primarily for milling grain to make flour, and later to drive pumps to drain surplus water from marshlands.

SOURCE 5 This sixteenth-century English windmill was used to mill grain into flour.

2.5.4 Steam power

One of the most significant advances of the Industrial Revolution was the development of steam power. While the potential of using steam to provide power had been known for centuries, the first practical steam engine was the 'atmospheric engine' developed by Thomas Newcomen in 1712 (see **Source 6**). This machine used steam to drive a piston, which powered a large horizontal beam. The Newcomen atmospheric engine was used primarily to pump surplus water out of underground mines, particularly coalmines.

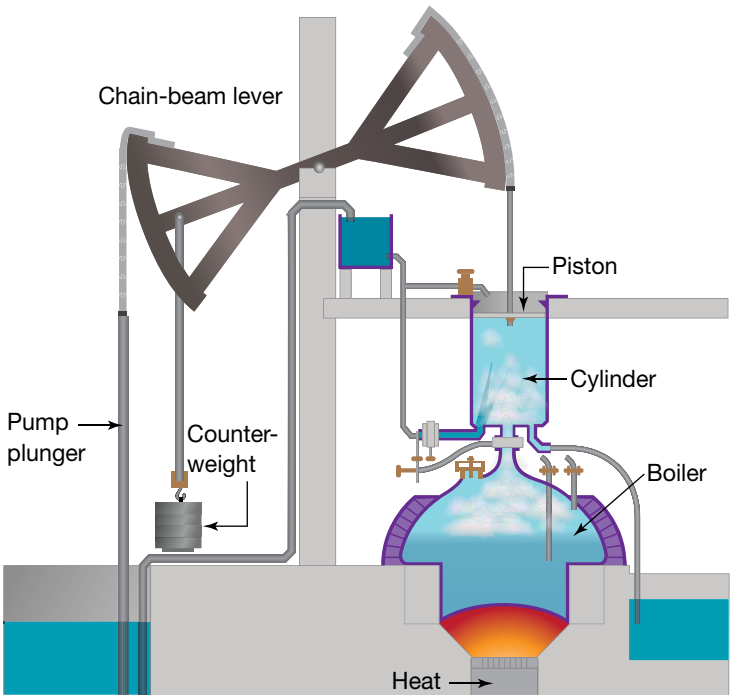
Steam power in coalmines

The Newcomen engine was a huge step forward because it allowed underground coalmines to be sunk to greater depths. Removing excess water had always been one of the barriers to deep-pit mining, and so had restricted the amount and quality of coal that could be extracted (see subtopic 2.7). The coalmining industry really took off from the mid eighteenth century. As the Industrial Revolution gathered pace, coal would prove to be a very important fuel.

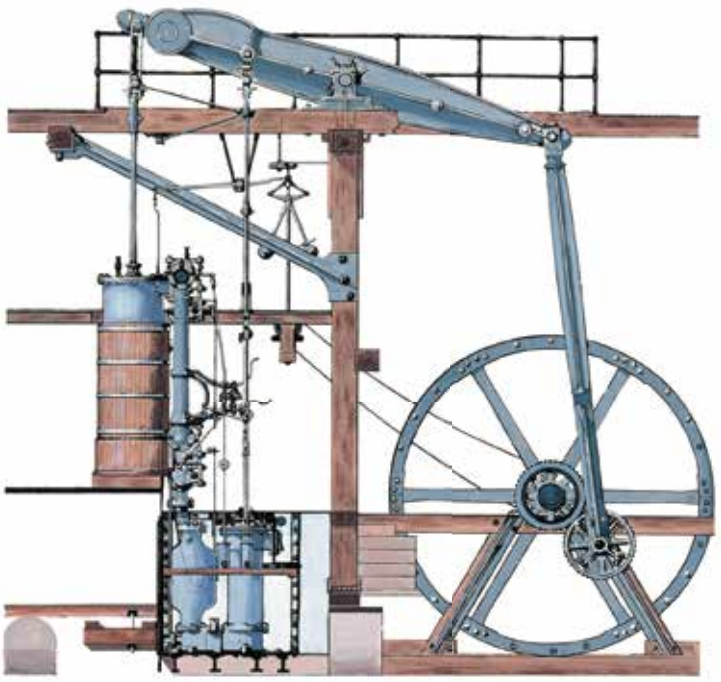
James Watt's steam engine

The next big step forward was James Watt's steam engine, developed about 1769. Watt produced an engine that had a separate compartment for cooling the steam back to water, after it had been used to drive a piston. Instead of driving a large beam, Watt's steam engine powered a large flywheel, so it could provide the same type of continuous power that had previously been possible only with a water wheel. This meant the steam engine sold by Watt and his partner, Matthew Boulton, could be used to power many different types of machinery (see **Source 7**).

SOURCE 6 The Newcomen steam engine drove a large beam that worked a pump to remove water from underground mines.



SOURCE 7 The Boulton and Watt steam engine drove a large wheel that could be used to power many different types of machines.



As we shall see later in this topic, the development of the steam engine was to be a pivotal event in the Industrial Revolution. Steam engines were able to power larger and larger machines, which in turn led to bigger factories. Their successful use in coalmines saw coal replace wood as the major fuel source. Steam was to revolutionise both land and sea transport in the nineteenth century as railways and steam-driven ships came into use.

DID YOU KNOW?

James Watt developed the idea of 'horsepower' as a unit of measurement of power. His original calculations compared the power of a steam engine with the work done by horses in providing power to drive machines. The term is still used today to measure the output of many different types of engines. The 'watt', as a unit of energy, was named after him.

SOURCE 8 Artwork of factories in the English city of Manchester, c.1840

2.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Identify and explain two examples of the use of animals as a source of power that continued even after the agricultural and industrial changes of the eighteenth century.
2. Referring to **Sources 3** and **4**, explain how water was used to drive factory machines.
3. Explain the contribution to the Industrial Revolution of Newcomen's steam engine.

Apply your understanding

4. While it worked well for the milling of grain (see **Source 5**), why might wind power have been unsuitable for driving machinery in factories?
5. What does **Source 4** tell us about the limitations of water as a means of driving factory machines?
6. Compare **Sources 6** and **7**, and explain how Watt's improvements to the steam engine would have increased the usefulness of steam as a source of power.
7. What does **Source 8** tell us about the main form of power in Manchester, England, in the mid nineteenth century?
8. Many historians claim that the Industrial Revolution did not really take off until steam power was widely used. Identify and explain three major contributions that steam power would have made to the Industrial Revolution.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.3: The power revolution

2.6 Making textiles: from home to factory

2.6.1 The traditional textile industry

Historians generally agree that it was the textile industry, and particularly the cotton industry, that was the main driver of the Industrial Revolution. During the second half of the eighteenth century the production of cotton textiles changed from being a **cottage industry** to a factory-based enterprise.

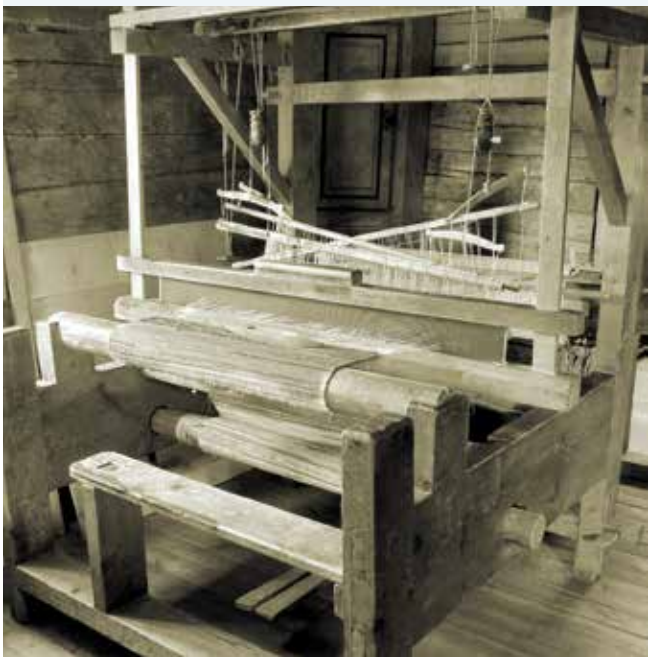
Textile production had been an important part of the English economy for centuries, but the emphasis was mainly on woollen goods. Cotton cloth was produced only in small quantities, as English cotton producers could not compete in quality or price with imported cloth from India. Until the eighteenth century, textile production was a cottage industry, carried out by farmers and agricultural workers in their homes after normal working hours. Children would clean and prepare the raw fibres, women would spin the yarn, and men would weave the cloth. Raw wool was sourced from English sheep, while raw cotton came largely from America where it was grown by slaves (see topic 4), the West Indies and the eastern Mediterranean area.

Raw fibre was delivered to villages by merchants, who later collected the finished products, and paid the villagers for their work. Traditional textile production is described in **Sources 1, 2,** and **3**.

SOURCE 1 Traditional textile production — step 1
In traditional textile production, the rough fibres were first manually **carded**, using two hand-held paddles to untangle and straighten the fibres.

SOURCE 2 Traditional textile production — step 2
The fibres were spun into thread using a **spinning** wheel.

SOURCE 3 Traditional textile production – step 3
The thread could then be woven into cloth on a hand loom, by passing a shuttle carrying a thread (known as the **weft**) horizontally through fixed vertical threads (known as the **warp**).



2.6.2 Innovation in the textile industry

Early innovations in the textile industry applied to both cotton and woollen production, but the period after the 1750s saw a greater demand for cotton products. This was due to an increased foreign market for cotton goods, particularly in Europe, and increases in population and domestic incomes. With the domestic-based industry no longer able to meet this demand, inventors began to develop spinning and weaving machines to improve both the quantity and quality of cloth produced.

Spinners and weavers

Traditionally, one weaver required three or four spinners to provide enough yarn for his loom. After John Kay's flying shuttle (see **Source 4**), patented in 1733, made weaving more efficient, it required the output of as many as a dozen spinners to supply the necessary yarn for one weaver. As the flying shuttle came to be used more widely during and after the 1750s, it became clear that a more efficient method of spinning was needed. The development of the spinning jenny in the 1760s responded to this need (see **Source 5**). Early models were able to spin eight spindles of yarn simultaneously, and later models were able to hold more than 100 spindles at one time.

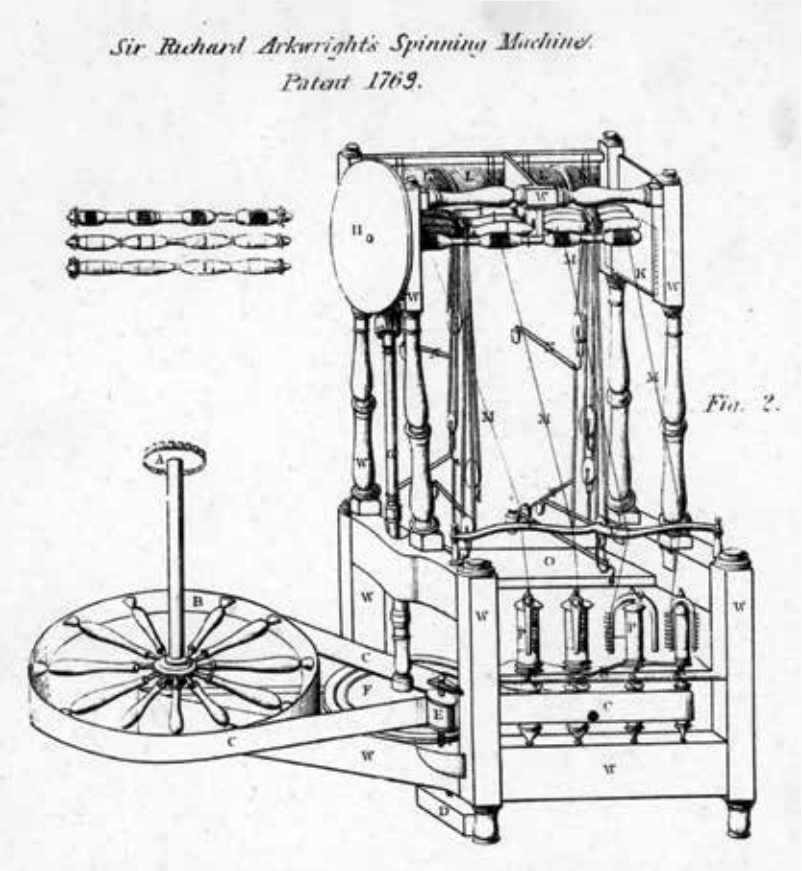
The move to factory production

The new spinning and weaving machines had outgrown the cottages of spinners and weavers. Larger buildings were needed to house them, and textile production began to be moved into specialised factories, known as cotton mills. By the 1780s all stages of textile manufacture were becoming centralised in mills, particularly in the growing towns of Lancashire in northern England. **Sources 4, 5, 6, 7,** and **8** show the progress made in the textile industry over 50 years.

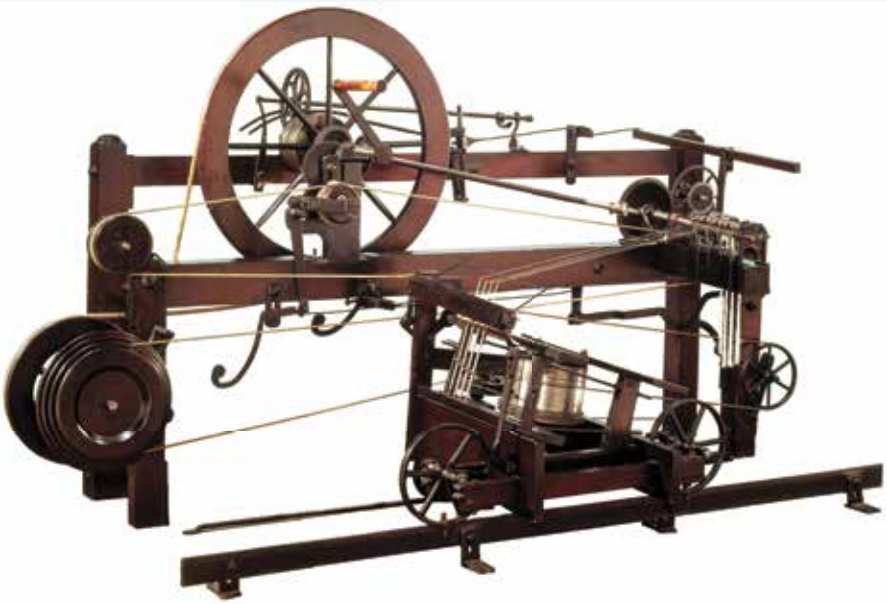
SOURCE 4 Innovation in the textile industry — 1733
John Kay invented the flying shuttle, which allowed weaving to be performed more quickly.

SOURCE 5 Innovation in the textile industry — 1764
James Hargreaves developed the spinning jenny, which could spin multiple threads simultaneously.

SOURCE 6 Innovation in the textile industry — 1769
James Arkwright patented the water frame, a spinning machine powered by running water. Similar machines were later powered by steam.



SOURCE 7 Innovation in the textile industry — 1779
Samuel Crompton invented the spinning mule, which improved the spinning process to produce better quality thread.

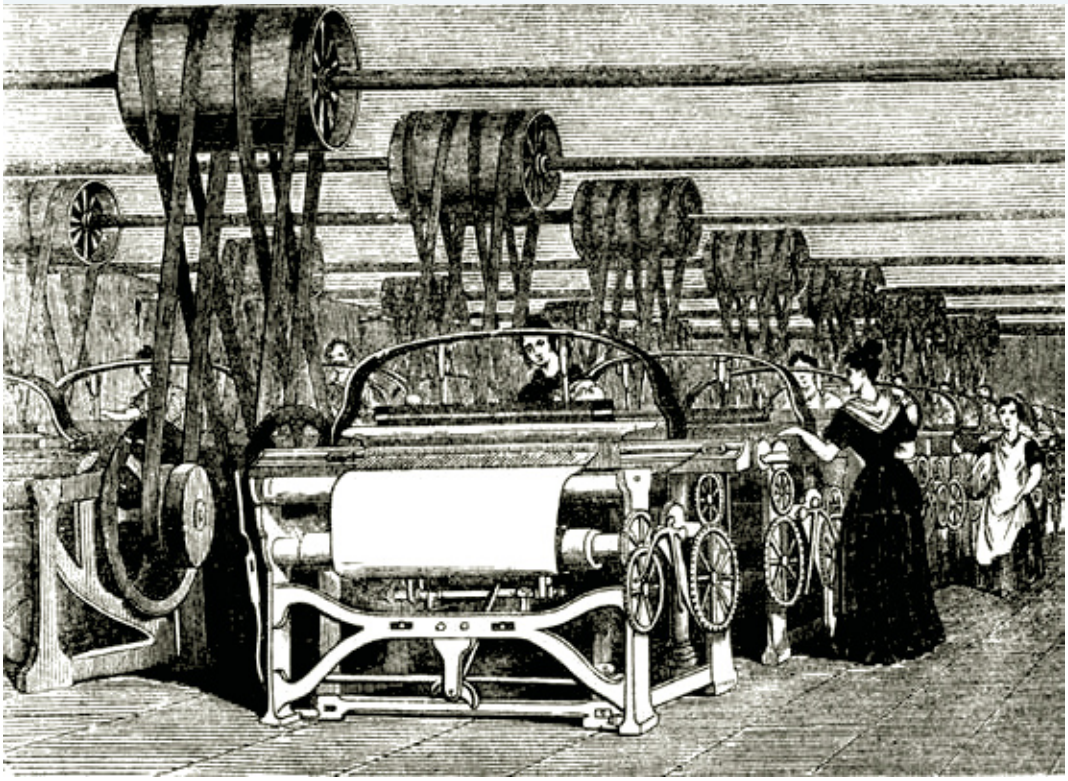


SOURCE 8 Innovation in the textile industry — 1780s

Textile production began to be centralised in factories. Initially they were built close to rivers to draw on water power, but eventually this became unnecessary as steam power was adopted.

Edmund Cartwright developed the power loom, shown in this artwork from c. 1844, which mechanised the weaving process.

A Boulton and Watt steam engine was first used to power a textile mill, leading to the possibility of mass factory production.



DID YOU KNOW?

The first large textile factories in England were located in and around the city of Manchester. The term *manchester* is still used today to describe household cotton-based items such as tablecloths, bedding and towels.

2.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why was the English textile industry traditionally based on wool rather than cotton?
2. Which members of a family would be most likely to use each of the devices shown in **Sources 1, 2,** and **3**?
3. Explain two factors that led to an increased demand for cotton products by the 1750s.

Apply your understanding

4. Why did the invention of the flying shuttle (see **Source 4**) make it necessary for a machine such as the spinning jenny (see **Source 5**) to be invented?
5. Explain the significance of the invention of the water frame (see **Source 6**) in the move away from cottage industry.
6. The power loom in **Source 8** could have been powered by either water or steam. Explain how this power actually drove the loom.

7. Most historians identify changes in textile production in eighteenth-century Britain as a key element of the Industrial Revolution.
   (a) What is meant by the term *revolutionary change*?
   (b) Why would changes in the textile industry in eighteenth-century Britain be regarded as revolutionary?
8. It is often said that 'necessity is the mother of invention'. In what ways were the inventions in the eighteenth-century English textile industry a response to necessity?
9. If you were a farm worker earning extra money by spinning or weaving in your cottage, what might your reactions have been to the change to factory production?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.4: Textile technology

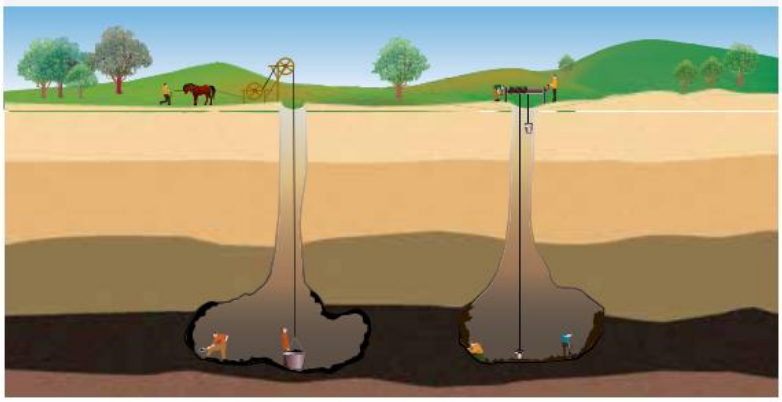
2.7 Coal and iron

2.7.1 Coalmining

The progress of the Industrial Revolution was assisted by the increased use of coal, a more efficient fuel than wood and charcoal. Also, improvements in the production of iron and steel resulted in metals that were stronger and cheaper to produce, and could be applied to a wider variety of uses.

Coal is a much more efficient fuel than wood; that is, a given weight of coal will burn for longer and provide greater heat than a similar weight of wood. Britain had a very rich supply of coal, but traditional coalmining practice allowed only the extraction of coal from shallow **bell pits** (see **Source 1**). This meant that coal was not widely available and was therefore more expensive than wood. Deep-pit mining could not be pursued because of the amount of water that would flood the shafts. Pumping out surplus water from mines with the use of steam-driven pumps (see subtopic 2.5) made coal more readily available and cheaper to mine. This coal could be used as fuel for the steam engines that would come into more widespread use as the Industrial Revolution progressed.

SOURCE 1 Coalmining had traditionally been carried out in shallow bell pits.



2.7.2 Developments in iron production

Methods of producing iron had been known throughout Europe since ancient times. To produce iron that could be used for tools, weapons and other implements, iron ore extracted from the ground had to have various impurities removed. This was achieved by a process known as smelting, in which heat was applied to the ore in a **blast furnace**. For centuries the source of heat for English blast furnaces had been charcoal, obtained by the heating and partial burning of wood. The product of the blast furnaces was known as **pig iron**.

DID YOU KNOW?

Pig iron was so called because of the method of casting molten iron from blast furnaces into moulds. These moulds were laid in a row in a bed of sand, and fed the molten iron from a common channel. The process was said to resemble a litter of piglets being fed by a mother sow, and so the iron at this stage was called 'pig iron'.

Burning coke in blast furnaces

The growth in coal production meant that coal became more widely available for use in the smelting process, but impurities in the coal tended to contaminate the iron, compromising its quality. During the seventeenth century methods of burning out the impurities in coal to produce **coke** were improved. In 1709 Abraham Darby developed a blast furnace that burned coke to produce iron of a superior quality. The use of coke also allowed the construction of larger blast furnaces capable of producing greater quantities of pig iron.

SOURCE 2 The Iron Bridge in Shropshire, England, built by the grandson of Abraham Darby, is an example of late eighteenth-century iron construction.

Henry Cort and 'puddling'

While pig iron had many uses, it could be brittle because of the presence of carbon. In 1783 Henry Cort developed a method of reducing the carbon content of pig iron through a process known as 'puddling'. This resulted in a product that was stronger and could be bent, rolled or cast into many different shapes. High-quality iron could now be used for making machinery, boilers for steam-driven engines, and a huge variety of tools and implements, as well as bridges and the framework for buildings.

As iron production methods improved, quantities increased, and large-scale production made good-quality iron cheaper. By 1850 Britain was producing more than seventy times as much iron as it had in 1760 (see **Source 3**).

SOURCE 3 British pig iron production, 1760–1850

Year	Tons
1760	30 000
1785	50 000
1796	125 000
1806	244 000
1823	455 000
1830	677 000
1840	1 400 000
1850	2 200 000

Source: P. Riden, 'The output of the British iron industry before 1870', in *Economic History Review*, 2nd series, pp. 443, 448, 455

2.7 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain why deep-pit mining became possible during the eighteenth century.
2. What had been the traditional source of heat for English blast furnaces?
3. Identify the problem that Abraham Darby was able to solve, and explain his solution.
4. In what way did Henry Cort improve the production of iron?

Apply your understanding

5. Explain how the method of mining depicted in **Source 1** limited the use of coal before the eighteenth century.
6. The Iron Bridge, shown in **Source 2**, was opened in the 1780s. Explain why such a bridge would not have been practical before this time.
7. In what ways do you think the figures in **Source 3** suggest that a revolutionary change occurred in Britain between 1750 and 1850?

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Explore more with this weblink: Blast furnace animation

2.8 Entrepreneurs and banks

2.8.1 The importance of banks

Many of the innovations of the eighteenth century that fuelled the Industrial Revolution could not have occurred without a willingness of people to invest their savings in new enterprises, and a banking system able to channel that money into the most profitable of these businesses.

Today we are accustomed to banks as places where we deposit our savings and borrow money for a variety of personal and business purposes. A modern industrial economy could not survive without a banking system. In pre-industrial times, for example, production of textiles was a cottage industry and coalmining took place in shallow pits, so little expensive equipment was needed. The costs of building a factory and equipping it with machinery, or providing steam-driven pumps for a deep-pit coalmine were a very different matter. Anyone wishing to set up these types of businesses needed access to finance, so a well-organised banking system was essential.

SOURCE 1 Renaissance Italy was the birthplace of modern banking. This artwork from the fifteenth century shows an Italian banking house.

2.8.2 Growth of the banking system

Modern banking as we now understand it dates from Renaissance Italy, and particularly the wealthy cities of Venice and Florence.

The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in England and Scotland saw the spread of banking practices that were the forerunners of today's modern banks. Before 1546 in England, it was illegal to charge interest on money lent, but the law was changed after that date. This change provided an opportunity for profits to be made from lending money to merchants wishing to set up business ventures.

Goldsmith bankers

Through the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, many of the activities we now associate with banks were carried out by **goldsmiths**. While their major activity involved working with gold and other precious metals, goldsmiths could also provide safe custody for money and other valuables. They also kept quantities of foreign currency that could be exchanged by merchants wishing to travel overseas. By the early eighteenth century, these goldsmith bankers had developed a well-organised network of private banks that were ready to lend money for worthwhile business enterprises.

SOURCE 2 The Bank of England, established in 1694, became the major source of lending for the government. This artwork was created in the nineteenth century.

2.8.3 Entrepreneurship and the middle class

In most of Europe the remnants of the feudal system had persisted from medieval times. This meant that most of the power and wealth remained with the monarchy and the landowning aristocracy. In Britain the power of the monarchy and the aristocratic class had been weakened by the Civil War (1642–49). The English Parliament came to strongly represent the interests of the merchants, traders and others involved in running businesses.

DID YOU KNOW?

The first banknotes were issued by goldsmiths as receipts for gold held in safekeeping. The Bank of England was established in 1694 to lend money to the government, and gained a virtual monopoly over the issuing of banknotes in England in 1708.

Government support for business

Between 1650 and 1673 Parliament passed the *Navigation Acts*, which required all goods traded between Britain and its colonies to be carried in British ships. There was also stronger enforcement of the *Statute of Monopolies* of 1623, which protected the rights of inventors to profit from patents on their inventions. By the eighteenth century an environment that favoured **entrepreneurship** had developed in Britain.

SOURCE 3 From Adam Smith, *The Wealth of Nations*, 1776. Scottish philosopher Adam Smith recognised the value of having a government supportive of trade and commerce.

> To found a great empire for the sole purpose of raising up a people of customers may at first sight appear a project fit only for a nation of shopkeepers. It is, however, a project altogether unfit for a nation of shopkeepers; but extremely fit for a nation whose government is influenced by shopkeepers.

Entrepreneurship

More and more people saw the advantages of investing in business opportunities. Developments in agriculture encouraged farmers to operate their farms as profit-making businesses. Innovations in the textile industry encouraged investment in larger and larger factories. The increasing demand for iron and coal made investment in larger scale mining a profitable activity. Much of the progress made during the Industrial Revolution was due to the availability of money through a well-organised banking system, and a willingness of **entrepreneurs** to invest that money in business ventures.

SOURCE 4 Adam Smith, whose head appears on the British £20 note, believed that entrepreneurship was a significant factor in the creation of wealth.

2.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why was cottage industry able to survive without access to a modern banking system?
2. Explain the significance of the English law legalising the charging of interest on borrowed money.
3. What was the role of goldsmiths in the development of the banking system?
4. In what ways did the English Parliament support business interests in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries?

Apply your understanding

5. What does the image of the inside of the Bank of England (see **Source 2**) tell us about the importance of banking in England when compared with the activities shown in **Source 1**?
6. Adam Smith (see **Source 4**) described the English as 'a nation of shopkeepers' (see **Source 3**). Napoleon Bonaparte used these words as an insult directed against the English. In small groups, discuss how the qualities of 'a nation of shopkeepers' might have contributed to the progress of the Industrial Revolution.
7. Adam Smith is often described as the father of modern economics and of modern capitalism. Who was Adam Smith, and what did he do to earn these titles?

2.9 Canals, roads and railways

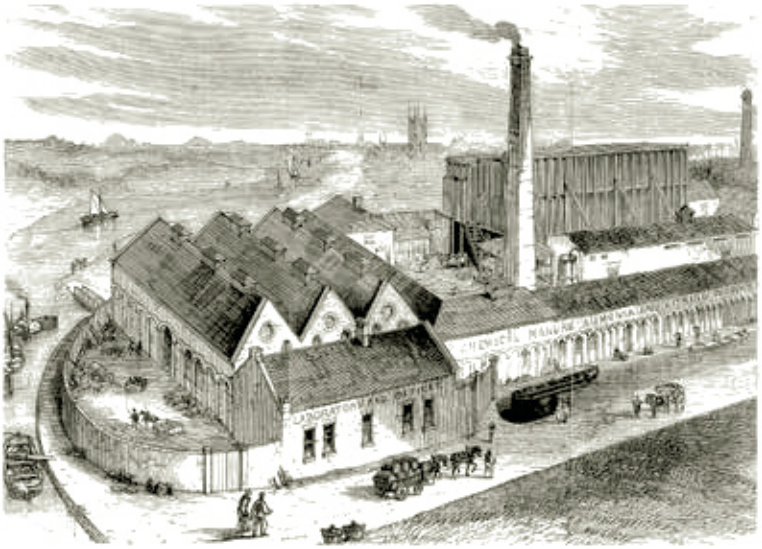
2.9.1 The importance of transport

As new technologies were transforming agriculture, the textile industry and mining, the Industrial Revolution also brought great changes in the field of transport. Rapid improvements in methods of transport greatly increased the availability of the raw materials needed to feed the new factories. They also allowed the rapid distribution of finished products to larger numbers of customers.

In pre-industrial times, most goods were produced in small quantities by local producers to suit local needs. Industrialisation often meant that production moved away from local supplies and local markets. If a factory relied on water power, it had to be located next to a fast-flowing river. If it relied on steam power, proximity to coal and water supplies would be necessary. Factories were not producing just for the local market. They needed reliable means for transporting large quantities of raw materials to the factory and finished products away from the factory.

2.9.2 Canals

SOURCE 1 A factory needed access to efficient means of transport to bring in raw materials and send out finished products.



Transportation of goods by water had always been important in Britain. As an island nation, with a large number of navigable rivers, coastal and river shipping had been widely used for centuries. Most roads were still no more than muddy tracks, and horse-drawn carts could carry only small loads without getting bogged. Much larger loads could be transported on boats and barges, so rivers and canals were one answer to transporting the products of industrialisation. The first major canals of the Industrial Revolution were built to transport coal from the Lancashire coalfields to newly developing industrial cities. The Sankey Canal, built to carry coal to the city of Liverpool, was opened in 1757. The Bridgewater Canal, opened in 1761, carried coal to the growing city of Manchester. Alongside each canal was a towpath on which the horse towing a barge would walk (see subtopic 2.5). One horse could tow a barge carrying ten times the weight that could be loaded onto a cart.

'Canal mania'

The canals were privately owned, so those who built them were able to charge a fee to anyone wishing to transport goods on them. This meant they paid for themselves within a few years, and were soon making a profit for their owners. Even with the fees paid to canal owners, transporting coal by canal was considerably cheaper than transporting by road. In a few years the price of coal in cities like Liverpool and Manchester had halved, making steam power even more economical. The financial success of the Sankey and Bridgewater canals inspired many others to invest in canal building, and the next fifty years saw a period of 'canal mania'. Between the 1760s and 1815 more than three thousand kilometres of canals were built across England to carry raw materials to factories and finished products away to markets.

SOURCE 2 The Duke of Bridgewater, shown in this c. 1754 artwork, financed the building of a canal to transport coal from his mine to the city of Manchester.

2.9.3 Roads

Before the eighteenth century, every man in a village was expected to provide his labour free of charge for a certain number of days each year to maintain local roads. Major roads between large towns and cities received little maintenance and were often in a very poor state of repair. In the late seventeenth century, local magistrates were given the power to charge tolls on the use of main roads to provide funds for maintenance.

SOURCE 3 Canals became the major method of transporting goods to and from factories.

SOURCE 4 Main roads were often in a poor state of repair, as shown in this artwork from c. 1824.

Turnpike trusts

From 1707 onwards groups of nominated **trustees** were given the power to collect these tolls and supervise road maintenance. These toll roads were known as **turnpikes**, and the groups of trustees called **turnpike trusts**. By the 1750s most of the main roads leading to London had been converted to turnpikes. By the 1830s more than 30 000 kilometres of turnpikes connected most of the major cities in England, Wales and Scotland. The quality of roads between major cities improved dramatically during this time, although the less important roads remained in a poor state. Eventually the railways took business away from the turnpikes, rendering them unprofitable, and road maintenance became the responsibility of local councils.

SOURCE 5 Extracts from the toll sign at Aberystwith Turnpike in Wales

RATE OF TOLL TO BE TAKEN AT THIS GATE

For every Horse or other Beast drawing any Coach, Chariot, Berlin, Landau, Landaulet, Barouche, Chaise, Phaeton, Vis-a-vis, Calash, Curricle, Car, Chair, Gig, Hearse, Caravan, Litter, or any such like Carriage — 6 d [pence]

For every Horse or other Beast except Asses drawing any Waggon, Wain, Cart, or other such like Carriage — 4 d.

For every Ass drawing any Cart, Carriage, or other Vehicle — 2 d

For every Horse or Mule, laden or unladen, and not drawing — 1½ d

For every Ass, laden or unladen, and not drawing — 1 d

EXEMPTION FROM TOLLS

Horses or Carriages attending her Majesty, or any of the Royal Family, or returning therefrom; Horses or Carriages employed for the repairs of any Turnpike Roads, Highways or Bridges; Horses or Carriages employed in conveying Manure (save Lime) for improving Lands …

2.9.4 Railways

One of the biggest advances in transport came with the growth of the railways. This development came as a result of applying steam engines to tramway systems. In coal and iron ore mines, horses were used to draw wagons out of the mines along tracks. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, steam technology had developed sufficiently for experiments to begin in the use of steam to drive moving vehicles. The first locomotives were used to haul trucks loaded with coal from mines. These inspired an engineer, George Stephenson, to promote the use of steam locomotives to haul a wide variety of goods, as well as passengers.

SOURCE 6 Steam locomotives were first used to haul trucks from coalmines, as shown in this nineteenth-century artwork.

The first successful railways

The first public railway was opened in north-east England in 1825. Designed to carry coal from mines near Darlington to the port of Stockton, it employed George Stephenson's 'Locomotion No. 1' locomotive. Before long, the owners expanded its activities to provide a passenger service with a regular timetable.

In the meantime, Stephenson and his son Robert were contracted to build a railway line between Manchester, the largest textile producing city, and Liverpool, a major port almost 60 kilometres away. The line, opened in 1830, was constructed as a double track to allow trains to travel in both directions. It was

designed to bring imported raw materials to Manchester and to return completed goods to Liverpool for export. Stephenson's latest locomotive, the 'Rocket', was used to haul both goods and passengers between the two cities. The line was a huge financial success and became the model for a succession of railways that were soon constructed throughout Britain.

SOURCE 7 Stephenson's Locomotion No.1 is now on display at the Darlington Railway Museum.

SOURCE 8 Stephenson's Rocket, shown in this 1894 illustration, was first used on the very successful Manchester to Liverpool line.

DID YOU KNOW?

The first successful locomotive was known as Puffing Billy. Built in 1813, it was used to haul coal from the mines to a nearby port in Northumberland, in north-east England. Today it is located in the British National Science Museum in London. Its name was the inspiration for the steam train that today travels between Belgrave and Gembrook in the Dandenong Ranges east of Melbourne.

The railways expand

The growing demand for fast, efficient transport for both raw materials and the products of industrialisation led to a rapid expansion in railway construction. The following 20 years saw huge growth in the rail network. By 1852 there were more than 10 000 kilometres of track in Britain. Lines extended from London to the coast of Wales and north to Glasgow and Edinburgh in Scotland. The industrialised north and Midlands of England were serviced by extensive rail networks, transporting both passengers and a huge variety of goods.

SOURCE 9 The march of progress! In the 1830s, a railway bridge was built over the original Sankey Canal. This artwork was published in 1831.

2.9 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why were reliable methods of transport more important to the process of industrialisation than they had been in pre-industrial society?
2. What was the main purpose of the first canals built in Britain?
3. What do **Sources 3** and **4** tell us about the advantages of canals over road transport?
4. What were turnpike trusts and how were they able to improve road transport?
5. When were the first railways opened in Britain and what was their main purpose?

Apply your understanding

6. What advantages did the factory in **Source 1** have in relation to transport?
7. Examine **Source 5**. Give three examples of groups of people who were exempt from tolls on the Aberystwyth Turnpike in Wales.
8. What does **Source 8** tell us about the possible future use of rail transport, when compared with **Sources 6** and **7**?
9. Why is it appropriate to label **Source 9** 'the march of progress'?
10. Draw up a timeline that shows the developments in road, canal and rail transport in Britain between 1700 and 1860.
11. Canals and railways were initially privately owned and designed to make a profit for their owners. Why might a factory owner be prepared to pay these additional transport costs?
12. While initially designed to carry goods, railways soon began carrying passengers. What effects might this have had on ordinary people and their families?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.5: On the move

Explore more with this weblink: Stephenson's Rocket animation

2.10 The 'workshop of the world'

2.10.1 Industrialisation in Europe

As the first country to experience industrialisation, Britain led the world in factory production and the mechanisation of transport and agriculture. The export of British techniques and inventions, as well as its domination of world industrial production, led to Britain's becoming known as the 'workshop of the world'.

By 1850 Britain had become the most dominant industrial power in the world. It produced more than half the world's textile products, 80 per cent of its coal and close to half of its iron. Other countries turned to British engineers to build their railways and imported British machinery to set up their own factories. British steam engines were the biggest and most powerful and were exported to all parts of the world.

With the end of the **Napoleonic Wars** in Europe in 1815, Britain and the continent of Europe were once more free to exchange ideas and trade. The new industrial methods that had been pioneered in Britain were quickly taken up in other countries.

France

In France the first railways were begun in 1832. While these were financed by French entrepreneurs and banks, virtually all railway construction was carried out under the supervision of British engineers.

Imported British locomotives were used until the 1850s, when French industry began to produce its own. Industrialisation progressed slowly during the nineteenth century in France, where agriculture remained the dominant economic activity.

Germany

Germany did not become a unified country until 1871. Industrialisation occurred initially in Prussia, the most powerful of the independent German states. With access to the rich coal and iron ore deposits of the Rhineland, the Prussians quickly established a thriving iron and steel industry. The first German railways were built in 1835 but, by 1850, the German states had built almost half as much railway track as in Britain, and twice as much as in France. After unification in 1871 Germany quickly expanded its industrial production; by the beginning of the twentieth century it was producing more steel than Britain.

SOURCE 1 Coloured lithograph, created 1856, showing German iron smelting. Germany was to become Europe's largest iron and steel producer by 1900.

2.10.2 The United States is industrialised

The Industrial Revolution also spread quickly to North America. Following their independence from Britain in 1783, the Americans set about developing their own industries, with innovations of their own. In 1794 Eli Whitney developed the cotton gin, a machine for separating the seeds from raw cotton. Samuel Slater introduced the technology for water-powered textile production in 1793. The application of steam power to boats was pioneered by American inventors such as Robert Fulton in the early nineteenth century. Samuel Morse developed the telegraph in the 1840s, and Alexander Graham Bell was the first to patent a workable telephone in 1876. Both inventions were to revolutionise communications. As in Europe, the Americans were also quick to develop iron and steel industries, and to push through a network of railways during the nineteenth century.

SOURCE 2 Alexander Graham Bell was the first to patent a workable telephone. In this photograph, he is making the first call from New York to Chicago in 1892.

2.10.3 The Great Exhibition

In 1851 the Great Exhibition of the Works of Industry of All Nations was held in Hyde Park, London. While it was intended as a celebration of technology and industrial design from all over the world, it also had the aim of demonstrating British industrial power. It was held in a temporary steel and glass building known as the Crystal Palace, which was itself designed to show off British architectural engineering. The quality and quantity of British innovation on show was a clear indication that at that time Britain was indeed the 'workshop of the world'.

SOURCE 3 The Crystal Palace was designed to show off British engineering during the Great Exhibition of 1851, as shown in this 1854 artwork.

DID YOU KNOW?

By 1900 the United States had overtaken Britain as the world's leading industrial power. By this time the industrial output of the US was almost seven times what it had been in 1870. Large American corporations run by entrepreneurs such as Cornelius Vanderbilt, Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller were by then among the most prosperous in the world.

2.10 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. In what ways was Britain the dominant industrial power in the world in 1850?
2. Outline the main features of the spread of the Industrial Revolution into Europe.
3. **Source 1** shows a basic German iron foundry in 1856. What factors enabled Germany to rapidly expand its iron and steel production in the second half of the nineteenth century?
4. Give two examples of innovations contributing to industrialisation that were pioneered in the United States.

Apply your understanding

5. Examine **Source 3**. Why would the construction of a building like the Crystal Palace have been impossible a century earlier?
6. How did a building like this help Britain to achieve its main purpose in hosting the Great Exhibition?
7. Using internet sources, research one French or German innovation that contributed to the progress of industrialisation in that country and was taken up by other countries.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.6: British domination: production and export

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

› **Industrial Revolution**

2.11 Trade, empire and shipping

2.11.1 A trading nation

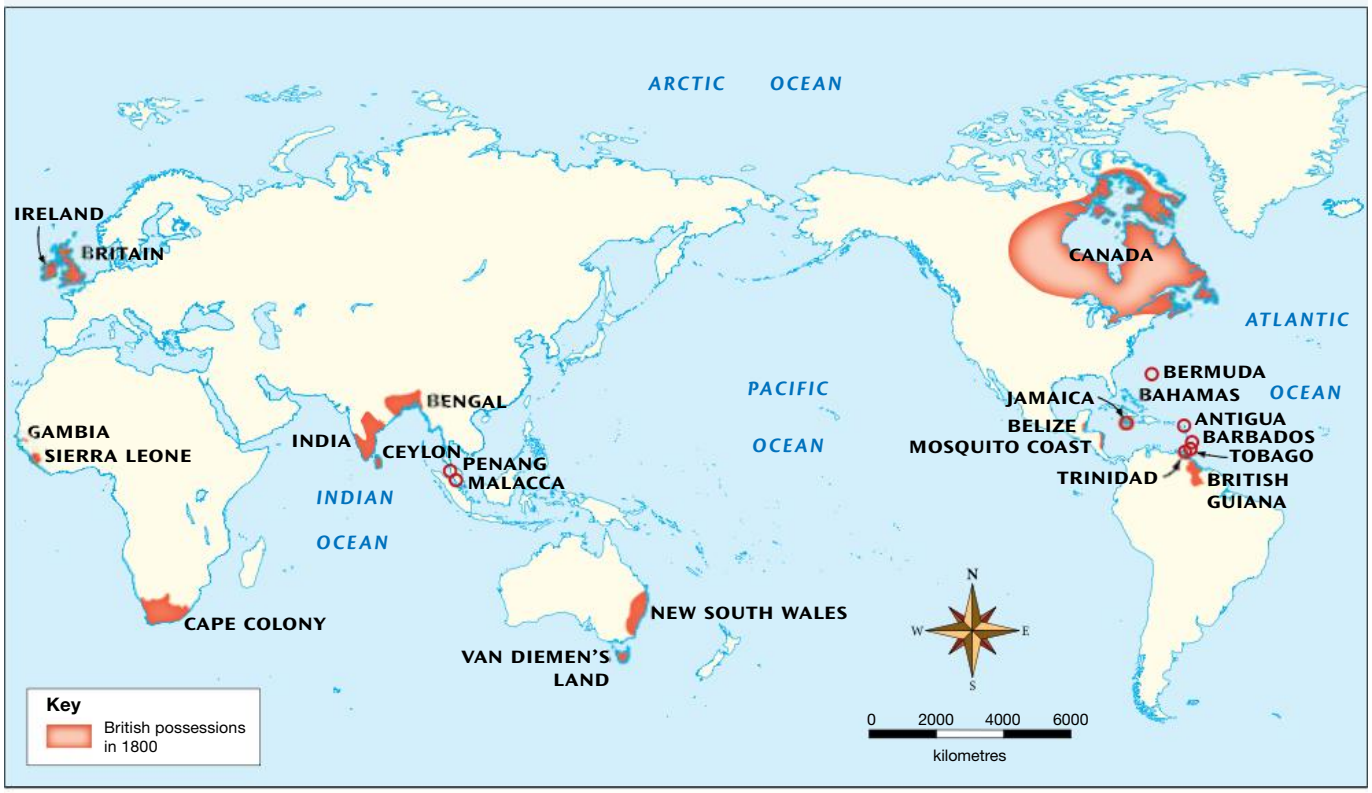
Britain was able to take greatest advantage of its Industrial Revolution because of its extensive trade networks. This enabled it to import large quantities of raw materials from around the world, process these in its factories and export the finished products to worldwide markets.

Long before the Industrial Revolution, Britain had built up trade networks throughout the world. British naval power began to grow during the second half of the sixteenth century, encouraging the establishment of **colonies** in North America and the West Indies. In the seventeenth century British trade with Asia expanded, with the East India Company establishing trading posts in India. British trading interests were keen to remove competition from other countries, such as France. Victory in the Seven Years' War (1756–63) allowed Britain to take over many French colonies in North America, India and the Caribbean.

2.11.2 Colonies and empire

As the first country to experience industrialisation, Britain was able to use its industrial strength to build an **empire**. Raw materials would be imported by ship and processed in British factories, and then the finished products exported, often to the same colonies that had provided the raw materials. By 1800, Britain had the beginnings of a worldwide empire, which provided valuable sources of raw materials to feed industrial growth. As we have seen, the cotton industry was a major source of industrial growth, but British industry was soon able to process raw materials imported from almost every continent. In order to protect its trading routes, Britain also established the most powerful navy in the world, along with a very prosperous shipbuilding industry.

SOURCE 1 The British Empire in 1800



2.11.3 Developments in shipping

Until the late eighteenth century, all ships were built of timber and powered by sail. The Industrial Revolution brought two major changes to shipping. Advances in the processing of iron led to the development of iron hulls for ships. The strength this gave the hull allowed the building of larger ships able to carry more cargo. The second change was the application of steam power to shipping.

SOURCE 2 Main sources of raw materials from different parts of the British Empire

British colony	Raw materials provided
Canada	Furs, timber, fish
Jamaica	Sugar, coffee
British Guiana	Sugar, tobacco
Gambia	Cocoa
Bermuda	Salt, whale oil, baleen
India	Cotton, tea, timber, sugar
Penang and Malacca	Spices, timber
Ceylon (now Sri Lanka)	Tea, timber, cocoa
New South Wales	Whale oil, baleen, wool

The age of the clippers

Despite the development of steam power, square-rigged sailing ships continued to be widely used until the 1870s. Built for speed, these ships were said to travel at a 'good clip' (or speed), and were therefore known as clippers. They generally had iron hulls, were able to compete with steam-driven ships because they were much faster than the early steamships and did not need to use valuable cargo space for carrying coal for fuel. Clippers were used extensively from the 1840s until the 1870s for trade between Britain and her colonies.

SOURCE 3 Clippers such as the *Cutty Sark*, shown in this twentieth-century artwork, could transport goods more quickly than many steamships of the time.

Steam power

The first steam-driven ships were paddle steamers, either with one large rear-mounted paddle, or with paddles mounted on either side of the hull. While these proved effective for travel in rivers and for coastal use, paddle-driven ships were not really suitable for ocean travel. It was not until the development of the screw propeller in the 1840s that large ocean-going steam ships began to dominate sea travel, both for freight and passenger travel.

DID YOU KNOW?

The owners and crews of clipper ships were very proud of the speeds their ships could achieve and regularly set out to break new records. The fastest time recorded for a clipper to sail from Plymouth in England to Sydney, NSW, a distance of 22 130 km, was recorded by the *Cutty Sark*, which completed the journey in 72 days. The ships of the First Fleet took around 250 days to complete the same voyage in 1787–88.

2.11 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. How was Britain able to build up a large trading empire by the mid eighteenth century?
2. Identify the two main changes to shipping that resulted from the Industrial Revolution.
3. Why were paddle steamers not appropriate for international trade? Which development ultimately allowed steamships to take over international shipping?

Apply your understanding

4. Using information from **Sources 1** and **2**, explain why it was important for Britain to have a powerful navy and a strong shipbuilding industry.
5. **Source 2** refers to baleen as a raw material imported from the colonies. Find out what baleen is and research the various uses for it during the nineteenth century.
6. What does **Source 3** tell us about the two main advantages of clippers as a form of transport for goods to and from Britain?
7. In small groups, discuss the ways in which trade and the growth of an empire might be seen to be major factors in the progress of the Industrial Revolution in Britain.
8. During the nineteenth century, European countries such as France and Germany competed with each other, and with Britain, to take control of colonies in Africa and Asia. What is a possible explanation for this competition to build trading empires?

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

› **British Empire**

2.12 SkillBuilder: Investigating a historical issue

2.12.1 What is a historical issue?

A historical issue is a set of events or concerns related to the past that historians attempt to understand and interpret. This will usually mean trying to find out *why* such events or concerns arose at a particular time. It can also involve an examination of *the effects* of these events on different groups of people and society as a whole.

Why do we investigate historical issues?

Examining why something happened in the past can help us understand events that happen today. Take the example of the Industrial Revolution. We know that Britain was the first country to experience the Industrial Revolution, and that industrialisation quickly spread to Europe and North America.

Many parts of the world, particularly in Africa and Asia, are still living in subsistence conditions. These areas have not experienced industrialisation as we understand it. We know that those countries that have been through the process of industrialisation generally have a better standard of living and greater wealth than those that have not. If we can understand why the Industrial Revolution occurred, it may be possible to help poorer countries experience industrialisation and gain the benefits that accompany it.

2.12.2 How to investigate a historical issue

As historians setting out to investigate a historical issue, we could follow these steps:

- Find examples of primary source evidence relevant to the issue.
- Ask *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, *how* and *why* questions in relation to that evidence.
- Form a hypothesis. Remember that a hypothesis is a possible explanation for the issue we are investigating. We need to test the hypothesis by looking for evidence that supports it, but we also need to look for evidence that might contradict it. In this way we can refine the hypothesis to make sure that it is consistent with all the evidence.

An example of how to investigate a historical issue

Suppose you were investigating the issue: *How did improvements in agriculture in eighteenth-century Britain contribute to population growth?* You could use **Sources 1, 2, 3,** and **4** to form a hypothesis.

SOURCE 1 Enclosures in Britain

Years	Area subject to enclosure (hectares)
1727–1760	30 000
1761–1792	194 000
1793–1815	405 000

Source: From P. Deane, *The First Industrial Revolution*, Cambridge, 1967, p. 43

SOURCE 2 British wheat exports

Year	Wheat exports (kilograms)
1705	150 million
1765	1235 million

Source: From The Open Door Web Site, www.saburchill.com/history/chapters/IR/003f.html

SOURCE 3 Improvements in livestock

Year	Average weight of sheep sold at market (kilograms)	Average weight of cattle sold at market (kilograms)
1710	13	167
1795	36	360

Source: From The Open Door Web Site, www.saburchill.com/history/chapters/IR/005.html

SOURCE 4 British population growth

Year	Population
1761	6 146 000
1801	8 893 000
1821	12 000 000

Source: From J. Gardiner and N. Wenborn (eds), *The History Today Companion to British History*, London, 1995, p. 610

You could ask the following questions in relation to these tables:

1. What do the increases in enclosures tell us about changes in farming practices?
2. Why was it possible for Britain to increase wheat exports during the eighteenth century?
3. What were the likely effects of the improvement in body weight of animals sold for meat production?
4. In what ways did increases in population correspond to improvements in the quantity and quality of food available during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries?

You could now form the following hypothesis: 'The increase in the enclosure of farming areas in Britain in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries contributed to improvements in farming techniques. This resulted in great increases in the quantity and quality of food available, supporting rapid increases in the population.' You could indicate that each of the sources supports this hypothesis. In order to test the hypothesis, you might need to find other supporting evidence, or look for contradictory evidence.

2.12.3 Developing my skills

Using the example above as a model, and **Sources 5** and **6** as your evidence, investigate the following issue:

How did the development of steam power affect the location of textile factories? (*Hint:* Steam power was first introduced into textile factories in the 1780s. By the 1830s most factories were powered by steam engines.)

SOURCE 5 A map of Britain showing the location of the major coalfields

SOURCE 6 Number of cotton mills in Great Britain, 1787 and 1835

County	1787	1835		
		Operating	Empty	People employed
Berkshire	2	–	–	–
Cheshire	8	109	7	31 512
Cumberland	–	13	–	1 658
Derbyshire	22	93	3	11 585
Durham	–	1	–	33
Lancashire	41	683	32	122 415
Leicestershire	–	6	–	592
Middlesex	–	7	–	350
Nottinghamshire	17	20	–	1 723
Staffordshire	–	13	–	2 048
Westmorland	5	–	–	–
Yorkshire	11	126	–	11 211

Source: From R. Burn, *Statistics of the Cotton Trade*, 1847, p. 26; in A. Aspinall and E. Anthony Smith (eds), *English Historical Documents*, XI, 1783–1832, Oxford University Press, New York, 1959, p. 512

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 2.7: Investigating a historical issue: 'Canal mania'

2.13 Review

2.13.1 Review

In this topic we have studied some of the major changes that occurred in Britain in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that collectively are known as the Industrial Revolution. These include changes to agricultural production; population increases; developments in the textile, coalmining and iron industries; the impact of changes in the type of power used; changes in transport; and the significance of banking, entrepreneurship and access to a colonial empire.

KEY TERMS

animal husbandry breeding and caring for livestock, usually in a farm environment
bell pit a traditional form of coalmining in which a shaft is dug down to a seam of coal and then excavated outwards, with the coal raised to the surface using a winch and buckets
Black Death a deadly disease that ravaged Europe, killing between a quarter and half of the population, in the second half of the fourteenth century. It continued to occur periodically over the next 300 years.
blast furnace a type of furnace into which air is forced to raise the temperature sufficiently to carry out the smelting of iron ore
carding the process of untangling and straightening raw wool or cotton fibres
coke a type of fuel produced by using heat to remove impurities such as coal gas and tar from coal
colony an area of land settled by people from another country. This can involve military conquest if the original inhabitants resist that settlement.
cottage industry small-scale manufacturing in which raw materials are processed in workers' homes
empire a number of different countries or colonies controlled by the government of one country
enclosure consolidation of open fields and common land into single farms owned by one farmer or landowner, and fenced off from neighbouring farms
entrepreneur a person who organises a business venture, and assumes the financial risks associated with it, in the hope of making a profit
entrepreneurship the act of being an entrepreneur
fallow land left unplanted
famine a severe shortage of food, leading to starvation, usually due to crop failures over a sustained period of time
goldsmith a craftsman who works with gold and other precious metals
infant mortality rate a means of measuring the percentage of babies who fail to survive their first birthday
Napoleonic Wars a series of wars between the French Empire, led by Napoleon Bonaparte, and a number of other European nations between 1803 and 1815
patent a legally enforceable right to make or sell an invention. Patents, usually granted by government, protect an inventor's idea from being copied.
pig iron the initial product resulting from the smelting of iron ore in a blast furnace
rickets a softening of the bones, leading to deformity of the limbs, caused by a deficiency of calcium and vitamin D
rural population people living in the countryside rather than in towns or cities
scurvy a disease caused by poor diet, especially a deficiency of vitamin C
spinning the twisting of carded fibres into lengths of continuous thread or yarn
subsistence farming farming that provides only enough to satisfy the basic needs of life of the farmer or community
trustees a group appointed to manage property on behalf of another person or organisation
turnpike turnpike a type of toll road
turnpike trusts organisations established by Parliament with the power to collect tolls on particular roads and use the money to pay for maintenance of those roads

urban population people living in cities or large towns
warp the fixed threads used in the weaving process
weft the horizontal movable thread that is woven through the warp to create cloth

2.13 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz online only

Short answer quiz

1. List the four crops that would be grown simultaneously under the four-field system.
2. Identify one innovator in eighteenth-century British agriculture, and explain what his innovation was.
3. List two reasons for the sustained growth in the British population from the early eighteenth century onwards.
4. By how much did the British population increase between 1801 and 1881?
5. Identify one advantage and one disadvantage to using water to power a factory.
6. What contributions did Thomas Newcomen and James Watt make to the Industrial Revolution?
7. What do we mean when we describe traditional textiles production as a cottage industry?
8. List two significant innovators in the British textiles industry, and identify the innovation contributed by each person.
9. Identify one major reason why it was necessary for textile production to move into factories.
10. Which innovation led to coal becoming more readily available as a fuel during the eighteenth century?
11. What was the result of the introduction of Henry Cort's puddling process in steel production?
12. Why was the growth of a banking system important for the development of the Industrial Revolution?
13. What was canal mania?
14. Identify two examples that demonstrate that Britain was the most dominant industrial power in the world by 1850.
15. List two reasons for Britain becoming such a major trading nation during the period of the Industrial Revolution.

Apply your understanding

16. Examine **Source 1**.
    (a) Great Britain's share of world manufacturing production dropped from 31.8 per cent to 14 per cent between 1870 and 1913. Does this mean that Britain was producing less in 1913 than in 1870? Explain your answer.
    (b) Identify the country that increased its manufacturing output by the greatest amount in the period covered by this table.
    (c) What is the total percentage of manufacturing production that can be clearly identified as occurring in Europe and North America?

SOURCE 1 Distribution of the world's manufacturing production, 1870 and 1913 (as a percentage of world total)

	Great Britain	US	Germany	France	Russia	Italy	Canada	Belgium	Sweden	Japan	India	Other countries
1870	31.8	23.3	13.2	10.3	3.7	2.4	1.0	2.9	0.4		11.0	
1913	14.0	35.8	15.7	6.4	5.5	2.7	2.3	2.1	1.0	1.2	1.1	12.2

Source: From Fordham University Internet Modern History Sourcebook, www.fordham.edu/halsall/mod/indrevtabs1.html

17. In the late nineteenth century one Asian country set out to change from a rural to an industrialised society. Identify that country from **Source 1.**
18. The city of Pittsburgh (see **Source 2**) became a major centre for American steel production in the nineteenth century. Identify three features that Pittsburgh and its surrounding area must have had for it to become a successful steel-producing city.

SOURCE 2 Pittsburgh in the US became a major centre for steel production in the nineteenth century.

19. Although Britain led the world in the industrialisation process, by 1913 both Germany and the US had overtaken it. Select *one* of these two countries and, using your school library and internet sources, prepare a report on your selected country, including the following:
    - the natural and population resources the country had to enable it to industrialise
    - the industries that contributed most to the growth in manufacturing in that country
    - any relevant statistics that can demonstrate the growth that occurred
    - the importance of trade in the growth of industrialisation in your selected country.

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Go online to access additional end of topic resources such as interactivities and printable worksheets.

Try out this interactivity: Industrial Revolution: Technology timeline (int-2962)

Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 2.8: Word search
Worksheet 2.9: Summing up
Worksheet 2.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic, several big questions were posed. Use the knowledge you have gained to answer these questions.

1. In what ways did developments in agriculture during the eighteenth century contribute to the Industrial Revolution?
2. What major technological innovations contributed to the progress of the Industrial Revolution?
3. In what ways was Britain in 1850 dramatically different from Britain in 1750?
4. Why did the Industrial Revolution begin in Britain, rather than in any other country?

TOPIC 3 The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914): (II) The impact on people

3.1 Overview

Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

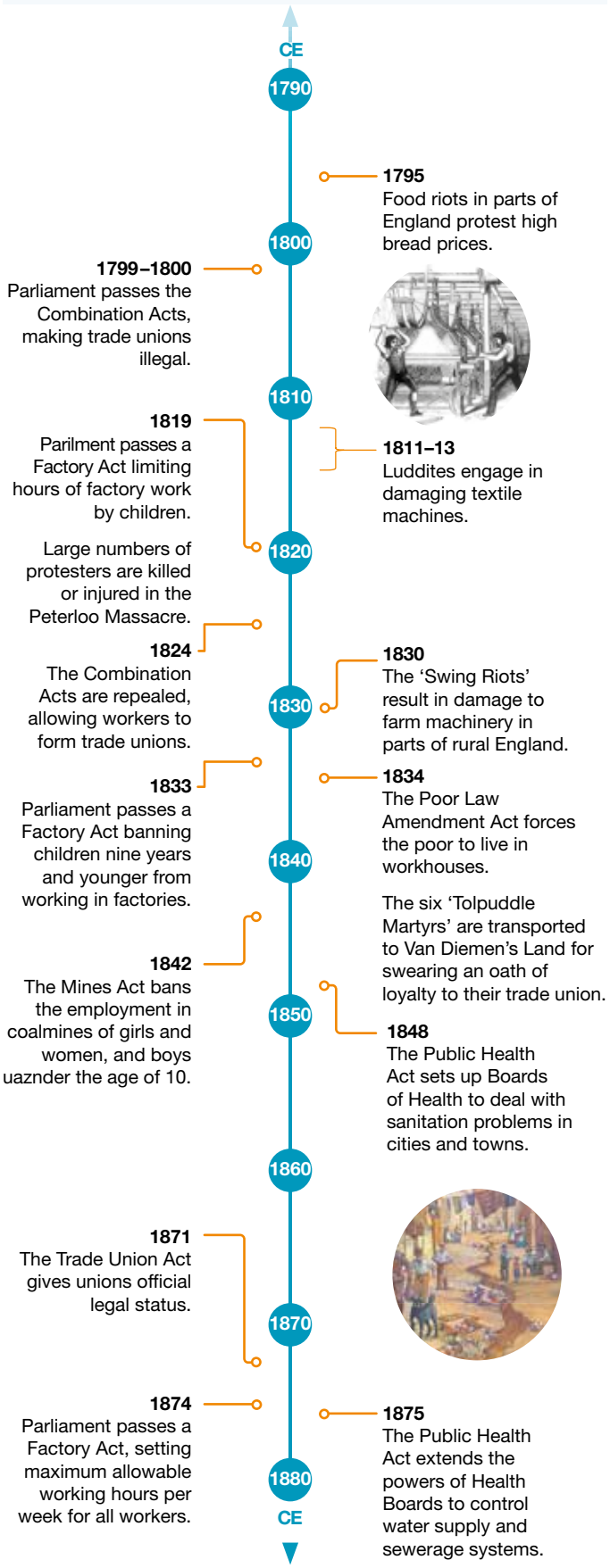
3.1.1 Links with our times

When a new suburb is established today, roads and footpaths are built, services such as water and electricity are connected, and underground pipes are installed to take away sewage and stormwater. All these facilities are usually in place before any homes are built, and even the construction of the houses is governed by strict building regulations. The situation was very different two hundred years ago.

As we learned in topic 2, the population increased dramatically in Britain during the Industrial Revolution. Changes in agricultural practices, as well as job opportunities in the newly established factories, brought large numbers of people into rapidly growing towns and cities. This influx of people was not matched by the provision of the types of services we take for granted today. As we shall see in this topic, housing was often hastily and shoddily built, and urban slums quickly developed.

SOURCE 1 The rapid growth of towns during the Industrial Revolution resulted in most workers and their families living in slum conditions.

SOURCE 2 A timeline of changes during the Industrial Revolution



When someone enters employment today in Australia, a range of laws and regulations determine the wages they will receive and the conditions they will experience. Health and safety in the workplace is closely regulated, with employers required to provide a safe place of employment. In the early years of the Industrial Revolution no such legal safeguards existed. Working conditions were often dangerous and unhealthy, and employers could get away with paying very low wages.

In most of Australia today it is illegal to employ anyone under the age of 15 without gaining a special permit. Compulsory education throughout childhood is the norm, and legal safeguards prevent the exploitation of young people. Two hundred years ago no such safeguards existed, and children as young as four could be employed in mines and factories.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. How did the Industrial Revolution affect population growth and where people lived?
2. What were the experiences of men, women and children as workers on farms, and in factories and mines?
3. What was the impact on towns and cities as people moved away from the countryside to work in factories and mines?
4. How were living and working conditions for workers improved during the nineteenth century?

Starter questions

1. How would you react if your way of life, and that of your family, was taken away from you and you had to move somewhere else to do a job you hated?
2. What do you think might happen if there were no laws enforcing health and safety in the workplace?
3. Why do we have laws today that prevent children under the age of 15 from being employed?
4. How should society treat people who are poor and underprivileged through no fault of their own?
5. What are some of the problems that might occur if large numbers of people move into a town or city over a short period of time?

3.2 How do we know about life during the Industrial Revolution?

3.2.1 Historical sources

In this topic we will look at the effects of the Industrial Revolution on many of the ordinary people in Britain. These were the people who worked in factories and mines and lived in the towns that sprang up around these workplaces. Many of them had lost access to their livelihood because of the enclosure of traditional farming land and had suddenly been thrown into poverty.

SOURCE 1 This painting appeared on the cover of a modern edition of Charles Dickens' novel *Hard Times*.

Contemporary writers and commentators

It was natural that writers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries would comment on the rapid changes that took place in Britain at the time.

The enormous changes in technology, the development of large factories, the rapid growth of cities and dramatic changes in methods of transportation all happened within little more than one lifespan. While some writers set out to record **impartial observations** of the changes happening around them, many others gave **biased accounts**. Charles Dickens wrote about the working and living conditions of the factory workers and the poor in novels such as *Oliver Twist, Hard Times* and *Little Dorritt*. Others such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels used their observations as a basis for attacks on the political system of Britain. By contrast, supporters of the changes to agriculture and industry gave glowing accounts of the economic benefits of these changes, while ignoring the negative effects on workers and their families.

SOURCE 2 An illustration from a nineteenth-century edition of *Oliver Twist*. Charles Dickens used his novels to publicise the social problems of his time.

Official government statistics

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the government began to collect statistics on all aspects of British life. As well as total figures for population growth, census figures recorded changes in the numbers of people living in large towns and cities compared with those living in the country. Records of birth and death rates in cities and rural areas can provide information about the health of the people. Wage levels, when compared with the prices of food, clothing materials and housing, can give us information on people's standard of living. All statistics require interpretation, but when combined with other evidence they can often add much to our picture of the past.

Records of government inquiries

The rapid social changes taking place in Britain in the nineteenth century sometimes prompted the government to set up special inquiries to investigate the effects of the changes. Written records include evidence given by witnesses to these inquiries. Many of these witnesses described their own experiences, while others gave accounts of incidents and conditions they had observed. The findings of these inquiries would later be published in reports, and this material also survives today in official government records.

SOURCE 3 *Coalbrookdale at Night*, painted around 1800 by Phillip James de Loutherbourg

Paintings and drawings of contemporary artists

Given the dramatic impact of these events on people's lives, it is not surprising that artists were keen to document the changes they saw happening around them. Surviving paintings and drawings can give us further insights into the conditions in which people lived.

3.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What is a biased account?
2. What is an impartial observation?
3. In what way did official government statistics change in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
4. What did Charles Dickens use his novels to publicise?

Apply your understanding

6. What kinds of statistics would provide evidence of the following trends?
   (a) People moving away from the country to the city to look for work
   (b) Improvements in people's health and standard of living.
7. Charles Dickens' novel *Hard Times*, set in the imaginary industrial town of Coketown, deals with issues of working conditions in factories. What impression does the illustration on the cover of *Hard Times* (see **Source 1**) give of life in Coketown?
8. *Oliver Twist* traces the story of a poor orphan in nineteenth-century London. What does the illustration inside the book (see **Source 2**) tell us about the treatment of orphans at this time?
9. Why should historians be cautious when considering the importance of individual witness statements provided to government inquiries?
10. Coalbrookdale was a coalmining and iron-smelting town in the English Midlands.
    (a) From examining **Source 3**, what do you think it would have been like to live in this town?
    (b) Do you think the artist had a favourable or unfavourable opinion of the town? Explain your answer.

3.3 The impact of enclosure

3.3.1 Changes in population

The enclosure movement and the accompanying changes in agriculture led to an improvement in the quality and quantity of food produced in Britain (see subtopic 2.3). Not everyone benefited from these changes, however. Farm labourers were often worse off as a result of the changes.

Agricultural change that accelerated during the eighteenth century enabled Britain to support a larger population. Most of this population growth occurred in the growing towns and cities. Population statistics tell us that from the second half of the eighteenth century rural population growth slowed when compared with urban population growth (see **Source 1**).

SOURCE 1 Urban and rural population growth in England and Wales, 1751–1861

Year	Total population	Urban population	Rural population	Urban (%)	Rural (%)	Urban increase	Rural increase	Urban increase (%)	Rural increase (%)
1751	5 772 000 (estimated)	1 443 000 (estimated)	4 329 000 (estimated)	25.00 (estimated)	75.00 (estimated)	–	–	–	–
1801	8 893 000	3 009 000	5 884 000	33.84	66.16	1 566 000	1 555 000	108.52	35.92
1821	12 000 000	4 805 000	7 195 000	40.04	59.96	1 796 000	1 311 000	59.69	22.28
1841	15 914 000	7 693 000	8 221 000	48.34	51.66	2 888 000	1 026 000	60.10	14.26
1861	20 066 000	11 784 000	8 282 000	58.73	41.27	4 091 000	61 000	53.18	0.74

3.3.2 The impact on people in the countryside

The owners of farms and large estates throughout Britain benefited enormously from enclosure and other changes to agriculture. Running a farm in a more businesslike manner usually brought good profits, and many landowners became very wealthy during this period. On the other hand, there is evidence to suggest that many in the countryside suffered greatly as a result of these changes.

Before enclosure, labourers living on rural estates had some independence and did not rely only on their wages. They were free to gather firewood from the estate, to keep a cow or pig they could graze on common land, and to raise a small crop of their own. Enclosure removed all these benefits, so the labourer was forced to rely on wages alone. In addition, the opportunity to earn extra money from spinning yarn and weaving cloth disappeared with the growth of textile factories.

Most farm labourers were employed on a casual basis. They were paid a daily rate, according to how much work they did. If the employing farmer had no work on any particular day, the labourer did not get paid. If crops were poor in any given year, a smaller harvest would result in less work for the farm labourer.

SOURCE 2 From F. Moore, *Considerations on the Exorbitant Price of Proprietors*, 1773

> In passing through a village near Swaffham in the county of Norfolk a few years ago … I beheld the houses tumbling into ruins, and the common fields all enclosed; … I was informed that a gentleman of Lynn had bought that village and the next adjoining to it; … he had thrown one into three, and the other into four farms; which before the enclosure were in about twenty farms; and upon my further enquiring what was becoming of the farmers who were turned out, the answer was that some of them were dead and the rest were become labourers.

SOURCE 3 From D. Davies, *The Case of the Labourers in Husbandry*, published in 1795

… for a dubious economic benefit, an amazing number of people have been reduced from a comfortable state of partial independence to the precarious condition of mere hirelings …

SOURCE 4 While wealthy farmers benefited from enclosure of their farms, poor farm labourers and their families often suffered.

3.3.3 The food riots of 1795

By the 1790s most country people had to buy food using the wages they earned working on the enclosed farms. Bad weather in 1794–95 had seriously reduced wheat crops throughout Britain. In addition, Britain was at war with France, so importing grain was more difficult than usual. This shortage led to a steep rise in the price of wheat, forcing up the cost of bread. High prices led to protests, known as the 'food riots', in various parts of the country.

SOURCE 5 From the *Ipswich Journal*, August 1795

'… a band of women … entered various houses and shops, seized all the grain, deposited it in the public hall, and then formed a committee to regulate the price at which it should be sold.'

DID YOU KNOW?

The food riots of 1795 involved very little violence. In most cases the rioters took control of the distribution of food, selling it at what they thought was a fair price, and handing the proceeds over to the owners.

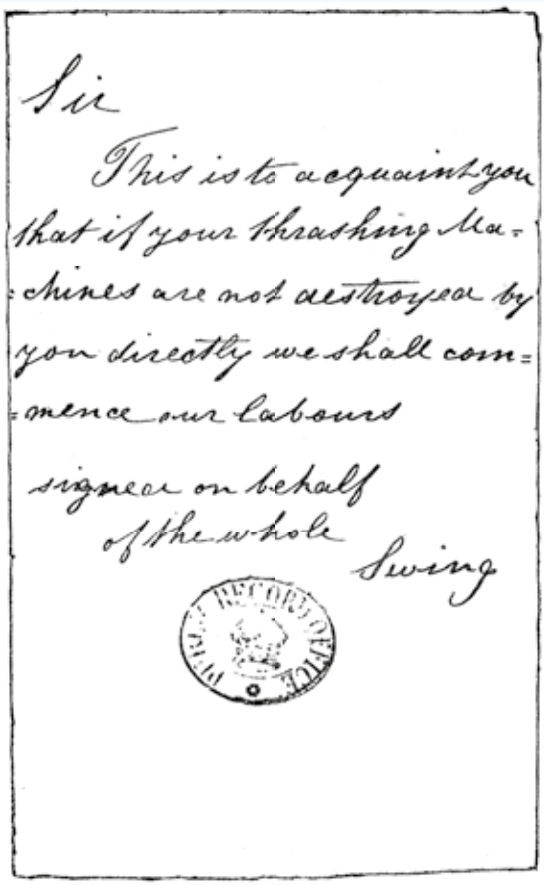
3.3.4 Swing Riots of 1830

In the 1820s the increasing use of labour-saving technology such as the threshing machine (see subtopic 2.3) forced large numbers of labourers and their families into poverty. This placed pressure on the systems in place to care for the poor (see subtopic 3.7). In 1830 riots broke out in the south and east of England. The rioters were usually unemployed farm workers, who would burn down haystacks and damage the farm machinery they blamed for their hardship. The unrest became known as the Swing Riots because wealthy farmers were sent threatening letters signed by a Captain Swing. It was a name made up by rioters in the county of Kent, but its use soon spread to other parts of England.

SOURCE 6 Burning of haystacks at night was one tactic of the Captain Swing rioters.

The authorities came down very heavily on the rioters when they were caught. Records show that 19 were executed and another 505 were sentenced to transportation to the Australian colonies.

SOURCE 7 Letters threatening to destroy threshing machines were often signed by the fictitious Captain Swing.



Sir

This is to acquaint you that if your thrashing Machines are not destroyed by you directly we shall commence our Labours

signed on behalf of the whole

Swing

SOURCE 8 The authorities actively hunted down those involved in the Swing Riots of the early 1830s.

Ten Pounds REWARD.

WHEREAS late last Night, or early this Morning, the Premises of Mr. RICHARD MARSH, of the Parish of RIPPLE in the County of Kent, were unlawfully entered by some Person or Persons at present unknown, and a

Thrashing Machine

THEREIN WAS

Feloniously Broken and Destroyed;

THIS IS THEREFORE TO GIVE NOTICE, --- THAT active Exertions are now making to discover the Offender or Offenders, and a REWARD of TEN POUNDS is hereby offered to be paid by the said RICHARD MARSH, to any Person who will give such Information as will lead to the Conviction of such Offender or Offenders.

Ripple, 5th August, 1831.

DEVEREUX, PRINTER AND BOOKBINDER

3.3.5 The Speenhamland system

Food shortages and low wages in the 1790s meant that many rural families were very poor, and often close to starvation. As we will see in subtopic 3.7, looking after the poor was very much a local problem, with each village community required to look after its own. In 1795, in the village of Speenhamland in Berkshire, in south-east England, a system was devised to help the poor. It involved providing a subsidy to poor families, calculated using a formula based on the price of bread, the level of wages and the number of children in a family.

The formula was used to calculate an amount by which the wages of farm labourers could be topped up to prevent the family from starving. The money was raised by requiring landowners to pay an amount into a central fund, controlled by the local overseer of the poor. In the early stages it was quite successful and it was soon copied by other villages throughout England.

The longer the Speenhamland system remained in place, the less successful it became. Before long, many wealthy farmers realised they could pay low wages because they knew the overseer of the poor would make up the difference. On the other hand, some landowners were having to pay higher and higher amounts into the central fund to cover the increased subsidies to labourers. Many small landowners had to sell their land to cover this cost, and they became labourers themselves.

The system was very demoralising for labourers, for no matter how hard they worked, their wages were never sufficient to support a family, and this forced them to rely on charity. More and more people became dependent on the system, which cost landowners increasing amounts. The Speenhamland system was eventually abolished in 1834.

3.3.6 A surviving open-field village

Despite the widespread enclosure of farming land in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, some examples of open-field farming survived. One example is the village of Laxton in Nottinghamshire, in the English Midlands. While farming is carried out using some modern methods — the tractor has long ago replaced the horse-drawn plough — many features of the open-field system remain. The three open fields are divided into strips as they were in medieval times, and nearly everyone in the village has rights to some of the land, with everyone having grazing rights on common land. The village is said to be prosperous, and the villagers are very proud of their heritage.

SOURCE 9 The farms around the English village of Laxton were never enclosed and still operate the traditional three-field rotation with strip farming.

3.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What was the aim of the Speenhamland system?
2. Why did the Speenhamland system ultimately fail?

Apply your understanding

3. Examine **Source 1** and provide evidence from the statistics to answer the following questions.
   (a) Was the rural population rising or falling in the period from 1751 to 1861?
   (b) During which period did the urban population experience the greatest increase in actual numbers?
   (c) Between 1751 and 1801 the urban and rural populations grew by a similar amount — a little over 1.5 million. Why does the table show such a huge difference in the *percentage* increases in urban compared with rural population growth during this period?
   (d) In approximately which year would urban and rural populations have each formed 50 per cent of the population?
   (e) If the trends shown in the table continued beyond 1861, what would you expect the statistics for 1881 to show?
4. In what ways do **Sources 2** and **4** demonstrate that different groups of people were affected differently by the enclosure movement?
5. How were farm labourers reduced from a state of 'partial independence to the precarious condition of mere hirelings', as suggested in **Source 3**?
6. What does the writer of the letter in **Source 7** mean when he says 'we shall commence our labours'?
7. From the information provided in this subtopic, do you believe the food riots of 1795 were justified? Identify one piece of information from the sources that would convince you to either support or oppose the activities of the protesters.
8. While the Swing Rioters may have felt justified in destroying the threshing machines that were taking their jobs (see **Sources 7** and **8**), why do you think they would have engaged in burning haystacks as well (**Source 6**)?
9. Given the negative effects of enclosure on many of the people, do you believe it would have been better to retain the open-field system as the village of Laxton did? Give reasons for your answer. (You may need to refer back to material in topic 2 to examine both sides of this issue.)

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.1: Profits for some, poverty for many

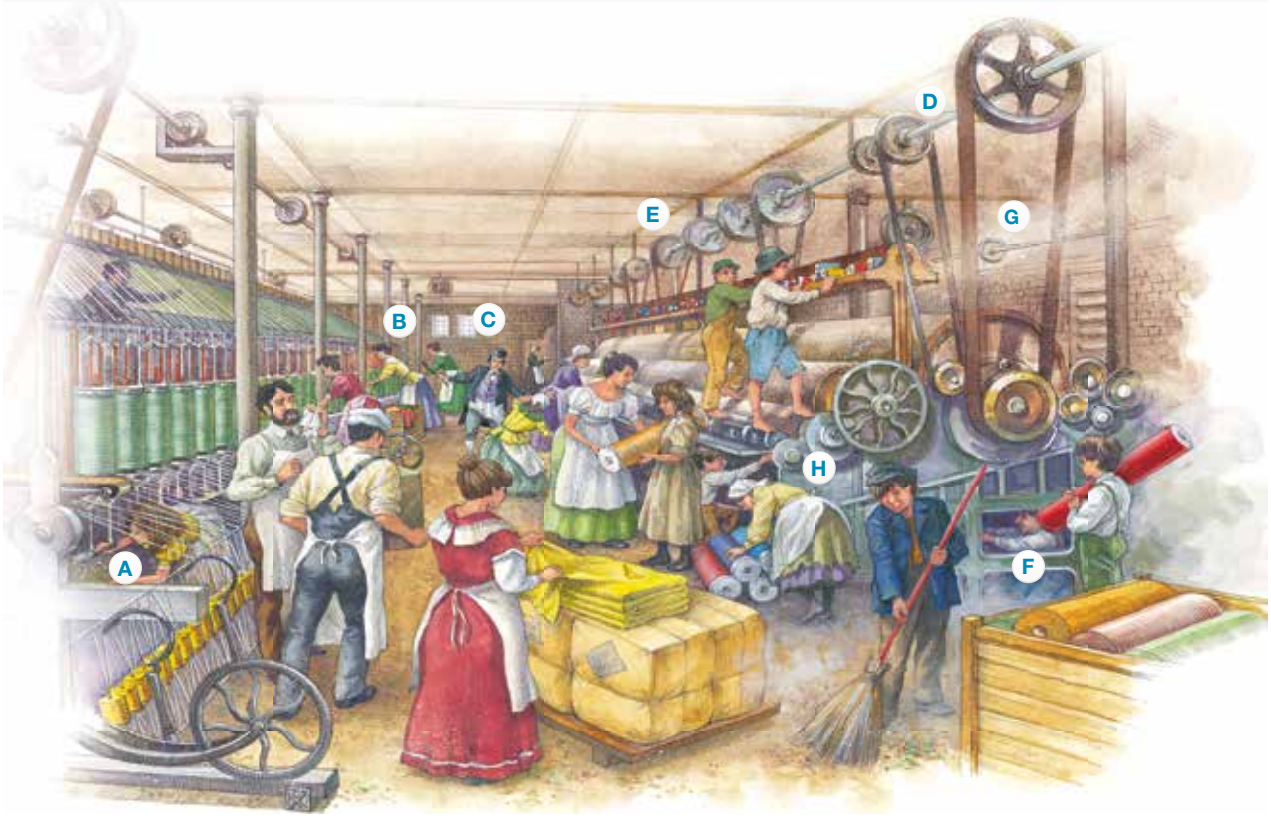
3.4 Conditions in factories and mines

3.4.1 Inside a textile factory

Australian employees today are protected by Occupational Health and Safety laws. These laws place a legal obligation on the employer to provide a safe and healthy workplace. At the time of the Industrial Revolution no such laws existed, and workplaces such as factories and mines could be dangerous and unhealthy places.

An early nineteenth-century textile factory was a dangerous and unpleasant place to work. Long working hours — 12 hours or more per day — were common practice. Poor light and ventilation and excessive heat made working conditions very uncomfortable. Machines were not fenced off and had no safety guards around moving parts, so workers were always at risk of injury. Children were often employed to climb under or between machines to keep them operating, so they were in particular danger.

SOURCE 1 An early nineteenth-century textile mill was a dangerous and unhealthy place to work.



A Some children were employed as 'scavengers': they would collect loose pieces of cotton from under machines while the machines were running.

B Small windows and lack of ventilation made the factory air hard to breathe.

C Overseers would punish anyone responsible for slowing or stopping the machines for any reason.

D Machines were driven by belts attached to drive shafts that were powered by a water wheel or steam engine.

E Machines had no safety fences or guards around them, so workers were always at risk of injury.

F Constant bending and working in cramped conditions often led to physical deformities in factory workers.

G Dust and other residues from the cotton found their way into the workers' lungs, causing severe illness.

H Some children were employed as 'piecers': they had to repair broken threads on spinning machines while the machines were still running.

SOURCE 2 From an interview with James Patterson, a factory worker, before a parliamentary committee, June 1832

I worked at Mr. Braid's Mill at Duntruin. We worked as long as we could see. I could not say at what hour we stopped. There was no clock in the mill. There was nobody but the master and the master's son had a watch and so we did not know the time. The operatives were not permitted to have a watch. There was one man who had a watch but it was taken from him because he told the men the time.

SOURCE 3 From an interview with former factory worker Sarah Carpenter, published in *The Ashton Chronicle*, 23 June 1849

There was a young woman, Sarah Goodling, who was poorly and so she stopped her machine. James Birch, the overlooker, knocked her to the floor. She got up as well as she could. He knocked her down again. Then she was carried to the apprentice house. Her bed-fellow found her dead in bed. There was another called Mary. She knocked her food can down on the floor. The master, Mr. Newton, kicked her where he should not do, and it caused her to wear away till she died. There was another, Caroline Thompson. They beat her till she went out of her mind.

SOURCE 4 From the testimony of Dr Michael Ward before a parliamentary committee, 25 March 1819

I have had frequent opportunities of seeing people coming out from the factories and occasionally attending as patients. Last summer I visited three cotton factories with Dr. Clough of Preston and Mr. Barker of Manchester and we could not remain ten minutes in the factory without gasping for breath. How is it possible for those who are doomed to remain there twelve or fifteen hours to endure it? If we take into account the heated temperature of the air, and the contamination of the air, it is a matter of astonishment to my mind, how the work people can bear the confinement for so great a length of time.

SOURCE 5 As shown in this nineteenth-century engraving, coalmines were dark, dangerous places, where miners were exposed to many risks.

DID YOU KNOW?

Because of the hot working conditions in the coalmines, miners wore little or no clothing. When Parliament passed the Mines Act in 1842, the moral question of women and men working together in these circumstances was an important issue. The record of the debates in Parliament indicates that the fact that young girls were working in the presence of 'near naked' men was seen to be a bigger problem by members of Parliament than the harsh working conditions.

3.4.2 Working in the coalmines

As the development of steam engines allowed for the pumping of water from mines, these mines became much deeper, and more hazardous for mine workers. Problems included:

- inadequate ventilation
- the presence of explosive gases
- the need to haul the coal greater distances to the surface.

The lack of ventilation could lead to miners breathing in poisonous gases or coal dust, both of which could lead to serious lung disease. Other gases were likely to explode when exposed to the flame of a miner's lamp, causing death through cave-ins of shafts and tunnels.

Who worked in the mines?

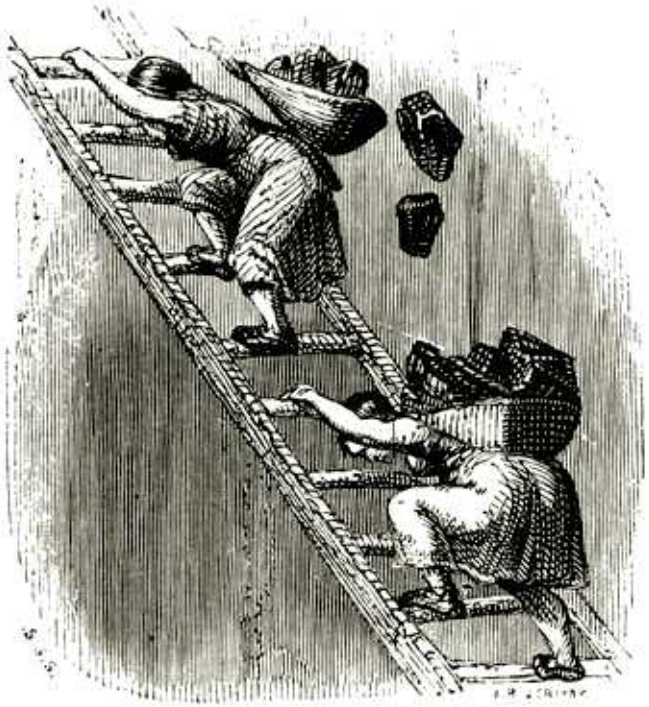
In the early days of deep-pit mining, coal was mined and brought to the surface using human muscle rather than machinery. Whole families were often employed in coalmines. Fathers and sons would 'hew' (cut) the coal with picks, while mothers and daughters 'hurried' (carried) the coal to the surface. This was done in a number of different ways. Sometimes the younger girls would crawl along narrow tunnels, towing a small cart loaded with coal. Older girls and women would climb ladders and steps with baskets of coal on their backs. These baskets were held in place by a strap around the head, wearing away hair and skin.

3.4.3 The Mines Commission, 1840–42

In 1840 the British Parliament established a commission to inquire into working conditions in the mines. Over the next two years, many mine workers were called to give evidence, recounting their personal experiences. As a result of the findings of the commission, Parliament passed the *Mines Act 1842*. This changed the law to prevent all girls and women, and boys under 10, from working underground in the mines.

SOURCE 6 In the early days of deep-pit mining, human muscle was used to 'hurry' carts of coal through narrow passages, as shown in this nineteenth-century artwork.

SOURCE 7 Older girls and women had the hazardous task of hauling baskets of coal up narrow ladders.



SOURCE 8 Testimony of Isabel Wilson, aged 38, before the 1842 Mines Commission

I have been married 19 years and have had 10 [children]; seven are [alive]. When [I worked in the mines] I was a carrier of coals, which caused me to miscarry five times from the strains, and was [very] ill after each … [My] last child was born on Saturday morning, and I was at work on the Friday night. Once I met with an accident; a coal broke my cheek-bone, which kept me idle some weeks. I have [worked] below 30 years, and so has my husband; he is getting touched in the breath now.

SOURCE 9 Testimony of Jane Johnson, aged 26, before the 1842 Mines Commission

I could carry 2 hundredweight [just over 100 kilograms!] when 15 years of age but I now feel the weakness upon me from the strains. I have been married near 10 years and had 4 children; have usually (worked) till within one or two days of the children's birth. Many women lose their strength early from overwork and get injured in their backs and legs; was crushed by a stone some time since and forced to lose one of my fingers.

SOURCE 10 Testimony of Agnes Kerr, aged 15, before the 1842 Mines Commission

… [I] make 18 to 20 journeys a-day; a journey to and fro is about 200 to 250 fathom [one fathom equals 1.8 metres]; have to ascend and descend many ladders; can carry 1.5 hundredweight [approximately 76 kilograms]. I do not know how many feet there are in a fathom …: know the distance from habit; it is sore crushing work; many lassies cry as they bring up the burdens. Accidents frequently happen from the tugs breaking and the loads falling on those behind and the lasses are much (inflicted) with swelled ankles. I cannot say that I like the work well; for I am obliged to do it.

3.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why would factory owners not want their employees to have access to a clock or a watch (see **Source 2**)?
2. How were factory workers punished for not following factory rules?
3. Why did mining become more dangerous as mines became deeper?
4. In what ways were all members of a family engaged in coalmining?
5. What were the consequences of the inquiry by the Mines Commission in the early 1840s?

Apply your understanding

6. In **Source 8**, Isabel Wilson describes her husband as being 'touched in the breath'. What do you think she means by this statement?
7. Use **Source 1** to identify four dangerous or unhealthy practices that occurred in a typical nineteenth-century textile factory.
8. From the sources, identify two types of injury or illness that factory workers could suffer from.
9. What evidence is there in the sources that factory workers were expected to keep their machines running at all times?
10. From the images in **Sources 5, 6,** and **7,** identify and explain three possible sources of injury to mine workers.
11. Did pregnant women receive any special treatment while working in the mines? Support your answer with evidence from the sources.
12. From information in **Source 10,** calculate the total distance that Agnes Kerr travelled each day while working in the mines, and the total weight of the coal that she hurried each day.
13. Would you regard the testimony of Dr Ward (see **Source 4**) as reliable or unreliable? Give reasons for your answer.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.2: Living and working conditions in the towns

3.5 Child labour

3.5.1 Children in the workforce

In the eighteenth century it was normal practice for children to work to help support their family. In agricultural or domestic work situations this had often been under the supervision of parents, who could have some influence over the type of work carried out by their children. This changed in the early years of the Industrial Revolution. Children who worked in factories and mines were subjected to harsh and often brutal conditions.

3.5.2 Children in the textile factories

Owners of textile mills were quick to recognise that they could employ children for lower wages than adults. Indeed, children often outnumbered adults in factory work. It has been estimated that in 1788 more than two-thirds of employees in cotton mills in England and Scotland were children. While older children and teenagers could often take charge of running a spinning or weaving machine, it was the work carried out by younger children that was the most dangerous.

Piecers and scavengers

Children employed as 'piecers' were required to lean over the spinning machine and repair broken threads. They had to do this while the machine was running, and often had more than one machine to watch. It is estimated that a piecer looking after a number of machines could walk as much as 30 kilometres a day. Other children were employed as 'scavengers'. They had to crawl under machines collecting loose cotton and other waste. This task, also performed while machines were running, was particularly dangerous.

SOURCE 1 From *A Narrative of William Dodd, A Factory Cripple*, 1841

At the age of six I became a piecer … each piecing requires three or four rubs, over a space of three or four inches; and the continual friction of the hand in rubbing the piecing upon the coarse wrapper wears off the skin, and causes the finger to bleed. The position in which the piecer stands to his work is with the right foot forward, and his right side facing the frame. In this position he continues during the day, with his hands, feet, and eyes constantly in motion … the chief weight of his body rests upon his right knee, which is almost always the first joint to give way … my evenings were spent in preparing for the following day — in rubbing my knees, ankles, elbows, and wrists with oil, etc. I went to bed, to cry myself to sleep.

SOURCE 2 From F. Trollope, *Michael Armstrong, the Factory Boy*, 1840

A little girl about seven years old, whose job as scavenger was to collect incessantly from the factory floor, the flying fragments of cotton that might impede the work … while the hissing machinery passed over her, and when this is skilfully done, and the head, body, and the outstretched limbs carefully glued to the floor, the steady moving, but threatening mass, may pass and repass over the dizzy head and trembling body without touching it. But accidents frequently occur; and many are the flaxen locks, rudely torn from infant heads, in the process.

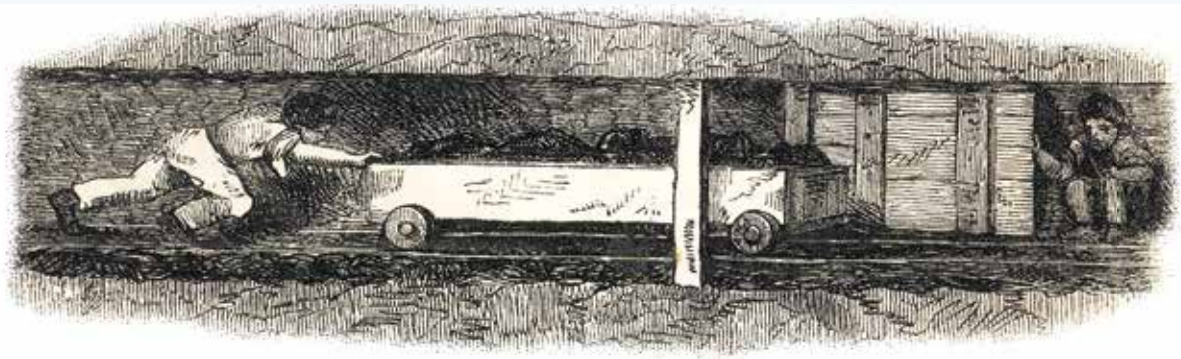
3.5.3 Children in the mines

Children in coalmines were employed as 'hurriers' and 'trappers'. Hurriers were required to carry baskets or tow trucks of coal to the surface. Girls as young as six or seven could be employed in this way, and would continue this work into their teens. The belt or chain around a girl's waist could damage the pelvic bones, and many women who worked in the mines as children later died in childbirth.

Even younger children were employed as trappers. Their job was to open and close the ventilation doors in the underground tunnels to allow the hurriers pulling their carts to pass through. Children as young as four or five could be employed as trappers, and they often sat in the dark for up to 14 hours a day.

SOURCE 3 This sketch of a young person pulling a truck full of coal was created c. 1842.

SOURCE 4 This sketch of a young trapper opening the door for another child with his truck of coal was created c. 1842.



3.5.4 The 'climbing boys'

Another occupation that employed large numbers of children, some as young as six, was that of chimney sweep. A sweep would employ a number of young boys, known as 'climbing boys', to climb up into chimneys and clean them with a hand brush or metal scraper. It was a dangerous and dirty job. Many choked to death from breathing in the dust and soot, while others were injured by falling or by becoming stuck in narrow chimneys.

SOURCE 5 Young boys employed as chimney sweeps worked in dangerous and dirty conditions.

DID YOU KNOW?

The British Parliament passed laws in 1788, 1834, 1840 and 1864 that aimed to control the employment of 'climbing boys' by chimney sweeps, but most of these laws were ignored. It was not until after 1875, when the police gained the power to enforce these laws, that the practice of employing young boys in this way was finally stopped.

3.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. In rural communities children had helped with many different tasks, so the employment of children was not new. Why did child labour become more of a problem during the Industrial Revolution?
2. Why was the employment of children so attractive to the owners of textile factories?
3. Explain the roles of hurriers and trappers in coalmines.

Apply your understanding

4. From **Source 1** identify the main types of injuries that could be suffered by piecers in a textile factory.
5. From the information provided in **Source 2**, explain why the job of scavenger in a textile factory was so dangerous.
6. What were the risks faced by young girls employed as hurriers in coalmines?
7. The artists who drew **Sources 3, 4** and **5** were attempting to present the negative side of child labour. Explain how each artist has achieved this in their drawings.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.3: Children and their chores

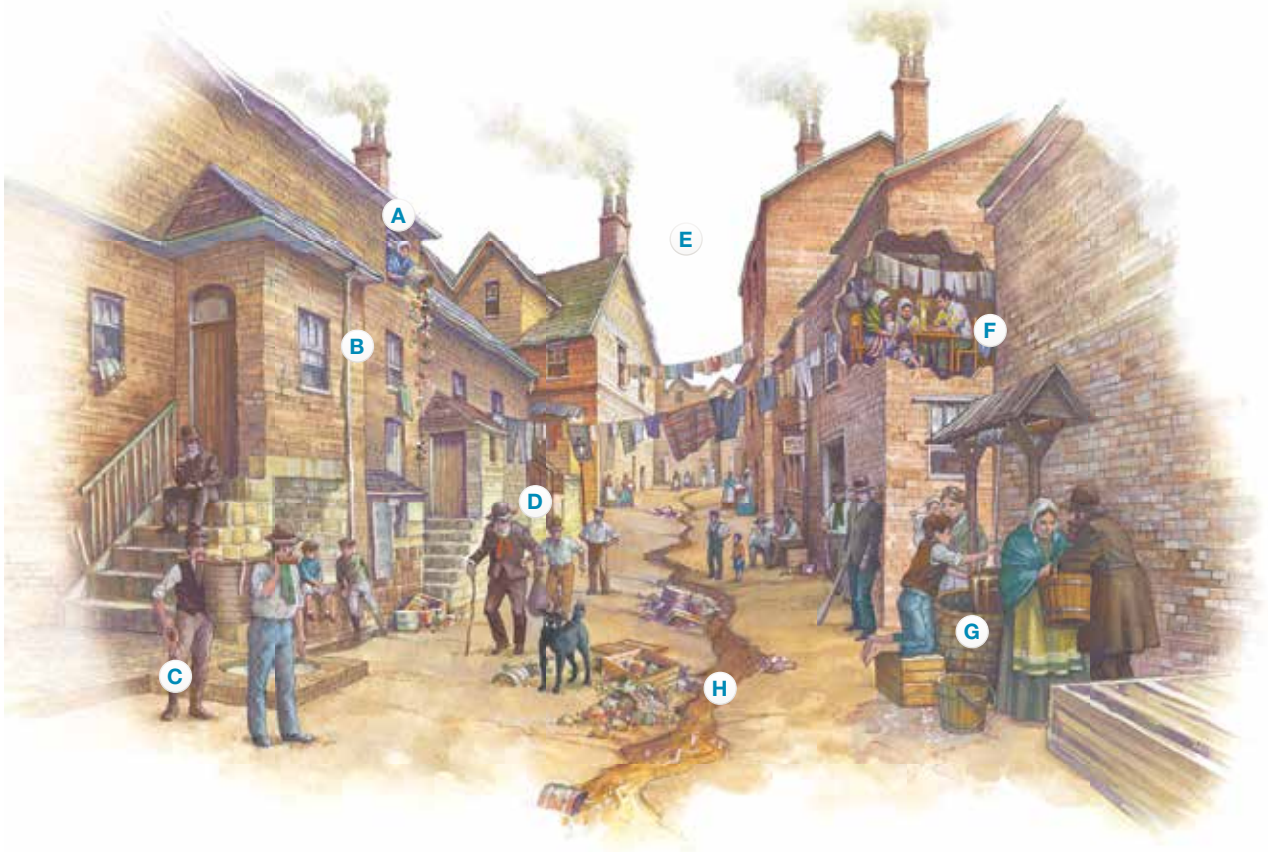
3.6 Urban conditions and people's health

3.6.1 Urbanisation and overcrowding

Increases in population during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries occurred mostly in the Midlands and north of England and in the lowlands of Scotland and southern Wales. Towns and cities grew most quickly close to coal and iron deposits, as these were also the major areas of factory development.

Industrialisation led to the rapid growth of British cities and large towns. In the first 30 years of the nineteenth century, cities such as Birmingham and Sheffield doubled in population. Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds and Glasgow more than doubled in population during this time. Towns and cities grew without any planning or government supervision. A large proportion of the housing was built by the factory owners to rent out to their workers. These factory owners wanted to keep costs down, so the housing was often poorly constructed, with as many houses as possible built on one site. Some families rented older houses that had previously belonged to the wealthier classes. In these cases, each family was often crowded into one room for cooking, eating and sleeping.

SOURCE 1 Most factory workers lived in poor-quality, overcrowded housing without sanitation.



A Rubbish was thrown into the street and left to rot, as there was no organised rubbish collection.

B Houses had small windows or no windows at all.

C Sewage was collected in cesspools, which were emptied by 'nightmen', although not always as regularly or often as necessary.

D Crime, such as pickpocketing, flourished in these squalid conditions.

E Houses were of poor quality, built using the cheapest possible materials.

F Families were often crowded into a single room.

G There was no piped water supply, so water was collected from communal wells or nearby rivers.

H Streets were no more than narrow lanes, with open drains running down the middle.

SOURCE 2 From Alexis de Tocqueville, a French aristocrat writing about Manchester in 1835

A sort of black smoke covers the city. Under this half-daylight 300 000 human beings are ceaselessly at work. The homes of the poor are scattered haphazard around the factories. From this filthy sewer pure gold flows. In Manchester civilised man is turned back almost into a savage.

SOURCE 3 From a letter to a parliamentary inquiry in 1840, written by Dr Roberton, a Manchester surgeon

Manchester is a huge overgrown village, built according to no definite plan. The homes of the work-people have been built in the factory districts. The interests and convenience of the manufacturers have determined the growth of the town and the manner of that growth, while the comfort, health and happiness [of the workers] have not been considered. Manchester has no public park or other ground where the population can walk and breathe the fresh air. Every advantage has been sacrificed to the getting of money.

3.6.2 Housing and sanitation

Houses were built with the cheapest possible materials and were often built back to back without any gardens. Amenities that we take for granted, such as water supply, were ignored. Streets were narrow, with poor drainage, and were filled with rubbish and raw sewage. There were no sewerage pipes to remove waste and no council rubbish collection as we know today. Groups of houses relied on **cesspools** for the disposal of sewage, but overcrowding meant that these frequently overflowed, contaminating rivers and wells that were the only sources of drinking water. Diseases such as **cholera** and **typhus** were common and spread quickly through densely populated urban areas.

SOURCE 4 From Dr William Duncan, *Report on the Sanitary Condition of Liverpool*, 1839

In the streets inhabited by the working classes, I believe that the great majority are without sewers, and that where they do exist they are of a very imperfect kind unless where the ground has a natural inclination, therefore the surface water and fluid refuse of every kind stagnate in the street, and add, especially in hot weather, their pestilential influence to that of the more solid filth … the only means afforded for carrying off the fluid dirt being a narrow, open, shallow gutter, which sometimes exists, but even this is very generally choked up with stagnant filth.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1696 the English Parliament had introduced a Window Tax, which taxed all houses based on the number and size of their windows. This tax was not removed until 1851, so most builders providing cheap housing in the first half of the nineteenth century used as few windows as possible. Lack of light and fresh air made living conditions even more unhealthy.

3.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain two ways in which the builders of houses in the factory towns kept costs down.
2. How did people living in these areas get rid of their rubbish and human waste?
3. Why would disease spread quickly in towns such as Manchester and Liverpool?
4. What is meant by the term *urbanisation*?
5. Why would you expect there to be a strong connection between industrialisation and urbanisation?

Apply your understanding

6. Use **Source 1** to identify five features of early nineteenth-century industrial towns that would make them unpleasant places to live.
7. In **Source 2**, what did the writer mean by, 'From this filthy sewer pure gold flows'?
8. Why might crime have flourished in the conditions described in this subtopic?
9. What were the two main criticisms that Dr Roberton (see **Source 3**) expressed in relation to the planning and layout of Manchester?
10. How might the conditions described in **Source 4** have contributed to the spread of diseases such as cholera?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.2: Living and working conditions in the towns

3.7 Poor laws and workhouses

3.7.1 The Old Poor Law

Various structures for helping the poor had existed in Britain since the Middle Ages. In the 1830s this system was reformed, and relief for the poor was restricted largely to those who lived in special institutions called workhouses.

By the time of the Industrial Revolution, the poor in England were looked after by a system that had been set up in the late sixteenth century. Each village or **parish** had to take care of its own poor, and those who owned property paid a special tax called the Poor Rate. Some of the money was used to supply food or other necessities for **paupers** living in their own homes. This was called **outdoor relief**. In some villages or parishes, special places were built to house and feed the poor. Known as **workhouses**, they were often very crowded, unpleasant places to live. Requiring the poor to live in these places was called **indoor relief**.

3.7.2 The New Poor Law

Following the Swing Riots of 1830 (see subtopic 3.3), the British government set up a **royal commission** to investigate the operation of the Poor Laws. The commission made the following recommendations:

- outdoor relief should be abolished
- only those living in the workhouses should be entitled to any assistance
- the workhouse should be as unpleasant as possible to discourage anybody capable of working from wanting to live there.

In 1834 Parliament passed the Poor Law Amendment Act to put these recommendations into effect. This set up a system known as the New Poor Law, and 350 new workhouses were built by 1839. The workhouse system continued into the early twentieth century.

SOURCE 1 This nineteenth-century painting shows a family living in poverty. Under the Old Poor Law system the workhouse was an unpleasant place to live, but families could at least stay together.

SOURCE 2 Women in the workhouse could be put to work picking oakum, as shown in this nineteenth-century photograph.

3.7.3 Life in the workhouse

Conditions in workhouses were deliberately made as unpleasant as possible. Under the Old Poor Law, families in workhouses could stay together, but under the new system families were split up. Men and women were kept separate and their children were removed from their care. All inmates of the workhouse, except for the very youngest children, were put to work. This work usually consisted of hand-grinding corn, breaking stones or **picking oakum**.

Imposition of strict rules

The workhouse was run by the Master, who was expected to manage it on a very tight budget. Strict regulations were imposed on the inhabitants of the workhouse, and the Master had the power to impose savage punishment on those who disobeyed the rules. Parents were rarely allowed to see their children and outside visitors were not allowed. Meals were kept to the bare minimum necessary to sustain life and had to be eaten in silence. In Charles Dickens' *Oliver Twist*, young Oliver asks for more food and is punished by being placed in solitary confinement. Children were given very little education and were usually apprenticed out to local employers at an early age. In Dickens' story, young Oliver Twist was to be apprenticed to a chimney sweep but is eventually apprenticed to an undertaker at the age of nine.

SOURCE 3 From a Rochester correspondent to *The Times*, 26 December 1840

Upwards of half-a-dozen girls in the workhouse, some of them verging on womanhood, have at times had their persons exposed in the most brutal and indecent manner, by the Master, for the purpose of inflicting on them cruel floggings; and the same girls, at other times, have, in a scarcely less indecent manner, been compelled by him to strip the upper parts of their persons naked, to allow him to scourge them with birch rods on their bared shoulders and waists, and which, from more than one of the statements from the lips of the sufferers, appears to have been inflicted without mercy. One girl says, 'My back was marked with blood'.

SOURCE 4 Workhouse inmates were fed a minimal diet, and forced to eat in silence, as shown in this nineteenth-century photograph.

DID YOU KNOW?

A scandal arose in 1845 over conditions in the workhouse in the town of Andover. The Master, Mr McDougal, was a bully and a drunk who savagely beat small children and regularly raped women under his care. He had kept rations to such a minimum that starving inmates were found to be trying to eat animal bones they were supposed to be grinding up for fertiliser. The story was publicised in *The Times* newspaper in London and caused a national outcry.

3.7 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain two differences between the Old Poor Law and the New Poor Law.
2. What was the Poor Rate?
3. Why was there a deliberate policy to make the workhouse an unpleasant place to live?
4. In what types of activities were workhouse inmates employed?
5. Explain how children were treated in the workhouse.

Apply your understanding

6. Using the material provided in the sources, describe two ways in which workhouse conditions were kept as unpleasant as possible.
7. What does the treatment of paupers under the New Poor Law tell us about attitudes towards poverty in nineteenth-century Britain?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.4: Help for the poor?

3.8 Reformers and progress

3.8.1 Influential reformers

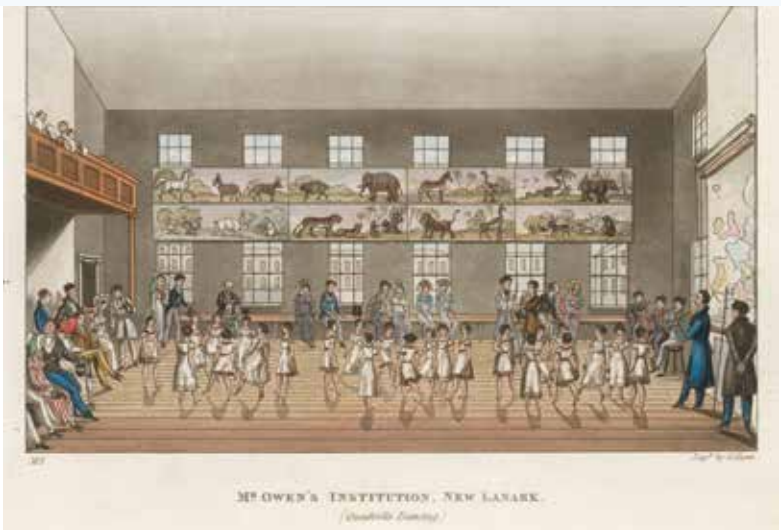
The early years of the Industrial Revolution were marked by appalling working and living conditions for factory and mine workers. But changes and improvements began to be introduced during the nineteenth century. Laws passed to protect workers were often the result of determined campaigning by prominent individuals.

Many prominent citizens became concerned at the working and living conditions of ordinary working people during the Industrial Revolution. A number of them sought to bring about change.

Robert Owen

Robert Owen bought a share in the New Lanark cotton mills in Scotland in 1800 and managed them for the next 25 years. Owen disagreed with the widespread attitude among factory owners that workers had to be paid low wages and treated poorly to ensure the biggest profits. He stopped employing children under 10 in his factories, provided schooling for the younger children and limited the working hours for children over 10 so they could also attend school. He provided clean, comfortable housing as well as a pleasant working environment for his workers. His business was very successful and he travelled all around Britain promoting his ideas.

SOURCE 1 At Robert Owen's New Lanark mill, children were provided with an education, including dancing classes.



Lord Ashley (later the Earl of Shaftesbury)

As a member of Parliament Lord Ashley promoted the passing of laws to improve the working conditions of ordinary working people. He was responsible for introducing some of the Factory Acts that restricted the use of child labour in textile mills. He supported the Mines Act of 1842 that outlawed the employment of women and young children in coalmines (see subtopic 3.4). Lord Ashley was also responsible for setting up the first free schools for poor children.

Edwin Chadwick

Edwin Chadwick was a lawyer who initially became involved in both Poor Law reform and the issue of child labour in the early 1830s. As a member of the Poor Law Commission he was largely responsible for the provisions of the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834. He also contributed to a government report that recommended reductions in working hours for children in factories. Many of his ideas were included in the Factory Act of 1833 (see **Source 2**). In 1842 he published a report on the insanitary living conditions of the working classes in the overcrowded towns and cities. He became a strong campaigner for clean water supplies and proper sewerage systems to improve levels of public health.

3.8.2 Factory reform

During the nineteenth century Parliament passed a number of Factory Acts, most of which were designed to restrict the employment of women and children in factories, and to limit the number of hours that could be worked in a day.

SOURCE 2 Factory reform

Factory Act 1819 — Limited the hours worked by children to a maximum of 12 per day

Factory Act 1833 — Banned employment of children under 9 and limited 10–13-year-olds to a 48-hour week in the textiles industry. To enforce this rule, factory inspectors were introduced (although there were initially only four inspectors for all of England).

Factory Act 1844 — Reduced the maximum working hours for women to 12 hours per day

Ten Hour Act 1847 — Reduced maximum working hours for women and children to 10 hours per day

Factory Act 1850 — Prohibited women and children from working in a factory before 6 am or after 6 pm

Factory Act 1874 — Set a maximum of 56.5 hours of work per week for all workers

3.8.3 Public health reform

Edwin Chadwick's *Report on the Sanitary Conditions of the Labouring Population of Great Britain* in 1842 highlighted the need to improve the living conditions of the poor in major towns and cities. It took years to achieve real progress. In some parts of Britain, improvements did not occur until well into the twentieth century.

The Public Health Act of 1848

A Central Board of Health was set up, with Chadwick as one of its members, with the power to set up local boards in areas where the death rate from disease was particularly high. These local authorities had the power to manage street cleaning, collection of refuse, supply of clean water and installation of sewerage systems. This system led to improvements in some towns but was not very effective across the whole country.

London sets the standard

As the largest city in Britain, London experienced particularly bad sanitation problems. In 1847 a Commission of Sewers was set up to remove all the cesspits and replace them with underground sewerage. By 1865 a sewerage system had been established for all of London.

The Public Health Acts of 1872 and 1875

These laws divided the whole country into sanitary districts, setting up local health boards to control water supply and sewerage systems. Further laws passed at this time gave local councils the power to purchase whole slum districts, demolish them and replace them with improved housing, including parks and gardens.

SOURCE 3 The construction of sewers in London removed cesspits from the streets, improving sanitation.

DID YOU KNOW?

People living in crowded houses would frequently empty their toilet pot out the window, often from one or two storeys above the street. To warn anybody walking below, they would call out the French, *Gardez l'eau*! ('Beware of the water!'). This came to be expressed as 'Gardey loo!' and is said to be the origin of the word loo as an alternative term for toilet.

3.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Outline the major achievements of each of the following:
   (a) Robert Owen
   (b) Lord Ashley
   (c) Edwin Chadwick.
2. Explain the improvements that occurred as a result of the Public Health Acts of 1848, 1872 and 1875.
3. Draw a timeline to demonstrate the improvements in urban living standards that occurred in Britain after 1830.

Apply your understanding

4. From **Source 1**, suggest some of the classes other than dancing that might have been taught at Robert Owen's New Lanark school.

5. Using the information in **Source 2**, describe how conditions were gradually improved for factory workers during the nineteenth century.
6. Examine **Source 3** and explain why the provision of an underground sewerage system can be regarded as a major achievement.
7. With only four factory inspectors employed for all of England (see **Source 2**), how well do you think the Factory Act of 1833 was enforced? Give reasons for your answer.
8. Using the school library or the internet, complete the following tasks:
   (a) Find two facts not already mentioned in this subtopic about the reformer Robert Owen. With your teacher's assistance, collate your findings with those of the rest of the class, and compile a biography of Owen, highlighting his activities and achievements.
   (b) Investigate a reformer (other than those described in this subtopic) who had a significant impact on improving working and living conditions for workers and their families during this time. Prepare a brief report on that person's achievements for presentation to the class.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.5: Changes for the better

3.9 Social unrest and trade unions

3.9.1 Social unrest, protests and riots

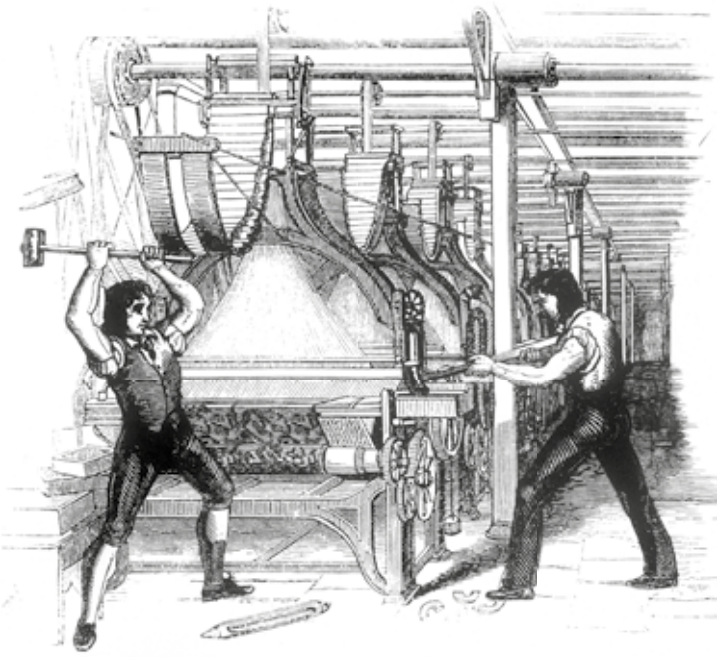
As the industrial and agricultural revolutions progressed, many factory, mine and farm workers were dissatisfied with their working conditions. Initially this showed up as protests and even riots, but as the nineteenth century progressed, workers began to organise into unions to work towards improvements in their working lives.

The social upheaval resulting from the agricultural and industrial changes led to a number of protest movements by ordinary working people in the early nineteenth century.

The Luddites

Many skilled artisans of the old cottage textile industry felt that the use of machines in factories had robbed them of their livelihood. Between 1811 and 1817, groups of these workers protested by destroying the new machines. They were known as **Luddites**, after their probably fictitious leader, King Ned Ludd. In 1811 more than one thousand industrial machines were smashed. Between 1812 and 1813, 14 Luddites were executed and many more were transported to the colonies for life.

SOURCE 1 A nineteenth-century artwork of Luddites using a sledgehammer and a crowbar to smash power looms in a cotton mill



Peterloo Massacre

The most infamous incident of this period was known as the Peterloo Massacre. In August 1819 a group of around 50 000 protesters gathered peacefully at St Peter's Fields near Manchester to demand economic and political reform. Instead they were attacked by mounted troops, with 15 killed and more than six hundred seriously wounded. Incidents such as this helped awaken many to the social problems that had arisen from the agricultural and industrial revolutions.

SOURCE 2 An 1819 cartoon depicting the Peterloo Massacre. The officer is calling to his men: 'Remember, the more you kill, the less Poor Rates you'll have to pay, so go to it, lads, show your courage and your loyalty!'

3.9.2 Trade unions

Trade unions had first developed as associations of people who worked in similar trades. They had very little impact until the growth of factories brought large numbers of workers together in the one place. Employers in these factories were opposed to the formation of unions that might have campaigned for improved wages or working conditions. They convinced Parliament to pass laws severely restricting union activity.

The Combination Acts

In 1799 and 1800 Parliament passed the Combination Acts, which effectively banned workers from combining to form unions. The Combination Acts were **repealed** in 1824, but a series of **strikes** led to the passing of the Combination Act of 1825. This allowed unions to bargain with employers over wages and hours of work, but banned them from using strike action.

The Chartists

In 1836 a group of tradesmen who had been influenced by the ideas of Robert Owen (see subtopic 3.7) formed the London Working Men's Association. In 1837 they published the People's Charter, which aimed to improve the voting system to allow more working people to have a say in parliamentary elections. Supporters of this charter became known as Chartists. In 1842 large numbers of workers went on strike in support of improved wages and the principles contained in the People's Charter. Many were arrested, and more than fifty Chartists were sentenced to transportation to the Australian colonies.

The Tolpuddle Martyrs

In 1834 six farm labourers in the village of Tolpuddle in Dorset were arrested for swearing an oath of loyalty to their union, the Friendly Society of Agricultural Labourers. It was no longer illegal to belong to a union, so they were prosecuted under an obscure law relating to the swearing of oaths. They were sentenced to seven years' transportation to Van Diemen's Land. Outraged public opinion and the presentation of a huge petition to Parliament led to their being pardoned in 1836. They became an important symbol of the right of free association for workers.

SOURCE 3 Between 50 000 and 60 000 trade union members gathered on 21 April 1834 in Copenhagen Fields (outside London) to present a petition to the Prime Minister in support of the Tolpuddle Martyrs.

The New Model Trade Unions

In the 1850s groups of skilled tradesmen set up their own unions, beginning with the Amalgamated Society of Engineers in 1851. These unions provided their members with a wide range of services, such as sickness benefits. They attracted strong support, and soon became a model for other groups of workers.

Improved legal status

In response to the growth of unions, in 1867 Parliament set up a royal commission to investigate trade unions. The commission found that most 'new model' unions served a useful social purpose and should have legal status. The Trade Union Act of 1871 gave unions many of the same legal rights as businesses, including the right to own property. In 1875 unions in Britain gained the legal right to bargain on behalf of their members, including the right to strike.

DID YOU KNOW?

Many participants in the Eureka Rebellion at Ballarat, Victoria, in 1854 (see subtopic 6.2) had been active Chartists in Britain. The first President of the Ballarat Reform League was Welsh-born Chartist John Basson Humffray. The miners' demands were inspired by Chartist ideals, and Reform League members Henry Holyoake and Thomas Kennedy had both been active Chartists in England.

3.9 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Who were the Luddites (see **Source 1**), and what activities did they engage in?
2. Why were factory owners opposed to the formation of unions?
3. Explain the significance of each of the following in the development of the union movement:
   (a) the Tolpuddle Martyrs
   (b) the Chartists
   (c) the New Model Trade Unions.

Apply your understanding

4. Examine **Source 2**. Identify three features of the cartoon that tell you that the artist strongly opposed the actions of the troops in the Peterloo Massacre.
5. What does **Source 3** tell us about the nature of the protest against the punishment of the Tolpuddle Martyrs?
6. How can we tell that the British Parliament was more strongly influenced by factory owners than by workers and unions?
7. The activities of unionists and other protesters in Britain influenced the growth of the union movement in Australia. Suggest a reason for this influence.
8. Using information from this subtopic and subtopic 3.2, draw a timeline that demonstrates the impact of social unrest in Britain on the Australian colonies during the nineteenth century.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.6: Social unrest and trade unions

3.10 SkillBuilder: Recognising different perspectives

3.10.1 What is a historical perspective?

A historical perspective is a point of view from which historical events, problems and issues can be analysed. For example, the perspective of a factory owner in the early nineteenth century would be quite different from that of a child working in a factory or coalmine. Also, the way we view events today may be quite different from the way people viewed them in the past. Our expectation today is that all children attend school from the age of five or six until their mid or late teens. Two hundred years ago in Britain and most other European countries only the children of the wealthy were educated. Most children were expected to work to help the family as soon as they were physically able. Our perspective on child labour is completely different from the perspective of those living in the late eighteenth or early nineteenth centuries.

Why is it important to recognise a historical perspective?

When examining any historical issue or event, we should be trying to build up an accurate picture of what actually happened in the past. If we are relying on a primary source in the form of an eyewitness report of an event, we need to be aware of possible bias or prejudice on the part of that eyewitness. If we know the particular perspective or point of view of that eyewitness, we can take any such prejudices into account when assessing the accuracy of their account. Gathering eyewitness reports from a number of people, all with different perspectives of the events in question, will help us form the most accurate picture. In order to do this we need to know the perspective of each eyewitness.

3.10.2 How do we identify or recognise a historical perspective?

The more we know about the person providing the evidence, the better able we are to identify that person's perspective. We know a good deal about factory reformer Robert Owen from his writings and his actions. If we read a report by Owen in which he praised the management of a particular textile factory, we would expect that the factory was being run in a manner similar to that of Owen's own New Lanark mills. We know enough about Owen to be able to recognise his perspective. If we were to read the opinions of another factory owner, we would want to find out as much as possible about that person to determine their perspective. This would allow us to assess their opinions and identify any bias or prejudice.

An example of the use of historical perspective

William Blanchard Jerrold was a writer and journalist. In 1869 he collaborated with French artist Gustave Doré to produce a book called *London: A Pilgrimage*. Published in 1872, this book featured descriptions and drawings of many of the poorest parts of London and its most impoverished inhabitants. It included 180 engravings by Doré showing slum areas, extreme poverty and the depressed state of much of the population. Jerrold and Doré were accused by many of showing only the worst aspects of London, but they clearly wanted to make their readers more aware of the conditions suffered by the poor. Examine **Source 1**.

This illustration from Jerrold and Doré's book shows a poor family trying to sell a few trinkets on the street. All the family look thin and poorly clothed. The street looks dark and dirty. The fact that the whole family is present suggests they may be homeless. The whole scene is designed to show just how distressing poverty could be on the streets of London. When we understand Doré's perspective we realise that he may have deliberately exaggerated the scene to get his message across to the reader.

SOURCE 1 This engraving by Gustave Doré of a scene in the London street of Houndsditch appeared in *London: A Pilgrimage* in 1872.

3.10.3 Developing my skills

Examine **Sources 2, 3** and **4**. For each quote:

1. Find out as much as you can from the school library or the internet about the author of the quote, and write a brief statement about that person's perspective in relation to child labour in mines and factories.
2. Explain how each quote demonstrates that perspective.

SOURCE 2 From Michael Sadler, in a speech in the House of Commons, 16 March 1832

The parents rouse them in the morning and receive them tired and exhausted after the day has closed; they see them droop and sicken, and, in many cases, become cripples and die, before they reach their prime; and they do all this, because they must otherwise starve. It is a mockery to contend that these parents have a choice. They choose the lesser evil, and reluctantly resign their offspring to the captivity and pollution of the mill.

SOURCE 3 Henry 'Orator' Hunt, in a speech in the House of Commons, 16 March 1832

The question is, whether the children of the manufacturing poor should work for more hours than human nature can sustain. If the honourable members were to see hundreds of the poor, unfortunate wretches employed in the cotton-mills in Lancashire, they would feel the absolute necessity of adopting an active interference. I say, let the manufacturer keep double the number of workmen, but do not let him destroy the health of the rising generation.

SOURCE 4 Henry Thomas Hope, in a speech in the House of Commons, 16 March 1832

The right honourable member [Michael Sadler] seems to consider that it is desirable for adults to replace children. I cannot concur with that opinion, because I think that the labour of children is a great resource to their parents and of great benefit to themselves. I therefore, on these grounds, oppose this measure … I believe that the bill will be productive of great inconvenience, not only to persons who have embarked large capital in the cotton manufactures, but even to workmen and children themselves …

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 3.7: Recognising different perspectives

3.11 Review

3.11.1 Review

In this topic we have studied the impact of the agricultural and industrial revolutions on the lives of ordinary people during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. This has included both adults and children working on farms, in factories and in coalmines. We have also examined living conditions in the rapidly growing towns, the way in which the poor were treated, and how progress was eventually made in improving the lives of the people.

KEY TERMS

biased account narrative or description in which a writer presents only one side of an issue in an effort to convince the reader
cesspool a pit into which householders with no toilets could empty their waste, which was later collected by workers known as nightmen
cholera a bacterial disease of the intestines, causing vomiting and diarrhoea. It is transmitted through contaminated water and can lead to death through dehydration.
impartial observations comments and reflections that recognise all sides and opinions relating to an issue or event, leaving it to the reader to form his or her own judgement
indoor relief the provision of assistance to the inmates of the workhouse
Luddites a group of protesters who expressed their opposition to industrialisation by smashing factory machines
outdoor relief the provision of assistance to the poor while allowing them to remain in their own homes
parish an area of local government centred on the local church, which fulfilled some of the functions that local municipal councils perform in our own society
pauper a very poor person
picking oakum unpicking short lengths of rope coated in tar. Oakum would be rammed between the planks on wooden ships to make them watertight.
repeal withdrawal of a law or set of laws by Parliament
royal commission a special public inquiry set up by government to investigate a particular issue and to make recommendations for changes in the law
strike attempt by employees to put pressure on their employer by refusing to work
typhus a fatal disease spread by the bites of lice and fleas
workhouse an institution built to house the poor

3.11 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz

Short answer quiz

1. How did the balance between urban and rural population in Britain change during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
2. Identify one major way in which agricultural workers were disadvantaged by enclosure.
3. List three dangers to the health and safety of workers in an early-nineteenth-century textile mill.
4. List three dangers to the health and safety of workers in an early-nineteenth-century coalmine.
5. What jobs were carried out by ‘hurriers’ and ‘trappers’?
6. What jobs were carried out by ‘piecers’ and ‘scavengers’?
7. Who were the ‘climbing boys’?
8. Identify two reasons why housing for workers during the early years of the Industrial Revolution was of such poor quality.
9. Why was the incidence of disease so high in factory towns in the first half of the nineteenth century?
10. What was a workhouse? Why were more workhouses built after 1834?
11. Why were workhouse conditions deliberately made as unpleasant as possible?
12. What was the effect of the various Factory Acts passed by the British Parliament in the nineteenth century?
13. What were aims of the Combination Acts?
14. What legal status had trade unions gained by 1875?

Apply your understanding

SOURCE 1 Average age of death in selected countries and cities in England, 1842

Place	Average age of death		
	Professional/Gentry	Tradesmen	Labourers
Bethnal Green	45	26	16
Bolton	34	23	18
Derby	49	38	21
Kendal	45	39	34
Leeds	44	27	19
Liverpool	35	22	15
Manchester	38	20	17
Wiltshire	50	48	33

Source: From Edwin Chadwick, *Report on the Sanitary Conditions of the Labouring Population of Great Britain*, 1842, www.spartacus.schoolnet.co.uk/PHchadwick.htm

15. (a) Using the internet and your library, identify which of the locations in **Source 1** had large numbers of factories and experienced rapid population growth during the Industrial Revolution.
    (b) Which locations remained primarily rural during this period?
16. What is meant by the term *gentry* in the categories of people included in **Source 1**?
17. Give examples of the types of occupations that would have been included in each of the groups of people included in **Source 1**.
18. Find out as much as you can about the *Report on the Sanitary Conditions of the Labouring Population of Great Britain*. Identify and explain two recommendations Chadwick made in this report that he believed would improve sanitary conditions in the overcrowded towns and cities.
19. (a) What conclusions can you draw about the sanitary conditions and levels of disease in factory towns compared with areas that were primarily rural? Give two examples from **Source 1** to support your conclusion.
    (b) Which place appears to have had the worst health outcomes in England at this time? Use figures from the table to support your conclusion.
    (c) The average age of death for the professional/gentry group in Bolton is the same as that for labourers in Kendal. Explain why you believe this was the case.

The positives and negatives of the Industrial Revolution

Consider the two opinions in **Source 2** and **3**

SOURCE 2 A negative view of the Industrial Revolution. From J. L. and Barbara Hammond, *The Rise of Modern Industry*, 1925, p. 232

England asked for profits and received profits. Everything turned to profit. The towns had their profitable dirt, their profitable slums, their profitable smoke, their profitable disorder, their profitable ignorance, their profitable despair …

For the new town was not a home where man could find beauty, happiness, leisure, learning, religion, the influences that civilise outlook and habit, but a bare and desolate place, without colour, air or laughter, where man, woman and child worked, ate and slept …

The new factories and new furnaces were like the Pyramids, telling of man's enslavement rather than of his power, casting their long shadow over the society that took such pride in them.

SOURCE 3 A positive view of the Industrial Revolution. From T. S. Ashton, *The Industrial Revolution (1760–1830)*, 1948, p. 129

An historian has written of 'the disasters of the industrial revolution' … [I]f he means that the technical and economic changes were themselves the source of calamity the opinion is surely perverse. The central problem of the age was how to feed and clothe and employ generations of children outnumbering by far those of any earlier time. [England] … was delivered … by those who … had the wit and resource to devise new instruments of production and new methods of administering industry. There are today [in the Third World] men and women, plague-ridden and hungry, living lives little better, to outward appearance, than those of the cattle that toil with them by day and share their places of sleep at night. Such … horrors are the lot of those who increase their numbers without passing through an industrial revolution.

20. (a) Using what you have learned in this topic and topic 2, work in groups of three or four to draw up two lists, one list of the positive effects of the Industrial Revolution, and one of the negative effects. Compare your lists with those of the rest of the class. Your teacher can assist in collating complete lists of all the positives and negatives identified.
    (b) After considering all the positives and negatives, write your own opinion on whether or not the Industrial Revolution was a positive or negative experience for Britain and its people. Remember to justify your opinion with evidence.

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Go online to access additional end of topic resources such as interactivities and printable worksheets.

Try out this interactivity: Industrial revolution: Impact on people timeline (int-2963)

Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 3.8: Crossword
Worksheet 3.9: Summing up
Worksheet 3.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic several big questions were posed. Use the knowledge you have gained to answer these questions.

1. How did the Industrial Revolution affect population growth and where people lived?
2. What were the experiences of men, women and children as workers on farms, and in factories and mines?
3. What was the impact on towns and cities as people moved away from the countryside to work in factories and mines?
4. How were living and working conditions for workers improved during the nineteenth century?

TOPIC 4 Movement of peoples (1750–1901)

4.1 Overview

Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

4.1.1 Links with our times

These days it is not unusual for families or groups of people to migrate from one part of the world to another. It is emotionally and physically exhausting to start a new life in a different part of the world, and the situation in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries was not so very different. Political upheavals in Europe and the social and economic dislocation brought about by the Industrial Revolution changed how people lived and worked. Rapid urbanisation forced many people away from one region and towards another — sometimes voluntarily, sometimes against their will.

Slaves

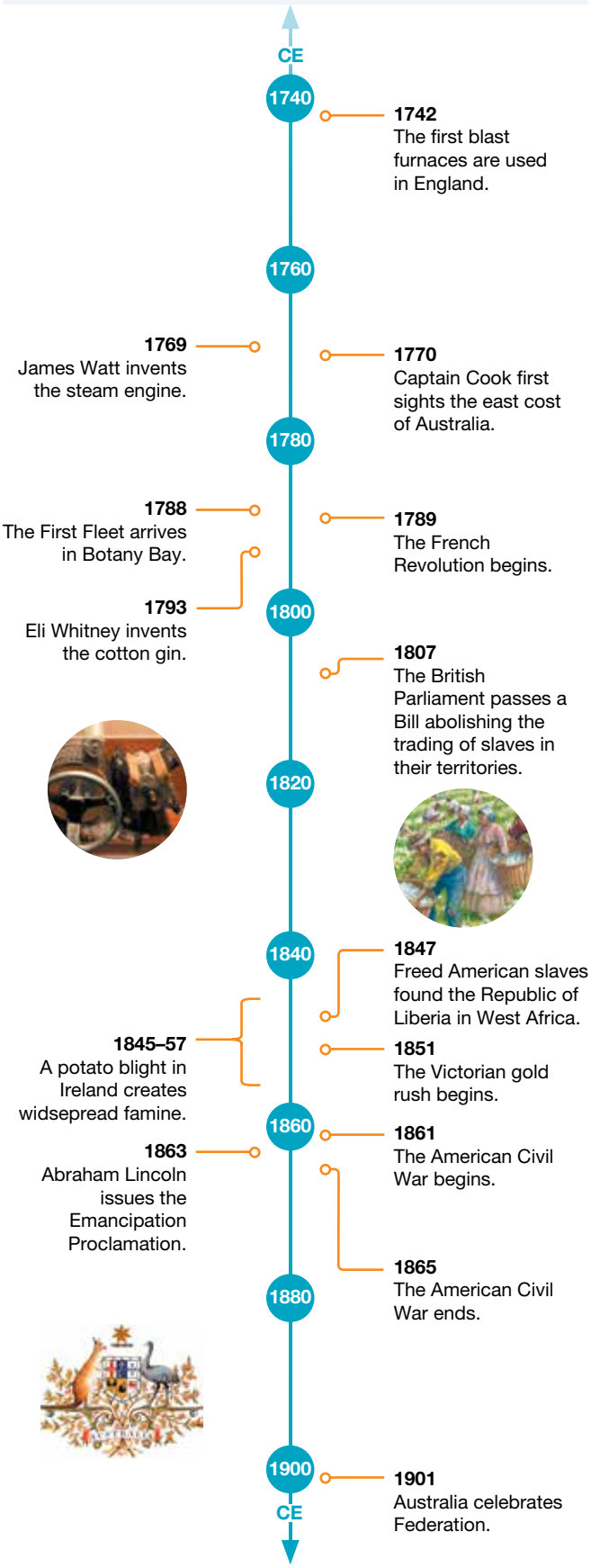
Today slavery is outlawed, but it still occurs in some countries. Slavery has existed in many cultures for thousands of years, but it was during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that it played a tragic role in the development of the modern world. The technological advances that gave rise to the Industrial Revolution created a need for cheap labour.

Convicts

There was nothing new about crime or about criminals being banished from their native land. Banishment had always been a severe punishment because those sentenced to it were cut off from their community and homeland. For many, banishment felt worse than the death penalty. Very few of those sentenced

SOURCE 1 A young migrant family leaves England, bound for a new life. What do you think might be going through their minds as the English coastline dissolves behind them?

SOURCE 2 A timeline of key events relating to movement of peoples, 1750–1901



to transportation to Australia from Britain beginning in the late eighteenth century would ever see their homeland again. They were forced to create a new life and a new society in a very different place.

Migrants

The decision to migrate is never taken lightly. Many different factors need to be carefully considered, and a successful adjustment is rarely assured. Nineteenth-century migrants made this momentous decision for a number of different reasons, but generally they shared the same fate as convicts in at least one way: few who made the journey would ever return to their homeland. Those who were successful might be lucky enough to be joined by their families, but many others simply disappeared, never to be heard from again. All played a part in building modern-day Australia.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. How did technology and new ideas contribute to the movement of peoples between 1750 and 1901?
2. What was the significance of European imperialism to slaves, convicts and migrants?
3. What conditions did slaves and convicts face when they were put to work?
4. What sort of historical sources are most useful when investigating slaves, convicts and migrants?

Starter questions

1. Does slavery still exist in the modern world? If so, where?
2. Why do you think slavery continues in some parts of the world?
3. What do you already know about Australia's convict past?
4. Does your family have an immigrant background? If so, do you know why your family members decided to migrate to Australia?

4.2 How do we know about the movement of peoples (1750–1901)?

4.2.1 Historical sources

A wide range of historical sources reveal a great deal of useful information about the years between 1750 and 1901. The Industrial Revolution changed the way many people lived and worked. Governments and employers kept records of the people who worked for them. Artists and writers recorded their own impressions of the period.

Historians have learned much about the period between 1750 and 1901 by studying a wide range of historical sources. These include written sources such as personal diaries and memoirs, official government reports and other publications. They also include visual sources such as photographs (from the 1830s onwards) and illustrations.

Information about any historical period comes from two main types of sources – primary sources and secondary sources. As you already know, primary sources are first-hand sources produced by someone who witnessed the event being studied. Secondary sources, usually produced at a later time, interpret primary sources.

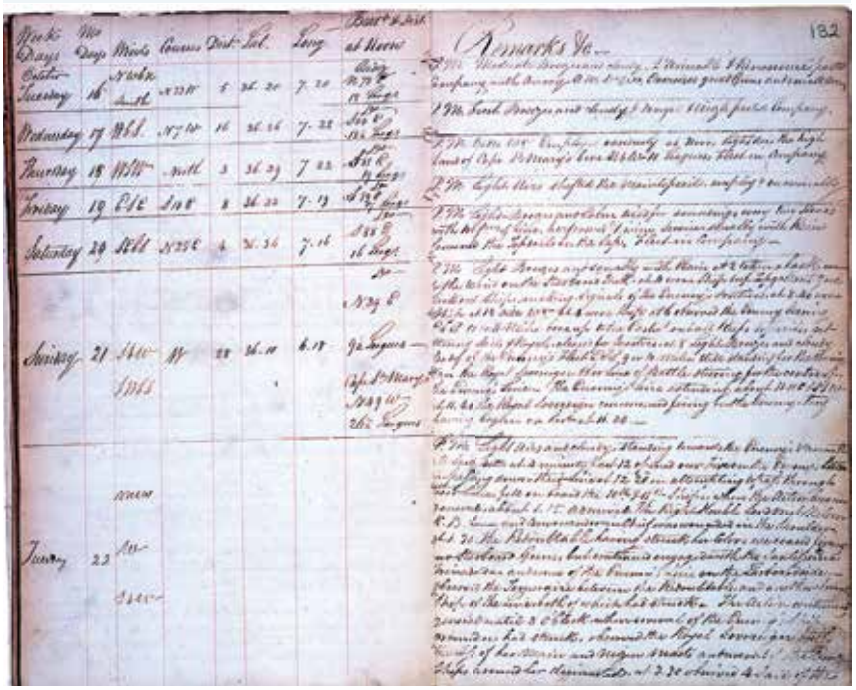
It is important to bear in mind that a primary source is not necessarily more valuable than a secondary source. Both have value and limitations for historians and history students. Every source may be useful in some ways but less useful in others.

Source 1 shows a page from a ship's logbook. The logbook provides useful information on the technical aspects of the voyage, such as wind speed and course (the direction the ship is travelling). However, there is information that it does not tell us. For example, we don't know what the ship is carrying, and we cannot discover what the passengers and crew were thinking.

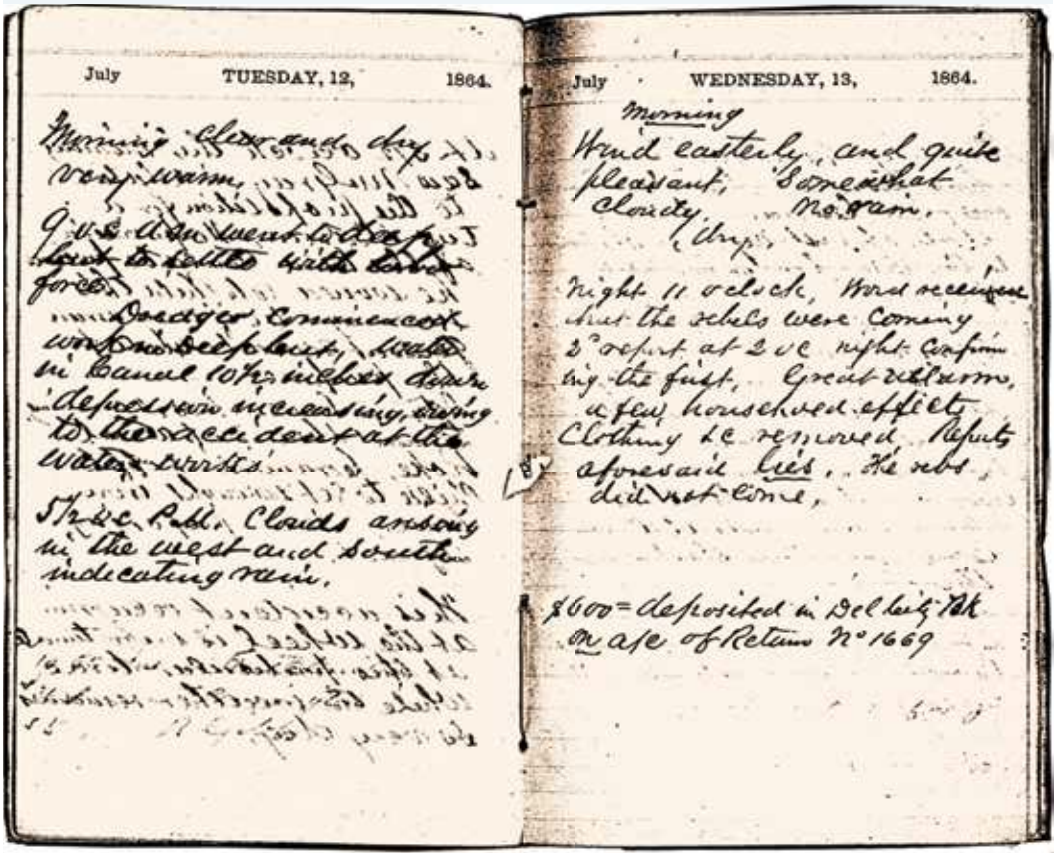
Source 2 offers very different information from **Source 1**. It gives an insight into a migrant's life and reveals one individual's personal feelings, rather than technical information.

Source 3 provides another interesting perspective. It is an illustration that shows a slave being punished. Although this sort of punishment was certainly common, it is difficult to know whether the scene portrayed recorded an actual event or depicted an event imagined by the artist. Because of this it has both value and limitations as a historical source.

SOURCE 1 A page from a ship's log. It indicates the ship's course and the wind strength and direction, and allows room for comments by the captain.



SOURCE 2 This page from a migrant's diary is a very different type of source from **Source 1**.



July TUESDAY, 12, 1864.

Morning clear and dry very warm.

9 o'c A.M. went to deep but to settle with labor force.

Dredger commenced work in deep but, water in Canal 10½ inches down depression increasing, owing to the accident at the water works.

5½ o'c P.M. Clouds arising in the west and south indicating rain.

July WEDNESDAY, 13, 1864.

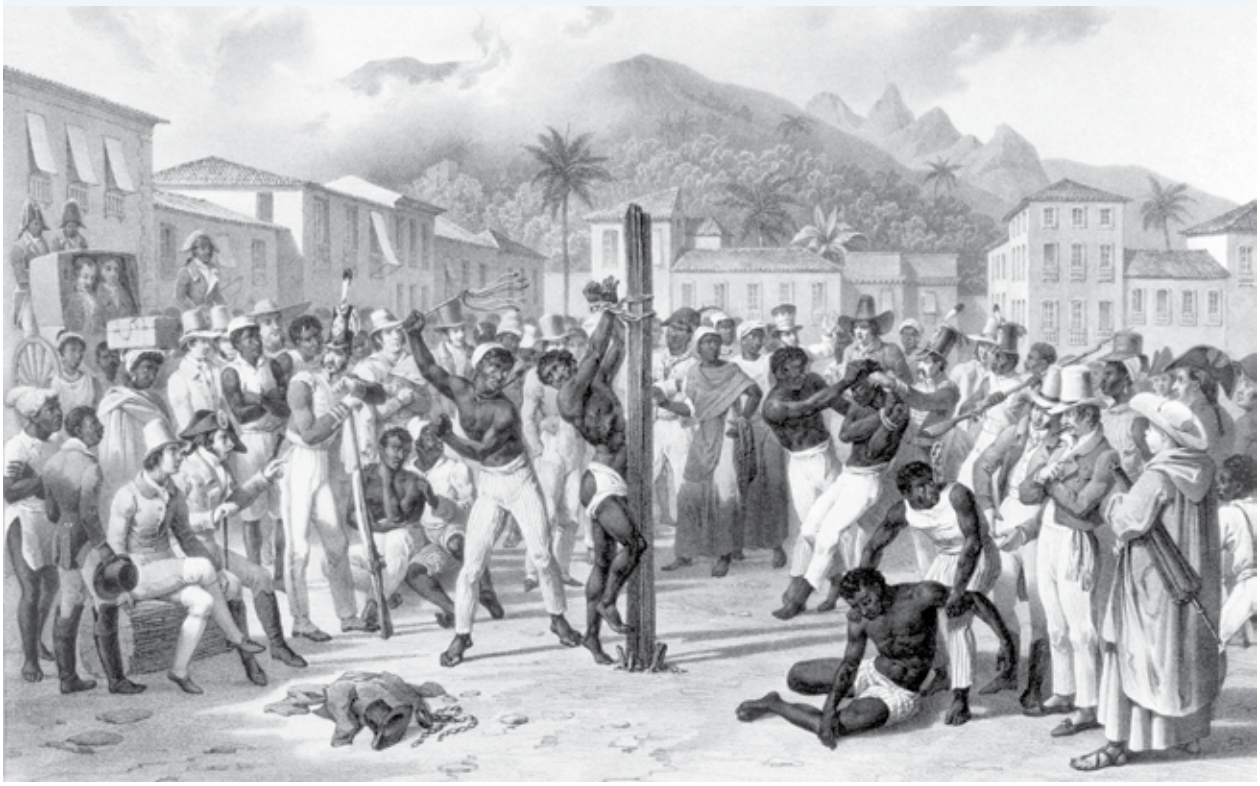
Morning

Wind easterly, and quite pleasant, somewhat cloudy. No rain. Dry.

Night 11 o'clock, Word received that the rebels were coming 2° report at 2 o'c night confirming the first. Great alarm, a few household effects Clothing &c removed. Reports aforesaid lies. The rebs did not come.

$600 = deposited in Del City Bk on a/c of Return No 1669

SOURCE 3 This nineteenth-century illustration shows a slave being flogged. We don't know if this specific event actually happened or whether it represents a typical slave punishment.



4.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Identify whether each of the following would be a primary or secondary source for the period studied in this topic.
   (a) A diary of a migrant coming to Australia
   (b) A photograph of slaves at work on an American cotton plantation
   (c) A newspaper report from 1863 notifying people about a shipwreck
   (d) A cartoon from a newspaper portraying life on board a migrant ship
   (e) A poster advertising an upcoming slave auction
2. Look back at the sources you were asked to identify as primary or secondary. Could any of them be both primary and secondary? Would classifying them as one or the other depend on how the historian wanted to use them? Discuss your ideas.

Apply your understanding

3. In what way is the illustration in **Source 3** useful to a historian? What limitations does this image have as a source? Why is it important to study other sources in addition to this one?
4. Is it true to say that what might be considered a value by one historian could be considered a limitation by another? Explain how this might come about, referring to **Sources 1** and **2** in your response.
5. How can the usefulness of a historical source change depending on what the historian wants to find out?
6. What sort of information might a historian who finds **Source 2** useful be looking for?

4.3 Overview of slavery

4.3.1 The origins of the slave trade

Slavery has existed for thousands of years. Many different civilisations around the world used slavery in one form or another. But it was only after the arrival of Europeans in the Americas in the late fifteenth century that the slave trade became an **intercontinental** industry. Over the next four hundred years millions of slaves were transported from Africa to support the industry and economies of America and much of Europe. Slavery helped build the wealth of America and England, but the slaves themselves saw none of that wealth.

When Christopher Columbus reached the Caribbean island of Hispaniola in 1492 he immediately saw the prospective wealth that the New World could bring to Europe. After leaving Spain he had sailed along the coast of Africa and he already had Africans working on his ship. As Spanish settlers began to follow Columbus to make their wealth in the Americas they needed workers. In the early years of the New World, when the Spanish were the most numerous Europeans there, many among the local populations of Native Americans were killed or reduced to slavery.

The slaves were used for labour in South America and to help build the empire of **New Spain** as it expanded northwards. Most were put to work in the goldmines. Facing 18-hour days, six days a week, in terrible conditions, thousands were worked to death or died of starvation or beatings. Thousands more died from introduced diseases, brought by the Europeans, against which the native population had little resistance or immunity. Replacements were needed so African slaves, who had had contact with Europeans already and had built some resistance to European diseases, were transported to New Spain.

When the English began to establish plantations in the Caribbean islands and the American mainland to grow sugar, cotton and tobacco, they too imported slaves from Africa. They saw the native population as unsuitable for labour and besides, as in New Spain, they were quickly being used up through disease and overwork. African slaves soon became a vital part of the economy of the Americas.

Source 1 shows the importance placed on slavery by one English plantation owner. Some European labourers and convicts were put to work, but in general European servants were hard to find. Most had

come to America to work for themselves, not for someone else. Soon African slaves became household servants as well as manual labourers.

SOURCE 1 Emanuel Downing, a plantation owner from Massachusetts, 1645

I do not see how we can thrive until we get a stock of slaves sufficient to do all our business.

4.3.2 Kidnapped and traded

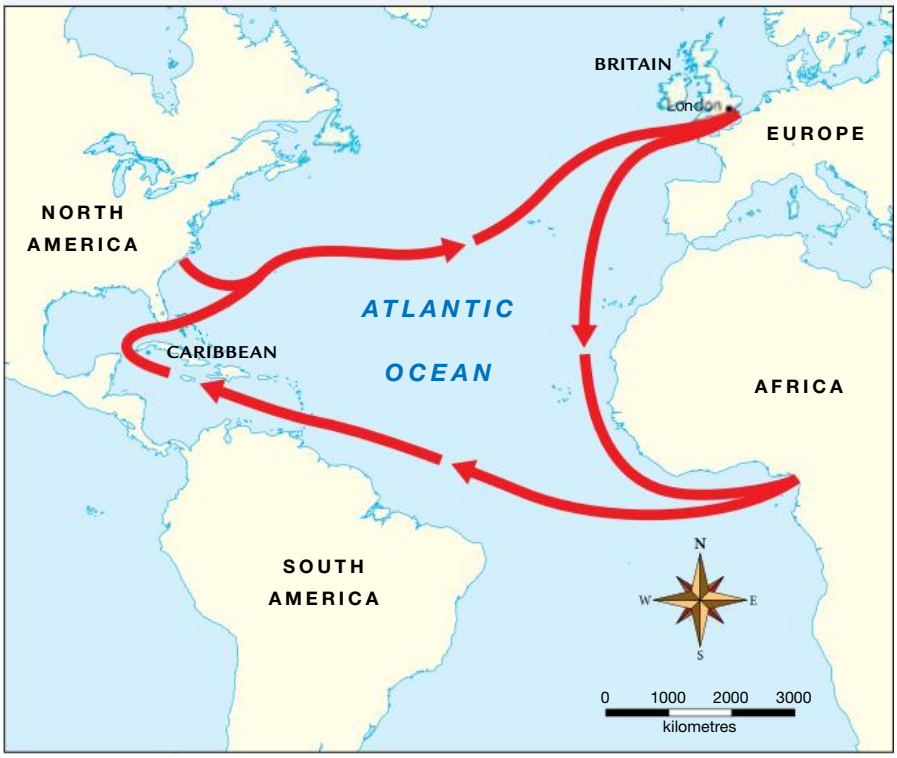
Early European slave traders raided the African coast and kidnapped any able-bodied Africans they could capture. Sometimes they tempted their victims close to the ships with displays of brightly coloured cloth or decorated beads. Later they developed trading arrangements with African tribal chiefs who raided weaker tribes in the interior and brought the slaves they captured to the coastal depots set up by European slavers. Here slaves would be held until there were enough to fill a slave ship. Once sold, slaves were branded with a red-hot iron to indicate who had bought them. Europeans established coastal forts to protect the valuable trade.

4.3.3 The Middle Passage

The route taken by slave ships across the Atlantic Ocean forms a rough triangle, hence the Atlantic slave trade is often referred to as the Triangular Trade. Ships left Europe with goods to sell in West Africa. There they sold the goods and filled their ships with slaves. The map in **Source 2** shows the main route of the Triangular Trade. This 'cargo' was packed tightly in the ship's holds for the terrible Middle Passage, crossing the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas (see **Source 3**). Conditions on slave ships were appalling. Those who did not survive the journey, perhaps as many as one quarter of the total, were simply thrown overboard. For the final leg of the triangle the ships were loaded with goods such as sugar, rum, cotton and tobacco to be sold on their return to Europe.

4.3.4 Sold

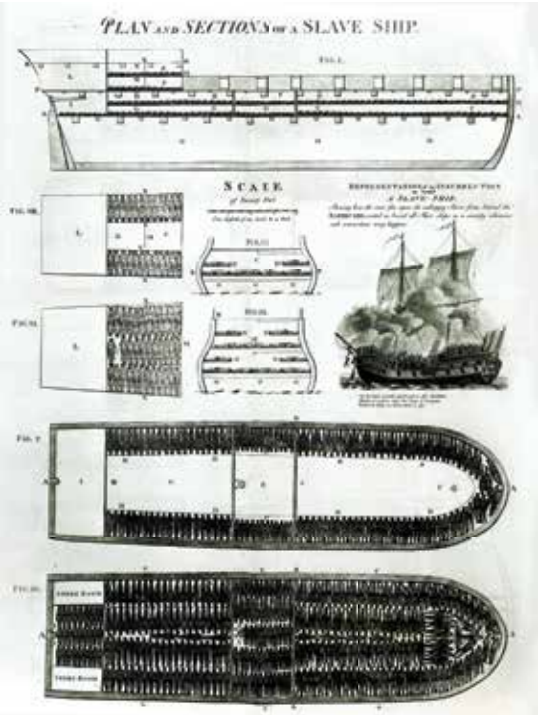
SOURCE 2 This map shows the route the slave ships took in the Triangular Trade.



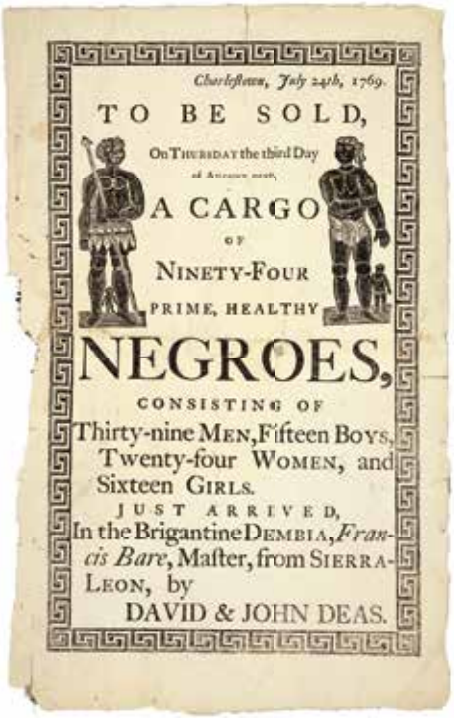
As slave ships arrived at ports in the Caribbean and along the coast of North America, plantation owners would gather to make their purchases. Posters like the one shown in **Source 4** advertised upcoming ship arrivals, detailing the number of slaves available and their state of health. There were generally two ways in which a slave sale would take place. The first, referred to as a 'scramble', must have been particularly terrifying for the slaves. Upon arrival in port the slaves were herded together either on the deck of the ship or in a nearby auction yard. Buyers paid a fixed amount before the sale and at a given signal rushed at the slaves, grabbing as many as they could. In the process families would often be separated, husbands from wives, parents from children.

The other type of sale took place at an auction at which individual slaves were sold to the highest bidder (see **Source 5**). Slaves were made to stand on a raised platform so they could be inspected by prospective owners. Their teeth would be examined to check their health. Signs of beatings could lower the price because they suggested a poor worker or potential escapee. In reality, scars were more likely to be a sign of violent abuse than of insolence. Sometimes unscrupulous doctors would buy weak or sick slaves in the hope of strengthening them and selling them on for a profit.

SOURCE 3 This plan of a slave ship from 1789 shows how tightly packed the slaves were.



SOURCE 4 A poster advertising an upcoming slave sale



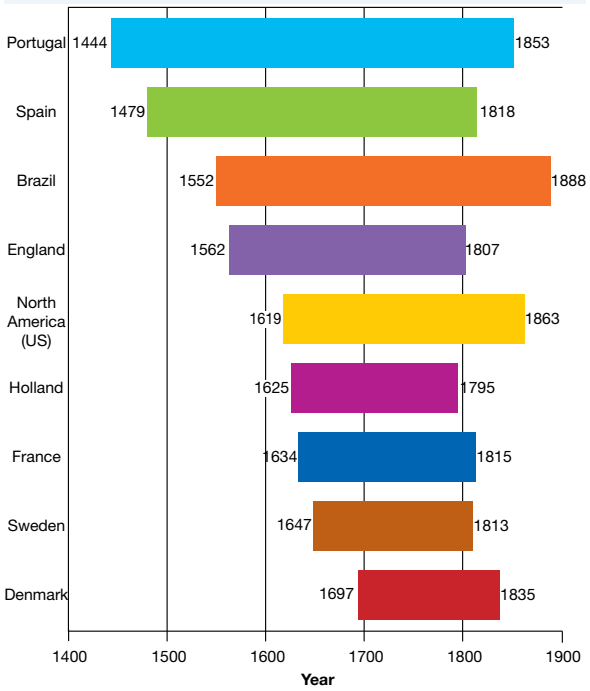
SOURCE 5 This painting by French artist Edmond Morin, titled *Slave Market in Richmond*, dates from 1861 and illustrates what a slave auction in Virginia may have looked like.

During the entire ordeal the slaves themselves knew nothing of what was going to happen to them. They did not speak the language of their captors and had no knowledge of their world. They were alone, usually separated from their families. Once sold they were often branded a second time by their new owner before being sent to work.

It is believed that at least 15 million Africans were forced from their homes and sold into slavery in the Americas, the majority taken by Spanish slavers to Brazil.

SOURCE 6 A slave auction house in Virginia, c. 1860. The sign reads 'Price, Birch & Co., dealers in slaves'.

SOURCE 7 A chart showing approximately when different countries engaged in the slave trade



4.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why did the English prefer to use slaves from Africa rather than Native American people?
2. Why did slavery become a vital part of the American economy?
3. Why is slavery in the Americas referred to as the Triangular Trade?
4. Describe the two types of slave sale that took place.

Apply your understanding

5. What is the attitude towards slavery of the plantation owner in **Source 1**?
6. Sketch the map in **Source 2** and then add labels to indicate what the ships would be carrying on each leg of the Triangular Trade.
7. What does **Source 4** reveal about the way slaves were regarded?
8. Interpreting graphs and charts is an important skill for a historian. Use the chart in **Source 7** to answer the following questions:
   (a) What was the first country on this chart to engage in the slave trade?
   (b) What country was the last to abolish the slave trade?
   (c) What country practised the slave trade for the longest time?
   (d) For how many years did Britain practise the slave trade?
9. Why do you think it is difficult to gain a clear picture of how many slaves were bought and sold in the Triangular Trade?
10. Use **Source 3** as a starting point to investigate the conditions on board a slave ship. Did the slaves have a chance to exercise? How much were they given to eat?

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.1: Slavery

myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Movement of peoples**
- **Slave trade**

4.4 Slavery and the cotton trade

4.4.1 'King Cotton'

The Industrial Revolution improved the lives of millions of people around the world. Mass-produced goods became more accessible and cheaper to buy. But while life was made easier for some, for many others the changes meant only a life of back-breaking labour.

The Industrial Revolution resulted in a massive boost to the textile industry in Britain. As mechanisation increased, the need for raw materials grew. Textiles became Britain's largest export, and the textile mills demanded more and more cotton. Until the early 1800s Britain's cotton came mainly from India, but India was now unable to keep up with the demand. So Britain turned to the southern states of the United States, where cotton was a growing industry.

The long, hot summers and rich soils of the South were ideal for cotton production, but the work in the cotton fields was brutal. After the cotton was picked, slaves had to separate the seeds from the cotton fibre. This was very labour intensive: a slave working from dawn until dusk would be able to process about half a kilogram of cotton. In 1793 an inventor named Eli Whitney produced a machine that removed the seeds automatically. With the cotton engine, or 'cotton gin' as it was called, a slave could seed more than 20 kilograms of cotton in a day — about fifty times as much as before the invention.

Whitney could not have foreseen the negative consequences of his invention. It certainly made cotton processing easier for the slaves, but this massive increase in production meant the demand for slaves also increased. Cotton quickly became the backbone of the economy in the southern United States, overtaking both tobacco and sugar. The southern states produced 75 per cent of the world's cotton. The expression 'King Cotton' was used by southern politicians to illustrate its economic importance. Between 1820 and 1860 cotton production increased seventeen-fold and the number of slaves increased by 250 per cent, despite the fact that half of all babies born to slaves died in infancy. Interestingly, only around a quarter of southern farmers actually owned slaves, but slavery was so important to the economy of the South that any opposition to it was regarded almost as treason.

SOURCE 1 Eli Whitney's cotton gin

4.4.2 Life on the plantation

Of every hundred slaves taken captive, about twenty-five died before being put to work. Another third of those who survived long enough to reach a plantation died within two years. The survivors experienced the process called 'seasoning' during which they learned their roles and grew to fear the slave drivers. Punishment for wrongdoing was harsh. For any sign of resistance to cruel treatment or for working too slowly, slaves might expect to be lashed or made to walk a **treadwheel**. The other slaves were often forced to witness the punishments as a deterrent. **Source 2** recalls one instance of a slave being punished.

Slaves' living quarters were very simple. Sometimes the plantation owner would provide basic quarters, but often the slaves would have to build their own. There was little furniture and beds were simply straw or rags on the ground. Slaves who worked as house servants usually had better quarters and food than those who worked in the fields.

SOURCE 2 Description of a flogging from C. Bull, *Slavery in the United States*, 1836

I had often seen black men whipped, and had always, when the lash was applied with great severity, heard the sufferer cry out and beg for mercy – but in this case, the pain inflicted was so intense, that Billy never uttered so much as a groan. The blood flowed from the commencement, and in a few minutes lay in small puddles at the root of the tree. I saw flakes of flesh as long as my finger. When the whole five hundred lashes had been counted the half dead body was unbound and laid in the shade of the tree upon which I sat.

SOURCE 3 A modern artist's reconstruction of a typical cotton plantation

A Slaves often had to build their own small quarters.
B Baled cotton was transported on carts.
C Cotton was also transported on barges.
D Labour on a cotton plantation was back-breaking.
E Slave drivers oversaw work on the plantation.

4.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why were the southern states of the United States an ideal place to grow cotton?
2. What were the negative effects of the introduction of the cotton gin?
3. What percentage of slaves taken captive survived the seasoning process?

Apply your understanding

4. What effect would the punishment described in **Source 2** have on slaves who witnessed it?
5. Using evidence from this subtopic, describe the treatment of African slaves in the United States.
6. Analyse **Source 3**. What elements of this drawing illustrate the value of cotton at the time?
7. The cotton gin was regarded by some as a revolutionary invention but by others as a tool of oppression. Outline some reasons for each of these attitudes.
8. Choose one of the people in **Source 3**. Write a short biography outlining who they are and how they came to be where they are.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Explore more with this weblink: Underground Railroad: Escape from slavery

4.5 The end of slavery?

4.5.1 Early opposition

Many of the people who supported the institution of slavery believed it was an effective way to introduce Christianity, the values of civilisation and the virtue of hard work to those under its control. This made it difficult for opponents of slavery to have their voices heard. But over time ideas and values began to change. It was through the relentless efforts of a core of committed people that slavery was eventually outlawed.

Supporters of slavery in the United States argued that it was essential to the economy of the southern states. Despite its being banished in most northern states from 1787, the southern states would stubbornly resist **abolition**. Reformers spoke patiently at meeting after meeting about the terrible facts of the slave trade. They presented petitions and lobbied politicians to support their cause.

In 1772 a test case heard in England addressed the fate of a runaway slave named James Somersett. An English reformer, Granville Sharp, argued that under English law all men are free, and the Chief Justice, Lord Mansfield, agreed with him. The Mansfield Judgement declared slavery to be illegal in England and Wales. Although there was still much to be done to eliminate slavery, this case is considered to be an important early step on the road to abolition.

SOURCE 1 The British Parliament debates slavery.

4.5.2 The movement gains momentum

Fifteen years after the Mansfield Judgement, the abolitionist Thomas Clarkson formed the Society for the Abolition of the Slave Trade. Its emblem, shown in **Source 2**, was a kneeling, shackled slave with the question 'Am I not a man and a brother?' around him. Many supporters of slavery, who certainly did not think of slaves as brothers, were incensed by the suggestion. They maintained that ending slavery would bring about economic ruin. This claim was challenged by a young economist, Adam Smith, who argued that it cost more to feed and house a slave than to employ a free man to do the same work.

SOURCE 2 The emblem of the Society for the Abolition of the Slave Trade

At about the same time as the Mansfield Judgement, a young English Member of Parliament named William Wilberforce began to campaign against slavery. As a close friend of the Prime Minister, William Pitt, Wilberforce became a pivotal force in the abolition movement. He knew that many politicians in England still did not care about the fate of African slaves overseas, so instead he focused on the terrible conditions that British sailors endured in maintaining the trade. In 1807 the British Parliament finally passed a bill abolishing the trading of slaves in British territories. This did not make it illegal to own slaves, only to buy new ones. It wasn't until 1833 that all slaves in the British Empire were freed.

4.5.3 Abolition in North America

Despite abolition in Britain the southern plantation states of the United States still clung to slavery. The plight of slaves was highlighted in 1852 with the publication of Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. The stories of runaway slaves who escaped to the north with the help of the 'Underground Railroad' — a secret network of sympathisers — increased calls for abolition. One such escapee was Frederick Douglass, who became a famous orator and statesman who worked tirelessly for the abolition cause.

SOURCE 3 A quote from Frederick Douglass, 1852

What to the slave is the 4th of July?

On 1 January 1863 President Abraham Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, declaring that all slaves in the United States were 'henceforth and forever free'. There is no doubt that it was a political as much as a moral decision. Lincoln knew that because the country was in the middle of a bitter civil war between northern and southern states, it would be almost impossible to enforce. However, it was an important step towards ending slavery, and two years later, at war's end, the Thirteenth Amendment to the US Constitution allowed 'neither slavery nor involuntary servitude' in the United States. All slaves were now free. But laws alone cannot change how people think, and life for many freed slaves remained harsh. Even today African Americans face much disadvantage.

DID YOU KNOW?

During the American Civil War more than one hundred thousand freed slaves fought in the Union army against the southern states that supported slavery. The most famous unit was the 54th Massachusetts Regiment, commanded by Robert Gould Shaw. The volunteer soldiers of the regiment were recruited by white abolitionists. The story of the 54th Massachusetts Regiment was the subject of the 1989 film *Glory*.

4.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Create a timeline of the events in this subtopic that led towards the abolition of slavery in England and North America.
2. What do you understand by the term *abolition*?
3. What was the outcome and significance of the Mansfield Judgement for the early anti-slavery movement?
4. Describe in your own words the meaning of the words 'Am I not a man and a brother?'
5. Summarise the main arguments against slavery.
6. Why was it difficult to enforce the Emancipation Proclamation?

Apply your understanding

7. Look at **Source 1**. Why do you think it took so long for the British Parliament to make a decision to abolish slavery?
8. Research the meaning of 4 July for the United States and explain the meaning of the Frederick Douglass quote in **Source 3**.
9. Adam Smith's argument against slavery was based on economics rather than morality. Do you think this would make slave owners more or less likely to listen to him? Why or why not?
10. Choose one of the following people to conduct further research on: Frederick Douglass, John Newton, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Nat Turner, John Brown or Harriet Tubman. Write a short summary of their significance to the Abolitionist cause.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.2: Steps to stopping slavery

4.6 Crime and punishment

4.6.1 New society, old solutions

Between 1788 and 1868, around 160 000 British and Irish convicts were transported to the Australian colonies as a punishment for crime. Given the nature of the crimes of many of them, such as pickpocketing, petty theft and forgery, the punishment appears harsh. How had British society come to this? Why were punishments for seemingly minor crimes so severe? The answers lie in the nature of society at the time.

The Industrial Revolution transformed the British economic base from agriculture to industry. In a process called enclosure (see topic 2), wealthy landowners bought up small farms and fenced off common land to combine into single, large estates, forcing poor farmers from their homes and livelihoods. Similarly, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in Scotland, thousands of country people were forced from their homes during the infamous Highland Clearances by landlords eager to improve the agricultural output of their land.

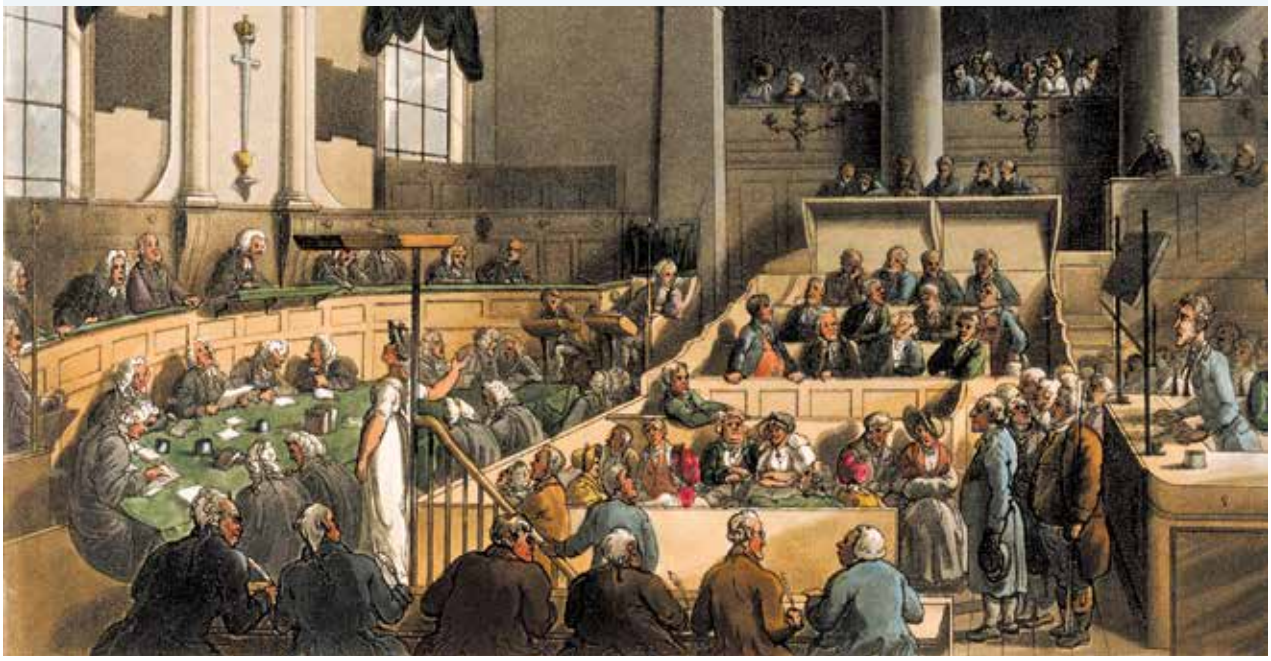
With more efficient and mechanised farming practices, fewer agricultural workers were needed. As employment opportunities in the rural areas of Britain declined, the towns filled with those seeking work. Even with the industrial boom, however, there simply were not enough jobs. Some turned to gambling or alcohol in search of escape. For the desperate, petty crime became a way to survive.

The government's response to these growing social problems was simply to make criminal punishments harsher. About two hundred different crimes drew the death penalty. Yet the threat of hanging did not have the effect the government desired. Public hangings, intended to serve as a warning, took on a carnival atmosphere. Thousands of people gathered to watch, even bringing their children to the spectacle. A bulletin called *The Newgate Calendar*, subtitled 'The **Malefactors**' Bloody Register', was published each month with the names of all those executed. It soon contained biographies and stories of criminals and became a regular bestseller.

SOURCE 1 An eighteenth-century artwork showing a public hanging at London's notorious Old Bailey prison

While many crimes were punishable by hanging, others carried a sentence of transportation. In some cases, the death penalty might be **commuted** to transportation. This meant being banished from England to serve out their sentence in one of Britain's distant colonies. In the 1700s most convicts were sent to America to work on the cotton or sugar plantations, but this was not popular with plantation owners, who found slaves more manageable. The American Revolution brought this traffic to an end. For a time convicts were dispatched to West Africa on the ships sent out to pick up their human cargo in the Triangular Trade, but disease, starvation, desertion and mutiny took their toll on convicts and military personnel alike. The plan was a disastrous failure.

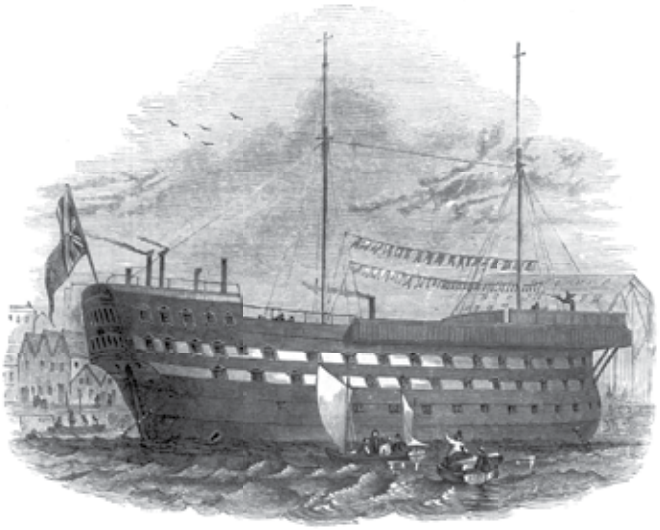
SOURCE 2 This artwork from c. 1809 shows a trial in session at the Old Bailey courthouse in London.



4.6.2 What to do?

Despite harsh punishments, the numbers of people in Britain's prisons remained a concern for the government. While convicts were not being transported, the hangman was kept busy and prisons were overflowing. In an attempt to address this problem, old decommissioned naval ships were turned into cramped, stinking, rat-infested floating prisons called **hulks**. As a short-term fix the hulks were a success, but they merely delayed the inevitable. Soon enough they too were impossibly overcrowded. The government urgently needed a long-term solution.

SOURCE 3 A prison hulk moored in the Thames River, London. This artwork dates from c. 1848.



DID YOU KNOW?

In eighteenth-century England about two hundred crimes were punishable by the death penalty. They included:

- murder
- pickpocketing
- poaching
- highway robbery
- stealing horses or sheep
- cutting down young trees.

Children were often among those sentenced to death.

4.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why did so many people in England turn to crime in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
2. Why were punishments for crimes so harsh in eighteenth-century England?
3. Why did plantation owners prefer slaves to convicts?
4. What made Africa an inappropriate place to send convicts?
5. What was a hulk and why were they necessary?

Apply your understanding

6. Describe the scene in **Source 1**. If the intention was to make an example of the people being hanged, do you think it would have been effective?
7. Look at **Source 3** and make a list of reasons why the conditions on a hulk were so terrible.
8. What was the effect of the American Revolution on the transportation of convicts from England?
9. A common belief during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries was that people who were poor brought it on themselves because they were idle and did not work hard. How accurate do you think this view was?
10. Do you know the definitions of the capital crimes listed in the 'Did you know?' box? If not, conduct some research to discover what they mean. What other crimes would have been on the list in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.3: Does the punishment fit the crime?

Explore more with this weblink: Crime and punishment in the nineteenth century

4.7 Transportation to Australia

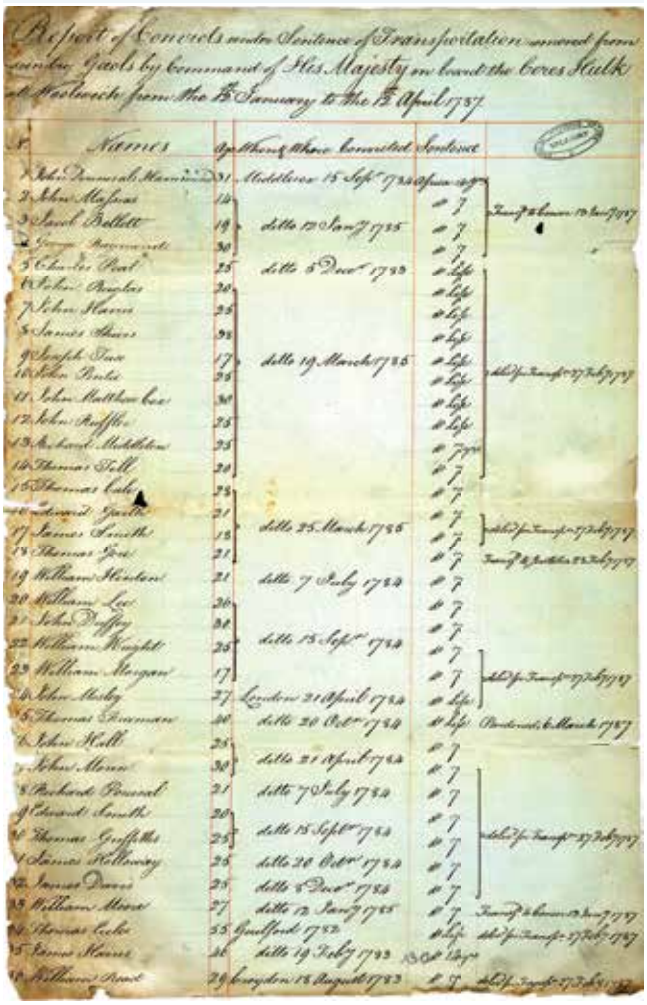
4.7.1 A solution presents itself

In the 1770s the British government faced a major social problem. The country's prisons were overflowing, and the newly independent United States refused to take any more of Britain's unwanted convicts. The hangman's noose was not proving to be an effective deterrent. New prisons were considered too expensive to build, and not many people really cared enough about the problem anyway. As the situation worsened one distant possibility began to emerge as a real option.

In 1770 Captain James Cook had sighted and charted much of the eastern coastline of Australia. But Britain, at war with France and distracted by her increasingly rebellious American colonies, was already under financial strain and did not follow up Cook's expedition. With the loss of the American colonies, however, the possibility of transportation to New South Wales began to gain support. Joseph Banks, a botanist who had sailed with Cook in 1770, enthusiastically agreed and thought that Botany Bay would be an ideal place for a settlement.

It was soon recognised that a British colony in New South Wales would serve several useful purposes. It would go some way towards compensating for the loss of the American colonies. It would provide Britain with an important military and imperial presence in the southern Pacific region. It would also be a dumping ground for convicts, whose labour could be used to help build the colony. In August 1786 the British government made the decision to establish a convict settlement in New South Wales.

SOURCE 1 A handwritten 'report of convicts under sentence of transportation'



4.7.2 Gathering the fleet

Once the decision was made, the fleet had to be assembled. Captain Arthur Phillip, an experienced naval officer, was chosen to lead the fleet. It was his job to prepare the 11 ships for the 20 000-kilometre voyage. It took six months to complete the preparations and, by May 1787, the fleet had assembled at Portsmouth on the south coast of England.

The convicts walked through the town to the docks, to the dismay of many townspeople, and were rowed out to the waiting ships in small boats. The fleet left with little fanfare at three o'clock on the morning of 13 May 1787.

Nearly 1500 men, women and children were on board when the fleet weighed anchor. Among the officials were Captain Phillip, a judge, a doctor, a surveyor and a chaplain. The ships' crews numbered about 450. Just over two hundred marines sailed with the fleet, their purpose to protect the fleet in the event of attack and to control the convicts. Twenty-seven dependants of the marines — wives and children — were also on board. Finally there were the convicts themselves. Numbering 759, they accounted for half the complement of the fleet. There were roughly three male convicts for every female.

SOURCE 2 A portrait of Captain Arthur Phillip painted in 1786

4.7.3 Bound for Botany Bay

Today's cruise liners can sail around the world without needing to put into port, but in the eighteenth century it was a very different story. The ships of the First Fleet were small and needed to regularly resupply. The fleet made three stops on the voyage to take on food and water and tend to repairs. On their final port of call, the Cape of Good Hope on the southern tip of Africa, they also secured a range of plant seeds for food crops in the new settlement.

Captain Phillip knew that the long voyage across the Indian Ocean could be the most treacherous of all. It would also be the most frightening for both crew and convicts because they were sailing into largely unknown waters. Phillip decided to split the fleet so the better sailers would not have to wait for the slower ships. For nine weeks the ships were battered by the winds of the Roaring Forties. Livestock were thrown about and injured, and even some of the most experienced seamen were seasick. Conditions for the convicts below deck were most likely terrible.

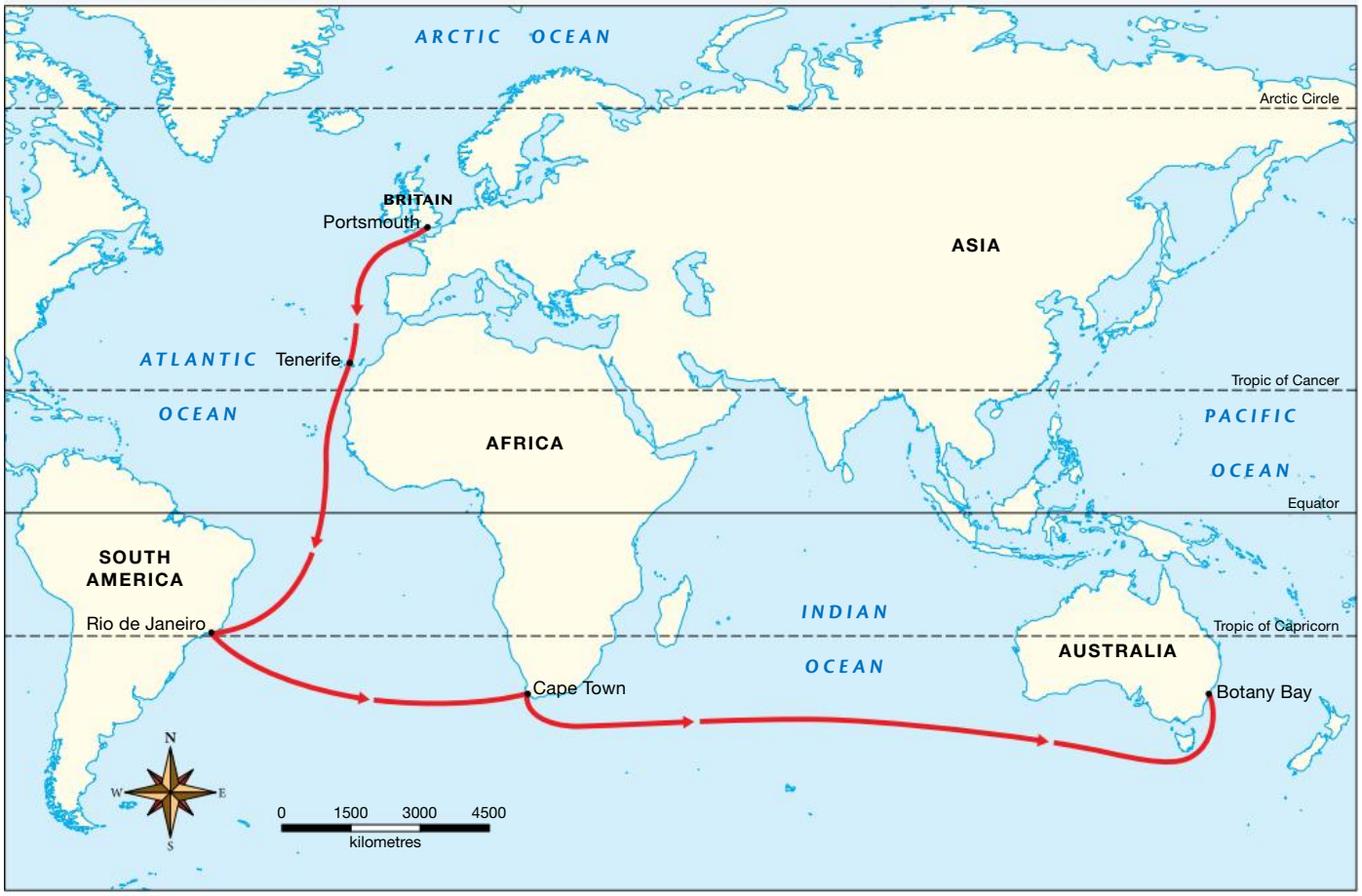
4.7.4 A late change

With what must have been great relief the fleet sailed into Botany Bay on 18 January 1788, but neither the bay nor the land surrounding it met their expectations. The bay was shallow and offered little protection from storms; the soil was sandy; and there was no good, easily accessible supply of fresh water. For a moment Captain Phillip must have thought that the entire voyage might end in disaster.

All was not lost, however. In 1770 Captain Cook had sailed past another bay a few kilometres to the north and had named it Port Jackson. He did not explore it but recorded that it appeared to be a good harbour. Phillip left the fleet at Botany Bay to survey Port Jackson for himself, finding it 'the finest harbour in the world'. The rest of the fleet soon transferred to Port Jackson, anchoring in the cove within it that Phillip named after Lord Sydney, Britain's Home Secretary and the man who had appointed him. The water at Sydney Cove was deep enough for ships to anchor close to the shore, and there was a good supply of fresh water. The new colony was officially proclaimed on 26 January 1788.

SOURCE 3 Captain Arthur Phillip raising the British Union Jack at Sydney Cove. This artwork was painted in 1937.

SOURCE 4 A map tracing the First Fleet's voyage



DID YOU KNOW?

Of the 759 convicts on board the First Fleet, 23 died during the voyage, which for a fleet of this size would have been an acceptable loss. In addition, six children were born during the voyage, although two of these died before reaching New South Wales. Compared with the Second Fleet, the survival rate of convicts on the First Fleet was very impressive.

4.7.5 The hungry years

It was an uncertain beginning for the settlement, however, for despite its obvious other advantages, the soil around Port Jackson proved as unsuitable for planting as Botany Bay, and the first crops withered and died. In the first two years the settlers at Sydney Cove grew desperately short of food. Rations were reduced to stretch food supplies, and a supply ship that was sent from England failed to arrive. For Captain Phillip, now the governor of New South Wales, failure, once again, seemed a real threat. Some measure of relief came in mid 1790 with the arrival of the Second Fleet. With it came fresh supplies, but more than a quarter of the convicts on board had died on the terrible journey and most of the survivors were too weak to work.

At last fertile soil was found and cultivated at Parramatta on the edge of the settlement, and the crops successfully grown there finally guaranteed the long-term survival of the colony. In 1792 poor health forced Governor Phillip to resign and return to England. He took with him kangaroos, dingoes, native plants and two Aboriginal men to show to the king. Phillip's firm but fair command of the colony had ensured its survival. When food was scarce he made sure that rations were distributed equitably, with no privileges for rank, thereby alleviating resentment and potential convict revolt. By the time he left in December 1792 the colony was securely established and growing.

4.7.6 Rebellion

In 1804 the authorities in New South Wales faced the first serious challenge to their rule. A group of convicts, mainly from Ireland, began a large-scale rebellion against the British authorities in Australia. Two convicts, Phillip Cunningham and William Johnston, planned to lead a band of convicts against the British and create their own empire, with Cunningham as its leader. The plan was for the initial two hundred convicts from Castle Hill to meet with others at another convict settlement at Hawkesbury, bringing the group to more than one thousand. From there they would march to Parramatta and finally on to Sydney.

On the evening of 4 March 1804 the rebellion began. With cries of 'Liberty or death!', the rebels overpowered the small garrison that guarded them. They began recruiting more convicts from surrounding farms, eventually gathering a force of around 600.

However, word of the uprising had spread to Parramatta and Sydney, and a force of British soldiers marched through the night to intercept the rebels. Forced into retreat, Cunningham struggled to maintain control over the unruly, and often drunk, convicts. The British force soon caught up with them, and at a place called Vinegar Hill the British attacked. Despite being armed, the rebels offered almost no resistance to the professional soldiers. The battle was over within a matter of minutes. In the aftermath nine rebels were executed and many others flogged or sent to places of secondary punishment.

The whole rebellion had lasted only three days. It was, nonetheless, the largest convict rebellion in Australian history.

SOURCE 5 A painting by an unknown artist depicting the final battle of the uprising at Vinegar Hill

4.7 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. How long did the voyage of the First Fleet take?
2. Which do you think was the most dangerous leg of the voyage? Why?
3. How many years after Captain Cook's voyage was it before the First Fleet arrived in Botany Bay?
4. How would you describe Arthur Phillip's opinion of Port Jackson?

Apply your understanding

5. Examine **Source 1** carefully and answer the following questions.
   (a) What is the approximate age of the convicts on this page?
   (b) Where are they now being held (e.g. in a prison or on a hulk)?
   (c) What is the most common length of their sentence?
6. Is it possible to determine if **Sources 3** and **5** are primary or secondary sources? If you are unsure, what other information would help you decide?
7. How would you describe Phillip's leadership of the first settlement? Do you think he did a good job? What evidence would you provide to support your point of view?
8. Some people mark 26 January as 'Invasion Day'. Why is this? How appropriate do you think this view is?
9. Use **Source 4** and an atlas to find out the latitude of the final leg of the First Fleet's voyage. Explain why the winds are called the Roaring Forties.

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Movement of peoples**
- **Convict transportation to Australia**

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.4: Australia — a gaol of hope

4.8 Convict life

4.8.1 Convicts turned good

The penal settlement at Sydney Cove was isolated from other European settlements and, as a result, made a unique open-air prison. Surrounded by an endless, alien and menacing wilderness, chains and walls were scarcely needed. Nonetheless convict punishment was brutal.

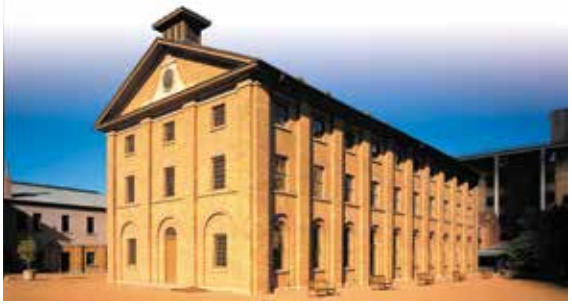
Convicts who had skills such as carpentry were put to use building the new town and others that were growing around it. Many convict-built buildings still stand in Sydney today. Building projects, such as the Great North Road that runs between Sydney and Newcastle, were also built using convict labour. Working conditions for most convicts were brutal, not least because the climate of New South Wales was so much hotter and drier than England.

Some convicts, nonetheless, made a good life for themselves in New South Wales. Mary Reibey, for example, was transported for seven years for stealing a horse. She worked as a maid in New South Wales and was allowed to marry. After she had served out her sentence she became a respected businesswoman and one of the wealthiest people in Sydney. Today she is featured on the Australian $20 note (see **Source 1**).

Another example of a successful convict was the architect Francis Greenway. Transported for forgery, in the colony he used his creative talents to design government buildings. Some of these buildings can still be seen today, among them the graceful Hyde Park Barracks (see **Source 2**).

SOURCE 1 Mary Reibey, an ex-convict, now appears on the Australian $20 note.

SOURCE 2 Hyde Park Barracks in Sydney. This building was designed by the convict architect Francis Greenway.



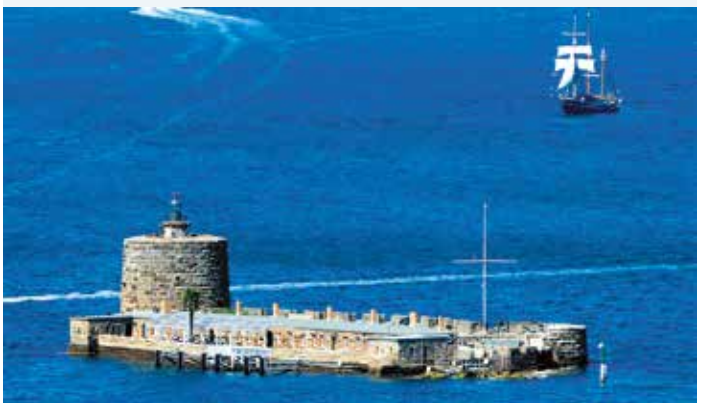
4.8.2 Secondary punishment

Unfortunately, for every Mary Reibey or Francis Greenway there were many others for whom the convict life was a living hell. Those judged to be unmanageable or defiant might be sent to even more isolated places of secondary punishment. The most notorious of these were on Norfolk Island and at Port Arthur in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania).

Norfolk Island was characterised by brutal physical punishment. Lying 1700 kilometres off the coast of New South Wales, escape was not an option. Floggings and beatings were common and convicts were worked beyond the point of exhaustion. There was no effort to reform prisoners sent to Norfolk Island – this was a place of punishment, not rehabilitation. Following a mutiny in 1834 a clergyman was sent to comfort those convicts sentenced to death. In an illustration of how terrible Norfolk Island was, the minister recorded that 'each man who heard his reprieve wept bitterly, and each man who heard of his condemnation to death went down on his knees and thanked God'. Eventually the penal settlement on Norfolk Island was closed down, partly due to the notoriety of the conditions.

Port Arthur, on the other hand, was a new type of prison. Established as a penal settlement in 1833, here psychological cruelty took precedence over physical brutality. Convicts spent long periods in isolation.

SOURCE 3 Pinchgut Island in Sydney Harbour was one of the earliest sites of secondary punishment.

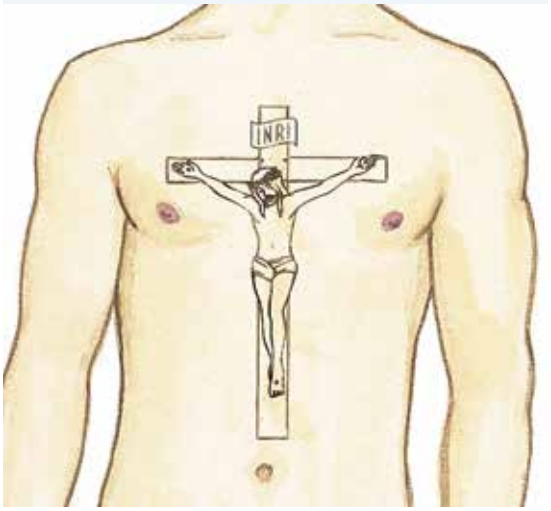


SOURCE 4 The chapel at Port Arthur prison. Even here the convicts would not be able to see each other from their individual booths.

When in the company of others they wore hoods so they could not recognise anyone and they in turn could not be recognised. The aim was to enforce anonymity and take away any sense of individuality. At the time this was thought to be a more effective rehabilitation technique than purely physical punishment.

Over the 80 years from 1788 until the last convicts arrived in 1868, approximately 160 000 convicts were transported to the Australian colonies.

SOURCE 5 Many convicts had tattoos, possibly in an effort to regain some degree of individuality after having been reduced to a number.



DID YOU KNOW?

In 1828 a census was taken in New South Wales to record all inhabitants of the colony, both convict and free. It found that half the population were convicts and that former convicts made up nearly half of the free population. In 1828, then, about 75 per cent of the population of New South Wales either were, or had been, convicts!

4.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Give two reasons why Sydney Cove became an 'open-air prison'.
2. Look at **Source 5**. Why did convicts tattoo themselves?
3. Why did it take some time for convicts to get used to the conditions in New South Wales?

Apply your understanding

3. Look at **Source 3**. What advantages does Pinchgut Island have as a place of secondary punishment?
4. What effect do you think the image of a cross like that in **Source 5** would have had on a flogger who was about to punish a convict?
5. Describe the difference in punishment regimes at Norfolk Island and at Port Arthur. Do you think one would have been a more effective deterrent against crime than the other?
6. Look at **Source 1**. Conduct some research on the life of Mary Reibey. Decide for yourself whether you think her image should appear on the $20 note and give reasons for your response.

4.9 Emigration to Australia

4.9.1 Push and pull factors

Convicts were unwilling migrants. They were sent to Australia against their will as punishment for criminal convictions. As the colonies grew, they attracted free settlers – people who made a conscious decision to start a new life in Australia. In the eighteenth century these settlers came mainly from Europe, and they came for a range of different reasons.

The decisions of migrants to travel thousands of kilometres from their homelands in Europe to Australia were based on a variety of factors. There were often good reasons for them to leave home (push factors), and there were also reasons to choose Australia as a destination (pull factors). Both of these forces tended to operate at the same time.

Europe in the first half of the nineteenth century was an uncertain place. Wars and revolutions had left many people in desperate straits. In Britain the Industrial Revolution had made life unbearable for some. Unemployment, rising rents and taxes, and grim conditions in factories and in overcrowded cities led many to dream of a better life across the sea. In Scotland the notorious Highland Clearances had forced many people from their land, leaving them with few options for feeding their families. In Ireland in the 1840s the failure of the potato crop led to widespread starvation and despair.

Until 1850 most emigrants from Europe still travelled to the United States or Canada. These countries were more settled and the voyage cost only a fraction of a ticket to Australia. For this reason, those who came to Australia often did so with government help. 'Assisted migration' to Australia was encouraged to help the colonies grow. 'Unassisted migrants', who paid their own way, made up about one-third of migrants to Australia in the first half of the nineteenth century. Some of them were tradespeople who were keen to establish a business in one of the new towns. Others were from wealthy families who believed their money would go further in Australia than in Britain. Many were encouraged by the promise of government land grants and convict labour.

The level of government assistance for migration followed economic cycles. For example, during the 1830s the government decided to sell land rather than give it away to migrants free of charge. The money earned by the government was used to help fund further migration. In contrast, 1841 was a depression year for New South Wales. The price of wool had fallen and unemployment rose. Migrants were not encouraged in the 1840s. In the 1850s, however, the gold rushes resulted in massive immigration. Another depression in the 1890s brought immigration to an abrupt halt.

SOURCE 1 'Here and there; or, emigration a remedy', a cartoon from the English magazine *Punch* in 1848

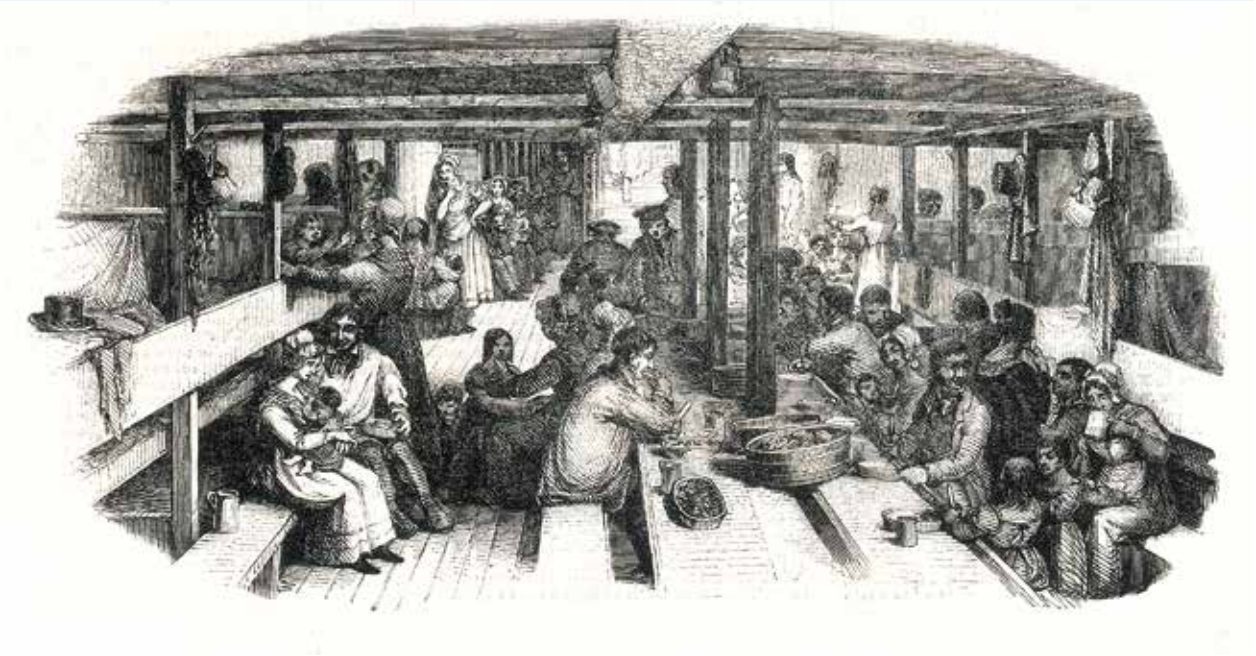
SOURCE 2 This painting from 1865 depicts the expulsion of a family during the Highland Clearances in Scotland.

4.9.2 The voyage

For migrants travelling from England to Australia, the voyage was faster, if only slightly more comfortable, than those of the convicts. Those who could afford it paid for a private cabin, but 90 per cent of migrants had to endure steerage class. This was the cheapest passenger accommodation, typically at the stern of the ship. It was usually confined, foul-smelling and crowded, offering no privacy. Meals were simple, based around oatmeal, rice and the occasional meat stew, but migrants had to supply their own plates and cutlery. The tedious voyage could take up to four and a half months – plenty of time for migrants to wonder whether they had made the right decision!

Although steerage lacked privacy and comfort, it did create a new sense of belonging for many migrants. With nothing but time on their hands, people from many different backgrounds mingled. A blacksmith from Liverpool might find himself talking to a businessman from Edinburgh or a small farmer from Kent. For many migrants this was the first time they had travelled more than a few miles from their own village. Of course, the absence of privacy in the long weeks at sea could also leave tempers frayed and tensions sometimes boiled over.

SOURCE 3 *Emigrants at dinner*, a scene from a migrant ship of the nineteenth century



4.9.3 Arrival

Safe arrival in Australia did not mean the end of a migrant's worries. If they did not have jobs organised before leaving England they would have to find work, which was more of a challenge if they had arrived with their families. Employers did not want to support children who did not work. As the coastal towns grew and became crowded, migrants were sent inland to work on farms. Others moved from place to place in search of work. The Henty family emigrated to Australia in 1829 to breed sheep. They arrived first at the Swan River colony, now Perth. Finding the land poor they decided to try Van Diemen's Land, but they missed out on free land there so moved again to the south coast of the Port Phillip District and established a settlement at Portland. In doing so they became the first permanent European settlers in what would become the state of Victoria in 1851.

SOURCE 4 From a letter written by James Henty, quoted in R. Broome, *The Colonial Experience*, 2009

I have almost come to the conclusion that New South Wales will do more for our family than England ever will. What can we do with ten thousand pounds among all of us? It would be idle to suppose we can live many years longer on less than two hundred pounds a year, unless indeed we chose to descend many steps in the scale of Society, having at the same time an opportunity of doing as well and perhaps considerably better in New South Wales, under British Dominion and a fine climate. Immediately we get there we shall be placed in the first Rank in Society, a circumstance which must not be overlooked.

4.9.4 Tyranny of distance

With family members so far away, those back in England looked forward to any news of how their loved ones were faring in the Australian colonies. Unlike today's world in which emails from around the world are received almost instantly, letters took months to reach the other side of the world. To send a letter and receive a reply could take a whole year.

During the mid eighteenth century a range of different British publications encouraged, or at times discouraged, migration to Australia. Books promoted emigration, highlighting the potential of the colonies as a migrant destination. Despite periodic negative news of economic depression and the shadow of

transportation hanging over the colonies, many in England saw the colonies as sources of opportunity, wealth and power. A less than perfect image of the colonies would certainly not dissuade many of those with family already in Australia from wanting to make the journey themselves.

SOURCE 5 George Baxter's painting from the mid nineteenth century *News from Australia* depicts a family in England receiving news from a loved one in the colonies.

DID YOU KNOW?

The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples can be regarded as the first migrants to Australia. Evidence exists that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples have been on the continent for at least 50 000 years, with some researchers suggesting that it could be more than 100 000 years. Over that time the Indigenous Australian peoples became very diverse: around 300 different languages were spoken across Australia when the Europeans first arrived in 1788.

4.9.5 The old world in the new

The vast majority of migrants who came to Australia in the 1800s were from the British Isles. They brought with them what historian Richard Broome calls their 'cultural baggage', including ideas about society, religion, class and gender. As a result, British institutions and clubs were firmly established in colonial Australia. At the same time, this cultural heritage was being influenced and reshaped by the new world. That new world was being populated more and more by people born in Australia, rather than those born overseas and, while they still considered themselves British, many increasingly associated themselves with the land in which they were born.

4.9 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What is your understanding of the term *cultural baggage*?
2. Explain why Britain wanted the Australian colonies to grow.
3. What sort of people did the British government encourage to migrate?
4. Explain why the level of government assistance for migrants varied over the decades of the nineteenth century.
5. What were the advantages of assisted travel over unassisted travel?

Apply your understanding

6. What is the message of **Source 1**?
7. How realistic do you think the 'here' and 'there' scenes in **Source 1** are?
8. Do you think **Source 1** is trying to appeal to a particular type of person?
9. Describe what is happening in **Source 2**.
10. Read **Source 4** carefully and identify the push and pull factors for the Henty family.
11. Imagine you are one of the emigrants in **Source 3**. Write a diary entry for part of your journey describing your interaction with some of the other migrants.
12. How important do you think letters from loved ones, like that depicted in **Source 5**, would have been in encouraging other family members to follow them to Australia?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.5: Why emigrate to Australia?

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Movement of peoples**
- **European migration to Australia**

4.10 Migration to the goldfields

4.10.1 The beginnings of a rush

In 1851 Edward Hargraves returned to Australia after prospecting for gold in California. He noticed that in parts of Australia the land was similar to areas where gold was discovered in California, and he was convinced that gold could be found here too. That same year he was proved right. It marked a turning point in Australia's history.

Hargraves discovered gold in New South Wales in April 1851, but because news then took some months to travel overseas, for the first year or so the diggings were worked exclusively by local diggers or those from other Australian colonies. As news of the discovery spread around the colonies, people seemed to go crazy with excitement. The discovery of gold in Victoria a few months later only added to the hysteria. Husbands left their families, shepherds their flocks. Ships were stranded in port when their crews deserted en masse for the diggings. Teachers, labourers, lawyers, even government officials and policemen, made a dash for the goldfields.

From the start, the early goldfields were characterised by a sense of **egalitarianism**. The class system that dominated England had no place there. It was clear from the beginning that on the goldfields luck played a more important role than money or social position. Everyone had an equal chance of success if they worked hard. This levelling effect challenged the traditional social structure from which the diggers had sprung. Some people were alarmed, fearing social collapse with the lower classes challenging the traditional hierarchy. Many historians trace the Australian idea of the 'fair go' back to the goldfields. One miner from Poland, Seweryn Korzelinski, describes the multicultural scene in **Source 1**.

SOURCE 1 Polish miner Seweryn Korzelinski describes the egalitarianism on the goldfields.

This society comprises men from all parts of the world, all countries and religions—all mixed into one society, all dressed similarly, all forced to forget their previous habits, learnings, customs, manners and occupations. Their outward appearance does not signify their previous importance, worth or mental attainments. A colonel pulls up the earth for a sailor, a lawyer wields not a pen but a spade; a priest lends a match to a Negro's pipe; a doctor rests on the same heap of earth with a Chinaman; a man of letters carries a bag of earth. Many a one would not, a short while before, bother to look at a fellow with whom he now works. Here we are all joined by a common designation: digger. Only various shades of skin colour and speech denote nationality and origin, but it is impossible to guess previous station in life or background.

Yet while the diggers may have abandoned some of their customs and cultures, their prejudices often remained. As one example, **Source 2** describes what happened when Korzelinski inquired about a fellow digger's test mineshaft.

SOURCE 2 Korzelinski describes an encounter with an English miner.

The report I received was very encouraging so I went on digging. During a break a compatriot of mine passing by stopped for a chat. My English neighbour was listening in and came up to me later asking in what language I was conversing. 'My native Polish' I replied. My neighbour explained with a great deal of embarrassment that his test hadn't shown any trace of gold and that he had misled me because he thought I was a German.

4.10.2 Word spreads

Soon after news of the gold rushes reached England, in January 1852, the towns of Ballarat and Bendigo became better known than Melbourne or Adelaide. A new rush of migration followed as Britons of all classes decided to try their luck. The result was a population explosion in Australia that the colonies were unable to cope with. In the two years following the discovery of gold more people arrived in Australia than all the convicts that had been transported in the previous 64 years. In just one week of October 1852 Melbourne received nearly 8000 new arrivals. In four months during 1853, at a time when the population of the city was only 23 000, 50 000 migrants landed at Melbourne's docks.

SOURCE 3 Population growth of New South Wales and Victoria at the height of the gold rushes

Year	New South Wales	Victoria
1840	110 000	10 291
1850	189 341	76 162
1860	348 546	538 234

Source: From R. Broome, *The Colonial Experience*, 2009

Melbourne was unable to absorb the sea of new arrivals and a massive city of tents called 'Canvastown' was set up on the banks of the Yarra River to try to accommodate them. It was a smelly, dirty place where

outbreaks of disease were common. The extracts in **Source 4** give an impression of Melbourne during the height of the migration rush. As more people arrived in Victoria the crime rate increased, a problem made worse by the fact that 80 per cent of Melbourne's police had themselves taken off to the goldfields.

SOURCE 4 Two extracts from letters written to newspapers in 1852

Extract A
One of the most striking peculiarities here to a new arrival is the immense encampments that surround Melbourne. The vast number of tents that stud the open ground in every direction conveys a clear idea of that enormous emigration to Victoria, which requires the erection of canvas suburbs, where the hordes of adventurers may find a temporary shelter on landing, … before starting to the great storehouses of Mount Alexander and Ballarat.

Extract B
People are flocking in from all countries now, and there is not accommodation for a tenth of them. Some have to sleep in sheds who never knew anything but a feather-bed in England. We have had very heavy rains lately; several people have been drowned on their way to and from the diggings in attempting to swim the creeks, as the Government does not think of putting any bridges where required; indeed, the people are beginning to murmur against the abominable way in which our government is carried out.

4.10.3 New Gold Mountain

In 1853 large numbers of Chinese men arrived on the goldfields. They would eventually account for one in every five miners. Those who came straight from the Californian gold rushes referred to the Victorian goldfields as 'New Gold Mountain'. Others came directly from China, fleeing war and famine, and seeking a chance to strike it rich, like all the other diggers. Culturally they stood out on the goldfields and as a result were subject to racial violence. The Australian and British diggers resented the Chinese both for their difference and because they generally worked harder than other miners. They worked claims that had been abandoned yet still managed to extract enough gold to make a living. The Chinese on the goldfields were almost exclusively men, and the other miners chose to believe they would 'steal' their women. To control Chinese immigration, the Victorian government introduced a ten-pound arrival tax to be paid by all Chinese migrants at their Victorian port of entry. To avoid this tax, the Chinese arrived at Adelaide or Sydney and travelled overland to the diggings. What became the White Australia Policy began on the goldfields.

SOURCE 5 *Prospecting*, a sketch by S. T. Gill

S. T. Gill 1818 England – Australia 1880 *Prospecting* 1865 From *The Australian Sketchbook* (Melbourne: Hamel & Ferguson, 1865) Lithograph, printed in colour, from multiple stones

4.10 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What was the influence of the gold rushes and subsequent immigration on the structure of Australian society?
2. Why was it that during the first year of the gold rushes the diggings were populated entirely by local diggers and those from other Australian colonies?
3. What fears did some people have about the effect of the gold rushes on society?
4. Why were the Chinese the targets of racial abuse?
5. Why did some Chinese migrants disembark at Adelaide and walk to the Victorian goldfields from there?

Apply your understanding

6. Using quotes from the sources in this subtopic, describe how the goldfields were a 'social leveller'.
7. Describe in your own words what happened in the exchange described in **Source 2**.
8. Plot the information in **Source 3** in a graph and describe the population growth in Victoria and New South Wales.
9. Using quotes from the extracts in **Source 4**, describe what is happening to the city of Melbourne.
10. What is the grievance towards the government expressed in extract B of **Source 4**?
11. How does the image in **Source 5** support the idea of the goldfields as egalitarian?
12. Some people claim that the gold rushes signalled the start of Australian multiculturalism, but others suggest that it was the beginning of racial intolerance. What evidence can you find in this subtopic to support each of these points of view?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.6: Analysing an art work

4.11 SkillBuilder: Planning a history essay

4.11.1 What is a history essay?

A history essay is a logical argument that demonstrates historical knowledge, skills and understanding. A number of points are put forward, and each one is supported by relevant details and evidence.

Why is planning an essay important?

Good essays are nearly impossible to write without an initial plan. Planning your essay lets you shape your point of view and decide whether it is appropriate and convincing. It also lets you identify the key knowledge and information you will need to support your ideas, and whether you need to undertake further research to strengthen your points of view.

SOURCE 1 An illustration published in 1869 showing American slaves using a cotton gin

4.11.2 How to plan an essay

For this practice task we will look at an essay that answers the following question:

> 'The movement of peoples between 1750 and 1901 were carried out mainly against the wishes of those who moved.' Discuss this statement, showing clearly whether you agree or disagree. Your response should be about 600 words.

This essay topic will give you an opportunity to look back over all the subtopics in this topic, so it will act as a useful revision tool as well as a chance to develop your essay-writing skills.

Step 1

Read the question carefully to make sure you understand what is being asked. Be sure to check 'command' terms to clarify what you need to do. In the sample essay question the command term asks you to 'discuss'. In other questions you could be asked to 'explain', 'analyse', 'compare' or 'assess'. You'll notice that this essay has two parts to it. Firstly you need to discuss the information but it also asks you to show whether you agree or disagree.

Step 2

Circle key words in the question. This will help keep you on track and ensure you do what is required. Words in this question that could be circled are:

> 'The movements of people between 1750 and 1901 were carried out mainly against the wishes of those who moved'. Discuss this statement, showing clearly whether you agree or disagree.

Step 3

Decide which point of view you will take in your response. In history essays it is rare to entirely agree or entirely disagree with statements, but you should decide which side of the argument you will mainly support. This practice essay will, for the moment, agree with the statement in the question.

Step 4

Plan your answer by deciding on the main ideas in each paragraph — that is, what information each paragraph will cover. You will need to research in order to gather evidence for each paragraph. Think about the sequence of your points and arrange them in a way that is logical and suits your argument. Usually the strongest points come first. There is no set rule for the number of paragraphs to include in an essay, but five or six body paragraphs plus an introduction and a conclusion is a good starting point. Remember, the purpose of the essay is to support your point of view with details and evidence. Your plan for this topic might look like the following:

1. Introduction
2. Native American slaves
3. Slaves from Africa
4. Transportation of convicts
5. Migrants from Britain
6. A disclaimer paragraph acknowledging the other side of the argument
7. Conclusion

Step 5

Write a first draft, which you can then check, revise and improve on when writing the final draft.

4.11.3 Developing my skills

Task

Write a planned essay by following the steps provided.

Step 1

Read the guidelines and examples in Table 1.

TABLE 1 Essay guidelines and examples

Guidelines	Examples
Introduction (about 70 words) Focus on the key words in the question. You need to show that you understand the question. State your point of view clearly and outline the points that support your statement in the order they will appear in your essay.	'The years between 1750 and 1901 saw the movement of large numbers of people around the world. Most of these migrations were carried out against the wishes of the people involved. First, Native Americans and, later, Africans were kidnapped or sold into slavery in the Americas. Later, British convicts were transported overseas. Even voluntary migrants often had little choice but to seek a new life in a new country.'
Paragraph 2 (about 100 words) Discuss the Spanish need for labour and the use of Native American slaves. You should also mention the population decline that led to a demand for a new source of labour. In every paragraph you should start with a topic sentence that clearly outlines what you will be covering in that paragraph.	'As soon as the Spanish had colonised the Americas they needed a large workforce for their mines and plantations. The Native American population provided a ready source of labour, so they were forced to work for the Spanish. Workers were taken against their will to travel with the Spanish during the expansion of their colonies in America. European diseases took a heavy toll on the Native American population because they had no natural immunity to them. As the native population declined through disease and abuse, the Spanish were forced to look elsewhere for workers.'
Paragraph 3 (about 70 words) Discuss how the African slave trade worked and its importance to America. (Describe how slaves were sometimes kidnapped, sometimes bought.)	Write this paragraph yourself, using only information that supports your point of view.
Paragraph 4 (about 70 words) Discuss the British decision to transport criminals to overseas colonies. (Point out that the convicts had no choice but to go.)	Write this paragraph yourself, using only information that supports your point of view.
Paragraph 5 (about 70 words) Discuss migration from Britain during the nineteenth century. (Point out that many had been forced from their homes.)	Write this paragraph yourself, using only information that supports your point of view.
Paragraph 6 (disclaimer paragraph, about 70 words) This paragraph should acknowledge the other side of the argument, while still defending your position. You could point out that not everyone made the journey against their will, but it was less common to travel back and forth freely. You might also point out that after the mid nineteenth century more and more people were moving voluntarily.	'While it appears that most people who took part in these mass migrations during the period between 1750 and 1901 did so against their will, there were some who made the decision voluntarily. The Hentys, for example, decided to start a new life in Australia. However, even many migrants were left with little choice but to move because of economic events over which they had little control.'
Conclusion (about 70 words) Do not introduce any new ideas here. Briefly summarise the points you have made in the essay. Restate that you agree (or disagree) with the statement and briefly remind the reader of your reasons.	Write this paragraph yourself. Summarise your argument without introducing new elements.

Step 2

Following the guidelines in the left-hand column, write paragraphs 3, 4, 5 and 7. Check and revise your draft before completing your final draft.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.7: Planning a history essay

4.12 Research project: Female convicts

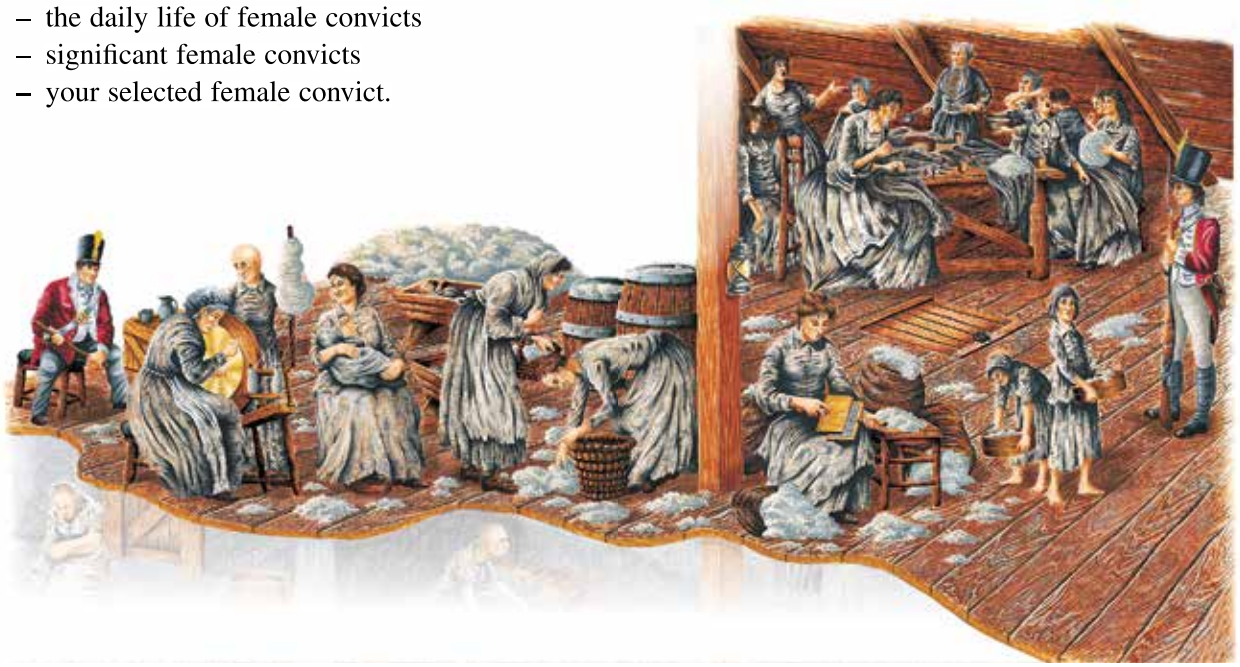
4.12.1 Scenario and task

The Female Factory Historical Society has launched a new competition aimed at helping people to better understand Australia's convict history and the hardships faced by female convicts. Participants in the competition are asked to write a short story of approximately 600 words based on research conducted into the life and times of a female convict from the period.

Your story must be based on factual events, but should elaborate on the information to educate readers about the lives and treatment of women in the female factories. You might like to choose a female convict with the same last name as you. The weblinks in the Resources tab will take you to long lists of Australia's female convicts.

4.12.2 Process

- Access your learnON title to watch the introductory video lesson. Although you will write your story individually, you should first invite members of your class to form a group and share your research.
- Research the following topics to get started:
  - locations and conditions of female factories
  - the daily life of female convicts
  - significant female convicts
  - your selected female convict.



A template containing the key questions you need to answer for each topic can be found in the Resources tab. Weblinks are also provided to help you with your research. You need to make notes about interesting and relevant facts under each of the topics. As you research, it is important that you note the bibliographic information for the sources you have used to find your information.

- When your research is complete, write your short story. Use the information you have gathered to ensure your work is historically accurate.
- Review your short story, remembering to double check your spelling and grammar, and make any final adjustments.
- Print out your research report and hand it in to your teacher.

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Go online to access additional resources such as templates, images and weblinks.

4.13 Review

4.13.1 Review

In this topic we have investigated the movement of peoples around the world between 1750 and 1901. We have seen that this movement was sometimes involuntary, as in the case of slaves and convicts, and sometimes voluntary, as in the case of migrants. However, we have also discovered that migration was often prompted by events beyond the control of those who chose to leave their homeland. In addition, we have studied the impact these movements had on the modern world.

KEY TERMS

abolition the end of legal acceptance of slavery
commute to change a penalty to one less severe
egalitarianism equality of all people
hulk the body of an old ship that serves as a prison rather than a sailing vessel
intercontinental involving or occurring between two or more continents
malefactor a person who does bad or illegal things
New Spain Spanish territories in the New World, including much of North America
treadwheel a punishment device, also called the 'everlasting staircase', comprising a large, iron-framed, hollow cylinder with wooden steps. As the device rotated slaves were forced to keep stepping forward.

4.13 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz online only

Short answer quiz

1. What was the Middle Passage of the Atlantic slave trade?
2. How did the cotton gin affect slavery in America?
3. Why was slavery abolished in America?
4. Why could England no longer send convicts to America in the late eighteenth century?
5. What was a hulk and why were they used?
6. In what year did the First Fleet arrive at Botany Bay?
7. How many convicts sailed with the First Fleet?
8. What was 'secondary punishment'?
9. Describe the difference between push and pull factors.
10. How did the government in Great Britain encourage migrants to come to Australia?
11. What were some of the push and pull factors for Chinese migrants coming to Australia during the gold rushes?
12. What was Canvastown and why was it such an unhealthy place to live?

Apply your understanding

13. Many people regard the printing press as one of the most historically significant inventions of all time. Discuss in groups whether you think the cotton gin should be regarded in a similar way. Explain your thoughts and reasoning.
14. Research the origins of the steam engine and explain what role it played in the movement of peoples during the Industrial Revolution. Do you think it should be regarded as one of the most significant inventions of all time? Explain.
15. The British Empire was described in the nineteenth century as the empire 'on which the sun never sets'. What do you think this quote means? Was it an accurate statement in the nineteenth century?
16. Look at **Source 1** and answer the following questions.
    (a) Is this a primary or a secondary source?
    (b) Do you think this is intended to be a literal portrayal of events? Why or why not?
    (c) What is the message of this cartoon? When answering, you should refer to specific details in the image that help explain your thoughts.

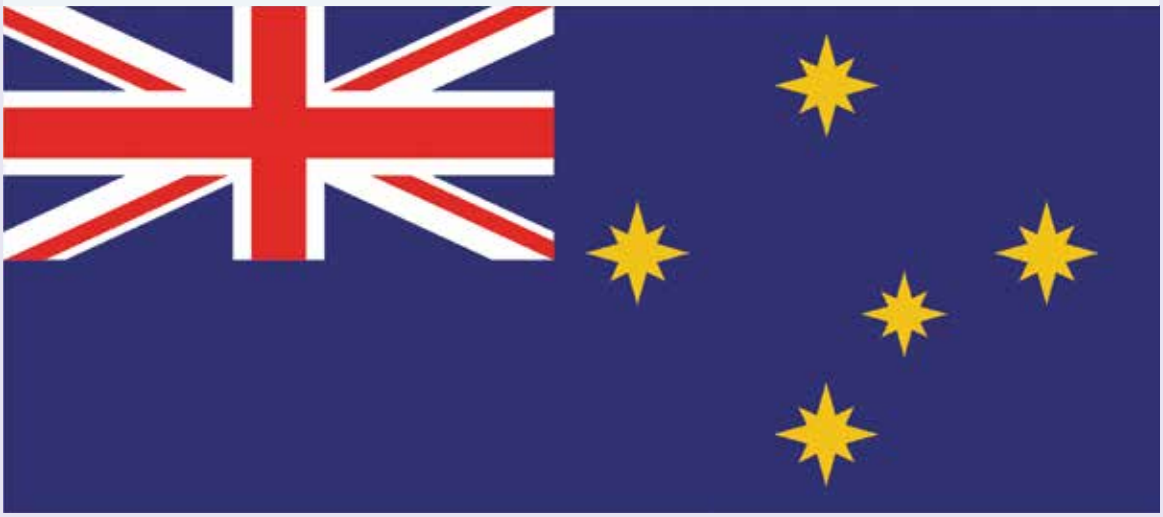
SOURCE 1 *Gin Lane*, an eighteenth-century engraving by William Hogarth, illustrates society falling apart because of the effects of cheap gin.

17. Look back to the subtopics on migration to Australia and the goldfields. Summarise in a copy of the following table the different push and pull factors at work. Find evidence to support your viewpoints.

Push factors	Evidence	Pull factors	Evidence

18. (a) What two symbols are featured in the flag in **Source 2**? Why do you think they were chosen?
(b) Do you feel those two symbols still reflect Australia today? Why or why not?

SOURCE 2 This flag represents the Australasian Anti-Transportation League, an organisation created in the mid nineteenth century to oppose convict transportation to Australia.



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Go online to access additional end of topic resources such as interactivities and printable worksheets.

Try out this interactivity: Movement of peoples timeline (int-2964)

Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 4.8: Word search
Worksheet 4.9: Summing up
Worksheet 4.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic several big questions were posed. Use the knowledge you have gained to answer these questions.

1. How did technology and new ideas contribute to the movement of peoples between 1750 and 1901?
2. What was the significance of European imperialism to slaves, convicts and migrants?
3. What conditions did slaves and convicts face when they were put to work?
4. What sort of historical sources are most useful when investigating slaves, convicts and migrants?

TOPIC 5 Making a nation — Australia (1750–1918): (I) Colonisation and conflict

NOTE TO TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

Due to the range and complexity of the curriculum content, the Depth Study *Making a nation — Australia (1750–1918)* is covered over two topics. Teachers should select the material from both topics that best meets the needs of their students, rather than attempting to cover all the content from both topics.

5.1 Overview

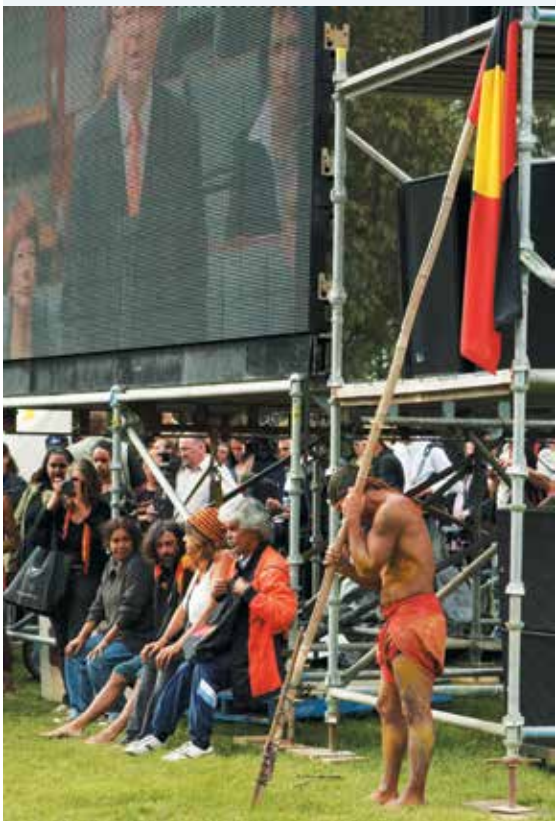
Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

5.1.1 Links with our times

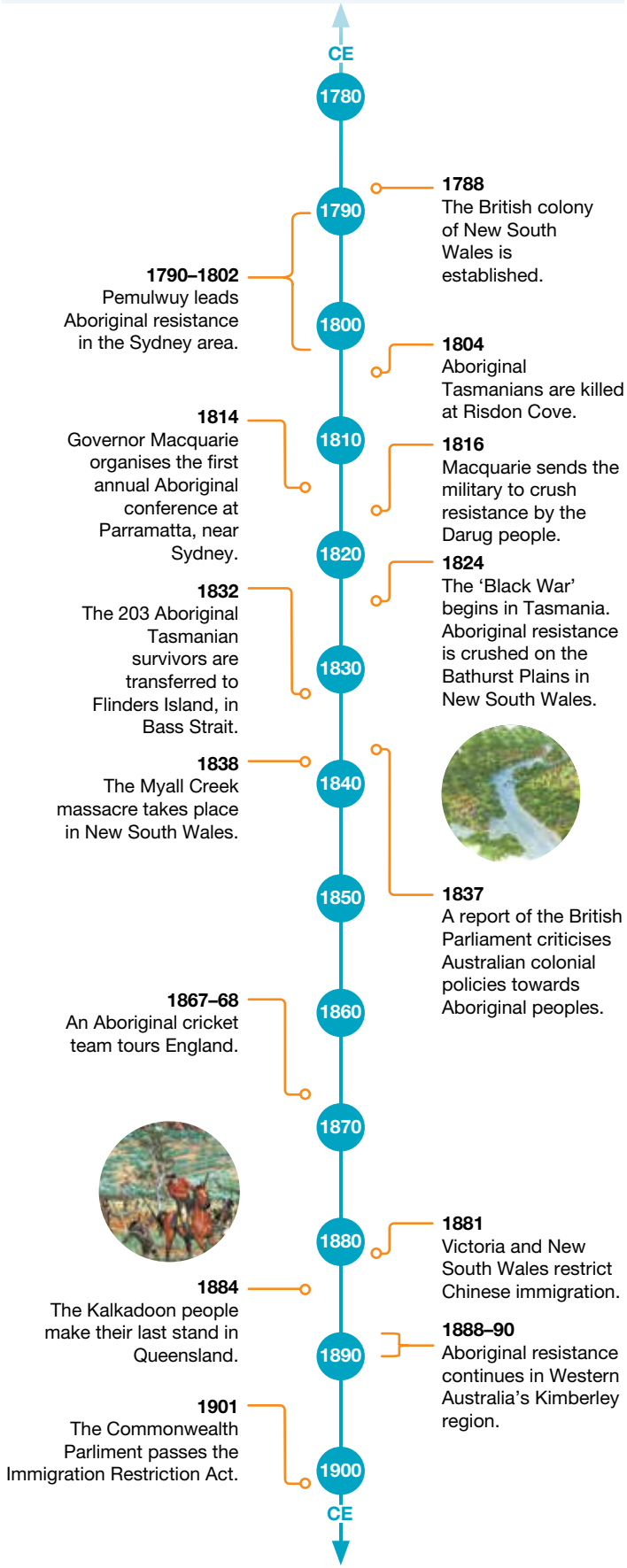
On 13 February 2008 in Federal Parliament in Canberra, Kevin Rudd, then Australia's newly elected Labor prime minister, delivered a long-awaited apology to Australia's Stolen Generations. These were the many thousands of Indigenous Australians who had been removed from their parents by state governments throughout Australia from early in the twentieth century. Vast crowds gathered on the lawns outside Parliament House and in cities throughout Australia to watch this historic event live on big television screens.

In taking this step, Kevin Rudd had broken with the attitude of the previous Liberal–National Coalition government led by John Howard, who for more than a decade had resisted public pressure to make such an apology. Rudd had taken an important step on the path towards reconciliation (an aim adopted by the federal government in 1991 to promote understanding between Indigenous Australians and the wider community). Did the National Apology mark a turning point in relations

SOURCE 1 Members of the crowd around a big television screen outside Parliament House, Canberra, as Prime Minister Kevin Rudd made his historic Apology to the Stolen Generations on 13 February 2008



SOURCE 2 A timeline of contact and conflict to 1901



between Australians? It may still be too early to say, but it is important to understand why it was welcomed by most Australians, including Indigenous people. The apology derived from a movement in Australia since the 1960s to acknowledge and address the injustices suffered by the First Australians. To see how far-reaching these injustices were and how devastating their consequences, we need to understand what took place in Australia in the first century and more after colonists from Britain first arrived at Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. What were the experiences of Indigenous Australians between the late eighteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century?
2. What policies did the colonisers adopt towards Indigenous peoples?
3. Why did racial conflict occur?
4. How did Aboriginal peoples resist the occupation of their lands, and what were the consequences of resistance?

Starter questions

1. Australia's national day, Australia Day, is celebrated each year on 26 January. What do we celebrate on this day?
2. Why might Indigenous Australians object to celebrating what this day commemorates?
3. Do you think Australia should choose a different national day?
4. How would you feel today if a foreign power took control of Australia?
5. What more do you think can be done to achieve reconciliation in Australia?

5.2 How do we know about race relations in colonial Australia?

5.2.1 Evidence of race relations in colonial Australia

In this topic you will study the consequences of contact between Indigenous peoples and Europeans in Australia up to the early twentieth century. Some consequences were intended and others were unintended. In both cases, they were usually disastrous for the First Australians. Non-European immigrants also suffered discrimination during this period. Most hostility was directed against the Chinese who came to work on the goldfields from the 1850s, but there was also strong prejudice against Pacific Islanders who were brought over to work on Queensland's sugar plantations.

Written sources

Most of our written sources for these events, including official reports, diaries, letters and newspaper articles, derive from the colonisers. This means that for many events we have heard only one side of the story. We have to be wary of bias in such sources. However, it is important to remember that even the most biased sources can be useful because of what they might tell us about the attitudes of the people who created them.

We also need to be aware of gaps in our evidence. When settlers were killed by Aboriginal people, such killings were recorded and usually punished by white authorities. Many killings of Aboriginal people by settlers went unrecorded and unpunished, or were recorded in ways that distorted the truth.

Also, we should not assume that all Europeans saw these events in the same way. Among those who came to Australia in the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries there were people who recognised the injustice suffered by Indigenous peoples and other non-Europeans and who were angered by it.

SOURCE 1 A letter from Arthur Phillip, the first governor of New South Wales, to the Marquis of Lansdowne in England

My Lord
… the few extracts from my journal, is all the information I am able to give your Lordship, at present, of the Natives; who never come to us & with whom I have never been able to remain but a very short time …
It has been my determination from the time I landed, never to fire on the Natives, but in a case of absolute necessity, & I have been so fortunate as to have avoided it hitherto … They do not in my opinion want [lack] personal Courage, they very readily place a confidence & are, I believe, strictly honest amongst themselves …

A Phillip, Sydney Cove, July 3d. 1788

SOURCE 2 From *Captain John Hunter's Journal* (1793), in which he described contacts in the new settlement's first week. Hunter was the second governor of New South Wales.

In the different opportunities I have had of getting a little acquainted with the natives, who reside in and about this port, I … think that it will be no very difficult matter … to conciliate their friendship and confidence … whenever we have laid aside our arms, and have made signs of friendship, they have always advanced unarmed … I am inclined to think, that by residing some time amongst them, or near them, they will soon discover that we are not their enemies; a light they no doubt considered us in on our first arrival.

Oral history

For some events we have records that were handed down by word of mouth through generations of Aboriginal people. These records tell of loss of land, massacres and other injustices. In many cases there is other evidence to support such records.

Visual records

Because Aboriginal art was mainly concerned with spiritual beliefs we have few Aboriginal artworks that record contacts and conflict with Europeans. The fate of Indigenous peoples did not interest most European artists. However, some paintings and drawings by European artists do provide useful evidence. From the mid-nineteenth century we also have photographic evidence.

SOURCE 3 *The annual meeting of the native tribes at Parramatta, New South Wales, the Governor meeting them*, a watercolour painting by Augustus Earle, c. 1826. From 1814, under Governor Macquarie, Aboriginal people were invited to annual feasts and conferences at Parramatta, near Sydney. Hundreds of Aboriginal people attended the gatherings, which continued into the 1830s.

SOURCE 4 *The Persecuting White Men*, a lithograph thought to be made by George Hamilton between 1848 and 1858

SOURCE 5 *Collins Street, town of Melbourne, New South Wales 1839* by William Knight

5.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. In **Source 2**, how did Captain Hunter describe the Aboriginal people he had encountered?
2. In **Source 2**, what does Hunter hope will be the future for European relations with Aboriginal people?
3. What does the scene shown in **Source 3** suggest about relations between the Europeans and Aboriginal people?
4. Examine **Sources 1, 2** and **3**. What do these sources suggest about the official British policies towards Australia's Aboriginal peoples?

Apply your understanding

5. **Source 1** is an extract from a letter written by Governor Phillip less than six months after he arrived in Australia.
   (a) How does Phillip say he intends to conduct relations with Aboriginal people?
   (b) What impressions had he formed of Aboriginal people?
6. Describe the scene portrayed in **Source 3**.
7. Explain what Governor Macquarie might have intended to achieve by holding these feasts.
8. Do you think it would be possible to be friends with people at the same time that you are seizing their land?
9. Describe the scene in **Source 4** and explain what this sketch suggests about the reasons for this violence.
10. What doesn't the sketch tell us?
11. How does the incident shown here differ from the intentions described or shown in **Sources 1–3**?
12. Whose views are not represented in these four sources?

5.3 Beginnings of conflict

5.3.1 The British arrive

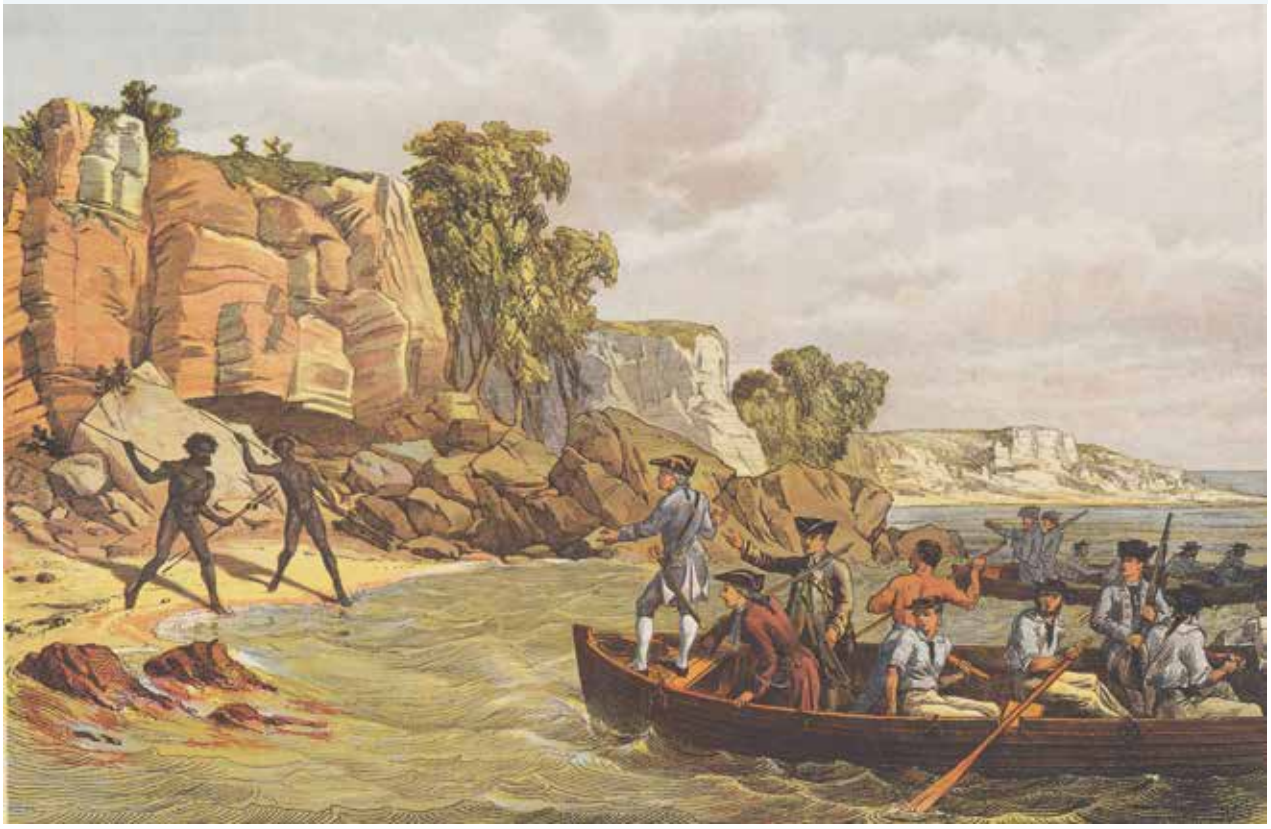
For tens of thousands of years before British colonisation Indigenous Australians lived undisturbed in a range of different landscapes and climates. The seeds of conflict were sown soon after the first colonists arrived because the British authorities had no understanding of the relationships between Aboriginal peoples and their land.

SOURCE 1 From Captain James Cook's journal of his first expedition (1770)

> They may appear to some to be the most wretched people on earth, but in reality they are far happier than we Europeans … [The] earth and sea … furnish them with all the things necessary for Life … [They] live in a fine Climate and enjoy a very wholesome Air, so that they have very little need of Clothing … [They] … set no Value upon anything we gave them … this in my opinion argues that they think themselves provided with all the necessarys of Life.

As you already know, some Indigenous Australians had contact with people from overseas from at least the start of the seventeenth century. Macassans (from Indonesia) had often visited Australia's northern coast and some Torres Strait Islands for fishing and trade. Also, some Dutch and English explorers made landings in Australia in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The last was Captain James Cook, who charted the east coast in 1770. Cook named the country New South Wales and claimed it for the English king, George III.

SOURCE 2 A colonial artist's depiction of the response of the Indigenous people of Botany Bay to the arrival of Captain James Cook in 1770. This colour lithograph was made in 1872.



SOURCE 3 *A View of Sydney Cove, New South Wales*, engraved by Frances Jukes in 1804

5.3.2 Occupation begins

The First Fleet from England to colonise Australia is believed to have carried 759 **convicts** and 206 marines. However, historians' estimates vary. Its commander, Captain Arthur Phillip, was to be the first British governor of New South Wales. He explored Port Jackson (Sydney Harbour) and founded the first British settlement there on 26 January 1788.

Eight days earlier the Cadigal Aboriginal people had seen the British fleet at Botany Bay. They had also witnessed the arrival of two French ships commanded by La Perouse. The French fired upon an Aboriginal band in February but sailed away on 10 March. The local people could not have known that the arrival of these strange Europeans would eventually lead to the destruction of Aboriginal societies across Australia.

'Respecting Natives'

New South Wales was founded as a **penal colony**, a dumping ground for Britain's unwanted convicts. The early colonial governors had wide powers, like those of someone controlling a prison. However, their orders from Britain were to cultivate friendly relations with Aboriginal people and to offer them the protection of British law. In 1807 the third Governor of New South Wales, P. G. King, wrote a memo for his successor titled 'Respecting Natives'. In this advice he stated that he had been unwilling to force the Indigenous people to work because he regarded them as the 'real Proprietors [owners] of the Soil'.

The myth of *terra nullius*

Aboriginal lifestyles varied widely, as did the ways in which different Aboriginal language groups managed the land. However, because of the kinds of plants and animals that are native to Australia, semi-nomadic hunting and gathering was the only kind of economy that could develop. The British saw only that Australia's land was not used in the European way; that is, it was not farmed. So they described Australia, in the language used by British law, as *terra nullius*. This term meant unused or waste lands

that could be taken without asking permission. Colonists produced food by farming, and powerful people soon discovered that wealth could be produced by grazing sheep for wool. Both activities required the taking of Aboriginal land.

5.3.3 Culture clash

SOURCE 4 *First Government House, Sydney*, a watercolour painted by John Eyre around 1807

Before long the people of the main language groups around Sydney — the Darug, Kuringgai and Dharawal people — saw the new arrivals clearing land, fencing waterholes and hunting grounds, fishing without permission and trampling around sacred sites. They were breaking laws that Indigenous people had lived by throughout many ages. They were clearly invaders, not visitors.

For their part, Europeans had a range of reactions to Aboriginal people. In line with the ideas of the time, the more educated Europeans tended to see Indigenous people as 'noble savages', primitive people who lived in harmony with the natural world (see **Source 1**). However, most of the new arrivals were uneducated convicts and soldiers who probably feared the people whose land they had entered. These Europeans could not understand Aboriginal **kinship** systems or why they did not behave like Europeans and have farms, towns and churches.

The British did not consider the fact that different parts of the country belonged to different language groups. They assumed that Aboriginal people could simply move on to another area when their land was taken. Later, when Europeans gained some understanding of such matters, they continued taking land regardless.

5.3.4 Early encounters

In May 1788 Aboriginal people killed two convicts at Rushcutters Bay, and there were several other clashes. At first Governor Phillip was willing to blame the convicts rather than the Indigenous people for such clashes.

Phillip wanted to develop contacts between cultures. When Aboriginal people continued to avoid the settlement, he resorted to kidnapping Aboriginal people in the hope that these individuals could be influenced to encourage their people to accept British ways. Arabanoo was the first to be captured, but within six months he died of smallpox. In November 1789 Bennelong and Colebee were captured. Colebee escaped but Bennelong was later sent to England. Tragically, on his return to the colony in 1795 he was unable to fit into either Aboriginal or European society. He died in 1813.

SOURCE 5 From David Collins, *An Account of the English Colony of New South Wales*. The event described occurred in March 1788.

> Several convicts came in from the woods; one in particular dangerously wounded with a spear … these people denied giving any provocation to the natives; it was, however, difficult to believe them; they well know the consequences that would attend any acts of violence on their part … any act of cruelty to the natives being contrary to his Majesty's … intentions.

SOURCE 6 From a report of events in January 1800 by Governor John Hunter

Two native boys have lately been most barbarously murdered by several of the settlers at the Hawkesbury River, not withstanding orders on this subject have been repeatedly given pointing out in what circumstances only they were warranted in punishing with such severity.

5.3.5 Rising tensions

In the first few decades of the colony, tensions grew on both sides. Aboriginal people were shot at when they crossed European farmland to hunt and gather food. But these farms had been established by taking Aboriginal land. In retaliation, Aboriginal warriors attacked European settlers and convicts. More and more Europeans arrived and ever more Aboriginal people died of smallpox and other introduced diseases including whooping cough and influenza.

SOURCE 7 From the *Sydney Gazette*, 25 June 1814

The mountain natives have lately become troublesome to the occupiers of remote grounds. Mr. Cox's people at Mulgoa have been several times attacked within the last month and compelled to defend themselves with their muskets, which the assailants seemed less in dread of than could possibly have been expected. On Sunday last, Mr. Campbell's servants at 'Shancomore' were attacked by nearly 400.

SOURCE 8 In this extract from his journal of 10 April 1816, Governor Lachlan Macquarie gave his reasons for sending expeditions to crush Aboriginal resistance in that year.

I therefore, tho' very unwillingly, felt myself compelled from a … sense of public duty … to inflict terrible … punishment upon them without further loss of time; as they might construe any further forbearance or lenity [leniency] on the part of this Government [as] fear or cowardice.

DID YOU KNOW?

Unlike Europeans, Aboriginal people had no resistance to smallpox, a disease that arrived with the colonists. In April 1789 smallpox began to kill many Aboriginal people around Sydney. As the people retreated from the disease it spread inland. Probably half the Indigenous population of the Sydney area was wiped out by this epidemic by 1790.

5.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain what the British understood by the term *terra nullius*.
2. How would the idea of *terra nullius* have affected Aboriginal rights to land?
3. What different ideas about Indigenous Australians were held by educated and uneducated Europeans?
4. Describe the consequences of the smallpox epidemic up to 1790.

Apply your understanding

5. Describe Cook's views on Aboriginal people in **Source 1**.
6. Using **Sources 5, 6, 7** and **8** as your evidence:
   (a) describe the attitudes of colonial authorities towards Aboriginal people
   (b) explain how and why relations between Aboriginal people and colonists changed between 1788 and 1816.

7. Select one of **Sources 2, 3** or **4** and answer the following for your selected source:
   (a) Is this a primary or secondary source? Why?
   (b) Describe the appearance of the Aboriginal people in the art.
   (c) What does this tell you?
   (d) What evidence does the art contain about relations between Aboriginal people and Europeans?
   (e) Is there any suggestion of bias on the part of the artist? Explain.
8. Working in small groups, use the National Library of Australia's internet search engine to find another example of colonial art that depicts Indigenous people. Searching by the artist's name, you could look for Augustus Earle, William Bradley, Joseph Lycett, John Eyre, Benjamin Duterrau or S. T. Gill.
   Analyse the artwork you found by asking the following:
   (a) What is the main subject of the painting?
   (b) What overall impression does this painting convey about the impact of colonisation on Indigenous ways of life?
   (c) If an Aboriginal artist of the time had painted the same scene, how do you think that painting would differ from the painting you found?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.1: Conflict – inevitable?

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Cook and the First Fleet**

5.4 Resistance

5.4.1 Pemulwuy

Many stories about the conflict between European colonists and Indigenous people suggest the latter were easy targets. Indigenous people may not have had the guns of the Europeans, or often their manpower, but they did not lack courage or skill. Their bush skills, for example, could not be matched by the Europeans. Here are the stories of two Indigenous men who fought back.

The Bidjigal warrior Pemulwuy, sometimes called the Rainbow Warrior, belonged to the Eora language group (the coastal area in Sydney). Between 1790 and 1802, he led many attacks against colonial farms and settlements, some of which were highly organised, large-scale guerrilla operations. He and his men fought fiercely in a battle in 1797 near the newly settled town of Parramatta.

Governor King became increasingly frustrated by Pemulwuy. He offered rewards, including a free pardon, to any convict who would bring him

SOURCE 1 *Pimbloy: Native of New Holland in a canoe of that country*, a print from an engraving by S. J. Neele. The man in the picture is believed to be Pemulwuy. Despite being continually sought by soldiers, Pemulwuy kept eluding them; once he escaped from a hospital still in leg irons. He also survived repeated wounds, being hit in one attack by seven bullets. Some Indigenous people believed he escaped by turning himself into a bird.

his head. That happened in 1802; Pemulwuy was murdered. His decapitated head was sent to England to be studied by scientists. They had heard a lot about the native Australians, but had never seen one. Although glad he was dead, Governor King had a grudging respect for Pemulwuy. He said of him: 'Altho' a terrible pest to the colony, he was a brave and independent character and an active, daring leader of his people'.

5.4.2 Yagan

Yagan was part of the Nyungar tribe of south-western Western Australia. A tall man (described as being over 1.8 metres), he was both feared and admired by the British colonists.

At first, his tribe lived in harmony with the Europeans, who had established a colony on the Swan River in 1829. However, arguments soon arose over land and resources. The British mistook the Nyungar tradition of burning the land as an act of aggression. In 1831 a Nyungar was shot while taking potatoes from a settler's garden. The settler saw it as theft; the Nyungar would have seen it as taking the land's resources, to which he was entitled. Yagan sought revenge for this killing. After more battles, a reward was offered for his head.

When Yagan was finally captured, a European named Robert Lyon fought hard to spare his life. He admired Yagan's courage and wished to study him. Yagan was exiled to a small rocky island, but escaped after six weeks. The colonists were angry about this; as punishment, they killed Yagan's father and brother, and increased the reward on Yagan's head.

For 12 months Yagan managed to avoid capture, continuing to fight for his people. Then, in July 1833, he approached two shepherds he knew, asking for flour. When his back was turned, one of them, William Keats, shot him. A reward was given for the killing of Yagan, but the editorial of *The Perth Gazette* described it as a 'wild and treacherous act': 'We are not vindicating [forgiving] the outlaw, but, we maintain it is revolting to hear this lauded [praised] as a meritorious [good] deed.'

Yagan's head was sent to England in 1835. The hair was combed, and black and red cockatoo feathers were tied to the head as decoration. It was exhibited in Liverpool until 1964 when it was buried in Everton Cemetery. In 1997, almost 165 years after being sent to England, Yagan's head was returned to Australia for a proper burial.

SOURCE 2 This statue of Yagan was erected on Herrison Island in the Swan River.

SOURCE 3 The head of Yagan, painted by Robert Havell

DID YOU KNOW?

Until recently, the remains of many Indigenous Australians were still held in several British museums, causing great distress to Indigenous communities who believe the souls of their ancestors cannot rest until their bodies are returned. In recent years, some British museums have commenced the process of returning such remains to their communities.

5.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why did Pemulwuy develop a supernatural reputation among his people? Explain.
2. What evidence is there in this subtopic to suggest that both Pemulwuy and Yagan were both feared and respected by some European colonists?

Apply your understanding

3. Look at **Source 4**. It was taken on 3 March 2005 in the North Head Sydney Harbour National Park. The remains of a number of Indigenous people that have been handed back to their people are being buried.
   (a) How do you think the Indigenous people in the photograph might be feeling?
   (b) Why were Indigenous remains, such as these and Yagan's and Pemulwuy's heads, not given a proper burial in the first place? Why might museums be interested in wanting to continue to display such remains?
   (c) How would you feel if the remains of a member of your family were displayed in a museum? What underlying beliefs do you have that make you feel this way?

SOURCE 4 The remains of returned Indigenous people are being buried.

4. (a) From the list of adjectives (describing words) below, select those you think most European colonists in the early nineteenth century might have used to describe people like Pemulwuy and Yagan. Then select those most Indigenous people might have used to describe them.

troublesome insubordinate wild brave violent
fearless savage rebellious bold clever uncontrollable
courageous irritating noble intelligent motivating

   (b) Write two paragraphs about one of these Indigenous men from each point of view. Build your adjective word choices into what you say.
   (c) What does this task teach you about how emotional words can be used to support a point of view?
5. Work in small groups to design/create a monument to commemorate the life of Pemulwuy. It might be a lifelike statue, similar to that of Yagan in **Source 2**, or a more contemporary piece that symbolises his life (based on the information in this subtopic). Allocate tasks according to group members' abilities and interests. Present your completed work to the class as a group, providing and accepting feedback on its likely cultural impacts.

5.5 Tragedy in Van Diemen's Land

5.5.1 A people destroyed

In 1816 Aboriginal resistance around Sydney was crushed by military expeditions sent by Governor Macquarie. By this time British settlements had already been founded beyond the Sydney area. In 1803 and 1804 the settlements of Hobart Town and Port Dalrymple (later Launceston) were established in Van Diemen's Land, which became a separate colony in 1825.

There is no reliable evidence of how many Indigenous people lived in Tasmania before colonisation. The most common estimate is between 4000 and 7000 people. But by 1832 there were just 203 survivors and by 1856, when Van Diemen's Land was renamed Tasmania, there were even fewer. Some historians regard what happened there as genocide (the deliberate wiping out of a race). So complete was the destruction of Tasmania's tribes that today's surviving Indigenous Tasmanians are mostly the descendants of Aboriginal women who were kidnapped and enslaved by white sealers. How could almost an entire population disappear in such a short time?

Hundreds of Aboriginal Tasmanians were killed in 1803, when they attempted to stop soldiers and convicts building huts near the present site of Hobart. Over the next few years, gangs of escaped convicts raided Aboriginal camps, killing men and kidnapping women. There were killings and kidnappings by lawless kangaroo hunters, sealers and whalers. European diseases also took a heavy toll. Another problem for the first Tasmanians was that whites slaughtered the native animals that were their main source of food. There were reports of shepherds being speared and attacks on settlers' huts. Settlers often shot any Aboriginal people who came near their dwellings.

SOURCE 1 From Keith Windschuttle, *The Fabrication of Aboriginal History, Volume One: Van Diemen's Land 1803–1847*, Macleay Press, pp. 130, 351, 362, 364, 371, 386

The Aborigines were never starving or even seriously deprived of traditional food … How many Aborigines died violently at the hands of colonists in Van Diemen's Land? … Over the entire period from 1803 to 1831, they [Aborigines killed by colonists] average just four deaths a year … far fewer than the colonists who died at Aboriginal hands …

The orthodox story is that Aboriginal society was devastated by the arrival of the British colonizers … [We] should regard the total pre-colonial Aboriginal population of Tasmania as less than 2000 … Hence it was not surprising that when the British arrived, this small, precarious society quickly collapsed …

5.5.2 War in the 1820s

Official government policy was to treat Aboriginal Tasmanians with friendship but, by the 1820s, there was a state of war in eastern Tasmania. In 1828 Governor Arthur ordered Aboriginal people out of all settled districts. In 1830 more than two thousand soldiers, convicts and settlers were formed into lines for a drive to capture all the Aboriginal people in the area of conflict or drive them through the narrow strip of land that forms Eaglehawk Neck and into the Tasman Peninsula, where they could be kept away from the settlers. Despite the scale of this operation, only two Aboriginal people were captured.

SOURCE 2 From Henry Reynolds, *Fate of a Free People*, Penguin, 1995, pp. 4, 81–2, 185

How many Aborigines were killed by the settlers? We will never know with any certainty … There is no doubt that in the earliest years of settlement from 1804 to 1824 the Europeans took more lives than the Aborigines. But in the period of the Black War — from 1824 to 1831 — the mortality rate on each side was more even: perhaps somewhere between 150 and 250 Tasmanians were killed in conflict with the Europeans after 1824 (with another 100 to 150 dying before that date), while they killed about 170 Europeans …

It seems very likely that the mortality rate on Flinders Island was merely a continuation of a catastrophic pattern of death [from diseases] which had begun even before the first permanent settlements in 1803 and 1804 … As Robinson traveled across Tasmania he was told by his Aboriginal companions of whole tribes, or clans, which had become extinct.

5.5.3 Exile, disease and despair

From 1829 to 1834, George Augustus Robinson, a Methodist lay preacher, working on behalf of the government, travelled among the survivors. Robinson believed that they would be wiped out if they remained in Tasmania and he convinced some of them to agree to what they believed would be a temporary move to an island off the Tasmanian coast. They were deceived. Between 1821 and the early 1840s survivors from many different language groups were moved to Flinders Island, where they were guarded and forced to wear European clothes and to attend sermons on Christianity. By 1847 most had died of disease and despair. Forty-seven survivors were resettled at Oyster Bay near Hobart but they continued to die. From 1869 Truganini was the only survivor at Oyster Bay. She died in 1876.

SOURCE 3 Proclamation to the Tasmanian Aboriginal people in 1816

SOURCE 4 From journals written by George Augustus Robinson in the 1830s

> The [Aboriginal] children have witnessed the massacre of their parents and their relations carried away into captivity by these merciless invaders, their country has been taken from them and the Kangaroos, their chief subsistence, have been slaughtered wholesale for the sake of filthy lucre [money]. Can we wonder then at the hatred they bear to the white inhabitants? … We should make atonement for the misery we have [caused] the original proprietors of this land.

SOURCE 5 *Mount Wellington and Hobart Town from Kangaroo Point*, painted by John Glover (England 1767–Australia 1849) in 1834, oil on canvas, 76.25 × 152.4 cm. Glover was in Hobart in 1831–32, when Robinson brought in the last of the people of the Big River and Oyster Bay regions. Just 10 days after arriving in Hobart, they were shipped to Flinders Island.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1823–24 Musquito, an Aboriginal man from the Sydney area, led a group from the Oyster Bay tribe. In a wave of attacks, his fighters killed several settlers and convicts before Musquito was captured, tried and executed in February 1825.

5.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Make a timeline of significant events in Tasmanian Aboriginal history from 1803 to 1876.
2. List the causes of conflict between Aboriginal Tasmanians and Europeans.

Apply your understanding

3. Henry Reynolds (**Sources 2**) and Keith Windschuttle (**Source 1**) represent different sides of the debate about the fate of the Aboriginal Tasmanians.
   (a) List the causes of the destruction of Aboriginal Tasmanians identified by Reynolds.
   (b) Windschuttle uses official government records to estimate numbers of deaths on both sides. Do you think such records would be trustworthy? Give reasons for your answer.
   (c) Outline the main differences in the views of these historians and what you think are the reasons for their different interpretations.
4. Read **Source 4**. For which interpretation in **Sources 1** and **2** could this source provide supporting evidence?
5. The poster (**Source 3**) was intended to tell Aboriginal people that they had the same protection as Europeans under British law. Using the evidence in this subtopic, design your own poster showing what you think really happened.
6. Look closely at **Source 5**. It depicts the Oyster Bay and Big River people who came into Hobart to celebrate a negotiated peace. How would these people have felt when they found out that they were to be removed from their homeland?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.2: Conflict spreads

5.6 Blood on the frontiers

5.6.1 Expansion and resistance

One after another, Aboriginal groups across Australia fought to save their land. By the end of the nineteenth century Europeans controlled most land that was of any use to them. In several areas this was achieved through much bloodshed.

From the 1820s wealthy immigrants were attracted to Australia by government offers of land grants and convict labour and the promise of profits to be made from grazing sheep for wool. As trails were forged into the inland, **squatters** took more Aboriginal land. Trees were cut down to clear land for grazing and native animals were shot as pests. In some areas Aboriginal food supplies were completely destroyed. Many Europeans regarded the land they gained as their private property and they were reluctant to allow its original owners to use it for hunting, gathering and ceremonies.

A pattern of conflict was repeated across the continent. Some settlers tried to live peacefully alongside Aboriginal people but others killed them, drove them away or exploited them. In retaliation for rapes and

other acts of violence committed against their people, Aboriginal groups speared stock and shepherds and attacked homesteads. At times soldiers and police were used to crush resistance. Colonists also organised armed bands, supposedly to punish the attackers but often killing any Aboriginal people they could find.

DID YOU KNOW?

At times Aboriginal resistance forced squatters to abandon their runs. However, some squatters killed entire Aboriginal bands by poisoning their waterholes or giving them poisoned flour to eat.

5.6.2 Batman's 'treaty'

In 1835 John Batman was financed by a group of businessmen from Van Diemen's Land to find good grazing land around Port Phillip Bay (around present-day Melbourne). Batman signed what he called a treaty with several Kulin Aboriginal men. It gave him 234 000 hectares of land in return for clothes, blankets, flour, tools and mirrors. New South Wales Governor Sir Richard Bourke declared the treaty illegal. Clearly the arrangement was meant to defraud the Kulin, who would have believed that it simply allowed temporary use of land for food. This was not Bourke's reason for rejecting it, however. Rather, he was implementing the doctrine of *terra nullius*, according to which the land belonged to no-one before the British government took possession of it.

SOURCE 1 *Batman's Treaty with the Aborigines at Merri Creek, 6 June 1838*, painted by John Wesley Burtt, c. 1875

By 1840 Melbourne had around 4000 European inhabitants and in 1851 it became the centre of the new colony of Victoria. By 1863 only about 250 Kulin survived, living on the fringes of pastoral stations and missions.

5.6.3 Windradyne and the Wiradjuri massacre

In the Bathurst Plains in New South Wales in the 1820s a leader named Windradyne led resistance by the Wiradjuri people (see **Source 2**). Governor Brisbane declared martial law in 1824. During that year probably two-thirds of the Wiradjuri were killed by groups of settlers and soldiers. At least a hundred were killed in a single massacre. The skulls of 45 of the victims were shipped to England.

SOURCE 2 *A native chief of Bathurst*, a hand-coloured print by R. Havell & Son, 1820. The man pictured is believed to be Windradyne.

5.6.4 Major Nunn's massacre

In the early 1830s the Liverpool Plains district, west of modern-day Tamworth, was settled and the Kamilari people resisted the loss of their land. In 1838 the Mounted Police, led by the colony's senior military officer, Major Nunn, massacred at least a hundred of them at Vinegar Hill on the Namoi River (see **Source 3**).

SOURCE 3 *Mounted police and blacks*, a lithograph print by Godfrey Charles Mundy, published in London in 1852. The print depicts British troops killing Kamilari warriors on the Liverpool Plains in northern New South Wales in 1838. Reports of the number of Indigenous people killed ranged from 60 to 300. None of the troopers were killed.

Godfrey Charles Mundy

Mounted Police and Blacks 1852
Lithograph on paper 10.9 cm × 18.2 cm (Image) 30 cm × 43.8 cm (Sheet)
© Australian War Memorial (ART50023)

5.6.5 The Myall Creek massacre

The Myall Creek massacre is unusual because it marked the first, and almost the last, time that whites who murdered Aboriginal people suffered consequences under British law.

In 1838 more than thirty women, children and elderly men of the Kwianbal group were camped on Henry Dangar's Myall Creek Station near Inverell in northern New South Wales. They were friendly with the local whites and the young men of the group were away helping another station owner to cut bark. The station manager, William Hobbs, was also away, moving cattle to better pastures. Two assigned convicts, George Anderson and James Kilmeister, were the only Europeans left at the station on 9 June when 11 armed stockmen, also mostly assigned convicts or ex-convicts, rode up.

The armed men claimed that they were hunting Aboriginal people to punish them for frightening cattle. With Kilmeister joining them, they rounded up the defenceless Kwianbal, tied them together, dragged them away and murdered them. Anderson did not take part and he managed to hide one small boy and save his life.

Most of the victims were butchered with swords. The next day the killers returned to burn the bodies and remove as much evidence as possible. They probably never imagined that they might be punished. This was because they knew that, as non-Christians, any Aboriginal witnesses could not be sworn in to give evidence in court. However, in this case four things made it possible for the killers to be brought to trial. Anderson wanted to give evidence against the killers. Hobbs, the station manager, reported the murders to a magistrate. The magistrate acted properly, and New South Wales Governor Gipps wanted justice.

The Myall Creek trials

When 11 of the Myall Creek killers were brought to trial, there was public outrage that the government should want to punish white men for killing Aboriginal people. At the first trial the accused were supported by many wealthy squatters, including a magistrate, and were found not guilty. However, seven of the men were then charged with the murder of an Aboriginal child whose remains were found at the massacre site. At a second trial the seven were found guilty and they were hanged in December 1838.

One outcome of these hangings was that others who committed massacres made sure that no witnesses lived to give evidence. Killers could still avoid justice. Major Nunn's force had massacred more people than the Myall Creek killers in the same year, but attempts to get evidence for a trial had been unsuccessful.

SOURCE 4 The memorial stone marking the site of the Myall Creek massacre, in which at least thirty Kwianbal women, children and elderly men were murdered in 1838

5.6.6 A massacre in Gippsland

Gippsland in Victoria was another area of frontier conflict. In July 1843 Ronald Macalister, nephew of a prominent local settler, was speared to death near Port Albert in Gippsland. Angus McMillan, an explorer and local squatter, led a party of whites to avenge his death. Although McMillan's party probably murdered about 60 people at Warrigal Creek, the massacre was kept secret. McMillan later became a member of the Victorian Parliament and a statue was erected to honour him as a pioneer.

5.6.7 How many killings?

About 2000 Europeans were killed by Aboriginal people during the colonial period. Historians estimate that at least 20000 Aboriginal people were shot or poisoned by Europeans. There were also several Aboriginal men hanged for murders of Europeans. Massacres of Aboriginal people continued into the twentieth century. The last occurred in the 1920s in Western Australia and the Northern Territory. Both of these massacres were committed by police and in both cases the atrocities went unpunished.

SOURCE 5 Aboriginal prisoners in chains at Heavitree Gap police camp, Alice Springs, on 23 June 1906. Charged with stealing beef, all ten men were sentenced to six months in Port Augusta jail.

SOURCE 6 From a letter in the *Sydney Gazette*, 26 August 1824

[The Aboriginal people] are governed and defended by the same laws as ourselves so far as those laws are applicable to their condition. The general rule of our conduct towards the blacks must therefore be, to treat them in precisely the same manner as we should treat any other British subjects in like circumstances.

5.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Describe the circumstances that led to the massacres at:
   (a) Bathurst Plains
   (b) Liverpool Plains
   (c) Myall Creek
   (d) Warrigal Creek.
2. What was unusual about the Myall Creek massacre?
3. What lesson did those who wanted to commit such massacres learn from the trials following the Myall Creek massacre?

Apply your understanding

4. Study **Source 1** and suggest reasons why Batman's 'treaty' could more accurately be described as a fraud.
5. Look at **Source 3**.
   (a) Describe the scene.
   (b) What advantages and disadvantages would each side have had in such clashes?
   (c) Why do you think there are very few visual records of such events?
6. **Source 4** marks the site of the Myall Creek massacre. As there were many such massacres during Australia's colonial history, why do you think there are not many more memorials?
7. What do you think the men in **Source 5** would have thought of the kinds of ideas expressed in **Source 6**?

5.7 SkillBuilder: Identifying gaps in evidence

5.7.1 What are gaps in evidence?

We say that there are gaps in our evidence when we do not have enough clues from primary sources to completely solve a puzzle or give a complete explanation of an event or development in the past.

Why is it important to recognise gaps in evidence?

History is the scientific study of the past. To try to explain past events, historians use evidence from primary sources in order to create secondary sources. To do this, historians have to locate information in primary sources and interpret that information to produce a possible explanation of what happened. Whatever sources we use, we have to keep in mind the following factors:

- Some evidence will not have survived to the present. For example, even when there were witnesses to the kinds of massacres we studied in subtopic 5.6, they might not have written down what they saw and their knowledge might have died with them.
- Some evidence will be unreliable or contradict other evidence we might want to use.
- Some primary sources will be only opinions that may not be supported by facts.

All of this means there will often be gaps in our evidence for any particular event or issue. We need to recognise that our conclusions might not be the final word on any matter, but this should never stop us from trying to explain the past.

5.7.2 How to recognise gaps in evidence

Step 1

We can recognise the importance of gaps in evidence by studying a case in which those gaps were filled. **Source 1** is an extract from the evidence given by George Anderson at the trial of the Myall Creek murderers.

SOURCE 1 From the evidence of George Anderson at the Myall Creek massacre trials

While master was away, some white men came on a Saturday evening, about ten in number … armed with muskets and swords, and pistols … I heard the crying of the blacks for relief or assistance to me and Kilmeister … The party then went away with the blacks … all the blacks were tied together … There was a little child at the back of the hut … but I took hold of it and put it into the hut and stopped it from going … Kilmeister … went with them on horseback, and took the pistol … About a quarter of an hour [later] … I heard the report of two pistols … Next morning, three of them, after they had breakfast, took fire-sticks out of the hut … Foley drew one of the swords out of the case and showed it to me; it was all over blood … I saw smoke in the same direction they went.

Filling the gaps

Anderson was the only witness to events surrounding the Myall Creek massacre who could be sworn in to give evidence at the trials that followed it. If he had been unwilling to give evidence, the gap in the evidence would have meant that the trial would not have been held and the accused would never have been convicted. Had there been no trial, we would probably know as little about the details of the Myall Creek massacre as we do about many other events.

Step 2

For many events in the past, evidence may not have been available at the time or it may have had too many gaps for a court to use in a trial. However, it may still be very useful for historians. **Sources 2** and **3** provide examples of such evidence.

SOURCE 2 From J. C. Hamilton, *Pioneering Days in Western Victoria*, a squatter's memoirs, first published in 1914

Mr. Adam Smith … had a partner called Brown, who was murdered by the blacks … It was necessary to teach the blacks a lesson, and the station people met and decided to take the law into their own hands. This would be in the year 1845 … The horsemen came up [on a group of Aboriginal people] in the ranges … They opened fire … and many of the blacks went under.

Using the evidence

Hamilton's evidence from his memoirs (**Source 2**) was not made public until almost seventy years after the events he described. Hamilton may not have spoken about these events at the time and may have sympathised with those who killed the Aboriginal people. Calvert's engraving (**Source 3**) depicts an incident in South Australia in 1866. It provides no exact details except for the location, the numbers involved and weapons used. However, for a historian **Sources 2** and **3** provide the kinds of evidence that help to fill in the picture of the pattern of massacres that took place in colonial times.

SOURCE 3 *Conflict on the Rufus, South Australia*, a print from a wood engraving created by Samuel Calvert, 27 July 1866

5.7.3 Developing my skills

Read the following primary sources for the massacres that took place on the Bathurst Plains in 1824. Explain how these sources provide contradictory evidence and identify the kinds of sources that would help you to fill the gaps.

SOURCE 4 From a description by W. H. Suttor, a Bathurst settler, of a massacre near Bathurst in 1824

… a party of soldiers was dispatched … Negotiations, apparently friendly, but really treacherous, were entered into. Food was prepared and was placed on the ground within musket range of the station buildings. The blacks were invited to come for it. Unsuspectingly they did come, principally women and children. As they gathered up the white men's presents they were shot down by a brutal volley without regard to age or sex.

SOURCE 5 From Governor Brisbane's proclamation of 11 December 1824 ending martial law in Bathurst

… the judicious and humane Measures pursued by the Magistrates assembled at Bathurst … have restored Tranquillity without Bloodshed: — Now Therefore … I do direct that Martial Law shall cease.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.7: Where are the gaps?

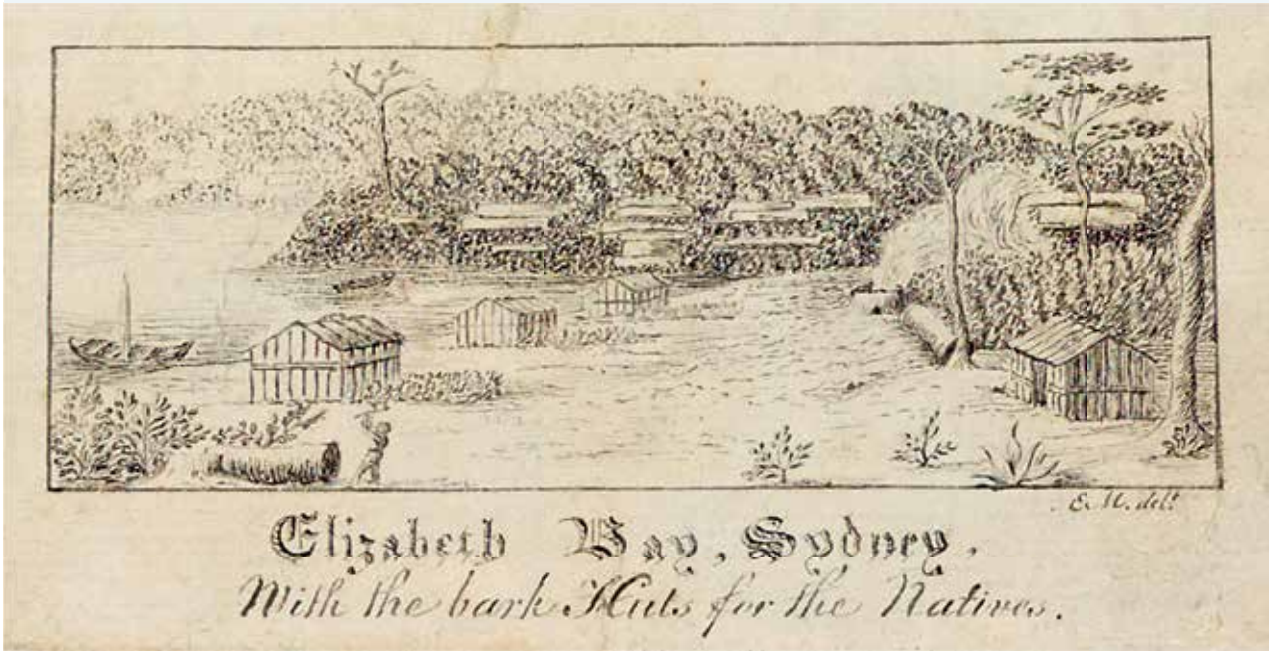
5.8 Reserves, missions and broken promises

5.8.1 'Becoming civilised'

How were people to survive without their land? The British government's view was that Aboriginal Australians were British subjects and British law applied equally to everyone. But this law assumed that only European ways of using land were legitimate. The British wanted Aboriginal people to become Christians, to become 'civilised', to obey British laws and work in European ways.

In 1816 Governor Macquarie set aside five areas around Sydney for Aboriginal people who wished to become farmers. The offer provided government assistance for six months and some Aboriginal farmers were also provided with convict labour. Macquarie wanted to end Aboriginal resistance by encouraging them to take up British ways. Several Darug families were granted land in western Sydney in an area that came to be known as the Black Town. An Aboriginal fishing village was also set aside at Elizabeth Bay. But, much later, after Macquarie left the colony, Elizabeth Bay was given to wealthy settlers.

SOURCE 1 A sketch of Elizabeth Bay, Sydney, by Edward Mason, 1853, showing bark huts for the local Aboriginal people



Schools and missionaries

In 1814 Governor Macquarie set up an Aboriginal school at Parramatta, calling it the Native Institution. Macquarie thought that once Aboriginal people were educated, they would abandon their traditional lifestyles and stop resisting colonisation.

The Native Institution gave Aboriginal children elementary schooling, job training and lessons in Christianity. It had successes, such as Maria Locke, an Aboriginal girl who won first place in the Anniversary Schools Examination in 1819, ahead of 20 other Aboriginal children and 100 white students. But generally when students went back to their communities they found very little of what they had learned had any use or meaning for their lives. By 1833 the only remaining Aboriginal school in the colony had just four pupils. Similar schools operated briefly in the colonies of Western Australia and South Australia.

By the 1830s Christian missionaries were taking on the role of bringing Christianity and European ways to Aboriginal people. They concentrated on converting children whom they separated from their parents on mission stations. At least one missionary resorted to kidnapping children.

SOURCE 2 The Parramatta Native Institution Admission List: 1814 to 1820

PARRAMATTA NATIVE INSTITUTION ADMISSION LIST: 10 JANUARY 1814 TO 28 DECEMBER 1820

NO.	Date of admission	Names	Supposed age (in 1821)	Tribe
1	28 DEC 1814	Maria	13	Richmond
2	28 DEC 1814	Kitty	12	Prospect
3	28 DEC 1814	Fanny	9	Cattai creek
4	28 DEC 1814	Friday	12	Portland head
5	10 JAN 1815	Billy	12	South creek
6	6 JUN 1816	Nalour	—	—
7	6 JUN 1816	Doors	—	—
8	12 AUG 1816	Betty Cox	15	Hawkesbury
9	12 AUG 1816	Milbah	15	Cowpastures
10	12 AUG 1816	Betty Fulton	16	Cowpastures
11	12 AUG 1816	Tommy	11	Hawkesbury
12	12 AUG 1816	Peter	—	—
13	12 AUG 1816	Pendergrass	—	—
14	23 AUG 1816	Amy	8	Botany bay
15	23 AUG 1816	Nancy	10	Botany bay
16	23 AUG 1816	Charlotte	—	—
17	9 SEP 1816	John	6	Cattai creek
18	28 DEC 1816	Davis	—	—
19	28 DEC 1816	Dicky	9	—
20	28 DEC 1816	Judith	13	Mulgoa
21	1 JAN 1818	Jenny Mulgaway	7	Mulgoa
22	1 JAN 1818	Joe Marlow	—	Prospect
23	17 JUL 1818	Neddy	6	Prospect
24	25 SEP 1818	Wallis	10	Newcastle
25	15 JAN 1819	Jemmy	4	Newcastle
26	1 MAR 1819	Henry	4	Kissing point
27	20 DEC 1819	Maria (Margaret)	11	—
28	20 DEC 1819	Nanny	—	—
29	20 DEC 1819	Sukey	—	—
30	30 MAY 1820	Joseph	3	—
31	30 MAY 1820	Billy George	—	—
32	6 JUN 1820	Polly	16	—
33	28 DEC 1820	Martha	10	—
34	28 DEC 1820	Peggy	8	—
35	28 DEC 1820	Charlotte	10	—
36	28 DEC 1820	Caroline	7	—
37	28 DEC 1820	Anna	1	—

DID YOU KNOW?

Until about the 1970s Australian school textbooks did not mention Aboriginal resistance leaders, such as Pemulwuy and Yagan. In fact, some school texts ignored Aboriginal history almost entirely.

SOURCE 3 From Governor Macquarie's report to Lord Bathurst, Secretary for Colonies in the British government, 1822

I deemed it an act of justice, as well as humanity, to make at least an attempt to ameliorate [improve] their condition, and to endeavour [try] to civilise them.

SOURCE 4 From *Two Years in New South Wales*, by Peter Cunningham, published in 1827

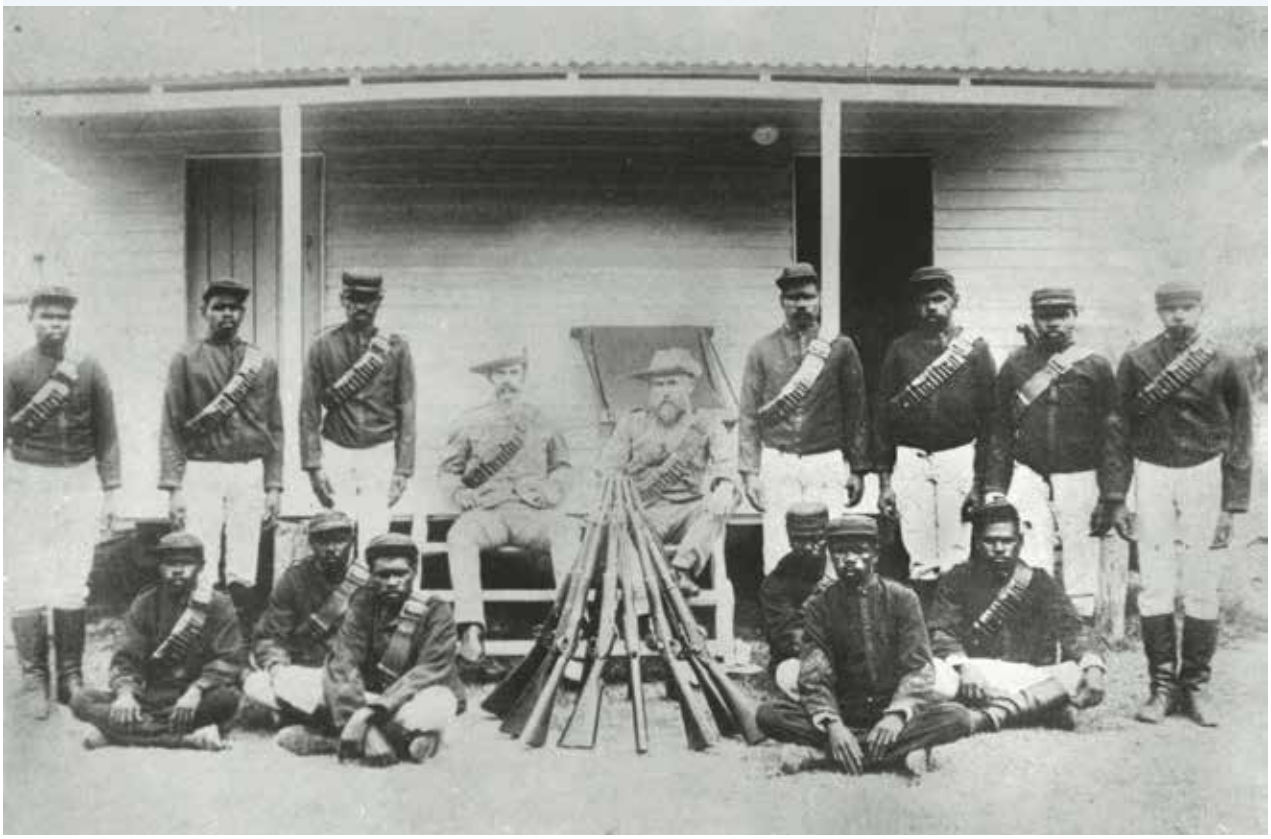
You must absolutely secure the young, wean them from parental influence, and infuse [fill] them with new ideas and opinions … We had an institution here, in Governor Macquarie's time, where the native children were educated, and turned out of it at the age of puberty good readers and writers; but … their native instincts and ideas still remaining paramount [strongest], they took to their old ideas again as soon as freed …

5.8.2 The Native Police Forces

As more colonies were founded, British law failed to protect Aboriginal people. By the middle of the nineteenth century Aboriginal populations across much of Australia had been greatly reduced through violence and disease. The survivors despaired at the loss of their land and their traditional ways as they were forced to become dependent on white society.

Some young Aboriginal men found a place in this changing world by joining the Native Police Forces that were established in Port Phillip in 1842, New South Wales in 1848 and Queensland in 1859. In Queensland especially, Aboriginal troopers were used to kill people from other Aboriginal groups, and they played a brutal role in the defeat of resistance. But this still did not win them acceptance in white society.

SOURCE 5 Native Police at Coen, Queensland, in the 1890s



John Oxley Library, State Library of Queensland. Neg. no.: 8944

5.8.3 The Port Phillip protectorate

In the 1830s the British government was increasingly concerned about the treatment of Aboriginal people, especially in the Port Phillip District. A protectorate system was set up. Four Protectors were appointed to investigate crimes committed by settlers against Aboriginal people, but in this they had little success. In each Protectorate, land was set aside for a station where people of the surrounding Aboriginal groups were encouraged to stay. Those who accepted the offer did so only to escape the brutality they suffered at the hands of some settlers.

5.8.4 Coranderrk

One of the most successful schemes to turn Aboriginal people into farmers was the Coranderrk Reserve, set up near Healesville in Victoria in 1863. The Kulin people who moved to Coranderrk cleared and fenced the land and, by the 1870s, they were successfully growing hops, raising cattle and running a dairy. Despite this, the law did not recognise the people as the owners of this land. When the Board for the Protection of Aborigines attempted to close Coranderrk in 1874, its Kulin residents marched in protest to the Victorian Parliament. Their action saved Coranderrk, but only for a time. From 1886, under the *Victorian Aborigines Act*, many people of mixed descent were forced to leave the reserves. This cut Coranderrk's workforce to a level that was too low to run the farms. Finally, in 1924, Coranderrk was closed.

SOURCE 6 The Kulin people at Coranderrk grew and sold arrowroot, hops and vegetables. As well as tending their fields, they earned money working on nearby properties.

5.8.5 South Australia

The colony of South Australia was founded in 1836, just two years after slavery was abolished throughout the British Empire, and the British government instructed the colony's founders to safeguard Aboriginal rights. Lord Glenelg was the British Secretary of State for the Colonies. At first he insisted that colonists should use only unoccupied land, but he compromised and agreed that Aboriginal land could be taken and sold on condition that a fifth of all land sold would be used to provide a fund for Aboriginal people.

SOURCE 7 From the *Report of the House of Commons, Select Committee on Aboriginal Tribes (British Settlements), 1837*

[The] native inhabitants of any land have an **incontrovertible** right to their own soil; a plain and sacred right. Europeans have entered their borders uninvited, and, when there, have not only acted as if they were undoubted lords of the soil, but have punished the natives as aggressors if they have [tried] to live in their own country.

SOURCE 8 A historian's judgement on South Australia's attempt to provide justice for Aboriginal people. From C. D. Rowley, *The Destruction of Aboriginal Society*, 1970

In no Australian colony, in the first decades, was there so sincere and determined attempt by authority to ensure that justice and law were established.

5.8.6 'All the rights of British subjects'?

South Australia's governor, John Hindmarsh, proclaimed that the Aboriginal peoples of South Australia had all the rights of British subjects. Despite such intentions, Aboriginal land was sold without consent just as it had been in other colonies, and only small areas were set aside as reserves. It was hardly surprising that conflict soon developed, with killings on both sides. Because they were not Christians, Aboriginal people had not been allowed to give evidence in colonial courts. To give Aboriginal peoples more protection under the law, in 1843 the British government allowed the courts to accept Aboriginal evidence. As a result, in 1846 a European was hanged for the murder of a South Australian Aboriginal man. Despite this, squatters continued to use violence to drive Aboriginal peoples off the land.

SOURCE 9 *45 Natives driven to the Police Court by the Police for Trespassing*, a watercolour/drawing by W. A. Cawthorne, 1845

5.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. List the lifestyle changes that colonial authorities wanted Aboriginal people to make.
2. Do you think the Parramatta Native Institution was a success or a failure?
3. Why do you think Coranderrk was so successful?
4. What was a protectorate system and why was one set up in the Port Phillip district?
5. Why did many Aboriginal people live on Protectorates and missions?
6. Why did the British government allow a change in laws on evidence in 1843?

Apply your understanding

7. Study **Source 2**.
   (a) Calculate the average number of children admitted to the Parramatta Native Institution each year.
   (b) What conclusions can you draw about the institution's popularity among Aboriginal people?
   (c) What conclusions can you draw about how much the people who ran the institution understood Aboriginal culture? (*Hint:* Consider names given to children and tribes.)
8. Explain what **Sources 3** and **4** tell us about the attitudes of Macquarie and Cunningham to the needs of Aboriginal people.
9. Why was the land shown in **Source 1** set aside for Aboriginal people, and why do you think it was later taken from them?
10. What was the main role of the Native Police Forces (**Source 5**)?
11. Look carefully at **Source 6**. What does this photograph tell you about Coranderrk and its people?
12. What does **Source 7** tell you about the views of the members of the British Parliament who prepared the Report of the Select Committee on Aboriginal Tribes (British Settlements), 1837?
13. How does **Source 8** judge South Australia's attempt to provide justice for Aboriginal Australians?
14. Using **Sources 8** and **9** as your evidence, explain why South Australia failed to achieve the aims described in **Source 7**.
15. Conduct a role play of an argument between one of the people being driven to court in **Source 9** and the people accusing them of trespassing.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.3: A place of hope

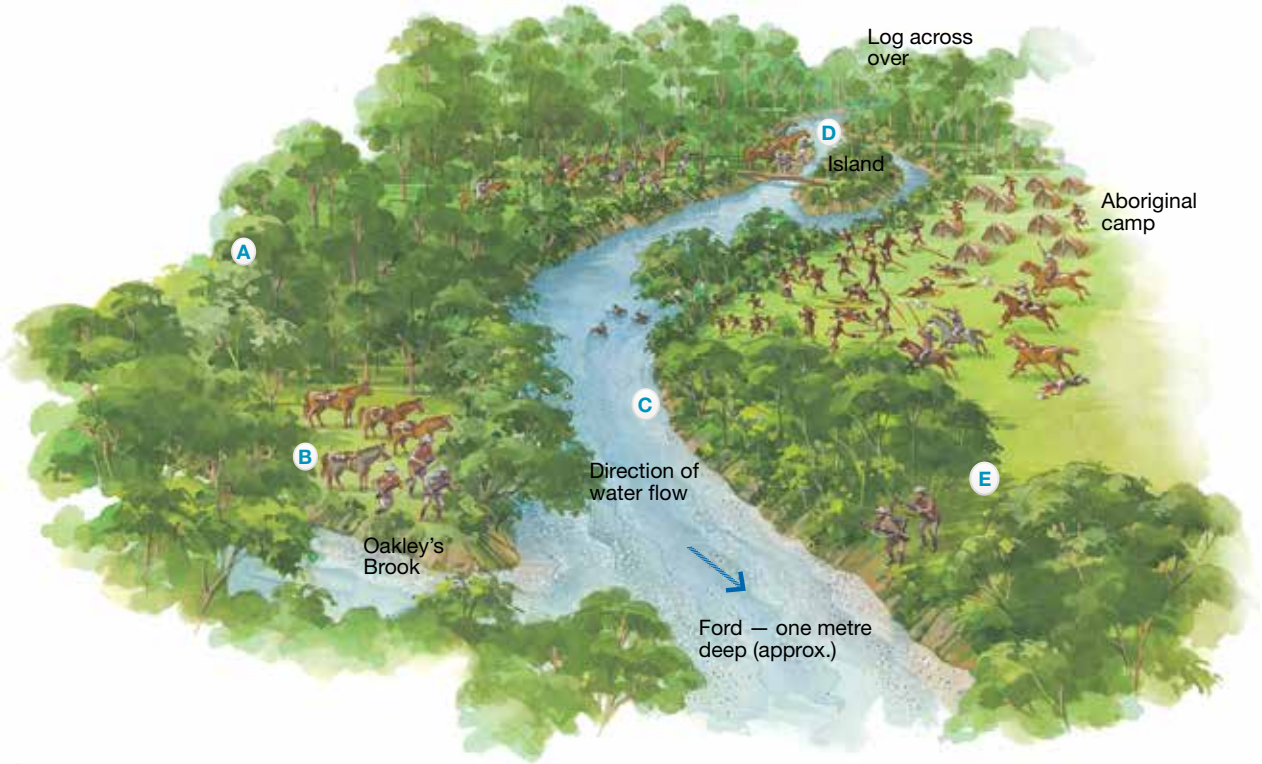
5.9 The last frontiers

5.9.1 The Pinjarra Incident

By the late nineteenth century Aboriginal resistance had been crushed in most places. The Aboriginal population had been reduced from about 750 000 to 50 000. Surviving Indigenous people were forced to live like serfs, beggars and fringe dwellers in lands that had been their own. On the last frontiers in the north and west of the continent, where Aboriginal tribes were still seen as a threat to European occupation of the land, the violence continued.

A convict colony was set up at Albany in Western Australia in 1827. It was soon abandoned but only two years later a free settlement was founded on the site of modern Perth. Violence soon erupted. In 1834 people of the Binjareb tribe raided a flour mill at South Perth. Calyute and other leaders were arrested and flogged. In an act of revenge, they speared a soldier. The colonial governor, James Stirling, then led an armed expedition against the Binjareb and attacked a camp of around 80 men, women and children. In a clash that lasted over an hour, Stirling's men killed possibly half of the Binjareb people.

SOURCE 1 A modern artist's impression of the Pinjarra Incident, based on eyewitness descriptions



A Arriving at the Murray River near Pinjarra, Governor Stirling sees an Aboriginal camp of about 80 men, women and children on the other side of the river. He sends troops to secure the river fords (places where a river can be crossed more easily). Governor Stirling, Captain Meares, Thomas Peel and others wait out of sight, ready to close the trap.

B Mr J. S. Roe and four soldiers with pack horses are sent to guard the ford downstream.

C The Aboriginal people who emerge from the river are met by Stirling and 11 armed men. Many are shot. Those who hide underwater and float downstream are shot at the ford. The wounded are shot. No male prisoners are taken.

D A corporal and two others are sent to the upper ford.

E Captain Ellis, Mr Norcott and three mounted police are sent to circle behind the camp. They charge into the Aboriginal camp, killing some. The remainder of the Aboriginals rush to the river.

The 'Killing Times'

As Europeans spread into more distant parts of Western Australia, resistance grew and violent clashes continued for almost a hundred years. So many Aboriginal people were killed in the Kimberley district between 1881 and around 1905 that Indigenous people of the region have called it the 'Killing Times'. The last Kimberley massacre took place in 1927, when police murdered at least twenty Aboriginal people and possibly many more.

SOURCE 2 From Howard Pedersen, transcript, *First Australians*, SBS television series, Episode 5, 2007

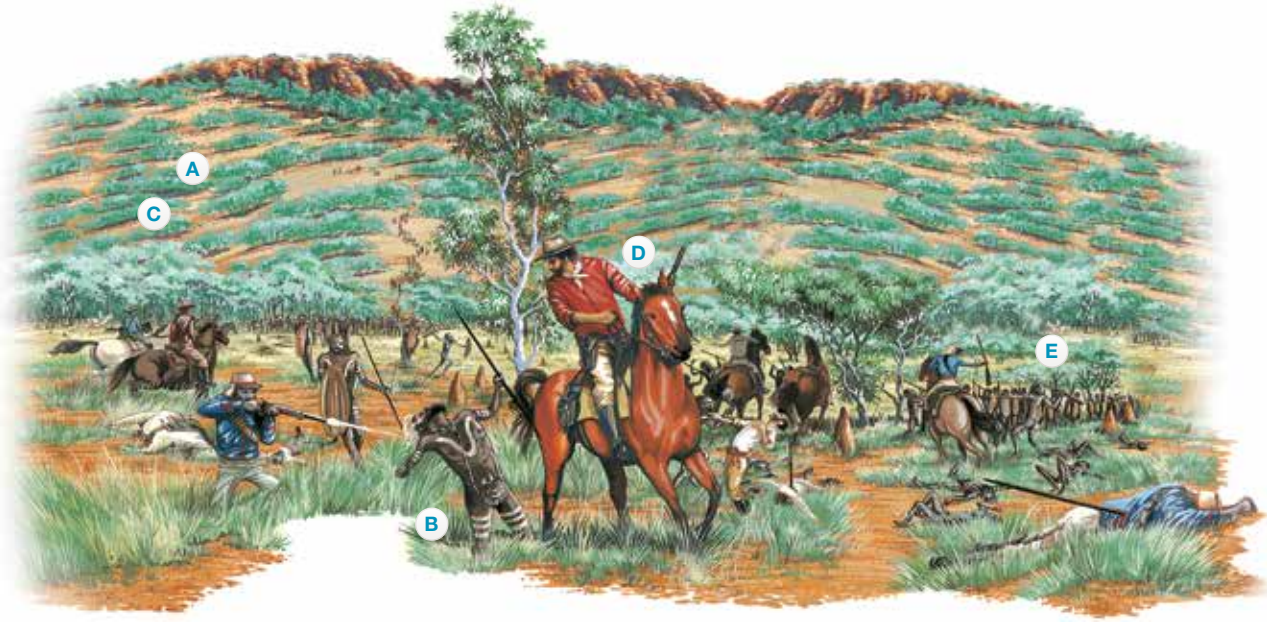
In 1888, the Western Australian Government responded to the incidents of resistance right throughout the Kimberley by putting … a whole network of police stations, to try and quell this growing Aboriginal opposition to European settlement. By the early 1890s a quarter of the whole Western Australian police force is based in the Kimberley, where there's only one per cent of the European settlement population.

5.9.2 Violence in Queensland

Colonisation of Queensland began in 1825 and it became a separate colony in 1859. Between the 1860s and the 1890s detachments of Queensland Native Police led by white officers made several brutal attacks on Aboriginal camps, killing indiscriminately. Where they could, Aboriginal people fought back. The largest battle occurred in 1884.

From the 1860s squatters had begun to occupy land between Cloncurry and Camooweal in western Queensland. This was the land of the Kalkadoon people, who waged a guerrilla war of resistance for 13 years. At Battle Mountain in 1884 around 600 Kalkadoon warriors made their last stand against 200 armed whites and Native Police. The Kalkadoons fought bravely but spears, stones and boomerangs were no match for repeating rifles and revolvers. Almost 85 per cent of the Kalkadoons were killed.

SOURCE 3 The defeat of the Kalkadoons at Battle Mountain marked the end of effective Aboriginal resistance in Queensland.



A Battle Mountain lies about 80 kilometres north-west of Mount Isa. The country is rocky and hilly. Boulders, giant termite mounds and tufts of porcupine grass pepper the landscape.

B Warriors prepared for battle by painting three stripes around their upper arms and legs and a boomerang shape on their chest. The leader wore a thick string around his neck, tied to another around his waist, and a white feather-down headdress.

C Each detachment in the native police force comprised about six native troopers headed by a European officer.

D The landowners were often heavily armed, carrying both .45 Colts and carbines. Native troopers carried carbines but were not trusted to carry revolvers.

E The Kalkadoon warriors were described as 'the elite of the Aboriginal warriors' and as 'tall, muscular men of magnificent physique and endurance, many of whom towered over their European opponents'.

DID YOU KNOW?

A royal commission in Western Australia found in 1905 that it had been the practice for the past 30 years to keep Aboriginal prisoners in heavy neck chains for the entire length of their sentences. It also found that Aboriginal women on cattle and sheep stations were often captured by white stockmen, raped and used as slave labour.

5.9.3 Exploitation and protection policies

After the Australian colonies gained self-government from 1856, the new colonial parliaments showed much less concern for Aboriginal people than had the British government. An enormous amount of 'Crown land' was now held by squatters in the form of **pastoral leases**. On many of these leases, squatters exploited Aboriginal people as cheap labour. Often, they were treated like slaves and those who fled were hunted down by police.

Rather than protect the rights of Aboriginal people to use their land, the colonial governments preferred to force them onto reserves. From the late nineteenth century Protection policies were introduced in most of the colonies (or, from 1901, states). Under these policies, many Aboriginal people were controlled by reserve or mission administrators. Protection policies were based on the belief that Aboriginal people were dying out and that all that could be done for them was to prevent unnecessary suffering. From as early as the 1880s some Aboriginal children were taken from their families under these policies.

Gradually, colonial and state governments passed laws that gave them legal rights to remove or separate Indigenous children from their families without having to show good reason in a court. Such laws operated in Queensland from 1897, in Western Australia from 1905, in South Australia and the Northern Territory from 1911 and in New South Wales from 1915. As early as 1910, Inspector Thomas Clode, a South Australian police officer who was given the position of Sub-Protector of Aborigines, described such policies as 'nothing short of kidnapping'. Children taken away under these laws were deprived of ties with their families, communities, cultures and languages, and many also suffered abuse and exploitation.

SOURCE 4 From *The Queenslander*, 23 May 1885. *The Queenslander* was the leading weekly Queensland newspaper in the 1880s, when it ran a courageous campaign for more humane policies towards Aboriginal people.

On all stations … in this western portion of Queensland a certain number of … [Aborigines are] employed … The vast majority receive no **remuneration**, save **tucker** and clothes. They are … talked of as my, or our niggers, and are not free to depart when they like … Cases have occurred where blacks belonging to both sexes have been followed, brought back and punished for running away from their nominal employers.

SOURCE 5 From a dispatch of Earl Grey, British Secretary of State, to Governor Fitzroy in 1848

These [squatters'] leases are not intended to deprive the natives of their former right to hunt over these Districts, or to wander over them in search of subsistence [food and other needs] … except over land actually cultivated or fenced in for that purpose.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1848 the British Secretary of State, Earl Grey, informed the Governor of New South Wales that Aboriginal people must keep the right to use their land for traditional purposes. In 1996 the High Court of Australia found that the rights referred to by Earl Grey still existed. This was the famous Wik judgment, a landmark decision on Aboriginal land rights.

5.9.4 Aboriginal voting rights

How did Aboriginal people fare as Australia's colonies gained democratic rights? All adult white men gained the right to vote for the lower house of parliament in New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia during the 1850s. After campaigns for equal rights, adult white women also gained voting rights between the 1890s and the first decade of the twentieth century. Federation took place on 1 January 1901. It marked the creation of a nation from the six British colonies in Australia (see topic 6).

In the first federal elections in 1901, South Australian Aboriginal men and women could vote, Aboriginal men of New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania could vote, but not the Aboriginal people of Queensland

and Western Australia. The Franchise **Bill** was proposed to extend voting rights at federal elections to women and Aboriginal people in all states. However, most elected members of the Federal Parliament opposed Aboriginal voting rights. They extended the right to vote at federal elections to all women but not to Aboriginal Australians. Instead, many Aboriginal people who had voted in the first federal election had that right taken away from them during the following two decades.

5.9 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Fill in the blanks to complete the following sentences:
   (a) At Pinjarra in _____ an armed expedition attacked a camp of Binjareb men, women and children, killing around _____ of their number.
   (b) In the Kimberley, the period from 1881 to around _____ is known as the _____ Times because _____ _____
   (c) At _____ Mountain in 1884, around 600 _____ warriors made their last stand against armed whites and _____ Police. Almost ____ per cent of the Kalkadoons were killed.
   (d) Some squatters treated Aboriginal workers like _____ and those who fled were hunted down by _____ who forced them to return.
   (e) From the 1880s some _____ were taken from their families under _____ policies.
2. In which states did Aboriginal people suffer the worst treatment? Why?
3. Make a timeline of events in this subtopic that were significant for Aboriginal Australians.

Apply your understanding

4. Examine **Source 1**. As a class, discuss whether you think the Pinjarra incident should be called a battle or a massacre.
5. What does **Source 2** suggest about the scale of resistance in the Kimberley?
6. Why do you think there was such strong resistance?
7. Using **Source 3**, explain how the Kalkadoons were defeated.
8. Read **Source 5** and explain:
   (a) what Earl Grey wrote about the rights of Aboriginal people to continue using lands that had become part of pastoral leases
   (b) what problems Aboriginal people would have faced without such rights.
9. Working in small groups and using **Source 4** as your evidence, discuss whether you think Australia has a history of slavery.
10. Use your library and the internet to investigate the experiences of Aboriginal children who were taken from their families during the late nineteenth century until 1918.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.4: North and west – the violence continues

5.10 The Torres Strait Islanders

5.10.1 Here come the visitors …

The Torres Strait Islands are the hundreds of islands, many tiny, scattered between the tip of Cape York, in Queensland, and Papua New Guinea. Many have been inhabited for thousands of years. Their Indigenous people are a culturally unique group, distinct from the Indigenous Aboriginal peoples of mainland Australia.

Before the Europeans arrived, it is known that the Torres Strait Islanders traded with Cape York Aboriginal peoples and the people of Papua New Guinea. They also had their own religious **cults**; some practised calling up the spirits of the recently dead, ritual beheadings and **cannibalism**.

Initial European contact was made in 1606 when the Spanish navigator Luis Vaez de Torres sailed through what is now called the Torres Strait.

After 1770, when Captain Cook proclaimed part of Australia's eastern coast as Crown land, many British ships favoured Torres Strait as a passage to the Pacific. It was not long, therefore, before European pearlers and fishermen began occupying the resource-rich waters. Their competition with Torres Strait Islanders for the sea's resources caused many confrontations.

There was no significant European impact on Islander life until the arrival of the London Missionary Society on Darnley Island in 1871. The Torres Strait Islanders generally embraced Christianity; but this decision had a significant impact on the way they lived. For example, women now had to completely cover their bodies; they risked being disciplined by the mission court if they did not conform.

SOURCE 1 Village at Darnley Island, 1845

Missionary teachers also discouraged traditional songs and dances in order to minimise adherence to the 'old ways'. Some destroyed Torres Strait Islanders' **artefacts**, sold them to passing ships or buried them.

Torres Strait Islanders were also required to take a second name. These were selected in a number of ways: some because they were European names (for example, Joe or Tom), some by a connection with a type of job (for example, Cook or Captain) and some from the Bible (for example, David or Matthew).

In 1878 the government of Queensland claimed the Torres Strait Islands in the name of the Crown. Initially, the Torres Strait Islanders enjoyed more independence under European control than did mainland Aboriginal people. This was mainly because the then Queensland Government Controller, John Douglas, would not allow Torres Strait Islanders to be classified as Aboriginal people under the *Queensland Aborigines Protection Act 1897*. However, this changed with his death in 1904. Thursday Island, for example, then became a European settlement that Torres Strait Islanders could now only visit, and only during the day.

5.10.2 Discrimination and rebellion

The Queensland government in the early twentieth century systematically discriminated against Torres Strait Islanders, deliberately limiting their freedom. They were not, for example, permitted to enter bars, and were not allowed to have sexual relations with anyone outside their race. Those of mixed descent were transferred to the islands of Moa and Kiriri. The government also appointed representatives for the Torres Strait Islanders, but these were ineffective and were later replaced with elected Island Councils.

Frustrated by the loss of ability to run their own affairs, Torres Strait Islanders working on government-owned boats rebelled against the Queensland government in 1936 by staging a strike. It lasted nine months; the outcome was that Island Councils were allowed to have more substantial input into the management of their boats and other affairs.

SOURCE 2 Created around 1845, this painting shows the meeting of an Islander canoe and strangers near the Murray Islands.

5.10 Activities

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Check your understanding

1. When were the Torres Strait Islands claimed in the name of the Crown, and what did this mean?
2. What was John Douglas's contribution to the history of the Torres Strait Islands?

Apply your understanding

3. (a) Copy and complete the following table to document the impact of the arrival of European settlers on the Islanders. Take the viewpoint of a typical European settler.

Change to way of life	Positive outcome from change	Negative outcome from change

   (b) Now draw a similar table in your notebook. This time, take the point of view of a typical Torres Strait Islander.
   (c) Discuss your two completed tables with a partner to identify similarities and differences. To what extent did this exercise help you to understand the different viewpoints that may exist in a multicultural society?
   (d) Explore, through discussion, what values you think are needed to support a society made up of different ethnic groups.
4. What can you tell from **Sources 1** and **2** about the way of life of Torres Strait Islanders?
5. Use the internet and other resources to discover more about one of the larger Torres Strait Islands of your choice. Investigate any issues it currently faces, and what is being done to address these. Evaluate the extent to which the arrival of the Europeans has affected people's way of life there and write a short report on your findings.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.7: Where are the gaps?

5.11 Attitudes to Asians: Chinese diggers

5.11.1 Chinese arrive on the goldfields

In an age of empires, racism was part of the outlook of most Europeans. To justify taking other people's lands, Europeans had to believe that those people were lesser human beings. Along with Indigenous Australians, non-white migrants suffered racial discrimination in Australia throughout the nineteenth century and much of the twentieth century.

The gold rushes that began in the 1850s saw different nationalities — mainly British and Irish, but also Germans, Italians, Canadians and others — band together to fight injustice. But such comradeship was never extended to the Chinese diggers. These non-European migrants generally encountered suspicion and hatred on the goldfields.

As news of the gold discoveries spread around the world, many thousands of Chinese men travelled to Australia, hoping to earn enough to take back to their families. The Chinese usually had their own areas on the goldfields. Rather than competing directly with other miners, they often worked over **tailings** abandoned by European diggers.

SOURCE 1 *Flemington, Melbourne*, by S. E. Brees, a painting of Chinese travelling to the goldfields. It was painted around 1856.

5.11.2 Hostility towards Chinese diggers

The Chinese gold seekers were very different from the colonists and the European gold rush migrants in their appearance, dress, language, religion and customs. They were used to working very long hours for little return, and many European colonists feared that when the gold ran out the Chinese might take their jobs. Most Europeans looked down on Asians. They resented the Chinese working on Sundays. They were offended by their use of opium, although it was then legal, and were appalled by the clothes and pigtails of the Chinese. Although most Chinese intended to return to China as soon as the rush was over, most white diggers believed that the Chinese had no right to be there at all and there were many violent protests against them.

SOURCE 2 *Chinese on their way to the diggings*, a drawing made by Charles Lyall, c. 1854

SOURCE 3 From the *Report of the Victorian Goldfields Commission of Enquiry, 1855*

Their [Chinese immigrants] generally filthy habits are repulsive to the Christian population. The question of … such large numbers of a pagan and inferior race is a very serious one.

SOURCE 4 From R. W. Dale, *Impressions of Australia*, published in 1889

… the **virtues** of the Chinaman, rather than his **vices**, provoke the popular hostility against him. His … industry, his patience, his powers of endurance … make him a very formidable person.

SOURCE 5 From the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 20 July 1861

… the crowd of rioters took the road to Lambing Flat … every Chinese resident in the township on whom hands could be laid was attacked and maltreated … Unarmed, defenceless, and unresisting Chinese were struck down in the most brutal manner by bludgeons … and by pick handles … every article of the property … they had endeavoured [tried] to take with them was plundered [stolen].

SOURCE 6 A sketch of the Lambing Flat riots, published in the *Illustrated Sydney News*, 5 August 1880. Although many Chinese diggers were brutally attacked, none were killed.

DID YOU KNOW?

The worst anti-Chinese riots were at Buckland River in Victoria, in 1857, and in 1861 at Lambing Flat, the site of the present-day town of Young in New South Wales. In 1881 New South Wales and Victoria passed laws stating that any ship coming to Australia could carry only one Chinese passenger for every 100 tons of cargo.

5.11 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Form small groups to work out your answers to the following questions:
   (a) List the reasons European diggers found to object to the Chinese.
   (b) Which of these reasons could be racist and which could be due to other motives?

(c) How might the behaviour and values of the Chinese diggers have benefited Australia if they had been accepted by the other diggers?
(d) What do you think is meant by the term *multiculturalism*?
(e) How are the attitudes of today's multicultural society different from attitudes during the gold rush era?
(f) Describe the experiences of any more recent group of migrants who have encountered attitudes similar to those experienced by the gold rush era Chinese.

2. Create a mind map of race relations on the goldfields. You can use Word or another software program to do this.

Apply your understanding

3. Look closely at **Sources 1** and **2**. List everything you can see in these sources that made the Chinese seem different from European diggers.
4. Read and compare **Sources 3** and **4**.
   (a) What reasons are given by each of these sources for hostility towards the Chinese?
   (b) Account for the different perspectives of these two sources.
5. Study **Sources 5** and **6**.
   (a) To what extent do these two sources provide supporting evidence on what took place during the Lambing Flat riots?
   (b) In what way do they provide conflicting evidence?
   (c) Which source do you think is more accurate? Give the reasons for your answer.
6. Imagine you are a Chinese digger. Write a letter to your family in China giving an account of your experiences on the goldfields.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.5: Discrimination on the goldfields

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:
› **Chinese Diaspora**

5.12 'White Australia' and the outside world

5.12.1 The 'crimson thread of kinship'

As we have already seen, Aboriginal people suffered greatly because of racist attitudes, and so did Chinese diggers. In the late nineteenth century many white Australians also showed hostility to other non-Europeans, including Pacific Islanders. Racism and the fear of invasion by a cheap labour force combined to make support for a 'white Australia' among the most common of all Australian values.

After the gold rush, colonial governments encouraged and assisted a smaller but steady stream of British migrants to come to Australia. This helped to preserve what was referred to as the 'crimson thread of kinship', the close cultural and sentimental ties between Britain and Australia.

5.12.2 Racial fears

Most Australians felt loyal to Britain and fearful of their Asian neighbours. But ties to Britain did not mean that all Australians had faith in the British Empire. Some Australians feared that Britain might put the interests of her multiracial empire ahead of the interests of white Australia. Increasingly, colonial governments became determined to exclude non-European migrants. In 1888 the colonial leaders united in an appeal to Britain to stop Chinese immigration to Australia.

SOURCE 1 An anti-Chinese cartoon from the *Boomerang*, 14 July 1888

5.12.3 Pacific Islanders in Queensland

Many Pacific Islanders, mainly from Vanuatu (then called the New Hebrides) and the Solomon Islands, were kidnapped or tricked into leaving their homes and brought to work in the sugar plantations of North Queensland. This trade was called 'blackbirding' and the Islanders were referred to as Kanakas. Most were on three-year contracts, after which they were returned to the islands. Workers and other people in cities and towns accused plantation owners of creating slavery but the North Queensland planters were even prepared to secede, or separate, from the south in order to keep this cheap labour.

SOURCE 2 Pacific Islander women cutting sugar cane at Hambledon, Queensland, c. 1891

DID YOU KNOW?

Between 1863 and 1903 about 48 000 Pacific Islanders were brought to Queensland. Some 'blackbirding' ships had holes cut through the decks so the crew could shoot any Islanders who tried to break out.

SOURCE 3 From a popular Australian verse of the 1890s. *Niggers* was a racist term for black people.

It's just as clear as figgers,
Sure as one and one makes two,
Folks that make black slaves of niggers
Want to make white slaves of you.

5.12.4 Defence fears

Most white Australians felt isolated and fearful of invasion. Believing that Australia could rely on the British Navy for protection, they clung to Britain and to the empire. The colonists and their governments were alarmed when France **annexed** New Caledonia in 1853. From the 1860s to the 1880s sensational stories of possible Russian invasion appeared in the colonial press. In 1883 Queensland hoped to stop German expansion in the south-west Pacific by annexing New Guinea. Britain opposed this move because of Queensland's dreadful record in dealing with native peoples. But in 1884 Britain took possession of eastern New Guinea shortly before Germany seized northern New Guinea.

5.12.5 Fighting the empire's wars

Each Australian colony developed its own defence forces, but it was also generally believed that if Australians fought for Britain, then Britain would come to white Australia's aid if it was threatened. Australians first took part in the wars of the British Empire during the Sudan Campaign in North Africa in 1885. When New South Wales sent 734 troops to this conflict, many people saw it as a chance to prove loyalty to Britain. Much the same reasoning saw Australian colonial forces involved in Britain's wars in South Africa and China at the end of the century.

SOURCE 4 Edmund Barton speaking in support of sending troops to aid Britain in the Sudan, reported in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 21 February 1885. Barton was later to be Australia's first prime minister.

… I want to know whether we want to consider ourselves English or not? … If her quarrels are not to be ours, when are our quarrels to be hers? [Cheers.] When the time of trouble comes and we do not stand shoulder to shoulder with our fellow subjects of Great Britain can we expect them to do so for us? … we will rally round the old flag, and we will recollect that the cause of the Empire is our own. [Cheers.]

SOURCE 5 *The departure of the Australian contingent for the Sudan*, painted by Arthur Collingridge in 1885. It has been estimated that two-thirds of Sydney's population gathered to farewell the Sudan Contingent.

5.12 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Which peoples did most late-nineteenth-century Australians want to exclude from Australia?
2. Why were most Australians in favour of fighting in Britain's wars?
3. Explain the meaning of the following terms: racism, white Australia, multiracial empire.

Apply your understanding

4. Using **Sources 1**, **2** and **3**, form a hypothesis to explain why most Australians wanted to exclude non-Europeans. (*Hint:* Was it racism, fears that cheap labour could threaten workers' wage levels or both?) Use the sources to support your hypothesis.
5. Study **Sources 4** and **5**. What was Edmund Barton's argument for sending troops to support Britain in its war in the Sudan? Do you think his view would have been popular? Why?
6. Hold a class debate on the topic of how far Australian attitudes on race have changed since the nineteenth century and why this change has come about.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 5.6: Kinship and racism

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Non-European migration to Australia**

5.13 Research project: The Panter, Harding and Goldwyer memorial

5.13.1 Scenario and task

It is the 1990s and the Fremantle City Council has been debating whether or not to alter the explorers' monument that commemorates the ill-fated 1800s expedition of Panter, Harding and Goldwyer to the Roebuck Bay area around present-day Broome. At present the monument's plaque records the deaths of these explorers as 'murdered by treacherous natives'.

There are many in the community now who feel that this does not acknowledge the wrongs done to the Indigenous people of the area or the possibility that the explorers might have broken a sacred law and insulted the Indigenous people. These community members want an additional plaque added to the memorial, acknowledging these things.

A blog has been created entitled 'A new plaque for the Panter, Harding and Goldwyer memorial'. You will play the role of one of four characters and write two blog entries on this issue. In order to come up with informed arguments, you will first have to investigate

the history of the complicated relationship between European settlers and the Indigenous people in the area around Broome.

It is important to develop an understanding of:

- European settler attitudes towards Indigenous Australians at the time of the Panter, Harding and Goldwyer expedition
- the importance of local areas to Indigenous Australians
- the impact of European settlers on local Indigenous people
- Indigenous resistance to European settlement.

5.13.2 Process

- Access your learnON title to watch the introductory video lesson. You will write your blog entries individually but first form groups to share research.
- To help you discover extra information, you should find at least three sources other than the textbook. At least one should be an offline source, such as a book or encyclopaedia. The weblinks in the Resources tab will help you get started.
- When your research is complete and you are ready to provide an educated argument on this issue, it is time to choose the character that you would like to portray in the 'New plaque for the Panter, Harding and Goldwyer memorial' blog. Pictures of each of the characters are provided in the Resources tab that you can use as icons in your blog.
- This blog should now be set up in your favourite blogging website, ready for each class member to post his or her entries.
- Create your blog entries, remembering that you are writing in character and can use personal pronouns. Your first entry will include your character's feelings on the issue. Your second entry may be in response to another class member's entry.
- Review your final blog and make final adjustments. Remember to check your spelling and grammar.
- Print out your research report and hand it in to your teacher.

Characters

Kimberly, 23 years old
Kimberly was born and raised in Fremantle. She doesn't really know who her ancestors are because her mum was taken away from her family to a mission when she was very young. Kimberly knows her mob was from near Broome, but has never been able to learn their language or the traditions and customs of her tribe.

Kimberly is very proud of her Indigenous heritage and blames the European settlers to the area for destroying so much of this culture. She wants a new plaque added to acknowledge that the European settlers were not innocent in any frontier conflict.

Brian, 17 years old
Brian was born and raised in Perth, near Fremantle. Brian's family is wealthy. His father is a stockbroker of European descent and his mother is a doctor of Aboriginal descent. Brian has had very little exposure to the culture of his Indigenous heritage and most of his friends are of European descent. Brian believes the past should be left alone and that people are better off focusing on the future. When issues like this are in the media, Brian feels it makes it harder for him to fit in with the rest of his mates. He would prefer the monument to be left alone.

James, 21 years old
James was born and raised in Fremantle. His father is a university professor and his mother is an active campaigner for Aboriginal rights. He has been dating Kimberly for the past two years. James has seen the hardship that Kimberly has faced throughout her life and how difficult it has been for her to connect with her heritage. Often James is ridiculed for his relationship with Kimberly. Many of James's friends are of Indigenous descent. He has learned a lot about their culture and appreciates being welcomed into Kimberly's family. He would like to see a new plaque added to the monument.

Sarah, 22 years old
Sarah is 22 years old and was born and raised in Fremantle. Her ancestors were among the first free settlers to the area and once owned a great deal of property around Broome. Sarah is very proud of her family's story of arriving in Perth and helping to settle the harsh land and give the Indigenous peoples of the area a chance at a better lifestyle with houses, jobs and a formal education.

Sarah's great-great-uncle was William Goldwyer; naturally she feels very strongly that her ancestor was killed without just cause and wants to keep the monument as it is in order to preserve her relative's memory.

5.14 Review

5.14.1 Review

In this topic we have investigated the impact of contact between Europeans and Indigenous Australians up to the beginning of the twentieth century. We have studied the origins of conflict, ways in which Indigenous Australians resisted and the impact of colonisation in each of the Australian colonies and in the Torres Strait Islands. We have also seen how racism influenced white Australian attitudes to non-European migrants.

KEY TERMS

annex to take possession of a territory
artefact an object made by humans
Bill a proposal to change the law by Act of Parliament
cannibalism eating one's own species
convict a person imprisoned for a crime
cult a branch of religious worship
incontrovertible certain, undeniable
kinship relationships between members of an extended family
pastoral lease land that is leased for the purpose of grazing sheep or cattle
penal colony a settlement for convicts
remuneration pay or reward such as wages
squatters colonists who leased and occupied large tracts of what had been Aboriginal land
tailings a mixture of dirt and stones left on the diggings after an area had been mined
tucker traditional Australian slang term for food
vices immoral habits
virtues admirable moral qualities, goodness

5.14 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz

Short answer quiz

1. Was Australia really *terra nullius*?
2. Name two Aboriginal resistance leaders.
3. Why did Governor Macquarie set aside areas of land for Aboriginal people?
4. What happened to Tasmania's Aboriginal people between 1803 and 1832?
5. Who claimed to have bought vast areas of land from the Kulin people?
6. What was unique about the Myall Creek massacre?
7. In what decade did the last recorded massacres of Aboriginal people occur?
8. Why were the Native Police formed?
9. What was Coranderrk?
10. Why has the period from 1881 to 1905 been called the 'Killing Times' in the Kimberley district?
11. Did the self-governing colonies of Australia show more or less regard for Aboriginal rights than the British government?
12. When did Queensland claim the Torres Strait Islands?
13. What were two findings of the royal commission in Western Australia in 1905?
14. Why were white Australians hostile to Chinese diggers?
15. What were the reasons for opposition to Pacific Islanders in Australia?

Apply your understanding

16. How was Jimmie Barker treated by the white stockmen and station managers?
17. Find one other source in this topic that refers to the way Aboriginal workers were treated on rural properties.
18. How does the source that you found support the evidence of **Source 1**?

SOURCE 1 These comments were made by Jimmie Barker who was only 11 when he was recruited in 1911, along with other Aboriginal children, to work as a stockman. His recollections of how he was treated by white stockmen and station managers were recorded in Kevin Gilbert, *Living Black: Blacks Talk to Kevin Gilbert*, Penguin, 1977.

> I learnt … that an Aboriginal … was little better than an animal; in fact, dogs were sometimes to be preferred. As I was less then twelve years old it was impossible to disbelieve men of authority who were much older. I tried to stop their remarks from bothering me too much, but it was hard to adjust to being treated with such cruelty and contempt.

19. How are the Aboriginal cricketers depicted in **Source 2**?

SOURCE 2 This poster depicts the Aboriginal cricket team that toured England in 1868. The team scored better than the first white Australian cricket team to tour England.

20. What conclusions can you draw from **Source 1** about white Australian attitudes in the late nineteenth century?
21. Use your library and the internet to compile a report on the Aboriginal cricket team that toured England in 1867–68.
22. For most of the two previous centuries, Australians commonly referred to colonisation as 'settlement'. In more recent times, some historians have called it an 'invasion'. Conduct a class discussion on the question: Should we describe Australia's colonisation as invasion or settlement?

    To do this you will need to consider the everyday meanings and use of these terms. You might consider, for example, which of these terms we would use today if people from another land came to Australia against our wishes, imposed their lifestyles and laws on us and gradually took control of the entire country.

learnon RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Go online to access additional end of topic resources such as interactivities and printable worksheets.

Try out this interactivity: Australia: Colonisation and conflict timeline (int-2965)

Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 5.8: Crossword

Worksheet 5.9: Summing up

Worksheet 5.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic, several big questions were posed. You can now use the knowledge you have gained to answer these questions.

1. What were the experiences of Indigenous Australians between the late eighteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century?
2. What policies did the colonisers adopt towards Indigenous peoples?
3. Why did racial conflict occur?
4. How did Aboriginal peoples resist the occupation of their lands, and what were the consequences of resistance?

TOPIC 6 Making a nation — Australia (1750–1918): (II) From colonies to nationhood

6.1 Overview

Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

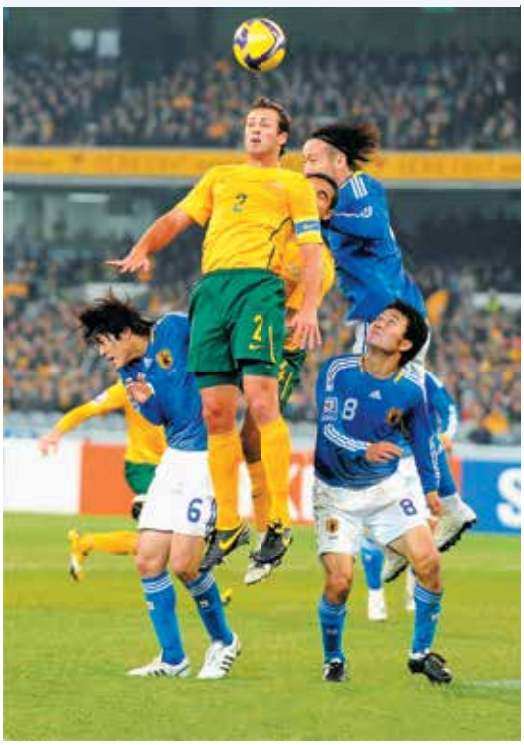
6.1.1 Links with our times

Green and gold are the national colours worn by sports teams representing Australia internationally. They are based on colours of the continent's landscape. Australia is the only modern country to occupy an entire continent, but it has been a nation only since 1901. Before that there were six separate British colonies on the continent. Nationhood was something that came along with other great changes in the late nineteenth century.

Today Australia is a constitutional monarchy. Since 1901 our laws have been made by Australian Commonwealth and state parliaments, but our head of state is the monarch of Great Britain, Queen Elizabeth II. Many people are puzzled by these overlapping frameworks. Why do we have state governments as well as a national government, and which level of government is responsible, for example, for education and health care? To understand such matters, you need to know how the Australian colonies united and what kind of a nation they wanted to create. You will also learn that there were alternative visions of what Australia might become.

Looking at Australia in the late nineteenth century helps us to understand the society in which we live today. This period saw the growth of a strong labour movement that fought for workers' rights, the emergence of political parties, the struggle of women to gain a share in political rights, and a growing sense of national identity. Some people began to identify what they called 'Australian values' and characteristics of the 'typical Australian'. Today there is ongoing debate about what it means to be Australian and whether it is possible in a nation made up of people from all over the world to identify 'Australian values'.

SOURCE 1 Lucas Neill, then captain of the Socceroos, Australia's national soccer team, leaps to head the ball during a match against Japan.



SOURCE 2 A timeline of Australia, 1850s–1913

CE

1850

1854
Thirty diggers are killed at the Eureka Stockade.

1860

1860–61
The first free selection Acts are passed in Victoria and New South Wales.

1870

1880
The bushranger Ned Kelly is hanged in Melbourne.

1880

1883
Premiers agree to the setting up of a federal council to work out a federal constitution.

1891
The Federal Convention in Sydney proposes a constitution. The first Labor members of Parliament are elected in New South Wales.

1890

1890
The Great Strikes of the 1890s begin and continue to 1894.

1892
Gold is discovered at Coolgardie in Western Australia.

1894
South Australia leads the way in granting women's voting rights.

1898
The First Constitution Bill Referendum is held.

1900

1899
Australian colonies send troops to the Boer War.

1901
Commonwealth inauguration marks the birth of the nation. Commonwealth Parliament opens in Melbourne and passes the Immigration Restriction Act.

1907
The basic wage is established.

1910

1913
The foundation stone of Canberra, the new national capital, is laid.

1920

CE

SOURCE 3 Sir Henry Parkes, politician and prominent supporter of Federation

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. What was it like to live and work in Australia between the 1870s and 1913?
2. How and why did people rebel against the social conditions?
3. What ideas and conditions led to the creation of the Australian nation?
4. What were the main characteristics of the Australian nation before the outbreak of World War I in 1914?

Starter questions

1. Do you think most people in Australia today regard it as home?
2. Explain what you think is meant by a 'sense of national identity'.
3. Do you think most modern Australians have a sense of national identity?
4. How would you describe Australian values?

6.2 How do we know about late colonial and early twentieth-century Australia?

6.2.1 Evidence of late colonial and early twentieth-century Australia

In this topic we will investigate living and working conditions in Australia in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. We will also explore the ideas, events and conditions that led to the creation of the Australian nation and the main characteristics of the nation before the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

Official sources

Following the gold rush of the 1850s each of the Australian colonies gained responsible government. This meant they had parliaments that were accountable to the electors. From 1901 Australia had a national Parliament, whose official name is the Commonwealth Parliament, along with the six state parliaments that replaced the colonial parliaments. The records of debates held and laws passed in these parliaments tell us a lot about the issues that concerned Australians in that period.

Mass media and personal records

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries there were many more newspapers than there are today, even though we now have a much bigger population. This was because newspapers and magazines were the only form of mass media before the invention of radio, television and the internet. Libraries in Australia hold many issues of these old newspapers and some of them can now be read online. We can also learn a lot about this age through letters and diaries. Some people who lived at the time wrote their memoirs and some of these survived.

Visual sources

There are many visual sources for this age. Artists have left a valuable record in their paintings and drawings. Cartoons and sketches were widely used in newspapers and magazines. Cartoons especially say a lot about popular attitudes and opinions.

This was the first period of history for which we have evidence from photographs. The first photographs in Australia were taken in 1841. They were called daguerreotypes. The images were printed on a silvered plate, and only still objects could be photographed because this method of taking pictures needed an exposure time of 20 minutes in full sun. From the 1850s a new method called wet plate photography gradually replaced daguerreotypes. Wet plate photography did not need such long exposure times and enabled copies to be made from the originals. Taking pictures became even

SOURCE 1 A family in front of their house at Walloon, near Ipswich in Queensland, in 1885

SOURCE 2 A protest meeting of alluvial miners in Kalgoorlie, Western Australia, on 12 March 1898

simpler with the development of dry plate photography from the late 1870s. Throughout the latter half of the nineteenth century, photographers were capturing images of gold rush scenes, colonial towns, buildings, ships, trains, parades, protest demonstrations, and people at work and play.

SOURCE 3 Soldiers of the Victorian Scottish Regiment No. 22 parading through Melbourne in 1899 on their way to the Boer War in South Africa

6.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why were there many more newspapers in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries than there are now?
2. List some examples of visual sources that exist from late colonial and early twentieth-century Australia.
3. What is a daguerreotype?
4. Outline how photography changed from the 1850s onwards.

Apply your understanding

5. Look closely at **Source 1**. If you knew this was a typical family, what conclusions could you draw about the size of late-nineteenth-century Australian families, their houses and their clothing?
6. What are the miners doing in **Source 2**?
7. From what you know about the earlier gold rushes, why would these miners be protesting about being banned from digging below ten feet (about three metres)?
8. The volunteer soldiers in **Source 3** were going off to fight for Britain in the Boer War in South Africa. What might this tell us about Australian attitudes to the British Empire in 1900?
9. Use the evidence from the three sources in this subtopic to write a short description of the following aspects of life in late nineteenth-century Australia: families; houses and other buildings; types of transport; clothing; and attitudes to war and the British Empire.

6.3 Towards democracy: Eureka and political rights

6.3.1 Migrant democrats

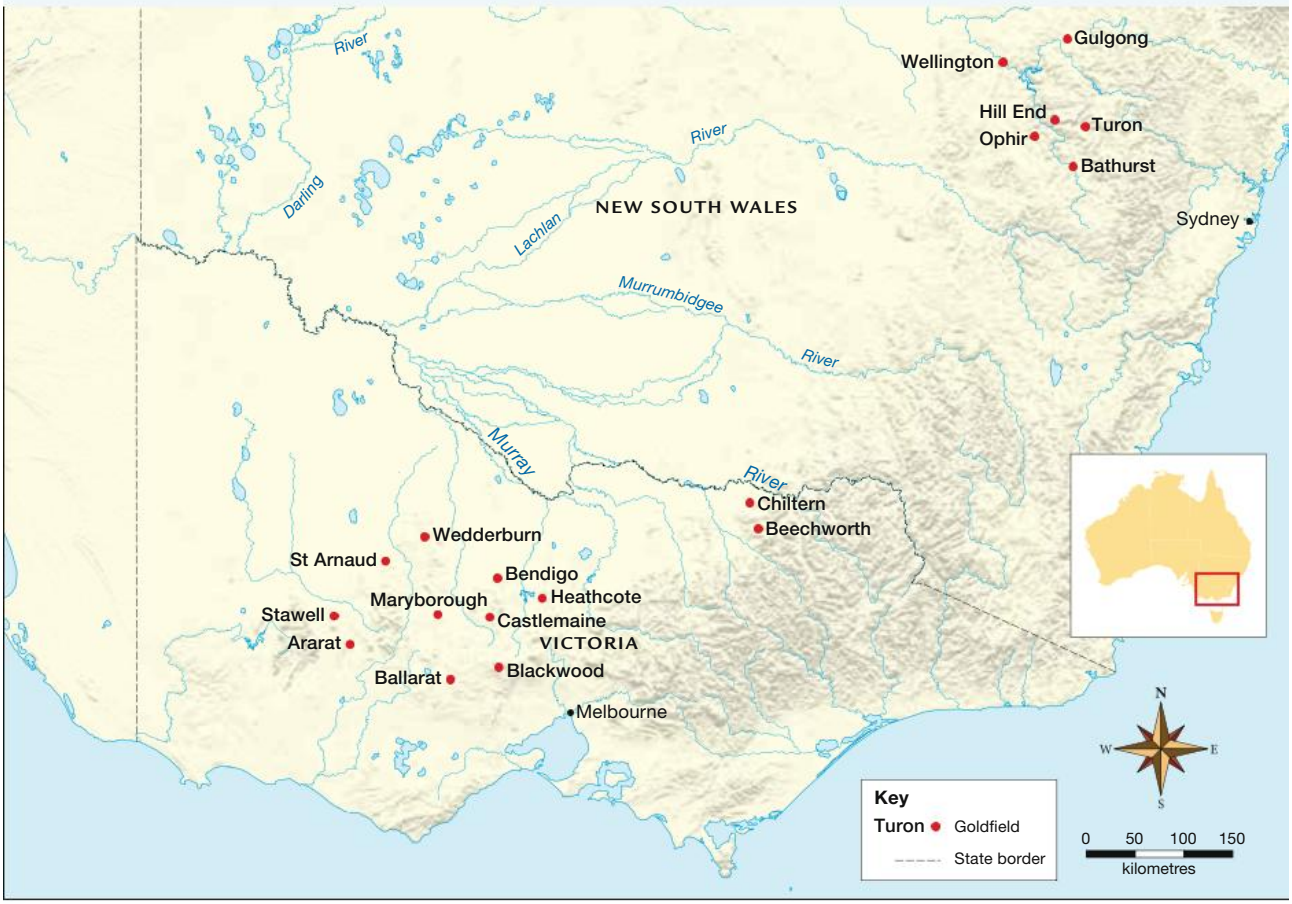
The Eureka Rebellion of 1854 is seen by many historians as a milestone in the struggle for democratic rights and a more equal society. It was partly a conflict over what kind of society Australia should be. Today it is still seen as a symbol of resistance. The rebellion took place during the gold rushes of the 1850s. The gold rushes marked a turning point in Australia's history, prompting a massive scramble of people from overseas to the Australian goldfields. The population trebled in the first decade of the rushes and wealth from gold raised living standards. These developments paved the way for more democratic rights and colonial self-government. Australia came to be seen as a land of opportunity, but the rushes also had other consequences, including violent political protests.

SOURCE 1 A visitor's description of what was happening on the goldfields by the mid 1850s, from W. Howitt, *Land, Labour and Gold or Two Years in Victoria*, published in 1855

… hundreds have already gone back [from the diggings] again, cursing those who sent such one-sided statements of the goldfields …

The great majority of gold rush immigrants were British and Irish, like the convicts and migrants who had come to Australia before the 1850s. But the new migrants also included people from many other countries, including the Chinese who you learned about in topic 5. The British, Irish and European gold rush migrants included many who had been involved in movements for workers' rights and political reform in their own countries.

SOURCE 2 Some of the main goldfields in Australia's south-east



Growing discontent

Life on the goldfields was hard, and for every digger who found riches there were many more whose backbreaking work yielded very little. From 1851 the New South Wales and Victorian governments passed laws demanding that anyone digging for gold buy a licence for 30 **shillings** a month. This fee had to be paid in advance and gave a digger the right to work only a small area. For diggers who were not British subjects, licences cost twice as much. Many diggers did not buy licences because they could not afford them, so the gold commissioners sent troopers to catch them.

Licence hunts and protests

Diggers caught without licences were fined and had their huts and equipment destroyed. Some were sent to jail. Following angry protests, in 1853 New South Wales reduced the fee to 10 shillings a month. Victoria reduced it to one pound (20 shillings), but this was still too high because diggers' incomes were getting smaller as less surface gold was found. Mines sunk more than 30 metres required expensive machinery that individuals or small groups of diggers could not afford. When Victoria's governor, Lieutenant-Governor Sir Charles Hotham, ordered licence hunts twice a week in September 1854, digger anger became explosive.

6.3.2 The gathering storm

Even an unrelated incident could have provoked a riot. On 6 October 1854 a digger was bashed to death at the Eureka Hotel at Ballarat in Victoria. When charges against the hotel's owner, James Bentley, were dropped, many miners concluded that this was because Bentley had done favours for the police. On 17 October around 4000 furious diggers protested against this 'police corruption'. They rioted and burned the hotel to the ground.

The Ballarat Reform League

On 11 November, at a further protest meeting at Bakery Hill, the diggers formed the Ballarat Reform League. Its demands included:

- abolition of licence fees
- **parliamentary representation** through voting rights for adult men
- payment for members of Parliament
- abolition of property requirements for members of Parliament.

These last two demands were made so men who were not rich could afford to serve in Parliament.

Digger resentment increased further when news came that on 27 November Governor Hotham had refused to release the men arrested over the hotel burning and instead had ordered more troops to be sent to Ballarat. By 30 November Bentley was no longer the issue, but feelings were running high when Commissioner Rede ordered another licence hunt.

SOURCE 3 *Administering the Oath, Eureka Stockade, 1854*, a wood engraving made in 1888. During a protest meeting held on 30 November the diggers solemnly swore to stand together.

On 30 November, 12 000 diggers gathered at Eureka, where many burned their licences in protest. They appointed an Irishman, Peter Lalor, as their leader. They created a new flag, the 'Eureka Flag', with stars on a white cross against a blue background, and swore a solemn oath to stand together. They built a **stockade** at Eureka and began collecting weapons.

SOURCE 4 Raffaello Carboni, a digger's leader, describes events on 30 November 1854.

What's up? A licence hunt … What's to be done? Peter Lalor was on the stump, his rifle in his hand, calling on volunteers to 'fall in' into ranks as fast as they rushed to Bakery-hill, from all quarters with arms in their hands, just fetched from their tents. I went up to Lalor, and the moment he saw me, he took me by the hand saying, I want you, Signore: tell those gentlemen, pointing to old acquaintances of ours, who were foreigners; that, if they cannot provide themselves with fire-arms, let them each procure a piece of steel, five or six inches long, attached to a pole, and that will pierce the tyrants' hearts …

The 'SOUTHERN CROSS' was hoisted up the flag-staff … There is no flag in Europe half so beautiful as the 'Southern Cross' of the Ballarat miners …

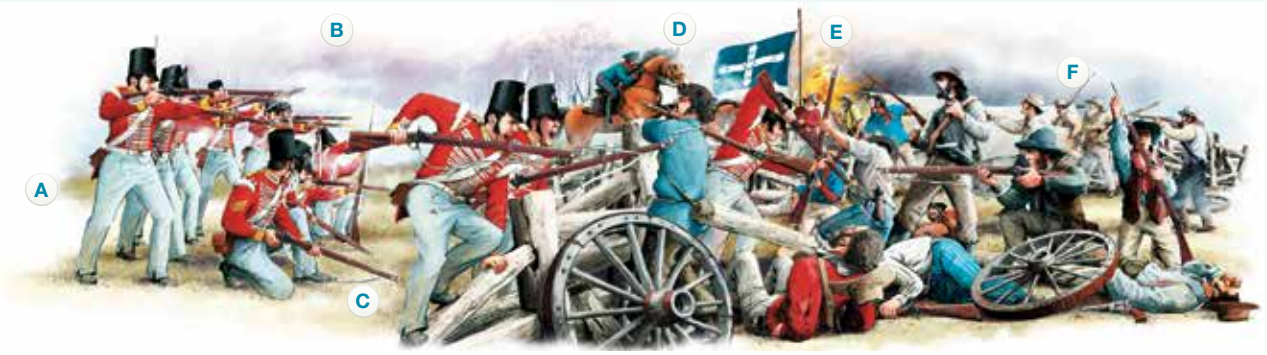
Some five hundred armed diggers advanced … the captains of each division making the military salute to Lalor, who … exclaimed in a firm measured tone: —

'WE SWEAR BY THE SOUTHERN CROSS TO STAND TRULY BY EACH OTHER, AND FIGHT TO DEFEND OUR RIGHTS AND LIBERTIES.'

6.3.3 The battle at the Eureka Stockade

Before dawn on 3 December there were just 150 diggers in the Eureka Stockade when a force of 270 well-armed soldiers and police attacked. The fierce battle lasted only 20 minutes and the diggers were defeated. At least 25 diggers and three troopers were killed.

SOURCE 5 Anger and resentment finally exploded on 3 December 1854 in an unexpected dawn attack by troopers on the diggers barricaded in the Eureka Stockade.



- **A** At the 30 November meeting, all present swore allegiance to the Southern Cross flag. Holding a rifle in one hand, and pointing towards the flag with his other, Peter Lalor said: 'We swear by the Southern Cross to stand truly by each other and fight to defend our rights and liberties'. His men removed their hats and replied 'Amen'.
- **B** Hundreds of angry miners gathered at the stockade after the meeting of 30 November. But the resistance was not well coordinated — by the evening of Saturday 2 December, only about 150 men remained. Even these men might have left had the troops not attacked.
- **C** The Eureka Stockade was built by the diggers as a fortification against trooper attack.
- **D** About 25 diggers were killed in the dawn raid and 30 wounded. Only three troopers were killed. The troopers were heavily armed with guns and bayonets; the diggers had only limited weapons.
- **E** Diggers on the Ballarat goldfields included Germans, Americans, Italians and Canadians, as well as people from England, Ireland and France. The involvement of non-English diggers in this struggle was resented by some.
- **F** Peter Lalor and another ringleader, George Black, escaped after the attack.

The outcome of Eureka

The diggers lost the battle at Eureka but they achieved many of their aims. Juries did not convict the 13 ringleaders who were tried for treason, finding instead that they had acted in self-defence. In 1855 the gold licence was replaced by a 'miner's right' costing just one pound a year and giving its holder the right to vote. Peter Lalor eventually became a member of the Victorian Parliament.

DID YOU KNOW?

In *The Eureka Stockade*, first published in 1855, Raffaello Carboni, an Italian revolutionary, provided a first-hand account of the Eureka rebellion. As a fluent speaker of English, Italian, French, Spanish and German, Carboni became such a prominent leader of the diggers that he was tried for treason after the rebellion was crushed.

6.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Create a timeline of events leading up to the Eureka Stockade battle.
2. Use your timeline to identify points at which bloodshed might have been avoided.
3. Explain what could have been done at any one of those points to avoid violence.
4. Explain the reasons for the demands made by the diggers at their meeting on 11 November 1854.

Apply your understanding

5. How does **Source 1** help you to understand digger opposition to licence fees?
6. Locate Ballarat in **Source 2**.
7. Using **Sources 3** and **4**, describe the mood and spirit of the Ballarat diggers by 30 November.
8. Raffaello Carboni's book (**Source 4**) is the only complete first-hand account of the Eureka Rebellion.
   (a) What skills would have made Carboni a very useful diggers' leader and ally for Peter Lalor?
   (b) What can you tell about how the diggers were organised and armed?
   (c) What chance would they have stood against trained soldiers?
9. Would Raffaello Carboni's book be a **biased** source? Explain your answer.
10. Study **Source 5**. Imagine you are a newspaper reporter in 1854. Write a report on the battle and events that led to it. Include short 'comments' from representatives of both sides.
11. Enter 'Eureka Stockade' into a search engine and make a reference list of ten books, articles and films that have been written or made about the Eureka Rebellion.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete these digital doc: Worksheet 6.1: Stand and fight?

Explore more with this weblink: Gold rush game

myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Democratic reform**

6.4 Whose Australia? Free selectors vs squatters

6.4.1 Conflict over land

After the clash between the diggers and the Victorian authorities at the Eureka Stockade, the next conflict between social classes in colonial Australia was over land. It was a conflict with roots that went back to earlier times when wealthy free settlers had been granted big parcels of land and convict labour to work it, while poor immigrants and ex-convicts received small land grants on which most were unable to make a living. By the time of the gold rushes, squatters controlled most of the land and used it for **grazing**.

The gold rushes hugely increased the colonial population. As alluvial gold ran out, thousands of people, including ex-diggers, demanded that wealthy squatters be made to give up some of the land they leased. This would free up land so other people could become small farmers. Although laws were made for this purpose in each colony, Australia did not become a land of small farmers.

SOURCE 1 From John Sadleir, *Recollections of a Victorian Police Officer*, George Robertson & Company, Melbourne, 1913, pp. 114–15

It was also in the early 'sixties that the quiet of Hamilton was disturbed … The first Duffy Land Act, providing for free selection of Crown Lands, had just come into force, and the momentous question of parceling out the fertile lands of the Western District had to be faced. It was an anxious time for the existing occupiers — the squatters … There was another crowd, too, but of persons quite unknown in the neighbourhood, and who appeared to be acting under some sort of leadership … It seemed … as if the strangers held possession, and the squatters were shut out while being stripped of all they possessed.

But there were wheels within wheels … Communication passed between the squatters and the leaders of the strange crowd … with the result that the squatters continued in undisturbed possession of their holdings, while not a single stranger was known to settle in the district at this time … The first Duffy Land Act was a failure.

6.4.2 Free selection

Many ordinary people hated the inequalities that existed between rich and poor in Britain and Europe. Australia seemed to offer them the chance to gain independence as small farmers. In the 1850s a popular movement developed calling for 'free selection'. The first free selection Act was passed in the Victorian Parliament in 1860. In New South Wales free selection Acts were passed in 1861 and similar laws were made in the other colonies.

These free selection laws allowed anyone to select land whether or not it was leased by a squatter. For example, in New South Wales a person could select from 40 to 320 acres (16 to 129 hectares) of land and buy it on time payment at one pound an acre. Free selectors could occupy the land they had selected after paying a quarter of its price, and they could lease three times as much land adjoining their selections. The only land they could not select was land on which squatters had made improvements.

SOURCE 2 An engraving, c. 1873, showing free selectors

Samuel Calvert 1828–1913
Free selectors pegging out 1873, engraving, 17.6 cm × 22.6 cm
© National Gallery of Australia, Canberra

6.4.3 Results of the free selection Acts

In each Australian colony, squatters gained more from these laws than the people whom the laws were designed to assist. Why this happen? The squatters found many ways of defeating the aims of the laws. One method was called **peacocking**, which made the rest of the area useless to selectors. Another method was to use **dummies** who later sold land they selected back to the squatters.

The result was that Australia did not become a land of small independent farmers. Large landowners continued to control most of the country. Many selectors who stayed on the land lived in poverty. In many places soils were too poor, rainfall too unreliable and the selections too small. Women often had to run these small properties while the men went away for much of the year to work for squatters as drovers or shearers.

SOURCE 3 A photo-lithograph of a free selector's hut, c. 1886

Nicholas Caire, 1837 United Kingdom – Australia 1918
Selector's hut, Gippsland, c.1886
Albumen silver photograph, image 15.1 cm × 19.6 cm
© National Gallery of Australia, Canberra

SOURCE 4 An etching of a free selector's daughter, c. 1935

Lionel Lindsay, *The Free Selector's daughter* 1935
Etching, printed in black ink, from one plate, plate-mark 14 cm × 21.4 cm, sheet 18 cm × 27.8 cm
© National Gallery of Australia, Canberra. Bequest of Alan Queale, 1982

6.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why was there a popular demand for land during the 1850s and 1860s?
2. What was the aim of the free selection Acts?
3. Why did the acts fail to create a land of small independent farmers?

Apply your understanding

4. Read **Source 1**.
   (a) Why would the passing of free selection Acts have caused an anxious time for the squatters?
   (b) What were the 'wheels within wheels' and who do you think was employing the 'strange crowd' referred to by the police officer?
   (c) Was this an example of peacocking or using dummies?
5. Study **Source 2**.
   (a) What are these men doing?
   (b) Why would the task be so urgent that they would do it by torchlight?
   (c) Why is it possible that they might not be genuine free selectors?
6. How do **Sources 3** and **4** provide evidence of hardships faced by free selectors?
7. Imagine you are either the selector or his daughter pictured in **Source 4**. Write a letter to a friend in the city describing the difficulties you face on your selection.
8. How do you think small selectors would have felt seeing wealthy squatters defeat the intentions of a law aimed at helping selectors?

6.5 An Australian legend

6.5.1 The Kelly legend

A nation under the British Crown was not the dream of everyone who came to Australia during the nineteenth century. Ireland was Britain's oldest colony and about one-third of all convicts sent to Australia were Irish. Many had been transported for small crimes committed just to survive the grinding poverty in

which they lived. Others had been sentenced for rebelling against British rule. Many free Irish immigrants were also fleeing poverty, especially during the terrible famine of the 1840s. Such people made up large numbers of the free selectors of north-eastern Victoria, and many of them sympathised with Australia's most famous outlaw bushranger during what came to be called 'the Kelly Outbreak'.

Australians complimenting someone's courage used to say that person was 'as game as Ned Kelly'. Kelly has been the subject of a play, a ballet, songs, poems and novels. Artist Sydney Nolan portrayed the Kelly legend in a series of paintings. Both Mick Jagger and Heath Ledger played his part in movies. Why did an outlaw win such a place in Australian folklore?

SOURCE 1 A portrait of Ned Kelly taken the day before he was hanged

Early years

Edward 'Ned' Kelly (born 1855) was the first son of John Kelly, an ex-convict from Ireland, and Ellen Kelly, whose family, the Quinns, had come from Ireland as poor assisted migrants. Ned grew up in north-eastern Victoria in a time of conflict between struggling selectors and squatters. The selectors viewed corrupt police as the squatters' allies. In 1865 John Kelly was jailed for possessing a stolen cow hide. When he died in 1866 the family moved to a small selection near Greta, where they lived in poverty.

In 1869 and 1870 Ned faced three charges of robbery; all were dismissed through lack of evidence. But in late 1870, aged just 15, he received six months' hard labour in Beechworth jail for assault and three years for horse stealing. Three years after his release, Ned joined his stepfather in horse and cattle stealing. In 1878 arrest warrants were issued for Ned and his youngest brother, Dan.

The turning point

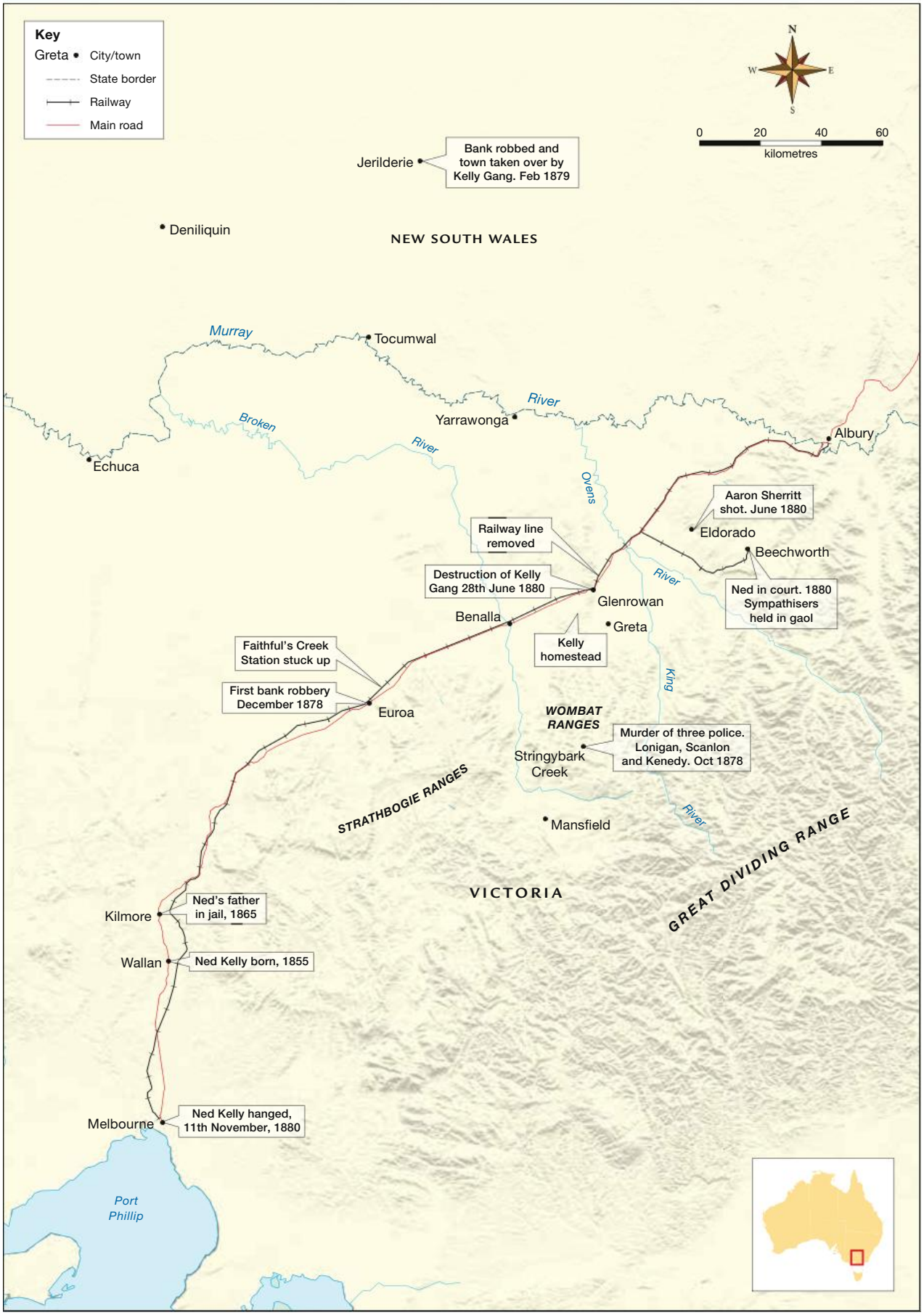
On 5 April 1878 Constable Alexander Fitzpatrick visited the Kelly house. According to Fitzpatrick, he arrested Dan but Ellen Kelly assaulted him with a shovel and Ned fired a shot at him. Ned's version of events was very different (see **Source 3**). Warrants were issued for the arrest of Ned and Dan for attempted murder. Ellen was sentenced to three years in prison, and this enraged Ned and Dan. They hid out in the Wombat Ranges but offered to give themselves up in exchange for their mother's freedom.

Police parties were sent out to hunt for the Kellys. Constables Scanlan, Lonigan and McIntyre and Sergeant Kennedy arrived at Stringybark Creek in the Wombat Ranges in October 1878. When Ned attempted to capture and disarm them, three police were killed. Only McIntyre escaped alive.

Outlaws

The Kellys were declared outlaws who could be shot on sight. In December the gang, now consisting of Ned, Dan and their friends Steve Hart and Joe Byrne, robbed a bank at Euroa without firing a shot. In February 1879 they raided Jerilderie, locking the police in their own cell and robbing the hotel and bank. During these operations the gang entertained their prisoners and Ned spent much time telling people how injustice had caused him to become an outlaw.

SOURCE 2 Kelly country



6.5.2 The final showdown

Police imprisoned many Kelly sympathisers and announced that such people would be barred from getting selections. The result was increased support for the outlaws. From June 1880, the gang made suits of armour from ploughs and supplied firearms to their supporters. They planned to lure the police to travel by train from their headquarters at Benalla to Beechworth. This would take them through Glenrowan, where there were many Kelly sympathisers. The plan was to derail the train, capture the police and demand Ellen's freedom in exchange for theirs.

SOURCE 3 Part of an 8300-word statement (known as the *Jerilderie Letter*) handed over by Ned Kelly during the hold-up at Jerilderie in 1879

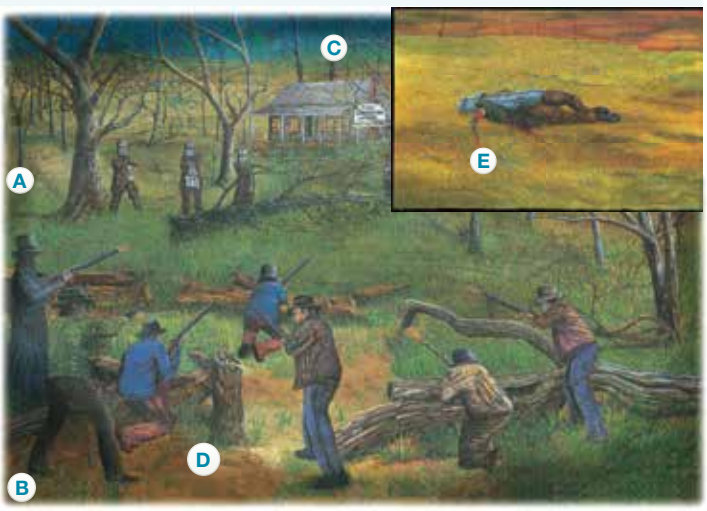
… there was never such a thing as justice in the English laws but any amount of injustice to be had …
If a poor man happened to leave his horse or a … calf outside his paddocks they would be **impounded**.
I have known over 60 head of horses impounded in one day … all belonging to poor farmers …
The trooper [Fitzpatrick] pulled out his revolver and said he would blow her [Ellen Kelly's] brains out if she interfered in the arrest [of Dan Kelly] … The trooper … invented some scheme to say that he got shot which any man can see is false … the Police got credit and praise for arresting the mother of 12 children one an infant on her breast … I heard nothing of this … I being over 400 miles from Greta when I heard I was outlawed …
… they must remember those men [Kennedy, Scanlan, Lonigan and McIntyre] came into the bush with the intention of scattering pieces of me and my brother all over the bush and yet they know … I have been wronged …

Edward Kelly

On the evening of Saturday, 26 June, to set the police on the track to Beechworth, Joe Byrne shot and killed his old friend Aaron Sherritt, a police informer. Meanwhile Ned and Steve forced railway workers to remove a section of track almost 800 metres north of Glenrowan railway station. Joined by Dan and Joe, they took over Mrs Jones's Glenrowan hotel and waited for the train.

Ned made two fatal mistakes. When Thomas Curnow, a schoolteacher, asked permission to take his sick wife home, Ned agreed. Shortly after two o'clock on Monday morning Curnow stopped the train, which was carrying ten police and several Aboriginal trackers. Ned had also assumed that the police would not suspect an attempt to derail the train. But well ahead of the engine pulling the police carriages there was another engine. Had it been derailed, the second engine would have stopped safely. The gang could have retreated into the hills. Instead they chose to stay and fight (see **Source 4**).

SOURCE 4 The siege at Glenrowan



A Glenrowan railway station was about 100 metres in front of the hotel. The train was meant to be derailed 800 metres up the line.

B Around 3 am the outlaws, in heavy armour, first exchanged shots with the police at the railway station. Ned and Joe were wounded.

C The gang fell back to the hotel. During the 12-hour siege 35 men, women and children threw themselves onto the floor as police bullets crashed through the thin walls.

D Police fired on the hotel from a number of positions including a trench between the hotel and the railway station. They were reinforced through the night. Their fire killed a 13-year-old boy, and other people were wounded, including some who tried to flee. At 5 am Joe Byrne was fatally wounded.

E Ned collapsed from loss of blood as he walked firing through police lines. Determined to save Dan and Steve, he staggered back through the heavy dawn mist and a continuous hail of bullets, firing at the police. He was captured after being brought down by a shotgun blast to his unprotected legs.

6.5.3 Trial and execution

With Ned's capture, the police finally allowed civilians to leave the hotel. Left inside were Dan and Steve and a badly injured Martin Cherry, who died later of his wounds. Shooting continued until 3 pm, when police set fire to the hotel. Dan and Steve chose to commit suicide rather than be taken alive.

Ned's trial for the murder of Constable Lonigan commenced in Melbourne on 28 October. He was found guilty and sentenced to death by Justice Redmond Barry. No sympathisers had joined the fight at Glenrowan, but more than 60 000 people signed a petition to save Ned from hanging and thousands attended a protest meeting the night before his execution. Ned's last words, at 25 years of age, as he stood on the gallows at 10 am on 11 November 1880, were 'Ah well, I suppose it has come to this.'

DID YOU KNOW?

Fearing fresh outbreaks among Kelly sympathisers, police reinforced stations throughout north-eastern Victoria. A royal commission investigated police handling of the Kelly outbreak. It resulted in several officers being dismissed or reduced in rank.

6.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why do you think 'as game as Ned Kelly' was used as a compliment?
2. Create a timeline of the main events in Ned Kelly's life.
3. Working in groups, try to identify points on the timeline where Ned might have been able to make different choices.
4. Suggest how events might have unfolded if he had made different choices.

Apply your understanding

5. Read **Source 3**.
   (a) What did Ned say about poor selectors, police and squatters?
   (b) How does this help to explain why the Kellys had many supporters?
   (c) How does Ned's version of events on 5 April 1878 differ from Fitzpatrick's story?
   (d) What evidence would we need to *know* the truth of this incident?
   (e) How does Ned explain the deaths of Kennedy, Scanlan and Lonigan?
6. Use **Sources 2** and **4** to answer the following questions:
   (a) Why was Glenrowan a suitable place to ambush the police?
   (b) What went wrong with Ned's plan?
   (c) Considering the positions occupied by both sides at Glenrowan, who do you think was most to blame for casualties suffered by innocent people?
7. Why do you think Ned Kelly became a folk legend?
8. What does the fact that many people admired Kelly tell us about social conditions in his time and later?
9. Find a full copy of the *Jerilderie Letter*. Use it to explain how Ned Kelly saw his actions as part of a struggle between rich and poor, oppressors and oppressed. After reading it, give your opinion on whether he should be remembered as a hero or as a murderer.

6.6 City life

6.6.1 Marvellous Melbourne: a city giant

In the major cities of the Australian colonies a world was emerging that was very different from the world of selectors, squatters and country towns. Since the first European settlements, most Australians have lived in coastal cities and big towns. Melbourne was founded in 1837 and named after the then British

prime minister, Lord Melbourne. By the 1880s it had grown to be one of the most commercially important and elegant cities in the world. English journalist George Sala was so impressed he called it 'Marvellous Melbourne'.

In the same year that Melbourne was named, Robert Hoddle designed the grid layout of the city's **central business district**. Outside this grid, land was set aside for large areas of parkland. Both are still features of Melbourne today.

Over the next 20 years Melbourne's status grew. In 1847 it was officially declared a city through the appointment of its first Church of England bishop. Victoria became self-governing in 1851, when it separated from the colony of New South Wales. The establishment of the University of Melbourne and the Public Library in 1853 showed the city's commitment to education.

One of the most striking features of Melbourne's history is its rapid population growth, from just over 3500 in 1839 to nearly 80 000 in 1851. After the gold rushes, diggers flocked to the city, and immigrants brought with them new ideas and a demand for goods and services. By 1880, half a million people called Melbourne home.

SOURCE 1 A modern artist's impression of 'Marvellous Melbourne' in the late nineteenth century

A Retailing precincts were set up around Swanston and Elizabeth streets. Other parts of the city catered for specific businesses and activities. Warehouses stood by the river, legal practices were established in the west end of Bourke Street and doctors were found in Collins Street east. Many of these precincts still exist today.

B Gangs of young men, called **larrikins**, roamed the streets. Prostitution and crime also flourished. The western boundary of the city was well known for its brothels and sleazy hotels.

C Men's clothing styles were quite similar for rich and poor, although fabrics and tailoring differed. Women's clothing was a different matter. A wife, the experts agreed, must dress according to her position in society — indeed, the status of a man was often assessed by the clothes his wife wore.

D Well-to-do ladies showed off the latest fashions by 'doing the block', walking in the fashionable Collins Street **precinct**. Wealthy women had access to silks and satins imported from Europe. Working-class women often made do with hand-me-downs or mended clothing.

E A police force was established in the 1830s to keep order in the city.

F Wrought iron lacework was used to decorate the verandahs and balconies of middle-class homes and public buildings. During the 1880s it symbolised the city's prosperity. Even today, Melbourne has more decorative wrought iron than any other city in the world.

G By the 1880s Melbourne's skyline featured elegantly decorated domes and spires.

H Hydraulic lifts allowed buildings of up to 12 storeys to be built. Only New York and Chicago then had buildings as high as Melbourne's.

I Behind the elegance of 'Marvellous Melbourne' were serious health and hygiene issues. By the 1880s, overcrowded inner-city housing in areas like **'Little Lon'** meant that diseases such as typhoid and diphtheria spread.

J The Royal Exhibition Building was completed for the International Exhibition held in Melbourne in 1880. Exhibits and inventions from all over the world were displayed. The exhibition ran for eight months and attracted more than a million people.

K Household waste and **nightsoil** were dumped into the Yarra River. The stench in some parts of the city prompted a Sydney writer to rename it 'Marvellous Smellbourne'. In 1891 the Melbourne and Metropolitan Board of Works was established to try to rectify some of these problems.

L Cable trams were established in Melbourne in the 1880s. They allowed the growing middle classes to commute to the city from their homes in less polluted suburbs. Transportation by horse and buggy was also common. By the 1890s, Melbourne had an established rail network.

DID YOU KNOW?

Cup day

One of Melbourne's premier sporting events, the Melbourne Cup, was first held in 1861. Today the Melbourne Cup Carnival is enjoyed as much for its party atmosphere as for the race itself. Visitors from interstate and around the world flock to Flemington to 'have a flutter', picnic on the lawn and parade their outfits, both fashionable and outrageous. Nothing much has changed since 1888, when over 100 000 people spread out their food and beverages underneath the gum trees to watch the race.

SOURCE 2 An artist's impression of the Melbourne Cup, 1888

6.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Choose an event from Melbourne's history for each of these dates:

1837	1880	1861	1888	1847	1853

   Justify which event most added to the city's status as a 'most liveable' city.
2. In what ways was 'Marvellous Melbourne' not so 'marvellous'?
3. To what extent was the way we live in cities today evident in Melbourne city life 100 to 150 years ago? Has anything changed? Explain.
4. Study **Source 2** carefully.
   (a) What evidence suggests that the Melbourne Cup in 1888 was (i) a family event and (ii) attended only by the wealthy?
   (b) Discuss the sounds you would have expected to hear at this event.

Apply your understanding

5. Work in small groups. Use **Source 1** to help you design an advertising campaign for 'Marvellous Melbourne' in the 1880s. It needs to be appropriate for the audience. This campaign will need three elements: a catchy jingle, a symbol or logo of the spirit of the city and a series of postcards highlighting Melbourne's attractions.
6. Use the internet to find out how the city of Melbourne promotes itself to visitors today. Make a list of what you regard as Melbourne's top historical attractions. Give reasons for each of your choices.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 6.2: Marvellous Melbourne

6.7 Working in cities and towns

6.7.1 An unequal society

After the 1850s many people who had tried their luck on the goldfields flocked to towns and cities to look for work. As a result, commerce, industry and investment grew, and the public service expanded. Developments in transport, technology and communication also contributed to changing work patterns.

Many nineteenth-century factories, mills and shops in the colonies were little more than 'sweatshops'. Dressed in heavy, multi-layered clothing (then the fashion), workers of both sexes sometimes worked 10 to 16 hours per day, six days a week, in temperatures that could reach the high 30s. Many had to walk long distances to get home.

Employers had all the power, sometimes refusing to implement government directions to improve conditions. Employees were often afraid to object or to report employers for non-compliance, for fear of losing their jobs. Neither did they enjoy the entitlements workers do today, such as sick leave. Most could be expected to work until they were 65. It was not much of a life for many people in the working class.

Even children worked under these harsh conditions, sometimes 50 to 60 hours per week. Because they were smaller, they could often do tasks adults could not. Also well, employers had to pay them only a fraction of an adult wage. In 1911, 46 169 children between the ages of 10 and 14 were in the workforce.

Social divisions

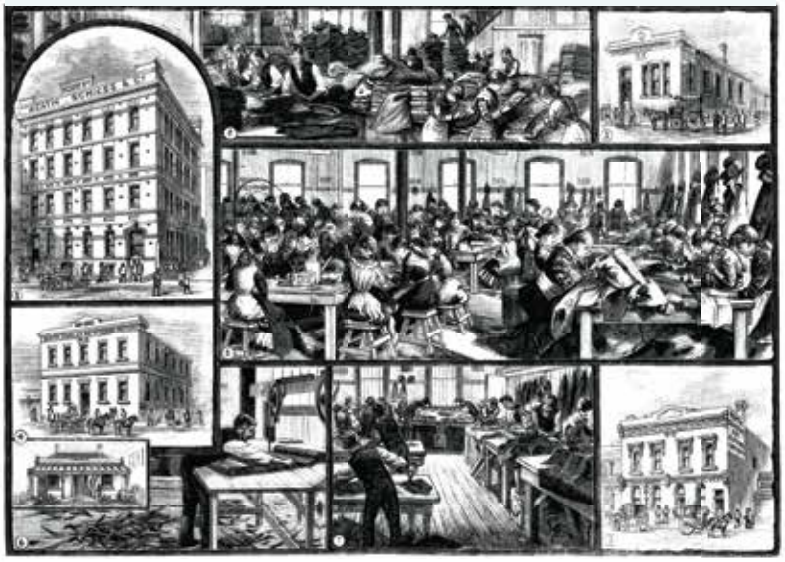
By the 1880s, apart from wealthy landowners and pastoralists, bankers and merchants were among the highest earners in the colonies. They established businesses close to the wharves to take advantage of the growing import and investment sectors. These businesses provided employment for accountants, clerks and shopkeepers.

Professionals such as doctors and lawyers also earned high wages. Most came from wealthy families, and had been educated at private schools and universities in the colonies and overseas.

High-wage earners tended to build spacious homes in leafy suburbs away from the grime and pollution of the inner-city areas. Domestic servants were employed to maintain these homes and the wealthy families who lived there.

Until the 1880s most domestic servants were poor Irish immigrant girls working to help support their families. Many men and women preferred factory work, though, because it often paid better and it gave workers some independence. This preference led to a shortage of domestic workers in the 1880s. As the shortage grew, domestic workers were able to push for higher wages, more free time and better working conditions.

SOURCE 1 An 1882 wood engraving depicting scenes at Beath, Schiess and Company's Victorian clothing factories



Local industries: Messrs.
Beath, Schiess and Co.'s Clothing Factories
May 13, 1882
print: wood engraving
Reproduction rights owned by the State Library of Victoria.

6.7.2 New technologies

By the 1880s new technologies meant the growth of new types of jobs. The expansion of manufacturing resulted in an increase of engineers, who helped to develop machinery for factories. In many trades (for example, bootmaking), mechanised processes replaced manual labour.

The typewriter created new office jobs. Up to the 1880s, typists were mainly men, although the number of female typists increased after this. New methods of copying and **bookkeeping** were also changing office work.

SOURCE 2 Inside the workshop of John Faul, Ironmonger at Bendigo in 1890

Telegraph and telephone services became more common in the 1880s. The number of telegraph stations in the central business district of Melbourne doubled from 1880 to 1890. By 1890, there were almost 2000 telephone subscribers. New forms of communication required workers to develop new skills.

One of the most influential developments in the late nineteenth century was electricity. For some, however, electric lights just meant longer working hours.

SOURCE 3 Most servant girls endured demanding, and often harsh, working conditions.

She is wanted at 6 am, or before, and keeps busy all day till bed time at 10 or 11 pm. 'No followers allowed', not even a brother or sister, lest they should eat or drink something, or take something home. The poor girl cannot sit with the 'family' — she is 'only a servant', and therefore has only the kitchen to sit in if she has any leisure. If there are any grown-up sons, she is liable to instant dismissal if one of them is seen speaking to her, and the daughters order her about as if she were a convict.

'"Missus" — From Sarah Jane's point of view' in The Bulletin, *23 June 1883*

6.7 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain why many workers had to put up with very long working hours during the nineteenth century.
2. Why did employers often employ children? What benefits did this give them?

Apply your understanding

3. Read **Source 3**. According to the writer, why is domestic service difficult work? Try to give four or five reasons in your own words.
4. Look closely at **Sources 1** and **2**. Using these sources as your evidence, write a description of what factory work would have been like for men and women in the late nineteenth century.
5. In what ways did developments in machinery, technology and communication change working patterns in the late nineteenth century?
6. How would you have coped being a factory worker in the late 1800s, dressing as they did, and living, say, five kilometres walking distance from your workplace?
   (a) What aspects (physical and/or psychological) would you have found most difficult?
   (b) What sort of qualities of character do you think teenagers generally had then, working under these conditions? What does it say about their attitudes and values?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 6.3: Changing jobs and conditions

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

› **Living and working in Australia**

6.8 Trade unions and political parties

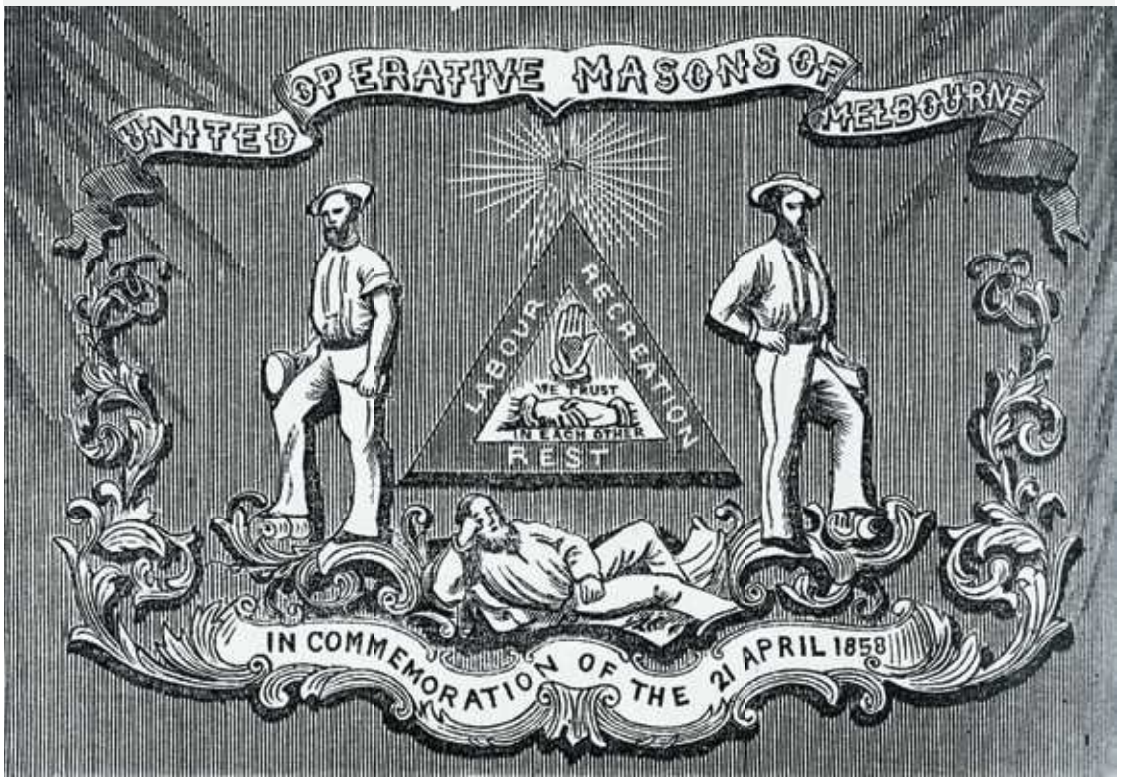
6.8.1 Australian trade unions develop

Most nations believe that there are characteristics that make their people distinctive. In the late nineteenth century many Australians came to believe the most important part of the Australian identity — the most typical Australian characteristic — was 'mateship', which was demonstrated by ordinary people standing by each other in the struggle to overcome tough conditions and injustice. For those who thought this way, the development of trade unionism was a continuation of a tradition that went back to the Eureka Stockade.

Trade unionism has been a very important influence on Australian life. Trade unions are formed by employees within an occupation or industry to bargain with employers for improved wages and conditions. They also try to ensure that any previously gained social improvements are kept. Australia inherited its trade union traditions from Britain, and for much of the twentieth century Australia had one of the highest levels of trade union membership in the world.

The first Australian trade unions were formed in the 1840s. They were temporarily broken up by the gold rushes but were soon reorganised. By the 1850s many trade unions had been formed. This growth brought about the establishment of the Melbourne Trades Hall Committee, a central organisation of **affiliated unions**. Its first meeting in 1859 was held in Lygon Street in Melbourne at the site where the Victorian Trades Hall Council building now stands.

SOURCE 1 A banner for the United Operative Masons of Melbourne, commemorating this union's achievement of an eight-hour working day



DID YOU KNOW?

In 1855 unions commenced a campaign for an eight-hour working day. This was first won by stonemasons in Melbourne in 1856, reducing their working hours to 48 hours a week.

6.8.2 Tactics and policies

Unions used strikes and pickets to win their objectives. The first full-scale union picket was staged during the Bootmakers' Union strike in 1884. Unions also held strikes to protest against businesses employing Chinese workers, who were paid at much lower rates than Europeans. At its first meeting, in Sydney in 1879, the Inter-Colonial Trade Union Congress (later the **Australian Council of Trade Unions** or **ACTU**) unanimously opposed Chinese immigration.

SOURCE 2 Trade unionists with their banner in Broken Hill, NSW, around 1911

Exploitation of women

Women were exploited even more than men. They experienced harsh working conditions, long hours and lower rates of pay. The first colonial women's trade union was the Melbourne Tailoresses' Union. Founded in 1882, it campaigned against wage cuts for already poorly paid female workers in the clothing industry. Its campaign led to a parliamentary inquiry into **sweated labour**, and the establishment of boards to ensure that standards were in place for wages, working hours and conditions.

Factions and political parties

Workers could have improved their conditions by electing representatives to fight for their rights in the colonial parliaments. At first, however, factions and pressure groups dominated colonial politics. The main groups were the protectionists and the free traders. Both represented the interests of businesspeople. The issue of free trade versus protection of local industries (by charging duties on imports) deeply divided the colonies. In New South Wales there was strong support for free trade while Victoria supported protection.

Political parties began to emerge in the late 1880s as the protectionists and free traders became more organised. The most significant step in the development of political parties, however, was the birth of the Labour parties. Since its inception, the Australian Labor Party (ALP) has had links with the trade union movement. Formed in 1891, it is the oldest political party in Australia, and one of the oldest Labour parties in the world.

6.8.3 The great strikes of the 1890s

Trade unions achieved many of their goals up until the end of the 1880s. However, when a severe economic depression began in 1890, employers organisations fought back. Employers said they were fighting for 'freedom of contract', the right to hire workers who were not union members and to pay them less than the wages that had been won by the unions.

The result was a series of great strikes between 1890 and 1894. The 1890 maritime strike affected all the eastern colonies and involved wharf labourers, seamen, ships' officers, transport workers and shearers. The 1891 shearers' strike saw armed clashes between shearers on the one hand and strike-breakers, the army

SOURCE 3 A portrait of shearers as 'unionist prisoners'. This photograph was taken at Barcaldine, Queensland, in November 1893 to mark the gaoling of 13 shearer union leaders.

SOURCE 4 This news report describes what happened when unionists attempted to stop strike-breakers working at Port Adelaide during the 1890 maritime strike.

About 6 a.m. a large body of unionists had assembled on the wharfs, but nothing serious occurred until about 8 o'clock, when some non-unionists were returning from work along Maclaren wharf and proceeding to the labour bureau for breakfast. They were surrounded by a body of unionists, who commenced to hoot, jeer, and illtreat them. One of the men being rather roughly handled drew a revolver, which he pointed at the unionists, but happily did not fire. The police arriving on the spot arrested three of the unionists and took the weapon away from the non-unionist, but the owner [of the revolver] was not apprehended …

Published in The Advertiser *(Adelaide), 29 October 1890*

SOURCE 5 Townsville Mounted Infantry in Hughenden, Queensland, during the 1891 shearers' strike

and police on the other at Barcaldine in Queensland. The strike ended after four months; thirteen of its leaders were arrested and sentenced to three years hard labour. These strikes were followed by the Broken Hill miners' strike in 1892 and a further strike of shearers and other bush workers in 1893–94.

Electing workers' representatives

The strikes failed because the employers were able to find strike-breakers to carry out much of the work and could use the law against the strikers. The failure of the strikes, the support the employers had from governments and the gaoling of union leaders made unionists realise they needed new tactics. They now thought they would have to get workers' representatives into parliament to change the laws. Labour parties were set up in each colony. Unionists believed that Labour party candidates elected to parliament would defend the interests of the workers who put them there.

6.8.4 Forming the ALP

Australia's first labour government — indeed the first labour government in the world — was elected in Queensland in 1899. It lasted only seven days. A **minority government** had been formed, with Anderson Dawson as the state's first labour premier. It ended a week later when motions enabling it to continue to govern were defeated.

In their formative years, the colonial labour parties were influenced by the trade unions, but were not restricted to only trade union interests. The parties also wanted the support of farmers, small business and non-union employees, including 'white collar workers'. The influence of the trade unions on policy, however, remained high.

SOURCE 6 Wives of unionist miners attacking strike-breakers with sticks and broom handles during the re-opening of the Broken Hill mines in 1892

The Australian Labour Party entered federal politics at Federation, following the first Commonwealth elections in 1901. It comprised 16 members who had been elected to the first sitting of the House of Representatives and eight Senators. It was not until 1908 that the spelling of the party's name was changed to 'Labor'. The American spelling recognised that many of the ideas of the American 'labor' movement were dominant internationally and influenced the early tactics of the ALP.

6.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What were the aims of trade unions?
2. What tactics did they use to fight for these goals?
3. What economic reasons did trade unions have for opposing Chinese immigration?
4. From what you have learned about racism during the gold rushes, do you think racist ideas could also have motivated unions to oppose Chinese immigration?
5. Whose interests did Free Traders and Protectionists represent, and what was the main difference between these two parties?
6. Work in small groups to suggest reasons why employers chose a time of economic depression to try to break the unions.

7. List the reasons for the failure of the Great Strikes of the 1890s.
8. What benefits did unionists expect to gain by having Labour representatives in colonial parliaments?

Apply your understanding

9. Look carefully at **Sources 1** and **2**.
   (a) What event is commemorated in **Source 1**?
   (b) Why would a union regard this event as worthy of commemoration?
   (c) Describe the appearance of the unionists in **Source 2** and explain why they might have dressed this way. (*Hint:* What image of unionism is suggested?)
   (d) Why might the slogan on the banner in **Source 2** have been chosen?
10. Using **Source 4** as your evidence, suggest reasons why unionists might have felt that the government and police were on the side of the employers and strike-breakers.
11. We live in a time of falling trade union membership. Using the information in this subtopic, design a leaflet that could be used by the union movement to encourage today's young workers to join unions.
12. Imagine you are a reporter in the 1890s.
   (a) Using the information and sources in this subtopic as evidence, write a newspaper report on the strikes of the 1890s.
   (b) Make a list of other evidence you would need to fill in the gaps and present a more complete account of the causes, events and results of the great strikes of the 1890s.
13. In small groups, discuss what issues workers face today and whether you think they benefit from having Labor governments in power.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 6.4: Workers find their voice

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Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Workers' reforms**

6.9 Nationalism and Australian identity

6.9.1 Radical and nationalist

By the late nineteenth century two very different kinds of nationalism existed in Australia. A majority of Australians were what historians have called 'imperial loyalists'. They thought of themselves as Australian Britons and felt deep loyalty to Britain and the British Empire. A different kind of sentiment was felt by Australians whom historians have called 'radical nationalists'. Such nationalists believed that Australia should be independent from Britain and should create a society that was fairer and more **egalitarian** than Britain's.

Radical nationalists saw the typical Australian as a bush worker, like the gold rush diggers and the unionist

SOURCE 1 Extract from Banjo Paterson's 1889 poem *Clancy of the Overflow*

In my wild erratic fancy visions come to me of Clancy
Gone a-droving 'down the Cooper' where the Western drovers go;
As the stock are slowly stringing, Clancy rides behind them singing,
For the drover's life has pleasures that the townsfolk never know.
And the bush hath friends to meet him, and their kindly voices greet him
In the murmur of the breezes and the river on its bars,
And he sees the vision splendid of the sunlit plains extended,
And at night the wond'rous glory of the everlasting stars.
I am sitting in my dingy little office, where a stingy
Ray of sunlight struggles feebly down between the houses tall,
And the foetid air and gritty of the dusty, dirty city
Through the open window floating, spreads its foulness over all.

shearers and drovers. He was seen as independent, opposed to class distinctions and English snobbishness, and loyal to his mates. Women usually had very little part in this image. Many Australian short stories, poems and artworks of the 1880s and 1890s depict such 'typical Australians'.

SOURCE 2 *The golden fleece*, painted by Tom Roberts in 1894

6.9.2 Racism

Racism was part of both kinds of Australian nationalism. Imperial loyalists believed that Britain had the right to rule over other races they believed were inferior to the British. Radical nationalists wanted to create a workers' paradise in Australia, but they thought this dream could be achieved only by keeping out non-Europeans, who they believed did not share their values and whose cheap labour would be used to destroy the gains won by Australian workers.

6.9.3 Literature

Even before stories and poems about the bush were published, there were traditions of storytelling and singing among rural itinerant workers. These had developed from old convict ballads and Irish songs. Writers such as Andrew 'Banjo' Paterson drew on these traditions to create ballads about the bush and its heroic characters. Paterson's works include *Waltzing Matilda, Clancy of the Overflow* and *The Man from Snowy River*.

SOURCE 3 Henry Lawson

Henry Lawson also wrote about people living in the bush. His mother, Louisa, was an early Australian campaigner for women's rights, and her strong influence is seen in some of the female characters that feature in Lawson's stories. *The Drover's Wife* depicts a brave and resilient woman protecting her children while her husband is away for long periods.

Paterson and Lawson both contributed to a literary journal called *The Bulletin*. It promoted political ideas such as **republicanism** and white superiority. Its slogan was 'Australia for the White Man'.

SOURCE 4 Extract from *The Drover's Wife* by Henry Lawson

She is not a coward, but recent events have shaken her nerves. A little son of her brother-in-law was lately bitten by a snake, and died. Besides she has not heard from her husband for six months, and is anxious about him …

… She is used to being left alone. She once lived like this for eighteen months. As a girl she built the usual castles in the air, but all her girlish hopes and aspirations have long been dead. She finds all the excitement and recreation she needs in the Young Ladies' Journal, and Heaven help her! takes a pleasure in the fashion plates …

… One of the children died while she was here alone. She rode nineteen miles for assistance, carrying the dead child.

SOURCE 5 Written by Henry Lawson, published in *The Bulletin* in 1887

A Song of the Republic
Sons of the South, awake! arise!
Sons of the South, and do.
Banish from under your bonny skies
Those old-world errors and wrongs and lies.
Making a hell in a Paradise
That belongs to your sons and you.
Sons of the South, make choice between
(Sons of the South, choose true),
The Land of Morn and the Land of E'en,
The Old Dead Tree and the Young Tree Green,
The Land that belongs to the lord and the Queen,
And the Land that belongs to you.
…
Sons of the South, aroused at last!
Sons of the South are few!
But your ranks grow longer and deeper fast,
And ye shall swell to an army vast,
And free from the wrongs of the North and Past
The land that belongs to you.

6.9 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain the differences between the ideas of imperial loyalists and radical nationalists.
2. What qualities were associated with bush workers?
3. What political ideas did *The Bulletin* promote?

Apply your understanding

4. Form small groups to discuss the way the lives of bush workers are depicted in **Sources 1** and **2**.
5. How do such depictions help you to understand why, while most Australians lived in cities and towns, the white, male bush worker was seen as the 'typical Australian'?
6. What does **Source 4** suggest about the qualities of bush women?
7. Read **Source 5** and answer the following questions:
   (a) What kinds of 'old-world errors and wrongs and lies' do you think Lawson wanted to banish?
   (b) Which countries do you think Lawson was referring to as 'The Land of Morn [morning] and the Land of E'en [evening]' and 'The Old Dead Tree and the Young Tree Green'?
   (c) What kind of Australia was Lawson calling for in this poem?
8. Use your library and the internet to find out more about Henry Lawson. Evaluate his contribution to creating a sense of Australian identity.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 6.5: Australian identity: comparing sources

6.10 SkillBuilder: Analysing cartoons on social issues

6.10.1 What are cartoons?

Cartoons are usually ink drawings created for newspapers or magazines to provide humorous or critical comment on current events and issues. *The Bulletin* (see topic 6.9 Nationalism and Australian identity) often used cartoons to promote its ideas about republicanism, race, 'bush values', nationalism and trade unionism. Strong political cartoons also appeared in trade union newspapers such as *The Sydney Worker* and *The Brisbane Worker*.

Why are cartoons useful as historical sources?

Cartoons are interesting primary sources for a study of Australia in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. They provide us with information about what some people thought about events and issues of their times. Cartoons often:

- use caricatures (exaggerating some characteristics) to make fun of particular groups or attitudes
- use humour to make serious comments about events and issues
- employ symbolism and other artistic techniques.

6.10.2 How to analyse a cartoon

To effectively analyse a cartoon, you need to understand the techniques used to create such art. You should begin by examining a cartoon in much the same way as any other source. You need to ask:

1. Who created the cartoon and who published it?
2. When and where was it published?
3. What is the significance of the publisher, the time and the place?
4. Why was it created? (What events or issues is it concerned with?)
5. What is its message? (This may be biased. It may come partly through the drawing and partly through the caption.)
6. How does it convey its message? (What are the features of the drawing that convey the message? Is it done through caricature or some other device?)

The cartoon in **Source 1** deals with an issue in subtopic 6.8. The annotations below explain how the cartoon is designed and how it conveys its message.

SOURCE 1 The Labour Crisis. Capital: 'See here, my man, one of us must either go back or else lie down and let the other walk over him. Now which of us shall it be? — (And that is now the question.)

The Bulletin, 16 August 1890

Who?

The signature in the bottom right corner shows that it was drawn by Hop (Livingston Hopkins), *The Bulletin's* first cartoonist and that it was published in *The Bulletin*.

When and where?

The Bulletin was published in Sydney, Australia, and was considered a radical (taking an extreme position) journal at the time. The time and place are significant because this was the year that Australia experienced the maritime strike, involving workers from a range of industries, over the issue of 'freedom of contract' versus union rights.

Why?

The cartoon was created to comment on this confrontation between workers and employers.

What is the message?

Hop is saying that the confrontation between workers and employers will be huge and unavoidable. Only one side can win and the outcome is yet unknown.

How does it convey its message?

The two figures are both caricatures, not of individuals but of social types. They are stereotypes (images that someone may have based on preconceived ideas). Note their dress, build and position of hands and heads.

(a) The fat man represents the employers or 'Capital'. His dress, build and body language suggest he is greedy, powerful, arrogant and used to getting his own way.
(b) The well-built man represents the workers or 'Labour'. His clothing, including rolled up sleeves, the position of his head and hands and the way he stands suggest he is honest, hard working, strong and determined to stand up for his rights.
(c) They are positioned on a narrow bridge labelled 'Capital and Labor issues'. Below them is a deep gorge. Only one can go forward and if neither backs down, then one or the other is sure to be seriously harmed by his fall. The bridge is already buckling under their weight, suggesting a speedy resolution is needed.
(d) Hop's sympathies are made clear by the contrast between the two figures — the defiant figure of the worker and the bloated, arrogant figure of the employer.
(e) The caption simply reinforces the message already represented in the drawing.

SOURCE 2 ENVY — AN EVERYDAY STREET SCENE 'What is the crowd about?' 'Oh, one man has actually managed to get work and the rest of them are assembled to marvel at the strange sight.'
The Bulletin, 6 October 1894

6.10.3 Developing my skills

Ask and answer the questions that were used to analyse **Source 1** to carry out your own analysis of **Source 2**.

7. Who?
8. When and where?
9. Why?
10. What is the message?
11. How does it convey its message?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 6.6: Cartoon capers

6.11 Voting rights for women

6.11.1 Women in the workforce

During the nineteenth century there was great social inequality between the sexes. Most rewarding jobs were closed to women, who usually had to give up their jobs when they married. Women were expected to devote their lives to their family, yet they had little power within marriage. Many people came to see that women's **suffrage** was needed as a first step towards overcoming such inequalities.

In the paid workforce, women were paid much less than men even for the same work. In the clothing trade, women worked up to 90 hours a week. Female domestic servants received very small wages, board and leftover food for working 14-hour days with only occasional weekends off. A skilled tradesman earned five times as much but even his wage was barely enough for rent, food and other essentials for a family.

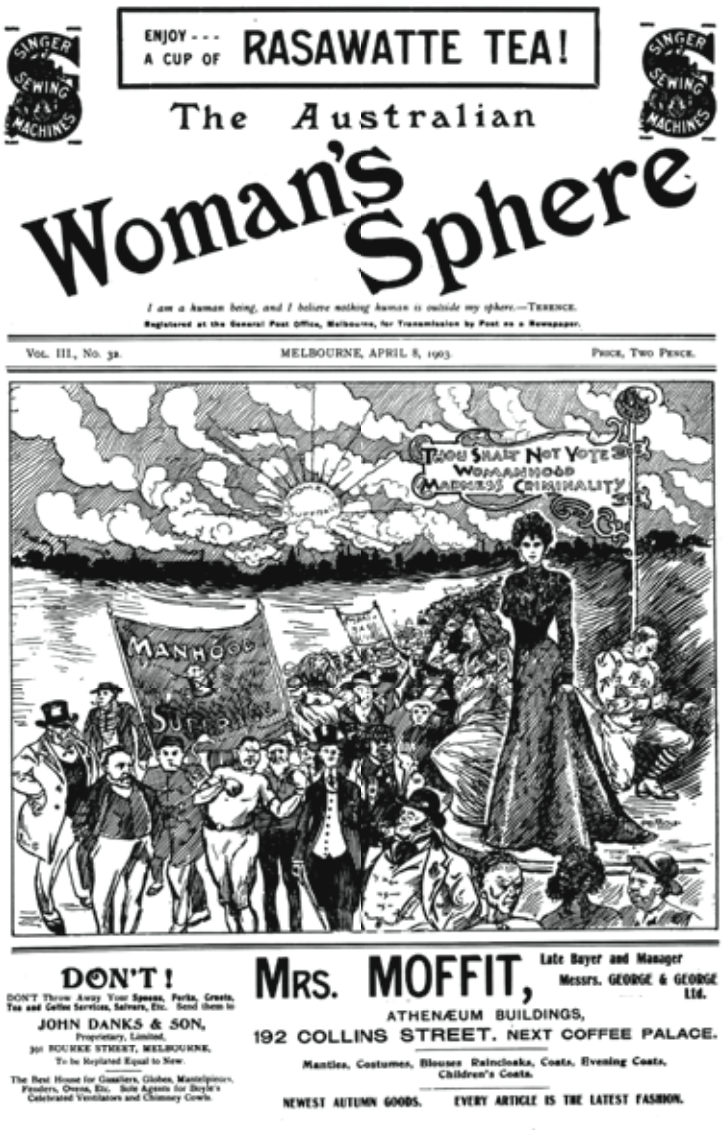
Fighting for women's political rights

Laws on marriage, divorce, property and custody of children all favoured men. Change could come only through political action. In the late nineteenth century women formed organisations in each Australian colony to campaign for the right to vote. Many hoped that women's votes would force governments to make better laws to protect the rights of women and children.

In New South Wales in 1888 Louisa Lawson (the mother of Henry Lawson) founded a newspaper called *The Dawn* to make people aware of women's issues. In 1889 she founded the Dawn Club to campaign for women's suffrage. In 1891 women's suffrage societies presented the Victorian Parliament with a petition with more than 30 000 signatures supporting votes for women. Vida Goldstein was an equally important campaigner for women's rights. She was born in 1869 in Melbourne, where she worked for slum clearance, prison reform and votes for women. In 1899 she became president of the Women's Suffrage League.

In 1894 South Australian women gained the vote. New Zealand women had led the way, gaining voting rights in 1893. Women won the vote in Western Australia in 1899, federal government elections and New South Wales in 1902, Tasmania in 1903, Queensland in 1905 and Victoria in 1908.

SOURCE 1 The front cover of *The Woman's Sphere*, 8 April 1903



6.11.2 Women in Parliament

Only South Australia and the Commonwealth had given women the right to stand for election to Parliament as well as to vote. The right of women to stand for election to Parliament was won in New South Wales in 1918, Western Australia in 1920, Tasmania in 1921 and Victoria in 1923. In 1921, with her election to the lower house of Western Australia, Edith Cowan became Australia's first female member of Parliament.

Vida Goldstein fights on

Vida Goldstein ran two magazines for women's rights: *The Woman's Sphere* (1900–05) and *The Woman Voter* (1909–19). She stood for election to the Senate on five occasions without

success. However, she received many votes from men and women, and her election campaigns increased awareness of the unfair way women were treated. In 1903, she was guest speaker at a women's meeting in the United States and, from 1911 to 1913, she helped the British women's suffrage movement. In Britain the vote was not extended to all adult women until 1928.

SOURCE 2 A portrait of Vida Goldstein, painted in 1944 by Phyl Waterhouse

SOURCE 3 *Here, you man! Where's that vote you promised me?* This cartoon was published in *The Worker,* a Queensland trade union newspaper, on 17 November 1900.

DID YOU KNOW?

Vida Goldstein supported trade unions and **socialism**. During the First World War (1914–18) she campaigned for peace even though this lost her many supporters. In 1919 she represented Australia at the Geneva Women's Peace Conference. She died in 1949. An electorate in Melbourne is now named after her.

6.11 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Create a timeline of developments in the struggle for women's political rights between 1888 and 1921.
2. How were women disadvantaged in political rights, in families and in the workforce?
3. How did Louisa Lawson and Vida Goldstein contribute to the struggle for equal rights?

Apply your understanding

4. What does **Source 1** say about discrimination against women?
5. Look at **Sources 1** and **2**. Imagine you are Vida Goldstein and you have just read a newspaper article ridiculing your work. Write a letter to the editor arguing for your views.
6. Use the five questions provided in subtopic 6.10 SkillBuilder to analyse the cartoon in **Source 3**.

6.12 Federation

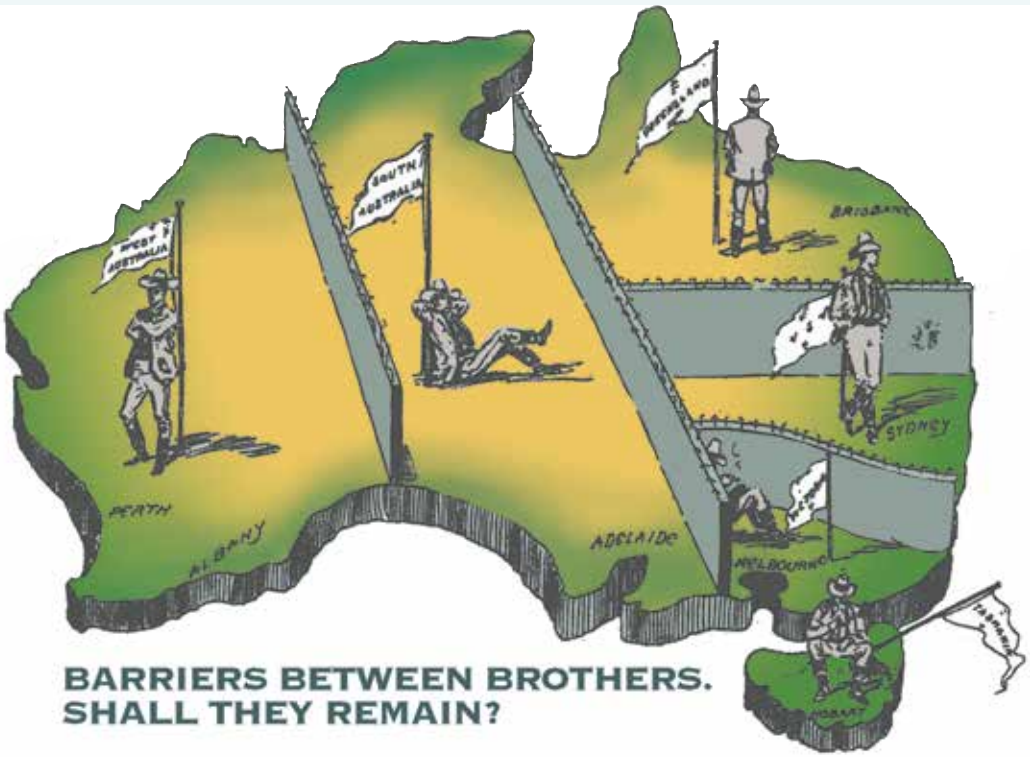
6.12.1 Why federate?

By 1880, the six British colonies were getting closer to merging as one nation. For the next 20 years, the issue of **Federation** dominated political discussion between the colonies until, on 1 January 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed.

Between 1855 and 1860 all colonies except Western Australia had their own governments. However, they governed independently of each other. For instance, laws concerning trade and **tariffs**, postal services, railway line widths, internal telegraph systems and defence forces differed from colony to colony.

These differences caused many frustrations, especially for those conducting business. Mindful of this, politicians began debating the pros and cons of having a government for the whole country that had some common functions and laws, while allowing certain powers to remain with the colonies.

SOURCE 1 This 1891 newspaper cartoon (with colour added) summed up the way many people saw the colonies at the time. The 'stone walls' were more than just custom duties, though. There were many other factors separating the colonies.



National defence

By the 1880s, three security issues worried the colonial governments in Australia.

1. The French had been interested in the country from the 1770s, and had a colonial presence in New Caledonia. This was close enough to the Australian east coast for French warships to create problems if relations between Britain and France ever worsened.
2. Germany had established colonial outposts in Northern New Guinea and Samoa, posing a potential threat to colonial sea routes.
3. Russia's Pacific Fleet was especially a potential threat after the **Crimean War**. Fortifications had been built to protect many Australian ports and harbours.

Immigration concerns

There was growing suspicion about the large number of non-Europeans coming into the country. The experience of the gold rushes had made many wary of the Chinese. When South Sea Islanders were brought into Queensland (as virtual slave labour), many colonists feared this meant they would lose jobs or have reduced wages. (These forced immigrants worked for much less than colonist workers.) This unrest allowed politicians to argue for a national policy enforcing Australia as a white British outpost.

Common railway gauges

The width of railway lines differed between colonies. This meant people had to change trains and goods had to be transferred from one train to another at the borders. Also, it was argued that a common railway gauge would be vital in any military crisis.

Reliable communications

As the population grew, the demand for reliable, coordinated postal and telegraph services strengthened. Only a national government could guarantee this.

6.12.2 Countdown to Federation

1886 — Federal council meets

- The Federal Council of Australasia was set up, and a meeting attended by delegates from all six colonies, and from New Zealand and Fiji.
- The main purpose of the meeting was to agree to ask Britain to guarantee it would defend the colonies if they were ever threatened.

1889 — Henry parkes talks to tenterfield locals

- Sir Henry Parkes (1815–1896), an outspoken and controversial politician, was a prominent supporter of Federation.
- He was premier of New South Wales five times.
- In August 1889, en route to Sydney from Brisbane by train, he stopped in Tenterfield. He spoke to a hall full of locals at a function, challenging them (and all colonists) to think 'national'.
- '… I do see very clearly that there may come a time and that time not very remote, when the Australian colonies may be brought more into the position of one great and united people. We should have an outline of Empire, such as we could never hope for as isolated colonies, and our place would be admitted in the rank of nations.'

SOURCE 2 Sir Henry Parkes

1891 — A national constitution drafted

- By the 1890s, it was increasingly apparent to politicians and businessmen that colonists shared a common language and values. A national identity was emerging.
- An Australasian Convention was held, attended by leading politicians from the six colonies and from New Zealand. The purpose was to draft a national constitution.
- The draft for a constitution proposed a federal government and state governments, free trade between the colonies and a national defence force. However, due to the 1890s depression and strikes, the federation issue was put aside.

1893 — The Corowa Conference

- Economic issues were the focus at this conference of politicians and businessmen.
- The issue discussed most fiercely was the import/export tariffs each colony imposed. People and goods on trains were searched at borders, as a change of train was required, to ensure no smuggling was taking place and that appropriate customs duties were paid.
- Delegate Quick from Victoria proposed that colonial governments ask their voters to elect representatives for a Federal Constitutional Convention.

1897–98 — Federal Constitutional Convention

- From this convention (attended by representatives from colonies chosen by the people), a draft constitution was taken back to the five colonial governments. The draft plan saw a two-house federal parliament with an upper house of review that would represent states equally and protect rights.
- Delegates re-assembled in Sydney in September (and again in January 1898 in Melbourne) to consider amendments from the colonial parliaments. Free trade between states, and the national management of immigration and defence were key issues.
- On 16 March 1898, the convention agreed on a draft constitution to be put to the voters of all colonies. (Western Australian and Queensland parliaments were still to agree at this point.)

SOURCE 3 The badge of the Australian Federation League of New South Wales between 1898 and 1901

April 1899 to July 1900 — The referendum

- Votes were cast. After some revotes and a delayed vote in Western Australia, the referendum was completed by July 1900. The majority of voters gave their support for a national government, the Commonwealth of Australia, to be set up in line with the terms laid out in the draft constitution.
- State (formerly colonial) constitutions were recognised in the proposed federal constitution; however, federal laws would overrule any state law where there was a common issue.
- In the referendum result a majority of votes were cast for Federation but only 61% of those who had the right to vote took part. So, in fact, less than half the colony's voters actually voted for Federation. This demonstrates that many Australians were confused or uncertain about its meaning.

1900 — Australia becomes a nation

- A group of delegates (one notable politician from each colony) travelled to London to have the draft constitution passed by the British Parliament. The British State Secretary responsible for colonies wanted to make amendments but the delegates stood firm.
- The Australian Constitution was passed by the British Parliament, with the British monarch, Queen Victoria, giving it royal assent in September 1900. It set out the rules and principles for governing Australia and outlined the powers of the federal parliament and some powers of state parliaments.

1901 — Federation

- The Governor-General representing Queen Victoria swore in Sir Edmund Barton and eight chosen ministers on 1 January 1901. (They would act as a caretaker government until the first national elections could be held in March 1901.)
- After this swearing in, the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed by Sir Edmund Barton in Centennial Park, Sydney.
- All over Australia on 1 January 1901 there were celebrations. Public buildings were decorated and special arches built over city thoroughfares. There were parties, dances and sports meetings. In the evening, the action continued with fireworks displays.
- The Commonwealth of Australia now existed. However, it was still a **British Dominion**. Australia's allegiance to the British monarch was indicated by the role of the Governor-General, who represented the monarch.

SOURCE 4 The opening of the first Commonwealth Parliament at the Exhibition Building, Melbourne, 9 May 1901

6.12.3 Since 1901

Australia ceased being a British Dominion in 1941, and the last legal ties were severed with Britain in 1986. But Australia still has the British monarch's representative, the Governor-General, giving royal assent (approval) to all federal laws.

The Australian Constitution can be changed only by a referendum and then only if the majority of voters *and* the majority of states vote for the proposed change to the Constitution.

The biggest challenge for Australians in the future is whether our country will become a republic, with a new constitution, flag and bill of rights.

SOURCE 5 Queen Victoria's royal assent for the creation of the Commonwealth of Australia in September 1900

Commonwealth of Australia Gazette.

PUBLISHED BY AUTHORITY.

No. 1.] TUESDAY, 1 JANUARY. [1901.

By the QUEEN.

A PROCLAMATION.

VICTORIA R.

WHEREAS by an Act of Parliament passed in the Sixty-third and Sixty-fourth Years of Our Reign intituled, "An Act to constitute the Commonwealth of *Australia*," it is enacted that it shall be lawful for the Queen, with the advice of the Privy Council, to declare by Proclamation, that, on and after a day therein appointed, not being later than One Year after the passing of this Act, the people of *New South Wales*, *Victoria*, *South Australia*, *Queensland*, and *Tasmania*, and also, if Her Majesty is satisfied that the people of *Western Australia* have agreed thereto, of *Western Australia*, shall be united in a Federal Commonwealth under the name of the Commonwealth of Australia.

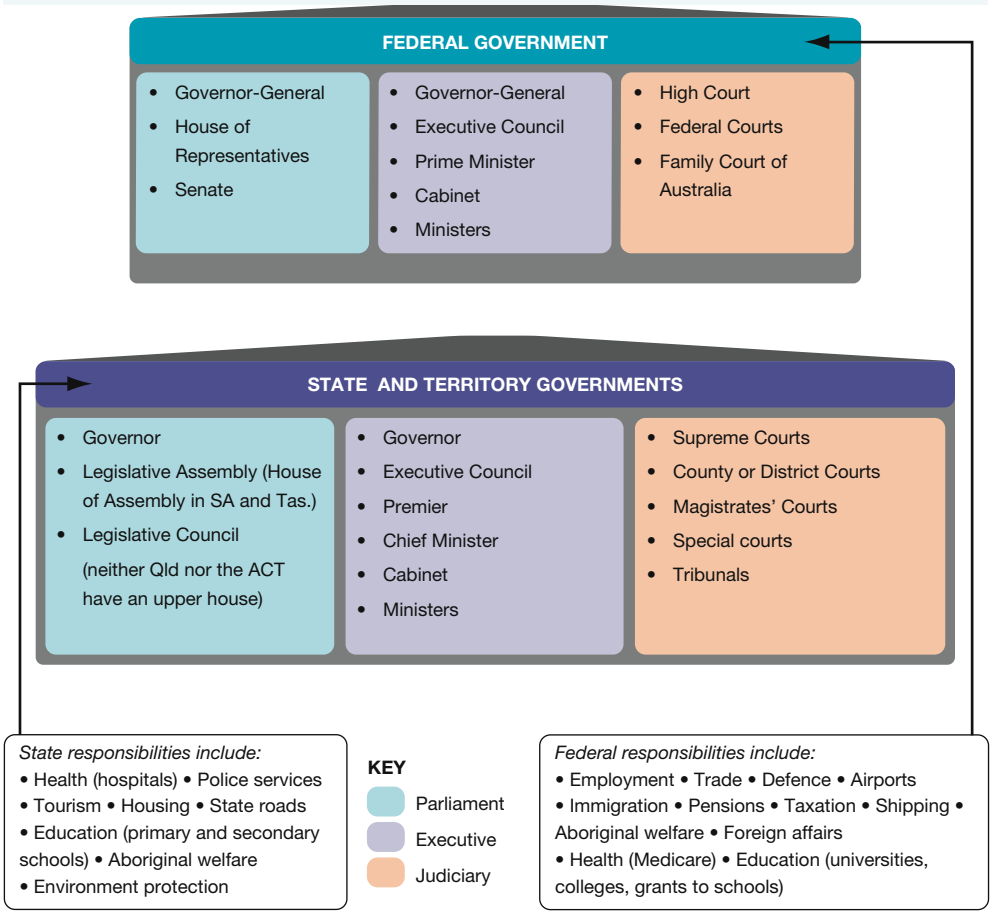
And whereas We are satisfied that the people of *Western Australia* have agreed thereto accordingly.

We, therefore, by and with the advice of Our Privy Council, have thought fit to issue this Our Royal Proclamation, and We do hereby declare that on and after the First day of *January* One thousand nine hundred and one the people of *New South Wales*, *Victoria*, *South Australia*, *Queensland*, *Tasmania*, and *Western Australia* shall be united in a Federal Commonwealth under the name of the Commonwealth of *Australia*.

Given at Our Court at *Balmoral*, this Seventeenth day of *September*, in the Year of our Lord One thousand nine hundred, and in the Sixty-fourth Year of Our Reign.

GOD SAVE THE QUEEN!

SOURCE 6 Federal government and state governments in Australia today, as described under the Constitution



6.12 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why was the idea of national unity becoming more popular among colonists from about the 1880s on? List four primary concerns.
2. Imagine you are a businessperson in 1893 who is becoming angry and frustrated by differences between the colonies. Write a letter home to your family explaining the problems of a particularly stressful week.
3. Use the information in this subtopic to construct a timeline of the key events leading up to Australia's Federation.
4. Use information in this subtopic to make a 'for and against' Federation poster. It must list reasons for each case, and be visually attractive. You may need to carry out extra research. Set yourself a realistic plan to produce it, and monitor your progress.

Apply your understanding

5. Study **Source 1** carefully. Explain the posture or actions of the characters in each state. What do these suggest about state attitudes in 1891 to Federation?
6. Look closely at **Source 3**:
   (a) What was the message of this badge?
   (b) Do you think Federation would really have made all people in Australia feel they were one people with one destiny?
   (c) Which groups would have had good reasons not to think so?
7. Why are **Sources 4** and **5** important sources of evidence about Federation?
8. Why was Western Australia singled out for special consideration in **Source 5**?

9. Look carefully at **Source 6**, and answer these questions.
   (a) List three responsibilities of:
      (i) the federal government
      (ii) state governments today.
   (b) Find an area of responsibility shared across the federal government and state governments, and explain how the responsibilities are divided. Why do you think this is so?
   (c) Why do you think the federal government is responsible for defence and immigration?
10. Examine the statistics presented in Table 1 about the referendum vote.

TABLE 1 Referendum vote on the Commonwealth bill, 1899–1900

Name of colony	Commonwealth referendum			
	Date	Yes	No	Total
New South Wales	20.6.1899	107 420	82 741	190 161
Victoria	27.7.1899	152 653	9 805	162 458
Tasmania	—	13 437	791	14 228
South Australia Northern Territory	29.4.1899 6.5.1899	65 990	17 053	83 043
Queensland	2.10.1899	38 488	30 996	69 484
Western Australia	31.7.1900	44 800	19 691	64 491
Total		422 788	161 077	583 865

   (a) Which colony had the highest percentage of:
      (i) yes votes
      (ii) no votes?
   (b) Can you suggest reasons?
   (c) Explain why these statistics meant that the referendum proposal was approved.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 6.7: Federation: Why? How?

Explore more with this weblink: The Australian Constitution

6.13 The early Commonwealth

6.13.1 Working-class living conditions

By 1914 many people regarded the newly formed Australian nation as a 'workers' paradise'. They believed Australians were fairly equal and Australia was different from older societies. This view was based on reforms that took place between 1904 and 1912 and on Australian workers' living standards. But was Australia really so egalitarian?

In 1901 Australia's population of less than 4 million was mostly concentrated in New South Wales and Victoria. Thirty-six per cent of the New South Wales population lived in Sydney and forty-one per cent of Victoria's population lived in Melbourne. In working-class inner-city suburbs many people lived in rows of cramped slums near factories. Semi-skilled and unskilled workers rarely earned enough to buy houses, so most paid rent all their lives for cramped dwellings that were overcrowded and unhealthy. In contrast, wealthier suburbs had large houses with spacious grounds. There was an equally wide disparity in living standards in the bush.

SOURCE 1 From Irene Moores, 'Rabbit-O, Bottle-O, Pennies from Heaven: Hugo Street, 1909', *Sydney Morning Herald*, 23 January 1982

Forty cramped terraces ranged on each side … their balconies overhanging the absurdly narrow footpaths … Each day began with the sloshing of the houses' sills with buckets of water. This cleansed away the sooty factory outfall … A good meal could be made with the addition of waste vegetables — outsize cabbage leaves and such, salvaged from the markets and brought home in billy-carts …

The shopkeepers adjusted to the sale of commodities in the smallest amounts. Deftly-folded paper cones held the [small] weightings of sugar, salt, flour, rice, sago and the quarter-pound package of tea, butter, cheese and cold meats comprising one meal at a time …

At the end of the day a sickly street lamp lit the stage for each night's unpredictable drama. Invariably, arranged fights took place in the lanes.

SOURCE 2 Slum housing in Gloucester Street, Sydney, in 1900

SOURCE 3 Protesting workers in Albert Square, Brisbane, during the 1912 general strike. The strike lasted 18 days. It began when the Tramways Company refused to permit workers to wear their union badges.

Despite such inequalities, skilled workers enjoyed better pay and conditions than workers in Britain, Europe or America. Many less skilled employees worked long hours for low pay but Australia led the world in working conditions, industrial relations and social welfare.

6.13.2 A growing economy

Reforms were possible because this was a time of economic growth. Australia was a big exporter of primary products such as wheat, wool and frozen meat. Manufacturing was a small part of the economy except in Victoria and New South Wales, where the factory workforce grew from 132 000 to 239 000 between 1901 and 1913. This contributed to the growth of cities. But Australian manufacturing could not compete with cheaper imported goods and depended on government tariffs for protection against foreign competition.

Industrial and welfare reforms

After Federation, the Australian Labor Party (ALP) used its influence in Federal Parliament to bring about industrial and welfare reforms. Such reforms included:

- the creation of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration in 1904 to solve disputes between workers and employers
- the establishment in 1907 of the principle of a basic wage or minimum wage, to which any worker should be entitled (see 'Did you know?' below). Australian wages were based on this principle for the next 60 years.
- the introduction of Commonwealth old age and invalid pensions in 1908
- the payment of compensation for federal government employees injured at work (from 1912)
- the *Maternity Allowances Act 1912*, or 'Baby Bonus', which provided a payment roughly equal to two weeks' pay to a mother on the birth of her child to make sure she could afford proper medical attention.

However, workers still suffered disadvantages and there were many industrial disputes. Rising prices resulted in several big strikes. In some cases the unions won their demands, but the experiences of these years left many workers disillusioned.

DID YOU KNOW?

The idea of the basic wage came about when Justice Higgins of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration had to determine whether H. V. McKay's Sunshine Harvester Company was paying a fair wage and was therefore entitled to be protected by tariffs. Higgins decided that a fair minimum wage would provide for 'the normal needs of the average employee regarded as a human being living in a civilised community'. Higgins determined that this meant a wage of 7 shillings a day for an unskilled worker. A skilled worker had to be paid more.

Political parties and reforms

The ALP was the main influence behind these reforms. The two non-Labor parties were the Protectionists and the Free Traders (who changed their name to Anti-Socialists in 1906). The Protectionists provided Australia's first two prime ministers, Edmund Barton and Andrew Deakin. These parties differed over the issue of free trade versus protection. Until 1908 the Protectionists supported the ALP to achieve social reforms and Labor supported the Protectionists when they wanted to increase tariffs on imported goods. Both Labor and the Protectionists linked protection of Australian manufacturing employers to protection of Australian workers.

This cooperation ended in 1909 when the Anti-Socialists combined with the Protectionists to form the Liberal Party. The new party opposed further social reform. Reforms carried out between 1910 and 1913 were the work of a federal Labor government.

6.13.3 Lifestyles and leisure

There were enormous differences between the early 1900s and the way we live today. Most working-class people had little time or money for recreation, and there were few labour-saving devices for housework. The main recreation of many men was drinking in hotels. More respectable forms of entertainment

included family picnics, short train and ferry trips, dancing, sing-songs around the piano and sporting events, especially cricket and football.

Some technological changes were starting to affect Australians' lives. People with enough money could send telegrams, have gas lights in their homes, travel by steamship and even ride in motor cars. Air travel was only just beginning, with experiments in 1903. The film industry was also in its infancy but the world's first feature film, *The Story of the Kelly Gang*, was made in Australia in 1906 (see **Source 6**).

SOURCE 4 From Albert Metin, a Frenchman who visited Australia at the turn of the century

The Australian workman has become a Gentleman … He changes out of his working clothes at the end of the day, he lodges well, he behaves like a member of decent society. If he has to go to a meeting he will be freshly shaved, neatly dressed and conscious of his appearance … Many keen Labour men say grace at every meal … Everyone can read and libraries are plentiful … Cricket, football, sports of all kinds have their exponents … I was in Melbourne and Sydney at the time of one test [cricket] series and the crowds waiting for the results were nearly as large as those waiting for the result of a federation referendum which was being decided at the same moment.

SOURCE 5 Surf bathing at Manly beach, Sydney, c. 1905

6.13.4 Federal laws and white Australia

One of the first laws passed by the federal government was the Immigration Restriction Act of 1901. It was designed to prevent non-European migrants from coming to Australia. Under this law, anyone the government wanted to keep out could be given a dictation test in any language. No matter how many languages an intending migrant knew, officials could always give the test in another language the person did not know.

The Pacific Islanders Labourers Act was also passed in 1901. It allowed the Commonwealth Government to **deport** Pacific Islanders. Only those who had lived in Australia since 1879 and those born in Australia were allowed to stay. About 48 000 Islanders had been brought to Australia to work on sugar plantations in the late nineteenth century. At the end of 1909 only 1654 remained.

SOURCE 6 A 1910 poster for the world's first feature film, *The Story of the Kelly Gang*

Fear of Asia

Most Australians feared Asia's vast population and closeness to Australia. Australia's small numbers and isolation from its British 'motherland' fuelled these fears. World events such as the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–05 added to these fears. During this conflict Japan defeated Russia. To many white Australians this defeat of a white nation by Asians was unthinkable, even though Japan was Britain's ally. Some wondered whether Britain could be trusted, but they also felt they needed Britain's protection.

6.13 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks.
   (a) Around the early twentieth century many Australian workers lived in _____, near _____.
   (b) Most workers paid rent all of their lives because they were too _____ to _____.
   (c) Upper-class suburbs usually had _____ houses with _____.
2. How was protection meant to help Australian manufacturing?
3. Explain how party politics changed in 1909.
4. How was the dictation test used to discriminate against non-European migrants?
5. Why were Australians so fearful of Asia?
6. Create a timeline of social reforms of this period.

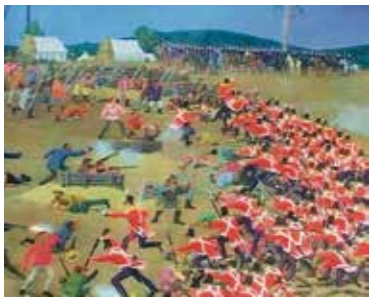
Apply your understanding

7. Read **Source 1**.
   (a) Explain why people began the day by 'sloshing' their window sills.
   (b) What do you think 'billy-carts' were and how were they made?
   (c) Why do you think people bought food in very small amounts?
   (d) What was done for entertainment at night?
8. How does **Source 2** provide supporting evidence for **Source 1**?
9. What does **Source 3** suggest about the influence of trade unionism in this period?
10. Using **Sources 4**, **5** and **6** as your evidence, write a report on leisure and recreation in the first decade of the twentieth century.
11. Design a poster that people could have made to protest about their living conditions.
12. Using the guidelines in subtopic 4.11, the SkillBuilder on planning a history essay, prepare a plan for a seven-paragraph essay answering the following question: *Although the early Australian Commonwealth led the world in industrial and welfare reforms, it was far from deserving to be called a 'workers' paradise'*. Discuss this statement, indicating whether you agree or disagree. In your plan, remember that your first paragraph will state your viewpoint and outline points that will support your argument.

6.14 Research project: Eureka — an interview

6.14.1 Scenario and task

Time Travellers is a well-known radio series that features fictional but historically credible interviews between real historical figures and a time-travelling journalist named Gus. The Royal Australian Historical Society wants you, a respected historian, to construct this kind of historically accurate interview for part of a program about the Eureka Stockade.



Write and record an imaginary radio interview, lasting 3 to 4 minutes, with one of the key figures involved in the Eureka Stockade. Your primary responsibility is to ensure the interview is historically accurate in terms of facts, dates and attitudes.

Your potential interview subjects are:

- Peter Lalor
- George Black (another of the Eureka Stockade ringleaders)
- Peter Martin (who accompanied James Scobie on the night of Scobie's death)
- Lieutenant-Governor Sir Charles Hotham
- James Bentley (owner of the Eureka Hotel).

You could also interview an invented character who was present at the Eureka Stockade during the rebellion. For example, you might be interviewing an officer in charge of arresting the ringleaders. Check with your teacher to see if your invented character is acceptable.

6.14.2 Process

- Access to your learnON title to watch the introductory video lesson. You should complete this project in pairs.
- Research key information about the role of each of the below individuals in the Eureka Stockade.
  - George Black
  - James Bentley
  - Lt Governor Sir Charles Hotham
  - Peter Lalor
  - Peter Martin
- When your research is complete, select a character on which to centre your group's interview. You may need to do further research on this character.
- Navigate to the Resources tab and download the 'Character chart' template. Completing this document will help you explore your character and plan their responses.
- When you have fleshed out your character, download and read the 'Interview planner', which will help you prepare your interview and frame effective journalistic questions. It also includes sections on 'what makes something newsworthy?' and 'writing dialogue that sounds real'. Remember your audience and purpose — to create a simulated radio interview so that the listener feels like the events are current and newsworthy. You are a journalist named Gus and your interview is being conducted in 1854 or very early in 1855.

- Write the first full draft of your interview (it should be about 3 or 4 minutes long or between 2 and 3 double-spaced typed pages). Your teacher may allow you some time to peer-edit someone else's interview. It is a good idea to peer-edit an interview with a different character from yours. Re-draft your interview, based on any constructive feedback you receive.
- Rehearse and record your interview.
- Print your research report and hand it in to your teacher with a copy of your audio file and interview transcript.

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Go online access additional resources such as templates, images and weblinks.

6.15 Review

6.15.1 Review

In this topic we have investigated changes that took place in Australia between the 1850s and the early years of the twentieth century. We have studied rebellion against social conditions and authority, from the Eureka Stockade to the strikes of the 1890s. We have looked at living and working conditions. We have also studied the development of a sense of national identity, Australian attitudes to other races and the outside world, Federation, and the social and political character of the new Australian nation.

KEY TERMS

affiliated unions unions linked with other unions through a wider umbrella organisation
Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) the peak union organisation in Australia
biased prejudiced, leaning to a one-sided view
bookkeeping keeping records of financial accounts
British Dominion a self-governing territory belonging to the British Empire
central business district (CBD) the business centre of a city
Crimean War war fought between Britain and its allies and Russia, 1853–56
deport to forcibly remove someone from a country
dummies people, secretly acting for squatters, who selected land and later sold it to the squatters
egalitarian believing in equality
Federation movement of colonies to form a nation
grazing pasture to feed cows and sheep
impound to confiscate
larrikins term used in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries for unruly youths
'Little Lon' name (after Little Lonsdale Street) given to the north-eastern part of the CBD known for its slums
minority government a government that has fewer than half the seats in a lower house of parliament
nightsoil human waste
parliamentary representation the representation of people's views and interests in Parliament through elected delegates
peacocking buying up land around creeks and rivers to make the rest of the area useless to selectors
precinct a district of a city
republicanism the belief that a country should be a republic (where the country has an elected or appointed head of state), not a monarchy (where the head of state is a king or queen)
shilling a unit of Australian currency until decimal currency was introduced. There were 12 pence to a shilling and 20 shillings to a pound.
socialism a political system in which governments control the economy to ensure greater equality
stockade a fortified enclosure
suffrage the right to vote in elections
sweated labour workers exploited by being employed for long hours and low pay
tariff a duty charged on imports
telegraph device for sending messages over long distances

6.15 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz online only

Short answer quiz

1. How was Ned Kelly captured?
2. In what year did Melbourne's population reach half a million?
3. What is a trade union?
4. Which trade union was the first to win an eight-hour working day?
5. Why did trade unionists support colonial Labour parties from the 1890s?
6. Name two Australian writers who contributed to a sense of national identity.
7. Which newspaper wanted Australia to become a republic in the 1880s?
8. Who was Vida Goldstein?
9. Which Australian colony led the way in women's voting rights?
10. What was Federation?
11. How did Federation change Australia?
12. What was the basic wage?
13. Why was introduction of the basic wage a significant reform?
14. Name two other reforms that contributed to the idea of Australia as a 'workers' paradise'?
15. Name Australia's two main political parties from 1909.

Apply your understanding

16. What is the main message of **Source 1**?

SOURCE 1 This handkerchief was made as a souvenir of Australian Federation. Lord Hopetoun came from Britain to be Australia's first Governor-General. The Duke and Duchess of York came from Britain to represent Queen Victoria at the opening of the first Commonwealth Parliament in 1901.

17. (a) Why does **Source 1** feature pictures of Queen Victoria and four English aristocrats?
    (b) What conclusions can we draw from this source about the way most Australians saw Australia's relationship with Britain and its empire?

18. What is happening in **Source 2**?

SOURCE 2 Chinese celebrating Australian Federation in Melbourne in 1901

19. What reasons would the people in **Source 2** have for celebrating Australian Federation?
20. How would they have felt about the Immigration Restriction Act of 1901?
21. In 1901 most Australians would not have regarded the people in **Source 2** as Australian. Why did they have such attitudes?
22. Form small groups to visit the website of the Australian War Memorial. Each group should research one of the following conflicts:
    (a) the Sudan conflict (North Africa, 1885)
    (b) the Boer War (South Africa, 1899–1902)
    (c) the Boxer Rebellion (China, 1900).
    Report to the class on:
    - why Britain was involved in that conflict
    - how and why Australians took part in it
    - criticisms that were made of Australia's involvement.

    Accompany your report with a data show presentation illustrating the nature of the conflict and Australia's role.

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Try out this interactivity: From colonies to nationhood timeline (int-2966)

Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 6.8: Word search
Worksheet 6.9: Summing up
Worksheet 6.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic, several big questions were posed. Use the knowledge you have gained to answer these questions.

1. What was it like to live and work in Australia between the 1870s and 1913?
2. How and why did people rebel against the social conditions?
3. What ideas and conditions led to the creation of the Australian nation?
4. What were the main characteristics of the Australian nation before the outbreak of World War I in 1914?

TOPIC 7
Asia and the world: China (1750–1918)

7.1 Overview

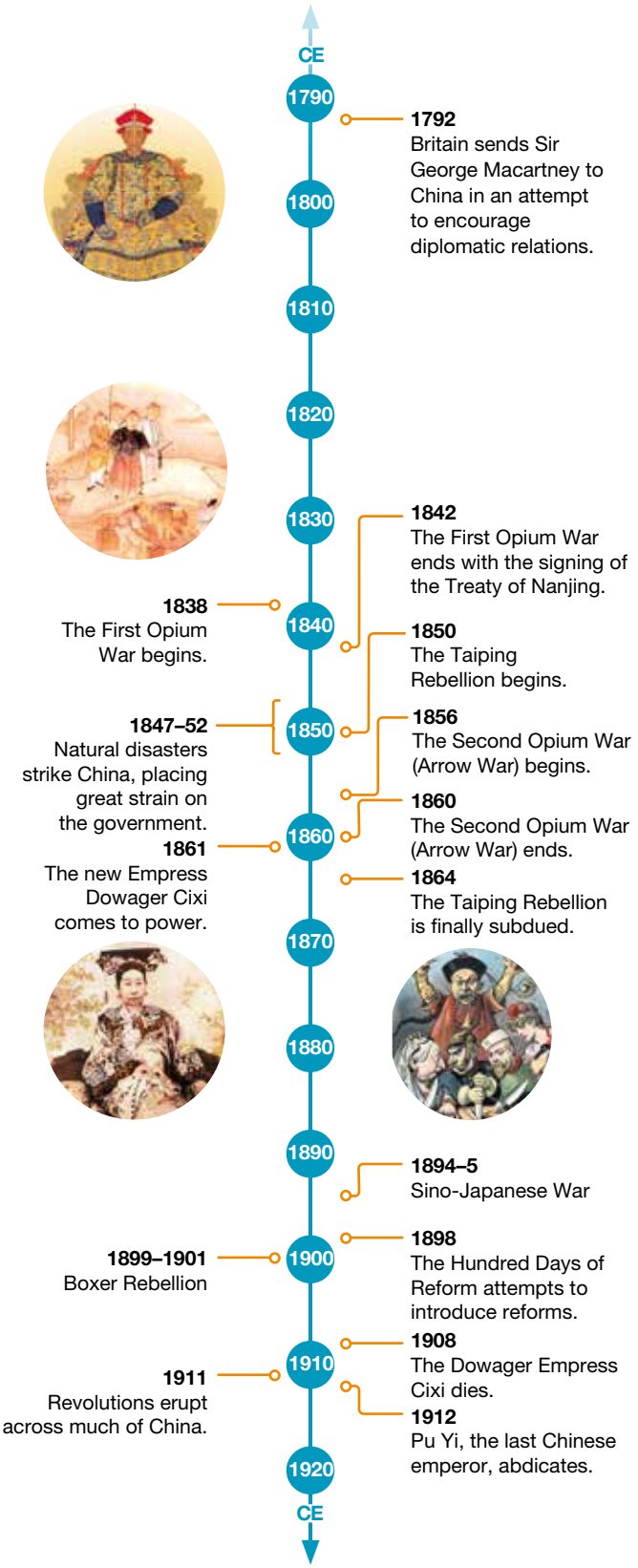
Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

7.1.1 Links to our times

Today China has the world's second largest economy and is Australia's most important trading partner. Australia exports raw materials such as iron ore and wool to China, and imports clothing, computers, telecommunications equipment and many other goods. China's trade with foreign countries began to flourish in the nineteenth century, but it was not always as amicable and organised as it is today. Foreign ignorance of China's Confucian-based culture, and China's long isolation from the rest of the world, resulted in more than a century of strained international relations.

SOURCE 1 Australian Prime Minister Malcolm Turnbull, accompanied by Chinese Premier Li Keqiang, receiving a guard of honour during an official visit to China. China's relations with the West have not always been as amicable as they are today.

SOURCE 2 A timeline of key events in China, 1750–1918



The Qing dynasty, 1644–1911

For two thousand years, up to 1911, China was a unified empire governed by successive generations of ruling dynasties. The Qing dynasty, also called the Manchu dynasty, was established after the fall of the Ming dynasty in 1644. The Qing was the last imperial dynasty to rule China. When it collapsed in 1911 after a series of revolutions, more than two thousand years of imperial rule came to an end.

Conflict with the West

The period of Qing rule coincided with Europe's expansion of trade and acquisition of colonies. The Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, French and British were acquiring territory in the Americas, Africa and Asia. At first the Qing emperors, suspicious of European traders, rebuffed foreign government delegations. In the eighteenth century the southern Chinese port of Guangzhou (Canton) was opened to limited foreign trade, and Western influence began to spread among the people of China. As the Qing dynasty attempted to restrict foreign access, conflict with foreign countries became inevitable.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. How did military technology and new ideas contribute to conflict and change in China?
2. What was the significance of European imperialism in nineteenth-century China?
3. What were the main political, economic and social effects of warfare on the Qing dynasty?

Starter questions

1. For what reasons might countries change their systems of government?
2. Why do you think people leave one country to live in another?

7.2 How do we know about colonisation, conflict and change in China (1750–1918)?

7.2.1 Historical sources

During the period when China opened up to foreign influence, traders engaged in commercial activity and international diplomats negotiated treaties. As a result, this period is richly documented in both primary and secondary sources. The many written sources give us the opportunity to study many aspects of Chinese society during this vibrant age. The development of photography during the nineteenth century also provided a new medium through which to study many of the key events.

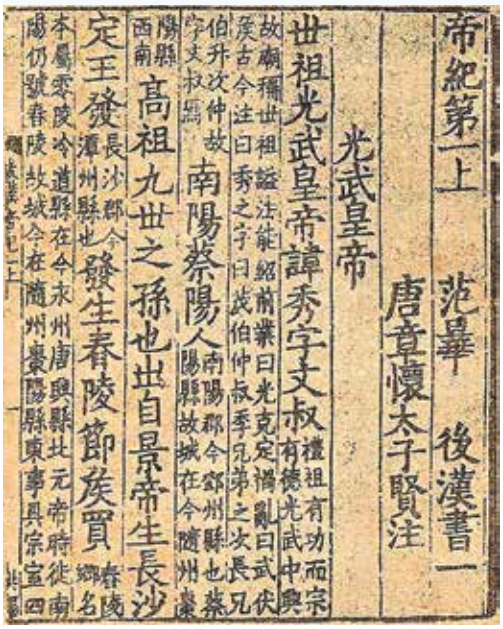
Chinese sources

Traditional Chinese society placed great importance on the study of history, in the belief that knowledge of the past influenced present behaviour. As a result, historians of China are able to draw on a diverse range of sources. Foremost of these are the dynastic histories, written by educated scholars to record the events of preceding dynasties. Many different scholars worked on the histories, so they provide a range of perspectives of the same event. The Chinese belief in the **mandate of heaven** imposed a limitation on the dynastic histories, however. A dynasty collapsed, it was believed, because the gods were displeased with the emperor. So the histories sometimes examined the various reasons for the downfall of the previous dynasty. This provided the current emperor with a kind of moral compass, a guide to follow to avoid the fate of earlier emperors. Despite this limitation, the dynastic histories are very valuable documents.

'Foreign' sources

Information about China spread to the world beyond its borders mostly by way of Western visitors, who tended to see in China a reflection of more familiar European empires. The emperor was seen as a king who ruled over a nation of loyal subjects. The writings of Jesuit missionaries such as Francis Xavier in the sixteenth century were important in influencing the attitude of foreigners towards China. But as relations between China and the West deteriorated in the nineteenth century, the portrayal of the Chinese became more unfavourable. The view of the emperor changed from that of a noble king to that of a power-hungry **despot**. Despite these changing views, there are still many documents from the time that are useful to historians. These include letters, diary entries and copies of the treaties that were signed.

SOURCE 1 This image shows a page from the *Han Dynastic History*, a classical Chinese history text completed in 111 CE.


帝紀第一上

范曄 後漢書一

唐章懷太子賢注

光武皇帝

世祖光武皇帝諱秀字文叔

高祖九世之孫也出自景帝生長沙

定王發發生春陵節侯買

SOURCE 2 This painting from 1742 shows a romanticised view of China that was common in Europe in the eighteenth century. Compare it with the portrayal of China in **Source 3** in subtopic 7.5.

Photographs

The invention of photography in the nineteenth century provided a completely new medium through which to interpret historical events. It gives an opportunity to observe, almost unfiltered, the events being studied. The Second Opium War was one of the first wars to be recorded photographically. Much can be learned from photographs that other sources cannot reveal. Even everyday scenes take on a new dimension when seen in a photograph. A common error, however, is to assume that photographs are necessarily reliable historical sources because they show real events. It is important to keep in mind that behind every camera is a photographer with his or her own intentions and perspectives.

SOURCE 3 A picture is worth a thousand words. This photograph of Canton harbour in the mid nineteenth century is more evocative than most written descriptions could be.

SOURCE 4 This photograph shows the aftermath of a battle in 1860 during the Second Opium War. Before photography, scenes like this could only be imagined by most people.

7.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What is the mandate of heaven?
2. How did information about China spread to the rest of the world?
3. Why is it important to remember that behind every photograph there is a photographer?
4. It is often said that photographs do not lie. Is this actually true? Explain your answer.

Apply your understanding

5. Give three reasons why the dynastic histories, like that shown in **Source 1** are useful to historians.
6. How and why did foreign portrayals of China change in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
7. In what ways could photographs like those shown in **Sources 3** and **4** be unreliable?
8. What can photographs reveal that other sources cannot?
9. Why might photographs be as difficult to rely on as other historical sources?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.2: Every picture tells a story

7.3 Qing China

7.3.1 Isolation

Until the seventeenth century, China was largely unknown to the European world. There had been sporadic trade with other countries and regions, and Chinese explorers had undertaken voyages throughout the region but, outside China, little was known of Chinese beliefs, cities and society. Yet within its borders China was a diverse country with a very large population and a complex culture.

One reason that China remained isolated was its geographic location. To the east lay the vast Pacific Ocean; to the south lay mountain ranges and dense jungles; in the north was the desolate Gobi Desert; and to the west towered the mountains of the Tibetan Plateau — the 'roof of the world'. In addition, the territorial extent of the Qing dynasty's rule played an important part. Its borders stretched further than at any other time in China's history. Its vast size gave it access to a wide variety of natural resources and arable land. It did not need to look elsewhere for materials or goods because it could support its growing population on its own. Its unique location and self-sufficiency allowed Chinese culture to develop in isolation from outside pressures and influences, and also helped nurture a feeling of superiority over foreigners.

SOURCE 1 Map illustrating the geographical extent of the Qing Dynasty

7.3.2 Confucianism

At the core of China's traditional beliefs was Confucianism. The philosopher Confucius (551–479 BCE) came from a noble but poor family. His father died when he was young and Confucius struggled to acquire an education. As he grew older he developed strong beliefs about society. He taught that the family was the basic building block of society and that it was the duty of the ruler to behave like a father to his people. He believed that each person should adopt and live by certain moral values. People should respect and obey their parents, and rulers should be chosen because of their wisdom, rather than their wealth. Confucius taught the 'five virtues': humanity, honesty, knowledge, integrity and manners. With its focus on harmonious relationships, Confucianism disdained military pursuits and war, believing they were not needed when Confucian values were in balance.

Over time Confucian values began to become dominant in China, supplanting Daoism as the main belief system by the second century BCE. Confucian beliefs dominated Chinese society from the second century CE and were incorporated into the way both the family and the state were run. With such a rigid philosophical system in place rebellion or discontent seemed unimaginable, yet there were many rebellions, uprisings and dynastic changes over the centuries.

7.3.3 Government

In traditional Chinese society the emperor ruled with the 'mandate of heaven'. This meant his rule was legitimate so long as the gods judged his actions to be in harmony with the natural order of the universe. He had to rule with fairness and wisdom or risk a loss of his mandate. Famine caused by crop failure due to flood or drought might indicate a loss of mandate, justifying the emperor's overthrow.

SOURCE 2 This illustration shows the Kangxi emperor, the fourth emperor of the Qing dynasty. It is from a silk scroll that today hangs in the Palace Museum, Beiijing.

Helping the emperor maintain power were the Grand Council, made up of the nobility and high-ranking bureaucrats, and the six Boards of Civil Office that controlled various aspects of daily life — revenue, punishment, war, work, ceremonies and civil affairs. Holders of these offices were selected through a rigorous examination process to ensure the most talented candidates were chosen. Specific knowledge of the area they were assigned to was not always deemed to be necessary, however. There was no foreign office because foreigners were considered barbarians with whom contact should be restricted.

In 1644 the last imperial dynasty to rule China, the Qing (also known as the Manchu) dynasty, came to power. Under the Qing the country was divided into 18 provinces, each ruled by a governor. The provinces, in turn, were divided into districts. At district level a district magistrate governed a group of local neighbourhoods, each made up of roughly one thousand homes. It was expected that households would report local crimes, as a whole neighbourhood could be severely punished if such crimes were not reported. Similarly, an entire village could be held responsible for the lawlessness of a few. This climate of fear helped to dissuade would-be rebels.

7.3.4 The artful Qing

During the reign of the Qing dynasty, art, architecture and literature became more diverse than under previous dynasties. New materials such as glass and enamel were now used in artworks, but at the same time many craftsmen turned to very old themes and shapes for their art. Painters of the time learned new techniques that Jesuits had developed in Europe during the Renaissance. The technique of perspective and the use of oil-based paints became common during the Qing dynasty.

SOURCE 3 The flag of the Qing dynasty

7.3.5 Economy

In 1750 China's economy was strong. There had been a period of conflict after the overthrow of the previous Ming dynasty, but as the Qing gained power over all of China, peace was restored. The era of peace, combined with the introduction of a range of new foreign food crops, meant the population grew. The export of silk, tea and manufactured goods to Europe gave rise to a time of general prosperity. Although trade with foreign powers was regarded with suspicion, within China people were encouraged to participate in local markets. Until the mid-nineteenth century, the Qing economy could be described as active and growing. But this was to change dramatically.

7.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. In what way did geography influence the isolation of China?
2. Explain the basic ideas of Confucianism in your own words.
3. What was the 'mandate of heaven', and how might an emperor lose this mandate?
4. Draw a diagram illustrating the division of power in the traditional imperial system.
5. What role did fear play in keeping the population obedient?

Apply your understanding

6. Examine the clothing of the emperor in **Source 2**. What might this reveal about Chinese society at the time?
7. Look at **Source 3**. Why do you think a dragon was chosen for the flag of the Qing dynasty?
8. As can be seen in **Source 1**, the Qing dynasty covered a vast area. What challenges do you think would face the ruler of such a large empire?
9. Use the internet to research the significance of the colour yellow in traditional China.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.1: Qing China — an overview

7.4 Living under the emperor

7.4.1 Traditional China

You have already learned many things about China under the Qing dynasty. For example, it was strongly influenced by Confucianism; the emperor ruled with the 'mandate of heaven'; and the country was divided into provinces and districts. But what did this actually mean for the men, women and children who lived their lives under the emperor?

7.4.2 Women in traditional China

Confucianism holds that the family is the basic building block of society. Subsequently, women held a largely domestic role in traditional Chinese society and were considered inferior and **subordinate** to men. Such was the status of women in China that in popular traditional literature a female character might even say that in a previous life she was a man but had been reborn a woman to punish her for sins committed in that life. The ideal life of a woman in China was seen in terms of the 'three subordinations'; firstly to her father when growing up, secondly to her husband and lastly to her eldest son after her husband's death.

SOURCE 1 A bride on her way to her wedding in the earliest twentieth century. The basket was used to obscure the bride's face in the same way that a veil is used in Western weddings. It was customary that the bride's face would not be seen until she was in her new husband's home.

Marriage in China was less a union between a man and a woman, and more like a union between two families. Therefore, it was organised by the parents of those being married. Their domestic role meant that women were never the head of the household in China; however, a woman's important role in the house was seen as compensation for her exclusion from public affairs.

The subservient status of women in traditional Chinese society was also reflected in the practice of foot binding. Its origins remain unclear but it is thought that the practice was begun to imitate the appearance of a favourite **concubine** of a ninth-century emperor. In any case, foot binding spread from the upper classes and was widely practised across China.

SOURCE 2 A 1911 photograph of a woman reveals the effects of years of foot binding, in which her feet would have been bound and sometimes crushed or broken, to form the shape of a lily.

In spite of these disadvantages some women made their mark on traditional China. These women included scholars and poets, but also leaders. The Dowager Empress Cixi ruled China when her very young son inherited the throne in 1861. She eventually ruled on her own until 1908.

Throughout the tumultuous times of the nineteenth century, the demand for women's rights became a powerful factor for unrest. Large numbers of women fought during the Taiping Rebellion in the 1850s (see subtopic 7.6), and at the turn of the twentieth century the Boxer Rebellion (see subtopic 7.8) saw groups of women called the Red Lanterns support the cause of the Boxers. At times, the women even fought. A song from the time celebrated their involvement in the rebellion with the line 'The Red Lanterns and the Boxers are brothers and sisters in revolt; with one heart they fight the foreign officials'.

7.4.3 Men in traditional China — the four occupations

Social organisation in imperial China was similar in some ways to Europe's feudal system. All classes were subservient to the emperor. The hierarchical class structure categorised the population into the 'four occupations'. In order of importance, these were as follows:

Shi — aristocrats, philosophers and government administrators

Nong — farmers; considered important because they grew the food that fed the nation

Gong — artists and craftsmen; also valued because they produced goods essential to society

Shang — merchants; placed at the lowest recognised level because they did not produce anything but rather profited from others' work.

The 'four occupations' did not formally recognise many other groups in society. These included soldiers, priests and other religious clergy, domestic servants, and any labourers other than those who worked for farmers or artists.

Prior to the mid nineteenth century, the four occupations would be almost exclusively occupied by men.

SOURCE 3 Chinese peasants of the Qing dynasty. This print dates from around 1830.

7.4.4 Children

In China, sons were much more highly valued by their family than daughters. This was because when they married, a son would stay in the family and contribute to its success, but a daughter would not. During times of hardship or famine, a boy's health and wellbeing would be put ahead of that of a girl. Subsequently, many more girls died during harsh times than boys.

At a young age children were schooled in the Confucian virtues of humanity, honesty, knowledge, integrity and manners. Upon reaching about five years of age, peasant boys began helping in the fields and girls began taking part in household chores. For those of higher social standing education continued, although learning was strictly in line with Confucian ideals.

SOURCE 4 A photograph of a Chinese man with his children, taken in the mid-nineteenth century

7.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why were male children preferred to female children in traditional China?
2. Explain the impact that favouring the wellbeing of boys over girls would have on Chinese society.
3. Why were merchants considered to belong to a low social class in Chinese society?
4. How did upbringing differ for boys of the peasant classes compared with those of higher social standing?

Apply your understanding

5. Read the line from the Boxer song celebrating the role of the Red Lantern women. Explain how this reflects the changing role of women in China.
6. Explain how **Source 2** reflects the social standing of women in traditional China.
7. Compare the clothes of the Kangxi emperor shown in **Source 2** in subtopic 7.3 with those of the peasants in **Source 3** in this subtopic. What information does this provide about traditional Chinese society?
8. Explain how photographs like those in **Sources 1, 2** and **4** provide information to historians in a way that paintings or written sources cannot.
9. Use your library and the internet to select a range of appropriate sources to further research the question: 'How did Confucianism affect the lives of men, women and children in Qing China?'

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7.5 Arrival of the foreigners

7.5.1 Attitudes to foreigners

Foreign influence and interference, beginning in the eighteenth century, had an enduring effect on China. It played a major part in the eventual downfall of the dynastic system and helped bring about the beginning of a new era in Chinese history. It also brought great suffering to a large part of the population, especially through the forced opium trade and the rebellions that arose against foreign influence in China.

The combination of China's self-sufficiency and the central role played by the rigid ideals of Confucianism generated a feeling of disdain towards foreigners. The Qing dynasty believed that China was at the centre of the world and that foreigners could offer nothing of value. Charged with defending the land against foreign interference were the Banner Armies, the framework for the Qing's military organisation. The Banner Armies defended the empire against foreign intervention and helped the emperor crush internal rebellion.

SOURCE 1 An archer from one of the emperor's Banner Armies

7.5.2 The first Westerners

The Ming dynasty, which preceded the Qing, was equally scornful of foreigners. Until the sixteenth century the only foreigners to venture to China were merchant adventurers who followed the famous **Marco Polo** or missionaries hoping to spread Christianity. Small in number, they were regarded as posing no threat; indeed, they were usually looked on merely as curiosities. But in 1514 an interesting convergence occurred. The Portuguese, who had discovered the sea route to the Spice Islands of the East Indies, were regularly trading in South-East Asia for the valuable spices found there. At the same time Chinese merchants were travelling south through the same region to trade silk, porcelain and other items and often used the same harbours as the Portuguese. Impressed with what they saw, and keen to establish trading ties with the Chinese, the enterprising Portuguese followed the **junks** back to China.

Initially their approaches were rebuffed, but as relations improved the Portuguese were permitted to establish a trading post south of the city of Guangzhou (Canton) that became known as Macao. This system of opening a limited number of ports to foreign trade became known as the Canton System. Foreigners continued to be regarded as barbarians, but the Portuguese were tolerated largely because they were prepared to pay tribute to the emperor, who saw this as an acknowledgement of their inferiority.

SOURCE 2 A sixteenth-century Chinese junk looked similar to the one shown here.

myWorld History Atlas Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:
› China in the nineteenth century

7.5.3 Opium trade

Once the Portuguese had established trading posts in China, other rival European powers wanted to do the same. The Spanish, Dutch and British also wanted to trade in silk, porcelain, tea and other goods, but their efforts were generally seen by the Chinese as little more than a nuisance. By the late 1700s the British had established themselves as the key foreign trader in China. Their base in India, as well as the popularity of tea in Britain, meant they had both the market and the ships needed to maintain busy trade routes.

The Chinese had traditionally severely restricted and regulated foreign trade and travel in China. The British, determined to expand operations in China, resented these rules. For example, foreign trade was restricted to the city of Guangzhou between October and May. Merchants were also forced to pay various taxes and tariffs that appeared to change without notice and often seemed excessive.

In an effort to force a diplomatic breakthrough, in 1792 the British sent an ambassador, Sir George Macartney, to Beijing (see **Source 3**). The mission was ultimately unsuccessful. Initially this was explained by Macartney's insulting refusal to **kowtow** in the presence of the emperor. A broader explanation points to the incompatibility between the world views held by the British and the Chinese. The Chinese were an inward-looking nation, content with minimal trade, while the British were determined to expand to establish British traditions around the world. Subsequently the emperor sent a letter to England's George III in which he pointed out that China already had everything it needed and saw no value in or use for the items Britain wanted to trade (see **Source 4**).

SOURCE 3 A caricature of Lord Macartney's visit to China in 1792, published in Britain the same year. The emperor is portrayed as cunning while Macartney, it is suggested, maintains his composure.

The Chinese saw Macartney's failed mission as providing further proof of their superiority over foreigners. For the British, it merely signalled a small delay in their plans.

SOURCE 4 From the letter Emperor Qian Long of China sent to George III in 1793

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.

SOURCE 5 An excerpt from Lord Macartney's journal of his mission to China

… such exquisite workmanship, and in such profusion, that our presents must shrink from the comparison and hide their diminished heads.

The First Opium War

SOURCE 6 A naval battle during the First Opium War, at Anson's Bay, 7 January 1841. On the left is the British East India Company steam ship *Nemesis*. The longboats are also British, while the ships in the background are Chinese war junks.

In the early 1800s the British increased their trade and, despite an import ban on opium, they began to smuggle large amounts of it into China. Corruption was widespread and Chinese officials were easily bribed, making the trade easy. As more of the population became addicted, the illicit trade grew. The social and economic impact of the opium trade forced the emperor to act. In 1838 the British trading post at Guangzhou was besieged to force a surrender of the opium stocks, which were then destroyed. Despite this apparent success for the Chinese, tensions with the British remained high. When a Chinese man named Lin Weixi was killed in Kowloon by a British sailor and the culprit could not be found, the Chinese demanded that someone — anyone — should be handed over to the authorities for punishment. This was not unusual in China, where the community was held responsible for its lawbreakers, but to the British it was unthinkable, and they refused. The Chinese then confronted the British fleet with a fleet of war junks and again demanded the handover. The British again refused and shots were exchanged, signalling the start of the First Opium War.

Militarily, the Chinese were technologically outclassed by the British forces. Their ships were inferior to the British navy's, and China's soldiers were only a part-time force armed mainly with bows and arrows and knives, whereas the standing British army was made up of well-trained troops armed with modern muskets. The war ended in 1842 with the signing of the infamous Treaty of Nanjing. Under the terms of the treaty the Chinese were forced to open a number of ports to British trading ships, Hong Kong was ceded to the British (it remained a British colony until 1997), and China was forced to pay several million silver dollars to the British as compensation for the opium destroyed at the beginning of the war and for the cost of the war to the British. The treaty was the first of a number of what the Chinese called unequal treaties because the British, for their part, faced no obligations under the terms.

7.5.4 The Sino-Japanese War

Importantly, it was not only European powers that were looking to expand their influence into Qing China. Later in the nineteenth century, Japan, too, had ambitions of territorial expansion. They fought with China over control of Korea in 1894 and 1895. For centuries Korea's geographical location had made it strategically important in the region, surrounded by two very powerful nations.

Japan was victorious in the war with China, and almost more important than the loss of the territory was the Qing dynasty's loss of prestige. The failed war demonstrated just how weak the Qing dynasty had become over the previous century, and Japan now replaced China as the most dominant power in the region.

7.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. How did Confucianism influence Chinese attitudes to foreigners?
2. What were the Banner Armies and what was their role?
3. Describe how luck played a role in the 1514 contact between Portuguese and Chinese traders.
4. Why were Portuguese traders tolerated by the Chinese emperor?

Apply your understanding

5. Look at **Source 3**. Why do you think the British artist has portrayed the Chinese emperor in this way?
6. In what ways do **Sources 4** and **5** agree? Does this support the reliability of each source? Why or why not?
7. What advantages does the British ship have over the Chinese junks in **Source 6**?
8. Why were British and Chinese world views incompatible in the eighteenth century?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.3: Put yourself in their shoes

Explore more with this weblink: The Opium Wars: When Britain made war on China

7.6 Effects of foreign influence on China

7.6.1 Internal problems

The impact of foreign influence on China was far reaching and long lasting. The Opium Wars with the British had exposed the Qing dynasty's weaknesses, which were exploited not only by foreign powers but by the Chinese people as well. Either directly or indirectly, foreign interference in China in this period caused many deep changes.

Historians still debate whether the First Opium War was a direct cause of the Taiping Rebellion. The Qing dynasty already faced a number of problems, including internal social conflict, economic stagnation and a population growth rate that was putting a heavy strain on resources. The country also suffered a major drought in 1847 and disastrous floods in 1849 and 1852. All these problems, compounded by their humiliating defeat at the hands of the British in the First Opium War, were simply too much for the Chinese government to deal with.

The Taiping Rebellion began in 1850 and spread over most of southern China before finally being suppressed in 1864. It was led by Hong Xiuquan

SOURCE 1 This nineteenth-century French political cartoon shows China being carved up by foreign powers — from left to right, Britain, Germany, Russia, France and Japan. The Qing emperor is protesting in the background.

who, after religious visions experienced during an illness, was inspired to preach a new form of Christianity in China. The aim of the rebels was to overthrow the Qing dynasty and replace it with a new kingdom in which all land belonged to the state and women were given a more equal status with men. It is estimated that some 20 million people died over the course of the rebellion, making it one of the deadliest conflicts in human history.

7.6.2 The Taiping Rebellion and the Arrow War

While the rebellion raged, the Second Opium War broke out with Britain, this time allied with France. Also called the Arrow War, it began when Chinese authorities boarded a ship called the *Arrow* and arrested the crew under suspicion of piracy. Unable to manage the crisis of the Taiping Rebellion at the same time as this new conflict, China was forced to sign another humiliating treaty. Over the two decades of the 1840s and 1850s China signed no fewer than six separate treaties with France, Britain, Russia and the United States, each one forcing more concessions to the foreigners. In an effort to protect their new gains, the British and French sided with the Qing against the Taiping rebels, supplying weapons and soldiers. Although this helped crush the rebellion, it also further cemented in the minds of many Chinese an image of Qing weakness and submission to foreign influence.

SOURCE 2 Some of the unequal treaties imposed on China by foreign powers in the nineteenth century

Year	Treaty of …	Imposed by …
1842	Nanjing	Britain
1844	Wangxia	USA
1844	Whampoa	France
1858	Tianjin	Britain, France
1858	Aigun	Russia
1859	Beijing	Britain, France

7.6.3 A new empress

In 1861 the Xianfeng emperor died. Because his five-year old son was too young to rule on his own, a group of regents was formed to take over his duties. Soon, though, the young emperor's mother, Cixi, eliminated the other members of the group and established herself as the new ruler of China — the Empress Dowager.

During the time of Cixi, although without her backing, there arose some hopes for reforms of the more rigid aspects of dynastic rule. The scholar Kang Yuwei planned and implemented a series of reforms with the help of the new Guangxu emperor. In 1898 the 'Hundred Days' Reform' (discussed in subtopic 7.7) was intended to introduce radical decrees that would help modernise China, but the powerful and conservative Cixi, who still effectively ruled, rescinded almost all the reforms. She had the emperor arrested and many of the reformers executed. Her absolute rule was once again established over China, yet the problems she faced did not go away.

SOURCE 3 The Empress Dowager Cixi. She ruled China from 1861 to 1908.

SOURCE 4 From the Guangxu emperor's Reform Decree of 1898

I shall never feel that my duty as Sovereign is fulfilled until I have raised them all [the Chinese people] to a condition of peaceful prosperity. Moreover, do not the foreign Powers surround our Empire, committing frequent acts of aggression? Unless we learn and adopt the sources of their strength, our plight cannot be remedied.

7.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Create a timeline of the problems facing the Qing dynasty between the 1840s and the 1860s.
2. How did the unequal treaties (see **Source 2**) affect the way the Chinese people viewed the Qing?
3. What challenges did the Qing dynasty face in the first half of the nineteenth century?
4. What were the aims of the Taiping rebels?
5. Why did the foreign powers help the Qing government against the Taiping rebels?
6. How did Cixi come to rule China?

Apply your understanding

7. Explain the message of **Source 1** in your own words.
8. What does the table in **Source 2** illustrate about the influence of foreign powers in China in the nineteenth century?
9. What does Guangxu's Reform Decree call for in **Source 4**?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.4: The consequences of foreign contact

7.7 Social effects

7.7.1 Effects of forced trade

SOURCE 1 The sap of the opium poppy flower is harvested and refined to produce the drug.

The impacts of foreigners on Chinese society since their first arrival in the sixteenth century varied widely. Missionaries spread the ideas of Christianity to many parts of the land; the trade of western goods introduced new ideas; but perhaps no foreign import had a greater social impact than opium.

Economic

The signing of the Treaty of Nanjing in 1842 may have ended the Opium War, but it did not end the opium trade. In fact, the trade increased because trade with the British was forced upon China — opium meant business, and business was booming. In return for the opium that the British imported to China, tea and silk were exported back to Britain. In the years from 1843 to 1855 the export of tea increased from 7000 tons to 42 000 tons. In the same period, silk exports rose from 2000 bales in 1843 to 56 000 bales in 1855.

On the surface, this may seem like a positive aspect of the trade. Certainly, tea- and silk-producing regions close to the trading ports did expand and benefit from the trade. But a closer look will reveal that these benefits were short term. As demand for these two commodities, known in economic terms as 'cash crops', increased, production shifted away from food crops and so less food was being produced. This shortage of food crops pushed prices up and so the poor, who could not trade with the foreigners, simply became poorer.

The trade in silk had a further long-term effect. China's textile industry had a very long history — as far back as 3000 BCE. It had undergone a variety of developments over the centuries, but ironically it was the high quality of local textiles that caused the industry to decline. In addition to bringing in

opium, Western countries also introduced cheaper, machine-produced textiles with which to trade. This caused a decrease in the demand for locally made goods and crippled the local textile industry. Many areas in China reported an increase in crime as rising poverty took hold.

Even China's traditional trade routes were suffering. Under the Canton System, foreign goods arrived at port and were then transported through inland waterways and coastal roads. The opening of other trading ports meant goods were now transported from one port to another by sea, so those people who relied on inland traffic for their income suffered.

Social

As the trade in opium continued, a drug that had been used medicinally in China for centuries soon became a drug of dependency for a large proportion of the population. As the quantity of opium coming into China increased, the product became cheaper. It was soon available not just to the wealthy but to a wide cross-section of society. At the turn of the nineteenth century, about 2500 tons of opium was being imported into China annually. By the middle of that century, the figure had increased almost tenfold to 23 000 tons. It is estimated that at the height of opium usage in China, almost all men used it and about a quarter of the entire male population was addicted.

Access to opium and high unemployment due to the economic situation in China made a devastating combination. Opium dens like the one in **Source 2** became popular. Patrons reclined and smoked opium through long pipes. Some dens were highly ornate and richly furnished; others were simple rooms. But in each case, the décor reflected the social standing of those who used the rooms. This also reinforces the widespread use of opium in the community. The effects of long-term use of opium are described in **Source 3**. Despite attempts to ban the drug and threats of harsh punishments for trading, illustrated in **Sources 5** and **6**, trade and use of opium continued.

Eventually some British politicians saw the responsibility they had for the disastrous situation in China. Some sixty years after the end of the Opium War, Lord Justice Fry of the British Court of Appeal expressed his views, seen in **Source 4**. However, by then the damage had been done.

SOURCE 2 An opium den in Canton, China, c. 1900

SOURCE 3 A British observer's remarks on the effects of opium, from 1847

> Those who begin its use at twenty may expect to die at thirty years of age; the countenance becomes pallid, the eyes assume a wild brightness, the memory fails, the gait totters, mental exertion and moral courage sink … atrophy reduces the victim to a ghastly spectacle, who has ceased to live before he has ceased to exist.

SOURCE 4 Lord Justice Fry's comment regarding Britain's moral responsibility for the situation in China, from around 1908

> We English, by the policies we have pursued, are morally responsible for every acre of land in China which is withdrawn from the cultivation of grain and devoted to that of the poppy; so that the fact of the growth of the drug in China ought only to increase our sense of responsibility.

SOURCE 5 Edict following the ban on opium in 1839

Let the buyers and smokers of opium be punished with one hundred blows, and condemned to wear the wooden collar for two months. Then, let them declare the seller's name, that he may be seized and punished.

7.7.2 Foreign ideas

SOURCE 6 An 1804 engraving of a wooden punishment collar as described in **Source 5**. The writing indicates the crime being punished.

The Jesuit missionaries of the sixteenth century brought with them not only Christianity but also European inventions and technology. They shared their European views with the Chinese and returned to Europe with tales of China's wonders. Yet their numbers were small and any ideas or new technology they conveyed tended to remain within the emperor's circle rather than being circulated throughout the country.

Some missionaries, however, became trusted within the emperor's court and played an important role in early Chinese and European relations. Matteo Ricci and Adam Schall von Bell were two early examples. They learned the language and translated classical Western texts into Chinese, which helped to spread the ideas of European scholars such as Galileo. Particularly in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Jesuit missionaries promoted what was the first example of cultural exchange between China and the West.

As the inflow of foreigners in China increased in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the spread of Western ideas also began to increase. During this time, Chinese citizens began to travel abroad and brought home with them new ideas in the fields of science, technology and social reform. The nineteenth century had seen such unrest in China that more and more people were beginning to question their traditional beliefs. The Qing dynasty appeared to be losing the mandate of heaven.

In 1898, many of these ideas were brought together and promoted in what became known as the Hundred Days' Reform. The reformers, led by the Guangxu emperor, decided that for China to become strong again a range of changes were needed. They thought that reforms must be accompanied by fundamental changes to institutions and ideology. The ideas included the modernisation of the education system, reforming the structure of the military in order to strengthen it and modernising China's industrial capability.

The Hundred Days' Reform failed when conservative opponents, supported by Empress Cixi, removed Guangxu from power. The conservatives did not oppose the modernisation of China; rather, they feared that the intended reforms would only increase foreign influence.

7.7.3 The Chinese Diaspora

During the nineteenth century a large number of Chinese decided, or were forced, to emigrate. This was known as the Chinese Diaspora and was caused by different factors. Famines in the southern coastal provinces of Fujian and Guangdong, combined with the effects of the Opium Wars and the Taiping Rebellion, disrupted agricultural and economic activity in many areas, putting further strains on Chinese resources. Around the same time slavery was being abolished in many parts of the world, creating labour shortages. In North America, Chinese migrants replaced African slaves as a major source of labour. The large-scale emigration would have alarmed the Qing but there was little they could do about it; the unequal treaties forced the government to allow emigration to colonial regions.

While many Chinese migrated to other Asian countries in search of work, a great number travelled further afield — to the United States, Canada, Australia and Europe. In 1849 gold was discovered in California, and when merchants brought news of the find to China a wave of migration to 'Gold Mountain' occurred. The Australian gold rushes of the 1850s provoked similar migrations and 'New Gold Mountain', as the Australian goldfields became known, saw the beginning of a long period of Chinese migration to Australia.

Across the world Chinese emigrants established what has become the most visible result of the Diaspora — the 'Chinatown'. Chinatown is the generic name given to that area of a city outside China in which Chinese businesses and restaurants predominate. There are about twenty Chinatowns in Australia, and many of them are thriving areas used as a focal point for traditional celebrations such as Chinese New Year. **Source 8** shows Melbourne's Chinatown.

SOURCE 7 This photograph from the early twentieth century shows two Chinese labourers at work in the Australian outback.

SOURCE 8 Chinatown in Melbourne. This community was originally established in the 1850s during the gold rushes.

7.7 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain what you understand by the term *diaspora.*
2. What sorts of changes was the Hundred Days' Reform movement hoping to achieve?
3. How did the British change the way opium was used in China?
4. Why do you think the British and Chinese traders ignored the 1839 ban on opium?
5. List some of the factors that brought about the Chinese Diaspora in the nineteenth century.
6. On a world map, mark the countries and regions to which Chinese migrants primarily travelled.

Apply your understanding

7. Why would the Qing government be concerned by the image in **Source 2**?
8. Summarise the detrimental effects of opium as expressed in **Source 3**.
9. How does the attitude in **Source 4** differ from most British attitudes towards the opium trade?
10. What do **Sources 5** and **6** illustrate about the Qing government's attitudes to opium?
11. Which negative effects of opium outlined in **Source 3** can you identify in **Source 2**?
12. What does **Source 7** suggest about the extent and scale of the Chinese Diaspora?
13. **Source 7** shows two Chinese labourers in Australia in the early twentieth century. What personal characteristics do you think they would have needed to undertake such a journey from their homeland?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.4: The consequences of foreign contact

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

› **Chinese Diaspora**

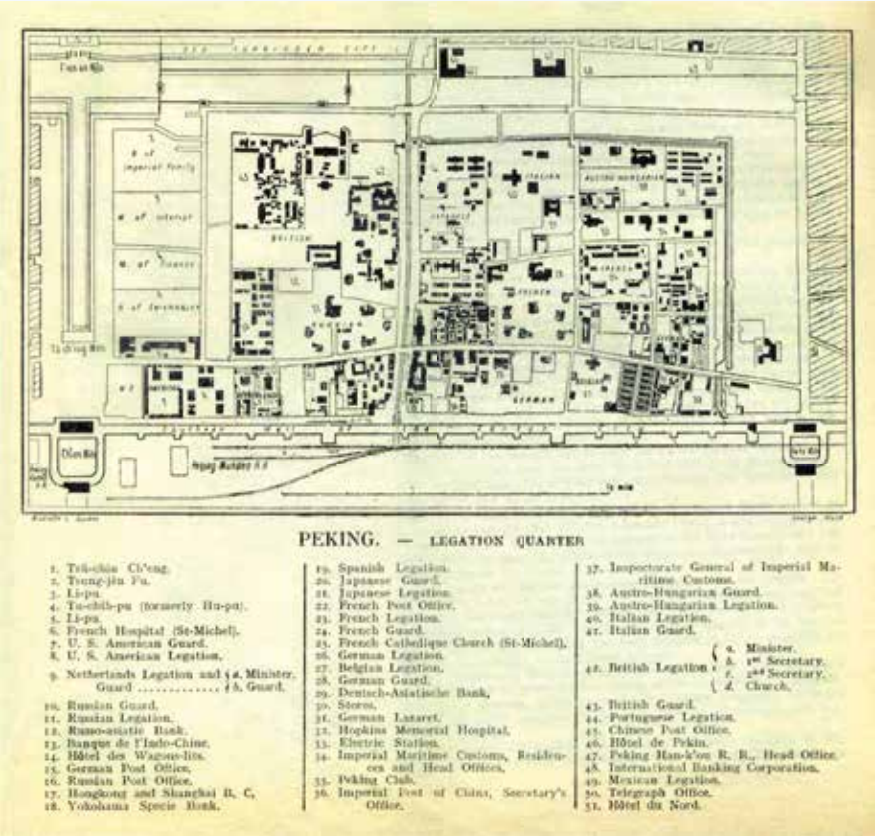
7.8 Resistance in China

7.8.1 The Boxer Rebellion

Confucianism helped generate a view in China that foreigners were little more than barbarians. It was believed that there was little that could be gained from contact with the outside world. Many people and organisations in China actively sought to get rid of foreigners once and for all.

The Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists, commonly known as the Boxers, was a secret society that called for a return to traditional values in China and an expulsion of foreigners. They were both anti-foreign and anti-Christian and resented the **gunboat diplomacy** that had been forced on China. The Boxers, who embraced **Daoist** and Buddhist ideas, believed that

SOURCE 1 This map from 1912 shows that the foreign legations were concentrated in a small area in Peking (as they had been in 1900), providing focus points for anti-foreign sentiment during the Boxer Rebellion.



PEKING. — LEGATION QUARTER

1. Tsŭ-chin Ch'eng.
2. Tsung-jên Fu.
3. Li-pu.
4. Tu-chih-yu (formerly Hu-pu).
5. Li-pu.
6. French Hospital (St-Michel).
7. U. S. American Guard.
8. U. S. American Legation.
9. Netherlands Legation and { a. Minister. b. Guard.
10. Russian Guard.
11. Russian Legation.
12. Russo-asiatic Bank.
13. Banque de l'Indo-Chine.
14. Hôtel des Wagons-lits.
15. German Post Office.
16. Russian Post Office.
17. Hongkong and Shanghai B. C.
18. Yokohama Specie Bank.
19. Spanish Legation.
20. Japanese Guard.
21. Japanese Legation.
22. French Post Office.
23. French Legation.
24. French Guard.
25. French Catholique Church (St-Michel).
26. German Legation.
27. Belgian Legation.
28. German Guard.
29. Deutsch-Asiatische Bank.
30. Stores.
31. German Lazaret.
32. Hopkins Memorial Hospital.
33. Electric Station.
34. Imperial Maritime Customs, Residences and Head Offices.
35. Peking Club.
36. Imperial Post of China, Secretary's Office.
37. Inspectorate General of Imperial Maritime Customs.
38. Austro-Hungarian Guard.
39. Austro-Hungarian Legation.
40. Italian Legation.
41. Italian Guard.
42. British Legation { a. Minister. b. 1st Secretary. c. 2nd Secretary. d. Church.
43. British Guard.
44. Portuguese Legation.
45. Chinese Post Office.
46. Hôtel de Pekin.
47. Peking Han-k'ou R. R., Head Office.
48. International Banking Corporation.
49. Mexican Legation.
50. Telegraph Office.
51. Hôtel du Nord.

SOURCE 2 The aims of the Boxers as expressed in a rhyme in 1900

No talented people are in sight;
There is nothing but filth and garbage,
Rascals who undermine the Empire,
Leaving its doors wide open.
But we have divine power at our disposal
To arouse our people and arm them,
To save the realm and to protect it from decay.
Our pleasure is to see the Son of Heaven unharmed.
Let the officials perish,
But the people remain invincible.
Bring your own provisions;
Fall in to remove the scourge of the country.

SOURCE 3 Sentiments expressed by Prince Kung of the Imperial Qing Court around 1900 about the foreign presence in China

Take away your opium and your missionaries, and you will be welcome! … Do away with your extraterritoriality clause and missionaries may settle anywhere and everywhere; but retain it and we must do our best to confine you and our troubles to the treaty ports.

through a combination of martial arts training and **spirit possession** they would become impervious to guns and cannon. Special women's groups such as the Red Lanterns and the Cooking Pot Lanterns helped feed the fighters. They also won over provincial officials to their program of helping the Qing expel foreigners.

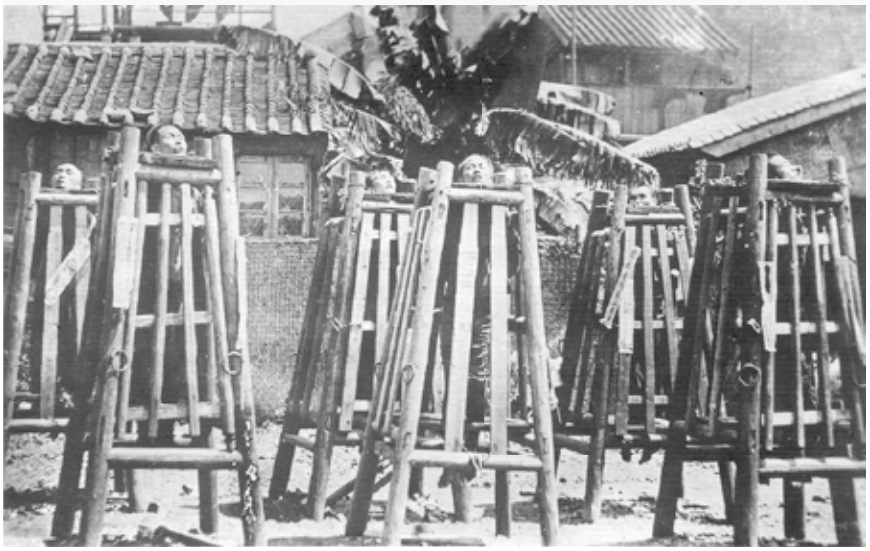
In 1899 the Boxers began to attack Christian missionaries in protest of the increasing numbers of missionaries in China and their interference with traditional Chinese life. A common sentiment in China was that missionaries were yet another attempt by foreign powers to divide and colonise China. The European 'extraterritoriality clause' meant that Europeans in China were exempt from most Chinese laws and were considered under the jurisdiction of their own countries' laws.

The Boxers also targeted telegraph lines and 'iron centipedes' (railway tracks). In the face of such lawlessness the Qing government had to act, but it faced a dilemma. The foreign powers demanded that Cixi suppress the uprising but, while she publicly condemned the Boxers, secretly the Dowager Empress supported their cause. In June 1900 the Boxers arrived in Beijing, laying siege to the foreign **legations**. A foreign attack on the Taku Forts in north-eastern China forced Cixi's hand.

SOURCE 4 A Boxer fighter from around 1900 with a spear and flag

Unable to oppose the Boxers for fear of losing further Chinese support, on June 21 she formally declared war on the foreign powers.

SOURCE 5 This photograph from around 1900 shows the public execution of captured Boxer rebel fighters.



The Eight Nation Alliance of foreign powers comprised Japan, Russia, Great Britain, France, the United States, Germany, Italy and Austria–Hungary. The Australian colonies, not yet federated into the Commonwealth, offered support to the British, and troops from Victoria and New South Wales were formed into naval brigades.

Australia's first contingents, mainly men from Victoria and New South Wales, sailed for China on 8 August 1900. Troops from the Eight Nation Alliance were already fighting in China and, by the time the Australians arrived, most of the major fighting was over. They were then engaged in 'mopping up' operations or simply guarding prisoners. Six Australians died in the Boxer Rebellion, but none were the result of enemy action — all were from sickness and injury.

One of the most significant episodes of the uprising was the siege of the legations. This was the area of Beijing in which the foreign powers had their diplomatic legations or embassies. The siege of the foreign legations in Beijing lasted 55 days. When they were relieved on 14 August 1900, 66 foreigners had been killed with many more Christians killed across China. Cixi fled Beijing but returned when peace terms were arranged.

Yet again superior foreign military forces had quickly defeated China. Yet again a punishing peace treaty was forced on China, resulting in more reparation payments and the further deployment of foreign troops in China. And, yet again, the Qing government's weakness against foreign powers had been demonstrated. Cixi finally realised that reform offered the only hope for the survival of the Qing and of China. Most of the reforms that had previously been resisted by Cixi were now initiated.

SOURCE 6 A photograph from the collection of the Australian War Memorial showing two officers of the Australian Naval Brigade in China around 1900–01

The Boxer Rebellion was actually not a rebellion at all. 'Rebellion' suggests the Boxers wanted to overthrow the dynasty, but this was never their intention. In fact, the

Empress Dowager Cixi had some sympathy with the rebels: she too wanted an end to foreign influence in China. She chose to describe it as a rebellion to give the impression that she opposed it in the hope of reducing the harshness of the peace terms imposed by the foreign powers.

7.8.2 Finally, reform

Among the reforms introduced by the Qing government under the terms of the Boxer Protocol were major educational changes. Modernisation of the curriculum began and for the first time western subjects were introduced. While this might have helped placate some of the people, for example, those who promoted the Hundred Days' Reform, it had some negative effects for the government. The new curriculum introduced beliefs and values that conflicted with traditional Confucian beliefs. Those who went through the new system tended to be more critical of the dynasty and were hungry for further change. In losing control of the education system, the Qing lost a key area of popular support.

In 1908 work began on a constitution in which the emperor would retain control over the armed forces, foreign policy and the judicial system but would extend the administrative control of provincial and local leaders. The military was also decentralised, equipped with western weapons and trained in western tactics.

Despite, or perhaps because of, these reforms, the Qing dynasty was doomed. The reforms were intended to modernise China and restore faith in the government. They only half succeeded. While they did manage to modernise China, they also provided a new degree of freedom for many of its people, a level of freedom never before known in China. With this freedom came a demand for further change and, eventually, a demand for the Qing government to be removed from power altogether. A new sense of nationalism was evolving and people began to dream of a new, independent China free from foreign interference.

7.8.3 Revolution

Over the course of the nineteenth century the Chinese people had witnessed the Qing dynasty's powerlessness to stop foreign encroachment into China. The violent upheavals of the Opium Wars, the Taiping Rebellion and the Boxer Rebellion repeatedly demonstrated the weakness of the Qing and the dynasty's inability to resolve pressures both from within and from outside China. Many Chinese came to believe that revolution, rather than reform, was the only way to save the country. This belief would be violently expressed in 1911.

Before her death in 1908, the Empress Dowager had nominated the three-year-old Pu Yi to be the next emperor. Pu Yi's father, Prince Jun, was himself not considered worthy of rule but would act as regent until Pu Yi was old enough to rule on his own. However, one man in particular had no time for a new emperor. His name was Sun Yixian and he would become a key figure in modern China.

Sun wanted to transform China into a republic and had already tried to overthrow the Qing in 1895. After this attempted coup failed he fled into exile but, in 1911, he saw a new opportunity, and this time he was more successful. Dissatisfaction with the Qing government's apparent weaknesses in the face of internal problems and foreign intervention had boiled over into open rebellion in many provinces. The imperial army refused to oppose the rebels unless the government granted the long-awaited constitution. When it refused to do so, the downfall of the Qing became only a matter of time. Without the army on its side there was no hope for the dynasty.

On 12 February 1912, Pu Yi was forced to abdicate and Sun Yixian was confirmed as president designate. However, Sun had a rival — General Yuan Shikai — with very different goals for the new China. Many areas of the country were still under the control of local warlords. Despite being provisional president, Sun did not have the military power to bring order to strife-torn China. That power rested with Yuan, so to avoid civil war Sun Yixian stepped down.

The declaration of a republic in China ended 267 years of Qing rule and some 2000 years of the imperial system. But this fundamental political change still did not bring peace to China.

7.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Draw and label a timeline showing the key events in China from 1900 to 1912.
2. Why did Cixi secretly support the Boxers?
3. Why did Cixi refer to the Boxer crisis as a rebellion rather than an uprising?
4. What role did education play in maintaining Qing rule over China and its people?
5. Why did the reforms introduced after the Boxer Rebellion help to bring about the downfall of the Qing dynasty?
6. How did Sun Yixian and Yuan Shikai differ in their ambitions for China?

Apply your understanding

7. Read **Source 2** and answer these questions:
   (a) Who do the Boxers refer to when they speak of the 'Son of Heaven'?
   (b) Who were the 'scourge of the country'?
   (c) What is this document asking Chinese people to do?
8. What does **Source 5** suggest to you about the nature of the fighting during the Boxer Rebellion?
9. Give reasons why the Chinese official held the opinion of the British expressed in **Source 3**.
10. What does **Source 6** reveal about Australia's involvement in the Boxer Rebellion?
11. In what way could **Source 6** be limited as a historical source?
12. Do you think it could be said that the reforms introduced by the Qing government actually helped bring about its downfall? Discuss your opinions as a class, and use evidence from this subtopic to help you write a paragraph in response.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.5: Resistance to revolution

7.9 Consequences

7.9.1 A new emperor?

The China that emerged from the nineteenth century was barely recognisable compared with that of a century earlier. For many countries, that period was a time of great change but, for China in particular, the consequences of the events of the nineteenth century would affect it well into the next century, with devastating effects.

In 1911, after the revolution that ended the Qing dynasty, a new style of government was created under the rule of General Yuan Shikai. But after coming to power it seemed that his true ambitions became clear. He had avoided civil war when Sun Yixian had stepped down from power, but China now found itself with two opposing political parties — Sun Yixian's Guomindang (GMD) or Nationalist Party, and the Jinbudang or Progressive Party. Both were formed in 1912. When Yuan organised the murder of a GMD leader in 1913, Sun launched a 'Second Revolution' to remove Yuan from the presidency. Yuan responded by declaring the GMD illegal and suspending Parliament. He also began to talk about making himself emperor.

Had China gone through so much turmoil to end the old imperial system only to have it replaced with a new one? Yuan put the question to the vote, but only those who were specially selected were allowed to cast a ballot. Unsurprisingly, the vote was unanimously in favour of the proposition. But Yuan would never become emperor. In defiance of the vote, eight provinces declared independence and the spectre of civil war emerged. In 1916 Yuan finally accepted that his imperial dream was out of reach and announced a return

to republican government. He died that same year, leaving China once again in political turmoil. For millions of peasants, however, life continued as usual, with cycles of famine, drought, floods and unjust taxes.

SOURCE 1 Sun Yixian, founder and first leader of the Guomindang

SOURCE 2 Yuan Shikai, first president of the Republic of China

7.9.2 China and the First World War

In 1914 the new Chinese republic, only three years old, found itself an ally of the British and French in the First World War. The move away from a monarchy was seen as a positive step by the West and China was certainly keen to improve its standing on the world stage. While officially neutral until declaring war on Germany in 1917, from the start of the war China sent more than 100 000 volunteer labourers to the Western Front to help dig trenches, work in factories or engage in other support work. But China gained little by being an ally of the British and French.

At the end of the war, when the Treaty of Versailles was forced upon Germany, the decision was made to confiscate all of Germany's overseas colonies. Some of these were in China and had been leased to Germany by the Qing government. However, these colonies were not returned to China but instead handed over to Japan — China's more powerful neighbour. The Allied powers were happy to humiliate a weaker country if it meant placating a stronger one. The subsequent renewal of anti-foreign sentiment in China created conditions that would play a role in the creation of the Chinese Communist Party in 1921.

7.9.3 The Chinese Communist Party

In July 1921 the Chinese Communist Party was founded. Its members wanted to revolutionise China and establish a classless society. They regarded the Taiping Rebellion as a peasant revolution. The future leader of the party Mao Zedong was one of its earliest members. Initially the Guomindang formed an alliance with the communists but, under Jiang Jieshi, who took over the leadership after Sun Yixian's death in 1925, the Guomindang turned against them. Violence followed as GMD forces attempted to wipe out the communists but, after two decades of further unrest, the communists won control of China in 1949.

7.9.4 Positive outcomes?

Over the course of the nineteenth century the Chinese people had witnessed the Qing dynasty's powerlessness to stop foreign encroachment into China. The violent upheavals of the Opium Wars, the Taiping Rebellion and the Boxer Rebellion repeatedly demonstrated the weakness of the Qing, and the dynasty's inability to resolve pressures both from within and from outside China.

Making any value judgement about positive or negative effects of particular events is difficult when studying history. Inevitably those judgements are highly subjective and will be different depending on

the source or the historian. However, few historians disagree that during the nineteenth century there were not many positive effects of foreign influence on China. They highlight the Opium Wars, the Taiping Rebellion and the unfair treaties as evidence. However, most historians also agree that there were some advantages in the long term for China. The exposure of Qing weakness and the continued oppression from both their own government and that of the foreigners made them argue for change. People realised that the emperor did not necessarily enjoy the 'mandate of heaven' and, for better or worse, many came to believe that revolution, rather than reform, was the only way to save the country.

SOURCE 3 The May Fourth Movement of 1919 was a protest by thousands of Chinese students against the government's failure to protect Chinese interests following the First World War. Widespread strikes from the working class, as well as support from the media, showed that many Chinese people agreed with the protest. This photograph, taken in Nanning, marks the 90th anniversary of that event.

7.9 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Summarise the key events in China between 1911 and 1918.

Apply your understanding

2. **Source 3** shows Chinese students commemorating the 90th anniversary of the May Fourth Movement. Using this photograph as evidence, suggest whether the 1919 protest might be considered a positive or negative event in China today. Justify your response.
3. Why do you think Yuan Shikai wanted to make himself emperor?
4. Use the internet to research the May Fourth Movement in 1919 and compare it to other protests against foreign interference in Chinese affairs in this topic. Do you think the attitude towards foreign powers had changed a great deal since the mid nineteenth century? Explain.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.6: Categorising consequences

7.10 SkillBuilder: Analysing cause and consequence

7.10.1 What is cause and consequence?

When studying history it is important to remember that events don't 'just happen'. Many factors combine to bring about historical events. Being able to analyse cause and consequence is an important historical skill.

Cause and consequence (C & C) underlies all history and historical events. Every event occurs for a variety of reasons and leaves behind it a range of consequences. This is equally true for both the smallest and the largest events. But the causes are not always easily identified and the consequences are not always obvious either.

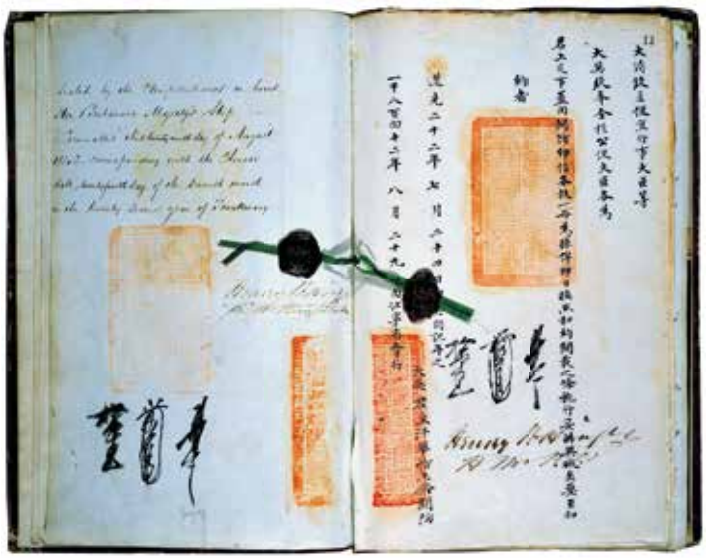
Why is it important to analyse C & C?

Analysing cause and consequence helps us evaluate the importance of different events within historical periods. For example, we might come to the conclusion that one particular event was more significant to a period of change than another.

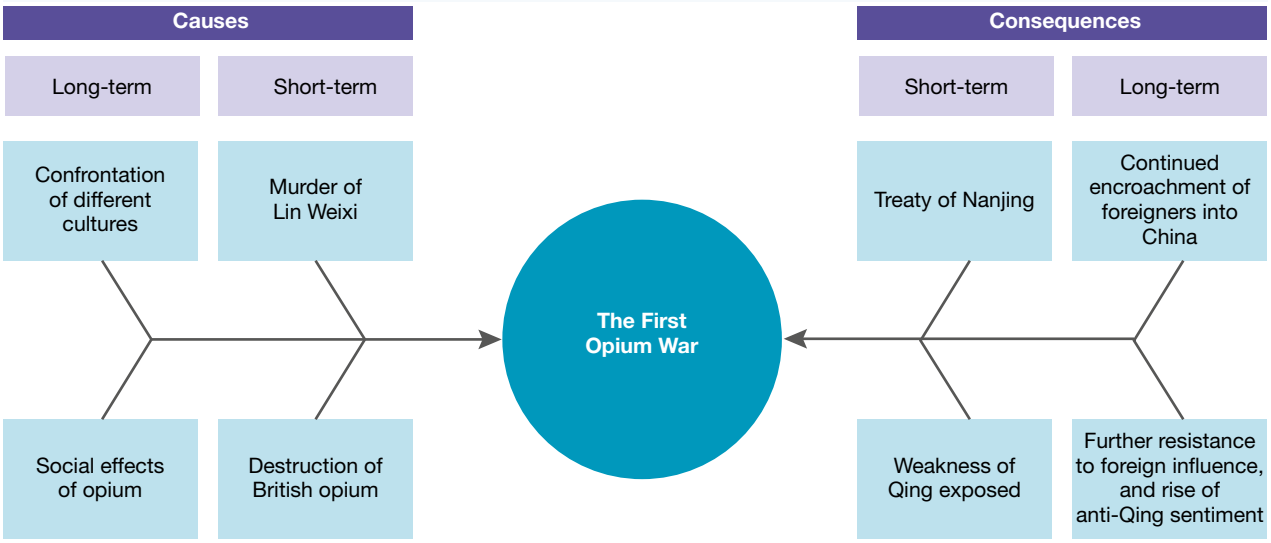
7.10.2 How to analyse C & C

1. To begin thinking about the causes of an event, start by asking the question, 'Why did this event happen?' This can be a deceptive question because the answer is usually more complex than it might appear at first. Brainstorm and write down all the reasons you can think of. Try to classify them into long-term causes and short-term causes or 'sparks'.
2. Next, for consequences, ask, 'What happened because of it?' Once again, brainstorm and then write down all the things you can think of, trying to separate the short-term or immediate consequences from the long-term consequences.
3. Now organise the results in a way that makes them easier to analyse. One of the most effective ways to analyse cause and consequence in history is to use a graphic organiser such as that shown in **Source 2**. As you can see, there is room in the centre for you to indicate the event you are analysing, and there is room on each side to list a number of different causes and consequences, both long and short term.
4. Once you have set out your initial thoughts, you can start to consider the significance of the event you are studying. Ask yourself these questions:
   - How different was the situation after the event from before it?
   - Was the event I am analysing a key factor of change in the historical period I am studying?

SOURCE 1 The signature page of the Treaty of Nanjing



SOURCE 2 An effective way to identify and analyse cause and consequence



An example of analysing C & C

The example here uses the First Opium War to outline how to analyse cause and consequence.

1. *Why did the First Opium War happen?* After brainstorming some ideas, long-term factors identified were the confrontation between British and Chinese cultures, and the social effects of the opium trade in China. Short-term causes or sparks that set off the First Opium War were identified as the destruction of British opium stocks by the Chinese authorities and the murder of Lin Weixi.
2. *What happened because of the First Opium War?* Short-term consequences were the signing of the Treaty of Nanjing and the exposing of Qing government weaknesses. Long-term consequences were increased encroachment into China by foreign powers and further popular resistance to foreigners and to the Qing government.
3. The causes and consequences have been put into the diagram, making it easier to identify and categorise them. Of course there may be more branches, depending on the historical event being analysed.
4. By analysing the diagram and considering both the causes and consequences of the First Opium War, it becomes clear that it was a significant event in nineteenth-century China. In the long term, it played an important role in the changes that China experienced in the nineteenth century.

SOURCE 3 Opium being destroyed in China

SOURCE 4 The Guangxu emperor, who initiated the Hundred Days' Reform

7.10.3 Developing my skills

Now you have seen an example of how to analyse cause and consequence, copy into your workbook (or use a graphic organiser tool on a computer) the diagram in **Source 2**. Then identify the causes and consequences of one other event discussed in this topic. For example, you might choose the Taiping Rebellion, the Boxer Rebellion or the 1911 revolution.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 7.7: Analysing cause and consequence

7.11 Review

7.11.1 Review

In this topic we have investigated the effects of foreign interference and influence on China between 1750 and 1918. We have analysed the different cultural ideas of the Chinese and the foreigners and how these came into conflict, and have studied the forms of resistance that arose in China against the foreign powers. We have also seen how a variety of different factors helped bring about fundamental political change in China in the early twentieth century.

KEY TERMS

concubine a woman who lives with a man she is not married to and has a lower social rank than his wife
Daoist ancient Chinese philosophical/religious tradition emphasising simple living in harmony and balance with the universe
despot a ruler with almost unlimited power who uses it unfairly or cruelly
gunboat diplomacy a coercive form of diplomacy in which a country threatens the use of military force to achieve its objectives
junk Chinese sailing ship
kowtow to kneel and touch the forehead to the ground in deep respect for an emperor
legation a foreign country's diplomatic office, similar to an embassy
mandate of heaven the idea that heaven blessed the rule of a just emperor but could rescind that blessing if the emperor ruled unjustly
Marco Polo merchant from Venice who travelled through Asia in the thirteenth century; generally credited with introducing Europeans to China and Central Asia
spirit possession an alleged supernatural event in which a spirit or god takes control of the human body, creating changes in behaviour
subordinate having a lower or less important position

7.14 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz online only

Short answer quiz

1. Between which years did the Qing dynasty rule China?
2. Who was the last ruler of the Qing dynasty?
3. Which luxury goods were traded between China and Europe during the Qing dynasty?
4. What factors led to China's isolation before the eighteenth century?
5. What were the aims of the Taiping rebels?
6. Which nations traded with China in the nineteenth century?
7. Why were spices so valued in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries?
8. Why was India an important link in the trade routes between Britain and China?
9. Why did China face an uncertain future in 1911?
10. What was the 'mandate of heaven' and how could it be 'lost' by an emperor?

Apply your understanding

11. Identify five challenges facing the Qing dynasty in the nineteenth century.
12. Choose one of the emperors of the Qing dynasty, such as the Jiaqing or Guangxu emperors, and research their period of rule. What challenges did they face? Would you consider their rule successful or unsuccessful?
13. Work in small groups to compare the position and power of China in relation to Japan, Russia and England in 1900. Compare the form of government, type of economy and relationships with other nations. You could draw up a table like the one provided to organise your initial research.

Country	Form of government	Type of economy	Relationship with other nations
China			
Japan			
Russia			
England			

When you have filled in your information into the table as a group, individually prepare a report that describes the changing nature of China's position in relation to the other countries.

14. Look at **Source 1** and use it to answer these questions:
    (a) Why has a dragon been chosen to represent China?
    (b) What is the historical context of the cartoon? (What had been happening in China at the time the cartoon was created?)
    (c) What is the message of the cartoon?
    (d) What are some of the values and limitations of this source for historians?

SOURCE 1 This Western cartoon from 1900 is entitled 'The real trouble will come with the wake' (a wake is a gathering after a funeral to talk about the person who has been buried). The cartoon shows animal personifications of the countries that had a strong influence in China.

15. Using the following table, note your thoughts on the values and limitations of different types of sources. Some have been filled in for you.

Type of source	Values	Limitations
Photographs		• Can be cropped or set up to exclude or include certain things • Might be posed
Cartoons, drawings		
Letters, diaries	• Can offer insights into personal feelings because they tend to be private • Can reveal what life was like at the time	

16. Using your complete table from activity 15, select three different sources from this topic and assess their values and limitations.

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Go online to access additional end of topic resources such as interactivities and printable worksheets.

Try out this interactivity: China (1750–1918) timeline (int-2967)

Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 7.8: Crossword

Worksheet 7.9: Summing up

Worksheet 7.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic several big questions were posed. Use the knowledge you have gained to answer these questions.

1. How did military technology and new ideas contribute to conflict and change in China?
2. What was the significance of European imperialism in nineteenth-century China?
3. What were the main political, economic and social effects of warfare on the Qing dynasty?

TOPIC 8
World War I (1914–1918)

8.1 Overview

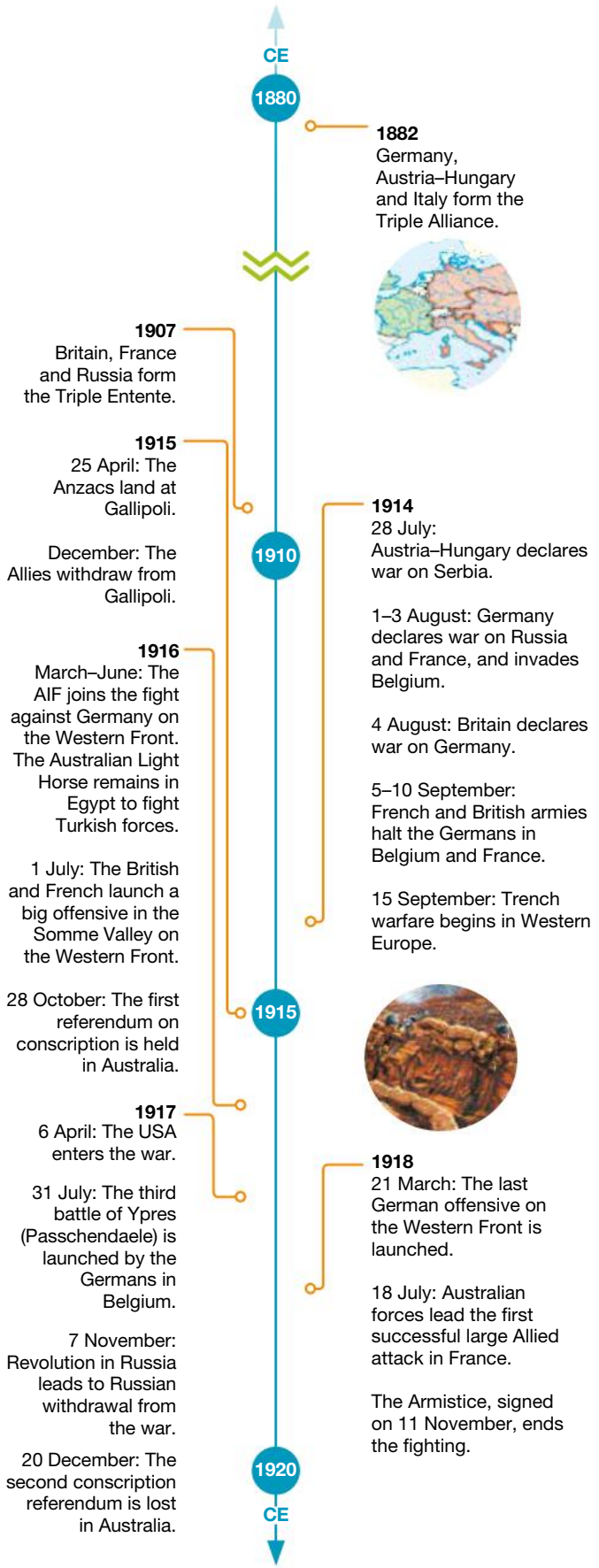
Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the content and concepts covered in this topic.

8.1.1 Links with our times

In 2007 the bodies of 250 Australian and British soldiers were discovered in a mass grave near the town of Fromelles in northern France. The site was close to where they had fallen in 1916 during one of the bloodiest battles of World War I. In 2010, on the ninety-fourth anniversary of the Battle of Fromelles, the last of these soldiers was finally given a proper burial at a new military cemetery in France. For Australians this was a reminder of the terrible losses suffered by the young Australian nation.

SOURCE 1 The Shrine of Remembrance in Melbourne (left). World War I memorial in Cairns, north Queensland (right). The clock is stopped at the time of the first landing of the Anzacs at Gallipoli.

SOURCE 2 A timeline of World War I



Each year on 25 April we commemorate Anzac Day, marking the day in 1915 on which soldiers from Australia and New Zealand first landed on Turkey's Gallipoli Peninsula. Each year on 11 November we observe Remembrance Day, the day that war ended in 1918. If you have travelled around Australia, you may have noticed that every city, most towns and many older suburbs have memorials that were first built to honour Australians who died in World War I. Perhaps you have wondered why, in a country so far from the battlefields, that conflict had such a lasting impact.

World War I was a turning point in Australia's history, and learning about it can help us understand much about our country. But it was also a turning point for the world. It brought about death and destruction on a massive scale, saw the rise of communism and the fall of empires, and planted the seeds of fascism. Wars have terrible consequences, but they do not simply 'happen'. They can be investigated and understood, and learning from the past could help us to avoid war in the future.

Big questions

As you work through this topic, look for information that will help you to answer these questions:

1. Why was Australia involved in World War I?
2. What was the significance of the Gallipoli and Western Front campaigns?
3. How did the Anzac legend influence our national identity?
4. What were the main political, economic and social effects of the war?
5. How did the war affect Australians on the home front?

Starter questions

1. Why are there World War I memorials all over Australia?
2. What do you think and how do you feel when you visit a war memorial and read the names of the fallen?
3. Why is Anzac Day commemorated each year in Australia?
4. Do you think we can we learn from the past so as to avoid wars in the future?

8.2 How do we know about World War I?

8.2.1 Evidence of World War I

In this topic we will be investigating World War I, especially Australia's involvement in it. The human cost of World War I was horrific for Australia, as for many other nations. Almost 9 million soldiers on both sides died in this terrible conflict. More than twice that number were wounded, including many who were terribly disfigured or who lost limbs, were blinded or were driven mad.

Because of its global scale and impact, there is an enormous range of sources of evidence for World War I. Australia's population during the war years was under 5 million, yet around 60 000 Australians died on active service. As a result, Australia has among the world's most extensive collections of sources from the war.

8.2.2 Written sources

Thousands of books and articles have been written about World War I over the many years since it ended. There are also vast quantities of written primary sources. These include campaign maps, soldiers' military records, letters, diaries, memoirs and propaganda for and against conscription for the war. Many of these sources can now be read on line through the website of the Australian War Memorial.

DID YOU KNOW?

World War I (the First World War), at the time called 'the Great War', was sometimes described as 'the War to End All Wars'. However, in almost a century since World War I there has hardly been a time when war was not taking place somewhere in the world. Increasingly the main victims have come to be civilians. As many as 231 million people died in wars and other conflicts during the twentieth century. Since the beginning of this century, many more have died.

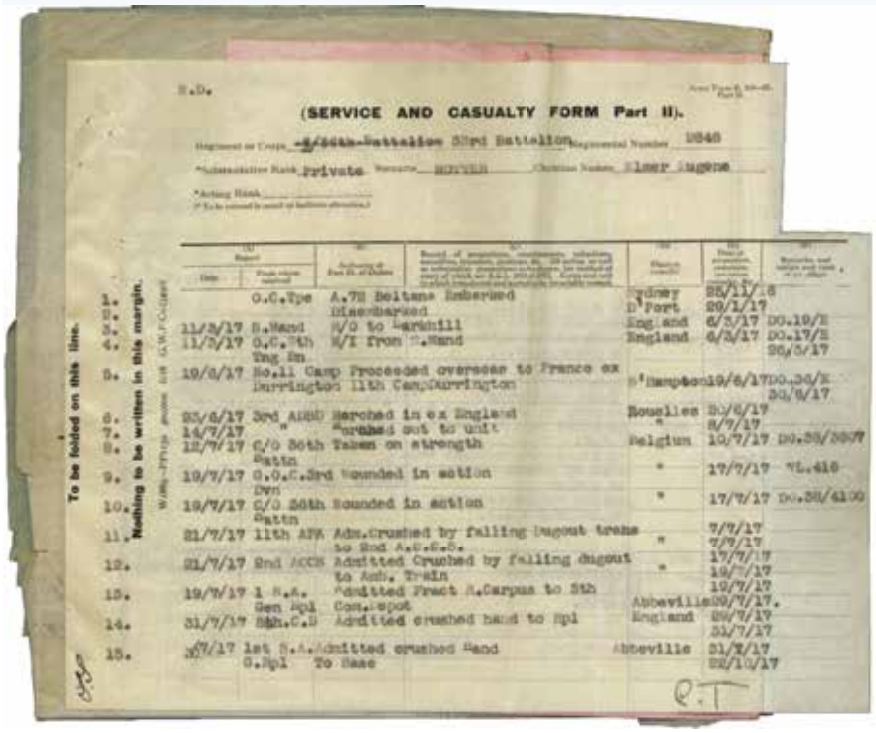
8.2.3 Visual sources

Several countries, including France, Belgium and Britain, have great museums dedicated to World War I. Yet none of these surpasses the outstanding collections of the Australian War Memorial. Its holdings include many thousands of photographs and artworks, weapons, equipment and dioramas depicting specific battles. Many documentary films and several excellent websites are dedicated to the subject.

The following sources will give you an idea of the variety of evidence that we have for this conflict

SOURCE 1 Australian 2nd Division monument near the town of Peronne in the Somme Valley, northern France

SOURCE 2 Part of the World War I military service record of Private Elmer Motter of the 33rd Australian Battalion



(SERVICE AND CASUALTY FORM Part II).

Private

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Nothing to be written in this margin.

SOURCE 3 Part of Second Lieutenant C. C. D. St Pinnock's account of the aftermath of fatal charges against Turkish lines by soldiers of the Australian Light Horse at Gallipoli, Turkey, on 7 August 1915. Pinnock himself was killed in action just one year later.

… you can imagine what it was like. Really too awful to write about. All your pals that had been with you for months and months blown and shot out of all recognition. There was no chance whatever of us gaining our point, but the roll call after was the saddest, just fancy only 47 answered their names out of close on 550 men. When I heard what the result was I simply cried like a child.

SOURCE 4 Behind the arches along both sides of the Commemorative Courtyard of the Australian War Memorial, the Roll of Honour lines the walls. It displays the names of all Australians who have died in war since 1885 (more than 102 000 names). More Australians died in World War I than in all other conflicts combined.

8.2 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Give five examples of types of primary sources that are available for studies of World War I.
2. Name four countries that have museums dedicated to World War I.

Apply your understanding

3. What can you tell from **Source 1** about one place where Australians fought in World War I?
4. How would you account for the renaming of the street in **Source 1** as *Avenue des Australiens* ('Avenue of Australians')?
5. Study **Source 2**. Elmer Motter died of wounds in France on 2 September 1918.
   (a) How long was he in action before he was first wounded?
   (b) What conclusions might be drawn from this fact about the dangers soldiers faced during World War I?
6. Read **Source 3**.
   (a) When and where did the event described in this source occur?
   (b) What percentage of the 550 men had survived to answer their names after the attack?
7. Whose names are inscribed on the walls in the Commemorative Area of the Australian War Memorial (**Source 4**)?
8. What kinds of evidence are represented by the four sources in this subtopic?
9. What can you learn about Australia's role in World War I from just the four sources in this subtopic?

8.3 What caused the Great War?

8.3.1 Long-term causes of the war

The immediate trigger of World War I was the assassination of the heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire on 28 June 1914. Five weeks later the great powers of Europe, along with the countries of their empires and some other small nations, were at war. When the war began, most people thought that it would be over within a few months. Instead it raged for four years, causing great destruction and unimagined suffering. Such conflicts rarely have one simple cause. To understand how and why the Great War happened we need to look well beyond the event that triggered the fighting.

Glorifying war

Today we know that war is always terrible, cruel and destructive, and that it often has unforeseen consequences. However, most people did not understand this in early 1914. At school and in popular books, newspapers and magazines war was often presented as a heroic adventure. Most people thought of wars as short, exciting, noble and glorious. At the same time, there was an arms race in Europe. Between 1870 and 1914 the great powers increased their military spending by 300 per cent and all the continental European powers adopted **conscription**. Some historians have described Europe in 1914 as a powder keg waiting for a spark to ignite an explosion.

Long-term tensions

As you learned in subtopic 8.1, imperialism and nationalism had caused international tensions and conflicts long before 1914. Fear and suspicion of their rivals drove nations to seek security through alliances with others. Leaders came to believe that their countries would be safer if they could rely on others to come to their aid if ever they were threatened. But such alliances could also drag countries into conflicts.

Germany's alliances

From the early 1870s Germany sought an alliance with Austria–Hungary and Russia. This was because the German states had taken two provinces — Alsace and Lorraine — from France during war in 1870,

and Germany feared that France would want revenge. But such an alliance could not last because Austria–Hungary and Russia had competing interests. In 1879 Germany created the Dual Alliance, under which Germany and Austria–Hungary agreed that each would help the other if either was attacked by Russia. This accord became the Triple Alliance when Italy joined in 1882. At the same time, Germany attempted to remain friendly with Britain and to mend relations with Russia.

SOURCE 1 European alliances at the beginning of 1914

France finds allies

From 1888 Germany's foreign policy took a new direction. When Germany failed to renew a treaty with Russia in 1890, France found an ally in Russia. In the 1894 Franco-Russian Alliance each agreed to help the other if attacked by Germany. The new German ruler, Kaiser Wilhelm II, wanted to create a colonial empire and took steps to build up the German navy. This raised concerns in Britain, whose own empire depended on the Royal Navy's absolute superiority over any rival. Alarmed by Germany's move, Britain signed the Entente Cordiale with France in 1904. When Britain and Russia settled their differences in 1907, Britain, France and Russia linked up in the Triple Entente.

Conflicting French and German interests in North Africa and conflicting Russian and Austrian interests in the Balkans led to increased tensions. However, it was in the Balkans that these tensions would erupt into war.

SOURCE 2 From a statement in 1914 by Sir Edward Grey, Britain's foreign minister from 1905 to 1916

The cause of anxiety now in public opinion here as regards Germany arises entirely from the question of the German naval expenditure … if she had a fleet bigger than the British fleet, obviously she could not only defeat us at sea, but could be in London in a very short time with her army.

SOURCE 3 The (British) Royal Navy's Fleet concentrated at sea a fortnight before the outbreak of World War I. It was British policy to maintain a navy that was large enough and strong enough to defeat the navies of any two potential enemies.

8.3.2 The short-term triggers of the war

The Balkans powder keg

Nationalism was an especially strong force in Europe's Balkan peninsula, where several national groups had won their independence from the Turkish Ottoman Empire since the 1820s. This current alarmed the military leaders of Austria–Hungary, who feared that the Austro-Hungarian Empire could also be infected by national minorities seeking independence. The main problem was tension between Austria and Serbia, the most powerful of the independent Balkan nations.

Serbia was a **Slavic** nation. Serbian nationalists wanted other Slavic peoples within the Austro-Hungarian Empire to unite with it in a South Slav kingdom. Many Serbs were furious when, in 1908, Austria annexed two Turkish Balkan provinces, Bosnia and Herzegovina, where Serbs made up much of the population. By 1914 Serbia saw Austria as the main obstacle to its expansion. For its part, Austria viewed Serbia as a danger to its empire's continued existence. Austria–Hungary was much more powerful than Serbia, but Serbia had the backing of Russia, which portrayed itself as the champion of fellow Orthodox Christian Slavs.

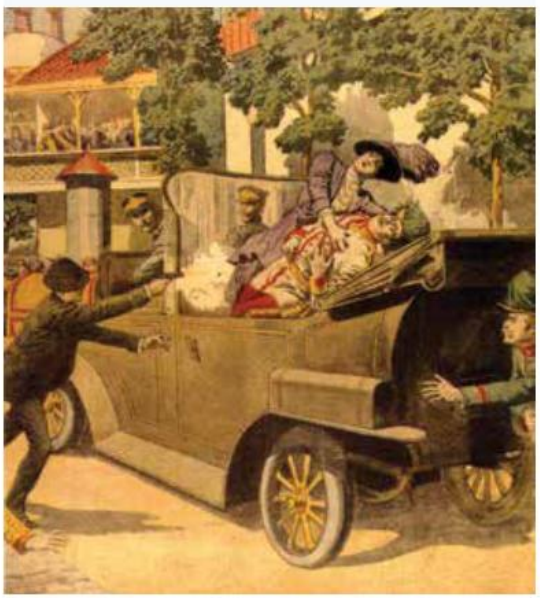
Countdown to war

On 28 June 1914, during an official visit to the Bosnian town of Sarajevo, the heir to the Austrian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his wife, the Duchess Sophie, were fatally shot. Their killer was Gavrilo Princip, a 19-year-old Bosnian Serb. Princip and his fellow assassins belonged to an extreme Serbian nationalist group, Young Bosnia. Its aim was to see Bosnia united with Serbia. They were armed and assisted by Danilo Ilic, a member of the Black Hand, a secret society directed by the head of Serbian military intelligence.

SOURCE 4 The Balkans and the Austro-Hungarian Empire at the end of 1913

SOURCE 5 Gavrilo Princip (right) was a member of the Serbian nationalist group Young Bosnia.

SOURCE 6 This illustration appeared in a French magazine shortly after the assassination. The caption read: 'The assassination of the Archduke, Austrian heir, and the Duchess, his wife, in Sarajevo'.



SOURCE 7 From a letter written in 1918 by the youngest of the assassins, 17-year-old Vaso Cubrilovic, to his sisters. Because he was under 20, Cubrilovic was spared the death penalty but sentenced to 16 years' imprisonment.

I shall write as much as I remember about the assassination. I first thought about it in October 1913 in Tuzla, incensed by the fights we had with our teachers, the mistreatment of Serbian students, and the general situation in Bosnia. I thought I'd rather kill the one person who'd really harmed our people than fight in another war for Serbia. All I'd achieve in a war is to kill a couple of innocent soldiers, while these gentlemen who were responsible for it never come anywhere near the war itself …

Ilic … told me that there would be three others, apart from us three, and that Serbian officers were supplying the weapons. I asked if the Serbian government knew about it. He said no …

DID YOU KNOW?

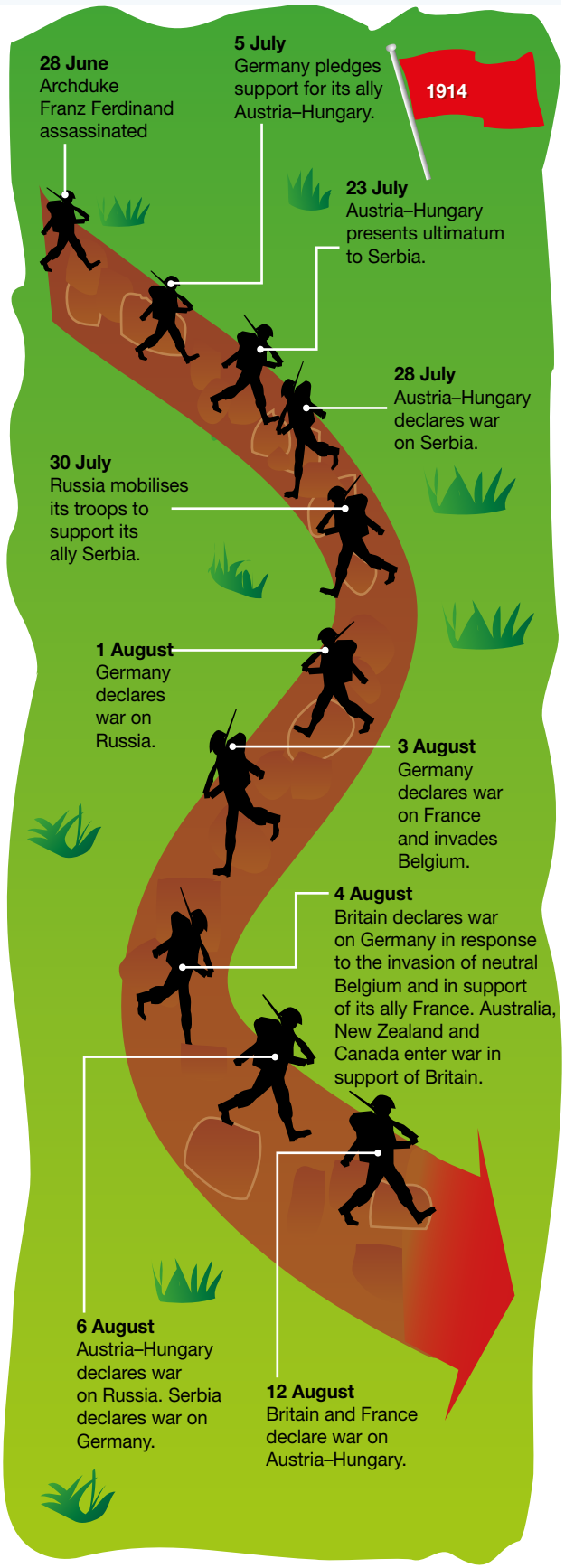
The assassins did not know that Archduke Franz Ferdinand was strongly opposed to any war against Serbia and wanted political reform in the Austro-Hungarian Empire with more rights for its subjects.

Events soon spiralled out of control. Austria now had an excuse to crush Serbia but needed to be sure of Germany's backing. Germany gave Austria a guarantee of military support and, on 23 July, Austria presented Serbia with an **ultimatum**. Austria knew that Serbia could never accept all the terms of the ultimatum, especially its demand that Austrian troops be allowed to track down Serb terrorists inside Serbia.

8.3.3 War begins

Serbia accepted many of the demands and offered to discuss others, but Austria proceeded to declare war on 28 July. Russia began to mobilise its forces to support Serbia on 30 July, so Germany declared war on Russia on 1 August. After France declared it would stand by its Russian ally, on 3 August Germany declared war on France. As you can see from **Source 8**, Russia, Germany, France, Belgium, Britain and their empires were drawn rapidly into a world war.

SOURCE 8 The steps by which countries were drawn into World War I



8.3 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Create a mind map of the long-term causes of World War I.
2. Explain why Austria–Hungary's military leaders wanted a war with Serbia (refer to **Source 4** in your explanation).

Apply your understanding

3. Using **Source 1**, list the members of the two rival European alliances.
4. Use **Sources 2** and **3** and your own knowledge to explain:
   (a) why Britain was anxious about Germany's naval build-up
   (b) why Britain wanted its navy to be able to match those of any two enemies.
5. Referring to **Sources 5** and **6**, explain why the assassination of the Austrian archduke was so significant.
6. Using **Source 8**, describe the steps by which a local conflict in the Balkans became a world war.
7. Read **Source 7**. According to his letter:
   (a) How did Vaso Cubrilovic justify his involvement in the assassination?
   (b) Do you think he was justified? Give reasons for your answer.
   (c) Besides Young Bosnia, what organisation was involved in the assassination plot?
   (d) Was the Serbian government responsible?
8. Do you think Austria was justified in declaring war?
9. How else could the situation have been resolved?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.1: War: When? Where? Why? Who?

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **Europe on the eve of war**

8.4 The world at war

8.4.1 The main battlefronts

World War I was fought between two groups of countries — the Allies and the Central Powers. At first the Allies consisted of the British, French and Russian empires along with Serbia and Belgium. The Central Powers were Germany, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Bulgaria and the Turkish Ottoman Empire. Partly because Britain, France, Germany and Turkey had empires outside Europe, what began as a European war became a global war. It was fought on many fronts, on land, on and under the sea and in the air.

In return for promises of territory, Italy withdrew from the Triple Alliance and joined the Allies in May 1915. As the war progressed, other countries joined the Allies. Among them were Greece, Portugal, Romania, Japan, China, Brazil and the small countries of Central America, although many of them expressed their support without joining the fighting. The United States of America joined the Allies in 1917.

The Western Front

Germany's strategy was based on the fact that it had an enemy to the west (France) and a bigger enemy to the east (Russia), and that it would be impossible to defeat both at the same time. Count Alfred von Schlieffen had developed Germany's basic plan in 1905. Under the Schlieffen Plan, during the six weeks the Germans believed Russia would need to mobilise its army, Germany would launch a quick attack to defeat France. The victorious German forces could then be moved by rail to the east to fight Russia.

Attacking France through neutral Belgium in August 1914 avoided the much slower task of a direct invasion across the heavily fortified French–German border. The plan failed largely because of strong Belgian resistance, something Germany had not expected. Belgian resistance delayed Germany's advance and helped French and British forces to halt the Germans in northern France in September 1914. Both sides dug trenches to reduce their losses from enemy artillery and machine-gun fire. Over the next four years, millions of lives were lost in huge offensives aimed at breaking the **deadlock** that resulted from trench warfare.

SOURCE 1 How the Schlieffen Plan was meant to work

The Eastern Front

On the Eastern Front, Russian forces had some early successes but they were poorly led and equipped, and the Germans soon gained the advantage. Around 2 million Russian soldiers were killed, wounded or taken prisoner during the war. Despite some victories against Austro-Hungarian forces, Russia's military was collapsing by early 1917 and the Revolution of November 1917 ended Russia's involvement in the war (see subtopic 8.12).

8.4.2 Other theatres of war

The war at sea

Germany's naval build-up had been a major reason for Britain's decision to become an ally of France and Russia. Both Britain and Germany believed that navies could determine the outcome of war. However, in 1914 the German fleet was trapped in its ports, so the British navy's main role was maintaining a **blockade** to prevent Germany from importing war materials. Germany retaliated by sending out U-boats to sink allied shipping. In January 1917 **U-boats** began to attack ships of neutral countries trading with the Allies. This led to the United States joining the Allies in April 1917.

Other European fronts

When Italy joined the Allies a new front was opened along its mountainous frontier with Austria. Fighting continued there throughout the war. In 1916 Austrian and German troops overran Romania soon after it joined the Allies. After Russian forces captured Armenia from Turkey in 1915, Turkish soldiers rounded up hundreds of thousands of Armenians living within Turkish territory. They were sent on a death march and massacred. In the same year, the Allies failed in their attempt to invade Turkey via the Gallipoli Peninsula (see subtopic 8.6).

SOURCE 2 Major battlefronts of World War I

War in the colonies

With most of its navy bottled up in port, Germany was unable to defend its colonies. In 1914 South Africa took German South-west Africa, Australia took German New Guinea, and Japan seized Germany's Pacific islands colonies and territory in China. Turkey's Middle Eastern colonies became a theatre of war from 1915, when Britain encouraged Arab leaders to revolt against the Turks with promises of independent kingdoms. These promises were later dishonoured. Germany, in turn, created colonial problems for Britain by shipping arms to Irish rebels, who staged an unsuccessful revolt against British rule in Ireland in 1916.

8.4 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Who were the Allies and who were the Central Powers?
2. Make a timeline of the main developments in World War I.

Apply your understanding

3. Examine **Source 1**.
   (a) In a paragraph, explain why Germany needed to defeat France quickly and how the Schlieffen Plan was meant to achieve this.
   (b) In a second paragraph, explain why the plan failed.
4. Study **Source 2** and list the main World War I theatres of war.
5. Britain used Germany's invasion of neutral Belgium to justify declaring war on Germany on 4 August 1914. Why do you think Germany was willing to risk provoking Britain?
6. How do you think the Allies were able to gain advantages from their overseas colonies while Germany was unable to do the same?

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.1: War: When? Where? Why? Who?

myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

› **First World War**

8.5 Australians in the Great War — an overview

8.5.1 Australia's response to the outbreak of war

Why were many Australians willing to fight in World War I, and where did they serve? You have already learned about how World War I began and the main developments that shaped the course of the war. Now we will try to understand why Australians took part and the ways in which they contributed.

When Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August 1914 Australia was part of the British Empire and therefore was also at war. The Australian Labor Party leader, Andrew Fisher, expressed a popular view when he pledged that Australia would back Britain 'to the last man and the last shilling'. Australia was the only combatant that did not impose conscription, so individual Australians still had the choice of whether or not they would fight. But enthusiastic volunteers from all over the country rushed to **enlist**.

Why did they do this? Soldiers' letters and diaries reveal that some went for personal reasons such as to escape unemployment, to travel or to seek adventure. Many imagined war was exciting and that this one would all be over in weeks. But most joined believing that Britain's cause was right. They had been brought up to believe that men should be willing to die for their country and the empire, and that Australia needed to prove to Britain that Australians were heroic and worthy of being regarded as true Britons.

SOURCE 1 Private A. J. McSparrow, in a letter dated 18 March 1915. Private McSparrow died of wounds in August 1916.

I have [enlisted] … and I don't regret it in the very least. I believe it is every young fellow's duty … besides every paper one lifts it has something to say about young fellows being so slow in coming forward … we are the sort of men who should go.

SOURCE 2 Corporal R. E. Antill, in a letter to his parents dated 23 April 1915. Corporal Antill was killed in action in July 1917. ('4/-' means four shillings.)

… things were so [economically] bad in Melbourne … and they are a jolly site worse now … every day that passes 4/- goes down to me and this war is bound to last a good while yet … if I am killed you will get what is due to me just the same, as it goes to the next of kin.

8.5.2 The formation of the Anzacs

Australia quickly recruited a volunteer army it called the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). By September 1914, 20 000 soldiers had been selected and organised into the 1st Infantry Division and a Light Horse (mounted) Brigade. By December they were training in Egypt. There the AIF was joined by 10 000 New Zealand troops to form the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC).

Where did they fight?

Australians took part in several theatres of the war on land, at sea and in the air.

SOURCE 3 Where Australians fought in World War I

Where Australians fought in World War I

Gallipoli

In 1915 Australians played a major role in the Allies' failed attempt to invade Turkey through an attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula (see subtopic 8.6).

War at sea

In Australia's first action in the war, the small Royal Australian Navy (RAN) sent its only battle cruiser *Australia* with the Australian Naval and Military Force to capture German New Guinea in September 1914. The RAN also escorted convoys of transport ships carrying troops to the war. It drove the Germans out of the Pacific. It also served in the Atlantic and Indian oceans, the Mediterranean and the North Sea.

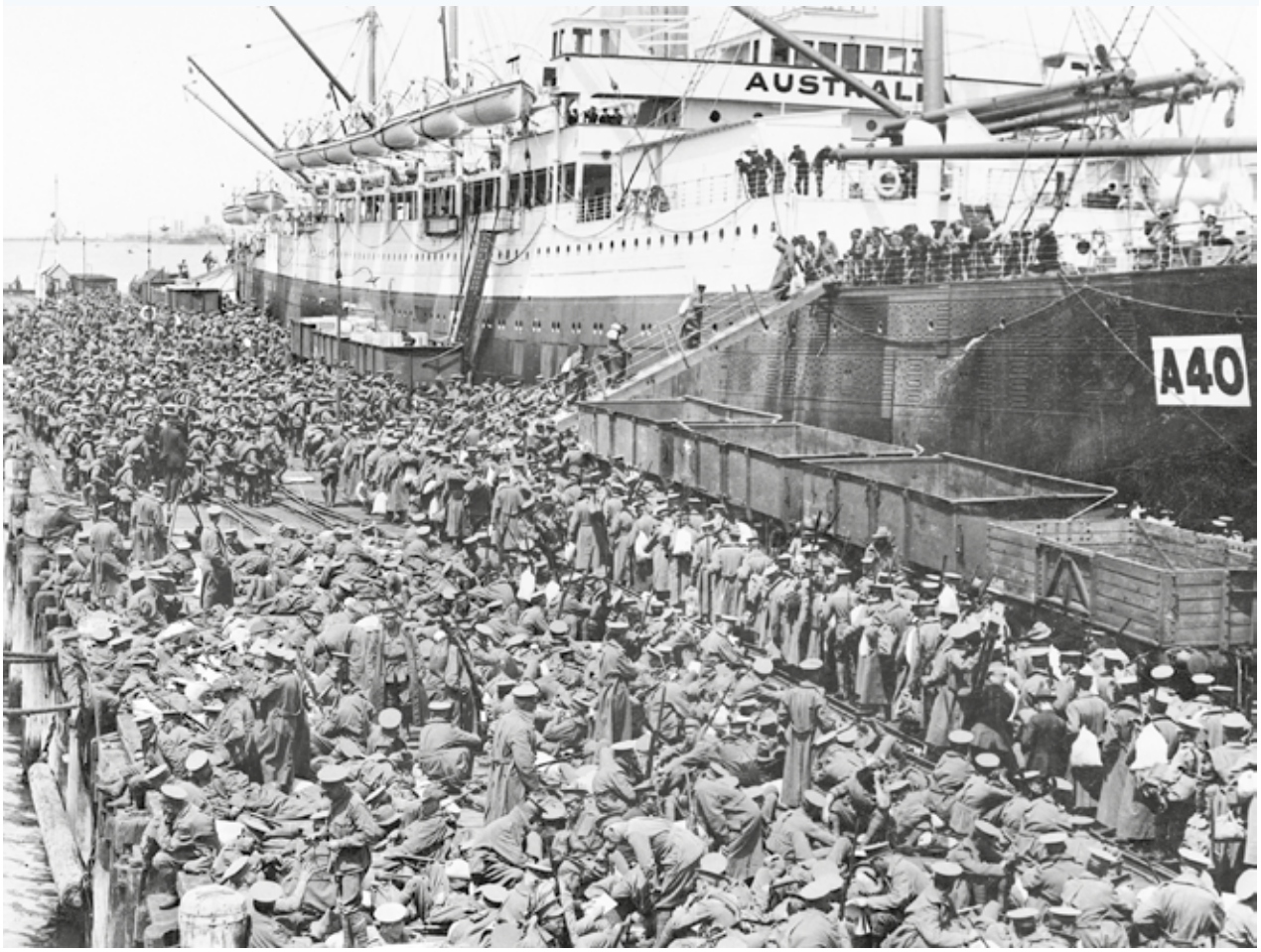
The Western Front

By September 1914 French and British forces had halted the German advance on the fields of northern France and Belgium. Between 1916 and 1918, all five Australian Divisions took part in the terrible fighting on the Western Front (see subtopic 8.8).

The Middle East

The Australian Flying Corps, the Australia Light Horse and Australians in the Imperial Camel Corps played a big role in battles against Turkish forces in Egypt and Palestine between 1916 and 1918.

SOURCE 4 Troops embarking at Port Melbourne in 1915



SOURCE 5 *Emden beached and done for, 9 November 1914*, painted by Arthur Burgess in 1920

Burgess, Arthur '*Emden beached and done for', 9 November 1914* (1920)
Oil on canvas 168.5 × 254.5 cm
Australian War Memorial ART00191

DID YOU KNOW?

The light cruiser *Sydney* sank the German raider *Emden* near the Cocos–Keeling group of islands in the Indian Ocean on 9 November 1914. This was considered a great feat because the *Emden* had already sunk 25 Allied steamers and two warships and raided Allied bases in the Pacific.

8.5 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What did Andrew Fisher mean when he said that Australia would back Britain 'to the last man and the last shilling'?
2. How did most Australians view war in 1914?
3. Explain the meanings of AIF and ANZAC.
4. Make a list of places where Australians fought during World War I and when they fought there.

Apply your understanding

5. Compare the reasons given for enlisting in **Sources 1** and **2.** What do these sources tell us about the different motives of the volunteers?
6. Write an imaginary conversation between two of the men in **Source 4** in which they discuss the beliefs and feelings that led them to sign up for the war.
7. Working in small groups, use the website of the Australian War Memorial to find out more about the incident shown in **Source 5**. Use this information to create a newspaper headline and the kind of news article that might have told of the incident in 1914.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.2: Britain calls, Australia answers

8.6 Gallipoli

8.6.1 Why Gallipoli?

Gallipoli has deep significance for most Australians. Between 25 April and 18 December 1915 thousands of young Australian and New Zealand soldiers died on the beaches and cliffs and in the gullies of Turkey's Gallipoli Peninsula during Australia's first land campaign of World War I. Although the expedition was a failure, the courage and endurance of these men created the Anzac legend.

The soldiers of the AIF had expected to sail to England to complete their training and then go to the Western Front in France and Belgium, where most British troops were fighting the Germans. Instead the Anzacs were trained in Egypt to form a crucial part of a campaign against Germany's ally Turkey.

SOURCE 1 The Gallipoli Peninsula

The strategy for an Allied attack on Gallipoli was based on the idea of Winston Churchill, who, as First Lord of the Admiralty, controlled Britain's Royal Navy. Churchill thought that an attack on Turkey would shorten the war because:

- Turkey could be defeated and Austria–Hungary would be threatened
- Greece, Bulgaria and Romania would be persuaded to join the Allies
- supplies could be shipped through the Dardanelles (a narrow strait between the Aegean Sea and the Black Sea) to Russian troops, who were fighting Germany on the Eastern Front.

The first aim was to capture the Dardanelles (see **Source 1**), opening the heavily fortified strait to Allied shipping. After an attempt to do this by naval attack failed, a landing of British, French, Anzac and other British Empire troops was planned. The Allied forces were to land on the Gallipoli Peninsula.

8.6.2 The landing at Gallipoli

The first landing of soldiers on the beaches of Gallipoli took place on the morning of 25 April 1915. British and French troops landed around Cape Helles. Australians and New Zealanders landed before dawn north of Gaba Tepe. The Anzacs had to reach the shore in landing craft and claw their way up steep cliffs under Turkish fire. Throughout the first day there was confusion and ferocious fighting, much of it hand-to-hand. The battle ebbed and flowed and at last the Turks, fighting courageously, won back control of the high ridges that had been reached by scattered groups of Anzacs. As night fell, the Anzacs found themselves holding only a few square kilometres of beach, cliffs and gullies and they were ordered to dig in.

SOURCE 2 *Anzac, the landing 1915*, by George Lambert. Completed between 1920 and 1922, the painting shows men of the 3rd Brigade struggling under fire up the slopes of Ari Burnu shortly after 4.30 am on 25 April 1915.

Lambert, George Anzac, *the landing 1915* (1920–1922)
Oil on canvas, 190.5 × 350.5 cm, Australian War Memorial

Through the night the Turks launched waves of fierce counterattacks. Both sides suffered heavy losses but the Anzac lines held. Strategically, the landing had failed, for the Turks still held the high positions. For the Anzacs it was a triumph of courage over inexperience, but they paid a high price. It has been estimated that around 2000 died on that day although the actual number may have been higher.

SOURCE 3 From the diary of Sergeant W. E. Turnley, who took part in the initial landing at Anzac Cove

There are a couple of lights flashing about — they must have seen us … Crack! Swish! Ping! At last … the suspense is over! … some get ashore safely, some are hit slightly, others are drowned in only a couple of feet of water because in the excitement nobody notices their plight. [One] fellow remains in the boat after all the others have disembarked … he … looks at us dazedly, leaning forward on his rifle … the soldier falls forward into the bottom of the boat, dead.

SOURCE 4 From a description of the landing by British general Sir Ian Hamilton, commander of the 80 000 Allied troops at Gallipoli

Like lightning they leapt ashore … so vigorous was the onslaught that the Turks made no attempt to withstand it and fled from ridge to ridge pursued by Australian infantry.

DID YOU KNOW?

In the days after the landing, Private John Simpson (Kirkpatrick), stretcher-bearer of the 3rd Australian Field Ambulance, calmly led his donkey up and down the gully from the front line to the beach, evacuating many wounded men, until he was killed on 19 May.

8.6.3 After the landing

The Gallipoli campaign was not to be the quick, glorious victory Australians had expected. It was a long, agonising ordeal in which the death toll mounted on both sides. During the first week the fighting hardly stopped. By early May most Anzac officers and about half the men in each battalion had been killed or wounded. Despite such casualties, many wounded men who had been evacuated were anxious to return to the front.

The Turkish counterattack

On the night of 18–19 May the Anzacs withstood a massive counterattack as 42 000 Turks were ordered to drive them from their positions and back into the sea. In courageous but suicidal charges, the Turks lost 10 000 men, half of whom lay dead or wounded in **no man's land**. Around midday a truce was arranged so both sides could bury their dead before the battle resumed.

Life on Gallipoli

These were weeks of tragic waste, terror and extraordinary courage. With the Turks occupying much of the high ground above them, none of the Anzacs were ever free from danger. Yet they were forced to adapt to life on Gallipoli. Soldiers made grenades from jam tins filled with explosives, nails, stones and shrapnel. Some men learned to catch Turkish grenades and throw them back before they detonated. Mass bayonet charges were frequent but were doomed as, once in open ground, the men were cut down by machine-gun fire. Increasingly they turned to the tactic of mining under enemy trenches and blowing them up from below.

The heat of summer and the many rotting corpses in no man's land brought such incessant swarms of flies that soldiers wrote of their mouths filling with flies when they tried to eat a biscuit with jam. With the flies came diseases such as typhoid and dysentery.

Despite the fact that both sides often killed men rather than take prisoners, the Anzacs and the Turks came to respect each other's courage. The Australians affectionately called their adversaries 'Jacko', 'Abdul' or 'Johnnie Turk'. In between the bombs and bullets, gifts, jokes and greetings were exchanged.

Lone Pine

In August operations aimed at breaking the deadlock and seizing the high ground began. Australian troops had the task of diverting Turkish forces while another force of Anzac, British and Indian troops landed at

Suvla Bay and advanced to capture the high ridges. The Lone Pine diversion was among the most savage battles of the Gallipoli campaign. The Australians charged the Turkish positions and lost more than 2000, killed or wounded, in four days and nights of hand-to-hand fighting. The Turks lost about 6000 men.

The Nek

On 7 August, in another attack whose aim was to divert the Turks, troops of the Australian Light Horse were ordered to make bayonet charges up a narrow strip of open ground called the Nek. The attacks proceeded even though the plan to capture the ridges had failed. The naval bombardment of the Turkish trenches stopped several minutes too soon. This allowed the Turks to return to their firing positions. Four successive lines of Light Horsemen, each of about 150 men, charged from their trenches towards the Turkish lines. Cut down by machine-gun fire, nearly all fell dead or wounded within a few metres of their own trenches. Their bravery was extraordinary but their deaths achieved nothing.

SOURCE 5 The Australian 22nd Battalion, newly arrived from Egypt, going into the line at the southern part of Lone Pine, Gallipoli Peninsula

The AWM A00847

8.6.4 Withdrawal

After seven months, the British command finally accepted that victory would not be possible. Ironically, the best-managed part of the entire campaign proved to be the withdrawal of all Allied soldiers during December. The soldiers and war materials were evacuated secretly at night. Throughout the operation every effort was made to convince the Turks that nothing out of the ordinary was going on. Cricket matches were played on the beach, and empty crates were brought ashore each day. When the Turks charged down from the hills on 20 December they found that the enemy had vanished.

SOURCE 6 During the evacuation, the Allied troops needed to make the Turks think they were still in their trenches. One trick was to rig rifles to fire automatically. Once enough water had dripped from the top tin into the bottom tin, its weight pulled the trigger.

DID YOU KNOW?

When they abandoned Gallipoli, the Anzacs left behind 7591 Australian and 2431 New Zealand dead. Many thousands of other British Empire soldiers and French and Turkish troops also died during the campaign.

8.6 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Describe the scale of Anzac casualties in the first week of the Gallipoli campaign.
2. Make a list of some of the hardships faced by the Anzacs during the Gallipoli campaign.
3. Describe ways in which the Anzacs adapted and coped with these hardships.

Apply your understanding

4. Look closely at **Source 1**.
   (a) What aspects of this map show that it would have been difficult for a naval force to capture the Dardanelles?
   (b) Why would a successful land invasion also have been difficult?
5. **Source 2** depicts the April 25 landing.
   (a) Describe the details of this painting and what you can tell from it about the landing at Gallipoli.
   (b) The artist was commissioned by the government to produce this painting. Would this make it any more or less reliable as a historical source?
6. How difficult would it have been for the men in **Source 5** to attack the Turkish trenches? (Consider the terrain and lack of cover.)
7. **Source 6** shows one device used during the withdrawal from Gallipoli. What else contributed to the success of the evacuation?
8. Compare the descriptions of the landing at Gallipoli in **Sources 3** and **4.** Describe the difference in their perspectives. Explain why they are different, decide which source you would consider to be the more reliable and give reasons for your choice.
9. Find at least three photographs on the Australian War Memorial website and use them to present a data show on the experiences of the Anzacs on Gallipoli.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.3: Gallipoli and the Western Front

Explore more with this weblink: Gallipoli: The first day

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

› **Gallipoli Campaign**

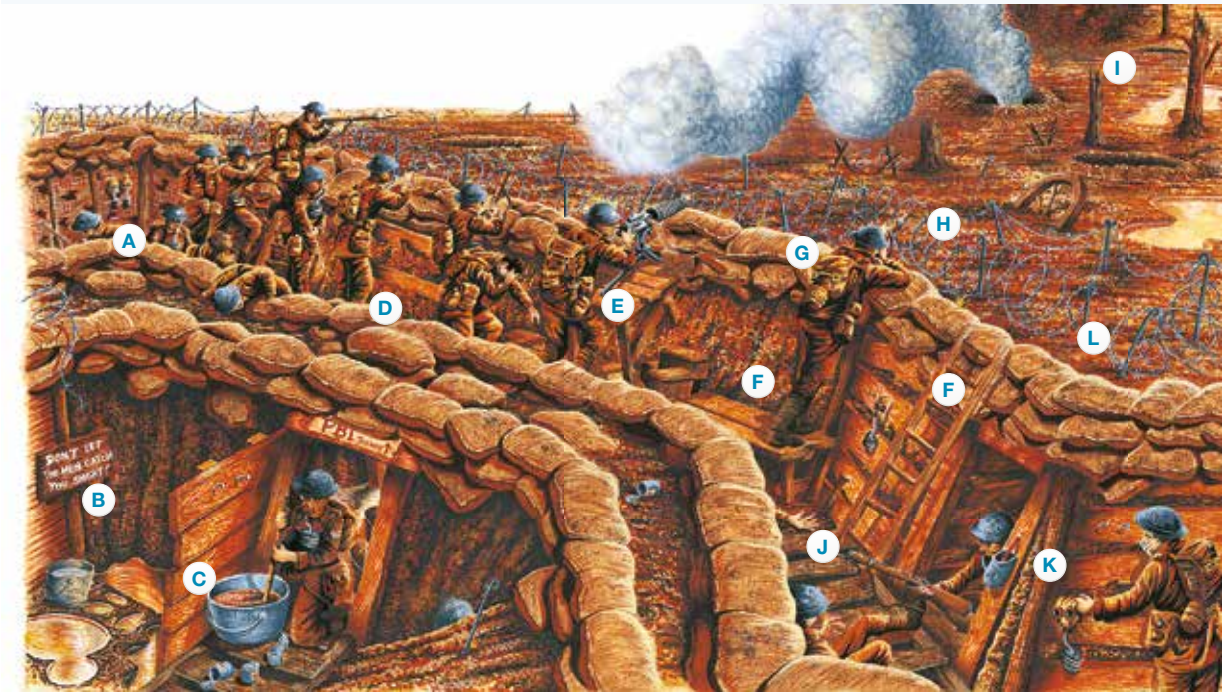
8.7 Trench warfare

8.7.1 The trenches of the Western Front

The main fighting of World War I took place in and around the trenches of the Western Front. By 1915 these stretched over 500 kilometres, from the Belgian coast through to the Swiss Alps, and were home to millions of troops. Trench warfare produced no winners; rather, it was a defensive tactic that led to continual '**stalemate**'. Over four years the armies of both sides lived and died in them. When the fighting was at its heaviest, tens of thousands of men could be killed or wounded in a single day.

Most battlefield trenches contained many defensive structures. The most commonly used arrangement was the three-line trench system. This allowed front-line trenches for firing at the enemy, support trenches where troops could be rested, and reserve trenches to hold reinforcements and supplies. Communication trenches linked all three trench lines, allowing for easier movement of troops and information. Some German trenches extended up to ten metres underground.

SOURCE 1 Modern artist's interpretation of a typical trench system



A Trenches were generally designed in a zigzag pattern; this helped to protect the trench against enemy attack. Each bend could be defended separately if necessary and explosions could be contained.

B Trench toilets were called latrines. They were usually 1.5 metres-deep pits, dug at the end of a short gangway. Each company had two sanitary personnel whose job it was to keep the latrines in good condition. Officers gave out sanitary duty as a punishment for breaking army regulations.

C The British army employed 300 000 field workers to cook and supply the food for the troops. However, in many instances there was not enough food for the workers to cook. Rations were regularly cut and of a poor standard. The bulk of the diet in the trenches was bully beef (canned corned beef), bread and biscuits.

D Sandbags filled with earth were used to shore up the edges of the trenches; they also helped to absorb bullets and shell fragments. The men packing and then stacking the filled bags worked in pairs and were expected to move 60 bags an hour.

E Machine guns were one of the most deadly weapons. They were able to fire 400–500 bullets every minute.

F Fire steps and scaling ladders were needed to enable the troops to go 'over the top' of the trenches. Going 'over the top' refers to the orders given to troops to leave the trenches and head out into no man's land in an attempt to attack the enemy trenches.

G Each soldier was issued with a kit containing nearly 30 kilograms of equipment. This included a rifle, two grenades, 220 rounds of ammunition, a steel helmet, wire cutters, field dressing, entrenching tool (a spade), a heavy coat, two sandbags, rolled ground sheet, water bottle, haversack, mess tin, towel, shaving kit, extra socks and preserved food rations. The weight made it very difficult to move quickly, and many men chose to share gear to minimise their load.

H Barbed wire was used extensively throughout the trench system. While it helped to protect the trenches, it made it very difficult to attack the opposing trench. In the dark of night, soldiers were sent out to cut sections of wire to make it easier for the attacking soldiers in morning raids. Minor cuts and grazes caused by the barbed wire often became infected in the unsanitary conditions of the trenches.

I No man's land was the space between the two opposing trenches; it was protected by rows of barbed wire. It could be anywhere from 50 metres to one kilometre wide.

J Duckboards were wooden planks placed across the bottom of trenches and other areas of muddy ground. They enabled soldiers to stand out of the mud. The trench system was constantly waterlogged, particularly during the winter months. Duckboards were the only way of protecting the men from contracting the dreaded **trench foot** and from sinking deep into the mud.

K The use of mustard gas and other chemical weapons meant that all soldiers needed to have gas masks near at hand. Until all troops could be issued with masks, many soldiers used urine-soaked material to help keep out the deadly gas. Mustard gas was almost odourless and took 12 hours to take effect. It was so powerful that small amounts, added to high-explosive shells, were effective. Once in the soil, mustard gas remained active for several weeks.

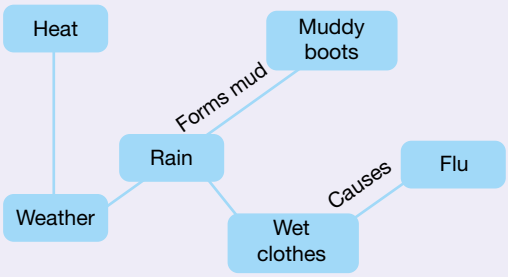
L Long, cold, wet winters and hot, dry summers would have made life in the trenches horrendous. Snow, rain and freezing temperatures drastically slowed combat during the winter months. Lack of fresh water, scorching sun with limited coverage, and the stench of dead bodies and rubbish would have made the hotter months unbearable.

8.7 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Why did the armies build a three-line trench system, often in a zigzag pattern?
2. Suggest why the trench system was ultimately unsuccessful as a military tactic.
3. Expand the concept map on the right to describe why weather played such a key role in the conditions of the trenches.
4. Discuss as a class some of the problems you think the soldiers in the trenches would have faced each day.
5. Imagine you are a soldier who has been blinded in the trenches. Describe what you would hear, smell and feel.



Apply your understanding

6. Using sticks, string, cardboard and small mirrors, design and construct a periscope that would enable you to see over the top of an obstacle without lifting your head. Explain in a paragraph why such a device was needed (and often made) by those fighting in trenches.
7. Working in small groups, and referring to **Source 1** (a *secondary source*), construct a trench diorama. Elect a group spokesperson to talk to the class about one aspect of your model (e.g. its advantages or disadvantages).

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.4: In the trenches

8.8 The Western Front

8.8.1 Fromelles and Pozières

After Gallipoli, the Anzacs returned to Egypt to be joined by fresh troops. The Light Horse remained in the Middle East along with Australians serving in the Imperial Camel Corps and the Australian Flying Corps. For the remainder of the war, these soldiers took part in desert warfare against Turkish forces. Most Australian troops left for France in 1916, where for three years they experienced the horrors and savagery of the war on the Western Front.

On 1 July 1916, the First Battle of the Somme began. The British and French attack on the Somme was intended to draw German troops away from their massive attack on French positions at Verdun. On that first day of the Somme offensive, the British army suffered the worst day in its history with 57 470 casualties (troops killed or wounded).

The Australian 5th Division suffered over 5000 casualties on 19 July in a **feint** at Fromelles, north of the Somme, which was meant to divert German reserve troops. On the Somme, the AIF suffered almost 23 000 casualties taking and holding the town of Pozières in a battle that began on 23 July. For seven weeks Australian soldiers were blown apart or buried alive as they fought to hold the captured town under a German **artillery** bombardment that pounded Pozières into a wasteland of rubble.

SOURCE 1 Major W. G. M. Claridge, writing from hospital after the Battle of Pozières, quoted in Bill Gammage, *The Broken Years*, 1975, p. 164

… God knows what we went through, was Hell itself. We just had to grit our teeth and go ahead and do our job. I am not going to tell a lie and say I wasn't afraid because I was and who wouldn't be with Death grinning at you from all round and hellish 5.9 shells shrieking through the air and shrapnel dealing death all round. I don't know how I stood it for so long without breaking.

When the Battle of the Somme ended as the autumn rains filled the trenches, neither side had been able to break the stalemate. Nothing had been gained but Germany had lost 450 000 men, France 200 000 and Britain 420 000.

8.8.2 Bullecourt and Ypres

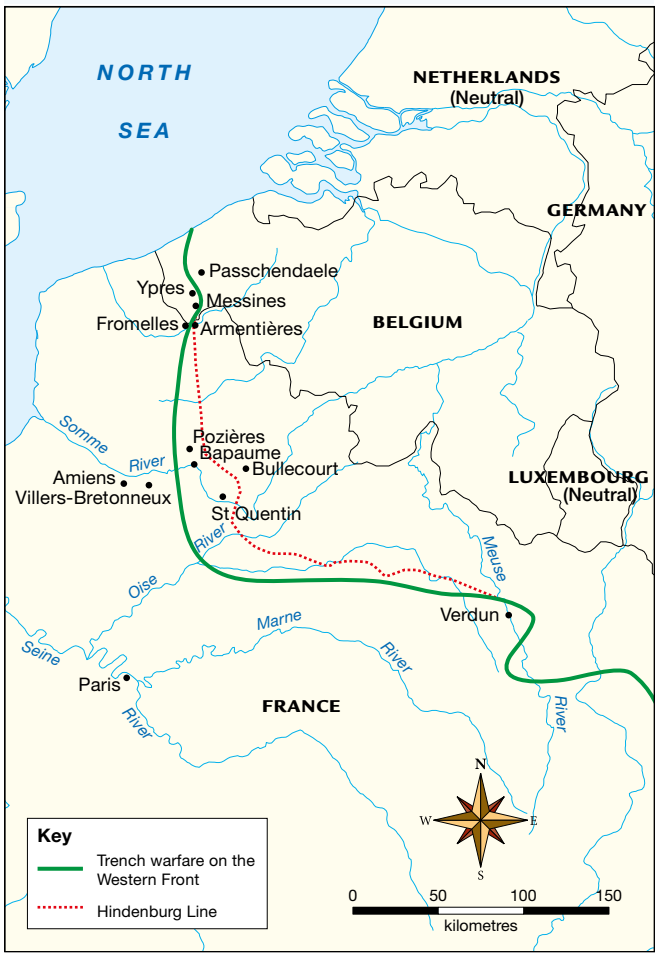
The spring offensive of 1917 followed the coldest winter in forty years. In April the United States of America joined the war on the Allied side, although it would be many months before its troops would be ready to play a role. The Germans had pulled back to the strongly fortified **Hindenburg line** and most soldiers on both sides were war-weary with little enthusiasm left for fighting.

In April, Australians were sent to attack the German trenches near Bullecourt but the tanks that were meant to spearhead the attack broke down, the Australians were struck by a misdirected British artillery barrage as well as German counter-attacks, and the attacking force suffered 80 per cent casualties. Despite this, in May the Australians captured and held Bullecourt. In Belgium in September and October, the AIF suffered 38 000 casualties in the terrible Third Battle of Ypres, in which each side lost about half a million men.

8.8.3 Victory in 1918

In 1918 the end of fighting on the Eastern Front enabled Germany to move many more troops to the Western Front. In March, the Germans threw everything they had into a last offensive aimed at gaining victory before US troops could arrive in sufficient numbers to make a German victory impossible. Australians played a key role in turning back this offensive through their fierce resistance at the French village of Villers-Bretonneux. Then, in July, Australians made the first large Allied attack of 1918. The AIF fought its last battles in October and when the fighting was ended with the Armistice of 11 November 1918 it was recognised that they had achieved more than any other British Empire troops and had suffered more casualties in proportion to their numbers.

SOURCE 2 Trench warfare on the Western Front



SOURCE 3 This painting depicts an attack, during the Third Battle of Ypres, in which Australian troops were trying to capture a German pillbox, a fortified concrete blockhouse with machine guns firing from loopholes. Pillboxes could be taken only by infantry attacking closely behind their own artillery barrage.

Leist, Fred
Australian infantry attack in Polygon Wood (1919)
Oil on canvas, 122.5 × 245 cm
Australian War Memorial ART02927

8.8.4 The human cost

Of the 417 000 men who enlisted in the AIF, about 324 000 served overseas and approximately 295 000 of these served on the Western Front. Nearly 65 per cent became casualties and around 60 000 Australians died on active service. It was a terrible sacrifice for a young nation.

8.8 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Use **Source 2** and information in this subtopic to list some of the main battles in which the AIF fought on the Western Front.
2. Outline some of the reasons for high Australian casualties at Pozières and Bullecourt.
3. Look back at the paragraph headed 'The human cost'.
   (a) Calculate the approximate number of Australian casualties in World War I.
   (b) What impact do you think such losses would have had on a country of less than five million people?

Apply your understanding

4. In **Source 1**, Major Claridge describes the Battle of Pozières as 'Hell itself'.
   (a) Describe the features of this battle that would justify that description.
   (b) How reliable do you think this source would be? Give the reasons for your answer.
5. Look closely at **Source 3** and imagine that you are one of the survivors of this attack. Write a letter to your family in which you describe what happened and your own feelings during the fighting.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.3: Gallipoli and the Western Front

8.9 SkillBuilder: Analysing photographs

8.9.1 Why is it useful to analyse photographs?

Photographs can be useful primary sources. Analysing a photograph is therefore a very important skill when studying history. You might think that a photograph is always an accurate record of what happened, rather than somebody's impression of it. But that is not necessarily true. Often when you take a photograph, you compose a picture, choosing the angle from which you want to shoot, what you will have in it, what part of a scene you will leave out and whether it will be taken close up or from a distance. Modern digital photography had not been invented until long after World War I, but even with the cameras that existed at the time, skilful photographers could edit pictures in ways that changed their meaning.

World War I photographs

Many tens of thousands of photographs were taken during World War I, even though soldiers could be court-martialled for taking photographs in battlefront areas. A large number of photographs were taken for military reasons or to create a visual record of the war. Many of the best photographs were taken by official war photographers like Australia's Frank Hurley. However, we sometimes have to be careful to recognise features in the photographs that have been altered to make them useful for propaganda.

What questions should we ask?

1. *The photographer*. Who took the photograph (if known)? What is the source (if stated)?
2. *Location*. Where is the location? When was the photograph taken?
3. *Editing*. Has the photograph been posed or has the photographer simply recorded a scene? Has the photograph been cropped and, if so, has this changed its meaning at all? Has the photograph been changed by adding or removing any details?
4. *Composition*. Is the photograph taken from close up or from a distance and does this affect our reaction to it?
5. *Subject*. What is the main subject? What background and minor details are shown? What extra information do the minor details add?
6. *Motive*. Why was the photograph taken (if known)?
7. *Evidence*. For what does the photograph provide evidence?

8.9.2 How to analyse a World War I photograph

Ask the questions

Use the questions in section 8.9.1 to analyse **Source 1**.

SOURCE 1 A scene near Ypres, Belgium, on 17 September 1917. This spot, during the Ypres battles, was never free of such scenes. The photograph belongs to the Australian War Memorial photographic collections. photographer is unknown.

The AWM E00732

1. *Who took the photograph (if known)? What is the source (if stated)?* The photographer is unknown. The photograph belongs to the Australian War Memorial.
2. Where is the location? When was the photograph taken? The photograph was taken near Ypres. It was taken in September 1917, which places it at the time of the Third Battle of Ypres.
3. Has the photograph been posed or has the photographer simply recorded a scene? Has the photograph been cropped and if so has this changed its meaning at all? There is no evidence that the photograph has been cropped although it is equally possible that it has been. Has the photograph been changed by adding or removing any details? Nor is there evidence of any tampering with the image.
4. Is the photograph taken from close up or from a distance and does this affect our reaction to it? The photograph has been taken close up to the dead horses so that we react first to the scene in the foreground then our eyes move to the background. This photographer has a good sense of composition.

5. What is the main subject? The subject is the destructive power of the war. What background and minor details are shown? The bloated bodies of dead horses in the foreground are no more important than the soldiers marching towards them in the background, possibly to share their fate. What extra information do the minor details add? The smashed wagon, churned up earth and battered trees all contribute to an image of devastation.
6. Why was the photograph taken (if known)? We do not know exactly why the photograph was taken, whether for personal or historical reasons.
7. For what does the photograph provide evidence? It provides solid evidence for the effect of the war on the landscape, animals and men.

8.9.3 Developing my skills

Now use the questions to analyse **Sources 2** and **3.**

SOURCE 2 Australian machine-gunners in action at Pozières in 1916. The photograph is one of a series taken by Corporal Robert Willie Nenke, who was killed in action on 10 August 1918. The photograph now belongs to the Australian War Memorial photographic collections.

The AWM P07670.003

SOURCE 3 Soldiers of the Australian 45th Battalion wearing gas respirators in a trench in the Menin Road area, near Ypres, Belgium, on 27 September 1917. The picture was taken by Frank Hurley, the official Australian war photographer. It now belongs to the Australian War Memorial photographic collections.

The AWM E00825

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.5: Every picture tells a story

8.10 The home front

8.10.1 The war divides Australia

During the first years of fighting most Australians believed that the war was just and was worth the sacrifice that was being made. Australians proudly hailed the achievements of the Anzacs as proof of their country's standing among nations. However, as the conflict dragged on, and demanded ever greater sacrifices, Australian society became increasingly divided.

Growing government controls

The Commonwealth Government gained new powers to manage Australia's war effort. The war was expensive, in both money and lives, and from 1915 a federal income tax and other taxes were introduced to help pay the interest on growing war debts. The government also took away many democratic rights. The War Precautions Act of 1915 and other Acts of Parliament allowed the government to restrict freedom of speech, freedom of association and freedom of the press. It became a crime to say anything that might discourage people from enlisting or to show disloyalty to the British Empire.

According to the government, **censorship** was needed to keep morale high and to keep information from the enemy. However, it was also used to silence people who criticised the war. Tom Barker was sentenced to 12 months in prison for publishing a cartoon that the government considered might harm recruiting. Barker was the editor of *Direct Action*, the newspaper of a revolutionary group called the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW). The IWW argued that the war was wrong because the workers' only real enemies were the wealthy capitalists who profited from the conflict.

Australia divided

Most Australians believed wartime **propaganda** that portrayed German soldiers as monsters who raped nuns, murdered civilians and impaled babies on bayonets. Through newspapers and public meetings, people were continually told that the war was a simple struggle between good and evil, between British civilisation and German barbarism.

At first, opponents of the war were a tiny minority. **Pacifists** opposed it, as did some Irish Australians who resented British rule in Ireland. Some socialists saw it as a clash between capitalist empires for the right to exploit the workers of the world. Gradually opposition to the war became more widespread. Increased inequality played a part. While prices rose by almost 50 per cent, wages were frozen. At the same time, big profits were made by owners of woollen mills and others who supplied war materials. Growing inequality caused serious strikes in 1916 and a general strike in 1917 involving waterside workers, seamen, transport workers and miners. The use of strike-breakers to defeat the strikes caused great bitterness and deepened divisions.

DID YOU KNOW?

In Australia during World War I there were 33 000 people of German descent. Many were interned in prison camps. If they had become Australian citizens they could remain free, but they were often bullied and humiliated. Some were sacked from their jobs. German-owned businesses were boycotted and harassed, and German place names were changed. There are even reports of dachshund dogs being kicked and stoned.

Patriotic rallies and funds

Many people, possibly a majority, continued to support the war. At patriotic gatherings such as Empire Day, Allies Day and Anzac Day rallies, speakers encouraged Australians to stay loyal to Britain, to hate Germany and to make still greater sacrifices. Governments, churches and citizens organised and supported patriotic funds to help the war effort. They included the National Belgian Relief Fund, the Travelling Kitchen Fund and the Blind Heroes Fund. Local 'win-the-war' leagues donated food and labour to help soldiers' families.

The children's war effort

Schools and community organisations involved children in patriotic activities including raising money and making clothes and equipment for war victims and troops. In particular, schools were used to inspire patriotism in children. At the age of 12, schoolboys became junior cadets. Girls made clothes for the troops and war victims. Children grew vegetables for soldiers' families, read stories of heroes of the British and Australian forces and recited loyalty pledges. School rolls of honour listed the names of former pupils and teachers who had gone to the war. Children were taught that all Allied countries were good while the Central Powers were monsters.

8.10.2 Recruiting campaigns

In 1914 there were many more volunteers than the army could accommodate. But as the casualty lists grew, fewer men volunteered than were needed. As Britain requested ever more Australian troops, recruiting campaigns were used to encourage or shame men into enlisting. In some of these campaigns, people marched long distances, calling on others to join them and to enlist. By mid 1916 the campaigns were failing to attract the numbers the government wanted. In 1918 recruiting officers even visited schools in order to urge children to encourage their family members to enlist.

SOURCE 1 *An appeal from the Dardanelles: Will they never come*? Produced by the State Parliamentary Recruiting Committee in Victoria, this was the first recruiting poster used in Australia.

Hannan, Jim
An appeal from the Dardanelles: Will they never come? (1915)
Offset lithograph on paper, 225 × 200 cm
Australian War Memorial ARTV07583

SOURCE 2 *Remember Gallipoli! Enlist to-day*, a recruiting poster produced by the State War Council, South Australia, 1916–18

Wall, C. *Remember Gallipoli!* (1915–1918)
Photolithograph on paper Overall: 63.6 × 81.4 cm; sheet: 54.4 × 64.6 cm
Australian War Memorial ART08939

SOURCE 3 From 'Instructions for the Guidance of Enlisting Officers at Approved Military Recruiting Depots', Brisbane, April 1916

Aboriginals, **half-castes**, or men with Asiatic blood are not to be enlisted. This applies to all coloured men.

SOURCE 4 From 'Instructions to Enlisting and Recruiting Officers', December 1916

Half-castes may be enlisted when, in the opinion of the District Commandant, they are suitable … As a guide in this matter it is to be borne in mind that these men will be required to live with white men and share their accommodation, and their selection is to be judged from this standpoint …

DID YOU KNOW?

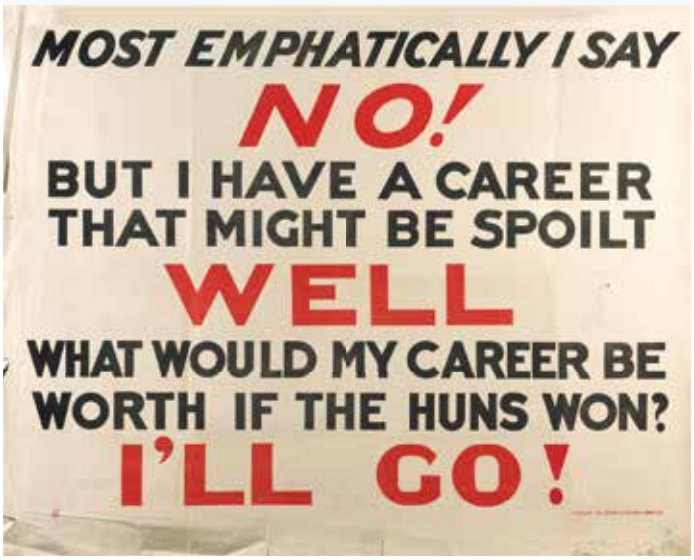
Some Australians were barred on racial grounds from enlisting. In 1915 the Defence Act was changed to state that Aboriginal and Asian men could not enlist. In 1916 the ban was modified to permit enlistment if a volunteer had one European parent. Approximately 400 Aboriginal soldiers served in the AIF.

8.10.3 Women and the war effort

Some 3000 Australian women travelled overseas with the Australian Army Nursing Service. They served in all theatres of the war and on transport and hospital ships. These nurses worked under extreme conditions tending the wounded after battles. Several nurses were wounded and 13 were killed. However, the Australian government refused to allow women to serve in any direct roles in the armed forces. As the men went off to war, many women entered the paid workforce. Thousands more helped with recruiting campaigns, fund-raising and charity work.

SOURCE 5 Students at Woy Woy Public School during a patriotic pageant in 1916 gather around a roll of honour erected by residents of the district.

SOURCE 6 *Most emphatically I say NO*! This poster was produced by the Queensland Recruiting Committee in 1915–17.



Unknown (Artist)
Most *emphatically I say no*! (c. 1914–1917)
Offset lithograph on paper, 76.4 × 101.7 cm
Australian War Memorial ARTV04953

SOURCE 7 Australian artist Norman Lindsay produced this poster for the Australian government in 1918.

Lindsay, Norman
God *bless dear Daddy* (1918)
Chromolithograph on paper, 46.8 × 38.4 cm
Australian War Memorial ART00040

Voluntary work

Thousands of women helped troops by providing extra clothing, tobacco, medicines and other comforts that the army failed to provide. They also made clothes for Allied refugees. Many other women cared for returning invalids through the Red Cross. They met returning hospital ships and provided kitchens and rest homes. The Red Cross raised 12 million pounds during the war to pay for this work.

Women for and against the war

Women were among the war's fiercest supporters. They helped in recruiting campaigns, issuing posters and pamphlets and speaking at rallies. Some women shamed men into enlisting by handing out white feathers — a symbol of cowardice — to those who had not volunteered. The Australian Women's National League campaigned for conscription. Women were also among the war's strongest critics. Vida Goldstein was among those who formed peace organisations and campaigned against conscription.

The greatest contribution of women, however, would hardly ever be spoken of. It was the lifelong care thousands gave to their fathers, husbands, sons and brothers who returned with terrible physical, emotional and mental wounds from the horrors of war.

8.10 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. How did the Australian government restrict democratic rights during World War I?
2. Which groups in Australia were against the war from the beginning and why?
3. Why was there an increase in opposition to the war by 1916–17?
4. How did women and children contribute to the war effort?
5. Why did it become necessary to run recruiting campaigns?
6. If you were a worker during World War I and you were becoming much poorer while your employer profited from the war, would you have been justified in striking? Support your answer.
7. How are children contributing to the war effort in **Source 5**?

Apply your understanding

8. Use **Sources 3** and **4** to describe discrimination against Aboriginal and Asian men wishing to enlist for World War I.
9. Why do you think the recruiting authorities changed their policies towards Aboriginal and Asian men during 1916?
10. Look carefully at **Sources 1, 2, 6** and **7**. In each of these posters:
    (a) What is the aim of the propaganda?
    (b) To what beliefs and feelings does it appeal?
    (c) How effective do you think it would have been?
11. Use your library and the internet to conduct research and prepare a brief report on World War I recruiting campaigns.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.6: The home front

8.11 The conscription issue

8.11.1 A divisive issue

Of all the armies fighting in World War I, only the AIF was formed entirely from volunteers. But by mid 1916 recruiting campaigns were no longer convincing enough men to enlist. When Labor prime minister William Morris ('Billy') Hughes decided that Australia should follow Britain's example by introducing conscription, divisions in Australian society became very bitter. The Australian Labor Party (ALP) was against conscription, but Hughes went against party policy and tried to win public support for conscription through two bitterly fought **referendum** campaigns in 1916 and 1917.

Conscription was among the most divisive issues in Australia's history. Divisions between social classes and between those holding different religious and political beliefs became more intense. Supporters of conscription argued that Britain was in peril and many Australians were already fighting and dying, so others who had not stepped forward should be forced to do their duty. They called those who had not volunteered traitors and cowards or accused them of being supporters of **Sinn Fein** or the IWW, or even of Germany.

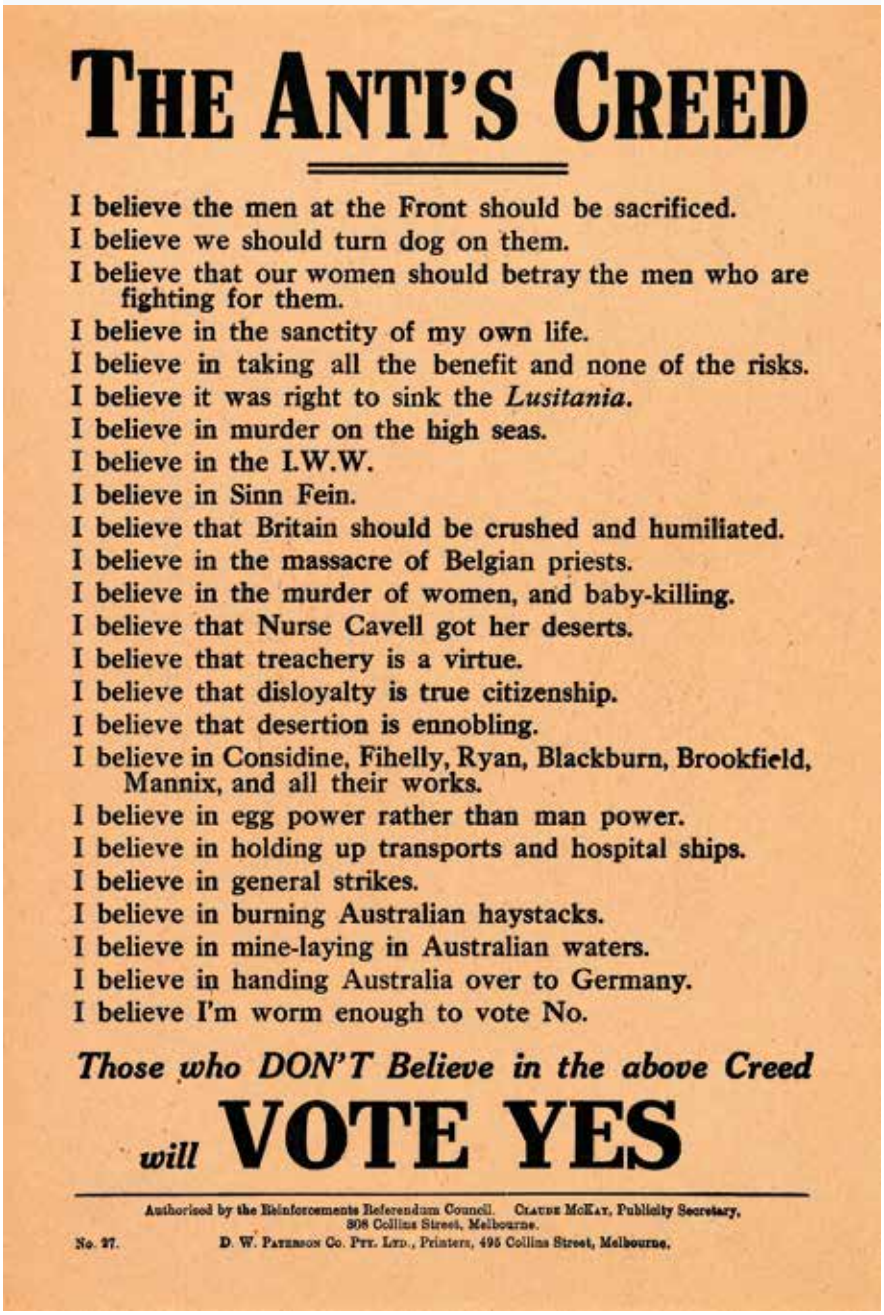
SOURCE 1 Conscription — for and against

YES!	NO!
Those supporting conscription • Representatives of every political party except the Labor Party • Business organisations • Major newspapers such as *The Argus, The Age* and *The Bulletin* • Protestant churches • Some returned soldiers	**Those opposing conscription** • Trade unions • Most of the Labor Party • The Catholic Church (Melbourne's Archbishop, Daniel Mannix, led the fight against conscription) — Britain had suppressed the Irish uprising of Easter 1916 and executed its leaders; most Australian Catholics were of Irish descent and many resented Britain's treatment of Ireland • The Women's Peace Army • Most working-class people • Some returned soldiers
Pro-conscription arguments • It was Australia's duty to support Great Britain. • Conscription meant 'equality of sacrifice'. • Voluntary recruitment had failed. • Australia had a good reputation that had to be protected. • Other Allied countries, such as Great Britain, New Zealand and Canada, had already introduced conscription.	**Anti-conscription arguments** • No person had the right to send another to be killed or wounded. • There would not be enough hands to farm if men were conscripted. • The working class would unfairly bear the burden of the fight. • Too many Australian men had already died or been wounded. • Conscription would harm and divide Australia.

8.11.2 Opposing conscription

Opponents argued that there should there be no conscription of working men when there was no conscription of the wealth of the privileged classes. Many feared that conscription would be used by employers to destroy rights won by Australian workers. They described supporters of conscription as destroyers of democracy, murderers and war profiteers. Most Australian Catholics were of Irish descent, and many became bitterly resentful when Britain executed several Irish rebel leaders after crushing the Irish uprising of Easter 1916. Melbourne's Catholic Archbishop, Daniel Mannix, quickly became the most outspoken leader of the anti-conscription movement.

SOURCE 2 *The Anti's Creed*, a leaflet supporting conscription in the 1917 referendum



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**

Authorised by the Reinforcements Referendum Council. CLAUDE MCKAY, Publicity Secretary, 308 Collins Street, Melbourne.
No. 27. D. W. PATERSON CO. PTY. LTD., Printers, 495 Collins Street, Melbourne.

AWM RC00317

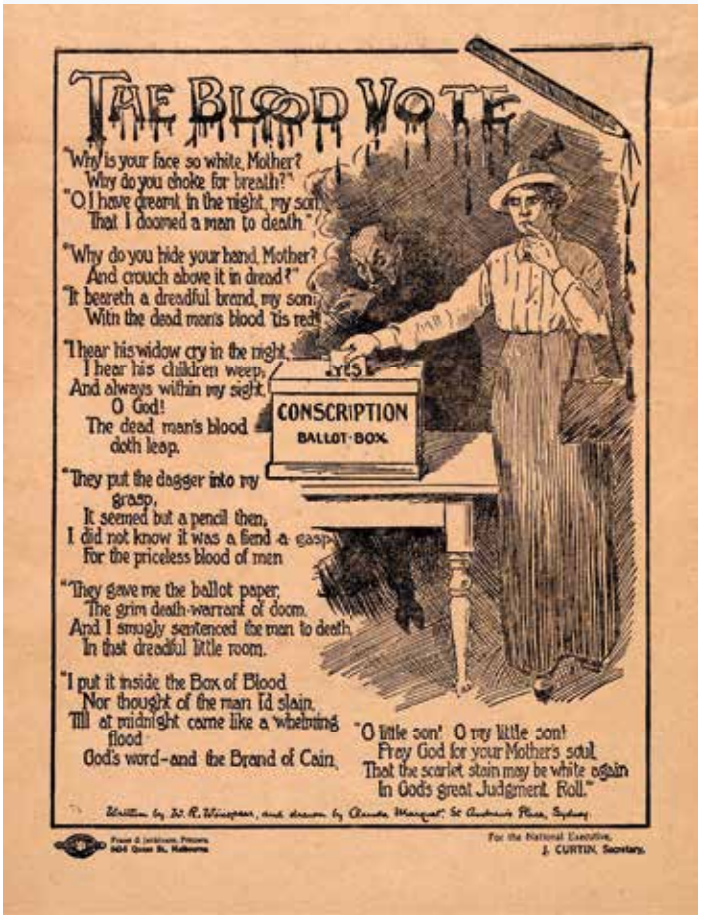
SOURCE 3 From speeches by Archbishop Daniel Mannix, reported in the *Advocate*, (1) 3 February 1917 and (2) 8 December 1917

1. The war was like most wars — just an ordinary trade war … Even now, people were arranging how the vanquished nations —
   when they are vanquished — are to be crippled in their future trade.
2. [In] the daily papers of Australia … there is no opening in their columns for those who want the answer on December 20 to be an emphatic
   NO … [The] papers give plenty of space to any sort of silly twaddle on the other side … The wealthy classes would be very glad to send the last man, but they have no notion of sending the last shilling, nor even the first … the burden in the end will be borne by the toiling masses in Australia.

8.11.3 The people decide

Conscription was defeated in the referendum of October 1916 (1 087 557 Australians voted in favour of conscription but 1 160 033 voted against it). 'Patriots' blamed Catholics and Australian Germans and demanded that Mannix be deported. The Labor Party was split. Hughes and his supporters left the party in November 1916, before it could expel them, and merged with the Liberal Party to form the Nationalist Party. Led by Hughes, the Nationalists won the federal election of May 1917. However, at a second referendum of December 1917, conscription was again defeated, this time by 1 181 747 against to 1 015 159 in favour.

SOURCE 4 *The Blood Vote*, an anti-conscription leaflet



DID YOU KNOW?

Billy Hughes' supporters, including many AIF soldiers, called him the 'Little Digger', From November 1916 the labour movement, on the other hand, called him 'the Rat' and 'Judas'.

8.11 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Explain why many Australians supported conscription by 1916.
2. List the reasons why many others opposed conscription.
3. Calculate the numbers of votes by which conscription was defeated in 1916 and in 1917.
4. What conclusions can you draw from these figures?
5. How did the conscription issue affect the Labor Party?

Apply your understanding

6. Using **Source 2** as your evidence, describe the kinds of messages and techniques used in propaganda supporting conscription.
7. Describe the techniques used in the anti-conscription leaflet (**Source 4**).
8. Read **Source 3**. What reasons did Daniel Mannix give for opposing conscription?
9. Imagine you are Archbishop Mannix and you have heard demands that you be deported. Write a one-page speech you would give in response. Read your speech to the class.
10. Working in small groups, design a 'Yes' or 'No' poster for either of the conscription referenda.

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Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 8.7: The conscription debate

8.12 The Eastern Front: collapse and revolution

8.12.1 Tsarist Russia collapses

By 1917 the war weariness, social divisions and disillusionment that led to a general strike and bitter opposition to conscription in Australia were also being experienced in other combatant nations. Between April and June there were mutinies in the French army involving 27 000 men. Forty-nine mutineers were executed. In Germany in 1916 there had been huge strikes. The government broke them by conscripting strikers, but even bigger strikes took place in 1917. In Britain half a million people had joined anti-war organisations by 1917. Nowhere, however, was war weariness more widespread than in Russia. What happened there would change the world.

At the beginning of World War I the Russian Army was referred to as 'the Russian Steamroller', because it was so big that many people thought it could defeat the Germans and Austrians through sheer weight of numbers. However, most Russian soldiers were conscripted peasants who were poorly trained and so poorly equipped that some did not even have boots or guns. Some Russian officers refused to lead their troops into battle, fearing that they would be shot by their own men.

When Russia entered the war it was ruled by Tsar Nicholas II, who held enormous power. Russia was ruled in the interests of its aristocratic landowners and wealthy industrialists, and there was great discontent among the peasants and workers who made up more than 90 per cent of its people. At first many Russians supported the war, but they suffered heavy losses against the Germans in 1914–15. In 1916 they launched attacks to prevent the Germans shifting troops to the Western Front. By 1917, after a series of crippling defeats, Russian soldiers and sailors were becoming mutinous, while at home starving workers were demanding bread and peasants were demanding land.

SOURCE 1 A description of support for the war in Russia in August 1914, from R. H. Bruce Lockhart, *Memoirs of a British Agent*, 1932

I recall the enthusiasm of those early days … those moving scenes at the station; the troops, grey with dust and closely packed in cattle trucks; the vast crowd on the platform to wish them God-speed … Revolution was not even a distant probability.

SOURCE 2 From a letter sent home by a Russian general in 1915

In recent battles a third of the men had no rifles. These poor devils had to wait patiently until their comrades fell before their eyes and they could pick up weapons.

SOURCE 3 From P. I. Lyashchenko, *Economic and Social Consequences of the War*, 1949

… by 1916 the country began to experience a critical food shortage … By directing all industrial production into war channels, the government policy deprived the villages of their supplies of goods …

8.12.2 Revolution

Revolution broke out in March 1917 in the Russian capital, Petrograd (now St Petersburg) after soldiers refused orders to shoot striking workers. When he lost the support of his generals, the Tsar **abdicated** in favour of his brother Michael. But Michael refused to be Tsar and instead handed power to a provisional government, formed by members of the **Duma**. The Provisional Government kept Russia in the war, but its authority was weakened by the rise of an alternative centre of power — the Petrograd **Soviet**. This council was made up of elected delegates from soviets of workers, soldiers, sailors and peasants from throughout Russia.

The Provisional Government lacked support from any part of Russian society. The old ruling classes wanted to restore the rule of the Tsar. Peasants wanted the aristocrats' land to be redistributed to them.

Many soldiers, sailors and workers wanted Russia to withdraw from the war. The government could hold power only so long as the Petrograd Soviet gave it support.

SOURCE 4 Looking towards the ceiling from the grand staircase at the Tsar's Winter Palace in St Petersburg

SOURCE 5 The Winter Palace has hundreds of luxurious rooms and is thousands of times bigger than the homes of Russian workers and peasants in 1917. The royal family also had other magnificent palaces.

8.12.3 The second revolution

Russia's small but disciplined Bolshevik Party was led by Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, known as Lenin. In topic 1 you read about Marxism, the revolutionary socialist set of ideas developed by Karl Marx in the nineteenth century. Lenin was a Marxist but he departed from Marx's belief that socialist revolution could take place only in advanced capitalist societies in which industrial workers were the majority. Lenin came to believe that in Russia, an overwhelmingly agricultural country, a socialist revolution could be achieved through an alliance of workers and peasants.

Lenin, and his associate Trotsky, believed that socialist revolution could succeed in backward Russia but only if it received support from socialist revolutions in the more advanced industrial countries. They thought a revolution in Russia would trigger similar revolutions in those countries. In April 1917 Lenin put these views to the other Bolsheviks. At first they totally opposed him. However, he soon won majority support and the Bolsheviks prepared to seize power.

SOURCE 6 A statue of Lenin in front of the Smolny Institute, formerly a school for aristocratic girls, which became the Bolshevik headquarters during the Revolution

SOURCE 7 The first shots of the Bolshevik Revolution were fired by the sailors of the cruiser *Araura*.

The Bolsheviks seize power

To gain popular support, the Bolsheviks adopted the slogans 'Peace, Bread and Land' and 'All Power to the Soviets' while they worked to build up their influence in the Petrograd Soviet. The Provisional Government tried unsuccessfully to suppress the Bolsheviks. But when the right-wing General Kornilov attempted to seize power in August, it was Bolsheviks who sabotaged Kornilov's transport and persuaded his troops to desert. This earned them widespread support. The Bolsheviks had saved the Provisional Government, but now they set out to destroy it.

SOURCE 8 A Bolshevik painting depicting Lenin organising revolutionary workers, sailors and soldiers. The red armbands show that they are Bolsheviks. Red came to symbolise revolution.

SOURCE 9 This Bolshevik banner of 1918 represents the alliance of workers and peasants. In the right-hand corner, the hammer represents industrial workers while the sickle represents peasants.

Trotsky had been elected Chairman of the Petrograd Soviet's Military Revolutionary Committee. Once the Bolsheviks had a majority of delegates in the Soviet, he planned the seizure of power. In November, on Trotsky's orders, the Red Guards of Petrograd workers, soldiers of the Petrograd garrison and sailors of the Krondstadt naval base stormed the Provisional Government's headquarters in the Tsar's Winter Palace. They seized power in the name of the Soviet. The new communist government promised to create a state ruled by workers and peasants.

Although the Bolsheviks failed to live up to their ideals, they would inspire many discontented workers in other lands. Significantly, their victory ended Russia's involvement in the war. In March 1918 the Bolshevik government signed a separate peace that enabled Germany to direct all its resources to the Western Front.

DID YOU KNOW?

Many Marxists and other socialists in Russia and in other countries opposed Lenin's views, which came to be called Marxism–Leninism. They predicted, correctly, that such a revolution could not create democracy and socialism but would lead instead to oppressive dictatorship.

8.12 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. Make a timeline of events on the Eastern Front from 1915 to 1918 to show how Russia's involvement in World War I led to a communist revolution.

2. Explain the meaning of the following terms: Tsar, socialism, Provisional Government, soviet.
3. How was the Tsar's rule ended?
4. Did Lenin see the revolution he was planning as just a Russian matter or as something bigger? Explain your answer.
5. How did the Bolshevik Revolution affect the course of World War I?

Apply your understanding

6. Study **Sources 1, 2, 3, 4** and **5** and explain how these sources help you to understand why many Russian troops, workers and peasants came to oppose the Tsar and the war by March 1917.
7. Referring to **Sources 6** to **9**, explain how the Bolsheviks were able to seize power in a second revolution in November 1917. (Refer in your answer to their ideas, tactics and sources of support.)
8. Why was the Bolshevik Revolution significant for the world?

8.13 Peace and commemoration

8.13.1 A changed world

War's full consequences are rarely foreseen. The Armistice of 11 November 1918 ended the fighting in World War I, but nothing could ever be quite the same again. The survivors of the great armies that had killed and maimed each other for four years with bullets, bayonets, grenades, artillery and gas emerged from their trenches to a world in ruins. The German, Austro-Hungarian, Turkish and Russian empires had been shattered. Revolutions and civil wars broke out in the defeated empires, and even the victor nations and colonies experienced widespread social unrest. In Australia, as we have seen, the war had brought deep divisions and there was scarcely a family that had not lost a brother, son, father or uncle on the battlefields.

SOURCE 1 Crowds fill Melbourne's streets on Armistice Day, 11 November 1918.

AWM J00348

8.13.2 Repatriation

In 1918, 260000 Australians had to be repatriated. Some had been fighting for four years and few people at home understood how deeply the experience had affected them. A shortage of shipping meant some soldiers had to wait more than 18 months to get home. The returning troops brought with them the 'Spanish' influenza, a deadly **pandemic** that swept the world in 1918–19. It caused almost 12000 deaths in Australia, and many men had to be quarantined before being reunited with their families. Australians agreed that the nation should try to repay returned servicemen for their sacrifices. Some were provided with training in skilled trades while others were settled on the land with the help of low-interest loans. However, these measures could not help all ex-servicemen to readjust after four years of the horrors of war.

SOURCE 2 Australian artillery units parade past Buckingham Palace in London on Anzac Day, 25 April 1919.

AWM D00556

Memorials

Australians were determined that their soldiers' sacrifices would not be forgotten. Across the nation, local committees built memorials in towns, cities and suburbs to display the names of the fallen. In the lands in which Australians fell, memorials and vast war cemeteries were established. Most are in northern France and Belgium, where they are maintained with great care by the Commonwealth War Graves Commission.

SOURCE 3 Bronze statue of Private John Simpson and his donkey at the Australian War Memorial, Canberra

SOURCE 4 Message from King George V to the Australian Government, in *The Age*, May 1915

I heartily congratulate you upon the splendid conduct and bravery displayed by the Australian troops in the operations at the Dardanelles, who have indeed proved themselves worthy sons of the Empire.

SOURCE 5 From C. E. W. Bean, *The Story of Anzac*, 1941

What motive sustained them? … It lay in the mettle of the men themselves … life was very dear, but life was not worth living unless they could be true to their idea of Australian Manhood.

8.13.3 Anzac Day and the Anzac legend

In 1914, many Australians had seen World War I as a chance to prove that they deserved a place in Britain's great military tradition. The mateship, bravery and achievements of the Anzacs during the Gallipoli campaign were seen as representing Australian ideals and giving Australia the legendary identity it sought.

Anzac Day was first observed in 1916 to commemorate the landings at Gallipoli and the legend they created. Many people considered that Australia had only really become a nation at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915. Each year, Anzac Day has continued to be commemorated across Australia and New Zealand. For many people, it became Australia's unofficial national day. Traditionally it has been observed through dawn services, marches of veterans and gatherings of wartime comrades. It has also been observed in schools and churches.

SOURCE 6 From Bill Gammage, *The Broken Years*, 1975, p. 278

But the Anzac tradition also introduced a deep division into Australian life…. roughly half those eligible had joined the AIF during the war … A great rift had opened, a rift between those who had fought in the war and those who had not.

In significant ways, this was disastrous. Before the war radical nationalists had led the drive for a social paradise in Australia, but ultimately they were least at ease with the Imperial and martial implications of the Anzac tradition, and during the war they divided over the proper conduct of Australia's war effort …

For their part the conservatives, who before 1914 had exerted a **tenuous** influence on Australian politics and society, were united and given purpose by the war … Naturally enough that dedication and the motives behind it appealed to the men in the trenches …

In short, that general majority which in 1914 had sought to create a social paradise in Australia was both split and made leaderless by the war, and by 1918 no longer existed, while the conservatives had joined with those who had fought in the war to take firm possession of the spirit of Anzac …

At first the message of Anzac Day was similar to that of Empire Day — pride in their British heritage, loyalty to the empire, hatred of Germany, the need for greater sacrifice, and pride that Australia had earned an honourable place in the British military tradition. From 1920 Anzac Day became a public holiday.

What was the meaning of the Anzac legend, and has it changed over time? The legend was based on real characteristics of Anzac troops at Gallipoli and throughout the war. Many risked their lives for their mates. Some were decorated for bravery while others died unrecognised. Qualities like courage and mateship were not uniquely Australian — they were undoubtedly shared by many other soldiers. However, what the Anzacs did was remarkable. They made up less than 10 per cent of British Empire forces but on the Western Front no military force achieved more in proportion to their numbers. Anzac troops believed that they had proven themselves equal to or even better than the British.

SOURCE 7 French children at Villers-Bretonneux, in the Somme Valley, tend graves of Australians killed on the Western Front.

Did the Anzac legend change Australian nationalism?

Did the Anzac legend strengthen or weaken the spirit of national independence? In topic 6 you read about radical nationalism in late-nineteenth-century and early-twentieth-century Australia. Radical nationalists saw Britain as the home of social inequalities. They wanted a fairer and more equal Australia that was independent of Britain. The military historian Bill Gammage has argued that the Anzac legend weakened the influence of radical nationalism because the Anzacs had fought and died for Britain, proving the strength of Australia's ties with the 'Old Country'.

So the Anzac legend fitted in well with the views of Australian conservatives who wanted Australia to stay loyal to the British monarchy and the empire. Conservatives dominated celebrations of Anzac Day in the 1920s and 1930s. To them, it was a celebration of loyalty to the empire as much as an expression of national pride. To many who had fought in the war, Anzac Day was a reminder of their sacrifice and a chance to be reunited with the only people who could really understand what they had suffered. World War II and subsequent conflicts would bring new generations into the Anzac tradition. However, Anzac Day would continue to reflect divisions in Australia as much as it expressed national pride. Some Australians resented what they saw as its use by conservatives to glorify war.

SOURCE 8 Some of the war graves at the Australian National Memorial at Villers-Bretonneux in France

Perhaps today the meaning we give to Anzac Day can be shared by all Australians — pride in the courage and endurance of the Anzacs, sorrow for the terrible losses suffered by their generation and determination that such tragic waste of human lives should never be repeated.

8.13 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Check your understanding

1. What were some of the unforeseen consequences of World War I?
2. Name two programs used to help returned soldiers adjust to civilian life.
3. Why would many men have found it difficult to settle back into civilian life?
4. What emotions do you think the people in **Source 1** would have been experiencing?
5. Have a class discussion on the question: 'What do Anzac Day and the Anzac legend mean today?'

Apply your understanding

6. Why were the men in **Source 2** still in England on Anzac Day 1919?
7. Look back at subtopic 8.6 and explain why Private John Simpson (**Source 3**) has been considered such a great example of the Anzac spirit that he has his own statue at the Australian War Memorial.
8. Study **Sources 4** and **5**.
   (a) According to **Source 4**, what had the Anzacs proved?
   (b) Why might not all Australians have shared the same feelings about this message?
   (c) What motives did Australia's official war historian, C. E. W. Bean, identify to account for Anzac heroism?
9. Read **Source 6**. According to Gammage:
   (a) Why did the Anzac tradition introduce 'a deep division into Australian life'?
   (b) Who were 'least at ease with the Imperial and martial implications of the Anzac tradition' (that is, with the idea that it was noble to fight for the British monarch and empire)?
   (c) How did the Anzac tradition strengthen the influence of conservatives in Australia?
10. How do **Sources 7** and **8** provide evidence of an ongoing commitment to commemorating the sacrifices of Australians in World War I?

myWorld History Atlas

Deepen and check your understanding of the topic with the following resources and auto-marked questions:

- **The world after the First World War**

8.14 Research project: The Anzac Day memorials

8.14.1 Scenario and task

You are a reporter for Australia's Now Channel. It is pre-dawn on 25 April 2015 and you have been posted at Anzac Cove to cover the memorial service to mark the 100th anniversary of the landing of troops for the ill-fated Gallipoli campaign of 1915. Thousands of Australians have gathered, many covered in Australian flags or wearing green-and-gold jerseys and beanies. Attendance at the annual dawn service in Gallipoli has continued to grow, with more and more Australians making the pilgrimage every year. Other reporters have criticised the service as just an excuse for backpackers to meet and party but, as a first-time pilgrim, you have been overwhelmed by the emotional and respectful atmosphere.

Your producer has asked you to craft a moving tribute to the annual memorials on the shores of Gallipoli. Your news story should explain

the events that occurred on these shores 100 years ago and why these memorials are still so important to modern Australians. You will write and record a voiceover of two minutes duration, and use the bank of images available in the Resources tab to create your news story.

8.14.2 Process

- Access your learnON title to watch the introductory video lesson. You can complete this project individually or invite other members of your class to form a group.
- You should perform background research on the Gallipoli campaign, the memorials, and the ritual pilgrimages by many Australians and New Zealanders to this iconic place. You might also like to explore other news stories about Gallipoli. The weblinks in the Resources tab will help you get started.
- When your research is complete, navigate to the Resources tab. A selection of images from the Anzac Day memorials has been provided for you to download and use in your news story. Select the images you would like to use and download the Storyboard template. Use this to write the script for your news story. A guide to crafting news stories has also been provided to help you write an effective and interesting story.
- Record your voiceover using Audacity, GarageBand or Windows voice-recording software, and then use Windows Movie Maker, iMovie or other editing software to create your news story. Remember that these programs allow you to perform filmic actions like panning across images. You can also incorporate a number of different transitions to add drama or emotional impact to your story.
- Print out your research report and hand it in with your completed news story.

learnON RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

Go online to access additional resources such as templates, images and weblinks.

8.15 Review

8.15.1 Review

In this topic we have investigated some aspects of World War I. We have examined the war's causes and have looked at an overview of the war's course. Our main focus has been on the experience of Australians fighting at Gallipoli and on the Western Front, and on developments on the Australian home front, including the deeply divisive conscription issue. We have also studied developments on the Eastern Front, particularly the world-changing Bolshevik Revolution in Russia. Finally, we have looked at the outbreak of peace, commemoration of World War I and the changing nature of the Anzac legend.

KEY TERMS

abdicate to step down from the throne or from other high office
artillery large-calibre guns
blockade sealing off an area so that nothing can get in or out
censorship restriction or control of what people can say, hear, see or read
conscription compulsory enlistment of citizens to serve in the armed forces
deadlock a stalemate in which neither side can gain an advantage
Duma the Russian parliament
enlist to join voluntarily, usually the military
feint a dummy attack meant to deceive the enemy into moving troops from where the main attack will take place
half-caste a term that is now considered offensive but was widely used in the mid-1900s to refer to people of mixed race
Hindenburg line a heavily fortified position to which the Germans withdrew before the Allied offensive of spring 1917
no man's land unoccupied ground between the front lines of opposing armies
pacifist person who holds a religious or other conscientious belief that it is immoral to take part in war
pandemic disease epidemic affecting many different countries
propaganda distortion of the truth to persuade people to support an action or point of view
referendum (plural **referenda**) ballot in which voters decide on a political question. Where there is no change to the Australian Constitution involved, this is called an advisory referendum or plebiscite.
Sinn Fein organisation formed in Ireland in 1905 to campaign for Irish independence from Britain. The name was also used by the pro-independence party after the failed 1916 uprising.
Slavic belonging to the Slavs (a language group including Russians, Serbs and other Central and Eastern European peoples)
soviet a council representing workers, peasants, soldiers and sailors
stalemate a term that comes from the game of chess, meaning a situation in which neither side can gain a winning advantage
tenuous weak, thin
trench foot a painful, swollen condition caused by feet remaining wet for too long. If gangrene set in, the feet would have to be amputated.
U-boats German submarines
ultimatum a final set of demands or terms backed by a threat

8.15 Activities

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Multiple choice quiz online only

Short answer quiz

1. Who were the members of the Triple Entente?
2. Which countries formed the Triple Alliance?
3. Who killed the Archduke Franz Ferdinand?
4. Approximately when did trench warfare begin on the Western Front?
5. Give two reasons for the Gallipoli campaign.
6. Which part of the Gallipoli campaign was most successful?
7. What was 'no man's land'?
8. Where did the AIF suffer enormous casualties for seven weeks from 23 July 1916?
9. How did most Australians vote in the two conscription referenda?
10. Why did many Russians want to withdraw from the war by 1917?
11. Who was Lenin?
12. Why were the Bolsheviks able to seize power in Russia?
13. At which French village did the Anzacs play a key role in halting the last German offensive in 1918?
14. What percentage of Australian troops serving overseas became casualties?
15. When do we commemorate Anzac Day?

Apply your understanding

16. Look closely at **Source 1** and explain why flying was considered a job for daredevils.
17. Study **Source 2**.
    (a) Describe the landscape.
    (b) What does the landscape tell you about the war?
    (c) What aspects of this scene tell us that armies in World War I used both old and new technologies?
18. Working in small groups, conduct research on the role of submarines during World War I, particularly the role of the Australian submarine *AE2* in the Gallipoli campaign. Present your findings as a data show.
19. Hold a class debate on the topic: 'That the Anzac legend has lost none of its significance for Australians'.

SOURCE 1 A World War I military aircraft at the Australian War Memorial. The Australian Flying Corps (AFC) was part of the AIF. World War I aircraft were slow and unreliable. They were used for reconnaissance flights and for bombing and machine-gunning enemy positions in Europe and the Middle East. Flying them was described as a job for daredevils.

SOURCE 2 *Bringing up the ammunition, Flanders, Autumn 1917*, by H. Septimus Power. This painting, which was completed in 1920, shows Australian soldiers with teams of horses struggling through mud as they pull carts loaded with machine-gun ammunition.

Power, H. Septimus
Bringing up the ammunition, Flanders, Autumn 1917 (1920)
Oil on canvas, 153 × 244.5 cm
Australian War Memorial ART03333

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Complete these digital docs: Worksheet 8.8: Word search
Worksheet 8.9: Summing up
Worksheet 8.10: Reflection

Back to the big questions

At the beginning of this topic several big questions were posed. You can now use what you have learned to answer them.

1. Why was Australia involved in World War I?
2. What was the significance of the Gallipoli and Western Front campaigns?
3. How did the Anzac legend influence our national identity?
4. What were the main political, economic and social effects of the war?
5. How did the war affect Australians on the home front?

GLOSSARY

abdicate: to step down from the throne or from other high office
abolition: the end of legal acceptance of slavery
absolute monarch: a ruler who governs alone, unrestrained by laws or constitution
affiliated unions: unions linked with other unions through a wider umbrella organisation
animal husbandry: breeding and caring for livestock, usually in a farm environment
annex: to take possession of a territory
artefacts: objects made by humans
artillery: large-calibre guns
Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU): the peak union organisation in Australia
bell pit: a traditional form of coalmining in which a shaft is dug down to a seam of coal and then excavated outwards, with the coal raised to the surface using a winch and buckets
biased: prejudiced, leaning to a one-sided view
biased account: narrative or description in which a writer presents only one side of an issue in an effort to convince the reader
Bill: a proposal to change the law by Act of Parliament
Black Death: a deadly disease that ravaged Europe, killing between a quarter and half of the population, in the second half of the fourteenth century. It continued to occur periodically over the next 300 years.
blast furnace: a type of furnace into which air is forced to raise the temperature sufficiently to carry out the smelting of iron ore
blockade: sealing off an area so that nothing can get in or out
bookkeeping: keeping records of financial accounts
bourgeoisie: capitalist middle classes; the owners of the means of production, distribution and exchange — that is, factories, shipping, banks and other businesses
British Dominion: a self-governing territory belonging to the British Empire
cannibalism: eating one's own species
carding: the process of untangling and straightening raw wool or cotton fibres
censorship: restriction or control of what people can say, hear, see or read
central business district (CBD): the business centre of a city
cesspools: pits into which householders with no toilets could empty their waste, which was later collected by workers known as nightmen
cholera: a bacterial disease of the intestines, causing vomiting and diarrhoea. It is transmitted through contaminated water and can lead to death through dehydration.
coke: a type of fuel produced by using heat to remove impurities such as coal gas and tar from coal
colonies: areas of land settled by people from another country. This can involve military conquest if the original inhabitants resist that settlement.
commute: to change a penalty to one less severe
concubine: a woman who lives with a man she is not married to and has a lower social rank than his wife
conscription: compulsory enlistment of citizens to serve in the armed forces
constitution: rules for government
convicts: people imprisoned for a crime
cottage industry: small-scale manufacturing in which raw materials are processed in workers' homes
Crimean War: war fought between Britain and its allies and Russia during 1853–56
cults: branches of religious worship
Daoist: ancient Chinese philosophical/religious tradition emphasising simple living in harmony and balance with the universe

deadlock: a stalemate in which neither side can gain an advantage
deport: to forcibly remove someone from a country
deposed: removed from power
despot: a ruler with almost unlimited power who uses it unfairly or cruelly
divine right: chosen by God to rule
Duma: the Russian parliament
dummies: people, secretly acting for squatters, who selected land and later sold it to the squatters
egalitarian: believing in equality
egalitarianism: equality of all people
empire: a number of different countries or colonies controlled by the government of one country
enclosure: consolidation of open fields and common land into single farms owned by one farmer or landowner, and fenced off from neighbouring farms
enlist: to join voluntarily, usually the military
entrepreneurs: people who organise a business venture, and assume the financial risks associated with it, in the hope of making a profit
entrepreneurship: the act of being an entrepreneur
Estates General: representatives elected by the three French Estates
fallow: land left unplanted
famine: a severe shortage of food, leading to starvation, usually due to crop failures over a sustained period of time
Federation: movement of colonies to form a nation
feint: a dummy attack meant to deceive the enemy into moving troops from where the main attack will take place
feudal dues: obligations and payments imposed on peasants since the Middle Ages
goldsmiths: craftspeople who work with gold and other precious metals
grazing: pasture to feed cows and sheep
guillotine: device designed to execute people by decapitation (cutting off their heads)
gunboat diplomacy: a coercive form of diplomacy in which a country threatens the use of military force to achieve its objectives
half-caste: a term that is now considered offensive but was widely used in the mid-1900s to refer to people of mixed race
Hindenburg line: a heavily fortified position to which the Germans withdrew before the Allied offensive of spring 1917
hulks: bodies of old ships that serve as prisons rather than as sailing vessels
impartial observations: comments and reflections that recognise all sides and opinions relating to an issue or event, leaving it to the reader to form his or her own judgement
impound: to confiscate
incontrovertible: certain, undeniable
indoor relief: the provision of assistance to the inmates of the workhouse
infant mortality rate: a means of measuring the percentage of babies who fail to survive their first birthday
intercontinental: involving or occurring between one or more continents
junks: Chinese sailing ships
kinship: relationships between members of an extended family
kowtow: to kneel and touch the forehead to the ground in deep respect for an emperor
larrikins: term used in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries for unruly youths
legations: foreign countries' diplomatic offices, similar to embassies
Levée en masse: mass conscription, forcing people to fight to defend the state
'Little Lon': name (after Little Lonsdale Street) given to the north-eastern part of the CBD known for its slums

Luddites: a group of protesters who expressed their opposition to industrialisation by smashing factory machines
malefactor: a person who does bad or illegal things
mandate of heaven: the idea that heaven blessed the rule of a just emperor but could rescind that blessing if the emperor ruled unjustly
Marco Polo: merchant from Venice who travelled through Asia in the thirteenth century; generally credited with introducing Europeans to China and Central Asia
minority government: a government that has fewer than half the seats in a lower house of parliament
Napoleonic Wars: a series of wars between the French Empire, led by Napoleon Bonaparte, and a number of other European nations between 1803 and 1815
New Spain: Spanish territories in the New World, including much of North America
nightsoil: human waste
nobles: aristocrats, a hereditary privileged class just below a monarch
no man's land: unoccupied ground between the front lines of opposing armies
outdoor relief: the provision of assistance to the poor while allowing them to remain in their own homes
pacifists: people who hold a religious or other conscientious belief that it is immoral to take part in war
pandemic: disease epidemic affecting many different countries
parish: an area of local government centred on the local church, which fulfilled some of the functions that local municipal councils perform in our own society
parliamentary representation: the representation of people's views and interests in Parliament through elected delegates
pastoral lease: land that is leased for the purpose of grazing sheep or cattle
patents: legally enforceable right to make or sell an invention. Patents, usually granted by government, protect an inventor's idea from being copied.
pauper: a very poor person
peacocking: buying up land around creeks and rivers to make the rest of the area useless to selectors
penal colony: a settlement for convicts
pickets: lines of workers formed to stop strike-breakers entering a workplace
picking oakum: unpicking short lengths of rope coated in tar. Oakum would be rammed between the planks on wooden ships to make them watertight.
pig iron: the initial product resulting from the smelting of iron ore in a blast furnace
precinct: a district of a city
proletariat: the working classes, especially industrial wage-earners
propaganda: distortion of the truth to persuade people to support an action or point of view
radicals: those who advocate far-reaching political and social changes
referendum: (plural **referenda**) ballot in which voters decide on a political question. Where there is no change to the Australian Constitution involved, this is called an advisory referendum or plebiscite.
remuneration: pay or reward such as wages
repeal: withdrawal of a law or set of laws by Parliament
republic: a form of government that relies on popular representation rather than a monarchy
republicanism: the belief that a country should be a republic (where the country has an elected or appointed head of state), not a monarchy (where the head of state is a king or queen)
rickets: a softening of the bones, leading to deformity of the limbs, caused by a deficiency of calcium and vitamin D
royal commission: a special public inquiry set up by government to investigate a particular issue and to make recommendations for changes in the law
rural population: people living in the countryside, rather than in towns or cities
sans-culottes: in revolutionary France, working-class people of the cities

scurvy: a disease caused by poor diet, especially a deficiency of vitamin C
secede: break away to form a separate country
serfs: peasants who were bound to the land they worked. In Russia they could be bought and sold by the landowner.
shilling: a unit of Australian currency until decimal currency was introduced. There were 12 pence to a shilling and 20 shillings to a pound.
Sinn Fein: organisation formed in Ireland in 1905 to campaign for Irish independence from Britain. The name was also used by the pro-independence party after the failed 1916 uprising.
Slavic: belonging to the Slavs (a language group including Russians, Serbs and other Central and Eastern European peoples)
socialism: a political system in which governments control the economy to ensure greater equality
soviet: a council representing workers, peasants, soldiers and sailors
spinning: the twisting of carded fibres into lengths of continuous thread or yarn
spirit possession: an alleged supernatural event in which a spirit or god takes control of the human body, creating changes in behaviour
squatters: colonists who leased and occupied large tracts of what had been Aboriginal land
stalemate: a term that comes from the game of chess, meaning a situation in which neither side can gain a winning advantage
stockade: a fortified enclosure
strike: attempt by employees to put pressure on their employer by refusing to work
subordinate: having a lower or less important position
subsistence farming: farming that provides only enough to satisfy the basic needs of life of the farmer or community
suffrage: the right to vote in elections
sweated labour: workers exploited by being employed for long hours and low pay
tailings: a mixture of dirt and stones left on the diggings after an area had been mined
tariffs: duties charged on imports
telegraph: device for sending messages over long distances
tenuous: weak, thin
track gauge: the distance between the two parallel tracks of a railway line
treadwheel: a punishment device, also called the 'everlasting staircase', comprising a large, iron-framed, hollow cylinder with wooden steps. As the device rotated, slaves were forced to keep stepping forward.
trench foot: a painful, swollen condition caused by feet remaining wet for too long. If gangrene set in, the feet would have to be amputated.
trustees: a group appointed to manage property on behalf of another person or organisation
tsar: the absolute ruler of the Russian Empire
tucker: traditional Australian slang term for food
turnpikes: a type of toll road
turnpike trusts: organisations established by Parliament with the power to collect tolls on particular roads and use the money to pay for maintenance of those roads
typhus: a fatal disease spread by the bites of lice and fleas
U-boats: German submarines
ultimatum: a final set of demands or terms backed by a threat
urban population: people living in cities or large towns
vices: immoral habits
virtues: admirable moral qualities, goodness
warp: the fixed threads used in the weaving process
weft: the horizontal movable thread that is woven through the warp to create cloth
workhouses: institutions built to house the poor

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