History 9

for the Australian Curriculum

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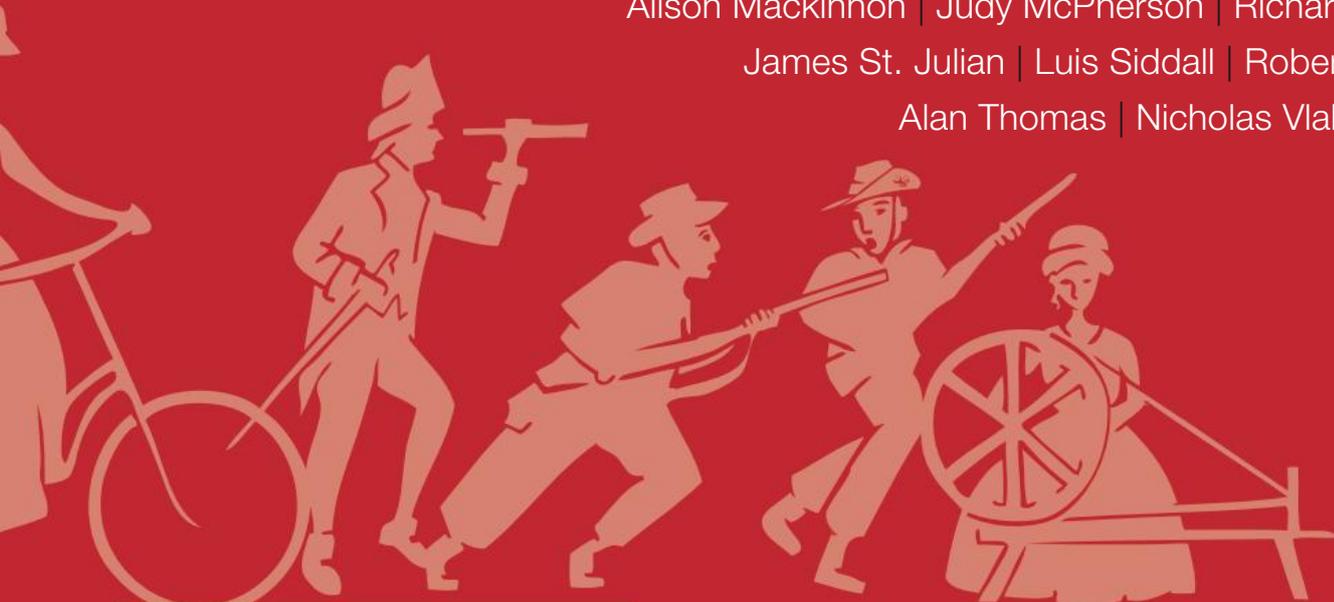
Series Editor
Angela Woollacott

Michael Adcock | Margaret Allen | Helen Butler
Christopher Cunneen | Raymond Evans | Jenny Gregory
Alison Mackinnon | Judy McPherson | Richard Malone
James St. Julian | Luis Siddall | Robert Skinner
Alan Thomas | Nicholas Vlahogiannis

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Please be aware that this publication may contain images of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people now deceased.

Contents

Foreword

The new *Australian Curriculum: History* is an important and exciting chance for all of us to approach the subject differently. For the first time, students and teachers across the nation are working on the same topics and themes, placing their own local stories in national and global contexts. The curriculum makes us consider each Australian state within the wider history of the colonies and the nation, and indeed the whole of world history. It is designed to help students become educated citizens with a broad grasp of all major historical developments.

The team of authors assembled by Cambridge University Press to write *History for the Australian Curriculum* share a passionate sense of the possibilities of this curriculum. The authors are from around the country and bring to the series a wealth of expertise and depth of teaching experience from various levels of secondary and tertiary education. The excitement was palpable when we met as a team in January 2011 to discuss the textbooks, how they would be structured, and what features would make them the best possible resources for both students and teachers. The concise coverage of topics, rich excerpts from primary sources, first-person voices, creative activities, '*Historical facts*,' '*Times gone by …*' vignettes, vivid illustrations, glossary definitions and many other features make this an outstanding series.

The historian R H Tawney commented eloquently that 'there is truth in the paradox that all history is the history of the present; and for this reason each generation must write its history for itself. That of its predecessors may be true, but its truth may not be relevant. Different answers are required because different questions are asked. Standing at a new point on the road, it finds that new ranges in the landscape come into view'.

The questions asked, topics covered and stories told in *History for the Australian Curriculum* are different from those in earlier textbooks. In the twenty-first century, the history we must learn and research has moved on and requires new angles of analysis. Moreover, we, the students of history, are different.

Students and teachers across Australian schools come from a wider variety of backgrounds than was the case in earlier generations. We understand the importance of Aboriginal history, and we now expect to learn about the historical experiences of Australians' families and ancestors who arrived here from various regions of the world. People who have made history include peasants and kings, ancient Egyptians and ancient Australians, women and men, and people from a wide range of cultures, traditions and linguistic backgrounds. The *Australian Curriculum: History* is innovative in its balance between world history and Australian history, and in its placing of Australian history in the context of Asian and Pacific histories, for example, as well as European, American and other histories.

In *History for the Australian Curriculum 9*, you will learn about the making of the modern world and the big transformations that occurred. The mass movements of people, some forced and others by choice, were a key feature of this period, as were the technological, economic and social changes of the Industrial Revolution. Empires expanded around the world and new ideas of political equality and nationalism helped to lead to their downfall. The last chapters look particularly at Australia, Asia and the terrible cataclysm of World War I.

We hope you will find fascinating information, provocative questions and useful resources for the *Australian Curriculum: History* in these pages. Good luck for your journey of historical study and research!

Angela Woollacott
Series Editor

About the authors

Angela Woollacott is the Manning Clark Professor of History at the Australian National University and Vice President of the Australian Historical Association. Angela teaches in the fields of Australian history, British Empire history, transnational history, gender history and settler colonialism, and she serves on the boards of several national and international journals.

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Margaret Allen works at the University of Adelaide, and has been teaching and researching gender studies and history for 40 years. Margaret has published on nineteenth century Australian women writers and more recently has been researching links between India and Australia from c. 1880 to 1940. She has worked on many committees during her career, including those of the Senior Secondary Assessment Board of South Australia and History South Australia.

Helen Butler has taught history and geography in Victorian and New South Wales state and private schools for over 30 years. She has also served as both a Head of History and Head of Humanities. Helen has a passion for imparting the skills of independent inquiry to her history students and instilling a love of the subject in them.

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Raymond Evans is an Adjunct Professor of History with the Griffith Centre for Cultural Research at Griffith University as well as a Senior Research Fellow with the Centre for Critical and Cultural Studies at the University of Queensland. Raymond has been involved in the research and writing of Australian history since the 1960s. He has written and published widely on a range of topics concerning social and cultural history.

Jenny Gregory is Winthrop Professor of History, and Head of the School of Humanities at the University of Western Australia. Jenny has taught Australian history for many years. Her involvement in the development of the *Australian Curriculum: History* began when she was one of 12 invited participants at the Australian History Summit hosted by the then federal Minister for Education in 2006. She is now leading a group at the University of Western Australia developing professional learning courses for teachers and a Masters program to assist teachers in preparing for the implementation of the Australian Curriculum.

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Judy McPherson is a teacher of humanities and has taught history and geography to students across Years 7 to 12 in several Victorian schools. Judy's experience includes head of faculty roles in the humanities as well as pastoral team leadership. She has made a significant contribution to curriculum development as a subject leader in the humanities and has been a contributing author to three geography textbooks. She is also a director of Ed Scape Pty Ltd, which provides a range of consultancy services in the field of program evaluation and school improvement.
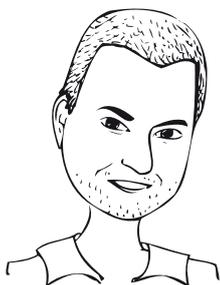
Richard Malone is the Head of Middle School at Caulfield Grammar School. Richard has previously been the Head of Teaching and Learning, and Head of Humanities. Along with these leadership roles, he has taught a wide range of history subjects from Years 7 to 12 over the past 16 years. His passion for seeing history taught in an engaging manner has led him to focus on the importance of differentiation as the most effective means to address the learning needs of students. He has written several textbooks for secondary students, including *Analysing Modern History* and *Analysing the Russian Revolution*, both published by Cambridge University Press.

James St. Julian studied archaeology and history at the University of Sydney and subsequently worked in Cambodia on the Greater Angkor Project for five seasons. James has taught the IB and HSC ancient and modern history curricula at Trinity Grammar School in Sydney for a number of years. He also runs an archaeology program, teaching students archaeological theory, method and practice. He is passionate about introducing students to the history and archaeology of South-East Asia.

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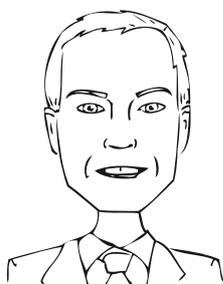
Robert Skinner is a highly experienced teacher of ancient and modern history. Robert has significant experience as an HSC examination marker, has been an adviser on the HSC Advice Line for students, run by the NSW Board of Studies, and is a former Head of History at two private schools in NSW.

Alan Thomas taught history studies at Belmont High School and Parkdale Secondary College and was Head of History at the Geelong College Senior Campus until 2005. Alan served as curriculum coordinator at Parkdale Secondary College in 1988–90, and was an active member of the education committee of the school council. During this career, he developed a strong interest in curriculum development in history studies Years 7 to 12.

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Acknowledgements

On behalf of the author team, the Series Editor (Angela Woollacott) and Publisher (Thuong Du) wish to thank the following reviewers for their feedback on the manuscript:

Paul Burton, Lecturer in Roman History, Australian National University

Anna Greenstreet, Humanities Domain Leader, Berwick Secondary College

Julia Nasser, SOSE Domain Leader, Elisabeth Murdoch College

Rachel Powell, Head of History, Sydney Boys High School

Kaye Price, Centre for Australian Indigenous Knowledges, University of Southern Queensland

Kriston Rennie, Lecturer in Medieval History, University of Queensland

Kelly Scott, SACE/Humanities Coordinator, Walford Anglican School for Girls

Rosinda Seara, Head of Business, Society and Environment, Rossmoyne Senior High School

Naomi Warriner, Head of SOSE, All Saints' College.

They acknowledge the support of their families, friends and the following staff at Cambridge University Press who worked tirelessly towards the publication of this textbook: Mark Cleary (Education Project Editor), Margie Dela Cruz (Education Associate Commissioning Editor), Courtney Frederiksen (Cover Art Illustrator), Linda Kowarzik (Education Publishing Director), Rosemary McDonald (Permissions Assistant), Liam McManus (Education Development Editor), Katrina Tapply (Production Manager), Carolyn Wadey-Barron (Education Series Project Editor).

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How to use this textbook

Chapter openers feature **before you start** and **let's begin** sections which focus your attention on the topics being studied and prepare you for your in-depth investigations

Timelines chart key events as well as world events occurring at the same time to help you comprehend and retain information.

Maps identify relevant features, cities and landmarks to give you a geographical context for your historical studies.

Chapter summaries review the main ideas of the topic to consolidate what you have learned.

End-of-chapter questions include multiple choice, short answer, source analysis and extended response to test your knowledge through the reinforcement of key concepts and application of skills.

x   How to use this textbook

Note this down sections recommend the use of a range of graphic organisers to help you record and revise key ideas.

A variety of **activities** and **research tasks** explore key concepts, develop skills and draw back to the general learning capabilities and cross-curriculum priorities.

Historical facts highlight interesting information to enrich your learning.

Icons alert you to additional activities available in the workbook for extra practice with developing historical skills.

Glossary terms are bolded in the text, defined in the margins and collated at the end of the textbook for easy reference.

Times gone by case studies extend on information to add another layer to your knowledge and understanding.

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Contact us on 03 8671 1400 or help@cambridgego.com.au

Historical skills toolkit

Source 0.1 Statue of Charles Darwin, Natural History Museum (London)

Introduction

History is full of interesting people, mysterious civilisations and wondrous cities. As a junior historian you will learn about history through identifying historical evidence, assessing primary and secondary sources, and recognising perspectives and interpretations. There is no easy way to become a good student, but there are good methods to achieve this aim. The historical skills toolkit will show you how to develop a range of skills that will improve your ability to read and interpret historical writings and sources, and help you better understand history. The skills you develop in history will help in other areas of life. One of the fundamental skills used in the study of history is critical thinking, which is an important skill for life both inside and outside of the classroom.

Reading skills

Reading is one of the most pleasurable pastimes. People often read books in their free time for relaxation and enjoyment, and even take books with them on holidays. However, there are different types of writing and sometimes we need to use more developed skills to read more complex writing. For example, you may find a novel easier to read than a poem; or you may find reading a school textbook more difficult than a newspaper or a comic book. This is because different skills are required to understand these different types of writing. This section concentrates on a number of areas to improve your reading skills: building historical vocabulary, identifying bias in sources and analysing cause and effect.

Building historical vocabulary

Historical vocabulary is the technical words used in history to convey particular ideas and meanings. Sometimes you will not have met these words before and you should learn them as you encounter them. In this textbook, important points of historical vocabulary are highlighted and a definition appears in the margin.

Understanding key terms and concepts

One of the challenges modern history presents is understanding the key terms and concepts, or the 'language' of history, that historians use to describe and evaluate their subjects. While some of the terminology may be familiar to you, the way these terms are used can vary depending on which culture or period it describes. In this way, you need to take into account the historical context. For instance, if an historian uses the term 'imperialism' to describe British exploration and colonialism during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, they will be using the term differently from a study of the 'imperialism' of the Pharaohs of the Egyptian New Kingdom. This is because the imperial practices, aims and attitudes of these two phases of history were very different.

The distance of time is not the only context that you need to be aware of, for different cultures create their own contexts. For example, nationalism arose during a fairly similar period of time in different nations, but it developed differently and with different consequences in those nations. Thus, it is important to not only know what the historical terms and concepts mean, but how the historian uses them.

Contestability of historical terms and concepts

Understanding the terms and concepts a historian uses is more complex than identifying the context in which they are used. Sometimes the choice of terminology offers an insight into an historian's perspective, and you need to evaluate the terms to identify an historian's point of view on an historical debate. This means that the vocabulary used is subject to **contestability**. A clear case of the use of contestable terms and concepts in Australian history is found in the language used to describe the contact between **Indigenous** Australians and Europeans in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

contestability the state when particular interpretations about the past are open to debate; for example, as a result of a lack of evidence or different perspectives

Indigenous Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

As you read accounts of this period of Australian history you may notice that the period following the arrival of Europeans in Australia is described variously as 'settlement,' 'invasion' or 'colonisation'. Each of these terms conveys a very different meaning, and in turn presents the period after the arrival of the Europeans either as a mostly peaceful migration ('settlement'), an aggressive taking of the land ('invasion') or an expansion of European economic and political control ('colonisation'). The point here is not that either of these descriptions of this period of Australian history is more accurate than the other, but rather each term is contestable and you should be aware that historians often present their perspective within such historical terminology.

Identifying bias

Bias is a point of view (or 'perspective') that is limited by an author's interests or prejudices and affects their ability to make a fair judgement. You will recognise bias in sources that seem to be one-sided. While biased sources can be a problem if you want to find out what happened in the past, they can be very useful for understanding the attitude and personal prejudices of the author and the times in which they lived.

To identify bias in an historical work you should think about the author and how they have made their case. You should do the following when reading history:

- **Identify the author and information about them.** Look to see if there is a connection between the author and the subject they are writing about. Consider whether the author belongs to a particular political or social group, and whether that would influence their perspective.
- **Assess the language.** Consider whether the author has used neutral historical concepts and terms or whether they used language that has positive or negative connotations.
- **Assess the evidence.** Check whether the author's argument is supported by evidence and whether their view is consistent with other studies on the topic.

Analysing cause and effect

A fundamental principle of historical thinking is the relationship between cause and effect. Causes are the conditions, contexts and events that occurred before a significant change. You can think of causes as 'reasons for' something else occurring. The change that occurs is the effect, or the 'result of' something else happening. Historians analyse the relationship between causes and effects to identify chains of events and developments over time (both short and long term) and why they happened the way they did.

To identify an historian's use of cause and effect, you should do the following when reading a secondary source:

- **Look for 'cause and effect' words and phrases.** You can recognise when an historian is engaging in cause and effect when they use words and phrases such as: 'because', 'therefore', 'consequently', 'as a result of', 'thus', 'hence', 'so' and 'led to'.
- **Recognise multiple causes.** History is complex and it is common for great changes to come about for a number of reasons (that is, 'causes'). Unless you investigate all the possible causes for a change or an event, then you risk your work being simplistic.
- **Identify a chain of events.** It is often the case that the effect of one (or a series of) cause(s) might have contributed to other changes. Hence, there may be a series of events that are directly linked to each other.

Visual literacy skills

Visual literacy is concerned with examining different types of graphic data, such as timelines, images in the form of photos and paintings, websites, and identifying primary and secondary sources. Historians spend a great deal of their time analysing information they gather from these types of sources and it is therefore important to develop your visual literacy skills.

Activity **0.1**

1 Define the following historical concepts and give two examples of where they could be found in the study of history.

  a imperialism
  b nationalism
  c evolution
  d evidence

2 Read Chapter 5 'Making a Nation' and identify the historical terms used to describe the period following the arrival of Europeans in Australia.

☛ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the causes and effects of WWI after reading Chapter 7 'World War I (1914–18)'.

Causes of World War I	Effect by 1914

Interpreting timelines

Interactive timelines are a great way to sequence historical people and events and draw geographical connections between regions connected by historical events. Interactive timelines are different from regular timelines because they are in an electronic format and have links to images, audio-visual media, websites and other forms of information. A good example of an interactive timeline can be found at www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks.

Activity **0.2**

Using the information in Chapters 4 and 5, construct an interactive timeline that covers Australia's early military history for the period 1899–1918. Use a program like PowerPoint and sequence the events, identify the regions in which Australia was involved and connect different events (cause and effect). Be sure to include audio-visual media.

Analysing primary and secondary sources

Interpreting photographs

'A picture is worth a thousand words.' So goes the old adage, but can those words be trusted? There is no doubt that photography and other visual media have added much to the study of history. Photographs are wonderful resources, and are generally primary sources. However, photographs can be altered and their reliability must always be questioned.

Source 0.3 The morning after the first battle of Passchendaele (Passendale)

Source 0.2 Australian troops injured on the Menin Road

Source 0.4 A scene typical of the conditions under which Australian troops fought in WWI

A case in point is the work of Frank Hurley (1885–1962), the Australian Government's official war photographer during World War I (1914–18). Hurley was appointed in 1917 and sent to Europe to cover the battles in which the Australian Imperial Force fought. His photographs have been celebrated for their artistic excellence and accuracy. However, Hurley himself has stated that some of his photographs had been subject to 'judicious manipulation' for effect. That is, they were altered or staged to capture a scene that may not have been possible otherwise. Hurley sometimes made composite photographs to enhance the message that he wanted to convey. This means that you cannot simply accept photographs as unbiased primary sources.

Examine three photographs Frank Hurley took during 1917 (Sources 0.2, 0.3 and 0.4) and see if you can identify whether they are genuine or composite images.

Interpreting political cartoons

Political cartoons are special forms of visual sources which historians often used in their work. Political cartoons are created to express an artist's perspective on a particular topic. You can find examples of political cartoons in current newspapers, and in historical and political magazines. The intended message can be varied and can range from **satire** to political **propaganda**, and be critical, supportive or informative. The artist conveys their message through drawing caricatures of important figures and combines them with symbols to create meaning. Some tips for identifying the message of a political cartoon are:

satire the humorous use of irony, exaggeration or sarcasm to undermine a person or situation

propaganda the communication of a message to either change another's mind to or reinforce an existing idea that agrees with that of the propagator

1   **Identify the message.** Use your background knowledge to identify what the artist is communicating.

Activity 0.3

Analyse the political cartoon below and identify the meaning of the cartoon with examples of how the message is conveyed.

Source 0.5 Anti-Federation cartoon 1899, 'New South Wales and her duty to posterity', *The Daily Telegraph,* 20 June 1899. Courtesy State Library of New South Wales.

2 **Examine everything in the cartoon.** Artists use all the space in a political cartoon to convey their message. Make sure you incorporate everything in the cartoon in your analysis.

3 **Identify the symbols used.** Political cartoons typically use symbols that represent key individuals or ideas. Your analysis will be more sophisticated if you can determine what these symbols mean.

4 **Identify any relevant artistic techniques.** Artists use shading, tone, contrast, size and colour to develop meaning and convey an argument.

Interpreting literature as an historical source

Literature can be a useful source for studying the ideas and attitudes of the period in which it was written. For example, Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales* tells us much about life in England during the twelfth century. Similarly the novels of Charles Dickens, including *Oliver Twist* and *Bleak House*, provide insights into English society and living conditions during the Industrial Revolution (see Chapter 2). However, a work of literature is fiction and has different aims to a work of history. Hence you need to assess a literary source in that light. The following are tips for assessing literature as an historical source:

- **Identify the author and the period.** Determine the period in which the author was writing and what influence this might have had on their views.
- **Look for descriptions of conditions.** Establish what the author says about social, economic and political conditions of the period and whether they describe those conditions in a positive or negative light.
- **Consider whether the aim is historical accuracy or imagery.** It is crucial to recognise if the author has written the fiction to accurately reflect the historical events and conditions of the time, or if they are using exaggeration and tone for emotion and character development. To do this, you need to use your knowledge of the historical period to assess the author's work.

Writing skills

In the introduction to the section on reading skills the point was made that there are different types of writing. In this section you will be introduced to some methods for composing good historical writing. In particular, we will focus on developing research questions and writing techniques.

Research writing

When historians begin researching a topic, they use a number of methods to develop their ideas and focus the direction of their investigations. In this section the focus is on methods for developing inquiry questions, organising source material and developing an argument.

Developing research questions

You may be asked to formulate a question for a research report on a particular topic in history. Such a task requires you to draft ideas for a research question that uses historical terms and concepts that will allow you to define an inquiry question and write a piece of research about the past.

Activity 0.4

And did those feet in ancient time

Walk upon England's mountains green?

And was the holy lamb of God

On England's pleasant pastures seen?

And did the countenance divine

Shine forth upon our clouded hills?

And was Jerusalem builded here,

Among these dark satanic mills?

Bring me my bow of burning gold!

Bring me my arrows of desire!

Bring me my spear– oh clouds, unfold!

Bring me my chariot of fire!

I will not cease from mental fight

Nor shall my sword sleep in my hand,

Till we have built Jerusalem

In England's green and pleasant land

Source 0.6 William Blake, 'And Did Those Feet in Ancient Time'

Read William Blake's poem, 'And Did Those Feet in Ancient Time', and assess it in terms of Blake's perspective on the Industrial Revolution, and the poem's reliability and usefulness as a source.

☛ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, identify key historical questions about the effects of the Industrial Revolution.

Effects of the Industrial Revolution
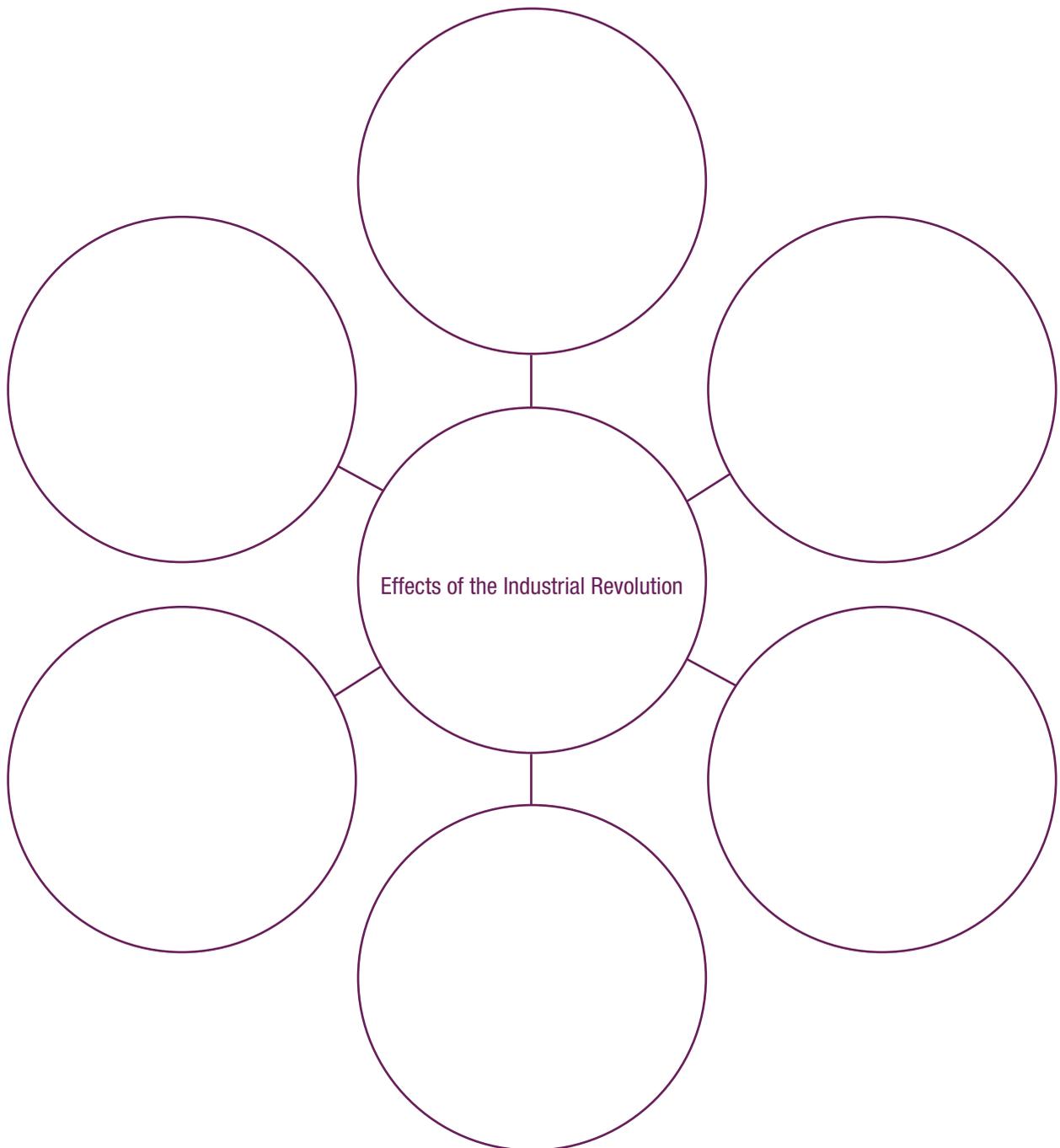
To formulate a research question, you will need to examine primary and secondary sources and ask questions to identify the purpose, perspective and usefulness of the sources. Once you have identified these key aspects of a source, you can start to formulate questions that you can answer in your research. A good method for identifying key questions is to use a graphic organiser to summarise your questions (and answers) about the source.

Once you have identified a number of key research questions, you can refine the different issues you want to cover into a general research question which covers your key questions. A good way to do this is to identify the overarching theme in your key questions. You would then need to decide on the type of research you want to write and chose an appropriate task word, such as 'analyse' (identify key points and explain relationships between them and their implications), 'assess' or 'evaluate' (make a judgement), or 'explain' or 'account for' (cause and effect). When you combine your key theme with a task word you will have identified a good research question. An example is 'Assess how the Industrial Revolution affected England and America'.

Tips on locating and organising sources

Locating sources for a research project is manageable if you look in the right places. All too often students go to search engines first and are overwhelmed by poor quality material when the very best works are often found in your school or community library. Since the best work published on any topic will be found in the library's collection of books or online databases, you should start your search there. If you get stuck, be sure to ask your teacher or librarian for help finding material. You should be looking for facts, statistics, images and studies on your topic.

Once you have gathered some good sources and information, you can search the internet for reliable and informative websites for more information. You can use the knowledge you have learned from your initial library research to use more sophisticated search terms to find the best websites.

It is a good idea to organise your sources as you find them during the research process. Historians typically compile a list of sources and the locations where they were found – whether in books, encyclopaedias, and databases – and detail what topics they discuss. This works for both primary and secondary sources.

Constructing an argument

Part of becoming a successful student of history is learning how to construct an argument. Historians construct arguments by forming opinions based on the analysis of sources and the significance of historical personalities and events. They turn their opinions into arguments by engaging with secondary sources and developing a logical case which can be backed up by primary sources. The following steps will help you construct sound historical arguments.

- **Active reading.** When you read about a topic, think of key questions, such as 'How was that feat achieved?'; 'What evidence is there?'; and 'What theories have been developed?' Use questions like these to form an opinion.
- **Consider the secondary sources.** What have other people said about the topic? Do they agree with what you think? If not, on what do they base their argument?
- **Use primary sources.** It is crucial that you check whether your opinion is supported by primary sources. If the sources do not support your ideas, then you will have to re-consider your argument.
- **Remember that historical theories are provisional.** Historians try to interpret the past as best they can with the evidence available to them at the time. In most areas of history new evidence emerges every year and some historical conclusions need to be reconsidered. So, when you write your own research essays, you need to read the most recent research on the topic and be aware that only some of the evidence has survived over the years and more may come to light.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, compile the sources you have located by recording the details and your analysis.

Source	Primary or Secondary	Location	What does it tell us about the topic?
A written account	Primary	Cited in the textbook	Make notes on the source's reliability, perspective and usefulness.

Activity **0.5**

Go to the library and find 10 sources on the causes of World War I. You should aim for a range of primary and secondary sources in a variety of formats (electronic, books, magazine articles and images). Assess each source in terms of its perspective, reliability and usefulness for understanding the topic.

Speaking skills

Speaking is an important form of communication. A high percentage of what we learn we do through speaking to those around us. In effect a classroom is a community of learners. However, given that most classrooms have access to the internet, you can broaden your learning community to people outside your classroom.

Video conferencing

Video conferencing has immense potential for developing your communication skills while also connecting you with people outside your classroom to discuss historical questions. Video conferences are a great activity for the whole class to participate in. You can have a video call with an expert on the topic you are studying (for example, a lecturer at a local university or an independent historian) or a class at a different school that is researching the same topic.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, construct an argument by formulating your ideas based on evidence.

Primary sources	Secondary sources	Your interpretation

To undertake a successful video conference, a great deal of preparation must be done beforehand. Here are some tips on preparing for a video conference session.

- Download a free online conferencing program, such as Skype (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks), to make your conference calls. If you do use Skype, you should register your class and your research interest with Skype for Educators (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks). Skype for Educators is especially good for making contact with other classes working on the same topic.

- Arrange to conduct a conference call with either an expert or another class on a date that is convenient for both parties.

- It is also a good idea to use other ICT resources such as a wiki in conjunction with video conferencing so that all who are involved in the conference can develop their ideas, record their questions and present follow-up research. To do this your class could register a wiki page with a free online provider; for example, wikispaces (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks).

- Make sure that everyone in the class has a small task to complete so that all can contribute to the conference session and/or follow the work on the wiki.

- Finally, make sure that you organise a practice conference to ensure that both parties can operate the video conferencing program properly.

1

Overview: the making of the modern world (1750–1918)

Source 1.1 *Across the Continent: Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way*, Frances Flora Palmer (1868)

Before you start

Main focus

Between 1750 and 1918, new political ideas of equality, human mobility, industrialisation and expanding empires all created a very different, modern world.

Why it's relevant today

We live in a globalised world that continues to industrialise, particularly in countries like China, India and Brazil. Constitutional democracy based on principles of equality is an increasingly powerful political model. Studying the making of the modern world enables us to understand these broad patterns of change.

Inquiry questions

- How did industrialisation change economic patterns and people's lives?
- What systems of unfree labour and reasons for migration caused the mass movement of people?
- Which ideas led to political revolutions and what were their consequences?
- Which countries were imperial powers and which areas became their colonies?

Key terms

- colonies
- egalitarianism
- industrialisation
- settlers
- suffrage
- democracy
- imperialism
- modernity
- slavery

Significant individuals

- Adam Smith
- John Locke
- Thomas Jefferson
- Catherine Helen Spence
- Mohandas Gandhi

Let's begin

The invention of the steam engine, mechanisation, factories and mass production created new industrial economies and living conditions. At the same time, systems of unfree labour, including slavery and convict transportation, built colonies in the Americas, Australia and elsewhere. New political beliefs in individual rights and human equality sparked revolutions and led to new systems of constitutional democracy. Settlers and migrants moved around the world on a new mass scale. This modern world was captured by artists and writers, and in the new media of photography and film.

Source 1.2 The East India ship *Mellish* entering the harbour of Sydney

Source 1.3 Uniform of a convict of Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), c. 1830s–40s

Source 1.4 Bas relief depicting end of slave trade in Britain
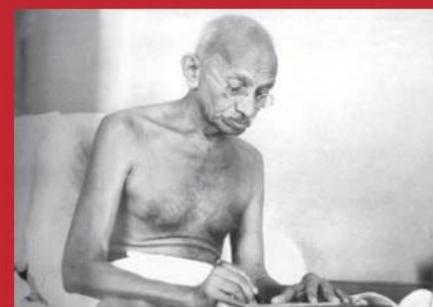
Source 1.5 Mohandas Gandhi

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS

American Revolution **1775–83**

1788 Britain begins to colonise Australia

French Revolution **1789–92**

1807 Slave trade is abolished in the British Empire

Slavery is abolished **1833** across the British Empire

1857–58 Indian Rebellion against British rule is suppressed

Australia's states are **1901** joined in a federation

1902 Australian women are granted suffrage and the right to stand for parliament

World War I **1914–18**

Source 1.6 George Washington at the Siege of Yorktown during the American Revolution

Source 1.7 An angry crowd about to burn a portrait of Tsar Nicholas II on the streets of Petrograd

Source 1.8 The Palace of Versailles became an opulent symbol of the power of absolute monarchy

Source 1.9 Invitation to the opening of the first parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia

ARCTIC OCEAN

NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN

JAPANESE EMPIRE

PHILIPPINES

EAST INDIES

COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

CHINESE EMPIRE

INDIA

PERSIA

ARABIA

INDIAN OCEAN

GERMANY

ITALY

FRANCE

SPAIN

PORTUGAL

UNITED KINGDOM

AFRICA

SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN

GREENLAND

NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN

WEST INDIES

SOUTH AMERICA

NORTH AMERICA

MEXICO

ARCTIC OCEAN

NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN

Commercial highways 1910

British	French	Spanish
United States	Dutch	Portuguese
German	Danish	Italian
Russian	Japanese	Belgian

Trunk trade lines

Sea trade routes

Source 1.10 The World: Commercial Highways (1910)

The Industrial Revolution

Since the eighteenth century, industrialisation has been a major force in the modern world. It has driven large-scale economic changes that have shaped relations between industrialised countries (such as in Europe) and other countries – often colonies – that the wealthier countries came to depend on as sources of raw materials and as markets for manufactured goods. **Mechanisation**, mass production and new forms of energy such as steam and electricity transformed the production of goods, the market economy based on those goods, the standard of living of many people, and the way of life of even more. They also affected everyday aspects of life such as transportation, the structure of the household, and the nature of men and women's work. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, households were relatively self-sufficient. A wide variety of goods was produced on farms and in **rural** households, and most items consumed by households were produced within their region and sold locally at regional markets. With industrialisation from the eighteenth century, production became specialised. Whole factories, cities, regions and countries came to produce limited ranges of goods, and to be dependent on their ability to market those goods over distances in exchange for other goods or money.

The capability to market and trade goods over long distances has evolved gradually since the late eighteenth century, with improvements in transportation such as canals and better roads in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, railways and steamships in the nineteenth century, and cars and aeroplanes in the twentieth century. The invention of refrigeration and the introduction of refrigerated ships in the late nineteenth century made possible the marketing of fresh and frozen food over distances previously unimaginable. For a country like Australia, refrigerated ships could send frozen meat to Britain and elsewhere. Long-distance transportation also led to bigger markets, and bigger markets encouraged large-scale production. Changes in the production

mechanisation the invention and use of machines for farming, production and transport

rural of the countryside

and distribution of goods have meant that more goods have become available to more people around the world, creating an appearance of a **homogeneous** Westernised culture based on materialism and consumerism. But inequalities of wealth and power between nations have continued, and there has not been a blanket effect of cultural change. **Indigenous** cultures around the world have absorbed Western material goods in different ways, and have adapted them to their own ends.

In the period from 1750 to 1918, industrialisation in Europe, America and elsewhere was driven by a combination of technological, economic and social factors. It had broad-ranging consequences for European economies, political and social structures, and the daily lives of Europeans. The drive for raw materials, new markets and cheap labour was a major factor in European global **imperialism** from the eighteenth century, and the expansion of the United States in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The social consequences of industrialisation included the large-scale migration of peoples: slaves, **indentured labourers**, settlers and migrants. European colonies around the world felt the impacts of these changes throughout the period, and by the twentieth century industrialisation had taken off in East Asia.

homogeneous similar or of the same type

indigenous native to, or belonging to, a particular land or region

imperialism the domination of one or more nations by another, which seeks to use the wealth and people of the dominated nation for its own interests

indentured labour a system in which workers enter contracts to perform labour at reduced wages for a certain period of time, usually at a place far from their home

The Industrial Revolution in Australia

By the second half of the nineteenth century, most Australian colonies had gained self-government and were free settler societies with growing economies based largely on wheat, sheep (for both wool and meat) and cattle, and mining for gold, copper and other ores. Cities grew with a rapidity that astonished observers. Colonial governments oversaw the building of roads, railways, ports, gas lighting, the postal system, the telegraph and other utilities. But it was not only infrastructure

that was quickly built; Australian cities and towns also soon came to boast theatres, sports grounds, parks, libraries, museums and art galleries.

By 1901, the capitals of the Australian states had become flourishing cities, and Australia as a newly federated nation needed a national capital. Federal parliamentarians carefully selected an inland site between the two rival cities Sydney and Melbourne. In 1913, American architect Walter Burley Griffin and his wife Marion Mahoney

Source 1.11 Working-class families often lived in extremely cramped conditions. This 1890 photograph shows a family living in one room in a poor area of New York.

Times gone by …

> Melbourne has made a place for itself, and is the undoubted capital, not only of Victoria but of all Australia … I believe that no city has ever attained so great a size with such rapidity. Forty years ago from the present date [1873], the foot of no white man had trodden the ground on which Melbourne now stands … It is impossible for a man to walk the length of Collins Street up by the churches and the club to the Treasury Chambers, and then round by the Houses of Parliament away into Victoria Parade, without being struck by the grandeur of the dimensions of the town.

Source 1.12 The prominent English novelist Anthony Trollope on his travels around Australia in 1873

Trollope considered himself to be an urbane and cosmopolitan Briton. Reflect on what you think his comments suggest about the development of Australian colonies.

Griffin won the international competition for Canberra's design with a plan for a city centred on a lake, with separate governmental and civic sections, garden suburbs, parks and trees. Canberra's planning and construction would continue to be a national project for the rest of the twentieth century.

How the Industrial Revolution affected living and working conditions

For those who worked in domestic service or the expanding number of factories, textile mills, mines and breweries, life could be a hard daily grind. Before industrialisation, the household was the centre of production and all members of the family participated in work, including children. Child labour in factories was therefore not new in and of itself, but the conditions and the hazards for child workers were new. As countries industrialised, the middle classes expanded and there was greater demand for education. Throughout the nineteenth century, schools grew in number in industrialised countries, and legal requirements were introduced for children to be kept at school until they were 12 or 14. In some poorer and colonised countries, access to education also improved, but in limited ways and often with racial restrictions. In settler societies like Australia, a few Indigenous people attended mission schools, but education was fundamentally for the white settlers.

Industrialisation meant the separation of home and work, with the introduction of workshops, factories and office buildings. It also introduced a new gendered division of work that cast men as the 'breadwinners' with the important jobs and main incomes, and rendered women as dependents who kept house or, if they did work, deserving of only low wages. For many working-class women who had to support themselves and their families, this created limited opportunities and real hardships. Domestic service was a major area of women's work. Some women ran small businesses like boarding houses and shops; others worked on farms, perhaps with their husbands. Some sewed on machines in factories, or at home in poor conditions that became known as 'sweated labour'.

In Australia, industrialisation meant that men worked in tough and dangerous conditions down mines and in factories, and in hard construction labour on roads, buildings, railway lines, water and sewerage pipes, and telegraph and telephone systems. Some men drove drays and wagons; others worked as **drovers**, shearers and agricultural labourers on the pastoral stations and farms expanding across the continent.

drover a person who drives a herd of animals long distances

👉 Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, list the factors that contributed to industrialisation in Europe, America and elsewhere in the period from 1750 to 1918.

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Factors that influenced │
                    │   industrialisation    │
                    └─────────────────────┘
          ┌──────────────────┼──────────────────┐
  ┌───────────────┐  ┌───────────────┐  ┌───────────────┐
  │  Technological │  │   Economic    │  │    Social     │
  └───────────────┘  └───────────────┘  └───────────────┘
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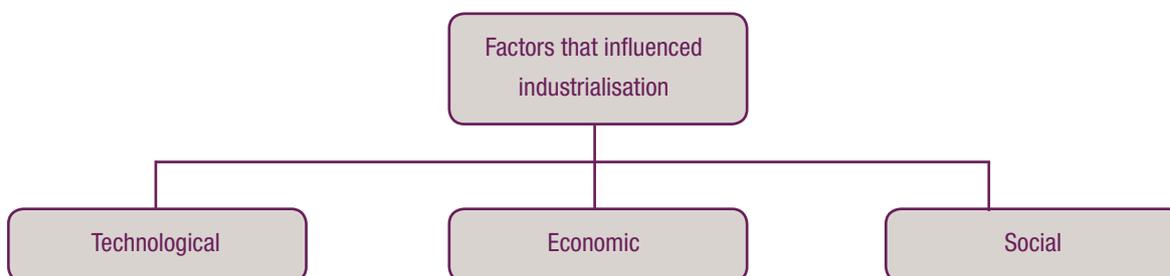
Source 1.13 A photograph of King William Street, Adelaide, taken from the Adelaide Town Hall in 1865 by Townsend Duryea. It is one of a series of 14 that comprise a full panorama of the growing city.

Modernity and representation: art and photographs

As industrialisation changed ways of production, the places of production (from home to workshop or factory) and the conditions of work, it also changed the way the modern world was depicted and recorded. The printing press was invented as early as the fifteenth century. In the nineteenth century, cheap newspapers and books revolutionised the flow of information around the world and helped to rapidly raise levels of literacy. From the end of the eighteenth century, **lithography** enabled the mass production of the older art form of etchings. As part of the print revolution of the nineteenth century, lithographs allowed people to see views and scenery on a mass scale not possible with paintings. Lithographs were not only part of modern technology, but they also captured the rapid changes shaped by technology and industrialisation. For example, the famous 1868 lithograph by

lithography the process of making a drawing or design on a stone or metal plate, so that multiple impressions in ink can be taken from it

Frances Flora Palmer for the company Currier and Ives, titled *Across the Continent: Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way* (see the beginning of this chapter), shows two Native Americans on horses being forced aside by the settlement of towns across the American west, and the key part the railroad played in that process.

From the 1830s, the first kind of photographs, called 'daguerreotypes' after inventor Louis Daguerre, enabled what must have seemed the miracle of capturing actual images of people and scenes. Photography advanced and spread rapidly in the nineteenth century. In the early nineteenth century, prosperous families who wanted images of themselves would commission artists to paint portraits. By the late nineteenth century, photography studios sprang up in towns and cities, and people began to have their photos taken – at first in set poses with the background supplied by the photographer.

The emergence of photography in the mid nineteenth century coincided with the rapid development of Australian cities, and the photographic record allows us to see their

expansion and changes. A striking example is the Duryea Panorama, a circular series of 14 photographs of Adelaide in 1865 taken by photographer Townsend Duryea (see Source 1.13). Duryea took advantage of the scaffolding around the newly built tower of the Adelaide Town Hall as a vantage point to record the growth of buildings in the Adelaide city centre, the expanding suburbs stretching away, and the wide dirt boulevard of King William Street with only a few horses and drays.

Changing nature of sources and depictions of life

By the end of the nineteenth century, photographs had captured the vast gulf in the standards of living between rich and poor. While they recorded the amazing growth of cities and the rise of bigger and taller buildings, bridges and other industrial triumphs, along with the splendour of the large houses of the wealthy, they also recorded the appalling living conditions of workers. In various industrialised countries, concern about the conditions of life for workers prompted some photographers to record the cramped and insanitary conditions of poor people living in slums and tenements.

In Australia, painting increasingly became a recognised part of national culture. In the late nineteenth century, artists of the Heidelberg School (a group of painters associated with Heidelberg, which was then just outside Melbourne) and others captured scenes of life in the bush and at the seaside, along with scenes of daily life, especially in and around Melbourne and Sydney. In the twentieth century, painting and other art forms increasingly recorded and reflected the Australian environment, life and culture.

At the end of the nineteenth century, French brothers Auguste and Louis Lumiere were the first to turn still photographs into the moving world of film. Their first film footage, recorded in 1895, showed workers leaving their factory. In the early twentieth century, silent films quickly became a huge part of popular culture around the world, with cinemas appearing in towns and cities. Silent films were often melodramatic, with many featuring aspects of modern life and technology such as cars, trams, factories and bustling cities. Australia soon had its own film stars, such as the swimmer and diver Annette Kellerman, whose first major film, *Neptune's Daughter* (1914), was an international success.

Source 1.14 *Allegro con brio, Bourke Street West c. 1885–86* by Tom Roberts

Activity **1.1**

Find a copy of an early twentieth century silent film – perhaps one made in Australia, or with an Australian film star such as Annette Kellerman. Watch the film and notice how different it is from the 'moving pictures' or movies with sound that were made later.

1 Describe the ways in which it resembles still photography.

2 Explain how well can you follow the plot without any audible dialogue.

3 Discuss how the film captures new aspects of the modern world of its time.

Research **1.1**

Using your school library and online resources, research the early Australian film industry. How successful was it in the first decades of the twentieth century? Present your findings in a short report.

Movement of peoples

Central to the changes of the modern world was the mass movement of people. In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, free migrants and settlers chose to leave their homelands – particularly China and European countries – in the hope of more land and space, and better lives. Destinations ranged from North and South America to European colonies in Africa, South-East Asia and Australasia. Before the rise of free migration, however, increasingly large numbers of convicts and indentured labourers from Europe and enslaved Africans were shipped to the Americas, starting in the seventeenth century. By the late eighteenth century, slavery was a large-scale global system of **unfree labour** exploitation in the Americas, South Africa, Mauritius and elsewhere.

unfree labour a system in which labourers are compelled to work and are not paid wages

Britain shipped convicts to the Australian colonies for 80 years, from the founding of Sydney as a penal **colony** in 1788 until the end of the convict system in Western Australia in 1868. After slavery was abolished in the British Empire in 1833, schemes to transport indentured labourers from India and China to various parts of the world rose dramatically. Slavery, convict transportation and indentured labour were interconnected systems of unfree labour, and the economic basis of colonies and plantation societies around the world.

colony a settlement formed in conquered territory

HISTORICAL FACT

Some of the famous Australian artists of the Heidelberg School, including Tom Roberts and Arthur Streeton, produced some of their iconic paintings of the Australian bush in their studios in London. Since the 1850s, steamships had made travel between Australia and Britain faster and more comfortable. Artists often painted from drawings they had made on location.

Slavery and indentured labour

Slavery, the enforced and unfree labour of some people for others, was practised from ancient times in Rome, Egypt, elsewhere in Africa and other places. When Europeans first sailed to sub-Saharan Africa in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the slave trade there was long established. Europeans took advantage of this trade, and greatly expanded it as they bought slaves to perform the hard labour of building their colonies around the Atlantic Ocean. Portuguese traders and plantation owners used enslaved Africans in the Azores, Madeiras, Cape Verde islands and Sao Tome, and from the 1530s in Brazil. Spanish settlers and officials introduced slaves into the Caribbean, Mexico, Peru and Central America. From the early seventeenth century, English settlers imported slaves into their North American colonies. The slave trade provided labour to all of these colonies and was enormously lucrative to the **merchants** who bought slaves in Africa and sold them in the Americas, then took sugar, tobacco and other commodities from the Americas and sold them in Europe. Conditions for enslaved Africans who survived the 'middle passage' across the Atlantic were horrifically cramped and vile. Work on plantations was back-breaking, and punishment harsh. In the eighteenth century, around 60 000 slaves annually were taken to the Americas. By the mid eighteenth century, dominance of the slave trade had passed in turn from the Portuguese, the Dutch and the French to the British and the Americans, and the Portuguese who supplied slaves to Brazil.

By the late eighteenth century, humanitarian opinion condemned slavery. The slave trade was abolished by Denmark in 1803, Britain in 1807, the United States in 1808 and Spain in 1845. Slavery as a system was abolished in British territory (South Africa and the West Indies) in 1833, French colonies in 1848, the United States in 1865 and Brazil in 1888. Centuries of the Atlantic slave trade did much to build the Americas, while it had long-term disastrous effects on Africa.

Indentured labour schemes had brought labourers to the Americas before the system of slavery eclipsed them. As slavery was outlawed in the nineteenth century, indentured labour grew rapidly because indentured workers were paid less than those receiving full wages. Indentured labourers from India, China, Africa and Melanesia

merchant a person who buys and sells goods

Source 1.15 *The Slave Trade* by Auguste Francois Biard (1840)

Source 1.16 A group of Melanesian labourers (known at the time as 'South Sea Islanders') on a sugar plantation near Cairns, Queensland, in 1890

mortality rate the measure of total deaths in relation to a total population

were taken by recruiters to pastoral properties and plantations (often sugar) in places ranging from the Caribbean to Mauritius, South Africa, Fiji and the Australian colonies. In Australia, Chinese and Indian indentured labourers suffered high **mortality rates**, loneliness and racial discrimination. In the late nineteenth century, large numbers of Melanesian islanders did the hard work on Queensland's sugar plantations.

Convict transportation

In the eighteenth century in British North America, indentured labour, convict transportation and slavery all coexisted as a means of providing labour from Britain and Africa to the colonies. Up until the American Revolution in the 1770s, the British government sold convicts to shipping contractors, who transported them to the southern colonies in America and the Caribbean, where they were sold to the planters as indentured labourers to work, for example, in rice and tobacco fields. In the first half of the eighteenth century, about 30 000

HISTORICAL FACT

In the early to mid nineteenth century, indentured labour schemes brought workers to Australia from India and China. Some died, some returned home and others stayed.

people were shipped to America in this way. With the revolt of the American colonies, Britain lost this system and in the mid-1780s British officials cast around for alternatives, considering places like Canada, the Falkland Islands, West Africa, the West Indies and the East Indies. A few men were actually transported to Africa in 1784. This was the context in which the British government decided that the little-explored land on the other side of the globe was the best solution, and to establish **penal colonies** in Australia.

penal colony a colony that serves as a prison

The system of transportation in the Australian penal colonies lasted from 1788 to 1868. Over

the whole period of transportation, the British government shipped more than 160 000 men, women and children to Australia. The convicts were distributed among government, military and civil institutions, as well as settlers, with the government having first choice. Up to 1810, the needs of the government for convict labour were overwhelming. Convicts worked on government farms, built roads and erected public buildings.

In the 1830s, the British government was persuaded by the argument that assignment of a convict to a private farmer was a form of slavery – which they had just abolished. So in 1839 the British government ordered the abolition of the assignment system in both New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. Then in 1840 it abolished transportation to New South Wales, although it continued to Van Diemen's Land. After a large increase in the numbers of convicts in Van Diemen's Land, settlers there protested and transportation was stopped in 1853. Convicts were still sent to the Swan River Colony (Perth) until 1868.

Not all of the convicts transported to the Australian penal colonies between 1788 and 1868 were political radicals or from the white labouring classes. Perhaps up to a thousand convicts in Australia were slaves, former slaves and free blacks from the Caribbean; free blacks and former slaves from Britain; indigenous Africans sent from the Cape Colony and via Britain; African-Americans; and Malagasy slaves, former slaves, Indian convicts, and Indian and Chinese indentured labourers transported from Mauritius.

Activity **1.2**

1   List the Australian states that began as penal colonies.

2   Research which towns, cities or islands in particular began as penal colonies. What years did they serve in this way?

3   Discover whether your city or town had a convict station or was close to one. If not, did emancipated convicts move there in its early period of settlement? Are there any remains of buildings or other evidence of convict days?

Source 1.17 Ruins at the Port Arthur convict site, Tasmania

Settlers

Slaves and convicts were shipped around the world by force. Indentured labourers had some choice, but were often compelled by starvation or tricked into entering their contracts. Those who chose to leave their homeland and try their luck in a colony or new country were settlers or migrants. Convicts who served out their terms and chose to stay, and indentured labourers who did not return home, could become settlers. From the sixteenth century onwards, millions of Europeans spread around the world, including the Portuguese settlers who went to Brazil; the Spanish who went to Mexico, Argentina and other parts of Spanish America; and the Dutch who went to South Africa and the Dutch East Indies. British settlers went first to the North American colonies and the Caribbean, while British merchants also headed to South and South-East Asia. From the late eighteenth century, settlers chose to make new lives in what would become the settler dominions of the British Empire: Canada, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. Even more British migrants continued to sail across the Atlantic to the United States, along with immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe, especially in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Canada had both British and French settlers, and came under full British control only after wars in the mid to late eighteenth century. Steps towards self-government in British settler colonies began in in the 1830s in Canada, where the French settlers particularly sought representation. Like in the United States, European settlement spread across western Canada in the nineteenth century through violent dispossession of First Nations people, along with a vast program of railroad building. More British settlers chose to go to Canada than Australia and New Zealand, partly because it was closer. In turn, more people migrated to Australia and New Zealand than to South Africa, although British colonies in Africa expanded rapidly in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Mobility was key to the modern period. Some migrants returned home to Europe, while others moved on from their first destination.

Source 1.18 Growth of the Australian population

Year	Population
1820	30 000
1850	400 000
1888	3 000 000
1914	4 500 000

Research 1.2

Divide the class into six groups. Assign each group to one of the following countries of origin of migrants: Britain, Spain, the Netherlands, Italy, Ireland and China. Using the school library and the internet, each group is to research the high period of migration from the country of origin, and the migrants' major destinations. Present your findings to the rest of the class as either a poster or PowerPoint presentation. Be sure to answer the following questions:

1 Identify what drove the migrants to move.

2 Consider what was happening in their country or region of origin at the time.

3 Explain why they chose their major migration destinations.

4 Reflect on whether those destination countries still have significant numbers of people of that ethnic group. Why or why not?

European imperial expansion

Globalisation is currently a hot topic, yet it has been occurring for centuries, not least because of European imperial expansion from the sixteenth century onwards. Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands, Britain and France all acquired large empires in the early modern period of world history, as they sought spices in the East Indies, navigated and charted their way around parts of the globe unknown to Europeans, established trading posts and then expanded and defended the territories they acquired. The goal of Christian missionaries, both Catholic and Protestant, to convert indigenous peoples around the world was allied to the desires of traders and the ambitions of armies. These European powers grabbed colonies in the Americas, South and South-East Asia, Australia, the Pacific, East Asia and Africa. European colonies in the Americas, including the Caribbean, soon had economies based on sugar, cotton, tobacco and coffee plantations.

Industrialisation and imperialism were interconnected. Profits made in the colonies were invested in Europe in stately houses and grand buildings, and in finance, business and industry. **Commodities** from the

> **commodity** an item that is bought or sold, especially a raw material or something that is manufactured, for which there is a commercial demand

Source 1.19 'Sugar growing in Mauritius', Empire Marketing Board poster (March 1927)

HISTORICAL FACT

British imperialist Cecil Rhodes (1853–1902) wanted Britain to take control of Africa 'from Cape to Cairo'. Rhodes made a fortune from diamond mines in South Africa, helped to found the British colony of Rhodesia (now Zambia and Zimbabwe) and established the Rhodes Scholarships at Oxford University.
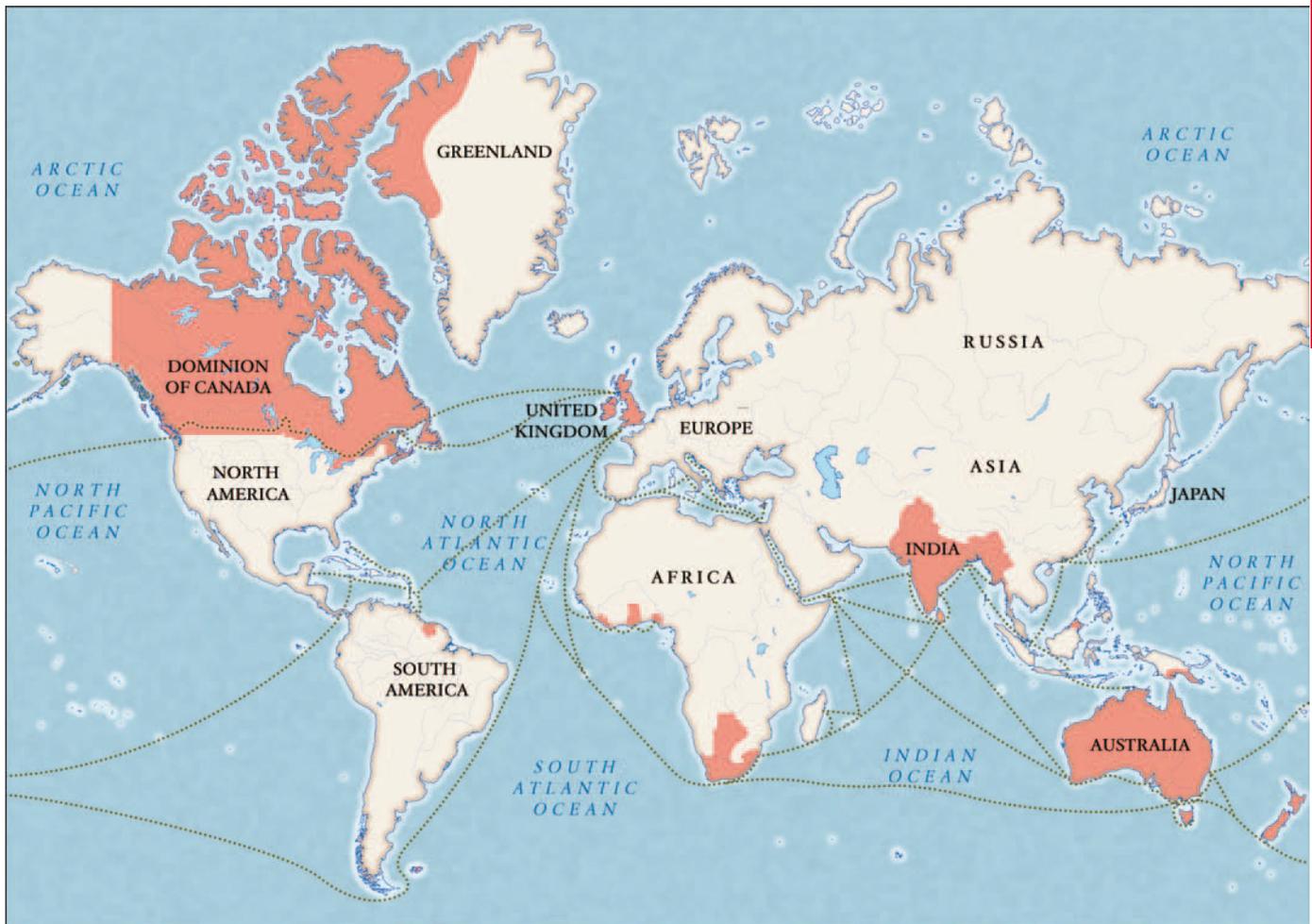
Source 1.20 The extent of the British Empire, 1886

colonies were shipped to Europe for food and manufacturing. For example, cotton grown in the Americas was turned into clothing and 'manchester' (household textiles) in the British industrial Midlands which Britain then exported (including to its colonies) while sugar from the Caribbean and Mauritius was consumed in Europe, along with tea from India, Ceylon and Malaya. Australian wool, wheat, meat and fruit, timber from Burma, cocoa from the Gold Coast in Africa, New Zealand butter and apples, South African fruit and wine, tobacco grown in Africa, and Canadian timber and furs all found markets in Britain and elsewhere. Profits from trade sustained European imperial armies and colonial administrations in Asia and Africa. European industrialisation also provided their armies with superior military technology, including steamships and machine guns, which were critical to imperial conquests and control.

European imperialism in Asia

In 1800, Europeans occupied or controlled one-third of the globe's land surface. By 1870 this had leapt to two-thirds and by 1913 had become an overwhelming 84 per cent, including much of Africa, South America, Asia and the Pacific. Some parts of Asia came under formal imperial control and direct administration of European powers, while others such as China mostly remained independent but ceded small zones and were buffeted by European and American expansionist desires. From the seventeenth century, Britain increasingly established its hold on the Indian subcontinent. By 1763, the British East India Company controlled significant parts of India, and had defeated their French rivals; British control in India grew through the nineteenth century. The French turned their attention to Indochina.

The European imperial powers sought trade, profits and territorial control; they also introduced Christianity, turning it into a worldwide religion. Missionary societies based in Europe and America funded the work of missionaries across Asia, Africa and the Pacific. Missionaries sought to convert colonised peoples, and did much to destroy indigenous cultures, but they also provided practical help in the form of medicine, agriculture and education. Mission schools and hospitals spread across European colonies, and missionaries taught cricket, football, athletics and Western music, along with other subjects.

European colonies suffered from economic exploitation designed to benefit the imperial powers. For example, Britain suppressed cotton textile production in India in order to protect sales of cloth made in the British Midlands. In Java, Dutch colonial rulers forced farmers to sell certain parts of their crop to the colonial government at a low price; the Dutch made huge profits from this system. Colonial regimes also relied on racial hierarchies and discrimination in education, employment, official languages and public spaces, and used violence and harsh punishments to stay in power.

By the late nineteenth century, anti-colonial nationalist movements emerged, especially among the educated and professional elite of the indigenous people. Elite Indians, for example, attended British universities before returning to India as lawyers, doctors, journalists and other professionals. Anti-colonial movements gained support in the twentieth century, both domestically and globally, and were a major reason for the dismantling of the European empires in the mid twentieth century, often through bloody warfare. Gandhi's nationalist movement in early twentieth century India helped to spread the ideas and practice of non-violent resistance around the world, while some of the religious and philosophical values of, for example, Buddhism and theosophy entered Western culture.

Source 1.21 The house of a wealthy merchant in India, with servants (1895). The image is a magic lantern slide (a relatively early form of photograph) taken by William Henry Jackson.

Source 1.22 Painting of King Louis XVI of France by Antoine-Francois Callet (1789)

Times gone by ...

We hold these truths to be self evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.

Source 1.23 A section of the American Declaration of Independence, drafted by the future President Thomas Jefferson

Explain whether the principles of political liberty applied to everyone or if they were limited. In your answer, refer to the system of slavery and the right to vote.

Source 1.24 Painting by an unknown artist of the storming of the Bastille prison in Paris by a revolutionary crowd (1789)

Colonies and independent states in Asia

By the late nineteenth century, Britain exerted control over all India, though in some princely states that control was indirect. The **British Raj** suppressed a major uprising against it in 1857–58 that began in the army, and India remained under British control until 1947, when on 15 August India and Pakistan (the latter divided into western and eastern sections) became separate independent nations. In Indonesia, the Netherlands established trading posts in the early seventeenth century, which expanded by the nineteenth century into full colonial control of Java and parts of Sumatra, Borneo and Timor – and effectively dominance of the Indonesian archipelago. During World War II, the Dutch were ousted by the invading Japanese, then temporarily regained control before being forced to cede Indonesian independence in 1949. In Indochina, the French gradually expanded their influence and control over Vietnam, Cambodia and Laos until they became French colonies in the late nineteenth century. Early twentieth century anti-colonial nationalist movements were violently suppressed by the French. After World War II, the war for independence in Vietnam was initially against the French, before it became a civil war between North and South in which the United States, Australia and other countries became involved.

British Raj British rule in India

Spanish traders and missionaries arrived in the Philippines in the sixteenth century and their interest in the islands spread until they were under Spanish control by 1570. In 1898, the United States purchased the Philippines from Spain, as it expanded its imperial control in the Caribbean and the Pacific, which would include Hawai'i. The Philippines gained its independence from the United States after World War II, though some military bases remained. China, long an imperial power in East Asia, did not fall under formal control of the European empires, though in 1842 Britain took Hong Kong as its victory prize from the Opium War. As China weakened internally in the nineteenth century, European and American demands for trade and influence resulted in open treaty ports such as Canton and Shanghai. Europeans and Americans established their own zones of residence and business in Chinese ports, and Christian missionaries arrived, but China maintained its sovereignty. Japan also remained independent, but in 1853 was forced by the United States to open itself to contact and trade, which had profound effects on its internal politics and economy.

HISTORICAL FACT

The United Nations currently recognises 193 separate nations as member states.

Economic, social and political ideas

Revolutions, independence and equality

In Europe in the seventeenth century, a period of religious warfare was followed by an era of absolute monarchy, with an ideology of the divine rights of kings and queens, and expanded control by the monarch's central government. **Absolute monarchy** was linked to strong royal armies. Monarchs sought to expand their territories, while emerging nation-states were represented by their king or queen. In England, after a bloody civil war in the 1640s, a bloodless revolution in the 1680s produced a new constitutional agreement between king and parliament. During this 'Glorious Revolution', the political philosopher John Locke developed his theory of liberalism. Locke suggested that power emanated from the people, not from a monarch's supposedly divine right to rule, and that there were basic rights to freedom of person and property.

> **absolute monarchy**
> political system in which monarchs have complete power, including over armed forces

Locke's political liberalism spread through the **Enlightenment** of the eighteenth century, and was dramatically enshrined by the American Revolution of the 1770s and the French Revolution of 1789–92. The American Revolution began with the American War of Independence against Britain. Britain's American colonies rebelled against British control particularly in the form of duties and taxes. Tensions escalated into war in 1775. The American colonies established their own Continental Congress, which approved the Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776. The American colonies finally won independence from Britain in 1783, and their principles of political liberty gained global influence.

> **Enlightenment**
> a philosophical movement that placed emphasis on reason rather than tradition and gave rise to many progressive ideas

The French Revolution, which erupted in 1789, gained attention worldwide and has reverberated across the centuries since. The cry of 'liberty, equality and fraternity' that was the catch-phrase of the French Revolution echoed around the globe, not least in France's own colony of Saint Domingue (Haiti), which rebelled against French control and rang a death knell for the system of slavery there. The French Revolution asserted the political power of the masses, and the political ascendancy of the middle class, in a direct challenge to the feudally derived power of the monarch and the aristocracy. In 1789, the self-proclaimed National Assembly stood up to King Louis XVI, while crowds took direct action such as storming the Bastille prison and burning tax offices. Then there were widespread revolts by the peasants in the countryside. On 27 August 1789, the Assembly passed the 'Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen', a manifesto of political liberalism that began: 'Men are born, and remain, free and equal in rights'. In 1792, the French Revolution entered a new and bloody stage, in which the ideals of liberalism became overshadowed.

The French Revolution set the agenda for the nineteenth century in Europe, and had ramifications for the rest of the world. The power of the monarch and the aristocracy was curtailed, but in the decades that followed the differences in the demands of the middle class and the working class became increasingly apparent. In the nineteenth century, conservatives (supporters of the old order) struggled against liberalism (represented by the first stage of the French Revolution) and socialism, which was spawned following the French Revolution. These political struggles would be waged around the globe in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, as liberalism gained power and was contested by socialism and communism (from the 1840s). In the twentieth century, communist regimes would become locked in global ideological struggle with capitalist democratic powers led by the United States and Britain. The struggle between capitalism and communism also would become important for anti-colonial movements in various parts of the world.

Democratic values

Liberalism and political philosophies based on the rights of the individual spread globally from the eighteenth century. To some extent these ideas drew on ideals of democracy from ancient Greece and Rome, particularly those that originated in the Greek city-states from the eighth to the fourth centuries BCE. Because of the revolutions of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, ideas of constitutional democracy spread through the Western world. They included the consent of the people to be governed; the contract between the government and those governed; the balance of powers between legislative, executive and judicial arms of government; and basic civil rights. Differences emerged between, for example, Britain's Westminster system and its unwritten conventions, and the American system of a republic with a president (instead of a monarch) and a bill of rights.

Capitalism as an economic philosophy gained popularity in the mercantile world of the eighteenth century and later. In 1776, Scottish philosopher Adam Smith outlined his ideas on capitalism in his book *The Wealth of Nations*, emphasising individual choice, private enterprise and the operation of markets as opposed to state control of the economy. In the early nineteenth century, the opposing theory of socialism gained followers, with its principles

capitalism an economic system based on private ownership and free market enterprise

of the ownership of land, capital and means of production being vested in the community or the state. French philosopher Charles Fourier and British industrialist Robert Owen put forward their theories of communal cooperation. Socialist movements and parties grew in the late nineteenth century based on concern for working people.

The creation of nation-states from former regions, empires and colonies has been a central development of the modern world. Many countries have struggled to achieve nationhood and sovereignty. Our concept of the nation dates from the eighteenth century, when it came to refer to a state in which citizens claimed collective sovereignty and a shared political identity. The idea of the nation emerged along with political rights and constitutions, instead of loyalty to monarch or church. **Nationalism** fuelled anti-colonial movements for independence from imperial powers, but it has also been linked to racism and hostility to foreigners. The roles and rights of nations have changed over time, as has national belonging. It was only in 1948 that Australians, for example, started to be issued their own passports separate from British ones.

nationalism devotion to national identity or patriotism

Egalitarianism: social and political equality

In the nineteenth century, Australia became one of the world's social laboratories, with various

Research **1.3**

Using the school or local library, or the internet, research Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, the German socialists whose observations of the British working class in the 1840s formed the basis of some of their writings.

1 What did their 1848 work *The Communist Manifesto* claim?

2 Analyse how influential they were in the mid nineteenth century, and later?
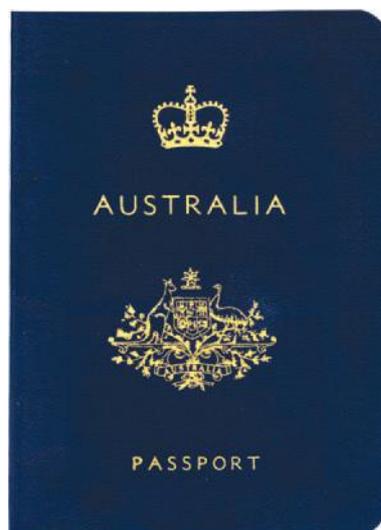
Source 1.25 An Australian passport issued in 1973

early steps in political progressivism. Following Canada's lead, in the 1840s and 1850s the Australian colonies fought for self-government in evolving stages. Most Australian colonies received Responsible Government (constitutional self-government with bicameral legislatures) between 1855 and 1859. At the same time, well ahead of Britain and other countries, the Australian colonies introduced manhood **suffrage**; that is, the right to vote for adult, white men. In 1858, the secret ballot was first introduced – a progressive reform that meant voters would not be intimidated by having to vote publicly. In the 1890s, Members of Parliament were first paid, which meant that working-class people who depended on a wage could now stand for parliament. In 1894, South Australia was the first Australian colony to grant women suffrage, and by 1902 all white women in Australia could vote and stand for parliament. However, at the same time, the White Australia Policy restricted the entry of non-European immigrants and represented the subordination of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. Not everyone was equal in Australia.

suffrage the right to vote in political elections

The organised women's movement in South Australia helped to win the early suffrage. One of the leaders was Catherine Helen Spence, who had arrived in the colony in 1839, when it was three years old and she was aged 14. Although always aware of her Scottish heritage, Spence became a strong advocate of South Australia and what she saw as its reformist role. When Spence became a Vice President of the South Australian Women's Suffrage League in 1891, she was 66 years old, and a very well-known figure in the colony. She had come to prominence through her social work with orphans and the destitute, her fiction writing and work as a journalist, and her advocacy of the proportional representation system of voting. Spence spurred the debate about women's issues through her novels, including *Clara Morison* (1854) and *Mr Hogarth's Will* (1865).

Education was crucial to Australian **egalitarianism**. In the 1870s and 1880s, a system of primary schools in the various Australian colonies introduced elementary education and school leaving ages. It was not until the mid twentieth century that most Australians could also attend high schools, and even then only a small proportion of high-school graduates could go on to university. Around the turn of the twentieth century, for many Australians, public libraries, schools of art, mechanics' institutes and public concerts were important sources of education and culture, as well as part of the fabric of the new nation's blossoming towns and cities.

egalitarianism the idea that everyone should have equal rights and oportunities

Source 1.26 Kapunda Primary School, South Australia, c. 1900

Chapter summary

- Industrialisation changed both ways of production and the places of production from home to workshop, factory and office. Many workers had a hard daily grind and lived in cramped conditions.

- Slavery, convict transportation and indentured labour were systems of exploited labour that helped to build colonies and new countries.

- Settlers and migrants moved around the world in huge numbers, partly because of steamships and railroads. Cities sprang up and expanded quickly. The world's population grew.

- New technologies included photography and film, which recorded these dramatic changes along with art and literature. Films and cinemas became very popular forms of entertainment.

- Ideas of individual rights and human equality sparked political revolutions and led to new forms of government.

- The Australian colonies gained self-government, mostly in the 1850s, and federated as one nation in 1901.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1   Industrialisation was driven by:

   A   steam engines

   B   mechanisation and new forms of transport

   C   electricity

   D   all of the above

2   Which of these countries did NOT have slavery?

   A   United States of America

   B   Brazil

   C   South Africa

   D   Australia

3   Which of the following were colonies of the British Empire?

   A   Canada

   B   India

   C   New Zealand

   D   All of the above

4   'Liberty, equality and fraternity' was the catch-cry of which revolution?

   A   American Revolution

   B   Bolshevik Revolution

   C   French Revolution

   D   Revolution in St Domingue (Haiti)

5   Adam Smith's 1776 book *The Wealth of Nations* outlined the theory of:

   A   capitalism

   B   socialism

   C   liberalism

   D   self-government
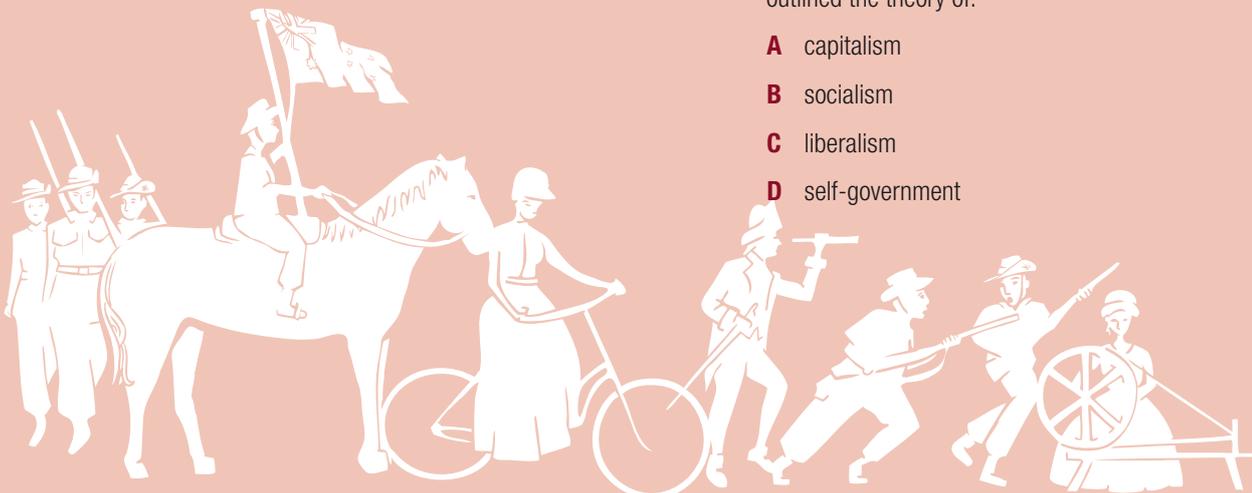
Short answer

1 Explain how the daily labour for workers changed with the Industrial Revolution.

2 How did Australian cities grow and change in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries?

3 Describe why so many settlers and migrants moved around the world in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

4 What benefits did the imperial powers receive from their colonies?

5 Identify the main constitutional changes in Australia in the mid nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Source analysis

Study Source 1.27 and answer the following questions.

The English have taught us that we were not one nation before, and that it will require centuries before we become one nation. This is without foundation. We were one nation before they came to India. One thought inspired us. Our mode of life was the same. It was because we were one nation that they were able to establish one kingdom. Subsequently they divided us … I do not wish to suggest that because we were one nation we had no differences, but … our leading men travelled throughout India either on foot or in bullock carts. They learned one another's languages and there was no aloofness between them. What do you think could have been the intention of those far-seeing ancestors of ours who established Shevetbindu Rameshwar in the South, Juggarnaut in the South-East and Hardwar in the North as places of pilgrimage? You will admit they were no fools. They knew that worship of God could have been performed just as well at home. They taught us that those whose hearts were aglow with righteousness had the Ganges in their own homes. But they saw that India was one undivided land so made by nature. They, therefore, argued that it must be one nation.

Source 1.27 Mohandas K. Gandhi, *Hind Swaraj* or *Indian Home Rule* (1908), p. 32

1 Based on your reading of this document, interpret what Gandhi is arguing for and what is he refuting.

2 What case is he making for Indian independence from Britain?

3 Discuss the aspects of Indian culture and society that Gandhi hopes will inspire Indian nationalism.

Extended response

Undertake research on the American, French and Bolshevik Revolutions. Present your findings in a report and be sure to answer the following questions:

- What political goals did they have in common?
- What political principles were different?
- Did the earlier revolutions influence the later?
- Who were the main leaders of each revolution?
- Did slaves benefit from the American or French Revolutions?
- Did women gain any rights from any of the revolutions?
- How was each revolution shaped by its specific circumstances and time period?
- Which revolution would you regard as the most successful?

DEPTH STUDY 1

Making a better world

2
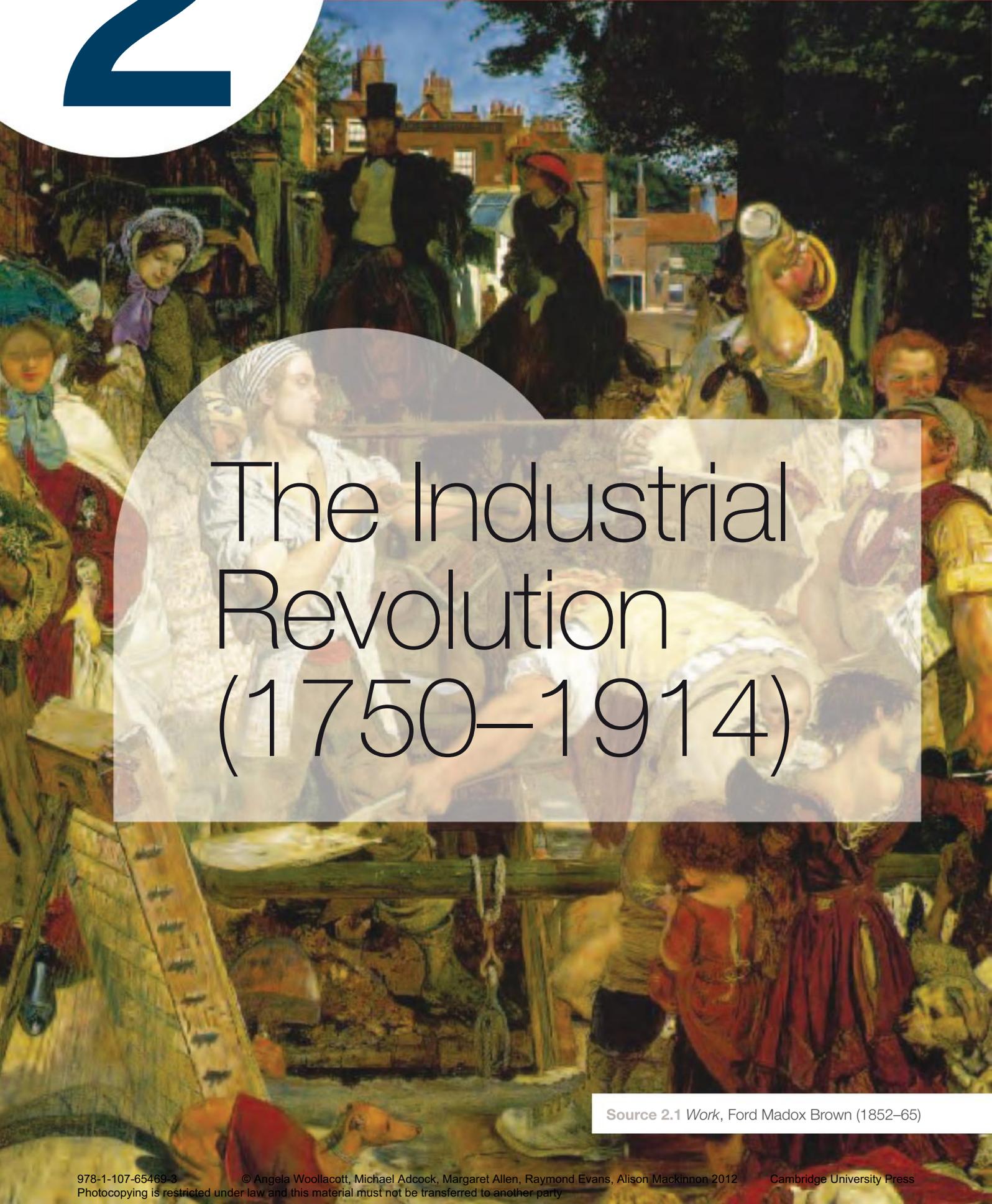
The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914)

Source 2.1 *Work*, Ford Madox Brown (1852–65)

Before you start

Main focus

The Industrial Revolution was one of the most dramatic examples of how new technological developments can completely change the ways we work and live.

Why it's relevant today

In our own times we have become used to new technology, but studying the beginnings of industrial society helps us to understand many of the environmental and societal problems the world faces today.

Inquiry questions

- What were the conditions in Britain that preceded industrialisation?
- What were the main inventions and innovations that drove the Industrial Revolution?
- How did the Industrial Revolution change the pattern of human settlement?
- How did the Industrial Revolution change the lives of ordinary men, women and children?
- How did the Industrial Revolution change the world in the longer term?

Key terms

- agricultural revolution
- domestic system
- industrialisation
- technology
- colonial system
- factory system
- Poor Law
- urbanisation

Significant individuals

- Edmund Cartwright
- James Brindley
- Jethro Tull
- Richard Trevithick
- Elizabeth Gaskell
- James Watt
- John Kay
- Robert Owen

Source 2.2 Replica of the first steam locomotive, designed by Richard Trevithick

Source 2.3 Re-enactment of men working with molten iron in a Victorian foundry
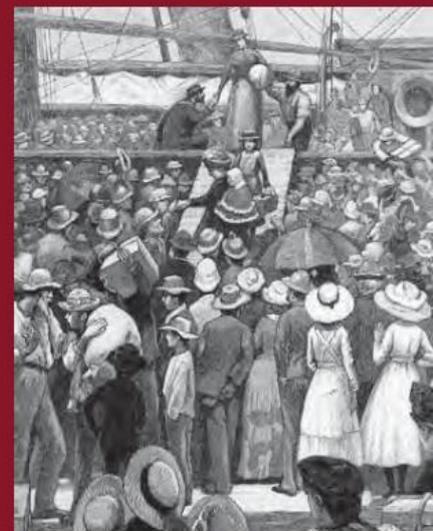
Source 2.4 Free settlers disembarking in Australia c. 1885

Let's begin

The Industrial Revolution not only changed industry in Britain, Europe, America, Australia and elsewhere; it also changed society itself, and the way people lived. In just a hundred years, the Britain of farms and country estates transformed into a modern industrial society. In the following years, industrialisation spread to other countries in Europe, and transformed places as distant as America and Australia. The Industrial Revolution broke society's reliance on animals, wind and water. Scientists discovered new forms of power and new machines. Businesspeople invested in new technologies and with them dramatically increased production. This increase created demand for more efficient ways of transporting the raw materials for factories. The invention of the railway and the canal system meant that people, as well as goods, were more easily transported. In thousands of traditional villages, craftspeople were no longer needed and they moved to cities to work in the new factories.

Source 2.5 Residents have their evening meal at a Marylebone workhouse

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS

WORLD EVENTS

1700

Jethro Tull invents the **c. 1701** mechanical seed-drill

Newcomen engine is invented **1710–12**

Britain's first canal is built **1757**

James Hargreaves invents the **1764** spinning jenny

James Watt develops the **1763–75** condensing steam engine

1775–83 American Revolution

1780

New Lanark Mill is established **1784**

Britain begins to colonise Australia **1788**

Eli Whitney invents the cotton gin **1793** (United States)

1789–92 French Revolution

1791–1804 Haitian Revolution

1800

Robert Owen takes over the New **1800** Lanark Mill

1807 Slave trade is abolished in the Britain Empire

1814–15 Napoleon Bonaparte is defeated

1820

World's first railway line opens **1830** in Britain

Free settlers to Australia receive **1831** assistance for emigration

The Reform Act is passed in Britain **1832**

The Factory Act regulates the **1833** employment of children in textile mills

1833 Slavery is abolished across the British Empire

1832 France's first railway opens

1840

Friedrich Engels publishes **1845** *The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844*

Gold is discovered in Australia **1851**

Australia's first electric light **1879** company is established in Melbourne

1846 Irish Potato Famine begins

1854 Eureka Stockade in Australia

1861–65 US Civil War

1865 Slavery is abolished in the United States

1900

Australia's states are joined in **1901** a federation

1914–18 World War I

Source 2.6 Sankey Brook Navigation, Britain's first canal

Source 2.7 Siege of Vicksburg, 1888, during the American Civil War

Source 2.8 Painting depicting Napoleon fleeing from la Belle Alliance, his headquarters, at the end of the battle of Waterloo on 18 June 1815

Source 2.9 Victims of the Irish Potato Famine

Coalfields

Growing towns

New coal-fired ironworks

Major dock developments

Glasgow

Edinburgh

Newcastle
Woollens

Preston

Bradford
Bolton
Halifax
Bury
Liverpool
Manchester
Sheffield
Chester
Broseley
Nottingham
Stafford
Derby
Shrewsbury
Coalbrookdale
Birmingham
Bridgnorth
Coventry
Bewdley

Leeds

Hull

Swansea
Merthyr
Neath
Bristol
Bath
London

Southampton

Source 2.10 This map of Britain's industrial economy c. 1815 shows that factories were built in areas where there were good supplies of coal and iron, and good ports. These allowed raw materials to be brought in by ships, and completed goods to be sent out to foreign markets.

Causes of the Industrial Revolution: society and innovation

The British Empire

Perhaps the central reason for Britain's rapid economic growth at the time of the Industrial Revolution was the success of its overseas **colonies**. The British were experts in developing a **colonial system**. Using their powerful navy and their **merchant ships**, they created colonies in countries like America, India, Jamaica and Australia, often displacing and subjugating the native populations.

Britain drew massive resources from its empire. By the year 1800 this empire was enormous, and Britain could obtain goods such as sugar from Jamaica, and wheat and wool from Australia. Through the exploitation of slaves and native workers, the British could produce these items very cheaply and sell them for vast profits in Europe.

British **merchants** also made a great deal of money by the slave trade, which involved buying slaves in Africa and selling them to the tobacco plantations in the American colonies. This soon developed into a three-way shipping route, because the ships then sailed back carrying American tobacco and cotton that could be sold at good prices in Europe.

All of the wealth generated by the British colonies meant that there was plenty of money available for investment. As settlers in places such as Australia made money in industries such as wool, they tended to invest their new wealth in British industries. This in turn allowed British industrialists to borrow money to buy new machines and to expand their factories.

These colonies also provided new markets for British manufactured goods. In Australia, people bought machinery, furniture and clothing from

colony a settlement formed in conquered territory

colonial system arrangements made for the successful operation of colonies

merchant ships ships designed and used for commercial purposes (trading, buying and selling)

merchant a person who buys and sells goods

Source 2.11 The spread of the British Empire meant that British industrialists had access to new products, new markets and cheap labour.

'the home country'. In some cases, people were even forced by law to buy British goods, even though they could make such goods themselves. For example, the people of India were already able to spin cotton themselves on small **looms**, but British laws prevented them from doing so.

loom a machine on which thread is woven into cloth

As a result, millions of Indians had to buy British cotton. This quickly had an effect. Between 1750 and 1770, the amount of goods produced to be sold within Britain increased by only 7 per cent; at the same time, the amount of goods produced to be sold to the colonies increased by 80 per cent.

'Explosion of invention'

The wealth generated by the empire fuelled innovation and invention, the drivers of the Industrial Revolution. Between about 1750 and 1800, many important inventions transformed industrial production, especially in metal and textiles.

The first great change was to energy: human labour and animal labour were replaced by steam, then gas and electricity, giving people power such as they had never had before.

The second great change was to machinery: there was an unstoppable flow of new inventions and new techniques that transformed the way important things such as coal and steel were made.

The third great change was to the scale, or size, of production. There had been a few large factories before 1750: as early as the 1600s, Ambrose Crowley was running a large ironmaking factory at Winlaton. In the 1700s, however, many more industries – but not all – changed from many small workshops to large factories employing hundreds of people.

The fourth great change was to transport: the creation of a railway system and a canal system allowed the rapid movement of resources into industrial areas, and the efficient movement of their products to markets.

Technology of movement

Assisting the worldwide movement of goods, money and technological development was a revolution in transport **infrastructure** and technology. Britain is criss-crossed by rivers, which were extended in this period by a network of canals. New forms of transport – railways and canals – were particularly good for moving heavy goods over long distances.

infrastructure structures (for example, roads, railway lines and canals) needed for the operation of a particular service

As an island nation, Britain possessed a powerful navy and a large merchant fleet. It also had a long coastline, with many ports. It was also strategically located: its ships could reach Europe to the east and America to the west. These geographical advantages meant that Britain was in a good position to conduct trade with its colonies and other nations.

By the year 1850, Britain was one of the most important industrial economies of the world. For example, it made some 90 per cent of the steam engines produced in Europe.

Population growth

From about 1800 onwards, Britain enjoyed an increasing population. In 1770, the population was 7.4 million; by 1840 it had doubled to 15.9 million. This happened quite simply because people were generally healthier than previous generations; with higher wages and better food, the birth rate increased and the death rate steadily decreased. This led in turn to some increase in the **standard of living**. This further increased the demand for goods and services, thus speeding

standard of living a measure of how well people live, with regard to their diet, housing, education and health

Activity **2.1**

1 List some of the goods produced in the different parts of the British Empire.

2 Assess the impact of slavery upon the success of British trade.

3 Draw a graph contrasting the increase in goods sold in the colonies with those sold within Britain over the period 1750–70.

Source 2.12 The population in Britain grew between 1700 and 1840 for two reasons: the birth rate (the number of children born per 1000 of population in one year) steadily increased until 1790. At the same time, the death rate steadily decreased from a high of 33.4 in 1730 to a low of 19.98 in 1810.

up economic growth. However, this increase in the standard of living was unevenly shared, with some areas (such as the industrial Midlands) remaining poor.

The agricultural revolution

Over the course of the eighteenth, nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, millions of British workers moved from the country to the cities. This population shift meant that the factories of the Industrial Revolution had the workers they required. One of the central causes of this shift was a revolution in agriculture.

New machines

Jethro Tull invented the seed-drilling machine in about 1701, which scattered seed into the soil. Before long, inventors designed mechanical ploughs, reaping machines and threshing machines. The Rotherham triangular plough (1730), for example, turned over the soil more effectively before planting a crop. Andrew Meikle invented a threshing machine in 1786. The only task that people could not do by machine was haymaking, which was done by hand. As the new machines became available, many farm workers became unemployed. Some went to the industrial cities to get jobs in the new factories. Some formed bands under a leader they called Captain Swing, which broke up the new machines and attacked farmers who used them.

Changes in the use of the land

People also realised that they would need to make more efficient use of the land. This led to a new system that helped rich landowners but harmed poor farmers and people without land. This was known as the 'Inclosure' Movement (now spelt 'enclosure'), which started with an early act of Parliament in 1773, and was completed by fifteen more acts between 1845 and 1882.

For centuries, most parts of central England had common lands that could be used by all members of each village. In addition, the landowners did not fence off their fields, and there was a traditional, unwritten agreement that villagers could make some use of their land. For example, a poor villager could let his or her cattle feed on the land at times when there was not a crop growing there. There were other understood 'rights': a poor farmer could let geese feed on the land and could let pigs search for food. People could pick wild berries, chop wood for the fire and 'glean', which meant picking up pieces of wheat left over after the harvest had been finished. These might sound unimportant, but they actually meant a lot to poor farmers who struggled to make a living.

Activity 2.2

1   Analyse the advantages that the locations of Britain's ports gave it when conducting trade.

2   Describe why the increase in the standard of living during the first half of the nineteenth century was unevenly shared among the population.

3   Discuss why Captain Swing's bands tried to break up the new farming equipment.

4   Think about what your life would be like without quick and reliable transport – without cars, trains or buses. Write a short paragraph that describes what your day would be like without these technologies.

From 1773, people could ask Parliament's permission to 'enclose' land. Enclosure meant putting a fence around an area of land. It was then 'deeded' (legally given) to one or more people. It became completely private property, and nobody else could use it. Those who had lost the use of the common land were given some strips of land as a replacement, but it was often of poor quality. By the end of the nineteenth century, 28 000 square kilometres of land – about 21 per cent of the land in England – had been locked up in private ownership. Many poor farmers and people without land could no longer make a living, and left the countryside to work in the factories of the industrial cities. There was no doubting the effect on the population: as early as 1770 the writer Oliver Goldsmith had written a book called *The Deserted Village*, warning that the English countryside was being emptied of people.

Source 2.13 Public interest in new inventions for farming was so strong that *The Universal Magazine* published this image explaining 'the use of several sorts of Ploughs in England' in 1748

Limitations of cottage production

The Industrial Revolution did not create Britain's industries – they already existed – but it completely changed the way they worked. By the eighteenth century, Britain was already a leading industrial nation. It sold large amounts of iron, coal, wool, copper and tin to other countries. Several cities already had important industries: Birmingham, for example, specialised in producing goods made of iron or brass, such as nails and kitchen utensils. The city of Stourbridge specialised in glass making.

In some industries, however, production was limited by the simple techniques being used. One of the most valuable industries was textiles, which includes the weaving of cotton cloth and the making of items such as stockings. The domestic system meant that a family in a country village might have a loom or a stocking knitting frame in their own cottage. Often the woman of the family spun the wool or cotton and wove the cloth. Her husband then took the fabric to the nearest town to sell at market. In some places, such as Lancashire, households were more organised, with clothiers providing the raw material to a number of households, paying them for the fabric they made.

In English cities, production took place in a small workshop run by a master. He, too, was supplied raw materials – wool from a clothier or iron from an ironmaster – and made an agreed number of items at a set price.

Conditions were poor in both the cottage industries and city workshops. Businessmen kept wages low by encouraging young men and women to come to the city, creating crowds of workers desperate to be employed at any price. Many had to work 14 hours a day. The businessmen refused to buy basic equipment such as chairs: often tailors had to sit cross-legged on the floor. They did their fine work by candlelight, and many finally went blind.

Activity **2.3**

Historians know that a great deal of inventing was being done during the Industrial Revolution because the number of **patents** rose dramatically. Patents prevent people from stealing ideas. Examine the statistics given below, which show the number of patents filed in Britain over each decade between 1720 and 1849.

patent a legal document protecting the rights of an inventor to produce and to sell his or her invention

1720–29:	89	1790–99:	647
1730–39:	56	1800–09:	924
1740–49:	82	1810–19:	1124
1750–59:	92	1820–29:	1453
1760–69:	205	1830–39:	2453
1770–79:	294	1840–49:	4581
1780–89:	477		

Source 2.14 Ten-year periods: number of patents

1 In which decade did the number of new inventions go beyond 100?

2 What was the average rate of increase, as a percentage, between 1770–79 and 1800–09?

3 In which decades of the 1800s did the number of new inventions patented increase dramatically?

4 Explain what these figures tell us about the explosion of invention that occurred in England during this period.

Revolution in energy: new forms of power

Until the eighteenth century, the power needed to do work came from humans, from animals such as horses or from natural forces like wind and water. To complete more work, people needed a new and more powerful form of energy. They found it in the power of steam.

The discovery of the power of steam goes back to the ancient Greeks, who understood that when water is turned into vapour by heat it expands 1800 times, releasing an energy that can be captured and used. Thomas Savery designed an industrial steam engine as early as 1698, which Thomas Newcomen improved upon with a more powerful steam pump in 1710–12. James Watt invented and developed the modern condensing steam engine between 1763 and 1775 by improving the existing Newcomen steam engine. It was so powerful that it could haul coal up mineshafts and drive the heavy machines in cotton mills, breweries, paper mills and other factories. Once it was harnessed to locomotives, it had the power to haul heavy loads such as iron over long distances. Later, it would be harnessed to shipping, creating the modern 'steam ship'.

Australian cities were greatly improved by the introduction of city lighting, first by gas and then by electricity. The cities seemed transformed: the weak and flickering gas light was replaced by the strong, steady blaze of electric light. The first electicity company was the Australian Electric Light Company in Melbourne in 1879; by 1886 an enormous generator had been built under the General Post Office that was capable of lighting two thousand bulbs in the building. In Sydney, Brisbane and Hobart, the introduction of electric lighting was delayed by the resistance of the gas companies, but electricity was increasingly used to power factories. By the 1890s, the first electric cables were raised in the streets of Perth.

Activity 2.4

1   Discuss how businessmen were able to convince so many people to move to the city during the Industrial Revolution.

2   Describe a common feature of the industries that were strong in Britain at the beginning of the eighteenth century.

3   Explain why it was the husband, not the wife, who usually sold the finished cloth at the market.
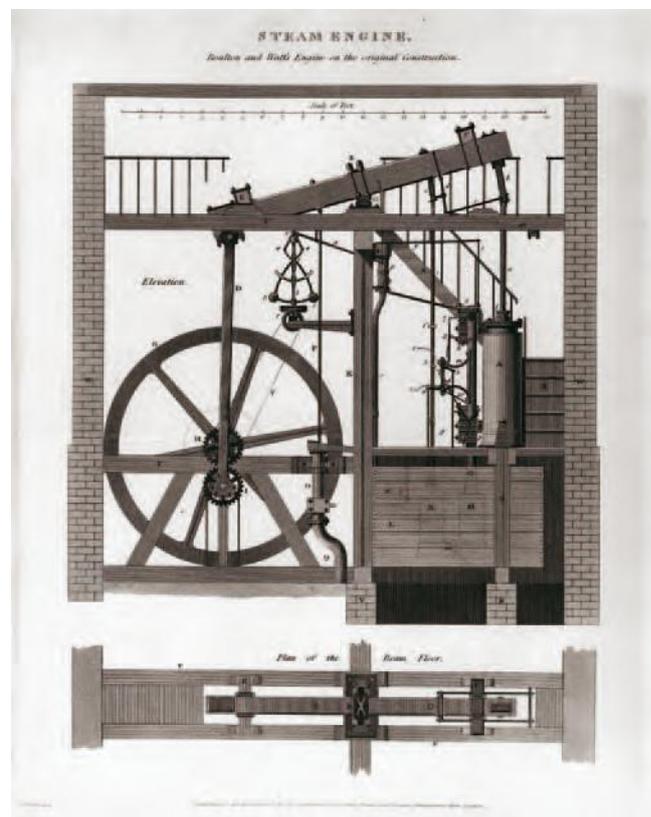
Source 2.15 James Watt's steam engine provided enough power to drive large factory machines and heavy trains.

Transformation of the coal industry

After the introduction of the steam engine, the demand for coal increased rapidly. Britain had many coalfields, ranging from Northumberland and the Scottish Lowlands to Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire and the Midlands, along with large deposits in Wales (see Source 2.17). These coalfields were already being used to provide fuel for heating in large cities and to power existing industries.

After 1750, coal was needed mainly for the manufacture of iron. Iron was needed for the making of bridges, railways, locomotives and weapons. Coal was also used for baking bricks, making pottery, tiles and glass, and for the brewing of beer.

Dangers of deep coalmining

A persistent problem with coalmining was that existing techniques were limited by the dangers of digging shafts. These shafts could collapse or fill up with water or explosive gases. As late as 1760, most mines could not go deeper than 200 feet. Another problem was that the work down in the mines was done by human labour. Men crawled along the shafts to the coalface and dug the coal with pickaxes and crowbars. They threw the coal into baskets, which were put on wooden sleds or trolleys and dragged back to the surface by women or children. Accidents were common, and when a shaft collapsed many people could be trapped underground, with little chance of being rescued. The tragedy of these deaths captured the imagination of artists such as John Longstaff, who showed their effects on the families of the dead miners (see Source 2.18).

The coalmines employed many women and children for the heavy task of carrying the coal up to the surface. Children had to crawl on hands and knees, pulling a small trolley that was harnessed to their backs. Women had to do the heavy task of carrying baskets of coal up ladders to the surface high above. In 1842, a Parliamentary Commission into the issue published its shocking findings, accompanied with pictures, resulting immediately in a new law forbidding the use of children under 10 years of age in coalmines.

Source 2.16 The first electric cables are installed in the streets of Perth in the 1890s
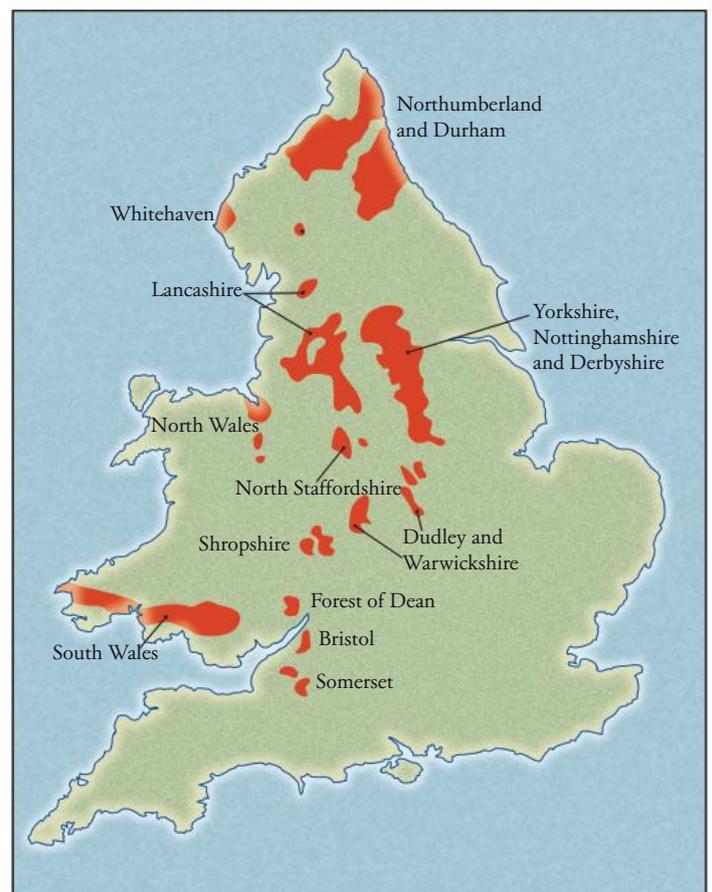
Source 2.17 The location of the main coalfields in England and Wales, c. 1830

Source 2.18 Australian artist John Longstaff depicts the moment that all miners' families feared: the foreman has come to tell a worker's wife that there has been a mine accident. We can see the mineshaft in the background, through the open door. Outside, a number of men wait with a stretcher.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, identify some of the causes of the Industrial Revolution.

Causes of the Industrial Revolution

The expansion of the British Empire
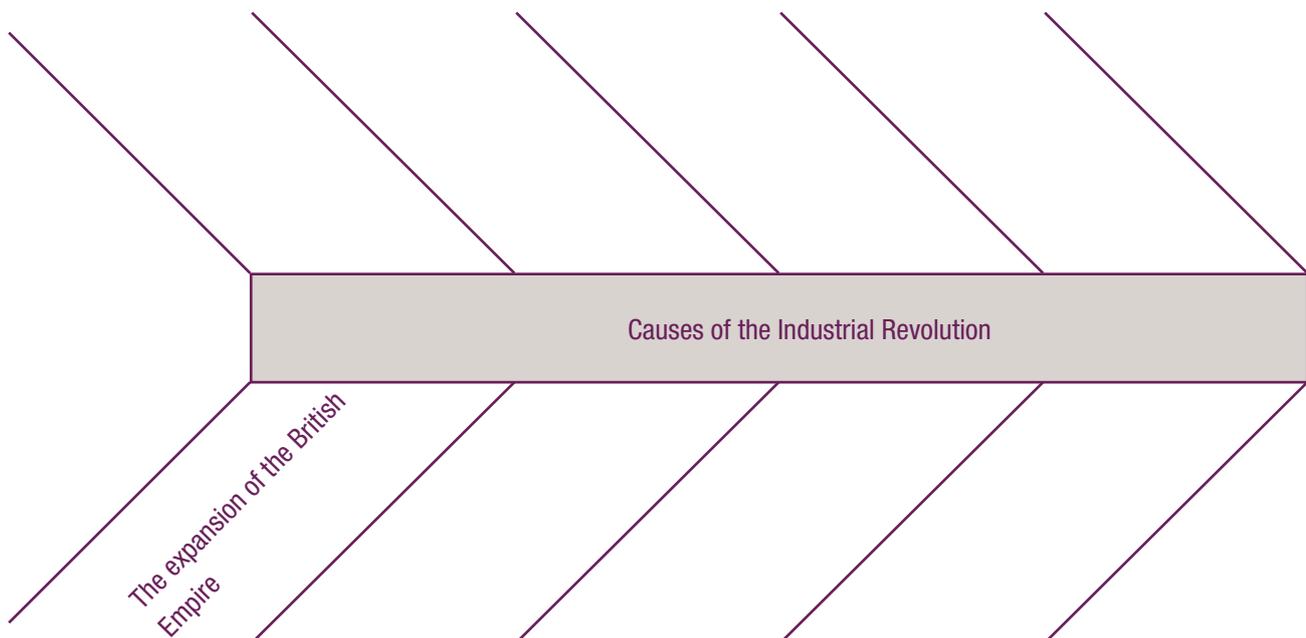
Source 2.19 A young boy pulling a cart full of coal along the tunnel towards the surface of a mine

Research 2.1

Using the internet, write a report about the main dangers facing coalminers, and the ways in which people tried to cope with these problems. In your report, investigate the following issues:

1   Analyse the causes of flooded mine shafts in the nineteenth century. To what extent was this problem solved?

2   Define the meaning of 'choke damp' in a mine. How did miners deal with it?

3   Define the meaning of 'firedamp' in a coalmine.

4   Research the cause of the gold mine disaster in Beaconsfield, Tasmania, in 2006. What was the effect of the accident?

5   Explain the extent of the Chilean mining disaster of 2010. How were the trapped miners rescued?

New technologies and the growth of coalmining

The Industrial Revolution provided solutions to some of these dangers. In 1800, the Newcomen steam pump was modified to draw water out of the mines. In 1807, engineers designed an air pump to push fresh air into the shafts. By 1842, there were strong wire cables available, which allowed lifts to bring both coal and miners up out of the deep shafts. Production began to increase to meet the steady demand: in 1700, British mines produced only 2.5 million tons of coal. By 1760, this had doubled to five million, and by 1800 it had doubled again to 10 million tons. Coal became the lifeblood of the Industrial Revolution, and for the first time supply met the demands of hundreds of new factories.

Transformation of the textile industry

Of all Britain's industries, the cloth industry was most transformed by the new machines of the Industrial Revolution. Britain already produced large amounts of wool, but the new technology now allowed it to produce cotton. By 1823,

Britain exported more cotton than wool. This industry was located in areas such as Lancashire and Derbyshire, where the damp atmosphere helped spinning. There was also plenty of clean water for cleaning the cotton.

The slave trade also had a great impact on the cotton industry. Traders bought slaves in West Africa and sold them in America, where they worked on cotton plantations. The extremely cheap slave labour put vast profits in the hands of cotton merchants and the owners of cotton plantations and factories.

When machines became available, cotton traders gradually moved away from the old **domestic system** towards the **factory system**, in which they built the factory, bought the cotton, and brought the workers to one central place. It was not an immediate change: there were many more cotton-spinning mills after 1780, but they did not take over completely until 1850.

domestic system a system of production in houses, cottages and villages, using hand-operated tools

factory system a system where many workers gather in a factory to operate large-scale machinery

New machines, new solutions

Once the factory system was set up, the new machines quickly solved the central problem of cotton manufacture: that the spinners who made the thread could not work quickly enough to supply the weavers who wove it into cloth. The first improvement was made by John Kay, who invented the flying shuttle in 1733. He intended to use it to weave wool, but it was quickly applied to cotton. In 1748, Lewis Paul invented a machine for **carding**, the process of combing the raw cotton to remove tangles and to make it smooth. Next, James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny in 1764. He found the idea simply by watching his wife using a traditional spinning wheel, which could only produce one thread at a time. He created a new wheel that could operate eight **spindles** at once.

He then used this to create a spinning factory in Nottingham. He in turn was soon outstripped by Richard Arkwright, who invented a thread-drawing frame powered by water, called a water frame.

carding the process of combing raw wool or cotton to make it smoother and to remove impurities

spindle a circular rod on which raw wool is twisted and formed into a thread

Source 2.20 A Newcomen steam engine in use near Dudley Castle in 1712: Newcomen's pumps were important to the coal industry because they drew water out of mineshafts much more quickly and efficiently than human labour could.

Source 2.21 Using steam power increased production in a Yorkshire coalmine: a steam-driven hauling machine was set up over the pit, allowing the miners to pull up heavy baskets of coal by machine. Then the Blenkinsop Locomotive quickly hauled several wagons of coal to a nearby industrial city or port.

These two machines then inspired Samuel Crompton to invent the spinning mule in 1775. It used features of both the previous machines and was able to spin very long and fine thread, making it possible to weave fine muslin fabrics.

By now, the problem had been reversed: yarn could be spun more quickly than the weavers could turn it into cloth. In 1785, Edmund Cartwright invented a power loom for weaving, although this invention took longer to perfect.
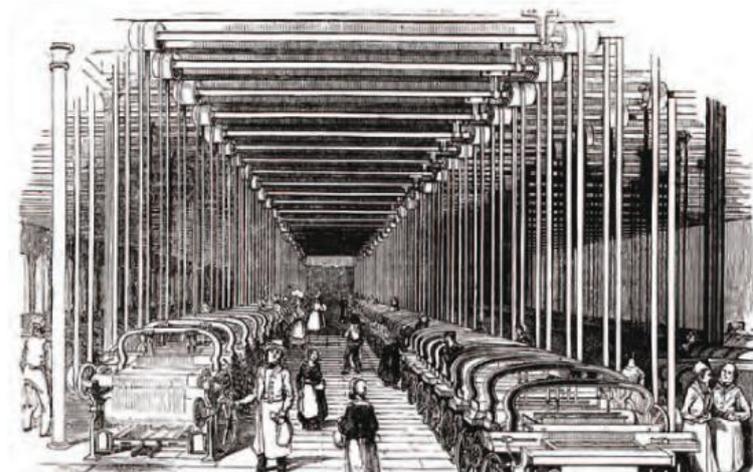
Sources 2.22 and 2.23 These images depict the gradual change from producing cotton in thousands of small cottage workshops to producing cloth in very large factories, where new machines could spin and weave much more quickly

Source 2.24 Arkwright's Cromford Mill on the River Derwent in Derbyshire can still be visited today. It was an important part of the transformation that swept through the British cotton industry later in the eighteenth century.

Activity **2.5**

1   Discuss the advantages of the factory system compared with the domestic system.

2   Research the spinning jenny on the internet or in the library. Draw a diagram of it, including its eight spindles.

3   Explain why the production of cotton in Britain outgrew the production of wool. Think about where each of these products came from.

New forms of power

As well as inventing new machines, new types of energy were used to power them. At first, the powerful rivers of the area drove the machines. Later, steam power was used. James Watt's steam engine was introduced into the cotton factories in 1789; by 1815 power looms were widely in use. The use of steam-powered machinery was concentrated in areas close to the coalmines of Yorkshire.

Success of the cotton industry

These changes meant that the cotton industry grew remarkably rapidly. In 1700, Britain only imported one million pounds weight of cotton; by 1789 the figure was five million pounds, and by 1795 it was 11.5 million pounds. By 1815, the cotton industry employed 100 000 workers in factories, backed by another 250 000 weavers working outside the factory system.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, identify the groups of people, technologies and inventors that are linked to cotton production.
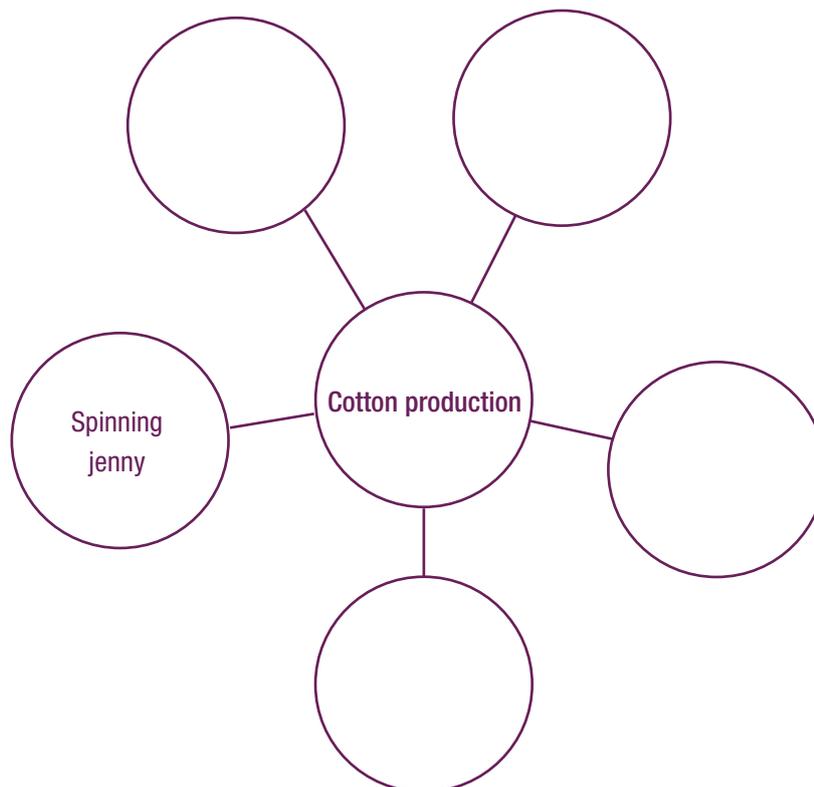
Effects on the southern states of the United States

The explosion of cotton production in Britain affected other countries. Britain now needed massive amounts of raw cotton, which was first imported from the West Indies and then from America. Plantation owners in the southern states of the United States were keen to supply it. The only problem holding back production was the process of cleaning cotton: slaves had to pick the seeds out of the cotton by hand.

In 1793, Eli Whitney, a schoolteacher, invented his cotton gin. This machine had rollers fitted with metal spikes and brushes that lifted the seeds out much more quickly than humans could. The first machine was turned by hand, and allowed the worker to clean 50 times as much cotton as before. Later, the machine was powered by water, and allowed a thousand times more cotton to be produced in a day. Even later, the Americans found that they could also use the seeds to make cottonseed oil for lamps and feed for cattle.

By about 1800, the cotton industry had replaced the tobacco industry as America's main export. The states of Georgia, North and South Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee and Alabama were heavily involved in cotton plantations. The owners referred to their crop as 'King Cotton'. However, because of this growth Americans now used even more slaves than ever to work their plantations. In 1790, there were 700 000 slaves in these southern states; by 1860, there were 4 000 000 – a human tragedy on an enormous scale.

Activity 2.6

1 Explain why steam-powered machinery was concentrated in areas close to Yorkshire's coalmines. Think about the transportation available in Britain at the time.

2 Determine why slave numbers increased after the invention of the labour-saving cotton gin.

3 Describe what English consumers of cotton might have thought about slavery.

4 Imagine you are an English worker, and have just been informed about the use of slaves on US cotton plantations. Write a paragraph describing your thoughts.

Source 2.25 Bales of cotton being loaded on ships for export, Savannah, Georgia

Transport revolution: railways and canals

Roads of steel: the railway network

The idea of the railway already existed in a simple form before the Industrial Revolution. Rails were used to move carts of coal from mines, but the rails were made of wood and the carts were pulled by animals. It took the inventor Richard Trevithick to realise that the new steam engine could be placed on a vehicle and made to turn wheels. By 1801, he had designed a simple vehicle called 'the puffer' to run on roads. Then, in 1804, an owner of an ironworks made a bet that it was possible to design a vehicle that could run on tracks, pull carts containing 10 tons of iron and run for about 15 kilometres. Trevithick

Source 2.26 Richard Trevithick was an important inventor because he realised that Watt's steam engine could be placed on a vehicle and used to turn wheels. This provided the basic idea for the steam train.
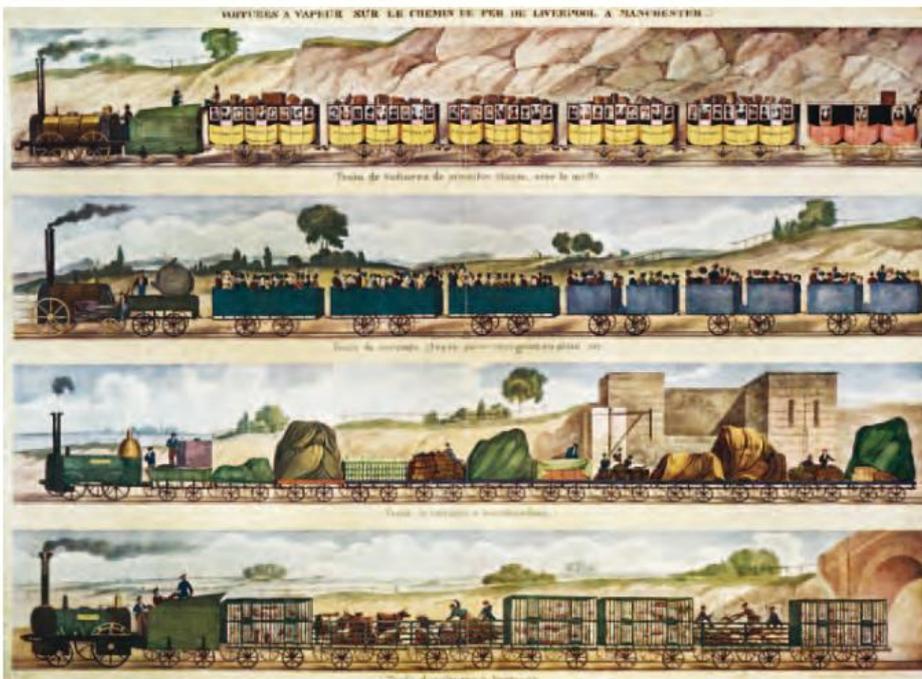
Source 2.27 The Liverpool–Manchester Railway.
The text translates as: Steam trains on iron tracks from Liverpool to Manchester.
First class carriage train, with the baggage.
Second class train for travellers in the open air.
Goods wagon train.
Cattle wagon train.

HISTORICAL FACT

The arrival of the first trains caused a scare campaign, with claims that the high speed of the train would cause the two sides of the human brain to fall apart. This was of course rapidly disproved!

designed the first locomotive, and proved that a steam engine could pull carts.

Others took up his invention. William Hedley built a train called *Puffing Billy* in 1814 at Wylam, Northumberland. George Stephenson built another train, the *Blucher*, to pull coal wagons at the Killingworth coalmine.

Stephenson first became famous for building a railway from the coastal port of Stockton to the coal town of Darlington. In 1825, some 40 000 people saw the grand opening of the railway. They were amazed to see an engine, the *Locomotion*, pulling six cars of coal, a carriage for the railway's committee and 20 more carriages for the people who had invested their money to support the project. Because of fears for safety, the train travelled slowly behind a man carrying a red flag!

The great age of the railway really began in 1826, when the British parliament gave permission for the building of a railway line from the industrial port of Liverpool to the manufacturing town of Manchester. By 1829, the line was completed. It was time to test whether a locomotive could travel efficiently over such a long distance. Stephenson used his *Rocket* and covered the 30 miles at a speed of 14 miles per hour. The line opened in 1830.

Fear of new technology

The pace of social change caused many to become frightened and upset. The public reaction to the emergence of the steam train is a good example of the fear that new technology caused. Farmers argued that their cows would be frightened and not give milk, and that their horses might run in terror. Others hated the way the railway lines cut across the countryside, and said that the smoke would kill birds.
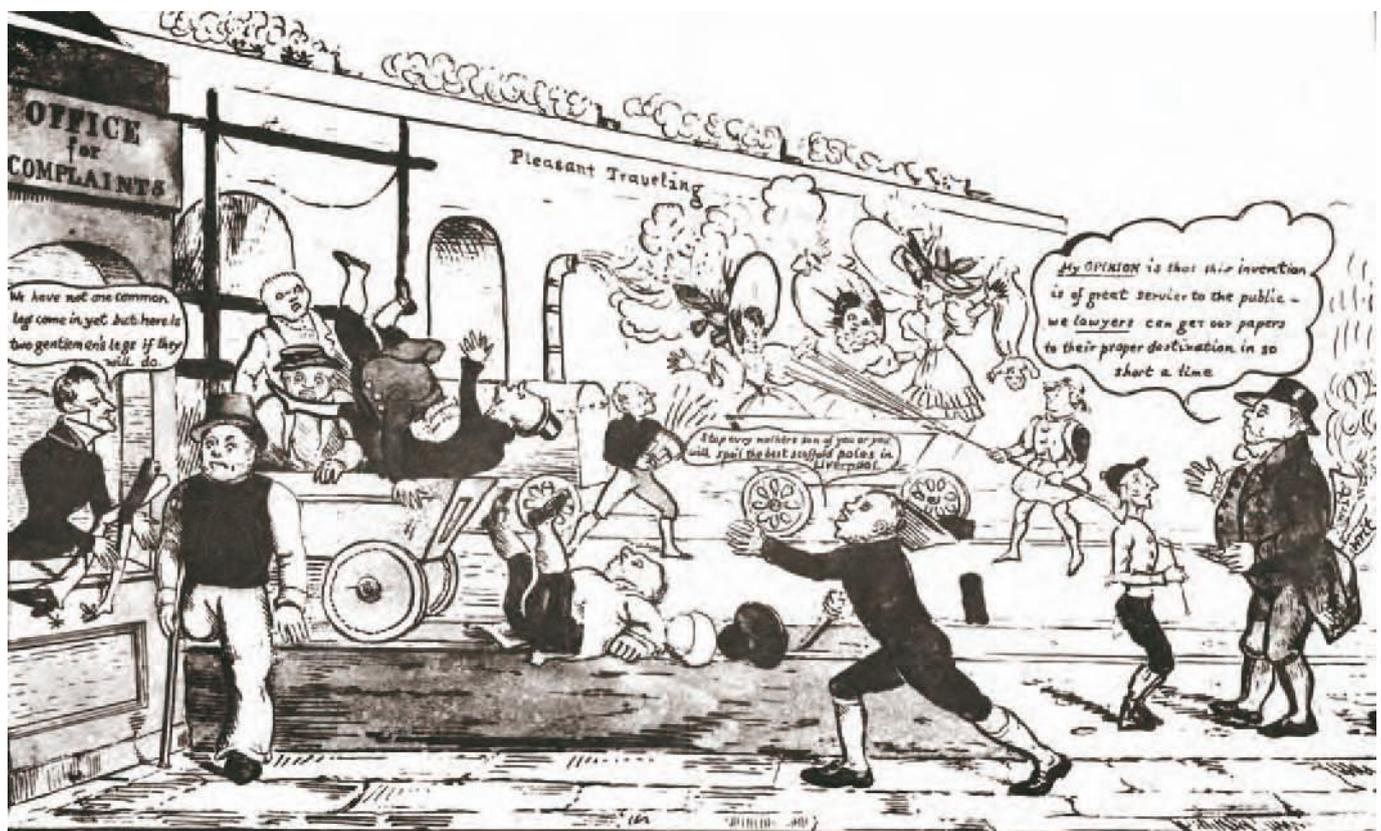
Source 2.28 The Railing Company at Liverpool: a comical representation of the confusion caused by railways. On the right, a well-fed lawyer argues that the railway is 'of great service to the public' because he can deliver his documents more quickly. Humorously, he is not aware that the documents in his back pocket have caught fire because of sparks from the train.

Research **2.2**

There were many clever inventors during the Industrial Revolution, and their development of new machines and new ways of producing goods was one of its main causes. Many of these inventors were not highly educated, but were instead practical men and women who had worked in industry. As they worked, they dreamed of better ways of doing things. They were helped by business people who had the courage and money to try their inventions. Without these people, it is possible that the great advances of the Industrial Revolution would not have taken place at all.

From the list below, choose an inventor or business person. Using the internet and the resources in your school library, investigate how they made their important discoveries, and what effect they had on economic development. Choose a form of presentation, such as a PowerPoint or a blog, to present your findings to the class.

Be sure to answer the following questions:

1   In which industry did your inventor work, or have the most effect?

2   What were some of the limitations in this industry that held back increases in production?

3   What was the nature of the machine your inventor created?

4   How did this invention allow the industry to develop and to produce more goods?

Some famous inventors:

- A. U. Alcock
- Edmund Cartwright
- Edward Jenner
- George Stephenson
- James Brindley
- James Watt
- Jethro Tull
- John Kay
- John Wilkinson
- Josiah Wedgewood
- Richard Arkwright
- Thomas Savery
- Thomas Telford

Activity **2.7**

Examine Source 2.28 and then complete the following tasks.

1   Describe whether you feel that cartoons published in newspapers at the time are a good way of understanding how people felt about a particular issue. Explain the reasons for your answer.

2   Explain what the cartoonist meant by drawing four trains end-to-end up on the bridge.

3   Evaluate the accuracy of this image as a primary source. If cartoons tend to exaggerate a situation, are they of any use to the historian? Does this image show any of the real problems caused by the early railways?

Another cause of criticism was financial. Businessmen who owned canals, roads and coaches all charged high fees for transport. They saw that if the railways succeeded, their own businesses would make less money. Not surprisingly, they contributed to the scare campaigns against railways.

People often express their feelings and their fears through cartoons. This is a two-way process. Cartoonists often highlight events of the day, summing up what people are thinking and saying; that is, successful cartoons recognise the way many people feeling about a particular subject. At the same time, cartoons might strengthen the feeling of fear by confirming it. Source 2.28 is a good example of this.
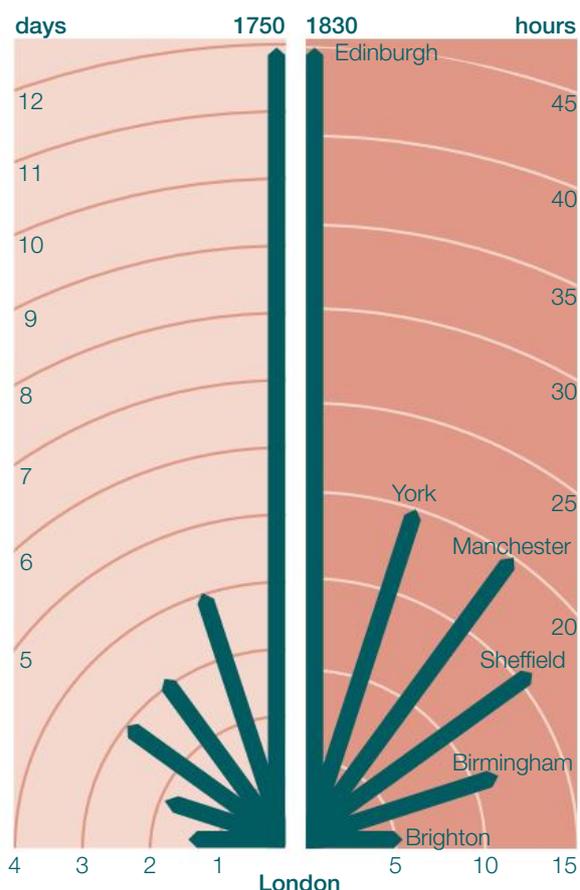
Source 2.29 How space was shrunk by rail travel: on the left, the journey from London to a city such as Manchester in 1750 was measured in days; by 1830, it could be measured in hours

Triumph of the railways

The scare campaign did not stop the railways. First, businessmen realised that there was a fortune to be made in transport. In 1838, a group of businessmen opened a new line from London to the northern city of Birmingham. By 1840, dozens of companies, financed by thousands of investors, had built lines between London, Brighton, Exeter, Leeds and Manchester. By the 1860s, new lines had reached out to the farthest parts of Britain, including Cornwall in the south, Wales in the west and Scotland and to the north.

Canal network

The business people of the Industrial Revolution realised that they could not increase their production and sales without a better transport network across England. The existing roads could not carry heavy traffic efficiently. Roads were supplemented by small ships carrying coal and other cargo along the coastline. The businesspeople needed more: they needed to carry heavy loads to inland factories. They found that the rivers – the Thames, for example – could be made suitable for cargo boats. They arranged for the riverbanks to be widened, and the channels deepened. However, this did not help factories that weren't close to a river. In 1753, a group of businessmen in Liverpool made an important discovery: if there wasn't a river where you needed it, you could create one. They paid the engineer Henry Berry to create a **canal** from the coalmines at St Helens to the town of Warrington. This first canal was called the Sankey Brook Navigation, and was open for business by 1757.

canal an artificial waterway large enough for boats to travel upon

The idea caught on. The Duke of Bridgewater, who owned a coalmine at Worsley, also wanted to avoid moving his coal by road, due to the high costs. He asked parliament permission to build a canal from Worsley 15 kilometres overland to join a river near the industrial town of Manchester. He then employed two talented engineers, John Gilbert and James Brindley, to design the canal.

Work proceeded quickly. When they came to the River Irwell, they discovered that the owners of the river could still charge them money for using it. This would drive the price of the Duke's

Source 2.30 Natural rivers such as the Thames and the Severn were supplemented by a number of interlinking canals to provide an extensive transport network

A. Throstle Nest Lock
B. Mode Wheel Lock
C. Barton Bridge Lock
D. Stickings Lock
E. Holmes Bridge Lock
F. Calimanoon Lock
G. Holling Ferry Lock
H. Powder Mill Lock
I. Warrington Lock
K. The course of the old river
1. Barton Bridge
2. Warrington Bridge
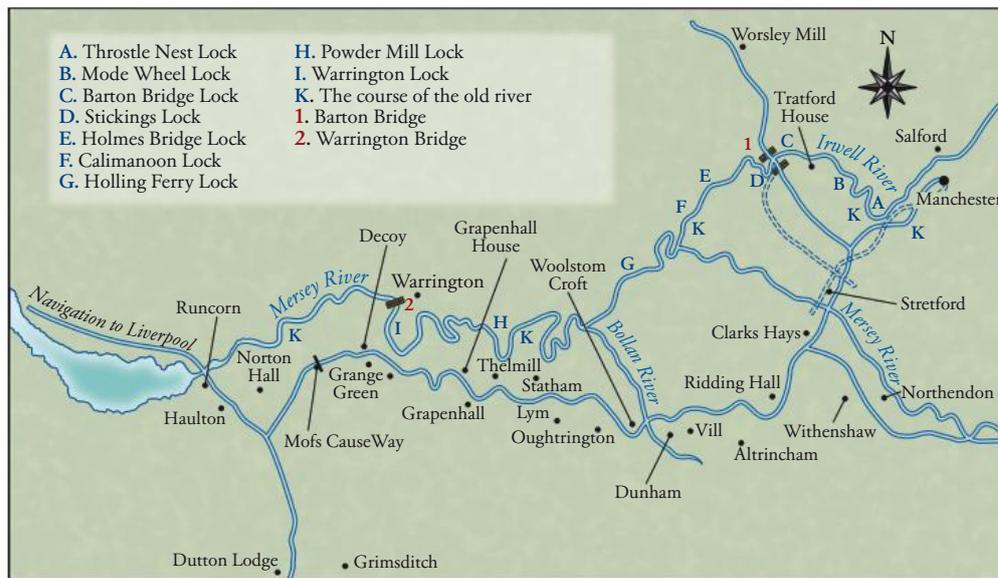
Source 2.31 The route of the Duke of Bridgewater's 'navigable canal'

Activity **2.8**

As a group, present a short role play set in England in about 1830, when the spread of railways and canals was causing both alarm and jealousy.

One member should play George Stephenson, and defend the new technology of the railway. Another should play an industrialist, the owner of a coalmine. Another member should play a country farmer who is genuinely frightened by the new railways. Other members should play businessmen who own a toll road, a coach company or a stretch of river.

A parliamentary committee is visiting your village to hear concerns before approving any more railway construction. Your role-play is the discussion that occurs when

these people are trying to make their opinion known to the committee.

In preparing your role play, you should consider the following questions:

1   What arguments would Stephenson use to defend his invention?

2   What arguments would the industrialist use to defend the construction of major railway lines across the country?

3   How would the farmer criticise the railways for their effect on the countryside?

4   What arguments would the owners of toll roads and coaches put forward against the railways?

coal higher. Brindley simply suggested building a bridge to carry the canal right across the river and all the way to Manchester.

Now the Duke could transport his coal to the city for half the price. His investment paid off: he made a fortune selling his coal. James Brindley was later employed to extend the canal some

60 kilometres to the town of Runcorn. By 1776, coal from Worsley could be carried all the way to the coast in one boat trip. The waterway was then named the Bridgewater Canal (see Source 2.31).

Australians did not merely copy English technologies: they proved to be excellent inventors themselves. In Adelaide, for example, people

marvelled at the cleverness of the inventor Alfred Upton (AU) Alcock, who demonstrated how to use a steam engine to quickly unload coal from a ship, moving 40 tons in just one hour.

Railway in Australia

The Industrial Revolution made an important difference in a vast continent such as Australia because it helped to shrink space and distance. In every colony, the city was linked to its suburbs and to the countryside. Australians started work early on the railways, and they developed quickly. In New South Wales, England's railway boom in the 1840s almost immediately inspired Australians to build a network. As early as 1846, businessmen formed the Sydney Tramroad and Railway Company to build a line from Sydney to Goulburn. The line was begun in 1850 and finished in 1855, with the help of 500 rail workers imported from England. In Victoria, the Melbourne and Hobson's Bay Railway Company was opened in 1854, becoming the first steam train service to operate in Australia. In South Australia, a line from Goolwa to Port Elliott was opened in 1854. In Queensland, a line from Brisbane to Toowoomba was opened in 1864. In Western Australia, a railway from Northampton to Geraldton was opened in 1879. During the rest of the nineteenth century, the large network of tracks was extended, especially when colonial governments took over from private companies the expensive business of building railways.

The steam engine also transformed life within Australian cities. The existing horse-drawn trams were replaced by steam-driven machines, which provided faster travel around the town and out to the expanding suburbs.

40 TONS AN HOUR.

Adelaide International Exhibition, 1887. HIGHEST AWARDS.

ALCOCK'S "JUMBO" COAL HEAVER.
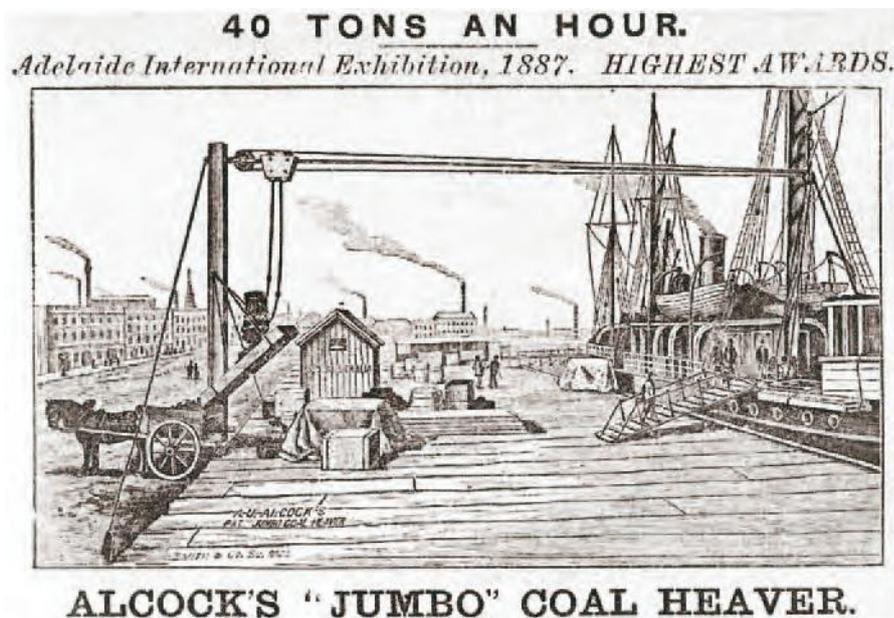
Source 2.32 The Melbourne-based inventor AU Alcock designed this Jumbo Coal Heaver to unload coal much more quickly than human labour could

Source 2.33 The opening of Tasmania's first railway from Launceston to Deloraine in 1869
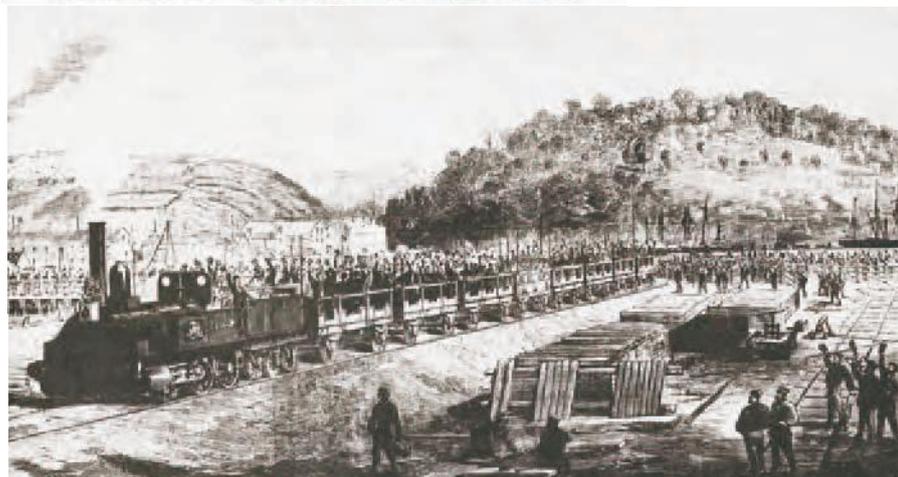
Population movement and settlement

The Industrial Revolution caused whole populations to move across the world. Emigration from Britain began almost as soon as it gained its colonies. By the nineteenth century, British citizens could consider going to Australia, the United States, British North America (Canada), India, South Africa and New Zealand. By the 1840s and 1850s, the flood of migrants was so great that it caused public debate and concern in the government. The United States was originally the most popular destination: in 1849, 219 450 people went to America, while only 32 091 chose Australia and New Zealand. Later, more migrants chose to go to Australia, partly because the transportation of convicts was ended (1840 in New South Wales; 1853 in Tasmania) and partly because gold was discovered in 1851.

By the 1840s, it was clear that the Industrial Revolution brought wealth only to the middle classes and to the businessmen who owned the great factories. In 1841–42, a harsh winter caused unemployment and hunger for the working classes. In 1846, the Irish Potato Famine began. Thousands of starving Irish people flooded to England, America and to the colonies in search of work. In 1848, there was a cholera epidemic that killed thousands more people. After 1851,

Source 2.34 Ford Madox Brown's painting *The Last of England*: Brown brings us close to the rail of the ship, so that we can see the expressions and read the feelings of the young couple leaving their homeland.

the clearance of poor agricultural workers from the Scottish highlands drove many Scottish people to migrate as well. There was no hiding it: the Industrial Revolution had brought misery to working people. Among educated people, there was real concern about 'the condition of England'. From the early nineteenth century onwards, British people were encouraged to go to the colonies in Australia, where there was the promise of cheap farming land and a decent living.
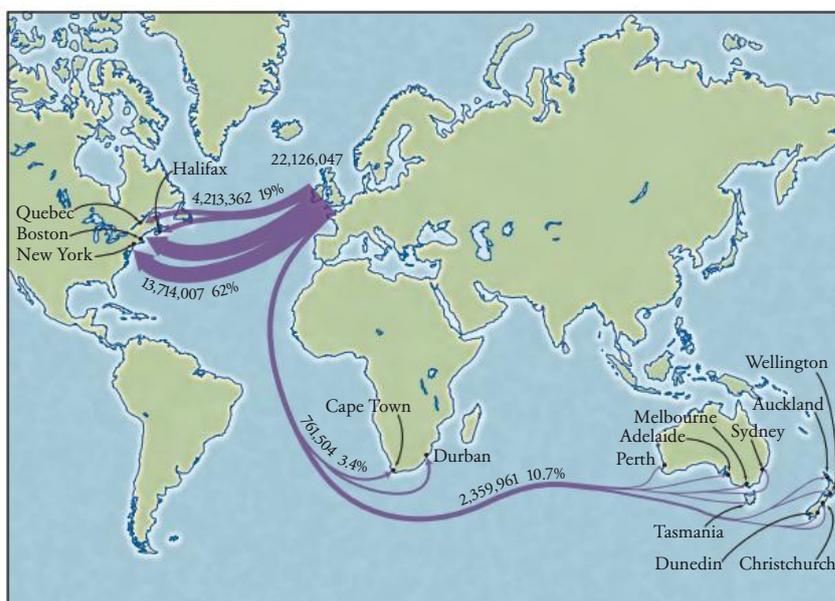
Source 2.35 Emigration patterns from the UK over the period 1815–1914

The Industrial Revolution transforms the way of life in Australia

The Industrial Revolution wasn't limited to just England: it gradually transformed Europe, America and Australia. We can still see its effects in the cities, towns and country areas we live in. There is also much visual evidence of early industry in hundreds of photographs and engravings.

The Industrial Revolution began to affect Australia as early as the eighteenth century. This was partly because England's industrial cities, with their problems of unemployment and poor housing, turned many ordinary people into criminals, often for crimes as minor as stealing a loaf of bread to feed their families. The loss of the 13 American colonies in 1783 in the American War of Independence meant that the British could no longer send prisoners there. With Britain's jails overflowing, the government decided to use Australia as a **penal colony**. Cities such as Sydney and Hobart came into existence to contain the social problems caused by the Industrial Revolution.

penal colony a colony that serves as a prison

While the idea of setting up a vast prison was an important reason for settlement in Australia, it was not the only one. From an early stage, the British government had wondered whether Australia could also serve as a **settler colony**; that is, a place to which people who were not criminals could freely go and start a new life by setting up farms and industries. The first free settlers arrived in Australia as early as 1793, and 1000 had arrived by 1810. The small settlement in Australia also gained settlers by giving grants of land to people who were already there and serving as officers in the army. People such as John and Elizabeth Macarthur proved to be very capable settlers, and both were important in setting up Australia's wool industry, which would soon become a major part of Britain's trade with its empire. In 1823, the idea of settlement was helped by the Bigge Reports, which said that Australia needed more free settlers. In 1831, the British government arranged to help settlers emigrate by paying the cost of the journey, using money from the sale of government-owned land. Later, the British government encouraged women to emigrate to help balance the numbers of males and females, and about 3000 arrived between 1832 and 1836. By the 1830s, there were large areas of the south-east coast of Australia under settlement (see Source 2.36).

settler colony
a colony developed by free individuals, usually with the protection and assistance of a parent government

Activity 2.9

1 Explain why the rate of migration to Australia increased in the second half of the nineteenth century.

2 Research the Scottish highland clearances on the internet or in the library. Why were these poor agricultural workers cleared from the land?

3 Describe some of the differences between a settler colony and a penal colony. What are some of the similarities?
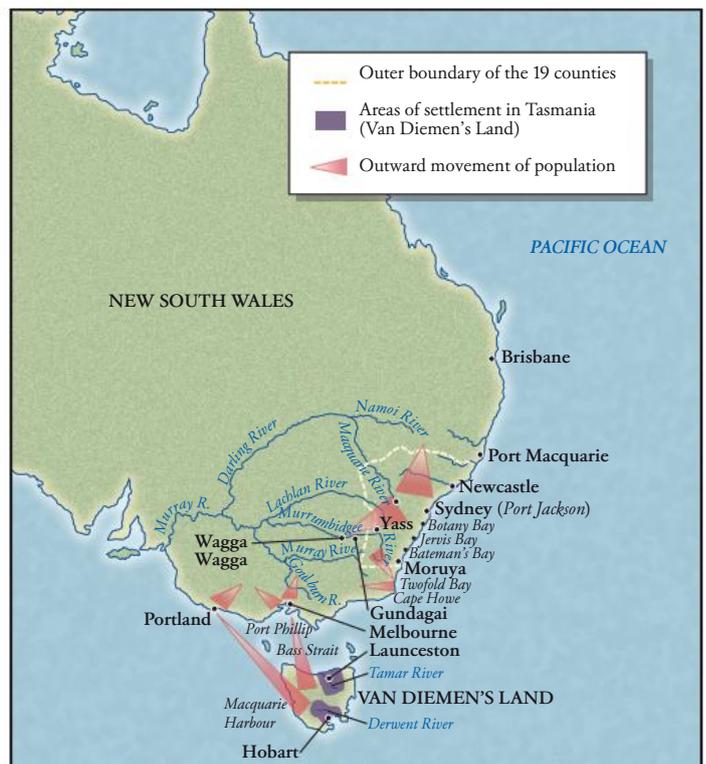
Source 2.36 Settlers in Australia rapidly spread up and down the eastern coast of Australia.

There were two other events that helped the settlement of Australia. In 1840, the transportation of criminals to Sydney was halted, helping to soothe people's fears that Sydney was just a prison. The last colony to stop transportation of criminals was Western Australia, which ended the practice in 1868. During the 1830s and 1840s, pastoralists (settlers who wanted to set up farms) began settling land in the areas now known as New South Wales and Tasmania. In 1835, some pastoralists from Tasmania also set up farms in what they called the Port Phillip District, which was renamed the colony of Victoria in 1850. Elsewhere, people had other reasons for making settlements. In 1834 the British parliament had established the colony of South Australia to create a settlement free of convicts. In 1829, a group of settlers had joined together to form the Swan River Settlement in Western Australia, in order to create a new society and way of life. Finally, the great movement of settlers out of New South Wales to land in the north broke away from the home colony in 1859, and formed the colony of Queensland.

During the 1840s, 15 000 people migrated to Australia each year, reaching the peak of 33 000 in 1841. By the 1850s, it was clear that Australia could indeed be another 'new Europe', and serve as a useful settler colony to the British Empire. As early as 1821, Australia was sending 175 000 pounds weight of wool to Britain, but by 1850 this had risen to 39 000 000 pounds. Australia alone was supplying about 50 per cent of Britain's needs in wool.

The discovery of gold in Victoria in the 1850s also provided great encouragement to migration. The gold rushes of the 1850s had a dramatic effect on Australia's industrial development. First, the population of the colonies grew from 500 000 in 1850 to 1.2 million in 1860. Second, the new wealth created by gold created more demand for products, leading to a rapid growth in Australia's industry. The effects of this were still felt in the economy as late as the 1880s. Third, between 1860 and 1890, economic growth was also fed by strong migration from Britain and Ireland, which created one-third of all population growth in this period. Finally, Australian governments borrowed heavily

Source 2.37 By 1850, farmers and pastoralists had spread into inland Australia

from Britain in order to build the services such as transport that Australians were demanding. British investors were keen, until the 1890s, to invest their money in Australia, which they felt was a familiar culture and one made 'safe' by the wealth created by gold.

Transformation of Australia's cities

Australia's cities grew quickly during the nineteenth century, especially after the gold rushes of the 1850s. Melbourne was perhaps the main boom city of the nineteenth century, growing from a population of 30 000 in 1850 to 500 000 by 1900.

Sydney reached the same population by the end of the century. Adelaide was smaller, but still grew to 160 000 by 1900. Both Brisbane and Perth grew more slowly, but developed suddenly in the 1890s, with Brisbane reaching a population of 120 000 by 1900. An engraved view of Queen Street, Brisbane in about 1886 shows broad, well-paved streets with stately buildings and a tram system (see Source 2.39). Perth was late in growing to a population of 60 000 by 1900.

Source 2.38 Campbell's Wharf, Circular Quay, Sydney, 1877

Source 2.39 Queen St, Brisbane, as it appeared c. 1886

Australia's ports: hubs of the industrial world

Australia had important ports, such as Sydney, as early as the eighteenth century, but these grew as they became busy centres of trade for the industrial world. Australian wool was exported to meet the needs of the British textile industry. In return, British manufactured goods and luxuries were imported to meet the demands of the colonies. A photograph of Campbell's Wharf at Circular Quay in Sydney in 1877 (see Source 2.38), for example, shows clear signs of the Industrial Revolution. Most of the ships are sailing ships, but the vessel on the left is one of the new steamships. Within years, the sailing ships would disappear and steamships would take over. The cannon in the foreground is on Dawes Point; it would have been designed and made in Britain, and used to defend this part of the British Empire against possible attack. You can still see Campbell's warehouse, and many others, in the Rocks area, which is now a tourist precinct.

Activity **2.10**

1   Determine why the discovery of gold in Australia caused a population boom.

2   Explain how the Australian gold rush created an increased demand for new products.

3   Look at the pictures of Australian cities depicted in Sources 2.38 and 2.39. How did they compare with English cities of the same time? Think about the relative width of the streets and compare the population levels.

Source 2.40 Eyre Crowe's *The Dinner Hour, Wigan*. Crowe visited the industrial area of Lancashire, where young women worked in both the collieries and the factories.

Experiences of ordinary men, women and children

Life in England

For the millions of people who left their country villages to come to the city, the Industrial Revolution seemed to promise good work and a good wage. In many cases, these hopes were quickly dashed. For most, work in this new world meant very long hours in dangerous conditions for inadequate pay. For others, the new cities offered only unemployment and poverty.

The industrial city

The Industrial Revolution created large cities and towns, in which the living conditions for ordinary people were very poor. The need to accommodate all of the new workers in the factories forced the rapid construction of cheap housing, resulting in new suburbs of extremely poor quality. Government officials noticed these problems, and frequently sent observers to report on living conditions.
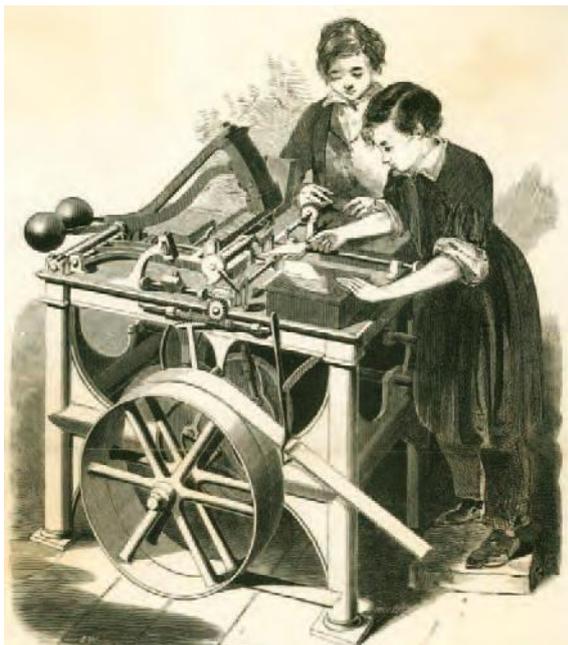
Source 2.41 Children at work on a steam-driven envelope machine

Factories

The new factories seemed enormous compared with the small workshops people were used to. We can see how they looked from the paintings of Eyre Crowe (see Source 2.40), who went to Wigan to study the people who worked in them. This scene accurately shows known buildings such as the Victoria Mills – at the left of the scene – owned by the industrialist Thomas Taylor. Artists often sold their paintings to wealthy industrialists, who expected them to be accurate. The painting still has some limitations as a source for the historian. It only shows the factory girls resting, not working. They are taking a meal break, and seem happy and relaxed. They are well dressed – only one is barefoot – and clean and healthy. A policeman patrols the street behind them, suggesting that everything is in order.

The painter might have depicted a very different scene if he had gone inside the factory. In most factories, people worked long hours and received low pay. If the workers demanded better wages, the owners dismissed them and took on other desperately poor workers instead. Moreover, the factory you see probably lacked safety equipment. The industrialists argued that safety equipment cost money but made no profits, so there was no point buying it. In the cotton mills, for example, young women like those in the painting worked for years in a factory where the air was full of fine cotton dust. When they breathed it in, it filled their lungs, causing lung disease and finally death. It was possible to buy large extractor fans to remove the cotton dust, but many industrialists argued that it was cheaper to hire new workers to replace those who died.

Child labour

One of the worst problems in the new factory was the use of child labour. By law, a child was not allowed to work until the age of six, but few factory owners obeyed this rule.

Once they were employed, children worked very long hours. Those who fell asleep were whipped by their employers to stay awake; some were so exhausted they fell forward into the working machinery and were killed. In some factories, children were employed to use their small hands to clean out the machines while they

Times gone by ...

In 1848, after revolutions had swept European countries such as France and Germany, the English novelist Elizabeth Gaskell decided to explain why she had written her novel *Mary Barton* (1848), with its sad and often alarming descriptions of the hardships of working-class life. She finishes by warning that if something was not done to help the workers, England might experience a revolution in the same way that France did.

> I had always felt a deep sympathy with the care-worn men, who looked as if doomed to struggle through their lives going between work and poverty. A little expression of my sympathy, and the expression of the feelings of some of the working people who I knew, led them to lay their hearts open to me. I saw that they were sore and irritable against the rich. Whether the neglect which they experienced from the wealthy – especially from the masters whose fortunes they had helped to build – were fair is not for me to judge. This belief turns to revenge in too many of the poor uneducated factory-workers of Manchester. Whatever public effort can do in the way of laws, or private effort in the way of kind deeds, should be done as soon as possible. My view of the state of feeling among too many of the factory people in Manchester has received some confirmation from the events that have recently occurred among the workers of Europe.

Source 2.42 This text has been abbreviated and simplified for younger readers. Gaskell's complete text may be found in *Mary Barton* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980, pp. xxxv–xxxvi).

1 Explain why Elizabeth Gaskell wrote that England might expect a revolution.
2 What sort of laws do you think would have helped the workers?

were still operating, and many were injured when their hands got caught in the moving parts.

Warning voices

Some of the strongest warning voices of the Industrial Revolution came from the industrialists themselves. Many were businessmen who believed that making profits was the only thing that mattered.

They thought social problems only occurred because working people were lazy or drunk. Others saw the truth. The Industrial Revolution itself was creating bad working conditions, low pay, bad housing, poverty and unemployment. Robert Owen was a rare industrialist who bravely stated that bad working conditions were the main cause of the dirt, violence and crime in

the industrial cities. He suggested that if owners improved the conditions in the factories, workers would also improve their behaviour.

To prove his point, he built a mill at New Lanark, near Glasgow in Scotland. He paid for large windows to let in light and air, plus proper toilets, drainage and even baths. He cut down working hours. He made sure that workers had free time, and encouraged them to read or to exercise during that time. He refused to employ children under the age of 10. He hoped that industrialists would see his successful factory and copy his reforms. When that did not happen, he went straight to the English parliament and persuaded Sir Robert Peel, the then Prime Minister, to pass laws to improve conditions in factories. He even showed working men how to form a trade union. He was so committed to reform that he spent his fortune on ideas to improve the lives of working people.

often had to work long hours, in dangerous conditions, for a wage that was hardly enough to live on. Sometimes workers tried to go on strike, refusing to work until they were given better wages. The employers fought back by dismissals (getting rid of workers), lock-outs (shutting down their factories for a time) and importing labour (getting other workers from areas where there was unemployment). The workers fought back by forming trade unions, in which all members of a trade promised to strike together and support each other. By the 1840s, thinkers like Karl Marx

Activity 2.11

1 Assess why many industrialists during the Industrial Revolution avoided buying safety equipment.

2 Determine the age at which children should be allowed to start work. Include your reasons in your answer.

3 Imagine you are a child working in a coalmine during the Industrial Revolution. In a short paragraph, describe your day.

4 Explain why Robert Owen's reforms affected the output of his factories.

Conflict: 'capital' versus 'labour'

Workers' conditions during the Industrial Revolution were shaped by the desire of the owners of the new factories to make as much money as possible. Employing hundreds of workers, some owners thought that they needed to pay as little as possible in wages to their workers. The workers

Source 2.43 This painting by Hans Herkomer captures the battle between workers and owners in 1891. The man has gone out on strike, because he supports his trade union. However, it is clear that the strike has not worked, and that the owners are holding out. As weeks go by, the worker's family suffers because he is not earning money. The troubled expression on this man's face shows his conflict between his duty to his trade union and his duty to his family.

were saying that there was a sort of war between the 'capitalists' who owned the factories and the 'labour' who worked for them.

For all working families, life was a struggle and could be ruined by just one event such as the death of the male wage-earner. A fatal accident in a mine or a textile mill could leave a woman and her child without enough money to pay the rent or to buy food. In these situations, families were often evicted from their homes, and left to descend into a life of poverty.

The Poor Law of 1834

The group called 'the poor' was made up of the destitute – or those who could not work because they were elderly, sick or injured – and the unemployed, meaning those who were able to work but could not find a job. Until 1834, there was some support available for both types of poor.

In 1834, a new Poor Law stated that only the 'sick poor' – old people, orphans and the seriously ill – should be given money. The 'able-bodied poor' – healthy unemployed workers – should be forced to search for work. The problem was

Times gone by …

At about the same time as Elizabeth Gaskell was observing the social conditions in her own country, two German political thinkers, Friedrich Engels and Karl Marx, were also looking at the new society created in England by the Industrial Revolution. Engels wrote down his impressions between September 1844 and March 1845, and called them *The Condition of the Working Classes in England, from Personal Observations and Authentic Sources*. People in Germany could read the work by 1845; it was not translated into English until 1887 in America and 1892 in England.

> The houses are occupied from cellar to garret, filthy inside and outside, and their appearance is such that no human being could possibly wish to live in them. The walls are crumbling, doorposts and window frames loose and broken. Heaps of garbage and ashes lie in all directions, and the foul liquids emptied in front of the doors gather in stinking pools. Here live the poorest of the poor … losing daily more and more of their power to resist the demoralising influence of hardship, filth and evil surroundings.

Source 2.44 Engels' impressions after visiting the slum of St Giles in London.

1   Reflect on why people lived in the conditions described by Engels.
2   How do you think the workers could improve their living conditions?

that this assumed that people were unemployed because they did not want to work. It ignored the fact that all economies have an amount of unemployment. The able-bodied poor were forced to live in workhouses, and received only the bare minimum of food.

Poor Law Commissions controlled the workhouses across the country. These commissions instructed that the workhouses must be less attractive than living in poverty; and be made more like prisons. People were humiliated, given harsh discipline and were badly fed. The aim was to make life so miserable that the poor would learn their lesson and go and find work. Many preferred to starve in a cottage than to go to the workhouses, seeing it as a fate worse than death. These ideas cut the cost of poor relief, but at the price of human misery and suffering.

Life in Australia

The Industrial Revolution transformed the world of work for many Australians. The textile and clothing trades, for example, quickly became large industries. By the 1870s, there were several large textile mills in New South Wales and three in Victoria. As in Britain, the growth of these industries in Australia caught the attention of artists, who made images of the great new workplaces and their machines. The engraving reproduced in Source 2.46 depicts the large workshop, its many machines (all driven by the new power of steam) and the top-hatted owner visiting to talk to the foreman.

This picture gives us little information about the lives of the human beings who worked here. These women worked long hours for a small wage. At the Victorian Woollen and Cloth Manufactory in Geelong, for example, all worked a 60-hour week; men were paid a low wage of 35 shillings per week, but women received only 10 shillings. The mill illegally employed children who had run away from school, paying boys 7 shillings and girls 4 shillings a week. Poor families could not resist signing all their members up for work, but their children received no education, and were committed to factory work forever. In these conditions, a worker's health was seriously affected.

> A little girl was brought to me three days ago by her mother, a little worn-out looking thing. She had been in the factory twelve months … already, and she is only thirteen now. She is like a little old woman, pale and shriveled, and suffers from palpitations of the heart.

Source 2.45 A doctor reporting on the state of health of a child patient
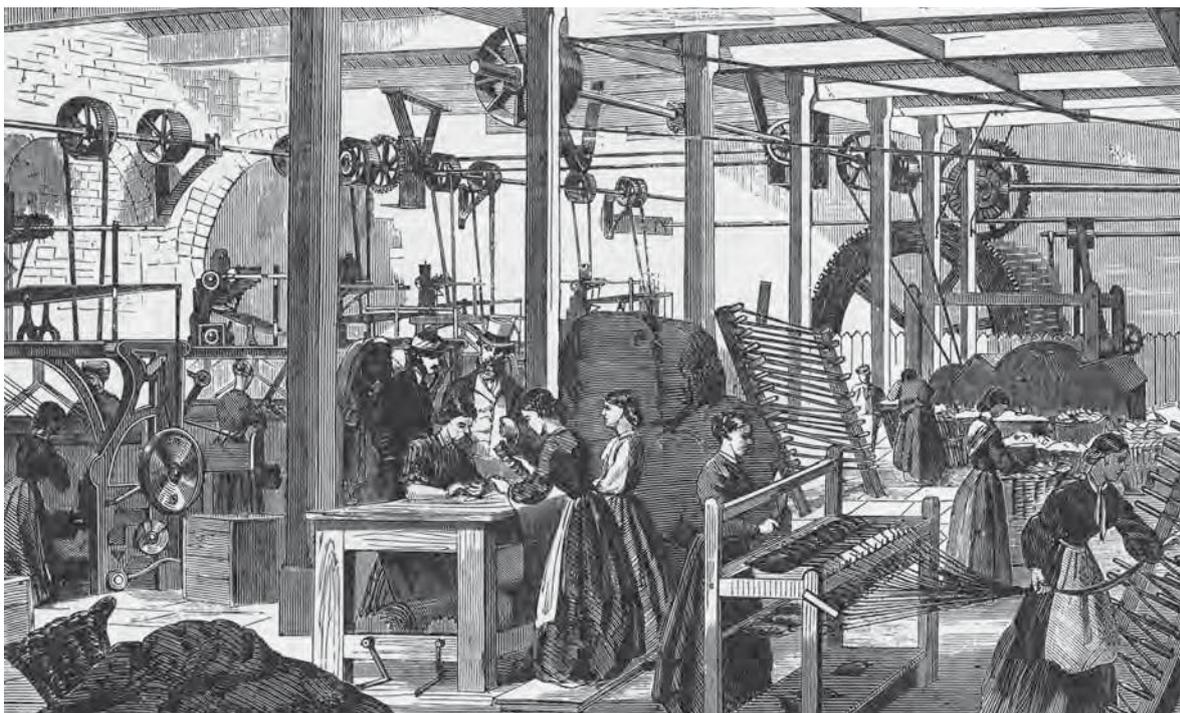
Source 2.46 A typical Australian factory of the period: note that the focus is on machinery rather than people

Times gone by ...

Many writers also visited the great industrial centres of Britain, and some were shocked by the damage done to the previously beautiful English countryside.

Thirty or forty factories rise on the tops of the hills. Their six storeys tower up. The wretched dwellings of the poor are scattered haphazard around them. Round them stretches land uncultivated but without the charm of rustic nature. The soil has been taken away, scratched up and torn in a thousand places. The land is given over to industry's use. Heaps of dung [animal droppings], rubble from buildings, putrid, stagnant pools are found here and there among the houses. On ground below the level of the river and overshadowed on every side by immense workshops, stretches marshy land that widely spaced ditches can neither drain nor cleanse. Narrow twisting roads lead down to it. They are lined with one-storey houses. Below some of their miserable dwellings is a row of cellars to which a sunken corridor leads. Twelve to fifteen human beings are crowded into these damp, repulsive holes. The [rotting] muddy waters of the streams, stained with a thousand colours by the factories they pass wander slowly around this refuge of poverty. This is the River Styx of a new type of Hell. A sort of black smoke covers the city. The sun seen through it is a disc without rays. Under this half-daylight 300 000 human beings are ceaselessly at work. A thousand noises disturb this dark, damp labyrinth, but they are not at all the ordinary sounds one hears in great cities. The footsteps of a busy crowd, the crunching wheels of machinery, the shriek of steam from boilers, the regular beat of the looms, those are the noises you can never escape in the somber half-light of these streets.

Source 2.47 The French historian Alexis de Tocqueville visited Manchester in 1835, and recorded the impact of industry on the landscape.

1 Discuss how the farmland has been damaged by the presence of these new factories.

2 Examine the evidence that shows that the factories have grown more quickly than housing for their workers can be built.

3 Explain why reformers like de Tocqueville were worried to see so many people living in damp cellars.

4 Identify the possible cause of the filthy smoke that covered the sky.

5 Identify the possible cause of the noise pollution that de Tocqueville noticed in Manchester.

6 De Tocqueville blamed these problems on the government for not taking action to prevent this pollution. To what degree does government in Australia have the power to prevent industry from polluting our environment?

Source 2.48 Philip James de Loutherbourg's *Coalbrookedale by Night*: de Loutherbourg visited the iron works and was impressed by the size of the works and the fiery furnaces.

Impact of the Industrial Revolution

Effects of the Industrial Revolution on the environment

By the nineteenth century, it was clear that the Industrial Revolution was having a serious effect on the environment in many parts of England. We know about the environmental impact of the Industrial Revolution because it was recorded by both writers and painters. The quiet countryside of England had been transformed wherever industry had sprung up. Nonetheless, people had quite different ways of seeing the transformation. The English artist Philip James de Loutherbourg, for example, was thrilled by the massive shapes of the new factories, and particularly by the great fires of the furnaces and the energy of the machines. He was one of many painters who went to Coalbrookedale to observe industry at work (see Source 2.47). He showed the factory at night, when the buildings stood out against the red-orange glare of the flames from the furnaces. The result is very dramatic. Even so, he still shows the land in front of the factory as being littered with all sorts of broken machinery.

Long-term impacts

We are all children of the Industrial Revolution. We live in the cities it created, we work in its factories and we use its products. We share the excitement of the inventors and businessmen of that period about technological progress. Many people were aware of the impact of the Industrial Revolution on human beings and on the environment, and some such as Robert Owen were actively concerned about this. Since that time, we have become more aware that increases in production also mean the greater use of the Earth's resources. In particular, production on a large scale requires energy, which originally came from **fossil fuels** such as coal, oil or gas. In our own time, the emission of **greenhouse gases** has begun to affect the climate of the whole Earth in a process known as **global warming**. It might be said that the people of the eighteenth century created the machines and techniques of the Industrial Revolution, and that it is up to our own generation to manage their effects.

Our growing consumption also meant an increase in waste. In the developed countries of the Western world especially, every household creates a large amount of rubbish that becomes **land fill** in rubbish dumps. In Australia, we are only just beginning the process of reducing waste and of recycling wherever possible. If the first chapter of the story of the Industrial Revolution was written by the inventors of the 1750s, it may well be that the last chapter will be written by your own generation.

At the start of the Industrial Revolution, people focused on the wonderful opportunities provided by technology to produce more, and therefore to consume more. Since resources seemed almost endless, both within Britain and across its vast empire, there seemed little need to question how we used them. It is only in more recent times that we have had to face the real possibility that resources such as iron ore and fossil fuels such as coal, oil and gas are finite, and will run out one day.

This story will be completed when we reach the final stage of the Industrial Revolution: **sustainability**, or the ability to make careful and reasonable use of the limited resources on Earth. Human beings first used modern technology to make greater use of the Earth's resources; it is now our task to develop technology so that we may make more intelligent and responsible use of those resources. In the year that this book was written, the population of the Earth reached seven billion, reminding us again how urgent it is to try to develop technology to provide a decent living for all humans.

fossil fuels non-renewable fuels formed by geological pressure over a long time span

greenhouse gases gases such as carbon dioxide that contribute to the insulating effect of the Earth's atmosphere

global warming a rise in the Earth's average temperature due to the atmosphere's inability to release heat because of the growth of greenhouse gas emissions

land fill the disposal of waste by burial

sustainability the ability to replace resources as we consume them

Activity **2.12**

1 Explain why painters like Philip James de Loutherbourg were attracted to Coalbrookedale.

2 List some of the ways we can achieve sustainability:
   • as individuals
   • as a society.

3 Describe some of the technologies that are helping to make the world more sustainable today.

Source 2.49 Industrial pollution contributes to global warming.

Chapter summary

- Changes in technology can improve our lives, and can also completely change the way we live. The period in Britain between about 1750 and 1850 is known as the Industrial Revolution, because it dramatically altered the lives of millions of people in Britain and across the world.

- The greatest change was in the creation of energy. Until now, energy came from human labour, animal labour or from the power of wind or water. When people harnessed the power of steam, and developed a steam-driven engine, they made more power available than ever before.

- Another great change was the increase in the size and efficiency of industries like coalmining and iron making. A number of clever inventors created a series of new machines to increase the speed of production and the quality of output. This coal and iron became the raw materials for further industrial growth.

- A third change occurred in the textile industry, where the introduction of steam engines could drive great machines for the spinning of thread and the weaving of cloth.

- Millions of people left their villages and farms to find work in the new industrial cities. Many workers laboured long hours in dangerous conditions for poor wages. Others found only unemployment and poverty.

- The Industrial Revolution also had an impact on the environment. Existing cities grew larger, and developed poor suburbs known as slums. New industrial cities sprang up near factories, and also had bad living conditions.

- The Industrial Revolution caused social problems that raised debate about issues of social justice and the responsibility of governments to regulate industry with laws such as the *Factory Act*. Writers, artists and analysts all tried to make social problems visible to the general public, and had some success in mobilising public opinion to force governments to take action.

- The Industrial Revolution also transformed life in Australia. Australians were quick to pick up the promise of the steam-driven train and tram, to apply steam engines to their factories, and to use gas and (later) electrical lighting.

- We are still living with the effects of the Industrial Revolution, and are still learning to manage it properly. It is one thing to massively increase production, but another to use resources sustainably and to recycle scarce materials. The final triumph of the Industrial Revolution will occur when coming generations manage to make sustainable use of the Earth's resources.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 James Brindley was an expert in:

   A iron bridge building

   B creating canal systems

   C advanced coalmining techniques

   D advanced ironmaking techniques

2 Ford Madox Brown's contribution to the Industrial Revolution was to create:

   A 'industrial novels' describing social problems

   B reports on the state of workers' housing

   C paintings showing social problems

   D designs for iron bridges

3 James Watt's contribution to the Industrial Revolution was a design for a:

   A canal system

   B blast furnace

   C weaving loom

   D steam engine

4 Which of the following statements about Australia's role in the British Empire is incorrect?

   A Australia was originally intended just as a prison colony.

   B Australia never became a colony for free settlers.

C Australia provided an important market for goods made in Britain.

D Australia became an important source of raw materials for Britain, such as wool.

5 Which of the following statements about the impact of the Industrial Revolution is correct?

A Australia was not affected by the Industrial Revolution until the nineteenth century.

B Australia became an unprofitable place for rich British people to invest their money.

C Australia lacked any good ports to allow it to trade with the British Empire.

D Australian cities were improved by industrial inventions such as gas lighting and electricity.

Short answer

1 Discuss why the invention of the steam engine allowed a whole revolution in industrial production.

2 Discuss why the invention of the industrial canal made such a big difference to the development of the Industrial Revolution.

3 Explain the move from the cottage system to the factory system.

4 Why did the Industrial Revolution cause social problems in Britain? Provide examples to explain your answer.

5 Explain how the Industrial Revolution changed life and work in Australia.

Source analysis

In the 1880s, the English writer George Sims began to explore the poor areas of London, and was horrified by the misery he saw. He published his notes in his books *How the Poor Live* and *Horrible London*.

> To the particular door … there comes a poor woman. White and thin and sickly looking; in her arms she carries a girl of eight or nine with a diseased spine; behind her, clutching at her scanty [thin] dress, are two or three other children. We ask to see the room. What a room! The poor woman apologises for its condition. The walls are damp and crumbling, the ceiling is black and peeling off, the floor is rotten and breaking away in places, and the wind and the rain sweep in through gaps that seem everywhere. The woman, her husband and six children live, eat and sleep in this one room, and for this they pay three shillings a week. As to complaining about the filthy condition of the room, they know better. There are a dozen families who will jump at the accommodation, and the landlord is well aware of the fact.

Source 2.50 Sims describes visiting a filthy room in which a whole family had to live.

1 Why would living in this room have been unhealthy for the family Sims visited? In your answer, quote evidence from his notes.

2 Consider why the 8-year-old girl might have had a 'diseased spine'.

3 Why does the landlord (owner of the building) know that he does not have to make any repairs?

4 In modern Australia, identify what sorts of laws try to protect people from bad living conditions like this.

Extended response

Despite appearing to promise great benefits by industrial progress, the Industrial Revolution has done more harm than good.

Do you agree with this statement? Explain some of the benefits of the Industrial Revolution. Explain the problems it caused. Decide whether it has in fact done more harm than good. In your answer, quote facts and figures, names and dates, and statistics.

3

Movement of peoples (1750–1901)
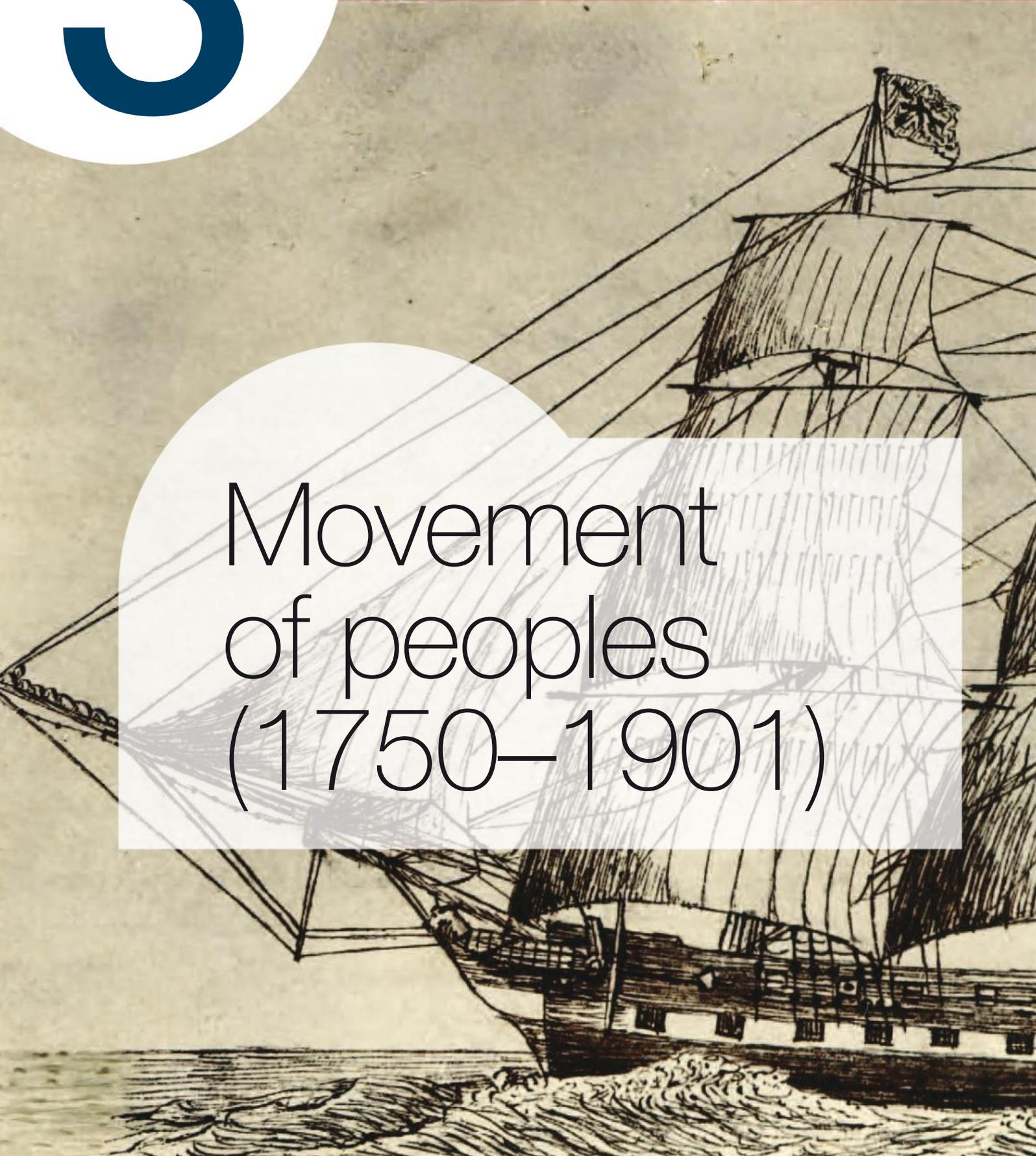
Source 3.1 HMS *Buffalo* was one of the many ships that carried people across the world in this era.

Before you start

Main focus

This period saw millions of people – enslaved people, convicts and free settlers – moving from Europe, Africa and Asia to the New World, where they developed new wealth and new markets. Growing racist ideas led to laws restricting the movement of Chinese, Indian, indigenous, Melanesian and Japanese people.

Why it's relevant today

Studying the history of migration helps us to understand the distribution of peoples in the world today, and why people migrate or become refugees. With this understanding, we can learn how ordinary people built the world economy, and how migration affected racial prejudice.

Inquiry questions

- What differences were there between the causes for various peoples migrating and the different ways (free and unfree) they travelled? How were they similar?
- How did the movement of slaves, convicts and free settlers contribute to the economic development of the world?
- How can we know about the feelings and experiences of the migrants?
- What is the legacy of these population movements for the world today?

Key terms

- chattel slavery
- indentured labour
- pogrom
- xenophobia
- diaspora
- middle passage
- protection
- girmit
- New World
- segregation

Significant individuals

- Mackay family
- Olaudah Equiano
- Totaram Sanadhya
- Mary Prince
- Ottobah Cugoano
- Mary Thomas
- Susannah Watson

Let's begin

The Industrial Revolution led to a demand for raw materials for European factories and to a great demand for labour to produce those raw materials in the New World of the Americas, and the European colonies in Australasia, Africa and Asia. The Atlantic slave trade saw millions of Africans captured and forcibly deported to the Americas. With the abolition of British slavery in 1833, cheap labour was supplied by Indian indentured workers, who signed up for five years' work, often on a sugar plantation. Gold seekers, many of them Chinese, flocked to the goldfields in California and Australia. Later millions of Europeans left lives of poverty to seek their fortunes in the New World. They developed agriculture, commerce and industry in the New World. The goods they produced were vital to the development of capitalism on a global scale. This helped to devastate the cultures and economies of indigenous peoples in the New World. The migrants created multicultural societies around the world.
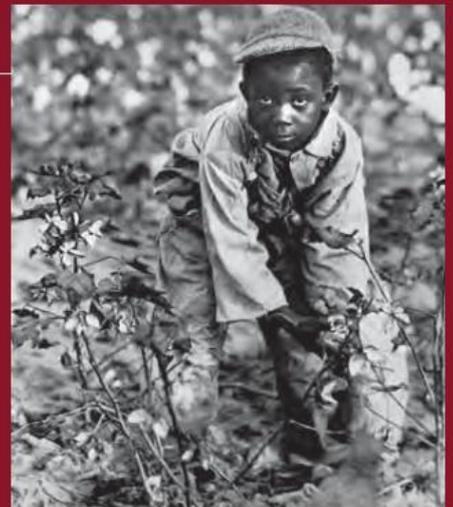
Source 3.2 A young boy picking cotton on a South Carolina cotton field

Source 3.3 Former penal settlement, Norfolk Island

Source 3.4 Migrants arriving at Ellis Island, New York, in the early 20th century

Source 3.5 The Great Exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations, Crystal Palace, London, 1851

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS

1700

Ottobah Cugoano is **c. 1770** transported to England

Britain begins to colonise **1788** Australia

1800

Mary Prince is sold at auction **1800**

Slaves rebel in Haiti **1804**

Slave trade is abolished in the **1807** British Empire

Slavery is abolished across the **1833** British Empire

First Indians are indentured for **1834** overseas labour

Africaine brings free settlers to **1836** South Australia

The Irish Potato Famine begins **1846**

1850

Highland crofters like the **1850s** Mackay family come to Australia

Kidnapping of South Sea **1863** Islanders to work in Queensland begins

Slavery is abolished in the **1865** United States

Chinese Exclusion Act is passed **1882** in the United States

1900

Southern and eastern **1880–1910** Europeans begin mass migration to the United States

Indentured labour is abolished **1917** across the British Empire

WORLD EVENTS

1775–83 American Revolution

1789–92 French Revolution

1791–1804 Haitian Revolution

1814–15 Napoleon Bonaparte is defeated

1839–42 First Opium War between Britain and China

1850–64 Taiping Rebellion in China

1850s Gold rushes begin in the United States and Australia

1854 Eureka Stockade in Australia

1861–65 US Civil War

1894 Women gain the vote in South Australia

1901 Australian states are joined in a federation

1901 The *Immigration Restriction Act* is passed in Australia

1914–18 World War I
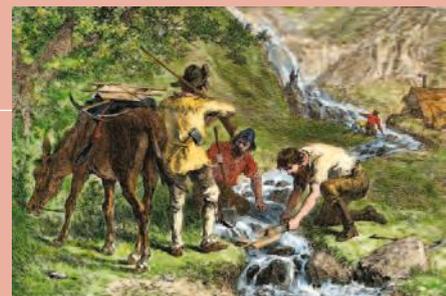
Source 3.6 Prospectors searching for gold during California gold rush

Source 3.7 William Wilberforce, who was instrumental in abolishing the slave trade in Britain and its colonies

Source 3.8 The barque *Africaine* buffeted in the waters of the Indian Ocean

Source 3.9 Chinese prospector in the California gold fields

Empires

England/UK
France
Portugal
Spain
Russia/USSR

Ottoman Empire/Turkey
Denmark
Netherlands
United States

Belgium
Italy
Germany
Japan
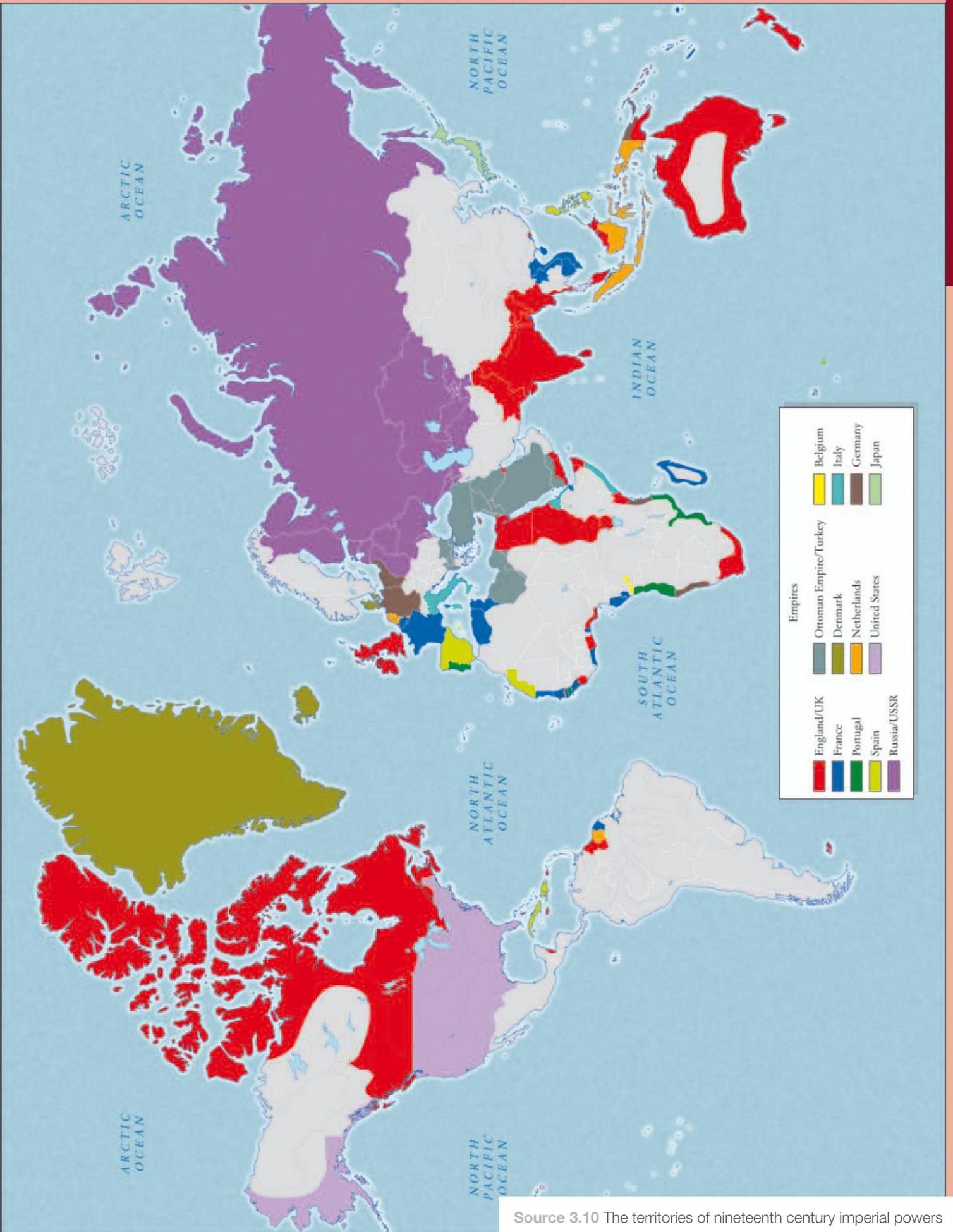
Source 3.10 The territories of nineteenth century imperial powers

Influence of the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution saw Europe grow in wealth and power relative to the rest of the world. The European population grew rapidly at this time and with industrialisation generated a demand for raw materials such as cotton, and for food such as sugar and grains. These were produced in the Americas, often with slave labour, and also in Australia and New Zealand. Metals, such as copper from Chile and Australia, were imported to Europe for industrial use.

The Atlantic slave economy, which grew from the sixteenth century, helped to create the wealth that enabled Britain to become the first industrial nation. The demand for cotton to make clothing stimulated production. US cotton production grew from 1.5 million pounds weight in 1790 to 35 million pounds in 1800, and then 160 million pounds in 1820. This brought new areas such as Alabama, Mississippi and Texas into production and saw more Native Americans lose their lands. After the abolition of slavery, **capitalists** looked elsewhere for cheap labour and the system of **indentured labour** was expanded.

capitalists business people who seek profit by using others' labour

indentured labour a system in which workers enter contracts to perform labour at reduced wages for a certain period of time, usually at a place far from their home

More land was also used for food production. Between 1860 and 1920, more than one billion acres of new land in the United States, Canada, Australia and Argentina was brought into agricultural use. This deprived indigenous peoples of the use of the land, damaging their cultures and causing large numbers of deaths. In the new settler societies growing in Australia, Canada, Argentina and the United States, there were great opportunities for Europeans – especially the poor – to migrate and to make a better life for themselves and their descendants. Between 1850 and 1914, net migration from Europe amounted to 50 million people; half of them went to the United States, which by the later nineteenth century was becoming an industrial giant.

European exports of cotton goods, guns, metal goods and other items grew and flowed to Africa, Australia and the Americas. The export of cotton goods was important for both the buying of slaves in Africa and for the clothing of enslaved Africans toiling in plantations in Cuba, Brazil, the Caribbean and the United States.

European **imperialism** brought great areas of the globe under European political control. The demand for cheap raw materials for industry – such as copper, cotton, rubber, palm oil, cocoa, diamonds, tea and tin – saw great areas of Africa grabbed by European powers in a late-nineteenth-century colonial scramble. These colonies also became markets for European manufactured goods, which resulted in the extinction of local goods production. By 1900, 80 per cent of the world was under direct European control or the control of people of European backgrounds, such as in Australia and the United States.

imperialism the domination of one or more nation by another, which seeks to use the wealth and people of the dominated nation for its own interests

As European wealth and political power grew, Europeans began to believe that they were unique or special. They developed ideas that Europeans, and especially northern Europeans, were superior to peoples from other parts of the world. European thinkers worked out a table of the value of humanity, which placed Europeans at the top and indigenous peoples in their colonies at the bottom. Indigenous peoples' inability to withstand the force of the modern European

HISTORICAL FACT

In 1700, the average annual British sugar consumption was 1.8kg. This grew to 8kg in 1800, 16kg in 1850 and over 45kg in 1900.

weapons was seen as a sign of their inferiority. By the end of the century, it was seen as the destiny and the right of white men and white women to dominate the world. This way of thinking was useful to Europeans as it justified their subjection of African and Asian peoples in European colonies and the devastation of indigenous peoples.

Activity 3.1

Examine the map of the world (see Source 3.10) and identify the places discussed in this chapter from which migrants departed; for example, West Africa, India, South Sea Islands (Melanesia), Europe and China. Also identify the places to which migrants went; for example, North America, South America, the Caribbean, Fiji, Malaya, Natal (South Africa), East Africa, Sri Lanka, Europe, Australia and New Zealand.

Era of mass migration

Types of migration

The period 1750–1901 was one of great **diasporas**, as people moved across the globe. Enslaved people were taken from Africa to the Americas, North and South, and the Caribbean islands. Millions of Indians migrated as indentured labourers, agreeing to work with the right of return and freedom after some years. Many were free settlers who chose when and where to migrate

diaspora the forced or voluntary movement of people from their homeland to new regions

and could travel in relative comfort. But many seen as free settlers had no real choice and left lives of poverty and hardship, political oppression or religious persecution for the hope of a better life. On arrival, many had to repay all or part of their fares from their earnings before they could start to build new lives.

The Atlantic slave trade

The Atlantic slave trade saw millions of Africans enslaved and shipped to a life of servitude in North and South America (the Americas). It began in the sixteenth century and continued until the mid nineteenth century. In the eighteenth century about six million Africans were enslaved, along with another four million during the nineteenth century. The trade was part of a triangle of capitalist shipping around the Atlantic. Manufactured goods such as guns and textiles were shipped to the west coast of Africa and traded for slaves. The slaves were loaded into ships and sent across the Atlantic to provide labour for plantations in the Caribbean and the Americas. These plantations produced sugar, cotton, tobacco, rice, indigo and coffee. In turn these raw materials, particularly cotton and sugar, were taken to Western Europe for refining, manufacture and consumption, and then sent on via the trade triangle to Africa.

Capture

Slavery was long established in Africa. Slaves were commonly taken to Arab countries, and from the mid fifteenth century to Portugal and other parts of Europe. But the huge demand for labour in the Americas in the eighteenth century intensified African slavery and changed it to a harsher and more brutal system. Africans were captured by other Africans, chained and forced to walk many kilometres to the coast, where they were branded with hot irons and imprisoned in forts before leaving for America. Many died after capture and in the forts. Strong and healthy young people were valuable to the slavers as they could have a long working life ahead of them.

Source 3.11 The triangular trade

☛ *Note this down*

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise in each box the goods imported and exported in the triangular trade.

To Britain

To Americas

From Britain

To Africa

From Americas

From Africa

The Middle Passage

Slaves were crowded onto slave ships where they were chained and made to lie on their backs. The trip across the Atlantic Ocean was long and dangerous. Conditions were often filthy and

mortality rate the measure of total deaths in relation to a total population

when disease spread among the slaves, the living could stay chained to the dead for days on end. There was a high **mortality rate** on these voyages and the sick could be thrown overboard to stop the disease spreading among the other slaves. Those who survived this horrific journey were then prepared for sale. They were washed and shaved and sometimes oil was put on their skin to make them appear healthy. Some treated the slaves better, but only to attract a higher price for them at sale.

Olaudah Equiano was born in 1745 in a village in what is now Nigeria. At 11 years of age he was captured and sold into slavery, ending up on the Caribbean island of Barbados. He managed to buy his own freedom when he was aged about 21 years and then worked as a writer, **merchant** and explorer in the Caribbean, South America, the Arctic, the American colonies and in Great

merchant a person who buys and sells goods

Britain. In Britain he was a popular speaker about the evils of slavery. His autobiography *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, of Gustavas Vassa, the African* (1789) was important in converting people to the anti-slavery movement. In later life he worked for the good of African people.

Equiano recalled that when he arrived in the West Indies, 'many merchants and planters came on board and examined us. We were then taken to the merchant's yard, where we were all pent up together like sheep in a fold. On a signal the buyers rushed forward and chose those slaves they liked best'.

Working lives

Sugar plantations needed lots of labourers to do heavy manual work: clearing the forests, planting, harvesting cane and processing the sugar. Field labourers had the hardest jobs and could work 18 hours a day, six days a week in the fields, watched
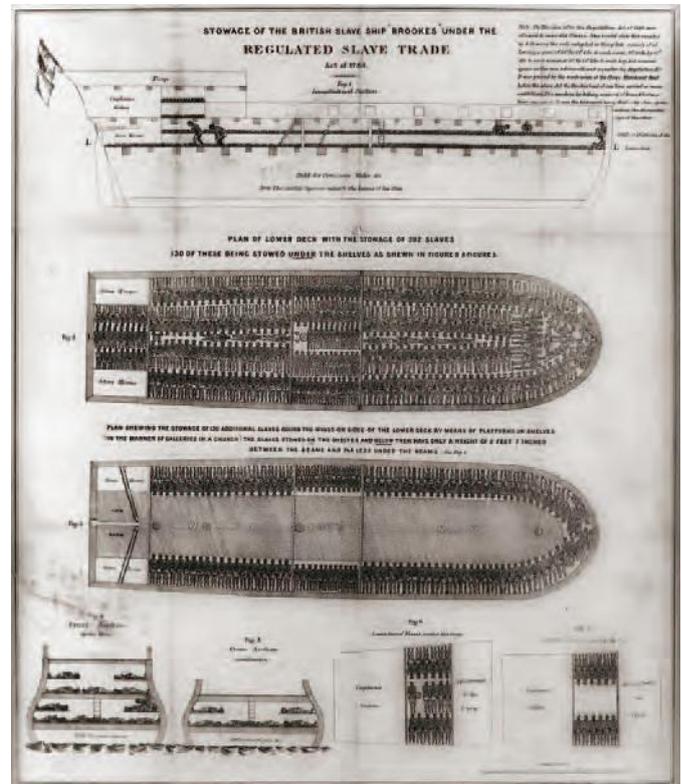
Source 3.12 Slaves tightly crowded in a late-eighteenth-century slave ship

by the slave driver. Children and pregnant women worked at **hoeing**, weeding and carrying water. In Brazil they were on the coffee plantations, while in Peru slaves worked as miners. House slaves lived in the master's or mistress's house and were on duty all day and night; they would cook, clean and look after children.

hoeing using a long-handled tool to dig the earth

Chattel slaves

Slaves had no rights; they had become things or **chattels** owned by others. They could not even keep their family with them. They and their children could be sold or given away. Mary Prince was born into an enslaved family in Bermuda in about 1788. When she was aged 12, she and her sisters were sold.

chattel a movable property or slave

The sale master, 'took me by the hand, and led me out into the middle of the street, and, turning me slowly round, exposed me to the view of those who attended the sale. I was soon surrounded by
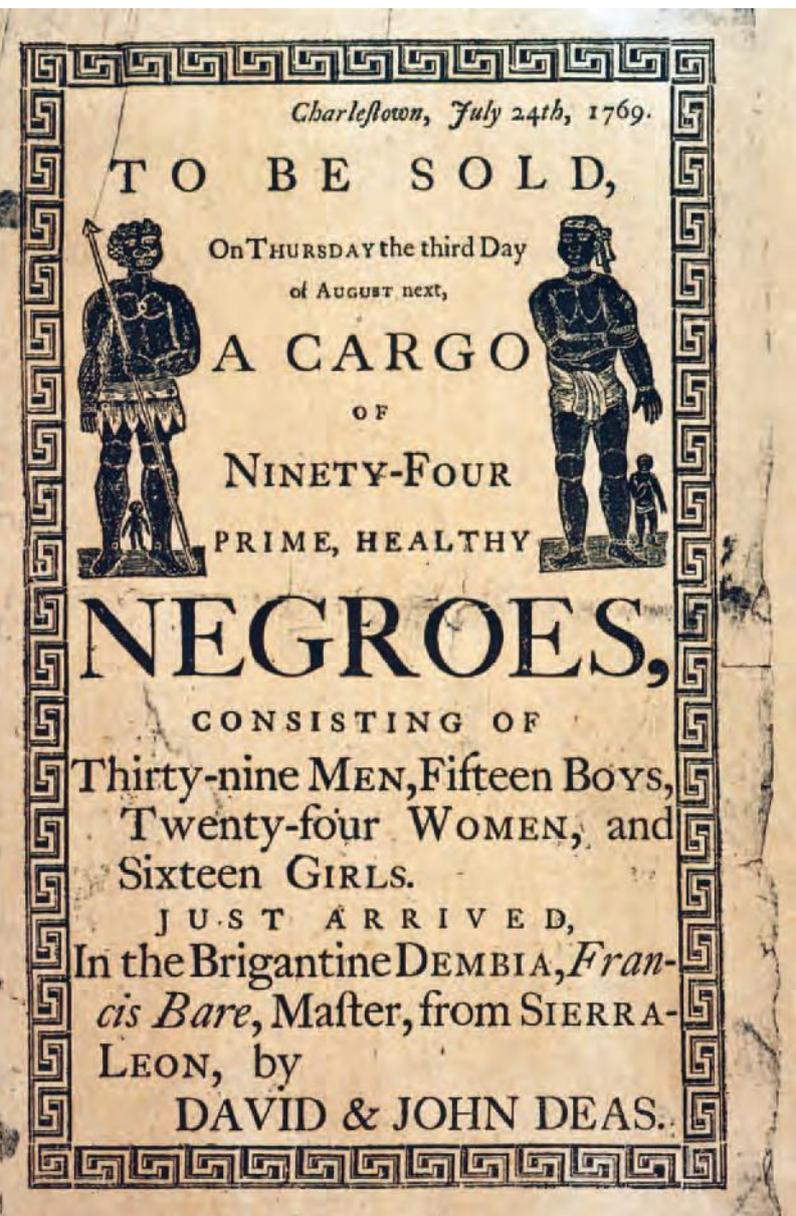
Source 3.13 Advertisement for a slave auction in Charleston, South Carolina, 1769

Source 3.14 Portrait of Olaudah Equiano

Punishment

Her new owner made Mary Prince work in the house and the fields, and she was often flogged: 'To strip me naked – to hang me up by the wrists and lay my flesh open with the cow-skin, was an ordinary punishment for even a slight offence.' Slave owners severely punished any slaves who were disobedient, careless or tried to escape. Those suspected of plotting a revolt were treated brutally. This is how the slave owners kept control.

Abolition of slavery

Slaves had always resisted their condition and had revolted against their owners from time to time. In 1804, slaves in the French **colony** of Saint Dominigue rebelled and set up the republic of Haiti, the first black republic in the world. The Haitian rebellion stands out in history because it achieved permanent independence for its enslaved peoples. In Britain and the United States, former slaves wrote and spoke about

colony a settlement formed in conquered territory

strange men, who examined and handled me in the same manner that a butcher would a calf or a lamb he was about to purchase. The bidding started at a few pounds, and gradually rose to 57. The people who stood by said that I had fetched a great sum for so young a slave. I then saw my sisters led forth, and sold to different owners. When the sale was over, my mother hugged and kissed us, and mourned over us, begging us to keep a good heart. It was a sad parting; one went one way, one another'.

their experiences. These included Mary Prince, Ottobah Cugoano and Olaudah Equiano. Their publications and their activism in anti-slavery organisations, such as the Sons of Africa, were important in changing public opinion.

In the United States, Harriet Beecher Stowe's best-selling novel, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, published in 1852, was an important tool for the abolitionists. Antislavery activists campaigned against the sugar that slave owners sold. James Wright, an English **Quaker**, announced in 1791 that he would sell no sugar grown by slaves.

> **Quaker** a member of a Christian group, the Society of Friends, often involved in humanitarian campaigns and opposed to war

Quakers, Unitarians and some other Christians argued that slavery was immoral. William Wilberforce told the British Parliament in 1789 that they were all responsible for slavery: 'I mean to take the shame upon myself, in common indeed with the whole Parliament of Great Britain, for having suffered this horrid trade to be carried on under their authority. We are all guilty – we ought all to plead guilty.'

Women formed anti-slavery societies, putting anti-slavery slogans on their handbags and mottos on their sugar bowls such as 'sugar not made by slaves'. This led to **boycotts** of slave-grown sugar. Although many Europeans and Americans profited from slavery, gradually public opinion turned against slavery. Industry and changes in the economy were most important. Slavery was seen as no longer profitable;

> **boycott** the refusal to buy goods, usually for political reasons

free and more mobile labour was required. The British government abolished the slave trade in 1807, but slavery itself was only abolished in the British Empire in 1833. Other powers like France (1818), the Ottoman Empire (1847) and the United States (1865) abolished slavery at various dates.

Costs and benefits

Slavery debased all involved: those who were sold and brutalised, and those who owned the slaves and whipped them. Africa lost millions of young and strong people over the centuries. This affected the economic growth and development of the continent and the standards of living of the African peoples. African slavers also benefited from selling slaves.

The New World of the Americas benefited greatly from the supply of free labour. The slaves cleared forests and jungles, developed agriculture and worked to process raw materials in sugar mills, tobacco mills and cotton factories. These were particularly fruitful crops in the southern United States, but required back-breaking work, which allowed the slave trade to thrive. The clearing of the land helped to destroy the way of life of Native Americans.

In Britain and Europe, factory owners acquired a good supply of raw materials and bankers' profits grew as they financed the building of new ships and factories. Ship-owners could make a profit of 20–50 per cent on supplying and selling slaves, and ports such as Bristol, Liverpool and

Activity **3.2**

1 Construct a list of the dangers the slaves had survived by the time they arrived in the Americas.

2 Both Olaudah Equiano and Mary Prince describe being sold. Compare and contrast their accounts.

3 Write an account from the point of view of either Olaudah or Mary.

EAST INDIA SUGAR.

By six families using East India instead of West India Sugar one Slave less is required: surely to release a fellow-creature from a state of cruel bondage and misery, by so small a sacrifice, is worthy the attention of all.

N.B. The labour of one Slave produces about Ten Cwt. of Sugar annually.

J. Blackwell, Printer, Iris Office, Sheffield.
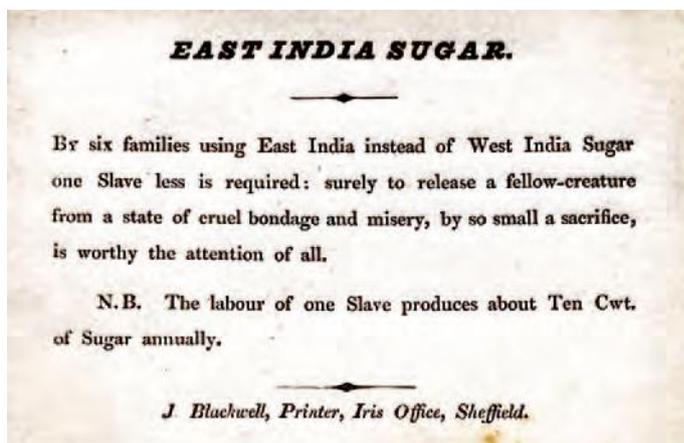
Source 3.15 A copy of an historical anti-slavery advertisement, issued around 1825–33

Lisbon prospered on the slave trade. Ordinary people could afford to buy sugar and cheap cotton clothing.

The 200th anniversary of the abolition of the British slave trade in 1807 was celebrated in 2007, and prompted historians to research the economic benefits of centuries of slave labour to countries like Britain and the United States. They are coming to understand how it has contributed to the dominance and power of Western countries. To remember the slaves' suffering, some people have organised **pilgrimages** and processions.

pilgrimage a religious journey to a sacred place

Queensland slave trade

Even though slavery was abolished in the British Empire in the 1830s, people were still being captured and enslaved. In the early 1860s, Polynesians in the eastern and central Pacific were captured and taken to Peru to work in the guano mines. During the 1860s, there was a demand for cheap labour for plantations in the colonies of Fiji and Queensland. Ship captains could profit from capturing South Sea Islanders, especially young men, and taking them to Fiji and Queensland to sell them to sugar planters. Their ships operated in Melanesian waters, around the New Hebrides and Solomon Islands. This was termed 'blackbirding'. From 1863 to 1875, about 10 500 islanders were kidnapped and taken to work in Queensland.

How were Islanders kidnapped?

The 'blackbirders' used force and trickery to get the islanders on board their ships. Islanders were often curious about the ships that appeared off the coast, and paddled canoes out to see the ship and to sell fruit and fresh fish. European sailors would smash or sink their canoes and take the islanders on board, or they might entice them with beads and axes. Sometimes sailors would show islanders over their ship and, once they were in the hold, lock them in. Where people had been visited by missionaries, they were sometimes tricked to come out to the ship with news that there was a bishop on board. Raiding parties would go ashore and take people from the beaches or near their
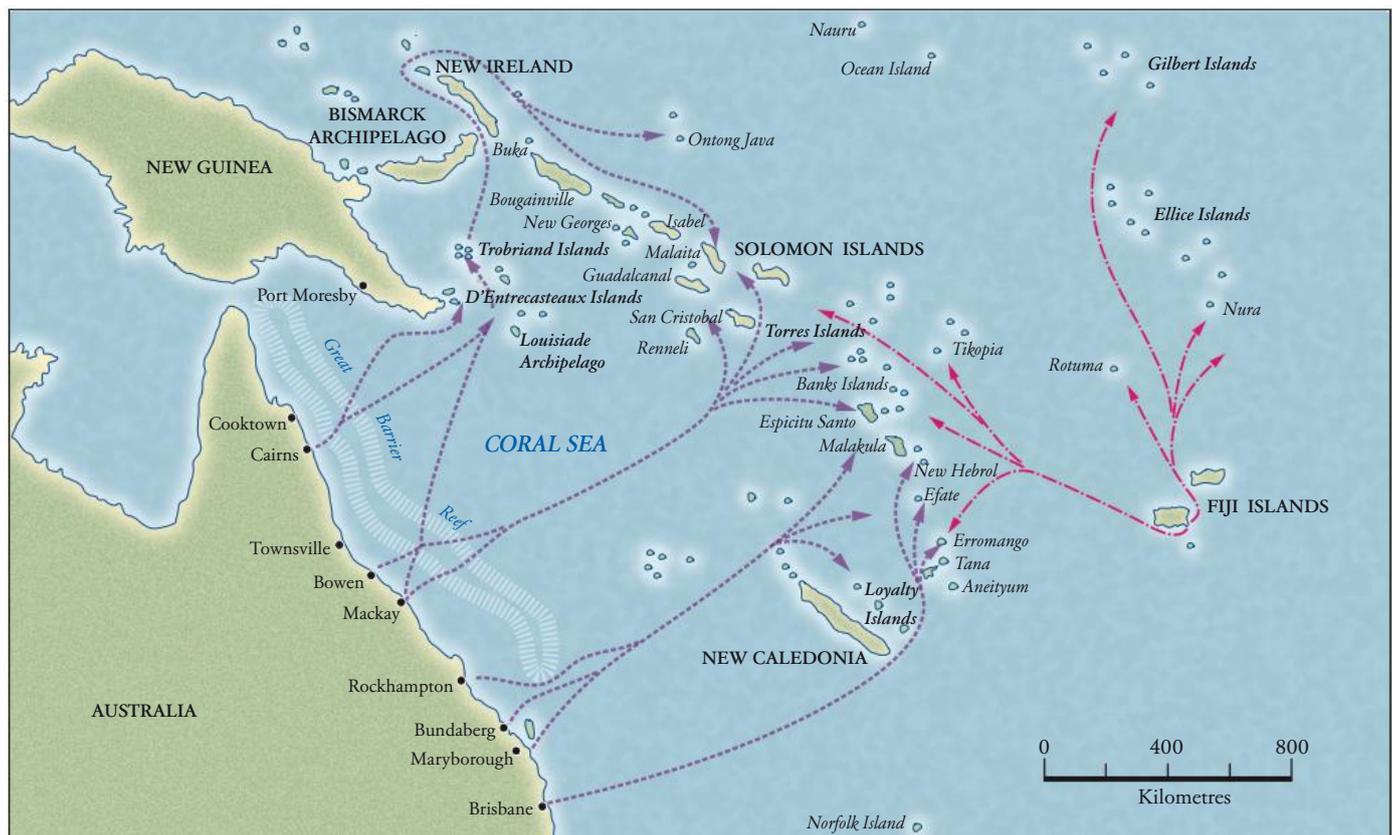
Source 3.16 Slave recruiters' routes in the Pacific Ocean, including ports in Queensland

villages. When people tried to defend themselves and escape, the superior firepower of guns usually won out. On a few occasions, when ships came later on, some islanders tricked the recruiters by enticing them away from the shore and then attacking them with guns. In 1883, Captain Belbin of the *Borough Belle* was murdered on Ambrym (today part of Vanuatu) by islanders angry about the kidnapping of a young boy.

Dangers of the voyage

Once imprisoned in the hold, the terrified islanders had no idea where they were going. It was 1600 kilometres to Queensland. They could not speak the English of their captors nor the languages of captives from other islands. The food on board was strange and the drinking water might be foul. Some captives were injured and others became sick. The dead were just thrown over the side.

The recruiters were greedy and brutal. In 1871, James Patrick Murray, a Victorian doctor and owner of the brig *Carl*, and the ship's Captain Armstrong captured people from different islands. When these men began to fight and tried to set the boat on fire, Murray fired into the hold, killing sixty islanders and injuring others. The dead and wounded were thrown overboard. When news of this voyage became widely known, Captain Armstrong and some crew were put on trial. Armstrong was sentenced to death, which was decreased to penal servitude for life. Murray escaped prosecution by presenting as a witness against his own employees.

Activity **3.3**

1   List the ways in which the islanders were captured.

2   Discuss why slavers wanted to recruit young people.

3   Recall what sentence Captain Armstrong received for killing and injuring islanders.

Arriving in Queensland

In Queensland, the islanders were sold to planters and forced to work long hours in the cane fields. They had to learn English and get used to different foods. Those who worked for inland struggled to cope with the different climate, especially the cold nights. They had no way of contacting their families and had to try to survive in an alien place.

pastoralists

pastoralists people who run sheep and cattle on large landholdings

Being indentured

From the mid 1870s, the Queensland slave trade of Pacific Islanders was replaced by a more regulated system of indenture, where islanders agreed to work in Australia for a fixed period of time. Many people argued that it continued some of the worst features of slavery. Some Queenslanders, whose grandparents were indentured, have stories of their capture that are stories of kidnapping. Between 1859 and 1900, more than 100 000 Pacific Islanders were recruited. Most (62 500) went to Queensland, and others went throughout the Pacific Ocean to Fiji, New Caledonia, Tahiti, Samoa and Hawaii, while about 5000 went to Peru and Guatemala in South America. Unlike slaves, indentured workers were free once their period of indenture had ended and their children were born free. Indentured workers were supposed to be able to return to their homes at the end of their contract.

Transportation of convicts to Australia

In 1788, the British established the colony of New South Wales at Botany Bay. This was a convict or penal settlement and the 759 convicts and their jailers were the first non-Indigenous settlers of the southern continent. In all, 162 000 convicts were sent to Australia by the British government between 1788 and 1868. Prisons in England were overpopulated and those not belonging to the middle or upper classes were often unable to survive due to a lack of employment opportunities that arose out of the Industrial Revolution. Only 15 per cent of the convicts were women. In 1804, convicts were sent to Van Diemen's Land (now Tasmania) and later to Victoria, Queensland and Western Australia.

The convict system was the basis of British colonisation of Australia and changed the lives of Australian Indigenous peoples. Transportation halfway around the world also had a great impact upon the lives of the individual convicts. For some it led to a life of misery, and even resulted in death, and for others it led to a more comfortable and happy life than they could have had in Britain.

The settlement led to the taking of Aboriginal land. With the convicts, soldiers and settlers came diseases to which Indigenous people had no defence – including typhoid, influenza and smallpox – and which caused many deaths. Many other Indigenous people were killed in brutal clashes with the military, convicts and explorers.

The next hundred years saw Indigenous peoples thrust out of their country, driven out of habitable land, and shot, poisoned and massacred as British settlers claimed land for building, agriculture, grazing and mining.
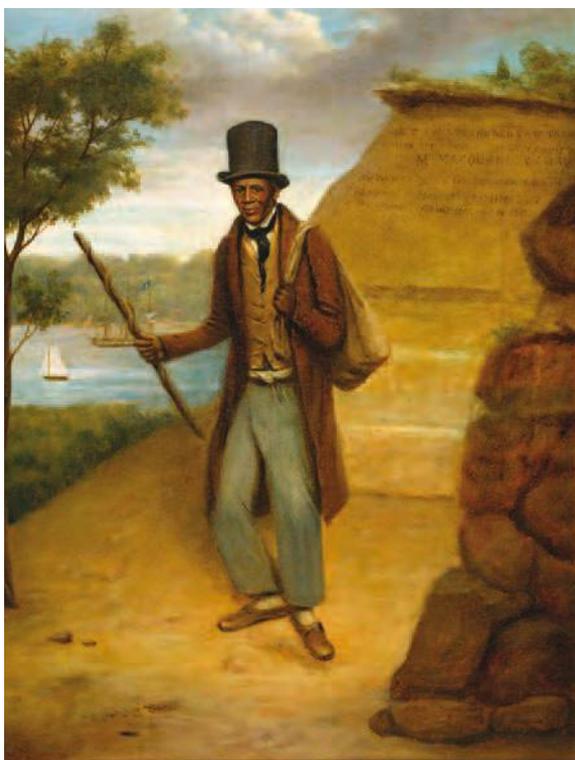
Source 3.17 Billy Blue (c. 1738–1834) was a free-born African-American who served in the British navy from the 1850s in Quebec, in Europe and in the American War of Independence. Later convicted of theft in Britain, he was transported to New South Wales in 1801. Freed in 1803, he ran a ferry service across Sydney Harbour, where Blue's Point is named after him.

Who were the convicts?

Most convicts were from England and Wales, with about a quarter from Ireland. Many of the convicts were young urban people who were convicted of theft and were sentenced to seven or 14 years' transportation to Botany Bay. For stealing a coat, you had to leave home and your family, perhaps forever. Before going to Australia, prisoners were kept on old ships, or hulks. There, some made a keepsake or love token for those they were leaving behind. On a coin, one person engraved the message, 'Dear Wife When you this see remember mee [sic] When I am far away from the[e] John 1836'.

Not all the convicts were English, Welsh or Irish. Around 800 convicts were of African or Indian descent. Australia's first bushranger, Black Caesar (1764–96) was probably born a slave in the American colonies, leaving with the British forces that freed him. But he was sentenced in Kent in 1786 and arrived in New South Wales with the First Fleet on the convict ship *Alexander* in January 1788.

Convict ships

Convicts made the long journey to Australia confined for up to 159 days in small ships such as the *Surry*, which was only 36 metres long and 9 metres wide. The voyage was a strange experience for convicts who had not been at sea before. Most were angry and sad at leaving family and home, but a few were happy to join relatives or sweethearts already transported. Convicts were usually allowed on deck for short periods. However, the conditions on the Second Fleet, which arrived in 1790, were terrible. The ships were damp and disease raged among the prisoners, who were confined below decks. Many were not given enough food, and 247 men and 11 women died before the ships finally arrived at Sydney. Most of the remaining passengers were very sick on arrival.

Government regulations required that prisoners should be fed adequately and allowed to exercise on the deck, and that they and the ship should be cleaned and fumigated regularly. Where officers were negligent and careless, standards were inferior. Ships stopped for more provisions at Rio de Janeiro or the Cape of Good Hope. The sight

of land must have been welcome, but prisoners were not allowed ashore.

After 1815, naval surgeons were appointed to each ship, and on well-organised ships conditions were better. Naval surgeons refused to take sick, frail and elderly prisoners who could not stand the rigours of the trip. Surgeons' pay and return passage were dependent on the delivery of healthy convicts. Prisoners were divided into groups to receive rations and do their own cooking. Many prisoners ate better and more regularly than before their imprisonment. The weekly rations for the women prisoners on the *Princess Royal* in 1829 included beef, pork or plum pudding for dinner each day, pea soup several times, a pot of gruel with butter and sugar for breakfast, 350 grams of biscuit each day, and tea and sugar. Lime juice and red wine were given to combat scurvy. These women were allowed on deck from time to time.

Source 3.18 A twentieth-century artist's impression of the arrival of the convict ship *Surry* in Sydney Harbour

Discipline was strict and harsh on all convict ships. Where mutiny was threatened or prisoners were disobedient, they could be chained and flogged. Where male and female convicts were transported on the same ship, many formed sexual relationships and women could arrive pregnant in the colony. After 1829, male and female prisoners sailed on separate ships. Sometimes female prisoners formed relationships with sailors. Often there was no protection for female prisoners from sailors who forced their attention on them. Some women convicts formed relationships with sailors because they could provide them with rum or extra provisions. Sometimes they had families with these sailors when they settled in the colonies.

Work and punishment in the colonies

Convict labour was used to establish colonies in Australia. Shortly after arrival they would be assigned to an employer. They might work on a farm under the orders of the farmer and receive food, clothing and accommodation. They also worked for the government; for example, making bricks and building roads and harbours. Women might do farm work or house work. If they failed to follow orders or stole, they might receive further punishment. Women could be punished by having their heads shaven. Sometimes women were flogged. In 1791, Lieutenant Ralph Clark ordered Catherine White and Mary Higgins to be flogged 50 times. After 15 strokes, Catherine fainted and the doctor said she should have no more. Mary Higgins was flogged 26 times but Clark excused her from the rest because she was an old woman.

Women who committed a crime also could be sent to the Female Factory in Parramatta, which was like a prison. Convict women were also sent there to have their babies. On arrival, women were often sent directly to the Female Factory where they worked all day and lived communally at night in sparse surroundings. Later, they might be employed as domestics and taken from the factory to live as a mistress or even marry and raise a family with a settler. There was no sentence to serve; instead they were taken as needed to work by the male population.

Male convicts could receive severe floggings. Alexander Harris witnessed this at Bathurst Court House in the 1820s: 'I had to go past the triangles, where they had been flogging incessantly for hours. The scourger's foot had worn a deep hole in the ground by the violence with which he whirled himself round on it to strike the quivering and wealed back, out of which stuck the sinews, white, ragged and swollen … I know of several poor creatures who had been entirely crippled for life by these merciless floggings'. Indigenous people were disgusted at the intracultural violence, which could be described as savage, barbaric and primitive.

Secondary punishment

Male convicts who re-offended could be sent to a place of secondary punishment such as Norfolk Island, Newcastle, Macquarie Harbour or Moreton Bay. One of the worst places was at Macquarie Harbour in south-west Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), where the narrow entrance to the harbour was known as 'Hell's Gates'. The punishments were severe and a cat-o'-nine tails (see Source 3.19) was used to flog the prisoners.

Gentlemen convicts

Not all convicts were flogged. Gentlemen convicts were well treated unless they committed further crimes. Francis Greenway, for example, had useful skills as an architect. He had been sentenced to 14 years for forgery in 1814, but he was soon able to set up his own architect's business and his work included government buildings in Sydney. His wife and children joined him in Australia, and in 1819 he was freed by the governor, who granted him 324 hectares of land.

Source 3.19 The cat-o'-nine tails, a whip of nine plaited cords, was used to flog convicts

Activity **3.4**

1 Explain what happened to prisoners when mutiny was threatened or prisoners were disobedient on convict ships.

2 Recall another form of punishment for women besides being flogged.

3 On a map of Australia, mark the places where convicts were sent and the places of secondary punishment.

HISTORICAL FACT

One of the most frequently flogged prisoners was Thomas Brookes, a convict at Port Jackson, Newcastle and Moreton Bay. He received eight separate whippings – a total of 1025 strokes – upon his body. He said, 'They were not comfortable to take.'

Convict records

Most convicts were not locked up but rather lived and worked in the colonies for private employers or for the government. From time to time a convict **muster** was held in order to find out where they all were. All this information was written down in large books. The authorities kept very good records about the convicts, including details of height, colouring and distinctive scars and tattoos. Recently historians have used these detailed records to find out more about the convicts. We now know that the women convicts had many useful skills as general servants, cooks, launderers, kitchen hands, needle workers and house maids. These skills were valuable in the new colony. Almost one-third of these women could read and write, and many who could not write could read. Until the 1970s, many Australians were embarrassed about having convict ancestors, but now people are more eager to find out about their forebears through these records.

muster gathering together a group of people to check their identity against a list or roll

Babette Smith was able to find out about the experiences of her ancestor Susannah Watson. Source 3.20 lists her record and other significant life events.

Smith also found letters Susannah sent back to England. She wrote to her daughter Mary Ann in 1868, when she had been almost 40 years in Australia (see Source 3.21).

Activity 3.5

1 How many times was Susannah Watson sent to the Female Factory in Parramatta?

2 How long had she been in the colony before she was granted her certificate of freedom?

Susannah Watson's record

1820		34, Married, 4 children (1 with her – Thomas Watson age 18 months) Prot. *Educ* R&W *Native* London *Trade* Housemaid and needlewoman *Trial* Nottingham 16 April 1828 *Offence* Shop robbery *Sentence* 14 years 2 previous convictions *Height* 5'1¾" Dark ruddy pockpitted complexion Dark brown hair Hazel eyes
1829	May	To Daniel Eagan, Bunkers Hill Sydney
	Nov	6wk 3cl FF – insolence
1830	Jun	2cl FF – for lying in. Charles Watson born
	Dec	Thomas to orphan school
1831	Jan	Assigned to Mr Simons, Parramatta
	Jul	2 years 3cl FF – shoplifting in Sydney
	Aug	Thomas died at orphan school
1832	Aug	Shoplifting sentence remitted
1833	Jan	3 day cells, FF – by Sydney bench, improper conduct
1835	Mar	John Henry Clarke Watson born
1837	Sep	Convict muster – with L. S. Downds, Parramatta Agnes Ellen Watson born
1838	Sep	Failed to obtain TL
1839	Jul	TL, Liverpool – altered to Parramatta
1840	Jun	6mo. 3cl FF – obtaining bread under false pretences
1842	Jan	Agnes died Probable death of John Clarke
1843	Jan	Married William Woollard
1844	Jul	Certified for freedom
1851	Mar	Married John Jones
1856	Aug	Moved to live in Braidwood
1867–70		Lived Shoalhaven
1877	Oct	Died Gunning, New South Wales

Source 3.20 Susannah Watson's life in Australia (3cl FF = 3rd class female factory, TL = ticket of leave). 'Susannah Watson records', in Smith, B. *A Cargo of Women*, UNSW Press, 1988, p. 202.

> My dear and affectionate daughter, I received your ever welcome and affectionate letter and indeed I cannot tell you how glad I was to hear from one of my dear children so many thousands of miles away from me. Dear Daughter, you cannot tell what happiness it gave me to receive your likeness. To think that I should live to gaze upon that dear face again, although so altered since I parted from you all.

Source 3.21 In Smith, B. *A Cargo of Women*, UNSW Press, 1988, pp. 155–6

A tattoo was a way in which convicts could remember their loved ones in Britain. Eleanor Swift had a tattoo: 'Patrick Flinn I love to the heart.' Signs had particular meaning; for example, an anchor signified hope and constancy. But such personal statements could also be used to identify runaway convicts. It was difficult for convicts to escape, as each penal colony was virtually a prison, but some tried to escape by crossing the Blue Mountains, or stealing a boat and sailing to Java. Others stowed away on ships leaving for Kolkata or went and lived among Indigenous people.

There are accounts of positive interactions between convicts and Indigenous peoples, including escaped convicts living within or being helped by Indigenous communities. An example of this is the story of William Buckley, who met with a group of Wathaurung women several months after his escape. He was given the name Murrangurk, which literally meant 'returned from the dead'.

Emancipists

When convicts finished their sentence, some people still saw them as disgraced. But Lachlan Macquarie, Governor of New South Wales in 1810–1821, believed these **emancipists** should be socially accepted. He said: 'Some of the Most Meritorious Men of the few to be found, and who were Most Capable and Most willing to Exert themselves in the Public Service, were Men who had been Convicts!'

emancipists convicts who had served their term of imprisonment and became free members of colonial society

Many became more prosperous than they ever could have dreamed when they left Britain in chains. Simeon Lord, transported for seven years for theft, became a wealthy merchant, international trader and a pastoralist. He became a magistrate and regularly dined at Government House. Mary Reibey was transported for stealing a horse when she was only 13 years old. She became a wealthy businesswoman.

Indentured labour – a new form of slavery?

With the abolition of slavery in the British Empire in 1833, planters of sugar and other tropical crops were eager to get access to more cheap labour to toil on their great estates. Pressured by these planters, the British government devised a system of indentured labour to send Indians to work abroad. Under this system, the worker would sign on for five or 10 years to work for a low wage, after which the worker would be able to return home. Many anti-slavery activists saw this system as just a perpetuation of slavery, especially as workers were often tricked into signing up and could be badly treated by their employers. Between 1834 and 1920, more than one million Indians were sent across the globe as workers. They helped develop the sugar and other industries and contributed to British wealth. Those who never returned to India helped to create new cultures in various corners of the world.

Where did they go?

Almost 150 000 Indian workers were sent to Mauritius between 1834 and 1854. From 1844, Indians were taking the long journey of 20 weeks via the Cape of Good Hope and St Helena to Jamaica and other parts of the West Indies. In Natal, South Africa, the system of indentured labour began in 1860. Late in the nineteenth century, workers were being dispatched to Kenya in East Africa to build the Ugandan Railway. They also went to German, Dutch and French colonies. This scheme went on for years and the last indentured labourers were sent to the West Indies in 1916.

Who were they?

The labourers, known then as **coolies**, were young, active and able-bodied people accustomed to performing hard labour. Indians from all communities – Hindus, Muslims and Christians from high and low castes – were recruited.

coolies an insulting term for Indian and Chinese indentured workers in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries

Did these people have any choice about going?

Indentured labourers were from overcrowded agricultural districts beset by famine. Sometimes convicts and prostitutes were forcibly sent overseas by the authorities. Gullible and illiterate peasants were easily tricked by clever recruiting agents. Parts of India were hit by famine and many poor people agreed to do a job, but had no idea about where they were going or how long the voyage would take. They did not realise they would be away for five or 10 years. Widows and abandoned wives were recruited and women were often kidnapped. Sometimes, however, recruits were happy to leave behind friction and trouble at home. In the novel *Sea of Poppies*, Amitav Ghosh describes the escape of Deeti, a widow. She was rescued from her husband's funeral pyre, and joined the **girmits** going to Mauritius.

girmit a term for an Indian indentured labourer; derived from the word 'agreement'

Bhagvana, a member of the low-caste 'untouchables', was very poor and his landlord would beat him every day. Due to her low status his mother was not able to go into the village temple. She cried, as she wanted to see the statue of Lord Ram, so Bhagvana took her inside. He was beaten by high caste villagers for offending them. He feared more beatings, ran away and registered to go to Fiji.

A regulated system?

The indentured labour system was more regulated than the slave trade. The labourers had to testify before a magistrate that they understood the contract, and their health was checked before **embarkation**.

embarkation going on board a ship or plane
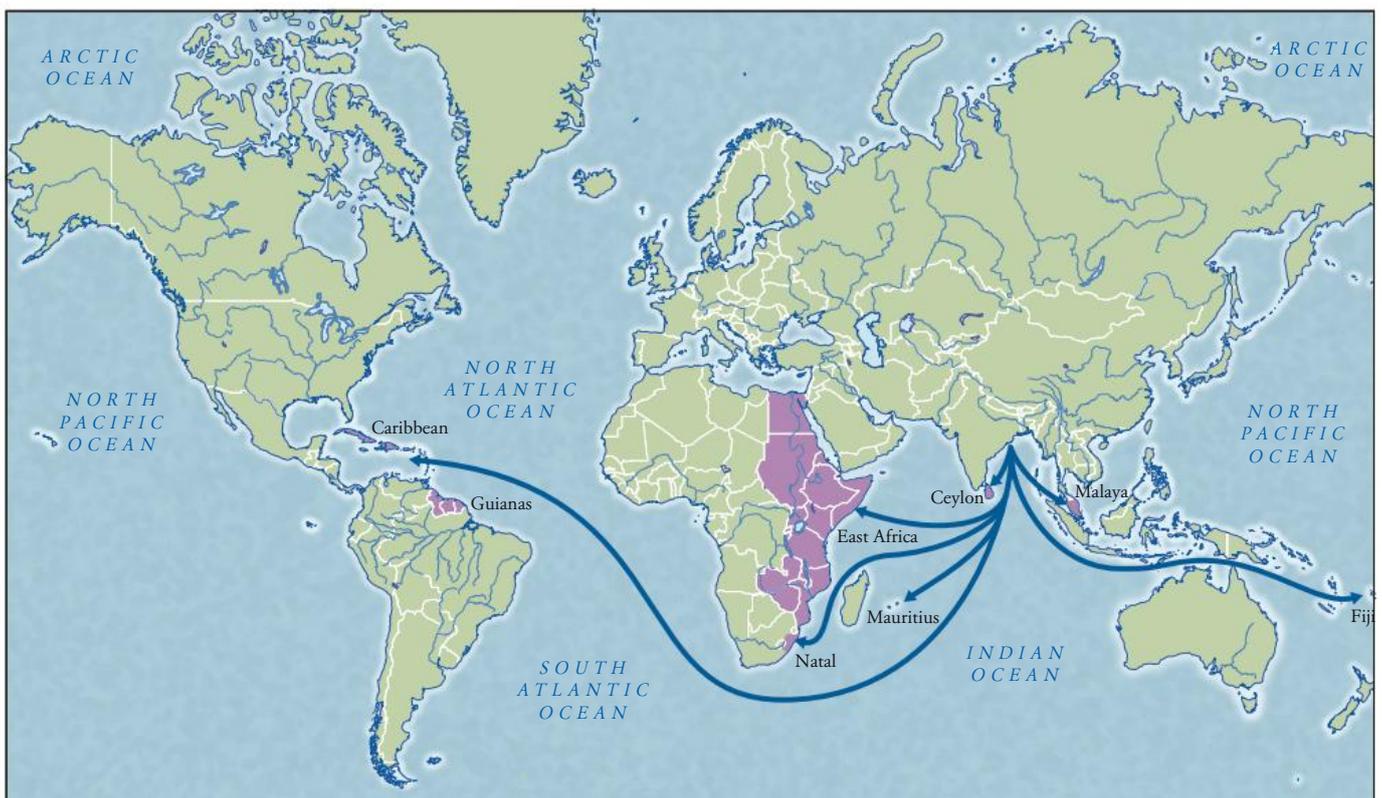
Source 3.22 Major destinations of Indian indentured labourers

However, this system was frequently abused. One recruit was told that if he did not say 'yes' to everything the magistrate asked, he would be put in jail. Little care was taken and this magistrate registered 165 people in only 20 minutes.

At each Indian port there was a Protector of Emigrants, who was to ensure that the ship was seaworthy and well fitted out. The workers were supposed to be supplied with all their dietary needs, including rice, dhal and chillies, as well as the medicines they might need on their long voyage. These regulations were designed to protect the emigrants, but could be evaded.

The voyage

The labourers had to endure very long voyages. Sailing ships were still used to transport these recruits until early in the twentieth century. The West Indies trip could extend to 27 weeks. From Kolkata to Natal took 12 weeks, and it was 10 weeks to Mauritius. Workers had to endure crowded conditions and unfamiliar food. Even trivial acts of disobedience were punished by confinement. Still, they did have more freedom than the slaves who had been chained below decks. They could amuse themselves by playing drums, and sometimes they could watch singing and dancing concerts or wrestling displays. But the ships could be dangerous, and disease could spread quickly. In 1856–7, the average death rate for Indians travelling to the Caribbean was 17 per cent. The *Salsette*, for example, left Kolkata in 1858 with 323 recruits, but 124 died en route and 13 were sent to hospital on arrival. Many died from diarrhoea, dysentery, cholera, measles and the adverse conditions of the voyage. Later a doctor was required to accompany each ship.

On arrival, workers were placed under the control of colonial officials and remained for about one week in the local **depot** before being sent to their new employer.

depot a station for assembling recruits

HILL COOLIES LANDING AT THE MAURITIUS.

Source 3.23 Indians arrive at immigrant steps, St Louis, Mauritius in 1842

Times gone by ...

Totaram Sanadhya was born in India in 1876. When Totaram was a year old, his father died and his father's assets were taken over by dishonest money lenders. In 1893 he left home to look for work and met a man in a local market who told him about an easy, well-paid job. Thus he was taken to Fiji.

He worked as a bonded labourer in Fiji for five years, but was not afraid of conflict with respect to his rights. After finishing his indenture, he set himself up as a farmer and a Hindu priest. He spent a great deal of time assisting others who were still indentured. Totaram also campaigned to get Indian teachers and lawyers to migrate to Fiji, so that they could assist the Indian workers, and enlisted assistance from Indian freedom fighters and missionaries. He returned to India in 1914, and wrote about his experience in the book *My Twenty-One Years in the Fiji Islands*.

1 Identify what persuaded Totaram to follow the man he met in the market.

2 How old was Totaram when he left home to look for work?

3 Analyse why Totaram campaigned to get Indian teachers and lawyers to migrate to Fiji.

Abolition of the indenture system

Totaram's story (see the 'Times gone by' box) was very important in informing Indian people about the lives of indentured workers. Early in the twentieth century, Indian people protested against the inhumanity of the system. They formed organisations to oppose this in India and also in places like Natal. They informed possible recruits, saying things like, 'They take you overseas', 'They are not colonies but jails' and 'It is not service but deception'. In Natal, Gandhi organised one of his first campaigns around this issue and worked with GK Gokhale, the political reformer in India. Totaram Sanadhya in Fiji also supported this work. Gandhi sent Charles Freer Andrews to investigate conditions in Fiji. In 1917, indentured labour was abolished across the British Empire.

Fiji Indians today

The British government and the colonial planters in Fiji imported Indian labourers and used them to build their wealth. Descendants of Indians who remained there were well educated and prosperous in business. When Fiji became independent in 1970, 52 per cent of the population were Fiji Indians.

Some indigenous Fijians feel they are on the margins of their country and resent the success and the authority of Fiji Indians. Life in Fiji has become very difficult for Fiji Indians, with military coups in 1987 and in 2000 against democratically elected governments led by Fiji Indians. These coups were supported by some indigenous Fijians. Now the descendants of the girmits see no future for themselves in Fiji. Many have left, with about 50 000 resettling in Australia. They see themselves as 'twice banished'.

☞ *Note this down*

Using the graphic organiser below, compare and contrast slavery and indentured labour.

Slavery   Indentured labour

Research **3.1**

1 Research the life of one of the following: Olaudah Equiano, Ottobah Cugoano, Mary Prince or Totaram Sanadhya.

2 Present the story of their life to your class.

3 Explain how helpful it is to read the story of a person who was a slave or indentured labourer.

or

4 Identify what other campaigns Gandhi led. Research him on the internet (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks) and prepare an oral presentation for your class on one of his campaigns.

Activity **3.6**

1 Identify who campaigned against the indenture system.

2 Discuss why some Fijian Indians see themselves as 'twice banished'.

Free settlers

White settlers to Australia

Free settlers coming to Australia travelled in much better circumstances than did the convicts. Janet Snodgrass travelled to Australia from Glasgow in 1886 on the *Loch Long*. She travelled with her five young children to join her husband who was building a home for them. They hoped to improve their lives in Australia.

As the long voyage began, she and all her children were seasick and vomiting. Her little son Matt 'got very cross and wanted me to stop the ship, and not let it go on that way'. Such middle-class passengers were well looked after, as Janet experienced when the steward made a plum pudding for her son Alan's birthday. She passed her days talking to other passengers. Religious services were held on deck and passengers also enjoyed concerts and other entertainment. As they crossed the Equator, her sons Matt and Hugh had great fun with King Neptune; they 'were both shaved, then they have to swallow a big pill and are pitched head first into a big sail filled with water, and ducked three times'. On arrival, her husband met her and the family went out to his farm at Colac in Victoria, where they were building 'a nice little weatherboard house'. With the steward looking after her family, this was a comfortable trip. During the nineteenth century, there were several different classes of travel, largely based on the class of the passengers themselves and the lives they had been accustomed to living in their old country.

The voyage of the *Africaine*

During 1836, nine ships left Britain to set up the new colony of South Australia, a colony for free settlers. Mary and Robert Thomas, both in their late 40s, travelled in intermediate class on the *Africaine*, which left England in July. Their passage cost £30 each. They had sold everything in order to leave for South Australia. Unlike the slaves, convicts and indentured labourers discussed earlier in this chapter, they were able to visit and farewell family and friends before departing. Just as the ship was leaving, Mary was able to send some last letters to her family. She would be able to write to them again en route to Australia. She was excited by the prospect of a new life, but shed a few tears as the ship passed the 'the Isle of Wight hills, the last view that I had of my native country'.

The Thomas family was able to make good preparations for their journey and their new life in Australia. Mary and Robert travelled with three daughters and a son. Robert was planning to set up a newspaper and he took a printing press and two printers to assist with the work. They also brought two agricultural labourers with them who could help to grow food in the colony.

The family had two cabins on board, but their son William had to sleep in a hammock in a common room near their cabins. The cabins were each 1.8 metres square, so were small and confined. At the time of their departure, two of her children had scarlet fever. The ship's doctor did not come near them and Mary nursed them day and night. The ship was 30.5 metres long and 9 metres wide, and was tossed among mountainous waves. Sometimes there were tremendous storms and the ship's hatches were closed to keep the water out of the cabins. Mary was dissatisfied with the quarters for intermediate class passengers.

By contrast, Robert and Harriet Gouger were more comfortable travelling in cabin class. They paid £65 each and were fed well, beginning with 'hot rolls for breakfast … eggs, rice, two sorts of cold meat, coffee and … tea'. The meals flowed amply all day, finishing with 'grog bottles from nine to ten' at night.

The cabin passengers had more luxuries, but all passengers could get seasick. Harriet Gouger was very seasick and she took an 'opiate plaster' to relieve the symptoms. It was of no use and caused her to have 'frightful dreams'.

Mary Thomas was also dissatisfied with the food on board. Intermediate passengers got fresh meat weekly. On other days they ate dried or salted food such as bread, oatmeal, preserved cabbage, vinegar, various preserved meats, pickled fish, flour, suet, peas, sugar, tea, coffee and mustard. Later in the trip they made friends with the cabin cook and could bribe him with a glass of rum to cook something like a beefsteak pie or a rice pudding for them. The ship stopped for a few days at the Cape of Good Hope and Robert and Mary Thomas went ashore, had some good meals and bought some oranges, two milch goats with kids, some fowls and some raisins to supplement their diet on the last leg of their journey.

Land ho!

After about five months crammed into the ship, tempers were frayed and some people had argued with other passengers, or at least found them very annoying. They must have been delighted when finally land was in sight and their journey came to an end. In November 1836, Mary Thomas observed: 'At four o'clock this morning there was a beautiful view of Kangaroo Island about ten miles distant'.

Soon after the Gougers arrived in the colony, Harriet and their newborn son died. Mary and Robert Thomas enjoyed great success and established a newspaper, which their sons later ran.

Free settlers?

Many of the Europeans who migrated to the New World and Australia in the nineteenth century were destitute and had no real choice to stay in their homelands. Scots from the impoverished Highlands were assisted by emigration societies who paid part of their fare to Australia or Canada during the 1850s. The highlands and the western islands of Scotland were overpopulated. Families were being evicted from their land or crofts as they could not pay their rent. Many were close to starvation. Donald and Effy McFarlane had seven children. After their croft was lost, Donald tried to earn money catching lobsters and other shellfish. They lived in one room and had little food. Such a family, with so many children who would grow up to be workers, would be an asset in Australia. In Scotland they were just a charity burden. Once in Australia they would have to save to pay back £44 3s 1d, which was part of the cost of the trip to Australia.

The food supplied for the voyage was high in carbohydrates, with some protein. Many ate better on board ship than they had for years. The *James Fernie*, bound for South Australia, left Liverpool with 350 assisted Scots and Irish migrants in 1854. While the food was plentiful on this ship, some of the passengers carried cholera on board and 28 passengers died during the voyage.

Rations provided per week per adult passenger over the age of 14 years on the *James Fernie* were as follows (note that one ounce equals 28 grams and one gill equals approximately 140 mL).

- 56 ounces of biscuit
- 6 ounces of beef
- 18 ounces of pork
- 24 ounces of preserved meat
- 42 ounces of flour
- 21 ounces of oatmeal
- 8 ounces of raisins
- 6 ounces of suet
- ¾ of an ounce of peas
- 8 ounces of rice
- 8 ounces of preserved potatoes
- 1 ounce of tea
- 1½ ounces of ground coffee
- 12 ounces of sugar
- 8 ounces of treacle
- 4 ounces of butter
- 21 ounces of water
- 1 gill of mixed pickles
- ½ ounce of mustard
- 2 ounces of salt
- ½ ounce of pepper

Children aged between 10 and 14 years received two-thirds of this allowance and children aged between 2 and 10 years received half.

The potato famine and the Irish diaspora

During the nineteenth century and the first two decades of the twentieth century, around eight million people left Ireland for the New World, chiefly North America and Australia. As well, many settled permanently in England and Scotland. In relative terms, more people left Ireland than from any other European country.

Poverty-stricken Irish peasants depended upon the potato for their survival. When the crop failed in 1845 due to a disease, thousands of people were desperate. Landlords evicted those who could not pay their rent. Many people were starving and had no choice but to leave in the hope of finding a better life. Landlords and Poor Law guardians often paid fares to get rid of these **paupers**. The famine set off a huge tide of emigrants from Ireland. Between 1846 and 1855, 2.5 million people emigrated, and between 1856 and 1914 another four million departed.

paupers very poor people

Times gone by …

He said that if he and his family had died of starvation or sickness at home, 'We had a chance of a doctor, and if he could do no good for our bodies, sure the priest could for our souls; and then we'd be buried wid our own people; in the ould churchyard, with the green sod over us; instead of dying like rotten sheep thrown into a pit, and the minit the breath is out of our bodies, flung into the sea to be eaten up by them horrid sharks'.

Source 3.24 An Irishman, on board a migrant ship in 1847, full of regret about his decision to set sail for America

1 Why did this Irishman regret leaving Ireland?

2 Is the adage 'Better the devil you know than the one you don't' apt when you read this Irishman's statement? Discuss.

3 Examine the extract again and describe in one word what emotion he may have been feeling.

4 Explain what the 'green sod' might be.

Migrant ships and coffin ships

Due to the potato famine, many migrants were destitute; they came to the ships in rags, bareheaded and often without shoes. Many were malnourished and sick. The conditions on the ships were very crowded and unhealthy. Bunks were shared with four people on a bed 1.8 metres long and 1.8 metres across. Ship owners could evade regulations – one ship to Canada in 1847 had 276 people sharing 36 berths. Passengers had to provide much of their own food, or try to survive on the three kilograms of food and two litres of water that ship-owners were required to supply weekly. On the worst ships, typhus and dysentery spread. Vomit and excrement dripped through the tiered bunks on to passengers below. So many died on the voyage to North America in the 1840s that these were called 'coffin' ships.

Over the years, the standard of shipping improved, but wherever they went, the Irish – who often spoke only Gaelic, and who were fleeing from the famine – were looked down upon as ignorant 'savages'.

Many Irish fled the famine and made the long journey to Australia. In 1849, 16 orphan girls, some only 14 years old, were sent to Australia on the *Ballyshannon* in the hope that they would become servants, marry in Australia and make a better life. Certainly these girls were fitted out with new clothes for the trip, and given better food.

While waiting for work they stayed in Hyde Park Barracks in Sydney and at depots in Melbourne, Adelaide and Brisbane. Many in Australia opposed their migration, seeing them as poor servants with no domestic training. They were seen as disobedient, users of bad language and potential prostitutes. Some made good lives for themselves, while others, broken by the hardships of their young life and the loss of family, found it hard to adapt.

Prejudice

In both Australia and the United States, there was a lot of prejudice against the poor Irish migrants. Members of elite Protestant groups saw them as ignorant, dirty and responsible for crime. In the United States, Irish were told they need not apply for certain jobs, as they were not wanted.

One Chicago newspaper wrote, 'The Irish fill our prisons, our poor houses … Scratch a convict or a pauper, and the chances are that you tickle the skin of an Irish Catholic. Putting them on a boat and sending them home would end crime in this country'.

HIRING ROOM

GOODBYE MARY

SIGNING HER AGREEMENT

Source 3.25 Hiring immigrants at the Depot in Hyde Park. Potential employers dressed in fashionable clothes look over possible servant girls who sit in a line by the wall. After signing up for a job, the girl farewells her friends. Her large handkerchief, strange hat and big feet suggest that she is uncultured, but she must have felt sad saying goodbye to her few friends in the world.

HISTORICAL FACT

When an Irish person was migrating to America, their family and friends held an American wake for them. This was a farewell to the migrant, whom they never expected to see again. Like a wake after a funeral, a **eulogy** was given about the migrant. In more prosperous homes there would be singing and dancing, but often there was only wailing and despair.

eulogy a speech praising a person, usually given at their funeral

Chinese settlers to California and Australia

During the nineteenth century, many Chinese people left China in search of work and a better life. Many hoped to return to China some day, but could not. Their descendants live in a number of countries across the world today. In the nineteenth century, life and security in China were threatened by the Second Opium War (1856–60) and the Taiping Rebellion (1850–64). These led to the disruption of agriculture and other economic activities. High taxes and floods forced many off the land, especially in the southern provinces. Peasants lost their livelihoods and looked for new opportunities. Many Chinese people travelled to nearby countries in South-East Asia, often as indentured labourers. With the end of the transportation of convicts to Australia, pastoralists were looking for cheap labour and about 3000 Chinese men travelled as indentured labourers to New South Wales between 1848 and 1853. They worked as shepherds and fence-makers, and did other heavy work.

Gold mountain *(Gam Saan)*

In the late 1840s, when Chinese sailors told them of the discovery of gold in California – that this was *Gam Saan*, or a gold mountain – many Chinese men set off to make their fortunes. Many could not read, but like the goldminers from Europe, South America and Turkey who were also flooding into the gold fields, they hoped to do well. Very few Chinese women went to California as their husbands planned to return home and a woman was needed to care for her parents-in-law. Migrants often purchased a credit ticket, which required them to pay back their fares from their earnings from the 'gold mountain'. If they did not pay the money back, they would be threatened with violence by the lenders and would not be able to buy a ticket back to China.

Self-help organisations

When they arrived in California, many of the Chinese people spoke no English and did not know how to get to the goldfields. Organisations like the Sze Yup Society could meet them at the ship and assist them with accommodation and advice on how to set out for the diggings. Members came from the four counties around the Pearl River Delta in southern Guangdong province and had a duty to protect and help one another.

Source 3.26 Chinese migrants on the steamship *Alaska* bound for California in 1876

Chinese camps at the diggings

Chinese miners tended to live in groups and work claims the other miners had abandoned. At first, miners were curious about the Chinese miners with their pigtails, conical hats and chopsticks. But as the Chinese people became successful on the diggings, often working sections that the other miners had abandoned, white racist jealousies grew. White miners felt they deserved to be lucky and resented Chinese success, attacked Chinese camps and drove the people away.

Height of the Californian Gold Rush

In 1852, 67 000 gold miners arrived in California. Of these, 20 000 were from southern China where there had been a serious crop failure. Americans became alarmed as the Chinese people continued to come through the port of San Francisco (on a single day, 2000 Chinese gold seekers arrived by ship). Previously there had been few Chinese people in the area. In 1851, there were about 2700 Chinese people living in California, but by the late 1850s Chinese immigrants made up 20 per cent of the population in mining areas.

Discrimination, taxes and laws

While other miners physically attacked the Chinese people, the government introduced harsh laws and taxes. In 1850, California introduced a Foreign Miner's Tax aimed especially at the Chinese people. It was $3 a month; about half of what the Chinese people were earning. They thus contributed large amounts to state finances. In 1870, the 48 000 Chinese supplied almost a quarter of the state's revenue. In 1854, a legal judgement held that Chinese people and others deemed not to be 'white' could not testify against white people in court, meaning Chinese people became even more vulnerable to white murderous attacks.
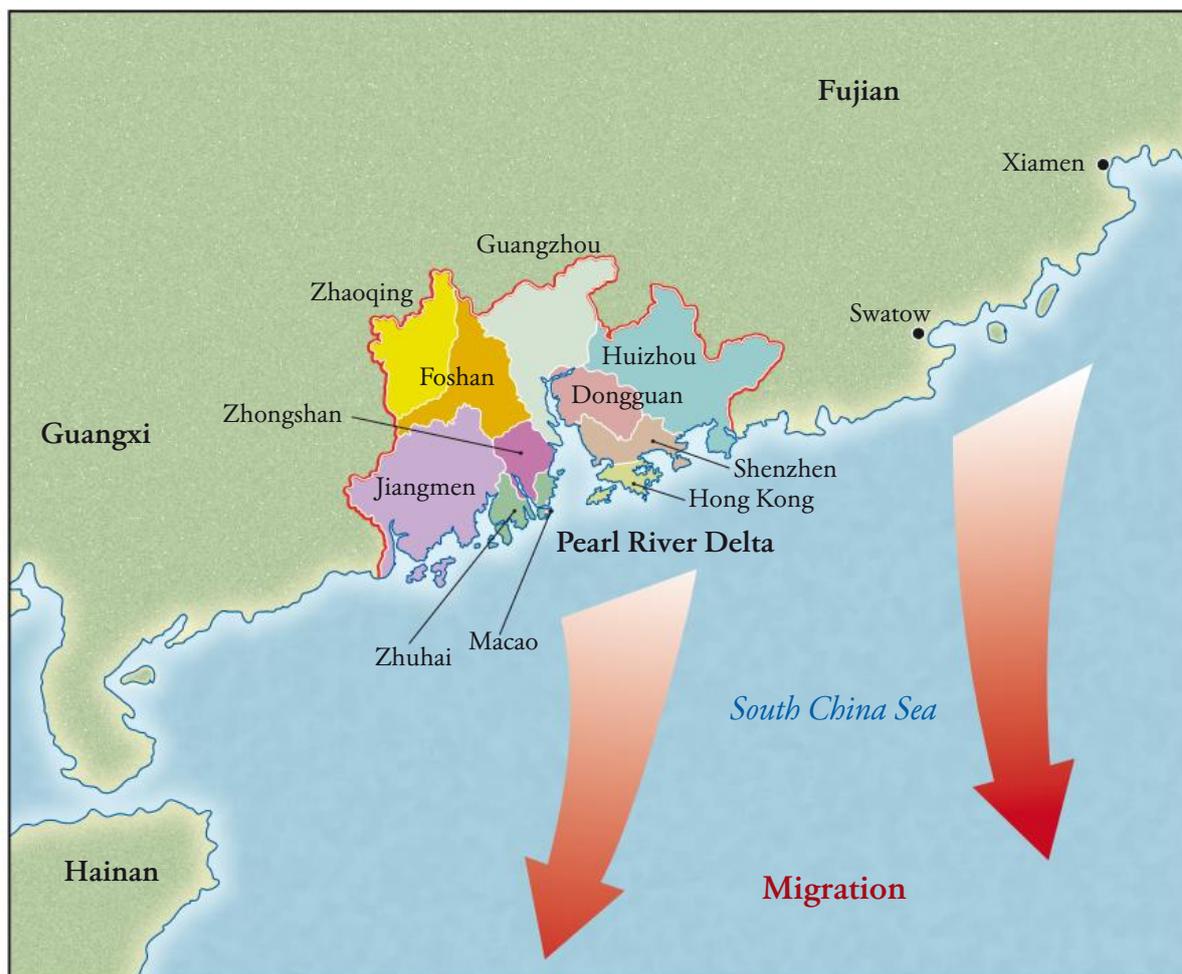
Source 3.27 The Pearl River Delta showing the regions from which Chinese people left

Activity **3.7**

1 Explain why the Chinese left their country.

2 Discuss how they financed their travel to the United States.

3 Calculate what proportion of the gold miners who went to California in 1852 were Chinese.

4 Describe how the American people and their government discriminated against the Chinese.

In 1862, California passed an Act 'To Protect Free White Labor Against Competition with Chinese Coolie Labor', although the legislation was not very successful in curbing Chinese immigration.

When the mines ran out

As the Californian mines ran out, some of the miners – including the Chinese people – went to Australia to the new gold rushes beginning there. They called this the 'new gold mountain'. In the United States, Chinese men moved into other occupations, including the laundry business, vegetable gardening, domestic service and later railway building. Some, like Yee Ah Tye, became a partner in a store in the mining areas that became very profitable, but many were employed on building the Central Pacific Railroad.

Source 3.28 Chinese railroad workers in the snowy Sierra Nevada greet a Central Pacific train

HISTORICAL FACT

Chinese workers were lowered in baskets down a cliff face to chip away at the granite where they would plant explosives to make way for the railway track. Sometimes the explosive would go off before they were pulled to safety.

Rail tracks across the Sierra Nevada

From 1865, Chinese labourers worked on building the railway, which went up and across the steep and snowy Sierra Nevada mountains. This track was to join up the west coast of the United States with railways coming from the east. This transcontinental railway was important to economic development. Thousands of Chinese people worked on the railway. The work was dangerous as they had to blast through the mountains: falling rocks, collapsing tunnels and snowdrifts killed many, and Chinese workers were also paid less than other workers. Finally, in May 1869, the Central Pacific met the Union Pacific in Utah and the transcontinental railway was open. This was important in connecting national and world markets.

Chinese workers built other railways in the United States, but they were to suffer further discrimination when they were excluded from naturalisation as United States citizens in 1870. Further, the entry of Chinese labourers and those employed in mining was prohibited by the *Chinese Exclusion Act* in 1882. One critic said this was the legalisation of racial discrimination.

Italians and Eastern Europeans to the United States

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, Eastern Europeans and Italians went to the United States in large numbers. Many of them travelled in modern steamships. These were much larger than sailing ships and much more comfortable. Journeys were shortened from five weeks to two weeks; eventually, Liverpool to New York took just one week. Refrigeration allowed food and water to be kept in more hygienic conditions, and the death rate on the Atlantic crossing dropped by 90 per cent. The Inman Steamship Company introduced improved services for migrants, providing separate berths for each passenger, a women's compartment, a ship's doctor, three cooked meals a day, and soap and towels. Even though the fare was double that of a sailing ship, Inman dominated the British–American and Irish–American routes from the 1860s.

Migrants from Eastern Europe and Italy found their lives were greatly changed as they moved from agricultural to industrial settings. Many

Times gone by …

> Let her come to America … Please give her my address.
> I shall meet her … and take her home with us until her
> husband will be able to make a living for the two of them.

Source 3.29 Miriam Goldberg writes from New York to her family in Poland about bringing her cousin Nella and family to the United States

1 Describe how Miriam Goldberg was planning to assist her cousin Nella.

2 In what ways do you think this would have made it easier for Nella and her family to settle in the United States?

3 Why would this letter have made the family back home in Poland feel that America was a good place to be?

xenophobia having a hatred or fear of foreigners or foreign cultures and customs

Americans were **xenophobic** and feared the arrival of what they saw as hordes of foreigners, whom they viewed as dirty, strange and likely to undermine their way of life. Nevertheless, these people made the United States more multicultural.

Source 3.30 Proportion of new immigrants to the United States from Southern and Eastern Europe

Period	Proportion (%)
1870–80	5
1891–1900	33
1914	almost 70

Source 3.31 Russian and Polish departures from Eastern Europe

Period	Number
1871–80	70 000
1880–1900	250 000
1900–10	2 million+

Migrants often wanted to escape from poverty or religious and political oppression. They left high unemployment, rural backwardness and overpopulation to enter the vast new factories in Chicago, Detroit, Pittsburgh and New York. They worked as manual labourers in meat works, coalmines, iron and steel production, construction and the textile and clothing industries. The fear

1876–1900

1901–15

0
1
2
Numbers in millions
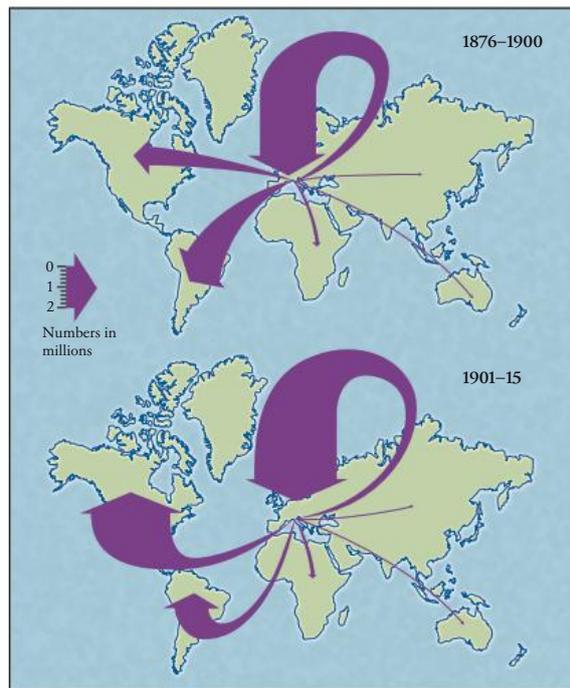
Source 3.32 Migration flows from Italy in 1876–1900 and 1901–15

of being conscripted into the Russian army drove many to America, as did the discrimination and persecution suffered by minority groups (especially Jewish people) at the hands of the Russian government. **Anti-semitism** was rife across Eastern Europe and Jewish communities had the bitter experience of **pogroms**, in which they were attacked, sometimes even by their neighbours. In America they felt they could be free.

anti-semitism prejudice against or hatred of Jewish people

pogrom a violent mob attack, often on Jewish people, that may be government-sanctioned

Source 3.33 Welcome to the Land of Freedom: European migrants on the deck of their ship as it passes the Statue of Liberty in 1889

Wonderful letters and amazing photographs

The first arrivals sent letters home to family members encouraging them to travel to the United States, a land of gold and freedom. They spoke of wages seven or even 10 times higher than at home and of the great freedom of American life. Millions of letters, often with photographs of the migrants in new city clothes, made Polish and Russian peasants want to become *Amerikanci* too. Migrants often sent money, known as remittances, home to help their families to survive or even to repair their homes. Migrants would arrange tickets for relatives, friends and sweethearts, so often these letters would also contain a ticket for travel to the United States and hopefully a life of prosperity and happiness. These letters formed a 'chain' to enable more migration. These people believed in the great legend that there was no poverty in the United States.

Italians

Between 1876 and 1914, more than 17 million Italians left their homes and migrated to other places in Europe and to the Americas in search of a better life. Most went to Britain, France and Germany, while many others sailed to South America. Between 1880 and 1920, more than four million Italians went to the United States. After farewelling family and friends they set off for the port with all their possessions. One woman recalled leaving: 'We left in a two-wheeled cart that carried a big home-made trunk, my mother, two of my brothers, my sister and also a cousin from Palermo, which was forty miles away'. Most of the migrants were male and of working age – between 15 and 45 years. Around 80 per cent of these people were from the depressed rural regions in the south of Italy. Like so many regions from which migrants left at this time, this was an overpopulated and economically backward area. These people dreamed of an easier life. 'America' was for them anywhere where they did not have to struggle so hard for a living.

They travelled in steerage class in the modern steamships, which plied the Naples–Philadelphia–New York route.

Little Italies

Most Italians who migrated to the United States were peasants; they often spoke only their Italian dialect and had little education. They had little experience of city life, but they usually settled into the poor crowded districts of the great American cities such as New York and Philadelphia. The

Source 3.34 An Italian immigrant family arrives at Ellis Island, New York, in 1902

districts were known as 'Little Italies' where people could speak to and get support from other migrants. They lived in tenement buildings, which were crowded, poorly heated in the winter and stuffy in the summer heat. On arrival, Italian men generally carried out unskilled and heavy jobs, such as building roads, bridges and subways. Women worked at sewing and ran businesses selling Italian foodstuffs. They expected to make their fortunes in America, but many found that the streets weren't paved with gold! Migrants often did the dirty jobs that no one else wanted to do, but slowly pulled themselves up into better positions in society and the labour market. They helped to build America. Many Italian-Americans told the joke: First, the streets weren't paved in gold; second, they weren't paved at all; and third, we were expected to pave them!

Hard-luck stories such as these disheartened many migrants, who then felt caught between wanting to stay and work at making a new and better life, and being pulled back to what they knew by returning to their homeland.

In Italian-American neighbourhoods, people organised a social life around their churches and celebrated religious feast days with processions and festivals. They organised concerts, theatre performances and social clubs, which helped them adapt to life in the United States.

'Unsuitable immigrants'

As large numbers of Eastern Europeans and Italians arrived in the United States, some Americans began fearing the new migrants would change their society in unfamiliar ways. They found the new migrants strange, and decided that people who were not of Anglo-Saxon origin were inferior to them. Some developed ideas that people who were from northwestern Europe – that is, Anglo-Saxons, Aryans and Teutons – were superior to what they called inferior races, such as Southern and Eastern Europeans and people from Asia and Africa. They felt these newcomers would change the social, political and economic wellbeing of the American nation. People like Francis A. Walker, a leading economist, journalist and educator, wanted their government to make laws to restrict the entry of such people. In 1896, he wrote: 'The problems which so sternly confront us to-day are serious enough without being complicated and aggravated by the addition of some millions of Hungarians, Bohemians, Poles, south Italians, and Russian Jews'.

The 1880s, for a variety of reasons, saw an increase in strikes, unemployment, alcoholism, illiteracy, prostitution and crime. These problems more than likely would have occurred even if immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe had been excluded, simply because this period was a time of **urbanisation**, industrialisation and political corruption, and Americans were having a difficult time adjusting to the new social climate. However, many Americans were eager to blame migrants from southeastern Europe as the culprits behind the new problems.

urbanisation the growth of cities

Activity **3.8**

1   Construct a list of the improved services that the Inman steamships offered to migrants crossing the Atlantic.

2   Discuss why some Americans were hostile to the Southern and Eastern European migrants in the late nineteenth century.

3   Explain why people left their homes in Eastern Europe and Italy and why they were attracted to the United States.

Research **3.2**

Use the internet to research information on Francis A. Walker. Develop a PowerPoint presentation on his achievements and include commentary on his anti-immigration views, as well as citing possible reasons he held such views. Justify your response.

Changes in the way of life

Free settlers on the Australian frontier

From Skye to the Western Australian frontier

In 1854, Samuel and Janet Mackay and their family left the Isle of Skye, Scotland for Australia. A poor family with nine children ranging in age from 6 to 24 years, they could not survive on their income, let alone pay the rent of their tiny one-acre croft. They were seen as 'poor but respectable', but landlords wanted to run sheep on their estates and to clear such people off their land. The Highland and Island Emigration Society helped to pay their fare and they arrived in Australia owing about £50 for their passage. While the young ones looked forward to life in Australia, the older ones must have been heartbroken at leaving their beloved Skye, the home of their ancestors.

A strange wailing sound reached my ears … I could see a long and motley procession winding along the road that led north from Suishnish … There were old men and women, too feeble to walk, who were placed in carts; the younger members of the community on foot were carrying their bundles of clothes and household effects, while the children, with looks of alarm, walked alongside … Everyone was in tears.

Source 3.35 An eyewitness records the tragic scene during the Skye clearances in 1854.

Samuel had hoped that he would be granted farmland, but the family was seen as suitable only as station hands and farm servants. They were sent to the south-east of South Australia and began working for pastoralist Robert Lawson on Padthaway station near Naracoorte. The older sons began to learn Australian bush craft while their parents were hut-keepers at a distance from the station homestead. They had to look after

Source 3.36 An Aboriginal girl and woman working as water carters for the Mackay family at Mundabullangana, 1898

the sheep and make sure they had water. The change from the crowded misty Scottish island, with relatives and friends all around them, to the isolated hut in the summer of Australia was difficult for Samuel. In January 1856 he died from dysentery.

The older sons Roderick, Donald and Donald McDonald (Dody) worked as drovers, stockmen and overseers in the pastoral industry in South Australia and western Victoria. Two of the daughters, Catherine and Mary, helped their mother to run a school in Mount Gambier, where they were seen as respectable members of the community and in their Presbyterian church.

The lands of the south-east had been wrested from the Buandig peoples in the years before the

Mackay family arrived. As the Mackay family grew in prosperity, the Buandig peoples were becoming beggars. The missionary Mrs Smith wrote about the decline of this 'once numerous and powerful tribe of South-Eastern natives' due to 'the new mode of life forced upon them by the advent of European colonists in their midst, assisted too often by the cruelties practised upon them by the early settlers'. Other Indigenous people were dying from diseases introduced by the Europeans, along with the loss of their families and the land of their ancestors. Where they were employed on the stations, they were paid only with food and clothing.

The Mackay brothers were keen to get rich and were saving up their wages from doing station

Source 3.37 Donald Mackay with his son Roderick

work. Even 12-year-old Donald drove a bullock team loaded with wool bales for 110 kilometres to Guichen Bay. In 1864, Roderick was part of a group of ambitious young men of Scottish background who wanted to get pastoral land in the north-west of Western Australia. They formed a company and sailed to the region to explore and take up land. This was a harsh country and a number of times Roderick had to return to South Australia to get more stock and start again. Dody joined him and by 1872 they were doing well at Maitland River, but then a cyclone swept away 1400 of their 2000 sheep.

They set off to find new land and established Mundabullangana, near present-day Port Hedland. They selected more than one million acres, with a frontage of 30 miles along the Yule River. The plains of the Kariara people were of 'rich chocolate soil, covered with various succulent grasses and fattening shrubs, with a large proportion of soft spinifex' – good land for sheep. Donald joined his brothers and by the year 1879 they ran 18000 sheep, 'all shepherded by the aborigines'. Soon their wool was sold in London, bringing them great profits.

They used the land and the labour of the local Aboriginal people, whom they paid with food rations and clothing. Aboriginal people built 800 kilometres of fences by 1890 and did all the shearing and drove the bullock teams.

Indentured labourers from Manila, China and Malaya also worked for them, sinking wells, growing vegetables and cooking. The Mackay brothers bought other stations in the Pilbara – Roy Hill, Sherlock, Mallina and Croydon – and their landholdings grew. The Mackays built a fine homestead to live in with their wives and children.

The homestead is a mansion, built mostly of a kind of bluestone, and is so constructed as to provide the most comfort during all seasons. On approaching the homestead the visitor imagines he has discovered a miniature town, so numerous are the buildings.

Source 3.38 A visitor describes the homestead at Mundabullangana, 1907

The Mackays were described as 'a strong, violent family'. They also had pearling luggers (boats) working off the coast, and Dody hired 'depraved and vicious' men to capture Aboriginal people from inland to dive for pearls. This was seen as 'a system of organised slavery'. In 1887, Donald and his son Samuel were accused of shocking treatment, such as whipping the Aboriginal people on their luggers and stations.

In 1879, tragedy struck the Mackay family when Roderick Mackay was lost at sea in his pearling lugger during a cyclone. Donald and Dody kept the stations. But during the 1890s drought, Dody sold his share and went to Perth. In 1896, he was elected a member of the Western Australian Legislative Council to defend the interests of the northern pastoralists. When Donald and Dody died they left a large amount of money to their families. Dody's funeral in 1904 was in grand Scottish style and was attended by the important citizens of Western Australia. The Mackay family had come across the world from a life of poverty on Skye and had become wealthy and powerful in Australia, but at great cost to the Aboriginal people they had exploited and displaced.

Times gone by ...

[H]e has given me no clothes, no blankets – no sugar but has fed me with rice and grease [fat] mixed with it. No tea, no wages. Not one penny.

Source 3.39 Bob, an Aboriginal shearer on the Mackay station, speaks of his poor rations

Bob also claimed he had seen Mackay beat two women.

1 Reflect on why the Mackay brothers were able to treat people such as Bob so harshly.

2 What would happen today to the Mackay brothers if they treated someone like that?

3 How long would such treatment of people be tolerated?

Research **3.3**

1 Research the life of one of the following convicts:

- Edward Davis
- Francis Abbott
- Francis Greenway
- Hannah Rigby
- John Black Caesar
- John Davies
- Margaret Catchpole
- Maria Lord
- Mary Bryant
- Mary Reibey
- Maurice Margarot
- Molly Morgan
- Simeon Lord
- William Blue
- William Buckley

Use the *Australian Dictionary of Biography*, the State Library of New South Wales and the State Library of Tasmania (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks) and other online sources.

2 Use the internet and other sources to research the situation of Aboriginal people in the Roebourne area today.

Chapter summary

- Between 1788 and 1868, the British government sent 162 000 convicts to Australia as punishment for their crimes. These formed the basis of white settlement of the Australian continent, which had drastic consequences for the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

- As plantation owners and industrial capitalists searched for cheap labour supplies, cheap raw materials and new markets for their manufactured goods, millions of people moved across the world – as slaves, indentured labourers, assisted migrants and free settlers.

- Many left homes of poverty in order to seek their fortune on the goldfields or on streets they believed were paved with gold. These migrations changed the world.

- Personal accounts of these migrants can give us fresh understandings of their experiences.

- The spread of Europeans around the world and their colonisation of many countries made them believe that they were different from and superior to other peoples in the world, and allowed for the belief in white European superiority to flourish.

- The spread of migrants to the Americas and Australasia led to the decimation of indigenous peoples. As settlers became prosperous and even rich, indigenous people lost their lands, and many lost their lives.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1 The Atlantic Slave Trade brought slaves from:

   A Barbados

   B India

   C West Africa

   D Britain

2 South Sea Islander peoples were kidnapped to:

   A work in Queensland and Fiji

   B work in the Caribbean

   C colonise Australia

   D work in Western Australia

3 A convict would most likely to be transported to Australia for:

   A high treason

   B stealing a horse

   C forgery

   D murder

4 The shipboard conditions of migrants from Italy to the United States in the late nineteenth century included:

   A a personal cabin

   B being waited on by ship stewards

   C choice of three different restaurants

   D a small berth and shared common areas

5 British abolitionists boycotted the use of slave-grown sugar because:

   A they used saccharine

   B they believed it could help end slavery

   C they preferred sugar from India

   D they thought that British people were eating too much sugar

Short answer

1   Discuss why slaves were sent to the Americas.

2   What were the conditions of indentured labourers?

3   Outline why the potato famine led to mass Irish migration.

4   What happened to convicts after they were freed?

5   Explain why Highland Scots left Scotland.

Extended response

In what ways did the migration of people from Europe and Asia to Australia and the New World lead to the economic development of the world, and to the destruction of the way of life of many indigenous people?

Source analysis

Study Source 3.40 and answer the following questions:

1   Why are the words 'industry', 'order', 'peace' and 'sobriety' put around the Chinese man?

2   Do you think the cartoonist believes that the closed gate is the 'Golden Gate of Liberty'?

3   What view is the cartoonist putting forward here?

THE ONLY ONE BARRED OUT.
ENLIGHTENED AMERICAN STATESMAN.—"We must draw the line *somewhere*, you know."

Source 3.40 A Chinese man is barred from entering the United States in 1882, even though political radicals and hoodlums are allowed to enter

4

Progressive ideas and movements (1750–1918)

Before you start

Main focus

Progressive ideas and movements during this period frequently caused turmoil and conflict, but they also improved people's lives in countless ways.

Why it's relevant today

With their origins in the 1700s, progressive ideas still inspire movements in the contemporary world, most recently the 'Arab Spring' in the Middle East.

Source 4.2 Critical thinking blossomed during the Enlightenment.

Inquiry questions

- How did progressive ideas develop and where did they come from?
- What are the major progressive ideas that have shaped Western and non-Western societies over the last two centuries?
- Who were the major thinkers and activists associated with each of these ideas?
- How have they become embedded in social movements?
- Why are they called 'progressive'?
- What is the significance of these ideas and movements today?

Key terms

- anti-colonialism
- chartism
- feminism
- social Darwinism
- anti-racism
- collectivism
- individualism
- socialism
- capitalism
- egalitarianism
- nationalism

Source 4.3 Tsar Nicholas of Russia and his family were all murdered in the wake of the 1917 Russian Revolution

Significant individuals

- Adam Smith
- Karl Marx
- Mary Wollstonecraft
- Robert Owen
- Toussaint L'Ouverture
- Charles Darwin
- Marie Olympe de Gouges
- Mohandas Gandhi
- Tom Paine
- WEB Du Bois

Let's begin

In contemporary Australia we may take for granted certain aspects of our lives, such as the right to vote for our leaders and to express our religious views or challenge religion, as well as the right to education, work and a decent standard of living. We expect to have those same rights whether we are male or female. Yet these rights have not always been present. Indeed, they remain nonexistent in parts of the world today. In this chapter we look at some of the people who first defined and sought these rights, who formed movements to fight for them and whose names are linked with them. Some of the thinkers have had such a broad personal impact that their names have become associated with the ideas they expressed (for example, Marxism and Darwinism). We look briefly at a wide range of ideas, focusing on one in particular: egalitarianism. The basic idea of egalitarianism is that everyone is born equal and free. This apparently simple idea has caused many wars and revolutions. The desire for equality was a key factor in the French Revolution, in the American War of Independence, in many anti-colonial struggles and, in a less violent but equally progressive context, in what is known as the women's movement.

Source 4.4 Tolpuddle martyrs' memorial statue, Dorset, UK

Source 4.5 Adam Smith, author of the highly influential *Wealth of Nations*

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS

Source 4.6 Chartists march on town of Newport, Wales, during Newport rising in 1839

1600

The Enlightenment begins **1650** in Europe

1683 Decline of Ottoman Empire

1700

American Revolution **1775–83**

Adam Smith writes **1776** *The Wealth of Nations*

French Revolution **1789–92**

Haitian Revolution **1791–1804**

Mary Wollstonecraft writes *A* **1792** *Vindication of the Rights of Woman*

1788 Britain begins to colonise Australia

c. 1790 First working-class reform organisations in Britain are founded

Source 4.7 Copy of first edition of *On the Origin of Species* (1859) by Charles Darwin

1800

Trial of Tolpuddle Martyrs **1834**

The rise of Chartism **1838** in England

Charles Darwin publishes **1859** *On The Origin of Species*

Karl Marx writes *Das Kapital* **1867**

1830 World's first railway line opens in Britain

1839–42 First Opium War between Britain and China

1854 Eureka Stockade in Australia

1865 Slavery is abolished in the United States

1893 Women gain the vote in New Zealand

1894 Women gain the vote in South Australia

1898 The Boxer rebellion in China

Source 4.8 Meeting of the Committee of Public Safety, formed during the Reign of Terror in the years following the 1789 French Revolution

1900

Russian Revolution **1917**

1901 Australia's states are joined in a federation

Source 4.9 Kate Sheppard National Suffragists' Memorial, Christchurch, New Zealand

Mary Wollstonecraft

Jean-Jacques Rousseau

Olympe de Gouges

Charles Darwin

Karl Marx

Adam Smith
Robert Owen
New Lanark

Chartism

Thomas Paine

French Revolution

Toussaint L'Ouverture

WEB Du Bois

American Revolution
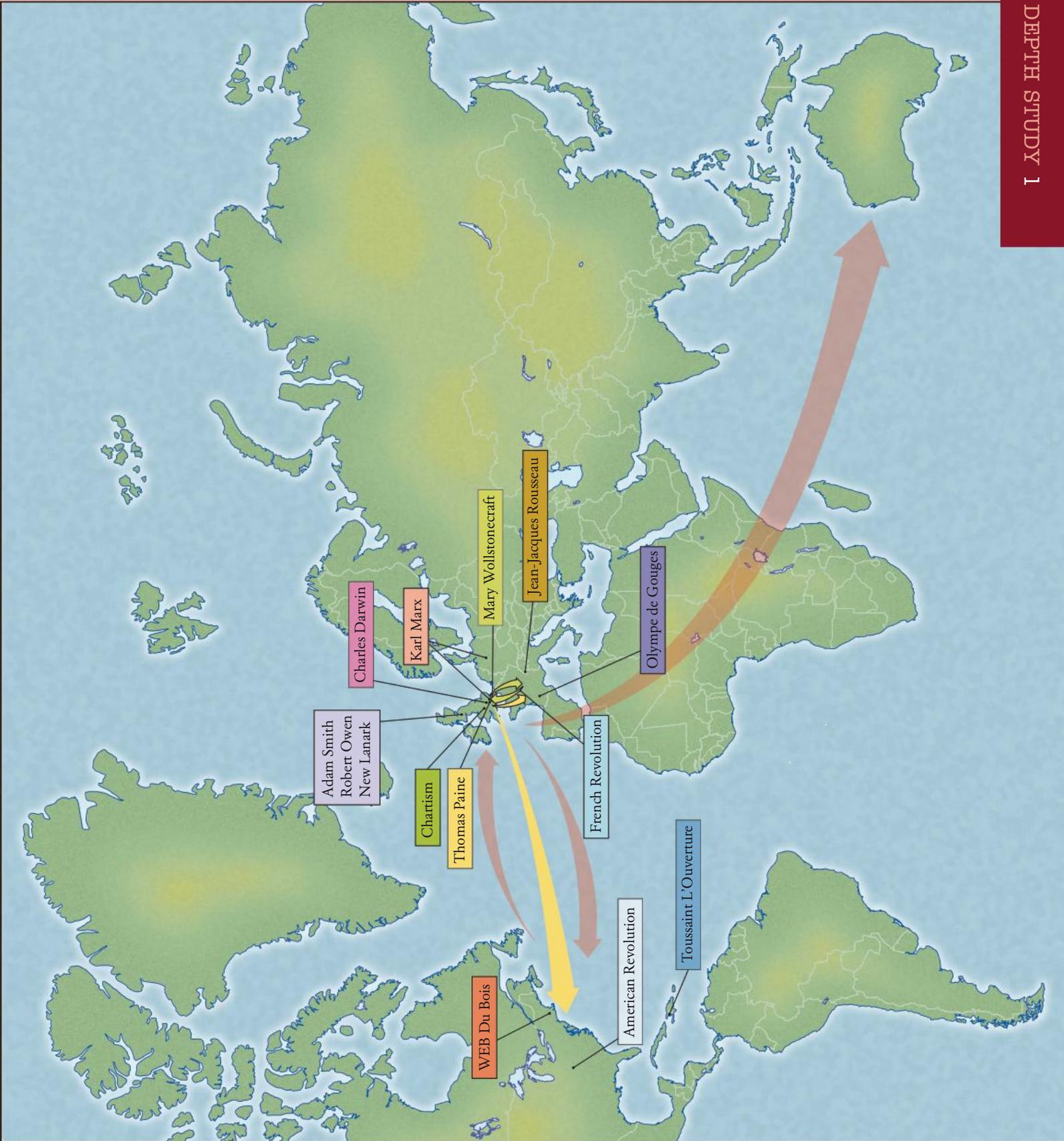
Source 4.10 Enlightenment ideas spread across Europe, the North Atlantic and beyond to colonies such as Australia

Emergence of key ideas

The Enlightenment (1650–1770)

The seventeenth to eighteenth century **Enlightenment**, sometimes known as 'the age of reason', was a major seed bed for progressive ideas. This was a period when scientific knowledge flourished. A range of thinkers – including John Locke, David Hume, Jean Jacques Rousseau and Voltaire – began to draw on reason rather than religion or myth to uncover the 'rules' of the human and natural worlds. Their focus on reason and the ability to think for oneself led to fertile debates between reason and faith. They threw off superstition and sought to throw light on the supposedly dark world of medieval religion. They questioned the authority of the church and state and the absolute right of monarchs to rule. Many developed a concern with 'natural rights', the forerunner to the current concern with 'human rights'.

> **Enlightenment** a philosophical movement that placed emphasis on reason rather than tradition and gave rise to many progressive ideas

The ideas of the Enlightenment spread widely through many different countries. In Britain, the United States and, later, Australia, many of these views were discussed in groups such as literary and philosophical societies and Mechanics Institutes. Enlightenment ideas also underpinned two major upheavals of modern times, the American War of Independence and the French Revolution. Thomas Paine and Mary Wollstonecraft, two well-known English writers, lived and breathed Enlightenment ideals and wrote influential works that contributed to the spread of those ideas.

Thomas Paine (1737–1809)

Thomas Paine, the son of an English Quaker and corset maker, had a profound effect on the American Revolution. After a meeting in London with the American 'Founding Father' Benjamin Franklin, Paine migrated to America in 1774 where he wrote the revolutionary pamphlet *Common Sense* (1776). This widely read pamphlet offered

Source 4.11 Thomas Paine was an advocate for the rights of man.

Activity **4.1**

Look up the word 'progressive' in a dictionary.

1   Identify any 'progressive' movements in your community.

2   Suggest a progressive idea that would make your community a better place.

a strong defence of American independence from England and argued for the establishment of a republican constitution. Paine was an excellent communicator: his writing was often called 'the voice of the common man' and his work was widely circulated. He also played a part in the French Revolution, narrowly escaping death by guillotine.

Paine's book *The Rights of Man,* written in 1791 as a response to the French Revolution, was strongly anti-monarchist. It argued that all men are equal in the eyes of God and therefore they should all have political rights. His strong democratic republican views forced him to flee England for France and he became a French citizen in 1792. He opposed the most radical aspects of the French Revolution, however, and did not support the execution of King Louis XVI. Imprisoned, he wrote *The Age of Reason* (1793), a strong and fiery case against the established Christian church. Paine later returned to America where he died, shunned by many former supporters because of his anti-Christian stand. 'My country is the world,' he wrote, 'and my religion is to do good.'

companion, school teacher and **governess**, which were occupations typical for women of her class.

A position as an editorial assistant to the radical publisher of the magazine *Analytical Review* enabled her to focus on writing and to develop her literary skills. Her work as a governess gave her an abiding hatred of the situation of intelligent women dependent on the rich and uneducated, and led to her book *Thoughts on the Education of Daughters* (1787). In it she stressed the importance of reason in the education of both girls and boys, and deplored the focus on instinct and sentimentality for girls. Wollstonecraft also wrote *A Vindication of the Rights of Men* (published anonymously in 1790) supporting the French Revolution, followed by her best-known work, *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792).

governess a female teacher, usually teaching children in a private house

Activity 4.2

Role-play a conversation between Thomas Paine and Benjamin Franklin over coffee in London in 1773 about what should be done on the British colonies in America.

Mary Wollstonecraft (1759–97)

While men such as Paine wrote about the equality of all men, hardly any considered women to be their equals. Mary Wollstonecraft, however, felt strongly that women should have the same rights as men, particularly in relation to education. Described by one critic as 'that hyena in petticoats', Wollstonecraft was born in London to struggling parents. Mainly self-educated, she became a lady's

Source 4.12 Mary Wollstonecraft was a fighter for the rights of women.

Like Thomas Paine and other English intellectuals, Wollstonecraft was enthusiastic about the possibilities of the French Revolution and travelled to France in 1792, where she lived with the American Gilbert Imlay. There her first daughter Fanny was born. Wollstonecraft later married William Godwin. The birth of their daughter Mary led to her death shortly after at the age of 38 years. Wollstonecraft is one of the 'founding mothers' of **feminism**: the belief that women should have the same rights and opportunities as men, and that men and women are basically equals. This flew in the face of the thinking of her time, which viewed women as 'the weaker sex', inferior to men and dependent upon them. Girls were usually given a very different education from boys to prepare them for a life as a wife and mother. Wollstonecraft advocated equal educational opportunities as a right for girls, claiming that well-educated women would make better wives and mothers.

feminism advocacy for the belief that men and women are equals and should enjoy all the same rights

Role of progressive ideas in major social upheavals

The War of American Independence (1776–83)

The war between Great Britain and its American colonists sent shock waves throughout Europe. Here were people putting into practice Enlightenment ideas, such as those spread by Tom Paine, claiming that everyone was created equal and seeking the right to representation in their own government. Colonists refused to pay taxes without representation. France aided the American revolutionaries, which led to the spread of revolutionary ideas in France, such as the notion of republicanism and liberal freedoms. As a result of the American War of Independence, America became a democratic republic, thus offering a model for other countries to seek to follow. The idea of a republic was not new, however, as it drew on the republics of ancient times, such as Greece and Rome.

Activity **4.3**

The United States Declaration of Independence states that 'all men are created equal':

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.

1 Explain what you think this statement means.

2 Assess whether you think this statement includes women or slaves.

HISTORICAL FACT

Did you know that the American War of Independence was sparked by a 'tea party'? Instead of drinking it, American patriots in Boston threw tea overboard in retaliation to the British government's tax on tea.

Research **4.1**

Write a report on the Boston Tea Party of 1773. Identify any Enlightenment ideas that may have provoked the event and include a discussion on a group of modern-day Americans who call themselves the Tea Party.

The French Revolution (1789)

Enlightenment thinking was also a crucial factor in the French Revolution, which was perhaps the most important revolution of modern history. It is one of the most dramatic examples of an absolute monarchy and a strong aristocracy giving way to the inclusion of citizens in their own government.

The French revolution shaped, and continues to shape, many social and political ideas, including the right of citizens to determine their own futures, and a strong sense of the nation. The early catch cry of the revolutionaries, 'Liberty, equality and fraternity – or death', has been taken up by many activists over the centuries. It is a cry for democracy and the overthrow of oppressive leaders.

The French revolutionaries also drew up a *Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen* (1789), which stated, 'Men are born and remain free and equal in rights' and also, radically, 'Liberty consists in the ability to do anything which does not harm others'. In accordance with this manifesto, many radical laws were passed, including the abolition of slavery in French colonies in 1794. Yet despite these innovations, the French Revolution was a violent time, as successive waves of 'reformers', trying to prove their 'progressive' credentials and hatred of monarchy and privilege, annihilated those who went before. The hated symbol of the Revolution – the guillotine – is a permanent

Source 4.13 *Prise de la Bastille* by Jean-Pierre Houël (1789) depicts the storming of the Bastille, a fortress in Paris, and the arrest of Governor de Launay on 14 July 1789.

reminder of the potential of revolutionary ideas to work for evil as well as good. The spirit of revolutionary times can be seen in the lives of two key individuals, Olympe de Gouges and Toussaint L'Ouverture, who were part of the major progressive movements of their times.

Olympe de Gouges (1748–1793)

Marie Olympe de Gouges, born in Montauban, lived in Paris during the French Revolution. She was a playwright, a philosopher, a fighter for the abolition of slavery and an advocate for women's rights. Like her English contemporary Mary Wollstonecraft, de Gouges wrote one of the founding documents of feminism, *The Rights of Women and of the Female Citizen* (1791), which boldly claimed: 'Woman is born free, and remains equal to man in rights.' This was a radical statement for her time. She also proposed that marriage should be based on gender equality. Her outspoken criticism of the violent acts of some of the revolutionaries resulted in her own death by the guillotine in 1793.

Source 4.15 Fighter for Haitian independence, General Toussaint L'Ouverture
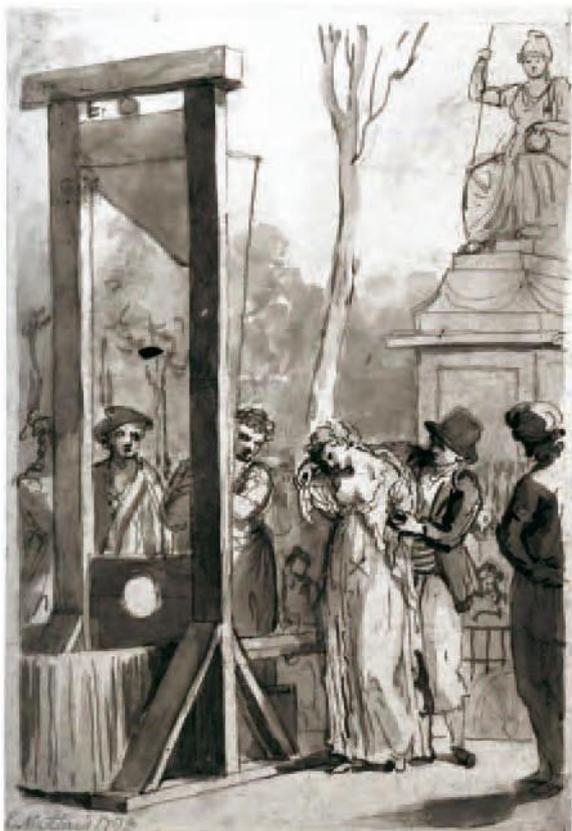
Source 4.14 The execution of Olympe de Gouges

Toussaint L'Ouverture (1743–1803)

The ferment of ideas stirred up by the American War of Independence and the French Revolution spread like wildfire. In the French **colony** of Saint-Domingue (now Haiti) in the Caribbean, former slave Toussaint L'Ouverture led an independence movement that emancipated all the slaves. For a brief time Haiti became a French protectorate governed by black former slaves. The success of this Haitian revolution reverberated around the world and was an early victory for **anti-colonialism**. However, it did not last. Napoleon Bonaparte, seeking to restore slavery to French colonies, trapped and captured L'Ouverture, who died in exile.

colony a settlement formed of conquered territory

anti-colonialism a belief that a state or country should be independent, and not under the rule of another country

Reasons for the emergence and development of key ideas

Setting the scene: the Industrial Revolution

Ideas do not spring from nowhere: changing circumstances and new technologies lead to new challenges and new ways of thinking. Think about how the internet has changed so many things we do. From the 1750s the Industrial Revolution in Britain changed patterns of agriculture, developed manufacturing processes for cheaper production of goods, created a wealthy middle class, and exploited cheap labour from those who had been excluded from working on the land. These social changes led to widespread uncertainty, and sometimes bitterness and envy. One of the reasons for envy was the emergence of very wealthy **merchants** and industrialists: the new class of capitalists.

merchant a person who buys and sells goods

Capitalism

This was the period of rampant **capitalism**. Also known as the free-market economy, or free-enterprise economy, this is an economic system that has been dominant in the Western world since the break-up of feudalism. Within this system, most of the means of production are privately owned and production is guided, and income distributed, largely through the operation of markets. Although

capitalism an economic system based on private ownership and free-market enterprise

Activity 4.4

Capitalism has been viewed as a natural companion to democracy.

1. Discuss whether capitalism always accompanies democracy.

2. List some countries that have a capitalist system but a non-democratic society.

3. Research others that are democratic but do not embrace capitalism. You may like to consider China and Taiwan in your investigations.

the continuous development of capitalism as a system dates only from the sixteenth century, earlier versions of capitalist institutions existed in the ancient world, and centres of capitalism existed during the later European Middle Ages. Capitalism brought much wealth to industrialising countries such as Britain and the United States, but the vast profits made were unevenly distributed. Many workers were poorly paid and the fact that many capitalist owners were making huge profits led to unrest and rebellion. Children were often employed in dirty and dangerous work. The increase in factory production led to a decline in the handicraft skills of artisans, guilds and journeymen. Many of these formerly independent workers found themselves and their families dependent on low wages and insecure working conditions – even in poverty.

HISTORICAL FACT

Adam Smith was a typically absent-minded professor. He once made himself a cup of tea from bread and butter. He declared it a very bad cup of tea!

Adam Smith (1723–1790)

Adam Smith was a Scottish philosopher and political economist whose work has had a lasting impact on economics. He was one of the major thinkers of the **Scottish Enlightenment**, as was his friend the philosopher and religious sceptic David Hume. Born in Scotland, Smith was educated at Glasgow University from the age of 14 and later at Oxford. He became a university professor in Glasgow at 28, but left in 1764 to become the tutor to the young Duke of Buccleuch. Smith travelled with his pupil throughout Europe, where he met many of the famous thinkers of his day, including Benjamin Franklin, Voltaire and Rousseau. In 1776, Smith wrote the influential work *The Wealth of Nations* in which he argued that rational self-interest in a free market leads to economic well-being. He has often been characterised as a supporter of unbridled capitalism and of the idea, in contemporary terms, that 'greed is good'. Yet in an earlier book, *The Theory of Moral Sentiments* (1759), he argued that human nature contains a predisposition to caring about the welfare of others.

Smith's work has had great influence: his ideas can be found in the work of others such as Karl Marx and the twentieth-century economists John Maynard Keynes and Milton Friedman. There is considerable debate about some of his major ideas, such as the importance of his use of the term 'an invisible hand' – the idea that the market works inevitably towards **equilibrium**; that markets are self-regulating. Smith was ahead of his time in setting out the idea of the division of

Scottish Enlightenment refers to a group of Scottish thinkers (Adam Smith, David Hume etc.) who espoused the ideas of the Enlightenment

equilibrium achieving a state of balance
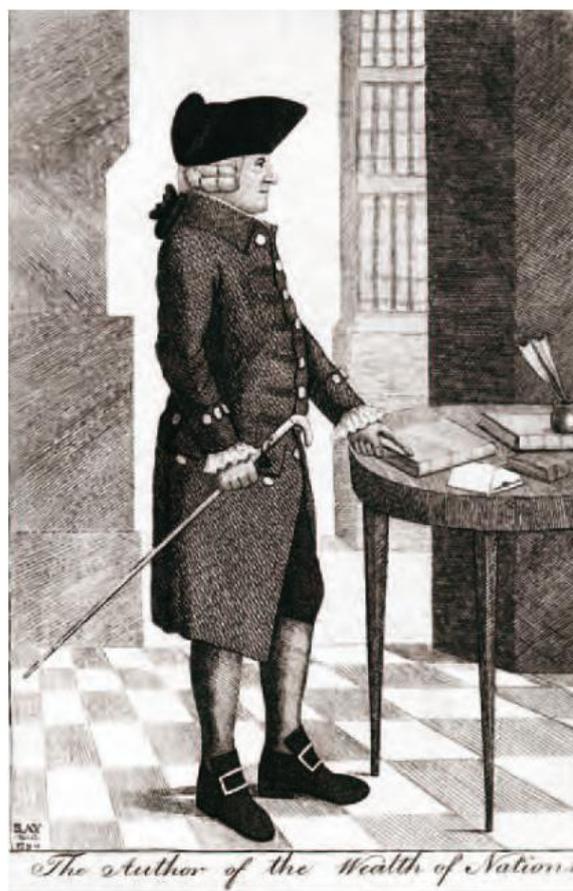
Source 4.16 Adam Smith, the founder of modern economics

Times gone by ...

> It is not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer, or the baker that we expect our dinner, but from their regard to their own interest.

Source 4.17 Adam Smith, *The Wealth of Nations*

Discuss the possible meanings of this quotation. Do you agree with Smith?

labour. He argued that while a single worker in a pin factory could produce only one pin a day by themselves, if tasks were divided and specialised, 48 000 pins a day could be produced. He also opposed colonialism on economic grounds.

Robert Owen (1771–1858)

Not all factory owners were greedy monsters who exploited their workers. A few cared deeply about their workers. One in particular, Robert Owen, a businessman and social pioneer, was inspired by the progressive moral views of the 1790s. He put these ideas into practice at the cotton mills of New Lanark, Scotland, where he established a model community to improve the lives of workers. There he established the first infant school in the world, a creche for working mothers, free medical care, an education system for children and evening classes for adults. He was committed to the ideal of female equality. He also insisted that children under the age of 10 years should not work.

Source 4.18 Businessman and social pioneer Robert Owen

Source 4.19 New Lanark Cotton Mills: a model community?

Robert Owen has been described as one of the founders of socialism and the cooperative movement. Many of his ideas are still progressive today. Hold a class debate arguing whether 'Robert Owen's New Lanark still provides a model for factory work'.

Research **4.2**

New Lanark is now a World Heritage Site (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks). Use the library or the internet to find out more about Owen's writing and present to the class extracts of his views on one of the following:

- education
- social inclusion
- parenting
- working conditions, childcare and workplace nurseries
- the environment.

Collectivism

One of the results of the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution was that disaffected people began to organise themselves into groups, realising that collective action to improve their lot would be more effective than individual action. In contrast to **individualism**, which sees the rights and interests of individuals as more important than anything else, **collectivism** sees the individual as subordinate to a social collectivity such as a state, a nation, a social class or a race. The idea of collectivism is implicit in the idea of the modern state, which is portrayed as acting for the good of all. One of the most significant writers to develop this idea was the Swiss philosopher and novelist Jean-Jacques Rousseau. In the book *The Social Contract* (1762), Rousseau claimed that true being and freedom could be obtained through submission to the laws of the state.

individualism an outlook that emphasises the rights and interests of individuals

collectivism an outlook that places the interests of individuals as subordinate to the group for the benefit of all

Chartism (1838–50)

Chartism was a collectivist movement of British working men and women who from 1836 sought to gain wider parliamentary representation in order to improve their lives. The movement followed the *Reform Act* of 1832 in Britain that gave the vote to middle-class men. Its name comes from the *People's Charter*, which was a direct response to the deteriorating working and living conditions of the early nineteenth century. Chartism has been described as the first nationwide mass movement of working people – an expression of working class consciousness. The movement maintained a strong faith in parliament to bring about social change.

Chartism a social movement of people committed to the *People's Charter*, a set of basic political claims, including the right to vote
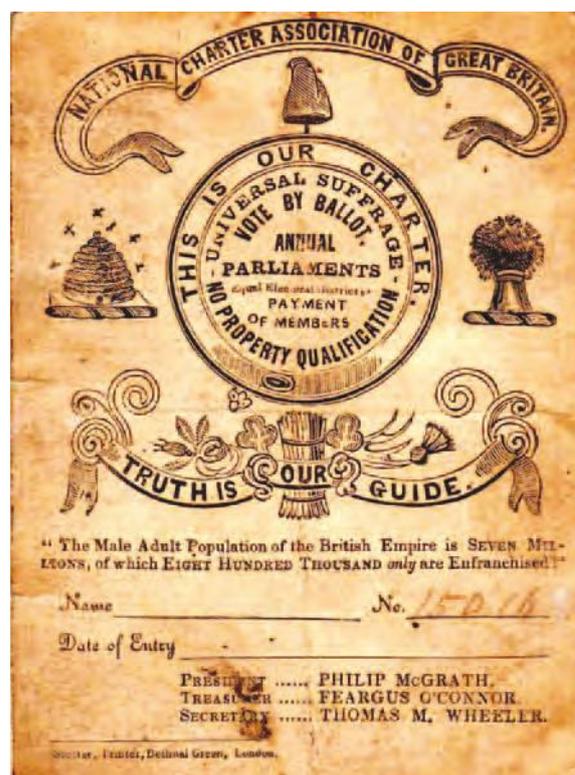
Source 4.20 National Charter Association membership card

Times gone by ...

Being an Outline of an Act to provide for the just Representation of the People of Great Britain and Ireland in the Commons' House of Parliament: embracing the Principles of Universal **Suffrage**, no Property Qualification, Annual Parliaments, Equal Representation, Payment of Members, and Vote by Ballot.

Prepared by a Committee of twelve persons, six members of Parliament and six members of the London Working Men's Association, and addressed to the People of the United Kingdom.

An Act to provide for the just Representation of the People of Great Britain and Ireland, in the Commons' House of Parliament.

suffrage the right to vote in political elections

Source 4.21 The Chartist Circular: an Act to provide for the just Representation of the People of Great Britain and Ireland, in the Commons' House of Parliament, 5 October 1839

We swear by the Southern Cross to stand truly by each other and fight to defend our rights and liberties.

Source 4.22 Statement agreed to by those involved in the Eureka Stockade

Read Sources 4.21 and 4.22 then answer the following questions:

1 Locate which words in the statement by participants in the Eureka Stockade indicate a collectivist stance.

2 Outline the six basic demands made by the Chartists.

3 What did the Chartists mean by universal suffrage? Is it what we would understand the term to mean today?

4 How many of those six demands have been met in Australian society today? If any have not been fully met, are there good reasons for this?

5 If you were writing the Charter now, are there any other principles you would list?

In 1839, 1842 and 1848 millions of Britons signed petitions for parliament to implement the Charter, without success. After several mass public gatherings, a wave of strikes and several riots, Chartism faded after 1850. However, its legacy was strong, giving an impetus to parliamentary reform for decades to come.

The Chartist movement had strong links with Australia. It has been estimated that 102 Chartists were transported to Australia as convicts in the wake of the three successive Chartist peak years of 1839, 1842 and 1848. Recently, Australian historians have traced the way in which both convict and free settler Chartists used their influence in the Australian colonies to bring about the near complete acceptance of the Charter demands in Australia, well before they were enacted in Britain. Chartist ideas were at the root of many workers' struggles, including the rebellion over mining licences that culminated with the famous battle at the Eureka Stockade.

Source 4.23 The flag that flew at the Eureka Stockade at Ballarat – a rebellion inspired by Chartist ideals

Activity **4.6**

1 Describe some of the symbols that we associate with Australian nationalism.

2 List some of the key dates on which we celebrate the Australian nation.

3 Describe the ways in which nationalism can be a progressive force.

4 Research examples where nationalism has had a less positive side. (You might think, for instance, of the ways in which some newcomers to a country might feel excluded.) Consider countries other than Australia in your answer.

5 Decide if you think there is there a link between sport and national identity.

6 Determine what people mean when they accuse someone of being 'un-Australian'.

7 Analyse the ways in which the Eureka Stockade contributed to Australian identity.

Nationalism

The French Revolution is also credited with boosting the idea of **nationalism**. Nationalism involves a strong sense of identity with a particular community; for example, a strong sense of being Australian. This usually involves a strong pride in 'one's country', a sense that the interests of the state are supreme, and in some cases a willingness to make sacrifices for it. There are two main types: *state nationalism*, which is imposed by the state (top down); and *popular* or *grassroots nationalism*, which springs

nationalism devotion to national identity or patriotism

from a sense of belonging to a particular national or ethnic group (bottom up). Some Australians, for example, might feel that their indigenous, Vietnamese or Greek identity, for example, overrides their sense of belonging to the Australian nation. Perhaps it co-exists beside it.

Although we tend to take nationalism for granted, it is a fairly recent idea historically. It gained strength during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as many nation-states were created. For example, there was no British nation until 1707. Before that people thought of themselves as English, Welsh, Scots or Irish. Italy was only created as a 'nation' in 1861.

State systems of schooling help to build national identity and culture, as do ceremonies and symbols such as flags, 'national' anthems and national dress. In some nations, only one official language is permitted to flourish at the expense of the languages of minority groups. There is considerable debate as to whether nationalism is a progressive idea or one that leads to division and conflict. Perhaps it can be both.

Imperialism

Imperialism has been defined as the policy of extending the rule or authority of an empire or nation over foreign countries, or of acquiring and holding colonies and dependencies. This was not a new idea in the modern world. Indeed, the Persians, Greeks and Romans all acquired empires and colonies in ancient times. The Ottomans and Austro-Hungarians built large empires in early modern times. However, from the 1870s on, there was a scramble by the major European powers for the control of countries whose goods and people could be exploited for gain. In fact, from 1875 to 1895, more than 25 per cent of the world's land was seized by European countries. Associated with imperialism (but not the same thing) was colonialism, where major powers planted colonies of their citizens on the soil of another country, as was the case in Australia.

Although by no means a progressive idea, imperialism is an important concept for an understanding of the modern world as it did much to shape global politics in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The struggle against imperialism gave impetus to many progressive movements, including nationalism, egalitarianism, anti-colonialism and **anti-racism**.

anti-racism opposition to any form of racism

Socialism

Strongly opposed to imperialism and also, in effect, an opponent of nationalism, **socialism** is another social movement that arose from the collectivist and cooperative impulses of the early nineteenth century. Socialism was based on the

socialism a political idealogy based on shared contributions to and shared benefits from society and the economy

Activity **4.7**

Imagine that you live in a country that has been made part of the empire of another (for example, you might be an Indonesian person who was part of the Dutch empire in the eighteenth century).

1 Describe how you might feel about the colonising country. What opportunities might be available to you through colonisation? What ill effects might it bring?

2 Propose the Enlightenment ideas that you might draw on to argue for your freedom from the colonisers.

understanding that the poor, the weak and the oppressed would only gain a tolerable life through the pooling of resources and the fair and equal distribution of wealth. It was part of a collectivist response to the major upheavals of the Industrial Revolution and to growing capitalist wealth. We have already seen that the response to the deteriorating working conditions led to the formation of cooperatives, **trade unions** and reformist groups such as the Chartists. Socialism sprang from several strands of collectivist thinking: from aspects of Christian doctrine, from trade unionism, from the formation of cooperatives and from the ideas of French thinkers such as Henri de Saint-Simon, Charles Fourier, Louis Blanc and Pierre-Joseph Proudhon. It has had a profound effect to this day.

trade unions organisations of workers joining together in order to achieve common goals such as better wages or working conditions

Socialism is often divided into two main strands. The first is revolutionary socialism, which led to Marxism. The other major strand is democratic socialism, which has inspired, and still inspires, many political parties throughout Europe and the globe (see Source 4.24).

The genealogy of socialism

```
┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────────┐  ┌──────────┐  ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Christian    │  │  Cooperative  │  │  Trade    │  │ Utopian socialist theories: Babeuf, Saint-│
│  socialism    │  │  movement     │  │  unions   │  │ Simon, Fourrier, Blanc, Proudhon, Karl Marx│
└──────────────┘  └──────────────┘  └──────────┘  └─────────────────────────────────────┘
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Mid-nineteenth-century socialism

Revolutionary socialism   Democratic socialism

Marxism

Anarchism
Anarcho-syndicalism
Terrorism
Non-violence

Democratic socialism
Democratic trade unions

Marxism-
Leninism
(communism)

Democratic socialist parties in:
Austria-Hungary
Belgium
Denmark
France
Germany
Great Britain
Italy
Norway
Portugal
Romania
Russian Empire
Serbia
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland

Source 4.24 The genealogy of socialism

Source 4.25 A political cartoon that depicts the tentacles
of imperial greed stretching across the globe

☛ *Note this down*

One famous group who formed a 'trade union' in 1834 were the farmers from the village of Tolpuddle. Research these farmers and find out why they were called the Tolpuddle Martyrs. Using the graphic organiser below, complete the 'who, when where, what, why and how' for the Tolpuddle Martyrs.

The Tolpuddle Martyrs	
Who	
When	
Where	
What	
Why	
How	

Karl Marx (1818–1883)

Karl Marx, a philosopher, social scientist and historian, was a towering figure whose work had an enormous influence on the world of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Marx, a German, was exiled from his country for his revolutionary views. Writing from his new home in London, Marx and his fellow German exile Friedrich Engels wrote *The Communist Manifesto* (1848), which subsequently inspired revolutions across the globe. Marx also penned *Das Kapital* (*Capital*, 1867–94), his three-volume life work.

In *Capital*, Marx drew on the ideas of many previous thinkers expressed during the Enlightenment period in an attempt to create a universal theory for human society, just as Darwin had done for natural history. Seeking to uncover the laws of human history, Marx proposed stages of history and an eventual withering away of the state. Marx also helped found an International Workingmen's Association.

In many ways the extraordinary influence of his work is due as much to its emotional power as to its intellectual rigour. Words such as the following from *The Communist Manifesto* inspired those opposed to the exploitation of workers by the **bourgeoisie**: 'A spectre is haunting Europe, the spectre of communism. Let the ruling classes tremble … The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains … Working men of all countries unite'. Marx is buried at Highgate Cemetery in London. The inscription on his tombstone reads: 'Philosophers have so far explained the world in various ways: the point, however, is to change it'. Marx's writing has certainly changed the world. It contributed to some of the major revolutions of the twentieth century – such as the Russian and the Chinese Revolutions – and inspired many contemporary regimes.

bourgeoisie capitalist owners and rulers

Source 4.26 Karl Marx was the most influential socialist thinker of the nineteenth century.

Charles Darwin (1809–1882)

Charles Darwin is another man whose challenging ideas had a significant influence on the progress of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Darwin was an English naturalist whose theories of evolution and natural selection – commonly known as 'the survival of the fittest' – shook the establishment of his time because it challenged the Biblical notion that the world was created by God in six days and six nights. This was a religious belief widely accepted in the mid nineteenth century.

As we have seen, the Enlightenment created a climate where scientific ideas could flourish, yet their acceptance in educated circles was often controversial. Darwin spent five years travelling the world on the ship HMS *Beagle*, particularly collecting data in South America and the Galapagos Islands. He observed that 'all living species of the plant and animal world have progressed through constant interchange with their environment and with competition among themselves'. Darwin argued that all humanity came from a common ancestry in the distant past, a theory that we have fully accepted now. The notion that humanity might have descended from apes shocked the religious establishment of the mid nineteenth century, which firmly believed that animals and humankind inhabited quite separate universes. Darwin argued that evolution means that we are all distant cousins – humans, birds and mammals – a revolutionary thought to many at that time.

Source 4.27 Charles Darwin as a young man in the late 1830s

social Darwinism the idea that only the 'fittest' individuals or nations or races survive

Anti-racism, anti-colonialism and non-violence

In the second half of the nineteenth century, the notion that some races were more 'evolved' than others was widely accepted. This belief enabled people to tolerate systems of injustice based not only on social class but also on the idea of the 'superior' white race ruling the 'inferior' non-white populations. These beliefs underpinned the actions of colonialism, allowing the colonising country the comforting thought that they were 'helping' the less developed nations.

Source 4.28 *HMS* Beagle *at Tierra del Fuego*, by Conrad Martens

In the space of eighteen months, two men were born on opposite sides of the globe who would become famous throughout the world for their struggles to end discrimination against non-white people and to challenge the ideas of colonialists. Those men were Mohandas Gandhi, born in India, and William Edward Burghardt (WEB) Du Bois, born in the United States.

Mohandas Gandhi (1869–1948)

Gandhi, often referred to as Mahatma (Great Soul), was born in India, near Bombay (known today as Mumbai), to well-to-do parents who ensured he had a good education. They wished him to become a barrister and sent him to London to train in the law. Gandhi returned to India as a qualified barrister, but in 1893 he accepted a post in a law firm in Natal, South Africa. At that time both India and South Africa were under British colonial rule as part of the vast British Empire. As a young man Gandhi had absorbed many of the beliefs of his Hindu and Jain forbears. He was a vegetarian, he practised compassion towards all sentient beings and he believed in tolerance between people of different faiths. He often fasted in order to attain self-purification.
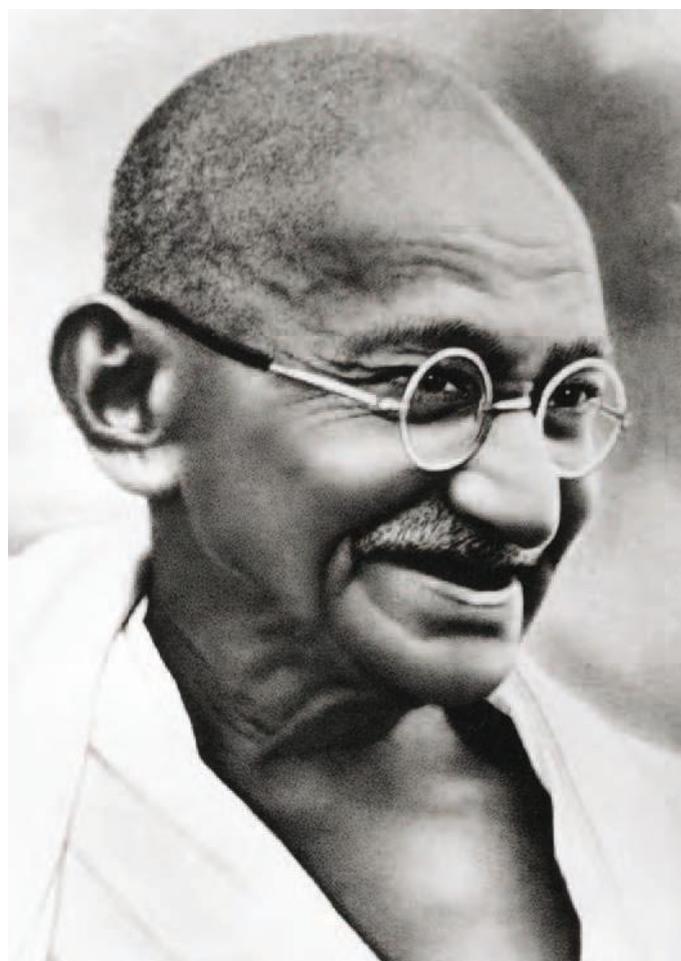
Source 4.29 Mohandas Gandhi, an advocate of non-violent resistance

In South Africa, Gandhi was shocked at the treatment of the Indian population there and suffered considerable discrimination himself. His experience of racism and prejudice led to his lifelong activism in South Africa and India. He is revered for his dedication to non-violent protests and to civil disobedience, rather than violent action, to achieve political goals. Gandhi spent several years in South Africa, founding the Natal Indian Congress in 1894 and uniting South Africa's Indian population. On his return to India in 1915, Gandhi became a central figure in the struggle for Indian independence from British rule. He perfected the art of non-cooperation with unjust laws and developed a huge following. His influence was a vital factor in India's achievement of independence in 1949.

WEB Du Bois (1868–1963)

WEB Du Bois was another man who devoted his life to fighting inequality among races. Born in Massachusetts, Du Bois came from a mixed race family with African, French and Dutch forebears. Du Bois was an African-American scholar, educator and activist. He was well educated, gaining degrees in Nashville, Tennessee, then at Harvard University. He was the first African-American to gain a Harvard doctorate and his thesis on the history of the slave trade is still considered one of the most detailed on the subject. Du Bois became a university teacher at Atlanta University and throughout his long career wrote many influential books and articles about African-Americans and their place in US society. He was a great supporter of black nationalism and of civil rights for African-Americans. Du Bois became the head of an organisation called the National Association for Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). His work provided much of the thinking that underpinned the civil rights movement in the United States in the 1950s and 1960s.

Activity **4.8**

An eye for an eye makes the whole world blind.

1   Evaluate what this quote tells you about Gandhi's attitude to violence as a method of gaining political goals.

2   Explain the idea of 'an eye for an eye'.

3   Research recent examples of 'civil disobedience' as a means of protest.

Activity **4.9**

Gandhi's theories of non-violence and anti-racism have inspired countless people from former South African President Nelson Mandela to US President Barack Obama, civil rights activist Dr Martin Luther King, Burmese political leader Aung San Suu Kyi and even Beatles band member John Lennon. Hold a class debate arguing whether 'non-violence is more effective in achieving independence than violence'.

Egalitarianism: a key progressive idea

Now that we have examined a wide range of influential thinkers stretching from the period of the Enlightenment to the late nineteenth century, let us return to one idea in more detail: **egalitarianism**. This idea was a key driver of the American and French revolutions, as well as a slave uprising in Haiti. One of the features of the last decade of the eighteenth century (the 1790s) was the strong radical impulse fuelled by both Enlightenment ideas and the revolutionary fervour of the times. Much of that radicalism focused on the equality and liberty of the individual.

egalitarianism the idea that everyone should have equal rights and opportunities

As we have seen, the Industrial Revolution gave rise to major economic and technological changes and to the rapid growth of capitalism. Vast inequalities of wealth led concerned people to argue that such gaps between people's lives could not be justified. Some should not be rich while others endured grinding poverty. Nor could a form of government be justified that only allowed certain rich or noble white men to have a say in making laws for all citizens. Working men and women read the works of Tom Paine and others and joined associations such as the Chartists, hoping to bring about peaceful change by parliamentary means. While the Chartists sought more parliamentary representation for men, many women also argued that they also should have the vote. Some read the works of writers such as Mary Wollstonecraft and Olympe de Gouges. Non-white populations and colonised people began to question their place and to assert their rights. Significant activists began anti-racist movements. Monarchy was increasingly questioned, although the constitutional monarchy of Britain was seen as more representative than the French monarchy.

Privilege by birth or ability?

Overall, the idea that birth status would determine one's future life pattern was challenged. Should the son or daughter of a rich family always be rich while the children of paupers were destined for poverty? Would black people always be considered inferior? Many Christians sang the hymn 'All things Bright and Beautiful', which contains this verse:

> The rich man in his castle,
>
> The poor man at his gate
>
> He made them, high or lowly
>
> And ordered their estate.

Source 4.30 'All Things Bright and Beautiful' by Cecil F Alexander (1848)

This seemed to imply that one's position in life was God-given and could not be changed – that God 'ordered their estate', high or low. Yet many felt that education could change that ordering. They disputed the notion that only certain rich people could hold high office, or be guaranteed certain careers. The radical idea that a career could be based on ability or merit, rather than birth or skin colour – which we now take for granted – took root. Many people worked hard to educate themselves and their children so that they could compete for better jobs and raise themselves from poverty. Education was a critical element in bringing about this change.

Education – a progressive idea?

Before the Enlightenment, the church controlled education and what was taught. One of the outcomes of Enlightenment thinking was that religious and general education were separated. Modern subjects as well as the classics (Latin and Greek) were introduced. The influential Swiss thinker, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, for example, advocated radical new approaches such as 'natural education' for children and the creation of a unified national system of education. Such a national system was actually put into place in Poland in the late 1700s. Both of these developments we take for granted now.

Writers who advocated equality for all, such as Thomas Paine and Mary Wollstonecraft, saw education as a vital plank in preparing all individuals as citizens of their society. At New Lanark, Robert Owen provided schools for children and evening classes for adults. By the

Times gone by …

In detail our demands are clear and unequivocal. First, we would vote; with the right to vote goes everything: freedom, manhood, the honor of your wives, the chastity of your daughters, the right to work, and the chance to rise, and let no man listen to those who deny this.

We want full manhood suffrage, and we want it now, henceforth and forever.

Second. We want discrimination in public accommodation to cease. Separation in railway and street cars, based simply on race and color, is un-American, undemocratic, and silly.

Third. We claim the right of freemen to walk, talk, and be with them that wish to be with us. No man has a right to choose another man's friends, and to attempt to do so is an impudent interference with the most fundamental human privilege.

Fourth. We want the laws enforced against rich as well as poor; against Capitalist as well as Laborer; against white as well as black. We are not more lawless than the white race, we are more often arrested, convicted, and mobbed. We want justice even for criminals and outlaws …

Fifth. We want our children educated. The school system in the country districts of the South is a disgrace and in few towns and cities are Negro schools what they ought to be. We want the national government to step in and wipe out illiteracy in the South. Either the United States will destroy ignorance or ignorance will destroy the United States.

And when we call for education we mean real education. We believe in work. We ourselves are workers, but work is not necessarily education. Education is the development of power and ideal. We want our children trained as intelligent human beings should be, and we will fight for all time against any proposal to educate black boys and girls simply as servants and underlings, or simply for the use of other people. They have a right to know, to think, to aspire.

These are some of the chief things which we want. How shall we get them? By voting where we may vote, by persistent, unceasing agitation; by hammering at the truth, by sacrifice and work.

Source 4.31 Excerpt from the Niagara Movement Speech by WEB Du Bois (1905)

1 List the five major changes Du Bois claimed for the African-American people. Have all of these goals been reached? (Research this on the internet or in the library.)

2 Imagine Du Bois's reaction to Barack Obama as President of the United States. Write a letter from Du Bois to a friend describing his response to the news.

3 Role-play a conversation between Gandhi and Du Bois looking back over the global achievements in human and civil rights of the last twenty years. What would they be happy about? What might they still want to change?

Source 4.32 Members of the British arm of NAACP protest American violence against African-Americans.

end of the nineteenth century, most Western countries provided compulsory elementary (primary) schooling for children, although attendance was often sporadic and children could be excused from classes to help families at busy times.

In Australia, as elsewhere, a national schooling system was established in the 1870s and 1880s that aimed to give all children a level of elementary schooling (eventually, after World War II, there was increased access to secondary schools). In the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, a very small percentage went on to universities after completing their school certificate. Throughout the twentieth century, the age of leaving school was gradually raised. Further, an increasing proportion of successful school finishers went on to university, so that today about 26 per cent of the population has a university degree. In the group aged 20–24 years in early-twenty-first-century Australia, more women than men were studying for a university

Research **4.5**

Examine the educational backgrounds of some prominent Australians (for example, political leaders Kevin Rudd, Julia Gillard or Malcolm Turnbull). You could use *The Australian Dictionary of Biography* or *Who's Who*. In a short report, discuss whether education helped them to overcome any disadvantages from their background.

degree. In theory, all girls and boys, no matter what their background, can now experience an equal education and be equally prepared for a range of jobs and professions. This is the fulfillment of the egalitarian dream for education.

Slavery and the rights of indigenous people

The struggle to abolish slavery was another legacy of Enlightenment thinking. If everyone was created free and equal, how could slavery be condoned? In 1833, after a lengthy battle, Britain abolished slavery in most of its empire, freeing 800 000 slaves. The movement to abolish slavery was led by a group of devout English Christians whose consciences led them to seek social justice. They formed networks with politicians and journalists to further their cause.

This group was also concerned that indigenous people in the new colonies were not being treated fairly. They were particularly troubled about the way Aboriginal people had been mistreated in the Australian colonies of Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), New South Wales and Western Australia. Thus they insisted that in drawing up the 1836 Letters Patent (the founding documents) for the settlement of South Australia, Aboriginal people's 'incontrovertible right to their own soil' (that is, their property rights) should be acknowledged. Sadly this did not occur. Until the famous Mabo judgement of 1992, Aboriginal land

Research **4.4**

Using the library or the internet, investigate Rousseau's idea of natural education.

1   What are some of its features?

2   Do we draw on any of Rousseau's educational ideas today?

3   Did Rousseau's educational ideas apply equally to boys and girls?

4   Do all girls and boys in contemporary Australia share absolutely equal educational opportunities? (Consider factors such as different types of schools, where people live, different family circumstances and Indigenous versus non-Indigenous students.)

5   Why might education be considered a progressive idea?

☞ *Note this down*

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the progressive ideas or movements that sprang from egalitarianism.

Egalitarianism
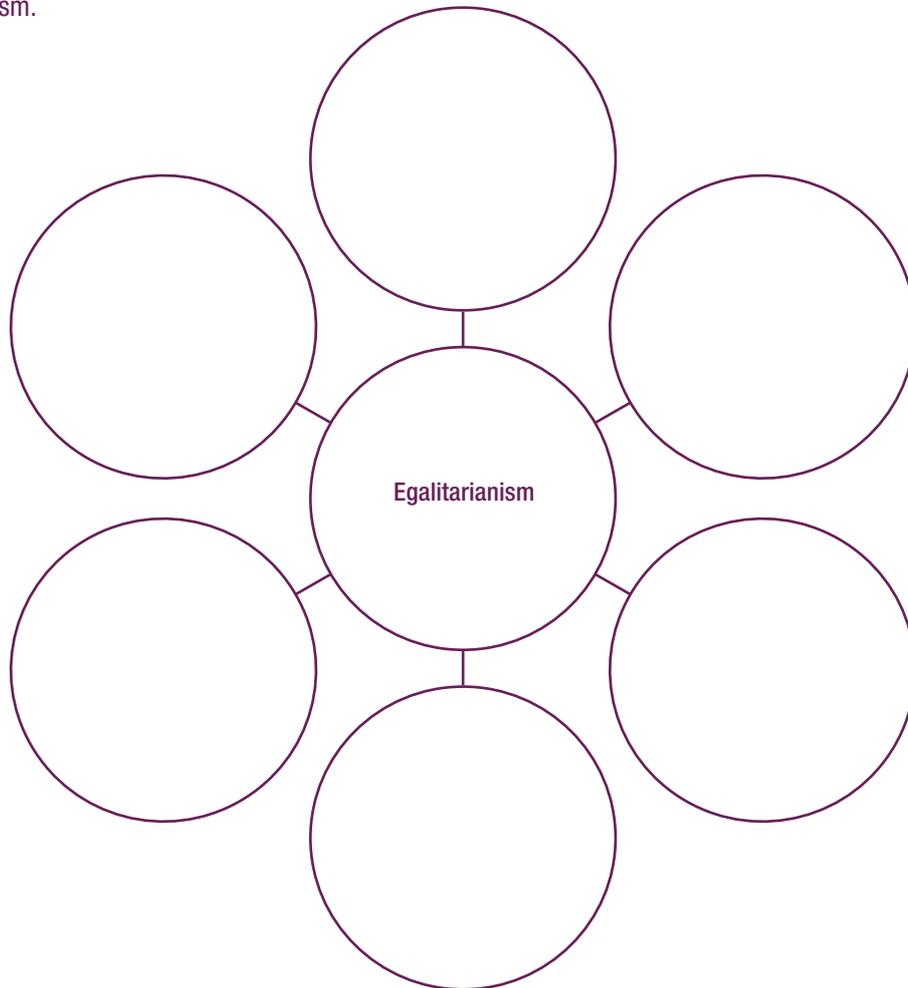
ownership, or 'native title', was unacknowledged throughout Australia, although some states and territories (specifically the Northern Territory and South Australia) had passed Land Rights legislation.

In the United States, slavery was abolished in 1865 after a bitter war between the southern and northern states of the union. The movement to free slaves was one of the most successful progressive campaigns in history, achieving its goal in a relatively short time. The struggle for Indigenous people to win property rights, however, is an ongoing and difficult battle.

Source 4.33 'Am I not a man and a brother?' The official medallion of the British Anti-Slavery Society, by Josiah Wedgewood

The women's movement and the struggle for equal rights

Another of the key claims of egalitarianism was for equality between men and women. As outlined earlier, women such as Mary Wollstonecraft and Olympe de Gouges were writing on this topic from the 1790s. There were others before them, but there was a long struggle before the idea of equal rights for men and women gained acceptance to the degree that has been achieved now. In this section we discuss some of that struggle, then consider the impact of the campaign for women's rights – or feminism – in Australia.

Some of the progressive movements covered in this chapter included the equality of men and women in their claims. During the French Revolution, demands were made for women's rights as citizens. In early-nineteenth-century England, followers of Robert Owen, known as **Owenites**, made equality of the sexes a central aim of the transformed society they sought. Chartists, while not as radical as the Owenites, numbered many women among their members. Initially they included women's right to vote in their demands, but later dropped that issue as they felt it would impede progress towards gaining all men's right to vote.

Owenites the term given to those who followed Robert Owen's movement of an idealistic, socialist society

Much more radical were the British Owenites (1820s to 1845). They were socialists who had some decidedly controversial views on relations between women and men. Owenites believed in a new world where all classes and both sexes would be equal. They claimed to be producing a New Science of Society. Compare their ideals of 'cooperative communitarianism' with Australian society today:

- communal living – eating, working, socialising to be undertaken communally
- the abolition of private housework
- childcare and education to be the collective responsibility of the community
- civil marriage
- accessible divorce
- birth control
- support for women's political involvement
- the right of women to speak in public
- cooperative organisation of work.

The Owenite movement did not survive after the 1840s, although a thread of their ideas persisted throughout the nineteenth century. It was a predominantly working-class socialist movement; one that envisaged the end of capitalism and the birth of a new classless, sexually equal society. That society did not come to pass. The revivalist movement of the 1830s and 1840s, which reasserted Christian values, and the increasing strength of capitalism in mid-century England created a climate where Owenite ideas no longer flourished. However, feminism – the belief in equal rights for men and women – reappeared in a different form.

Victorian feminism

While the Owenites wished for an ideal communal society, a group emerged in the 1850s and 1860s in Queen Victoria's England that was far more realistic and practical about the social transformation it wished to achieve. The changing role of women was a key factor in this group's concerns. Before the Industrial Revolution, women had played a much larger role in the household: growing food, making clothing, washing, cleaning and cooking

HISTORICAL FACT

Before the 1870 *Married Women's Property Act* in Britain, women could not legally own their property, wages, inheritance or gifts. They were not considered to be legal persons. A similar *Married Women's Property Act* was passed in Australia in 1883.

occupied much of women's time. The increasing tendency to mechanise production reduced women's tasks within the household. Some then demanded more meaningful occupations and an education to prepare for it. This new movement for equal rights was led by women, usually from comfortable middle-class families. Their aims included:

- the right for women to own their own property
- the right to divorce
- the right to work in new expanding occupations, such as clerical work and teaching
- the right to an education equal to their male contemporaries
- the right to higher education
- the right to vote.

While earlier socialist movements had strongly supported the emancipation of women, Marxist socialists (followers of Karl Marx) placed far more emphasis on issues of social class.

Achievements

The women's movement is often referred to as the feminist movement, although that term was not used until the late nineteenth century. It was one of the major progressive movements of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Women's lives were transformed through the many changes and achievements of the women's movement. Men's lives also changed correspondingly, although not to the same extent.

These are some of the most important changes, which you can research further:

- Women gained the right to own their own property and wages.
- Women gained limited and more equal access to divorce.
- Women began to gain jobs in a greater number of areas.
- Girls gained access to primary education and in some cases secondary education.
- A few determined women gained access to universities.
- In some areas women gained limited access to birth control.
- Women gained the vote on terms equal to men.

Activity 4.10

Imagine that you are a girl or boy aged 15 years and born in 1850 to a blacksmith father and a mother who takes in washing. You have five brothers and sisters. Write a diary entry of a day in your life in an English town or an Australian rural community. Questions you may like to keep in mind while writing your diary entry include:

- Would you be likely to go to school?
- Would you be working and, if so, where?
- At what age would you expect to get married?
- What rights would you have to control your life?
- Would you be able to vote?
- Would you consider any of these options: joining an organisation to improve your life, migrating to another country or running away to sea?

Remember, answers might be very different for boys and girls.

Responses to progressive ideas

Most progressive ideas have had to be fought for; for example, not everyone was happy with the claims made by the feminist movement. While many women rallied to the fight for equal rights, some women felt that they should remain subordinate to their husbands; they believed that men and women had their appointed places in life – men in the public world and women within the private domain of the home. Men and women, they claimed, inhabited 'separate spheres'. While some women were keen to take up new work opportunities, others thought that working

women would undermine men's jobs, or hurt their husband's pride. Many men were worried that liberated wives would no longer look after their every need.

Leading clergy and churchmen fought strongly against women's rights, arguing that God had created men and women for different purposes. Opponents of women's rights frequently wrote about feminists as ugly, bitter and unmarriageable, whereas in fact many supporters were attractive women, most were married and they often had families who supported their goals. Those seeking higher education were deemed to be '**bluestockings**', a term that conjured up an eccentric and unattractive image. Some doctors wrote that education would 'unsex' women, detracting from their ability to bear children. Employers did not want to consider giving women equal wages as they preferred to employ them very cheaply, arguing that most could be supported by their husbands. This was not always the case. Large numbers of women had to work either through poverty or death of a partner, or as single women with no means of support.

bluestocking an insulting term for women who pursued higher learning in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries

Research **4.6**

Select two countries that have not had a strong and influential women's movement (for example, Saudi Arabia). Do women have fewer rights in these countries? Are there other factors that might influence their rights (for example, religion and access to work)? Present your findings using PowerPoint.

The women's movement in Australia

The women's movement played a significant role in transforming women's lives in Australia. The new colonies inherited many of the ideas discussed in Britain. Some of the earliest convicts were political prisoners, who were jailed and transported for their radical ideas, such as the Irish convicts in Tasmania who fought their British rulers for a free Ireland. Some convicts had Chartist connections and brought those ideas to Australia, influencing, among others, miners at Eureka. Others had been involved in the movement for women's emancipation.

Women colonists kept closely in touch with ideas in England and the demands of those wanting equal rights for women were well known here. Many single women migrated to Australia and demanded the right to work. New opportunities were opening up in the growing colonies and, after Federation in 1901, in the states. Women became teachers, nurses and employees in the developing state administrations. Newly developing societies are often more open to change and in several areas in Australia women were ahead of much of Britain; for example, in gaining access to universities and in relation to the vote and the right to stand for parliament.

Higher education

From the 1860s onwards, many women fought for the right to an education similar to that of men. With the introduction of universal, compulsory and free primary education, some girls did achieve that equality at elementary level. A small number went on to complete secondary education at either private girls' schools or the earliest state high schools. Some wished to attend university to obtain degrees and become teachers or doctors,

HISTORICAL FACT

Women were not fully admitted to degrees at the University of Oxford until 1921, while the University of Cambridge held out until 1947. Women were admitted to degrees at certain Australian universities from 1881.

or to join other professions. Some felt that higher education for its own sake was a desirable goal.

Initially universities rejected women's pleas. They argued that university education would make women unattractive 'bluestockings'. Alternatively, women might be flirtatious and distract young men from their studies. Overall, opponents argued, what would women do with a university degree? They would marry and have families and the degree would be 'wasted'. Others feared that women were seeking too much power.

Eventually women prevailed, supported by some male professors with ambitious daughters. Additionally, some Australian universities did not always attract enough students: women could help to swell the ranks. And the new school systems needed well-trained teachers; accordingly, women were admitted to the Universities of Adelaide, Melbourne and Sydney from the early 1880s. Now, in twenty-first-century Australia, women make up more than half of all university graduates.

Achieving the right to vote (women's suffrage)

From the time of the French revolution, some women wanted the right to be full citizens and to vote for an elected government. The Owenites, Chartists and many socialist and feminist groups all demanded this right throughout the nineteenth century. However, opposition was strong on many fronts. Some argued that men could represent their wives or daughters, while others feared that it might break up families if husbands and wives held differing political opinions. The strong belief that women's place was in the home and not in public life shaped much of the opposition. Yet, contrary to that belief, women were increasingly playing a part in the wider society – in the

Activity 4.11

Search the internet for Prime Minister Julia Gillard's 'Inaugural Emily's List Oration' in Canberra on Tuesday 13 September 2011. Pick out any sentences in the speech that show her acknowledgement of what the women's movement has done for her political career.

Source 4.34 'The tired eyes and lined faces of the young lady Bachelors of Arts'. This cartoon implies that higher education would ruin women's appearance.

workplace and in voluntary organisations. A wide range of organisations petitioned parliament for that right, many arguing that women's voice in public life would ensure a better deal for women and children.

HISTORICAL FACT

Did you know that in South Australia the Women's Christian Temperance Union collected 11 600 signatures on a petition supporting women's suffrage in 1894?

In 1894, South Australia became the first Australian self-governing colony to grant women the right to vote and to stand for parliament. In 1902, that right was extended to all white Australian women. Australia had been beaten to the post by New Zealand, which gave women the vote in 1893, although it did not give women the right to stand for parliament. English women had to wait until 1918 for that right and then it was only extended to women over 30 years of age. In 1928, women gained full suffrage.

Long-term impacts of the women's movement

The long-term impacts of the struggle for women's rights in Australia are spectacular. Women can now vote, stand for parliament and even become the Prime Minister, as Julia Gillard has shown. We have a female Governor General, Quentin Bryce, and many other senior women politicians, business leaders and university professors. Women can join the army, become engineers and mechanics, and fly jet planes. Equal numbers of girls and boys finish school and go on to university. The hard-fought struggle for the right to birth control has revolutionised the Australian family. Women

Source 4.35 This cartoon from Melbourne *Punch* had the caption: 'Some foolish people imagine our ladies will neglect their family duties. Quite a mistake.' Note who is minding the baby.

Activity 4.12

Complete the following table:

Rights	Date achieved in Australia, Britain and United States	Importance
Women should have the vote.		
Women should be admitted to universities.		
Women should be allowed to practise a profession (for example, to be a doctor, lawyer or engineer).		
Women should be able to own their own property.		

now usually wait longer before having babies – the average age at first birth is almost 30 years. They also have fewer babies than in the past. The average completed family in Australia has fewer than two children. Women have many more years in which to complete education and training, and to establish careers. They also often return to jobs and careers after their children are in childcare or at school. In theory men and women earn equal pay, although in practice this is rarely the case. Divorce is now available equally to men and women, and women can retain their own property and earnings. Both women and men can form legally accepted partnerships with same-sex partners.

Should we argue, then, that the women's movement has had its day, or that it is no longer necessary? Some women's groups are still concerned about a range of issues involving relations between males and females. There are concerns about violence towards women and also about how women and men can lead full lives as workers and parents without more assistance, such as an affordable childcare system.

Research 4.7

Use the internet or library to explore one of the following ideas in more detail:

- Darwinism
- nationalism
- imperialism and anti-colonialism (look at these together).

Be sure to research the major aspects of the movement you choose. Gather information about its place in our lives today. How much influence do you think the idea you have chosen has had on our contemporary world? Is this idea still controversial? Present your findings to the class orally.

Activity 4.13

Choose several people to each play the part of a prominent thinker discussed in this chapter. Each 'thinker' may have a team to help them prepare their case and assemble their argument. Each 'thinker' has five minutes to convince the class as to why their ideas are still vitally important in modern Australia. A class vote will decide the winner.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, list the progressive ideas and movements, with a focus on egalitarianism. Name one or more people associated with that progressive idea. An example has been provided.

Idea/movement	Egalitarian aspect	Advocate
Chartism	Belief that all men should be represented in parliament	Miners at Eureka

Chapter summary

- The Enlightenment was a key period for the modern world. Influential thinkers argued for the importance of human reason, turning away from superstition and the authority of religion and hereditary rulers.

- This new focus led to a flourishing of science. New technological developments fuelled the Industrial Revolution and a vast reorganisation of economic, social and political life. Maritime voyages of exploration opened up new opportunities for trade, imperial expansion and the growth of colonies.

- Influential writers championed the rights of the common man and women, arguing that everyone should have equal rights and opportunities: all should have the right to vote and to be represented in forms of parliamentary government. Several claimed education as a necessary ladder of opportunity, and the idea of a career based on ability rather than on birth took hold. Some advocated the equality of women with men.

- The American War of Independence and the French Revolution both championed republicanism and the end of hereditary privilege, and contributed to the idea of equality for all.

- Marx developed revolutionary ideas about socialism, building upon earlier collectivist ideals, while Charles Darwin's theory of evolution challenged religious thinking.

- By the early twentieth century, many progressive ideas had been put into practice globally: a wider acceptance of the equality of all and of a scientific basis for humanity's development, along with universal education, the vote for men (and for women in New Zealand and South Australia) and a strong sense of natural rights.

- However, the rampant imperialism and colonisation of previous centuries left much work to be done by progressive anti-colonial and nationalist movements in the twentieth century.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice questions

1 What did the writer Adam Smith advocate?

    A individualism

    B collectivism

    C imperialism

    D capitalism

2 The cry for 'workers of the world' to unite came from:

    A Thomas Paine

    B Jean-Jacques Rousseau

    C Karl Marx

    D Charles Darwin

3 The major theory that Charles Darwin is associated with is:

    A capitalism

    B imperialism

    C evolution

    D collectivism

4 Which statement about the Enlightenment is false?

    A The Enlightenment was a time when ideas about humanity's reason were advocated.

    B Enlightenment thinkers had a strong faith in reason.

    C Enlightenment ideas contributed to the French and American Revolutions.

    D Enlightenment thinking was strongly based on religious beliefs.

5 Which English writer travelled to America and played a major role in the American War of Independence?

    A Mary Wollstonecraft

    B Adam Smith

    C Friedrich Engels

    D Thomas Paine

Short answer

1 Explain how the Chartists got their name.

2 Why was the French Revolution a turning point in European history?

3 The Industrial Revolution brought about major changes in English life. List the three changes that you consider to be important.

4 Mary Wollstonecraft was well known in the late eighteenth century, but her work was ignored in much of the nineteenth century. Why do you think this is?

5 People in Australia today have been influenced by many of the ideas and movements discussed in this chapter. Select two of the movements discussed. Why have they influenced Australia?

6 Evaluate whether Australians today are concerned about imperialism.

Source analysis

The representatives of the French people, organised as a National Assembly, believing that the ignorance, neglect, or contempt of the rights of man are the sole cause of public calamities and of the corruption of governments, have determined to set forth in a solemn declaration the natural, unalienable, and sacred rights of man, in order that this declaration, being constantly before all the members of the Social body, shall remind them continually of their rights and duties; in order that the acts of the legislative power, as well as those of the executive power, may be compared at any moment with the objects and purposes of all political institutions and may thus be more respected, and, lastly, in order that the grievances of the citizens, based hereafter upon simple and incontestable principles, shall tend to the maintenance of the constitution and redound to the happiness of all. Therefore the National Assembly recognises and proclaims, in the presence and under the auspices of the Supreme Being, the following rights of man and of the citizen:

Articles

1 Men are born and remain free and equal in rights. Social distinctions may be founded only upon the general good.

2 The aim of all political association is the preservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression.

3 The principle of all sovereignty resides essentially in the nation. No body nor individual may exercise any authority which does not proceed directly from the nation.

Source 4.36 *The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen*, approved by the National Assembly of France on 26 August 1789

Study Source 4.36 and answer the following questions:

1 What aspects of Enlightenment thinking can you find in this document?

2 Are these rights available to all people in all countries today? Can you describe two or three countries where such a document might still be revolutionary?

3 Some of the language in this document is dated by today's standards. Rewrite it using modern inclusive ideas and language – you may wish to expand the notion of rights from those listed in point 2.

Extended response

Choose one particular progressive movement that you believe has shaped modern Australian society (for example, Chartism, nationalism, socialism or feminism). In several paragraphs describe the movement, how it developed, the way in which it still influences society today and what life in Australia would be like without this movement.
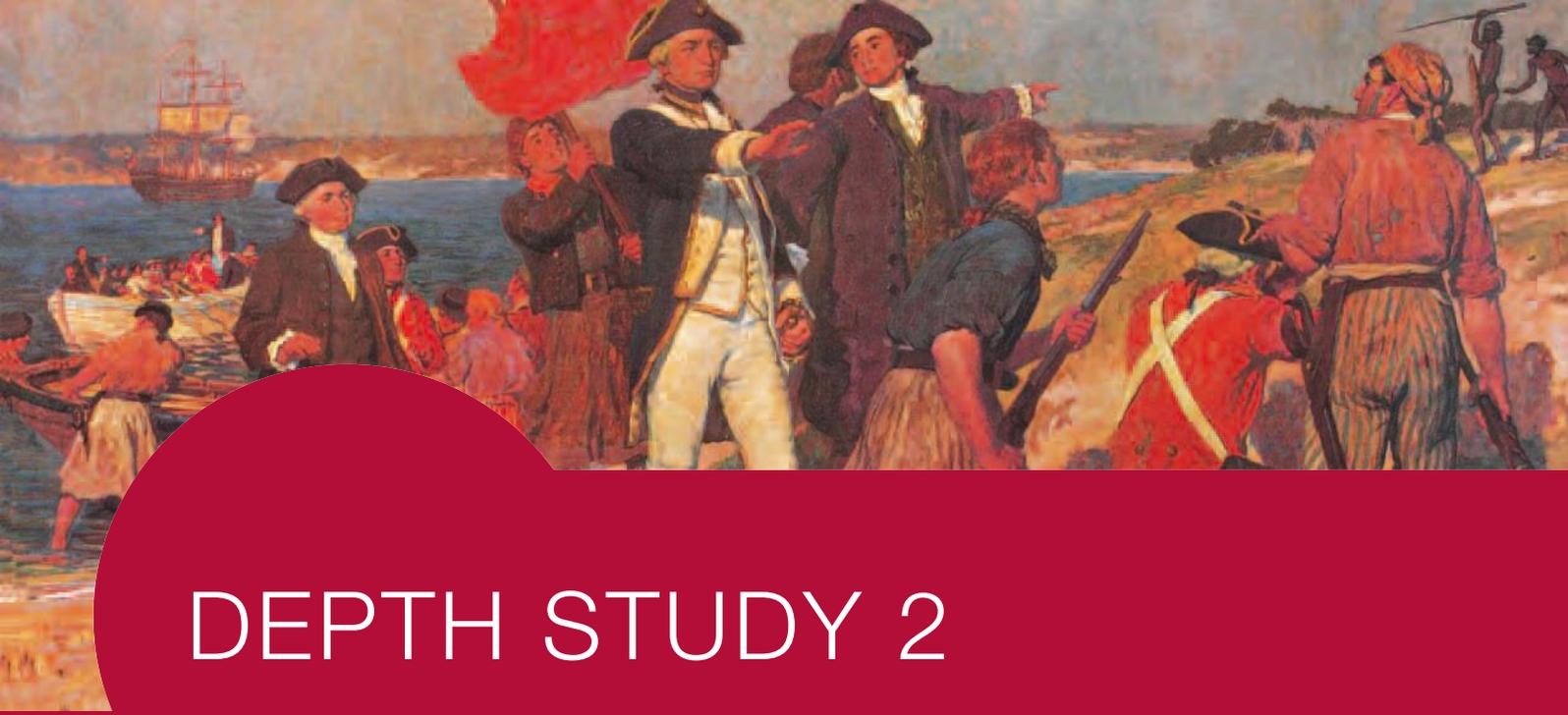
DEPTH STUDY 2

Australia and Asia

5

Making a nation
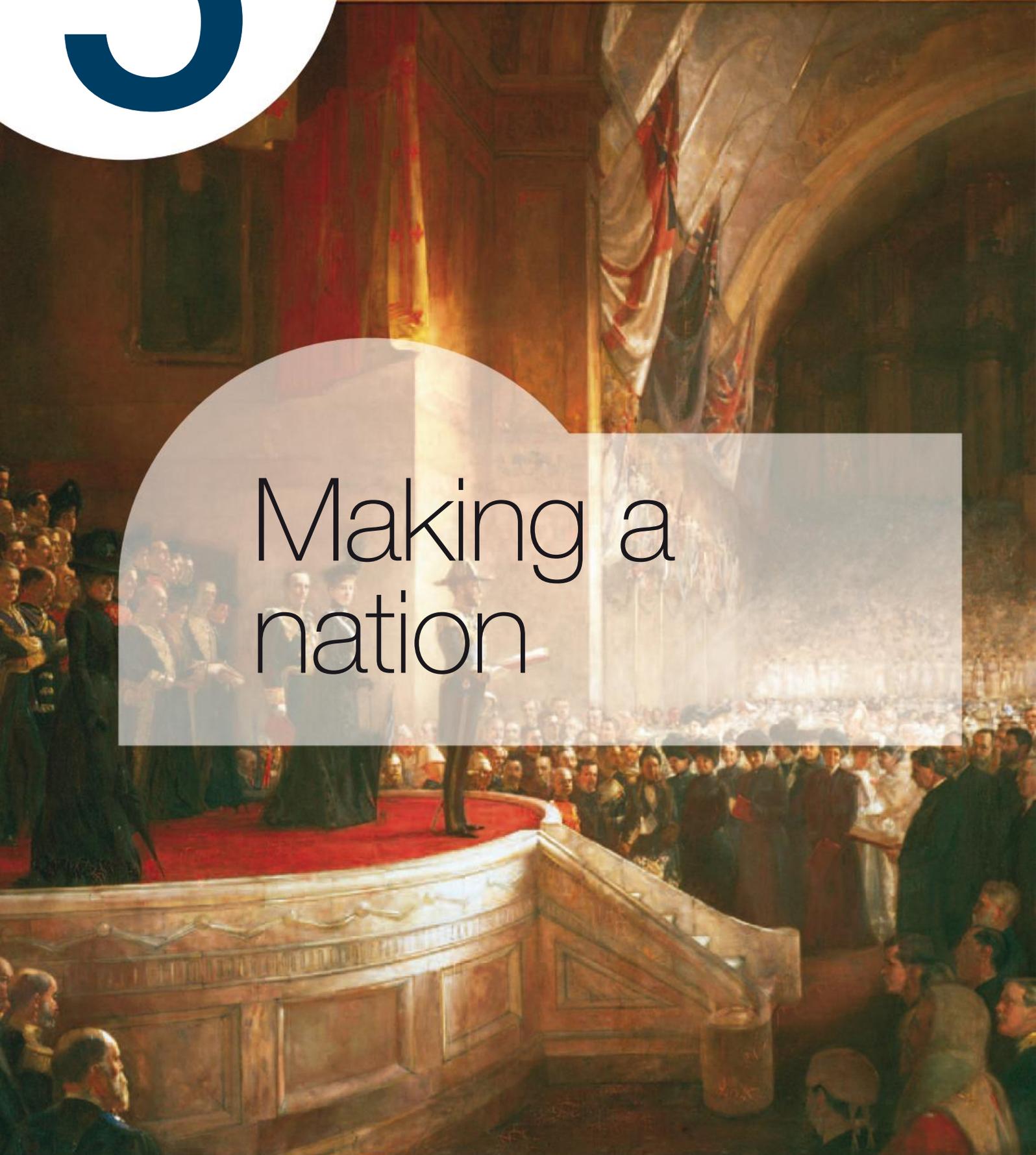
Before you start

Main focus

In this chapter, we look at how Australia as a white settlement society originated, grew from a number of separate colonies and became a nation in 1901; and at the various groups of people that were part of that story.

Why it's relevant today

It is important that every nation, including Australia, has a clear picture of its origins. Decisions and events in the making of the Australian nation still influence our lives, beliefs and values today.

Inquiry questions

- How did white settlement proceed in Australia; and how did this impact upon Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander societies?
- What were the contributions of South Sea Islander, Chinese, Afghan and Japanese people to making the nation? Were these contributions valued?
- What was the nature of the political democracy that white Australians developed?
- How was Federation achieved in 1901 and what was Australian society like at this time?

Key terms

- emancipist
- feminist
- secret ballot
- squatter
- federation
- native police
- South Sea Islander

Significant individuals

- Abdul Wade
- Bessie Cameron
- Henry Parkes
- Lowe Kong Meng
- Edward Gibbon Wakefield
- Alfred Deakin
- Henry Bourne Higgins
- John Macarthur
- Peter Lalor

Let's begin

In 1788, there were approximately 750 000 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander inhabitants of Australia. The British became determined to seize control of their lands, which led to conflict, many deaths and economic and cultural dislocation. Convicts and free settlers built an economy based on cheap land and labour, wool and gold. The settlers wanted to make a new society that was democratic and socially equal for members of their own kind. They created a new nation of the southern seas, with greater rights and better welfare for white citizens, including women, than in Europe and other countries. But their political radicalism and nationalism was tinged with a powerful racism: Indigenous, South Sea Islander, Chinese, Afghan and other peoples that had helped to shape the nation were excluded from citizenship rights.

Source 5.2 First Fleet in Sydney Cove, 1788

Source 5.3 Captain Phillip (later Governor Phillip) inspecting convicts at Sydney Cove
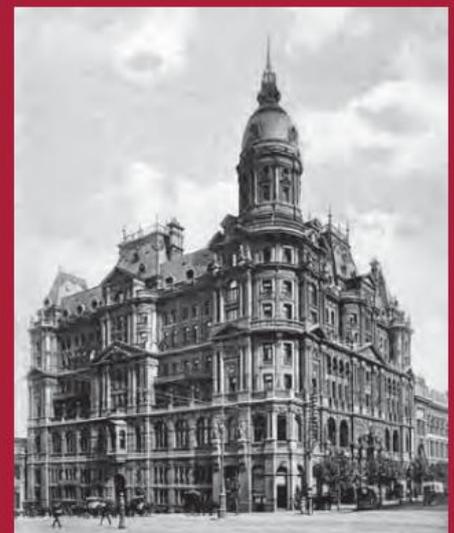
Source 5.4 Wealth produced from the Victorian goldfields helped fund the development of 'Marvellous Melbourne'
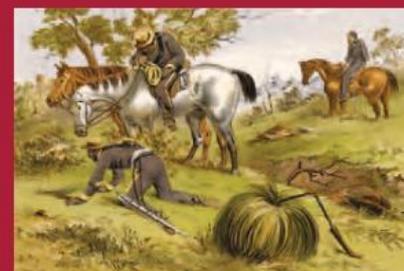
Source 5.5 Young Indigenous men were recruited by colonial governments to join the 'native police'

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS

1700

Britain begins to colonise **1788** Australia

A smallpox epidemic kills **1789** 2000 Aboriginal people

1789–92 French Revolution

1800

Land auctions begin to **1831** replace free land grants

Gold is discovered in New **1850s** South Wales and Victoria

Victoria restricts immigration **1855** of Chinese people

Men gain the vote in **1856** South Australia

Selector Acts are passed in **1860s** Australian colonies

Women gain the vote in **1894** South Australia

Aboriginal and Torres Strait **1897** Islander segregation legislation is passed in Queensland

1832 First *Reform Act* is passed in Britain

1850–64 Taiping Rebellion, China

1861–65 US Civil War

1862 Anti-Chinese legislation is passed in California

1867 Britain enfranchises male urban workers in England and Scotland

1882 *Chinese Exclusion Act* is passed in the United States

1884 British male rural workers gain the vote

1885 *Chinese Immigration Act* is passed in Canada

1893 Women in New Zealand gain the vote

1898 The Boxer rebellion in China

1900

Australia's states are joined **1901** in a federation

Immigration Restriction Act **1901** is introduced

White women across **1902** Australia gain the vote, but Indigenous peoples are excluded

Last convicts are pardoned **1906**

1914–18 World War I

Source 5.6 Residence of the successful pastoralist John Macarthur, near Parramatta, New South Wales

Source 5.7 The 1907 Harvester Judgement ensured workers received a fair basic wage

Source 5.8 Federation celebrations on the streets of Sydney, 1901

Source 5.9 Many Chinese flocked to the Australian goldfields in the 1850s, hoping to improve their lot

PACIFIC OCEAN

INDIAN OCEAN

SOUTHERN OCEAN

Gulf of Carpentaria

Thursday Island

Cape York

Darwin

Roper River

KIMBERLEY DISTRICT

NORTHERN TERRITORY

Alice Springs

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

Swan River

Perth

Cossack

Broome

Lagrange Bay

Coolgardie   Kalgoorlie

Leonora

Oodnadatta

Marree

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Port Augusta

Adelaide
Point McLeay

Robe

QUEENSLAND

Cairns
Atherton
Cardwell
Ingham
Townsville
Mackay
Charters Towers

Bundaberg
Maryborough

Brisbane
(Moreton Bay and Eagle Farm)

Toowoomba

Darling Downs

Murwillumbah

Tenterfield

New England

Bourke

Broken Hill

NEW SOUTH WALES

Gulgong
Ophir
Orange
Sofola
Bathurst
Turon River

Lambing Flat

Port Macquarie

Maitland
Newcastle
Hawkesbury River
Sydney (Botany Bay)
Parramatta

Rutherglen
Beechworth
Bendigo
Mount Alexander
Ballarat

Gippsland

Ramahyuck
Melbourne
Sorrento

Port Phillip Bay
Westernport Bay

George Town
Launceston
TASMANIA
Ross
Port Arthur
Hobart

Source 5.10 The Australian cities and towns discussed in this chapter

Extension of settlement and contact

Spread of convict settlement

White settlement in many parts of Australia began with a combination of convict labour and military supervision. Convicts and soldiers were the first inhabitants to arrive and lay the bases for British civil society in every Australian **colony** (except for Western Australia, where convicts arrived later, and South Australia, which received no convicts), as well as the Northern Territory. Military officers also planned every capital city except for Darwin.

colony a settlement formed in a conquered territory

Sydney, Hobart, Brisbane and Melbourne began with small convict settlements. Sydney was the centre of the convict system from 1788 until the Hyde Park Convict Barracks closed in 1848. Around 80 000 transported men and women were sent there. Hobart continued receiving convicts until 1853. Brisbane was originally the site of the Moreton Bay convict settlement, which was the harshest mainland centre for repeat offenders between 1824 and 1842. Melbourne, which is rarely thought of as having convict origins, was actually preceded by several attempts to form a penal station: near Sorrento in 1802; at Westernport Bay in 1826–27; and then from 1837 in the Melbourne region itself. Later, between 1844 and 1849, a further 2500 ex-prisoners (called 'exiles') were sent directly from Britain to Port Phillip.

Although Perth was founded by free migration from 1829, economic failure led to the introduction of convicts between 1850 and 1868. As a result, such important structures as Government House, the Town Hall and Perth Boys School were built by supervised convict labour.

Australia's early road system in many regions was constructed by **iron gangs** of convict workers.

iron gangs parties of convict workers undergoing further punishment by being chained together

By 1829, convicts had completed 150 miles of the road south from Sydney, 120 miles of the road west to Bathurst and a connecting road north to Newcastle. Between 1850 and 1862, Western Australian convicts cleared, laid, drained and repaired hundreds of miles of roadway; built around 240 bridges and several public buildings; sank wells; and constructed fences, jetties, tramways and a sea wall. Additionally, convict workers, supplied to private employers across New South Wales and Tasmania, pioneered the earliest pastoral and agricultural industries.

Statistical work has now shown that convict workers possessed many skills essential for the task of nation-building. They were really a cross-section of the British and Irish working class and had similar levels of industrial capacity and literacy. They represented more than 1000 different occupations; however, many were trained as tailors, tanners, blacksmiths, bakers and boot-makers, which made them more suited to city life than a rural existence as shepherds and farm labourers. Around 4000 of the convicts were from non-British origins and 1000 or so of them were non-white, sent from regions all over the British Empire.

Source 5.11 Portrait of a Port Arthur convict, 1874

Around half of the 24 700 females transported were originally domestic servants. In such centres as Hobart, George Town, Launceston and Ross (Tasmania); Newcastle, Port Macquarie, Parramatta and Bathurst (New South Wales); and Brisbane Town and Eagle Farm (in what became Queensland), they were confined in institutions called 'female factories'. Several of these became Australia's first manufacturing centres; for example, in 1843 the Cascades Female Factory near Hobart employed 700 women for textile and blanket weaving, needlework and laundry.

Historically, embarrassment over the nation's penal origins has hidden the convicts' important foundational role in establishing British settlement in Australia. Modern research is rectifying this.

Research 5.1

Choose one of the centres mentioned above and investigate its convict past.

1   Do any remnants of its convict heritage still survive today?

2   Can you discover other cities, towns or districts that have a connection with convictism?

Present your findings as a PowerPoint presentation.

White settlers and Indigenous occupants: first contacts

Contact between Europeans and **Indigenous** Australians has been occurring for a surprisingly long time. The first recorded meetings took place more than 400 years ago in 1606, when Dutch mariner Willem Jantz and his small crew encountered members of the Wik people on western Cape York. Several months later, Breton sailor Luis Baez de Torres and his Spanish crew contacted Torres Strait Islander people further to the north. Both meetings were violent ones: the Wik remember the Dutch appearing like 'devils' on 'a big mob of logs' and shooting their people – some of the Dutch were speared in turn – while de Torres's men began kidnapping the Torres Strait Islander people.

The first known British contact was made with the Badi people in 1699 by English pirate William Dampier at Lagrange Bay on the north-west coast of Western Australia. Dampier is on record as calling the Aborigines 'the miserablest people in the world'. It now seems that Dampier did not write these words. His publisher probably inserted them to spice up Dampier's book for its British audience.

The reactions of white explorers and colonists to Indigenous peoples, however, were often negative. Britons and Europeans regarded their own cultural and technological achievements – and thus themselves – very highly. They saw a lack of material possessions among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples as evidence of inferiority. Furthermore, as the British were intent

> **Indigenous** Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

HISTORICAL FACT

The last transported convicts in Australia were six men pardoned in 1906 by Prime Minister Alfred Deakin. The longest surviving ex-convict was Samuel Speed, who died at the age of 95 in 1939, on the brink of World War II.

Source 5.12 White officials from Port Jackson with a detachment of soldiers approach Aboriginal encampment at Botany Bay (1790)

on seizing their lands, it was not in their interests to give a good account of their Indigenous hosts. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, in turn, often took the sudden arrival of these strange white beings as evidence of a spiritual visitation. They saw the whites as 'ghosts' or reincarnated ancestors. The potential for cultural misunderstanding was therefore both strong and mutual, and often led to unforeseen or tragic outcomes.

Many of the early encounters took place at penal stations. In such circumstances, the new arrivals were substantially outnumbered by the Indigenous people surrounding them. They often felt their vulnerability intensely. Aboriginal people recoiled from the spectacle of public floggings and executions, which they saw as primitive and barbaric. They also wondered about why so many of these spirits had come among them and how long they intended to stay. Concerns and apprehension grew as the newcomers' presence put increasing stress on the available natural resources.

First encounters led on to more complex relations that fluctuated between conflict and **conciliation**. At Sydney Cove in 1788, Cadigal and Gayimai people danced for and with male and female convicts and Royal Marines. Where language difficulties hampered

conciliation establishing goodwill

HISTORICAL FACT

The Bedaigal and Gweagal peoples of Botany Bay called the First Fleet arrivals *Berriwangal* ('People of the Clouds').

Research 5.2

Examine the story of early contact between British arrivals and Aboriginal people at one of the places listed below. Look at how the British arrivals and Aboriginal peoples saw each other, including examples of conciliation, conflict and violence. What impact did the British arrivals have on the lives of the local Aboriginal peoples?

- Botany Bay
- Redcliffe
- Sydney Cove
- Brisbane
- Hobart
- Perth
- Launceston
- Adelaide

communication, body language, expressed as dance, helped to improve it. On the other hand, sailors travelling with French explorer La Perouse, after building a fortification at Botany Bay, opened fire on the Eora in late February 1788. Convicts, in turn, were attacked by the Eora in early March. And so the saga of interracial colonial violence began with spearings and shootings, kidnappings and reprisal raids, as initial friendly relations eroded.

By April 1789, a devastating epidemic of what was probably smallpox had broken out among the Eora, who had no immunity to exotic diseases. Around 2000 Aboriginal people perished horribly, making this the most dramatic event in early Australian contact history. The origin of this outbreak has never been satisfactorily explained.

Free settlement

Alongside convict transportation between 1788 and 1868, an increasing number of free settlers arrived. They were mostly English, Scottish,

Source 5.13 South Australians gather at the Glenelg Foundation Tree to commemorate the establishment of the colony there on 28 December 1836

Irish and Welsh, but also included smaller minorities of Europeans (especially Germans and Scandinavians). They had voluntarily decided to sail to the Australian colonies hoping to improve their life-styles and material circumstances. It was an adventurous move, involving one of the longest sea voyages in the world, taking between three and five months to complete. Crowded shipboard conditions varied from tolerable to terrible, making the journey a lottery in terms of comfort and survival. No one quite knew what to expect at the end of it.

By the 1820s, only around 1000 free migrants had arrived. Though small in number, they were large in impact for they were wealthy people who were given land grants and batches of convict labourers to work their new estates free of cost. The more money they had, the more land and convicts they were given by the colonial government. These gentlemen settlers were usually agricultural **entrepreneurs** who developed farms and the first sheep stations around Sydney and across Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), sometimes even bringing their own workforces; during the 1840s these included bonded workers from India, Melanesia and China.

entrepreneur one who undertakes an enterprise with a chance of profit or loss

From 1831, however, land auctions took the place of grants. The money raised was used to assist the migration of poorer workers who could not afford their own passages. The new scheme was called 'systematic colonisation'. Under its regulations, 1.75 million acres of land were sold, which helped to introduce 100 000 migrant workers by 1850, creating a colonial working class. Most of the migrants came from the rural areas of southern England, the Irish countryside and the Scottish highlands. Convicts, by comparison, were often from large urban areas, such as London and Lancashire. By the 1850s, more than half the Australian population had been born in Britain.

It was planned to introduce migrants in roughly the same ethnic proportions as they existed in Britain, but this proved difficult to accomplish. More Irish (28 per cent) migrated than was intended, and fewer Welsh (under 2 per cent). The English predominated at around 55 per cent, while 15 per cent were Scots. The higher Irish proportion led to strong religious tensions between Catholics and Protestants that persisted well into the twentieth century.

South Australia was the only colony begun entirely by free migration. It was planned by the same man who organised the 'systematic colonisation' scheme, Edward Gibbon Wakefield. Wakefield had served time in prison for abducting a 15-year-old female heir, so he knew something about what it meant to be a convict. But he was more concerned that the sale and distribution of what he referred to as 'wasteland of the Crown' (conveniently ignoring Aboriginal ownership) be used to produce a new kind of social order, with nicely graded divisions of wage labourers, middle-class townspeople and prosperous landowners.

Land in South Australia was controlled by a Board of Commissions rather than the Governor (as in New South Wales) and it sold for around 250 per cent of its price in Sydney. By December 1836, the new colony was proclaimed with high hopes that it would not follow the same haphazard path as the Swan River settlement in Western Australia. Yet its early migrants were also discouraged by the searing heat and parched lands that were so different from their cool and green countryside in Britain.

HISTORICAL FACT

The cost of a steerage passage to Australia during the 1840s was eight times higher than one to Canada or the United States.

Times gone by …

… my first impression was disappointment … the soil was so parched, arid and barren and nothing but the eternal shrubs, the gum tree and swamp oak stared me in the face – the latter as much resembling our oak as I do an oyster … That most melancholy thing in nature is a newly settled town like Maitland with its would-be streets marked off by palings … and the half-cleared surrounding country, with its blackened stumps left perhaps for the next generation to uproot … Why do people make settlements on such land?

Source 5.14 British migrant, George Bennett, expresses his initial thoughts about Australia.

Imagine you are a migrant bound for Australia in the nineteenth century. Write a short shipboard diary of your experiences. Or write an account of your early impressions of Australia after landing here in the mid nineteenth century.

Wool and gold

Prosperity in the Australian colonies was largely due to the production of fine merino wool for the clothing mills of England and the discovery of gold.

pastoralism the raising of sheep and cattle

tallow animal fat this is melted down to make soap and candles

Next in economic importance were beef and sugar. Gold rushes could produce sudden, soaring successes, but could then peter out until the next big find. Taken together, the products of **pastoralism** – wool, meat, hides and **tallow** – were a more dependable, ongoing financial prospect.

The pastoral industry's origins are both epic and controversial: on the one hand are vast, overland treks of cattle and sheep, great sagas of endurance, and memorable struggles against drought, flood and fire. On the other, however, are less admirable struggles against imperial and colonial law, a monopoly over huge parcels of land and extended conflicts with Indigenous peoples.

Source 5.15 Goldminers argue over a disputed mining claim at Bendigo in 1852

The pastoral industry was established by the early 1800s, after former soldier John Macarthur separated merino sheep from the rest of his flock to produce a superior wool clip. Macarthur was granted an estate of more than 4000 hectares where he and his wife, Elizabeth, extended their experiments. By the early 1830s, others were moving beyond 'the Limits of Location' in New South Wales (that is, the 20 counties of authorised white settlement around Sydney) and illegally occupying Crown land. Some were ex-convicts, but all were called '**squatters**' – a word used in the West Indies to describe former slaves 'squatting' without permission on marginal lands. Wealthier landlords followed them, often seizing hundreds of square kilometres of territory. But the name 'squatter' stuck.

squatter an Australian settler who ran sheep or cattle on large tracts of land without the permission of the government

Throughout the following decades, squatters played an extended cat-and-mouse game with officials from Gippsland to the Darling Downs, attempting to evade licence fees and a growing amount of regulation. They regarded attempts to make them pay more than nominal rents for their enormous landholdings as 'a nuisance that should not be endured'. By 1844, they were even threatening armed resistance. Governments argued they were in 'systematic violation of the law', while city-based movements to 'unlock the land' from the squatters' grasp so that small farming could advance, demanded impatiently: 'Should Australia be a sheep-walk forever?' But the pastoralists' powerful world view usually prevailed.

When a gold rush began at Ophir, near Orange and then at Sofola on the Turon River in New South Wales in mid 1851, it started a colonial frenzy that would ensure an end to convict transportation. Exile to a gold rush hardly seemed a punishment! Populations exploded across Victoria, New South Wales and, eventually, Queensland and Western Australia. Great wealth was generated among the fortunate; democratic principles were advanced and social change was accelerated. Social disorder also increased as settled class relations were upended.

Gold discoveries at Ballarat, Mount Alexander and Bendigo Creek expanded Victoria's population fourfold in three years. The rush would help create 'Marvellous Melbourne', one of the great cities of the British Empire. But it also created social and political turmoil.

Miners paid high fees for their tiny claims in comparison with the squatters' low rents for their enormous holdings. Miners had no votes and pastoralists often had several. Resentment grew. Heavy-handed policing of miners evading payment led to disturbances and uprisings, the largest and most important of which was at the Eureka field near Ballarat in 1854. The outcome was a military victory for the Crown but a moral one for the miners. Republican sentiments were expressed and a new flag – the Southern Cross – was flown. Around 34 miners were killed and wounded by soldiers and police, but Melbourne jurors refused to convict 13 ringleaders for treason.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, identify how the resources mentioned above affected the growth of Australia.

Resource	Effects on Australian economy
Gold	• Created a large boost in migration • Generated wealth to boost economy
Wool	
Cattle	
Sugar	

HISTORICAL FACT

By 1857, in the Queensland region, just 450 squatters controlled an area larger than Victoria. The resultant political struggle led to representation and more liberal land laws, as well as a check on corruption and tyranny. The Eureka rebellion, as we learn later in this chapter, had helped change the direction of Australian history.

Activity **5.1**

1. Recount how the wool industry developed in the Australian colonies.
2. Explain why pastoralists were called 'squatters'.
3. Determine why pastoralists' early land-taking activities were considered illegal.
4. Assess why pastoralists resisted official control.
5. Research when the gold rushes began. Was this the first gold discovered in Australia?
6. Describe how the gold rushes led to democratic reform.
7. Analyse how socially disruptive the gold rushes were.

White settlers and Indigenous occupants: the moving frontier

Among white settler colonies, Australia was unique in failing originally to recognise any form of Indigenous land rights or to have entered into any treaty obligations with the original inhabitants since that time. This decision was based upon three legal fictions. First, in terms of property rights, land was judged to be unoccupied (that is, *res nullius* or *terra nullius*) and thus simply there for the taking by the British Crown. Second, it was decided that Indigenous peoples were

Source 5.16 Native Mounted Police, Rockhampton, 1864

dispossession taking a people's land or dislodging or removing them from their territory

not members of distinct and separate societies that were being trespassed on, but rather were part of the arriving society itself: that is, theoretically they were British subjects. This meant that any resistance they offered to their **dispossession** was not viewed as a legitimate defence of territory, but rather as a criminal act of disorder and rebellion. Further, most citizens' rights – such as the right to seek legal redress, give evidence or defend oneself in court – were initially withheld.

These two positions led logically to the third: that the territory of Australia had not been invaded and conquered by the British incomers, but rather settled in a relatively peaceful and orderly fashion. Settlers' struggles were predominantly seen as being with the land itself – with fire, flood, drought or insect plagues – rather than with its human inhabitants. This interpretation of events had become commonplace by the early twentieth century.

The real situation, however, was very different from these legal constructions. Around 500 to 600 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander 'First Nations' – spread across the entire Australian mainland, within the Torres Strait and in Tasmania – had been in full possession of the landmass for probably 50 millennia or more. They had a strong sense of their territorial sovereignty and were quite prepared, in most instances, to defend this with force. They had

fire-stick farming environmental management to create regeneration and grasslands by controlled burning

left their mark on the landscape in multiple ways. Most significantly, they had created the lush grasslands so attractive to white pastoralists with their flocks and herds by a continual process of **fire-stick farming**. The land was far from an uninhabited one: there were probably around 750 000 inhabitants when the first 1080 Britons arrived.

So the British arrivals were not simply transposing themselves across the globe into an open and waiting land. They were actually imposing themselves upon long-established and well-functioning social orders of hunter-gatherer peoples. They were taking everything, conceding nothing and behaving very differently from new migrants arriving in Australia today.

The first penal stations were relatively small and stationary. Yet the huge pastoral advances and the large population influxes that came with the mineral rushes, along with all the inroads made by farmers, timber-getters, fishermen and townspeople, transformed everything. The frontiers of contact became rapidly moving, land-hungry and highly contested zones. In most regions, there were numerous incidents of frontier violence and massacres, resulting in heavy casualties on both sides.

These difficult origins have become a highly controversial aspect of modern historical research. It is hard to arrive at an accurate figure of the number of British, European, Asian and Melanesian incomers who were killed and wounded in the struggle. It is even harder to determine the considerably higher Aboriginal casualty rate. Attacks, ambushes, clashes and massacres of Aboriginal people were sometimes concealed and the actual numbers killed each time rarely recorded. Scenes of individual or group murders of Aboriginal people were only occasionally treated as crime scenes, and the law itself was slow to intervene on their behalf. Along with private bands of settlers, often police and military-style forces were themselves directly involved in destroying Aboriginal communities. So our detailed understanding of events is often clouded by lack of precise documentation.

Available records, however, convey a strong impression of widespread destruction,

HISTORICAL FACT

Squads of young Aboriginal men were taken from other regions, armed with rifles, mounted on horseback and placed under white military discipline. Called Native Police, they were used against other Aboriginal societies by colonial governments in Victoria, New South Wales, Queensland and South Australia.

Research **5.3**

Prepare an account of frontier relations in one of the following regions:

- Adelaide hinterland
- Cape York Peninsula
- Cardwell district
- Central Tasmania
- Gippsland region
- Gulf of Carpentaria
- Hawkesbury River district
- Kimberley district
- New England region
- Roper River region
- South-western Australia
- The Darling Downs
- Torres Strait

You can also select your own region of Australia for analysis. Present your account to the class orally.

lasting from the 1780s to the 1930s across most Australian regions. Land dispossession was the central act of violence in this process and from it all the devastating effects of imposed disease and mayhem flowed: epidemics and aggression, the taking of Indigenous children, sexual and labour exploitation of Indigenous women, labour exploitation of Indigenous men, the destruction of Indigenous cultures and languages, and the general disintegration of Indigenous societies. It is one of Australia's largest stories and one of its most tragic.

Australia approaches nationhood: the 1890s

The 1890s was one of Australia's most difficult decades. It began with enormous strikes in the shipping, mining and pastoral industries from 1890 to 1896. These were accompanied by a serious economic depression, beginning in early 1892 and continuing, with little relief, into the new century.

During the 1880s, the Australian colonies had been a leading field of British **investment**. Australians, per head of population, were more heavily in debt to Britain than anywhere else in the world. By the 1890s, there was a massive withdrawal of British funds to the gold and diamond mines of the Transvaal in South Africa, bringing the local economy to its knees. The building industry, most land companies and many of the

investment the commitment of money or capital with the aim of gaining a profitable return

Source 5.17 Mounted police troopers in Melbourne await the approach of unemployed workers marching to protest against the evictions of families unable to pay their rent during the 1890s Depression (1893)

major banks collapsed. This slump was deepened later in the decade by what became known as 'the Great Federation Drought', lasting from 1898 until 1904–05.

Over this 15-year period, migration and overseas investment almost ceased. There was massive unemployment as the economy shrank by one-third. In the countryside, great **privation** existed. Sheep and cattle numbers fell by more than half. To make matters worse, two thoughtlessly introduced species, rabbits and prickly pear cactus, were ravaging the bush. Rabbits had spread from Victoria across New South Wales and into Queensland and Western Australia. Dust storms followed in their wake. By World War I, the prickly pear had overrun nine million hectares of Queensland and New South Wales.

privation lack of life's necessities

The one bright spot was the success of the Australian mining industry. The 1890s was its best decade to date. Australia became the world's largest producer of gold, and mineral exports outstripped wool. The Western Australian gold belt around Coolgardie-Kalgoorlie, sourced in mid 1893, was largely responsible for this success, but other centres – such as Charters Towers in Queensland, Broken Hill in New South Wales, and Ballarat and Bendigo in Victoria – remained in full production and helped to create some of Australia's largest inland towns.

By Federation in 1901, there were 3 773 801 non-Aboriginal Australians. Most had now been born in Australia (though of British origin) and were spread thinly over a vast landmass, roughly the same size as the United States. Although they liked to picture themselves romantically as 'bushmen', Australians by the 1890s actually formed the most urbanised society on earth, mostly clustering near the coastline in six capital cities.

Census figures give only a rough estimation of the number of surviving Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people at this time, which was somewhere in the range of 67 000 to 90 000. This indicates a devastating population fall from an estimated 750 000 at first contact in 1788. White Australians concluded that such numbers were in irreversible decline, and Aboriginal people were cast as 'a dying race'. Few observers, however, wished to take any responsibility for this. Instead, it was argued by both scientist and average citizen that the decline was simply 'a fact of nature' about which little could be done. 'Inferior races', it was thought, must 'fade away' in the face of the impact of the 'superior' British racial type. Aboriginal people became wards of the state, often secluded on reserves and mission stations, and stripped of most citizen rights and public dignity.

Activity **5.2**

1 Compare why pastoralism was doing so badly and mining was doing so well in the 1890s.

2 Discuss why there was so much working class discontent.

3 Identify why rabbits and prickly pear were introduced into the colonies.

4 Explain why Australians liked to think of themselves as bushmen when they mostly lived in cities.

5 Assess why the rate of Aboriginal population decline was so dramatic.

6 Examine why a racial 'solution' of segregated Aboriginal reserves and missions was adopted.

HISTORICAL FACT

Queensland from 1897 provided the model for the harsh systems of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander control that were later established in Western Australia, South Australia and the Northern Territory, where most of the surviving Aboriginal peoples lived.

Experiences of non-Europeans in Australia

During the nineteenth century, Europeans took up the idea that they were superior to peoples from non-European backgrounds. The idea of 'race' and supposed racial differences in character became more important at this time. A number of people who came to live in Australia were from non-European backgrounds. Because of the racial prejudices, which grew among Australians of European backgrounds, life could be very difficult for South Sea Islander, Chinese, Afghan, Japanese and Indian people, among others, who lived and worked in Australia before 1901. Today we recognise that they made important contributions to Australia and can be seen as pioneers of modern, multicultural Australian society.

South Sea Islanders in Australia

Around 60 000 South Sea Islanders came to Queensland and northern New South Wales between the 1860s and 1904. Those who came to Queensland in the 1860s and 1870s were usually captured by unscrupulous slave traders and taken from their islands in the Pacific (see Chapter 3 for more on this issue). Christian missionaries and others were shocked by the cruel treatment meted out to the Islanders and urged the Queensland and the British governments to end this slave trade. Some efforts were made to regulate the trade with the passing of the *Polynesian Labourers Act 1868* and the *Pacific Labourers Act 1880*. Conditions improved very slowly.

The first arrivals had to learn some English. Distressed and angry to have been taken forcibly from their homes and families, they found the climate in Queensland very difficult and had little resistance to diseases such as smallpox, measles, dysentery, pneumonia and tuberculosis. Many could not cope with the different food.

They had to work long hours in harsh conditions, clearing dense tropical scrub to plant sugar cane. They hoed the cane and caught cane grubs. Later they harvested the cane, cutting it down with a sharp knife. For this arduous work, they were paid only £6 a year and were given some clothes and perhaps some accommodation.

Employers were careless about the health and working conditions of South Sea Islander people. An average of 50 in every 1000 died each year in Queensland. The worst year was 1884, when the death rate for Islander men in the prime of life was 147 per 1000. The comparable rate for European males was 9 or 10 per 1000. The

Source 5.18 South Sea Islander men, women and children plant cane under the supervision of European overseers.

Islanders were most vulnerable when they first arrived in Queensland.

During the later decades, Islander people had a better understanding of life and work in Queensland. Some were eager to come to Queensland in order to be able to take back goods such as axes, clothes and guns to improve their lives and their status in their home community. Some returned a second or third time to work in Queensland, working under an indenture for three years: their employer had to pay them, clothe them, provide medical care and arrange for their return at the end of the contract. Those who re-enlisted for indenture usually fared better than those who were on their first trip to Australia.

Sid Ober of Hervey Bay in Queensland was interviewed in the 1970s about the experiences of his father, Futinaruru, who had first come to Queensland in the 1880s, returning to Aoba, in the New Hebrides (now Vanuatu) at the end of his indenture. After six months he came back. He had explained this return to his son: 'Oh, when you get a bit of Queensland, you sort of get it in your blood. When you see the schooners out at sea in full sail coming in, oh, it gives you the urge. You want to go again. So I came out again.'

Re-enlisting workers often negotiated for better wages – up to £12 a year. Some South Sea Islanders decided to stay on in Queensland at the end of their contracts and these time-expired workers could earn up to £23 a year, which was

an improvement, but nothing like the £30 to £50 per annum paid to European labourers.

Some time-expired Islanders worked as fishermen or gardeners. A few bought small landholdings to farm where they could raise a family. Peter Mussing bought a farm of two or three acres near Murwillumbah in New South Wales. His daughter Faith Bandler recalled a happy childhood there (see Activity 5.3).

Source 5.20 South Sea Islander huts in Childers, Queensland (1904). Plantation workers often built their own houses.

New and old beliefs and customs

South Sea Islander people could supplement their diet by hunting with bows and arrows. They liked to cook taro and sweet potato in underground stone ovens, but also ate corned beef and damper like many people in Queensland. They carried on traditional religious beliefs such as ancestral shrines as well as adopting Christianity. Thus the thatched chapel on Farleigh plantation near Mackay resounded with hymn singing every Sunday.

Racial discrimination and intolerance

The sugar industry was built up by the labour of South Sea Islander people, who were renowned for their endurance and hard work. Angus Gibson of Bingera sugar plantation in Bundaberg said,

Source 5.19 South Sea Islander women work at Hambledon Plantation, Cairns, in about 1890. Their European overseer is on horseback at the rear.

'I have seen no one to equal the **kanaka** in outdoor work'. White people believed they were superior to the Islander people; they called the men 'boys' and the women 'Marys'. Islander children were discouraged from attending state schools. It was only in the 1880s that South Sea Islander people could access hospitals set up for them in Maryborough, Ingham and Mackay.

kanaka a disparaging term for a South Sea Islander brought to Australia to work; the word is derived from the Melanesian term *kanak*, meaning 'person'

Other hospitals like Bundaberg Base Hospital created separate 'kanaka' wards as European Australians did not believe that they should get medical treatment in the same place as the Islander people.

Driving out those who made the sugar industry

Increasingly, white workers wanted to restrict the jobs and areas in which South Sea Islander people could work. The Islanders were allowed to do only unskilled agricultural work in coastal areas. By 1892, they could not work in sugar mills and later were totally excluded from the sugar industry they had built up. This ban lasted until 1964. Islanders sought to resist these actions by forming organisations and writing petitions.

Chinese

Chinese traders started visiting the north coast of Australia in 1750s, before European settlement. On settlement, a few convicts were of Chinese background and others came as indentured labourers, but it was the gold rushes of the 1850s that prompted large numbers of Chinese men to stream into Victoria and New South Wales. Many of these men were from the southern provinces of China around the Pearl River delta and, like other settlers, were seeking to improve their lot in Australia. The Chinese population peaked at around 38 000 in 1880, but later declined. In 1901 there were about 33 000 Chinese people in Australia, less than 1 per cent of the non-Aboriginal population.

European gold miners were critical of the clannish Chinese miners because they weren't Christian and had unfamiliar ways. Chinese people made up one-sixth of the miners, and some colonists took the view that the Chinese people were too numerous and should not be on the goldfields. In 1855, the Victorian government

Activity 5.3

1 Suggest why some South Sea Islander people chose to come back to Queensland.

2 Work out what percentage of the highest wage paid to European workers was paid to first-time recruits, re-enlisting workers and time-expired Islanders.

3 Find out what you can about Faith Bandler. What has she done to bring the history of the South Sea Islander people into Australian history? (If you wish to find out more about Faith Bandler, read her book *Wacvie*.)

HISTORICAL FACT

Indentured South Sea Islanders signed on for three-year work contracts. Many could not read or sign their names, so just a fingerprint was taken. Many thought they were going for only three months and were shocked when they realised they would be away for 39 moons. Some marked a tree with every new moon so they would know when they could go home.

imposed a poll tax of £10 on all Chinese immigrants arriving in Victoria. In response, Chinese miners started entering Victoria via Robe in South Australia. In 1855–57, 17 500 Chinese people walked 400 kilometres to the goldfields. Soon South Australia and New South Wales closed the door on Chinese miners.

Trouble on the goldfields

As the diggings ran out, some miners wanted to drive out the Chinese people. In January 1861, 1500 miners and traders, some armed with clubs, held an anti-Chinese meeting at Lambing Flat in New South Wales. Most of these were themselves recent arrivals to the colony, but felt justified in attacking Chinese people. The government sent police, soldiers and Special Commissioners to establish peace and to protect the Chinese miners. The European miners had formed a Miners Protective League, with a catch-cry of freedom – 'equality, fraternity and glorious liberty' – but used it to argue for the exclusion of their Chinese fellow miners. Once the military left, tensions rose again and on 30 June, between 2000 and 3000 miners attacked the Chinese camp, burning tents and possessions, hitting and whipping the Chinese and cutting off their pigtails.

As the gold diggings ran out, Chinese people moved into other occupations. In the 1870s around 30 worked at a Rutherglen vineyard, where they were found to be 'more useful, more economical, and more to be depended upon when in proximity to **intoxicants** than the Europeans.' John Chi went from the gold fields to running pearling **luggers** out of Cossack and Broome in Western Australia. Later he ran a small restaurant in Broome. Others made furniture, or ran stores and import and export businesses. Many took up market gardening and supplied towns and outback stations with fresh vegetables. Very often the cook on an outback station was a Chinese man.

Chinese settlers participated in all aspects of life in the colonies. In 1872, the Chinese community around Beechworth in north-eastern Victoria imported special costumes and banners from China and performed in the Carnival Procession to raise funds for the local hospital and **benevolent asylum**. Chinese New Year was an important time for celebrations and sharing with European guests. In 1884, at the New Year banquet in the Way Lee & Coy premises in Hindley Street, Adelaide, the European guests enjoyed the Chinese food, but as for chopsticks – 'How to use these little bits of wood was a puzzle'.

intoxicants alcoholic drinks

lugger small sailing boat with two or three masts used for pearling or fishing near the coast

benevolent asylum an institution used to house impoverished families who could not support themselves

Source 5.21 Images from the Lambing Flat riots, December 1860

In 1879, three Chinese men wrote *The Chinese Question in Australia* in protest against the laws that discriminated against them. Cheok Hong Cheong had come to Australia when he was 12 years old, gaining his matriculation certificate in Melbourne and becoming a Christian missionary to the Melbourne Chinese. Louis Ah Mouy, born in China and trained in carpentry in Singapore, did well in the gold rushes. He became a successful tea **merchant** and helped found the Commercial Bank of Australia. The third of these authors, Lowe Kong Meng, like a number of Chinese people in Australia was a British subject, for he was born in Penang in the Malay colonies. Fluent in English, French and Chinese, he was a successful businessman and a shipowner, trading around the Indian Ocean.

merchant a person who buys and sells goods

These writers pointed out that anti-Chinese legislation was illegal, as it contradicted the 1860 treaty between the Chinese and British governments, which meant that Chinese people had 'a perfect right to settle in any part of the British Empire'. This treaty also allowed British and Australian people to settle in China.
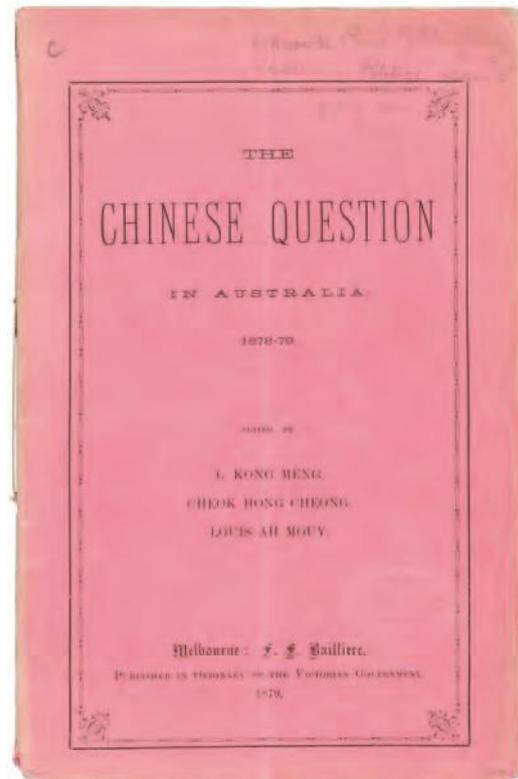
Source 5.23 In 1879, Lowe Kong Meng, Cheok Hong Cheong and Louis Ah Mouy published the booklet *The Chinese Question in Australia* in response to the Seamen's strike against the employment of Chinese labour on ships.

Source 5.22 Chinese vegetable sellers were a familiar sight in city streets. Housewives appreciated these fresh vegetables along with a friendly chat at the back door.

Reading the *Tung Wah Times*

The *Tung Wah Times* began in Sydney in 1898, providing Chinese settlers with useful information about the law and business in Australia, and about life and activities in their home villages in the Pearl River Delta, as well as about the lives of Chinese people living in the United States and other countries. Often they read about the heavy taxes and dictatorial behaviour of the Chinese government. Although they lived in Australia, they were also very interested in developments in their homeland. Many supported moves for reform of the Chinese government and belonged to the Chinese Reform Association. They welcomed the visit of the leading Chinese political reformer, Liang Qichao, who came to Australia in 1900–01 to give talks in many towns and cities about the need to modernise China.

Relatively few Chinese women came to Australia, perhaps because of the hostility to Chinese people that erupted from time to time.

Rose Quong was born in 1879 in Melbourne and had an interesting career. She attended University High School in Melbourne and then worked as a clerk in the public service. But she always wanted to be an actor and later in life worked on the stage in Britain and the United States. She died in New York in 1972.

The late nineteenth century saw more anti-Chinese feeling and more laws to restrict immigration. Australians from European backgrounds came to believe that they were better people and that Australia was theirs. They argued that their fellow citizens from Asia had no right to live and work in this country.

Source 5.25 A decorated archway built by the See Yup Society in Melbourne to celebrate Australian Federation in 1901. It reads, 'The Chinese citizens welcome the Duke and Duchess of York'.

Source 5.24 Quong Tart was nine years old when he came to Australia with his uncle in 1859. From 1881, he ran a tea and silk store in Sydney and then a chain of tea shops. A prominent citizen, he supported a number of charities. In 1883, he launched a campaign to outlaw the smoking of opium, which was causing great problems among people in China and abroad. He is pictured with his wife and five of their six children.

White workers, such as cabinet makers, waged campaigns to force Chinese people from their occupation. Some furniture made around the end of the nineteenth century bears a stamp, 'Made by white labour'. In 1888, the colonial governments discussed how they could work to make Australia white and deny Chinese people the opportunity to live and prosper in Australia.

HISTORICAL FACT

Quong Tart was nicknamed 'Quong Tartan' because he spoke English with a Scottish accent, loved Robert Burns' poetry and on occasion dressed in Scottish Highland dress.

Until recently, Australian historians ignored the history of Chinese people in Australia. Now they realise the importance of Chinese immigrants to the development of Australian society and business. Janis Wilton has researched New South Wales country life and the place of Chinese stores in supplying local communities with food, clothing and a wide range of goods. Historians also now understand how Australian Chinese people took ideas from Australia to change China. In studying our history we need to investigate Australian relationships with people in the Asia-Pacific region.

Activity 5.4

1 Draw a map of the route Chinese people followed from Robe to the Australian goldfields.

2 Recall why the Duke and Duchess of York were visiting Australia in 1901.

3 Using the Golden Threads website (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks) and other sources, research Chinese work, food and family life in nineteenth-century Australia.

4 Research the life of Quong Tart and make a presentation to your class.

Afghans

Around 2000 to 3000 cameleers came to Australia from Afghanistan and nearby countries between 1860 and 1920. They first came to handle the camels on the ill-fated Burke and Wills exploration expedition in 1860. This was only one of many exploring expeditions that the cameleers supported. Camels were well suited to travelling the long distances in outback regions while carrying heavy loads. The cameleers contributed greatly to the exploration and the development of central Australia.

At first the Afghan camel drivers worked for Europeans. Later they took over the transportation business across the interior of Australia, through Queensland and the Northern Territory over to Western Australia. The camel train from Oodnadatta to Alice Springs ended when the train line was extended to Alice Springs in 1929; that train is still called 'the Ghan', a shortened version of 'Afghan camel train'.

In 1865, Thomas Elder, a pastoralist, imported camels with a number of cameleers, including the young brothers Faiz and Tagh Mahomet. In 1888, the brothers formed their own company. Their carrying business did well and by the early 1890s they had 900 camels and employed about 100 of their compatriots across the outback.

Source 5.26 The Sun Tong Lee store at Gulgong, New South Wales in about 1870. Selling 'groceries, drapery, ironmongery, tobacco, pipes' and other essentials, such stores were central to their local communities.

Afghan people walked all day with their camels, leading trains of up to 70 camels. Each camel could carry as much as 600 kilograms over long distances with little food or water in all sorts of country. They supplied stations and remote mining settlements, and also supplied the materials for the construction of the 3200 kilometre Overland Telegraph, linking Port Augusta to Darwin, between 1870 and 1872. They carried wool, water, food supplies, timber, mining equipment, furniture and even pianos.

The cameleers also brought **Islam** to Australia and built mosques in places such as Leonora, Coolgardie, Marree, Adelaide and Perth. While on a trip with their camels, they performed their prayers five times a day out in the desert or the bush. They often worked alone or with a couple of others, but during the fasting month of Ramadan, they would gather together and then celebrate the feast of Eid ul-Fitr.

Afghan people lived in separate areas (known as 'Ghantowns') of towns such as Marree, Broken Hill and Oodnadatta. European Australians believed that they were superior to the Afghans and looked down on them. Many of these men were single or had left a wife and family back in Afghanistan, visiting them only occasionally. Some had families with Aboriginal women and some Aboriginal families still have surnames like Khan, Abdulla and Dadleh. Others, like Abdul Wade, married women of European backgrounds. He and Emily Ozadelle married in 1895 and had three sons and four daughters.

Islam a religion based upon belief in one God of whom Muhammed is the chief and last prophet
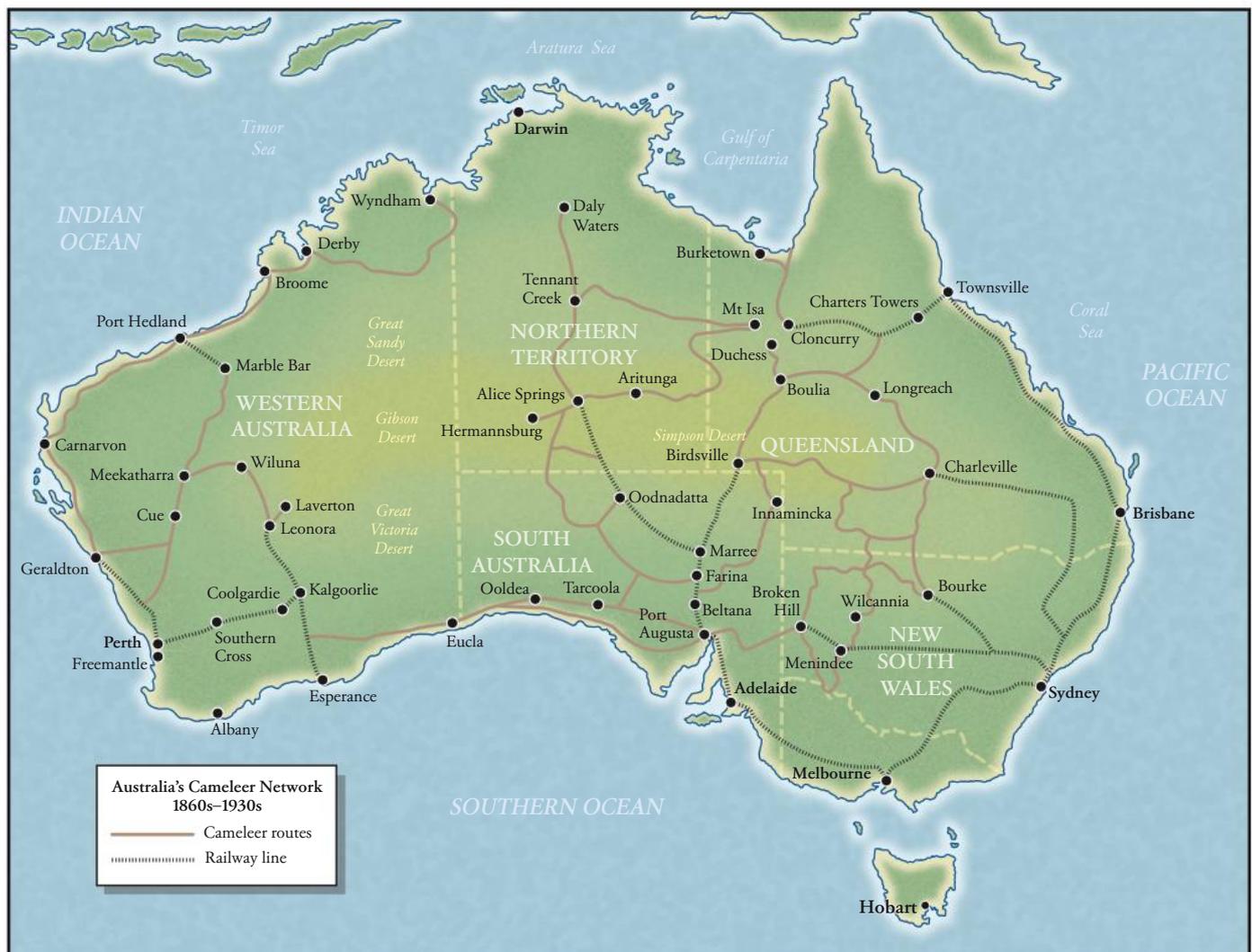
Source 5.27 The cameleer network in Australia (1860s to 1930s)

In the late nineteenth century, anti-Afghan prejudice grew and some Europeans wished to drive Afghan people from Broken Hill or the West Australian goldfields, where recent migrants claimed Australia should be for the white man. Government policies were **discriminatory**. In 1896, Faiz Mahomet, a successful merchant who had lived for 22 years in Australia, was shocked to find his application for naturalisation was denied by the West Australian government. Late in the 1890s some colonies passed acts restricting the immigration of people from Asia and this meant the Afghan people found it hard to travel to Australia.

discriminatory showing an unfair bias or prejudice

Activity **5.5**

1 Investigate why a camel was better for outback transport than a horse and cart.

2 Find out what you can about Abdul Wade. Give a class presentation on his life or that of other camel drivers; for example, Faiz and Tagh Mahomet.

Sources 5.28 and 5.29 Abdul Wade came to Australia from Kabul in 1879. In 1892 he imported 340 camels and brought 59 camel drivers to work them. His Bourke Carrying Company in western New South Wales allowed him to become wealthy and return to Kabul to retire. He was one of the prosperous camel entrepreneurs who financed the building of the Adelaide Mosque, now the oldest mosque in Australia, in the 1890s.

Source 5.30 Adelaide Moosha and her children Nazhebe, Zainabi, Lal and Partimah in Marree, 1910. Her husband Moosha Balooch was a cameleer.

HISTORICAL FACT

The descendants of the Afghani camels number around one million and run wild in central Australia. Today, Australia exports camels to Saudi Arabia.

Japanese

Japanese people were not permitted to go abroad until 1866, so few came to Australia during the nineteenth century. By the 1870s, small numbers had arrived, often from fishing villages on the southern coast of Japan. Most went to pearling centres such as Thursday Island off the tip of Cape York Peninsula, and Broome in northern Western Australia. By 1901, around 3400 Japanese people were in Australia and only 400 of them were women; 90 per cent lived in northern Australia.

Japanese divers were very important to the development of the pearling industry, which sold large amounts of pearl shell to international markets to make buttons. In the first decades of the twentieth century, Broome produced 80 per cent of the world's mother-of-pearl shells. Japanese people were expert divers, using the helmets and diving suits developed from the 1880s. Some came as indentured workers and had to pay back their fares before they could keep their own wages. They braved the dangers of pearling, getting **the bends**, and facing sharks and cyclones. In Broome's Japanese cemetery are the graves of hundreds of Japanese men who died seeking pearls.

the bends a condition divers can acquire by surfacing too quickly from deep water

In 1896, the Japanese government set up a consulate office in Townsville, Queensland to serve the many Japanese citizens in the area. As the Queensland and, later, the Australian governments passed restrictive immigration legislation, the consul protested on behalf of his government. Japan as an independent government rejected the humiliating and racist treatment of Australian governments towards its people.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, make a summary of the contributions of non-Europeans to eighteenth and nineteenth century Australia and list the hostile responses of European Australians towards them.

Non-European group	Contributions	Hostile response
The Chinese people	Worked as traders, shopkeepers, market gardeners and cooks	European gold miners believed that there were far too many Chinese gold miners and they should not be allowed on the field from fear of gold running out

Australian self-government and democracy

When the Australian colonies were founded, ordinary people had no chance to elect or even to influence their government. Each Australian colony was ruled by a governor appointed by the British government. The governors had to take orders from the British government, but as Britain was so far away they often made their own decisions.

As the number of free settlers increased from the 1820s, along with growing numbers of people who had finished their term as convicts (emancipists), some came to believe that they should have some say in the government. During the nineteenth century, the Australian colonies developed the most advanced democratic political systems of the age. By the end of the century, Australian people had introduced most of the democratic reforms that followers of **Chartism** had unsuccessfully sought in Britain.

Chartism a social movement of people committed to the *People's Charter*, a set of basic political claims, including the right to vote

Initially, the British government created a committee that could advise each governor. In New South Wales, this was the Legislative Council, appointed in 1823. However, the colonists did not elect either the governor or the members of the Legislative Council. Only in 1842, with the New South Wales *Constitution Act*, were some New South Welshmen able to elect 24, or two-thirds, of the members of the Legislative Council. There was a **restricted property franchise**, which meant that only those with a substantial amount of property were eligible to vote. Only they were seen as responsible people who could be trusted to vote sensibly. The other 12 members of the Council were appointed by the Crown. This was the beginning of representative government in Australia. Gradually other colonies also gained the right to vote for some members of a Legislative Council, or an advisory committee to the governor.

restricted property franchise an electoral system where voting is restricted to people with a substantial amount of property

In the 1820s and 1830s, Australian society was changing with more free settlers arriving. In 1836, South Australia was established for free settlers only. In eastern Australia, there was a campaign to end the transportation of convicts and to promote

a society of free people. Increasingly, Australian settlers wanted to rule themselves and to have some control over government spending. The settlers at Port Phillip (Melbourne) wanted their own separate colony.

In Britain itself, political ideas and institutions were changing. The British *Reform Act* of 1832 granted middle-class men the right to vote for parliament. The Australian settlers wanted the same right, and in 1850 the British government passed the *Australian Constitutions Act*, which made it possible for the colonies to move towards responsible government, or self-government with **bicameral parliaments**. Under this Act, Victoria became a separate colony.

During the early 1850s, politicians and lawyers in all the colonies (except Western Australia) were busy writing new constitutions. During these years, half a million free settlers flocked to Victoria. Many also went to the diggings in New South Wales. The gold rushes attracted thousands of miners from Britain, China, European countries and the United States. Within a decade, the population of New South Wales, South Australia and Queensland doubled, while

bicameral parliament a parliament consisting of two houses or chambers

HISTORICAL FACT

In 1853 William Wentworth, a wealthy politician in New South Wales, suggested that Australia should have a colonial **peerage** drawn from wealthy landowners. The radical Sydney lawyer Daniel Deniehy ridiculed the suggestion, calling it a 'Bunyip **aristocracy**'.

peerage a system of hereditary noble ranks, such as duke, duchess, count and countess

aristocracy a privileged upper class of hereditary nobles
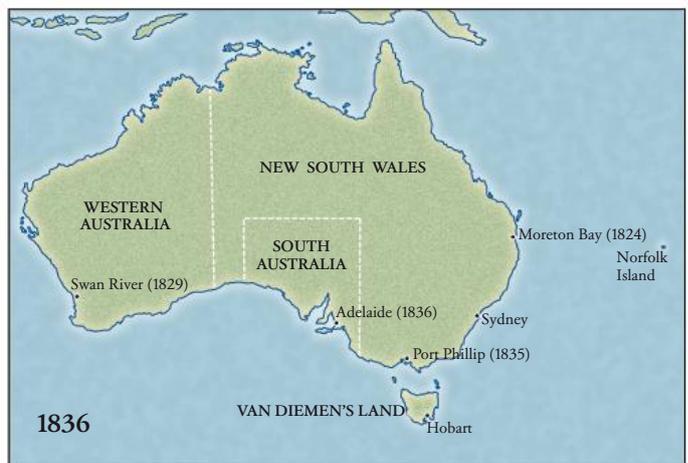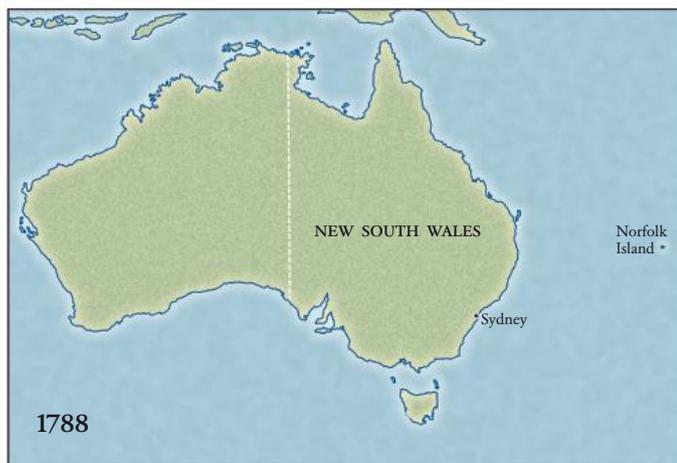
Source 5.31 Colonial and state boundaries with principal settlements and dates

in Victoria the population increased sevenfold. Many of these migrants were young, and new radical and liberal political ideas were discussed and shared on the diggings.

The colonists' confidence grew alongside the wealth of the country. Some made a fortune by finding gold, while others prospered by growing food for the miners, running coaches, setting up stores or building the houses, roads and many fine public buildings that grew up in the mining districts and in Melbourne. A feeling of being Australian was growing and some felt irritated by the continuing power of British authorities.

Eureka Stockade

In 1854, on the goldfields at Ballarat in Victoria, the miners' resentment of the heavy mining licence fees and the way that the local police exercised their power as they inspected miners' licences boiled over into a rebellion. A number of their leaders had been in the Chartist movement in Britain. The miners wanted to reduce or even end the licence fees and the tax on gold, and they wanted the vote.

In November 1854, the miners formed the Ballarat Reform League and agreed 'that it is the inalienable right of every citizen to have a voice in making the laws he is called on to obey, that taxation without representation is tyranny'. They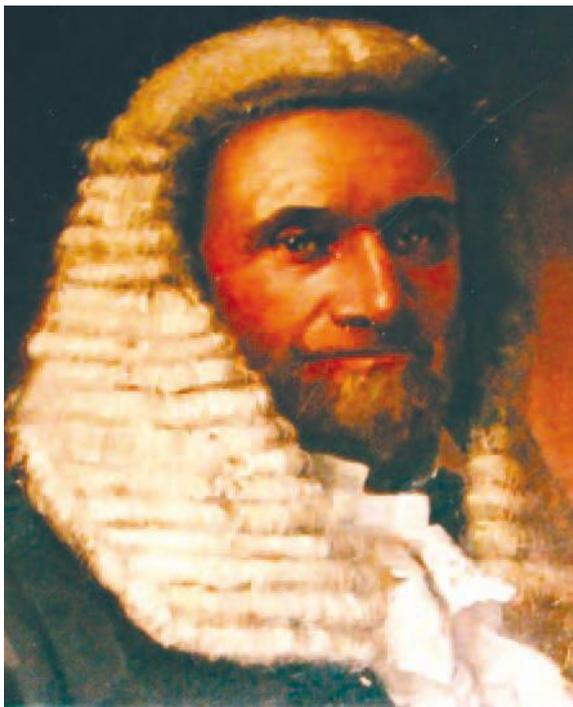 tried to negotiate their demands with Goldfields Commissioner Robert Rede and Victorian Governor Sir Charles Hotham. Rede did not want to compromise and ordered the police to continue to check miners' licences.

The angry miners elected a radical Irishman, Peter Lalor, as their leader. Under the Eureka Southern Cross flag, they vowed to burn their licences and defy the government. They made a fort, or stockade, armed themselves and trained for battle. But when the more numerous government forces attacked them early in the morning on Sunday 3 December 1854, they were easily defeated. Twenty-two miners were killed.

The ringleaders were charged with high treason, but there was great public sympathy for them. Many Victorians were shocked by the government's brutal actions and the juries refused to convict the arrested men. When they were freed, thousands cheered. An inquiry into the event suggested that the miners had justified grievances.

Rights or a riot?

People still disagree about the importance of the Eureka stockade in Australian history. Some believe that it was the real beginning of Australian independence and democracy. In 2004, Victorian Premier Steve Bracks said, 'Eureka was about the struggle for basic democratic rights. It was not about a riot – it was about rights'. Today you see the Eureka flag being used by some groups as a symbol of their rebellion against authority. They see it as an expression of true Australian democracy. Others see Eureka as just a riot by a small number of miners, arguing that only about 15 per cent of the miners were involved in the stockade. They also point out that most of the leaders and those put on trial were from Ireland and the United States.

Source 5.32 Peter Lalor was the leader of the miners at the Eureka Stockade. Later he became a member of the Victorian parliament; this portrait shows him in his wig and gown as the Speaker of the House.

In fact, the process of writing new and more democratic constitutions for the colonies was well underway by 1854. New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania (formerly Van Diemen's Land) all had new constitutions in 1855. The South Australian constitution of 1856 was the most advanced democratic constitution in the world at that time. It introduced **manhood suffrage** for the lower house and a fully elected upper house, based on a property franchise. In the spirit of Eureka, the new Victorian Parliament soon legislated for manhood suffrage as well. In 1856, South Australia, Victoria and Tasmania introduced another important democratic reform, the secret ballot. This meant that others could not discover which candidate you were voting for, which lessened the likelihood of the intimidation of voters by employers and other powerful people. This more democratic system of casting your vote was one of the demands of the British Chartists. The secret ballot was known throughout the world as the 'Australian ballot'. Later, other countries (for example, Britain in 1872 and the United States after 1884) followed the Australian example.

Now these colonies had responsible government, elected by the people. In 1859, Queensland became a separate colony from New South Wales and began developing more democratic constitutions. Only Western Australia lagged behind, finally getting a new constitution in 1890. Based upon manhood suffrage, these constitutions were among the most democratic in the world for their time, but generally they still denied Aboriginal people and women the vote.

> **manhood suffrage** the right of all adult men to vote in parliamentary elections

Unlock the lands

By 1860, manhood suffrage was accepted in most of Australia, and the colonial governments were largely independent of the British Crown. However, miners, town workers and many voters opposed the dominance of the wealthy landed class of squatters and pastoralists in colonial politics and society.

From the 1860s, colonial parliaments passed *Selector Acts*. They wanted to unlock the vast landholdings, which squatters leased from the government, to allow people of average means to select or choose land for farming. The selectors would be able to pay for the land over a number of years. It was believed that if the economic power of the large squatters was limited, then the colonies would be more equal and more

Source 5.33 *Swearing Allegiance to the 'Southern Cross'*, a watercolour by Charles Doudiet (1854). The oath of allegiance was: 'We swear by the Southern Cross to stand truly by each other and fight to defend our rights and liberties.'

democratic. Of course, the squatters opposed these laws and did all they could to hold on to as much of their land as possible. However, especially in Victoria and South Australia, a new class of freeholders with small to medium-sized family farms was created.

One of the last democratic reforms adopted in nineteenth-century Australia was the payment of members of parliament. This was first legislated in Victoria in 1870 and later in other colonies. This meant that even ordinary wage earners could stand for parliament, because they would receive a salary if elected. Now you did not need to be a wealthy man to be a member of parliament.

Position of women

In the mid nineteenth century, women in Australia had many responsibilities to their families, but few political, social or economic rights. Though many women ran small businesses, kept shops or were domestic servants or teachers, many more were dependent upon men – their fathers and husbands. A woman had no legal protection if her husband was violent, did not support her and their children, or took her property. Australian women, like **feminist** women in other countries, organised campaigns to get educational opportunities,

feminist a person who believes that women and men are equals and should enjoy all the same rights

more paid work and access to divorce, as well as the right to keep their own property after marriage, to control their own bodies and to have access to birth control. To achieve this they wanted the parliamentary vote. They were concerned by male drunkenness and violence towards women and children, and wanted to care for women prisoners and other such unfortunates.

Women organising

Women created various organisations that all aimed to improve women's positions, although with different emphases. From 1882, the Australian branches of the international Woman's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) worked to protect women, children and family life. They aimed to control or abolish the liquor trade so that men would not waste their money on drink, beat their wives and leave them and their children in poverty and destitution. Women in both the country and cities joined the WCTU.

In 1884, Henrietta Dugdale and Anne Lowe formed the Victorian Women's Suffrage Society, and similar societies grew in other colonies. These had liberal ideas, believing that women, like men, should have human rights, citizenship and the vote. They also wanted equal justice, equal privileges in marriage and divorce, rights to property and the custody of children in divorce. Working women, such as tailors, organised

☛ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise some of the changes the Women's Christian Temperence Union wanted to make and how they would affect women's lives.

WCTU changes	How this would affect women's lives
Better working conditions for women	Will ensure that women are not taken advantage of in the workplace and will have the same rights as men

trade unions from 1882, seeking better pay and working conditions.

Some men supported their claims, but women had to persuade male voters and legislators in each colony. Many believed that women were less intelligent than men and should be only occupied with family life. Feminist women wrote letters to the press, organised petitions, made deputations to politicians and addressed meetings.

Louisa Lawson published *The Dawn: a Journal for Australian Women* from 1888 to 1905. She wrote, 'Men legislate on divorce, on hours of labour, and many other questions intimately affecting women, but neither ask nor know the wishes of those whose lives and happiness are most concerned'.

Activity **5.6**

Some historians believe that Australian women were granted the vote by generous male politicians, while others say women had to work and struggle for it. What do you think?

Source 5.34 Rose Scott (1847–1925) was a committed feminist and secretary of the Womanhood Suffrage League in New South Wales. Her attempt, in 1892, to get the **age of consent** for girls raised from 14 to 16 years was greeted by laughter and contempt by the New South Wales parliament. She remained single, claiming that life was too short to waste it in the service of one man.

age of consent the minimum age at which it is legal for a person to have sexual intercourse

The monster petition

In 1891, Victorian women went door-to-door and collected 30 000 signatures from women and men in favour of female enfranchisement and presented it to the Victorian parliament, but it denied their claims. A similar South Australian petition of 1894 had 11 600 signatures, while the Tasmanian women gathered 9500 signatures for three petitions between 1896 and 1898. Queensland women gathered 15 366 signatures between 1894 and 1897.

Victories

In 1894, South Australian women aged over 21 years gained the right to vote and to stand for parliament. This was a world first; in 1893 women were enfranchised in New Zealand, but were not granted the right to stand for parliament. Women gained the right to vote in other colonial or state elections in Western Australia in 1899, New South Wales in 1902, Tasmania in 1903, and Queensland and Victoria in 1908. With Federation in 1901, women gained the vote for the Australian Commonwealth Parliament. It was a great victory, but Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women in some states were excluded.

Moving towards Federation

During the later nineteenth century, some Australians began to think about an Australian nation. Communications such as railways and telegraphs meant that the colonies could be in close touch with each other. As people visited other colonies they realised that they had a lot in common. Some organisations like the Woman's Christian Temperance Union (1891) and the trade union movement (1879) formed national associations.

Businessmen saw that their Australian markets were divided by colonial borders and customs charges. It made more sense to have one nation, and thus one market for their goods. As we have seen in this chapter, anti-Chinese prejudices were growing, fanned by some politicians. There was the idea that Australia should be a white nation, prohibiting migrants from Asia, Africa and the Pacific Islands. Some believed that the need to defend Australia from foreign forces should lead to a federation. There were numbers of different reasons for supporting federation of the Australian colonies. The matter was discussed first in 1888, but did not proceed quickly. In 1889, Sir Henry Parkes made an impassioned speech at Tenterfield on the New South Wales–Queensland border calling for a federal convention to devise 'a great national Government for all Australia'.

In 1891, the colonies were represented at the National Australasian Convention in Sydney, where they agreed upon the name 'Commonwealth of Australia'. Some political leaders were in favour and others against, and still others regularly changed their minds. There were several conventions about the proposed constitution for the new nation. In 1897, delegates from five colonies were elected to discuss the proposition at the National Australasian Convention. **Referenda** were held in 1898 and 1899, and finally the 'Commonwealth of Australia' came into being in 1901.

referenda plural of 'referendum'; that is, taking a political question to the electorate to get a direct decision from voters

Source 5.35 Henry Parkes (1815–1896) worked as a labourer when he first arrived as an assisted immigrant in New South Wales in 1839. He enjoyed the great opportunities open to white men in Australia, becoming a newspaper editor and a liberal representative to the first colonial parliament in 1856. He served as New South Wales Premier five times and was knighted in 1877. Known as the 'Father of Federation', he died five years before the new nation was born.

Source 5.36 South Australian Catherine Helen Spence (1829–1910) stood as a delegate to the 1897 National Australasian Convention. She was the first woman to run for election in Australia. She was not elected.

Rights denied

As most Australian citizens were gaining political and social rights, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples were becoming more disempowered than ever. From the 1840s, many Aboriginal people were living on mission stations run by various Christian denominations. Here they were protected from the physical violence meted out to them by settlers, but they found it difficult to maintain their languages and their cultures. These mission stations were run as dictatorships, with most power being held by the leading male missionary.

Bessie Cameron (c. 1851–1895) was a Nyungar woman from Western Australia who studied in European schools there and in Sydney. She was as a teacher at the Ramahyuck mission in Gippsland in Victoria, which was run by the Rev FA Hagenauer. He ran the mission in a very strict manner and made Bessie marry Donald Cameron, a man with mixed Aboriginal and Scottish descent. They had eight children and ran the mission's boarding school. In 1886, Alfred Deakin and the Victorian government passed a law that meant that Aboriginal people of mixed descent could no longer live on mission stations. This saw many families like Bessie's split up. Thus, as other

Activity 5.7

Examine Source 5.37 and answer the following questions:

1 Why do you think the cartoonist has made Miss South Australia and the Victorian woman look ugly?

2 Why do you think the cartoonist has drawn 'the suffrage' as a pair of trousers?

3 How does the cartoon represent the male figure?

4 With female political leaders at both state and federal levels today, what do you think about this cartoon drawn more than 100 years ago?

THE CRITIC.— THE FEDERAL WEEKLY. August 26, 1899.

A QUESTION OF PROPRIETY.

The Vic. Woman.—"We demand our votes. We will have 'em."
The Conservative Party.—"I assure you they're very unbecoming, ma'am. Just look at Miss South Australia there!"

Source 5.37 The cartoonist shows a man representing the Conservative Party holding suffrage as a pair of trousers behind him. The Victorian woman is demanding the right to vote, but the man advises against it, pointing out that they 'are very unbecoming ma'am. Just look at Miss South Australia there!'

Australians gained the right to vote and stand for election, Aboriginal families were losing basic rights, such as keeping their children with them.

Ngarrindjeri people at the Point McLeay mission in South Australia voted in the 1896 South Australian election and for delegates for the 1897 Federal Convention and the Federation referenda of 1898–99. However, most Aboriginal people were not on electoral rolls and were unable to take part in the political life of the nation.

Research 5.4

Investigate the rights of South Australian Aboriginal people in relation to voting after Federation.
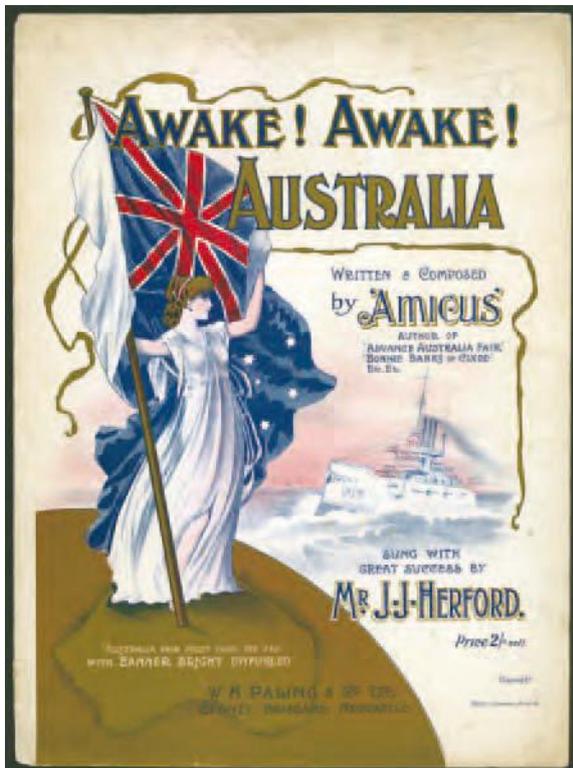
Source 5.38 Illustrated sheet music of songs submitted for an Australian National Anthem at Federation. The song *Awake! Awake! Australia* was composed by Peter McCormick, who in 1878 also wrote *Advance Australia Fair*.

Legislation 1901–14 [W] [B]

Australia at Federation

Historians have found it hard to discover much enthusiasm by colonists in Australia for the six separate colonies to federate and become a Commonwealth in 1901. The proposal was decided by popular vote in a series of 10 referenda in 1898–1900. Voting was not yet compulsory and usually less than half of the registered electors – all male, adult property holders – even bothered to vote. For the most part, only between 30 per cent and 43 per cent favoured Federation. Victoria was the colony most enthusiastic about national union, and this was the only place where an actual majority voted in the affirmative, in 1899. Western Australia, worried about financial disadvantages, held out the longest – not holding its referendum until mid 1900. It was passed only due to the goldfields' vote.

Many people tended to be apathetic; and some regarded Federation only as a business venture to dismantle customs barriers between the colonies in order to improve internal trade. A more idealistic minority, however, was moved by nationalistic feeling and looked towards Australia becoming 'a mighty nation' some day.

Yet the new Commonwealth was far from being an independent, sovereign nation in 1901. It had no foreign policy separate from that of Britain. It could not declare war or peace. It was unable to make treaties with other nations and had no diplomatic standing abroad. It retained the British national anthem and its head of state remained the British monarch. The flag flown was the Union Jack. Even Australia's domestic legislation could be ruled invalid by the British parliament, and its highest court of appeal was the British Privy Council. As historian Manning Clark observed, 'There was no declaration of independence … No one seemed to be able to say who Australians were or what they stood for'. The new Australian states also jealously guarded their own powers and finances, thus further restricting central control.

At the Commonwealth inauguration ceremony in Sydney on 1 January 1901, British officials – politicians, churchmen and military figures – were prominent. A large crowd of more than 100 000 people watched the ceremony in Centennial Park and attended the procession through the highly decorated Sydney streets. The loudest cheers were reserved for the British Imperial soldiers: Queen Victoria's Hussars, the Imperial Life Guards, Bengal Lancers and Indian Ghurkhas. Australian troops were fighting in British wars in South Africa and China at the time. But when the Commonwealth was proclaimed by Britain's Lord Hopetoun, the press reported a crowd reaction of 'Listless Apathy'. There was hardly a spontaneous cheer in the park. Assembled schoolchildren cheered on command and sang the 'Federal Anthem', but everyone else continued on with their picnics. 'There was a meagre cheer, and Australia was born,' the Sydney *Bulletin* stated. Less than three weeks later, Britain's Queen Victoria died, casting a cloud of gloom over further proceedings.

Among the architects of Federation, only one man, Andrew Inglis Clark, was a republican. He was a shy, retiring person who worked hard on the Australian Constitution. But he was not a prominent speaker. The rest tended to see themselves as 'children dependent on a superior people' (to quote Sir Samuel Griffith). These 'superior people' lived in the British Isles. The founding fathers of Australia therefore regarded themselves as Britons first and Australians second. All of Australia's strength and national essence, it was widely believed, rested upon 'the British connection'.

The White Australia Policy

The so-called 'White Australia Policy' cannot be traced to any single piece of legislation. Rather, it developed from a considerable number of parliamentary Acts of the new Australian Commonwealth, aimed at preventing non-white nationalities from migrating, removing certain non-whites already resident and severely restricting the rights and opportunities of others. It also concentrated early national defence measures on an expected Japanese military invasion, though no such invasion was contemplated by Japan.

This approach arose from dominant concerns that we would now consider as racist: for example, the widespread belief that non-whites were both naturally **servile** and worth less as workers than whites.

servile slave-like

Activity **5.8**

Examine Australia's move to Federation and answer the following questions:

1   Why was Australian Federation greeted with so much public apathy in 1901?

2   Which groups were the most enthusiastic about Federation?

3   What happened in Sydney on 1 January 1901?

4   Was the Inauguration Ceremony more of a British than an Australian one?

5   Why was the British connection so strong?

HISTORICAL FACT

Of all the Australian capital cities, Brisbane was the only one to vote against Federation in the referendum of 1899. There was great fear that local manufacturing and commerce would be swamped by stronger competition from Sydney and Melbourne.

Therefore, it was thought that non-whites would not agitate (as white labourers did) to improve their working situations or wage levels by forming trade unions and striking or negotiating for better pay and conditions. So, it was concluded that their migration would lower Australian wages and degrade working conditions generally. The migration of British and European light-skinned peoples was not similarly regarded.

Furthermore, racist theories of the time claimed that non-whites were also inferior intellectually, morally, sexually, culturally and socially. So, it was said that their presence in Australia led to degeneration, crime, immorality and disease. Very few mainstream Australians disagreed with this viewpoint at the time. It was supported by widespread Western scientific, philosophical and religious beliefs.

In 1888, the separate Australian colonies had united to exclude further Chinese migration. In the 1890s, individual colonies – such as Western Australia (1897), New South Wales (1898) and Tasmania (1898) – adopted a blanket restriction of all non-Europeans. White protests in northern and western Queensland, rural New South Wales and Victoria, and the Western Australian goldfields had opposed the presence of even small numbers of Malay, Sri Lankan, Indian, Japanese, Melanesian and Syrian people.

Consequently, the first national issue addressed by the Commonwealth Parliament in 1901 was the restriction of all non-white immigration. The *Immigration Restriction Act* of December 1901 accomplished this by devising a so-called 'Dictation Test' to be given only to non-white migrants in such a form that they were doomed to fail it. This bogus test camouflaged the Act's real racial intentions. This was done to address British concerns that an openly expressed racist ban would offend Indian Imperial subjects and the emerging Pacific industrial power of Japan.

Further, the *Post and Telegraph Act 1901* prevented non-whites working on any ships carrying Australian mail, while the *Pacific Island Labourers Act 1901* directed that all Melanesians be denied access to Australia from March 1904. Melanesian sugar workers (known as 'kanakas') in Queensland and northern New South Wales were to be deported and repatriated to their islands from December 1906. Almost 7300 Islanders were removed between 1906 and 1914, while 1500 to 2000 managed to stay by obtaining **exemptions** or going into hiding.

exemption freedom from an imposition

The *Naturalisation Act 1903* reserved British citizenship for whites only, while the *Franchise Act 1902* withheld voting rights from non-whites and the *Old Age Pensions Act 1909* and the *Maternity Allowance Act 1912* denied them welfare benefits. Many pieces of state legislation, especially in Western Australia and Queensland,

Source 5.39 The front-page cartoon of the Sydney *Bulletin* in 1901, showing the racist views of the time held about non-whites.

also adopted a 'Dictation Test' to restrict rights and opportunities on a racial basis.

The White Australia Policy was long regarded as the foundation stone of the new Australian nation. Its discriminatory provisions were not entirely removed from legislation until 1972.

Working life in the 1900s

What was it like to be an Australian wage-earner in the Federation era? The answer to this, of course, depends on the kind of work being done. Was it skilled or unskilled? Rural or urban? And what was the status of the workers themselves?

Were they members of a trade union? Were they male or female? Of European or non-European descent? Aboriginal or non-Aboriginal? Torres Strait Islander or non–Torres Strait Islander?

Generally, however, we can conclude that in this era the vast majority of people were 'doing it tough'. Early migration propaganda that encouraged poor labourers to come to the colonies had depicted Australia as 'a working man's paradise'. Yet this was rarely the case by 1900.

Trade-union organisation had only been legalised in the mid 1880s, but the new unions had then been almost destroyed in the 1890s strike wave by a forceful combination of employer groups and colonial governments. By 1906, only around 6 per cent of the workforce was unionised. The

Times gone by …

There is something higher than the making of money … and that is the character, the morals and the health of our children. Let these people [non-whites] come in here and our race will become piebald in spite of our efforts to prevent it. Let us keep before us the noble ideal of a white Australia — a snow-white Australia if you will. Let it be pure and spotless … Let us tell these foreign races that when they can live up to our social and moral ideals we shall welcome them, but never let us try to blend a superior with an inferior race.

Source 5.40 James Roland, Labor Member for South Melbourne in the Commonwealth Parliament

1 Identify the main objections to non-white migration in 1901.

2 Would you consider these objections to be racist or not?

3 What were the main pieces of legislation that formed the White Australia Policy?

4 Explain why this policy was considered to be so important to Australia's well-being.

5 Analyse why the policy was continued for more than 70 years.

long 1890s depression had also created around 30 per cent unemployment in the skilled workforce. It was even higher among the unskilled and there were no state welfare services to counter distress. The Federation drought had also wreaked havoc on rural industries that employed one-third of the workforce. Although **real wages** between 1850 and 1890 usually had been higher than in Britain, they fell below the British average for most years between 1889 and 1908.

real wages the purchasing power of earnings relative to prices

In most industries, weekly wages barely allowed for frugal survival. Skilled workers might earn up to 60 or 70 shillings (that is, $6 to $7) per week, but large families and high rents or mortgages usually accounted for most of this. Most workers earned far less. Women workers, in particular, struggled to manage on less than 20 shillings ($2) per week. A female clothing worker, operating from her own home, might earn less than one cent per hour. This was called 'sweating'. Child workers, selling newspapers on street corners for instance, received around 30 cents for a working week of 70 hours. There was no paid overtime, sick leave, holiday pay or superannuation. All such reforms had eventually to be won by trade-union struggle.

It was common for most people to work for more than 60 hours per week for such small wages. Factory workers laboured for 70 hours, usually in unhealthy and hazardous conditions. Factories were insanitary, badly ventilated, poorly lit, loud and toxic, with no protection from dangerous machinery. Temperatures could be freezing during southern winters and more than 50°C in summer. Children as young as 12 years might work in such conditions.

Bakers and butchers worked up to 90 hours weekly; female bar attendants (called 'barmaids') and domestic servants performed their hard and dirty work for around 100 hours. Shop workers stood for up to 12 hours daily. Sitting down on the job could bring instant dismissal.

Indigenous workers were usually paid only with monotonous and nutritionally poor rations. White employers often treated them brutally. If cash wages were granted, as in Queensland by the 1900s, the bulk of the money was taken by the state under the guise of 'protection'. Queensland Aboriginal Protector, Archibald Meston, wrote in July 1900 that Aboriginal working conditions would 'excite the horror of the Nation'. Their plight, however, was largely ignored by the early trade-union movement.

Source 5.41 Low-paid child workers deliver newspapers in the country town of Toowoomba, Queensland in 1904.

Times gone by …

The kennels in which the hardest working section of our toilers are herded to live and eat together with lice, bugs, cockroaches, fleas, spiders, scorpions, centipedes, snakes &c., are … filthy and insanitary. Smoke, dirt and grime … adorn the walls of the majority of these filthy dens. Old slabs with innumerable cracks allow the wind to blow through … them. Bad roofs let the rain in and bad drainage make the dirt floors into bogs in wet weather …

Source 5.42 A description of the accommodation on western stations for shearers and roustabouts, from the *Worker* newspaper, Brisbane on 25 August 1900

Imagine you are one of the following:

• a white male factory worker

• a male or female school teacher

• a white female domestic servant

• a white male skilled worker (for example, a carpenter)

• an Aboriginal male pastoral worker

• an Aboriginal female domestic servant.

Write an account of an average working day in 1900, mentioning your wages, rights and conditions

HISTORICAL FACT

From the 1870s, white workers' organisations produced their own newspapers to publicise their workplace conditions and help to spearhead the movement for reform.

The Harvester Judgement (1907)

The Australian Constitution did not grant the Commonwealth Government any power to determine reasonable wages or tolerable workplace conditions. In order to sidestep this, Federal Parliament adopted an ingenious solution.

In 1906, it passed the *Excise Tariff (Agricultural Machinery) Act*. This imposed a tariff (or financial levy) on local machinery manufacturers. It would be removed, however, if the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and **Arbitration** decided that a company was paying its workers a 'fair and reasonable' wage. In this way, the Commonwealth could intervene to both protect local producers from overseas competition by imposing tariff payments on imports, and to protect workers by *removing* a company's excise payment if its employees' well-being was being sufficiently safeguarded. This process was known as 'the New Protection'.

arbitration settling disputes by using an independent judge

In early 1907, workers at a company making agricultural machinery, known as Sunshine Harvesters, met at Braybrook in Melbourne to protest against the lack of overtime rates. Their employer, Hugh McKay, was Australia's largest export manufacturer and owned factories employing more than 1000 men. He was also a strong opponent of trade unions. McKay argued that his weekly minimum wage of 36 shillings ($3.60) – or six shillings per day – was 'fair and reasonable'. He had already applied for his exemption from the Commonwealth excise.

The Court of Conciliation and Arbitration decided to make the Sunshine Harvester Company a test case for the New Protection. Its recently appointed President, Henry Bournes Higgins, set about determining what a 'fair and reasonable' wage should be. He concluded that it should not be decided by what an employer said he could afford to pay or by what workers could extract from him by strikes or negotiation. Rather, it should be based on 'the cost of living as a civilised being'.

This was a novel concept. Higgins drew upon a recent proclamation of Pope Leo XIII that payment 'must be enough to support the wage-earner in reasonable and frugal comfort'. In October and November 1907, Higgins listened to the evidence of workers' wives about their household budgets. He wanted to know how much it cost for an average family of five members to meet the 'normal needs' of 'a human being in a civilised society'. These needs included food, shelter, clothing and warmth. They also included, Higgins decided, such items as furniture, utensils, insurance, books and newspapers, tram and train fares, schooling needs, amusements and holidays.

Overall, the judge concluded, this minimum or basic wage should be 42 shillings ($4.20) a week or seven shillings (70 cents) per day. This was significantly higher than McKay's minimum wage and similar to the amount that colonial trade union leaders had earlier demanded for their members. It was also not reducible in value by government intervention. It was a new social or citizenship right. If a company could not afford it, Higgins argued, it should probably be shut down as inefficient. Australia had thus established the first basic wage in the world. It would be many decades before other countries followed suit.

Yet the ruling applied to only one sector of the population. White male workers were granted this payment whether they had a family to support or not; neither was the size of the family

HISTORICAL FACT

Hugh McKay later succeeded in having the *Excise Act* ruled unconstitutional, but Higgins continued to use his basic wage finding as a yardstick in determining the outcome of industrial wage disputes.

taken into account. Females were not defined as family bread-winners (even when they were) and continued to receive lower wages – usually around 54 per cent of a man's. Aboriginal people, Torres Strait Islander people and many other non-white workers similarly did not qualify, and continued to live precariously.

Activity **5.9**

Consider the Harvester Judgement and answer the following questions:

1 What do you understand by the term 'the New Protection'?

2 Why was the Harvester Company chosen as a test case?

3 How did Higgins determine what an Australian basic wage should be?

4 Why were women, Aboriginal people, Torres Strait Islander people and non-whites excluded from this 'social right'?

How people lived at Federation

By 1910, almost 40 per cent of Australians lived in the six capital cities. There were also more than 30 towns with populations between 10 000 and 30 000 people. Even smaller centres, however, supported a rich local culture. Bathurst, with a population of 9223 in 1901, produced three local newspapers.

Australia was highly urbanised and, in these cities and towns, people lived in differing circumstances according to their wealth or poverty. A rich man, such as Thomas Holt of Marrickville, Sydney, occupied a mansion of 30 rooms, including a banqueting hall, ballroom and art gallery, which was maintained by a range of specialised servants. This contrasts dramatically with great numbers of urban poor who lived in overcrowded, run-down tenement slums in the inner city, and had to face inferior sanitation, bad health, unemployment and high infant mortality. Bubonic plague, spread by the fleas of the black rat, broke out in these conditions across certain mainland cities from 1900.

In Collingwood or Fitzroy in Melbourne, as many as six people might live in one small room, while families of up to 12 people were crammed into unsewered, two- or three-room hovels.

Source 5.43 These photographs show two of the contrasting ways people lived in Australia in 1900. The first shows the rough-and-tumble street life in inner-city Sydney (Wexford Street, near Campbell Street) and the second shows the living room of a well-to-do middle-class family in the Sydney suburbs.

Most people lived in rented accommodation. Home ownership, for around two-thirds of the population, was an impossible dream.

Until 1905, many country people, struggling under drought conditions, survived on damper, '**pie-melon jam**' and the rabbits they caught. **Dripping**, golden syrup and condensed milk were rare joys. Schooling was meagre for farming families and English literacy was low. There was little time for leisure activity. Men, women and children on most farms worked incessantly for survival. 'We are just white slaves,' one farmer's wife explained.

pie-melon jam jam made from tasteless melons that grew plentifully in paddocks

dripping fat melted from roasted meat and used for cooking or as a spread on bread or damper

Between the two extremes of wealth and poverty, a minority of middle-class people – the families of skilled workers, tradesmen and the self-employed – were increasingly moving into suburban areas between city centres and the bush. Here they lived in more comfortable, detached houses on quarter-acre blocks.

Public transport, telephones, gas and electricity all made life easier from the 1890s. In these homes, labour-saving technology was gradually replacing domestic servants. Motor vehicles began their slow appearance from 1897. By 1914, there were still only 37 000 registered motorcycles, cars and trucks in Australia. People tended to view a car as a kind of mechanical horse.

In the schools, corporal punishment was widespread. People who wrote memoirs about this time recall teachers stalking around classrooms 'in frock coats always with cane in hand'. Eighteen strokes was the punishment for 'playing the wag'; that is, truancy. At All Saints Grammar in Melbourne, the headmaster daily 'flogged not only the boys who wilfully misbehaved but also those … slow to learn'. Yet it was found in New South Wales that more than half the children described as 'dull' were actually suffering a health defect, such as poor hearing or sight. In Queensland, one-third of pupils had some physical complaint and 97 per cent had decayed teeth. Those children who were left-handed were forced to write right-handed; some had their left hand tied behind their back, while others had their left hand caned repeatedly.

Due to poor diet and deprived living conditions, the average 14-year-old by 1910 was around 150 centimetres tall and weighed only 40 kilograms. The median life expectancy for white people was only 55 years for women and 53 for men.

Establishing state welfare

The new colonial societies in Australia were all built on hard work. Schoolchildren were taught, 'It's your duty to work. If you don't work, you'll starve.' Dropping out of the workforce due to misfortune, illness or physical incapacity was often blamed on some individual moral failing. For instance, it might be said that the person drank too much alcohol, was lazy or too self-indulgent. Though people in distress might be offered some temporary, private charity, it was not considered to be the state's role to help them survive in society in any permanent way. These social failures were branded as the 'undeserving poor' and were either left to their own devices or segregated in state-run asylums (or prisons). Society, it was believed, needed to be protected from them, rather than the opposite.

Source 5.44 A schoolboy receives a medical checkup from the school nurse, c.1911. Defective vision, partial deafness and diseased teeth were common among schoolchildren at the time.

HISTORICAL FACT

The first motor vehicle in Australia was a Knight Eaton 'tricycle' car, built in Brisbane in 1893. It was not very successful. When the first De Dion Voiturette car passed through southern New South Wales one afternoon in 1901, the air was so pure that locals could still smell the odour of benzene on the breeze the next morning.

Times gone by …

Meanwhile, Sydney itself was facing a far worse emergency. As early as 1894, that terrible scourge known as the Bubonic plague in the Middle Ages had appeared in Hong Kong. Precautions had not been strict enough and the plague slowly but relentlessly spread … appearing in Sydney at the beginning of 1900. From the wharves of Darling Harbour … rats made their way all along the waterfront … Policemen on the beat wore leggings to prevent fleas jumping on their legs … Fire engines went around the streets, sluicing them down with water and everyone joined in a massive effort to get rid of rubbish. I heard a lot of people wish to heaven a fire would destroy the whole of the wharves … on the harbour front … The emergency lasted from January to August. In that time, more than one-third of the three hundred-odd cases of bubonic plague had died.

Source 5.45 Eugenie McNeill remembers the bubonic plague health scare of 1900.

Write an account, or prepare a PowerPoint presentation, on how one of the following lived in the decade 1901 to 1910:

• a rich family, living in a Sydney mansion
• a well-off middle class family, living in a suburb in an Australian city of your choice
• a working-class family, living in a Melbourne slum district
• a farming family, living in your state or territory
• an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander family living in your state or territory.

The widespread suffering of the 1890s, however, encouraged a serious rethink of public policy. The bank crashes and parched inland taught many that even sober, thrifty citizens could be economically ruined through no fault of their own. Electors began demanding official protection and intervention against inequality, poverty, injury, illness and old-age privation for people of European descent.

In 1904, Australians elected the first national Labor government in the world. While its tenure was brief, its platform included state welfare as a citizen's right. In 1908–09 and 1910–13, Labor returned to office for more extended terms. In 1908–09, in cooperation with Alfred Deakin's Liberals, Labor introduced the *Old Age and Invalid Pensions Act*. In 1912, a maternity bonus for new mothers was added, but not for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people.

Viewed from today's perspective, such beginnings appear small and cautious. There was no attempt to introduce unemployment benefits or any educational or health initiatives. Yet, for the time, along with arbitration and the basic wage, it was a big step forward. As a result, Australia was seen internationally as being a boldly experimental 'social laboratory', where a national safety net was now being woven to save the less fortunate.

The old age pension, introduced in July 1909, granted 10 shillings ($1) per week for women over 60 years and for men over 65. It was seen as 'a just reward for a lifetime of useful work'. Yet it was not sufficient for survival and was also means-tested: payment ceased if the recipient earned 20 shillings ($2) or more weekly. A character test required the receiver to have been 'sober and respectable' for the past five years and free of criminal conviction for 12. Nevertheless, this pension was double the British equivalent, which was only available to those aged over 70 years. The invalid pension was also small and difficult to obtain. The applicant had to demonstrate a permanent incapacity and an absence of all family support.

Labor's maternity bonus was its only welfare reform introduced between 1910 and 1913. Each white mother (whether married or not) was granted a 100 shilling ($10) bonus for every live delivery. The average birth rate had fallen from seven children per family in 1891 to just over five by 1911 and there was great concern about 'national decline'. There was official talk of women's 'selfishness' in using birth-control methods and of 'racial decay' connected to a fear of Japanese invasion. The allowance was therefore a financial incentive to procreate and boost population growth. However, the national birth rate continued to fall, reaching a low of 1.5 per family in 1931.

Activity **5.10**

Recall Australia's adoption of state welfare policies and answer the following questions:

1 Why did people believe that poverty was the outcome of moral failure?

2 How did this opinion change?

3 What role did the Labor and Liberal parties play in the Federation welfare reforms?

4 How important were the changes from an international perspective?

5 How helpful were the old-age and invalid pensions of 1909?

6 What were the reasons behind the maternity bonus of 1912?

7 Why were Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people excluded from these reforms?

Chapter summary

- Convicts, officials and soldiers established the first European settlement at Sydney in 1788. From the 1830s, free settlers flowed into and across Australia, creating a new society.

- The wool industry, the gold rushes and other mining pursuits made Australia an attractive place for investment and led to substantial profits for investors.

- The settlers believed that they could rightfully take the land and the notion of *res nullius* denied Indigenous ownership and use. This invasion had devastating impacts upon Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, destroying their security, their livelihoods, their beliefs, languages and physical and cultural lives.

- Non-European migrants from China, Japan, Afghanistan, the Pacific Islands and other places made valuable contributions to the economic and social life of nineteenth-century Australia, but increasingly European settlers asserted that Australia should belong to whites only and attacked these people by physical and legislative means.

- White Australians developed a highly democratic form of government where manhood suffrage, payment of members of parliament and, increasingly, the enfranchisement of women were introduced. However, Indigenous people and non-European migrants were largely denied the opportunity to participate in this political system.

- Australian working and living conditions were difficult and challenging for many at the time of Federation. There was evidence of much social and economic inequality. The new Commonwealth governments began to address some of these problems by introducing the concept of a male basic wage, industrial arbitration, pensions and a female maternity bonus. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people and non-white migrants, however, were once more denied access to these reforms.

End-of-chapter questions
Multiple choice

1 The Australian colonial migration process was called:

   A assisted passage

   B systematic colonisation

   C systematic migration

   D government migration

2 Who pioneered the camel routes across the desert regions of Australia?

   A Chinese people

   B Afghan people

   C South Sea Islander people

   D Japanese people

3 The recording of a vote in private was called:

   A private voting

   B informal voting

   C democracy

   D secret ballot

4 One of the diseases suspected of decimating Aboriginal language groups in the Sydney region was:

   A tuberculosis

   B measles

   C smallpox

   D leprosy

5 The Harvester Judgement was:

   A an agricultural breakthrough

   B a health and safety reform

   C a government inquiry report

   D a basic wage decision

Short answer

1   Reflect on why there was no recognition of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander land rights in the Australian colonies.

2   Why did South Sea Islander people return to Australia for a second or third time?

3   In what ways was Australian democracy more advanced than that in Britain and the United States?

4   Explain why women wanted the right to vote.

5   Describe the White Australia Policy.

Source analysis

1   In the cartoon below, what is the octopus doing to the different Australian people?

2   Research the meaning of 'Fan-Tan' and 'Pak Ah-Pu'.

3   Explain why there is a chest of drawers in the top left-hand corner.

4   How is the Chinese man presented in this cartoon?

5   Compare his face with that of Quong Tart (see Source 5.24).

6   Compare this cartoon with the one at the end of Chapter 3 (see Source 3.40) depicting the Chinese man barred from entering the United States.

7   Given that European Australians had taken over all the country and land of Indigenous Australians by 1886, could you draw an octopus figure with eight arms presenting an Indigenous view of European Australians as gripping the Australian landmass? With each arm, illustrate one of the damages the Europeans caused to Indigenous Australians.

Extended response

Which groups were the main winners and losers in the making of the Australian nation between 1788 and 1914? Try to assess what each group won or lost in the process, and determine the level of their successes, failures, privileges or difficulties.
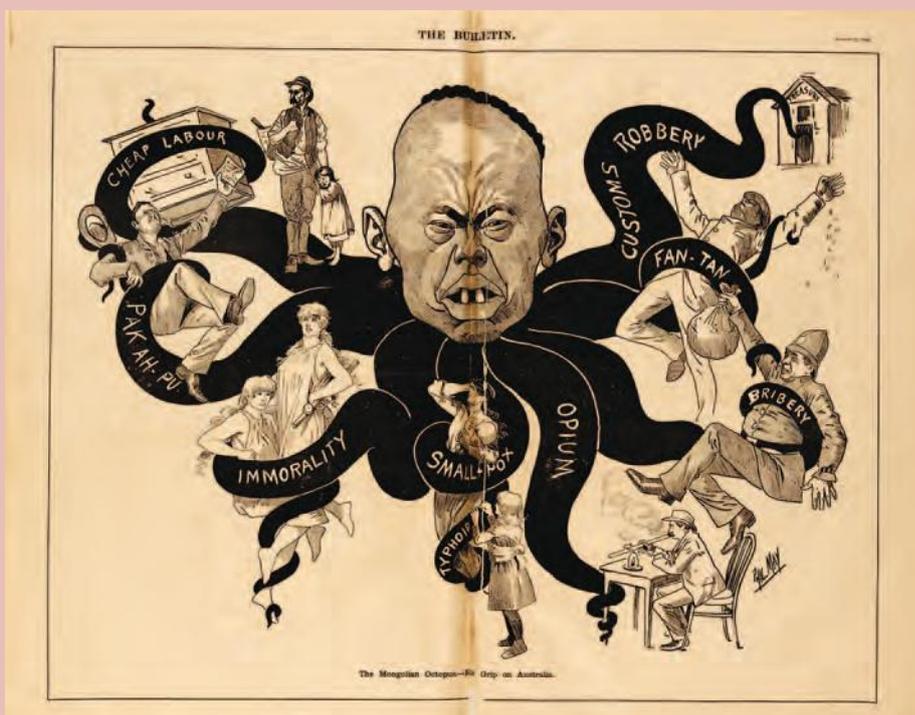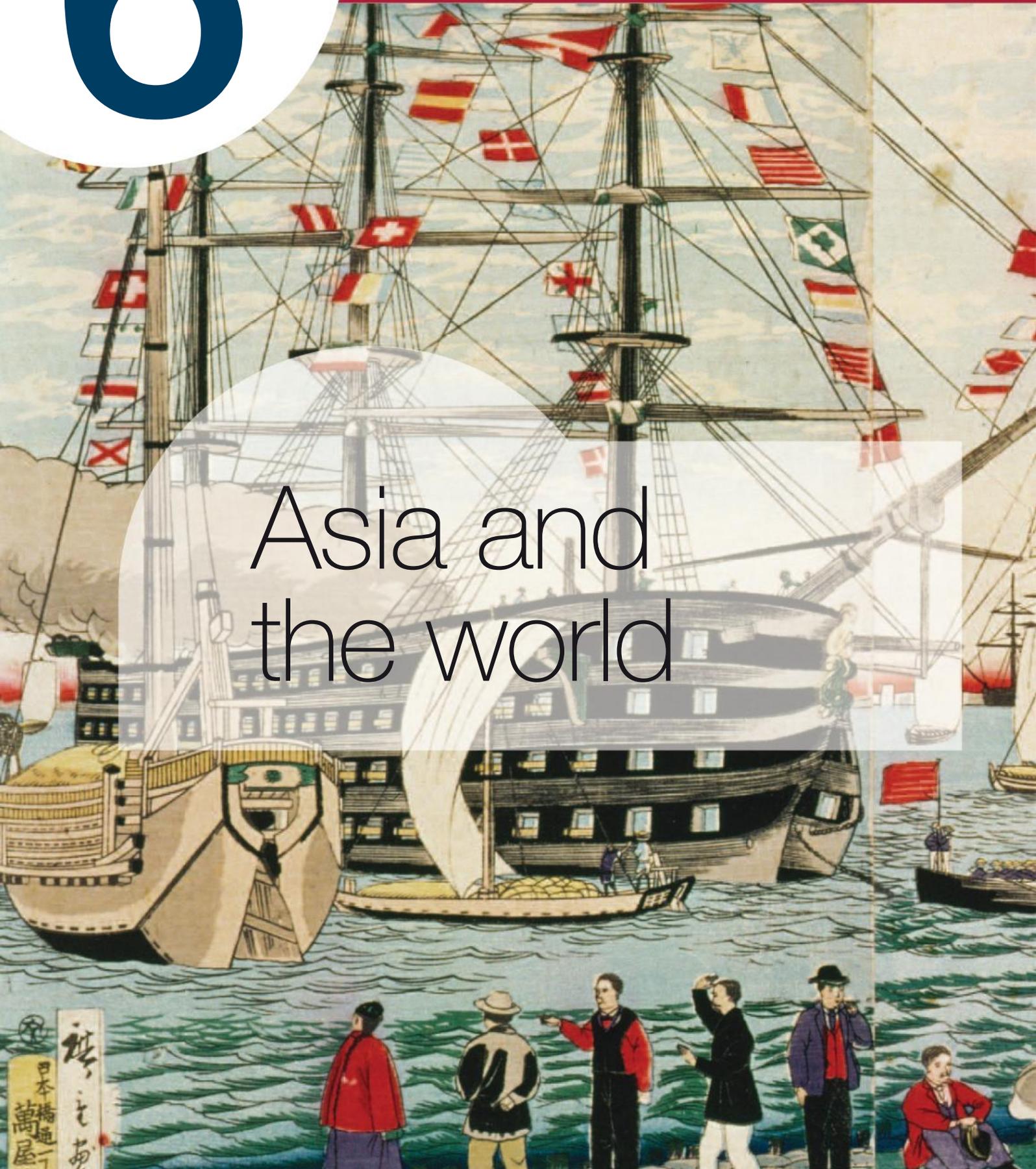

Source 5.46 A cartoon from the *Bulletin* on 21 August 1886: 'The Mongolian Octopus: His grip on Australia'. Note that the word 'Mongolian' was used to refer to Chinese people.

6

Asia and the world

Before you start

Main focus

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Asian societies experienced great social, economic and political changes, partly in response to interaction with Western imperialism.

Why it's relevant today

As Asian countries have increasingly become world powers, the Western domination and subjugation of Asian countries in the period 1750–1900 is important for an understanding of international relations in our world.

Inquiry questions

- How did Western societies affect Asian nations in the period 1750–1900?
- How did Asian countries respond to these challenges?
- How did relations between Asia and the West develop during this era?

Key terms

- colonialism
- modernisation
- treaty ports
- imperialism
- nationalism
- Westernisation

Significant individuals

- Abdul Rivai
- Empress Dowager Cixi
- Kartini
- Robert Clive
- Tipu Sultan
- Commodore Matthew Perry
- Hong Xiuquan
- Prince Diponegoro
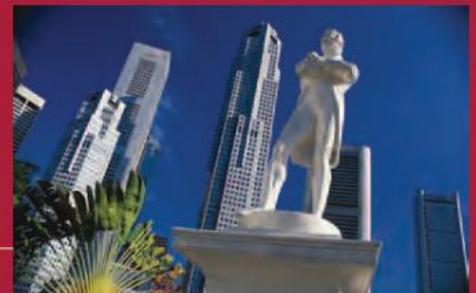- Sir Stamford Raffles
- Tsuda Umeko

Let's begin

Between 1750 and 1900, Asian societies encountered Western societies armed with modern technologies and new ways of doing business and politics. Merchants forcibly demanded entry to markets in Asia and were backed by the military forces of their nations. India, Indonesia, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, the Philippines and Sri Lanka became colonies of Western nations. In China, Western nations forced through unequal treaties, profiting from regions of the country that they had carved out for themselves. In colonised countries, cash crops for foreign markets were planted at the expense of food crops for the local populations. Japan took its own path to modernity, reforming its social structure, government and economy to make a direct challenge to Western power. By 1900, people in Indonesia, China and India had taken ideas from the West, such as nationalism and individual rights, to resist Western power and begin on the path to independence.
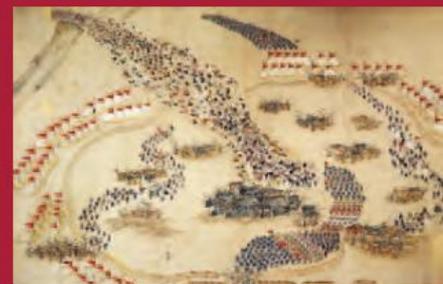

Source 6.2 British Navy attacking a Chinese port during the First Opium War

Source 6.3 The Plum Pudding in Danger' (or 'State Epicures Taking un Petit Souper') - English caricature showing the colonial powers carving up the world

Source 6.4 Sir Stamford Raffles monument, Singapore

Source 6.5 Rebels fleeing Chinese Imperial troops during Taiping Rebellion

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS

WORLD EVENTS

1700

Treaty of Giyanti divides **1755** Kingdom of Mataram between Yogyakarta and Surakarta

1789–92 French Revolution

Lord Macartney arrives in the **1793** Chinese court

Dutch East India Company **1799** is liquidated

1800

Stamford Raffles takes Singapore **1819**

Treaty of London **1824**

Paderi War in Sumatra **1821–38**

Java War **1825–30**

First Opium War between **1839–42** Britain and China

United States forces Japan to open **1853** to trade

Indian Rebellion against British **1857–58** rule is suppressed

Taiping Rebellion in China **1850–64**

British and French forces destroy **1860** the Summer Palace in Beijing

Meiji Restoration in Japan **1868**

Liberal policy is introduced in the **1870** Dutch East Indies

Indian National Congress is founded **1885**

Sino-Japanese War **1894–95**

Boxer Rebellion in China **1898**

1814–15 Napoleon Bonaparte is defeated

1832 First Reform Act is passed in Britain

1833 Slavery is abolished across the British Empire

1846 The Irish Potato Famine begins

1855 Manhood suffrage is granted in South Australia and Victoria

1861–65 US Civil War

1869 Suez Canal is opened

1870 Unification of Italy

1900

Anglo-Japanese alliance **1902**

Russo-Japanese War **1905**

Chinese Revolution **1911**

Death of the Meiji Emperor **1912**

1901 Australia's states are joined in a federation

1905 First Russian Revolution

1914–18 World War I

Source 6.6 Old Summer Palace ruins, Beijing, China

Source 6.7 Flag of the Indian National Congress

Source 6.8 Boxer Rebellion prisoners guarded by German sailors

Source 6.9 The taking of the Chinese flag by a Japanese officer during First Sino-Japanese War

to Russia 1858

MARITIME
PROVINCE

Amur River

Aihum

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

Vladivostok

Russian protectorate

Harbin
occupied by Russia 1897–1905
Japanese influence after 1905

*SEA OF
JAPAN*

JAPAN

**TANNU
TUVA**

Changchun

FENGTIAN

KAZAKHSTAN

REHE

Shenyang
Niuzhuang

Tian Shan

to Russia 1864

Altai

MONGOLIA

Kalgan • Beijing

KOREA
invaded by
Japan 1905

Ili
to Russia
1871–81

Turfan Basin

Gobi

CHIHLI

Tianjin

Weihaiwei

TURKESTAN

Tarim He River

CHINA

GANSU

Taiyuan

SHANDONG

Qingdao

*YELLOW
SEA*

Ryukyu Is.
to Japan 1872

Taklimakan

SHANXI

JIANGSU

Zhenjiang

Yellow River

Pukou
Nanjing

Wusong
Shanghai

Altun Shan

SHAANXI

HENAN

Wuhu
Suzhou

Ningbo
Hangzhou

AFGHANISTAN

Kunlun Shan

HUBEI

Hankou

ANHUI

ZHEJIANG

Wenthou

TIBET
autonomous after 1912, but
under British influence

Yangzi River

SICHUAN

Yichang

Yuezhou

Jiujiang

Santuao

Salween River

Chongqing

Changsha

JIANGXI

Fuzhou

Indus River

Himalayas

Brahmaputra River

HUNAN

FUJIAN

Xiamen

Taiwan
to Japan 1872

*EAST
CHINA
SEA*

NEPAL

GUIZHOU

GUANGDONG

Shantou

Ganges River

BHUTAN to Britain 1826

YUNNAN

Guangzhou

SIKKIM

ASSAM
to Britain 1886

Dengyue

Kunming

GUANGXI

Longzhou

Nanning

Kowloon to Britain 1898
Hong Kong to Britain 1842
Macau to Portugal 1557

BRITISH INDIA

Mengzi
Simao

Pakhoi

Guangzhouwah

Manhao

Spanish: to USA in 1898

Krishna River

BURMA
to Britain 1886

LAOS
to France 1893

Hainan

*Gulf
of
Tongking*

*SOUTH
CHINA
SEA*

PHILIPPINES

*ARABIAN
SEA*

*Bay
of
Bengal*

SIAM

Mekong River

VIETNAM
to France 1885

CEYLON

MALAYA

INDIAN OCEAN

SINGAPORE

DUTCH EAST INDIES

— Manchu empire in 1850
• Treaty ports by 1911

Foreign attacks
← British (Opium war 1839–42)
← Anglo-French expedition 1858–60
← French 1883–85
— Area of Boxer Rebellion 1900–01

Colonial possession
Russian
Japanese
French
British
German

Areas of influence
Russian
Japanese
French
British
German

Source 6.10 During the nineteenth century, China was beset by internal rebellions and lost territory to foreign powers. Foreign countries, Britain and France in particular, gained authority over key Chinese ports. The rising nation of Japan took the Ryukyu Islands and was influential in Korea and nearby provinces.

China

State of the nation during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries

In 1750, China was ruled by the Qing or Manchu dynasty, which had been in power since 1644. As the Manchus were not **Han Chinese**, they were regarded as foreigners by the majority of the population. At first they brought peace and stability to the country; in 1700, the standard of living and the development of science and the arts was among the best in the world.

Han Chinese the largest ethnic group in China

However, by the nineteenth century, China was in decline. Under the Qing, the population grew quickly, reaching 300 million around 1800 and 400 million in 1850. Agricultural production could not meet the needs of this growing population. In industry only traditional technologies were in use. The standard of living fell and there was a rise of **female infanticide**. Society and the education system were rigid. The **Confucian** beliefs of obedience were stressed in a conservative manner. Traders and merchants were on the bottom of the scale of social esteem, while officials and scholars were respected – but scholars were chosen by an examination system in which those who could learn and repeat ancient teachings were rewarded. This meant that the scholars were less open to new ideas and were unable to lead China to meet the challenges of the modern world. In previous centuries China had been a scientific leader, but it was now backward in comparison with Western Europe.

female infanticide the killing of female infants

Confucianism a philosophical system of ethics based on the teachings of Confucius (551–479 BCE)

Change and continuity

During the nineteenth century, the government was unable to control the vast area of China and local rulers became more powerful. Along with major conflicts like the **Opium Wars** and the **Taiping Rebellion**, there was widespread social unrest. The government was hampered in these conflicts by having to support the **bannermen** as well as local militia and a professional army.

There was little money for public works and the **Grand Canal** between Hangzhou and Beijing silted up and became useless for transporting goods. As well as this, the government restricted Chinese interaction with other countries. Foreign traders could only deal with licensed merchants, known as the **cohong**, which had a monopoly of the import–export trade. Foreign ships could only enter one port, Guangzhou, and only between October and January. Foreign traders could only stay in a special section of Guangzhou for these few months. No foreign ships could sail up the Pearl River.

Because of these measures, China had little opportunity to learn about the Westerners whom they called barbarians and 'foreign devils'. Chinese were forbidden to leave their country and were not allowed to teach Chinese to foreigners. However, we do know that some, such as gold seekers and indentured labourers, did manage to leave. This combination of economic and military weakness with deliberate naivety about the West meant that China was ill-equipped to deal with the Westerners who were eager to profit from trade with China.

Opium Wars wars in 1839–42 and 1856–60 between China and the British Empire over trade and diplomatic relations

Taiping Rebellion a civil war across south China in 1850–64 led by Hong Xiuquan

bannermen a professional military group loyal to the Chinese emperor, in which positions were inherited by family members

Grand Canal begun in 486 BCE, it is the longest artificial waterway in the world and was crucial for transportation of goods and people in China

merchant a person who buys and sells goods

cohong a guild or group of 13 merchants who were authorised by the Chinese emperor to have a monopoly over trade, especially tea and silk, with the West

Activity **6.1**

1   Describe why the Qing dynasty was regarded as foreign within China.

2   Determine why it was difficult for the Qing government to fight wars during this period.

3   Assess why the Chinese people were ill-equipped to deal with the influx of Western powers.

Trade relations with the West

Trade links between Europe and China had existed since the Ancient Roman period. Silk and fine porcelain was prized in Europe, although the Europeans were now copying Chinese designs and techniques. Over the eighteenth century, Chinese tea became very popular, especially among the British middle classes. In 1720, Britain imported 180 tonnes of tea from China and this grew to 10 600 tonnes by 1800. Britain was purchasing almost 15 per cent of the annual Chinese tea crop. It was said that the British consumption of tea grew from around one kilogram per head annually in the late 1790s to about five kilograms per head a decade later. Tea became a necessary part of the English way of life – this was when the English afternoon tea ritual developed.

The traders paid in silver, which the Chinese government used for its currency. In 1780, the British paid almost half a million kilograms of silver. However, because silver was becoming increasingly hard to obtain, the foreign traders and their governments wanted to be able to sell other goods to China to help pay for the tea, silk and china. They also wanted to deal with traders outside the cohong and be able to enter other ports and thus avoid the cost of having all goods sold through Guangzhou, which was far to the south of the tea-growing regions around the Yangtze River.

In 1793, King George III of England sent the diplomat Lord George Macartney to China to negotiate the freeing up of Chinese trade. Macartney took with him 84 servants and 600 boxes of gifts for the Emperor Quianlong, whom he hoped to impress. He presented King George's letter to the Emperor in a gold box encrusted with diamonds. At first the Emperor was unwilling to meet the envoy, who refused to **kow-tow**. However, they did have an informal meeting at the Imperial summer retreat. The Emperor accepted the gifts of clocks, telescopes and guns not because he was impressed by them but because he knew it had been so much trouble to bring them to Beijing. But he rejected the British requests, telling Macartney, 'There is nothing we lack … We have never set much store on strange and ingenious objects, nor do we need any more of your country's manufactures'.

kow-tow to kneel and bow, touching one's forehead to the ground

Although Macartney failed to get any agreement to make the China trade more balanced and open, he gained useful knowledge about China. He could see that the military forces were poorly armed, that poverty was widespread and that scholars and officials were uninterested in either improving the standard of living in China or in greater communication with the outside world.

Gun-boat diplomacy

The British East India Company was growing opium in India and could see this was a product that they could sell in China. Opium was useful as a pain-killer, but many became addicted to it. British opium sales to China grew quickly: from

HISTORICAL FACT

When Lord Macartney left Beijing without success in his mission, the Chinese government supplied his ship with two cows so that he could enjoy milk in his tea on his return journey.

200 chests in 1729 to 1000 chests in 1767 and 4500 chests in 1800. Opium smoking became a terrible social problem, and by 1800 the Chinese government had banned the import and production of the drug. In 1813, opium smoking was prohibited – offenders received 100 lashes and were required to wear a heavy wooden collar for a month. However, the British continued the trade. By dealing with Chinese smugglers and bribing officials, the traders increased the volume to 40 000 chests by 1838.

Lin Zexu was an official appointed to stamp out the destructive trade. In a letter addressed to Queen Victoria, later published in the London *Times*, he wrote: 'Let me ask you, where is your conscience? If people from a foreign country were seducing your people into buying and smoking opium, I'm certain you would not be happy either'.

Lin Zexu seized opium stores and 70 000 opium pipes. Opium belonging to the foreign traders was destroyed by 500 labourers working for 22 days. The British saw this destruction as an affront to their dignity and an assault on free trade. The British attacked the Chinese ports of Ningbo, Tianjin and Guangzhou, sailing up the Yangtze to Nanjing to demonstrate their superior force. On a single day in 1841, just one British steam-powered warship armed with large modern guns destroyed five Chinese **junks**, five forts, two military stations and onshore defences.

The Emperor had to submit to a humiliating peace: the Nanjing Treaty in 1842. Under the terms of the treaty, five ports were opened to international trade, China had to pay the British war costs and Britain took control of Hong Kong. This was the first of the **unequal treaties** under which foreign powers imposed their will on China. Unequal treaties also set low **tariffs** for imported goods, which not only made it hard for Chinese industry to develop but also increased British profits. Foreigners were now allowed to enter China, and traders and Christian **missionaries** were soon challenging traditional Chinese beliefs and values. Further, under the principle of '**extra territoriality**', foreigners were not subject to Chinese law and courts but were tried under their own law.

junks flat-bottomed Chinese ships

unequal treaties treaties that are far more favourable to one country than the other; they are often the result of a military threat or defeat

tariffs government taxes charged on imported or exported goods

missionaries people sent to spread a particular religious faith in another country

extra territoriality an exemption to local law; typically as a result of diplomatic negotiations

Activity **6.2**

1 Deduce why English traders wanted to sell goods to China.

2 Discuss with a partner the impact of Lord George Macartney's visit to China on the relationship between Britain and China.

3 Imagine being an English citizen drinking a cup of tea for the first time. Write a short paragraph describing what it would be like. Reflect on how far the tea would have had to travel to get to your lips.

Key event: the Taiping Rebellion

The Qing government also had to combat internal rebellions, especially after the humiliating Nanjing Treaty. Notably, the Taiping Rebellion of 1850–64 spread over 16 provinces and destroyed 600 cities. The leader, Hong Xiuquan (1814–1864), was a village school teacher who became enraged by the Manchus when he failed the Imperial Examination for a fourth time. He had a vision and believed he was the younger brother of Jesus Christ. He incited his followers to destroy idols and ancestral temples, to renounce opium and alcohol, and to give up **foot-binding** and prostitution. He said the Qing were foreign rulers who had stolen Chinese wealth and oppressed China's people.

foot-binding the painful practice of tightly binding the feet of young women, breaking the foot bones to stop their feet from growing; it was seen to make the women beautiful, dainty and feminine

He attracted many followers, especially among his own Hakka group, and they rose up against the government. In 1851, Hong declared he was King of the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace (Taiping). The Taipings called for a new type of society, with equal landholdings and equality for

men and women. The Xianfeng Emperor, who ruled between 1850 and 1861, appointed Zeng Guofan to defeat the rebellion. Zeng had to set up a new army, with both men and women brought in as **conscripts**. It took 12 years and 20 000 troops to defeat the rebels, with the struggle damaging the fertile lower Yangtze area and causing the loss of more than 20 million lives. The plains were 'strewn with human skeletons' and rivers were 'polluted with floating carcasses'. During this era, many Chinese went to the goldfields in California and Australia, leaving behind the misery and poverty of southern China. Others went to the Malacca Straits and the north coast of Java as traders.

conscript a person who is enrolled for compulsory military service

The Taipings were defeated, but other rebellions broke out. Along the route of the Grand Canal, poverty and unemployment saw many become bandits in gangs. While the government was struggling to keep control, foreign powers took advantage of its weakness. In the Second Opium War of 1856–60, the French and British forces launched attacks on Guangzhou and other ports. They marched on Beijing, occupied it for one month, and looted and then burned the Emperor's beautiful Summer Palace. Under the terms of the peace, 10 more ports became open to foreign traders and the British gained the Kowloon peninsula across from the island of Hong Kong. Significantly, the opium trade was legalised. Russian Count Nikolay Muravyov-Amursky helped to negotiate the peace, and in

Source 6.11 Portrait of the leader of the Taiping Rebellion, Hong Xiuquan (1814–1864)

return Russia took over some northern provinces where they built the port of Vladivostok.

Position of China leading up to 1900

Self-strengthening movement

Broken by these terrible defeats, the Xianfeng Emperor died in 1861. He was succeeded by his six-year-old son, whose uncle Prince Gong and mother the Empress Dowager Cixi ruled as **regents**. Many officials felt that new policies were needed. It was important to learn from Western countries and to develop China in a modern way. They wondered why small nations like France and Britain were able to defeat China. They said China must learn from the barbarians in order to do better than them.

regent a person who rules on behalf of a monarch who is too young or ill to take the throne

Zeng Guofan and Li Hongzhang were part of a small group of officials who wanted reform. Prince Gong supported this self-strengthening program. They hired some Western technical experts as instructors and sent young Chinese abroad to study and understand Western institutions and production methods. They established a naval academy and built harbours, shipyards, gun factories, machine factories, and cotton, textile and paper mills. They encouraged the study of European languages and established embassies in major cities such as London, Paris, Tokyo, Berlin and Washington. As they modernised China, conservative critics attacked them and tried to undermine their efforts. They said that copying the West was an insult to ancient Chinese ways and beliefs.

The Empress Dowager Cixi (1835–1908) benefited from this struggle, as she was able to play the conservative and reform factions off against each other. The daughter of a low-ranking official, at the age of 15 years Cixi was given to the Xianfeng Emperor as a consort and gave birth to his only son. After the Emperor's death, she shared power with the childless Empress Dowager Ci'an and the **Eight Regent Ministers**. She gradually took control, and became the de facto ruler of China for 47 years. When her son died

Eight Regent Ministers the ministers entrusted by Xianfeng Emperor before his death to guide his son when he assumed the throne

Times gone by …

Charles Gordon, an English officer who ordered the burning of the Summer Palace during the Taiping Rebellion, wrote home:

> You can scarcely imagine the beauty and magnificence of the places we burnt … It was wretchedly demoralizing … Everybody was wild for plunder.

Many of the plundered items are now held in museums and private collections in Europe and North America.

1 Why do you think Charles Gordon ordered the burning of the Summer Palace?

2 Do an internet search for auction of treasures looted from Summer Palace. Create a poster about the destruction of the palace and what has happened to the many beautiful objects taken from it. What is China doing to find out about and recover the stolen artefacts? Should these items be returned to China?

in 1875, she appointed a new emperor, her three-year-old nephew Guangxu, ensuring her control for many more years.

The young Emperor Guangxu was attracted to the ideas of reformers such as Kang Youwei and Liang Qichao. In the Hundred Days reform in 1898 he issued many decrees for reform in education, the military and commerce, and moved China towards a constitutional monarchy. China seemed destined to follow the path of Japan in reforming and modernising, but this was not to be as the Empress Dowager Cixi and her conservatives staged a coup, executing many of Emperor Guangxu's followers and imprisoning him for 10 years. Kang and Liang escaped to Japan, and Liang later toured Australia in 1900–01 seeking support for reform. When Empress Dowager Cixi was dying in 1908, she appointed her great-nephew, an infant, as Emperor Guangxu's successor. It seems likely that she poisoned Guangxu, as he died suspiciously. She died the next day.

intrigues secret and underhand schemes

The **intrigues** of the Empress Dowager Cixi and her followers made it difficult for the government and people to face China's problems. The people were poor and the country was not very advanced, and beset by foreigners who were taking its wealth and territory. Large areas of China had been lost and the country had been humiliated by disastrous military defeats. Its neighbour, Japan, had successfully modernised and was growing as a military power. Japan waged war against China in 1894–95 and won control of Taiwan. Once more China had to pay a huge fine to its enemy. As a result of all the money paid to the foreign powers, China remained in debt until 1949.

The Boxer Rebellion

In 1898, the Yellow River flooded 2000 villages, and millions of people lost their homes and livelihoods. The failure of the government to provide relief led to widespread criticism. Many were irritated by the privileges enjoyed by foreigners. They resented the interference of Christian missionaries in Chinese life and customs. The peasants rose against the foreigners, murdering some missionaries and attacking their compounds. These protesters believed they had

special powers, and practised martial arts, thus gaining the name 'Boxers' by foreigners. The Boxers laid siege to the foreign embassies in Beijing. The Empress supported the Boxers and declared war on the eight foreign powers, which defended their citizens.

In August 1900, 20 000 foreign troops marched into Beijing. Australian colonies sent troops to help defeat the Boxers. Once more China suffered a terrible defeat and the foreigners imposed harsh penalties and a huge fine to be paid over 40 years with interest. This was the final indignity for China. It had resisted reform and modernisation and had virtually become a nation subject to foreign powers. Only in 1911, with the Republican Revolution led by Sun Yat Sen and the overthrow of the monarchy, were the reformers able to make some progress in China.

Activity **6.3**

1   Recall the ways in which the reformers and conservatives at the Qing court disagreed about policy in the late nineteenth century.

2   Deduce why there is a suspicion that the Empress Dowager Cixi poisoned Emperor Guangxu.

3   Describe why the first Opium War has been seen as a contest between Chinese morality and superior British technology.

Source 6.12 Empress Dowager Cixi (1835–1908)

Japan

State of the nation during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries

In 1750, the symbolic ruler of Japan was the emperor, but it was in fact the **shogun**, a military dictator, who held power. The Tokugawa family held the title of shogun from 1603 to 1867. The Tokugawas unified Japan in 1600 and brought the **daimyo** under their control. Daimyo were powerful lords who controlled large areas of land, but who owed their allegiance to the emperor and the shogun. The daimyo and their families were required to spend long periods in the capital Edo (now Tokyo) so that they would not plot against the shogun. This centralisation of power encouraged the growth of Edo, and

shogun the military dictator of Japan

daimyo feudal Japanese lords, roughly equivalent to medieval European dukes or earls

by the end of the eighteenth century it was the largest city in the world, with more than one million residents.

Europeans, especially the Portuguese and Dutch, had been trading with Japan from the sixteenth century. In 1549, Francis Xavier, a Jesuit priest, arrived in Japan. As the number of converts to Christianity grew, Japanese rulers became increasingly concerned about the activities of foreign missionaries and merchants. They knew that the activities of merchants and priests had been the first step in making the Philippines a **colony** of Spain. During the sixteenth century, Christian converts began to be persecuted by the Japanese authorities. In 1626, Christianity was banned in Japan and by 1639 all Europeans had left the country except for the Dutch East India Company, which was allowed to remain on Dejima, a small artificial island in Nagasaki Harbour.

colony a settlement formed in conquered territory

Mixing between the Dutch and the Japanese was strictly limited. Japanese were forbidden from travelling abroad and those who were overseas were prohibited from returning. For the next 250

Legend:
- Major 'outside daimyo' domains that played key roles in the 1853–68 restoration period
- Main areas of shogunate rule
- Tōkaidō (Trunk Road)

HOKKAIDO

MANCHURIA

Sea of Japan

• Seoul

KOREA

Yellow Sea

CHŌSHŪ

Straits of Tsushima

HIZEN

KYUSHU

Nagasaki •

East China Sea

SATSUMA

0   100   200   300
Kilometres

TANEGASHIMA

HONSHU

Mito •

Edo • • Tokyo
Nagoya • • Yokohama

Kyoto • Osaka

SHIKOKU

TOSA

PACIFIC OCEAN

Source 6.13 Tokugawa, Japan: the area between Edo and Osaka was the political base of the Tokugawa Shogunate as well as its rice basket. The domains (purple) that would overthrow the Tokugawa Shogunate in the mid nineteenth century were mostly in outlying areas of south-western Japan.

years, Japan closed its doors to the rest of the world. This opposition to the foreigners helped to develop a feeling of Japanese nationalism and identity, but it also closed Japan to new ideas and new technologies.

Even though Japan cut itself off from the world, this was a period of change within the country. It was a period of internal peace; and because the population was stable at around 30 million people, living conditions improved. Although the shogun wanted to freeze the social structure, a merchant class grew in the larger towns. The wealth they were amassing was to become useful later in the nineteenth century. The **samurai** were no longer needed to fight. Many became involved in civil administration and government work. Many more, however, became effectively unemployed – and because of the strict restrictions on the samurai class, they couldn't get new work.

samurai the hereditary warrior class of Japan

The rapid growth of Edo during this period led to the development of a new kind of urban culture. There was a rich artistic life, with theatre, poetry and visual art all flourishing. One of the most notable art forms was *ukiyo-e*, or woodblock printing. Famous artists included Utamaro,

Hiroshige and Hokusai (see Source 6.14). Edo society also began to explore Western philosophical, political and scientific ideas, which they were exposed to through the Dutch port of Dejima near Nagasaki. Hence, Western ideas became known as *rangaku*, or 'Dutch learning'.

Change and continuity

Foreign devils are back!

With the Industrial Revolution and the growth of capitalism, European and American traders were spreading across the world seeking trading opportunities. From the late eighteenth century, a number of efforts were made to break into Japan, but these were repelled. Japan had witnessed the disasters that had befallen the Chinese with the onslaught of the Westerners. However, some Japanese leaders began to hold the view that Japan should combine 'Eastern ethics' and 'Western science'. Many were critical of the poor response of the shogunate to a severe famine between 1833 and 1837. Dissatisfaction was growing as more people began to view the officials as corrupt and inefficient.

Source 6.14 *Red Fuji: Southern Wind, Clear Morning* by Hokusai (1760–1849), one of Japan's best-known *ukiyo-e* artists

Activity **6.4**

1   Explain why the Tokugawa shoguns become concerned about the growth of Christianity in Japan.

2   In groups, discuss why you think the shogun asked the daimyo to spend long periods in Edo.

3   On the internet or in the library, research *ukiyo-e*. What are some qualities of these paintings? Try to draw something in your classroom in the *ukiyo-e* style.

In July 1853, the US Commodore Matthew Perry steamed into Edo Bay with four ships. He had orders from the President of the United States to seek the humane treatment of castaways and, most importantly, the opening of Japanese ports to trade. He made sure that the Japanese understood that the modern US ships were well armed, and presented a letter from the President. He left saying he would return the next year for the Japanese answer to this diplomatic but forceful request.

The shogun did not know how to handle this unprecedented situation, but ultimately had no choice but to submit to these demands. On Perry's return in February 1854 with eight ships, the shogun agreed to the opening of Japan under the terms of an unequal treaty, the Treaty of Kanagawa. As with similar treaties with Britain, Russia, France and Holland, the Treaty of Kanagawa placed low tariffs on goods brought into the country by foreign merchants. The treaties also had clauses about extra-territoriality, which meant that foreigners were not subject to Japanese laws.

Now Western traders, eager to exploit and profit from the new Japanese trade agreement, entered the country. Their behaviour and arrogance was shocking to many Japanese people, who were very critical of the Tokugawa Shogunate for failing to protect them, their country and its traditions from these crude interlopers. After all, the shogun was supposed to be the military protector of Japan.

Key event: the Meiji Restoration

Satsuma and Choshu, two of the **outside daimyo** and traditional rivals, decided to join together to oppose the shogun and to call for the reinstatement of the emperor as the rightful ruler of Japan. They convinced the emperor to decree the abolition of the shogunate in 1868. The emperor was a 15-year-old boy, Mutsuhito, who was better known as the Meiji – a term that translates as 'enlightened rule'. He was helped to make decisions by the samurai of Satsuma and Choshu.

outside daimyo daimyo (lords) whose lands were distant from Edo, the Japanese capital

The Japanese now had a breathing space to get on with the reforms and modernisation of their country, without too much interference from the West. Japan's military was weak and it would have been easy for the Western powers to make the inroads they had made in China. But the Western nations were still heavily involved in China, so Japan was largely left alone.

However, the transition from the Shogunate to the Meiji era was not all smooth sailing. There was a series of conflicts, most notably the Boshin War of 1868–69, which was fought between the supporters of Meiji and the supporters of the Shogunate. Victory by the Meiji supporters allowed the new rulers to implement their reform program. Edo, now renamed Tokyo (eastern capital), was retained as the capital city of the new regime. One of the first things the new government did was to issue the Charter Oath, which showed the different approach of the new government. New principles included:

* public discussion of all matters
* the participation of all classes in the administration of the country
* freedom for all persons to pursue their preferred occupation
* the abandoning of evil customs of the past
* the seeking of knowledge throughout the world in order to strengthen the country.

Position of Japan leading up to 1900

Economic development and modernisation

The Meiji government wanted to engage with the new Western ideas while maintaining Japanese ways. A popular slogan was 'Japanese spirit, Western learning'. They hired many foreign technical advisers to help them in fields from mining and engineering to agriculture and education. Additionally, groups of officials were sent abroad to study and observe. One of the most important was the Iwakura Mission of 1871–72 (see Source 6.15), which sent 60 students overseas to complete their education. Five young women stayed in the United States, including Tsuda Umeko, who was only seven years old. When she had finished her studies she founded Tsuda College, a university college for women, which still exists today.

New modern systems assisted the development of the new Japanese economy. Railway construction connected major centres and made trade and transport more efficient. The first railway opened in 1872 and ran from Yokohama to Shinagawa and then on to Tokyo. By 1900, 5000 miles of track had been laid. Before, it had taken two weeks on foot to travel from Tokyo to Kyoto, but in the 1880s it could take one day on the railway.

The old social distinctions also were abolished. The 1868 Charter Oath meant that people from all classes could enter any occupation. The old samurai class was phased out, as in theory the Meiji restoration gave every citizen equal

Source 6.15 Members of the Iwakura Mission. Iwakura Tomomi is in the centre wearing traditional clothing. The others wear Western-style suits, which was often required of Japanese government officials in the early period of the Meiji era.

opportunity. Universal education was proclaimed in 1872, but this took some time to achieve. In 1879, just two-thirds of boys and one-quarter of girls were attending school. At first the Japanese adopted everything Western in their new schools, but soon they realised the importance of maintaining traditional ways and values. Thus the schools, along with a new modern curriculum, began to teach students values of Confucianism, **Shintoism** and **nationalism**.

> **Shintoism** an ancient Japanese religion involving worship of ancestors and nature
>
> **nationalism** devotion to national identity or patriotism

As industry grew, many new companies were able to call upon some Japanese funds to support their ventures. Many, such as Mitsubishi, benefited from this close relationship with the government and over time developed into the powerful multinational corporations of today.

Moves to democracy?

Even though the Charter Oath had promised 'public discussion of all matters' and 'the participation of all classes in the administration of the country', the Meiji period saw political power concentrated in the hands of important advisers around the emperor. The cult of the emperor was developed, following a clause in the Meiji constitution that read, 'The Emperor is sacred and **inviolable**'. The Japanese developed a type of government that had some of the elements of democracy, such as elections, but which was weighted in favour of the powerful advisers to the emperor. The new constitution introduced in 1889 included a **bicameral parliament**, known as the Diet and modelled on the German Parliament. The upper house, the House of Peers, had nobles appointed to it and the Lower House was elected. Only 2 per cent of the male population had the

> **inviolable** not to be injured or disturbed
>
> **bicameral parliament** a parliament consisting of two houses or chambers

vote, because of the requirement that voters pay at least 1 yen in tax per year. This eliminated all but the wealthiest members of society from the electoral system. The cabinet was not responsible to the Parliament. It was an uneasy mixture of democracy and authoritarianism. A strong sense of nationalism was encouraged by the government.

Japanese imperialism and power

Like other capitalist nations, Japan was eager to expand in order to gain new sources of raw materials and new markets for its manufactured goods. The Japanese government and people also greatly resented the unequal treaties they had been forced to sign by Commodore Perry. By the late nineteenth century, they had managed to remove some of these unequal terms. However, this was the age of high imperialism, when European nations dominated much of the world's people, and it was common for white people to assume that they were superior to the people of other nations they encountered. The Japanese particularly resented the idea that they, too, were seen as inferior. Japan wanted to be, and to be treated as, the equal of the leading nations.

Traditionally, Korea had been a **vassal state** of China, but Japan was concerned that Korea was a 'dagger pointing at Japan's heart' and that this dagger might be used by some European colonisers. Japan tried to prevent this by increasing its influence in Korea, thus causing the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, in which China was quickly defeated. Using naval tactics they learned from the British, Japan destroyed the Chinese fleet. Japan made China pay a huge indemnity and give up some territory. This was the beginning

> **vassal state** a state that pays tribute, either monetarily or militarily

HISTORICAL FACT

During the *sakoku jidai* ('closed country period'), any foreign castaways who landed on Japan were likely to be executed. Some were luckier and were only expelled.

of Japan's hoped-for empire in the east. But Germany, France and Russia stepped in, forcing Japan to return part of this territory to China. The Japanese were furious, especially when a few years later these powers started taking over the same parts of China for themselves. The Sino-Japanese War had demonstrated the military might of Japan, but once again Western powers, especially Russia, had humiliated Japan.

However, Japan's military expenditure was growing. From 1897, half the national budget went to the armed forces. The British recognised Japanese strength and negotiated a treaty: the Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902, which was the first treaty of equality between an Asian and a European power in the modern era. This treaty meant that Japan and Britain would declare **neutrality** in the event that the other signatory became involved in war with another power, and would actively support the other signatory if they were involved in war with more than one power.

neutrality not helping or supporting either of the opposing sides

The Russian Trans-Siberian railway, the construction of the port of Vladivostok and Russian control of parts of China showed that Russian power was growing in the east. The Japanese wished to stem this Russian advance. With the British committed to neutrality, in 1904 the Japanese waged war against the vast Russian empire. This led to great casualties on both sides, but the Japanese commanders were very successful, especially when they destroyed the Russian fleet in May 1905 in the Straits of Tsushima.

The defeat of a great European power by an Asian nation resounded around the world. It gave hope to the many colonised people in Asia and Africa. It also led the colonising powers to realise that the colonised peoples of the world could adopt modern technologies and challenge European and American dominance.

Activity 6.5

1 Research the Iwakura Mission and the life of Tsuda Umeko and present a poster on it to the class.

2 On the internet, research Dejima and the interaction between the Dutch and Japanese people there. Draw a diagram of the island and make a poster about the interactions.

3 Draw up a chronological chart with columns for China and Japan. Compare how each country was handling its relationships with the West during the period 1750–1900 and how this affected their autonomy.

India

State of the nation during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries

The East India Company was granted a charter by Queen Elizabeth I in 1600 to exploit the spice trade with the east. In 1608, the company set up its first trading station at Surat on the west coast of the Indian subcontinent. By 1750, the East India Company had established a foothold in the subcontinent, which expanded over the second half of the century, giving birth to the British Empire.

India had been ruled by the **Mughal emperors** from the sixteenth century. They did not have direct control over all of India, but ruled through various sultans, rajahs and nawabs who controlled their own kingdoms. By the eighteenth century, these local rulers were becoming more independent of the emperor.

> **Mughal emperors** Muslim rulers who were in power from around 1525 to 1857

Initially, the East India Company was focused on making profits, rather than gaining territorial or political control. In return for payment, local rulers granted them the right to trading stations and trading privileges. These rulers borrowed money from the East India Company and occasionally used company troops in their struggles with rival neighbours. Because of these negotiations, the company was gradually drawn into Indian politics, and company officials such as Robert Clive saw the opportunity for immense profits if they gained more political power.

The ruler of Bengal, Nawab Siraj Ud Daulah, was having a dispute with the company, which wanted to fortify its settlement at Calcutta.

In 1756, the Nawab captured Calcutta and imprisoned many British citizens. However, Clive soon recaptured the city, but by using trickery
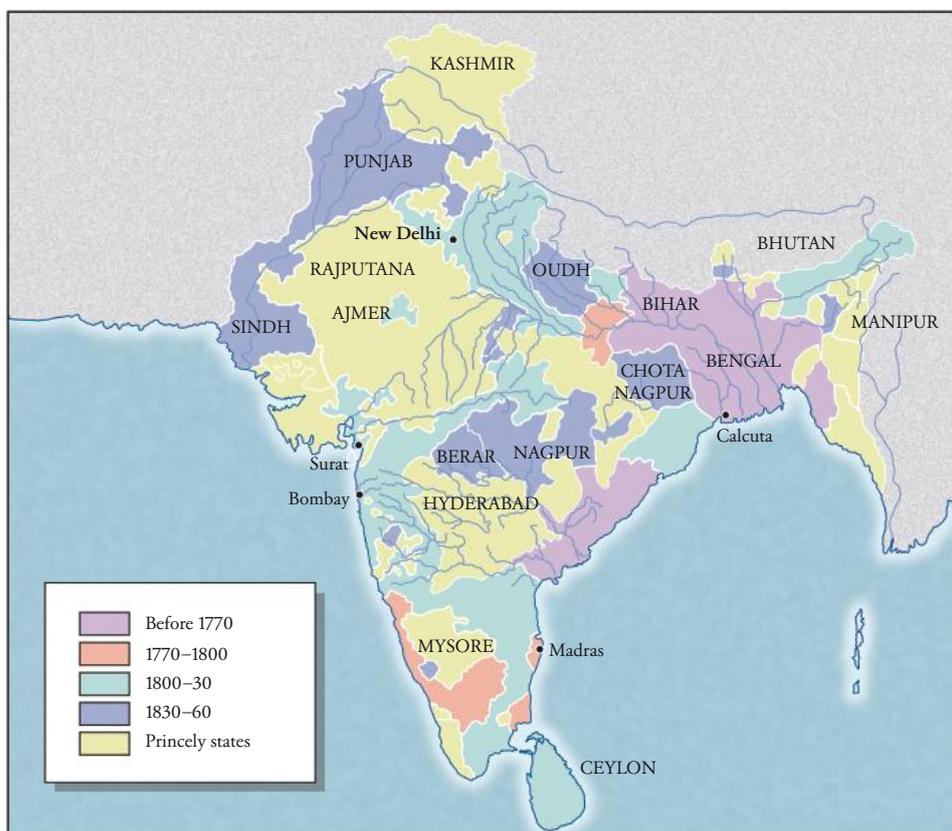
Source 6.16 The British penetration of India 1750–1860. The Princely states kept their own Indian rulers, but the British authorities had a great deal of power over these rulers.

rather than might. Before the Battle of Plassey, where the company forces faced the troops of the Nawab, he made an agreement with Mir Jafar, the Nawab's commander, that the commander would lead many troops away from the battle and thus allow Clive to win. This was because Jafar wanted to become Nawab himself. It is therefore not surprising that Clive won this battle in 1757, which placed this rich province virtually under British control. Clive's own reward for his part in the battle was magnificent. The new Nawab allowed him into the Bengal treasury full of gold, silver, jewels and money and he emerged with treasure worth more than £10 million today.

Clive saw that the British could become the governors of Bengal. In 1759, he advised the British Prime Minister that with a force of only 2000 Europeans it would be easy to get 'the absolute possession of these rich kingdoms'. After further battles and political intrigues, the East India Company was made legal ruler of Bengal in 1765 and established their government administration.

Source 6.17 Robert Clive, 1st Baron Clive of Plassey (1725–1774): soldier and first British administrator of Bengal

Source 6.18 Tipu Sultan, known as 'The Tiger of Mysore'. A ruler, scholar, soldier and poet, he was known to be very cruel to rebels and to captured soldiers.

HISTORICAL FACT

Robert Clive had a pet Aldabra giant tortoise, named Adwaita, which was given to him in India in the 1750s or 1760s. In 1875 Adwaita was given to the zoo in Calcutta, where he finally died in 2006. At the time of his death, Adwaita's age was estimated to be 255 years.

The Indian peasants were required to pay high taxes, which were increased to 50 per cent of the harvest value. The company also forced the growing of cash crops such as opium, jute and indigo, rather than rice. They particularly wanted to sell more opium to China to increase company profits there. The export of Indian opium to China led to the Opium Wars discussed earlier in this chapter. These policies led to the 1770 famine in which 10 million people, or a third of Bengal's population, died.

Change and continuity

In the late eighteenth century, the East India Company became a political force in India, extending its power from its bases in Madras and Bengal. In the south, it came into conflict with the state of Mysore and its commander-in-chief Haidar Ali, and his son Tipu Sultan. In 1792, the company defeated Tipu Sultan, who was later killed in 1799 when his capital was taken by the East India Company. The company also tightened its grip on the state of Oudh and imposed British power over the Marathas in the west, near Bombay (today known as Mumbai).

While Clive was extending the power of the company, other British officials were studying Indian cultures, religions and literature. Sir William Jones, a judge and accomplished linguist living in Calcutta (today known as Kolkata), was entranced by the richness of Indian cultures. In 1786, he wrote, 'The **Sanskrit** language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect

Sanskrit ancient language of India

than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either'.

Key event: First Indian War of Independence

In 1857, a revolt of Indian soldiers (known as sepoys) broke out across the provinces of central India. This widespread uprising, known by Indians as the First War of Independence, was a great blow to British power and led to great changes in India.

Christian missionaries were increasing their efforts to convert Indians to Christianity, and setting up schools to educate children about their religion. Some Indians were concerned about the criticism of their own religions. The sepoys, which made up the majority of the British forces in India, were dissatisfied with their wages and chances of promotion. When the army introduced new Enfield rifles, the soldiers had to bite off the end of the cartridge before the rifle could be fired. The sepoys believed that the cartridges had been greased with fat of cows and pigs. As **Hindus** do not eat beef and Muslims regard all pig meat as unclean, the sepoys feared this was a strategy to make them break religious teachings. They saw this as part of a British plan to convert them all to Christianity.

Hindus members of India's major religion, which involves the worship of many gods and a belief in reincarnation

Sepoys rose against their officers, murdering them and their families. The British authorities had no idea that this violent uprising was about to occur, nor that it would spread so quickly to major centres. Soon the rebels held Delhi, Lucknow, Kanpur, Bareilly and Jhansi. They proclaimed Bahadur Shah, the last of the Mughals, as the rightful emperor of India. Acts of great cruelty were performed by both the British forces and the rebels.

HISTORICAL FACT

Tipu Sultan employed up to 5000 men to send rockets containing blades over a distance of 2 kilometres into opposing forces. The British captured some of these rockets and successfully copied them. They later used them in the wars against the French emperor Napoleon Bonaparte.

Times gone by ...

One consistent problem faced by the British administration of India was the wide range of languages spoken in India. In 1835, British politician Thomas Macaulay recommended that English should be the language of administration. Although he knew neither Sanskrit nor Arabic, he had decided that the whole literature written in these languages was not equal to one bookshelf of European books. He believed that English was the best of the European languages and said it was important to educate a class of Indians in English to help the British rule the vast Indian population: 'We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern, a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect'. Education in English became widespread in India and from this educated class came the nationalists who were to demand self-government and political rights for Indians.

1 Compare the opinions of Sir William Jones and Thomas Macaulay about the qualities of Sanskrit.

Not all Indians joined the revolt, and with the help of Sikh soldiers from the Punjab region and Ghurkhas from Nepal, the British were able to regain control. At this time, Indians did not think of themselves as Indians, but rather as people from different regions and religions. This helps to explain why the revolt was not more successful.

In Britain, the news of the revolts and massacres made people ask why the East India Company, a private company, was governing such vast territories in India. After the tragic events of 1857, the British government moved for the Crown to take over the company's territories and activities in India. In 1858, Queen Victoria issued a proclamation to 'the Princes and Peoples of India' promising equal rights between Indians and the British. Educated Indians also would be able to take up positions in the Indian Civil Service, an organisation of public servants or officials who did the day-to-day work of administering British India. However, Indians were only slowly admitted to the ICS, mainly to lowly positions.

Activity **6.6**

1 Use the internet to research the Sanskrit language and prepare a poster depicting some Sanskrit writing.

2 Research Mysorean rockets and their influence in the British army. Create a PowerPoint presentation showing diagrams of the rockets and how they were used.

Position of India leading up to 1900

British India

In the later nineteenth century, the British authorities extended their power in India, taking over the Punjab region in 1849. Economic changes there led to some Punjabis coming to Australia to work as hawkers and in the sugar industry. The British fought expensive wars with Afghanistan, all paid for by Indian taxes. A railway system was extended over vast regions, along with a telegraph system that helped trade communications and enabled the government to control the population and to move troops quickly to trouble spots. More British soldiers, officials, and planters and their families came to live in India. Although the British decided that, after the catastrophe of 1857, they would take care not to interfere with Indian customs and beliefs, missionaries continued their activities.

Other changes came in and Indians developed new ways of life. Universities were set up in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras (known today as Chennai) and Western-style schools grew up in many towns. Some Indian people went to study in Britain at Oxford, Cambridge and other universities. Mohandas Gandhi, the great Indian nationalist of the twentieth century, studied law in London from 1888 to 1891. Such Indian students learned much about British life and politics. For a while, Gandhi copied British ways – in his own words he played 'the English gentleman', wearing a top hat and tails – but he later become critical of some British ways.

Equal rights for Indian subjects?

From 1876, Queen Victoria was referred to as Empress of India. Indians who learned English and studied British politics observed that in Britain more people were gaining the right to vote, and wondered why, if they were ruled by the same queen, they also did not also have the right to vote. As Indians began publishing newspapers discussing Indian affairs, the government restricted the freedom of the press. Indians resented the greater privileges that the British enjoyed in India. Many Britons at home and in India opposed ideas of equality with Indians. The British Empire was a system of foreign domination and India was governed in the interests of Britain and not of India. British industry benefited from cheap raw materials from India and the development of modern industry in India was largely neglected.

Source 6.19 Kadabmini Basu (Mrs Ganguly) graduated from Calcutta University in 1883 and then studied medicine, graduating in 1886. She was among the first women graduates and women doctors in the world. She was a strong supporter of Indian nationalists, being the first woman to address the Indian National Congress in 1890.

Activity **6.7**

Explain the part that education played in the growth of Indian nationalism in the late nineteenth century.

Indian National Congress

In 1885, the Indian National Congress was established in Bombay by AO Hume, a retired British official, and a group of Indian men. It aimed to allow educated Indians to have a greater say in the government of India and in the Indian Civil Service. Wyomesh Chandra Bannerjee was president of the first meeting where 72 delegates met to discuss the way forward. Soon the organisation became an important force in Indian politics, calling for more political rights for Indians and finally for independence from British rule. In 1901, Mohandas Gandhi, who had just returned from South Africa, went to his first Congress meeting. Later he was to become a key leader in the Congress and in the struggle for Indian independence. By 1901, Congress members were beginning to think of themselves as Indians united in the same struggle, rather than as people from different regions and religions with different interests.

Research 6.1

Use the internet or your school library to investigate the life of Mohandas Gandhi. Particularly focus on his early student days in London. How do you think his time in London influenced his future career with the Indian National Congress? He said he played at being and looking like an Englishman at this time. How do you think this influenced his ideas about Indian nationalism?

Source 6.20 Delegates at the first meeting of the Indian National Congress, Bombay, in 1885. The Congress brought together Indians from all parts of the country and from different ethnic and language groups and religions. All these first delegates were men, but women soon took a great interest and attended Congress meetings.

Indonesia

State of the region during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries

The idea of Indonesia as a nation did not exist when the Dutch first came to the Indonesian islands in search of spices in 1595. At that time there were a number of different **sultanates** and kingdoms across the various islands, ruling people of different beliefs and ethnicities. However, by 1750 the Dutch East India had established treaty ports all over the archipelago, and had occupied significant amounts of territory.

sultanate a territory ruled by an Islamic leader (sultan)

The present-day nation of Indonesia is made up of more than 17 000 islands stretching from the Indian Ocean towards the Pacific Ocean. Many of these are extremely small, but the largest are Java, Madura, Sumatra, Sulawesi, Borneo (which also includes the state of East Malaysia and the nation of Brunei), the Moluccas, Bali, Lombok, Sumbawa, Sumba, Flores, Timor (which includes the nation of East Timor) and New Guinea (which includes the nation of Papua New Guinea). These islands over time have been subject to many cultural influences. Over the centuries, traders and seafarers from India, China, the Arab Peninsula and Europe (especially the Portuguese and Dutch) have had a great influence on these islands. Some of these traders stayed only briefly, while others had a lasting impact upon peoples and their cultures.

Source 6.21 A land of islands, Indonesia was known as the Spice Islands by Europeans in the late fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

Puppet performances, known as *wayang*, reflect the cultural history of the Indonesian archipelago. Over the centuries people would gather at night in their villages to enjoy the mastery of the *dalang* (puppet master and narrator), who would make the flat leather puppets come alive and entrance them into the early hours of the morning. The village would resound with the voice of the *dalang* and the laughter of the audience.

Old Indonesian ways of storytelling were influenced by the arrival of Hindus from India from the first century CE and of their great epic tales, the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*. When **Islam** came to the islands in the fifteenth century, the puppet shows were seen as blasphemous because they involved the representation of human figures, which is largely forbidden in Islam. An ingenious way around this was to display only the shadow of the image on a large white sheet and thus *wayang kulit* was born.

Late in the sixteenth century, the Netherlands, a maritime nation, was eager to take over the spice trade in these islands from Portugal, which was a declining power. In 1595, Dutch ships managed to get to Java and thus began a series

Islam a religion based upon belief in one God of whom Muhammad is the chief and last prophet

Source 6.22 *Wayang kulit* (shadow puppet plays), an important part of Indonesian cultural life

HISTORICAL FACT

As well as pepper and other spices, the port of Aceh in Sumatra exported elephants to India for the sultans, rajahs and maharajahs to use in their battles and ceremonies.

of Dutch ships coming to buy spices (in 1598, for example, 22 ships set out). These were mostly highly profitable voyages. One expedition made a profit of 300 per cent on its outlay.

Dutch East India Company

In 1602, the Dutch East India Company was set up to control the spice trade, and eliminate wasteful competition between Dutch traders. The Dutch government allowed the company to wage war, colonise and do anything else necessary to maintain a monopoly on the eastern trade. The company organised information about the sailing route to the east, built ships and warehouses, equipped and dispatched expeditions, invested funds and fought wars to maximise its profits.

In 1750, the Dutch East India Company made a huge profit on selling spices in Europe; approximately 17 times what it paid for them. The Europeans were eager to buy spices that made their food much tastier, but the people of the Indonesian archipelago did not want any of the goods that Europe could supply.
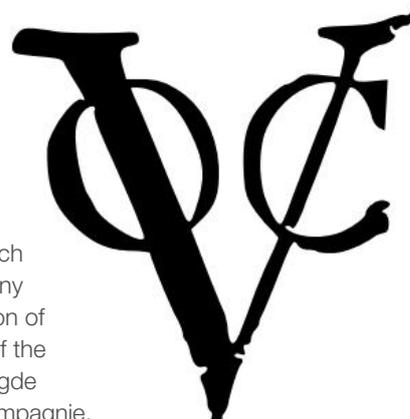
Source 6.23
The initials on the symbol of the Dutch East India Company are the abbreviation of the Dutch name of the company, Vereenigde Oost-indische Compagnie.

Activity **6.8**

Look at the map shown in Source 6.24 and locate Malacca, the Moluccas and the sea route from Europe to the Spice Islands.

Source 6.24 Places where the Dutch East India Company traded (c. 1800)

Trade between Asian ports

At the beginning of its operations, the only things that the Dutch East India Company were able to exchange for the spices it bought was silver and gold. Because silver and gold were in quite limited supply in Europe, this heavily restricted the growth of the spice trade. For this reason, the directors of the company decided to carry on a large intra-Asian trade, which means that they traded goods between various places in the Asian region. The company also sold other products from places in Asia to European markets. The company set up trading posts in coastal regions and bought spices produced in the local region.

At first the company only took over land near their ports. In 1619, it set up Batavia, on the site of the town of Jayerkarta (now Jakarta, capital of Indonesia). Dutch East India Company forts and trading factories were set up at important strategic places, such as Aceh (now in Indonesia), Malacca (Malaysia), Galle (Sri Lanka), Nagasaki (Japan), Canton (now Guangzhou in China), Cape of Good Hope (South Africa) and Bengal (India).

An amazing variety of products was shipped between these ports, including some items that are hardly known today. As we saw in the earlier discussion of Japan, the Dutch had a base at Nagasaki during the period when Japan was closed to outsiders. Each year the company sent eight ships to Dejima in Japan loaded with products such as cloth, ivory, sandalwood, ebony, fur clothing, pepper, sugar, amber, large dogs and other goods. Often ships were lost in typhoons, but this was still a profitable trade. They brought a wide range of Japanese goods back to Batavia, including silver, gold, copper, camphor, rhubarb, pearls, rice, curved swords and fur pelts.

Silver, gold, elephants and rhubarb

The Dutch East India Company took silver, gold and cloth from China, the Coromandel Coast (south-east India) and Surat (west India) to Galle, and returned with cinnamon, ginger, pepper, elephants, rhubarb and precious stones. At Peraka and Kedah on the Malay Peninsula, the company bought tin and sold Coromandel cloth and **reals of eight**. They also exchanged cloth goods for horses, wax, honey and slaves at Butung, an island near Sulawesi.

real of eight an old silver coin, about 38 millimetres in diameter; also known as the Spanish dollar

Research 6.2

Many of the products sold by the company are little known today. Do some research to find out the meaning and uses of mace, sappanwood, sandalwood, alum, pewter, musk and gumlac, and what they look like. How do you think the people of the Coromandel Coast would have used sappanwood?

The first multinational corporation

The Dutch East India Company was the world's largest commercial enterprise and we can think of it as the first multinational corporation. From the eighteenth century, it had its own currency marked with its distinctive symbol or logo (see Source 6.26).

Change and continuity

The story of the Indonesian archipelago is filled with rivalries and conflicts between various local rulers and sultans, as well as between European powers. As the Dutch East India Company became established in this region, it became involved in struggles with and between various rulers in Java, Sumatra and the Moluccas. On Java, the great Sultanate of Mataram was in decline in

Source 6.25
Cloves, the fragrant dried flower heads of a tree originally found only in the Molucca islands of Indonesia. When the Portuguese first brought them to Europe, 1 kilogram of cloves was worth 7 kilograms of gold.

the eighteenth century and the company became involved in a number of wars about who would succeed to the position of Sultan, and thus extended its control over the rich lands of Java.

The rulers of Mataram asked the company to help them in their struggles and the company was able to exploit rivalries between members of ruling families and advance its control over the wealth of the islands. The local sultans were not as concerned about the growing power and influence of the company as they were with the local struggles, and saw that the company could be a useful ally. As a result of these intrigues, the Treaty of Giyanti in 1755 divided the Kingdom of Mataram between the sultanates of Yogyakarta and Surakarta.

Decline of the Dutch East India Company

Through the seventeenth and into the eighteenth century, the Dutch East India Company paid huge dividends to its Dutch shareholders. However, the costs of administering the large areas around the forts and trading stations grew. The company fought expensive wars to protect their trading interests, becoming involved in rivalries and disputes between local princes and sultans, and there was also a growing level of corruption among its employees. At the same time, the company's monopoly over trade in the east was being challenged by other European powers.

The Dutch had pushed the Portuguese out of the rich spice trade, but now the British were eager to extend their trading networks into the region. The Dutch and the English fought a number of wars over access to these regions. By 1780, the British began to get the upper hand. When the Dutch supported the Americans in their rebellion against the British, the Anglo-Dutch war of 1780–84 ensued. The defeat of the Dutch also brought on the collapse of the Dutch East India Company. The company lost 70 per cent of its assets and many ships and trading stations to the British. In 1799, the great Dutch East India Company went bankrupt and its activities in the East Indies were taken over by the Dutch government.

Activity **6.9**

On a photocopy of the map depicted in Source 6.24, draw the shipping routes mentioned in this section and write and/or draw the products being traded between the Dutch East India Company's trading centres.

The Dutch East Indies after the company

In 1800, fewer than six million people lived in the Dutch East Indies. Some areas, such as the western coast of Sumatra, were scarcely populated. At this time, the Europeans had had little impact on the economic lives of most people. Europeans, particularly the Dutch, controlled small parts of east Indonesia, Java, Sumatra and the Moluccas. These traders were located on coastal areas, together with Chinese and Arab traders who for generations had crossed the South China Sea and the Indian Ocean. However, trade was not an important activity for most people, who were engaged in agriculture and did not use money; they bartered crops and goods to meet their needs. The most populated areas were in central and east Java, where high rainfall and rich volcanic soils allowed for intensive irrigated rice production. The land here had been carefully terraced over generations and people were settled in towns and villages.

Source 6.26 Money issued by the Dutch East India Company featuring the company logo

In other parts of the islands, conditions were poorer and people carried out slash and burn agriculture. The peasants cleared patches in the jungle, which they farmed before moving on to a different section. Most people were Muslims, but on some of the far eastern islands there were some **animists**. The Chinese performed ancestor worship and there were many Buddhists and Confucianists.

animism the belief that spirits exist in inanimate objects, including plants, mountains and weather phenomena

European struggles had an ongoing impact upon Dutch power in the east. The Netherlands were invaded by Napoleon's forces and annexed by the French in 1806. As Britain and other forces carried on the struggle against Napoleon, the Dutch empire became part of the spoils. In May 1811, the British captured Batavia, appointing Sir Stamford Raffles as Governor-General of the Indies. Raffles was very keen for the British to expand its empire into the Indonesian islands. However, this was not to be and with the peace in 1816, the Netherlands regained their control over the Dutch East Indies. In order to pay for the costs of war, both British and Dutch rulers imposed forced labour on the Javanese peasantry along with heavy financial burdens.

Key incident: Treaty of London

The Dutch and the English had been competing in the east for some centuries when, during the Napoleonic Wars, the British took over Java and the Dutch territories in the Dutch East Indies. With the defeat of Napoleon, the Dutch were keen to regain their former territories, and were annoyed that the British had set up a new trading station at Singapore. They claimed that Raffles' agreement with the Sultan of Johore to set up Singapore was not valid.

In 1820, Dutch and British negotiators began meeting to discuss these issues and to work out a way to return the Dutch territories. Talks dragged on until agreement was reached in 1824 with the signing of the Treaty of London. Under the terms of the treaty, Britain and the Netherlands agreed to exchange territories so that the Dutch held the Dutch East Indies and the British held Singapore and India. The Malay world was divided at the Straits of Malacca with the British holding sway to the north of the Straits and the Dutch to the south and west of the Straits. Under this arrangement, the Dutch gave up their colonies in India and Malacca, and the British gave up their trading post at Bengkulu (Bencoolen) and all their interests in Sumatra. The Dutch agreed that Britain could hold Singapore.

Source 6.27 Indonesian paddy fields, which require intensive cultivation to plant, weed and water the rice and to maintain the terracing and water channels

HISTORICAL FACT

Sir Stamford Raffles (1781–1826) was fascinated by the vegetation, wildlife and cultural monuments of Java, such as the ancient Buddhist monument at Borobudur. He kept a number of animals from Indonesia as pets. He reared a sun bear cub that joined the family for dinner, eating mangoes and drinking champagne.

Thus, at the stroke of a pen in Europe, the lives of millions of people in South-East Asia were changed. The Malays in Indonesia were subject to Dutch rule and the Dutch legal system, while the people of Singapore and, later, the Malay Peninsula were ruled by the British and subject to British law. In Indonesia, the language of the rulers was Dutch and across the Strait of Malacca it was English. These two parts of the Malay world evolved in different ways. Today the Strait of Malacca still forms the boundary between Indonesia on one side and Singapore and Malaysia on the other.

The early nineteenth century

The Dutch were introducing new ways into Java, and they consolidated their power over the Indonesian archipelago throughout the nineteenth century. The heavy burden on the peasantry caused widespread discontent, as did Dutch interference with the succession to Sultanate of Yogyakarta, especially among those members of noble and aristocratic families who lost out in these struggles. Conversely, members of other ruling and aristocratic families benefited from their association with the Dutch, and these divisions allowed the colonisers to flourish.

Often the Dutch ruled indirectly through a sultan or ruler, who appeared to have power and authority; however, a Dutch-appointed advisor (usually called a Resident) kept a close watch over the ruler and controlled his decisions.

Prince Diponegoro and the Java War of 1825–30

The Java War of 1825–30 was the last uprising led by members of the old elite. The central figure was Prince Diponegoro, who was the oldest son of the Sultan of Yogyakarta. Born in 1785, he was raised in a devout Islamic environment. When his father died in 1814, he expected to become sultan, but the Dutch appointed his younger half-brother, Hamengkubuwono, as ruler. In 1821, Hamengkubuwono died in a cholera epidemic that swept the land. Once more Diponegoro was passed over as Hamengkubuwono's baby son was made sultan; Diponegoro was not even appointed regent for the young sultan. Diponegoro also believed the Dutch and Christians were turning the court away from a proper observance of Islam.

Source 6.28 How the British and the Dutch divided up Indonesia and Malaysia

Source 6.29 Prince Diponegoro

This was a difficult time in Java: a poor harvest and heavy taxes were causing great distress for the growing population. Diponegoro was disturbed by the Dutch plans to build a road through his rice fields, close to his father's tomb. For Diponegoro, the death of the sultan, the famine and plague, and the eruption of Mount Merapi were very significant; he viewed them as signs that the infant sultan had lost the right to rule. Diponegoro believed that he was the 'Just Prince' who had to free the people from the oppression of the Dutch and their allies in the court at Yogyakarta in order to restore peace.

Supported by many among the Javanese elite and the peasantry, Diponegoro launched a holy war against the Dutch and the corrupt court. There was great loss of life: 200 000 Javanese died, mostly of starvation, as well as 8000 Dutch soldiers. The gracious city of Yogyakarta lost half its people. Eventually, the war reached a **stalemate**. The Dutch were finding the war very expensive, so in 1830 they invited Diponegoro to a meeting, ostensibly to discuss a truce. However, they double-crossed him and sent him into exile in far-off Sulawesi.

> **stalemate** a situation where opposing forces are deadlocked, so no winner is possible

This war marked the end of any resistance to Dutch rule in Java. Historians have noted that at this time the Javanese were reacting to the challenge of the more modern Dutch society by harking back to traditional ways rather than moving forward, as they were to do in the twentieth century. Today, the Javanese regard Prince Diponegoro as a nationalist hero, and there are many streets and a university named after him.

Cultivation system

The Dutch had fought two costly wars in Java and Sumatra, plus another in Europe in 1831–32 when they unsuccessfully tried to stop the Belgians separating from the Netherlands to form a separate kingdom. This meant that the Dutch desperately needed more revenue. With all these wars, the Dutch had incurred debts of 37.5 million guilders (the Dutch currency of the day). In order to raise money, the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies, Johannes van den Bosch, introduced the cultivation system in 1830. This system required every village to set aside one-fifth of its land for **cash crops** to be sold in Europe. Instead of growing rice, they had to grow

> **cash crops** crops grown for sale, rather than to feed farmers or their stock
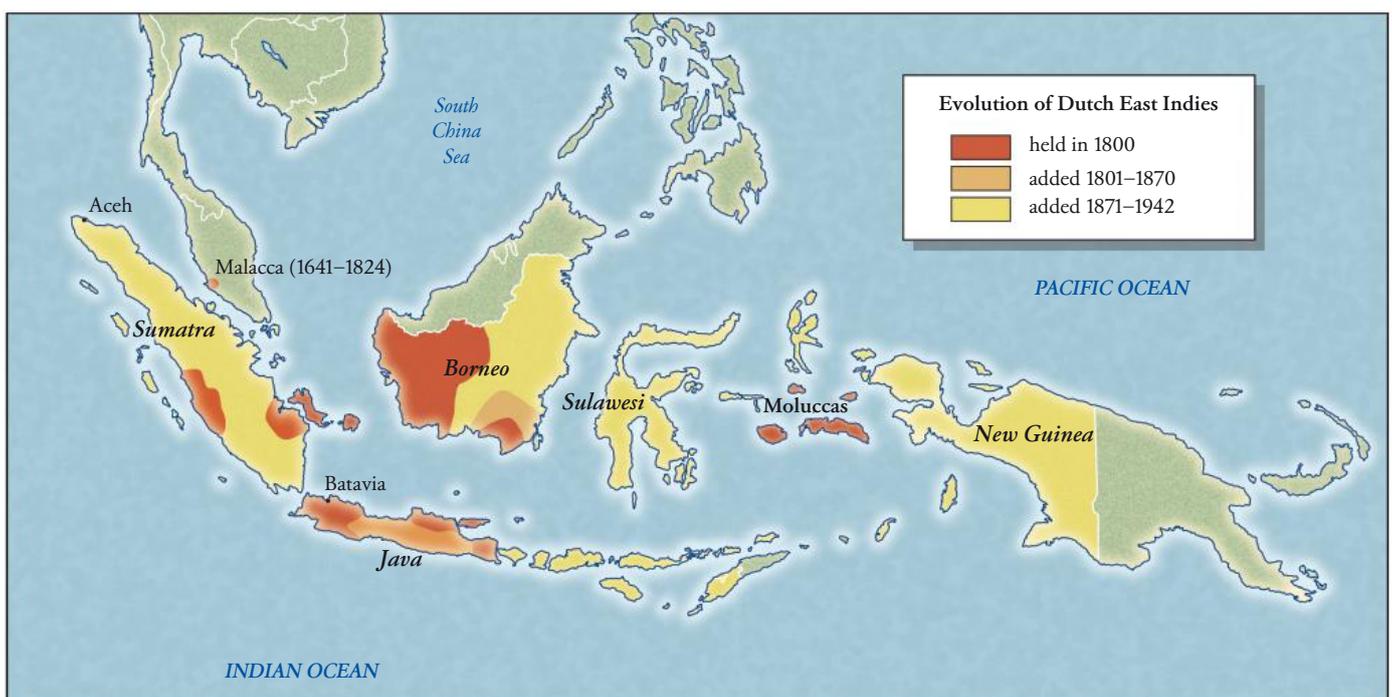
sugar, coffee, tobacco, indigo, cinnamon or **cochineal**. If they did not produce these crops for the government, they had to pay a 40 per cent tax. The cultivation system was like a heavy system of taxation. It was confined to Java and the Minangkabau highlands in Sumatra. It did not affect the outer islands.

cochineal a scarlet dye made from the cochineal insect

As well as bring an effective way of using the land and the labour of the Javanese, this was also a highly profitable system for the Dutch. Wealth flowed from the colonies to the Netherlands. From 1830 to 1840, the profit from Java was on average 9.2 million guilders per year. The 1840s was even more profitable, averaging 14.1 million guilders per year. In the 1860s, about one-third of Dutch government revenues came from the Indies. In all, from 1831 to 1877, 832 million guilders were sent to the Netherlands. This allowed the Dutch to quickly pay off their debts and to build railways, canals and forts at home.

However, this system was very bad for the Javanese. The forced delivery of crops for the government monopoly over 40 years had a long-term impact on the economy. It meant that any profits went out of the country and the Javanese could not invest in industry and new technologies to support their growing population (Java grew from about 7 million in 1830 to 16 million in 1870) or to raise their standard of living. The Dutch built a network of roads and railways across Java not only to transport goods but also to control the local population. There was little spending on hospitals, health-care or schools for Indonesians.

Although this was a very profitable system, criticism of it grew in the Netherlands. After the **1848 revolution**, the Dutch people had more say in their government policies. Stories about the harsh cultivation system and its impact on the Javanese peasants were heard in the Netherlands. Dutch voters became concerned about what was happening with the cultivation system.

1848 revolution an uprising in the Netherlands by middle-class people who wanted more political rights

Source 6.31 An eruption of Mount Merapi, which was seen by Prince Diponegoro as a sign that the spirits were disturbed by what was happening in Java

Times gone by …

In 1835, a colonial administrator wrote about the impact of the cultivation system:

> On the roads and on the plantations one does not meet people but only walking skeletons, which drag themselves with great difficulty from one place to another, often dying in the process.

What did the administrator mean by 'walking skeletons'?

Max Havelaar

In 1860, the novel *Max Havelaar* was published and caused a great outcry in the Netherlands against the cultivation system. It appeared under a **pseudonym**, Multatuli, but was written by a former official in the Dutch East Indies, Eduard Douwes Dekker. It was a devastating description of the state of affairs in the Dutch East Indies, showing the corruption of the Dutch officials and the cruelty of the cultivation system, and depicting colonial rule as immoral and inhuman. The book was a plea for the Dutch king to improve the lot of his subjects in the Indies.

pseudonym a false name used by writers to hide their real identity

Middle-class opinion in the Netherlands wanted change, and because they were voters, they had some influence. After the publication of this book, the forced deliveries of various crops were phased out. Deliveries of pepper ended in 1862; cloves and nutmeg in 1864; indigo, tea and cinnamon in 1865; and tobacco in 1866. Coffee and sugar deliveries had been the most lucrative for the government and lasted longer. Sugar deliveries were ended during the years between 1878 and 1890 and coffee only in 1917.

The great Indonesian novelist, Pramoedya Ananta Toer, has argued that *Max Havelaar* did more than just end the cultivation system. He saw it as leading to the liberal policy that involved the setting up of schools in the Dutch East Indies. The Indonesian students who received an education at these schools went on to become the nationalists who founded the independence movement that finally expelled the Dutch in the 1940s. Pramoedya also notes that this novel was translated and read around the world, providing inspiration to the foes of colonialism everywhere. For many, this was the book that 'killed colonialism'.

Position of Indonesia leading up to 1900

After the publication of *Max Havelaar* and the growth of the Dutch middle classes, a liberal policy was introduced in the Indonesian archipelago from the 1870s. It was introduced not only for humanitarian reasons but also to let private Dutch entrepreneurs come and make money in the Dutch East Indies. This policy saw the growth of large estates producing coffee, sugar, tea and tobacco, and also the exploitation of rubber and oil – resources found in Borneo and Sumatra and important to new industries in Europe.

☛ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, mark off the famines, blights and changes in trade conditions in chronological order.

1881–82
famine in Banten,
West Java

As we have seen, the forced delivery of cash crops was slowly phased out across the Indonesian archipelago. The new system ended the great monopoly of the Dutch government in agriculture. With the passing of the Agrarian Law in 1870, private entrepreneurs could set up farms and other enterprises. The Dutch could not own land, but could lease it from the government for up to 75 years or from local people for up to 20 years. During the period from 1870 to 1900, more Dutch men, women and children came to live in the Dutch East Indies. In Java, the number of European civilians increased from 17 285 in 1852 to 62 447 in 1900, a threefold increase over a period of 50 years.

The opening of the Suez Canal to shipping in 1869 made it easier to travel between the Netherlands and the Dutch East Indies, while improvements in steam navigation made the journey much more comfortable. Still more Dutch families settled in Java and other islands, employing Indonesian workers on their plantations.

Alongside these plantations, the Indonesian people grew rice and other crops for their own survival. During this era, agriculture in Java and the outer islands was intensified. The volume and the value of exports increased greatly, especially from the private entrepreneurs. In 1885, the value of exports was twice that of 1860. Much of this increase came from the private sector: in 1869, private and government exports were about equal but, by 1885, private exports were 10 times higher than those of the government. Chinese entrepreneurs also prospered, but the income of Indonesian entrepreneurs and that of artisans and waged employees fell. There was famine in Banten, west Java, in 1881–82 and in Central Java in 1900–02. Despite the wealth being created, the standard of living of ordinary people fell.

The cash crops were hit by diseases such as coffee leaf curl disease, which from the 1870s led to a fall in production. The sugar blight spread across Java from 1882 to 1892 and, with the development of beet sugar in Europe, sugar prices fell dramatically. The peasants working in sugar industries became unemployed. Rice consumption fell, especially after 1885, and people had to eat cheaper introduced crops such as maize and cassava. The rural depression was worst in 1887–88. Later in the century, new strains

of sugar were created and sugar production recovered.

During this period, the people were burdened by taxes. In 1904, a report showed the average household in Java owed 20 per cent of its income to the government. Many turned to money lenders in order to survive; indeed, much of the tax bill of the colony was passed to ordinary people. Private European companies that benefited from the roads, railways, harbours and irrigation works that the government built did not pay their fair share of tax. Ordinary people also paid for the cost of the Dutch expansion of control over the outer islands. For the Indonesian people, this was a system of shared poverty.

Education

Pramoedya Ananta Toer wrote that developments in education during this era killed colonialism. In 1863, primary schools for European children were opened to local children, but high fees kept out most Indonesians. In 1867, an education department was finally established in the Dutch East Indies.

Many of the Dutch were opposed to extending education to Indonesian children. Some believed that education would make the Indonesian people harder to control and less accepting of Dutch authority over them. An opinion piece written in a newspaper of the time stated: 'They will be less obedient because they are more acquainted with the norms and the way of life of the white man.'

Between 1871 and 1898, the number of primary schools increased from 263 to 516. Given the population numbers, this meant that most children still had no access to schooling. From

Activity **6.10**

Discuss the attitudes towards Indonesian people of the people who believed the statement: 'They will be less obedient because they are more acquainted with the norms and the way of life of the white man.'

1871 to 1898, the numbers of male students increased fourfold, from 12 186 to 48 156, while the numbers of females grew from a tiny 4420 to just 8238. From the early 1870s, poorly resourced three-year primary schools for the indigenous population were set up. Most of the funding was spent on Dutch children rather than on Indonesian children (see Activity 6.11).

There were very few high schools or higher education institutions for Indonesian students. From 1873 to 1899 there were only 907 graduates of teacher colleges. The Dokter-Djawa School was set up to train Indonesian people to work as vaccinators. By the 1870s this had become a medical school for Indonesian male students, but only a small number of graduates flowed from this school. Between 1875 and 1904 there were just 152 graduates.

Indonesian doctors and teachers were paid a lot less than Dutch doctors and teachers. Often they were socially snubbed by Dutch officials and people in the Dutch East Indies, who strongly believed that they were superior to the Indonesians. An 1863 government decree meant that all positions in the civil service were open to all in the colony, whatever their religion or ethnicity. But in practice, Indonesians in the civil service were often treated very badly. Even when they gained educational qualifications for higher positions in the public service, they found that these positions were often granted to Dutch people.

Newspapers

Gradually, educated Indonesian people, teachers, doctors and the junior officials began to discuss their situation and the difficult position of their own people. They were critical of both Dutch officials and senior Indonesian officials who came from noble families. Educated Indonesians set up newspapers and journals, and saw the value of modern education and modern science for the progress of Indonesia. They started to feel they were Indonesian, and not just Javanese, Maduran or Sumatran. They could see the importance of working together as Indonesians, whatever their religion and region. It is not surprising that Budi Utomo, the first modern Javanese organisation, was founded at the Indonesian medical school, STOVIA, in 1908. Later, in 1913, the radical Indies Party was born. It aimed to unite all Indonesians in one party and demanded full independence for Indonesia.

Activity 6.11

The following table lists the funds spent on European and Indonesian students in the period 1883–92.

Source 6.32 Adapted from Ahmat Adam, *The Vernacular Press and the Emergence of Modern Indonesian Consciousness* (Cornell University Press, 1995), Table 1, p. 81

Year	Funds spent on European primary education (guilders)	Funds spent on Indonesian primary education (guilders)	European pupils	Indonesian pupils
1883	1 631 000	1 196 000	9700	35 000
1886	1 746 000	990 000	10 700	43 000
1889	1 934 000	978 000	16 900	
1892	2 096 000	1 040 000	18 700	53 000

Calculate how many guilders were spent on the education of European children versus that of Indonesian children for the years listed in this chart. What conclusions can you draw from these figures?

Abdul Rivai (1871–1937)

Abdul Rivai was born into a family of teachers. He studied medicine at the Dokter Djawa school from 1887 to 1895 then worked as a doctor and also did some translating and journalistic work. In 1899, he went to the Netherlands to undertake further medical training. Obstacles were put in his way, as he had to study for a Dutch high-school leaving certificate before he could enter a Dutch university. His funds were running out so he published articles in various magazines to get some money. Some of these were critical of the colonial administration. He began a newspaper, and then, in 1902, with a Dutchman called Brousson, he started a publication *Bintang Hindia*. They told the government the journal was to educate Indonesians about the Netherlands, and for a number of years gained some funds to help to produce it. It was read widely among the educated classes of Indonesians, with up to 30 000 subscribers. The articles encouraged discussion of the need for education and progress for Indonesians. For example, Rivai wrote about the victory of Japan in the 1905 Russo-Japanese War:

> So far the people of the white race, the spoilt pets of history, had regarded themselves as the sole lords and masters of the earth. The sudden appearance of a people of another race on the scene to defy one of the most powerful nations of the West with implements which, though adopted from them, it had perfected independently, seemed almost like an affront to them. They were not used to this. The fact remains even so. Willy-nilly, they will have to get used to prospecting Japan as a major power.

Rivai advised Europeans to stop putting themselves above other peoples and stop thinking only of enriching themselves at the expense of others:

> It is a matter of urgent necessity that the white races finally accustom themselves to approaching people of other races without prejudice and without self-exultation, and that they finally stop letting the course of their politics, often influenced by the merchant and the mine-owner as it is, be determined by purely materialistic interests. *Justice and fairness in the estimation of other people*, that is what the future of Europe demands.

The journal campaigned for more Dutch-language schools, more opportunities for Indonesians to study abroad, a rise in teachers' salaries, and the opening of more government posts for Indonesians. His newspaper inspired other editors in Indonesia to set up similar papers. Rivai wrote for a group of Indonesians whom he called *kaum muda* and described as, 'all people of the Indies whether young or old who refuse to follow the ancient system, obsolete customs and outdated habits, but wish to obtain respect by way of knowledge and education'.

After his medical studies in the Netherlands, Rivai came back and probably worked as a doctor in Sumatra. He continued his support for progress in Indonesia, and in 1913 chaired the first branch of the Indies party in Sumatra.

Research 6.3

Use the internet to research the life of Abdul Rivai in more detail. Focus in particular on the contributions he made to Indonesian independence. Present your findings to the class as a PowerPoint presentation.

Raden Adjeng Kartini (1879–1904)

Raden Adjeng Kartini, the daughter of the governor of Jepara, attended school with Dutch girls and became fluent in Dutch. When she was 12 years old, as was the custom for women of her class, she had to withdraw from society and stay secluded in her father's home and prepare for marriage. During this time she read widely, including the novel *Max Havelaar*, and wrote to a number of Dutch women friends. She expressed her ideas about the need to improve the position of women in her society and also her criticisms of the Dutch colonists who lorded their power over the local people. She was keen to study to become a teacher. She also wanted women to have the same opportunities to learn and study

that were available to males. She criticised the suffering of secluded Javanese women, who were tied down by old-fashioned customs.

Her father was ill and wanted her to marry, and although she was opposed to the custom of **polygamy**, she became the fourth wife of another noble Javanese official. He supported her wish to set up a school for girls at their home. Sadly, she died soon after the birth of her son in 1904. She was only 25 years old.

polygamy having more than one wife at a time

Some years after her death, her letters were published under the title *Letters from a Javanese Princess*. This was a rather silly title, as Kartini did not emphasise her noble birth, but was interested in the needs of people of all classes. Like many of the *kaum muda*, Kartini resented the Dutch colonials who saw themselves as superior to the Indonesian people. Educated Indonesians were constantly reminded of their lowly status. She wrote about one young man, a brilliant student, who was humbled because he dared to speak in Dutch to a small-minded official. This official punished him by sending him to a lowly clerical job in a remote place to think over his misdeeds. His new boss was like the worst Dutch colonists: 'In many subtle ways they make us feel their dislike, "I am European, you are a Javanese" they seem to say, or "I am the master, you are the governed"'.

Source 6.33 Raden Adjeng Kartini

Kartini set an inspiring example as an early Indonesian nationalist and feminist. In 1964, President Sukarno declared that her birthday, 21 April, would be Kartini Day, a national holiday across Indonesia.

Towards the new Ethical Policy

Early in the twentieth century, the Dutch government developed new policies for the Dutch East Indies, known as the Ethical Policy. In 1898, Dr Conrad Théodoor van Deventer wrote an article entitled 'A Debt of Honour' and argued that the Netherlands should repay to the Indonesians the surplus millions it had taken, and that this should be spent on educational and economic opportunities in the colony. This humanitarian plea was also in the interests of Dutch capitalists, he argued, for if the standard of living of the Indonesian peasants grew, then they would buy many goods produced by Dutch manufacturing industries.

In 1901, the Dutch Queen Wilhelmina introduced the new ethical policy in high-minded terms:

> As a Christian power, the Netherlands is obliged in the East Indian archipelago … to imbue the whole conduct of government with the consciousness that the Netherlands has a moral duty to fulfil towards the people of these regions.

Looking towards an independent Indonesia

By the end of the nineteenth century, the Dutch were strengthening their grip upon the Indonesian archipelago. With the end of the war in Aceh in 1908, the whole of present-day Indonesia was under Dutch control. The Dutch territories had reached their greatest extent, stretching over 3000 miles from Sumatra in the west to New Guinea in the east.

However, a new class of people was emerging. These people had a modern outlook and were happy to take some ideas from the West and to use them for the progress of Indonesia. They did not want just to copy the Dutch or follow the old customs of the aristocracy. In the first decades of the twentieth century, they worked to make a new and independent Indonesia.

Chapter summary

- Between 1750 and 1900, many countries in Asia become dominated by European nations. European traders, particularly the Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company, exploited the resources of these countries for profit.

- As these trading companies sought to protect their profits and trade routes, they became involved in struggles with local people. Gradually they took over more and more territory.

- Both India and the Dutch East Indies were the scene of competition between European traders, especially the Portuguese, the Dutch and the English. The Portuguese failed to maintain their position and were pushed out.

- The British East India Company became dominant in India until the great disturbances of the First War of Indian Independence in 1857. Then the British Crown took over the administration of British India, extending its power to other parts of the country.

- During the later part of the nineteenth century, nationalist Indians educated in Western ideas organised the Indian National Congress, which later worked for independence from British rule. But at the end of the century, the Indian economy was under British control.

- In the Dutch East Indies, the Dutch East India Company was dissolved in 1799 and the Dutch government took over and extended its power into more parts of the archipelago. The economy of the Dutch East Indies was organised largely to deliver great profits to the Dutch. Although the Indonesian peoples resisted Dutch power, generally they wanted to bring back old Indonesian ways. By the end of the nineteenth century, some were starting to look forward to adopting some of the new ideas coming from the Western countries and creating a new modern state and society.

- Parts of China were taken over by many different European powers. The Chinese emperor was still on the throne, but in reality had little power. China suffered many humiliations over the century, and was subject to unequal treaties and a number of defeats by more technologically advanced Western forces.

- Japan kept itself closed to Westerners until 1853, with Japanese leaders able to observe the difficult experiences of the Chinese. With the Meiji restoration, they decided to take on new technologies from the West and to modernise themselves and their forces. They were successful in avoiding being colonised like China, India and the Dutch East Indies. They modernised their economy for the benefit of Japanese people. By the end of the nineteenth century Japan was emerging as a power to be reckoned with in East Asia.

- The Japanese defeat of the Russians in 1905 was inspiring to colonised peoples across Asia and Africa.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

1   The Grand Canal was built in China primarily:

   A   for defensive purposes

   B   for irrigation purposes

   C   to encourage fishing

   D   for the transportation of goods and people

2   Cash crops are:

   A   grown for sale to the world market

   B   those that the farmer is paid for in cash

   C   crops of scarce spices

   D   food crops such as rice

3 The Dutch East India Company:

   A is still the most profitable company in the world

   B was abolished in 1799

   C brought great profits to Dutch shareholders

   D was deeply interested in the welfare of Indonesian peoples

4 Which statement about the Meiji period in Japan is false?

   A Japan ended unequal treaties.

   B Japan sent students abroad to learn from Western countries.

   C The Japanese people gave up all their traditional customs and beliefs.

   D The Japanese government built up their military forces.

5 European colonial powers went into Asian countries:

   A to make money

   B to help Asian people gain modern technologies

   C to convert foreign nations to Christianity

   D to enjoy living in foreign lands

Short answer

1 In what ways did modern education enable people in India, Indonesia and Japan to gain and keep their independence from Western domination?

2 Describe how Western powers benefited from their domination of Asian countries and peoples.

3 How did the treaty of London in 1824 change the lives of people in Singapore, and in Bengkulu (Bencoolen) in Sumatra?

4 Discuss why the British encouraged the growing of opium in Bengal and its export to China.

5 Why did the daimyo have to live in Edo for long periods during the Tokugawa period?

Source analysis

Study Source 6.34 and answer the following questions:

1 What are the nations in the foreground doing?

2 What part does the Chinese figure have in the proceedings?

3 Now China is becoming a very powerful world power. How do you think the present Chinese government looks back on this period of history? How much do these past events shape the world today?

Extended response

Why was Japan more successful than China, India and Indonesia in resisting Western powers in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries?

Source 6.34 This French political cartoon from 1898 shows Britain, Germany, Russia, France and Japan dividing up China

DEPTH STUDY 3

World War I

7

World War I (1914–1918)

Source 7.1 The Australian 3rd Battalion in a trench at the Battle of the Menin Road at the Western Front, September 1917

[AWM/E00862]

Before you start

Main focus

World War I was one of the most important events of the twentieth century. It created enormous change in the nations that took part in it, including Australia.

Why it's relevant today

Australians continue to draw on experiences in this war to locate their defining national characteristics. It is important, therefore, to study it closely.

Inquiry questions

- Why did World War I happen?
- What was Australia's role?
- What was the war's impact on Australian homefront society?
- What were the after-effects of the war on Australia?

Key terms

- ANZAC
- attrition warfare
- balance of power
- military conscription

Significant individuals

- Archduke Franz Ferdinand
- John Simpson Kirkpatrick
- John Monash
- William Morris Hughes

Let's begin

World War I changed the entire course of world history. In Australia's case, it transformed the society. It unfolded as an enormous tragedy in which hundreds of thousands of Australian lives were directly affected and tens of thousands were killed. Within Australia, the war experience convulsed the homefront, leading to serious division and conflict. After the war, much social mending was needed. The ANZAC legend was born and new definitions of Australian nationhood were proposed.

Source 7.2 Australian soldiers rest at a temporary trench, southeast of Armentières, June 1916

Source 7.3 Flowers placed upon the Cenotaph in Martin Place, Sydney, to commemorate ANZAC Day 2010

Source 7.4 ANZAC Day march, Sydney 2010

Source 7.5 Sir John Monash, Australian general

Timeline

Source 7.6 A war memorial dedicated to British and ANZAC soldiers who fought in the Gallipoli campaign in 1915, located in Gallipoli, Turkey

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
1914	
Archduke Franz Ferdinand is **1914** assassinated and Europe mobilises for war	
1915	
Gallipoli landings; ANZAC **1915** Cove is established	**early to mid 1915** Dardanelles campaign; Western Front stalemate
ANZACs retreat **late 1915** from Gallipoli	
1916	
First ANZAC Day held; **early 1916** ANZACs arrive at Western Front	**early 1916** British military conscription begins
Huge troop **mid to late 1916** losses at Fromelles and Pozières; first military conscription campaign	**mid to late 1916** Somme offensive fails
1917	
Enlistments fall sharply; **1917** huge losses at Passchendaele; Light Horse charges at Beersheba; second conscription referendum	**1917** Bolshevik Revolution
1918	
ANZACs at Western Front **1918** play major role in stopping German Spring offensive	**1918** German Spring offensive; Armistice
1919	
Troop returns bring social **1919** disruption; record strike wave occurs; influenza pandemic kills 12 000 in Australia	**1919** Paris Peace Conference; Russian Civil War

Source 7.7 Landing of Australian and New Zealand troops, April 1915, Dardane

Source 7.8 Advancing German column during German spring offensive, 1918

Source 7.9 World War I victory march through the streets of London

Central powers

Entente (Allied) powers

Neutral states that later joined Central powers (with date)

Neutral states that later joined Entente powers (with date)

Neutral states

Moscow

RUSSIAN EMPIRE
29–30 July 1914

OTTOMAN
EMPIRE
October 1914

Constantinople

ROMANIA
1916

BULGARIA
1915

GREECE

AUSTRIA–HUNGARY
28 July 1914

Budapest

SERBIA
28 July 1914

ALBANIA

MONTENEGRO

Vienna

Sarajevo

SWEDEN

Berlin

ITALY
1915

NORWAY

DENMARK

SWITZERLAND

HOLLAND

BELGIUM

FRANCE
3 August 1914

GERMANY
1 August 1914

Paris

BRITISH
ISLES
(and
BRITISH
EMPIRE)
4 August 1914

London

SPAIN

PORTUGAL

Source 7.10 European nations at the outbreak of, and during, WWI

Causes of World War I

In terms of death and destruction, World War I was one of the greatest catastrophes in human history. Surprisingly, it was begun by the actions of a headstrong grammar school student. Gavrilo Princip was a sickly 19-year-old, just finishing high school, when he shot and killed Franz Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria-Hungary, and his wife Sophie on the morning of Sunday 28 June 1914 in the Bosnian town of Sarajevo. Princip and his fellow conspirators were all young Serb nationalists who resented the recent absorption of Serbia into the Austro-Hungarian Empire. By their act of terror they hoped to free Southern Slavs (Serbs, Croats and Bosnians) from Austrian control.

Why did this single assassination lead to the immense calamity of World War I? It was because the various nations of Europe were locked in an intricate series of political alliances, diplomatic arrangements and military agreements that committed a nation to war if its ally was threatened,

often without the full knowledge or consent of their populations. There was little international openness, extreme territorial competition for colonies and an escalation of **armaments** manufacture, along with much general distrust and suspicion. All these features contributed towards the fateful escalation into full-scale warfare over the following five weeks. The assassination of the Archduke, who was also heir to the Austrian throne, was therefore the **catalyst** for the war.

armaments military weapons and equipment

catalyst a person or thing precipitating a change

First, Austria, with Germany's encouragement, declared war on Serbia (28 July 1914) in retaliation for the assassination. This caused Russia to mobilise millions of troops in support of Serbia (29–30 July 1914). Russia and France were secretly allied. Germany therefore responded by declaring war on both Russia (1 August 1914) and France (3 August 1914). After the initial declarations of war, Germany's plan was to first attack its principal rival, France; and, following a hopefully swift victory, to then turn its forces eastward upon Russia. This was known as the Schlieffen Plan.

Britain initially hoped to stand aside from a continental war, using the Royal Navy to **blockade** German ports, while providing only token assistance and financial aid to France and Russia. After Germany, France and Russia had tired, Britain then planned to step in and impose peace terms upon all. Yet when Germany accelerated its invasion of France by passing

blockade isolation of an area by hostile ships or forces to prevent the entrance and exit of traffic and commerce

through neutral Belgium on 4 August, Britain responded to this diplomatic violation by also committing itself to sending in ground troops. Britain was bound by the Treaty of London (1840) to protect Belgium militarily.

Activity **7.1**

1　Deduce why Gavrilo Princip shot Archduke Ferdinand.

2　Explain why Germany, Russia and France entered the war.

3　Examine the reasons why Britain became involved in an extended continental land war in Europe for which it was so ill prepared.

HISTORICAL FACT

The heads of state in three of the major fighting nations were closely related. Britain's King George V and Germany's Kaiser Wilhelm II were the grandsons of Britain's Queen Victoria. The wife of Russia's Tsar, Alexandra, was also Queen Victoria's granddaughter. Kaiser Wilhelm and Tsar Nicholas II, in turn, were the great-great grandsons of Tsar Paul I. From a certain perspective, therefore, World War I could be viewed as a massive family feud.

Because Britain was now at war, Australia, as a self-governing Dominion within the British Empire, saw itself as automatically at war with Germany and Austria-Hungary as well. Australia's interests were seen as identical with Britain's. Its head of state was the British monarch, it possessed no diplomats of its own and its foreign policy was in the hands of the British Government. One of Australia's greatest tragedies had begun.

☛ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the causes of World War I.

Causes of World War I
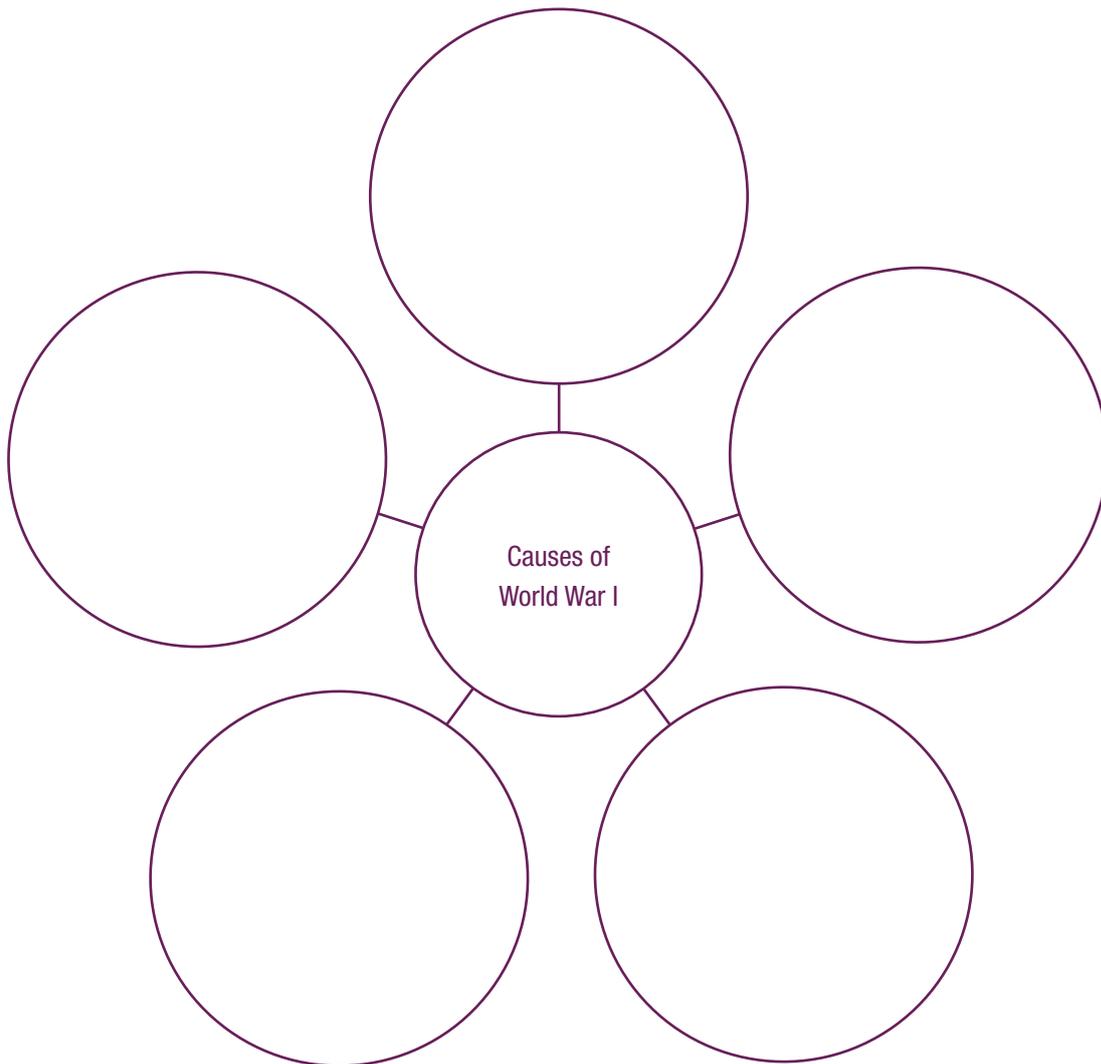
Activity **7.2**

1   Explain why Europeans seemed so eager to go to war in 1914.

2   Recall what sort of war people thought they were about to fight.

3   Describe how general responses in 1914 might differ from people's attitude to war today.

Research **7.1**

Research the details of the fateful assassination of Franz Ferdinand. Develop a PowerPoint presentation of the event and of the principal players involved. A good starting point might be an online search of Wikipedia or a reading of Chapter 1 of Edmond Taylor's book *The Fossil Monarchies* (Penguin Books, 1967).

War's outbreak: European reactions

World War I was called 'The Great War' at the time. Of course, nobody knew that a second world war would one day erupt, so there was no point numbering this one as 'the first'. Instead, participants soon began to claim that this 'Great War' would be 'the war to end all wars' and that it would 'make the world safe for democracy'. As we have seen, however, it was brought about more by the shifting balance of power in Europe. Britain, for instance, fought not only to defend Belgian **neutrality** but also to prevent European domination by Germany and to protect its colonies in Asia, Africa and the Pacific.

neutrality not helping or supporting either of the opposing sides

Times gone by …

Every sane person knows that is it a greater thing to build a city than to bombard it, to plough a field than to trample it, to service mankind than to conquer it. And yet once the armies get loose, the terrific noise and shock of war makes all that was valuable seem pale and dull and sentimental. Trenches and shrapnel, howitzers and forts, marching and charging and seizing – these seem real, these seem to be men's work. But subtle calculations in a laboratory, or the careful planning of streets and sanitation and schools, things which constitute the great peaceful adventure of democracy, seem to sink to so much whimpering futility.

Source 7.11 Walter Lippmann, American political writer, *New Republic*, 7 November 1914

1 Do you think that 'every sane person' is a persuasive opening statement?

2 Evaluate the text extract and give reasons as to whether or not Walter Lippmann is in favour of the war.

3 What do you think is meant by the writer's use of the words 'these seem to be men's work'?

Populations on both sides of the struggle were told that they were fighting for justice and freedom. The politicians, religious leaders and newspapers of each nation claimed that it was fighting in its own self-defence, although that usually meant invading the territory of some other nation. Therefore, as soon as war was declared, many people were overcome more by a spirit of militant **nationalism** than any desire for peace and universal friendship.

Each nation proclaimed that 'Almighty God' was on its side. Each side blamed the other for causing the war. In the capital cities of Berlin, Paris, London and Vienna, there were loud pro-war demonstrations. Whitehall and Parliament Street in London were thronged with people chanting, 'Down with Germany' and singing 'Rule Britannia!' In Munich, a young, joyful Adolf Hitler – the man who 25 years later would provoke World War II – was captured on camera among the cheering masses outside the Feldherrnhalle (Marshall's Hall) in Munich. From Paris and other French cities, 4300 trains, decorated with flowers and flags, carried tens of thousands of **conscript** troops rushing to meet another 11 000 German trains, similarly packed

nationalism devotion to national identity or patriotism

conscript a person who is enrolled for compulsory military service

Source 7.12 Future German Chancellor, Adolf Hitler, at Munich's Feldherrnhalle on 1 August 1914, the day Germany declared war on Russia

HISTORICAL FACT

Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, had visited New South Wales in May 1893 on a hunting expedition. In 10 days, he shot around 300 animals. During his life, he is estimated to have killed 300 000 animals.

with soldiers. The troops called 'To Paris!' and 'To Berlin!', but their real destination would soon be a wasteland of mud and trenches. For most, the Great War began in an atmosphere of innocence and naiveté. Few understood what modern, technological warfare really meant. The last substantial European conflict – the Franco-Prussian War – had been long ago in 1870.

Britain had recently fought the Boer War (1899–1902) in South Africa, but that was a highly mobile struggle, often conducted from horseback. The military generals themselves had little direct experience of warfare. They visualised rapid campaigns, won by aggressive **cavalry** charges and a war that would be 'over by Christmas'. They did not understand that the new military technology – especially **howitzers** and machine guns (firing 500 rounds per minute) – favoured defenders over attackers.

cavalry soldiers who fight on horseback

howitzer a big gun for the high-angle firing of shells

In the first month of the war, France alone suffered 300 000 **casualties**. By war's end, some 17 million soldiers and civilians had died.

casualties those wounded or killed in war

War's outbreak: Australia's reactions

As the European nations stumbled into war, Australia was in the midst of a federal election campaign. On 31 July 1914, following news of Russia's mobilisation, Labor leader Andrew Fisher declared that Australia would support Great Britain 'to the last man and the last shilling'. The Liberal Prime Minister, Joseph Cook, on the previous evening had spoken about the coming of '**Armageddon**' and

Armageddon from the Bible, the last battle between good and evil

Source 7.13 Volunteers enlist for service at Melbourne Town Hall at the outbreak of war [AWM/A03406].

promised that 'when the Empire is at war so is Australia at war'. Great Britain would not declare war for another five to six days. The news of Britain's declaration was received in Australia at 12.30 p.m. on 5 August.

Such eagerness has encouraged some historians to see Australia as 'terrifyingly willing to go to war'. Australians, positioned on the other side of the world, probably understood far less about Sarajevo and the fatal web of national alliances than the European populations themselves. They tended to think of warfare as short, heroic and glorious.

As in Europe, crowds gathered in the major cities to demonstrate their support. In Melbourne, for instance, after cheering for Britain, a mob attacked the German club, before turning upon unoffending Chinese in Little Bourke Street. War support could quickly descend into overreaction and hysteria; and local Germans soon became targeted as '**Huns**' and 'cultural monsters'.

Hun an offensive term for a German person

If we shift the focus away

Research **7.2**

Conduct local research to discover how your city, town or region responded to the news of the outbreak of war in August 1914.

from the flag-waving crowds and look across the entire nation, what do we see? While some people expressed enthusiasm, others reacted with resignation, worry and alarm. Some small groups, such as Quakers and socialists, expressed outright opposition. Mothers, sisters and wives were deeply concerned for the safety of sons, brothers and husbands who offered themselves as military volunteers. Yet freedom to speak out against the war was rapidly curbed by the *War Precautions Act 1914*.

Economically, war's outbreak brought a sharp downturn, as global markets were disrupted and trade routes threatened. The outcome was **stagflation**, as prices and unemployment both rose sharply. Wages were frozen and strike activity curbed. In Queensland, unemployment numbers quadrupled between August and December 1914. In New South Wales, the prices of imported goods jumped 20 per cent. For Australian workers generally, and for farmers already struggling with a severe drought, these sharp economic blows brought great hardship.

stagflation inflation coupled with high unemployment and stagnant economic growth

Activity **7.3**

1 Describe how enthusiastic the Australian people were about involvement in World War I.

2 Explain why the political, cultural and emotional ties to Britain were so strongly felt.

3 Recount how much opposition to World War I existed in Australia.

HISTORICAL FACT

The first military shots of World War I were fired in Australia. At around 10.45 a.m. on 5 August (one hour and 45 minutes after Britain and Australia's involvement in the war began), the gunners at the Fort Nepean Battery, Port Phillip Heads, in Victoria opened fire on the German cargo ship, SS *Phalz*, which had just steamed out of Port Melbourne. The *Phalz* was commandeered and used by Australia as the troopship HMT *Booroora* during the war.

Enlisting to fight

In August 1914, Australia had a permanent army and citizen's **militia** force that together numbered 45 645 men. In January 1911, Australia had been the first English-speaking country to introduce compulsory military training of young males aged 12 to 17 years. There had been resistance to this scheme. Around 28 000 youths had been prosecuted and 5732 imprisoned for failing to comply. Yet 100 000 cadets were undergoing military drills by 1914. Australia also possessed a small navy, a new officer training centre at Duntroon and the beginnings of an air force.

militia a military force made up of ordinary citizens rather than highly trained soldiers

All this, however, had been introduced to defend Australia directly. It was widely believed that the coming war would be fought in the Pacific against Japan, rather than in Europe and the Middle East against Germany, Austria and Turkey. Japan at the time, however, was no real military threat to Australia. When the war began, Australia immediately placed its navy under British control. It also needed to recruit volunteers quickly for overseas military service. On 3 August, two days *before* Britain declared war, the Australian Cabinet offered to send an initial force of 20 000 men. Little did they know that over the next four years, 416 809 would enlist, 331 781 of whom would

Source 7.14 The original 12th Brigade marches through Hobart to depart for the war on 20 October 1914 [AWM/H11609].

HISTORICAL FACT

Although Australian troops were often called 'bushmen', only 17 per cent were from the countryside and 83 per cent from urban areas. Around 34 per cent were tradesmen (skilled workers) and another 30 per cent were labourers (unskilled workers).

serve overseas. Even this was a relatively small force in comparison with the millions of British, French, Russians and Germans who fought. Yet it was an enormous sacrifice for a small nation of less than five million people: it represented 38.7 per cent of all eligible males in Australia aged 18–44 and, unlike in other combatant nations, it was raised by voluntary enlistment only.

Some historians write of 'a rush' by eager young recruits to enlistment centres. Others show that the number initially accepted was modest. On 8 August, the *Sydney Morning Herald* reported that only 735 men had turned up at Sydney's Victoria Barracks. In the first month, only 700 of the 2000 who had offered themselves were considered medically fit. Later in the war, Minister for Defence George Pearce found, to his surprise, that enlistment statistics had been artificially inflated by 21 000 because 'perhaps 20 or even 50 out of every hundred [recruits] had frequently, during the early stages of the war, failed to turn up' for **embarkation** on the troopships!

embarkation going on board a ship or plane

Nevertheless, by the beginning of 1915, official statistics showed that 52 561 people had been accepted into the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). Physical and medical standards were initially demanding and many were turned away. Within five months, Australia had more than doubled its first promise of 20 000 men. Enlistment continued to rise in 1915 but then began to falter. In 1917, the annual total had fallen by two-thirds, and in 1918 by five-sixths of the 1915 figure. Australia, seemingly, had exhausted itself in its determination to support Britain in combat.

Source 7.15 Australian Naval and Military Expedition Force troops enthusiastically leave Sydney Harbour for German New Guinea on 19 August 1914. They were the first soldiers to leave Australia [AWM/A03272].

HISTORICAL FACT

One of the best known pro-war poems in the British Empire, 'For England!', was written by an ex-student of Melbourne's Scotch College, JD Burns. Burns was killed at Gallipoli in late 1915.

The banners of England, unfurled across the sea,
Floating out upon the wind, were beckoning to me;
Storm-rent and battle-torn, smoke-stained and grey,
The banners of England – and how could I stay?

Source 7.16 A verse from the poem 'For England!'

Reasons for enlisting: the importance of Empire

Why did so many men, a large proportion of whom were not much older than yourselves, decide to enlist? When historians try to understand the soldiers' motives, they meet both a frustrating silence and a confusing jumble of rationalisations, emotions and impulses.

It can safely be argued, however, that most Australian men had been prepared to fight for Britain by the nature of their schooling. In Australia, their 'British patriotism' was stirred by a continual 'recounting of the heroic deeds of our forefathers'. British heroism at such battles as Trafalgar, Waterloo, the Crimea, the Indian 'Mutiny', and the Afghan, Zulu and Boer wars was emphasised by teachers; and male children especially were encouraged to sacrifice themselves, when the time came, to the imperial cause.

Compulsory military training for all boys aged 12 years and over imposed the discipline of obedience and emphasised that warfare was the manly way to solve international disputes. Fighting for 'King and Country' in 'the service of Empire' was encouraged, for the Empire was presented as being 'glorious' in its vast dimensions and always virtuous. Such sentiments were often reinforced by the church and the family.

One soldier from Wollongong recalled that, due to such urgings, more than half of his class of 45 pupils went away to war. Eleven were killed and many others wounded. He concluded that they had all enlisted out of loyalty and duty. At least 90 per cent had been 'conscripted by their consciences'. But there were other reasons for fighting as well.
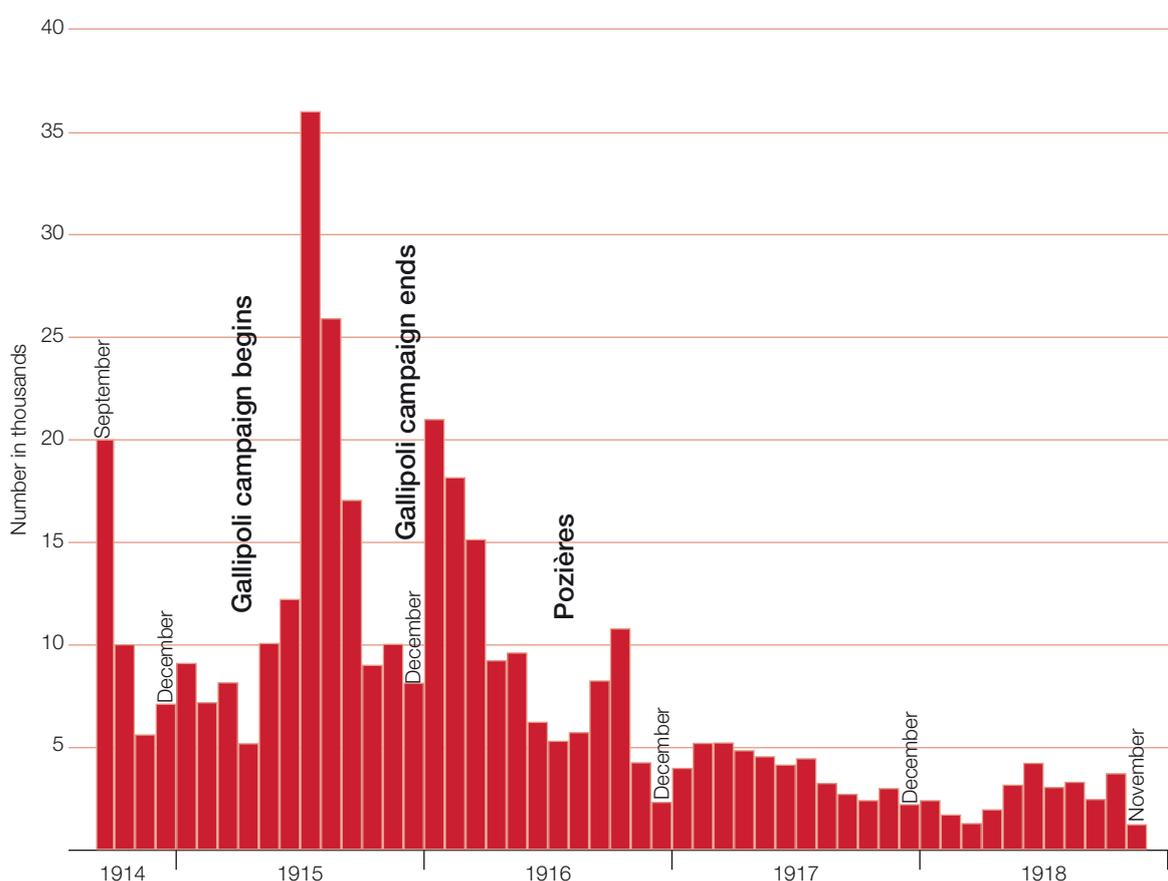
Source 7.17 The monthly total of enlistments during the war from September 1914 to November 1918. Note the peaks and troughs, and the gradual decline in numbers.

Activity **7.4**

1 Describe what images first come to your mind when you think about World War I.

2 Evaluate how predictable this war was.

3 Assess how aware Australian military recruits were about what lay ahead for them in the fighting.

4 Recount how long the high casualty rates were going to be tolerated back home.

5 Clarify why Australia's existing army was for local defence only.

6 Recall whether or not there was an initial rush of recruits.

7 Explain why recruiting declined so dramatically between 1916 and 1918.

Times gone by ...

[In] recalling the feeling which prompted me … to join as a soldier I remember it was being faced with the ordinary, never changing things of life. Tomorrow meant nothing more than just another day. I wanted something to happen to stir the stagnant pool in which I was living. I wanted the thrill the expedition promised, but I never realized what the excitement I was seeking really meant … I got the thrill and stir, but at what expense to others? … I am sure one could never realise what war means until he sees the actual sufferings of those who have to take part in it: The smashed-up limbs, the gaping wounds and the running blood. It is a horror only to be understood when witnessed.

Source 7.18 Peter Hall, medical orderly on the hospital ship *Seang Choon*, writes from Lemnos Island near Gallipoli to RH Adam, Secretary of the Amalgamated Printers and Decorators Union, Sydney on 29 July 1915.

1 Interpret how the line 'I wanted something to happen to stir the stagnant pool in which I was living' reflected how Peter Hall was feeling at the time.

2 Discuss what Hall means by the line, 'I got the thrill and stir but at what expense to others'.

3 Extrapolate from the source whether or not Peter Hall took any positive experiences away from his involvement in the war.

Other reasons for enlisting

The 'call of Empire' was strong in the Australian soldier. Yet historian Bill Gammage believes that most of the early volunteers were roused by a sense of adventure. Enlisting was seen as an escape from the monotony of everyday life and the tedium of the workplace. It provided a chance to travel and see the world outside Australia. Many men also saw war as a glorious opportunity to 'prove their manhood'.

After active recruiting began on 11 August 1914, a campaign of 'hatred of the enemy' was also mounted. This encouraged some recruits to express their motives in terms of anti-German hostility. 'I am itching to get a dig at a few Germans,' wrote a Melbourne volunteer; while a South Australian declared his intention to 'get to grips with those inhuman brutes … [and] help wipe out such an infamous nation'. Some were simply carried along in a tide of peer-group pressure: their mates were enlisting so they would too. Others were shamed into going by female scorn at their lack of manliness. Some women sent men white feathers as a symbol of cowardice and this was reinforced by press campaigns attacking those unwilling to fight as 'slackers', 'shirkers' and 'cold-footers'. Some left on troop ships to escape difficult situations on the homefront: a failing marriage perhaps, an unhappy home or a gambling debt.

Yet it should not be forgotten that others were forced to 'join up' due to poverty. As we have seen, when war began, unemployment skyrocketed, wages froze and prices rapidly increased. The Australian countryside was also suffering severe drought. There were no state welfare services for the unemployed, only private charity. Cash-strapped men were attracted to the AIF's offer of six shillings (roughly sixty cents) per day. In such times of hardship, economic motives could be as important as idealistic ones.

Activity **7.5**

1   Discuss how 'the British connection' influenced Australian soldiers' decisions to enlist.

2   Clarify why soldiers often said they were 'fighting for England' rather than 'fighting for Australia'.

3   Evaluate how influential schooling was in encouraging soldiers to volunteer.

4   Construct a list of all the motives for enlisting in World War I. Can you think of any other motives besides those covered in the text? How would you rate these motives in order of importance?

Research **7.3**

Locate an Australian recruiting poster from World War I through an internet search engine, the Australian War Memorial website or a book such as Sam Keen's *Faces of the Enemy* (Harper and Row, 1986). Develop a class debate to analyse the poster's message.

1   What values does it represent?

2   What sort of impact do you think this poster would have made at the time?

3   Does it reflect an accurate image of the warfront? If not, why not?

Where Australians fought and the nature of warfare

Gallipoli: the landing and digging in

The first Australian casualties of the war (Able Seamen John Courtney and Bill Williams) were not killed on a Turkish beach, but rather in a jungle in German New Guinea, near Rabaul in early September 1914. The Gallipoli landings were still more than seven months away.

The Gallipoli campaign was also not the first large military encounter in which Australian troops had fought. Thousands of Australian volunteers had joined British regiments in the Maori Wars (1845–47 and 1863–68); New South Wales **infantry** had supported Britain at the Sudan in 1885; and Australian blue jackets (sailors acting as soldiers) had helped suppress the Boxer Rebellion in China in 1900–01. Around 20 000 Australian servicemen and **irregulars** had also fought beside Britain in the Boer War (1899–1902) in South Africa. It was said in 1900 that: 'from … the landing of Australian troops on African soil will date the true birth of Australian nationhood'.

It was to be the Dardanelles campaign (February 1915 to January 1916) and the Gallipoli landings of April 1915 that would eventually be viewed in this light. Around 16 000 ANZAC (Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) troops were involved in the first Gallipoli assault at dawn on 25 April 1915. Throughout that day, more than 2000 would be killed and wounded. The ANZACs were part of a far larger Allied force of British and French, in what has been described as one of the most mismanaged military campaigns in history. The 70 000 Allied troops included Irish Fusiliers, Indian Ghurkha and Senegalese battalions, a Maori Contingent and a Jewish Legion.

infantry soldiers who fight on foot

irregulars troops who do not belong to the regular army
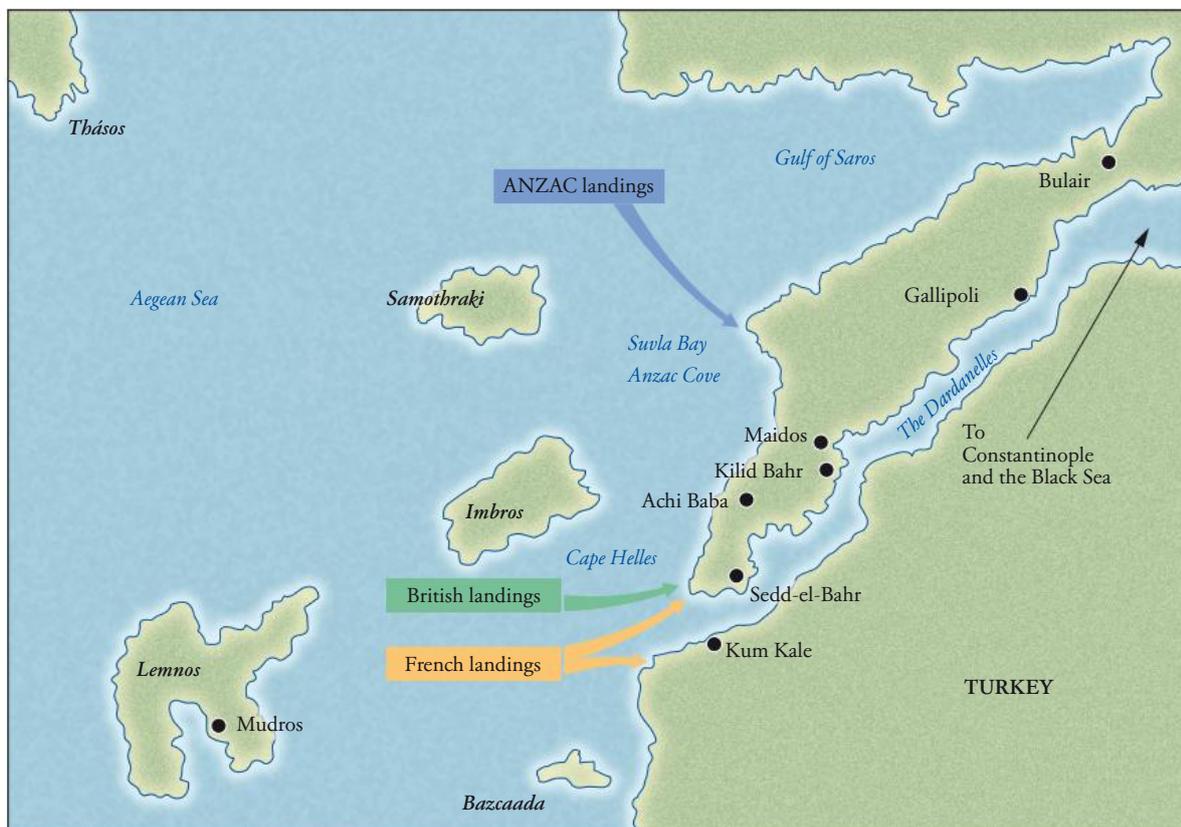
Source 7.19 Landing points of Australian, New Zealander, British and French forces in the military invasion of Turkey in April 1915

The idea behind the campaign – to open up a supply route to struggling Russia through the Bosphorus and Black Sea; and perhaps even knock Turkey out of the war – was over-ambitious and ill-judged. The British, underestimating the Turks' capacity to defend their country, expected to succeed by a naval bombardment that began in February. By mid March it had failed dismally and an **amphibious** invasion of ground troops was substituted.

amphibious land forces that arrive by sea

However, seaborne military assaults are difficult to mount tactically and, above all else, rely on surprise – an ingredient that was entirely lacking on 25 April. The Turks had been given four weeks to prepare.

The ANZACs, training in Egypt en route to the European front, were unfortunate enough to become caught up in this disastrous campaign. Intelligence was faulty and maps unreliable. Because of a navigation error, the ANZACs were landed at the wrong beach (later named ANZAC Cove), two kilometres too far north of the planned entry point.

Therefore, instead of finding a gentle slope behind the beach as expected, they were faced with cliff-like hills, around 100 metres high. In one respect, this initially helped the landing, as the Turks were not expecting any force to come ashore at this difficult location. They had fewer than 500 defenders there. Further, the steep slope offered some protection from enemy fire.

Some officers recommended total evacuation during that first afternoon, but there were insufficient boats available. From this time until the Allied retreat at the close of 1915, the Australians and New Zealanders were confined to defending a line approximately one kilometre inland, dug in, boxed up and raked by gunfire from the Turkish defenders on the surrounding hills above them.

Research **7.4**

1 Reconstruct the story of the landing at ANZAC Cove on 25 April 1915 and compare it with the British assault that day on Cape Helles, further to the south. The Australian War Memorial's website is a good place to start with this research.

or

2 Imagine you are a war correspondent at Gallipoli and attempt to write an account of the first 24 hours at ANZAC Cove.

Gallipoli: failure and withdrawal

Most military historians conclude that Gallipoli was 'a sideshow' to the main events of the Western Front. They also see it as a tragic waste of human life that was poorly conceived by Lord Kitchener, the British War Secretary and Winston Churchill, First Lord of the Admiralty. By the time it concluded, for no territorial gain whatsoever, there had been more than 392 000 casualties. Almost 131 000 troops from all the nations involved had died. Only the Turks could celebrate at having repulsed a major military invasion.

The role of the Australians and New Zealanders was secondary in strategic importance to the British onslaught at Helles, further to the south.

HISTORICAL FACT

John Simpson Kirkpatrick, the best-known ANZAC at Gallipoli, was born in South Shields, England. He had once been a British 'donkey boy', taking children for rides on the beach at Whitney Bay, on the Tyneside in north-east England. He had illegally jumped ship in Queensland before joining up. The donkey, named Duffy, that he used at ANZAC Cove to carry wounded men was from Greece.

☞ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, document the Gallipoli campaign.

| Event 1 |
| Event 2 |
| Event 3 |
| Event 4 |
| Event 5 |
| Event 6 |
| Event 7 |
| Event 8 |
| Event 9 |
| Event 10 |
| Event 11 |
| Event 12 |

The French, who landed at Kereves Dere and Kum Kale, also sustained many more casualties. Nevertheless, the ANZACs were widely praised for their skill and tenacity as assault troops. It was not expected that 'mere colonials' would perform so courageously under concentrated fire. There were some episodes of terrible carnage on both sides as the ANZACs beat back Turkish attacks or engaged in poorly planned assaults. On 8 May, around 1000 ANZACs were killed in an hour in a failed attack on Krithia. On 19 May, there were an astonishing 10 000 Turkish casualties in one day when they attacked the ANZAC trenches. In early August, during a **diversionary** battle for Lone Pine (or 'Bloody Ridge' in Turkish terms), the Australians took the post after fierce fighting, but lost 2200 men. At the same time, on one narrow strip of ground called The Nek, which was not much larger than a tennis court, hundreds of members of the 8th and 10th Australian Light Horse regiments were needlessly sacrificed. This battle forms the central episode of Peter Weir's 1981 film, *Gallipoli*, but the main officer responsible was actually Australian, not British. This August offensive was finally abandoned after 12 000 British, Indian and ANZAC troops were lost.

diversion a strategy designed to divert an enemy's attention

On 7 December 1915, the British Cabinet ordered a retreat of all Allied troops from Gallipoli. A British war correspondent, Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett, and a young Australian journalist, Keith Murdoch, had at last exposed the terrible conditions and flawed military campaigning to the British leaders. Winter had set in with freezing blizzards in November and thousands were already being evacuated with frost bite, dysentery, typhoid, influenza and **trench foot**.

trench foot a painful destruction of foot tissue caused by continual immersion in cold water or mud

One of the greatest disasters in British military history ended for the ANZACs on 19 December 1915. The Australians departed, shattered to leave more than 8000 of their dead behind, but comforted to have stuck it out so resolutely and to have gamely played their part in such a hopeless cause.

Activity **7.6**

1 Identify the date on which the British Cabinet ordered a retreat of all Allied troops from Gallipoli.

2 Explain why today's war historians generally agree that the Gallipoli campaign was such a disastrous one.

3 Describe what reputation the ANZACs achieved at the time for their combat actions.

Western Front: Australians at the Somme

By November 1914, the European war had reached a stalemate. The trenches of the Western Front, with its 'no-man's-land' of immense shell holes, tangles of barbed wire and the littered bodies of men and animals sandwiched between them, stretched like an ugly scar for nearly 800 kilometres, from the Belgian coast to the Swiss border.

The 1st and 2nd Australian Divisions arrived at the Western Front in mid March 1916. The 3rd and 4th Divisions followed in April and May. They

Source 7.20 *The Roll Call*, by Ellis Silas (1920), depicts Australian soldiers, including some wounded, preparing to evacuate ANZAC Cove [AWM/ART02436]

HISTORICAL FACT

Chemical warfare (tear gas) was introduced on the Western Front by the French in August 1914. Germans began using chlorine gas at Ypres in April 1915. The British soon followed. The latter had first experimented with poison gas against the Maori at Ohaeawai, New Zealand as early as June 1845.

came to the 130 kilometres of the line held by the British, which extended from the River Somme in the South to Ypres in Belgium.

In 1914–15, the Western Front had already experienced savage battles and huge casualties, but the fighting in 1916–17 would dwarf these earlier struggles. The campaigns the Australians were now to face made Gallipoli seem a relatively modest affair. These new battles were usually fought over hundreds of metres of blasted, muddy ground with a loss of thousands of lives. This became known as 'attrition warfare'.

attrition the wearing down of enemy numbers by constant attack

In Australia's first major engagement at Fromelles on 19 July 1916, the recently arrived 5th Division was sent into combat in bright daylight in a poorly devised exercise. Thousands of untried, exhausted men were mown down by German machine-gun fire and nothing significant was achieved. There were 5533 casualties across one evening, almost 2000 of whom were killed. The British commander, General Sir Richard Haking, who was responsible for the bloody fiasco, merely commented that the experience had done the men 'a great deal of good'. It remains Australia's worst single wartime loss.
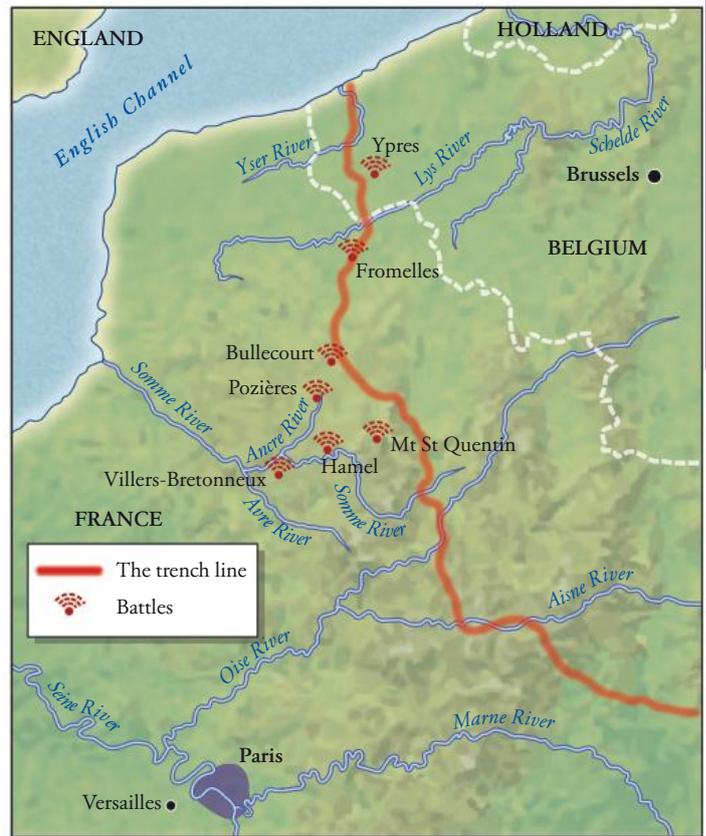
Source 7.21 The principal battle areas of the Western Front where Australians fought between 1916 and 1918.

Research 7.5

Prepare a PowerPoint presentation or write a short descriptive report on the general military situation on the Western Front. Investigate the military campaign at either the Somme (1916) or Passchendaele (1917). What role did the Australian troops play in comparison with the other British forces?

As it had begun, so unfortunately it was to continue. During the extensive Somme offensive, Australian units fought at Pozières under devastating bombardment. When they were withdrawn in early September, the 1st, 2nd and 4th Divisions had lost another 23 000 men. Throughout the freezing winter of 1916–17, they continued to fight. During April and May 1917, in the two rushed and bungled battles of Bullecourt, another 10 300 Australians became casualties.

British officers generally believed that Australians were 'fine fighters' but poor soldiers. They were seen as badly disciplined and dressed, and lax at marching and saluting. The Australian rank and file would only salute officers – whether Australian or British – whom they respected. This meant they did not salute often. War experience was changing their formerly favourable attitude towards British culture and civilisation.

Western Front: the 1918 campaigns

Statistics show that the AIF did have disciplinary problems. In the first half of 1917, the Australian desertion rate was four times greater than the other British Dominion troops. By March 1918, the British had less than one soldier per thousand in prison for disciplinary offences. Canada, New Zealand and South Africa had around 1.5 per thousand, but Australia had 9 per thousand.

Many Australian recruits did not come from a military background and arrived at the warfront with less training and drilling. They tended to show more commitment to each other than to the military **hierarchy**.

hierarchy a system of organisation in which individuals or groups are ranked one above the other

They were quick to realise when they were being led by incompetent officers and reacted accordingly. Whereas the British Army code pronounced the death penalty for 17 different offences, the Australian *Defence Act 1903* (Section 98) allowed capital punishment only for **mutiny**, desertion to the enemy or **treason**.

What the Australian forces required was inspired, methodical leadership that understood the new technology of battle. During 1918, they began to receive this from a number of outstanding commanders, particularly Major General John Monash and Brigadier General William Glasgow.

mutiny open revolt by soldiers or sailors against their officers

treason the betrayal of one's country, particularly by trying to kill a national leader or overthrow a government

Source 7.22 The band of the Australian 5th Brigade marches through Bapaume on 19 March 1917, while the town is still burning after the German withdrawal [AWM/E00426]

The war by this stage had reached a critical point. During 1917, Russia exploded into revolution and withdrew from the fighting. The French army had been checked by huge troop mutinies against the endless slaughter. Britain and Germany were both approaching exhaustion. In early 1918, Germany, using divisions brought westward from the former Russian front, mounted a huge offensive to smash through the Allied lines before US troops arrived in Europe in large numbers.

In these desperate months, Australian soldiers, led by Monash and Glasgow as well as Brigadier Generals John Gellibrand and Charles Rosenthal, played a crucial role in avoiding defeat. At Villers-Bretonneux, on the third anniversary of the Gallipoli landing, the 59th and 60th Battalions retook the town after a wild bayonet charge and hand-to-hand fighting from house to house, which effectively halted the great German offensive. Above the blackboard in a school room at Villers-Bretonneux today are the words: *N'oublions jamais l'Australie* ('Never forget Australia').

Australians and Canadians then spearheaded the Allied counter-offensive of 8 August at Amiens, using infantry coordinated with tanks, artillery and aircraft. German General Erich Ludendorff later declared this 'the black day of the German army in this war' as 13 000 of his troops were taken prisoner. From this point until 5 October – when, in their final engagement, the 2nd Australian Division captured the French town of Montbrehain – the Australian Corps had advanced 60 kilometres into enemy territory and played an important role in both ending and winning the war.

Source 7.23 Carnage and destruction on the Western Front: a portion of the Menin Road called 'Hellfire Corner', 18 September 1917 [AWM/E00732]

Conditions of trench warfare

The trenches of the Western Front were an elaborate system of excavations, honeycombed about two metres deep into the earth. Due to almost constant conditions of fog, rain, sleet or snow, the earth itself was usually converted into mud and slime, with the land in between churned up by high explosives into a landscape resembling the craters of the moon.

Each trench system contained an offensive front line defended by barbed wire, backed by a defensive or reserve line containing the soldiers' dugouts where they rested and tried to sleep, plus a third supply or support trench, containing ammunition, food and other equipment. These were connected by communication trenches that criss-crossed the landscape. Sometimes the enemy trenches could be as close as 15 metres (as at Gallipoli) or they could be as distant as a kilometre: usually they were separated by around 90 to 275 metres of 'no-man's-land'.

Soldiers might spend three to four days in the front trench, then another three days at reserve or supply lines before being withdrawn for four or more rest days behind the lines. At Villers-Bretonneux in 1918, however, the Australian 35th Battalion spent a record 33 days in the front-line trenches. Incessant bombardment could drive men mad with 'shell shock', which their superiors, planning ambitious manoeuvres far away, tended to deny as a 'real' medical condition. Around 80 000 men in the British lines succumbed to shell shock during the war.

Trenches were usually open to the weather and men stood at times knee-deep in stinking mud and water. Sanitation was primitive or non-existent, and there were millions of rats (some as big as cats) that fed on the corpses of the fallen. Trench foot and trench mouth – extreme fungal infections that could turn to gangrene – were common, especially in the earlier period of the war; while painful trench fever was contracted from lice infestation. Dysentery, typhus, cholera and death from exposure to extreme cold (especially during the freezing winters of 1916 and 1917) were also common.

This was far removed from the heroic images that men had earlier been fed at school, in their adventure books or through the press.

War historian Les Carlyon paints a terrible picture of Australian troops at the Somme in late 1916. Soldiers tried to find shelter in freezing trenches, collapsing under the weight

Research **7.6**

1 Compose a diary entry from a front-line Australian soldier in France for a 24-hour period in 1916.

or

2 Research the following topics:

a no-man's-land

b poison gas

c tanks

d flame-throwers

e machine-guns

f attrition warfare

g trench foot

h trench fever.

HISTORICAL FACT

Three days after the Australians captured Villers-Bretonneux, Gavrilo Princip, the young man whose shots at Sarajevo had started the war, died of tuberculosis in an Austrian prison hospital.
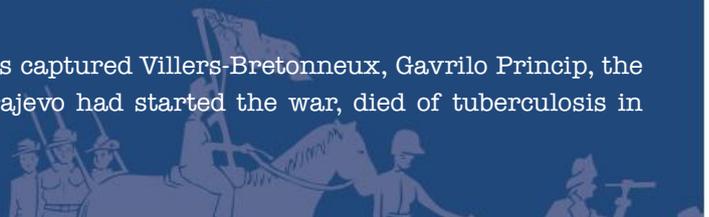
of muck and rainwater. There was little wood or kerosene for heating and open fires were disallowed. Wounded men lay in the open for up to 12 hours before rescue from the sucking mud. The only recompense was comradeship, humour and community (or, in Australian terms, 'mateship'). These were practices shared by men of all nationalities, not simply Australians, as they struggled to survive the 'monstrous boredom' and 'intense anxieties' of trench life.

Desert campaigns

When the war began, many experts believed it would be won by gallant cavalry charges, as in earlier campaigns. But in the muddy stand-off of the Western Front there was little chance for this. However, across the Middle East (in Egypt, the Sinai Peninsula and Palestine, following the failure of Gallipoli) it would be a different story. Here, brigades of the Australian Light Horse fought highly mobile, mounted campaigns and achieved some remarkable victories.

Around 85 per cent of Light Horsemen were from the Australian bush where they had learned to ride and handle horses expertly. Their horses were known overseas as 'Walers' – sturdy, solid mounts of great endurance, speed and stamina. Walers soon gained a reputation as the best cavalry horses in the world. Around 160 000 of them would serve in World War I.

The Australians fought against rebellious Arab tribes (such as the Senussi) that were supporting Turkey and also contested the Turks at Romani (near the Suez Canal) and Magdhaba, en route to Palestine, during 1916.

On 31 October 1917, two Light Horse regiments of the 4th Brigade under Lieutenant General Harry Chauvel mounted a successful cavalry charge, trotting then galloping across 3.7 miles of broken ground under heavy fire to take the important strategic centre of Beersheba. Following this – which was one of the last great cavalry charges in history – the Australians rode on to take Gaza, Semank and Damascus. They were the first Allied troops to enter Jerusalem in triumph. Their 400-mile advance was summarised by the British Commander, General Edmund Allenby as 'the greatest cavalry feat the world has known'.

Far less acceptable, however, was the behaviour of many hundreds of Australians and New Zealanders who attacked the Bedouin village of Surafend, near Jaffa in December 1918 and conducted a massacre of between 20 and
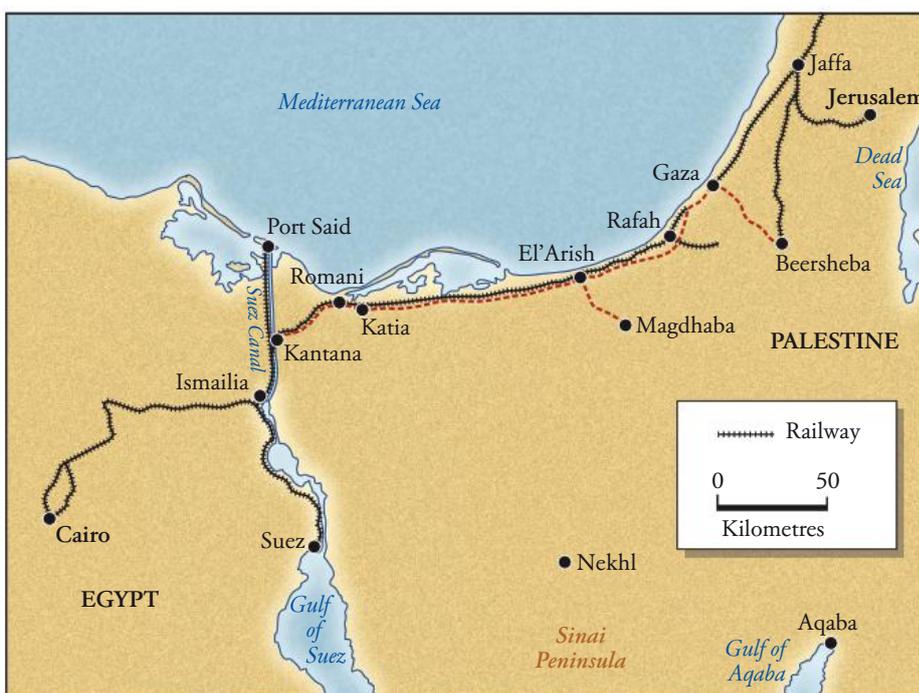
Source 7.24 The progress of the Australian Light Horse from Cairo in Egypt, across the Sinai Desert to Jerusalem in Palestine, 1917–18

137 male Arab civilians. Allenby condemned the assault as the work of cowards and murderers. Another sad aftermath of the desert campaign was the official decision not to **repatriate** the valiant Waler horses to Australia or New Zealand along with their riders. They, too, became the casualties of war. Only one horse was returned. Later, some members of the Desert Mounted column raised a memorial to their dead or abandoned horses in Sydney. In part it read:

repatriate to send someone back to their country of origin

> … to the gallant horses who carried them over the Sinai Desert into Palestine 1915–19. They suffered wounds, thirst, hunger and weariness almost beyond endurance but they never failed. They did not come home.

Casualties

The numbers killed in World War I were more than double those of World War II. The exact casualty toll will never be known and the figures provided alter substantially in different accounts. However, in rough terms about 16.5 million people died and around 21 million were wounded; or roughly 37.5 million casualties, of which more than 40 per cent were civilian.

Another way to look at it is in terms of deaths per day. The war lasted for around 1550 days, which means that on every one of these days, there were almost 23870 casualties (10645 of whom were killed). It is difficult to adequately grasp or visualise such appalling rates of death and destruction.
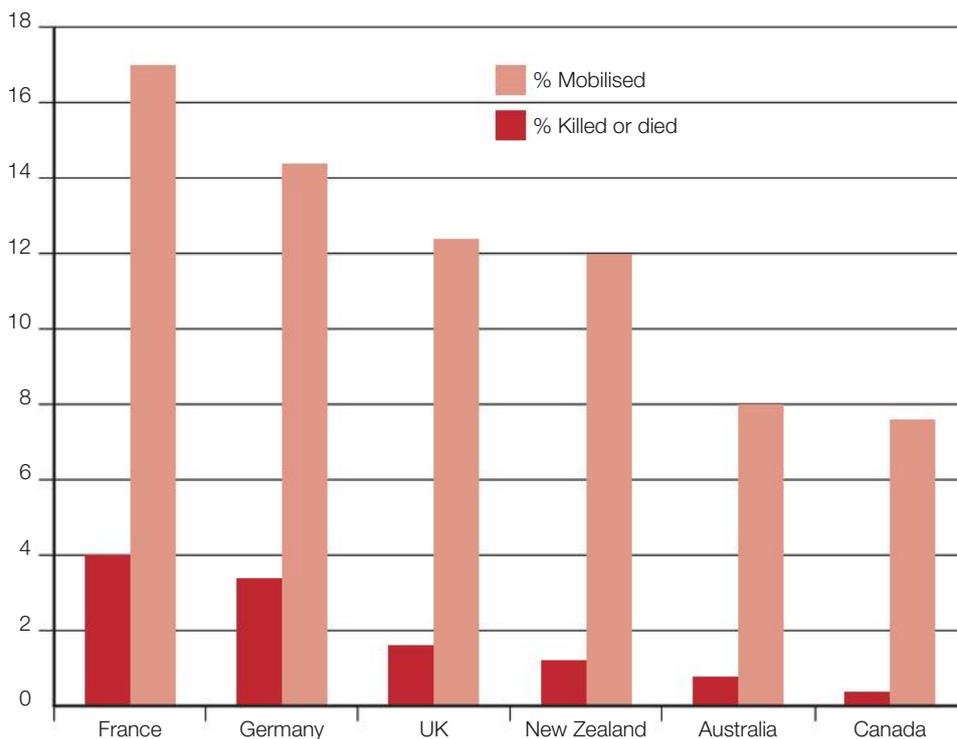
Source 7.25 Comparative percentages of troops mobilised and troop deaths across six nations

HISTORICAL FACT

About 23000 of the 61000 Australian soldiers who died in World War I have no known graves.

Australians read the mounting casualty lists in black-bordered columns in their daily newspapers. They were also posted at railway stations, ferry terminals, post offices and factories. Families awaited the dreaded official telegram.
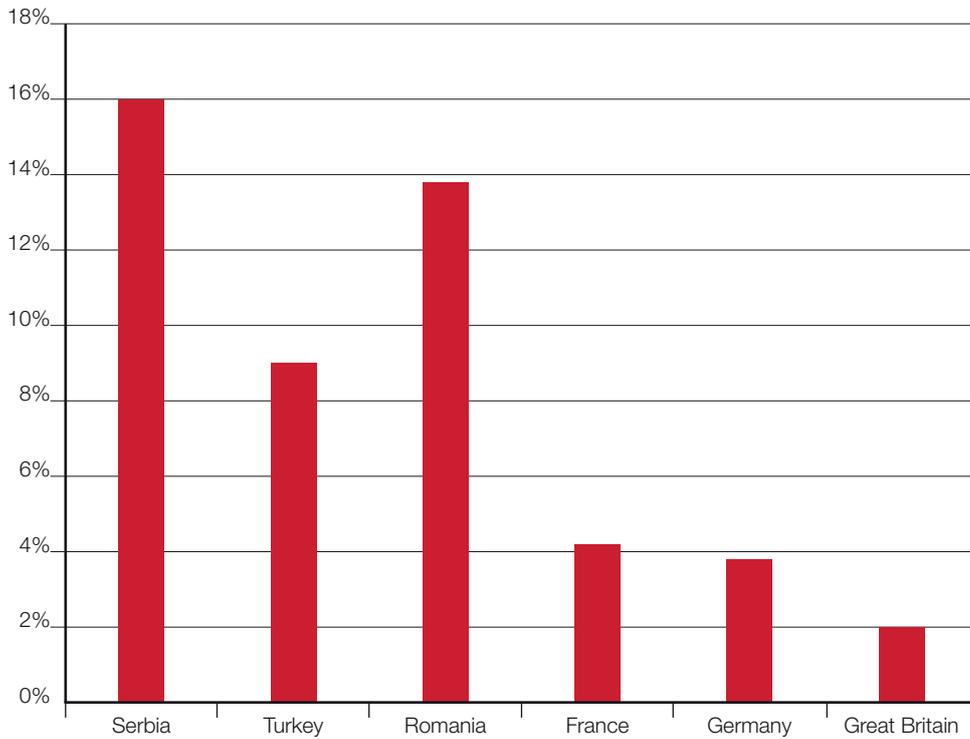
Source 7.26 Percentage of citizen casualties from six nations
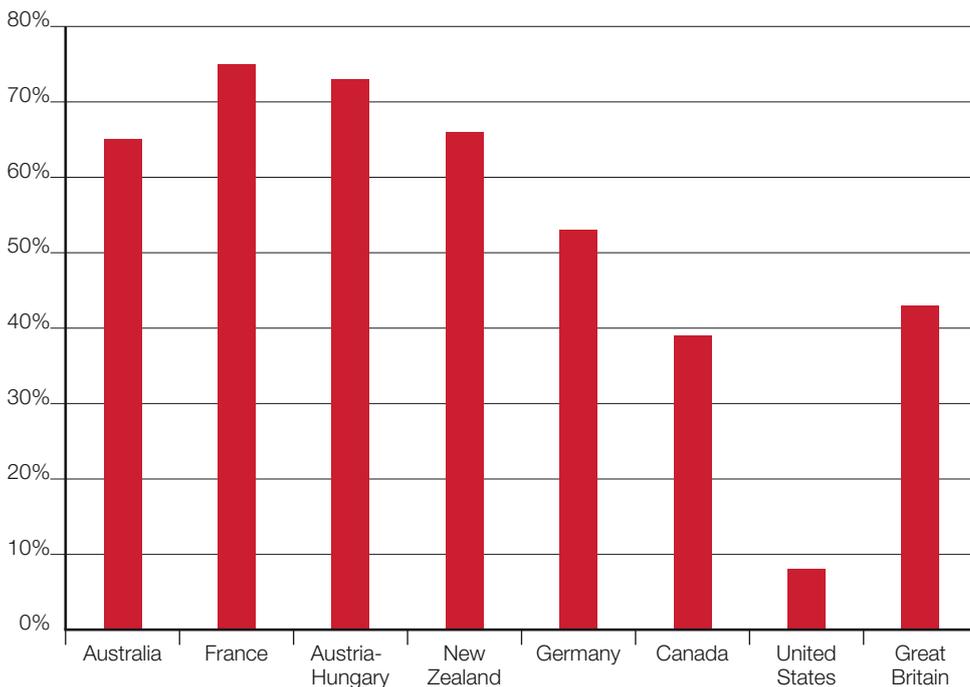
Source 7.27 Percentage of troop casualties from eight nations

Activity **7.7**

1   Discuss why Australia's casualties in World War I were so comparatively high.

2   Explain why so many of the war dead were never found.

3   Describe how the Australian public reacted to the mounting casualty totals.

Source 7.28 An anxious crowd of civilians awaits Gallipoli war news outside the office of the *Argus* newspaper in Melbourne in late 1915. The war casualty list in the newspaper is their main focus of attention [AWM/H1163].

War on the homefront

Censorship and propaganda

Soldiers and airmen who fought in or above the trenches and across Middle Eastern deserts experienced the harsh realities of warfare at first hand. Those who had stayed behind on the homefront, however, understood the war mainly as a series of highly manipulated images.

Official censorship was imposed from the moment the war began to ensure that the Australian public rarely, if ever, learned how the fighting was really progressing. Unpleasant realities were blurred or blanked out. Realistic images of warfare or of wounded and dead were banned. Such censorship was particularly strong in Australia. The *War Precautions Act* imposed these regulations upon the 1843 Australian newspapers and magazines, as well as on all films made locally or abroad. Soldiers' letters and postcards were heavily censored and troops were forbidden to carry cameras to the front. Military censors, stationed at post offices, even intercepted and censored suspicious civilian correspondence.

A mass of officially produced propaganda created false images both of warfare and the nature of the soldiers themselves, whether Allied or enemy. Military defeats were often presented as victories, or not reported at all. Terrible carnage was simply glossed over. For instance, after Australia's single worst troop losses at Fromelles on 19 July 1916, all that people back home read in their daily newspapers was that the Australians broke into the German trenches, stayed there for a while and then came away, bringing around 140 prisoners with them. There was no mention of the 5000 Australian casualties.

While propaganda downplayed the horrors of war, it also exaggerated the alleged frightfulness of the enemy. Germans were depicted as beasts, capable of any atrocity. In Australia, the artist and cartoonist Norman Lindsay produced some of the most lurid Allied cartoons, depicting German soldiers as massive, ape-like monsters wearing spiked helmets, their hands dripping with innocent blood.

Taken together, censorship and propaganda were continuously applied to boost civilian morale, encourage men to enlist, suppress the horrors of war, protect national security and present the Allies as heroic crusaders and the enemy as savage brutes. Civilians, therefore, did not know or understand the real war the soldiers endured.

Loyalty and disloyalty

Many Australians remained unwavering in their loyalty to the British cause throughout the entire war. Affection for Britain was strong. Most Australians had direct family ties with the British Isles and often called Britain 'the Motherland' or even 'Home'. For example, the Lewises were a respectable, affluent Melbourne family who believed fervently in the righteousness of the Allied cause. By early 1916, four of their seven sons had enlisted. Two of them were invalided home as shambling wrecks with fever, injury and shell shock. A third was killed in action on the Western Front after twice being severely wounded. In his memoir *Our War*, Brian Lewis, the youngest son, charts the family's searing grief and increasing disenchantment with the war. He reveals the tension in loyalist households between a belief in the 'winnability' of a 'just war' and the slow realisation of its injustices and appalling costs.

There were others – a small, outspoken minority – who opposed the war from the start. Some were Quakers and **secular pacifists** who opposed international violence on principle. Others were **eugenicists** who

secular non-religious

pacifist a person who believes that war and violence are morally unjustifiable

eugenicist a person who wants to improve natural characteristics by controlled breeding

Activity **7.8**

1   Conduct a class debate on the value of censorship and propaganda in wartime. Should they be regarded as a benefit or liability?

2   Investigate the Australian *War Precautions Act* of World War I. What were its main features and how was it implemented?

3   Assess how effective censorship and propaganda were in the manipulation of public opinion. Do you think people realised their understanding was being manipulated?

HISTORICAL FACT

The first song ever banned by an Australian government was called 'I Didn't Raise My Son to be a Soldier', which was widely sung at anti-war rallies in 1915.

argued that war destroyed the nation's healthiest specimens, thus causing social degeneration. Still others were internationalist socialists who believed that the world's workers should unite rather than destroy each other, arguing that the workers' true struggle was against the abuses of

capitalism an economic system based on private ownership and free-market enterprise

capitalism. It was winning that sort of battle that really advanced freedom and democracy in any society, not fighting fellow workers in foreign wars.

The message of such dissenters was muted by official censorship but, as the war dragged on, more people were persuaded by it. The return of wounded, gassed and distraught men from the front also shocked the Australian public. Gradually, a feeling of war-weariness – and a growing war opposition – spread through Australian society. Loyalists attacked anti-war activists in the mainstream press, the Protestant churches and the parliaments, branding them as traitors who were working in harmony with the enemy. Social division and **polarisation** increased dramatically from 1916 onwards. The war was

polarise to divide into two opposing groups

splitting the nation into the ranks of 'loyal' and 'disloyal', rather than unifying it under the banner of ANZAC.

Source 7.29 A depiction of the anti-war activist by Norman Lindsay, published in the *Bulletin* on 27 June 1918

Military conscription: the first attempt (1916)

The struggle over military **conscription** in 1916 and 1917 was one of the most dramatic conflicts in Australian history. Few today can grasp how bitterly this contest was fought by opposing sides, each of whom believed that their cause was both righteous and vital to the nation's future.

conscription compulsory enlistment for military service

Those who supported conscription claimed that only military compulsion could now force fit Australian men to the fighting front in sufficient numbers to win the war and prevent a German takeover of British territory. Those who opposed it argued they were fighting for the democratic right of free choice and to prevent the spread of military tyranny into the workplace. They claimed that Australia had already done more than its fair share and that conscription would drain away all its manpower.

Activity **7.9**

Take the position of one of the following people and write a statement outlining your standpoint on World War I:

- a pro-war loyalist
- a pacifist
- a eugenicist
- a socialist
- a wounded returned soldier
- a grieving parent.

Source 7.30 An advertisement typical of the anti-conscription cartoons appealing to women that appeared during the military conscription referenda of 1916 and 1917

By May 1916, Britain had introduced universal military conscription for all eligible males and it was expected that Australia would soon follow. Local volunteering was falling away, despite the most determined recruiting efforts to encourage men to enlist. Between December 1915 (when the Gallipoli withdrawal occurred) and May 1916 (when Australian troops began fighting in Europe), the reinforcement numbers required had fallen short by around 47 000.

By early August 1916, Labor Prime Minister William Morris Hughes began pressing for conscription. Many in the Australian Labor Party, however, strongly opposed the idea. Before the year was over, the party, federally and in most states, was split over the matter. It was the greatest political **schism** in Labor's history.

schism division of one group into opposing parties

The issue was put to the people in the form of a referendum. The campaign to encourage voters to decide on 'Yes' or 'No' extended across September and October 1916. It came in the wake of the loss of 27 000 Australians in seven weeks in the terrible Somme campaign.

The campaign was waged in an atmosphere of extreme tension and hysteria. Appeals to women by both sides were particularly emotional. In many centres, there were heated encounters and episodes of street violence. Enormous rallies were held by both sides, and arguments grew more extreme and irrational. Pro-conscriptionists, led

SUCH A SIMPLE QUESTION.

Source 7.31 In this 1917 cartoon, a typical Australian male contemplates what being conscripted to the battle-front might lead to

by Hughes, claimed that members of the anarchist group, the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW), were planning to burn down the city of Sydney. Twelve of its leaders were sent to prison for long terms after a widely publicised show trial.

Polling day was 28 October. Although voting was not compulsory, 82.8 per cent of the electorate voted. When the votes were counted, it was found that, out of 2 247 590 cast, there was a slim 'No' majority of 72 476 (or 3.2 per cent). Victoria, Western Australia and Tasmania had voted 'Yes', while New South Wales, Queensland and South Australia had voted 'No'. Conscription for the time being had been defeated, but the matter was not yet over.

Military conscription: the second attempt (1917)

In November 1916, New Zealand introduced military conscription and in 1917 Canada and the United States followed suit. In the same year, Australia mounted a massive national recruitment drive, using every conceivable method to pressure men to enlist. It was now calculated that the nation needed to produce 5500 to 6000 reinforcements per month to replace these casualties and to prevent the Australian 4th Division being broken up and dispersed among the other British ranks. By the last quarter of 1917, however, the average

monthly total of recruits was only around 2500, or less than half the number required.

The year of 1917 had also been a tumultuous one on the homefront. The failure of the first conscription referendum was denounced by Prime Minister Hughes as 'a black day for Australia … a triumph for the unworthy, the selfish and treacherous'. In November 1916, he had quit the Labor party with 23 other parliamentarians who later merged with the Liberals to form the National Party. During a federal election in May 1917 the Nationals, depicting themselves as the 'win-the-war party', had won a decisive victory, heavily defeating Labor.

Though Hughes had promised during his campaign not to 'attempt conscription … during the life of the forthcoming Parliament', his outstanding win encouraged him to try a second referendum in November and December 1917.

The second conscription referendum was even more disorderly than the first. The historian Joan Beaumont writes of violence at levels rarely seen in modern Australian politics. There was uproar when the Federal Government closed the polls only two days after announcing the campaign, thus disqualifying many itinerant workers who would need to re-enrol. Australians with a German-born father were also stopped from voting. Official censorship was applied to the 'No' campaign in an even more heavy-handed way than before.

Despite all these tactics – or perhaps because of them – the second referendum failed more

Activity **7.10**

Select two opposing teams of speakers: one team to support the pro-conscription case and the other to argue against conscription. After the debate, get the class to vote by secret ballot, either for the 'Yes' and 'No' position. Tabulate your votes to see where your class would have stood in the great controversies of 1916 and 1917.

Through further reading, attempt to discover how different groups in Australia voted on the conscription issue; for example:

- Protestants and Catholics
- working-class and middle-class people
- women and men
- British-born and Australian-born people
- rural and urban Australians.

decisively than the first. On 20 December, the 'No' majority was 166 588, or 7.6 per cent of the valid votes. Victoria joined New South Wales, Queensland and South Australia in opposition, while Tasmania now only supported the proposal by 279 votes. Australia had been the only country to try to introduce conscription by democratic means and remained one of the few combatant nations to support a voluntary enlistment system throughout the war.

Australian women and the war

In wartime Britain there were dramatic changes in the economic role of women. An extra 800 000 women entered the paid workforce, where they became, for instance, tramway conductors, van drivers and milk deliverers. By 1917, over 800 000 women worked in the munitions industry alone. Much of this change occurred because eligible British men were conscripted into the trenches.

In Australia, however, where military conscription was defeated – and where there was no local munitions industry of any size – the change in women's economic position, even in the short term, was not so marked. Most women workers were clustered in the worst paid jobs, and received less than half the wages of men. Nonetheless, with more than 400 000 males enlisting, more women became clerical workers, entering the banking and insurance industries as well as the public service. Some women became police officers for the first time and there were calls for more female medical officers and lecturers. Many of these jobs were lost, however, when men returned from the war.

☛ Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the two attempts to introduce military conscription.

The first attempt, 1916	The second attempt, 1917

HISTORICAL FACT

The wording of the second referendum question was made deliberately obscure. The question read: 'Are you in favour of the proposal of the Commonwealth Government for reinforcing the AIF overseas?' The word 'conscription' was not mentioned.
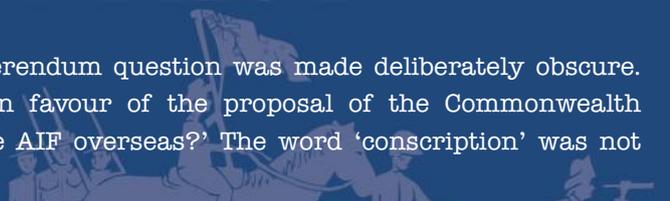
During World War I, a vast grief and sense of **bereavement** gradually spread across the nation as men left to fight and women stayed behind and waited. This waiting created huge anxieties, as mothers, sisters, wives and female companions worried continually about the fate of each absent male.

bereavement the deprivation of relations and friends through death

A relatively small number of women, however, did serve on or near the fighting fronts. Around 2060 became nurses who tended the war wounded, while others served as doctors and medical orderlies. These women therefore experienced the realities of war in a most intimate manner. One of them, Sister Alice Kitchen, described in her diary attending hundreds of dirty, hungry and ragged wounded men aboard the underequipped hospital ships standing off Gallipoli. Another, Alice Williams from Queensland, later wrote:

> When I remember how well and strong our boys were … how full of hope and cheer … I am sad, for I also remember how we brought them home again … maimed, wounded, gassed, crippled for life, and some did not return.

Some women on the homefront, who initially had little idea of such realities, took a leading role in shaming men into enlisting. This behaviour was particularly marked when the war began and during the great recruiting drives of 1916–17. Other women joined rifle clubs and indulged in military drilling. Many helped to raise money for patriotic funds or knitted socks for the soldiers.

There were also women of pacifist and socialist beliefs who campaigned strongly against the war. Arguing that a woman's role should always be a nurturing and life-preserving one, they formed such organisations as the Women's Peace Army. Their meetings were often disrupted by angry returned soldiers and other loyalists. These activist women also led demonstrations, particularly in Melbourne, against the fast-rising cost of living, especially of food for their children. During August and September 1917, these marches became violent when police intervened. They sometimes turned into shop-window-smashing food riots.

Yet overall, women's roles changed far less in Australia than in Britain because of the war. Women in Australia had already cast a national vote since 1902; and their move into wartime work, previously restricted to men, was far less dramatic than in those countries that had introduced military conscription for all eligible males, leaving many more job vacancies.

Source 7.32 Australian schoolgirls knit socks for soldiers at the Western Front [AWM/H11581].

Times gone by …

> Women will forgive almost anything in men except cowardice and treason … [W]ith full hearts and tranquil souls, women can send forth their sons, their husbands, their protectors to danger or to death – to anything except halting or dishonour.

Source 7.33 Journalist Henrietta Young, in the *Queenslander*, 12 December 1914

> Personally I have a higher regard for a man who is true to his principles and stays at home. He is far more of a hero in my eyes in serving his country and facing the jeers of his companions than the man who drifts with the popular stream. We desire … those prepared to serve their country in their daily work … ever helping to ventilate the economic causes that make for war, and never forgetting that peace begins within ourselves.

Source 7.34 Margaret Thorp, Women's Peace Army (Brisbane), *Voice of Australian Democracy*, April 1916

1 Examine Sources 7.33 and 7.34. How representative are they of women's responses to the war? Write a short analysis.

or

2 Imagine yourself as one of the following and write a short account of your outlook:

   a a female worker
   b a mother with an enlisted son
   c a nurse at the Western Front
   d a member of the Women's Peace Army
   e a woman supporting conscription
   f a woman who has just received a telegram that a relative has died.

HISTORICAL FACT

One of the leading anti-war campaigners in Australia was Adela Pankhurst, a daughter of the British suffragette, Emmeline Pankhurst. Adela was arrested numerous times for her activism and Prime Minister Hughes attempted unsuccessfully to have her deported.

Aboriginal people and the war

Learning the full story of Aboriginal servicemen in World War I is a work still in progress. It remains unclear how many actually served. Several years ago, the figure given was usually 300 to 400 men. Today, the Australian War Memorial believes that up to 800 may have been involved.

This is because many of the Aborigines who fought could only enlist by hiding their Aboriginality. The *Commonwealth Defence Act 1909* prevented any male who was not 'substantially of British descent' from enlisting. Thus Aboriginal men had to 'pass for white' and tended to join up on a 'don't ask; don't tell' basis. Many were barred from the services, especially in the early stages of the war. Later, as the demand for recruits became more desperate, regulations were somewhat relaxed. Following the failure of the 1916 conscription referendum, it was decided that part-Aborigines (called 'half-castes' at the time) could be accepted if the examining medical officer was satisfied that one parent was 'of European descent'.

These restrictions point to the highly racist nature of Australian society at this time. Aborigines had very limited rights. Mostly, they could not vote or own land or other property. Their civil liberties were severely restricted and they were

Source 7.35 Aboriginal soldiers and their brides at a dual wedding in Brisbane after returning from the war

HISTORICAL FACT

Some Aborigines had earlier fought in the Boer War (1899–1902) in South Africa. It is believed that several from Queensland, used as 'black trackers' near Bloemfontein, found it difficult to return home to Australia, owing to the racial restrictions of the White Australia Policy.

being forcibly moved onto reserves and missions. Their families could be broken up and children taken at will. All this was a result of their thorough dispossession in Australia, during which many Aborigines had died fighting for their homelands.

Why, then, would young Aboriginal men decide to fight for the British cause in World War I? After all, it was the British takeover of Australia that had created most of their difficulties. Yet Australia was still primarily their land and many joined to fight for it. Furthermore, military pay was very enticing, as was the prospect of leaving behind oppressive conditions at home and seeing some of the outside world. Some may have thought that fighting and sacrificing alongside other Australian men would lead to an improvement in their racial plight after the war.

Many who fought came from Queensland, but lists have also been compiled of 165 Aborigines from New South Wales, 68 from Victoria and 45 from South Australia. Aborigines also enlisted from Tasmania, especially from the Bass Strait Islands. One was John Miller, the grandson of Fanny Cochrane Smith, an Aboriginal Tasmanian woman whose voice is preserved singing on one of our earliest recordings. Miller was killed in the Gallipoli landing. Five Aborigines are presently known to be buried at ANZAC Cove. Many Aboriginal servicemen fought on the Western Front and around 118 served in Egypt and Palestine in the Light Horse. Aborigines were also among the tunnellers beneath Hill 60 during the Battle of Messines in June 1917, and were to the fore in the Light Horse charge in the Jordan Valley. Presently, around 115 Aboriginal casualties are known, while others, such as Ben Murray from the Flinders Ranges, were taken prisoner. Murray survived, returning to the South Australian outback and living beyond the age of 100 years.

Those who came home, however, faced an ungrateful nation that did not want to recognise their sacrifice. They were still thought of as 'inferior beings'. All the racial restrictions remained in place. Aboriginal ex-servicemen could not even enjoy a beer alongside their warfront comrades. Their military pay was often withheld and they were offered no repatriation services for the terrors they had encountered. Even the best agricultural land on certain Aboriginal missions was taken away and given to white returned soldiers to farm.

Social and ethnic division

Many commentators today claim that the war experience created a unified national feeling in Australia for the first time. They emphasise that it was not the colonial struggles that led to Australian Federation in 1901 that had developed this, but rather national pride in a large warfront 'blood sacrifice'; that is, the scale of Australian military casualties.

When historians have studied the Australian homefront during and immediately after the war years, however, they have not discovered an enhanced sense of national unity so much as evidence of social division and **ethnic** discord.

> **ethnic** of a social group with a common national or cultural heritage

The two conscription struggles are dramatic examples of this. Australians had never felt so divided over a single issue. It split families and ended friendships as well as emphasising deep religious, political, class and ethnic divisions throughout society. The negative economic effects of war had also fallen heavily upon working people. They struggled with high unemployment and inflation, as well as falling wages. When war broke out, there were few strikes, but from the mid-war period (1916–17) onwards, industrial disputes mounted.

Activity **7.11**

1 Discuss why Aboriginal men were originally prevented from joining the AIF.

2 Explain why Aboriginal men wanted to join the AIF.

3 Analyse why it is difficult today to establish how many Aborigines fought in World War I.

4 Describe how Aboriginal returned soldiers were treated after the war.

Furthermore, war involvement led to a sustained official attack on civil liberties and democratic rights. There were almost 3450 prosecutions under the *War Precautions Act*. People were imprisoned for speaking out against the struggle. Censorship was more severe in Australia than in Britain, muzzling all forms of opposition. Nevertheless, anti-war activity remained a constant and increasing feature of the homefront experience as a sense of loss, anxiety and sadness mounted.

War propaganda, as we have seen, contained a powerful strand of anti-Germanism. Germans composed a substantial minority population, especially in Queensland, New South Wales and South Australia. Before the war they were regarded as one of the most favoured ethnic groups. The war, however, transformed this, as hatred for all things German rapidly grew. Germans lost their jobs, their property and their votes. Their schools and newspapers were closed down. They were vilified in the street, in the press and in films such as *The Hun* and *The Enemy within the Gates*.

Anti-German riots occurred in several Australian cities and towns, including Melbourne, Perth, Lismore, Broken Hill and Charters Towers. After the war, 6180 German people were deported from Australia to Europe, crammed into nine ships during 1919 and 1920. Other ethnic scares during the war involved the Irish, Southern Europeans, Turks, Jews, Afghans and Asians – and, from 1917, Russians. From 1915, Aliens Restriction Orders curbed ethnic freedoms in much the same way as the White Australia Policy restricted non-whites.

Activity 7.12

1 Assess how substantial social and ethnic divisions in Australia were during World War I.
2 Identify the causes of such divisions.
3 Describe the nature of anti-Germanism.
4 Recount the effects this had on German individuals and their communities in Australia.
5 Discuss the forms of 'anti-foreigner' feelings that existed.
6 Explain the ways war involvement intensified antagonism.
7 Recall how divided Australian society was by 1919.

Source 7.36 German residents of Australia incarcerated in Liverpool Internment Camp, a place of isolation and congestion, in the mid-war period

War's end: commemoration and creating a legend

How the war ended: the war front

By November 1918, the Great War was in its fifth year. Soldiers talked mockingly of it continuing for decades. British military planners calculated that it would not end until 1919 or 1920. Its sudden conclusion took most people by surprise. One by one, Germany's allies surrendered: Bulgaria in September 1918, Turkey in October, and Austria in early November. An **armistice** followed that took effect on the eleventh hour of the eleventh day of the eleventh month of 1918.

> **armistice** the ending of hostilities by mutual agreement

On most fronts, the roar of gunfire stopped at 11 a.m. An eerie, unfamiliar silence followed.

Source 7.37 Enthusiastic crowds in London at Nelson's Column in Trafalgar Square on Armistice Day. Later that evening, Australian troops, along with others, rioted at this spot.

HISTORICAL FACT

During World War I, the German-sounding names of approximately 80 Australian towns, mostly in South Australia and Queensland, were changed. For instance, Rossler in Queensland became Ambleside, Mueller Park in Western Australia became Kitchener Park, Bismarck in Tasmania became Collins Vale, Germantown in Victoria became Grovedale and German Creek in New South Wales became Empire Vale.

An American pilot, looking out over the trenches from his plane, then saw helmets and guns flying into the air and men waving to each other across no-man's-land.

When the war ended there were around 90 000 Australian soldiers at the Western Front. More than 60 000 others were in Britain in hospitals or at training depots, and another 30 000 were in the Middle East. By September, 11 of the 60 AIF battalions had already been disbanded due to lack of reinforcements. The Australians composed less than 10 per cent of the British Army, but in the final stages of the war they had won many victories, liberating 116 villages and towns and capturing nearly one-quarter of the German prisoners and guns taken by the British.

Bringing the troops home

The task of bringing Australia's fighting men home was a monumental one. At war's end there were up to 185 000 troops on service in France, Belgium, Egypt and Mesopotamia. As well, there were around 5000 munitions and other war workers in Britain, 4000 sailors in the Royal Australian Navy and another 3000 in the Australian Flying Corps. Additionally, there were still almost 1500 Australian nurses abroad, serving in many places, including India and Italy. All told, around 200 000 Australians had to be repatriated, along with 15 500 wives and children of Diggers who had married abroad.

Lieutenant General Sir John Monash, who had performed so outstandingly in the war's closing phase, was placed in charge of repatriation and **demobilisation**. He acquitted himself magnificently in this task as well. Huge numbers of soldiers who were no longer engaging an enemy could easily become a serious

demobilisation disbanding troops back into civilian life

disciplinary issue. There were riots involving Australians at a French general hospital and a military prison in mid November 1918, just days after the Armistice. There was also determined strike action by the 5th Divisional Artillery against a heavy application of military regulations. The Surafend tragedy in Palestine, discussed earlier, occurred in December.

Source 7.38 The front cover of the Australian soldiers' magazine, *Aussie,* for Christmas 1918, displaying an image of delight at the prospect of returning home from the war

HISTORICAL FACT

There were more than 900 Australian deserters on the loose behind the lines in France when the war ended. Twenty years later, around 750 were still unaccounted for.

Then, when the ships arrived back in Australia, there was a new problem. A global **pandemic** of 'Spanish influenza' was now raging and killing huge numbers of people – in fact, 20 million to 30 million across the world. Soldiers returning home spread the virus across the world. It first reached Australia in January 1919, leading to considerable concern and mass panic. As a result, troop ships were often quarantined on arrival and the men prevented from landing, which led to numerous disturbances. In this manner, the epidemic was more contained here, although 12 000 lives were still lost.

> **pandemic** infectious disease that spreads over a large area of the world

The men who returned home were not the same people who had left to fight. Even those who were not physically injured were often psychologically damaged by what they had seen, experienced and done. They tended to be unstable and volatile. During 1919 and 1920, research has now uncovered around 20 major riots in Australian cities involving returned soldiers, as well as higher levels of domestic violence in Australian homes. Australians were extremely proud of their fighting men, but they were also wary and alarmed by their unexpected homefront behaviour. They seemed to represent a new, unpredictable force in Australian society.

Repatriation and grieving

Source 7.39 Australian casualties: World War I and World War II. Particularly, note the numbers of wounded and sick.

Australian casualties	World War I	World War II
Battle dead	53 993	27 291
Battle wounded	155 133	23 377
Battle prisoners of war	3647	22 264
Non-battle dead	6291	10 137
Non-battle sickness	393 155	436 041
Non-battle other	4387	36 912
Total	**616 606**	**556 022**

Until early 1918, it was thought that the private patriotic funds could look after the needs and problems of returning soldiers. Help was therefore seen more as a charity than a right. Yet, with the numbers of damaged men rising alarmingly, the Hughes Federal Government rather reluctantly agreed in March 1918 to establish a Federal Repatriation Department to help **rehabilitate** war **veterans**, and aid them with housing and

> **rehabilitate** restore to normal life
> **veteran** returned soldier

Activity 7.13

1 Explain the operational difficulties involved in bringing home the surviving soldiers, sailors, airmen, nurses and munitions workers after the war.

2 Discuss why it was so difficult for the authorities to discipline and control the Australian soldiers.

3 Investigate the troopship disturbances caused by the Spanish influenza pandemic.

4 Examine the effect of the Spanish influenza pandemic on Australia. Compare it with the outbreak in other nations.

HISTORICAL FACT

When the 'original' ANZACs – those who had enlisted before Gallipoli – returned home on **furlough** in September 1918, there were only 7000 to 9000 still in the fighting ranks, out of 32 000 who had first gone to war.

> **furlough** military leave of absence

retraining for non-military employment. War pensions for the families of the dead and for disabled men, along with the necessary medical services, were also required. Later, in 1935, service pensions for 'prematurely aged' and 'permanently unemployable' ex-soldiers and warfront nurses were introduced.

The casualties of war continued mounting after the guns ceased firing. In the book, *Australians, an Historical Atlas*, there is a remarkable table that includes, along with the war dead and injured, the numbers who fell ill due to warfront conditions (see Source 7.39). Sickness adds a further 393 155 casualties to the already groaning list, resulting in an extraordinary total of 616 606 cases of war-afflicted men. Remember that around 417 000 men had enlisted and 332 000 had fought. So, in total, Australia's most comprehensive casualty list for World War I considerably overshadows its full enlistment total.

This presented a formidable challenge for repatriation services. Though not all needy ex-servicemen sought assistance, by the 1930s, up to 80 000 **incapacitated** ex-soldiers were receiving a pension. The number rose to over 283 000 in 1931 when widows and children of the deceased, plus wives and mothers caring for limbless and other disabled veterans, were added.

incapacitated
permanently injured

Unlike the United States, which was closer geographically to Europe and had fewer casualties, Australia did not bring its war dead home. There are about 35 600 deceased Australian soldiers buried in more than 50 cemeteries in France and Belgium. There are another 2848 lying underground at Gallipoli and others again buried in Egypt and Palestine. Additionally, the Australian War Memorial at Villers-Bretonneux in France provides the names of a further 10 892 men killed on the Western Front whose bodies were not recovered. A vast collective sadness flowed across the land, taking up residence in most of its homes. Historian Michael McKernan aptly named these after-war decades 'The Grey Years'.

Returned soldiers often found great difficulty in adapting back into civilian life. They and the society they re-entered had both been harshly transformed. The soldiers' warfront sufferings were unimaginable to civilians. Communication broke down. Marriages often dissolved in quarrels and violence. Crime rates rose. Fears were expressed that city-gatherings of ex-soldiers could lead to serious disturbances – and they often did. The veterans' mood was volatile.

The Soldier Settlement Scheme, one of the central plans of the repatriation program, therefore attempted to remove returnees from urban areas into more dispersed agricultural regions. Unfortunately, it was a poorly conceived and administered venture. Men carrying the scars of war often made poor farmers and the land was often badly chosen. Debts accumulated and most of the farms failed with many tragic results. Sadly, this was one war for which there were few happy endings.

Activity **7.14**

1   Explain why returned soldiers found it difficult to cope in post-war Australia.

2   Identify the Australian public's reactions to its returned men.

3   Discuss how important a role grief played in the years after World War I.

HISTORICAL FACT

The cost of annual war pensions in 1931 was £8 million (or around $1600 million in today's currency). This was almost equal to half the entire Commonwealth budget when the war began.

Growth of returned soldier organisations

From mid 1916, Australian returned soldiers began organising to defend their rights and future welfare. The first groups emerged from soldiers' club rooms in many Australian cities, which were havens for the wounded and invalided men. Here they met with others who had shared similar experiences and truly understood what warfare meant. As members of one such organisation, the Returned Soldiers Labor League, stated: 'The undying gratitude which the returned man has earned is gratitude and little more'.

Between 1916 and 1919, a range of such groups was established, spreading over the entire political spectrum. On the conservative right were such bodies as the Returned Soldiers and Patriots National League. Further to the left, they included the Returned Soldiers Anti-Conscription League and the Australian Comrades of War. From this confusion of contesting groups, the organisation we know today as the RSL (Returned & Services League) eventually emerged, by around October 1918, as the official association representing returned men. The RSL enjoyed official endorsement and funding, and had the advantage of recruiting members on the returning troop ships before they docked in Australia.

Although the RSL depicted itself as a non-political organisation that defended the welfare needs of veterans, it tended to adopt a distinct range of positions. It strongly supported the British Empire, the White Australia Policy and an active defence policy. It maintained a forceful anti-German position for a considerable time and tended to regard all non-British 'aliens' with suspicion. It also opposed militant trade unions and left-wing activists. The RSL declared its intention to 'resist revolution by force'. Thus, it was a strong advocate of conservative values and a vigilant defender of the **status quo**.

status quo the existing state of things

During 1919, the RSL was attracting ex-soldiers at the rate of a thousand per week, and by year's end had reached a strength of 150 000 members. During the 1920s, however, its numbers went into serious decline, bottoming out at around 24 000 in 1924 – or only 9 per cent of returned men. Feelings of disillusionment and a general turning against warfare during the 1920s may have had much to do with this. Numbers slowly recovered as Australian politicians began actively promoting ANZAC Day in a disunited
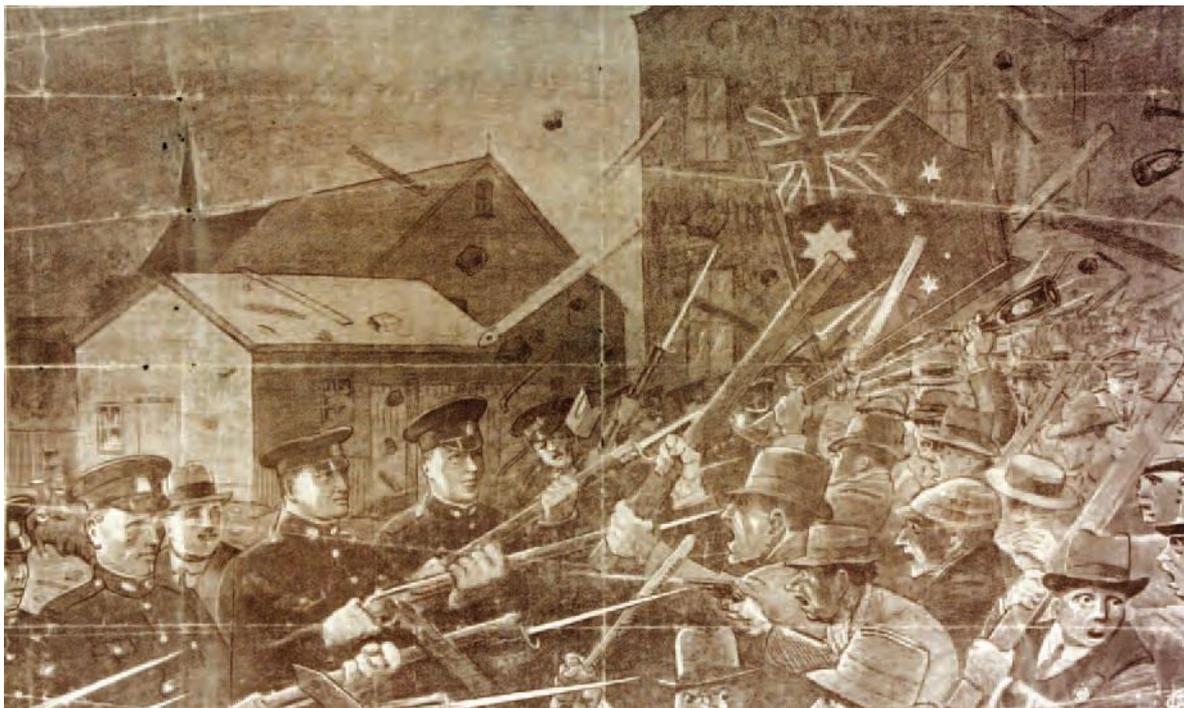
Source 7.40 Riotous returned soldiers face a police bayonet line outside the Russian Hall in Merivale Street, South Brisbane on 24 March 1919. There were many injuries in this violent encounter, prompted by anti-Russian feeling.

society. Membership rose from about 50 000 in 1930 to almost 80 000 in 1936. The RSL badge became a powerful symbol of political pressure, and was stronger than that of similar veterans' groups in the other Allied nations.

Activity 7.15

1   Outline why returned soldiers felt the need to band together.

2   Explain how the RSL emerged as the sole returned soldiers' league.

3   Identify the ways the RSL supported the needs and demands of war veterans.

4   Describe what other values the RSL supported.

5   Discuss the Red Flag Riots.

6   Describe the role returned soldiers played in these disturbances.

7   Recall why RSL membership declined in the 1920s.

How ANZAC Day began

Queensland was called 'the most disloyal state' during the war by the Commonwealth authorities. Yet it was here that the idea to commemorate the Gallipoli landings of April 1915 as 'ANZAC Day' began. It was the brainchild of Thomas Augustus Ryan, the son of a Bathurst grazier. He spoke of it to the State Recruiting Committee in late 1915. Ryan's only son, Gus, was fighting with the 5th Light Horse at Gallipoli. It was believed that marking the event with church services, a street march and patriotic speeches might establish 'a solemn day in memory of the baptism of blood'. It might also encourage more men to enlist.

Evacuation from Gallipoli began on 18 December 1915 and ended on 8 January 1916. Several days later, a meeting in Brisbane, prompted by Ryan's suggestion, was attended by Queensland's Governor, the Premier, the Inspector-General of Commonwealth Forces, the Mayor of Brisbane and other leading opinion-makers. It was here decided that 'the heroic conduct of our gallant Queensland troops' should receive 'undying fame'. The Queensland 9th Brigade had been the first ashore at ANZAC Cove. Follow-up meetings by educators and Empire loyalists, with

Source 7.41 ANZAC troops march through London crowds to Westminster Abbey on 25 April 1916, the first ANZAC Day.

Queensland's Labor Premier acting as Chairman, organised the details, including a complementary ceremony to be held at Westminster Abbey in London, and invited other Australian states to join the commemoration.

After church services on the morning of 25 April 1916, 50 000 Brisbane citizens attended the first ANZAC Day march. The *Brisbane Courier* said it was the biggest crowd ever assembled in the metropolis. The surging mass of people was 'almost uncontrollable' at the saluting base in front of the General Post Office and several women fainted in the crush. The *Daily Standard* newspaper added that many people were 'dressed in mourning' and carried 'some cherished relic … associated with one or another of those sleeping at Gallipoli'. Around 5000 purchased the first ANZAC Day badges, depicting the winged lion of St Mark ('a symbol of super-human strength') along with the Queensland crest and motto, 'Brave yet Faithful'.

Around 6430 soldiers marched that day, most of whom were fresh recruits. They were greeted with hearty cheering, but this fell away to a silent hush as the 'pathetic figures' of wounded and disabled returned men who could not walk were carried from 20 motor cars onto the saluting platform. Speakers claimed that the 'greatest military event in Australian history' had allowed the nation 'to find its soul'.

Meetings that evening and over subsequent days were devoted to encouraging more able-bodied men to enlist. The battle of Fromelles was only three months away. In Sydney, around 700 recruits staged an unauthorised march, watched by huge crowds at the Domain. Tasmania did not mark the occasion until three days later. In this manner, ANZAC Day began in Australia. Its future history was to be a most variable one.

Research **7.7**

Undertake newspaper research via the National Library newspaper collections online (www.cambridge.edu.au/history9weblinks) and build a picture of how the first ANZAC Day in 1916 was commemorated in your state or territory.

Developing the ANZAC legend

The 'spirit of ANZAC' is said to provide the foundational cement for Australian nationalism. Yet the commemoration itself did not become a single national event until 1930, 15 years after the ANZAC Cove landing. Before this time, ANZAC Day was differently observed in the various states. In some, such as Western Australia, it was a holiday. In Queensland, it was not. Certain states allowed other entertainments, including racing and gambling, on the day. Other states enforced a more solemn, religious-like observance.

In 1927, after Melbourne had declared a holiday on the day, 28 000 people joined its march, but in Sydney only 4000 paraded, while 1600 marched in Perth. It was only when state and federal politicians and church leaders joined the RSL in promoting the occasion nationally in the late 1920s that it emerged as a leading national day. ANZAC Day, therefore, was arguably as much a political creation as a spontaneous people's event.

HISTORICAL FACT

In 1922, the RSL opposed the burial of an 'Unknown Soldier' in Australia, arguing that 'the sentiment of the Empire was expressed in the burial in London'. An Australian 'Unknown Soldier' was not buried at the Australian War Memorial's Hall of Memory until November 1993.

ANZAC Day during the 1930s settled into a regular pattern of morning church services followed by a solemn march, and then an afternoon of drinking, sporting events and **two-up** games – much as soldiers had behaved at leisure on the Western Front. In 1938, for instance, ex-soldiers played two-up in the main streets of Sydney. They danced, sang wartime songs, staged mock marches and directed traffic.

two-up a gambling game played with two pennies, with bets placed on a showing of two 'heads' or two 'tails' when the coins land after being tossed in the air

World War II (known as 'the Good War') increased ANZAC Day's popularity, but by the late 1950s it was again being criticised for promoting military values and drunkenness. This was dramatically shown in Alan Seymour's 1960 play, *The One Day of the Year*, which caused great controversy. Indifference and hostility grew during the Vietnam War years, as the march became a focus for anti-war protests. In 1973, the Australian Labor Party even discussed changing the ANZAC Day format into a celebration of peace. With civilian casualties again mounting in global warfare, feminists attempted to join the march in the early 1980s to remember the female victims of war, leading to clashes and arrests.

Since 1990, however, when Prime Minister Bob Hawke visited Ari Burnu cemetery at Gallipoli, ANZAC Day has been revitalised, with annual pilgrimages to ANZAC Cove and the Western Front. Following this, Prime Minister Paul Keating suggested in 1993 that the 1942 Kokoda campaign in New Guinea, where Australians fought more to defend their homeland than for Britain, should be revered above Gallipoli. Finally, in the years of the Iraq and Afghanistan wars, both Liberal Prime Minister John Howard and Labor Prime Minister Kevin Rudd began recasting the mood of ANZAC Day less as one of commemoration of soldier sacrifice and regret about war's cruelties and more as one about celebrating Australia's long military tradition. Each generation, it seems, moulds the ANZAC story to its immediate needs.

Source 7.42 2011 ANZAC Day march in Melbourne

Times gone by ...

They wus singin' on the troopship, they wus singin' in the
train;

When they left their land be'ind them they wus shoutin' a
refrain,

And I'll bet they 'ave a chorus, gay and glad in greetin'
for us,

When this bit of scrappin's over and they lob back 'ome
again …

And the blokes that ain't returnin' – blokes that's paid
the biggest price,

They go singin', singin', singin' to the gates uv Paradise.

Source 7.43 *The Moods of Ginger Mick* by CJ Dennis (Sydney: Angus and Robertson, 1916)

1 Identify the emotion that this verse conjures up in the first
two lines.
2 Investigate the word 'scrappin'' and discuss whether you
think it is an adequate description of war.
3 Interpret the line 'They go singin', singin', singin' to the
gates uv Paradise'.

Chapter summary

- World War I was caused by national rivalries in Europe being set on a rapid collision course after an assassination in Bosnia upset the European balance of power.

- Britain was the most reluctant of the European powers to engage in the war, but once it did so, its involvement determined Australia's participation, largely because Australia was a loyal member of the British Empire and therefore automatically committed itself to fight alongside Britain.

- Australian soldiers served with distinction on fighting fronts in Turkey, Europe and the Middle East. Australia's baptism in this war, the Gallipoli campaign, was a very badly judged military venture that ended in defeat and retreat. Australian troops, in greater numbers, then engaged in the destructive campaigns of 1916 and 1917 on the Western Front, again with little overall military success. They were instrumental, however, in the crucial battles that halted the German advance and turned the tide of the war in Europe in mid 1918.

The cavalry successes of the Australian Light Horse in the Middle East were similarly central to the victorious Allied campaigns in Palestine in 1917–18.

- Casualties were extremely high and unprecedented, producing intense grief and dislocation on the homefront. This was the case for all the combatant countries. Australia's casualty rate was high, especially as it experienced no civilian deaths due to war combat and did not institute military conscription, which was unique among the fighting nations.

- War's end revealed a battered and broken nation in much need of mending – a role that the ANZAC legend was eventually employed to play. The turmoil of war created enormous divisions on the Australian homefront. Industrial, political and ethnic struggles were all marked outcomes of war involvement, making Australia by 1919 a far more divided country than it had been in 1914 when the war began.

End of chapter questions

Multiple choice

1   Australia became involved in World War I because:
   A   it was directly threatened by Germany and Austria
   B   the Australian people voted to fight
   C   Britain demanded that Australia contribute troops
   D   Australia was a loyal part of the British Empire

2   Australian military conscription for overseas service was:
   A   adopted in 1917
   B   rejected by two national referenda in 1916 and 1917
   C   imposed on all eligible males by the *War Precautions Act* in 1916
   D   rejected in 1916 by popular vote but accepted in 1917 and implemented in 1918

3   Australia's war casualties, as a proportion of the overall population, were:
   A   the highest of all the fighting nations
   B   the highest in the British Empire

   C   lower than those of Britain or New Zealand
   D   higher than those of Germany or France

4   Australian and New Zealand's soldiers (ANZACs) at Gallipoli:
   A   were a small section of a large Allied invasion force from many nations
   B   were triumphant in the military campaign
   C   suffered the highest casualty rate in the campaign
   D   suffered higher casualties than ANZACs at the Western Front

5   On the Australian homefront the war produced:
   A   a more divided society
   B   a more united society
   C   a more tolerant society
   D   a wealthier society

Short answer

1 Why did World War I break out?

2 Outline which nations were involved in the war and which side they were on.

Source analysis

Anthony Splivalo was a young Dalmatian migrant living in Boulder-Kalgoorlie when the war broke out. He was interned on Rottnest Island and at Holdsworthy Internment Camp near Sydney. After the war, he left Australia for California, driven out, he writes, by 'the anti-foreigner feeling':

> Soon the policy of internment was extended … Peaceful and law-abiding Dalmatians and other Slavs, working in the mines or in the bush, were rounded up and sent to Rottnest Island under armed guard …
>
> Suddenly uniformed Australian soldiers with rifles and fixed bayonets appeared as if from nowhere. We were ordered … into columns of fours, Australian guards swiftly taking their position alongside … So, flanked by armed men with cold eyes, we trudged with heavy step …. Thus, just a few months before my seventeenth birthday, I became Western Australia's youngest prisoner of war … Around me soldiers, rifles, bayonets, cartridge belts and awful military officiality.
>
> … Men, women and children lined the street to watch us pass. They stood silently, showing no enmity, looking puzzled as if unable to piece things together …
>
> At Fremantle … a young fellow in a white shirt leaned over the railing and called out to us 'Ah ha! We've got you now!' And he made a sucking noise of satisfaction, through one corner of his mouth.
>
> 'We've got you now!' I have always remembered those words.

Source 7.44 A. Splivalo, *The Home Fires* (Fremantle: Fremantle Arts Centre Press, 1982, pp. 50, 57–8, 60)

3 Who was William Morris Hughes and what role did he play in Australia's war effort?

4 To what degree did the role and situation of Australian women change due to the war?

5 Discuss what happened on the first ANZAC Day in 1916.

Read through the extract carefully and answer the following questions:

1 Explain 'the policy of internment' during World War I.

2 Where is Rottnest Island and what happened there during the war?

3 Who were 'the Dalmatians' and 'the Slavs'?

4 Why were soldiers with rifles and bayonets rounding them up?

5 Reflect what you think Splivalo means by the phrase, 'awful military officiality'.

6 What were the reactions of civilian onlookers to this scene – confusion, anger, apathy, support?

7 Why did Splivalo always remember the words of the 'young fellow in a white shirt' at Fremantle?

8 Interpret Splivalo's phrase 'anti-foreigner feeling'?

Extended response

Examine in closer detail the experience of Australian troops on different warfronts. Why does Australia remember the Gallipoli campaign more intently than what happened in other Australian troop campaigns in this war? What role, for instance, did Australian soldiers play in war's outcomes in Palestine in 1917–18 and on the Western Front in 1918? Construct a parallel account of the three warfronts (in Turkey, Palestine and Europe) and assess the degree of military success, sacrifice and failure in each campaign.

Glossary

1848 revolution an uprising in the Netherlands by middle-class people who wanted more political rights

absolute monarchy political system in which monarchs have complete power, including over armed forces

age of consent the minimum age at which it is legal for a person to have sexual intercourse

amphibious land forces that arrive by sea

animism the belief that spirits exist in inanimate objects, including plants, mountains and weather phenomena

anti-colonialism a belief that a state or country should be independent, and not under the rule of another country

anti-racism opposition to any form of racism

anti-semitism prejudice, hatred and/or violence directed against Jewish people

arbitration settling disputes by using an independent judge

aristocracy a privileged upper class of hereditary nobles

Armageddon from the Bible, the last battle between good and evil

armaments military weapons and equipment

armistice ending hostilities by mutual agreement

attrition the wearing down of enemy numbers by constant attack

bannermen a professional military group loyal to the Chinese Emperor, in which positions were inherited by family members

bends, the a condition divers can acquire by surfacing too quickly from deep water

benevolent asylum an institution used to house impoverished families who could not support themselves

bereavement the deprivation of relations and friends through death

bicameral parliament a parliament consisting of two houses or chambers

blockade isolation of an area by hostile ships or forces in order to prevent the entrance and exit of traffic and commerce

bluestocking an insulting term for women who pursued higher learning in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries

bourgeoisie capitalist owners and rulers

boycott the refusal to buy goods, usually for political reasons

British Raj British rule in India

canal an artificial waterway large enough for boats to travel upon

capitalism an economic system based on private ownership and free-market enterprise

capitalists business people who seek profit by using others' labour

carding the process of combing raw wool or cotton to make it smoother and to remove impurities

cash crops crops grown for sale, rather than to feed farmers or their stock

casualties those wounded or killed in war

catalyst a person or thing precipitating a change

cavalry soldiers who fight on horseback

Chartism a social movement of people committed to the *People's Charter*, a set of basic political claims, including the right to vote

chattel a movable property or slave

cochineal a scarlet dye made from the cochineal insect

cohong a guild or group of 13 merchants who were authorised by the Emperor to have a monopoly over trade, especially tea and silk, with the West

collectivism an outlook that places the interests of individuals as subordinate to the group for the benefit of all

colonial system arrangements made for the successful operation of colonies

colony a settlement formed in conquered territory

commodity an item that is bought or sold, especially a raw material or something that is manufactured, for which there is a commercial demand

conciliation establishing goodwill

Confucianism a philosophical system of ethics based on the teachings of Confucius (551–479 BCE)

conscript a person who is enrolled for compulsory military service

conscription compulsory enlistment for military service

contestability the state when particular interpretations about the past are open to debate; for example, as a result of a lack of evidence or different perspectives

coolies an insulting term for Indian and Chinese indentured workers in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries

daimyo feudal Japanese lords, roughly equivalent to medieval European dukes or earls

demobilisation disbanding troops back into civilian life

depot a station for assembling recruits

diaspora the forced or voluntary movement of people from their homeland to new regions

discriminatory showing an unfair bias or prejudice

dispossession taking a people's land or dislodging or removing them from their territory

diversion a strategy designed to divert an enemy's attention

domestic system a system of production in houses, cottages and villages, using hand-operated tools

dripping fat melted from roast meat and used for cooking or as a spread on bread or damper

drover a person who drives a herd of animals long distances

egalitarianism the idea that everyone should have equal rights and opportunities

Eight Regent Ministers the ministers entrusted by Xianfeng Emperor before his death to guide his son when he assumed the throne

emancipists convicts who had served their term of imprisonment and became free members of colonial society

embarkation going on board a ship or plane

Enlightenment a philosophical movement that placed emphasis on reason rather than tradition and gave rise to many progressive ideas

entrepreneur one who undertakes an enterprise with a chance of profit or loss

equilibrium achieving a state of balance

ethnic of a social group with a common national or cultural heritage

eugenicist a person who wants to improve natural characteristics by controlled breeding

eulogy a speech praising a person, usually given at their funeral

exemption freedom from an imposition

extra territoriality an exemption to local law; typically as a result of diplomatic negotiations

factory system a system where many workers gather in a factory to operate large-scale machinery

female infanticide the killing of female infants

feminism advocacy for the belief that men and women are equals and should enjoy all the same rights

feminist a person who believes that women and men are equals and should enjoy all the same rights

fire-stick farming environmental management to create regeneration and grasslands by controlled burning

foot-binding the painful practice of tightly binding the feet of young women, breaking the foot bones to stop their feet from growing; it was seen to make the women beautiful, dainty and feminine

fossil fuels non-renewable fuels formed by geological pressure over a long time span

furlough military leave of absence

girmit a term for an Indian indentured labourer; derived from the word 'agreement'

global warming a rise in the Earth's average temperature due to the atmosphere's inability to release heat because of the growth of greenhouse gas emissions

governess a female teacher, usually teaching children in a private house

Grand Canal begun in 486 BCE, it is the longest artificial waterway in the world and was crucial for transportation of goods and people in China

greenhouse gases gases such as carbon dioxide that contribute to the insulating effect of the Earth's atmosphere

Han Chinese the largest ethnic group in China

hierarchy a system of organisation in which individuals or groups are ranked one above the other

Hindus members of India's major religion, which involves the worship of many gods and a belief in reincarnation

hoeing using a long-handled tool to dig the earth

homogeneous similar or of the same type

howitzer a big gun for the high-angle firing of shells

Hun an offensive term for a German person

imperialism the domination of one or more nations by another, which seeks to use the wealth and people of the dominated nation for its own interests

incapacitated permanently injured

indentured labour a system in which workers enter contracts to perform labour at reduced wages for a certain period of time, usually at a place far from their home

Indigenous Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

indigenous native to, or belonging to, a particular land or region

individualism an outlook that emphasises the rights and interests of individuals

infantry soldiers who fight on foot

infrastructure structures (for example, roads, railway lines and canals) needed for the operation of a particular service

intoxicants alcoholic drinks

intrigues secret and underhand schemes

investment the committment of money or captial with the aim of gaining a profitable return

inviolable not to be injured or disturbed

iron gangs parties of convict workers undergoing further punishment by being chained together

irregulars troops who do not belong to the regular army

Islam a religion based upon belief in one God of whom Muhammad is the chief and last prophet

junks flat-bottomed Chinese ships

kanaka a disparaging term for a South Sea Islander brought to Australia to work; the word is derived from them Melanesian term *kanak*, meaning 'person'

kow-tow to kneel and bow, touching one's forehead to the ground

land fill the disposal of waste by burial

lithography the process of making a drawing or design on a stone or metal plate, so that multiple impressions in ink can be taken from it

loom a machine on which thread is woven into cloth

lugger small sailing boat with two or three masts used for pearling or fishing near the coast

manhood suffrage the right of all adult men to vote in parliamentary elections

mechanisation the invention and use of machines for farming, production and transport

merchant a person who buys and sells goods

merchant ships ships designed and used for commercial purposes (trading, buying and selling)

militia a military force made up of ordinary citizens rather than highly trained solidiers

missionaries people sent to spread a particular religious faith in another country

mortality rate the measure of total deaths in relation to a total population

Mughal emperors Muslim rulers who were in power in India from around 1525 to 1857

muster gathering together a group of people to check their identity against a list or roll

mutiny open revolt by soldiers or sailors against their officers

nationalism devotion to national identity or patriotism

neutrality not helping or supporting either of the opposing sides

Opium Wars wars in 1839–42 and 1856–60 between China and the British Empire over trade and diplomatic relations

outside daimyo daimyo (lords) whose lands were distant from Edo, the Japanese capital

Owenites the term given to those who followed Robert Owen's movement of an idealistic, socialist society

pacifist a person who believes that war and violence are morally unjustifiable

pandemic infectious disease that spreads over a large area of the world

pastoralism the raising of sheep and cattle

pastoralists people who run sheep and cattle on large landholdings

patent a legal document protecting the rights of an inventor to produce and to sell his or her invention

paupers very poor people

peerage a system of hereditary noble ranks, such as duke, duchess, count and countess

penal colony a colony that serves as a prison

pie-melon jam jam made from tasteless melons that grew plentifully in paddocks

pilgrimage a religious journey to a sacred place

pogrom a violent mob attack, often on Jewish people, that may be government-sanctioned

polarise to divide into two opposing groups

polygamy having more than one wife at a time

privation lack of life's necessities

propaganda the communication of a message to either change another's mind to or reinforce an existing idea that agrees with that of the propagator

pseudonym a false name used by writers to hide their real identity

Quaker a member of a Christian group, the Society of Friends, often involved in humanitarian campaigns and opposed to war

real of eight an old silver coin, about 38 millimetres in diameter; also known as the Spanish dollar

real wages the purchasing power of earnings relative to prices

referenda plural of 'referendum'; that is, taking a political question to the electorate to get a direct decision from voters

regent a person who rules on behalf of a monarch who is too young or ill to take the throne

rehabilitate restore to normal life

repatriate to send someone back to their country of origin

restricted property franchise an electoral system where voting is restricted to people with a substantial amount of property

rural of the countryside

samurai the hereditary warrior class of Japan

Sanskrit ancient language of India

satire the humorous use of irony, exaggeration or sarcasm to undermine a person or situation

schism division of one group into opposing parties

Scottish Enlightenment refers to a group of Scottish thinkers (Adam Smith, David Hume etc.) who espoused the ideas of the Enlightenment

secular non-religious

servile slave-like

settler colony a colony developed by free individuals, usually with the protection and assistance of a parent government

Shintoism an ancient Japanese religion involving worship of ancestors and nature

shogun the military dictator of Japan

social Darwinism idea that only the 'fittest' individuals or nations or races survive

socialism a political idealogoy based on shared contributions to and shared benefits from society and the economy

spindle a circular rod on which raw wool is twisted and formed into a thread

squatter an Australian settler who ran sheep or cattle on large tracts of land without the permission of the government

stagflation inflation coupled with high unemployment and stagnant economic growth

stalemate a situation where opposing forces are deadlocked, so no winner is possible

standard of living a measure of how well people live, with regard to their diet, housing, education and health

status quo the existing state of things

suffrage the right to vote in political elections

sultanate a territory ruled by an Islamic leader (sultan)

sustainability the ability to replace resources as we consume them

Taiping Rebellion a civil war across south China in 1850–64 led by Hong Xiuquan

tallow animal fat that is melted down to make soap and candles

tariffs government taxes charged on imported or exported goods

trade unions organisations of workers joining together in order to achieve common goals such as better wages or working conditions

treason the betrayal of one's country, particularly by trying to kill a national leader or overthrow a government

trench foot a painful destruction of foot tissue caused by continual immersion in cold water or mud

two-up a gambling game played with two pennies, with bets placed on a showing of two 'heads' or two 'tails' when the coins land after being tossed in the air

unequal treaties treaties that are far more favourable to one country than the other; they are often the result of a military threat or defeat

unfree labour a system in which labourers are compelled to work and are not paid wages

urbanisation the growth of cities

vassal state a state that pays tribute, either monetarily or militarily

veteran returned soldier

xenophobia having a hatred or fear of foreigners or foreign cultures and customs

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