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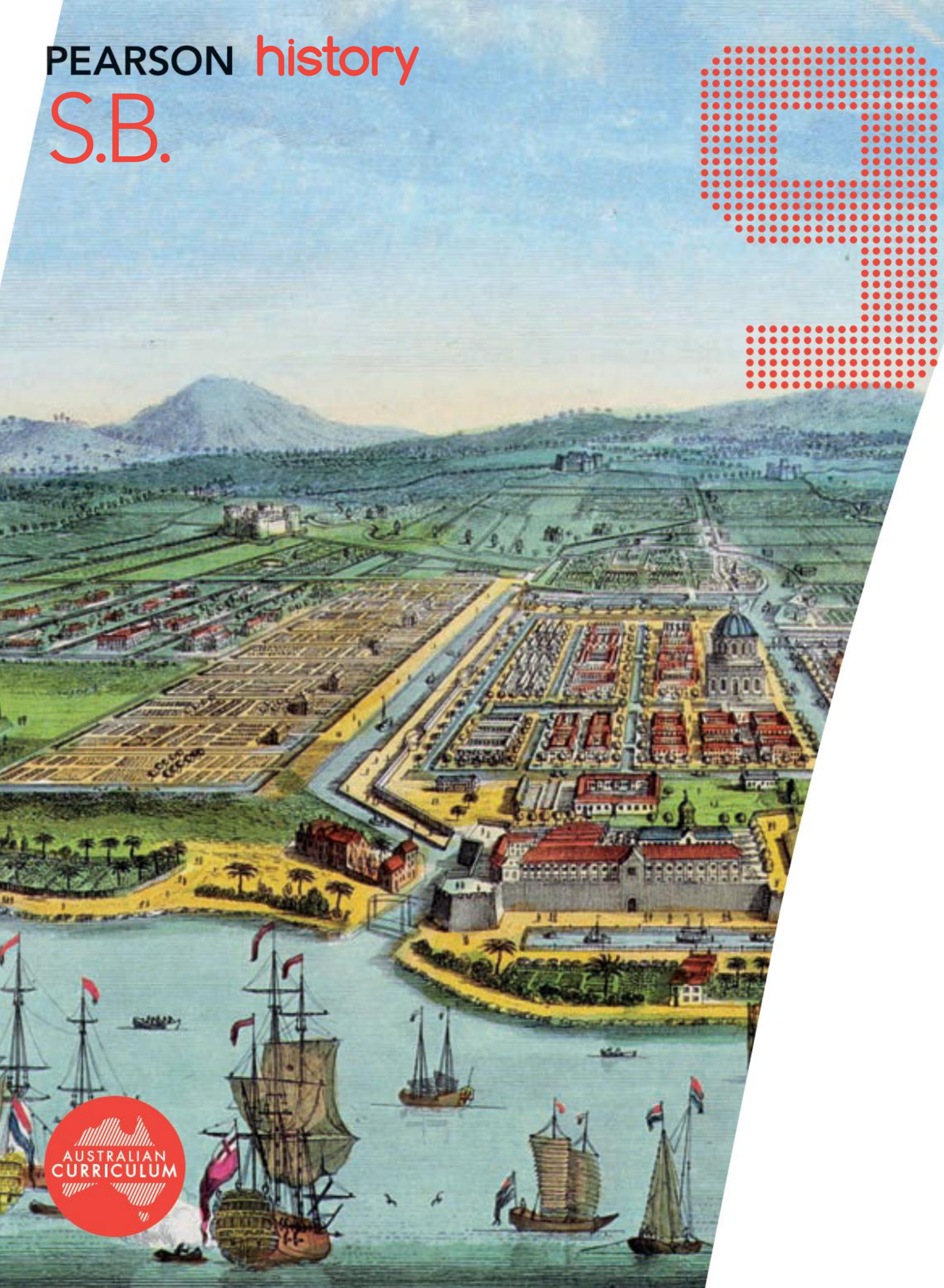

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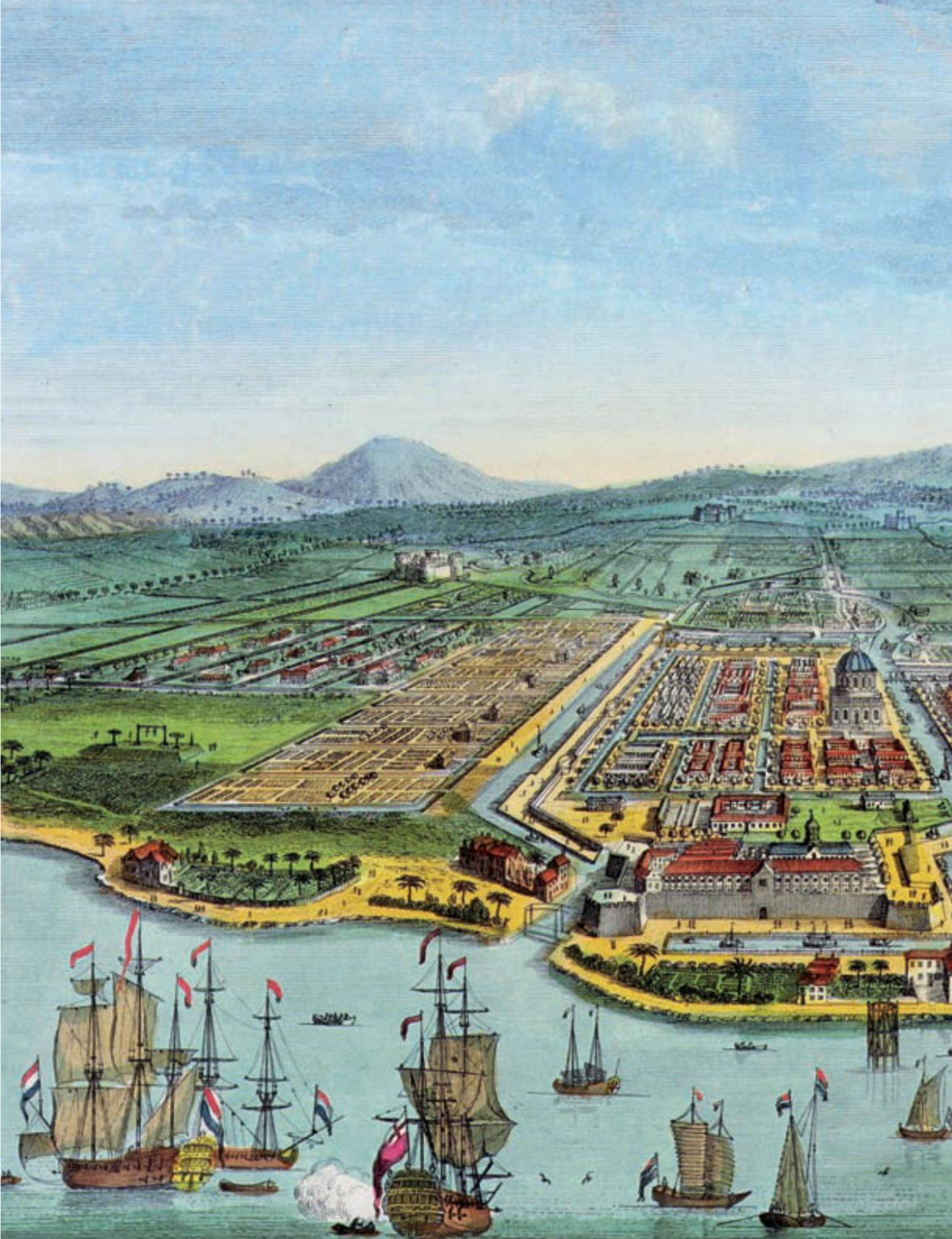

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CONTENTS

PEARSON HISTORY (for teachers) viii
HOW TO USE THIS BOOK (for teachers) x
HISTORY SKILLS TOOLBOX (for students) xii

OVERVIEW: THE MAKING OF A MODERN WORLD

CHAPTER 1 THE MAKING OF A MODERN WORLD 2

UNIT 1 Introducing the birth of a modern world 4
UNIT 2 The nature and extent of the movement of peoples 8
UNIT 3 The Industrial Age 13
UNIT 4 European imperialism 19
UNIT 5 Emergence of economic, social and political ideas 25
UNIT 6 Source study: The changing range of useful sources 31

DEPTH STUDY 1: MAKING A BETTER WORLD?

CHAPTER 2 PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS 36

UNIT 1 Snapshot 1750–1918 38
UNIT 2 The emergence of and key ideas in capitalism 41
UNIT 3 The emergence of and key ideas in socialism and trade unionism 45
UNIT 4 The emergence of and key ideas in imperialism 48
UNIT 5 The emergence of and key ideas in Chartism 52
UNIT 6 The emergence of and key ideas in nationalism and social Darwinism 55
UNIT 7 The emergence of and key ideas in egalitarianism 59
UNIT 8 Source study: Australian egalitarianism: Myth or reality? 60
UNIT 9 Connections to … Protest in an ever-changing world 62
INQUIRY TASKS 65

CHAPTER 3 THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION 68

UNIT 1 Snapshot 1750–1914 70
UNIT 2 Technological innovations that led to the Industrial Revolution 72
UNIT 3 Conditions that influenced the industrialisation of Britain and Australia 78
UNIT 4 Population movements and changing settlement patterns during the Industrial Revolution 84
UNIT 5 Source study: Changes to cities and landscapes: The Eiffel Tower 86
UNIT 6 The experiences of men, women and children 88
UNIT 7 Source study: Investigating the changes in working conditions 90
UNIT 8 Connections to … The short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution 94
INQUIRY TASKS 99

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 4 MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES ... 102

UNIT 1 Snapshot 1750–1901 ... 104
UNIT 2 The Industrial Revolution and the slave trade ... 108
UNIT 3 The Industrial Revolution and convict transportation ... 110
UNIT 4 The Industrial Revolution and emigration ... 112
UNIT 5 Source study: The experience of slaves ... 114
UNIT 6 The experience of convicts ... 118
UNIT 7 The experience of free settlers ... 120
UNIT 8 Changes in the way of life: The convicts ... 123
UNIT 9 Changes in the way of life: The frontier ... 126
UNIT 10 The British in Australia and the effect on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People ... 130
UNIT 11 Source study: Documenting Queensland ... 132
UNIT 12 Connections to … The short- and long-term impacts of the movements of people ... 136
INQUIRY TASKS ... 139

DEPTH STUDY 2: AUSTRALIA AND ASIA

CHAPTER 5 ASIA AND THE WORLD ... 142

UNIT 1 Snapshot 1750–1918 ... 144
UNIT 2 Introducing China ... 146
UNIT 3 Change and continuity in China ... 150
UNIT 4 A key event in Chinese society: The Boxer Rebellion ... 157
UNIT 5 Introducing Japan ... 160
UNIT 6 Change and continuity in Japan ... 164
UNIT 7 A key event in Japanese society: War with China ... 168
UNIT 8 Introducing India ... 170
UNIT 9 Change and continuity in India ... 175
UNIT 10 A key event in Indian society: Response to British rule ... 180
UNIT 11 Introducing the Dutch East Indies ... 181
UNIT 12 Change and continuity in the Dutch East Indies ... 184
UNIT 13 A key event in the Dutch East Indies: Wars of resistance ... 186
UNIT 14 Source study: Asian cultural influences ... 187
UNIT 15 Connections to … The importance of trade between Asia and Australia ... 191
INQUIRY TASKS ... 192

CHAPTER 6 MAKING A NATION 194
UNIT 1 Snapshot 1750–1918 196
UNIT 2 The extension of settlement 200
UNIT 3 The experience of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People 208
UNIT 4 Source study: The spread of European disease: The smallpox outbreak of 1789 216
UNIT 5 The experience of non-Europeans in Australia before 1900 219
UNIT 6 Living and working conditions in Australia at the turn of the twentieth century 225
UNIT 7 Key events: The development of Australian democracy 231
UNIT 8 Government policies and the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's response 241
UNIT 9 Source study: Celebrating the birth of a nation 247
UNIT 10 Key legislation that shaped Australia 250
UNIT 11 Connections to … The republic debate 254
INQUIRY TASKS 257

DEPTH STUDY 3: WORLD WAR I

CHAPTER 7 WORLD WAR I 260
UNIT 1 Snapshot 1914–1918 262
UNIT 2 Causes of the war 264
UNIT 3 The war in Europe 270
UNIT 4 The Gallipoli campaign 276
UNIT 5 Other theatres of war 281
UNIT 6 The experience of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People during World War I 283
UNIT 7 Fighting and recording the war 289
UNIT 8 Source study: Battle of Mont St Quentin 292
UNIT 9 The impact of World War I on Australia: The home front 295
UNIT 10 The impact of World War I on Australia: Conscription 301
UNIT 11 The impact of World War I: Ending and counting the cost of the war 304
UNIT 12 The commemoration of World War I 307
UNIT 13 Connections to … Survivors of the war 310
INQUIRY TASKS 313

GLOSSARY 316
INDEX 323

PEARSON history

Student Book

Written specifically to meet the requirements of the Australian Curriculum, the student book acts as a guide for both student and teacher. It features:

- topics built around inquiry-based learning and Bloom's Revised Taxonomy
- a dedicated introduction to history skills through the History Skills Toolbox
- skills also built into topics
- Australian Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander content written by the National Museum of Australia*.

national museum australia

Activity Book

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

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

Teacher Companion

The teacher companion is the teacher's book. Lesson preparation and delivery becomes easy by linking student book pages to teaching and learning strategies. This teacher resource:

- creates explicit links between the student book and the Australian Curriculum
- contains solutions to student book and activity book learning activities.

AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM

* Content written by the National Museum of Australia:

Chapter 4, Unit 10: The British in Australia and the effect on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People

Chapter 4, Unit 11: Source study: Documenting Queensland

Chapter 6, Unit 3: The experience of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People

Chapter 6, Unit 8: Government policies and the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's response

Chapter 7, Unit 6: The experience of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People during World War I

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HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

PEARSON history 9 has been created for the Australian curriculum History course. It provides a fully integrated approach to teaching the two strands of Historical Knowledge and Understanding and Historical Skills. through both classroom learning and independent research and work, students will explore these key inquiry questions.

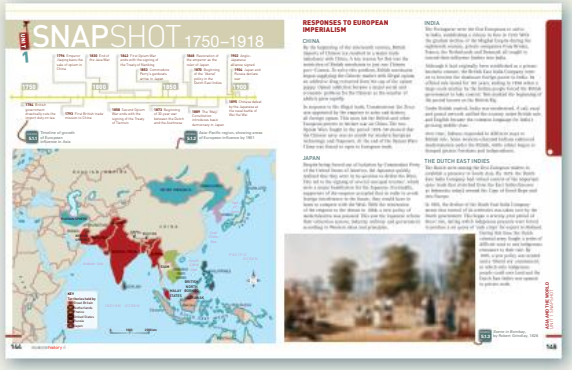
The student book consists of seven chapters, each built around key inquiry questions that can be examined as they are or amended to suit the needs of students. Students can also use these questions as a springboard for developing their own inquiry questions.

CHAPTER OPENER

Each chapter opens with student-focused inquiry-based questions on the chapter topic. A text-based introduction provides students with an understanding of the content to be studies. A dynamic image can be used as a springboard for pre-topic discussion and to develop students' skills in using source material.

SNAPSHOT UNIT

Chapters 2 to 7 begin with a 'Snapshot' unit, which includes a full-page map, a timeline of significant events and a brief contextual presentation of the topic.



UNIT CONTENT

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

SOURCE QUESTIONS

Throughout each chapter, many sources are accompanied by questions designed to promote students' understanding. Answers are provided in the Teacher Companion.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The learning activities have been written using Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. Answers require a range of responses that incorporate the requirements of the ACARA curriculum. The learning activities can be answered using the student book as a stimulus and also through further independent research. Answers are provided in the Teacher Companion.

SOURCE STUDY UNIT

The source study unit is designed to actively engage students in exploring a range of written and visual primary and secondary sources. Students are prompted to develop the important historical skill of examining evidence and to consider issues such as cause and consequence, historical perspectives, historical empathy and moral judgement, and the contestability of history.

CONNECTIONS TO ... UNIT

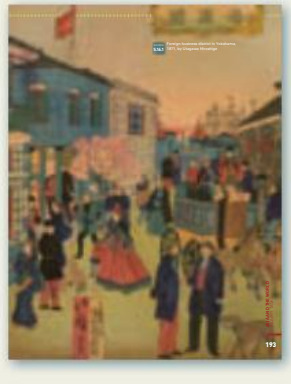
Within each chapter (except Chapter 1, 'The making of a modern world') is a 'Connections to ...' unit that draws connections between the society being studied and other societies or time periods. The 'Connections to ...' unit also includes a 'Time to think ...' section with thought-provoking discussion questions that are an excellent lead-in to the inquiry tasks.

INQUIRY TASKS

At the end of chapters 2 to 7 are sets of inquiry tasks, also based on Bloom's Revised Taxonomy. Inquiry tasks incorporate content from the whole chapter and appeal to a variety of learning styles. They can be set for further exploration and assignment work, for individuals, pairs or small groups. The tasks provide opportunities for further research and skills development as well as interdisciplinary and general capabilities learning.

CHAPTER CLOSER

Each chapter concludes with a dynamic image. This image can be used as a springboard for post-topic discussion and in developing skills related to using sources.



HISTORY SKILLS TOOLBOX

THE HISTORICAL INQUIRY PROCESS

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

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

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

1 PREPARE AND EXAMINE THE RESEARCH QUESTION

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

2 DEVELOP A RESEARCH PLAN

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

Include in your plan:

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

3 LOCATE AND SORT PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES

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

Here are some hints for researching and taking notes.

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

4 ANALYSE PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES

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

- their origin (where or who they originally came from, and when)
- their intention (the purpose or reason for the source material being produced)
- their context (the environment in which they were created)
- their effectiveness for your inquiry study.

You will need to challenge your source material, and explore the historical event in more detail by considering different perspectives on the topic. If researching a particular event or person, look for sources that present different views and consider the reason for these differences. Think about the motives for people's actions, the social rules and conventional beliefs of the time and how these may have affected the person or the event you are studying.

Landing at Kabakaul, by official war artist Charles Bryant, 1925, depicting the landing on New Britain in September 1914. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q Would you classify this as a primary or a secondary source? Why?

5 STRUCTURING A RESPONSE

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

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

THE PLAN

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

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

'Australia's imperishable record'—a World War I recruitment poster. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q Using ADAMANT, what can you determine when analysing and examining this source?

6 COMMUNICATING YOUR FINDINGS

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

You can communicate your findings by:

- oral presentation
- debate
- report
- essay.

ORAL PRESENTATION

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

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

Tips for successful oral presentations

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

DEBATE

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

The roles of each speaker are set out as follows:

- First Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):

  Introduces the topic by defining and clarifying the issue involved. Explains the team's thesis statement and briefly outlines the main arguments of the remaining speakers
- Second Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):
  - Begins by defending any attacks by the opposing team (called a rebuttal)
  - Explains one new argument to prove the team's case, accompanied by source evidence
  - Attacks the last point proposed by the opposing team
- Third Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):

  Follows the same directive as the Second Speaker
- Final Speaker (Affirmative or Negative):
  - Rebuts any important points made by the opposing team in the course of the debate
  - Provides an overview of all of their team's arguments and evidence
  - Ends with a strong message outlining the merits of the team's case.

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

REPORT

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

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

ESSAY

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

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

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

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

Some useful tips

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

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

Volunteers queuing to enlist outside Victoria Barracks, Sydney, 1914. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q As a primary source, what does this image tell a historian about Australia's decision to go to war?

MY ESSAY PLAN

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

SAMPLE ESSAY PLAN: WW1

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

7 EXAMINING EVIDENCE

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

Firstly, historians have to examine as much of the available evidence as is realistically possible.

Secondly, they must then ask questions of each source, such as:

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

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

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

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

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

- Evidence may be incomplete, contradictory, unavailable or missing.

Australian conscription referendum poster, 1916 or 1917

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

8 ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES

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

Bibliographical references should be included in two places:

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

Printed book and electronic sources

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

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

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

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

For example, for a multi-author book your bibliography entry would be presented like this:

Van Tol, D., et al., 2012, *Pearson History 9*, Pearson, Port Melbourne.

Web-based sources

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

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

For example:

National Museum of Australia. [Online]. Available: http://www.nma.gov.au/index.html [accessed: 25/09/2010]

> *... I am father of a soldier who gave his life for his King on the battlefield and thousands of coloured men enlisted in the A.I.F. They will doubtless do so again though on their return last time, that is those who survived, they were pushed back to the bush to resume the status of aboriginals ... the aboriginal now has no status, no rights, no land and ... nothing to fight for but the privilege of defending the land which was taken from him by the white race without compensation or even kindness.*

From a letter by activist William Cooper to the federal Minister of the Interior just before the outbreak of World War II. From *Forgotten Heroes: Aborigines at War from the Somme to Vietnam*, by Alick Jacomos and Derek Fowell, 1993

Q How would you reference this source in a bibliography?

The Tomb of the Unknown Soldier,
Australian War Memorial Building,
Canberra, Australia

CHAPTER

1

THE MAKING OF A MODERN WORLD

OVERVIEW

In the eighteenth century, a series of major changes in European society brought an end to the Middle Ages. New ideas about the nature of humankind and how society should be organised began to challenge age-old beliefs.

Scientific advances at that time laid the foundation for the Industrial Revolution. By the following century, huge factories had been established across Europe. Colonial empires were beginning to expand in search of raw materials and slave labour. In 1788 AD(CE), Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People first experienced the impact of the British colonisation of their lands.

THE MAKING OF A MODERN WORLD

SOURCE 1.0.1 Early eighteenth-century map of the world. Held at the Library of Congress, United States of America

UNIT 1

INTRODUCING THE BIRTH OF A MODERN WORLD

NEW IDEAS FOR A NEW AGE

Scientific discoveries such as those made by Isaac Newton in the seventeenth century AD(CE) gave rise to a new belief that human beings, through the use of reason, could explain the nature of the universe. By the eighteenth century this way of thinking had developed into an intellectual movement known as **the Enlightenment**. The thinkers of the Enlightenment all believed that because human beings were born with a capacity to reason, they could solve their own problems. This belief, referred to as **humanism**, cast doubt on age-old beliefs based on superstition, folklore or tradition.

DID YOU KNOW?

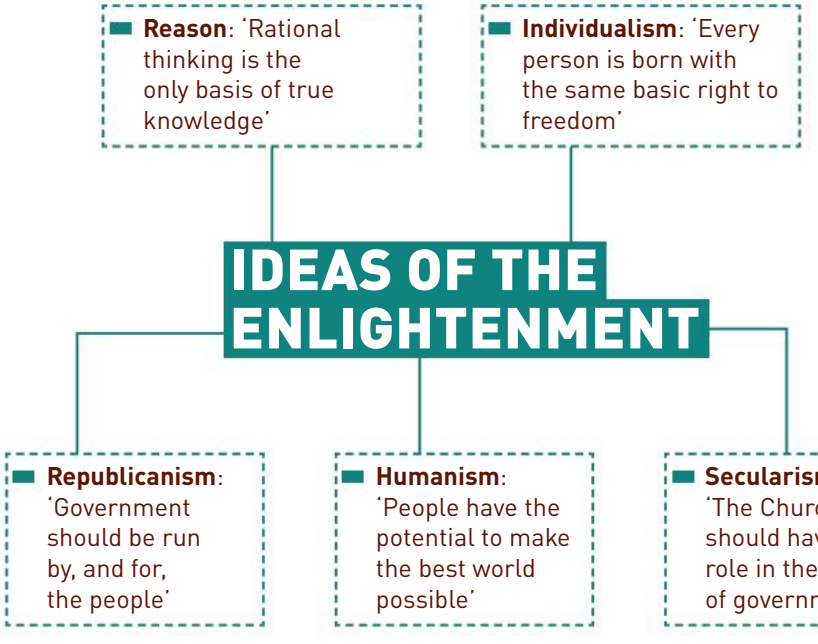
PEOPLE STILL BELIEVED IN VAMPIRES DURING THE ENLIGHTENMENT.

Belief in vampires was at its strongest at the time of the Enlightenment. Some people even went on vampire hunts and exhumed the dead bodies of supposed vampires! The philosopher Voltaire rejected the belief in vampires, declaring: 'What, is it in our eighteenth century that vampires exist?'

THE ENLIGHTENMENT

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

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



SOURCE 1.1.1 Enlightenment mind map

Q
1 Why do you think these ideas were a challenge to the Church?
2 How could these ideas have led to new opportunities for ordinary people?

INFLUENCE OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

As they looked at the eighteenth-century world around them, writers such as Voltaire, Burke, Rousseau and Diderot saw a society full of inequality and injustice. In France at the time, ordinary citizens had very few rights. King Louis XVI ruled in the interests of the Church and nobility, often creating laws for the benefit of this privileged few. His authority was confirmed by the Catholic Church, which for centuries had taught people to believe in the **divine right of kings**. This idea was criticised by Rousseau, who claimed in his book *The Social Contract* (published in 1762) that every person was born with the same rights to freedom and happiness, regardless of how rich or poor they were. According to Rousseau, any government that abused these basic rights was unjust and should be terminated. He argued that a **republic**, a system of government run by and for the people, was the only form of government that would protect people's rights.

> *Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains. One thinks himself the master of others, and still remains a greater slave than they.*

SOURCE 1.1.2

From *The Social Contract*, by Jean-Jacques Rousseau, 1762

Q
1. **According to Rousseau, what natural right are all people born with?**
2. **How did Rousseau view the people of his day?**

SOURCE 1.1.3

Liberty Leading the People, 1830, by Eugène Delacroix. Held at Musée du Louvre, Paris, France

Q **How does this painting represent the new hope that the French Revolution gave ordinary people?**

CIVILISATION AND PROGRESS

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

'ADVANCED' PEOPLES

As new parts of the world were explored, many Europeans came to see themselves as being more 'advanced' than other peoples. Non-Europeans were defined according to their lack of 'progress'. While some, such as the Chinese, practised a basic system of agriculture, others, such as the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, were classed as nomadic hunters and gatherers who could not improve their own situation. This type of thinking is called **Eurocentric**, since it sees European ideas and values as being the best for everyone. Even well-meaning settlers and governors saw their role as bringing the benefits of European civilisation to 'uncivilised primitives'.

Europeans during this time rarely looked for evidence of another society being *more* advanced than they were. Up until the seventeenth century, Islamic societies had a more advanced system of mathematics, and gunpowder first came to Europe from China. Even in Australia, the survival of the First Fleet in 1788 depended on the expertise of Aboriginal People to find food and water.

SOURCE 1.1.4 Portrait of Judge Advocate David Collins, who was aboard the First Fleet.

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

SOURCE 1.1.5 Works produced during the Enlightenment presented the past in four distinct stages of development.

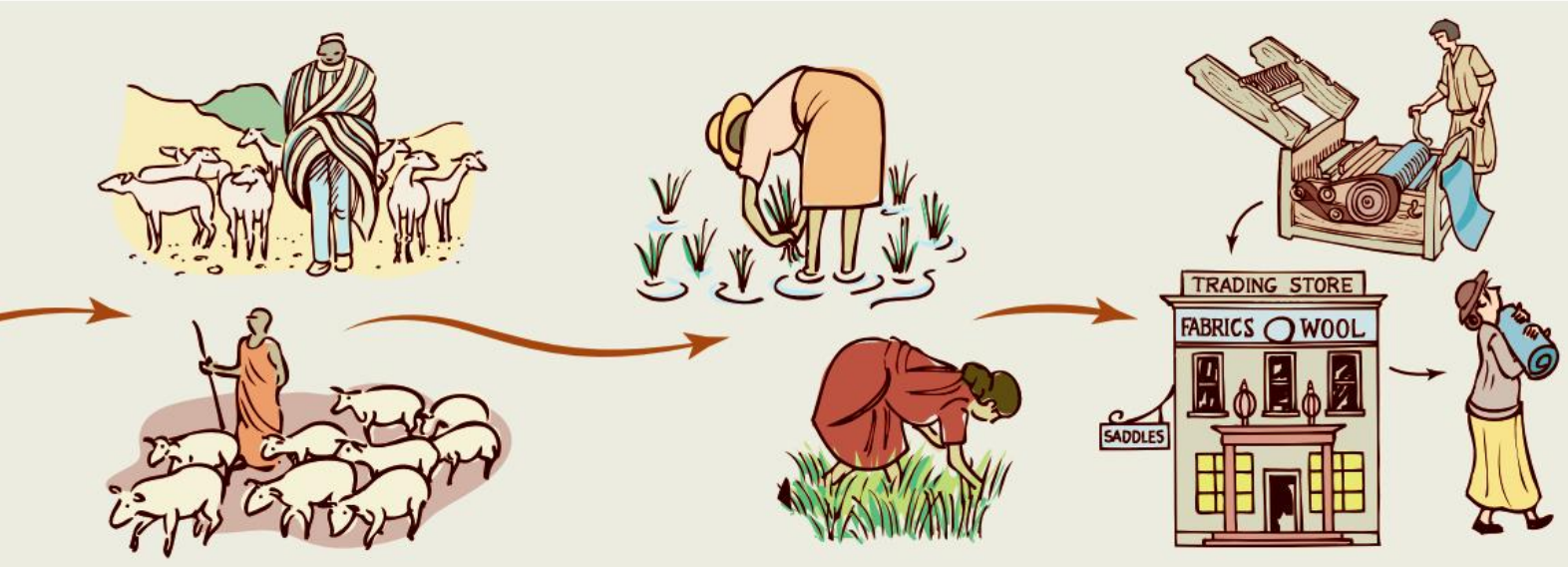
Q
1. **At which stages would people have had the least impact on the land?**
2. **At which stage would fences and private property have developed?**
3. **At which stage could people create the most personal wealth?**

The belief that European society was modern while others were primitive was often used to justify the taking and settlement of other people's lands. This view has faded over recent times. The problem of global warming has led to a recognition that the ways in which indigenous peoples have traditionally used their land and its environment may be more sustainable.

> *The land behind us was the abode of civilised people; that before us the residence of savages. When, if ever, we might again enjoy the commerce of the world, was doubtful and uncertain ... All communication with our families and friends was now cut off, [we were] leaving the world behind us, to enter a state unknown.*

SOURCE 1.1.6 Judge Advocate David Collins, in *An Account of the English Colony in New South Wales*, London, 1798

Q
1. **How did Judge Advocate Collins view the people who inhabited the colony of New South Wales?**
2. **How did he describe the 'world' he was leaving?**



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

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

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

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- divine revelation
- divine right of kings
- the Enlightenment
- Eurocentrism
- humanism
- republic

Understanding and evaluating

2 Reread 'New ideas for a new age' and answer the following questions.

a According to the thinkers of the Enlightenment, what natural capacity are all people born with?

b What sorts of beliefs were questioned during the Enlightenment?

c How did Enlightenment thinkers believe knowledge was acquired?

d What did the contributors to Diderot's *Encyclopédie* set out to do?

e Why did the contributors the *Encyclopédie* criticise the Catholic Church?

f According to Rousseau, what should the role of government be?

Understanding and applying

3 During the eighteenth century, pamphlets were commonly used to communicate messages to a wide audience. Imagine that you are one of the thinkers mentioned this unit. Use the information provided as well as your own research to produce a pamphlet that outlines your ideas and opinions. Use a desktop publishing program as well as the internet to locate useful digital images.

Understanding and evaluating

4 Reread 'Civilisation and progress' and answer the following questions.

a How did people in Europe begin to view their own society after the Enlightenment?

b How were different societies categorised at this time? What were the stages that all societies were believed to go through?

c What sorts of things did Europeans at the time ignore about other societies?

d Why has the belief in the superiority of European civilisation over all others faded in recent times?

Evaluating and applying

5 Take part in an open forum discussion on the following topic: *Progress is always positive.*

To prepare for the discussion, reread 'Civilisation and progress' and then think carefully about the positive and negative uses of technology and science during the last century.

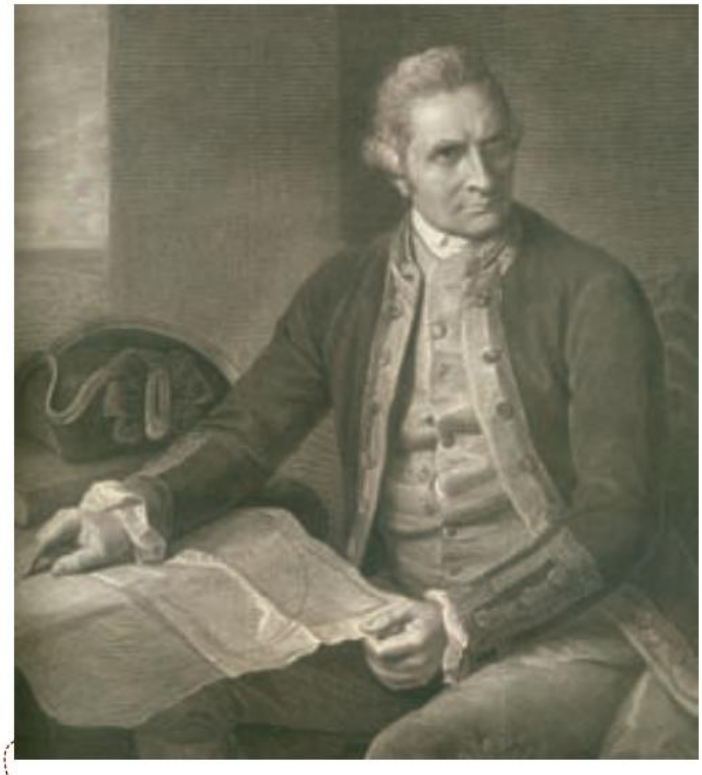
UNIT 2

THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES

EUROPEAN DISCOVERY

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

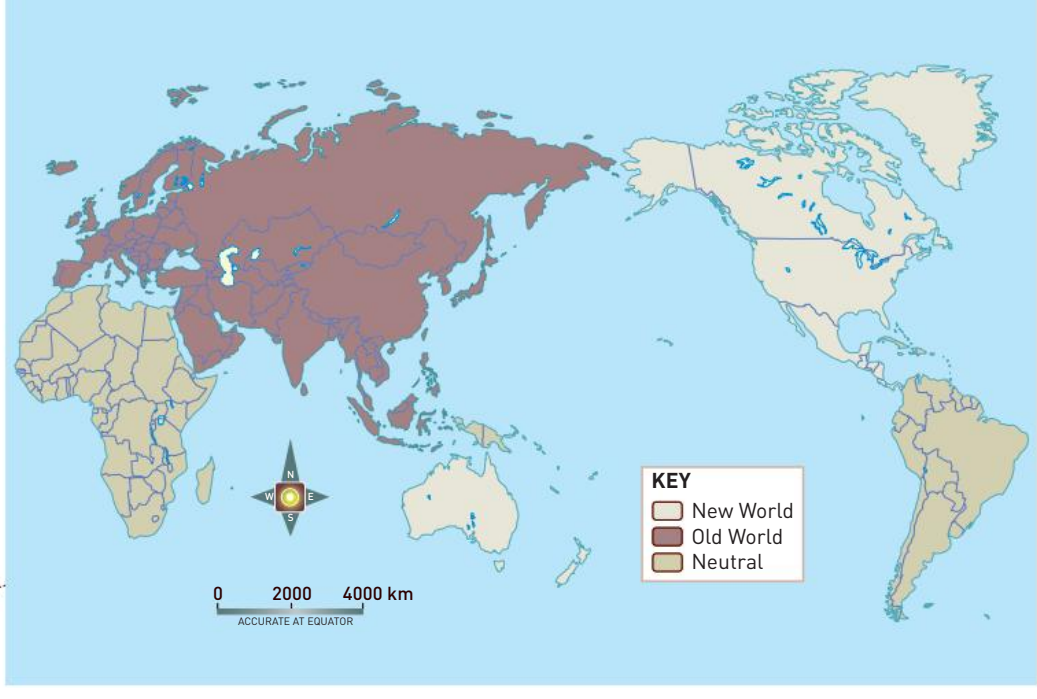
On the other side of the world, James Cook's discovery of the east coast of Australia in 1770 extended the reach of the British Empire well into the Southern Hemisphere. In 1788, a British penal settlement at Sydney Cove became part of the emerging New World. The early colonists of New South Wales often faced starvation, as the land proved to be less fertile than first thought and fresh supplies from the nearest port could take up to six months to arrive. Within months of their arrival, diseases such as smallpox and influenza had ravaged the Eora People of the Sydney Cove area. The loss of traditional hunting grounds also led to hunger and sickness for many Aboriginal People.



SOURCE 1.2.1 Portrait of Captain James Cook. Engraving by J. K. Sherwin, after a painting by Nathaniel Dance, 1776. Held at Princeton University Manuscripts Division, USA

EARLY SETTLERS

Early English settler societies in North America and Australia were at first seen as **transplants** from the Old World; smaller versions of the empire that had given birth to them. Over time, however, these societies developed their own unique history, language, culture and identity. Eventually, they would also become self-governing and independent nations.



SOURCE 1.2.2 The Old and New Worlds after 1788

SOURCE 1.2.3 The first Thanksgiving in Plymouth Colony in 1621, by Jean Leon Gerome. Held in a private collection

Q
1 How has the artist represented the good harvest of that year?
2 What are the reactions of the settlers to the native people?

VOLUNTARY MIGRATION

It is estimated that by 1901, well over 15 million people had left England in search of a better life in the New World. **Voluntary migration** such as this occurs when people freely choose to migrate. Voluntary migrants are often called 'free settlers'.

Voluntary migration may be due to either 'push' or 'pull' factors. **Push factors** are reasons that drive people from their existing home to another place. **Pull factors** are reasons that make another area more attractive for people than their existing home.

THE FIRST AMERICAN COLONIES

The first English colony in North America was established at Jamestown, Virginia in 1607. It began as a business venture by King James I of England under the direction of the Virginia Company of London. The first English settlers of North America were investors in the company, all keen to make their fortune from finding gold and growing crops for export.

In 1620, a second English colony in America was established further north at New Plymouth. This was settled by a group of **Puritans**, a small but growing Christian sect who wanted to establish a new society where they could freely express their religious beliefs. The Puritans had a strict interpretation of the Bible and were opposed to the English monarch being the head of the Church of England. This led to their persecution and consequent desire to leave England. This is an example of a push factor driving migration.

DID YOU KNOW?

PURITAN SETTLERS IN AMERICA DREAMED OF CREATING A NEW SOCIETY.

One of their leaders, John Winthrop, declared that their settlement would be a 'city upon a hill', which would set an example to the rest of the world.

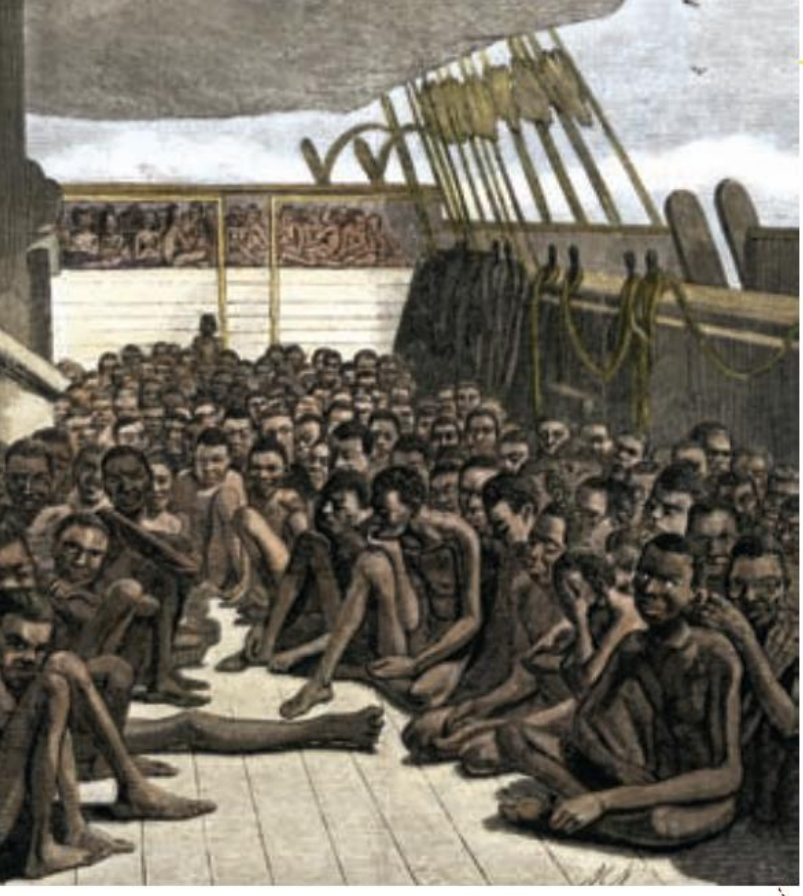
FREE SETTLERS TO AUSTRALIA

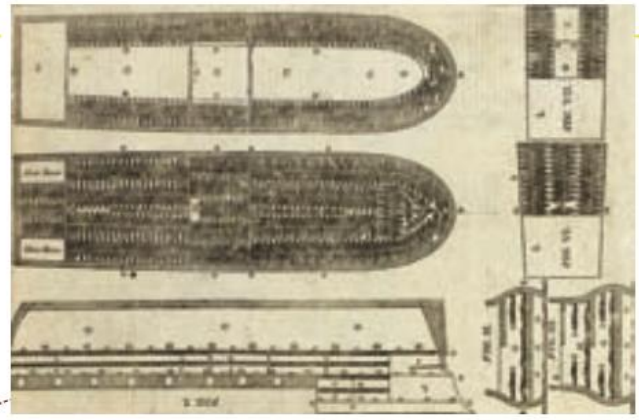
The first free settlers to Australia arrived in Sydney onboard the *Bellona* on 16 January 1793. These were five single men and two families who were wealthy enough to afford the long sea voyage from England. Early free settlers were given free **land grants** of 30 acres for single men, with an extra 20 acres if they were married and 10 more if they had children. Free convict labour was also provided to clear and cultivate their new land. This is an example of a pull factor driving migration. The harsh Australian environment made life on the land a struggle for the early free settlers.

It was not until the westward spread of settlement beyond the Blue Mountains that better quality farmland was made available. As a result, more and more free settlers from England began to arrive. The British government introduced the **assisted passage scheme** to help new settlers with some of the costs of the long journey. Many poor, single men were attracted to the wide open spaces of Australia and the thought of owning enough land to become wealthy.

By 1835, there was a gender imbalance in New South Wales of four men for every one woman. To deal with this problem the government introduced the **bounty scheme**, which was designed to attract more married couples and young women to Australia. Under the scheme, established settlers paid the fare for skilled workers from England and were reimbursed by the government if the new settler was both healthy and above the minimum ages of 15 for females and 18 for males. By 1838, over 6000 free settlers had come to Australia on the bounty scheme.

Seeing an opportunity to make money from the bounty scheme, shipping agents in England often overloaded ships. On a typical sixteen-week voyage this could prove disastrous. A number of bounty ships were shipwrecked on their way to Australia, most due to rough seas and overcrowding.





SOURCE 1.2.5

Plans of the Liverpool slave ship *Brooks*, 1789. Held at the National Maritime Museum, Greenwich, London. Most of the slave ships carried 200 to 450 slaves. There was not enough room to stand up, just enough to crouch or lie side by side. The slaves were chained together and could barely move without hurting others or themselves.

Q
1. **Why did slave traders cram so many African slaves into their ships?**
2. **What would conditions have been like below deck on board slave ships such as the *Brooks*?**

SOURCE 1.2.4

Deck of the captured slave ship *Wildfire* brought into Key West, Florida. Published in *Harper's Weekly*, 1860

INVOLUNTARY MIGRATION

Slavery and transportation of convicts are two examples of **involuntary migration** to the New World. These individuals had no choice in the matter, being forced against their wills to migrate.

SLAVES

The **transatlantic slave trade** was a triangular trade across the Atlantic Ocean between West Africa, European nations (including Portugal, Spain, Britain, France and the Netherlands) and their American colonies. The trade relied upon the capture of African slaves in countries such as Senegal, Gambia, Liberia, the Ivory Coast, Guinea, Benin and Cameroon. These slaves were then transported in overcrowded hulks to the Caribbean colonies, and later to North America, where they were sold to plantation owners. There they harvested crops such as sugar, cotton and tobacco, which were then transported to Britain and sold into the markets of northern Europe. In turn, British textile mills produced cloth that could be sold to the colonies.

SOURCE 1.2.6

Map of the triangular trade in slaves, raw cotton and textiles

Q
1. **What were the three geographic points of the triangular trade?**
2. **Which items where sent to each point?**
3. **Which items came from each point?**

Although the number of slaves captured and transported from Africa will never be known, it is estimated that up to 12 million were sent to the Americas. By 1860 CE, the population of slaves and ex-slaves in North America alone was 2 136 763, or 14.4 per cent of the total population. This does not take into account the 12.5 per cent who died on board slave hulks before they arrived. As Source 1.2.5 indicates, these ships were cramped, with very little spent on ensuring the health and safety of the slaves on board.

SOURCE 1.2.7 Recruiters and boat crew from the New Hebrides bound for Queensland, 1895. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1. What appears to be the relationship between the white recruiters and the Pacific Islander People in the photograph?
2. How might this photograph be unreliable in terms of showing the nature of the relationship between the two groups?

CONVICTS

An English **penal colony** was established in Australia when the First Fleet arrived in Port Jackson on 26 January 1788. On board eleven ships were 1332 people, 736 of whom were convicts. The convicts had sentences between seven years and life. Over the eight-month voyage, twenty-three convicts died. Of the convicts on the First Fleet, around 60 per cent had been sentenced for stealing small items such as food. Many escaped being hung and were sentenced to seven years transportation instead. Many others had less than seven years of their sentence remaining but were transported regardless. The youngest convict on board the First Fleet was a nine-year-old orphan, John Hudson, who had been transported for theft.

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

Between 1788 and 1868, about 165 000 convicts were transported to New South Wales and other colonies in Australia. By the time convict transportation ended in 1868, over 800 convict ships had made the long voyage from England to Australia.

DID YOU KNOW?

ONLY 7 PER CENT OF ARRIVALS ON THE FIRST FLEET WERE WOMEN.

Of the 1332 people aboard the First Fleet when it landed in Sydney Cove, only 189 were women. Once the colony was established, its future survival depended on babies being produced. To solve this problem, the British government sent the *Lady Juliana* with 226 female convicts to New South Wales. On its arrival on 6 June 1790 CE, Judge Advocate David Collins questioned a cargo that was 'so unnecessary and so unprofitable as 222 female convicts', instead of a cargo of provisions.

BLACKBIRDING IN THE SOUTH PACIFIC

Although slavery was formally abolished throughout the British Empire in 1833, the practice of **blackbirding** continued in Australia for several decades afterwards. Blackbirding was the human trafficking of indentured labourers from the South Pacific Islands, through methods of deception or even kidnapping. Like slavery, blackbirding is also considered an involuntary method of migration, since it denied the freedom of choice to those who were 'recruited'. Between 1863 and 1904, it is estimated that about 60 000 South Pacific Islander People were brought to Australia to work on the sugar-cane fields of Queensland and New South Wales. Many of these workers returned to their islands when their three-year contracts expired. By 1901, there were 10 000 people of South Pacific Island origin living in Queensland.

I maintain that it was a form of slavery. It is true that some people in the later years signed a contract to work for three years. But my father didn't, neither did his brother and neither did their sister. They were paid nothing whatsoever.

SOURCE 1.2.8

From an interview with Faith Bandler, '100 Years: The Australian Story', ABC Television, 2001. Bandler's father was kidnapped from the New Hebrides (today known as Vanuatu) and brought to Australia in 1883 at the age of 13.

Q
1 **What is the nature of this source? What makes it reliable?**
2 **What is the evidence from the source that indicates that not all Pacific Islander People were blackbirded?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- assisted passage scheme
- blackbirding
- bounty scheme
- First Nations
- involuntary migration
- land grants
- New World
- penal colony
- pull factors
- Puritans
- push factors
- transatlantic slave trade
- transplants
- voluntary migration

Understanding and evaluating

2 Reread 'European discovery' and answer the following questions.

a Who is credited with having discovered the Americas and when did this occur?
b Why is the term 'New World' problematic?
c When did Europeans first settle Australia?
d What impact did the First Fleet settlement have on the Eora clans?
e What did settler societies in North America and Australia eventually develop into?

Evaluating

3 Construct a three-column table, each column headed by the name of one of the British colonies mentioned in this unit—Jamestown, New Plymouth and New South Wales. Compare the following features:

- date of settlement
- location of settlement
- size of the original settlement
- reasons for settlement
- names of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People
- relations with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People
- main problems for the settlers.

Analysing

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

Evaluating

5 Reread 'Free settlers to Australia'. Create a list of the push and pull factors that resulted in the arrival of free settlers in Australia. You may need to undertake additional research on free settlers to add to these points.

Understanding and evaluating

6 Reread 'Slaves' and answer the following questions.

a How were slaves used by European settlers in North America?
b How many slaves are believed to have arrived in North and South America during the period of the slave trade?
c Account for the relatively high death rate of slaves on board slave hulls.

7 Reread 'Convicts' and 'Blackbirding in the South Pacific' and answer the following questions.

a How many convicts arrived in Sydney Cove on board the First Fleet?
b What had most convicts on the First Fleet been convicted of?
c What does John Hudson's transportation reveal about the nature of the British legal system at the time?
d What was so controversial about the arrival of the Second Fleet in June 1790?
e How many convicts in total were transported to Australia?
f How is blackbirding similar to slavery? How are the two practices different?
g How many Pacific Islanders came to Australia prior to 1904 and where did they mostly settle?

THE INDUSTRIAL AGE

TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCEMENTS

The Enlightenment of the eighteenth century inspired advances in science and technology. Important discoveries such as those made by Benjamin Franklin about electricity in 1752 have transformed people's everyday lives.

ADVANCES IN MANUFACTURING

In 1767, the invention of the **spinning jenny** by James Hargreaves meant that one worker could operate several spools of cotton instead of just one. This was one of the earliest examples of **mass production**, since more cloth could now be produced in a much shorter time. This idea led to the emergence of huge cotton mills in England, supplied with raw cotton from the North American and Caribbean colonies. By the start of the nineteenth century, mills were powered by another invention, the steam engine. Invented by James Watt in 1776, the steam engine was a symbol of the **Industrial Revolution**, which lasted until the start of the twentieth century. This period saw European society evolve from an agricultural economy to one dominated by the manufacture of goods.

ADVANCES IN MEDICINE

New scientific discoveries helped doctors understand how the human body worked. The knowledge that certain diseases could be spread through poor hygiene or diet led to a slow improvement in the quality of people's health. Other medical breakthroughs offered new hope for halting the spread of life-threatening viral diseases. In 1726, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu introduced **inoculation** to Europe. Long practised in China, India and the Arabic world, Lady Wortley Montagu saw that limited exposure to a disease actually helped increase a patient's resistance, or immunity, to that disease.

In 1796, Edward Jenner developed the much safer method of **vaccination**, which led to the eradication of smallpox throughout Europe. Through his experiments, Jenner confirmed the **hypothesis** that people who had caught the relatively harmless cowpox disease would not catch the fatal disease of smallpox. By the following century, smallpox vaccination programs were commonplace throughout Europe and the number of reported deaths from smallpox had decreased dramatically. Jenner has therefore been credited with saving more human lives than any other person. Medical breakthroughs such as vaccination have resulted in a declining mortality rate and rising population.

SOURCE 1.3.1

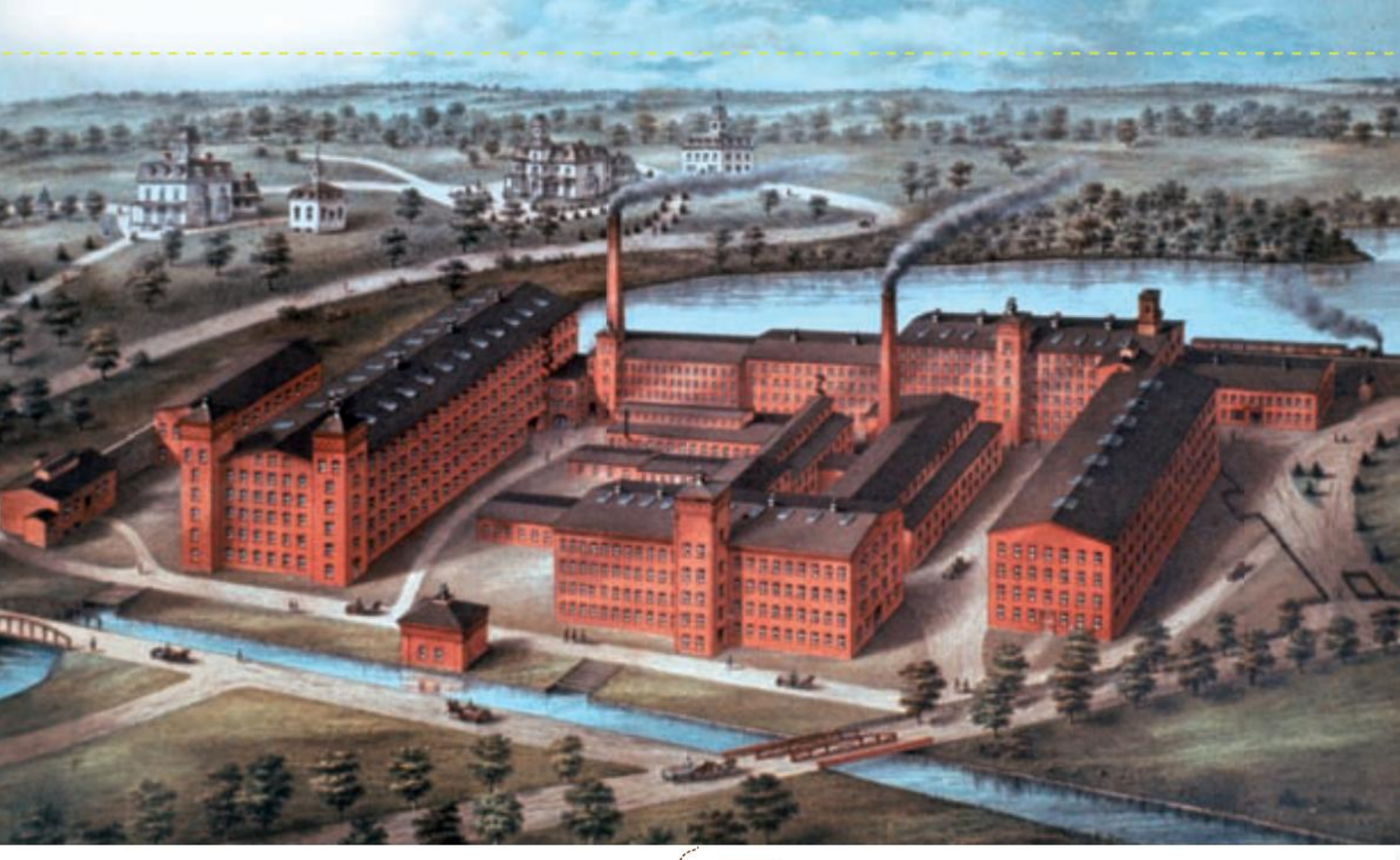
Edward Jenner Injecting Vaccine into His Son, by Giulio Monteverde,1873. Held at Galleria Nazionale d'Arte Moderna, Rome, Italy. Jenner experimented on several children, including his 11-month-old son.

Q
1. What risks did Edward Jenner face in vaccinating his own son?
2. What does this say about the confidence he had in his own theory?

DID YOU KNOW?

EDWARD JENNER'S EXPERIMENTS WOULD BE CONSIDERED UNETHICAL TODAY.

Edward Jenner conducted his first experiment on James Phipps, the 8-year-old son of his gardener. While he knew the boy would suffer only mild symptoms from catching cowpox, Jenner had only a hunch that this would prevent him from later catching smallpox. You can imagine his relief when weeks later James showed no signs of having caught the fatal disease.



SOURCE 1.3.2 A nineteenth-century factory, 1879. Held at Library of Congress, Washington, DC, USA

Q
1 How did factories such as this change the nature of work for ordinary people?
2 What effects would this factory have had on the surrounding landscape and environment?

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

THE RISE OF CAPITALISM

The birthplace of the Industrial Revolution in the eighteenth century was Britain, where the number of capitalists far outnumbered those in other countries. **Capitalism** is an economic system that encourages competition between sellers, who all want to make a profit. Before the Industrial Revolution the main source of wealth in society was land. During feudal times, land was owned by the Church and the nobility. Ownership was passed from one generation to the next. During the Industrial Revolution, however, a new class of **entrepreneurs** emerged. This growing class of capitalists became incredibly wealthy from manufacturing goods and selling them throughout the British Empire. In many cases, the wealth of the new capitalists surpassed that of the old nobility.

THE FACTORY SYSTEM

Entrepreneurs such as James Watt were inspired by new possibilities of making their fortune from the growing factory system. Mass production allowed capitalists to make goods quickly, cheaply and in large quantities by employing many workers. The steam engine provided power for these factories to operate. Watt's business partner Matthew Boulton is credited with establishing one of Britain's first factories, the Soho Manufactory. Boulton's factory was the first to use a **production line** of workers. Each worker had their own specific task to perform over and over again. Among the products made by the Soho Manufactory were engine parts, silverware, buttons, buckles and even coins, making it the first steam-powered mint.

TRADE AND TRANSPORT

The development of the steam engine had major effects on rail, road and sea transport. Steam engines eventually replaced horse-drawn carts and led to the development of railways. Steam trains travelled much faster and carried more goods and passengers much further than horse-drawn vehicles could. They led to the opening up of new markets by allowing manufactured goods from the cities to be transported around the country relatively quickly.

With improvements to sea transport, Britain's colonies became more closely connected. Raw materials from the colonies could be exported to Britain, where they were manufactured into goods that could be sold throughout the empire. Such trade was referred to as **triangular trade**, since it relied on the input from three locations within the British Empire.

LIVING AND WORKING CONDITIONS

GROWTH OF CITIES

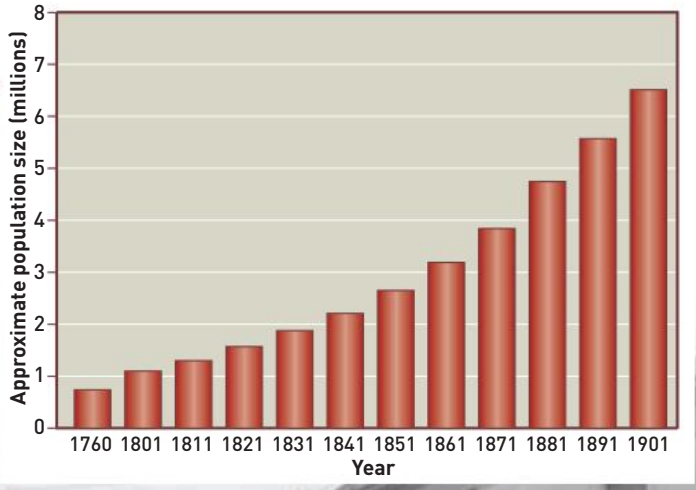
During the Industrial Revolution, people from rural areas flocked to the cities in search of factory work. While by no means easy, factory work at least guaranteed a regular income. This was crucial during times of poor harvest, when rural workers faced the threat of starvation. With the decline of traditional cottage industries due to competition from big factories, many rural workers ended up as unskilled labourers in the cotton mills of cities such as Liverpool, Leeds and Manchester.

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

LIVING CONDITIONS

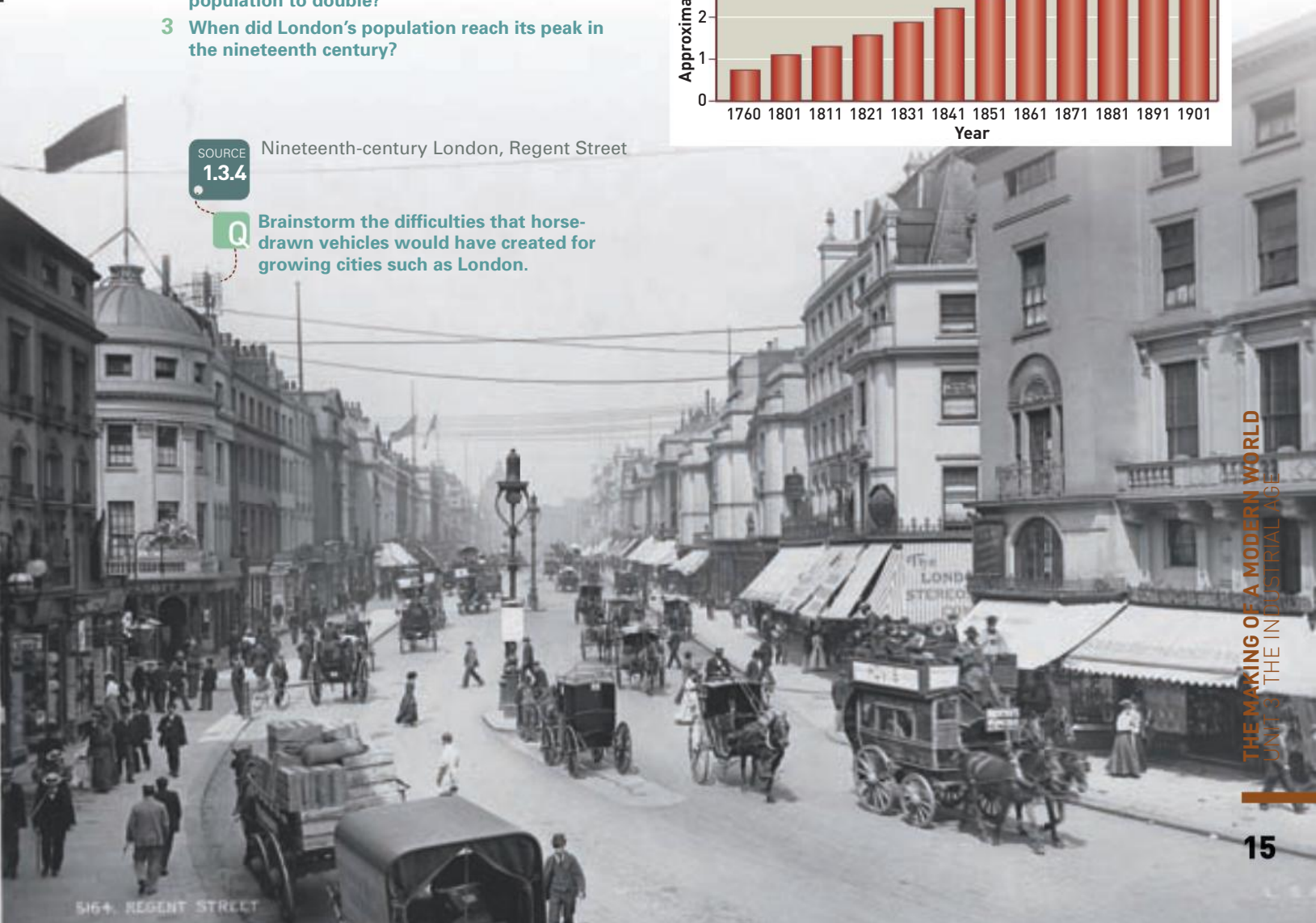
Working people were forced to live in crammed tenement blocks close to the factories where they worked. These were often damp, poorly ventilated and freezing in winter. Narrow city streets blocked light from entering tenement buildings. Privacy was virtually impossible, as several families occupied just one house. Children often slept three or more to a bed, as families were on average much larger than they are today. Running sewage created an unhygienic living environment, which bred disease. Human and other waste accumulated on mud floors, attracting rats and fleas, which were carriers of diseases such as typhus and cholera. With the rapid influx of people into the cities, new housing could not be built fast enough. This ultimately resulted in the creation of temporary shacks and the growth of shanty towns.

SOURCE 1.3.3 Population growth of London during the Industrial Revolution

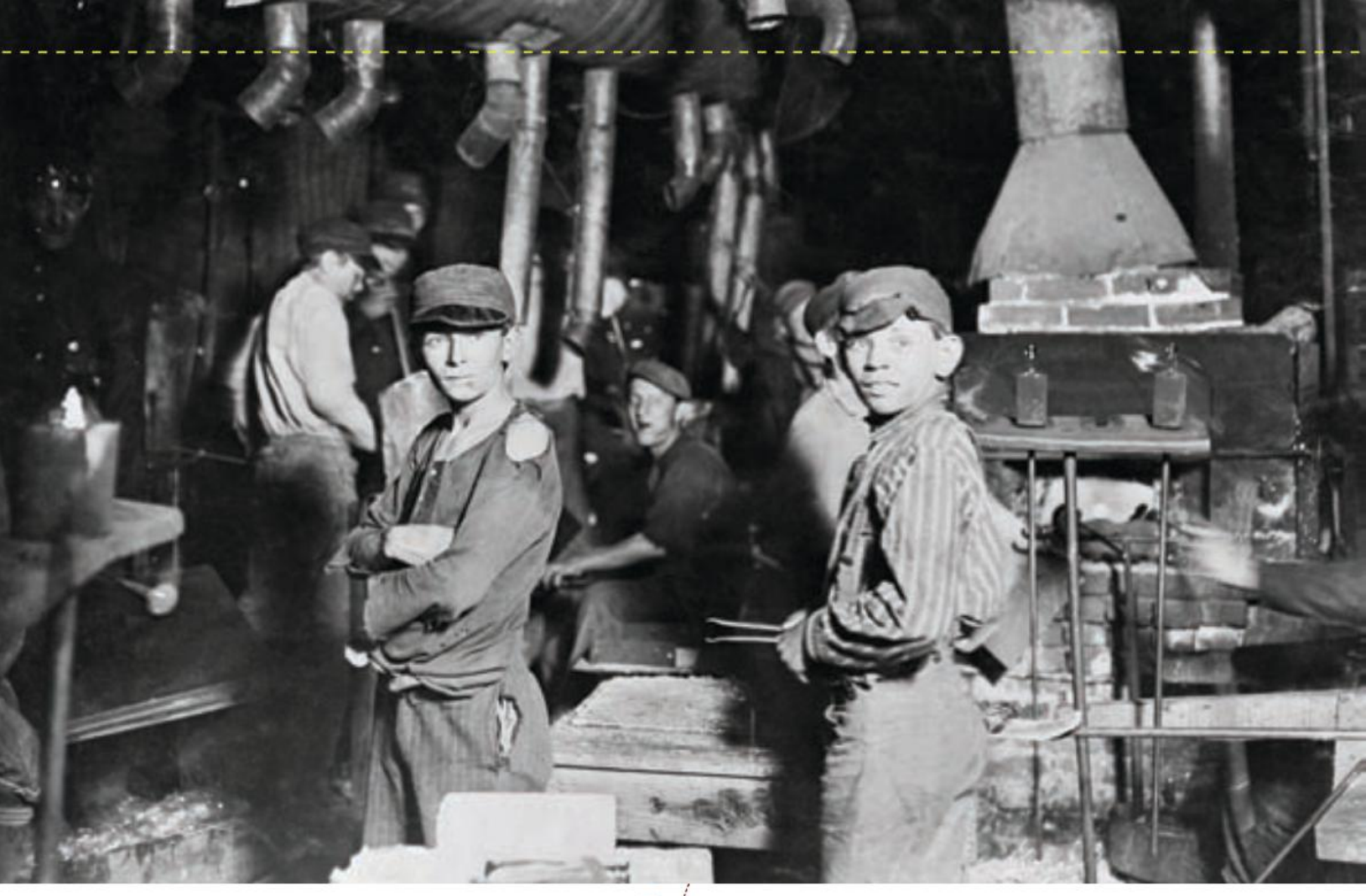


Q
1. In which decade of the nineteenth century did London experience the fastest population growth?
2. How long did it take after 1760 for London's population to double?
3. When did London's population reach its peak in the nineteenth century?

SOURCE 1.3.4 Nineteenth-century London, Regent Street



Q Brainstorm the difficulties that horse-drawn vehicles would have created for growing cities such as London.



DID YOU KNOW?

GIRLS AND WOMEN WORKED AS HARRIERS IN COALMINES IN INDUSTRIAL BRITAIN.

They pulled the coal to the surface by pulling carts with chains tied around their waists. This did permanent damage to their pelvic bones and led to difficulties in childbirth, which often resulted in death for both the mother and infant.

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

SOURCE 1.3.6 English poet Robert Southey's description of the living conditions in a London poor house, 1808

Q
1. List the problems identified by Robert Southey.
2. Which statement reveals that poor people at the time knew nothing about the importance of hygiene?

SOURCE 1.3.5 Young boys working at midnight in a glass factory, 1908

Q Outline the potential short- and long-term impacts of working at such a young age.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Factory conditions were dangerous and the working day could be anywhere from twelve to sixteen hours long. The use of steam engines made conditions hot and the air polluted. Rules about the safe use of machinery were non-existent, and rates of injury and death were high. Long hours and tough physical work caused workers to become exhausted and lose concentration while operating industrial machinery, often leading to serious injury. It was not uncommon for factories to employ children as young as seven or eight to perform tasks requiring small hands and nimble fingers.

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

IMPACTS ON AUSTRALIA

CONVICT TRANSPORTATION

London's overpopulation, high unemployment and poor living conditions made it a city beset with crime. The most common crime was theft and the most common items stolen were basic foodstuffs, such as bread. With prisons already overcrowded, the British Parliament at first decided to convert empty hulks on the River Thames into prison cells. After considering a range of other options to deal with the growing prison population, Parliament passed the first Transportation Act in 1717. This law allowed for the transportation of convicts to the British colonies in America. This situation lasted until 1776, when American colonists declared their independence from British rule. With the introduction of a new Transportation Act in 1780, other destinations were opened for transportation, among them Botany Bay on the east coast of Australia, which had been discovered by James Cook ten years previously. In 1788, 759 convicts were sent to New South Wales to establish a **penal colony** on the other side of the world.

SOURCE 1.3.7 Convicts about to be transported to Australia, by an unknown artist. Held at the State Library of Tasmania

Q
1 Why did convicts dread being transported?
2 What did this artist intend to show?

SOURCE 1.3.8 Workers erecting telegraph lines in rural New South Wales. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

Q
1 Why was work such as this so important to the growing Australian colonies?
2 What sorts of dangers would be involved in such work?

AUSTRALIAN WOOL

Within fifty years of settlement, Australia played a key trade role within the British Empire by providing an important source of raw materials. The Australian climate and open pastures proved to be an ideal environment for Spanish merino sheep, whose wool was noted for its whiteness and softness. Australian wool soon earned the reputation for being among the finest in the world. By 1850, Australian wool exports reached £41 million, making Australia one of the largest wool exporters in the world. Most of this wool was sold to Britain, where it was manufactured into garments in the textile factories.

GROWTH OF A WORKING CLASS

The expansion of Australian industry led to a demand for shearers, drivers, fencers, herders, farmers, builders, blacksmiths, tanners and general labourers. With the expansion of settlement throughout the colonies, new infrastructure such as railways, roads and government buildings had to be built. This required more workers than were available. A labour shortage during the period of the **long boom** from 1850 to 1890 resulted in relatively high wages and good working conditions, as employers competed to attract the best available workers.

Skilled workers were paid especially well and formed trade unions to protect their gains. With a shortage of available labour, trade unions could use the threat of strike action to improve workers' pay and conditions.

Australia earned a reputation for being a 'working man's paradise', since Australian workers worked fewer hours, were paid more and lived longer than most workers in Britain. In 1890, however, an economic depression began, leading to widespread business closures and rising unemployment. This caused wages to decline, as workers began to compete with one another for the few available jobs.

WARFARE IN THE INDUSTRIAL ERA

Perhaps the worst legacy of the Industrial Revolution was the use of modern technology to kill greater numbers of people during times of war. During World War I, all countries used the factory system to try to out-produce their enemy. Entire economies were geared towards producing millions of rifles, shells and bullets. Mass production of improved and new weapons such as machine guns, artillery, planes and tanks made World War I the most devastating war in the history of humankind at that time. The first machine guns could fire up to 600 rounds per minute—the equivalent of thirty self-loading rifles. Artillery, which replaced cannon during World War I, could fire at targets many kilometres away. Chemical technology was also developed during World War I, for example the use of various types of gas. Both sides fired shells filled with chlorine and mustard gas at the enemy. Tanks were developed to withstand machine-gun fire and overrun enemy trenches.

SOURCE 1.3.9 British Army recruitment poster, showing the use of modern weaponry, c. 1918

Q
1 **Identify the modern weapons and other technology shown in the poster.**
2 **Why has this been shown? In what way are these things presented?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below:

- capitalism
- entrepreneur
- hypothesis
- Industrial Revolution
- inoculation
- long boom
- mass production
- penal colony
- production line
- spinning jenny
- triangular trade
- vaccination

Understanding

2 Reread 'Advances in medicine' and answer the following questions.

a Why did people's level of health begin to improve during the eighteenth century?
b What important scientific discovery was brought to Europe in 1726 CE?
c Why was Edward Jenner's discovery of vaccination a safer alternative to inoculation?
d How do you think Edward Jenner should be remembered?

Understanding and analysing

3 Reread 'The Industrial Revolution' and answer the following questions.

a Where and when did the Industrial Revolution begin?
b How did the Industrial Revolution change Britain's economy?
c What role did Britain's empire play in the Industrial Revolution?
d Explain how the factory system worked.
e What features of our society can you recognise as having emerged from the Industrial Revolution?

4 Reread 'Living and working conditions' and answer the following questions.

a Why did people begin to move from rural areas to the cities during the Industrial Revolution?
b What problems did this create in London?
c List the factors that led to poor living conditions throughout the period of the Industrial Revolution.
d Create a two-column table with headings 'Factors that made work dangerous' and 'Factors that made work difficult'. Write the points from the text that belong in each column.

5 Reread 'Impacts on Australia' and write an extended response to one of the following questions.

a Explain how the Industrial Revolution affected Australia.

or

b Explain the effects of the 'long boom' in Australia.

Understanding and creating

6 Use the information in this unit to create a flow chart showing how the Industrial Revolution led to the settlement of Australia.

Analysing and creating

7 Reread 'Warfare in the industrial era' and create a detailed mind map of the types of weaponry that were developed in World War I as a result of industrialisation.

EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM

Asian people who came into contact with European empires responded in many different ways. China and Japan initially sought to restrict contact with Europeans. People in India, Vietnam and the Dutch East Indies had little choice but to accept European influence, since they had been conquered by outside powers.

RESTRICTING EUROPEAN CONTACT

CHINA'S CANTON SYSTEM

European traders had sought Chinese products such as silk and tea since the seventeenth century. The Chinese generally had no need for European goods and were wary of outsiders, believing them to be barbarians from across the sea. In order to limit contact with foreigners, in 1757 the imperial court decided to restrict foreign ships to one port in the south of China, Canton. A system of regulations known as the **Canton System** was designed to ensure that all foreigners were kept well away from the imperial city of Peking in the north. Each trading nation was permitted just one factory in Canton, and all European merchants and sailors were forced to remain there while on shore. To limit contact between Chinese people and foreigners, all business dealings had to be conducted through one of thirteen **Hong merchants**. If they broke these rules, European traders would be subject to punishments under Chinese law.

JAPAN'S CLOSED COUNTRY POLICY

For two centuries after 1614, Japan closed its doors to all foreign missionaries and merchants. The 'closed door' policy also banned Japanese citizens from travelling overseas or from even building boats capable of sailing in the open sea. Only a few Dutch merchants were permitted to live on a small harbour island in Nagasaki, so that the Japanese rulers could keep informed of events in Europe. As foreign interference in nearby China grew during the nineteenth century, the Japanese **shogun**, or military ruler, grew even more determined to keep Westerners out of Japan.

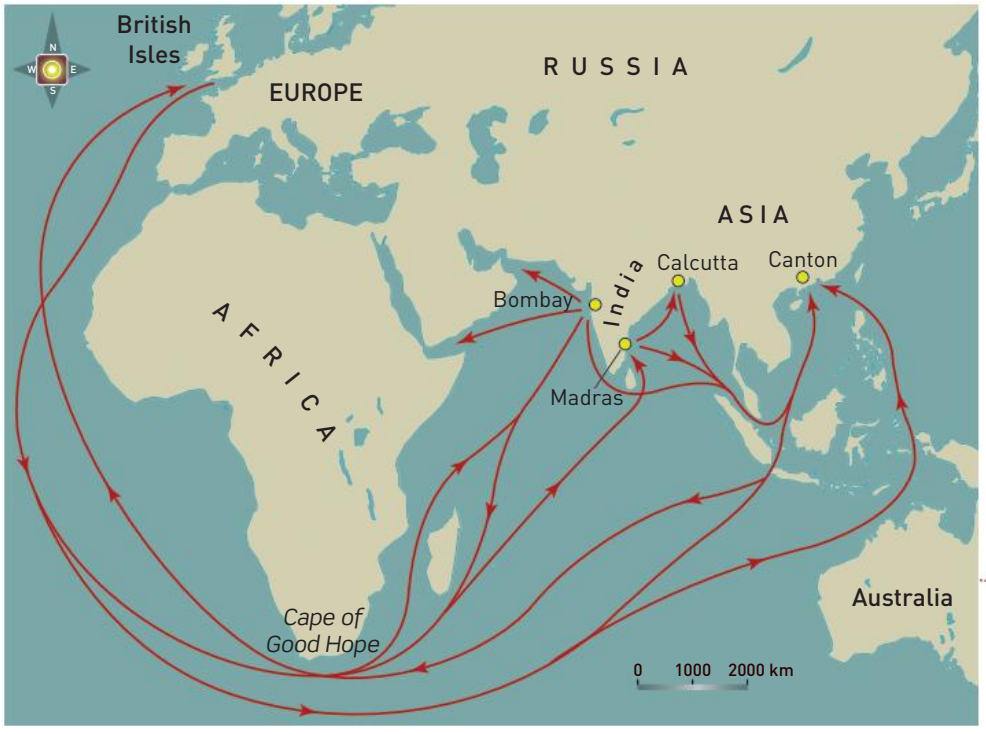
TRADE BETWEEN ASIA AND EUROPE

THE SPICE TRADE

The earliest trade between Europe and Asia was for spices such as black pepper, nutmeg, cardamom, ginger, cloves and cinnamon. These were considered important for preserving meat, though they probably just masked the flavour of bad meat. In an age that knew nothing about refrigeration, spices became precious commodities. They were also thought to have healing properties and were used in early European medicines. Initially, most spices came from India, where the Portuguese, Spanish and English had established trading bases. Rare spices such as nutmeg and cloves grew best in the volcanic soils of the Moluccas, a string of islands that are today a part of Indonesia. These formed part of the 'Spice Islands', which came under Dutch control by 1623.

TEA FROM CHINA

By the end of the eighteenth century, Chinese tea had become England's largest import. Before that time, tea was mainly considered a drink of the upper classes. When alcohol grew too



SOURCE 1.4.1 British trade routes during the eighteenth century

Q
1 Which continents did British ships stop at on their way to Canton?
2 Which three Indian ports did British ships dock at?

expensive for ordinary people, they also took to drinking tea. By 1800, tea had become Britain's national drink, accounting for over 90 per cent of its total imports. Even when heavy import duties, or taxes, were placed on tea, its popularity gave rise to a lucrative and illegal smuggling trade. Such huge imports, however, eventually led to a **trade deficit** with China, as large quantities of silver were needed to pay the Chinese. To address this problem, British traders looked for products they could sell to China.

OPIUM FROM INDIA

Opium is a drug produced from the sap of the opium poppy, which, during the eighteenth century, grew in Bengal in British India. Although banned by the Chinese emperor, opium was sold into China in order to stop the loss of British silver to pay for tea. Between 1767 and 1860, the illegal opium trade grew from 1000 chests to more than 50 000 chests each year. Efforts by the Chinese emperor to end the opium trade threatened to upset profitable trade and eventually led to a series of Opium Wars between Britain and China from 1839 to 1860. As a result of China's humiliating losses, it was forced to give up considerable control of its own affairs. This led other Asian powers, such as Japan and Vietnam, to become even more wary of Western influence.

SOURCE 1.4.2

A Chinese woman smoking a pipe of opium, mid-nineteenth century. Held at the Oxford Science Archive, UK

Q
1. How does this image portray the practice of opium smoking in China?
2. How else could a historian find out about the impacts of opium smoking on Chinese addicts?

REACTIONS TO THE SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY

INDIA

In 1813, the British parliament ended the exclusive trading rights of the British East India Company, giving other merchants and mission societies greater access into India. At this time, England was experiencing an **evangelical revival**. This period saw a large increase in church attendance and a new enthusiasm to preach Christianity to the 'unsaved'.

Many missionaries were openly critical of the Hindu **caste system**, in which Indians were divided into four castes, or social classes, according to their family of birth. Outside the caste system were the 'untouchables', who had none of the rights and privileges of even the lowest caste members. Christianity appealed to the 'untouchables', since it offered them an escape from poverty and discrimination.

Conversion to Christianity brought great shame to a Hindu or Muslim family and, as a result, many Christian **converts** from such families lost their inheritances. To deal with this, the British governor-general of India issued a decree that no converts could be denied their inheritance. Such favouritism to Christianity led to angry protests and violent attacks on Indian Christians.

VIETNAM

In Vietnam, the work of Catholic missionaries had resulted in the rapid spread of Christianity. By the mid-1800s there were approximately 600 000 Vietnamese Christians throughout Vietnam. In 1825, the Vietnamese emperor Minh Mang attempted to ban Christian missionaries from coming into Vietnam. He believed that Christianity was eroding important Buddhist traditions, such as worship of ancestors and the emperor. Eventually Minh Mang ordered the arrest of all foreign missionaries and Vietnamese priests. In 1838, six French missionaries were executed for allegedly plotting to overthrow the emperor.

In 1848, the emperor Tu Duc issued an anti-Christian **edict**, which made the practice of Christianity illegal throughout Vietnam. This law forced all Vietnamese Christians to publicly renounce their faith. Those who refused to do so had the words *ta dao* (meaning 'infidel', or 'non-believer') branded on their left cheeks.

REBELLION AGAINST EUROPEAN CONTROL

THE GREAT REBELLION IN INDIA

From 1757 to 1858, the British East India Company ruled over India, despite its loss of exclusive trading rights in 1813. During this time, it grew rich and powerful from its control of trade and ability to defeat local rulers. By 1852, it had created an army of approximately 233 000 **sepoys** (Indian soldiers). These were mainly Hindu and Muslim men who had joined the company's army after it had established control throughout India. By 1857, sepoys made up over 90 per cent of the company's army. In that same year, a group of sepoys mutinied against their British commanders, setting fire to their barracks and ransacking nearby towns. The rebellion quickly spread and within weeks the towns of Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow had fallen to the rebels. All 400 English people at Cawnpore—men, women and children—were killed.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE BRITISH RESPONSE TO CAPTURED REBELS WAS SEVERE.

As punishment for their involvement in the rebellion, captured sepoys were sometimes tied to the mouths of cannons and blown to bits.

The British response was slow, but by September they had regained control of Delhi. In December, the British retook Cawnpore and by the following year they had retaken Lucknow. In revenge, many British troops attacked peasant villages.

SOURCE 1.4.3 British trading card, showing the Indian rebellion at Lucknow in 1857. The inset shows Sir Henry Lawrence, who was killed during the capture of Lucknow.

Q What was the original purpose of this source?

THE BOXER REBELLION IN CHINA

In 1898, Chinese peasant anger against foreign influence boiled over into open rebellion against the ruling dynasty. This was led by a religious sect of Chinese martial artists known as the 'Righteous and Harmonious Fists', whom the British named **'Boxers'**. Their supernatural beliefs appealed to the illiterate peasantry, who were desperate to improve their lives. The Boxers taught their followers that by chanting spells, an individual could become invulnerable to bullets.

Most of the Boxers' anger was focused on foreign missionaries, whom they blamed for their poverty and hunger. As their numbers grew the Boxers went from village to village, killing Christians and destroying churches. The Boxers also encouraged people to 'destroy what is foreign'. Newly laid railway tracks and telegraph lines were ripped apart, as these had been built on peasant land.

The Boxer Rebellion was seen as a major threat to the ruling Qing dynasty, which was blamed for allowing foreign influence. By 1899, the Boxers had moved to the imperial capital of Peking, where they began attacking the foreign embassies located within the city. They were eventually defeated in 1900, when the European powers sent a multinational force to Peking.

SOURCE 1.4.4 Boxers destroy the railroad track between Peking and Hong Kong. From *Le Petit Parisien*, a French newspaper, 1900

Q
1 Describe the appearance of the Boxers.
2 Why are they destroying the rail tracks?

ACCEPTING EUROPEAN INFLUENCE

UNEQUAL TREATIES

With far greater technological and military power, Europeans were easily able to defeat Asian armies and force them into accepting European demands. With its defeat in the First Opium War in 1842, China was forced to sign the Treaty of Nanking. This gave the island of Hong Kong to Britain and opened five new ports to foreign trade. At the end of the Second Opium War in 1858, the Treaty of Tientsin opened ten more Chinese ports to foreign traders. Christian missionaries were also given free access to inner China. The treaty permitted foreigners to establish **legations**, or small embassies, in the capital Peking, giving them special access to the ruling dynasty. By signing such one-sided or **unequal treaties**, many Asian societies became subject to greater foreign influence.

CULTURAL ADAPTATION

In India, the British introduced a system of education and built hundreds of technical colleges and universities in the major cities. At these institutions the students were taught in English and provided with the qualifications necessary to work in the administration of the **British Raj** (a Hindi word for 'rule'). Speaking English therefore became associated with wealth and status. Known as **Anglophiles** for their adoption of the English culture, language and lifestyle, many wealthier Indians came to view British ways as superior to Indian ways. They criticised India's 'backwardness' and cultural practices such as child marriage. Many even gave up their Hindu vegetarianism, believing that it stunted their growth. During the 1880s, this group made up less than 0.3 per cent of the Indian population. Intermarriage between English men and Indian women gave rise to a new class known as **Anglo-Indians**, who were fairer skinned than most other Indians. This group was preferred for employment in the British Raj.

> *Behold the mighty Englishman,*
> *He rules the Indian small,*
> *Because being a meat-eater*
> *He is five cubits tall.*

SOURCE 1.4.5 A verse recited by Indian supporters of the British, quoted in *A Brief History of India*, by Judith E. Walsh, 2006

Q
1. According to the source, why are Englishmen taller than Indians?
2. What is the speaker's opinion of the British?

MODERNISATION

BRITISH INDIA

During the period of their rule, the British built an extensive rail network that connected the many different regions of India. While rail enabled quicker transport of export goods to England, it was also important in getting food to starving populations during times of famine. Rail also allowed the British to introduce a postal service to India. The British also built roads, telegraph lines, schools, hospitals, law offices and government buildings.

The vast administration of the British Raj depended on good organisation. The mechanised clock became an important tool for organising factory work, official government business and eventually, everyday life. Railway timetables, for example, depended on precise timing. Such a large administration as the British Raj could not have functioned properly without strict adherence to time.

The introduction of English as a common language also helped to unify the different language and cultural groups throughout India. The numbers of books and newspapers published in India also helped the spread of the English language. By 1911, printing was the second largest industry in Calcutta, the capital of the British Raj.

> *How the English appreciate the value of time! They work at the right time, eat at the right time, attend office at the right time, and play at the right time. Everything they do is governed by rules ... it is because of this quality that the English get the time to accomplish so much.*

SOURCE 1.4.6 An Indian commenting on the importance of 'time' to the British, quoted in *A Brief History of India*, by Judith E. Walsh, 2006

Q
1. According to this source, why are the English able to accomplish so much?
2. Imagine a society not run according to the clock. What differences would this make?

MEIJI JAPAN

Japan initially opposed foreign influence but eventually recognised that if it hoped to remain independent, it would need to catch up with the West. Seeing how China had been humiliated by the Western powers, Japan set about completely reorganising its society, government and economy. This process completely transformed Japan from a feudal society to a modern industrial economy in less than two decades.

SOURCE 1.4.7 Emperor Mutsuhito on horseback, by H. V. Koekkoek. The original caption read: 'The monarch under whose rule Japan became a great power, Mutsuhito, Emperor of Japan, Great Britain's eastern ally'.

Q
1 In what ways does this portrait portray the emperor as a 'modern' ruler?
2 What does the original caption reveal about how the Japanese saw themselves at this time?

In 1868, centuries of rule by the shogun (military ruler) came to an end with the restoration of the emperor as the ruler of Japan. The new emperor, the seventeen-year-old Mutsuhito, took the title of Meiji, meaning 'enlightened rule'. During his 44-year reign, Mutsuhito looked to the West for new ideas and technologies that would help modernise Japan. Japanese students were encouraged to travel abroad, and foreign engineers, scientists and doctors were brought into Japan. A new legal system was introduced, as was a central bank, which allowed for direct foreign investment to fuel industrial growth. Railways and steamships were built and cities grew rapidly as more and more factories were established. By the beginning of the twentieth century, Japan had become a modern industrial economy capable of exerting its own influence within Asia.

ASIAN INFLUENCES ON THE WORLD

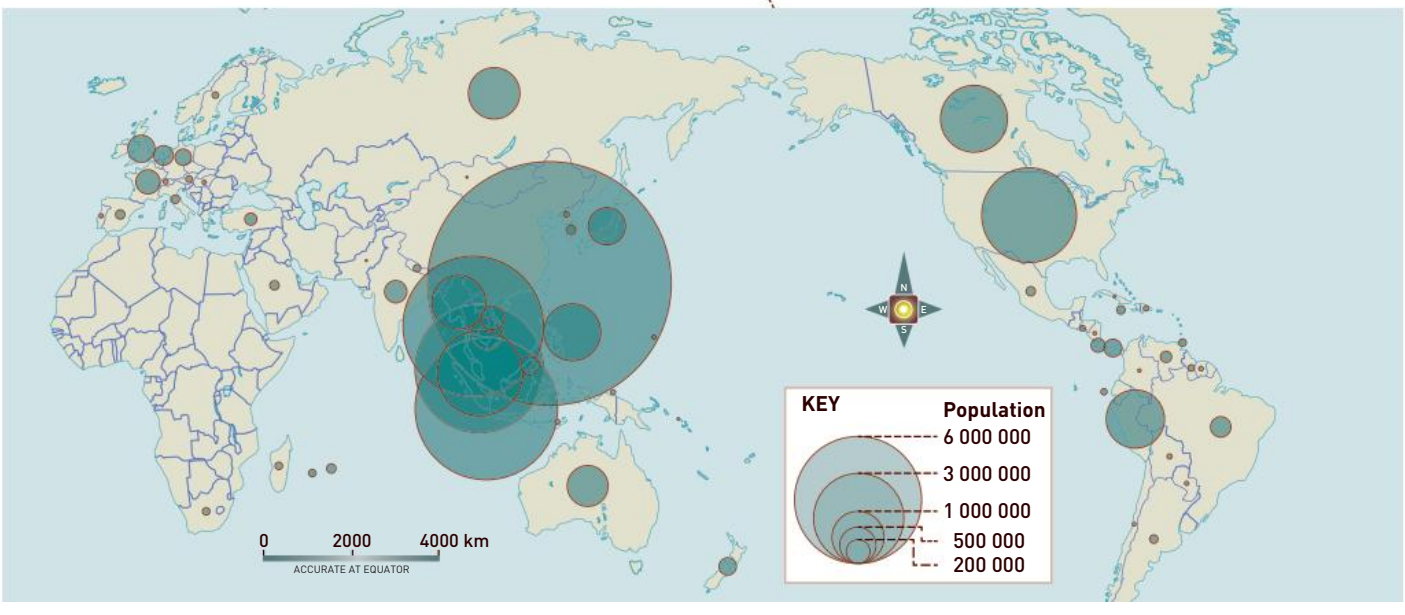
CHINESE MIGRATION

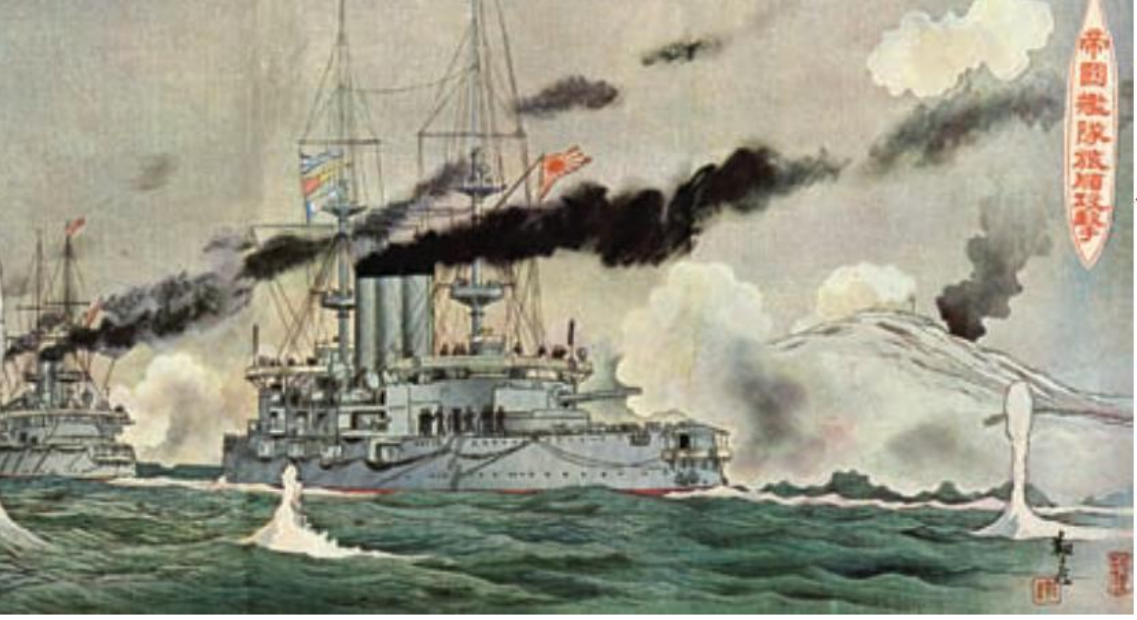
Throughout the nineteenth century, regular famine caused by droughts and floods forced many thousands of Chinese to migrate abroad. This mass emigration is known as the Chinese **diaspora** (or 'dispersion'). Most who left China were men in search of opportunities to send money home to their families. After the abolition of slavery in the nineteenth century, unskilled Chinese labourers known as **coolies** became a cheap source of labour in many countries, especially throughout Asia. Chinese immigrants settled in places such as Singapore, Indonesia, Thailand, Malaysia, Vietnam and the Philippines.

The gold rushes of the nineteenth century also drew many Chinese to America and Australia in search of fortune. In 1852, at the height of the Californian gold rush, about 20 000 Chinese arrived in America. By the 1880s, 22 per cent of miners in California were Chinese. In Australia, the Victorian gold rush saw the arrival of 40 000 Chinese. By 1861, these made up 3.3 per cent of the Australian population at the time—the largest proportion of Chinese-born people at any point in Australia's history (today Chinese immigrants make up less than 1 per cent).

SOURCE 1.4.8 Chinese populations throughout the world today

Q
1 Which continent other than Asia has the largest numbers of Chinese settlers today?
2 Approximately how many Chinese immigrants have settled in Australia?
3 How does the number of Chinese immigrants to Australia compare to the numbers in other countries?





SOURCE 1.4.9 The Battle of Port Arthur, 1904, which resulted in the destruction of the Russian fleet by the Japanese.

Q
1 What evidence is there to suggest that this is a Japanese artwork?
2 What comment is the artist making about the Japanese fleet?

JAPANESE IMPERIALISM

By the turn of the twentieth century Japan had become a powerful, modern nation. It soon used this power to spread its own influence throughout Asia, beginning with victory over a severely weakened China in 1895. In 1900, Japanese forces were part of the Eight-Nation Alliance sent to Peking to subdue the Boxer Rebellion. In 1902, Britain recognised Japan's status within the region by signing the Anglo–Japanese alliance. This showed just how strong Japan had become, putting it on equal terms with other European powers. In 1905, Japan's confidence as a new power on the world stage was demonstrated by its victory over the Russians. For the first time, an Asian power had defeated a European empire. This was a major humiliation for the Russians, who were forced to leave Korea, which Japan now saw as part of its own 'sphere of influence'.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Anglo-Indian
- Anglophile
- Boxers
- British Raj
- caste system
- Canton System
- convert
- coolies
- diaspora
- edict
- evangelical revival
- Hong merchants
- legation
- opium
- sepoy
- shogun
- trade deficit
- unequal treaty

Understanding and evaluating

2 Use the information in this unit to create a detailed mind map showing the different ways that various Asian societies and people responded to European contact, colonisation and influence.

3 Reread 'Reactions to the spread of Christianity' and 'Rebellion against European control'.

a Account for the rise in the numbers of missionaries who went to India after 1813.
b Why was Christianity attractive to some Indians?
c Why did the spread of Christianity anger some Indians?
d How did the Vietnamese emperors Minh Mang and Tu Duc react to the spread of Christianity?
e Who ruled India from 1757 to 1858?
f How did this group maintain its authority in India?
g How did the British respond to the Indian Rebellion of 1857?
h Why did the Boxers reject everything foreign?
i How did the Boxers threaten European interests in China?

Evaluating

4 Reread 'Accepting European influence'. Create a two-column table with columns headed 'Forced acceptance' and 'Voluntary acceptance'. Use the information in the text to add point-form notes below each heading.

5 Reread 'Modernisation'. Write an extended response of one paragraph, comparing and contrasting the modernisation of India and Japan.

6 Using the information in 'Asian influences on the world' as well as your own research, create a three-page report on the influence of *one* Asian country over the last two centuries. In your report, consider:

a the effects of migration from and to the country
b the changing role of the country in the world
c the positive contributions the country has made to the world.

Conclude by making a well-supported judgement about the extent of change in the country in the last two hundred years.

UNIT 5

EMERGENCE OF ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND POLITICAL IDEAS

THE AGE OF REVOLUTION

A **revolution** can occur for a variety of reasons, for example when large numbers of people within a society become so discontented with life that they overthrow the government. This occurred in both North America and France during the late eighteenth century, marking the beginning of an Age of Revolution. New leaders began to dismantle the repressive laws, institutions and traditions that had supported the old regimes. These changes were far-reaching and resulted in a complete reorganisation of each nation's political, social and economic life. Although a revolution usually begins with a sudden and violent seizure of power, it is a process of change that lasts for many years.

SOURCE 1.5.1

Planting of a Tree of Liberty, by the Lesueur brothers, c. 1789. Held at Musée Carnavalet, Paris, France. During the French Revolution the planting of 'liberty trees' was an expression of support for the new republic.

Q **In what ways did the planting of a young tree represent the new republic in France?**

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

With victory in the Seven Years War (1756–63), Britain ended French influence in North America. The war had, however, put the British government heavily into debt. It was widely felt in Britain that the American colonists should bear some of the tax burden for having the British army protect them. The introduction of taxes caused an outcry from the colonists, who rallied behind the slogan of 'no taxation without representation'. Many believed that it was unfair to pay taxes to a government thousands of kilometres away and over which they had no say. American patriots at first avoided paying taxes by boycotting British imported goods such as tea. This led to a series of confrontations between British troops and the American colonists, and in April 1775 armed conflict broke out. The American War of Independence lasted for seven years, until General George Washington's Continental Army of part-time soldiers finally defeated the British 'redcoats'. The sovereignty of the United States of America was officially declared on 3 September 1783 with the signing of the Treaty of Paris.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

The French Revolution (1789–99) is regarded as one of history's great turning points. It brought an end to the medieval feudal system of land ownership in France and also eventually throughout Europe.

Not everyone in France at the time supported the changes produced by the revolution. After the execution of King Louis XVI (1793), opponents of the revolution sought to crush it with the help of foreign armies. This threat to the revolution led to a period known as the Reign of Terror, during which thousands of innocent victims were beheaded by a new and 'humane' death machine—the guillotine.

The French Revolution introduced ideals such as the right to vote, equality before the law, freedom of speech and the right to a fair trial. After the revolution in France, careers within the civil service and military were based on merit rather than noble birthright. For this reason, the French Revolution is said to have given rise to the 'common man' and the emergence of the modern era.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION BROUGHT ABOUT EQUALITY EVEN IN DEATH.

Before the revolution, capital punishment for the nobility was decapitation, while commoners were hung. During and after the revolution, those condemned to death were all decapitated, no matter how lowly their social standing.

IDEAS THAT SHAPED THE MODERN WORLD

INFLUENCE OF CLASSICAL DEMOCRACY

Democracy is a form of government in which citizens elect representatives to create laws on their behalf. The ancient Greek word *demokratia* literally means 'people power'. Democracy originated in Ancient Athens during the fifth century BC(BCE). Any male citizen of Athens could attend the Assembly to discuss, debate and vote on the issues of the day. Over time, however, only citizens who owned property could hold public office. In Rome, important decisions were made by a Senate, comprising men from among the 500 wealthiest families in the city.

With little else to guide them, those who created the first modern democracies relied on these classical models. As a result, these democracies were quite limited and unlike our democratic system today. At first, voting rights were given to just a few wealthy citizens who owned property. When British democracy began to develop in the nineteenth century, it also reflected the classical models of democracy: that only wealthier citizens could be trusted with the right to vote.

SOURCE 1.5.2 *The Taking of the Bastille, 14 July 1789*. Held at Palais de Versailles, Paris, France

Q How is this source useful in helping us to understand the nature of the French Revolution?

REPUBLICANISM

After the success of the revolutions in America and France, both societies became republics. A **republic** is a form of government in which the head of state is a citizen of the nation rather than a monarch. While republicanism dates back to Ancient Rome, it was during the eighteenth-century Enlightenment that the idea became popular in France and in the British colonies of North America. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, republicans objected to the monarchy having any role in government, believing that political power ought to be exercised solely by and for the people.

THE AMERICAN REPUBLIC

The first republic established during the modern era was the United States of America. This occurred in 1783 with their victory against the British and the establishment of a new constitution that made an elected citizen, the president, head of state. The **Declaration of Independence** not only announced the USA's separation from Britain but also established the principles on which the new republican government would be based. In creating a new government for themselves, Americans rejected any form of monarchy, preferring instead a system of 'rule by the people'.

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

SOURCE 1.5.3 From the American Declaration of Independence, 1776

Q
1. **Identify the phrases that refer to freedom and equality.**
2. **Why did the writers of the Declaration of Independence reject the system of absolute monarchy?**

THE FIRST FRENCH REPUBLIC

In 1793, a new constitution was proclaimed in France, making it also a republic for the first time. After centuries of rule, the Bourbon monarchy was formally abolished and the ex-King Louis XVI was tried and executed for treason. The 1793 constitution established a new set of rules for government in France. It removed property ownership as a requirement for voting, thus making all French males over the age of 21 citizens of the nation. The same constitution also required that every 40 000 citizens should elect a deputy to represent their interests in the National Convention and that elections take place every three years.

LIBERALISM

Liberalism was a movement that aimed at protecting and improving the rights of individuals. Liberalism, like republicanism, emerged from the 'rights of man' philosophy that inspired the American and French revolutions. This was a view that human beings were born into a state of perfect freedom, or liberty. Liberals therefore saw the role of government as protecting people's basic liberties, or rights. They advocated a minimal role for government, and believed that it should not prevent individual citizens from becoming wealthy. In 1776, Adam Smith wrote *The Wealth of Nations*, in which he claimed that nations became wealthier only when the 'free market' was allowed to operate without interference from government.

NATIONALISM

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

As a result of the French Revolution in 1789, people were made citizens of the nation and ceased being subjects of the king. Since their loyalty was then with the government they themselves had elected, people were more willing to defend it. With Prussian victory against the French in 1871, twenty-five German-speaking states unified to become the nation state of Germany. This was mainly for defensive reasons but also unified millions of German speakers of the same race and common culture.

At around the same time, people in Australia had come to the realisation that they were different from the British. While remaining fiercely loyal to the British Empire, people throughout the Australian colonies voted to unite under one federal government. On 1 January 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia was officially declared. Australia too had become a nation.

THE STRUGGLE FOR DEMOCRACY

THE CHARTIST MOVEMENT

Named after the six-point **People's Charter** of 1838, the Chartist movement called for the introduction of electoral reforms to make Britain more democratic. These included full male **suffrage** (the right of all men to vote), the secret ballot, pay for parliamentarians, equal-size electorates and annual elections. During the 1840s, Chartists organised mass rallies throughout Britain, which often became violent. Drawing on large working-class support, the Chartists were able to gather a petition with over 3.5 million signatures calling on the British parliament to pass electoral reform. When this petition was rejected in 1842, the Chartists organised a general

strike across Britain, which threatened to cripple the economy and weaken the government's grip on power. In response, the government used soldiers to round up strikers and protesters and arrest Chartist leaders. This did not stop several prominent Chartists from being elected to parliament during the following decade and in 1867, an Electoral Reform Act was passed, lowering the property qualifications required to vote. In 1872, the British parliament introduced voting by secret ballot, thus ensuring that the true will of each voter could be represented at the ballot box. By the early 1900s, however, all women and any ordinary working men who did not own property still had not been granted the right to vote.

SOURCE 1.5.4 In this cartoon, a huge scroll is carried by signatories of the Chartist Movement petition who are attempting, unsuccessfully, to get it through the door of British Parliament, 1938.

Q
1 What event, described in the text, is being shown in this source?
2 What is the comment being made by the cartoonist?

THE EUREKA REBELLION

Eureka has been called the 'birthplace of Australian democracy'. The Eureka rebellion of 1854 is one of the very few examples in Australian history of an armed uprising by the common people. During the gold rushes of the 1840s and 50s, miners, or 'diggers' as they were called, resented the high licence fees they were forced to pay. The licence fee issue became the focal point of a much larger protest against the lack of democratic rights in colonial Victoria. Without the right to vote, diggers had no say over the government decisions that affected their everyday lives. The only way they could make their views known was to protest by refusing to carry their licences and, in some cases, publicly burning them.

Relations between the diggers and the police were at their worst in Ballarat. On 11 November 1854, the Ballarat Reform League was created for the purpose of demanding political reforms. Many of its leaders were recent immigrants from Britain who had played an active role in the Chartist movement during the previous decade. The League debated whether or not it should encourage the diggers to take up arms against the authorities. On 29 November, a gathering of about a thousand diggers burned their licences in a gesture of defiance to the colonial authorities. Under the leadership of Peter Lalor, the diggers built a **stockade** to protect themselves from police arrest. Lalor made the diggers pledge an oath of allegiance to the flag of the Southern Cross, which had become the symbol of justice and equality. The diggers were easily outnumbered, however, and the fight was over in twenty minutes. Although none of the diggers was ever convicted, the Eureka rebellion came to symbolise the fight of the ordinary person for justice and basic rights.

SOURCE 1.5.5 Remains of the original Southern Cross flag hoisted at the Eureka Stockade. Held at the Art Gallery of Ballarat

Q Why do you think the diggers at Eureka chose the Southern Cross as a symbol to rally behind?

WINNING THE RIGHT TO VOTE

In the aftermath of the Eureka rebellion, colonial parliaments throughout Australia passed a number of important democratic reforms including full male suffrage, the secret ballot, pay for parliamentarians and **triennial elections** (occurring every third year). These reforms put Australia well ahead of many European nations. The introduction of full male suffrage in South Australia, for example, occurred sixty-two years before the same reform was introduced in Britain. This earned Australia a reputation throughout the world as a 'laboratory for democracy'—in other words, as an example that the rest of the world could learn from.

FEMALE SUFFRAGE

Female suffrage took longer to achieve in Australia. By the beginning of the 1880s, women were still denied the same voting rights as men. Established in 1888, the Women's Suffrage League of South Australia was the first female suffrage group established in Australia. Campaigners for women's suffrage, known as **suffragists**, worked tirelessly to convince their colonial governments to grant women equal voting rights with men. During protest rallies, suffragists in both Britain and Australia wore the colour purple as a symbol of unity. In 1891, Victorian suffragists collected about 30 000 signatures on a 260-metre-long linen scroll, known as the 'monster petition'. In 1894, South Australia became the first Australian colony to grant women the right to vote, followed by Western Australia in 1899. At the time of Federation, these were the only women permitted to vote in federal elections. Women of other states had only to wait a few years, when the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* finally introduced **universal suffrage**, or the right of all adults to vote.

COLONY (STATE SINCE 1901)	VOTE FOR ALL ADULT MALES	VOTE FOR WOMEN IN STATE/ COLONIAL ELECTIONS
New South Wales	1858	1902
Queensland	1872	1905
South Australia	1856	1894
Tasmania	1900	1903
Victoria	1857	1908
Western Australia	1893	1899

SOURCE 1.5.6 Democratic changes in Australia, 1856–1908

Q
1. Which was the first Australia colony to grant adult males the right to vote?
2. Which two colonies were the first to introduce female suffrage?
3. What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of triennial parliaments?

AUSTRALIAN EGALITARIANISM

Egalitarianism refers to the belief in a 'fair go' for all. It is thought to be an especially Australian value. Ideals of fairness, equality, helping your mates when the 'chips are down' are all features of Australian egalitarianism. Some have attributed this attitude to Australia's convict origins and the pioneering spirit needed to survive in the Australian bush. During times of drought, bushfire and floods, pioneer settlers had to help one another out, in order to survive. This was thought to be the origin of the Australian concept of mateship.

BELIEF IN A CLASSLESS SOCIETY

Throughout the nineteenth century, Australia developed a far less rigid class structure than that in Britain. Opportunities for advancement attracted many new settlers from Britain, many of whom had never owned land previously. Such opportunities led to greater **social mobility** in Australia than in Britain. Social mobility refers to the ability of individuals to rise above the socioeconomic situation into which they were born. This gave rise to the view that Australia was a 'classless' society. From the time of the gold rush (1850s), jobs were plentiful and wages high. It seemed as though Australia was a 'working man's paradise'. The development of a strong trade union movement at this time added to the belief that Australians looked after their own.

UNIVERSAL EDUCATION

By 1880, the colonial parliaments of South Australia, Victoria and New South Wales had all passed laws making primary education free and compulsory. This was another example of how Australia led the world in reforms for the improvement of life for ordinary people. Such laws not only created a literacy boom in the decades that followed, they also brought an end to child labour. The building of new rural schools and the hiring of teachers required major investment by colonial governments. In more remote areas, 'house-to-house' schools were established. These were made up of three to four families who would take turns at travelling to each other's house in order to be taught by a visiting teacher. Equipped with the ability to read and write, children from poorer families then had the opportunity to become skilled workers and earn higher rates of pay. The introduction of universal education therefore played an important role in bringing greater social mobility to Australia.

A FAIR GO FOR ALL?

Australian egalitarianism, however, has not always been extended to everyone living in Australia. The concept of a 'fair go' for all seemed to apply only to British males throughout the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. During this period, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, Chinese immigrants, South Pacific Islander People, non-European immigrants and women were all, in one way or another, denied the rights that white males of British origin enjoyed. On 1 January 1901, the new Commonwealth of Australia was officially declared. Among the first laws passed by the new federal parliament was a law restricting the entry of non-Europeans into Australia, as well as a law requiring the deportation of South Pacific Islander People. The new federal constitution did not even recognise Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People as citizens. Although the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* gave women the right to vote, the same law excluded Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People from voting in federal elections.

SOURCE 1.5.7 New public school at Hillgrove, New South Wales in the 1880s

What evidence could a historian use from this source about the nature of public schooling in the 1880s?

DID YOU KNOW?

ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE HAD THE RIGHT TO VOTE BEFORE THE 1967 REFERENDUM.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People had the right to vote in Australia from as early as 1949. The last state to change legislation for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People in regards to voting rights was Queensland, in 1965. The referendum in 1967 was to change sections 51 and sections 127 of the constitution which, until this time, did not include Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People as members of the Australian community. In the referendum, 90.77 per cent of Australians voted Yes to making the amendments to the constitution.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Declaration of Independence
- democracy
- egalitarianism
- liberalism
- nationalism
- People's Charter
- republic
- revolution
- social mobility
- stockade
- suffrage
- suffragists
- triennial elections
- universal suffrage

2 After rereading 'The Age of Revolution', decide whether the following statements are true or false.

- The Age of Revolution occurred throughout Europe and the New World.
- A revolution usually occurs over a relatively short period of time.
- The American Revolution resulted in the end of British rule in North America.
- The French Revolution brought an end to the feudal system.
- The French Revolution established new rights and freedoms for ordinary people.
- Death by guillotine was reserved for the nobles who opposed the French Revolution.

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'Ideas that shaped the modern world'.

a When and where did democracy originate?

b What influence did classical models of democracy have on the first democracies of the modern era?

c What is a republic and what was the first republic established during the modern era?

d How did the 1793 constitution make France a republic?

e What was liberalism and what role did liberals see for the government?

f Why was nationalism so influential throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries?

Evaluating

4 Select *one* of the following issues or events referred to in 'The struggle for democracy':

- the Chartist movement
- the Eureka rebellion
- winning the right to vote in the Australian colonies
- female suffrage in Australia.

On an A3-sized sheet, create a four-column table, titled 'Causes' (factors that led to the event/issue), 'Course' (how the event/issue unfolded), 'Consequences' (what happened as a result of the event/issue) and 'Concepts' (terms and their definitions related to the event/issue). Use the text, and your own research to fill each column with relevant information.

5 After reading 'Australian egalitarianism' and conducting your own research, write a discussion on the reasons for and against Australia being considered an egalitarian society. Start your discussion with a statement that previews the issue of debate. Next, explain the arguments for Australia being considered egalitarian and then the arguments against. Conclude by making your own judgement and recommendations.

UNIT 6

SOURCE STUDY:

THE CHANGING RANGE OF USEFUL SOURCES

SOCIAL HISTORY: HOW PEOPLE LIVED

Social history is a branch of history concerned with finding out how ordinary people of the past lived, worked and made sense of the world around them. Social history first became popular during the 1970s, when historians began to question the narrow focus of traditional history. The writing of history up to that point had been dominated by the actions and decisions of a relatively few significant individuals (most of whom were men) and the more powerful groups in society. Traditional historians had largely ignored the lives and contributions of ordinary people. Throughout history, many of the world's people could not read or write, so social historians have often been forced to rely on non-written sources to help reconstruct the past. These include:

- stories and legends passed down orally
- popular songs and poetry
- artworks, sketches and cartoons
- advertising and other posters
- photographs and portraits
- antiques and artefacts
- archaeological remains.

INTERPRETING HISTORICAL SOURCES

When interpreting written and other historical sources, it is important to find answers to the following questions. Some of these may be evident in the source itself, while others may require additional research. Use the acronym ADAMANT to help you remember these.

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

SOURCE 1.6.1 A British cartoon produced in 1851 about the effects of female emigration to Australia. Held at the State Library of Tasmania

WRITTEN SOURCES AND LITERACY RATES

Most written records from before the twentieth century in Australia were produced by the educated minority in society. Convicts, for example, produced very few written records. Letters, diaries, reports, stories and other written sources therefore reflected the interests and values of the more privileged members of society—the military officers, doctors, government officials and business people. From about 1870, colonial parliaments began to introduce universal education. This made primary schooling compulsory for every child from ages 5 to 9. As a result, the rate of literacy in Australia increased dramatically. By the following decade, new publications such as *The Bulletin* appealed to Australia's increasingly literate working class with poems, cartoons and stories of the Australian bush. During World War I, the high rate of adult literacy meant that many soldiers were able to keep secret diaries and regularly communicate to loved ones at home by letter. Today, these accounts provide an invaluable source of information about the war from a soldier's perspective.

SOURCE 1.6.2 American advertisement for the Kodak camera, 1901

Q
1. How does this source help a historian understand how new technology gave rise to new hobbies?
2. What advantages would owning your own camera have offered to people at the time?

PHOTOGRAPHY

Since the first successful photograph was taken in 1823 CE, photographs have provided historians with vital information about what happened and how people in the past lived. Although the first cameras were costly and tricky to use, people of the nineteenth century found the idea of owning a true portrait of themselves or their families greatly appealing. It was not until the development of the Brownie camera by Kodak in 1900 that ordinary people could both afford and use cameras of their own. Cameras soon became more portable and photographs more natural. In Australia, more and more photographs emerged of people enjoying life outdoors. Picnics were a common setting for Australian family photographs.

INTERPRETING OLD PHOTOGRAPHS

A historical photograph can show you what an old relative looked like or enable you to determine how your local area or city has changed over time. But do photographs simply provide a 'mirror into the past'? Historians need to consider the possibility that the photograph was intentionally staged to create a certain effect or, even worse, that it is a fake. Even before the arrival of digital photography, the technique of airbrushing was used to delete people from photographs or insert others who were not in the original scene. Historians can verify the authenticity of a photograph by examining supporting material such as accompanying news articles, letters and companion photographs.

DID YOU KNOW?

IN 2002, A FAKE PHOTOGRAPH OF NED KELLY WAS SOLD AT AUCTION FOR $19 080.

The person in the photograph was found to be someone other than Ned Kelly when comparisons were made with the plaster death mask of Kelly's head that had been created just hours after he was hanged on 11 November 1880.

SOURCE 1.6.3 A family picnic taken, c. 1900. Held at the State Library of Victoria

Q This photograph is an example of an early family portrait taken on location. What comments can be made about the type of people in the scene?

WORKS OF ART

Historians are interested in works of art as historical sources because they can tell us a lot about how people of the time looked and lived, and how they saw the world around them.

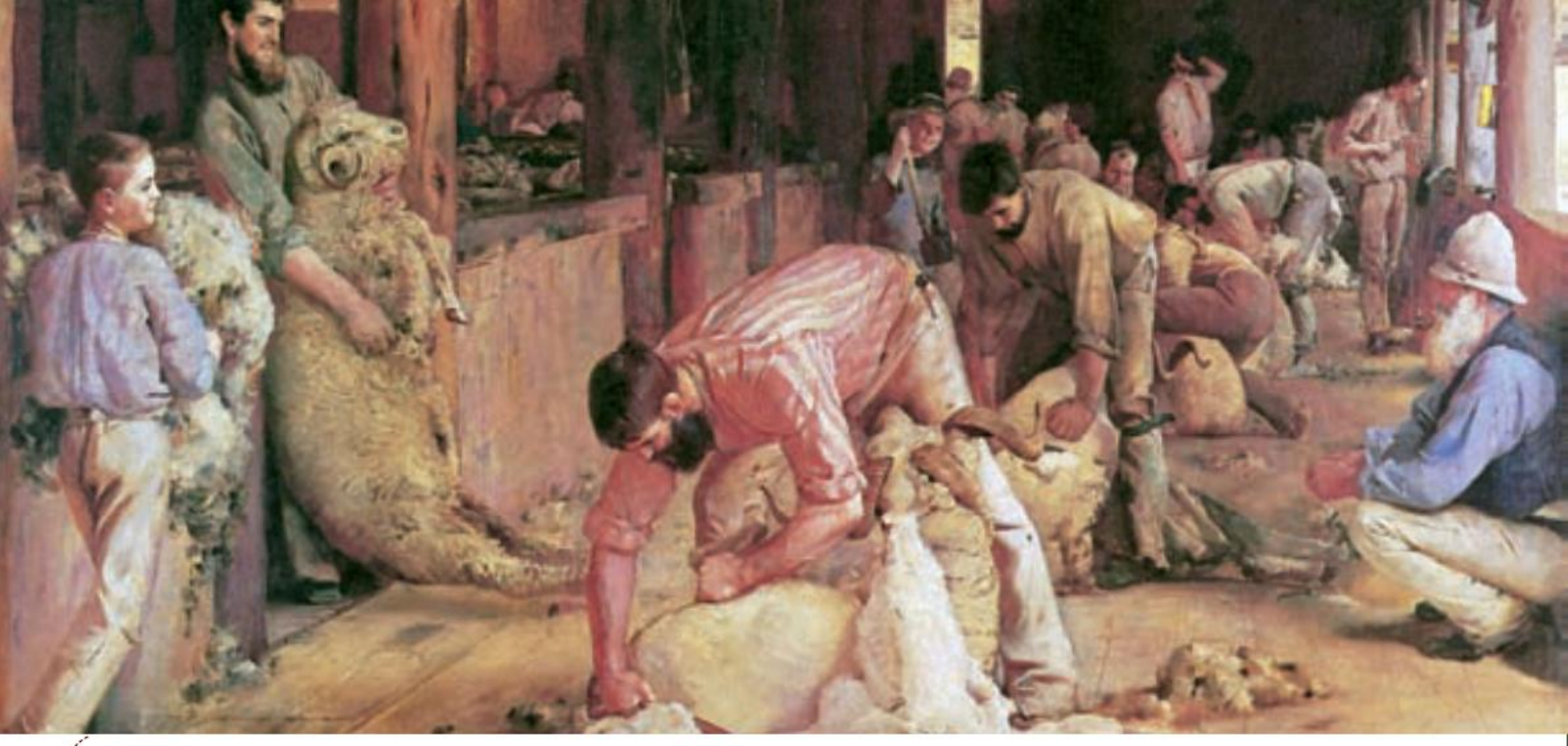
INTERPRETING WORKS OF ART

While anyone can enjoy art, historians are mainly interested in how a painting, drawing, or sculpture reflects the values and attitudes of the time being investigated. Paintings from the time are particularly useful for showing the colours of a scene or landscape. For example, from the 1880s, the Heidelberg School of art began to portray the Australian bush in its true colours. Artists such as Arthur Streeton, Frederick McCubbin and Tom Roberts were impressionists, who preferred painting outdoors so that they could capture the colours, shades and light of their subject matter.

SOURCE 1.6.5 Inside a shearing shed, Jondaryan station, Queensland, 1894. Held at Fryer Library, University of Queensland

SOURCE 1.6.4 *On the Wallaby Track*, by Frederick McCubbin, 1904. Held at the Art Gallery of New South Wales

Q How are the people in this bush scene different from those shown in Source 1.6.3?



SOURCE 1.6.6 *Shearing the Rams*, by Tom Roberts, 1890. Held at the National Gallery of Victoria

Q **Compare and contrast Sources 1.6.5 and 1.6.6. Which do you think is the more realistic and why?**

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING

1 Examine Sources 1.6.3 and 1.6.4.

- **a** Note the title of the artwork shown in Source 1.6.4. Find out what the term 'On the Wallaby' refers to.
- **b** What type of sources are 1.6.3 and 1.6.4?

UNDERSTANDING AND EVALUATING

2 Examine Source 1.6.2.

- **a** Who is the creator (or author) of the source?
- **b** What is the nature of this source?
- **c** What techniques has the creator of the source used to achieve their purpose?

3 Examine Sources 1.6.3 and 1.6.5.

- **a** In what ways could the invention of photography have helped historians to find out about the past?
- **b** What can old photographs such as these tell us about the way people lived and worked at the turn of the century?

EVALUATING

4 Examine Sources 1.6.5 and 1.6.6.

- **a** What is the nature of each source?
- **b** How is the scene in Source 1.6.5 different from the one in Source 1.6.6?
- **c** What image of shearing has the artist in Source 1.6.6 created?
- **d** How can biased, unrealistic or inaccurate sources still be of use to historians?

ANALYSING

5 Apply the ADAMANT technique to either Source 1.6.1 or Source 1.6.6. You will have to find out who created the source and for what purpose. Some of the information can be found in the caption below each source. To locate other information, type the caption into a search engine.

SOURCE 1.7.1

The opening of the first Parliament of the Commonwealth, 9 May 1901

CHAPTER 2

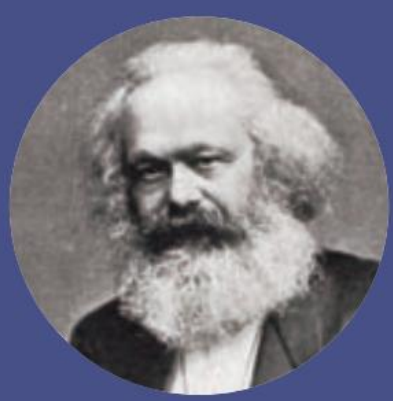
INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- What are the key features of the ideas and movements that shaped Australia?
- How did these ideas or movements first emerge and then develop?
- What role did key individuals and groups play in the promotion of and response to these ideas and movements?
- What have been the short- and long-term impacts of these ideas and movements on Australia and the world?

DEPTH STUDY 1
MAKING A BETTER WORLD?

The modern age was characterised by new ideas, some of which became so popular that they became movements. Each of these was based on a unique set of beliefs about the nature of human beings, their role in society, how they should be governed and their relationship to peoples from other societies and places. Capitalism, socialism, trade unionism, Chartism, nationalism and egalitarianism were all progressive ideas aimed at making permanent improvements to society.

Many of the rights and freedoms we take for granted today come from these ideas and movements. Capitalism has driven remarkable technological change, resulting in economic growth and increased personal wealth for each new generation of Australians. Socialism and trade unionism have helped to create a fairer and more just society, in which there are limits to hours of work and the guarantee of a minimum wage. The Chartists of the nineteenth century fought to achieve democratic rights for all, and today it is compulsory for all Australians over the age of 18 to vote. Nationalism has made Australians independent and confident of playing a part on the world stage. Egalitarianism, although more of an ideal to aspire to, has been kept alive by those who believe in the value of a 'fair go' for all.



PROGRESSIVE IDEAS AND MOVEMENTS

SOURCE 2.0.1 Light and sound show of Eureka Stockade at Sovereign Hill, Victoria

SNAPSHOT 1750–1918

1800

1807 First bale of Australian merino wool arrives in London

1813 End of British East India Company's exclusive trade rights throughout British Empire

1821 End of Lachlan Macquarie's governorship of New South Wales

1825

1830 British government limits settlement in New South Wales to just 'nineteen counties'
1831 Land sales begin in New South Wales

1838 Creation of the 'People's Charter' for democratic rights in Britain
1842 Chartists in Britain organise general strike

1844 Governor Gipps places restrictions on land ownership in New South Wales
1848 Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels publish *The Communist Manifesto*

1850

1850 Australia becomes the largest wool exporter in the world
1854 Eureka rebellion on the Victorian goldfields leads to the introduction of democratic reforms in Australia
1856 Eight-hour working day introduced in Victoria
1859 Rules of a new game, Australian football, formulated

1875

1877 First Australian cricket team defeats England at the Melbourne Cricket Ground

1884 'Fabian Society' established in London

1889 Sir Henry Parkes delivers his famous 'Tenterfield speech'
1890 Beginning of economic depression throughout Australia. Series of 'Great Strikes' begins
1891 Establishment of the Australian Labor Party. Australasian Federal Convention drafts a federal constitution

1900

SOURCE 2.1.1 Timeline of progressive ideas and movements

GREAT 'ISMS' OF THE MODERN AGE

Capitalism, socialism, trade unionism, racism, imperialism, sexism, nationalism, Chartism, Darwinism, social Darwinism, environmentalism ... What exactly is an 'ism'? A word ending in 'ism' usually denotes a set of ideas about 'big picture' issues such as the nation, the government, the economy, society, relations between nations, or the environment. Some 'isms' have been so widely accepted that, at times, people were not even aware that there were alternatives to these ways of thinking (for example racism or sexism). Most, however, are well-developed belief systems that make certain claims about the rights and responsibilities of individuals within a society.

Some of these ideas attracted widespread support in Australia and developed into significant movements for change. These particular 'isms' were capitalism, socialism, egalitarianism, trade unionism, Chartism and nationalism. These are considered to be progressive ideas and movements because of the improvements they brought to Australian society. This chapter will explore those 'isms' that made a significant contribution to the development of Australia in the period 1788–1918.

CAPITALISM

Capitalism is an economic system based on competition between sellers, who all want to make a profit. Without capitalism, the Industrial Revolution would never have occurred. Capitalists are individuals who invest their money into new business ventures in order to make a profit. The Scientific Age gave rise to new inventions such as the steam engine, but it was the growing class of capitalists in Britain who used these tools to establish the factory system. This meant that goods could be manufactured in large quantities and in a relatively short time. During the Industrial Revolution capitalists grew wealthy by exporting manufactured goods throughout the British Empire. Over time, capitalists replaced the old nobility as the wealthiest group in British society.

SOURCE 2.1.2 Banner displayed in a protest against job losses in London, 2008

Q
1 Why would unemployment be seen as a failure of capitalism?
2 How does the artwork in the banner attempt to show that 'capitalism isn't working'?

SOURCE 2.1.3 Critics of US President Barack Obama have branded him a 'socialist', as he proprosed legislation to make health care in the United States of America more affordable.

Q
1 What does this poster reveal about the attitudes of some people in the United States towards socialism?
2 Referring to the definition in the text above, is it fair to call President Obama a socialist?

SOCIALISM

At its most basic level, the aim of socialism is to redistribute wealth from the rich to the poor. During the Industrial Revolution, as capitalists grew extremely wealthy from the factory system, the growing urban working-class had barely enough to survive on. Factory conditions were often appalling and the working day was as long as fourteen hours. Socialists believed that the profits created by workers ought to be given back to the workers. By the middle of the nineteenth century, two strands of socialism had emerged—revolutionary socialism, or communism; and democratic socialism, otherwise known as Fabianism.

EGALITARIANISM

Egalitarianism is both a social and a political philosophy. In an egalitarian society, all people have equal social, economic and political status. An egalitarian society is considered to be a 'classless' society; that is, there is no upper, middle or lower class—everyone is considered equal. In Australia, this ideal is often associated with the term 'a fair go for all' and in the United States it is associated with the phrase 'all men are created equal'.

NATIONALISM

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

As the population of people born in Australia grew, so did Australian nationalism. By 1890, most people in Australia were native born (had been born there). Although they remained fiercely loyal to the British Empire, many people began to realise that they were also somehow different. This growing sense of identity was one of the main reasons why people throughout the Australian colonies voted to unite under one federal government. On 1 January 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia was officially declared. Australia too had become a nation.

A negative consequence of nationalism was seen fourteen years later, when competition between powerful rival nations in Europe led to the outbreak of World War I.

SOURCE 2.1.4 'Australia's imperishable record'—a World War I recruitment poster. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1 How does this poster show the pride Australians felt at playing their part in World War I?
2 How do Sir Ian Hamilton's words reveal a belief about the superiority of the British race?

IMPERIALISM

Imperialism can be thought of as 'empire building', whereby a more powerful nation or people extends its influence over a less powerful group. An example of this can be seen in Britain's rule over Australia and New Zealand from 1788. The British also believed that other peoples would benefit from being brought under British control.

Cultural imperialism is said to occur when one group of people is forced to give up its beliefs, ideas, values or practices for those of an outsider group. This usually occurs over time.

Although the Age of Empires is said to have begun with the expansion of European empires in the seventeenth century, empires existed in ancient times. Asian empires existed centuries before Europeans began to dominate the people of Asia. The Mongol Empire was one of the greatest empires in history. It began with the rise of Genghis Khan, who united the warring Mongol tribes in 1206 before going on to conquer most of the Asian continent. At its height, the Mongol Empire spanned roughly 16 per cent of the Earth's surface and controlled over 100 million people.

> *When Britain first at Heav'n's command*
> *Arose from out the azure main;*
> *This was the charter of the land,*
> *And guardian angels sang this strain;*
> *Rule, Britannia! Britannia, rule the waves:*
> *Britons never will be slaves*

SOURCE 2.1.5 Chorus of 'Rule Britannia', written by James Thomson and put to music in c. 1740 by Thomas Augustine Arne

Q
1 What is the reference to Britain's superior navy?
2 How do these words imply that God is on Britain's side?

DARWINISM

Darwinism is named after Charles Darwin, who developed the theory of evolution by natural selection. He proposed that different species in the animal and plant kingdoms came about due to competition between members of the species and that those with the traits or characteristics better suited to their environment would survive. This idea challenged the religious view of the day that God had created all animals and plants. The application of Darwin's theory of evolution to human affairs is known as social Darwinism. This theory views human beings as being in natural competition with each another, and accepts that the strongest and most intelligent race or group will naturally dominate the weaker.

CHARTISM

The Chartist movement demanded reforms to the electoral process, as ordinary working people were unable to vote in Britain. Chartists organised mass protests rallies, petitions and even general strikes to make their demands heard. Ultimately, however, the British Chartist movement failed to achieve any of its aims. Several of its leaders were arrested and transported to Australia, where they continued to promote their ideas. Some of these men became the leaders of the Eureka rebellion in 1854. Within a year of the rebellion, colonial parliaments in Australia had enacted laws that met most of the demands of the 1838 People's Charter.

THE EMERGENCE OF AND KEY IDEAS IN CAPITALISM

Capitalism is an economic system in which individuals establish businesses for the purpose of making a profit. In a capitalist system, businesses sell goods and services that customers want and need. Competition between businesses leads to the development of better and often cheaper products. Capitalism could not function without **entrepreneurs** to invest their money in new business ventures. Entrepreneurs take calculated risks in seeking new opportunities based on people's desire for new goods and services.

Capitalism has been identified as one of the main driving forces behind the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century. The search for natural resources, foreign products, free or cheap labour and new markets led to the expansion of the British Empire right around the globe. Until 1813, the very powerful British East India Company controlled most of this business. Australia also played a key role in the expansion of British trade during this time by developing one of the largest wool industries in the world.

CAPITALISM IN EARLY AUSTRALIA

By the end of Macquarie's governorship in 1821, the British government was keen for New South Wales to become much less reliant on money and supplies from the mother country. Many free settlers were willing to try their hands at farming and, in particular, the very profitable wool industry. Finding the necessary land to begin these ventures, however, was a major obstacle, as the Crown (or British government) owned all the land. Governors could hand out land as they saw fit, but under the first few governors, little more than 1000 square miles (2590 square kilometres) had been granted freely. Most was assigned to a select group of wealthier immigrants who had come from England. There were very few conditions attached to these handouts. All that the new landowner was required to do was to live on the property and make some attempt to improve it.

SOURCE 2.2.1 Albion Mills in Darling Harbour, Sydney, before 1841, by Frederick Garling. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

Q List the evidence from the painting that this was an area where commerce took place.

THE GROWTH OF COMMERCE

As the population of Sydney grew, food production increased, and the threats of starvation and abandonment of the colony receded. There was an increase in the colonists' desire for better food, clothing and household goods that the colony itself could not produce. In short, they wanted to import those things they missed, such as tea, sugar and tobacco. Even convicts brought goods out with them from England in the hope that they might sell these for profit before beginning their sentences in the colony.

IMPORTERS

Adding to the urban activity was a growing number of shopkeepers setting up businesses in the large population centres of both Sydney and Hobart. These entrepreneurs imported everything the colony could not make for itself, and many of them became very rich. A few of these successful entrepreneurs were ex-convicts—but even when they were rich, they could not escape their tainted past, and polite society rarely interacted with them.

PRODUCERS

As well as the importers, there were also the producers. Brewing was a very popular industry and women often ran breweries, bakeries and clothes-making businesses. Salt was produced in vast quantities for the preserving of meat. All of these products needed to be sold through shops.

The growing population also needed meat, and larger cattle runs were the only way to supply this growing demand. Cattle farming waned in the late 1820s, however, when a drought and an oversupply of meat made it less attractive and profitable. Wheat farms were cultivated everywhere along the Hawkesbury River flood plain. Even Van Diemen's Land was exporting wheat and fruit to Sydney six years after its settlement.

A NATION 'BUILT ON THE SHEEP'S BACK'

By 1850, Australian wool exports had reached £41 million, making Australia one of the largest wool exporters in the world. Most of the wool was sold to Britain, where it was manufactured into garments in the textile factories. A common saying at the time was that Australia was 'built on the sheep's back'.

The demand for wool from Australian merino sheep, the first bale of which landed in London in 1807, led to a massive expansion of land use in the colonies. Wool growing was so profitable and so well suited to Australian conditions that it became the basis of the fledgling Australian economy.

THE 'NINETEEN COUNTIES'

Many of the **emancipists** (convicts whose terms had expired) and the native-born took up wool growing and by 1830 the British government limited expansion to designated areas called the '**nineteen counties**'. No one was allowed to farm outside that limit because it was becoming too hard for the government to control settlement and impose law and order in the frontier regions. Most people simply ignored the restriction, since if they were going to raise sheep they needed vast fields of grass. As the explorers had discovered, good grazing land existed beyond the 'nineteen counties' limit. The further a settler moved into the country's interior, the less reliable the rainfall, which meant that larger properties were required to support the same number of sheep.

DID YOU KNOW?

IT TAKES A FEW TO MAKE A HERD.

Two bulls and four cows that had come with the First Fleet wandered into the bush in 1788. Within twenty-five years this had created a herd of some 5000 wild cattle. Unfortunately, they were nearly impossible to catch.

SOURCE 2.2.2 The 'nineteen counties' established in 1830

SOURCE 2.2.3 *The Squatter's First Home*, by Alexander Denistoun Lang, c. 1847. Held at the State Library of Victoria

KEY GROUP: SQUATTERS

Those who moved out beyond the 'nineteen counties' became known as **squatters**—people who had settled on land illegally. They occupied whatever land they liked and there was little the government could do to stop them. The land beyond the 'nineteen counties' was ideal for the expansion of pastoral industries such as sheep and cattle because the local Aboriginal People had cleared much of it with their traditional fire practices, creating a paradise for the pastoralists. The squatters claimed much of this unknown frontier territory by making marker boundaries with trees or stones and then building rough shacks, some fencing and perhaps a dam.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL

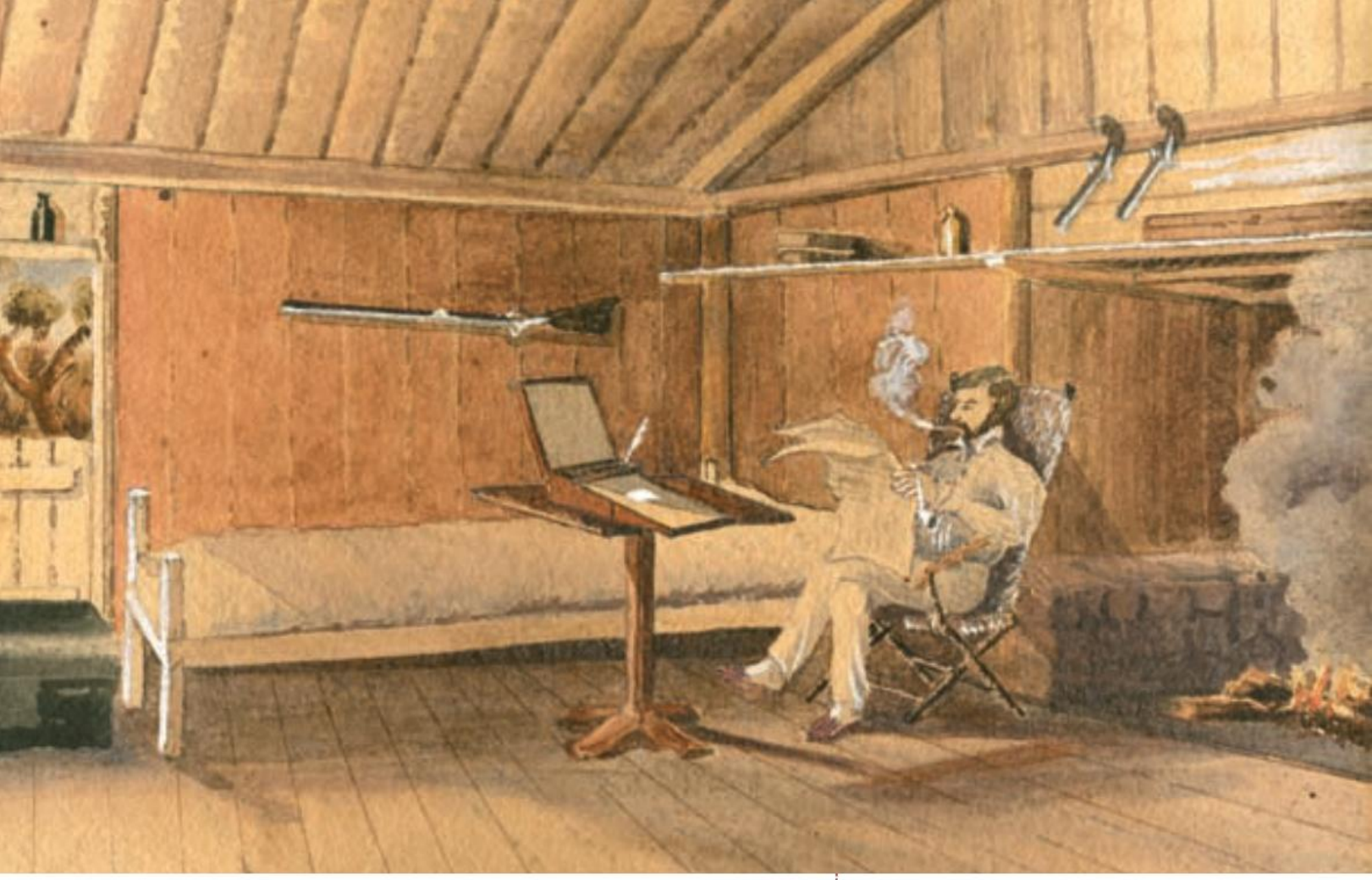
By the 1830s, the government was exerting some measure of control over the land. The sale of leases by auction came in 1831, with prices starting at five shillings an acre (0.4 of a hectare). Squatting was later legalised, and grazing rights were set at £10 per annum. By the 1840s, squatters had become very wealthy, holding vast pastoral leases, some the size of small European countries. However, they still did not own the land they occupied, a matter that concerned them greatly. What incentive was there to improve their holdings, they argued, if they did not have secure ownership of it? Restrictions imposed by Governor Gipps on the ownership of land in 1844 provoked massive demonstrations by squatters, as well as some heavy lobbying by the squatters' friends in London.

SOURCE 2.2.4 A squatter's residence, c. 1870, located about 25 kilometres north-east of Melbourne. Held at the State Library of Victoria

Q

1 **Compare and contrast the squatters' homes depicted in Sources 2.2.3 and 2.2.4.**

2 **Account for the differences in size and grandeur of the two houses.**



SOURCE 2.2.5 *The Squatter Taking His Ease*, by Charles Archer, c. 1845. Held at the John Oxley Library, Queensland

Most government officials were not sympathetic to the squatters, whom they saw as opportunistic land grabbers who had become rich at the expense of others. The squatters, however, saw themselves as the new nobility in a new land, and frequently referred to themselves as the '**squattocracy**'—a play on the word 'aristocracy'—which did not make them popular with poorer settlers or emancipists.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- capitalism
- entrepreneur
- emancipists
- 'nineteen counties'
- squatters
- squattocracy

Understanding and evaluating

2 Reread 'Capitalism in early Australia'.

a Why were new settlers encouraged to come to Australia in the early 1800s?

b To whom were the first land grants given? What did these people have to do in return for receiving land?

c Identify the different types of businesses that sprang up in the early colonies of Australia.

d Which was Australia's most important export industry during the nineteenth century?

e Why did this industry require a large amount of land?

Evaluating

3 Reread 'Key group: squatters'. After conducting your own research, script a conversation between a wealthy squatter and someone opposed to their 'land grab'. The person could be:

- a government official trying to explain why slow and orderly settlement is needed
- a smaller farmer, known as a 'selector', who has been left with much inferior land
- an Aboriginal elder whose people have lost their traditional hunting lands.

THE EMERGENCE OF AND KEY IDEAS IN SOCIALISM AND TRADE UNIONISM

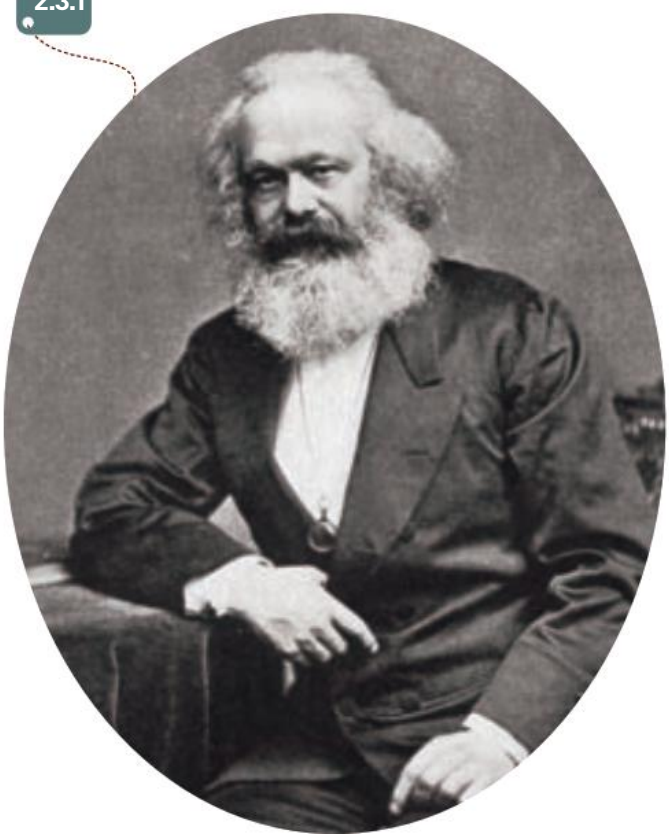
THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIALISM IN EUROPE

In nineteenth-century Europe, most politicians held a **laissez-faire** view of capitalism, believing that the government should interfere as little as possible with business activity. As a result, factory owners paid wages that were barely enough for workers to survive on. Workers were often required to work very long days, sometimes with as little as four hours sleep.

In response, a number of individuals such as Robert Owen, began to think about alternatives to capitalism. Owen established communities of workers that were self-supporting—they produced what they needed and distributed this among all members of the community, regardless of their ability as workers.

Men such as Owen and Henri Saint-Simon were socialists because they believed that workers should have collective ownership of the resources needed to produce profits. At its core, socialism is about the redistribution of wealth from the rich to the poor.

SOURCE 2.3.1 Karl Marx, the founder of the theory of communism



KARL MARX

> *The history of all hitherto existing society is the history of class struggles.*
>
> *Freeman and slave, patrician and plebeian, lord and serf, guild-master and journeyman, in a word, oppressor and oppressed, stood in constant opposition to one another, carried on an uninterrupted, now hidden, now open fight, a fight that each time ended, either in a revolutionary reconstitution of society at large, or in the common ruin of the contending classes.*

SOURCE 2.3.2 From *The Communist Manifesto*, by Karl Marx, 1848

Q
1. What did Marx believe were the two outcomes of class struggle?
2. In your own words, define the following terms:
   a. oppressor
   b. oppressed
   c. reconstitution of society
   d. contending classes.

The evils of industrialisation drew the attention of political philosopher Karl Marx, who in 1848 wrote *The Communist Manifesto* with his friend Friedrich Engels. In this book, Marx and Engels called upon the workers of the world to unite to overthrow their employers and end the unjust system of capitalism. Marx believed that the profits made by capitalists were nothing more than theft from workers.

Marx's theory of revolutionary socialism was known as communism. This type of socialism was far more radical than that of Owen and Saint-Simon. Marx believed that a class struggle between employers and employees would eventually lead to revolution by the workers and the destruction of capitalism through a revolution. After the demise of capitalism, a classless society would emerge based on the principle of 'from each according to his ability to each according to his need'. In other words, people would no longer work for wages but for the improvement of their communities.

Marxist ideas grew more popular as workers became more vocal about the evils of industrialisation. Those from the educated middle class who wanted to improve society also adopted many of Marx's ideas. By the turn of the century, strong communist movements had developed in Germany, Russia, France and Italy.

SOURCE 2.3.3 Trade union membership certificate. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

Q
1 What evidence is there in this image that the trade unionists believed their cause was right and just?
2 Why did trade unionists consider unity to be important? How is this demonstrated in the artwork of this certificate?

SOCIALISM: THE FABIAN SOCIETY

The Fabian Society was founded in London in 1884 with the aim of promoting democratic socialism. It was named after the Ancient Roman consul Quintus Fabius Maximus, who adopted tactics that gradually wore his enemies down rather than attempting to defeat them in one decisive battle.

Members of the Fabian Society believed that socialism should not be achieved through violent revolution, as demanded by communism, but by the slow and gradual process of parliamentary reform. As more and more workers were given the right to vote, Fabians believed that they would elect representatives to parliament who would make improvements to wages and working conditions. The Fabians led the call for the introduction of a minimum wage and a system of universal health care.

The Fabian Society attracted the support of many leading figures in Britain at the time. Among these were playwright George Bernard Shaw, novelists Virginia Woolf and H. G. Wells, women's suffrage campaigner Emmeline Pankhurst, and Ramsay MacDonald, who would go on to become Britain's first Labour prime minister in 1924.

GROWTH OF TRADE UNIONISM IN AUSTRALIA

A severe labour shortage throughout Australia during the **boom years** (1850–90) forced employers to offer high wages and good working conditions to attract skilled workers. These workers were essential for the creation of new public buildings, roads, railways, ports and housing. The growth of the wool, mining and manufacturing industries also required thousands of additional workers.

Although wages were good and work was plentiful, many workers feared the arrival of non-European immigrants who were willing to work for substantially less. It was thought that, by providing employers with a cheap source of labour, non-Europeans would drive down all wages. Many trade unions were formed at this time to protect wages and pressure employers into improving working conditions. Trade unions were associations of workers from within the same industry who could use their collective power to strike, or stop work, and thereby halt production. Strike action was used to force employers to give in to workers' demands, which included a minimum wage, fewer working hours, the introduction of workers' compensation, an end to individual contracts and the banning of non-union labour.

IMPACTS OF THE LABOUR MOVEMENT IN AUSTRALIA

THE 'EIGHT-HOUR' DAY

Before 1856, Australian workers worked ten to eighteen hours a day. The 'Eight Hour' movement called on colonial governments to introduce legislation limiting the working day to just eight hours. This was based on the view that a 24-hour day should be equally divided between sleep, recreation and work—so eight hours of sleep, eight hours of recreation and eight hours of work. To win support for their cause trade unions, charitable organisations and women's groups led strikes, public demonstrations and protest marches. Some church leaders also supported a reduction of working hours, as workers would then have more time to attend church on Sundays.

DID YOU KNOW?

VICTORIAN WORKERS WERE THE FIRST IN THE WORLD TO WIN AN EIGHT-HOUR DAY.

On 21 April 1856, the Victorian parliament passed legislation guaranteeing an eight-hour working day for all skilled workers in the building industry. This was a world first. By the end of the decade, most of Victoria's skilled workforce had been given the eight-hour day.

The trade union movement made the most of having more leisure hours by organising public celebrations and sporting events. With the working day over at 1 p.m. on Saturday, spectator sports such as football and cricket became even more popular. In 1879, Labour Day became an official public holiday in Victoria for the first time. Today, all states still remember the introduction of the eight-hour day on Labour Day, which in Tasmania is still called Eight-hour Day.

THE GREAT STRIKES OF THE 1890s

The economic depression of the 1890s brought new pressures to trade unions. As unemployment increased, union membership declined. With a surplus of available workers, employers no longer had to offer higher rates of pay to attract workers. Wages and working conditions began to decline. In response, trade unionists staged a series of Great Strikes throughout the early 1890s. While these strikes did not last for long, they showed the potential of the unions to disrupt business activity.

The maritime strike of 1890 was the first strike in which several unions worked together to shut down a whole industry. Employers responded by hiring new workers from among the unemployed to break the strike. During the shearers' strike of 1891, trade unionists attacked non-union shearers who were hired. In response, the police were called in to break the picket line formed to prevent non-union shearers from working. The strike failed. In 1894, a second shearers' strike also failed to achieve its aims.

THE AUSTRALIAN LABOR PARTY

By 1893, virtually all the improvements in pay and working conditions that had been won during the previous decades had disappeared. Individual contracts were re-introduced, meaning employers could again pay workers as they saw fit. The failure of the Great Strikes had shown that strike action alone could not prevent the loss of wages and working conditions. Unionists therefore began to focus their attention on 'ballot box' reform to gain political representation in the colonial parliaments. Labour Electoral Leagues were also established to encourage ordinary workers to exercise their newly won right to vote. Unionists believed that once in parliament, labour representatives would make laws favourable to working men.

In 1891, labour groups from the major colonies established Australia's first political party—the Australian Labour Party. Later that year, Labour won 35 of the 141 seats in the New South Wales Legislative Assembly. Throughout the 1890s, Labour representatives sought to introduce a basic 'living' wage and an extension of the eight-hour day to all workers.

In 1912, the party adopted the current spelling of its name, the Australian Labor Party, as it was strongly influenced by the United States labour movement and United States-born King O'Malley was a prominent figure in the early history of the party. This change also made it easier to distinguish between the party and the wider labour movement.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- boom years
- laissez-faire

2 Use each of the following pairs of terms together in an accurate and historically meaningful sentence:

- laissez-faire and business
- collective ownership and socialism
- revolutionary socialism and classless society
- democratic socialism and parliament
- trade unions and picket line
- Labour Electoral Leagues and ballot box

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'The development of socialism in Europe' and 'Karl Marx'.

a How did most governments see their role in relation to business?

b What were the basic beliefs of all socialists?

c What was Marx's attitude towards capitalism?

d What distinguished communism from earlier forms of socialism?

e Describe the nature of the society that Marx thought would emerge after the demise of capitalism.

4 Reread 'The "Eight-Hour" day'.

a Why was eight hours seen as the limit to how long people should work in a day?

b How did the first workers in Australia achieve the eight-hour day?

c How long did it take before most Victorian workers achieved the same right?

d How did people at the time use their extra leisure hours?

Analysing and evaluating

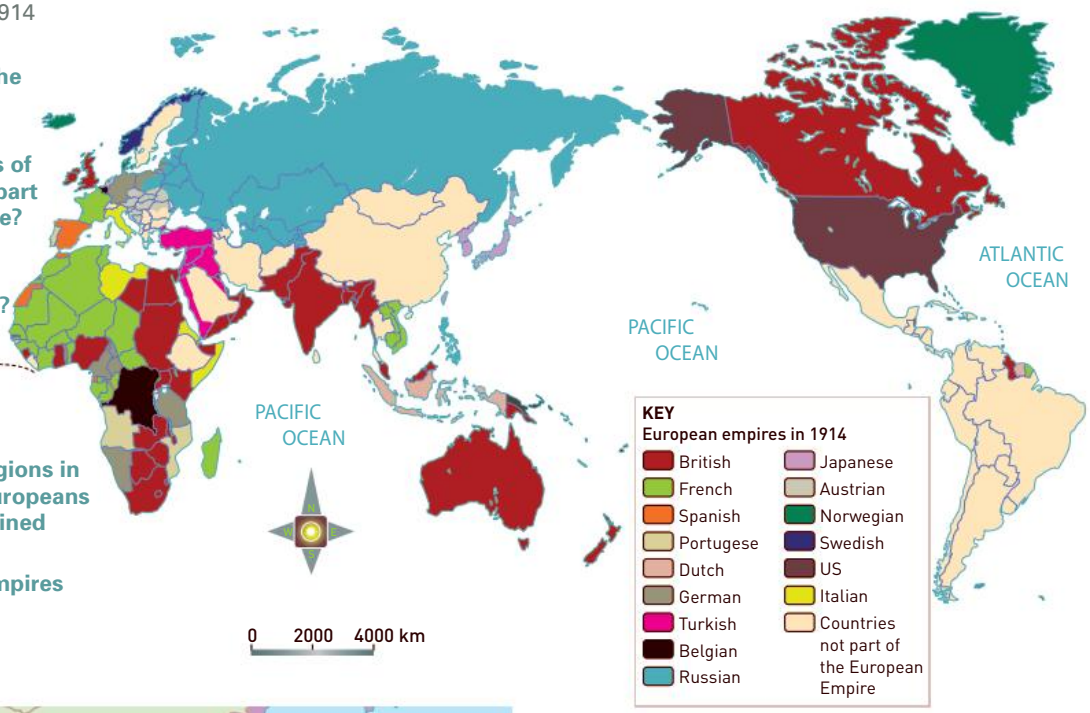
5 Reread 'The Great Strikes of the 1890s' and 'The Australian Labor Party' carefully. Construct a PMI table titled 'How successful was the labour movement in Australia before 1900?'. Decide whether or not each of the points made in the text belongs in the 'Plus' column (for achievements of the labour movement), the 'Minus' column (for failures or setbacks to the labour movement) or the 'Interesting' column (for points that are neither achievements or setbacks).

UNIT 4

THE EMERGENCE OF AND KEY IDEAS IN IMPERIALISM

SOURCE 2.4.1 Extent of the major European empires by 1914

Q
1 Which empire was the largest in the world by 1914?
2 By 1914, which parts of the world were not part of a European empire?
3 Which Asian nation had developed its own empire by 1914?



SOURCE 2.4.2 European empires in Asia, 1914

Q
1 Make a list of the regions in Asia colonised by Europeans and those that remained independent.
2 List the European empires within Asia by 1914.

IMPERIALISM AND COLONISATION

The seventeenth century saw the beginning of the Age of Imperialism. **Imperialism** is the policy of expanding the influence of one country over others. This was often achieved through invasion and colonisation. **Colonisation** is a direct form of imperialism: ownership of an area is taken from its inhabitants and claimed by outsiders. Imperialism can also be found in the indirect influence on the culture and economy of another country. An example of **cultural imperialism** is the spread of Christianity in Japan by early European missionaries in the sixteenth century. Britain's economic control of China in the mid-nineteenth century is an example of **economic imperialism**, as it forced the Chinese to open their doors to European trade.

SOURCE 2.4.3 East Indian divers gathering pearls, hand-coloured woodcut of a nineteenth-century illustration

REASONS FOR IMPERIALISM

ECONOMIC GROWTH

The search for new investment opportunities was a major reason for the development of the New World colonies by Europeans. By taking control of new territories with vast untapped resources, Europeans hoped to acquire raw materials such as silver and gold.

Colonies also provided new markets for manufactured goods produced during the Industrial Revolution. Items such as clothing were sold to the colonies, which in turn provided the raw materials needed for the factories. Imperial powers such as Britain and France grew wealthy from the establishment of triangular trades such as the trans-Atlantic slave trade.

By the nineteenth century, imperialism had become big business for European powers. India, known as the 'jewel in the crown' of the British Empire, was administered for a period of one hundred years from 1757 by a large business enterprise called the British East India Company. Its main items of trade were tea, cotton, silk, indigo, opium, porcelain and potassium nitrate (needed for gunpowder). The East India Company also exercised a monopoly over British trade in China for some time. The Portuguese, Dutch and French had similar business monopolies, which also bore the name 'East India Company'.

TECHNOLOGICAL SUPERIORITY

While the Industrial Revolution produced scientific and medical advancements that transformed European society, it also resulted in the development of deadlier weapons and naval technology. Prior to 1750, most European powers fought wars among themselves rather than against peoples outside of Europe. It wasn't until the development of superior weaponry and better naval technology in the eighteenth century that European powers began conquering other peoples. In 1861, the invention of the Gatling gun, an early version of the machine gun, meant that a small colonial force could easily defeat a much larger native army in battle. The Gatling gun could fire over 400 rounds of ammunition per minute and had a devastating effect when used against indigenous peoples who were armed with traditional weapons. This gave rise to a saying in Britain at the time that 'the spear is no match for the gun'.

By the mid-1800s, steam-powered and iron-clad battleships began providing faster transport, tighter manoeuvrability and more accurate fire at sea. These ships were often used to achieve imperial aims through a strategy known as '**gunboat diplomacy**'. State-of-the-art warships with modern cannons capable of hitting a target several kilometres away would arrive at a port and intimidate local rulers into submission. In many cases, this was achieved without even firing a shot. Steam-powered gunboats also enabled Europeans to travel further inland along rivers in Asia and Africa.

DID YOU KNOW?

PRIOR TO THE 1830s, A SEA JOURNEY FROM BRITAIN TO INDIA COULD TAKE UP TO EIGHT MONTHS.

With the development of railways, travel and communication between empire and colony was made easier. By the 1850s, the same journey by rail and steamer took only thirty days.

SOURCE 2.4.4 Cover of a magazine advertising the new Gatling gun, *Scientific American*, 14 June 1879

Q **Explain how the Gatling gun allowed a relatively small British colonial force to subdue a much larger native army.**

DIVIDE AND CONQUER

The growth of European empires could not have occurred without the crushing of local resistance. To avoid a united and therefore large-scale opposition to their rule, the British adopted a strategy known as 'divide and conquer'. This strategy relied on exploiting existing rivalries between different native groups and allowed the British to deal with each group separately. One group was often favoured above others and received privileges, money and weapons for their loyalty to the British Empire. This helps to explain why Britain was able to control large populations of native people in India with a relatively small colonial army. During the Indian Rebellion of 1857, many Indian soldiers remained loyal to the British and helped put down the mutiny. Such loyalty was rewarded by favouritism, which ultimately led to the emergence of an indigenous 'upper class' that spoke and behaved as though they were English.

> *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.*

SOURCE 2.4.5 Thomas Macauley, writing in 1835 about the need to create an English-speaking upper class in India

Q
1. Why were Indian interpreters needed?
2. Why do you think it was also necessary that they adopted English attitudes and values?

SOURCE 2.4.6 French and German officials marking the border between their colonies in the Congo. Illustration from *Le Petit Journal*, 2 November 1913

Q What does this illustration suggest about the European colonisation of Africa?

SPREADING THE GOSPEL

From its beginnings, Christianity was a mission-focused religion. The belief that God had a message of salvation for all people inspired countless missionaries to take the gospel (or 'good news') to the ends of the world. In the sixteenth century, Jesuit missionaries were among the first Europeans to travel to Asia, where they introduced Western ideas and Christianity. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the Church supported the growth of European empires since it provided new opportunities to convert 'heathens' to the Christian faith. With the establishment of new colonies, Christian missionaries were never far behind the first European settlers.

The work of missionaries was controversial. While some indigenous people converted to Christianity, others resisted missionary attempts to make them give up their traditional customs and beliefs. In China, for example, resentment towards missionaries grew because of their efforts to stop ancestor worship. Christian missionaries, however, were among the first Europeans to call for an end to the slave trade.

A CIVILISING DUTY

Europeans felt that it was their duty as an advanced society to help civilise 'backward' parts of the world. A positive result of this was the establishment of schools and hospitals to improve the standard of living for colonised peoples. A more negative expression of this view, however, was referred to as 'the white man's burden'. This phrase was taken from a poem written by Rudyard Kipling in 1899 and reflected the **Eurocentric** way of thinking at the time. Since non-European cultures were considered barbaric and uncivilised, 'the white man's burden' was to rescue indigenous people from their backward state. This involved educating non-Europeans to reject traditional customs that did not fit the definition of moral behaviour according to the conservative values of the Victorian era. An example of this was the insistence that indigenous people wear European-style clothes to cover their bodies.

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

SOURCE 2.4.7 From 'The White Man's Burden', by Rudyard Kipling', 1899

Q
1 According to this verse, what was 'the White Man's burden'?
2 What adjectives does the poet use to describe colonised peoples?

NATIONAL AND IMPERIAL RIVALRY

A large empire was a source of great national pride. Each European power was determined not to be left behind in the race to build an empire. In 1870 CE, imperial rivalry led to a 'scramble for Africa', during which the entire continent was carved up and divided among the European powers. Similar '**spheres of influence**' were also agreed upon in Asia. A nation's sphere of influence was a claim to a particular region, which was generally respected by other nations. In 1905, however, Germany and France did not respect each other's claim to Morocco.

DID YOU KNOW?

CRICKET WAS MORE THAN JUST A GAME.

The game of cricket was originally introduced as a way of teaching indigenous people the Victorian virtues of fair play and self-control. Playing cricket soon became a way for wealthier natives to show their loyalty to the British Empire, but later became a way of beating the English at their own game.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- colonisation
- cultural imperialism
- economic imperialism
- Eurocentric
- gunboat diplomacy
- imperialism
- sphere of influence

Understanding and applying

2 Reread 'Imperialism and colonisation' and then construct a Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences between the concepts of imperialism and colonisation. Define each term in the diagram and include examples such as cultural imperialism, economic imperialism, direct imperialism and indirect imperialism.

3 Reread 'Economic growth' and then create a mind map titled 'The economic advantages of colonies'. Decide on the number of branches in the mind map as well as the subtitle for each. Make sure that, as your mind map expands, you give more specific detail and examples.

4 Reread 'Technological superiority' and 'Divide and conquer'.

a What was meant by the saying 'the spear is no match for the gun'?
b Explain how gunboat diplomacy was used to achieve imperial aims.
c What does it mean to 'divide and conquer'?
d How did the British apply the strategy of 'divide and conquer' to rule India?

Evaluating and applying

5 Reread 'Spreading the gospel' and then conduct independent research into the mission work of the Society of Jesus (also known as the Jesuits). In your research, consider the origins of their missionary work, their methods of conversion and the impacts they had on indigenous peoples and cultures. Present your findings in a two-page report with a report title, subheadings and conclusion.

Evaluating

6 Reread 'A civilising duty'. The concept of 'the white man's burden' was based on the assumption that colonised people would benefit from adopting the ways of Europeans. Conduct research into the effects of colonisation on indigenous peoples. List your findings under two headings—'The benefits of colonisation' and 'The disadvantages of colonisation'. Think very carefully about what actually was a long-term benefit for indigenous peoples. Discuss your views with others in the class.

Understanding and evaluating

7 Reread 'Nationalism and imperial rivalry' carefully. Working in teams of three to four, conduct research into the 'scramble for Africa'. Focus on *one* of the following topics:

- the colonisation of Africa before the 'scramble for Africa'
- the reasons why the 'scramble for Africa' occurred
- the European countries that took part in the 'scramble for Africa' and why
- the consequences of the 'scramble for Africa' on Africans.

Present your findings to the class in a seminar format. This provides the audience with an opportunity to become more actively involved than they would in an oral presentation. Think of various ways you can involve the audience during your seminar presentation.

UNIT 5

THE EMERGENCE OF AND KEY IDEAS IN CHARTISM

EMERGENCE OF CHARTISM

Chartism was a nineteenth-century movement that aimed to win democratic rights for all males over the age of 21. The Chartist movement derived its name from the **People's Charter** of 1838, which demanded full and fair democracy in Britain.

Democracy is a system of government in which a majority of voters elect representatives to exercise political authority. During the nineteenth century, democracy faced a number of challenges in both Europe and the New World. The wealthier classes believed that 'mob rule' would result if ordinary people were given the right to vote. Events such as the Reign of Terror in France (1793–94) had convinced political leaders that commoners could not be trusted with the vote. Consequently, most of the early modern democracies denied the **franchise** (or the right to vote) to ordinary people by making the ownership of property a requirement of voting.

1. *Full male suffrage: every male aged 21 years and over should have the right to vote*
2. *Secret ballot: voters should be given privacy to cast their ballots*
3. *Removal of land ownership as a qualification for voting: property rules denied the majority of people the right to vote*
4. *Payment for parliamentarians: this would allow ordinary people to seek election without financial loss*
5. *Equal-sized electorates: this would guarantee that each vote was of the same value, regardless of where it was cast*
6. *Annual elections: parliamentarians should be accountable to the electorate every year*

SOURCE 2.5.1 The six points of the People's Charter, 1838

Q
1. Why is the secret ballot important for democracy?
2. Why is it unfair to have electorates of vastly different population sizes?
3. Which group did the People's Charter of 1838 ignore?

CHARTISM: THE BRITISH CHARTISTS

During the nineteenth century, British parliament comprised representatives who had been elected by large property owners throughout the country. As a result, the interests of wealthier citizens were promoted above those of ordinary working people. Nothing was done to improve working conditions and ordinary people felt that unless they had a voice in parliament, their situation would never improve.

By the 1840s, the British Chartist movement began to demand an extension of voting rights to all males over 21. Chartists conducted mass demonstrations, which sometimes became violent. They demonstrated their widespread support by collecting 3.5 million signatures to a petition calling for the British parliament to pass electoral reform. This petition was rejected and, in 1842, Chartists organised a general strike that threatened to cripple the nation's economy. In response, British soldiers were used to break the strike, arrest Chartist leaders and crush further protest.

Eventually, during the 1850s, several leading Chartists were elected to the British parliament and played an important role in the passing of the 1867 Electoral Reform Act, which gave the franchise to a greater number of men. In 1872, the British parliament introduced voting by secret ballot, thus ensuring that the true will of each voter was represented at the ballot box. By the turn of the century, however, the majority of British working men still did not have the right to vote. This occurred much later, in 1918, immediately after World War I.

CHARTIST INFLUENCE IN AUSTRALIA

Chartism was to prove far more successful in the Australian colonies than in Britain. Many of the leaders of the Eureka rebellion drew their inspiration from the British Chartists. Several had in fact been transported to Australia for involvement in Chartist strikes and demonstrations in Britain during the 1830s.

SOURCE 2.5.3 *Eureka Stockade Riot, Ballarat 1854,* by J. B. Henderson. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

THE EUREKA REBELLION

> *We swear by the Southern Cross to stand truly by each other and fight to defend our rights and liberties.*

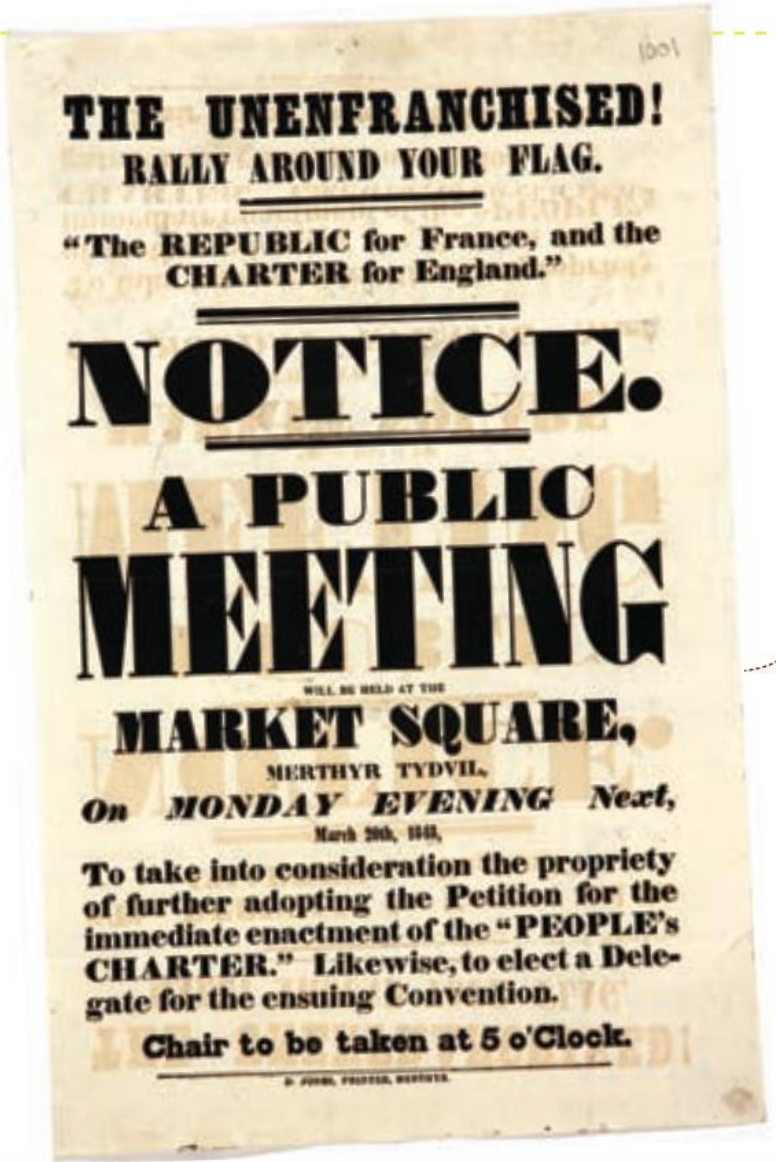
SOURCE 2.5.2 An oath of allegiance sworn by the diggers at the Eureka Stockade

By 1854, many gold miners or **diggers** on the Victorian gold fields were openly refusing to pay their licence fees. Around Ballarat, a government hunt for miners without licences was conducted in a very sensitive part of the diggings. This was a predominantly Irish area where diggers had experienced difficulties in extracting gold from deep beneath the ground. What had begun as a protest against licence fees quickly turned into a revolt over the lack of democratic rights for ordinary people. This was led by the **Ballarat Reform League**, who claimed that it was unjust for diggers to be told what to do by a government in which they had absolutely no say.

The government clampdown on licence fees pushed many of the diggers into open rebellion. On 1 December 1854, about a thousand diggers, under the leadership of Peter Lalor, vowed to defend their rights. They built a **stockade**, or defensive barrier, hoisted the flag of the Southern Cross and swore an **oath of allegiance** to each other.

In the early hours of Sunday 3 December, the authorities attacked the stockade. As it happened, there were fewer than 150 miners behind the stockade at the time of the attack, and the fighting was over in minutes. Most of the rebels were still asleep when the government soldiers stormed their positions, and the diggers were easily overpowered. Up to thirty diggers, as well as five or six soldiers on the government side, were killed during the battle.

Government forces may have overpowered the miners at the Eureka stockade but public sympathies were very much with the diggers. The goldfields administration offered rewards for the apprehension of miners believed to have been involved in the rebellion, and a number of diggers were arrested. None were ever convicted, however, and the Eureka rebellion came to symbolise the fight of the ordinary person for justice and basic democratic rights. It is also one of the very few examples in Australian history of an armed uprising by the common people.


THE UNENFRANCHISED!
RALLY AROUND YOUR FLAG.
"The REPUBLIC for France, and the CHARTER for England."
NOTICE.
A PUBLIC
MEETING
WILL BE HELD AT THE
MARKET SQUARE,
MERTHYR TYDVIL,
On MONDAY EVENING Next,
March 20th, 1848,
To take into consideration the propriety of further adopting the Petition for the immediate enactment of the "PEOPLE's CHARTER." Likewise, to elect a Delegate for the ensuing Convention.
Chair to be taken at 5 o'Clock.

EMERGENCE OF DEMOCRACY IN THE AUSTRALIAN COLONIES

One year after the Eureka rebellion, its leader Peter Lalor had been appointed to the Victorian Legislative Assembly. He played a crucial role in the Victorian parliament, ensuring the passage of important democratic reforms such as full male suffrage, introduction of the secret ballot, pay for parliamentarians and annual elections. Shortly after this, other colonial parliaments also granted similar reforms. For this reason, Eureka has been called 'the birthplace of Australian democracy'.

SOURCE 2.5.4 Poster advertising a Chartist protest rally, dated 20 March, 1848. Held at the National Archives of UK

Q
1 Which group does the poster call upon?
2 What is the purpose of the meeting being advertised?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Ballarat Reform League
- democracy
- diggers
- franchise
- oath of allegiance
- People's Charter
- stockade

Understanding

2 Reread 'Emergence of Chartism' then decide whether the following statements are true or false. Rewrite false statements so that they are correct and historically meaningful, and copy the correct statements directly into your notebook.

a In a democracy, everyone has the right to vote.

b The first people to be given the franchise in Britain were large property owners.

3 Reread 'Chartism: the British Chartists' then decide whether the following statements are true or false. Rewrite false statements so that they are correct and historically meaningful, and copy the correct statements directly into your notebook.

a The British Chartist movement demanded the vote for everyone.

b Chartists' protests were always peaceful and orderly.

c By the turn of the century, the British Chartists had failed to achieve their basic aim.

Understanding and evaluating

4 Reread 'Chartist influence in Australia', including 'The Eureka rebellion' and 'Emergence of democracy in the Australian colonies',and then answer the following questions.

a How had Chartist ideas spread to Australia?

b What was the major grievance of the diggers around Ballarat?

c What role did the Ballarat Reform League play in the events leading up to the Eureka rebellion?

d Explain the reasons why the Eureka rebellion was over in minutes.

e What were the short-term results of the Eureka rebellion?

f Why is it important for Australians today to remember the Eureka rebellion of 1854?

THE EMERGENCE OF AND KEY IDEAS IN NATIONALISM AND SOCIAL DARWINISM

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

During the nineteenth century, nationalist ideas were based on beliefs about the superiority of one racial group over others. At the time, many people of British origin believed that the Anglo-Saxon race was the most civilised in the world. Most viewed the peoples they had colonised as primitive and in need of British rule. These views were based on a set of beliefs about racial differences known as social Darwinism.

SOCIAL DARWINISM

Charles Darwin's theory of evolution, published in 1859 in his *On the Origin of Species*, proposed that only the fittest members of a species survive and pass their characteristics onto the next generation. **Social Darwinism** is based on the theory that human races compete with one another for survival, just as species of plants and animals do.

> *I contend that we [the British] are the finest race in the world and that the more of the world we inhabit the better it is for the human race. Just fancy those parts that are at present inhabited by the most despicable specimens of human beings what an alteration there would be if they were brought under Anglo-Saxon influence ...*

SOURCE 2.6.1 From Cecil Rhodes's 'Confession of Faith', 2 June 1877. This essay was included in *The Last Will and Testament of Cecil John Rhodes*, edited by W. T. Stead, 1902.

Q
1 **Identify where Cecil Rhodes shows his belief in social Darwinism.**
2 **According to Rhodes, what advantages do Anglo-Saxons bring to other races?**

Darwin, however, developed his theory from observations of the plant and animal kingdoms. During the latter half of the nineteenth century, others such as Francis Galton took Darwin's ideas a step further and applied them to human races. Human races were ranked in terms of their intelligence and innate ability to survive and prosper. Social Darwinists also believed that weaker races of people would eventually die out, since they did not have the capacity to compete with superior races.

Naturally, Europeans saw themselves as superior to Asians, Africans and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People. Some even applied social Darwinism to different economic classes within society, arguing that the working poor lacked the innate intelligence or moral capability to rise above their lot in life.

AUSTRALIAN NATIONALISM

EMERGENCE OF AN AUSTRALIAN IDENTITY

During the early 1890s, the number of native-born Australians began to outnumber those born in Britain for the first time. Although some people today take great pride in having convict ancestors, at the end of the nineteenth century it was a cause for concern. Many people feared that criminal behaviour was passed down from one generation to the next. The sense of unease about Australia's convict past has been referred to as our '**convict stain**'. As a result of this, people at the time began to search for a more positive identity of who they were as Australians.

THE AUSTRALIAN LEGEND

Australia's first pastoral workers were ex-convicts (**emancipists**) who had gained employment as drovers, stockmen, shepherds, bullock-drivers, boundary-riders and station hands. According to the historian Russel Ward, the tough and inhospitable outback environment in which they lived and worked meant that they developed a unique set of characteristics. These included:

- pragmatism: being focused on doing what works
- mateship: sticking by friends in times of trouble
- independence: having the resourcefulness to be able to survive alone
- anti-authoritarianism: distrusting authority and resenting rules
- egalitarianism: showing little respect for social class or status
- masculinity: proving one's 'manliness' in a harsh environment.

SOURCE 2.6.2 The cover of the music for 'March of the White Australia Policy', performed at the Australian Natives Association fete in 1910. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1 **Count how many times the word 'white' appears in this source.**
2 **What does this reveal about racial attitudes of the time?**

Ward claimed that this set of characteristics eventually formed the basis of what it meant to be Australian. His famous book, *The Australian Legend* (1958), showed how character traits that had been typical of convicts were later displayed by the diggers on the goldfields, and the bushrangers. The poetry and prose of the times also reveals that the 'bush' was becoming an important part of Australia's self-identity.

WHITE AUSTRALIA

> *No nigger, no Chinaman, no lascar, no Kanaka, no purveyor of cheap coloured labour is an Australian.*

SOURCE 2.6.3 This quote appeared in *The Bulletin*, 2 July 1887 to explain what the editors of *The Bulletin* meant by 'Australian'.

Fear of non-European foreigners was another notable feature of early Australian identity. This was often based on ethnic stereotypes and ignorance of other cultures but was typical of the racist attitudes of the time. As a small and isolated population, Anglo-Australians feared that racial intermixing would weaken their ability to compete with other races and would eventually threaten their own survival. The widespread acceptance of these views was reflected in the popularity of *The Bulletin* magazine, which carried the slogan 'Australia for the white man'. The first law passed by the new Commonwealth Parliament in 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act, designed to prevent any non-Europeans from entering the new nation.

IMPACTS OF NATIONALISM IN NINETEENTH-CENTURY AUSTRALIA

SPORT AND PATRIOTISM

Sport was an important aspect of popular culture in colonial Australia and played a major role in the development of patriotic feelings. **Patriotism** is defined simply as pride in one's country.

Skill on the sporting field was seen as proof that Australians were a fit race of people capable of beating anyone. Early Australian sporting achievements did much to foster a sense of national pride.

In 1877, the popularity of cricket in the Australian colonies led to the establishment of the first Australian team. In March that year, Australia defeated England at the Melbourne Cricket Ground in the first test match ever played. In 1882, the touring Australian side defeated England at the Oval in London.

Most English people could not believe that a team of 'colonials' was capable of defeating their side. The *Sporting Times* newspaper went as far as issuing a mock obituary, announcing the death of English cricket. To commemorate their famous victory, the touring Australians were given a small urn containing the burnt remains of the bails used in the test match. Australians had proven themselves by beating the British at their own game.

POPULAR LITERATURE

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

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

In Affectionate Remembrance
OF
ENGLISH CRICKET,
WHICH DIED AT THE OVAL
ON
29th AUGUST, 1882,
Deeply lamented by a large circle of sorrowing friends and acquaintances.

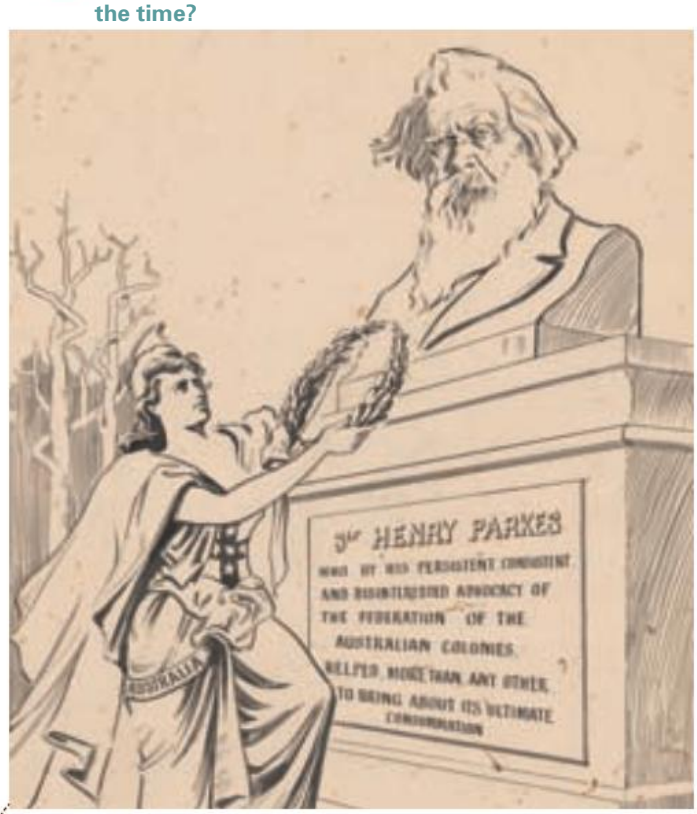
R. I. P.

N.B.—The body will be cremated and the ashes taken to Australia.

SOURCE 2.6.4

From *The Sporting Times* (London) on 2 September 1882, referring to the 'death' of English cricket as a result of the match between England and Australia at the Oval on 29 August, 1882. This is the first reference to the Ashes.

Q **What does this mock obituary reveal about English expectations of Australian sporting abilities at the time?**



SOURCE 2.6.5

This cartoon highlights the significance of Sir Henry Parkes in the movement for Australian federation, 1900, by Herbert Walter Colton. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q **Explain the message of this cartoon in your own words.**

ARTWORK

At around the same time, the artists of the Heidelberg School were beginning to portray the Australian bush in its true light. By choosing to paint outdoors on location, artists such as Arthur Streeton and Tom Roberts were able to capture the natural colours and light of the Australian bush. Their artwork often included scenes of bush life, with ordinary people living and working in the bush. This marked a departure from previous paintings of the Australian bush, which tended to portray it like the English countryside and with an absence of people.

SOURCE 2.6.6

Sir Henry Parkes, the 'Father of Federation' c. 1880s. Held at the National Library of Australia

NATIONALISM: SIR HENRY PARKES

In 1889, Sir Henry Parkes, then premier of New South Wales, announced to the Lord Carrington, the governor of the colony, 'I could federate these colonies in twelve months'. 'Then why don't you?' replied Carrington, adding, 'It would be a glorious finish to your life'. At age 74, Parkes was the longest serving premier of New South Wales and had decided that it was time for the six Australian colonies to unite under a single federal government. Although he did not live to see Federation on 1 January 1901, Parkes became known as the 'Father of Federation' for his role in beginning the push for Australian nationhood.

THE TENTERFIELD SPEECH

Since most other premiers disagreed with the idea of federation, Parkes began focusing his efforts on winning the support of the people throughout the colonies. On 24 October 1889, after visiting Queensland premier Sir Samuel Griffith, Parkes stopped at the northern New South Wales town of Tenterfield, where he began his public campaign for federation. At a banquet held in his honour, Parkes delivered a speech in which he declared the time had come for the Australian colonies to federate. He also highlighted a recent report showing the inability of each colony to defend itself. His solution was an Australian federation with a single defence force. Parkes concluded his Tenterfield speech by calling on the colonial premiers to meet and discuss the possibilities of federation.

THE PATH TO NATIONHOOD

Although support for federation had begun to gather pace, differences of opinion still existed over how best to achieve it and what role the states should have. It was therefore important for supporters of federation to reach agreement on the principles of a new federal constitution. This process began with the Australasian Federal Convention in Sydney on 2 March 1891, when delegates met to decide the principles of a new federal constitution. Parkes proposed that the new federation be called the 'Commonwealth of Australia' and with the framework for a new constitution agreed upon, he brought the convention to a close. His call for 'one nation, one destiny' would become the rallying cry of the federation movement for the next decade.

SOURCE 2.6.7 Swearing-in ceremony of the first governor-general, Lord Hopetoun, and the members of the first federal Cabinet

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- convict stain
- emancipists
- nationalism
- patriotism
- social Darwinism

Understanding and evaluating

2 Reread the introduction and 'Social Darwinism'.

a Why is nationalism considered one of the most influential ideas of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries?

b How did attitudes about race influence people's nationalism in the nineteenth century?

c How was social Darwinism used to justify the colonisation of other peoples?

d How was social Darwinism applied to the lower classes?

Evaluating

3 Reread 'Australian nationalism', then write a 300-word exposition in response to the following statement:

Today there is no longer one Australian identity, but many.

Begin your exposition with an introductory statement that presents your point of view and previews the main arguments to be used. Next, develop a paragraph for each of the main arguments. Make sure that your argument is introduced in the first sentence and supported by each sentence that follows. End with a concluding statement that reinforces your main argument.

4 Reread 'Nationalism: Sir Henry Parkes' and then answer the following questions.

a What prediction did Sir Henry Parkes make to Lord Carrington? Was it an accurate prediction?

b What reputation did Sir Henry Parkes earn after his death?

c Explain the significance of Parkes's Tenterfield speech in 1889.

d What was the purpose of the Australasian Federal Convention in 1891?

Creating

5 Imagine that you are a sports journalist in colonial Australia. Produce a 500-word sports story that explains either:

a the origins, purpose and rules of Australian football in 1859

or

b the importance of the Australian cricket team's victory at the Oval in 1882

Your news story should be set in the immediate past and include:

- a catchy headline
- a specific date (day, month and year)
- quotes from at least one key participant
- two relevant primary images.

6 Imagine that you are a magazine editor in colonial Australia. Produce a 500-word editorial that explains the importance of the Australian bush in emerging Australian art and literature. Illustrate your editorial with relevant works of art and excerpts from significant works of Australian literature from the time.

THE EMERGENCE OF AND KEY IDEAS IN EGALITARIANISM

Egalitarianism comes from the word **egality**, meaning social and political equality. During the French Revolution, the slogan 'Liberty, Egality, and Fraternity' became a popular catchcry of those wanting a new social order in which everyone was treated equally before the law, regardless of their wealth or status in society. In England, people spoke of 'levelling'—that is, not favouring one group or class above another. **Egalitarianism** is the belief that advancement in society should be based on merit, or ability to perform, rather than family origins, wealth or inherited titles.

ORIGINS OF AUSTRALIAN EGALITARIANISM

Egalitarianism is seen wherever lawmakers attempt to remove inequality in society. In nineteenth-century Australia, this occurred with the introduction of free and universal education throughout the colonies. Free and universal education provided everyone, regardless of wealth or family status, with the ability to read and write. As a result, the most intelligent, rather than the wealthiest, were able to enter the professions, such as teaching, medicine, law and government.

As a new society, Australia offered many opportunities for advancement and quickly became characterised by its **social mobility**. Social mobility is the extent to which people have the opportunity to rise above the status of the social group into which they were born. The growth and success of the **emancipist** class (convicts who had served their sentence) in early colonial Australia showed just how far people could rise above their station in life. Nevertheless, not everyone thought the emancipists deserved equal treatment. Many of the wealthier free-settlers to Australia looked down upon the emancipists as a convict class who were morally depraved. Wealthier free settlers even went as far as calling themselves **exclusivists**.

In 1958, the historian Russel Ward argued that Australia's convict origins had helped to create a society that generally scorned authority and distrusted those in authority. Today, we call this tendency to criticise people in high positions the 'tall-poppy syndrome'.

> *You have no idea of the class of persons here who consider themselves gentlemen.*

SOURCE 2.7.1 From a letter by Governor William Bligh to Charles Grenville in London, 1808

DID YOU KNOW?

EGALITARIANISM HELPED NAPOLEON CREATE THE LARGEST AND MOST EFFECTIVE ARMY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Before the French Revolution, officers in the French army came from the wealthiest and most influential families. After the revolution, career advancement within the army was by merit rather than noble birth. This meant that Napoleon's Grand Armée was the only army in Europe led by the best and most capable officers. As a Corsican, even Napoleon himself was not a French nobleman.

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

SOURCE 2.7.2 From *The Australian Legend*, by Russel Ward, 1958

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- egalitarianism
- egality
- emancipist
- exclusivist
- social mobility

Understanding

2 Reread Sources 2.7.1 and 2.7.2.
- **a** Which of the sources is a primary source and which a secondary source?
- **b** How does each source help to illustrate the concept of Australia egalitarianism?
- **c** Which source shows the Old World attitudes towards class differences?

UNIT 8

SOURCE STUDY: AUSTRALIAN EGALITARIANISM: MYTH OR REALITY?

AUSTRALIAN EGALITARIANISM AS A MYTH

> *An individual who is pining in Great Britain—struggling ... to be a 'somebody', upon a very limited income—may by changing his abode to the gentle climate of South Australia, live like a little prince, and become a 'somebody' with the same amount of income upon which he could barely exist in England.*

SOURCE 2.8.1 George French Angas, who arrived in Adelaide in 1844

Critics have pointed out that belief in Australian egalitarianism has always been based more on myth than reality. While there may have been an anti-authoritarian streak among the convicts and workers, the same people calling for a 'fair go' did not apply this principle to those they considered below them. Among these were Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, non-European immigrants to Australia and women.

Historian Humphrey McQueen pointed out in the 1970s that racism was one of the earliest and strongest Australian characteristics to emerge. According to McQueen, the destruction of traditional Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander life and the treatment of Asian immigrants showed that exclusion, rather than egalitarianism, was the attitude of most people.

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

> *Indeed, so widely accepted were these [racist] attitudes that it is highly likely that they were not even considered racist. They were just naturally Australian.*

SOURCE 2.8.2 From *A New Britannia*, by Humphrey McQueen, 1970

> *Great Britain sends out two classes here: one of these being rich, originally obtained vast grants of land for nothing ... the other, as being poor, is not even allowed to buy, because the very condition of purchase is that the purchaser be rich.*

SOURCE 2.8.3 From *Settlers and Convicts*, by Alexander Harris, 1847

IS AUSTRALIAN EGALITARIANISM ALIVE TODAY?

> *My family are Welsh, both mum and dad were born in Wales. Dad's from a small coal-mining village. He comes from quite an impoverished background. He's one of seven children. His father was involved in coal mining. He was very good at school, passed very high in what was then the eleven plus exams, and actually got offered a scholarship. But because of the family's circumstances couldn't take that opportunity up. He had to go out to work and ultimately became a police officer ...*

SOURCE 2.8.4 From an interview with the Prime Minister Julia Gillard (at that time Shadow Minister for Health), on *Australian Story*, 6 March 2006

> *Within the story of sport in Australia, the idea of egalitarianism is very powerful. In fact, in the Australian story of egalitarianism, sport features as the key place where equality is practised.*

SOURCE 2.8.5 From *Being Australian*, by Catriona Elder, 2007

> *Central to the question of whether Oz is still the land of the fair go is what academics call 'social mobility'—whether people are locked in a class system, or whether bright or hard-working young working-class people can better themselves ... Looking at various studies suggests that, compared with other developed economies, Oz is somewhere in the middle—not as socially mobile as the Nordic countries [i.e. Norway, Denmark and Sweden] but a lot more mobile than Britain and, particularly, America.*

SOURCE 2.8.6 From 'Is Australia the land of a "fair go"?', ACTU Whitlam lecture, delivered by economist Ross Gittins, 30 November 2010

SOURCE 2.8.7 The Indigenous All-stars National Rugby League team celebrate scoring a try, February 2010

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING

1 Reread Sources 2.8.2 and 2.8.3 as well as 'Australian egalitarianism as a myth'.

- **a** Explain the perspective of the author of each source.
- **b** What evidence can be drawn from both of these sources to show that Australian egalitarianism has never been applied to everyone living in Australia?

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

2 Study Sources 2.8.3 to 2.8.7.

- **a** Categorise each source as either supporting or contradicting the idea that Australia is an egalitarian society today.
- **b** Select two sources that support the idea that Australian is an egalitarian society today and two that contradict this. Identify the key pieces of evidence referred to in each source.

EVALUATING

3 Hold an open forum debate on the following topic:

As a society, Australia can take pride in its history of egalitarianism.

Prepare an argument with key points of evidence to be used during the debate. Use the sources in this unit to help construct your argument. To ensure the debate runs smoothly, only the person holding a pretend microphone should speak. A convener should moderate the debate to ensure that everyone gets a 'fair go' at saying what they think.

CONNECTIONS TO...

PROTEST IN AN EVER-CHANGING WORLD

UNIT 9

THE RADICAL SIXTIES

The demand for political, economic and social change was never louder in Western society than during the 1960s. This decade witnessed a major shift in the way people thought about issues such as race, gender, war and politics. Many of the great 'isms' of the nineteenth century, such as socialism and Chartism, found a new voice during the 1960s. By the end of the decade, the rise of feminism, environmentalism and the anti-nuclear movement marked this period as one of the most progressive eras in the history of Western society. A major feature of the 1960s was the development of a counter-culture, which openly questioned the decisions made by governments and objected to the injustices in society. The 1960s were also a turbulent time marked by political assassination, war, the threat of nuclear catastrophe and mass protest movements.

The civil rights movement

One such protest movement was the civil rights movement in the United States. After generations of legal discrimination, African-Americans demanded equal rights before the law. These included the right to enter the same schools as 'whites' and the right to be able to vote without being discriminated against. The largest civil rights protest was the March on Washington in 1963 led by Martin Luther King Jr, at which an estimated 300 000 people gathered before the Lincoln Memorial in Washington DC to hear Dr King deliver his famous 'I have a dream' speech. This event led to the passing of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (USA), which outlawed racial segregation in all US states. The Voting Rights Act of 1965 ended the disenfranchisement of African-Americans.

SOURCE 2.9.1 An anti-war protester shows a new form of protest at the Pentagon, USA, 1967

Q How does this photograph reflect the changing attitudes of the 1960s?

SOURCE 2.9.2 Activist Charles Perkins at the University of Sydney. Perkins completed an Arts degree, becoming the first Australian Aboriginal university graduate on 19 March 1963.

For many Americans, this was the fulfilment of the opening lines of their Declaration of Independence, that 'all men are created equal'.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's rights

In Australia, Aboriginal activist Charles Perkins drew inspiration from the US civil rights movement to lead the Freedom Rides in 1965. Perkins and other members of the Student Action for Aborigines (SAFA) group from Sydney University organised a bus tour around rural New South Wales. This succeeded in highlighting the discrimination and daily injustices experienced by Aboriginal People in towns such as Moree, Walgett and Bowraville. A major outcome of the Freedom Rides was the success of the 1967 referendum, which finally recognised Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People as citizens of the Commonwealth.

SOURCE 2.9.3 Germaine Greer (centre) at the Women's Liberation March in Hyde Park Sydney, 11 March 1972

Anti-war movement

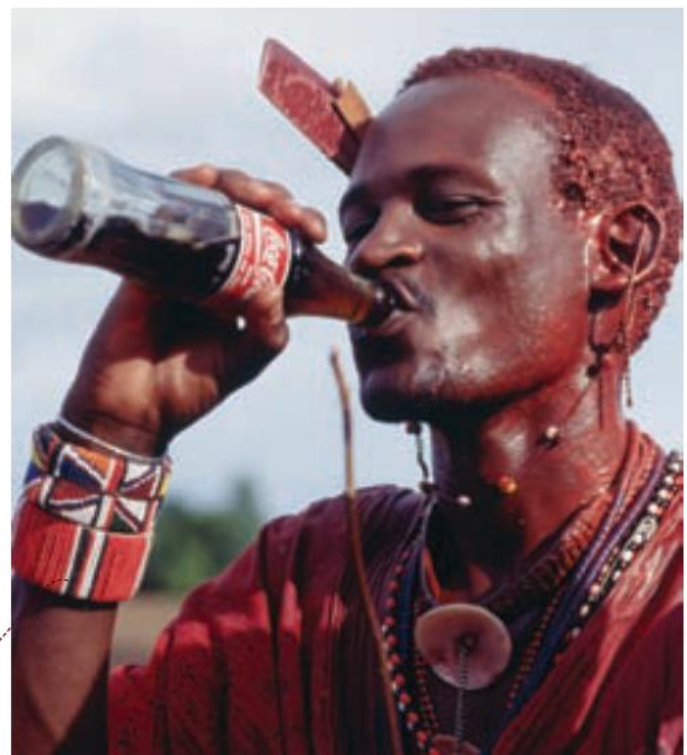
Anti-war movements in both the United States and Australia reflected the unpopularity of the Vietnam War by the late 1960s. In Australia, the Vietnam moratorium movement called on the federal government to withdraw all Australian troops and to end the war. Protests focused on the cruel nature of the war itself as well as the draft system that forced young men born on a certain date to enlist. Protest groups such as Save Our Sons and Students for a Democratic Society actively campaigned for young men to 'dodge the draft'.

Women's liberation movement

The women's liberation movement also emerged as a significant force for change during the 1960s and 1970s. As conservative values were increasingly questioned, women began to react against the stereotypical view of themselves as wives, mothers and domestic servants. While 'first wave' feminism had succeeded with Australian women obtaining the right to vote in 1902, by the 1960s 'second wave' feminism focused on tackling the issue of equal opportunity. A key goal of the women's liberation movement was for women to receive the same rate of pay as men for equal work. At the time, women typically received only about 75 per cent of a man's pay for the same job.

CHALLENGES IN THE GLOBAL AGE

The world today is a global village in which communication across entire continents is instantaneous. US culture dominates the world and global brands such as McDonald's and Coca-Cola are instantly recognisable by millions of people who cannot speak English. Today's nations are also interconnected through a complex network of trade agreements, military alliances and diplomatic ties. Many commentators, however, have been critical of globalisation as a new form of 'cultural imperialism' that destroys traditional cultures and replaces them with Western consumerism.



SOURCE 2.9.4 Globalisation—the new imperialism?

Q Brainstorm the ways in which globalisation can lead to loss of cultural identity in non-European cultures.

SOURCE 2.9.5 Leaders at the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) in Uganda, November 2007. Britain's Queen Elizabeth II is in the centre.

THE PAST AND PRESENT

While the old European empires of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries have long ceased to exist, traces of them may still be found in the world today. Britain, for example, still maintains ties with its former colonies through the Commonwealth of Nations. In 2007, leaders at the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) agreed to a range of measures, including an agreement to eliminate landmines, a commitment to tackle human trafficking and an agreement to allow trade for aid between developed and developing member states.

Technological advancements have also gathered rapid pace in the last decade. Today's information and communications revolution is due in large part to the development of fibre optic cabling, which has allowed for faster internet speed and larger download capacity. News and information from around the world is accessible in an instant. University degrees can be undertaken online and anyone can voice their opinion in an open public forum. The individual is extremely powerful in today's world.

TIME TO THINK...

Use these deep questions in small group or class discussions, as your teacher decides.

1 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- **a** What are the main challenges for Australian society today?
- **b** What role can individual Australians play today in changing their society?
- **c** Do you think people in the future will consider our era to be one of progress or conservatism? Explain your answer.

2 CAUSE AND EFFECT

- **a** Why are certain eras, such as the 1960s, characterised by change, while others are thought of as conservative eras?
- **b** Is change necessarily the same as progress? Explain your answer.

3 EVIDENCE

What evidence would you need when considering whether or not a new law or government policy represents genuine progress in society?

4 PERSPECTIVES AND CONTESTABILITY

What sorts of changes are people in our society calling for today? Why do some people oppose these changes?

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Documentary producer

You are part of a production team developing a box set of four DVD documentaries on *one* of the 'isms' mentioned in this chapter (i.e. capitalism, socialism, trade unionism, imperialism, Chartism, nationalism or egalitarianism). Working with three other producers, develop the documentary series to the point of filming. This should be done in the following stages:

Stage 1: Planning

As a team, decide on:

- an appropriate title for the documentary series
- titles for each of the four DVDs
- chapter titles for each DVD.

Stage 2: Scripting

As a team, write a five-minute sample script that includes:

- a spoken narrative to be read by a series narrator
- a set of three interview questions to be asked of an academic expert
- qualified answers from the academic expert
- a historical re-enactment of a key event
- selected quotes from relevant historical people.

Stage 3: Settings

As a team, select an important event and place in Australia related to the idea or movement and:

- locate relevant images of the place
- show its location on a map
- explain the historical significance of the event that took place there.

Stage 4: Promoting

Work independently to produce a cover for *one* of the four DVDs. Your DVD front cover should include:

- the title of the series and individual DVD titles
- a log-line (a 5–6 word sentence that expands on the title)
- a striking and historically relevant image.

Your DVD back cover should include:

- a blurb (300 words that 'sell' the DVD)
- chapter titles and 'special features'
- smaller relevant images.

#2 This is your life!

Select one of the influential people mentioned in this chapter, or choose someone else, with the help of your teacher. Compile a personalised memoir with information about:

- their family and early life
- their education
- people and ideas that influenced them
- their major works
- their basic ideas and beliefs
- the impact of their ideas on the world and/or Australia.

Illustrate your memoir with a variety of clear and relevant digital images, primary and secondary quotes, and a detailed timeline.

INQUIRY TASKS

#3 Lost!

Imagine that your class plane has crash-landed on a desert island. After several weeks you realise that it may be years before you are rescued. It is important that you all pull together, particularly in regard to food and medical care, if everyone is to survive.

This is a summary of the group you are stranded with:

- five are less than 10 years of age
- three are over 70 years of age
- fourteen are women
- twelve are men
- seven are either sick or disabled due to the crash landing
- three have medical training (one nurse, two doctors)
- five are business people (three run small businesses and two are top-level executives)
- four are other professionals (one teacher, one psychologist, one social worker and one lawyer)

Allocate these roles to everyone in the class and then divide into four groups. You can decide these groups based on age, gender or level of education of the roles above. With your group, come up with a set of ten to twelve rules that will help the community survive for the next five years. You will need to consider issues such as the leadership of the community; the food supply; punishment for wrong-doers; how to utilise those with the best skills; how to look after the sick and elderly; ways of bringing the community together; and plans for your future rescue.

Discuss your set of rules with the rest of the class and then debrief by considering which of the 'isms' mentioned in this chapter could be applied to the hypothetical scenario.

#4 Research essay

Conduct independent research in response to the following essay topic:

Explain the impact of one significant idea or movement in the development of Australia.

Plan your essay, making sure it has:

- an introduction that clearly identifies the key features of the idea or movement, and broadly states the different ways in which it contributed to the development of Australia
- a body, made up of a series of paragraphs. These should each expand upon one of the events outlined in the introduction. Remember that in explaining you must show how the idea or movement brought change to Australia
- a conclusion that summarises the overall impact of the idea or movement on Australia
- a bibliography that acknowledges the sources of your information.

SOURCE **2.10.1** Certificate indicating membership of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, Machinists, Millwrights, Smiths and Pattern Makers. Held at the Australian National University

CHAPTER 3

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

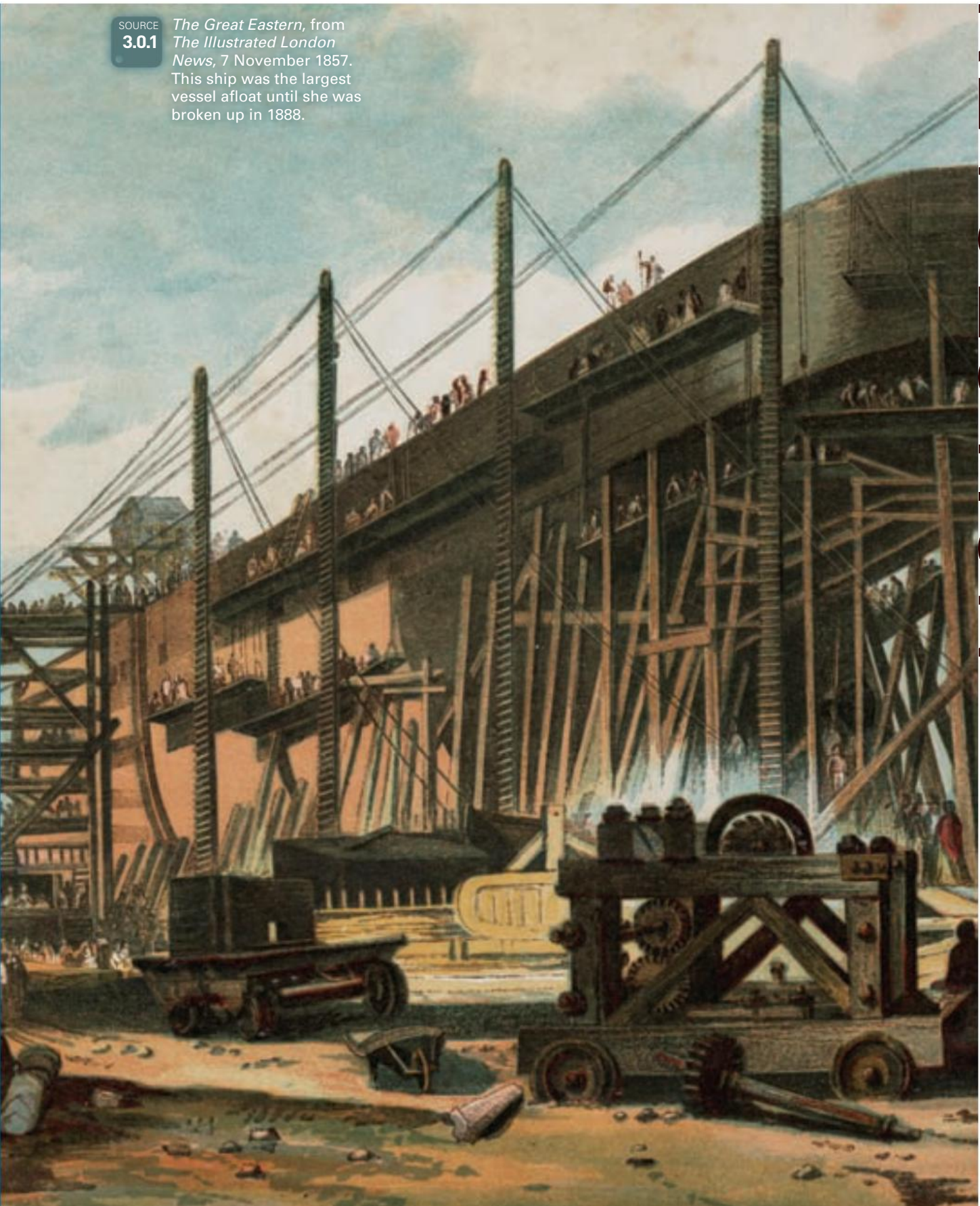
- Which technological innovations and other conditions led to the Industrial Revolution?
- Why did industrialisation change where people lived?
- How did industrialisation change people's lives?
- What were the short- and long-term effects of the Industrial Revolution?

DEPTH STUDY 1
MAKING A BETTER WORLD?

The Industrial Revolution caused the greatest change in the way people lived and worked since the development of agriculture 10 000 years earlier. Industrialisation became possible due to a remarkable series of innovations and inventions. These new technologies launched the modern industrialised world and the global economy.

The first industrial revolution occurred in Britain and began around 1750. Industrialisation subsequently spread throughout Europe, the United States of America, Australia and Japan. Some countries, such as China and India, are only now experiencing industrialisation.

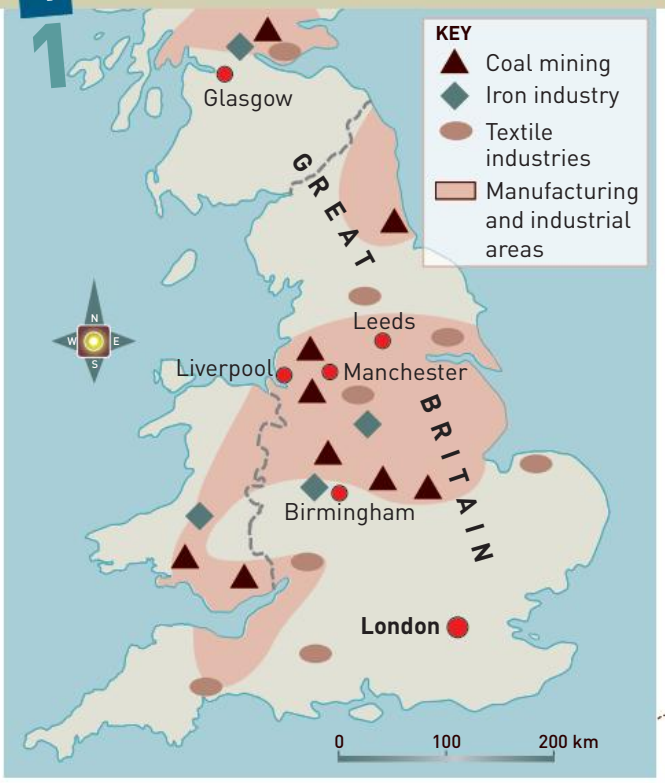
THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION



SOURCE **3.0.1** *The Great Eastern,* from *The Illustrated London News,* 7 November 1857. This ship was the largest vessel afloat until she was broken up in 1888.

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1750–1914



1750 Enclosures of farming land accelerate in Britain

1767 James Hargreaves invents the spinning jenny

1769 Richard Arkwright invents the water frame

1779 Samuel Crompton invents the spinning mule

1781 James Watt invents a steam engine to drive machinery

1783 Henry Cort invents puddling to produce wrought iron

1785 Edmund Cartwright invents the power loom

1788 First Fleet arrives at Botany Bay

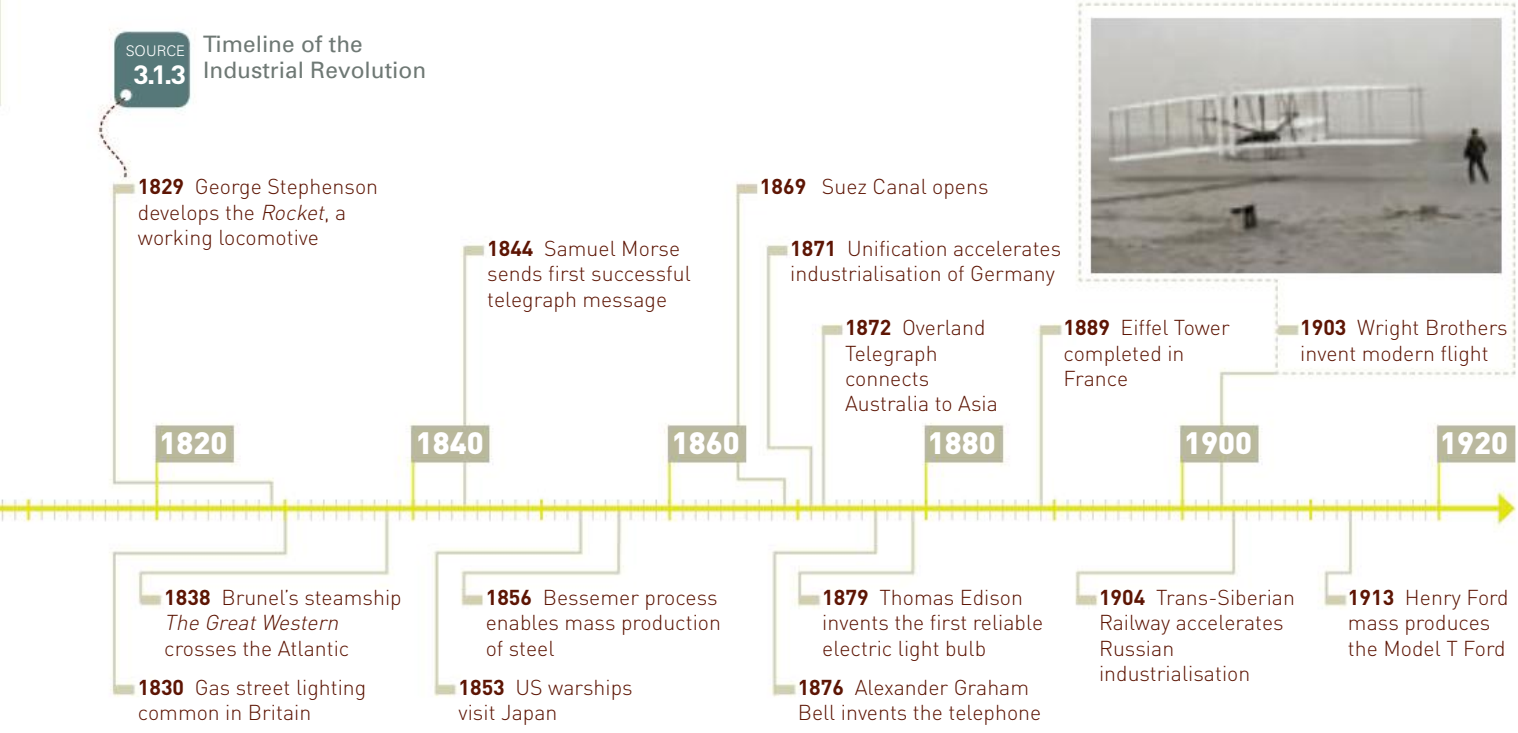
1790 First textile factory built in the USA

1740 1760 1780 1800

SOURCE 3.1.1 Britain during the Industrial Revolution in 1850

SOURCE 3.1.2 The British Empire in 1815

SOURCE 3.1.3 Timeline of the Industrial Revolution



Before the Industrial Revolution, there had been little change in the way people lived and worked for centuries. Most people traditionally lived in the countryside and there were very few large towns. People worked in agriculture, in their own homes or in small workshops. Most goods were made by hand and sold to wealthy people. Ordinary people could not afford more than the bare essentials.

INDUSTRIALISATION

During the Industrial Revolution in Britain, the invention of machines and steam power enabled the quick and cheap production of goods. These new technologies revolutionised how and where goods were made. Jobs were created in towns and cities as factories opened and as coal mines increased production to fuel the growing number of steam engines. A new class—the industrial working class—came into being. Men, women and children toiled long hours for very low pay.

In the early 1800s, industrialisation spread from Britain to other European countries. Industries began to develop in the United States and Australia. Japan was the first country in Asia to industrialise. Millions of people around the world moved from rural to urban areas and cities became overcrowded and polluted. Most workers lived in smoke-filled tenements. Water supplies and sewerage systems were inadequate and outbreaks of disease were commonplace.

Industrialisation resulted in an enormous boom in global trade and spectacular economic growth. Living standards improved. Mass production created mass consumption. Innovations such as gas lighting and electricity became affordable. More people travelled. Workers formed trade unions and won better working conditions. More people gained the right to vote.

Industrialisation and the growth of cities changed landscapes across the world. Innovations in transport such as James Watt's rotary-motion engine have been described as prequels to globalisation. Unsustainable resource use and pollution during and since the Industrial Revolution have had wide-ranging and devastating impacts on the environment.

UNIT 2

TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS THAT LED TO THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

THE STEAM ENGINE

The steam engine was the greatest technological achievement of the Industrial Revolution. Steam engines produced the power needed to drive machinery and transport. They saved on labour, increased production and enabled the substitution of coal for more expensive fuels such as wood.

The invention of the steam engine came about due to the rising demand for coal to heat homes and other buildings. Coal mines became deeper and the water that drained into the mines had to be pumped out. Water wheels or horses provided the power to drive the pumps. As the pits deepened, more power was needed. In the early 1700s, Thomas Newcomen invented a steam engine that produced **vertical motion**—it could drive something up and down. This was ideal for working a pump.

JAMES WATT

James Watt was a scientific instrument maker and inventor. As a child, he had been fascinated by the lifting power of the steam under the lid of the kitchen kettle. In 1756, he began investigating how to adapt Newcomen's engine to drive a machine instead of a pump. One of the main challenges was how to convert the engine's vertical motion to **rotary motion**.

In 1773, Watt went into partnership with the entrepreneur Matthew Boulton. First, they built a new pumping engine that was more powerful and used less fuel. Then, in 1781, Watt developed a gear system that could convert the power of a steam engine to rotary motion. By 1815, steam engines were the chief source of power for the new machines.

SOURCE 3.2.1 A pit head, c.1775–1825. Held at Walker Art Gallery, National Museums Liverpool, UK

Q

1 **Name three types of power being used in this scene.**

2 **Identify and describe the transition from traditional to industrialised modes of transportation.**

SOURCE 3.2.2 Power loom weaving, by Thomas Alom, 1834. Held in a private collection

Q **Describe what this picture tells you about changes in industry and working conditions.**

FROM COTTAGE INDUSTRIES TO FACTORIES

Machines, driven by water wheels or steam engines, could produce goods much faster, but they had to be located near a source of power such as a river or a steam engine. Machines and steam engines were large and expensive. For these reasons, machines were installed in new establishments called factories.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE FACTORY SYSTEM WAS ONE OF THE INNOVATIONS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

The development of the factory system meant that the work no longer came to the workers—they had to go to the work. Instead of working in small groups, factories brought large numbers of workers together. The workers were subject to set hours and to division of labour (workers were allocated particular tasks and their work was supervised). The items produced by factories, and the ways in which they were produced, became increasingly standardised.

THE COTTON INDUSTRY

The cotton industry pioneered the shift from hand-made to machine-made products. Entrepreneurs and factory owners invested money in innovations that enabled quick and cheap manufacture of cotton textiles, because there was a growing worldwide demand for cotton goods.

TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS

Before industrialisation, cotton thread and fabric were produced by spinners and weavers working in their homes. In 1733, a loom builder named John Kay invented the flying shuttle. It enabled one person (rather than two) to weave wide cloth. Spinning was the major bottleneck in the industry. Spinning by hand was so slow and labour-intensive that shortages of yarn became a problem.

In 1767, James Hargreaves's invention of the '**spinning jenny**' speeded up the process. The 'jenny' was like a traditional spinning wheel but had several spindles instead of one. Early hand-powered versions could spin eight threads at once and were used in the home. Later, water- or steam-powered versions were installed in factories and could spin more than eighty threads at once.

In 1769, inventor and entrepreneur Richard Arkwright's water-powered spinning 'frame' spun stronger thread and produced yarn many times faster. It could be operated by unskilled labour, even children. Arkwright established the first spinning mill and employed hundreds of workers.

SOURCE 3.2.3 James Nasmyth's steam hammer erected in his foundry near Manchester, by James Nasmyth, 1832. Held at the Science Museum, UK

Q **Could this picture have been painted before 1750? Why or why not?**

The next advance was Samuel Crompton's mule in 1779. It combined features of the jenny and the water frame to produce yarn that was not only strong but also very fine.

A new bottleneck now emerged. Weaving was still done by hand and the weavers could not keep up with the spinners, until Edmund Cartwright invented a powered weaving loom in 1785. Early versions relied on animal power but later models were powered by steam.

By 1820, Britain dominated the world cotton industry. The development of this industry demonstrated that money could be made by the mechanisation of production and sale of cheap mass-produced goods to a global market. Other industries were inspired by this example.

CHANGE IN THE IRON INDUSTRY

To produce iron, iron ore and limestone are heated in a blast furnace to separate the metal from the ore. This process is called **smelting**. A blast furnace uses a blast of air to make the fuel burn faster.

The British iron industry could not increase its production because of a shortage of fuel. Charcoal (made by charring wood) was the main fuel used for smelting. However, much of Britain's forest had already been cut down for fuel, building and shipbuilding. Coal was tried as a substitute but it contained impurities that made the iron too brittle.

TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS

In 1709, Abraham Darby worked out how to use **coke** to smelt iron. When coal is heated, some of the impurities are released as gases; coke is the solid that remains. Coke-smelted iron could be used to produce cast iron, which is made by pouring molten iron into moulds. Cast iron could be used to make machinery, engine parts and iron rails. The iron was too brittle to produce wrought iron, which can be worked to form any shape. In 1783, Henry Cort developed the **puddling** process, which meant that wrought iron could be produced quickly and cheaply.

Steam engines greatly increased iron output. Steam engines delivered stronger blasts of air to the blast furnaces, making the fuel burn hotter and faster. They provided the power for large industrial hammers and other iron-making machinery, furnaces, rolling mills and mechanised hammers.

Coal, steam power and centralised mass production also reduced the cost of producing iron. Iron replaced wood for many uses, including bridges, building joists, river barges, ploughs, water pipes, machines and boilers. Machines, steam engines and railways would have been impossible without advances in the iron industry.

DID YOU KNOW?

IN 1786, BRITAIN PRODUCED 70 000 TONNES OF IRON.

By 1850, Britain's output had grown to a massive 2 250 000 tonnes.

NEW METHODS OF TRANSPORT

Faster, cheaper and more reliable transport contributed to the growth of industry and the boom in trade. Innovations in industry, especially the steam engine, led to inventions that revolutionised transport.

ROADS

Before the Industrial Revolution, people travelled on foot, on horseback or in horse-drawn coaches. Goods were moved by pack horses or in wagons pulled by animals. Roads were rough, full of potholes and often unusable in wet weather. During the Industrial Revolution, turnpike trusts were developed to improve the roads—a group of investors built a road then charged people a **toll** to use it. Turnpike trusts were responsible for the building of thousands of kilometres of good roads between 1770 and 1830.

SOURCE 3.2.4

Barton Aqueduct, drawn by Johannes Swertner and engraved by Robert Pollard, showing horses towing a sailing boat along the Bridgewater Canal at Barton Bridge, 1784

CANALS

The first canals were built in the mid-1700s to provide transport routes between industrial centres, mining sites and towns. Heavy materials such as coal were difficult and expensive to transport by road. Canal barges could move raw materials and products relatively cheaply and quickly. Many canals involved major engineering feats such as bridges, tunnels, cuttings, aqueducts and locks. An aqueduct is a human-made structure that carries a channel of water. The use of aqueducts allowed canals to cross valleys or rivers. Locks enabled canals to cross hills.

The Duke of Bridgewater owned coal mines near the industrial town of Manchester. However, the cost of transporting the coal to Manchester by road made the coal too expensive to sell there. He commissioned John Brindley, an engineering genius, to construct a canal between the mines and Manchester. The Bridgewater Canal, which opened in 1761, enabled the Duke to sell his coal at less than half the previous price. The success of the Bridgewater Canal launched a canal building boom.

SOURCE 3.2.5 *The Industrial Revolution*, by Ronald Lampitt, 1974. Held in a private collection. This illustration shows the *Rocket* in action.

Canal construction was usually funded by groups of landowners and merchants. The Bridgewater Canal cost about £200 000 but the tolls brought in about £80 000 each year. Local companies were formed and canals were dug wherever people thought they could make a profit. Thousands of labourers, known as navigators or navvies, were employed in canal construction.

By 1820, though, the construction boom was over. Many canals did not carry enough traffic to be profitable. In the 1830s, the canal system declined because it could not compete with the railways. However, the skills gained by the engineers and the navvies were not wasted. Engineers used many of the same features, such as bridges and cuttings, in railway construction. The navvies went on to build the railways.

THE RAILWAYS

Many inventors tried to build a reliable, fast steam locomotive—a steam engine that could drive itself forward and pull carriages along a railway track. In 1829, a competition was held to choose a locomotive for the new line from Liverpool to Manchester. George Stephenson's *Rocket* won. The *Rocket* could travel at 40 kilometres per hour.

The Liverpool–Manchester railway demonstrated the superiority of rail transport over road and canal transport. By 1831, it was carrying nearly half a million passengers a year and transporting huge quantities of freight. By 1870, more than 25 000 kilometres of track had been built in Britain and the railways carried more than 400 million passengers each year. The railways had a dramatic impact on the British economy and on people's lives. Industry thrived and more people travelled.

DID YOU KNOW?

PEOPLE THOUGHT TRAINS WOULD BE TOO DANGEROUS.

Many thought that trains travelling so fast would:

- put too much stress on the human body
- frighten livestock with their noise and smoke
- potentially involve horrendous crashes.

On the day the Liverpool–Manchester railway opened, a politician named William Huskisson was knocked down by a locomotive and injured. George Stephenson rushed him to hospital by locomotive but unfortunately Huskisson died, becoming the first person to be killed by a train.

The travelling is cheaper, safer, and easier. The rate of carriage of goods is 10s. [shillings] per ton; by canal it used to be 15s. per ton. The time occupied in the journey by railway is two hours; by canal it is twenty hours. The saving to manufacturers in the neighbourhood of Manchester, in the carriage of cotton alone, has been £20 000 per annum. Persons now go from Manchester to Liverpool and back in the same day with great ease. Formerly they were generally obliged to be absent the greater part of two days. More persons now travel on their own business. Coal pits have been sunk, and manufactories established on the line, giving great employment to the poor. It is found advantageous for the carriage of milk and garden produce. A great deal of land on the line has been let for garden ground, at increased rents. The value of land on the line has been considerably enhanced by the operation of the railway; land cannot be purchased but at a large increase in price.

SOURCE 3.2.6 An extract from the *Annual Register*, 1832, in which the impact of the Liverpool–Manchester railway is assessed

STEAMSHIPS

In the 1830s, sailing ships were still the only way to transport people and goods across the oceans. The voyage from Britain to North America took more than a month. Steam engines were not used to power ocean-going ships because the amount of coal required meant there would be would no room for passengers or cargo.

The great British engineer Isambard Kingdom Brunel worked out that if a ship was big enough, it could carry enough coal to cross the Atlantic Ocean. His first steamship, *Great Western*, was a gigantic paddle-driven timber steamship. In 1838, it completed the voyage from Britain to North America in just fifteen days. His second ship, *Great Britain*, was the first propeller-driven iron steamship. Brunel used iron because it was stronger, would not burn and was relatively cheap. By the end of the century, improved engine technology reduced the Atlantic crossing to about five or six days.

Steamships combined with railways massively increased access to raw materials and markets. Railways were constructed all over the British Empire to open up inland areas and connect them with ports. By 1904, almost half the ships transporting goods from Australia to export markets were steamships.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- coke
- division of labour
- puddling
- rotary motion
- smelting
- spinning jenny
- toll
- vertical motion

2 Which invention was the greatest technological achievement of the Industrial Revolution? Why?

3 How did the factory system affect workers?

Understanding and applying

4 **a** Why was the cotton industry mechanised before other industries?

b Why were inventions particularly needed in spinning?

5 **a** How did turnpike trusts improve Britain's road system?

b Why did the Duke of Bridgewater construct the Bridgewater Canal?

c What caused the decline of the canal system?

6 **a** Shortages of which raw material limited iron production in Britain until the early 1700s?

b Why would railways have been impossible without advances in the iron industry?

7 **a** What did Brunel's first steamship achieve?

b What was unusual about his second ship?

c How did steam power increase Britain's ability to make use of her empire?

Analysing

8 Examine Source 3.2.5.

a Use ADAMANT (see History Skills Toolbox at the beginning of this book) to analyse this source.

b Find primary sources that show the *Rocket*. Is Source 3.2.5 an accurate representation?

9 Reread Source 3.2.6.

a List three advantages of the railway that are noted in the first line of the source.

b How much cheaper was it to send goods by rail than canal?

c How much time was saved when goods were sent by the Liverpool–Manchester railway rather than by canal?

d Which industries grew up beside the line?

e What would be the main benefits of the railway for fresh food producers?

Analysing and creating

10 Create a concept map to illustrate how advances in transport were both a cause and an effect of the Industrial Revolution.

Creating

11 Use research to create a display about the Great Exhibition, held in London in 1851. Include some of the exhibits and at least three interesting facts about the Crystal Palace.

UNIT 3

CONDITIONS THAT INFLUENCED THE INDUSTRIALISATION OF BRITAIN AND AUSTRALIA

Historians debate why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain. According to one theory, greater food availability led to an increase in the population. This population increase led to a greater demand for goods and services and is known as the Agricultural Revolution. The growth of the empire led to greater access to raw and new materials. Technological advances such as steam power and mass production also contributed to the rise of the Industrial Revolution.

THE AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION

During the 1700s, rapid population growth in Britain increased the demand for food. As a result, food prices began to rise. Farmers realised they could make a profit if they could produce more food more efficiently. This led to a revolution in agriculture that helped to make the revolution in industry possible.

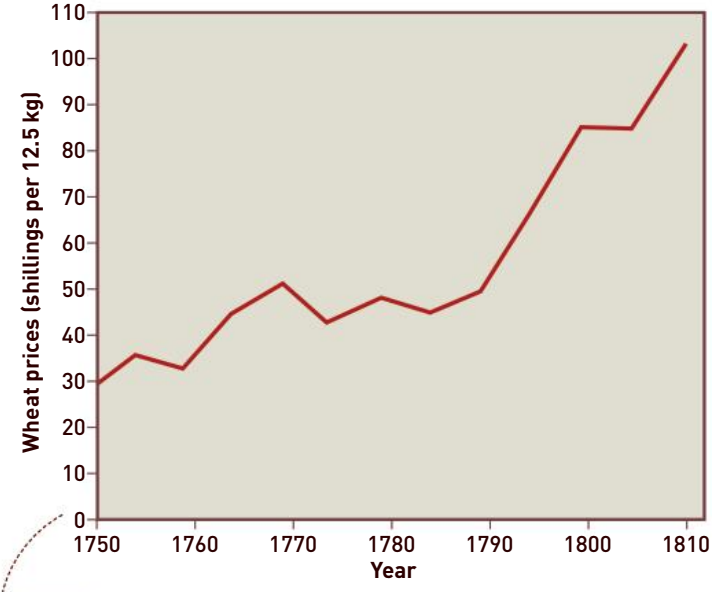
Before the Industrial Revolution, agriculture was Britain's most important industry. Between 80 and 90 per cent of the land was owned by the aristocracy or wealthy landowners. They farmed some of the land themselves but usually rented the rest out to tenant farmers. Labourers made a living by working on other people's land. Very poor people, known as squatters, were allowed to build dwellings on small areas of waste land.

THE OPEN FIELD SYSTEM

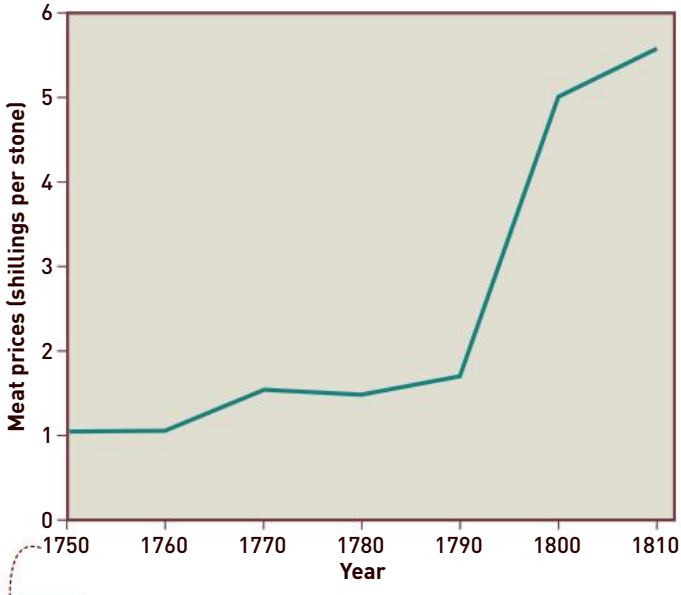
More than half the farming land in Britain was organised under the **open field system**. This meant that the farming land for the village was divided into three large fields and farmers had strips of land in each field. Each field would normally be planted with wheat one year (providing flour for bread) and barley the next year (providing fodder for livestock) and then left **fallow** (uncultivated so that the soil could recover its fertility) for a third year. The system allowed farmers to produce enough food for their own needs but rarely a surplus to sell.

The **village common** was an important part of the open field system. The common was a large piece of land that local people with 'common rights' could use. Many relied on it to provide grazing for their animals and to collect firewood. It was a source of extra food because people could gather fruit and herbs and catch game such as rabbits.

The main disadvantages of the open field system were that it wasted space (it did not use all of the available land), wasted time (farmers had to walk long distances between their strips), limited the quantity and quality of livestock (there was rarely enough fodder to feed animals through the winter) and discouraged innovation (the same crops were grown year after year).



SOURCE 3.3.1 Wheat prices, 1750–1810



SOURCE 3.3.2 Meat prices, 1750–1810. A stone is equal to 6.3 kilograms.

THE ENCLOSED SYSTEM

Under the **enclosed system**, scattered strips in the open fields were rearranged so that roughly the same amounts of land were packaged into individual farms and fenced. During the 1740s, landowners in favour of enclosure lobbied Parliament to force enclosures on their neighbours. As a result, some large landholders evicted tenant farmers. Small farms were combined to make bigger ones. People with common rights were given tiny pieces of land instead. Many felt their new bits of land were a poor exchange for access to the common. Others found they could not legally prove their rights. Squatters had no rights and were usually evicted.

Despite the hardships it caused, enclosures led to increased yields and encouraged innovation.

- The area of productive land increased because the fallow fields were cultivated.
- The land produced more because farmers grew legumes such as clover to restore soil fertility.
- Large landholders used new techniques to extend and improve their land. They experimented with drainage, irrigation, fertilisers and insect control.
- Large landholders tried scientific methods of seed selection and livestock breeding. Crop yields improved. The quality and quantity of livestock increased.
- Farmers began using sturdier implements made from iron instead of wood and new implements such as seed drills, which reduced the need for farm labourers.

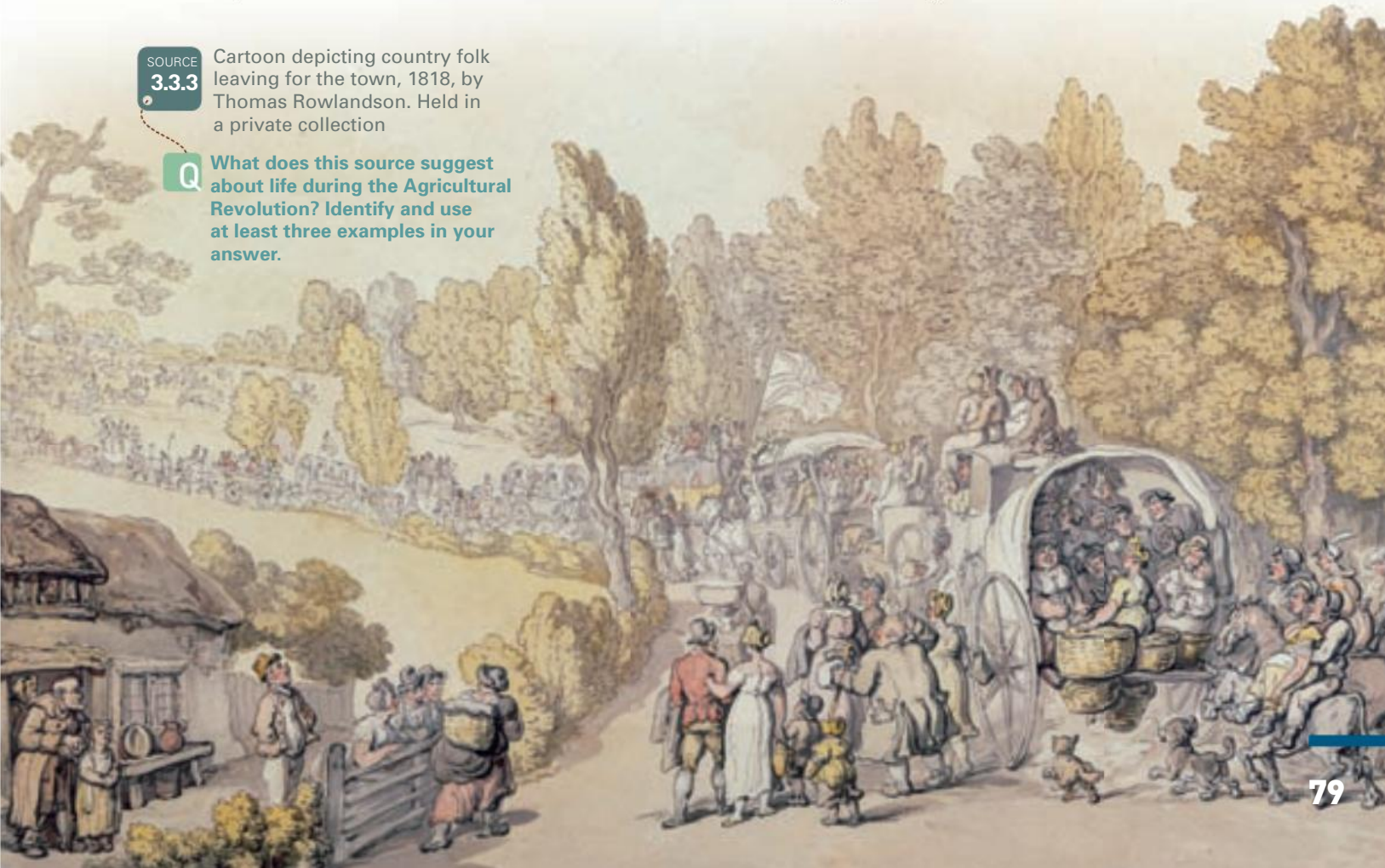
YEAR	YIELD
WHEAT OUTPUT IN ENGLAND AND WALES	
1700	13 million quarters
1750	15 million quarters
1790	19 million quarters
1820	25 million quarters
SHEEP ON BRITISH FARMS	
1700	11 million
1800	26 million

SOURCE 3.3.4 Increases in wheat output and sheep numbers. A quarter was equal to about 12.5 kilograms. Quoted in *The Changing Face of Britain*, by Paul Shuter and John Child, 1989

More land under production and higher yields led to huge increases in agricultural output. This agricultural revolution made it possible to produce enough food to feed a large urban population. Surplus food was available for sale and it was produced by fewer people.

CHEAP LABOUR

People who lost their land or their livelihood had little choice but to move from the country to the towns to find work. When industry began to grow in Britain, there was plenty of cheap labour available. The large numbers moving from rural to urban areas combined with rapid population growth meant that competition for jobs was fierce. When people did find jobs, they had to work long hours for very low wages.



SOURCE 3.3.3 Cartoon depicting country folk leaving for the town, 1818, by Thomas Rowlandson. Held in a private collection

Q What does this source suggest about life during the Agricultural Revolution? Identify and use at least three examples in your answer.

WEALTHY MIDDLE CLASS

Britain's wealthy middle class included landowners, merchants who profited from trade, shopkeepers, bankers and entrepreneurs. After enclosures, landowners could make more money by growing food or providing wool for textile manufacturers. Merchants carried on a profitable trade in goods made by **cottage industries**, which included spinning, weaving and iron-making, and were well established before industrialisation. Most goods were made by small groups of people, often families, in their own homes or small workshops. Cottage industries flourished in Britain because, unlike in many other countries, there were no internal **tariffs** to restrict the sale of goods. Merchants sold goods in national and international markets. The profits that could be made from trade with the colonies were especially high.

The spirit of entrepreneurial capitalism underpinned the Industrial Revolution. It provided the **capital** (money) to transform inventions into practical money-making applications. **Entrepreneurs** invested in technological innovations, built factories, bought machines, paid for raw materials and worked out how to sell their goods to a worldwide market.

People were willing to invest their money in enterprises because Britain had an established financial system, including a national bank, the Bank of England, and a stock exchange. The British middle class also had political power. They successfully argued for the removal of any restrictions on trade or industry.

> *I had two motives in offering you my assistance, friendship for you and love of an ingenious money-getting project. I presume your engine would require money, very accurate workmanship and extensive correspondence with customers to make it turn out to the best advantage ... to produce the most profit, my idea was to settle a manufactory near my own, by the side of the canal. From this manufactory we would serve all the world with engines of all sizes. We could make the engine 20 per cent cheaper than otherwise, and with as great a difference in accuracy as there is between the blacksmith and the mathematical instrument maker.*

SOURCE 3.3.5 Letter from Matthew Boulton (entrepreneur) to James Watt (inventor), 1769, quoted in *The Changing Face of Britain*, by Paul Shuter and John Child, 1989

TRANSPORT

Because Britain is a small island with many rivers, industries used the sea or nearby rivers for cheap water transport. Canals built during the 1700s extended the existing waterways so that goods could be sent all over the country. This gave industry an enormous advantage and promoted trade.

The sea was Britain's most important transport route. Coal, for example, could be shipped from mines in the north down the coast to London to provide heating for homes. Goods and raw materials could be sent around the world. By the early 1700s, Britain's trading network included Europe, the Americas, Asia and Africa. By the early 1800s, the British merchant fleet was the largest in the world.

TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS

Before the Industrial Revolution, people generally used hand tools and human or animal power to manufacture goods. It took a lot of time and effort to produce even a simple object. In the 1700s, a rapid increase in the demand for goods meant that money could be made if goods could be produced more quickly. Innovations such as Hargreaves's spinning jenny, Arkwright's water frame and Crompton's mule made this possible, enabling manufacturing to be done by machines. The invention of steam engines that could drive machinery eventually revolutionised all industry and transport.

Entrepreneurs began investing in new technologies that produced goods more quickly and cheaply. Industries were able to make huge profits by cutting the cost of production while increasing their output. Mechanised manufacturing, driven by steam power, made **mass production** possible and sharply increased the demand for raw materials.

ACCESS TO RAW MATERIALS

Britain possessed the raw materials that were essential for industrialisation—water, coal, iron ore and limestone. The new machines were driven by water power and then by steam engines, which used coal for fuel. Iron production needed iron ore and limestone and relied on coal to generate high temperatures for smelting. Britain's abundant supplies of coal provided cheap energy. Many countries did not have large deposits of coal, so their energy costs were higher. Raw materials were also acquired overseas, especially from British colonies.

SOURCE 3.3.6 *Cottage Industry*, by William Hincks, c. 1791. Held at the British Library, London

Q **What evidence can you see in the picture that this is an example of cottage industry and not an example of industrial methods of production?**

EXPANDING THE BRITISH EMPIRE

During the 1600s, Britain established trading posts and colonies in Asia and the Americas. Expansion continued throughout the 1700s, including the settlement of Australia in 1788. By 1815, Britain was the world's leading imperial power.

The Royal Navy protected the merchant fleet and defended the colonies from attack. It gave Britain the firepower it needed to win wars against European rivals and take over their colonies. As a result, British trade flourished. The navy was well funded because it was financed by a government tax on imported goods.

Britain's East India Company dominated trade in Asia, where it established trading posts and alliances. It sent spices, silk, cotton textiles, porcelain, tea and other exotic goods back home. By establishing colonies, Britain was able to obtain cheap supplies of commodities such as coffee, wool and cotton. Britain imported cotton from India and wool from Australia. Rising demand for sugar resulted in the development of sugar plantations in Jamaica and other islands in the West Indies. Throughout the British Empire, Britain extracted minerals and harvested forest products such as timber and rubber.

The British Empire was a rich source of raw materials but it also created a huge market for British manufacturers. Britain exported thousands of different goods that the colonies needed, such as nails, buttons, buckets, axes, saddles, textiles, clocks, coaches and firearms.

THE SPREAD OF INNOVATIONS

Many countries lacked the capital, transport or raw materials for industrialisation. Britain also tried to stop the export of innovations and machines. By the 1820s, some European countries, the United States, Japan and Australia were starting their own industrial revolutions.

GERMANY

Industrialisation began during the 1820s and the first railways were built in 1835. After German unification in 1871, industrialisation expanded rapidly. Coal and iron production increased enormously. Armaments became a major industry. By the early 1900s, Germany was challenging Britain as Europe's leading industrial power.

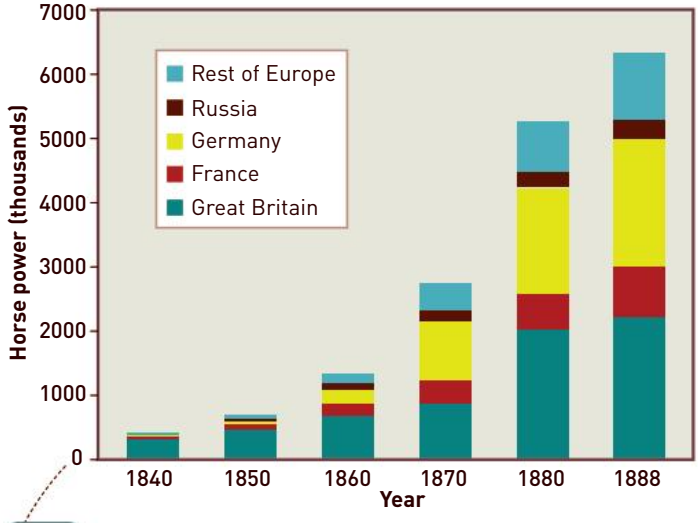
German chemical companies invested in scientific research and became prolific inventors and producers of synthetic dyes. Until the 1850s, all dyes came from natural sources. By 1914, Germany produced three-quarters of the world's dye supply. Germany also became the leading producer of synthetic drugs. Aspirin was one of their biggest breakthroughs.

FRANCE

Railway building began during the 1830s. By the time of the 1889 World Fair in Paris, the French had built the Eiffel Tower, which was a spectacular demonstration of engineering skill and the use of iron as a new construction material.

RUSSIA

Under the tsars (czars), agriculture remained primitive and industry failed to thrive. In the 1890s, the government began to finance new railways and industries. The Trans-Siberian railway gave access to vast deposits of raw materials. Mining, iron works, steel plants and textile factories grew rapidly. By 1900, Russia was the world's fourth largest producer of steel.



SOURCE 3.3.7 Power generated by steam engines in Europe, 1840–88. The graph shows the amount of power used to run machines, transport and pumps. Increased use of steam power indicates growing mechanisation and industrialisation.

SOURCE 3.3.8 Commodore Perry's gift of a railway to the Japanese in 1853. Held in a private collection. Commodore Perry, the commander of the US warships, brought gifts as well as demands.

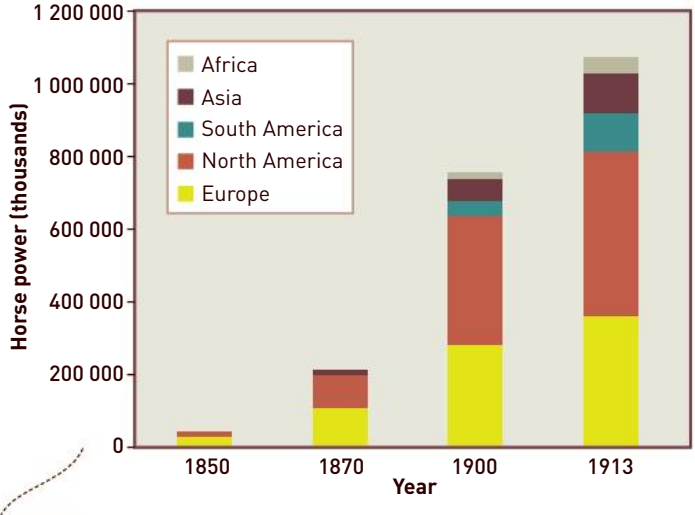
Q How could the gift of the railway have helped Perry to convince the Japanese to open their country to trade?

UNITED STATES

The United States is a geographically large country rich in natural resources, including water, coal, iron ore and other minerals. The first manufacturing centres developed in the north-east were near rivers and ports. In 1790, Samuel Slater, a textile worker originally from Britain, built the first successful cotton spinning factory. He redesigned the machines from memory.

Industrial development depended on transport of all kinds. Canal building began in the 1800s. Steam boats were used extensively. Railways built throughout the country provided access to raw materials and to a massive national market.

In the 1850s, the development of the Bessemer process enabled mass production of cheap good-quality steel. Steel is much stronger than iron, but had been too expensive to use, except for tools and weapons. Steel soon replaced iron as the preferred material for railways, bridges, buildings and armaments. The United States began to use steel frames to provide the structural strength for towering skyscrapers. By 1900, the United States produced more steel than Britain and was fast becoming a world superpower.



SOURCE 3.3.9 Growth of the railways, 1850–1913. Railways enabled increased access to raw materials and markets, and substantially reduced travel times. European powers built several railways in other continents to bring raw materials to ports for export.

JAPAN

Japan was the first Asian country to industrialise. Japan had deliberately isolated itself from foreign influence, but in 1853, four US warships arrived. They carried a letter from the US president, demanding that Japan open its doors to trade. Two of the warships were steam-powered. The Japanese, who had never seen this technology before, realised they could not defeat the new arrivals.

To maintain its independence, Japan had to become as powerful as the foreigners. The government launched a program to modernise the military and promote industrialisation. The government funded transportation and heavy industries, particularly shipbuilding, armaments, textiles and chemicals. By the early twentieth century, their economy was booming.

AUSTRALIA

Australia was settled by the British during the Industrial Revolution. Consequently, new technologies were adopted fairly quickly. Australia also had rich deposits of coal and iron ore. In 1813, the first steam mill began operating in Sydney. By the 1850s, railway building was underway. Coal was exported to the United States and China and wool was exported to Britain. By 1850, Australia supplied more than half of Britain's wool imports. By the early 1900s, Australian inventions included the stump-jump plough, the header harvester and new strains of drought-resistant wheat. Australia rapidly became part of the emerging global economy.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- capital
- cottage industry
- enclosed system
- entrepreneur
- fallow
- mass production
- open field system
- tariffs
- village common

2 Name two industries that Germany dominated by 1914.

3 Why was transport so important to the industrialisation of the United States?

4 Why did Japan decide to industrialise?

5 Name two factors that assisted the industrialisation of Australia.

Understanding and analysing

6 Examine Sources 3.3.1 and 3.3.2. At what date do you think many farmers began to be seriously interested in enclosure schemes? When would most farmers have been convinced that enclosure schemes were a good thing?

Understanding and evaluating

7 What evidence is there in Source 3.3.4 that progress occurred in British agriculture during the 1700s?

Analysing

8 Identify at least seven reasons why the Industrial Revolution occurred in Britain.

9 Examine Source 3.3.7.

- **a** Which country generated the greatest amount of steam power in 1860?
- **b** Was France more industrialised than Russia in 1880?
- **c** Which two countries were most industrialised in 1888?
- **d** Describe the general trend shown in the graph.

Analysing and evaluating

10 Reread Source 3.3.5.

- **a** What type of businessman was Boulton?
- **b** Why did Boulton offer assistance to Watt?
- **c** What was required to develop Watt's invention?
- **d** Where did Boulton think the engine could be sold?
- **e** Explain why attitudes like those expressed in Boulton's letter were important to the success of the Industrial Revolution.

UNIT 4

POPULATION MOVEMENTS AND CHANGING SETTLEMENT PATTERNS DURING THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

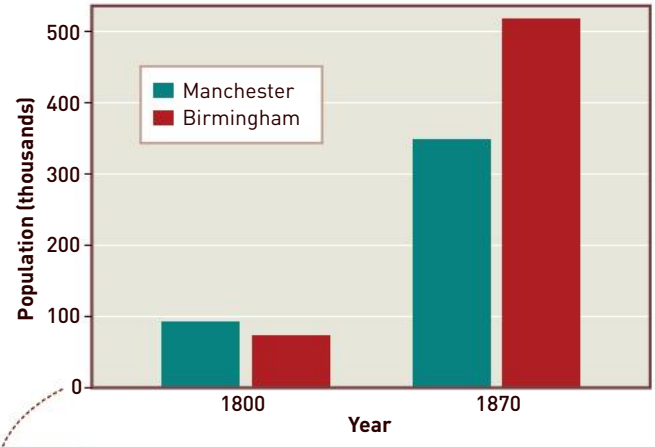
Before the Industrial Revolution, most people lived in the countryside or in a few large towns. By 1900, only one quarter of the British population lived in the countryside.

RURAL POVERTY AND UNEMPLOYMENT

From the mid-1700s, poverty and unemployment increased in Britain's rural areas. Britain's population doubled during the eighteenth century. With greater numbers seeking work, farm labourers found it increasingly difficult to find employment. The decline of cottage industries such as spinning and weaving contributed to rural unemployment. Factories were able to produce goods more quickly and cheaply. The rural poor found it difficult to produce enough food for themselves because they no longer had access to the common.

NEW OPPORTUNITIES

People moved to towns and cities, where industries were growing and jobs were available. Industries grew near sources of energy, raw materials and transport. Entrepreneurs built factories close to coalfields because the steam engines that powered their machines were fuelled by coal. Industries tended to concentrate in certain areas. Birmingham specialised in iron-smelting, while Manchester was the centre of the cotton industry.



SOURCE 3.4.1 Population in Manchester and Birmingham, 1800 and 1870

RAPID URBANISATION

Industrialisation spurred the growth of cities throughout Britain, Europe and the United States. Between 1800 and 1900, the population of Hamburg in Germany grew from 130 000 to 700 000; New York's population grew from under 70 000 to more than 3.4 million; London's population grew from about a million to more than 6 million.

Cities grew so rapidly that there was no time for proper planning. Serious problems resulted.

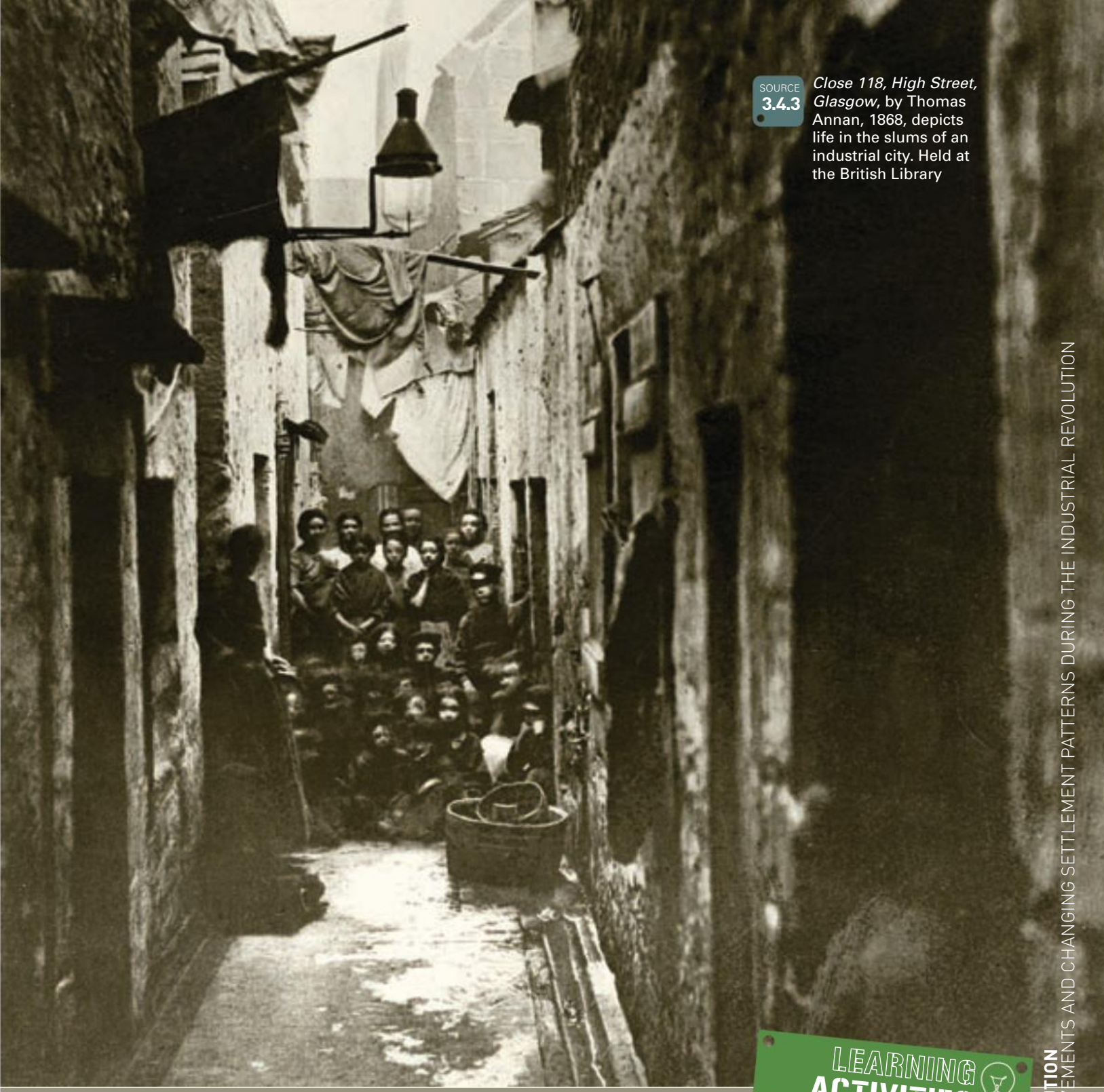
Overcrowding was a key problem. Many workers lived in huts or rows of terraced houses, crowded back to back near factories. The houses were cramped and poorly built. The urban environment was drab, ugly and grimy due to soot and pollution. Factory smoke and the stench from open drains were trapped in the narrow streets.

Water supply, sewerage and rubbish disposal were inadequate or non-existent. Rubbish piled up in the streets and horse manure was everywhere. Human and other waste went into cesspits or open drains that ended up in rivers. Cesspits often seeped into wells, polluting the water. Sewage was dumped directly into the River Thames in London, even though the river was the main water supply. Drinking water often carried organisms that caused diseases.

Outbreaks of disease became more common and more serious. Killer diseases such as typhoid, cholera, tuberculosis and smallpox thrived in the crowded and unsanitary conditions.

> *In one cul-de-sac in Leeds there are 34 houses and there dwell in these houses 340 persons, or ten to every house. The name of this place is Boot and Shoe Yard, from whence was removed, in the time of the cholera, 75 cartloads of manure which had been untouched for years. To build the largest number of cottages in the smallest place seems to have been the original view of the speculators. Thus neighbourhoods have grown up in which there is neither water nor toilets.*

SOURCE 3.4.2 From *An Inquiry into the State and Condition of the Town of Leeds*, 1842, quoted in *The Changing Face of Britain*, by Paul Shuter and John Child, 1989



SOURCE 3.4.3 *Close 118, High Street, Glasgow*, by Thomas Annan, 1868, depicts life in the slums of an industrial city. Held at the British Library

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Why did people leave the countryside?

2 Why did people move to towns and cities?

3 List three factors that influenced the location of new industries.

Analysing

4 Use Source 3.4.1 to describe population growth in Manchester and Birmingham.

5 Why did industrialisation lead to the growth of cities?

6 Reread Source 3.4.2.

- **a** List the problems in Leeds.
- **b** Does the source provide any explanations for these problems? Quote from the source to support your answer.

Creating

7 Create a journal entry based on the life of one of the children depicted in Source 3.4.3.

UNIT 5

SOURCE STUDY: CHANGES TO CITIES AND LANDSCAPES: THE EIFFEL TOWER

The new building and manufacturing technologies developed during the Industrial Revolution profoundly changed cities and landscapes. An example of this change is the building of the Eiffel Tower. Built on the Champ de Mars in Paris, the tower was one of many buildings constructed for the World Fair 1889, held on the centenary of the French Revolution (1789).

SOURCE 3.5.1 The first platform of the Eiffel Tower

USING IRON TO BUILD THE EIFFEL TOWER

Construction of the first platform of the Eiffel Tower began in Paris, France on 7 December 1887. The tower was the first large iron structure ever built and was constructed from over 18 000 pieces of individually crafted puddle iron. Prior to the Industrial Revolution, iron was not strong enough or available in large enough quantities for the construction of buildings.

Iron was used in the construction of other buildings in Paris and beyond, such as factories and train stations. The combination of iron or steel bars and concrete made it possible to build large underground sewers such as the London sewer in 1901 and, eventually, to construct skyscrapers.

THE FACTS AND FIGURES

The construction of the Eiffel Tower took two years, two months and five days. Over 300 workers contributed to the building. The cost at the time was 8 million francs, part of which was paid for by the government and part of which was covered by admission fees to the tower. Due to the corrodible nature of iron, the tower is painted every six to seven years by hand.

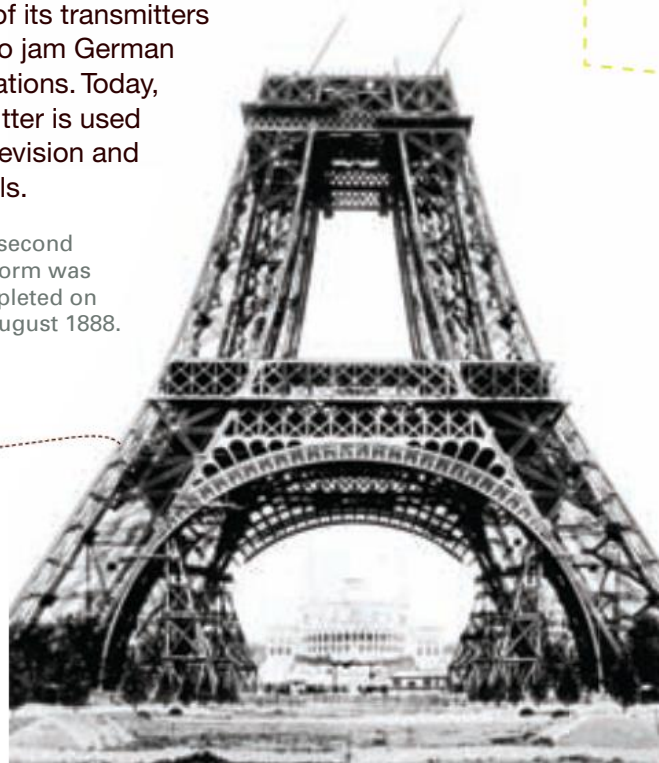
A 'BLIGHT' ON THE SKYLINE

The designer and engineer of the tower, Gustave Eiffel, negotiated a contract that gave him ownership of the tower for twenty years. Other buildings that were constructed for the World Fair were designed to be temporary and were pulled down after the fair ended.

During the building and after the completion of the tower, residents of Paris wanted the tower taken down. The large, open structure was so unlike any other building that people felt it was a 'blight' on the landscape. As Eiffel was the owner of the tower, he refused to bow to public pressure and take down the building. This meant that, unlike the other buildings constructed for the fair, the Eiffel Tower remained standing and in use.

In 1913, a sustained wireless signal was transmitted between the tower in Paris and Arlington, Virginia. The tower was also used during World War I, in 1914, when one of its transmitters was used to jam German communications. Today, the transmitter is used for both television and radio signals.

SOURCE 3.5.2 The second platform was completed on 21 August 1888.



SOURCE 3.5.3 The tower was completed on 31 March 1889 and opened on 6 May 1889.

SOURCE 3.5.4 The Eiffel Tower today

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

CREATING

Collect information from the internet, library and other resources to create a presentation that shows how landscapes change due to industrialisation. Use images and texts in the presentation. You could focus your presentation on a particular country, such as Australia, or on a specific topic, such as changes in transport.

UNIT 6

THE EXPERIENCES OF MEN, WOMEN AND CHILDREN

STEAM POWER AND ITS EFFECT ON EVERYDAY LIFE

Before industrialisation, only wealthy people could afford luxuries such as cotton clothing, crockery, clocks and newspapers. Steam-powered factories mass-produced a growing number and variety of cheaper goods, such as textiles, pottery and furniture. The steam printing press made it possible for workers to buy newspapers and books. Steam power made these and many other articles cheap enough for mass consumption.

STEAM TRAINS

Trains powered by steam meant that milk, meat and vegetables could be transported quickly over longer distances. As a result, fresh food became more available and less expensive in towns and cities. National newspapers became possible when they could be sent overnight by train from London to the rest of the country. Even the working class could afford train travel. Cheap excursion fares to the seaside and to events such as the Great Exhibition were very popular. In 1863, an underground steam railway was built in London and suburbs began to grow because people could live further from their work.

STEAMSHIPS

Travel by steamship became faster and eventually less expensive. Large numbers of people began emigrating from Europe to North America and Australia. Construction of the Suez Canal, linking the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea, was completed in 1869. Instead of going around Africa, steamships now had a much more direct route to Asia and Australia. In 1800, the voyage from Britain to Australia took up to eight months. By 1900, it could be completed in about one month. Such radical reductions in travelling time did not occur again until the 1950s, when air travel became widely available.

> *The first real event in my life came in 1851, when I was six. My mother took me up to London to see the Great Exhibition. Our special train from Thirsk to King's Cross was a wonder to me. The train was of enormous length and drawn by six locomotives. Every seat was occupied.*

SOURCE 3.6.1 From the autobiography of R. E. Crompton, published in 1928

SOURCE 3.6.2 Poster advertising the White Star Line, 1911. Held in the Cauer Collection, Germany

GAS LIGHTS AND THEIR EFFECT ON EVERYDAY LIFE

Before gas or electric lighting, candles and oil lamps were the usual source of artificial light. It was difficult and often dangerous to move around cities after dark. People went to bed early and got up at dawn because little could be achieved at night. In the early 1800s, coal gas, produced during the conversion of coal to coke for industry, was harnessed to produce gas lighting. This new source of light was first used in factories, where it increased the hours of production.

By the 1830s, most cities in Britain had gas street lighting. Gas lights were then installed in public buildings, shops, large houses and schools. By the late 1800s, working people could afford gas lights in their homes. Street lights made cities and towns safer and discouraged crime. People began going out at night to social events or meetings. Shops and factories stayed open for longer hours. More people spent time in the evening reading or studying.

ELECTRICITY IN EVERYDAY LIFE

In 1879, Thomas Edison invented the first reliable light bulb. Electric lights were much brighter and they replaced gas in Europe during the twentieth century. By 1914, electrical appliances such as vacuum cleaners, toasters and refrigerators were starting to appear on the market.

TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES

Electricity revolutionised communications. Scientists discovered that electrical signals could be transmitted along a wire from one place to another. Samuel Morse invented a signalling code that used dots and dashes to represent letters and used it to send the first successful telegraph message in 1844. A telegraph cable under the English Channel connected Britain to Europe in 1850. A cable across the Atlantic connected Europe and North America in 1866. The Overland Telegraph connected Australia to Asia in 1872.

The telegraph was the first technology that enabled instant communication. Newspaper offices installed telegraph machines and brought their readers the latest news from all over the world. People could send messages to relatives and friends. Industries and businesses enjoyed the benefits of immediate contact with suppliers and markets. Before the telegraph, it could take months to get a message from Sydney to London. Now messages could be delivered within twenty-four hours.

The telephone developed from the telegraph. Instead of transmitting Morse code, the telephone transmitted the human voice. It was invented by Alexander Graham Bell in 1876 and became one of the most popular inventions of all time. Telephones came to Australia in 1882.

WIRELESS COMMUNICATION

The discovery of electromagnetic waves launched the next innovation—wireless communication. Guglielmo Marconi was the first to demonstrate that these waves could be used to send Morse code over long distances. For the first time, ships could receive and send messages while at sea. In 1912, when the *Titanic* was sinking, the distress signals were picked up by other ships and many passengers were able to be rescued.

DID YOU KNOW?

UNTIL THE 1850s, HORSES AND BOATS TRANSPORTED GOODS AND PEOPLE AROUND THE AUSTRALIAN COLONIES AND THE MAJOR CITIES DID NOT HAVE ELECTRIC STREET LIGHTS UNTIL THE TURN OF THE CENTURY.

In 1854, the first steam railway opened between Melbourne and Port Melbourne. By 1901, all states except Western Australia were linked by rail. However, different gauges (width of the line) were used by individual states and travellers often had to change trains as they crossed state borders.

In 1888, Tamworth in New South Wales became the first Australian town to have electric street lights. By 1894, most of Melbourne's city streets were lit by electricity. Sydney did not have electric street lights until 1904.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Understanding

1. Why did steam power result in mass consumption?
2. Give two reasons why ocean voyages between Britain and Australia became much faster during the 1800s.
3. How did gas lighting change people's lives?
4. Name three forms of communication that were invented between 1840 and 1914. Why was electricity a key factor in the development of these innovations?

Analysing and evaluating

5. Reread Source 3.6.1. Why would Crompton's first experience of train travel have made a big impression on him?

Analysing and creating

6. Examine Source 3.6.2.
   - a. What are the names of White Star's ships?
   - b. What is special about the ships according to the poster?
   - c. Which form of transport has the artist depicted in the background? Why is this significant?
   - d. Source 3.6.2 is an advertising poster. What does the poster convey about the experience of steam travel? What has the artist done to help get this message across to potential customers?

UNIT 7

SOURCE STUDY:

INVESTIGATING THE CHANGES IN WORKING CONDITIONS

The wealth created by the Industrial Revolution was not evenly shared. Factory and mine owners and those with money to invest in enterprises such as the railways became very wealthy. But for the new large group of industrial workers, uncontrolled capitalism resulted in extremely low wages and oppressive and unsafe working conditions.

WORK IN THE FACTORIES

Inventions led to tremendous change in the world of work. People who once might have worked in agriculture or cottage industries now worked in the new factories. Factories were usually large, noisy, poorly lit and dusty. Machinery was rarely fenced, accidents were frequent and rates of injury and death were high. The work was monotonous and relentless, driven by the pace of machinery. Workers often felt they were just cogs in a machine, doing the same thing over and over again.

To ensure maximum production for minimum cost, factory owners required employees to work long hours for low wages. It was common for people to work six days a week for twelve hours a day. In busy times this could extend to fourteen or even sixteen hours. Employment of women and children was common because they were paid lower wages than men. Factory owners generally imposed rules and harsh discipline to organise their large workforces. Fines were imposed for even minor offences such as talking or lateness. Children were often beaten if they broke the rules.

Mr. Matthew Crabtree, called in; and Examined.

What age are you?—Twenty-two.

What is your occupation?—A blanket manufacturer.

Have you ever been employed in a factory?—Yes.

At what age did you first go to work in one?—Eight.

Will you state the hours of labour at the period when you first went to the factory, in ordinary times?—From 6 in the morning to 8 at night.

Fourteen hours?—Yes.

When trade was brisk what were your hours?—From 5 in the morning to 9 in the evening.

Sixteen hours?—Yes.

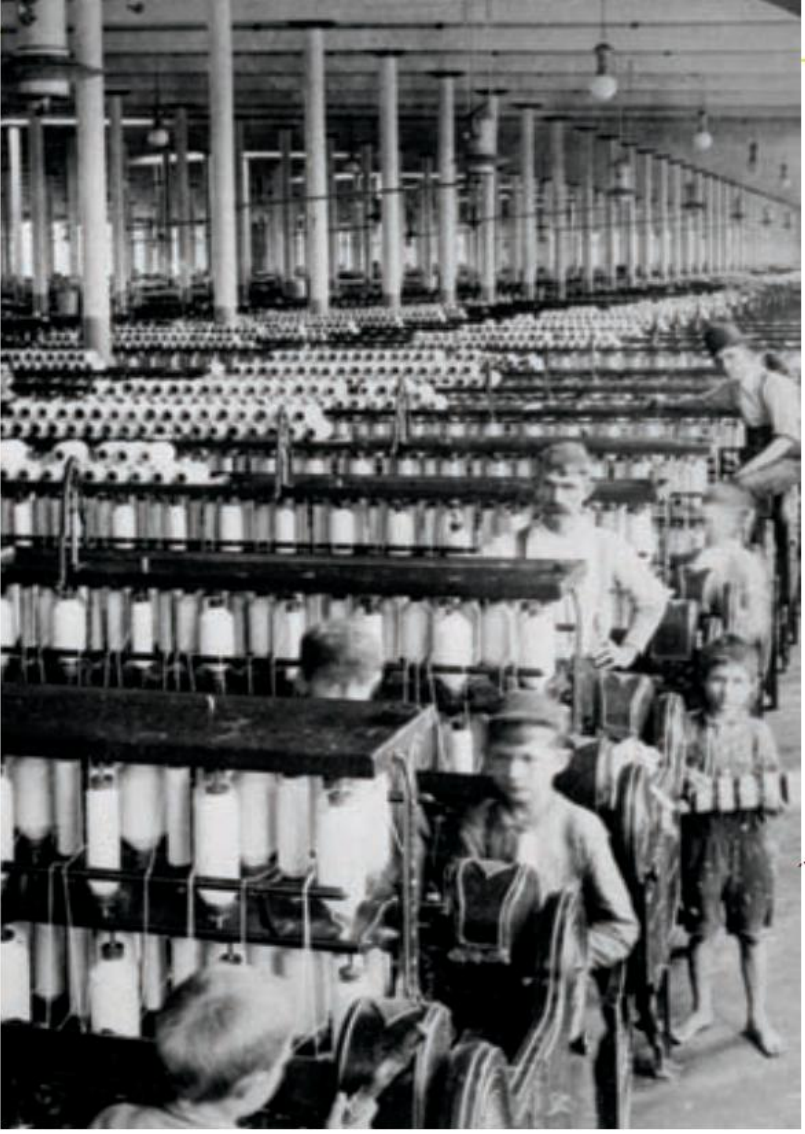
SOURCE 3.7.2 Evidence presented to the Sadler Committee, 1832, quoted in *The Life of Ninteenth-Century Workers*, by Laura Del Col, 1988. Matthew Crabtree's testimony was similar to that of many other workers interviewed by the committee. The Sadler Committee was set up by parliament to investigate working conditions in textile factories. It resulted in the 1833 Factory Act (UK)

AGE OF WORKER	WAGES shillings (s) and pence (d)	
	MALE	FEMALE
under 11	2s 3d	2s 4d
11–16	4s 1d	4s 3d
17–21	10s 2d	7s 3d
22–26	17s 2d	8s 5d
27–31	20s 4d	8s 7d
32–36	22s 8d	8s 9d
37–41	21s 7d	9s 8d
42–46	20s 3d	9s 3d

SOURCE 3.7.1 Wages in cotton factories, Lancashire, 1830

AGE	MALES	FEMALES
under 11	246	155
11–16	1169	1123
17–21	736	1240
22–26	612	780
27–31	355	295
32–36	215	100
37–41	168	81
42–46	98	38

SOURCE 3.7.3 Age of workers in cotton factories, Lancashire, 1833



I have visited many factories ... and I never saw a single instance of corporal chastisement inflicted on a child, nor indeed did I ever see children in ill-humour. They seemed to be always cheerful and alert ... As to exhaustion by the day's work, they evinced no trace of it on emerging from the mill in the evening; for they immediately began to skip about any neighbouring play-ground, and to commence their little amusements with the same alacrity as boys issuing from a school.

SOURCE 3.7.5 From *The Philosophy of Manufactures*, by Andrew Ure, 1835 in the *Notes and Records of the Royal Society of London*. Ure was a prominent opponent of reform who wrote articles and books defending the factory system.

SOURCE 3.7.4 Cotton spinning mill, South Carolina, USA, 1903

SOURCE 3.7.6 'Tremendous sacrifice', by George Cruikshank, 1900. The cartoon depicts a factory owner who employs women (on the left) to manufacture cloth for sale in a shop (on the right). The workers queuing to be fed into the mincer are saying: 'I understand that it is impossible to get a living at this work'. 'So I have heard, never the less we must try'. In the shop a woman is saying: 'I cannot imagine how they can possibly be made for the price'. The little bags with legs at lower left are labelled 'to the bank'.

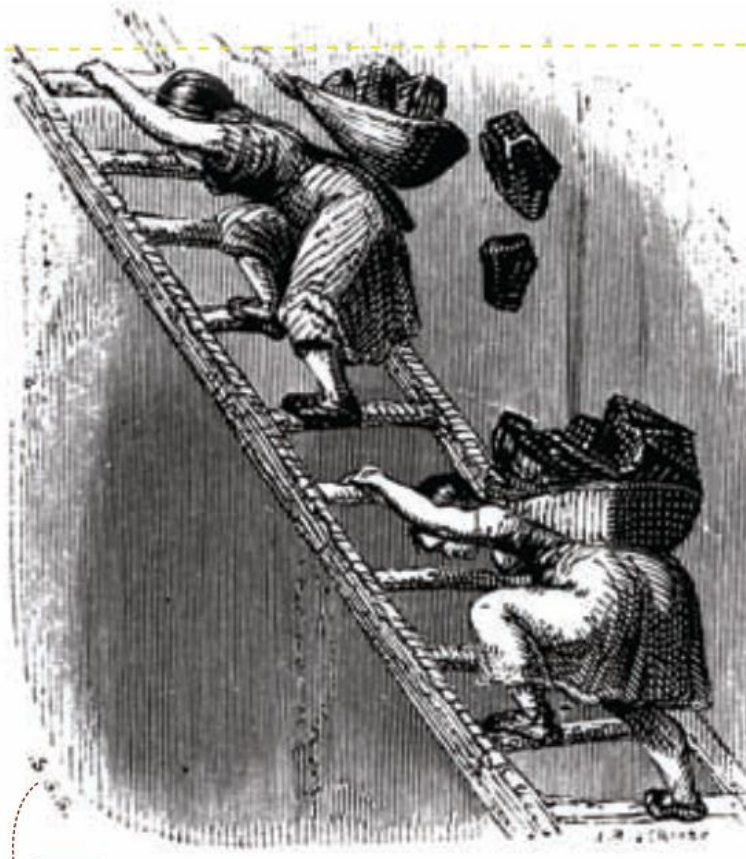
INVESTIGATING THE CHANGES IN WORKING CONDITIONS

WORK IN THE COAL MINES

Conditions in the coal mines were even worse. Men and women worked in hot, cramped conditions underground. They dug out the coal or hauled heavy loads up to the surface. Many young children were employed because they were paid less and could work in small spaces. Accidents, tunnel collapses and explosions were ever-present dangers.

> *The little trapper of eight years of age lies quiet in bed; between two or three in the morning, his mother shakes him. He fills his tin bottle with coffee, takes a loaf of bread and sets out for the pit. All his work is to open the door and then allow it to shut itself. He sits alone and has no one to talk to. He has no light. His hours are passed in total darkness.*

SOURCE 3.7.7 Extract from the *Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry into Children's Employment in Mines and Factories*, 1842, quoted in *The Life of Ninteenth-Century Workers*, by Laura Del Col, 1988. A trapper was a young child who operated the door that separated one part of a tunnel from the rest of the mine.



SOURCE 3.7.8 Women carrying coal up to the surface, nineteenth century

SOURCE 3.7.9 Young boys working in a coal mine, c. 1895

REFORM

Governments were slow to tackle the problems caused by industrialisation. A philosophy known as *laissez-faire*—let (the people) do (as they wish)—was popular. Its supporters thought people should run their lives with minimal interference from the government and there should be no restrictions on trade or industry.

Laissez-faire was used as an argument against government action to limit the age of child labour, regulate hours of work, or enforce safety standards. Conditions did not improve until the 1830s. The 1833 Factory Act (UK) banned work for children less than 9 years of age. It set a maximum of forty-eight hours per week for 9- to 13-year-olds and sixty-nine hours for 13- to 16-year-olds. The 1842 Mines Act (UK) outlawed work underground for women and for children under 10. The 1844 Factory Act (UK) required employers to fence in dangerous machinery.

> *When I visited Bradford, in Yorkshire, in 1838, being desirous to see the condition of the children ... I asked for a collection of cripples and deformities. In a short time more than 80 were gathered in a large courtyard ... They stood or squatted before me in all the shapes of the letters of the alphabet. This was the effect of prolonged toil on the tender frames of children at early ages ... some years afterwards, I called for a similar exhibition of cripples; but, God be praised! there was not one to be found in that vast city.*

SOURCE 3.7.10

Part of a speech given by the Earl of Shaftesbury in parliament in 1879, quoted in *The Life of Nineteenth-Century Workers*, by Laura Del Col, 1988. The Earl of Shaftesbury was a politician who successfully pushed factory reforms through parliament. In this speech, he pointed out the benefits achieved by legislation to regulate working conditions in textile factories.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING

1 Reread Source 3.7.2.

- **a** What age was Matthew when be began working in a factory?
- **b** How many hours did he usually work each day?
- **c** How many hours did he work during busy times?

ANALYSING

2 Examine Source 3.7.6.

- **a** What is the fate of the workers?
- **b** Why are there so many customers in the shop?
- **c** How does the cartoonist indicate that the factory owner is making large profits?
- **d** Explain what the cartoonist is saying about the way factory owners treated their workers.

EVALUATING

3 Examine Source 3.7.4.

- **a** Where is the factory located and when was the photograph taken?
- **b** Is this a primary or a secondary source? Explain your answer.
- **c** What evidence does the source provide about the use of child labour?

APPLYING

4 Examine Sources 3.7.1 and 3.7.3. Describe the relationship between gender and age in cotton factories.

5 Reread Source 3.7.5. Do you think Ure's words seem designed to inform his audience or to persuade them? Explain your answer, using examples. Are Ure's views supported by other sources?

6 Examine Source 3.7.7. What do you think would be the three worst things about a trapper's job? Why were young children often employed as trappers?

7 Examine Sources 3.7.8 and 3.7.9. Many people died in the mines. Describe the sorts of accidents that might occur.

8 Reread Source 3.7.10. How were the children crippled and deformed? What benefits of reform did the Earl of Shaftesbury see when he visited again?

CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 8

THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

SOURCE 3.8.1 Wheat fields in Brazil. Areas of natural biodiversity are often replaced by a monoculture—only one crop is grown over large areas.

GLOBAL CHANGES

Landscapes

Coal fuelled the Industrial Revolution. It was cheap, readily available and produced more energy more consistently than sources such as water, wind, human and animal power. The landscape changed as factories, mines and cities took over large tracts of the countryside. Water, air and noise pollution became commonplace. Industries and cities needed infrastructure, so power stations, roads and telephone lines were built. Rising levels of consumption meant more intensive resource use and more waste. Rivers were dammed, forests disappeared and monoculture replaced grasslands. Exploitation of resources to support cities and manufacturing changed landscapes across the world.

Transport

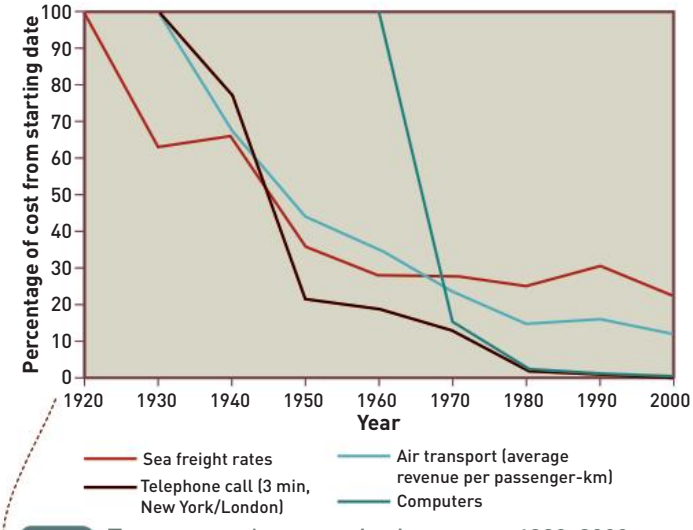
Steam trains revolutionised travel in the nineteenth century, but the twentieth century was the era of the motor car. The invention of the internal combustion engine, powered by petroleum made from oil, launched modern transportation. The assembly line, devised by Henry Ford in 1913, enabled mass production of motor vehicles. The Model T Ford was assembled on a conveyor belt, which carried it from one work station to the next. Each worker on the line performed one specific task and all Model T Fords were made from the same standard parts.

SOURCE 3.8.2 Deforestation in Sumatra, Indonesia, 16 October 2010. The first photo shows an area of rainforest in the Sungai Sembilang National Park. The second photo is of a nearby area at the edge of the national park where the forest has been cut and cleared to supply timber for paper and pulpwood manufacturing.

SOURCE 3.8.3 Drilling for oil, California, USA, c. 1920. In the 1920s, California produced about one-quarter of the world's oil supply.

Mass production of the Model T made it affordable for the middle class. Cars rapidly became the most popular form of transport because they were fast, comfortable and offered the convenience of door-to-door travel. Discovery of huge reserves of oil in the United States made petroleum cheap. Highways were built all over the country. Today cars account for about 80 per cent of oil consumption in developed countries.

The internal combustion engine made the movement of people and goods around the world faster and easier. International trade now depends on oil-powered ships, especially for bulk cargo such as coal, iron ore and wheat. In 1903, the Wright brothers laid the foundations for modern flight when they flew a plane powered by an internal combustion engine. By the 1930s, technological advances had resulted in the development of the jet engine. By the 1970s, passenger jets could reach speeds of a thousand kilometres an hour.



SOURCE 3.8.4 Transport and communications costs, 1920–2000

Communications

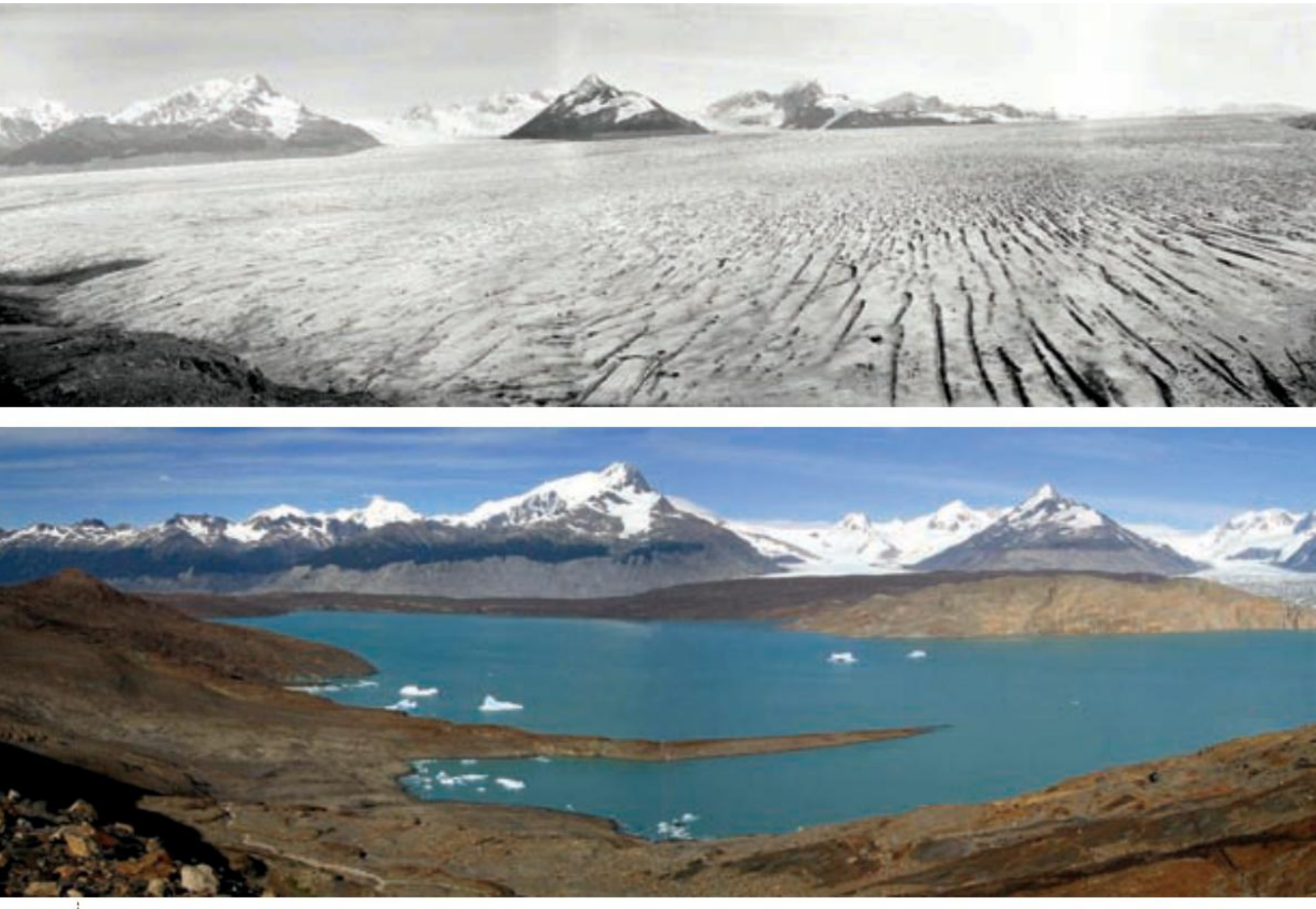
Innovations in communications and transport have been key contributors to globalisation. More than 60 per cent of people now have mobile phones and almost one-third of the world's population are connected to the internet. The current revolution in information and communications is changing the way people live and work, especially as technologies become cheaper and faster. Technology has replaced many jobs but created others. Working from home has become an option again, for some people.

IMPACT OF FACTORIES, MINES AND CITIES

The environment

Our modern lifestyle is the result of industrialisation. We depend on fossil fuels (coal, oil and natural gas) to generate electricity in power stations and to power transportation. Our work in offices and factories, our lives in cities and our consumption of mass-produced items all have their roots in the Industrial Revolution. Without industrialisation, there would be no powered machinery or modern necessities such as motor cars, computers and mobile phones.

Industries and cities use resources extracted from the environment and produce waste that is put back into the environment. The impact on the environment depends on whether these processes are sustainable. If resources are used faster than they can be replaced, they eventually run out. This applies to a wide range of resources, from fossil fuels to fish stocks. If the extraction of a resource (for example minerals) results in the pollution of another resource (for example water in rivers), the affected resource is not available for other uses (for example as drinking water). If the disposal of waste pollutes natural systems, the ability of these systems to support life is damaged.



SOURCE 3.8.5 The Upsala Glacier in Argentina, photographed in 1928 (top) and in 2004. Most scientists think that the glacier is retreating due to global warming.

At first, the environmental impacts of industrialisation were only obvious at the local level. It was not until the 1990s that it became apparent that burning fossil fuels was a global problem because it produced carbon dioxide, the main gas responsible for global warming. The effects of warming can be seen already—average air and ocean temperatures are rising, glaciers are shrinking and ice is melting at the poles. Further climate change is inevitable unless alternative sources of energy overtake fossil fuels or new ways can be found to prevent emissions.

Much of the extra carbon dioxide already in the atmosphere was produced by developed countries during the last 200 years. India and China, with more than a billion people each, are now industrialising. Coal is their cheapest energy option. The top five producers of coal are China, the United States, India, Australia and Indonesia. Coal is Australia's biggest export and 80 per cent of it goes to Asia. Economies around the world, including Australia, would find it difficult to adjust if the world moved to other energy sources. However, the reality of adapting to a much warmer world is likely to be beyond the capacity of many species, including humans.

Population distribution and growth

Technological innovation often means that existing jobs are lost but new jobs are created. During the Industrial Revolution, agricultural workers lost their livelihoods but there was a growing need for factory workers. New technologies can also change where jobs are located. The first factories relied on water power and were concentrated along rivers. The steam engine led to the concentration of industries in clusters near coal mines. Whenever and wherever such changes occur, people experience upheavals in how and where they live and work.

Industrialisation results in urbanisation. Only 14 per cent of the world's population lived in cities in 1900. Today, more than half the population lives in urban areas. In several developing countries, especially in Asia, industry is growing and cities are getting bigger. It is predicted that urban populations will continue to grow rapidly, but most of this growth will be in developing countries.

THE RISE OF THE MIDDLE CLASS

The Industrial Revolution produced wealth for Britain and improved living standards for many. The middle class grew quickly. It included factory owners and overseers, mine managers, shopkeepers, professionals and skilled workers. Growing numbers of managers and officials worked in railways, shipping and banks. Many people could afford healthier diets and better housing. Eventually, the expansion of government involvement in public health, education and working conditions created more jobs for officials, teachers and doctors.

THE GROWTH OF TRADE UNIONS

It took a long time for the benefits of industrialisation to reach the working class. The working class included factory workers, miners, domestic servants, shop assistants and labourers. Until the 1850s, there were few regulations governing working conditions in Britain. Child labour was common, as it still is in many developing countries. Very few children went to school. Living conditions in the industrial towns and cities did not improve until 1875, when the Public Health Act (UK) gave local councils the authority to enforce planning and health regulations. Only wealthy people had the right to vote.

Better working conditions and the right to vote were largely won by workers during the Industrial Revolution. Sometimes discontent erupted in spontaneous violence. More organised attempts led to the growth of trade unions and Chartism, a mass movement that aimed to win more political power for workers.

Violent protests

In the early 1800s, textile workers attacked factories and smashed machinery. Stories spread about a mythical leader called Ned Ludd, who would lead an uprising to overthrow the government. Machine breaking became a capital offence, punishable by death. In 1830, farm workers rioted and destroyed agricultural machinery. Offenders were hanged or imprisoned. Again, there was talk of a leader, a Captain Swing. In the end, the Luddites and Swing rioters achieved very little.

Early trade unions

Modern trade unions developed during the Industrial Revolution, partly because the factory system brought groups of workers together in large workplaces. Workers banded together to help each other in times of need and to bargain with employers. However, after the French Revolution, because the British government feared that trade unions might encourage uprisings, they were banned. When unions were made legal again in 1825, workers began to organise large national unions.

Governments and employers became concerned about the power that bigger trade unions might achieve. In 1833, the government acted. Forty agricultural labourers from the village of Tolpuddle formed a union and, as usual, swore an oath of allegiance. As an example to others, the leaders were arrested and accused of administering unlawful oaths. The six leaders, known as the Tolpuddle Martyrs, were found guilty and transported as convicts to Australia. There was a public outcry and in 1836 they were set free. However, the trade union movement did not recover until the 1850s.

SOURCE 3.8.6 *Meeting of the Trade Unionists in Copenhagen Fields, 21st April 1834,* by W. Summers. Held at the Guildhall Library, City of London, UK. This engraving shows a trade union demonstration in support of the Tolpuddle Martyrs.

Winning the vote

After the collapse of the unions, workers turned to the task of winning the vote. Working-class leaders drew up a list of demands known as the People's Charter. More than a million signatures were collected for a petition to pressure the government to make the charter law. The petition was presented to parliament in 1839 and was promptly rejected. Petitions with even more signatures were rejected in 1842 and 1848.

By 1884, the workers had achieved some success: about two in three men could vote. By 1900, all men could vote, but women could not. Women did not achieve the right to vote in Britain until 1918.

The unions fight back

Skilled workers in Britain, such as engineers and carpenters, established national trade unions in the 1850s. Unions for unskilled workers such as railway workers and miners began growing again during the late 1880s. Cycles of boom and bust in the economy meant that workers could suddenly be thrown out of their jobs. Many workers were still so poorly paid that they had no extra money to survive periods of unemployment. Prolonged and bitter strikes occurred. Many felt that the major political parties were not interested in pursuing a better deal for workers. In 1903, the British Labour Party was established. Britain's first Labour prime minister was elected in 1924.

Impacts on Australia

The first Australian trade unions were established in the 1840s. The main aims of unions are to protect the rights of workers, maintain and increase wages and improve working conditions. In the 1890s, trade unions helped to establish the Australian Labor Party. Australians, including women, won the right to vote in Australian federal elections in 1902.

> *... a large number of persons ... were subjected to unnecessary hardships ... hundreds of young girls were employed at work daily from 10 to 15 hours under such conditions that their health in many cases became completely undermined.*

SOURCE 3.8.7 From a report to the Victorian government, 1888, quoted in *Understanding Australian History*, by Robert Darlington and John Hospodaryk, 1993

TIME TO THINK...

Use these deep questions in small group or class discussions, as your teacher decides.

1 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- **a** With a partner, list some of your favourite possessions.
- **b** Could they be made by using only hand tools and human or animal power?
- **c** How would your life be different if the Industrial Revolution had never happened?

2 CAUSE AND EFFECT

- **a** What effects does industrialisation have on the environment?
- **b** Why do countries industrialise?
- **c** Is industrialisation sustainable?

3 PERSPECTIVES AND EMPATHY

- **a** How did people achieve better working conditions?
- **b** Which methods of achieving change are most effective?
- **c** Why did workers have to struggle to achieve their goals?

4 EVIDENCE AND CONTESTABILITY

- **a** Did the Industrial Revolution make the world a better place?
- **b** What evidence could you use to support your view?

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Inventions and inventors

Inventions based on science and technology were the underlying drivers of the Industrial Revolution. Some of the most significant inventors and inventions are mentioned in this chapter. Conduct a historical investigation about inventions and inventors.

Select one of the inventors or inventions mentioned in this chapter and build on that information, or choose one from the list below—or follow up a particular interest of your own.

INVENTIONS	INVENTORS
Mass-produced pottery	Josiah Wedgwood
Computer programming	Ada Lovelace
Photography	Louis Daguerre
Movie camera	Louis Lumière
Refrigeration	James Harrison
The seed drill	Jethro Tull
Stockbreeding	Elizabeth Macarthur
The grain stripper	John Ridley
The stump-jump plough	Richard and Clarence Bowyer Smith

Consider the following questions while carrying out your research:

a Was there a need for this invention?
b How did the invention meet this need?
c Did the inventor build on the work of others?
d Where and when was the invention used?
e Is the invention still in use? If not, what replaced it?
f Did the invention bring about any noticeable social change?
g Are there any interesting details known about the inventor or their life?

Add your own questions.

Instructions

a Use primary and secondary sources to illustrate your points. For example, you may be able to find letters, diaries, newspaper reports or pictures that show why the invention was needed, how it solved a problem and where it was used.
b Include visual sources such as paintings, photographs, advertisements or maps, as well as written sources. Consider including visual sources you create yourself, such as drawings, timelines and flowcharts.

#2 The Match Girls' Strike, 1888

The Match Girls' Strike in Britain created huge interest at the time and is still famous today.

Conduct research to find out answers to the following questions:

a Who were the match girls?
b Where did they work?
c What were their complaints?
d Who helped them?
e What was the result of their campaign?
f What was significant about the strike?
g How might the event have contributed to the growth of trade unions?

Instructions

a If you are using the internet to find information, start by typing 'match girls strike' into your search engine.
b Create a presentation about the match girls that clearly outlines what happened and why.
c Include sources that provide evidence and information for your audience.
d Present your information as a newspaper report, as an electronic slide presentation or in a format you choose yourself.

INQUIRY TASKS

#3 Contrasts between rich and poor

The experiences of men, women and children during the Industrial Revolution varied greatly. The lives of the wealthy were very different from the lives of the poor.

Imagine that you and a partner have been commissioned by Queen Victoria to present a report on the growing gap between the rich and the poor. You quickly realise that where people live and the clothing they wear can provide evidence about the experiences of wealthy people and poor people.

With your partner, conduct some preliminary research into housing and clothing in Victorian Britain. Decide who will collect evidence about housing and who will find evidence about clothing. Share your findings and decide how you will present your report to the Queen. You could, for example, prepare an oral presentation, a poster or a written report.

As you prepare your presentation, keep in mind that Queen Victoria reigned from 1837 to 1901. Consequently, the evidence you collect must not be dated later than 1901.

If you are using the internet to find information, start by typing 'victorian era living conditions' or 'victorian era fashion' into your search engine.

You may also use information and sources from the chapter if you wish.

Your presentation must include several sources—visual and written. Each source must include a caption you have written yourself and information about whether it is a primary or a secondary source.

Add information in your presentation that will help the Queen to understand how income affects people's lives. For example, think about the climate in Britain and how this influenced clothing: how did poor people manage to stay warm in winter; were wealthy people, especially women, uncomfortable in or restricted by some of the more elaborate clothing worn at this time?

#4 The scramble for Africa

From 1880 to 1914, several European countries competed with each other to establish colonies in Africa. The Industrial Revolution contributed to this international rivalry in several ways.

- Industrialisation and mass production required raw materials.
- Faster ocean transport combined with rail networks made it easier for industrialised nations to exploit raw materials in unindustrialised nations.
- Industrialisation enabled the mass production of armaments, which gave some countries the ability to dominate others and encouraged feelings of nationalism.
- World Fairs and Exhibitions were regularly held to show off the latest technologies and products. Nations wanted to be seen as world leaders and as richer and more powerful than their rivals.

Europeans often defended imperialism in Africa by claiming that European races were superior and it was their duty to 'civilise' other people and convert them to Christianity. The theme of racial superiority was illustrated by Rudyard Kipling's famous phrase 'the white man's burden' and was explored in Joseph Conrad's novel *Heart of Darkness*, written in 1899.

Investigate 'the scramble for Africa' and present a report or display that highlights some of the causes and consequences. For example, you could present an overview that summarises your findings. Or you could focus on a particular topic, such as the actions of one European power or the situation in one African country. Use the following questions to help guide your research:

a Which European countries established colonies in Africa? Maps are available on the internet and in books.
b Which raw materials did Europeans want?
c Which industries benefited by using raw materials from Africa?
d How were European countries able to impose their will on African countries?
e What were some of the consequences for African people of European colonisation?

SOURCE 3.9.1 Ironworks, Coalbrookdale, c. 1805, engraved by William Pickett. Held in a private collection

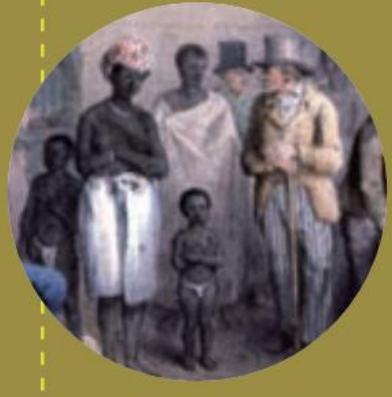
CHAPTER 4

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- What were the impacts of the movement of peoples on indigenous and immigrant populations?
- What were the experiences of people who moved?
- How did migration change people's lives?

DEPTH STUDY 1
MAKING A BETTER WORLD?

Industrialisation meant different labour needs and led to population shifts. Millions of people moved to take advantage of new opportunities or because they were forced to move. People moved to other countries, either voluntarily as free settlers or involuntarily as transported slaves or convicts. Improvements in transport made it faster and cheaper than ever before to move goods and people.

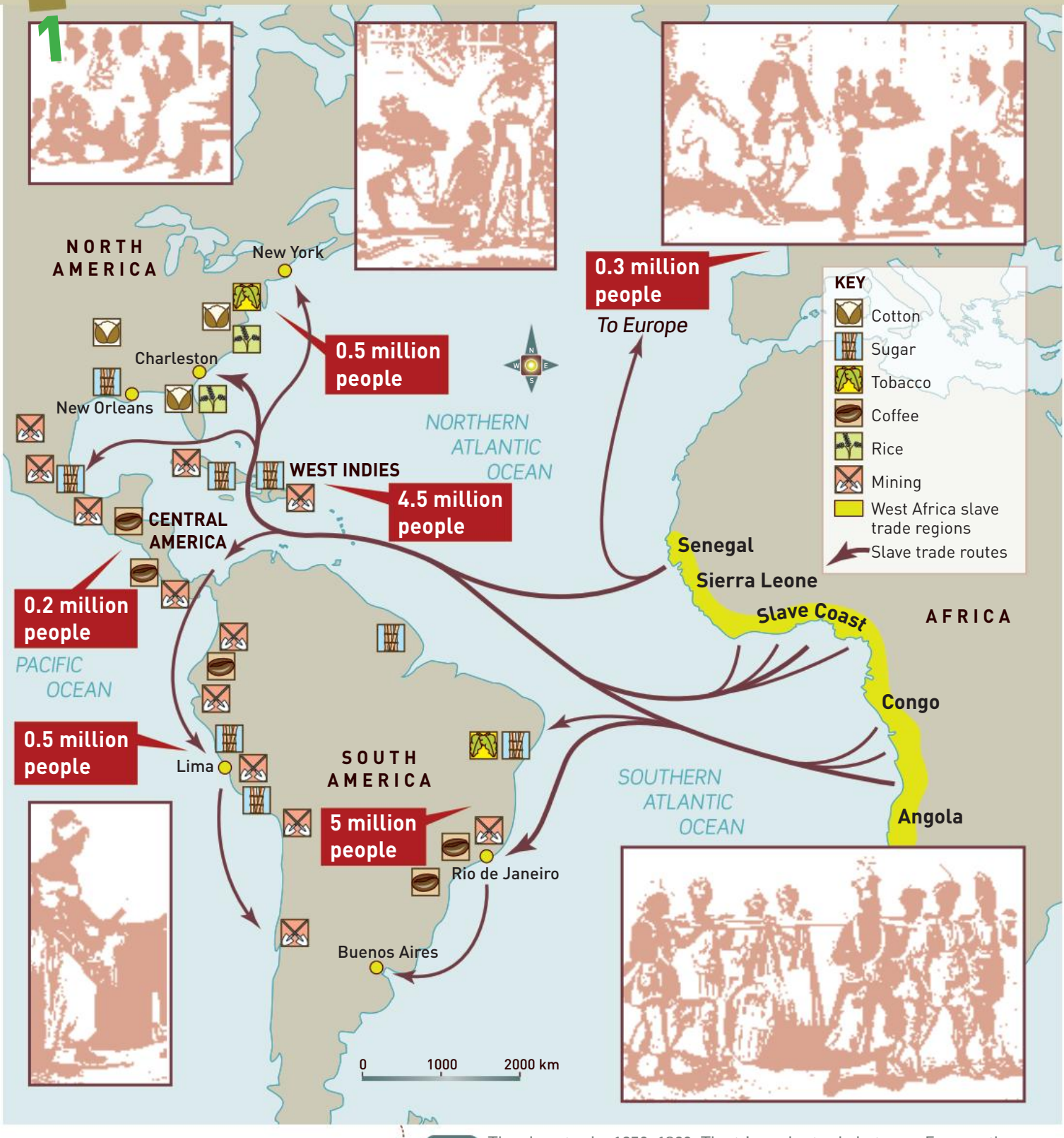


MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES

SOURCE **4.0.1**

The Emigrant Ship, by Charles Staniland, 1880. Held at the Bradford Art Galleries and Museums, West Yorkshire, UK

SNAPSHOT 1750–1901



SOURCE 4.1.1

The slave trade, 1650–1860. The triangular trade between Europe, the Americas and Africa was very profitable. Ships left Europe loaded with manufactured goods, which were traded for slaves in West Africa. After the slaves were delivered to the Americas, the ships returned to Europe loaded with commodities such as cotton and sugar.

SOURCE 4.1.2 Timeline of the slave trade

1750 Transatlantic slave trade has operated for about 150 years. Industrial Revolution begins in Britain. One-third of British merchant fleet involved in slave trade

1759 British raw cotton imports 1750–59: 1300 tonnes

1775 American Revolution ends convict transportation to the USA

1781 James Watt invents a steam engine to drive machinery

1788 British Anti-Slavery Society founded

1793 Eli Whitney invents the cotton gin

1799 British raw cotton imports 1790–99: 13 000 tonnes

1808 Britain abolishes slave trade

1833 Slavery abolished in British colonies. USA Anti-Slavery Society founded

1859 British raw cotton imports 1850–59: 3 600 00 tonnes

1865 Slavery abolished in USA

1888 Last New World slaves emancipated

1750 1800 1850 1900

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

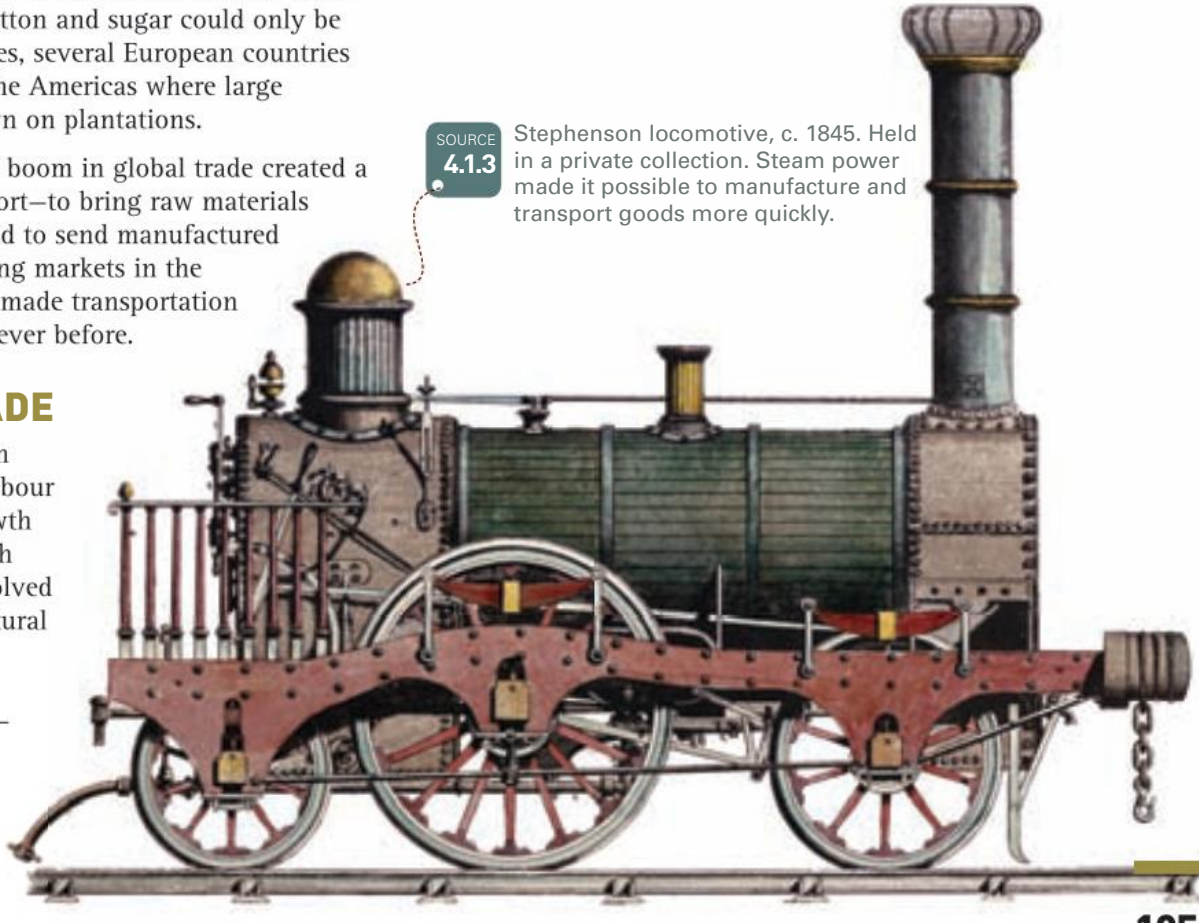
The Industrial Revolution began in Britain around 1750. Machines and steam power made it possible to manufacture goods far more quickly and cheaply than ever before. Industrialisation made many goods cheap enough for mass consumption and, as a result, the demand for raw materials increased. Because some raw materials such as cotton and sugar could only be grown in warmer climates, several European countries established colonies in the Americas where large quantities could be grown on plantations.

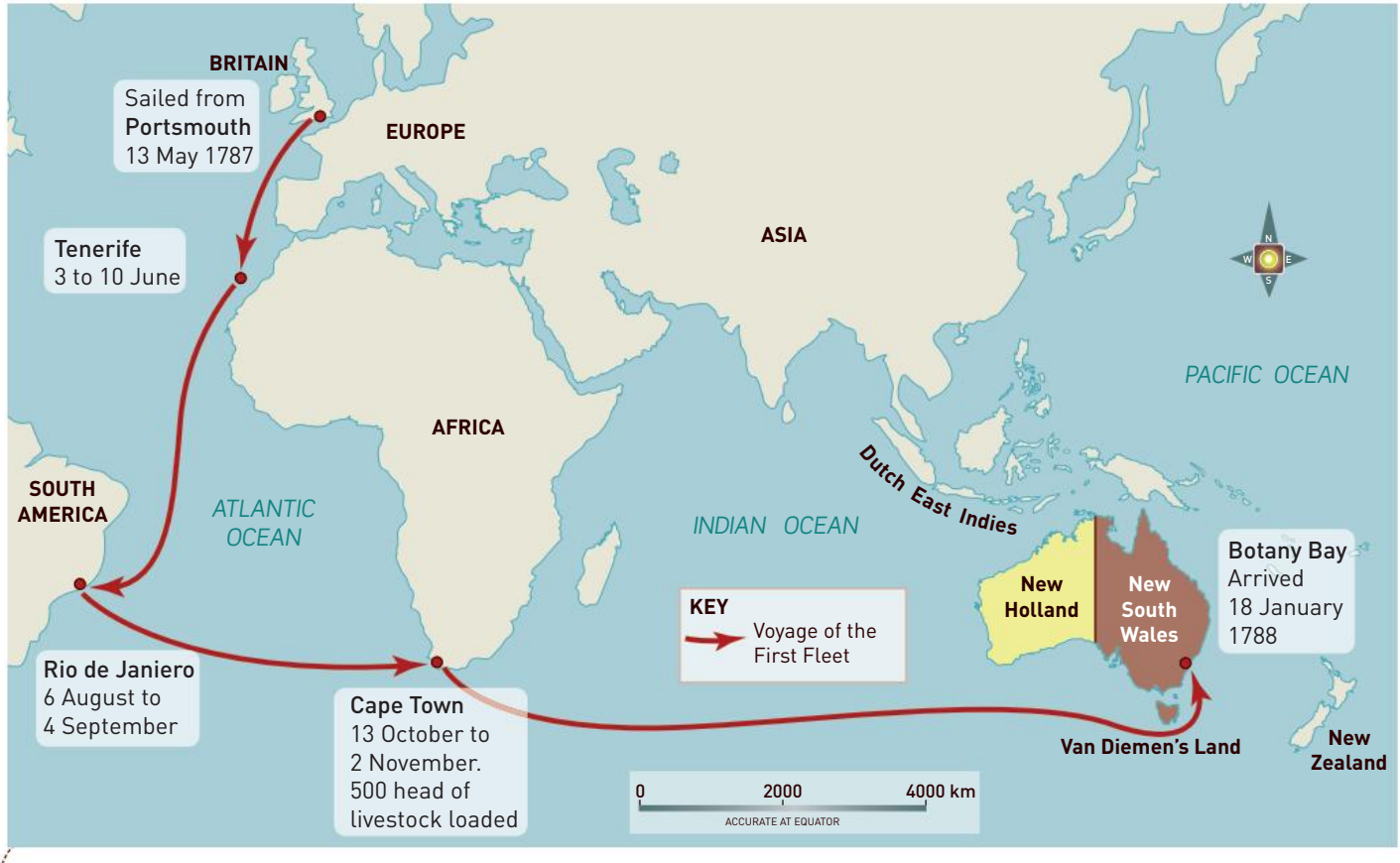
Industrialisation and the boom in global trade created a growing need for transport—to bring raw materials to factories in Europe and to send manufactured goods to new and growing markets in the colonies. Steam engines made transportation faster and cheaper than ever before.

THE SLAVE TRADE

The Industrial Revolution increased the need for labour in the colonies. The growth and harvest of crops such as sugar and cotton involved very hard work. Agricultural machinery was not yet available, so everything had to be done by hand—and in colonies in the Americas, labour was in short supply. Colonisation often led to significant declines in indigenous populations and Europeans did not want to do such back-breaking work. The demand for labour led to one of the worst abuses of human rights in history: slavery. Millions of African people were brought to the Americas to work as slaves on plantations for crops such as cotton, sugar, coffee, rice and tobacco.

SOURCE 4.1.3 Stephenson locomotive, c. 1845. Held in a private collection. Steam power made it possible to manufacture and transport goods more quickly.





SOURCE 4.1.4

The voyage of the First Fleet. More than 1300 people—several hundred officers and soldiers, some of their wives and children, the ships' crews and about 750 convicts—arrived on the First Fleet. It was the largest permanent single mass movement of people across the ocean from one country to another that had ever occurred.

SOURCE 4.1.5

Shipping routes 1788–1901: the route via Cape Town, the route further south to catch the 'Roaring Forties' and the route through the Suez Canal. When the Suez Canal opened in 1869, steamships no longer had to go around Africa. Ships bringing immigrants to Australia often returned to Britain loaded with bales of wool.

SOURCE 4.1.6

Timeline of Australia, 1750–1901

1750 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People have lived in Australia for more than 60 000 years. Industrial Revolution begins in Britain

1770 James Cook charts the east coast of Australia

1787 First Fleet leaves Portsmouth

1788 First Fleet arrives at Botany Bay

1790 Smallpox kills half the Aboriginal people in Sydney area. Second Fleet arrives at Sydney Cove

1800 Population of Britain exceeds 10 million

1801 Introduction of ticket-of-leave system

1803 Convict transportation to Van Diemen's Land begins

1807 First bales of Australian wool arrived in London

1810 Lachlan Macquarie becomes governor of New South Wales

1832 Assisted migration begins

1838 Myall Creek massacre

1845 Famines due to potato blight begin in Ireland and Scotland

1850 Population of Britain reaches 21 million

1851 Gold discovered in New South Wales

1852 End of convict transportation to eastern colonies

1869 Suez Canal opens

1872 Overland Telegraph connects Australia to the rest of the world

1860 Selection Acts introduced in Victoria and Queensland

1868 End of convict transportation to Australia

1890 Economic depression

1900 Population of Britain reaches 40 million

1901 Federation. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People population one-quarter of former size

1750 1800 1850 1900

CONVICT TRANSPORTATION

The Industrial Revolution brought radical changes in how and where goods were made. Jobs were created in towns and cities as factories opened. Millions of people moved to urban areas in search of work. Britain's population was growing so rapidly that there were often more workers than were needed. Many people could not find jobs and the crime rate increased. The prisons soon became overcrowded.

Australia was claimed as a British possession in 1770. Australia was not colonised until the need to find a solution to the overcrowded prisons brought Australia into the spotlight. The British government reasoned that if a colony was established, convicts could be transported to Australia and would provide a labour force to develop the colony.

DID YOU KNOW?

BRITAIN SENT CONVICTS TO AUSTRALIA OVER A PERIOD OF 80 YEARS.

Between 1788 and 1868, more than 160 000 convicts were transported to Australia.

MIGRATION

During the Industrial Revolution, more people moved than ever before. People migrated to other countries to take advantage of new opportunities or to escape their current situation. Improvements in transport made migration faster, safer and cheaper. The First Fleet took about eight months to sail to Australia from Britain. By 1900, the voyage by ship could be completed in about a month.

The first free settlers in Australia were soldiers and government officials. More migrants, both rich and poor, began arriving in the 1820s. However, the number was still relatively small until the gold rushes of the 1850s, when many migrants from many different countries arrived. Immigration then continued to grow rapidly until the 1890s, when it slowed due to an economic depression.

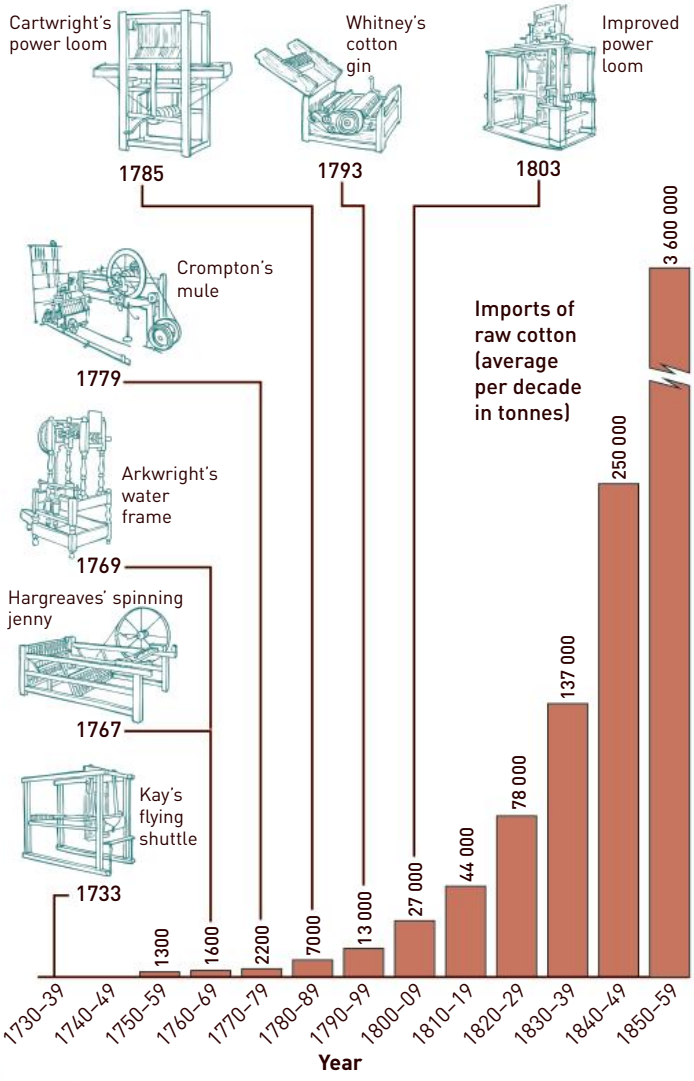
The movement of people to Australia had a disastrous effect on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People. Many died as a consequence of disease and conflict and the legacy of colonisation is still one of dispossession and disadvantage.

UNIT 2

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND THE SLAVE TRADE

INDUSTRY AND TRADE

Machines invented during the Industrial Revolution in Britain made it possible to manufacture goods more quickly. After 1781, when James Watt invented a steam engine that could power these machines, industries were able to produce goods faster than ever before. Coal fuelled the steam engines and it was relatively cheap. Coal-powered mechanised mass production made it possible to sell goods at lower prices and still make a profit. So began the age of mass consumption.



SOURCE 4.2.1 Britain's imports of raw cotton, 1730–1859

The cotton industry pioneered the shift to machine-made goods. A growing worldwide demand for cotton fabric meant that factory owners could make more money if they could speed up production. In colonies in Australia and North America, for example, people wanted inexpensive and hard-wearing cotton clothing. Mass production of cotton textiles resulted in a huge demand for raw cotton.

One of the reasons that Europeans set out to colonise the New World was to obtain commodities such as cotton and sugar that would only grow in warmer climates. All of the raw cotton needed by the British textile industry was imported. Increasing demand for manufactured goods and the raw materials to make them resulted in an enormous boom in global trade and spectacular economic growth.

THE NEED FOR TRANSPORT

Transport was central to the growth of industry and trade. Countries such as Britain that could afford the latest technologies—faster sailing ships and then steam-powered trains and boats—had the advantage. By 1800, Britain's merchant fleet was the largest in the world. Britain built ports throughout the empire to transport raw materials to Britain and manufactured goods to the colonies.

THE NEED FOR LABOUR

The Industrial Revolution created a need for labour—to tend machines in factories, work in coal mines and build transport infrastructure. Labour was also needed in European colonies. In the Americas, colonists had originally used indigenous people, convicts or **indentured labourers** to plant and harvest crops. But these sources could not provide the growing number of workers required. Indigenous populations were often drastically reduced by conflict and disease as a result of colonisation. Convict transportation to North America ended in 1775 due to the American War of Independence. Indentured labourers from Europe or Asia were contracted to work in exchange for their fare and a small wage.

> *There is nothing which contributes more to the development of the colonies and the cultivation of their soul than the laborious toil of the Negroes.*

SOURCE 4.2.2 King Louis XIV of France, 1670

THE SLAVE TRADE

To solve the labour problem, millions of people from Africa were brought to the Americas to provide slave labour. Between the mid-1500s and the late 1800s, more than 11 million African people were forcibly taken to the New World and sold as slaves. A **slave** is someone who is the property of another person. Slaves could be bought and sold, like real estate or animals. About 10 million people were sold to colonists in South America, Central America and the West Indies, and about half a million were sold in North America.

PROFITING FROM SLAVERY

The Portuguese and Spanish empires pioneered the Atlantic slave trade in the 1500s. By 1750, one-third of the British merchant fleet was involved in what had become a very profitable triangular trade. Ships took manufactured goods from Britain to Africa and exchanged them for slaves. They delivered the slaves to the Americas, then returned to Britain loaded with cotton or other raw materials. In the 1780s, the British parliament debated Bills to abolish the trade due to humanitarian concerns but the majority of MPs considered that it was too important to the British economy.

Slave labour made crops such as cotton and sugar very profitable for plantation owners. Merchants, ship owners, ship builders, insurance companies and bankers in the Americas and in Europe profited as well. The southern states of the United States of America became so prosperous due to cotton exports that in 1860, had they been a nation, they would have been the fourth wealthiest in the world.

DID YOU KNOW?

AMERICAN ELI WHITNEY INVENTED THE COTTON GIN.

The Americans couldn't keep up with British demand for cotton because the cotton seeds took so long to remove. It took a day for one person to produce half a kilogram of cleaned cotton. Eli Whitney solved this bottleneck problem in 1793, when he invented the cotton gin, and raw cotton production skyrocketed.

SOURCE 4.2.3 Poster advertising cotton, USA, nineteenth century. Held at the Collection of the New York Historical Society, USA

Q
1 **Which product is being advertised?**
2 **Who are the people in the poster and what are they doing?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- indentured labourer
- slave

2 Why did the Industrial Revolution create a growing need for transport?

3 How did industrialisation create a growing need for labour in the New World? Why was there a shortage of labour in the Americas?

4 List groups of people who benefited from the slave trade.

Analysing

5 Examine Source 4.2.1.
- **a** How much cotton was used by British industry in 1750? In 1860?
- **b** Describe the general trend shown in the graph.
- **c** Explain the link between inventions and the growth of the cotton industry.

6 Reread Source 4.2.2. What was the greatest contributor to the development of colonies, according to Louis XIV?

7 Study the map of the slave trade in Source 4.1.1.
- **a** How many slaves were taken to South America? To the West Indies?
- **b** Which crop was grown in the West Indies?
- **c** Which crops were grown near New Orleans?
- **d** Why is the slave trade referred to as a triangular trade?

UNIT 3

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND CONVICT TRANSPORTATION

POVERTY AND UNEMPLOYMENT

In Britain from the mid-1700s, rising unemployment resulted in more people turning to crime. The agricultural revolution meant that more food could be produced but fewer farmers and workers were needed to produce it. Cottage industries such as spinning and weaving, which had provided a livelihood for many country people, declined during the Industrial Revolution as factories opened in towns and cities. Large numbers of people began moving from rural to urban areas in search of work.

The population was also growing rapidly. Competition for jobs in the increasingly crowded cities meant that many people could not find work. New arrivals often had to steal to survive. Other than charities, there were no significant welfare systems to help the poor.

CRIME AND PUNISHMENT

Crime increased during the 1700s, partly due to rising unemployment and poverty.

The government made more crimes punishable by death, in an attempt to halt this crime wave. At the beginning of the 1700s, **capital offences** were limited to serious crimes, such as murder or treason. By 1770, a person could be sentenced to death for about 160 different crimes. Capital offences included smuggling, shoplifting, petty theft, stealing horses and cutting down trees in avenues or gardens.

TRANSPORTATION

Judges and juries were reluctant to condemn people to death for such crimes. Death sentences were often reduced to life imprisonment or **transportation**.

Transportation was a British legal term, meaning a prison sentence that was served in exile overseas at a penal colony. Sentences ranged from terms of seven years for theft (this was the most common sentence by far) to fourteen years and life. The purpose of transportation was to isolate criminals from society, largely because of the fear by the wealthy of the urban poor. The idea that the poor were inherently criminal by nature was a popularly held belief—the view that poverty might be the root cause of some crime did not attract much sympathy. Transportation was also meant to be a powerful deterrent, a punishment that people would fear.

OVERCROWDED PRISONS

By 1770, about a thousand convicts were being transported to the colonies in North America each year. But when the American War of Independence broke out in 1775, British convicts could no longer be sent to the United States. With nowhere to send convicts, the prisons soon became overcrowded. Prisons at the time were mostly intended for people awaiting trial, not for keeping them locked up indefinitely. The government began using **hulks**—old disused ships moored in rivers and harbours—as temporary jails. Cramped and unhealthy conditions aboard the hulks led to riots and disease. The public, worried that diseases might spread to the wider community or that convicts might escape, agitated for something to be done.

> *I am a young man of twenty-two years of age, by trade a bricklayer, and was convicted by Judge Gould, at Chelmsford, in the year one thousand seven hundred and ninety-two, to seven years Transportation beyond the seas, for stealing a game-cock. I am no lawyer, but suppose my crime to be of that heinous nature as to be incapable of pardon, I do not ask it: all I petition for is to be taken from this floating hell, and sent in the next ship to Botany Bay. I am lame from a fall, but stout and robust, and every day go through laborious work. I have three times had the gaol fever, which is another reason for my importunity. In granting this my reasonable request I shall ever consider myself,*
>
> *Yours*
>
> *Edward Moseley*

SOURCE 4.3.1 Letter from Edward Moseley, written aboard the *Stanislaus* hulk, to Under-Secretary Nepean, 1794. Held at the National Archives, UK. A gamecock is a rooster.

TRANSPORTATION TO AUSTRALIA

The British government wanted to transport the convicts to a land far from home, with good farming conditions to encourage self-sufficiency. After attempts to establish a convict settlement in Africa had failed, New South Wales was chosen as the site for the new penal colony. It was hoped that the convicts could also grow food or commodities for Britain. Botany Bay was considered a suitable base for trade with China. The British also wanted to prevent the French from colonising the continent.

SOURCE 4.3.2 *Relief Guard Arriving at Prison Hulk, Deptford,* by E. Tucker. Held at the National Library of Australia. On 24 March 1786, eight convicts were killed and many injured after a riot aboard a prison hulk at Plymouth.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- capital offence
- hulk
- transportation

2 Suggest reasons why changes in rural and urban areas led to an increase in crime.

3 What did the government do to try to stop the rising crime rate?

4 List reasons why Britain's jails became so overcrowded.

5 Explain why people of the time thought that transportation was a good idea.

6 List reasons for the choice of New South Wales as the new penal colony.

Analysing

7 Reread Source 4.3.1.
- **a** What was Edward Moseley's crime and sentence?
- **b** What can we learn from Edward's letter about life on a hulk?

8 Use ADAMANT (see History Skills Toolbox at the beginning of this book) to evaluate Source 4.3.2.

Creating

9 Imagine you work as a reporter for the *Industrial Times*, a British newspaper. You spend a night on a hulk to research a story about crime and punishment. Write a short news item about the experience. Include an eye-catching headline and illustrate your story with pictures you find or draw.

UNIT 4

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND EMIGRATION

WHY DID PEOPLE EMIGRATE?

Life in Britain during the Industrial Revolution was very tough for many. Cities became overcrowded, polluted and unhealthy. Rapid population growth and the flow of people to urban areas meant there was plenty of cheap labour available. Industry could not absorb all of the surplus and unemployment remained high. Workers had to accept low wages, long hours and unsafe working conditions.

Millions of people emigrated to countries such as the United States or Australia, hoping for a better life. During the 1840s, the pace of **emigration** accelerated due to an economic downturn and devastating famines in Ireland and Scotland caused by the potato blight. Between 1840 and 1901, almost fifteen million people left Britain and Ireland—1.75 million of them came to Australia.

SOURCE 4.4.1 'Here and There, or Emigration a Remedy', by John Leech, *Punch* magazine, 1848

Q What differences does the cartoonist see between the experiences of people in Britain and those of people who emigrate?

Most people leaving Europe in the early 1800s chose to go to North America rather than Australia. North America had been settled far longer, jobs were available, the fare was cheaper and the journey was shorter.

The British government was in favour of emigration to Australia. Colonies always needed settlers to open up the land and develop agriculture and industries. Some people thought it would be better if poor people emigrated, so taking pressure off the workhouses. Poor people in Europe had little chance of owning land. In Australia, even ex-convicts could own land. There was also plenty of work available, especially in the booming pastoral industry.

> *... the enormous revenues hitherto wasted in the maintenance of the unemployed population, and in the detection and imprisonment, trial, and transportation of offenders, provide ample means for establishing ... a vast system of national Colonisation, which would relieve the Mother Country from far more of her misery and crime than she has hitherto succeeded in discharging by means of Transportation ... since it would remove by anticipation, the very causes of these evils, and transmute them into the seeds of the greatest blessings, supplying the Colony with all the labour required to develop its resources, and yielding to Great Britain in return an incalculable increase of national influence and commercial prosperity.*

SOURCE 4.4.2 The case for emigration instead of transportation, from *Report of the Select Committee on Transportation 1837–38*, quoted in *Southern Voices*, by Robert Engwerda, 1999

MIGRATION TO AUSTRALIA

From the time of the first British settlement in Australia, there was a shortage of agricultural workers and skilled labourers such as mechanics and craftsmen. There were also many more men in the colony than women. The government of New South Wales set up **immigration** schemes in the 1830s to bring women and skilled workers to the country. Many people could not afford the fare and so the government used money from the sale of Crown lands to assist immigrants with the cost of their passage. From 1832 to 1850, 110 000 settlers came to Australia, most of them assisted by the government. South Australia was settled through a similar migration scheme. Newspaper advertisements encouraged skilled labourers to migrate to South Australia in return for free passage.

> ***Free emigration to South Australia***
>
> *Her Majesty's Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners grant free passage to this healthy and prosperous colony to agricultural labourers, shepherds, male and female domestic servants, miners and mechanics of good character. The demand for labour in the colony is urgent, with remuneration ensuring the comfort of every man and his family.*

SOURCE 4.4.3 Advertisement in the *Northampton Herald*, 1846, quoted in *The Changing Face of Britain*, by Paul Shuter and John Childs, 1989

The gold rushes of the 1850s brought an even greater surge of immigrants. More than 600 000 people came between 1851 and 1861. Most were from Britain and Ireland but the influx was truly multicultural—60 000 from other countries in Europe, more than 40 000 from China, 10 000 from the United States and 5000 from New Zealand and the Pacific Islands.

The Industrial Revolution brought enormous improvements in transport and communications. News travelled faster and reached more people. In Britain, people read stories about Australia in the new cheap newspapers or heard about life in the colonies from friends or relatives. Australia began to seem less far away. It took eight months for the First Fleet to sail from Britain to Australia. By 1850, depending on the ship and conditions at sea, the voyage could be completed in two to four months. In 1872, when the Overland Telegraph connected Australia to the rest of the world, messages could be sent and received within 24 hours.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms below.
   - emigration
   - immigration
2. List factors that made life in Britain very difficult for many people during the Industrial Revolution.
3. What happened in Britain and Ireland during the 1840s that increased the rate of emigration?
4. What happened in Australia during the 1850s that increased the rate of immigration?

Analysing

5. Reread Source 4.4.2. List the advantages of emigration for the British government.
6. Give three reasons why Australian governments encouraged migrants to come to the country during the 1800s. Support one of your reasons by quoting from Source 4.4.3.

UNIT 5

SOURCE STUDY: THE EXPERIENCE OF SLAVES

AFRICA

Britain, France, Holland, Spain and Portugal established forts on the west African coast during the 1600s. These European countries had colonies in the Americas that they wanted to develop with slave labour. European slave traders offered African leaders manufactured goods such as firearms and iron bars in exchange for slaves. Some leaders refused to supply slaves but others agreed because they wanted manufactured goods, especially firearms.

As Africans tried to meet European demands for more and more slaves, wars and unprovoked raids on villages became more common.

Captives were taken to the forts on the coast. Groups were yoked together at the neck and marched overland, sometimes hundreds of kilometres. It is estimated that at least one in three captives died on the march. At the coast, people were kept in holding pens called barracoons, sometimes for weeks, until slave ships came to collect them. Many died here too—at least one in ten. When a ship arrived, as many slaves as possible were crammed below the deck.

SOURCE 4.5.1 Captured Africans on the way to the coast for sale to Europeans, c. 1860. Many did not make it. Human skeletons were a common sight along the slave caravan routes. From *The Life and Explorations of David Livingstone*, c. 1875

THE ATLANTIC CROSSING

The journey across the Atlantic Ocean from Africa to the Americas took at least seven weeks. Malnutrition, dehydration due to insufficient drinking water, heat exhaustion and diseases such as dysentery, scurvy and smallpox killed many. Suicide and shipboard rebellions were common, although rebellions were rarely successful and those involved were put to death.

THE AMERICAS

Those who survived arrived in the new world of the Americas, where they were sold. Slaves in the West Indies often worked on sugar plantations while those in the southern states of the United States usually worked on cotton plantations. Other plantation crops worked on by slaves included coffee and tobacco. Slaves were also used as servants and as labourers in mines, factories and shipyards.

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

SOURCE 4.5.2 *Thoughts and Sentiments on the Evil and Wicked Traffic of the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species*, by Ottobah Cugoano, 1787. Ottobah Cugoano was born in Africa. He was sold into slavery in the West Indies but was later bought by an English merchant and freed.

SOURCE 4.5.3 Detailed drawing of the hold of a slave ship, based on a diagram of a slave ship from the Atlantic slave trade. From an Abstract of Evidence delivered before a select committee of the House of Commons in 1790 and 1791. Held in the Lilly Library of Rare Books and Manuscripts, Indiana University. Slaves were packed in so tightly that many died on the long voyage to the Americas.

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

SOURCE 4.5.4 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London. The narrative is a first-hand account of the slave trade.

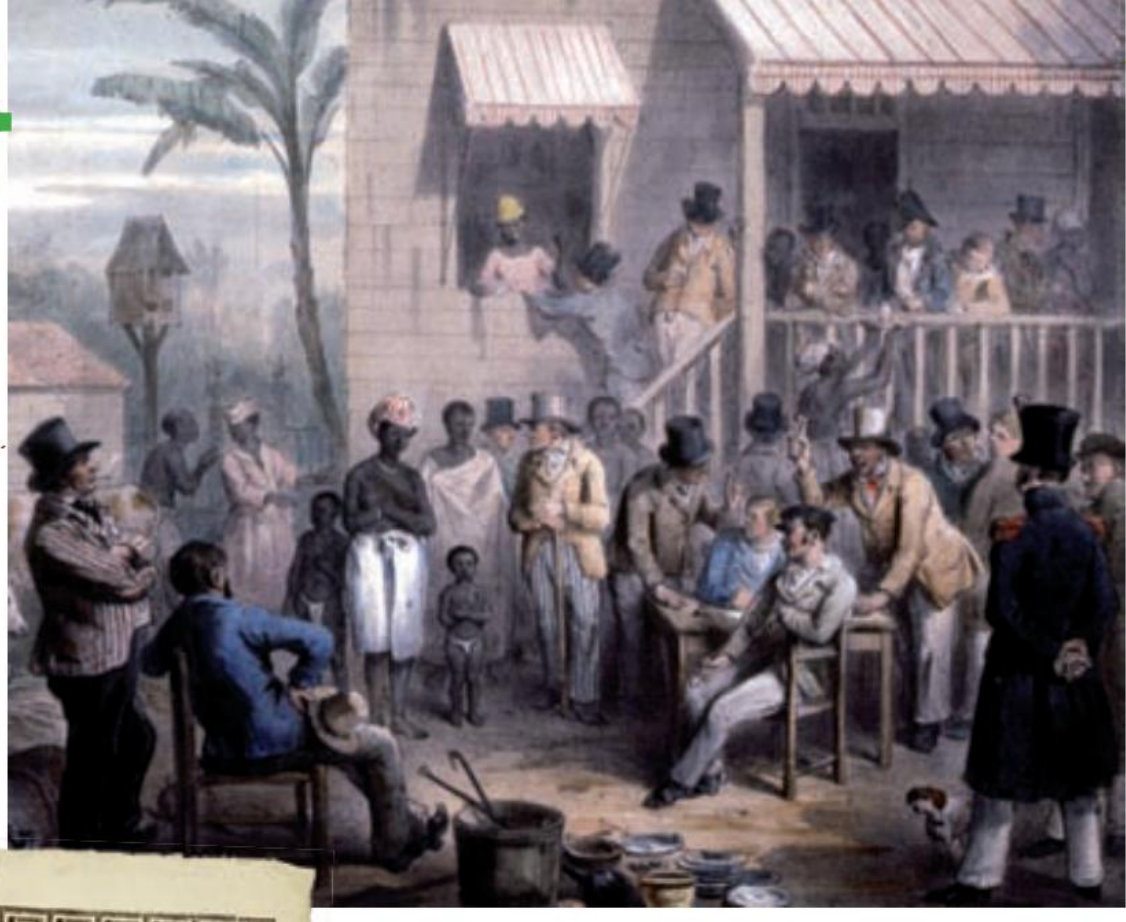
> *One day, when we had a smooth sea and moderate wind, two of my wearied countrymen who were chained together (I was near them at the time), preferring death to such a life of misery, somehow made through the nettings and jumped into the sea; immediately, another quite dejected fellow, who, on account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

SOURCE 4.5.5 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London

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

SOURCE 4.5.6 From *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, Or Gustavus Vassa, The African, Written By Himself*, 1789, London. The ship arrived in Barbados, an island in the West Indies. Colonial sugar plantations were established on several islands in the West Indies due to rising demand for sugar in Europe.

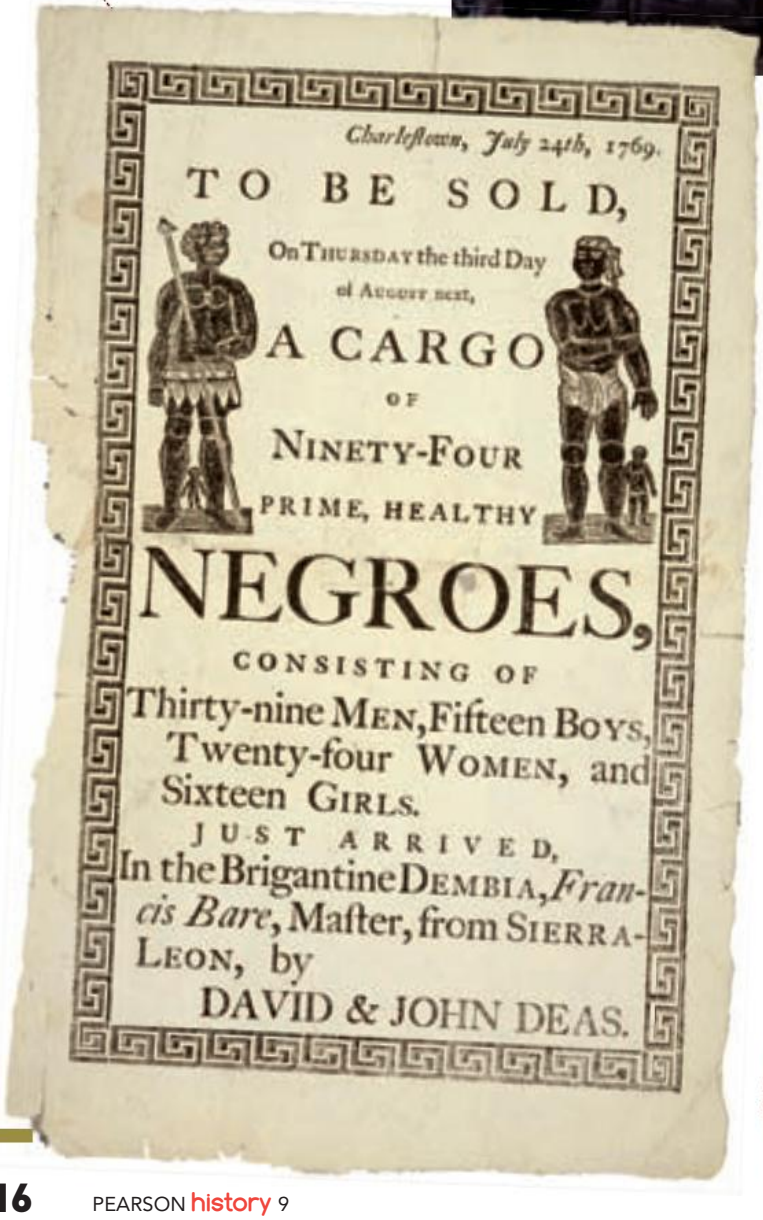
THE EXPERIENCE OF SLAVES



SOURCE 4.5.7 *Sale of a Slave Woman and her Children, Surinam, 1839*, by Pierre Jacques Benoit. Held at the John Carter Brown Library at Brown University, USA. Surinam is in northern South America.

SOURCE 4.5.8 Poster advertising the sale of a shipment of slaves, Charlestown, North America, 1769. Held at the American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Massachusetts, USA

Q
1. How many children are for sale?
2. What does the use of the word cargo suggest?



Charleſtown, July 24th, 1769.

TO BE SOLD,

On THURSDAY the third Day of AUGUST next,

A CARGO OF NINETY-FOUR PRIME, HEALTHY

NEGROES,

CONSISTING OF

Thirty-nine MEN, Fifteen BOYS, Twenty-four WOMEN, and Sixteen GIRLS.

JUST ARRIVED,

In the Brigantine DEMBIA, *Francis Bare*, Maſter, from SIERRA-LEON, by

DAVID & JOHN DEAS.

DID YOU KNOW?

SLAVES WERE TRADED FOR GUNS.

As a result of the slave trade, the number of guns available in West Africa increased rapidly. For example, between 1796 and 1805, the English exported 1 615 309 guns to West Africa, an average of 161 531 per year.

> *It is an offence invariably followed by a flogging, to be found at the quarters after daybreak ... The hands are required to be in the cotton field as soon as it is light in the morning, and, with the exception of ten or fifteen minutes, which is given them at noon to swallow their allowance of cold bacon, they are not permitted to be a moment idle until it is too dark to see, and when the moon is full, they often times labour till the middle of the night.*

SOURCE 4.5.9 From *Twelve Years a Slave*, by Solomon Northrup, 1853

SOURCE 4.5.10 A slave family in a cotton field, Georgia, USA, c. 1860, private collection

SOURCE 4.5.11 *A Mill Yard, on Gamble's Estate*, by William Clark, 1823. Held at the John Carter Brown Library at Brown University, USA. The scene shows a sugar plantation in Antigua, a British colony in the West Indies. The windmill provides power to drive the rollers that crush the cane. Ox carts bring more canes, which are stacked and then fed into the rollers by slaves.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING

1 Reread Source 4.5.2.
   - **a** What did the kidnapper receive in exchange for Ottobah Cugoano?
   - **b** Where was Ottobah Cugoano kept until the slave ship arrived?
   - **c** What methods did the slavers use to force the slaves onto the ship?

2 Study Sources 4.5.3 to 4.5.5.
   - **a** Are these primary or secondary sources?
   - **b** Use the sources to write a paragraph describing conditions on the slave ships.

3 Reread Source 4.5.6.
   - **a** Where did the ship arrive?
   - **b** Who came on board to look at Olaudah Equiano and his companions?
   - **c** Why is Equiano surprised by everything he sees on his arrival?
   - **d** Describe what happened to him after leaving the ship.

APPLYING

4 Examine Source 4.5.7.
   - **a** Which person do you think is the auctioneer?
   - **b** Which people look like the most likely buyers? Why?
   - **c** Is it possible that the mother and children will end up with different owners?

5 What can Sources 4.5.9 to 4.5.11 tell us about the lives of slaves in the Americas?

ANALYSING

6 Examine the map of the slave trade in Source 4.1.1.
   - **a** Why did slave traders locate their forts on the west coast of Africa?
   - **b** Which crops are grown in South America?
   - **c** Where were African people used as slave labour in mines?

UNIT 6

THE EXPERIENCE OF CONVICTS

THE FIRST FLEET

In 1787, a fleet of ships set out from England to establish a colony in Australia. Its main purpose was to relocate as many of London's pickpockets, petty thieves and small-time criminals as possible. The First Fleet arrived at Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788 under the leadership of Captain Arthur Phillip.

Most of the First Fleet convicts were from London and were sentenced to transportation for petty theft. Many had stolen food or other trivial items. Some were old, such as Elisabeth Bedford, who was 70 and sentenced to transportation for stealing cheese. There were five convicts under the age of 15. The youngest was John Hudson, who was 9 years old. The convicts were described as short and pallid, due to their poor diet. There were few skilled workers—just one gardener, one fisherman, two bricklayers and six carpenters.

THE CONVICT EXPERIENCE

Between 1788 and 1868, more than 160 000 convicts were transported to Australia. The average age was 27 years. More than three-quarters were convicted of theft of some kind. With the exception of some very serious crimes, convicts were unlikely to be transported for a first offence. More than 80 per cent of convicts were men. Women were often transported for less serious crimes because the government wanted to provide partners for the men so that the colony could eventually develop into more than a prison.

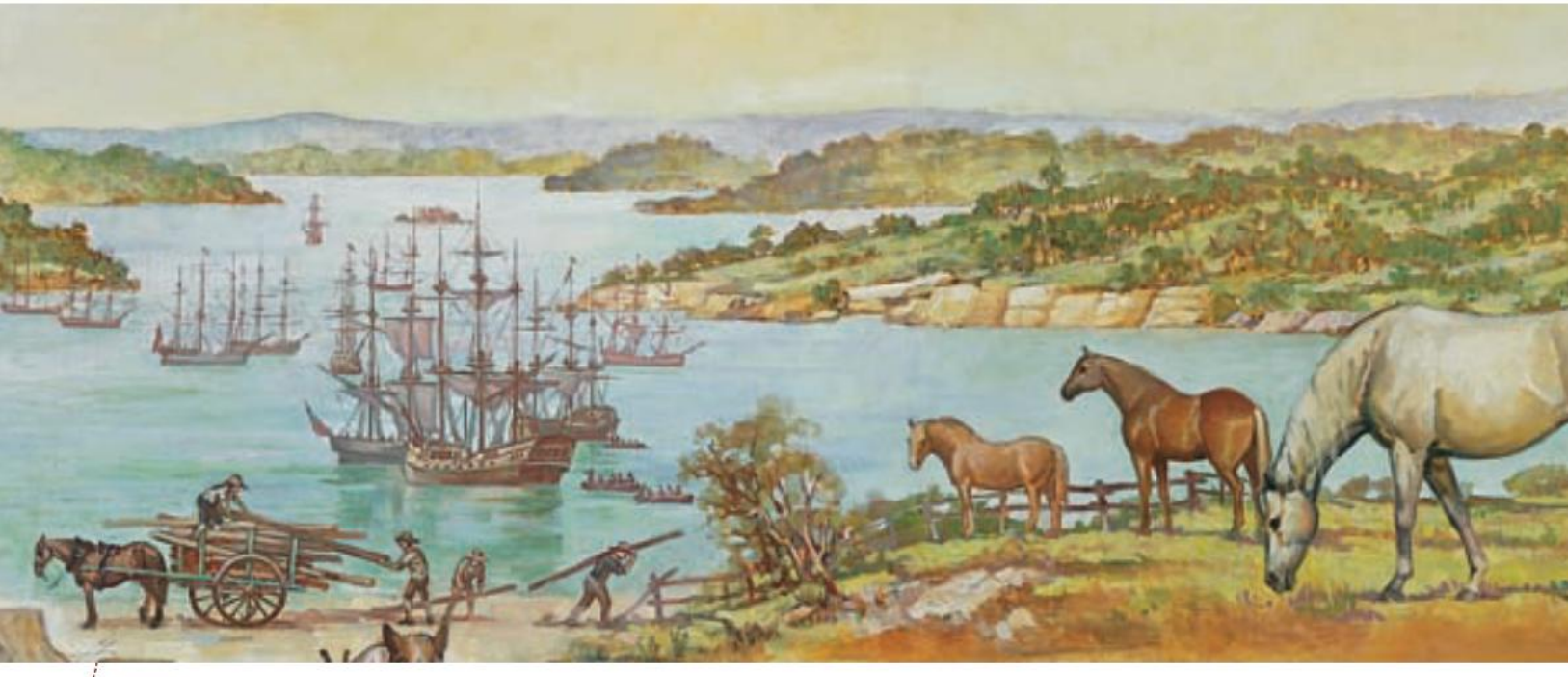
Few convicts expected to return to their homes and families. Before departure, many had been imprisoned on the hulks. Some were ill and most were miserable. Many were afraid they would die on the voyage or in the strange new land so far away.

THE JOURNEY

The voyage was long, risky and uncomfortable. Convicts spent most of the trip confined below decks. They lived in smelly, squalid and often appallingly hot conditions for months at a time. There was always the threat of disease and death rates were exceptionally high, especially during the early years. Scurvy, dysentery and typhoid were rampant. If they were lucky, convicts were allowed on deck to exercise and to wash themselves and their clothes in seawater. Convicts who misbehaved were flogged, then kept below in irons for the rest of the trip.

SOURCE 4.6.1

The Convict Ship, c. 1820, by Henry Adlard. The ship is ready to sail from England to Australia. Friends and relations, having said farewell, probably for ever, wave from the shore.



SOURCE 4.6.2 A modern representation of the First Fleet in Sydney Cove, 1788, from the History of Racing mural at Flemington Racecourse, by Harold Freedman and the Melbourne Mural Studio, 1982–89. Seven horses arrived on the First Fleet.

As the convict ships neared the equator, the weather grew hotter, and the heat became unbearable below the decks. The last part of the voyage, across the Indian and Southern oceans, was often terrifying. Ships took advantage of the winds known as the Roaring Forties; when the weather was bad the waves were huge. Ships were swept up to the crests of waves and then plunged down into the troughs. The convicts had no choice but to ride out the storm in the darkness below deck.

Most of the convicts were destined for Sydney or Hobart. Both settlements struggled to survive initially, but as the European population increased, food production increased and the threat of starvation receded.

> *Upon being brought up to the open air, some fainted, some died on deck and others in the boat before they reached the shore ... many were not able to walk, to stand, or to stir themselves in the least ... Some creeped upon their hands and knees, and some were carried upon the backs of others.*

SOURCE 4.6.3 Observation of the colony's chaplain, Richard Johnson, when convicts from the Second Fleet disembarked at Sydney Cove in 1790, quoted in *Their Ghosts May Be Heard: Australia to 1900*, by S. Coupe, R. Coupe and M. Andrews, 1983. It is estimated that more than 250 convicts died during the Second Fleet voyage. Of the 759 who landed, about two-thirds were seriously ill.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. How many convicts was Britain able to remove from her shores by transportation to Australia between 1788 and 1868?
2. Most convicts were transported for what crime?
3. True or false: 'Most of the convicts were first offenders'.
4. What proportion of the convicts were women?
5. What was the average age of the convicts?

Analysing

6. Examine Source 4.6.1. Use ADAMANT (see History Skills Toobox at the beginning of this book) to evaluate this source.

Applying

7. Examine Source 4.6.2.
   - a. Who are the people in the picture likely to be? What are they doing?
   - b. Briefly describe the landscape shown in the background.
   - c. Why would the First Fleet bring livestock?

Creating

8. Imagine you were a convict transported to Sydney Cove. Use the sources and the text to write a diary of your journey. Include one entry for each month of the trip and describe how you felt on departure and arrival.

UNIT 7

THE EXPERIENCE OF FREE SETTLERS

When emigrants left home, they faced a long and hazardous voyage. The dangers included fires, icebergs and storms, as well as the possibility of shipwreck. Passengers were confined below decks during storms, sometimes for days, often suffering from seasickness as the ship pitched and rolled. The voyage was also monotonous and many passengers were homesick. They passed the time in various ways—conversing, sketching, writing letters and playing cards or other games. Sometimes, if the weather was good, there were concerts or dances on deck.

CLASSES OF TRAVEL

Assisted migrants travelled in steerage—the lower deck below the water line. Infectious diseases spread rapidly in these cramped conditions. People also became sick due to spoiled food or contaminated water. In first class, which was very expensive, there was much more space and privacy. Passengers had cabins instead of bunks. Their meals were served in the formal dining room. Unlike steerage passengers, they often enjoyed fresh meat, provided by the livestock on board.

Migrants usually landed in Sydney, Melbourne or Adelaide. Many arrived uncertain of their future and without anywhere to stay. Most were relieved that the long journey was over.

SOURCE 4.7.1 Steerage accommodation. Held at the State Library of Victoria. A long table ran down the centre with bunks on either side. Light and air came from the hatch above. It was closed during storms to stop seawater pouring in. The bunks were less than a metre wide. Married couples shared the top bunk and children slept in the bunk below. Steerage passengers brought their own bedding and eating utensils but basic foods such as flour, rice, biscuits and preserved meat were provided. Meals were eaten at the long central table.

Q **Imagine travelling in steerage. Would you have taken up the offer of an assisted passage? Briefly explain the reasons for your decision.**

> *Our water barrels were rolling from side to side and our cans, teapots and cooking utensils were adding to the confusion by bouncing one after the other down the area between the bunks. Some of the young ladies [were] screaming and some tried to climb up the hatchways screaming to the officers to let them out.*

SOURCE 4.7.2 Description of a storm at sea, by Anne Grafton, who migrated from England in 1858. Diary held at Museum Victoria

INNOVATION: STEAM ENGINES

From the 1840s, steam engines began to be used to power ocean-going ships. However, most ships could not carry enough coal so they used sails as well. The engines were used only when the wind was unfavourable or dropped entirely, as it usually did in the Doldrums. In the 1880s, the use of iron-hulled steamships with more efficient engines became more common. Iron ships were stronger and safer from fire. They were much larger, so bunks in steerage were able to be replaced with small cabins. The engines also supplied power for electric lighting, refrigeration and ventilation.

SOURCE 4.7.3 *The Immigrants' Ship*, by John Charles Dollman, 1884. Held at the Art Gallery of South Australia. These passengers are probably assisted migrants. Steerage passengers could come up to the deck in fine weather.

> *After we left the boat we walked across the railway pier up to the station. We had first class tickets given us from the Ship Owners as our passage was paid up to Melbourne. We had to wait till a train came up and as soon as we had sat down, they came and locked us in, and off we steamed to Hobsons Bay Railway Station in Melbourne. As we sat in the train we could see along the bay all the ships at anchor. Then a little farther we crossed the Yarra Yarra, and presently the train steamed into the station. Then the guard came and let us out.*

SOURCE 4.7.4 Diary entry by Ally Heathcote for Tuesday 17 November 1874, describing her arrival at Sandridge Pier. Diary held at Museum Victoria

DID YOU KNOW?

CAROLINE CHISHOLM WAS KNOWN AS 'THE EMIGRANT'S FRIEND'.

Caroline Chisholm came to Sydney in 1838 and was shocked to discover many newly arrived emigrant women sleeping in the streets or in bushland. Once a ship had landed, passengers were allowed to stay on board for only ten days. They then had to leave even if they had no job or accommodation. Caroline Chisholm established a home for female emigrants and tried to find work for them. By the time she returned to England in 1846, she had helped more than 10 000 people to find work.

SOURCE 4.7.5 *Red Jacket, Lightning and James Baines in Hobson's Bay*, by Thomas Robertson, c. 1856. Held at the National Gallery of Victoria. The painting shows the three emigrant clipper ships on their arrival in Melbourne. A newspaper reporter is shown in the rowboat, heading out to the ships to get the latest news.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Understanding

1. Emigration was a major and emotional event in people's lives. Feelings ranged from fear and sadness to hope and excitement. What feelings or emotions can you see expressed in Source 4.7.3?
2. Name at least three things the family shown in Source 4.7.3 have brought with them on the voyage. Name three things you would have brought to Australia in the 1800s.
3. With a partner, discuss the challenges facing newly arrived immigrants in the 1800s. Which three challenges would be the greatest? Would migrants today face the same challenges?

Creating

4. As technology improved, voyages became faster and safer. Research one of the following and use presentation software to present your findings:
   - **a** Source 4.7.5 shows three clipper ships. Research what made the clippers so fast and what they carried.
   - **b** The *Great Britain* was one of the first big steamships to carry migrants to Australia. Find out what a voyage was like on the *Great Britain* or another steamship.
5. A number of ships carrying migrants to Australia were shipwrecked in the period 1800–1900. Research the wreck of an immigrant ship and present your findings as a display or an illustrated report.

CHANGES IN THE WAY OF LIFE: THE CONVICTS

CONVICTS

The main role of convicts was to supply the labour force for the colonies. Most were assigned to work for the government, especially in the early years. Convicts with trade skills, such as carpenters, builders, blacksmiths, bakers and farmers, were needed to build and feed the settlement. Convicts who could read and write might work as clerks. Badly behaved convicts were assigned to government gangs who constructed roads and buildings, cleared forest or quarried stone. The work was hard and conditions harsh. The worst behaved convicts worked in chain gangs. Convicts who committed crimes on the voyage out or in the colony were sent to places of secondary punishment, such as Port Arthur, Macquarie Harbour and Norfolk Island, where conditions were brutal.

Those convicts who were not assigned to the government were assigned to work for free settlers, who may have treated them humanely, or worse than they treated their animals. Unassigned women were sent to **female factories**, where they worked at tasks such as cleaning and spinning wool. Unemployed or pregnant single women usually ended up there too. Food and accommodation were very poor. Female convicts at the factory could be selected by settlers as servants, housekeepers, wives or partners.

From 1801, the ticket-of-leave system allowed well-behaved convicts to work for wages for a master of their choice. This system was considered a 'ticket to freedom', which could be lost if a convict behaved badly. Convicts who had served their terms or received pardons were known as **emancipists**.

If they were lucky, convicts might be treated well or learn a skill they could use when released. Some obtained pardons or land grants. Some eventually enjoyed better lives than they could have had in Britain. Convicts who were unlucky or behaved badly could experience hardship, flogging and isolation.

ESCAPEES

Most convicts waited out their terms because the penalties for attempting to escape were dreadful. Those recaptured received 500 lashes, and, if they survived, could be put in irons for the rest of their sentence. Convicts on government service or in places of secondary punishment were the most likely to take their chances. Called bolters, they escaped to the bush and tried to walk to China, which many assumed was not far away, or turned to bushranging. Most escapees were recaptured, returned voluntarily or died of starvation.

SOURCE 4.8.1 *The Hobart Town Chain Gang*, by G. Bruce, 1842. Held at the State Library of New South Wales.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE DIFFICULTIES OF ESCAPE WERE COMPOUNDED BY THE NATURAL PRISON SURROUNDING MANY PENAL SETTLEMENTS—THE AUSTRALIAN BUSH.

A convict named Billy Hunt tried to escape from Port Arthur by hiding under the skin of a kangaroo. The guards were about to shoot the kangaroo when the animal stopped and shouted 'Don't shoot! It's only me—Billy Hunt!'

PUNISHMENT AND REFORM

The main purpose of punishment was to act as a deterrent to others. Flogging was the most common punishment for male convicts. They were tied to a triangle and usually given fifty lashes at a time. The lash was made of leather, sometimes with bits of metal sewn into the ends. Some floggings left the back raw and the convict barely able to walk. Solitary confinement was less common but often just as feared. It meant total isolation in a cell with thick doors and walls that blocked out light and sound. Convicts could also be put in irons or transferred to a chain gang. Hanging was the ultimate punishment. The usual punishments for convict women were solitary confinement or having their heads shaved.

No horse, no ox, no locomotive trasverses its course; the wagons are propelled by convicts, three men generally allotted to do the work of each wagon, which is capable of conveying half a ton of goods at each transit. Upon emergency, the same gang have made their three journeys and back, thirty miles [50 kilometres] a day, conveying thus per man half a ton each day.

SOURCE 4.8.3 A visitor's description of a journey on the convict tramway from Eaglehawk Neck to Port Arthur, *Tasmanian Journal*, 1842

All the shepherds and stock-keepers, without exception, are convicts—many of them thrice-convicted convicts! ... Very few of them have wives; still fewer families ... Yet, after all, what a strange animal is man! The best shepherds in Van Diemen's Land are London thieves—men who never saw a live sheep before they were transported, and what is stranger still, many of them grow rather decent ... They are friendly to one another—hospitable to travellers (partly because they thirst for news) and otherwise comport themselves partly like human beings.

SOURCE 4.8.4 From 'Jail Journal', by John Mitchel, first published in *The Citizen*, Mitchel's New York newspaper, in 1854. Held at the National Library of Australia. Mitchel was an Irish activist and journalist who was convicted of treason and transported to Van Diemen's Land in 1850. He escaped to the USA in 1853.

SOURCE 4.8.2 Port Arthur, Tasmania, c. 1860. Held at the National Library of Australia. Port Arthur was used as a place of secondary punishment for convicts who were repeat offenders. About 75 000 convicts were sent to Van Diemen's Land between 1803 and 1853.

SOURCE 4.8.5

Convict Tramway, Van Diemen's Land, by W. L. Walton, 1852. Held at the National Library of Australia. On a visit to Britain, Charles O'Hara Booth, Commandant of the Port Arthur convict settlement, was impressed by the new steam-powered Liverpool-to-Manchester railway. He had his own convict-powered version built to transport coal from Eaglehawk Neck to Port Arthur.

GOVERNOR LACHLAN MACQUARIE

The person who did the most for the convicts was Lachlan Macquarie. He was the Governor of New South Wales from 1810 to 1821. The settlers looked down on the convicts, even those who had been freed, but Macquarie believed that convicts who had completed their sentences or earned a pardon should be treated like anyone else. He also thought emancipists would help the colony to become prosperous and self-sufficient.

During his governorship he issued 366 pardons, 1365 conditional pardons and 2139 tickets-of-leave, much to the annoyance of the settlers. They believed convicts were inherently criminal and did not deserve to be treated as regular citizens.

Macquarie appointed Francis Greenway, a convict, to help transform the Sydney settlement into a town. Greenway had been an architect in England before he was sentenced to fourteen years transportation for forging a document. Macquarie gave him a ticket-of-leave and Greenway went on to design several beautiful stone buildings that are still standing. Macquarie was so pleased with the results of Greenway's work that he gave him a full pardon.

NEW OPPORTUNITIES

As convicts completed their sentences, many took advantage of the opportunities available to improve their fortunes, in everything from farming to shipping to general trade—which would have been impossible for them in Britain. The numbers of freed convicts who wanted to return home dropped dramatically.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- emancipist
- female factory

2 What was the main role of convicts in the colonies?

3 Who was most likely to end up working in a government chain gang?

4 What were convicts assigned to do if they did not work for the government?

5 Explain the difference between a ticket-of-leave convict and an emancipist.

6 What was a place of secondary punishment and what type of convict was sent there?

7 How did Macquarie treat the convicts? Who objected to this treatment of the convicts and why?

8 Why did a growing number of ex-convicts choose to stay in Australia?

Applying

9 Examine Sources 4.8.3 and 4.8.5.
- **a** Briefly describe what is happening in Source 4.8.5.
- **b** What was the main purpose of the convict tramway?

Evaluating

10 What does Source 4.8.4 tell us about how transportation to Australia could change the lives of convicts?

Creating

11 Use Sources 4.8.1 and 4.8.2 as starting points to research the living conditions of convicts. Present a report with sources such as pictures, maps and quotes that describes the lives of convicts at one of Australia's penal settlements.

UNIT 9

CHANGES IN THE WAY OF LIFE: THE FRONTIER

GROWTH OF THE WOOL INDUSTRY

In 1807, the first bales of Australian wool arrived in London. Australian wool was much finer than any other wool and therefore was much in demand. Wool was so profitable and so well suited to Australian conditions that it became the foundation of the Australian economy.

EXPANDING THE SETTLEMENT

The growth of the colony's population and British demand for Australian wool led to a massive expansion of land use. Many settlers wanted to try farming and explorers found good grazing land during the 1820s and 1830s, not only in New South Wales but also in Victoria, Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia. However, the government tried to limit settlement because it was too hard to impose law and order away from the main centres. To the newly arrived migrants from Britain, where land meant wealth and power, it was as if a great prize had been offered and then taken away.

The government's policy could never be enforced. People simply ignored the restrictions and moved further out. They claimed they had a right to the land because no one else was using it. These settlers became known as **squatters** because they used the land without paying for it. Many squatters became wool growers.

In the mid-1830s, partly due to British demand for Australian wool and the importance of wool to the Australian economy, the government decided to allow squatters to remain on the land, provided they paid a fee to lease it. By 1840, many squatters had become wealthy and held vast pastoral leases, some the size of small European countries. Because most of the good land in New South Wales and Victoria was already taken, settlers moved further north into Queensland and westward to South Australia.

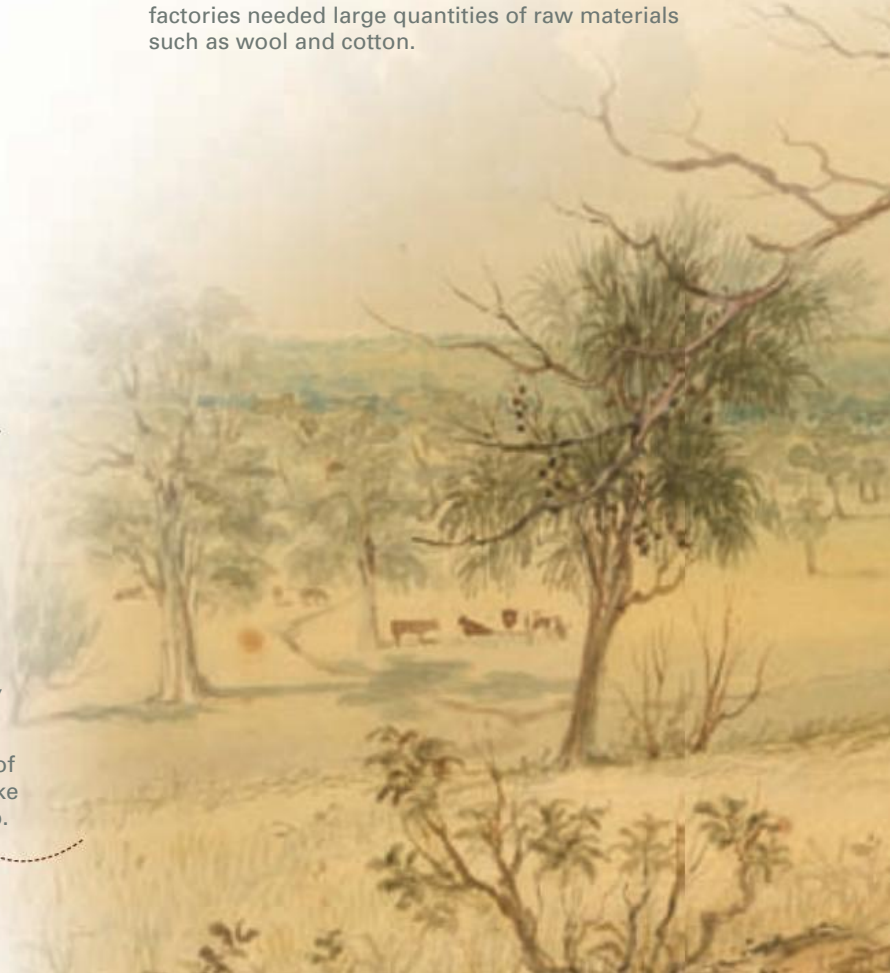
Are you acquainted with the Wools grown in the Colonies of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land?—I am.

What is the quality, generally, of those Wools?—The quality originally was very bad, but the climate has a most extraordinary effect upon the fleece. Latterly they have been of varied qualities, but all possessing an extraordinary softness, which the manufacturers here so much admire ... They are known to require less of milling or pulling power than any other description of wool ...

What quantity could those colonies produce of fine Wool ... if the farmers in the colonies were encouraged in the cultivation of it?—I should conceive myself that that country is adequate to the growth of as much Wool of a fine description as ever will be wanted by the manufacturers of England.

SOURCE 4.9.2

H. Hughes, a British wool merchant, speaking to a Select Committee on the State of the British Wool Trade, 1828, quoted in *Southern Voices*, by Robert Engwerda, 1999. The Industrial Revolution meant that British textile factories needed large quantities of raw materials such as wool and cotton.



SOURCE 4.9.1

Cattlemen and Natives by Gum Trees, by S. T. Gill, 1840s. Held at the National Library of Australia. The painting depicts the moment of change as European settlers move into the traditional lands of the Aboriginal People. This lightly forested park-like country was ideal for the settlers' cattle and sheep.

SQUATTERS ON THE FRONTIER

When the squatters went into the unknown the difficulties were enormous. The first problem was finding suitable land with plenty of grass, fertile soil and, most importantly, access to water. Settlers often had to travel a long way with their supplies and their animals. Even if they had a dray or wagon, there were no roads, and droving stock at the same time was not easy. They knew they were travelling through the traditional lands of Aboriginal People and were worried about attacks.

> *Repaired dray and shifted hurdles at Wattle Hill. Showery all day. On my return home found Major Mitchell and six men, one native boy, from Sydney. He left his main party about 30 miles NE and came here for the purpose of getting the true position of Cape Bridgewater. He had not the most distant thought of our being here, and was not a little surprised to find Englishmen in this part of the world.*

SOURCE 4.9.3 Journal of Edward Henty, squatter, of Portland (Victoria), 29 August 1836. Major Mitchell was an explorer leading an expedition south into the supposedly unknown.

ESTABLISHING A HOME

When the squatters reached the end of their journey, they cleared land and built a shelter from whatever materials were available. They sawed timber for railings to enclose stock. If water was short, they dug dams or carted water in buckets for themselves and their sheep or cattle. The work was backbreaking and endless. Everything had to be done by hand with only the aid of basic tools such as an axe and a shovel. Squatters often struggled for years to establish their properties and build up their stock.

EVERYDAY LIFE

The squatter and his wife and family—if he was lucky enough to have them—faced drought, floods and isolation. There were no doctors to treat broken bones, burns or snake bites. There were no shops. Often they did not see another person or visit a town for months. Food was basic: cooked meat with damper (flour, salt and water mixed together, pressed into a flat round shape and then cooked in the coals of the fire) and a mug of tea. A vegetable garden and fruit trees would eventually bring more variety. This life was very different from the life that most had been used to in the cities or countryside of Britain.

SOURCE 4.9.4 The settler's first home. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

Q
1 What sorts of materials have been used to build the hut? What tools can you identify?
2 Discuss what this source tells you about life in Australia.

SQUATTERS AND SELECTORS

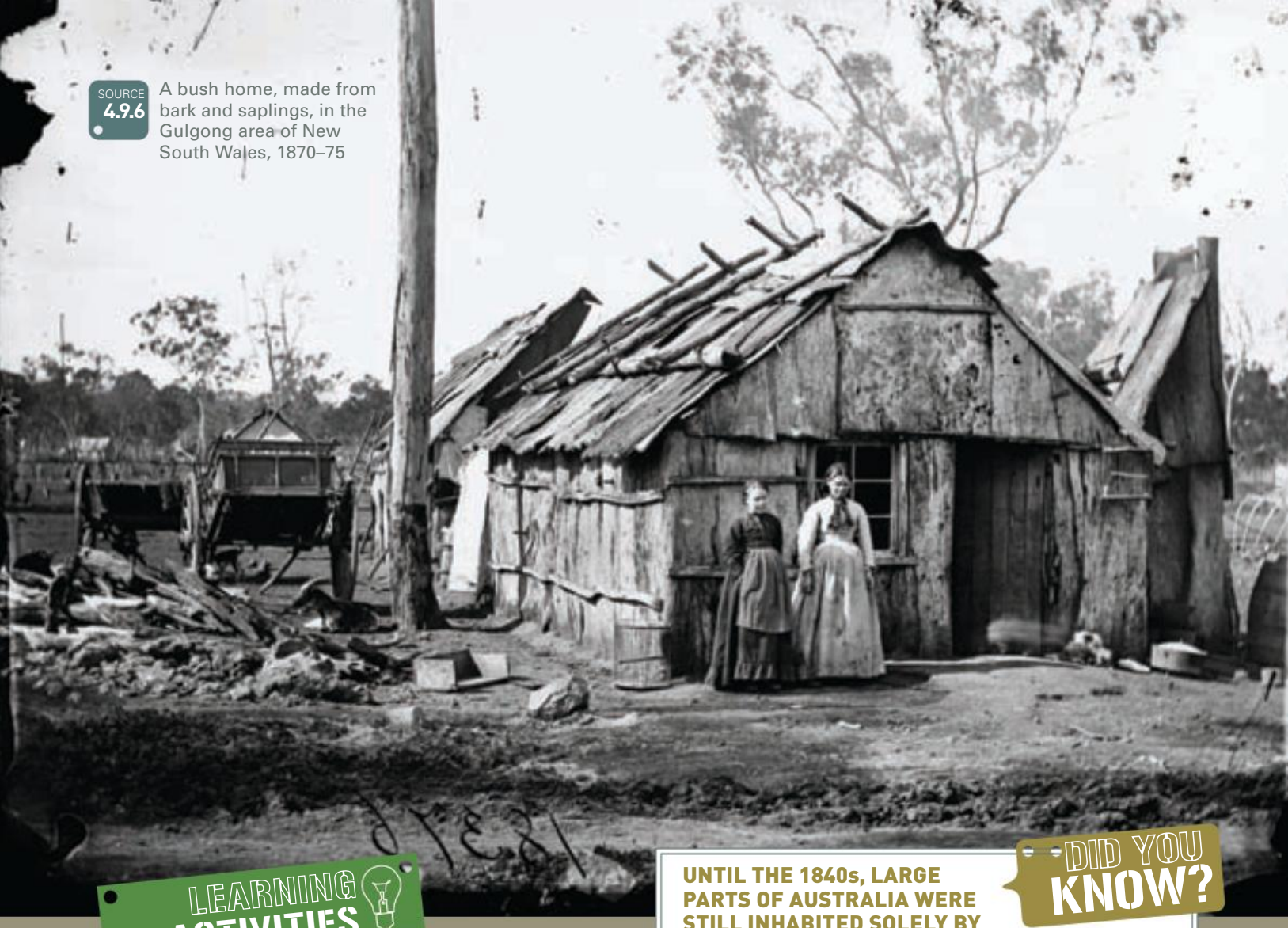
In the 1860s, despite protests from the squatters, the government passed a series of Selection Acts, designed to open up the land to other settlers. People could select from 40 to 640 acres, and the land was generally sold for one pound an acre. People who took up land in this way were called **selectors**.

The government saw several advantages in this plan. By the late 1850s, the gold rushes were ending and thousands of miners were looking for a way to support themselves. Population growth meant more food was needed. Selling land was the easiest way for governments to pay for infrastructure such as roads and railways. Land was also needed to attract more migrants.

Squatters had the right to select and purchase some of their own land so they chose the best—fertile areas near water—which left the less desirable land for the selectors. Most selectors struggled and, by 1873, one-third of all selectors in Victoria had walked off their properties. Many knew nothing about farming, were beaten by the climate and could not afford the high cost of transporting their crops to market.

Success was often due to a combination of good luck, good land and skilled farming. Successful selectors were responsible for a massive increase in grain production. When railways were built to the wheat-producing areas, production took off. More grain was produced than was needed in Australia so the surplus was exported, mostly to Britain.

SOURCE 4.9.5 *News from Australia*, 1854, by George Baxter. Held at the State Library of Victoria. Letters were extremely important as they were the only means of communication.



SOURCE 4.9.6 A bush home, made from bark and saplings, in the Gulgong area of New South Wales, 1870–75

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- selector
- squatter

2 Which two factors led to a massive expansion of land use in the colony?

3 How did the squatters justify their occupation of the land?

4 What major economic advantage did the squatters' actions bring Australia?

Understanding

5 Examine Source 4.9.5.
- **a** What is the centre of attention for the people depicted in this image?
- **b** Describe the expressions on their faces.
- **c** Why would relatives be anxious to hear from loved ones in the colonies?

Evaluating

6 Reread Source 4.9.2. What advantages did the squatters' actions have for Britain?

DID YOU KNOW?

UNTIL THE 1840s, LARGE PARTS OF AUSTRALIA WERE STILL INHABITED SOLELY BY ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE.

By the 1870s, these areas had contracted significantly. Pushed off their own land, Aboriginal People hunted cattle and sheep, which led to reprisals. In 1838, at Myall Creek in New South Wales, thirty Aboriginal People were slaughtered in retaliation for alleged cattle theft. How many Indigenous people died in massacres is still a matter of dispute, but there is evidence that it happened on many occasions.

7 Reread Source 4.9.3. What evidence does the source provide that the squatters were pioneers?

8 Examine Source 4.9.1. What can you see in the picture that indicates that European settlers have arrived in the area? Do you think this country would have appealed to the squatters? Explain your answer.

Creating

9 In pairs, write a conversation between two women who are the wives of squatters. They are chatting about their problems and what it is like living in the bush. Make one of the women optimistic and the other one pessimistic. Practise and then perform your conversation for the class.

UNIT 10

THE BRITISH IN AUSTRALIA AND THE EFFECT ON ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE

THE FIRST FLEET

In January 1788, Governor Arthur Phillip, in command of a fleet of eleven ships, sailed into Botany Bay. About forty Aboriginal People were gathered near the shore, some brandishing spears. Phillip distributed gifts to the Aboriginal People to establish friendly relations. However, Botany Bay was a disappointment and Phillip decided to explore further north. The ships sailed into Port Jackson. On 26 January, some of the officers and marines went ashore, the Union Jack was raised, muskets were fired and Phillip declared that all of eastern Australia belonged to Britain. Aboriginal People looking on did not know that they had just been dispossessed of their country.

SOURCE 4.10.1 Portrait of Bennelong, by 'Port Jackson painter', c. 1790. Held at the National History Museum, London

MAINTAINING RELATIONSHIPS

Phillip was under orders to maintain good relations with Aboriginal People and to that end attempted to establish friendly interaction. Aboriginal People were curious about the newcomers and would accept gifts, although they would not stay with them and became angry when they realised the new arrivals intended to remain on their land. As winter settled in and fish became more difficult to catch, Aboriginal People found that their traditional land from which they had always obtained food had been taken over for use by the newcomers. They also began to die from diseases they had never known before.

> *The very heavy rains we have had for some days has put a stop to all labour, & the natives find it very difficult to support themselves in this season, as few fish are caught. I hope after the ships have sailed to be able to persuade some of them to live near us and every possible means shall be used to reconcile them to us, & to render their situation more comfortable. At present I think it is inferiour to that of the beasts of the field, yet they seem intelligent & merit a better character than what will be given them by Monsieur La Perouse, from what he said to some of our officers.*

SOURCE 4.10.2 From a letter to British Home Secretary Lord Sydney from Captain Arthur Phillip, 1788

BENNELONG AND COLBY

In December 1788, Phillip, attempting to learn more about the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, captured Arabanoo, but he died shortly afterwards of smallpox. In 1789, two other men, Bennelong (Baneelon) and Colby (Colbee), were captured. Colby escaped after a short time but Bennelong remained with Phillip and even travelled back to England with him. Interaction with Bennelong demonstrated to the British the benefits of friendly relations with Aboriginal People.

> *The other instance was of a soldier lost in the woods, when he met a party of natives. He at first knew not whether to flee from them, or to implore their assistance. Seeing among them one whom he knew, he determined to communicate his distress to him and to rely on his generosity. The Indian told him that he had wandered a long way from home, but that he would conduct him thither, on the single condition of his delivering up a gun which he held in his hand, promising to carry it for him and to restore it to him at parting. The soldier felt little inclination to surrender his arms, by which he would be put entirely in their power. But seeing no alternative, he at last consented; on which the whole party laid down their spears and faithfully escorted him to the nearest part of the settlement, where the gun was given up, and they took their leave without asking for any* **remuneration**, *or even seeming to expect it.*

SOURCE 4.10.3 From *A Complete Account of the Settlement of Port Jackson*, by Watkin Tench, 1790

Q **What does this source tell you about the way some Aboriginal People behaved towards the British? Do you think all Aboriginal People behaved this way?**

LAND AND CONFLICT

As settlers began clearing and fencing land, Aboriginal People were denied access to traditional lands, and they began to resent the intruders. In December 1790, Pemulwuy (also spelt Pemulwoy and Pemulwy) speared John McIntyre, Governor Phillip's gamekeeper, who later died of the wound. Pemulwuy continued to lead **resistance** against the British until his death in 1802. He is known as the first resistance leader in Australia.

From 1794, the frontier shifted north-west of Sydney along the fertile banks of the Hawkesbury River. Provoked by the clearing of traditional lands for the growing of crops, Aboriginal People raided settlers' huts and robbed travellers of their provisions. Soldiers and settlers counter-attacked with blasts from their muskets. A violent and brutal war prevailed until about 1816, when Governor Macquarie dispatched troops to patrol the Hawkesbury valley.

SQUATTERS' LAND

In 1813, a way was found through the Blue Mountains. When the British government reduced the import duty on Australian wool in 1822, large pastoral companies and **squatters** saw that fortunes could be made on the land beyond the Blue Mountains. No thought was given to the rights of the Aboriginal People, traditional owners of this land. In the rush to make more pasture available for their flocks, native animals were slaughtered and water holes and sacred sites were fenced.

MACQUARIE

When Macquarie became governor in 1810, he attempted to maintain good relations with Aboriginal People and 'civilise' them so that they would accept British rule and customs. To this end, in 1814 Macquarie set up a school with dormitories for Aboriginal children, in an effort to 'educate' Aboriginal People away from their families. He also encouraged Aboriginal men to become labourers and farm workers. In 1816, Macquarie offered to grant small parcels of land to Aboriginal People who wanted to become 'settlers'. He also attempted to initiate a **hierarchical system** of authority by proclaiming certain Aboriginal People as chiefs or kings of their tribes and issuing them with brass breastplates.

By taking the land and undermining traditional laws and rituals, the newcomers broke down a way of life that had existed for thousands of years. As well as massacre, disease and starvation, Aboriginal People had to fight despair.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE WORD 'AUSTRALIAN' WAS FIRST USED BY THE BRITISH TO DESCRIBE ABORIGINAL PEOPLE.

It was only later that the term 'Australian' was appropriated to refer to early European settlers.

> *I this day appointed Bidgee-Bidgee Black-Native, to be the Chief of the Kissing Point Tribe, and invested formally with a Brass Gorget having his name and Title engraved thereon.*

SOURCE 4.10.4 From Macquarie's journal, 6 June 1816. Held at the Mitchell Library, State Library of New South Wales

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- hierarchical system
- remuneration
- resistance
- squatter

2 a Who was Arabanoo?

b Relate an incident when Bennelong demonstrated his friendship with the British.

Understanding and analysing

3 Reread Source 4.10.3. Do you think the British expected such treatment from Aboriginal People? Why or why not?

Understanding and evaluating

4 Why do you think conflict increased as settlements spread out?

Analysing and evaluating

5 Governor Macquarie thought he was taking the correct course of action when he attempted to 'educate' and 'civilise' Aboriginal People. Why might Aboriginal People have seen this in a different way?

How might these attempts have demoralised Aboriginal People?

Analysing, evaluating and creating

6 Macquarie attempted to impose British rule on Aboriginal People by creating a system of hierarchy and presenting selected people with breastplates. Do you think this worked? Why?

Design a piece of artwork that you present to somebody to symbolise your rule of law.

UNIT 11

SOURCE STUDY: DOCUMENTING QUEENSLAND

Queensland was first seen by European explorers when Willem Jansz landed on the Cape York Peninsula in 1606. The first English explorer to reach Queensland was James Cook in 1770. The first official settlement occurred in Queensland when John Oxley and Settlement Commandant Lieutenant Miller, together with a crew and twenty-nine convicts, arrived to start a new penal colony at Moreton Bay. The first site was abandoned within a year and a second site, settled in 1825, eventually became present-day Brisbane. For a while, as with other colonies, Aboriginal People of the area treated the newcomers with guarded curiosity, believing them to be the spirits of dead ancestors.

Unlike in the other colonies, in the first few years the intruders were greatly outnumbered by the local inhabitants. This, together with changing attitudes, meant that officials displayed far less concern for the Aboriginal People of Queensland than had been displayed in earlier colonies. One consequence of this is the lack of detailed records of settler–Aboriginal interaction in Queensland.

> *Several natives were seen on the side of the river opposite to the settlement. I was informed ... that they had not appeared there before in numbers, except one and two, and that very seldom. On this occasion I think there were upwards of thirty men, women and children ... I learnt [later] ... that they swam across higher up ... but could not be persuaded to approach the settlement nearer than 2 or 3 hundred yards, where they remained looking at the buildings and the cattle for about an hour, and then they went off and were not seen again.*

SOURCE 4.11.1 Major Edmund Lockyer, 1825

> *They generally keep ... within their territories ... which they have distinctly marked out between themselves.*

SOURCE 4.11.2 Missionary Johann Handt, 1841, from *Brisbane: The Aboriginal Presence 1824–1860* (Brisbane History Group Papers)

A CONTENTIOUS INCIDENT

The settlement at Moreton Bay was to be a closed settlement—that is, no free settlers were allowed in the immediate area. However, in 1839, the convict settlement closed and in 1842 Governor Gipps gave permission for free settlement to begin. Squatters moved very quickly to take up the best grazing land. In an attempt to acknowledge the Aboriginal People of the area, and on being made aware of large gatherings that took place in January for the purpose of eating the fruit of the bunya tree, the Colonial Secretary's Office issued an instruction in April 1842.

> *It having been represented to the Governor that a district exists to the northward of Moreton Bay, in which a fruit bearing tree abounds, called Bunya or Banya Bunya, and that the Aborigines from considerable distances resort at certain times of the year to this District for the purpose of eating the fruit of said tree—His Excellency is pleased to direct that no Licences be granted for the occupation of any lands within the said District.*

SOURCE 4.11.3 Instruction from the Colonial Secretary's Office, 1842

At the annual gathering that year, Aboriginal People acted out an incident at Kilcoy Creek and explained that a group were absent from the gathering because they had been given poisoned flour and all had died.

Although poorly documented, there is evidence that 'death pudding', as poisoned flour came to be called, was responsible for many Aboriginal deaths. The deaths at Kilcoy caused Aboriginal People to seek vengeance against all newcomers and violence increased across the frontier.

> *That blackfellow been eating damper. Then plenty that been jump about all the same fish, when you catch im, big mob been die—him dead all about ...*

SOURCE 4.11.4 Unnamed Aboriginal person recalling the arsenic deaths at Kilcoy

> *On the outskirts of a station owned by Mackenzie, 30–60 Aborigines died from eating damper laced with strychnine, ostensibly made by two frightened, fleeing shepherds from Kilcoy. The Mackenzies were admonished for this appalling crime by Attorney-General James Plunkett, who threatened prosecution if an official complaint was lodged. Evan Mackenzie, who owned the station, was widely suspected for 150 years but recent research suggests that he was probably not himself responsible for the poisonings, since he was in Sydney at the time. With Mackenzie away, the station hierarchy under the leadership of an English overseer, decided to poison local Aborigines whom they feared. The overseer disappeared upon Mackenzie returning. Mackenzie organised the conspiracy of silence to protect the Englishman.*

SOURCE 4.11.5 This version of the Kilcoy Creek incident is reported by Justice R. G. Atkinson, in 'Tartan in the Tropics: The Scots in Queensland', a paper presented at the Griffith University Centre for Public Culture and Ideas Conference, 2004

> *You see, the white men had so many opportunities for working harm; at that time several aboriginals were poisoned through eating stolen flour, it having been carefully left in a hut with arsenic in it.*

SOURCE 4.11.6 From *Tom Petrie's Reminiscences of Early Queensland*, recorded by his daughter, Constance Campbell Petrie, 1904

NATIVE POLICE

In 1848, responding to continuing violence on the frontier, a Native Police Force was established. Consisting of fourteen Aboriginal men from the Riverina, the Force was under the command of Frederick Walker. Walker saw himself as an agent of the law, but invariably was not impartial.

After two particularly violent attacks on stations in 1857 and 1861, any pretence of impartiality in the activities of the Native Police was dispensed with. Instructions were issued to disperse all large gatherings at all times. 'Disperse' usually meant firing upon them.

> *These black police were aborigines from New South Wales and distant places, and they, with their white leader, came and shot several blacks, the remaining poor things returning at once to their friend in a great state, protesting they had not touched a beast. Father met the squatter soon after, and said to him: 'You're a nice sort of fellow; how could you cause those poor blacks to be shot like that? You know perfectly well they did not kill your cattle.' The man excused himself by saying that it was done without his knowledge.*

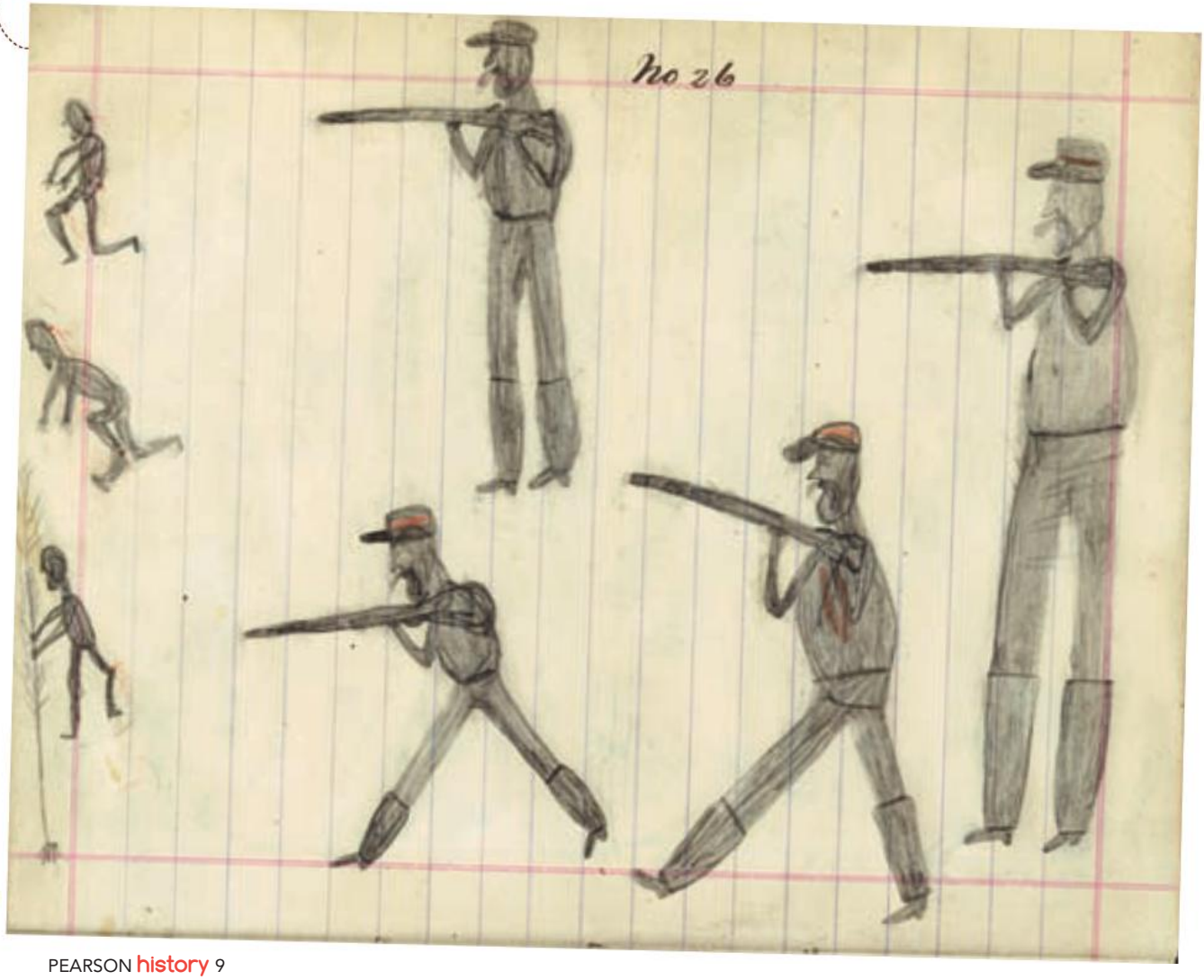
SOURCE 4.11.7 Description of the outcome when a squatter reported to police that Aboriginal men were spearing cattle. From *Tom Petrie's Reminiscences of Early Queensland*, recorded by his daughter, Constance Campbell Petrie, 1904

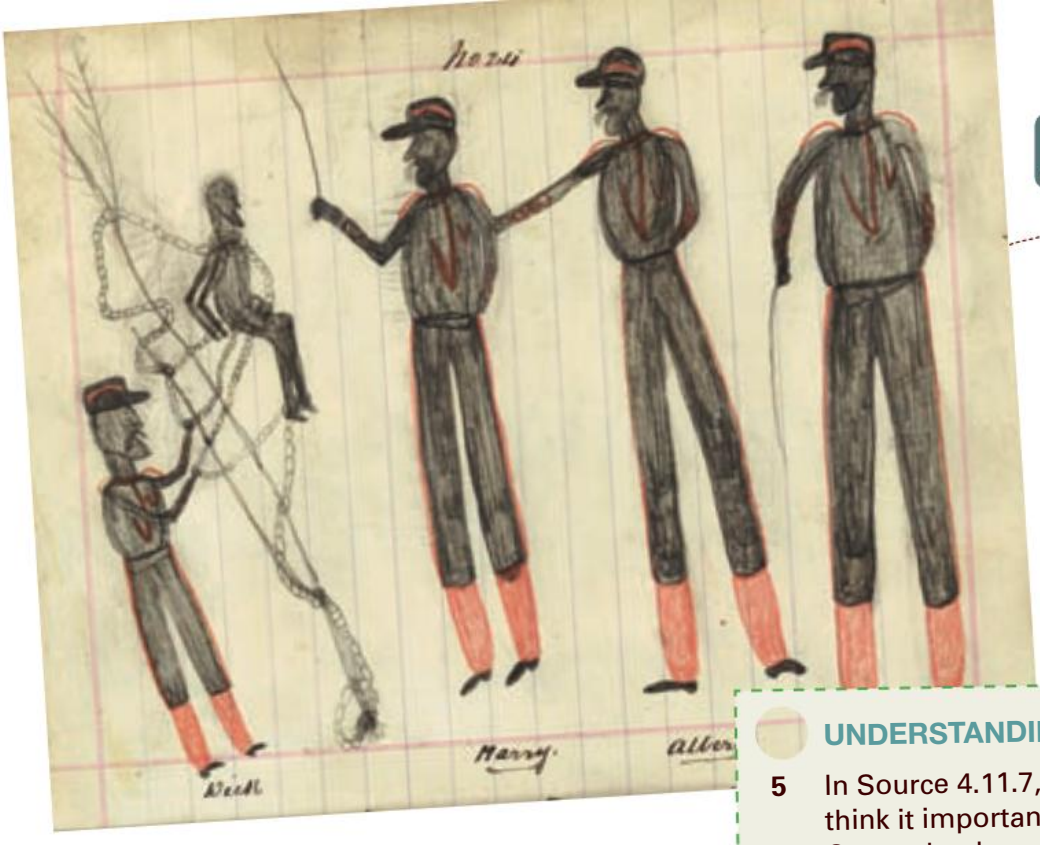
SOURCE 4.11.8 In this sketch from *The Illustrated Sydney News*, 17 October 1876, the native police are shown as heroic. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

SOURCE 4.11.9 *Dispersing Usual Way, Some Good Shooting*, by Oscar, 1890s. Held at the National Museum of Australia

> *The usefulness of the black troopers in preserving order was undoubted. They did their work, in a sense, even better than a white force could have done it. But at the same time their methods were not always commendable. The savage enjoyment which a native displays in killing one of a different tribe often impelled the police to extreme measures. In those early pioneering days an outrage committed by a black generally led to a wholesale slaughtering of the offender's tribe. The most terrible scenes were witnessed, the white officers of the corps being often active participators in the massacres or passive consenting parties ...*

SOURCE 4.11.10 From *The Trooper Police of Australia: A Record of Mounted Police Work in the Commonwealth from the Earliest Days of Settlement to the Present Time*, by A. L. Haydon, London, 1911





SOURCE 4.11.11 *Police Boys Doing Duty (Lynch Law)*, by Oscar, 1890s. Held at the National Museum of Australia

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING

1 What is 'death pudding'? Why do you think this term became commonly used?

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

2 How does Source 4.11.3 show that the governor tried to maintain friendly relations with the Aboriginal People around Moreton Bay? How do you reconcile this evidence with his instruction that free settlement beyond the Moreton Bay district could begin?

3 Sources 4.11.5 and 4.11.6 recount the same event. What is the major point of difference in these accounts? Write an account of this incident as if you are a historian explaining the different versions of the event.

4 How do historians make judgements about events in history when there is contradictory evidence such as this? What else might you need to make an informed judgement about this incident?

UNDERSTANDING AND EVALUATING

5 In Source 4.11.7, why might the writer think it important that the Native Police in Queensland were Aboriginal People from New South Wales and distant places?

6 The role of native police is a sensitive issue in Australian history. What does it tell us about the complex relations that emerged between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians and between Indigenous Australians themselves?

7 Source 4.11.10 was written in 1911. What does this tell you about attitudes that still existed at that time?

UNDERSTANDING, ANALYSING AND CREATING

8 Look at Sources 4.11.9 and 4.11.11. Oscar was born in about 1877 in the Palmer River region of Far North Queensland. Not much is known about him except that he was badly burnt as a child and was given by police to Augustus Glissen, a property manager. You can also go to the National Museum of Australia's website and search by 'Oscar's sketchbook' to see more of his work and read what little is known about him. Oscar drew his sketches from what he remembered of his life.

a Using the information you have found, write a story about Oscar's life.

b Do you think Oscar's drawings are useful evidence? Why would the National Museum of Australia want to collect, preserve and display such evidence?

CONNECTIONS TO...

THE SHORT- AND LONG-TERM IMPACTS OF THE MOVEMENTS OF PEOPLE

UNIT 12

IMPACTS ON INDIGENOUS POPULATIONS

All over the world, imperialism and colonialism led to long-term changes in the lives of indigenous people. European attitudes to African people allowed the slave trade to flourish. The movement of millions of people into the Americas and Australia had a devastating impact on indigenous people.

Estimates of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population in 1788 vary from a minimum of 315 000 to over one million. By 1901, the number it had fallen to less than 80 000. This drastic reduction was due to introduced diseases, violent conflicts and the loss of land.

> *In the beginning of ... April [1789] numbers of the natives were found dead with the small pox in different parts of the harbour; and an old man and a boy of eight years of age were brought to the hospital. The man died, but the boy recovered ... It is not possible to determine the number of natives who were carried off by this fatal disorder. It may be great; but judging from the information of the native now living with us ... one-half of those who inhabit this part of the country died.*

SOURCE 4.12.1 From a letter by Governor Phillip to Lord Sydney, 13 February 1790, quoted in *Understanding Australian History*, by Robert Darlington and John Hospodaryk, 1993

British ideas were radically different from those of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People. The British believed land should be cultivated and fenced and people should live in one place. They failed to understand the nomadic lifestyles of most Aboriginal People and the way they managed the resources of their country. The Aboriginal People did not willingly give up their traditional land, resulting in conflicts between the traditional owners of the land and the colonists. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People were seen as inferior because they did not share British ideas about land or how they should live their lives. Prejudice soon gave way to racism.

YEAR	POPULATION
1788	315 000 (minimum)
1901	80 000
1921	65 000
1944	60 000
1954	70 000
1961	80 000
1966	90 000
1986	230 000
2006	455 000

SOURCE 4.12.2 Indigenous population 1788–2006, from census figures, Australian Bureau of Statistics

DID YOU KNOW?

FOR ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE, THE FIRST FLEET WAS A DISASTER.

At least half of the indigenous population in the Sydney area died of European diseases in the two years following its arrival. Because Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People had lived in isolation from Europe for tens of thousands of years, they had not built up immunity to diseases such as smallpox, influenza and measles. Epidemics swept through the indigenous population with catastrophic results.

> *From the conduct of the aborigines in the settlement it is evident that they are remarkably honest people ...*
>
> *Their plundering the houses of Van Diemen's Land settlers must therefore be accounted for on the principles of war. The whites had taken possession of their country, without their consent, and in many instances had taken away their women, or violated them, and killed the men. They therefore watched their opportunities to retaliate, and (as is common in the wars of white people) they did not distinguish betwixt the more peaceable settlers and those who had used them brutally, and they looked upon the most peaceable as intruders upon their territory.*

SOURCE 4.12.3 From the journal of James Backhouse, an English missionary who arrived at the Van Diemen's Land settlement in 1832, quoted in *Southern Voices*, by Robert Engwerda, 1999

IMPACTS ON IMMIGRANT POPULATIONS

In 1830, Australia's non-indigenous population was about 70 000. By the time convict transportation ended in 1868, it had grown to about 1.5 million. Once the number of free settlers increased the colonies did not have to rely on convict labour. Large-scale immigration also meant that the proportion of women grew to almost half by the end of the century. More people could marry and have families and it was common to have at least five children.

Rapid population growth due to high birth rates and immigration resulted in the colonies becoming more self-sufficient and more prosperous. Towns and cities grew as the rise of manufacturing industries generated jobs and business opportunities. By 1901, about two-thirds of the population lived in urban areas.

Most of the people who moved to Australia between 1788 and 1901 were from Britain or Ireland. The remainder were mostly from other European countries, particularly Germany, and from China. By the time of Federation, the vast majority of the population were descended from British and Irish immigrants or were immigrants from Britain or Ireland.

Many people who moved to Australia had never benefited from the system of hereditary privilege and the class distinction in their homelands. They liked the idea that effort and merit could win a decent living and respect. The popularity of ideas such as egalitarianism and mateship have their roots in Australia's convict and immigrant past.

YEAR	POPULATION ('000)
1800	5
1810	12
1820	34
1830	70
1840	190
1850	405
1860	1146
1870	1648
1880	2232
1890	3151
1900	3765

SOURCE 4.12.4

Non-Aboriginal population 1800–1910, *Australian Year Book 1998* and *Australian Historical Populations Statistics 2008*, Australian Bureau of Statistics

IMPACTS ON SLAVE POPULATIONS

Laws passed in the North American colonies in the mid-1600s made slavery hereditary—children born to slave women automatically became slaves themselves. By 1860, even though less than 10 per cent of African slaves had been brought to North America, more than half of all New World slaves lived in the United States. Most of them had been born there. About two-thirds were involved in the production of cotton. After the cotton gin was invented

SOURCE 4.12.5

Major world migration flows since 1700

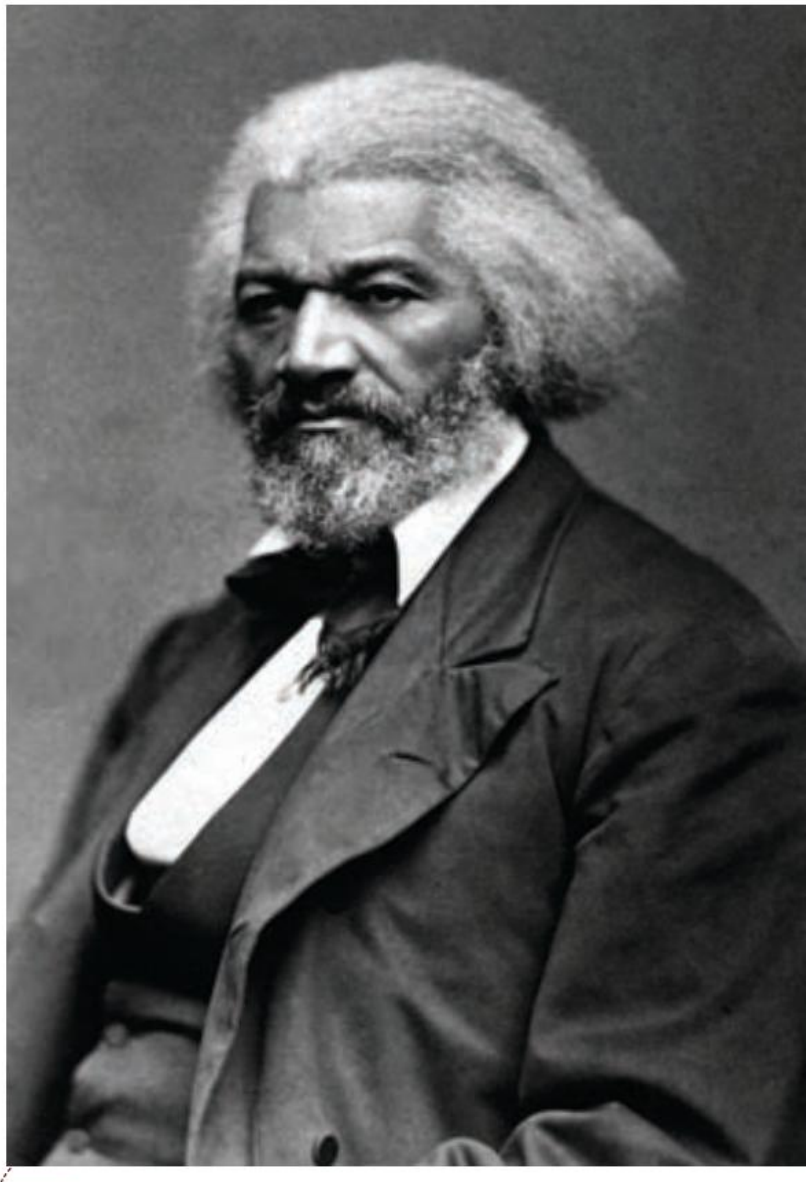
in 1793, cotton production became even more profitable. More plantations were established and the demand for slaves went up. Much of this demand was met by the domestic trade.

The campaign to abolish slavery began in the 1760s. It was a long time before the campaign was successful, because of the importance of slavery to the European and American economies. Anti-slavery societies were founded in 1788 in Britain and in 1833 in the United States. Many Americans realised that it was hypocritical to embrace the ideals in the Declaration of Independence while supporting slavery. The Declaration states that all human beings are born with the rights to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.

From 1791, the British Anti-Slavery Society was supported in Parliament by William Wilberforce. A Bill to abolish the slave trade was finally implemented in 1808, but ownership of slaves was legal in British colonies until 1833. The United States finally abolished slavery in 1865 and the last New World slaves were emancipated in Brazil in 1888.

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

SOURCE 4.12.6 Frederick Douglass, former slave, commenting on the persistence of racial prejudice in the USA, 1894



SOURCE 4.12.7 Frederick Douglass, c. 1848

TIME TO THINK...

Use these deep questions in small group or class discussions, as your teacher decides.

1 PERSPECTIVES AND EMPATHY

- **a** What would it be like to move to a strange country on the other side of the world if you knew you could never go home again?
- **b** How would you survive if you lost your home and had no way to support yourself?

2 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- **a** How have indigenous people continued to maintain their culture despite the radical changes brought by European settlement?
- **b** Has globalisation affected our attitudes to different cultures and places?

3 CAUSE AND EFFECT

- **a** What are some of the legacies of colonialism that cause conflict in the modern world?
- **b** What are the consequences in rural areas when large numbers of people move away?

4 EVIDENCE AND CONTESTABILITY

- **a** Do movements of people help to make the world a better place?
- **b** What evidence could you use to support your view?

#1 A convict's life

Transport yourself back in time to the days of the early colony, when convicts were being transported and Australia was still a largely unexplored continent. You are about to research and assume a new identity for yourself—as a real convict!

Your task involves compiling a background study of one particular convict and then using this information, as well as your imagination, to write a story focusing on one chapter of their life in the colony. To do this successfully you will need to select a well-known convict so that there is ample material available upon which to base your story. Some well-known convicts are listed below, or you may decide to choose your own.

- Margaret Dawson
- Francis Greenway
- John Caesar (Black Caesar)
- Mary Reibey
- Martin Cash
- Mary Wade
- Francis MacNamara (Frank the poet)
- Mary Bryant
- Joseph Wild
- James Wilson

Compile a background study of your convict, including details of their early life, family, friends or associates and loved ones, crimes and sentences, arrival at the colony, details of life as a convict (including details of the penal settlement where the most time was spent), important events, successes (contributions) or failures, and later life.

Use your study to choose a period of time in your convict's life upon which to base your story. Consider the character and background of your convict, the setting (when and where the action takes place should be historically accurate), and the important events or details you would like to include when planning the piece.

Ensure that your story is structured correctly. Use separate paragraphs for each new idea, and include an orientation (beginning), a complication (the development and heightening of a problem or crisis) and an end (the resolution of the problem). Attempt to use your words as descriptively as possible, so that your convict's story comes to life for the reader.

Submit the background study with your completed story. You may even decide to read your story to the class.

INQUIRY TASKS

#2 The emigrant experience

There are hundreds of stories, novels, autobiographies and poems about what it means to leave home and go to a new place. The emigrant experience is also a popular subject of movies and documentaries. Use the internet to search for books, movies or documentaries about migration or choose one you already know and like.

Prepare a presentation that answers the following questions:

a Where did they come from and where did they go?
b Did the person or people leave voluntarily or were they forced to move?
c If their move was voluntary, what factors motivated it? If it was involuntary, who forced them to move?
d Which emotions or feelings are the strongest on departure?
e How did they travel to their destination?
f What were their reactions when they arrived?
g How did their life change as a result?

Include pictures and a map in your presentation. Think laterally about what you could include—for example photographs of places that are mentioned or types of transport. If the work is set in the past, consider including pictures that show activities or fashions of the time; or use pictures that contrast what was left behind with their new life.

#3 Impacts on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander populations

Research the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander history of your local area or a nearby town or city. Sources of information include people, the internet, your library and the local historical society.

a Who are the traditional owners?
b What information is available about their way of life before European settlement?
c Did their way of life change? When?
d How did European settlement affect the natural environment? How did this affect food supplies or sacred sites?
e Can you illustrate your research with pictures, for example old photos or drawings of the people or the area?
f Can you include any anecdotes or stories?
g Do Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People live in the area today? Why or why not?

Present your research to the class or create a display for the classroom.

SOURCE **4.13.1**

Couple and child in the front formal garden of their slab hut cottage, Hill End, New South Wales, c. 1870. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

CHAPTER 5

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- What were the main features of Asian societies at the time of contact with Europeans?
- What were the factors that allowed Europeans to gain influence in Asia?
- How did European powers influence Asian societies during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
- How did different Asian societies respond to Western influence?
- How did Asian societies influence other nations at the turn of the century?

DEPTH STUDY 2
AUSTRALIA AND ASIA

As sea travel became faster and safer, traders looked to Asia for raw materials and products that could be sold to Europe. Chinese silk and porcelain, as well as spices and silk from India and the Far East, were among the most popular items with Europe's upper class during the seventeenth century. By 1757, the powerful British East India Company had gained control over the Indian subcontinent. One hundred years later, after suppressing a widespread rebellion against the company, the British government took direct control of India and the company was abolished. This was the beginning of a period known as the British Raj. French influence was extended further east in Indochina, while in the East Indies the Dutch brought dozens of different language groups and cultures under their control.

China and Japan both resisted Western intrusion. However, their armies and navies generally lacked the technology to counter Western threats. Against its will, China was forced to open its doors to Western trade and Christian missionaries. In Japan, a period of rapid modernisation and acceptance of Western ideas and values saw the country quickly become a major empire in its own right.

ASIA AND THE WORLD

SOURCE 5.0.1 Nineteenth-century French advertisement featuring a Japanese celebration

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1750–1918

1750

1784 British government drastically cuts the import duty on tea

1793 First British trade mission to China

1796 Emperor Jiaqing bans the sale of opium in China

1800

1830 End of the Java War

1842 First Opium War ends with the signing of the Treaty of Nanking

1850

1853 Commodore Perry's gunboats arrive in Japan

1858 Second Opium War ends with the signing of the Treaty of Tientsin

1868 Restoration of the emperor as the ruler of Japan

1870 Beginning of the 'liberal' policy in the Dutch East Indies

1873 Beginning of 30-year war between the Dutch and the Acehnese

1889 The 'Meiji' Constitution introduces basic democracy in Japan

1900

1902 Anglo–Japanese alliance signed

1904 Japan and Russia declare war

1895 Chinese defeat by the Japanese at the naval battle of Wei Hai Wei

SOURCE 5.1.1 Timeline of growth of European influence in Asia

SOURCE 5.1.2 Asia–Pacific region, showing areas of European influence by 1901

RESPONSES TO EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM

CHINA

By the beginning of the nineteenth century, British imports of Chinese tea resulted in a major trade imbalance with China. A key reason for this was the restriction of British merchants to just one Chinese port—Canton. To solve this problem, British merchants began supplying the Chinese market with illegal opium, an addictive drug extracted from the sap of the opium poppy. Opium addiction became a major social and economic problem for the Chinese as the number of addicts grew rapidly.

In response to the illegal trade, Commissioner Lin Zexu was appointed by the emperor to seize and destroy all foreign opium. This soon led the British and other European powers to declare war on China. The two Opium Wars fought in the period 1839–58 showed that the Chinese navy was no match for modern European technology and firepower. At the end of the Opium Wars China was forced to open to European trade.

JAPAN

Despite being forced out of isolation by Commodore Perry of the United States of America, the Japanese quickly realised that they were in no position to defeat the West. This led to the signing of several 'unequal treaties', which were a major humiliation for the Japanese. Eventually, supporters of the emperor accepted that in order to avoid foreign interference in the future, they would have to learn to compete with the West. With the restoration of the emperor to the throne in 1868, a new policy of modernisation was pursued. This saw the Japanese reform their education system, industry, military and government according to Western ideas and principles.

INDIA

The Portuguese were the first Europeans to arrive in India, establishing a colony in Goa in 1510. With the gradual decline of the Mughal Empire during the eighteenth century, private companies from Britain, France, the Netherlands and Denmark all sought to extend their influence further into India.

Although it had originally been established as a private business venture, the British East India Company went on to become the dominant foreign power in India. Its official rule lasted for 101 years, ending in 1858 when a large-scale mutiny by the Indian people forced the British government to take control. This marked the beginning of the period known as the British Raj.

Under British control, India was modernised. A rail, road and postal network unified the country under British rule, and English became the common language for India's growing middle class.

Over time, Indians responded in different ways to British rule. Some western-educated Indians embraced modernisation under the British, while others began to demand greater freedoms and independence.

THE DUTCH EAST INDIES

The Dutch were among the first European traders to establish a presence in South Asia. By 1619, the Dutch East India Company had virtual control of the important spice trade that stretched from the East Indies (known as Indonesia today) around the Cape of Good Hope and into Europe.

In 1801, the decline of the Dutch East India Company meant that control of its territories was taken over by the Dutch government. This began a seventy-year period of direct rule, during which indigenous peasants were forced to produce a set quota of 'cash crops' for export to Holland. During this time, the Dutch colonial army fought a series of difficult wars to end indigenous resistance to their rule. By 1870, a new policy was needed and a 'liberal era' commenced, in which only indigenous people could own land and the Dutch East Indies was opened to private trade.

SOURCE 5.1.3 *Scene in Bombay*, by Robert Grindlay, 1826

UNIT 2

INTRODUCING CHINA

SOURCE 5.2.1 Shunzhi, the first Qing emperor to rule over China, Mongolia and Manchuria

BIRTH OF A DYNASTY

The Qing dynasty took control of China in 1644 after its armies captured Peking and made it the capital of their new empire. Shortly after, the last Ming emperor committed suicide and Shunzhi was declared the first Qing emperor over all of China, Mongolia and Manchuria.

The Qing were Manchus from Manchuria, to the north of China. Most Chinese people were of Han descent and did not consider the Manchu to be the rightful rulers of China. The vast majority therefore wanted to restore the Chinese rule of the Ming dynasty. To deal with this large-scale opposition, Shunzhi ordered all Chinese men to dress as Manchus. They also had to shave the front of their heads and plait their remaining hair in a long pigtail at the back, as was Manchu custom. This was done so that the Qing could easily distinguish their supporters from their enemies. Many Manchu nobles also drove the Chinese off their lands. Eventually, supporters of the former Ming dynasty throughout China rose in revolt against Qing rule.

In 1645, Qing soldiers massacred hundreds of thousands of their enemies at Yangzhou. This was done to teach the rest of the Chinese population that resistance against Qing rule would be met with brutal terror. By 1662, the last of the resistance had been defeated, allowing the Qing dynasty to rule China for the next two hundred years.

QING SOCIETY

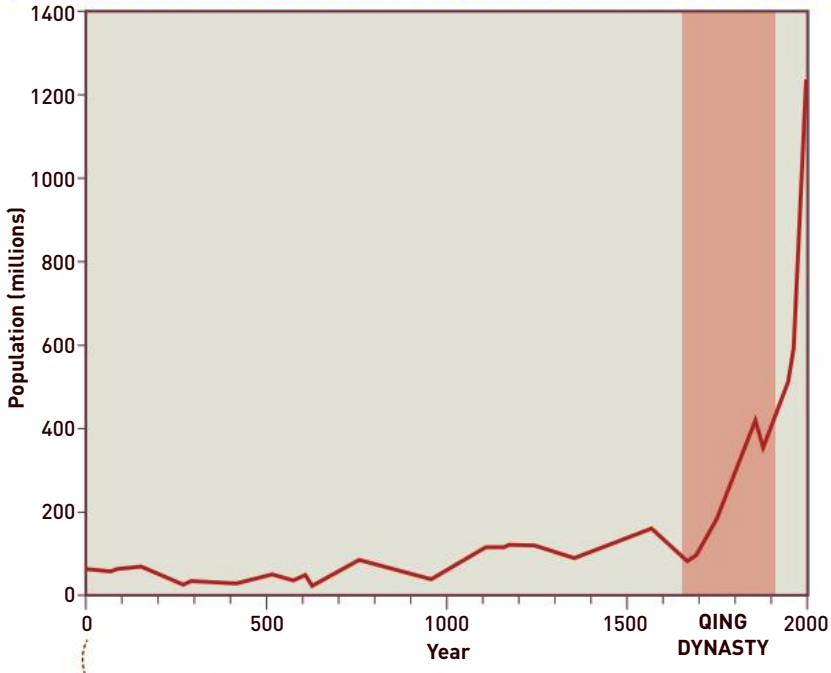
GOVERNMENT

The emperor was the absolute ruler in Qing China. All state policies were determined by him, as were all official appointments and dismissals. He had the power to create new laws and cancel those he thought were unnecessary or harmful to his rule. He commanded the army and made treaties with foreign powers. He was also considered the religious head of society. Natural disasters such as floods and droughts were thought to be punishment from heaven for his sins, and so it was vital that he ruled wisely and for the benefit of his people.

The emperor relied on a hierarchy of officials below him to administer the empire. His closest advisers were eighty **censors** whom he appointed to report back on problems throughout the provinces, and in the various government administrations. These censors acted as the emperor's 'eyes and ears' and were the only people permitted to advise him or criticise official policy.

Below the emperor was the Grand Council, made up of thirty-two secretaries, half of whom were Chinese and half Manchu. Alongside the Grand Council were the Six Boards, each responsible for a different area of government administration. In order of importance, these were the Board of the Civil Office, the Board of Revenue, the Board of Rites, the Board of War, the Board of Punishments and the Board of Public Works. Leading government officials came from a few thousand noble families.

SOURCE 5.2.2 Temple in The Forbidden City, Beijing (formerly Peking)



SOURCE 5.2.3 Population growth during the Qing dynasty, 1644–1912

Q
1. Describe the trend in Chinese population growth before the beginning of the Qing dynasty.
2. What happened to China's population during the Qing dynasty?
3. When did China experience the strongest population growth?

THE PEASANTS

The majority of people in China during the time of the Qing dynasty were **peasants**. They made up about 80 per cent of the population. Peasants or commoners were the backbone of the rural economy and were referred to as 'good people'. They paid high taxes to local government officials and high rents to their landlords. In order to control such a large proportion of society, the Qing government forced peasants to spend some of the year working for no pay on public works such as roads, bridges, defensive walls, dams and canals. As the population of peasants increased throughout the period of the Qing dynasty, competition for land and food grew, causing periods of famine. This sometimes led to rebellions against the Qing ruling dynasty.

HEREDITARY PROFESSIONALS

Virtually any occupation requiring training or special skill was passed down from father to son. This included doctors and priests, as well as brewers, tea cultivators and silk producers. **Merchants** were considered to be at the bottom of the social ladder, regardless of how wealthy they became. This was because Confucian scholars frowned upon greed and the pursuit of profit. Most ordinary people also felt that merchants made their living by exploiting others. Along with artisans, singers, actors and prostitutes, merchants belonged to a small class known as 'mean people'. The law forbade 'mean people' from marrying 'good people'.

SOURCE 5.2.4 Scroll painting of Manchu scholars receiving the scriptures, by Huang Shen (1687–1772), Qing dynasty

Q What does this source reveal about the attitude of Manchu scholars to foreign religious works?

SCHOLAR-OFFICIALS

Scholar-officials were the moral guardians of society. They often gave public lectures and published pamphlets calling for virtuous and honourable behaviour. Local scholar-officials raised money for public works such as the construction of dykes, dams and canals. They were also responsible for providing rice to the poorest peasants in the local area.

To distinguish themselves, scholar-officials wore black gowns with blue borders, and rode on horses with highly decorated saddles and reins. Once he had risen to the first rank of officialdom, a scholar was entitled to have his robe embroidered with nine pythons. The scholar-officials were exempt from paying most taxes and could not be punished by a local magistrate if they committed a crime.

Scholar-officials had to pass a rigorous examination in order to obtain the literary degree needed to work in the civil service. Years of study could be richly rewarded with high status and many privileges. An aspiring scholar could spend his early life preparing for the civil service examination, which was held every three years. It was not uncommon for individuals to spend an entire lifetime studying for the exam without ever passing.

DID YOU KNOW?

ONLY 'GOOD PEOPLE' WERE PERMITTED TO SIT FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE EXAM; 'MEAN PEOPLE' WERE FORBIDDEN.

This was a system based on merit rather than family status, as even a peasant could theoretically become an important civil servant if he was bright enough and studied hard. In reality, most peasants remained illiterate for the duration of their lives.

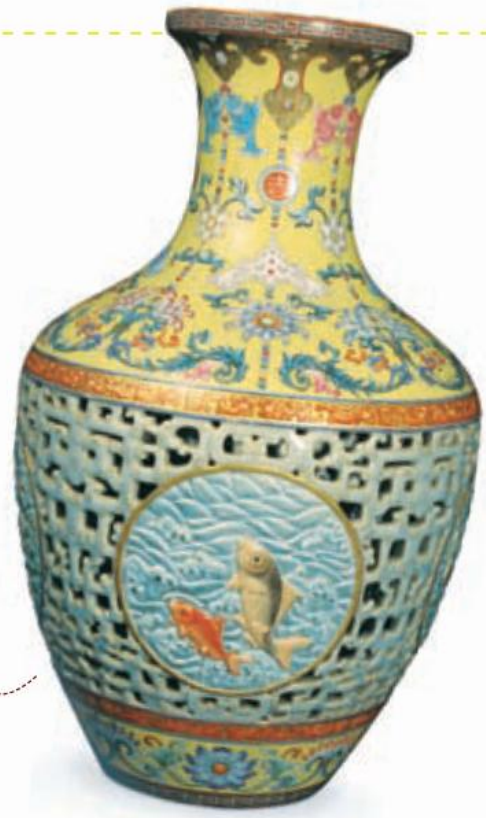
LITERATURE, ART AND ARCHITECTURE

EMPEROR KANGXI

The importance of learning in Qing China was demonstrated in the saying that 'all activities are unworthy; only learning is lofty'. The second Qing emperor, Kangxi, who ruled from 1661 to 1722, was well read in Chinese classics and Confucian philosophical writings, and encouraged the development of learning throughout the empire. During Kangxi's sixty-one years as ruler, Chinese literature flourished. Among his most notable achievements was the introduction of a dictionary of Chinese characters, which became known as the Kangxi dictionary. This dictionary was an attempt by the Manchu emperor to gain the support of his traditional opponents, the Chinese. He also employed European artists, whom he allowed to stay inside the Forbidden City. Kangxi built several large baking kilns inside his palace and produced numerous pieces of exquisite porcelain, which were later copied by Europeans.

EMPEROR QIANLONG

Art and literature also flourished in the second half of the eighteenth century under the emperor Qianlong, who claimed to have written over 43 000 poems. He was also fond of paintings, ceramics and lacquer work. Qianlong was the first Qing emperor to show European influence in his architectural and artistic tastes. This gave rise to a new artistic movement in China, which combined elements of traditional Chinese art and architecture with European fashions. Qianlong was particularly fond of producing life-sized artworks so that he could feel a part of the scene on the canvas.



SOURCE 5.2.5 Vase made for Emperor Qianlong in the late 1700s, which sold at auction in 2010 for £43 million (or around $66 million)

Q Why do you think this vase is so valuable? Is it just because it is old?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- censors
- merchants
- peasants
- scholar-officials

2 Use the information in this unit to answer the following 'Who am I?' questions.

a I was the first emperor of the Qing dynasty.

b We were a group of people from Manchuria who brought an end to Han Chinese rule.

c I am a place where hundreds of thousands of enemies were killed by the Qing army.

d I was one of the officials permitted to advise the emperor.

e We made up 80 per cent of the Chinese population during Qing times.

f We were considered to be 'mean people'.

g We were exempt from paying most taxes and could not be punished by the local magistrates.

h I was the emperor who first built large kilns inside my palace.

i I wrote over 43 000 poems.

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'Birth of a dynasty'.

a Who were the Qing dynasty?

b Why were most Chinese distrustful of Qing rulers?

c What restrictions were placed on Han Chinese under Qing rule and why?

d For how long did the Qing dynasty rule China?

Evaluating and creating

4 Reread 'Birth of a dynasty', 'Qing society' and 'Literature, art and architecture'. Working in teams of three, undertake *one* of the following tasks.

a Write an information report on one of the groups in Qing society mentioned in this unit. Compile your information under the following headings:

- size of the group
- main functions in Qing society
- relationship with other groups
- challenges in life

or

b Write an information report on one of the emperors mentioned in this unit. Compile your information under the following headings:

- ascent to the throne
- duration of rule
- major achievements
- impact on the life of his subjects

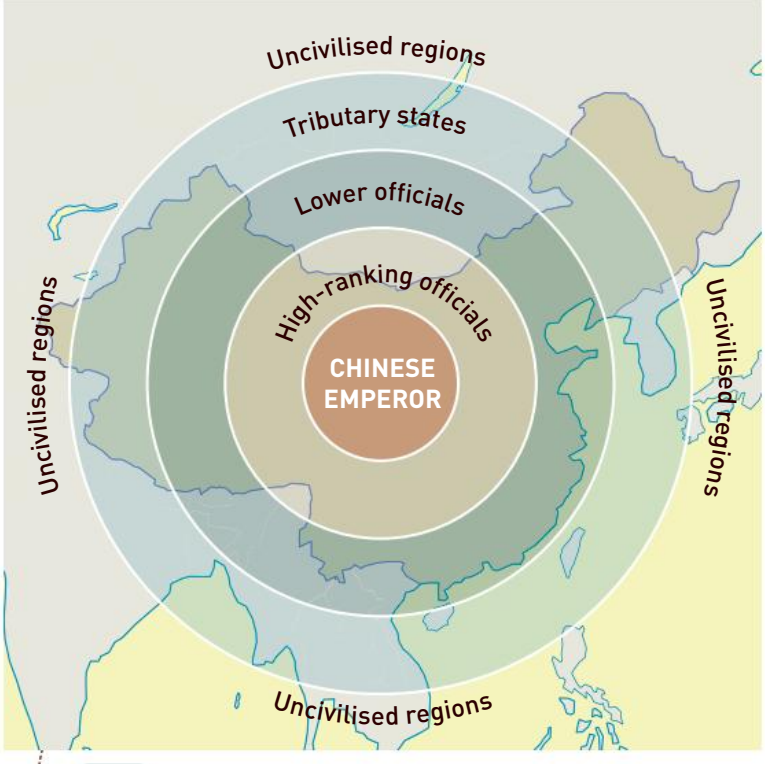
Include relevant digital images in your report and be sure to provide an executive summary on the first page. This should clearly outline the purpose of the report and its key contents.

UNIT 3

CHANGE AND CONTINUITY IN CHINA

EARLY CONTACT WITH THE MIDDLE KINGDOM

The mandarin word for China (Zhōngguó) means **Middle Kingdom**. This reflects an ancient Confucian belief that China was, both physically and culturally, at the centre of the Earth. Chinese people believed that their emperor received his authority to rule directly from heaven, known as the **Mandate of Heaven**. As long as the emperor governed for the benefit of his subjects, he would keep his mandate. Accordingly, he was referred to as the **Son of Heaven** and all the territory under his control was known as the 'Celestial Kingdom'. Lands beyond this realm belonged either to less civilised neighbours who owed their allegiance to China, or to uncivilised 'barbarians'.



SOURCE 5.3.1 The Confucian world view of China as the Middle Kingdom

Q According to this digram, how were lands beyond China classified?

PAYING TRIBUTE TO THE EMPEROR

China's weaker Asian neighbours recognised its military might and economic power. Korea, Annam (part of present-day Vietnam), Siam (present-day Thailand), Laos and Burma all accepted China's status as the 'Middle Kingdom' and were eager to maintain good relations with their powerful neighbour. To do so they were required to pay regular tribute to the Chinese emperor.

Tributary missions often involved long journeys to Peking by thousands of envoys, courtiers and merchants. Visiting envoys submitted their petitions before the emperor and presented their 'tribute' in the form of gold, silver and expensive gifts. These meetings were highly ceremonial affairs at which visiting envoys were required to perform the full **kowtow** before the Chinese emperor. The kowtow was a gesture of deep respect: the envoy would kneel before the emperor, spread himself face-first on the floor, and then knock his head on the ground nine times. In return, the emperor would promise to support the tributary king by protecting his territory from invasion and sending support in times of hardship.

Tributary missions were also important for trade with China, as travelling merchants were permitted to sell their goods outside their residence while in Peking.

A DYNASTY IN DECLINE

By the early nineteenth century, the Qing dynasty, which had ruled China since 1644, was in serious decline. Corruption by high-ranking officials was widespread and often went ignored by the emperor. Local officials grew rich by overtaxing the peasants, as they were permitted to keep any additional revenue they collected. Rapid population growth and a lack of available land during the eighteenth century also contributed to major food shortages. All these factors resulted in widespread dissatisfaction with the Manchu rulers, who were forced to spend large sums on subduing internal revolts by secret societies.

The nine-year military campaign from 1796 to 1804 against the White Lotus society, a religious secret society, revealed the incompetence and disorganisation of the imperial army. These problems made it difficult for Qing rulers to resist foreigners determined to gain access to Chinese markets.

JESUIT SCHOLARS

Over time Chinese scholars and officials began to see the value of European learning and technology. The Emperor Shunzhi appointed a German Jesuit priest, Adam Schall von Bell, as the 'Master of Universal Mysteries'. Schall was a learned astronomer and played a key role in the creation of the Chinese calendar. As a result of his importance to the emperor, the Jesuits were permitted to build churches and preach Christianity throughout China. It is estimated that between 1640 and 1650, the number of Christian converts in China more than doubled, from 60 000 to 150 000.

TRADE

GROWTH OF FOREIGN TRADE

In 1557, the Portuguese established a trading post at Macau on China's southern coast. This allowed the Portuguese to control all foreign trade within the region. The Qing dynasty was determined to limit foreign influence and forbade all inland trade. In 1685, the Emperor Kangxi allowed foreigners to trade with China, but this was more of a gesture of good will than an economic necessity.

In 1689, the British East India Company sent its first ship to the southern Chinese port of Canton (present-day Guangzhou). Growing demand in Britain for Chinese tea, silk and rhubarb resulted in a steady increase in trade. In the sub-tropical climate of southern China, however, British merchants were unable to sell woollen goods. In 1753, the British East India Company decided to trade further north at Ningbo, where they hoped the colder climate would provide a larger market for British woollens. The Chinese government responded by increasing import tariffs at Ningbo and thereby making trade unprofitable.

During the eighteenth century, Chinese silk and porcelain were considered the finest in the world by the European upper class. In China, however, there was very little demand for European manufactured goods, as the emperor was determined that China should remain self-sufficient. Trade between Europe and China was therefore slow to develop. By 1800, Chinese tea accounted for approximately 90 per cent of all British trade with China. The British East India Company imported over approximately 10.5 million kilograms per year. By 1808, the import duty on Chinese tea made up 10 per cent of Britain's total government revenue.

SOURCE 5.3.2

The Astronomers, after designs by Guy-Louis Vernansal, about 1697–1705. Held at the J. Paul Getty Museum, Los Angeles. This tapestry shows Adam Schall von Bell and other Jesuit astronomers with Emperor Shunzhi.

Q
1 List the various European items shown in the painting.
2 Note the dress worn by the Jesuits. What does this show about their relationship with the Chinese?

DID YOU KNOW?

CHINESE SCHOLARS THOUGHT CHINA WAS THE CENTRE OF A FLAT EARTH.

In the late sixteenth century, an Italian Jesuit priest named Matteo Ricci gave a map of the known world to the Chinese imperial court. This gift was politely dismissed, however, as China and the continent of Asia was located on the right side of the map rather than in the centre. Realising his offence, Ricci produced a new map with Asia situated in the middle.

LIMITING TRADE: THE CANTON SYSTEM

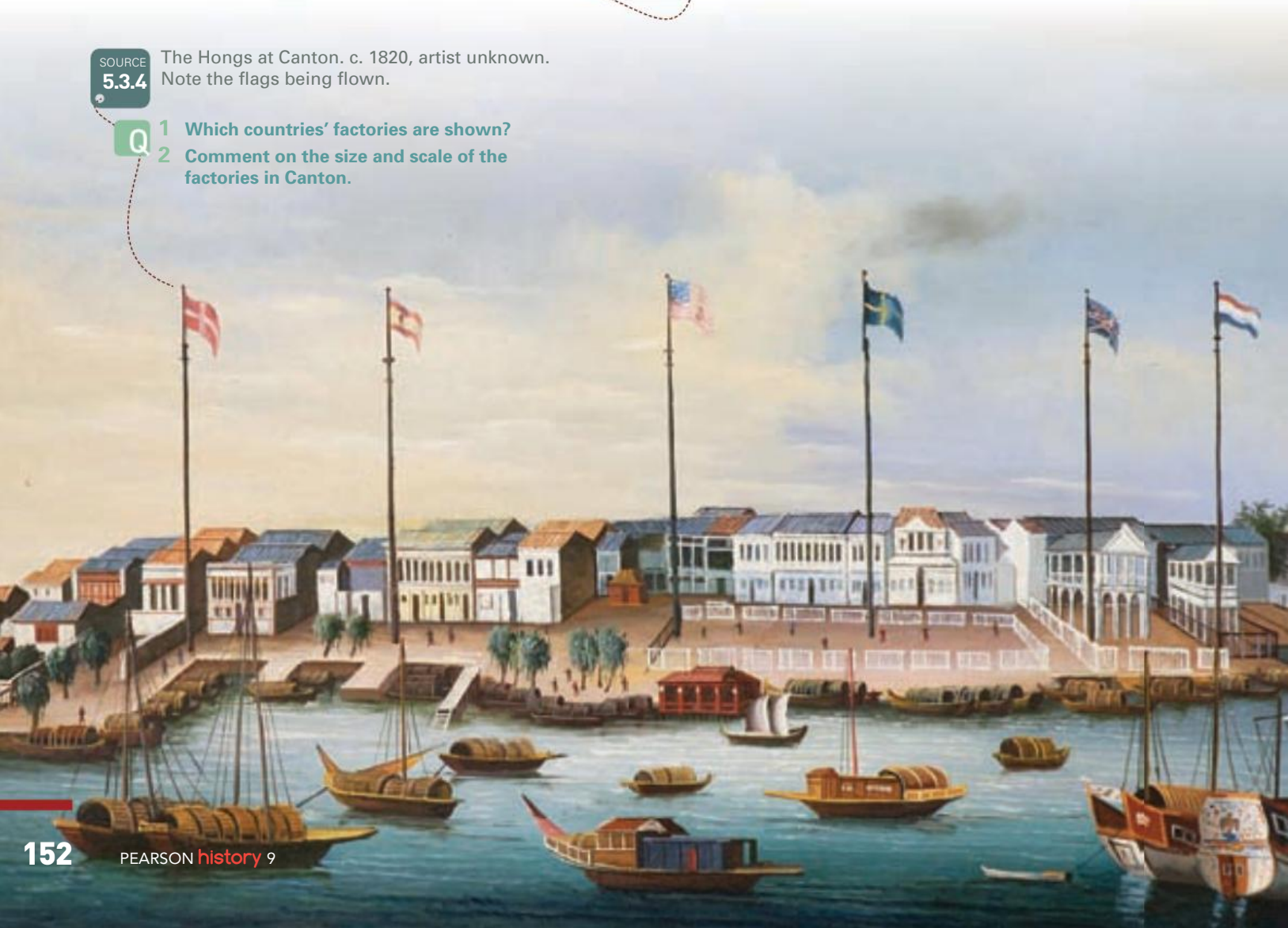
To restrict the influence and activity of foreign merchants in China, a unique system of trade known as the **Canton System** was introduced. All foreign trade had to be conducted through the port of Canton in the far south of the empire. This ensured that foreigners stayed well away from the imperial city of Peking in the north. Interaction between foreigners and ordinary Chinese people was not allowed and all dealings had to be with one of thirteen government-appointed **Hong merchants**. Each Hong merchant had responsibility for overseeing a foreign factory or agency in Canton. All foreigners were subject to Chinese law, which many Europeans objected to, as punishments were often extreme and not in accordance with the European sense of justice.

SOURCE 5.3.3 A selection of regulations on foreign trade in Canton in the early nineteenth century, adapted from *The Rise of Modern China*, by Imanuel C. Y. Hsu, 1983

1. *No foreign women or firearms are permitted in the factories.*
2. *All captains must register their ships with the Chinese authorities in Macau.*
3. *Foreign factories are not permitted to employ Chinese maids.*
4. *No foreigner is permitted to make direct contact with Chinese people.*
5. *Foreigners are not permitted to row their boats in the Pearl River.*
6. *All trade must be conducted via the Hong merchants—no foreigner is permitted to directly communicate with private Chinese merchants.*
7. *Foreigners can move freely only within 100 yards [91.44 metres] of their factory.*
8. *All foreigners must leave Canton after the trading season [October to January].*
9. *Foreigners are not permitted to learn Chinese or purchase Chinese books.*
10. *Hong merchants are not permitted to go into debt to foreigners.*

Q
1. **Which rules restricted the movement of foreigners in Canton?**
2. **Which rules were intended to prevent contact between foreigners and Chinese?**
3. **Why do you suppose that foreigners were prohibited from employing Chinese maids?**

SOURCE 5.3.4 The Hongs at Canton. c. 1820, artist unknown. Note the flags being flown.



Q
1. **Which countries' factories are shown?**
2. **Comment on the size and scale of the factories in Canton.**

ATTEMPTS TO OPEN CHINA

As they had no interest in European products, the Chinese insisted that all foreigners had to pay for their goods with silver. The ships of the British East India Company were therefore loaded with huge cargoes of silver bullion on their voyages from London to Canton. This resulted in a large **trade deficit** for Britain, which the government could address only by increasing its exports to China and reducing the outflow of silver. This was impossible while the Canton System remained in place. In 1793 and then again in 1816, efforts were made to end restrictions on British trade and establish a permanent diplomatic residence in Peking.

MACARTNEY'S OFFENCE

Until Lord Macartney's mission to China in 1793, no European diplomat had ever been granted an audience with the Chinese emperor. Europe was considered too far away to be part of the tributary system. In 1792, the Chinese emperor Qianlong was informed that Lord Macartney was coming as part of a 'tributary mission' to help celebrate the emperor's eighty-third birthday.

The eighty-four members of Macartney's mission brought with them an array of gifts for the emperor valued at over £15 000, including a planetarium, mechanical instruments and manufactured goods. On 14 September 1793, Macartney finally met with Qianlong but refused to perform the full ceremonial kowtow, believing this to be an act of submission. Due to Macartney's lack of respect, Qianlong refused to agree to the requests of the British government.

CHINESE PERSPECTIVES ON TRADE WITH BRITAIN

> *It is true that Europeans in the service of the dynasty have been permitted to live at Peking, but they are compelled to adopt Chinese dress, they are strictly confined to their own precincts and are never permitted to return home ... Your proposed envoy to my court could not be placed in a position similar to that of other European officials in Peking who are forbidden to leave China ... you would gain nothing by his residence in our midst.*

SOURCE 5.3.5 From Chinese Emperor Qianlong's letter to King George II of England, 3 October 1793

Q
1. What rules applied to the few Europeans living in Peking?
2. According to the emperor, why would Britain 'gain nothing' by having an ambassador in Peking?

> *Formerly Portugal presented tribute;*
> *Now England is paying homage.*
> *They have out-travelled Shu-hai and Heng-chang*;*
> *My Ancestors' merit and virtue must have reached their distant shores.*
> *Though their tribute is commonplace, my heart approves sincerely.*
> *Curios and the boasted ingenuity of their devices I prize not.*
> *Though what they bring is meagre, yet,*
> *In my kindness to men from afar I make generous return,*
> *Wanting to preserve my good health and power.*
>
> ** Famous travellers in Chinese mythology*

SOURCE 5.3.6 Poem written by Emperor Qianlong about Macartney's mission to China, quoted in *The Rise of Modern China*, by Immanuel C. Y. Hsu, 1983

Q
1. According to the poem, why did the British seek to meet the emperor?
2. What is the emperor's attitude towards the tribute presented by the British?

THE OPIUM TRADE

Unable to gain further 'trading privileges', British merchants looked for a product to sell that would be popular in China. The growing popularity of **opium** solved their problem and its sale gradually helped to reduce the shipments of silver leaving Britain.

Since 1773, the British East India Company had held a **monopoly** (exclusive trade) on the opium trade in India. Opium poppies were grown in Bengal. The sap was extracted and then turned into powder. The end-product was a highly addictive drug that became increasingly popular throughout China from the late eighteenth century. In 1796, Emperor Jiaqing banned the sale of opium but this had little effect. Illegal smuggling continued to feed growing demand for the drug.

YEAR	NUMBER OF CHESTS IMPORTED
1729	200
1790	4 000
1820	5 000
1830	16 000
1838	28 000
1858	70 000

SOURCE 5.3.7 Growth of opium imports into China

Q
1. Between which years did imports of opium into China grow the most?
2. Use the information in the text to explain why this increase occurred at this particular time.

In 1833, the British government ended the British East India Company's opium monopoly (or exclusive trade). This effectively allowed a greater number of merchants to trade in illegal opium. As a result, China was soon flooded with cheap opium, which caused even more widespread addiction.

It is estimated that at the height of the opium trade there were as many as ten million addicts throughout China and that about 20 to 30 per cent of government officials were opium users. This had severe social and economic consequences, as addicts became withdrawn and apathetic and spent most of their income on opium. Opium addiction was a problem for all classes of Chinese society—scholars and monks were just as likely to become addicts as soldiers and peasants.

The opium trade was a highly profitable business for British merchants. By 1836, Britain's trade deficit with China had been redressed, with £18 million worth of opium sold to China and £17 million of tea purchased. By 1850, the British East India Company was making an annual profit of £4 million from the sale of opium to China.

CHINA'S RESPONSE TO ILLEGAL OPIUM

In 1839, the emperor decided to act by appointing Lin Zexu as the imperial commissioner responsible for destroying the opium trade. Lin believed that opium was devastating his country and that before long the army would be unable to defend China. He arrested over 1600 Chinese opium dealers in Canton and confiscated over 42 000 pipes. Addicts who did not give up their opium habit within one year were to be punished severely. Commissioner Lin even wrote to Queen Victoria, pleading for her to stop the wicked trade.

On 18 March 1839, Lin ordered all foreign merchants to hand over their opium within three days and sign a pledge to never sell it again. When the merchants ignored this, Lin closed the port of Canton to all foreign shipping and seized control of the British factory with 350 people inside. To re-open the factory, free its occupants and restore trade, the British were instructed to hand over all their stocks of opium. The British government obliged and on 3 June, over 20 000 chests of opium were publicly destroyed. The British, however, demanded financial compensation for this loss of trade and advised merchants against signing the pledge to never sell opium again.

SOURCE 5.3.8 A Chinese opium den, c. 1900. Held in the Hulton-Deutsch Collection

A CHINESE PERSPECTIVE ON THE OPIUM TRADE

> *We have heard that in your own country opium is prohibited with the utmost strictness and severity: this is a strong proof that you know full well how hurtful it is to mankind. Since then you do not permit it to injure your own country, you ought not to have the injurious drug transferred to another country, and above all others, how much less to the Inner Land (i.e. China)!*

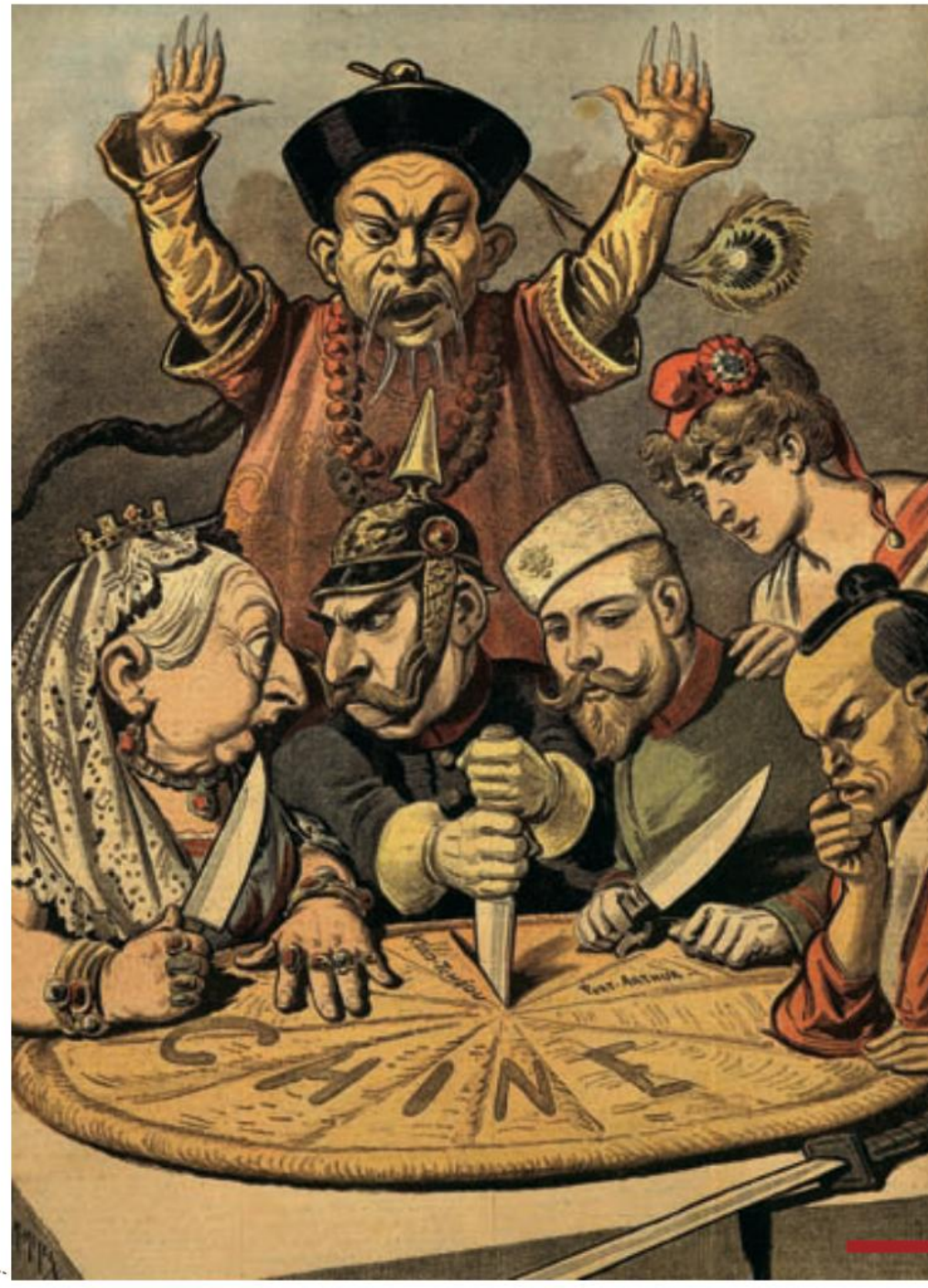
SOURCE 5.3.9 From a letter from the Imperial Commissioner Lin Zexu to Queen Victoria in 1839

Q
1. **Why did Commissioner Lin write to Queen Victoria?**
2. **What reasons does he give for his opposition to the opium trade?**

THE OPIUM WARS

In response to the destruction of opium, the British navy sent a fleet of warships to seize control of Canton and other coastal ports. Chinese wooden **junks** (sailing vessels) stood no chance against British steam-powered, iron-hulled ships. In 1842, the British fleet was able to occupy Shanghai and then proceed up the Yangtze River towards Nanking, bombarding several coastal towns along the way. Hostilities ceased on 29 August 1842, when the Chinese agreed to sign the Treaty of Nanking. This ceded control of Hong Kong to Britain and opened four new ports to British shipping (Amoy, Foochow, Ningbo and Shanghai). In addition, China agreed to pay the equivalent of $9 million in compensation for the opium that had been destroyed. In 1844, France and the United States took advantage of China's defeat by obtaining similar **unequal treaties**. These effectively ended the Canton system of trade and allowed the western powers to penetrate inland China.

For the next decade, Chinese authorities were reluctant to carry out the terms of settlement treaties, since these had been forced upon them against their will. This led to a second Opium War in 1856, with even worse consequences for the Chinese. The Treaty of Tientsin in 1858 required that eleven new ports be opened to foreign shipping and that all foreigners, including Christian missionaries, be allowed to travel freely throughout China. The 'Celestial Kingdom' was now entirely open to foreign influence and different powers began competing for their own **sphere of influence** within China.



SOURCE 5.3.10 'China, the cake of kings and emperors', from *Le Petit Journal*, 1898. The cartoon depicts European powers carving out different 'spheres of influence' in China.

Q **What is the overall message of this cartoon?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below:

- Canton System
- Hong merchant
- junks
- kowtow
- Mandate of Heaven
- Middle Kingdom
- monopoly
- opium
- sphere of influence
- Son of Heaven
- trade deficit
- tribute
- unequal treaties

2 Use a search engine to locate and download a blank outline map of East Asia. Locate the following places and features on the map: China, Korea, Japan, Annam (present-day Vietnam), Siam (present-day Thailand), Laos, Burma, Peking (present-day Beijing), Canton (present-day Guangzhou), Ningbo, the Pearl River, the Yangtze River. Add to this map as you continue to learn about nineteenth-century China.

Understanding

3 Use the events and corresponding dates in Units 2 and 3 to create a timeline titled 'The opening of China to the West'. You can do this by drawing a line from top to bottom of your page, about one-quarter of the way from the left. Place the date to the left of the line and a brief outline of the event to the right. Try to accurately show the distance of time between events with an appropriate gap between them.

Understanding and evaluating

4 Reread 'Early contact with the Middle Kingdom', 'Paying tribute to the emperor', 'A dynasty in decline' and 'Trade'.

a Explain the Chinese concept of the 'Middle Kingdom'.

b What error did Matteo Ricci make in creating his map?

c Who was Adam Schall von Bell and what was his significance?

d What items were sought from China during the eighteenth century?

e Why did China's neighbours see China as the dominant power?

f Why did other Asian kingdoms send tributary missions to the Chinese emperor?

g What was the kowtow and why was it considered important?

h What benefits did the tributary kingdom receive from China?

i How did tributary missions result in foreign trade with China?

5 Reread 'Growth of foreign trade', and then conduct independent research into the importance of tea throughout the British Empire. Create a mini display poster with images and information on *one* of the following topics:

- Origins and first uses of tea leaves
- Different types of tea and their historical usage
- Discovery of tea by the British
- Important tea-growing regions within the British Empire
- Popularity and growth of consumption.

6 Reread 'Limiting trade: the Canton system' and then create a detailed mind map titled 'Chinese restrictions on British trade'.

7 Reread 'A dynasty in decline' and 'Attempts to open China'.

a How did internal problems make it more difficult for the Chinese to stop European contact?

b What problem was created for Britain in trading with China?

c Why did the British want to end the Canton system?

d What was significant about Macartney's mission to China in 1793?

e In what ways did Macartney follow Chinese custom and in what ways did he not (use Sources 5.3.5 and 5.3.6 to help you).

Evaluating

8 Reread 'The opium trade' and 'China's response to illegal opium'. Explain why and how China responded to the growth of the opium trade in the nineteenth century.

Analysing and creating

9 Working in teams of three or four, script and perform an imaginary television news flash announcing China's defeat in the first or second Opium War. Use the information in 'The Opium Wars' as well as your group research to provide the necessary information for viewers. Your news flash should be presented from a British, Chinese or neutral perspective.

Team members should take on one of the following roles:

- news anchor
- live reporter
- foreign affairs expert
- ordinary citizen.

Your news flash should contain 'talking head' monologue by a news anchor, dialogue between the news anchor and a live reporter, expert opinion by a studio guest and an interview with an ordinary person affected by the events.

A KEY EVENT IN CHINESE SOCIETY: THE BOXER REBELLION

UNIT 4

GROWING UNREST

By 1898, the people of north-eastern China had been starving for years due to drought and floods. Local corruption also meant that peasants paid far more tax than they could afford, while very little was spent on measures to help them. When the Yellow River burst its banks in 1898, the flood led to crop failure and famine, directly affecting over two million people. Widespread poverty and hunger led to frustration and anger. Banditry and violence became commonplace throughout the countryside. To protect their villages from looting, a movement of Chinese martial artists known as the 'Righteous and Harmonious Fists', whom the British named '**Boxers**' arose. This turned into a large peasant movement intent on ridding China of all foreign influence, which they saw as the cause of all their problems.

ANTI-WESTERN FEELING

In their desperation, many Chinese blamed their plight on the arrival of foreigners. China's humiliating defeat during the Second Opium War in 1858 and the consequent spread of foreign influence had caused great resentment among ordinary Chinese. Many blamed the loss of traditional values on the spread of Christianity and turned to the Boxers. It was believed the Boxers had mystical powers that would enable them to defeat the foreigners. Among these powers were spells that, if chanted correctly, would supposedly make the individual invulnerable to bullets. Boxers looked very intimidating with their bright red turbans, yellow sashes, red-tasselled spears and loud cries.

At first the Boxers attacked Christians throughout the countryside, where missionaries had been allowed to preach, buy property and build churches. Several hundred foreign missionaries and tens of thousands of Chinese Christians were killed during these early stages of the Boxer Rebellion. Chanting slogans such as 'Destroy what is foreign' and 'Destroy the foreign devils', the Boxers and their supporters ripped up railway tracks and telegraph lines. These had been built on land previously owned by peasants and many saw them as threats to their own lands.

THE SIEGE OF PEKING

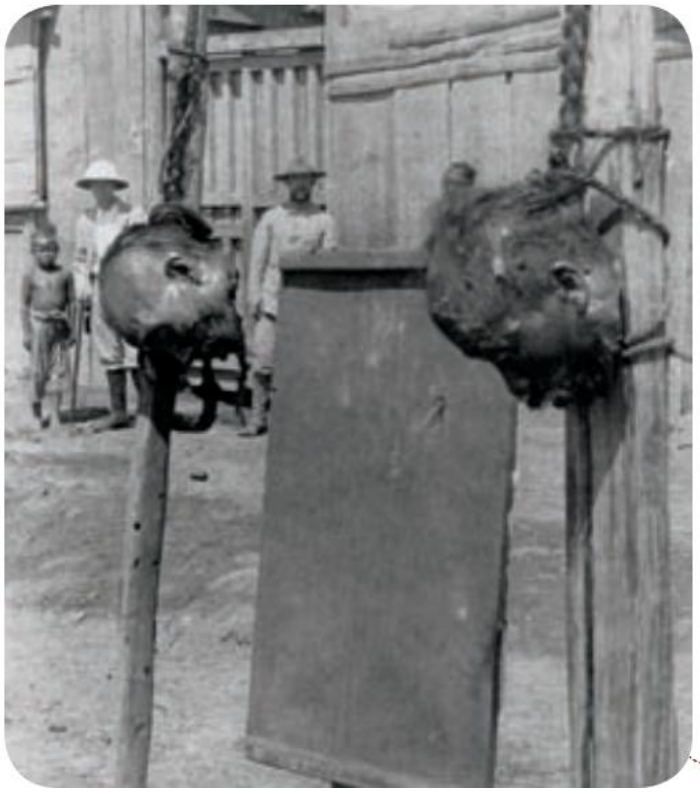
By 1899, the Boxer movement had grown into a considerable force and spread northwards to Peking, where it intended to destroy the foreign embassies. The Boxers also wanted to overthrow the ruling Qing emperor, Guangxu, whom they blamed for attempting to modernise China. For fifty-five days, the Boxers laid siege to Peking, trying to destroy the foreign **embassies** and kill the **diplomats**, their families and the Chinese Christians who took refuge with them.

Fearing the overthrow of the Qing dynasty, Cixi, the Dowager Empress (widow of the emperor) sided with the Boxers during the siege. With the support of anti-Western officials from within the palace, Cixi deposed her own son, Guangxu, and had him imprisoned. On 21 June 1900, Cixi promised to end Guangxu's policy of modernisation and support the Boxers in their fight against the foreigners. Regular members of the Chinese army then joined the Boxers in attacking the foreign embassies in Peking.

SOURCE 5.4.1

The Dowager Empress Cixi (1862–1908) seated on the imperial Chinese throne

SOURCE 5.4.2 The storming of Peking by forces of the Eight-Nation Alliance, c. 1900



SOURCE 5.4.3 The heads of two Boxer rebels, tied by their queues to stakes, outside Tianjin's West Gate, 1901

Q **Why do you think that some foreign forces dealt with the Boxers so brutally?**

THE EIGHT-NATION ALLIANCE

In response to the attacks upon their embassies, Britain, France, Russia, Germany, Austria–Hungary, the United States, Italy and Japan united to send a multinational force of 50 000 troops and fifty-four battleships to Peking. In July 1900, the first foreign forces arrived in Peking, bringing with them badly needed supplies for the people trapped inside the embassies. Over the next year, the forces of the Eight-Nation Alliance gradually gained control over the provinces of northern China. During their year-long occupation, foreign troops were known to have looted and destroyed Chinese villages, raped Chinese women and beheaded captured Boxer rebels.

SOURCE 5.4.4 A group of rebels of the Society of the Righteous and Harmonious Fist, or Boxers, captured by the US 6th Cavalry, 1901

AFTERMATH OF THE BOXER REBELLION

On 7 September 1901, the Dowager Empress Cixi signed the Boxer Protocol, a peace agreement that forced the dynasty to pay one tael (approximately 37 grams) of silver for every Chinese person. This amounted to 450 million taels, or around $333 million, to be paid within forty years. Ten leading officials of the Qing court were also executed for their role in supporting the rebellion and the massacre of Christians. Although the Qing dynasty was permitted to remain in power, its influence was greatly reduced. In 1911, Chinese nationalists finally overthrew the Qing and established a republican form of government. This brought an end to over three centuries of Manchu rule in China.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE BOXERS CONVINCED THEIR SUPPORTERS THAT THEY WERE INVULNERABLE TO BULLETS BY FIRING BLANKS AT THEMSELVES.

Occasionally, when people were killed by real bullets, the Boxers blamed the individual for not performing the necessary ritual correctly. Eating garlic, for example, was said to make the individual ritually impure. Garlic was a common ingredient in most Chinese food at the time.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- Boxers
- diplomat
- embassy

2 Write the events that occurred in the following years in your notebook:
- 1858
- 1898
- 1899
- 1900 (June)
- 1900 (July)
- 1901
- 1911

Evaluating

3 Reread this unit and create a mind-map with branches on the causes, course and consequences of the event. Try to add three levels of branches, starting from the centre and expanding to the edges of the page. Begin with general points, and then expand upon these by adding new branches with more specific points. This will require you to use a full A4 page and to use most of the space provided.

Analysing

4 Conduct independent research into the Boxer Rebellion to find out what else was happening in China, the Asian region and the world at the time that could help explain the rebellion. Place these points under the heading 'Context'. Under a second heading, 'Controversies', note the aspects of the Boxer Rebellion that might be considered controversial both then and now. This may include the different perspectives of Chinese and Westerners at the time, as well as debates among historians that took place years later.

UNIT 5

INTRODUCING JAPAN

EARLY CONTACT

In 1549, the first Jesuit missionaries arrived in Japan, led by Spanish priest Francis Xavier. Within several decades, six **daimyo**, or feudal lords, and about 100 000 **samurai** warriors and peasant labourers had converted to Christianity. By the end of the century, this number had grown to about 300 000. Although the ruler of Japan at the time, Hideyoshi, had initially welcomed Christian missionaries, towards the end of his life he began to suspect that their growing numbers might lead to a foreign invasion. In 1597, Hideyoshi ordered the crucifixion of twenty-six Christians, including nine foreign missionaries. This did not deter foreign merchants, and in 1609 the Dutch began trading at Nagasaki. Within four years, British ships had also begun calling at Japanese ports.

TOKUGAWA RULE

Although the emperor was the religious figurehead of Japanese society, he played very little role in day-to-day politics. Real power lay with the **shogun**, the commander-in-chief of the army. In 1603, a powerful daimyo by the name of Tokugawa Ieyasu was declared shogun after defeating his enemies in battle. The Tokugawa clan established a military government known as the **bakufu**, with the shogun at its head. For the next two and a half centuries, Ieyasu's descendants occupied the position of shogun.

The Tokugawa controlled about 40 per cent of the land and divided the rest among approximately 200 daimyo. There were two classes of daimyo—the **inner daimyo**, who had agreed to support the Tokugawa, and the **outer daimyo**, who hadn't. It was among these outer daimyo that conversions to Christianity had occurred during the sixteenth century. As a result, the inner daimyo held most of the high-ranking positions, while the outer daimyo were excluded from government altogether.

LAND AND POWER

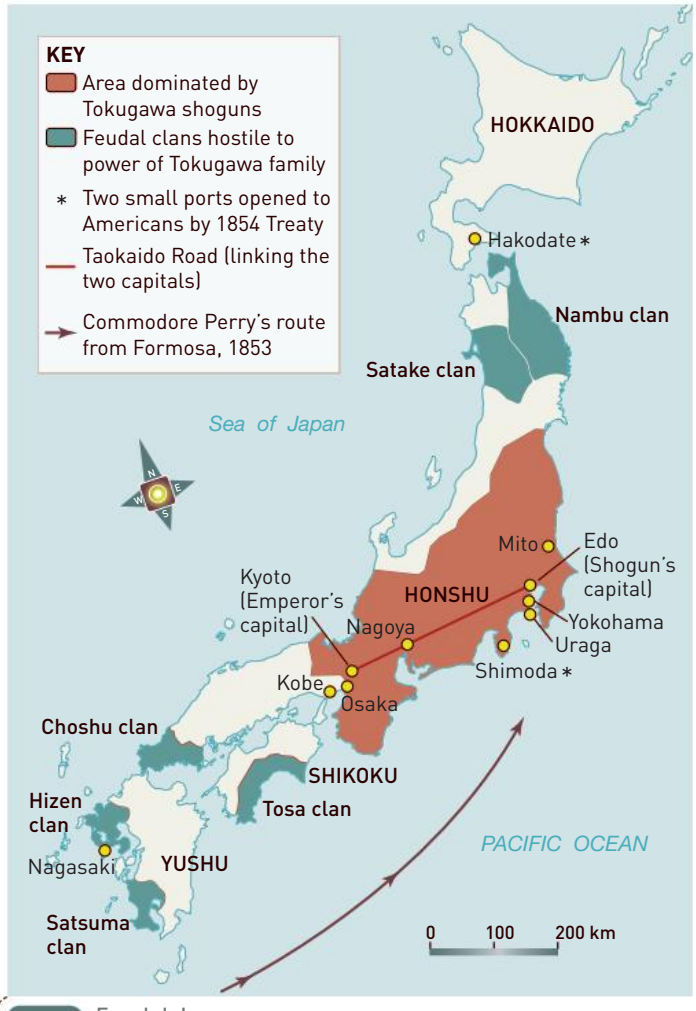
In a feudal society such as Japan, land ownership meant power. The shogun, his relatives and the inner daimyo controlled the regions of strategic importance in Japan, while less important areas were left to the outer daimyo. This naturally made the outer daimyo resentful towards the shogun, who was equally distrustful of them.

SOURCE 5.5.1 *Kneel, the Lord Approaches*, by Yoshitoshi, 1865. Held in a private collection. To remain standing or to even look at the shogun could result in instant execution.

Q **Describe the reactions of the common people in this scene.**

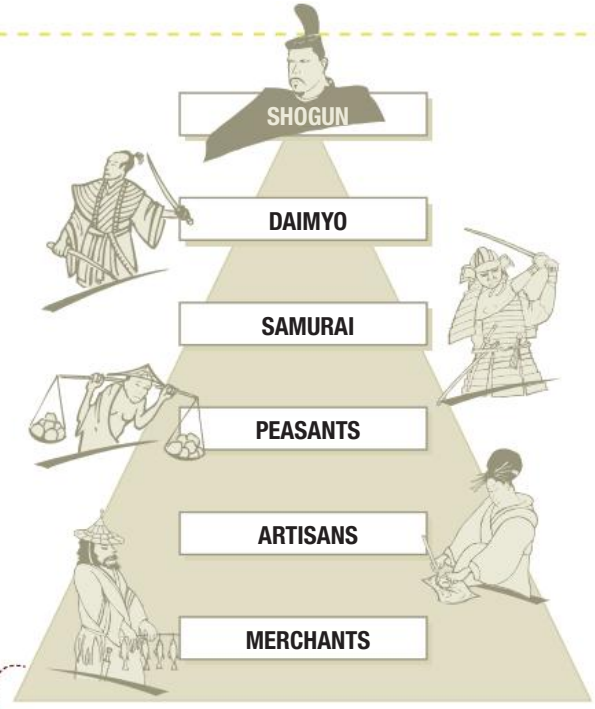
Each daimyo had an army of samurai warriors to protect his domain from invasion. After the Tokugawa had defeated their enemies, a long period of relative peace meant that these trained soldiers had nothing to do. Instead they took on roles as administrators of the daimyo's land and possessions.

To keep a tight control over the daimyo, Ieyasu ordered all the daimyo and their samurai armies to his castle in Edo (present-day Tokyo) every second year. They were required to stay for six months. The march to Edo was a very costly exercise and helped keep the daimyo financially dependent on the shogun. Each alternate year, the wives and families of the daimyo were also ordered to Edo, where they were effectively kept hostage by the shogun. This system of control was unique to the Tokugawa shoguns, and as a result their rule is also referred to as the **Edo period**.



SOURCE 5.5.2 Feudal Japan

Q
1 What was the capital city where the shoguns resided?
2 What was the capital city where the emperor resided?
3 Why was the Tokugawa clan the most powerful in feudal Japan?



SOURCE 5.5.3 Japanese feudal society during the Tokugawa period

Q **Create a pyramid such as this in your notebook. Add labels to explain who each of these groups and individuals were (use the text for help).**

A FEUDAL SOCIETY

By far the largest group in the population was the **peasants**, who were legally bound to work on the land of their daimyo. At the bottom of society were the **chonin**. This group included craftspeople, artisans and merchants. Business and money lending was not thought of as a noble pursuit, but the wealth and influence of those in this group increased during the Edo period, when new business opportunities arose due to the large numbers of travelling samurai.

CLOSED COUNTRY POLICY

Shortly after coming to power, Tokugawa Ieyasu placed major restrictions on Japan's contact with foreigners. He was concerned that his opponents would forge alliances with European merchants and invite a foreign invasion to overthrow the Tokugawa. As a result, the bakufu introduced a 'closed country' policy called **sakoku**, which lasted for over two centuries.

In 1614, foreign missionaries were ordered to leave Japan and Christian converts forced to renounce their faith. Japanese citizens were banned from travelling abroad and it was even forbidden to build ships that were capable of long sea voyages.

In 1637, all foreign traders were prohibited from entering Japanese waters, except the Dutch, who were permitted to trade only through the port of Nagasaki. To restrict their movement, Dutch merchants were eventually confined to a small island known as Deshima, in Nagasaki harbour. The Dutch presence allowed the Tokugawa rulers to keep informed about important developments outside Japan.

SOURCE 5.5.4 The arrival of Commodore Perry's ships. Held at the British Museum. This artwork was produced in 1876, by which time Japan had begun a policy of modernisation.

Q
1 How has the modern technology of Perry's ships been shown?
2 What is the reaction of the Japanese people in this scene to Perry's arrival?
3 Contrast this reaction with the one described in Source 5.5.5. How can this difference be accounted for?

COMMODORE PERRY ARRIVES

In the late 1700s, Russian, British and US ships had begun appearing off the Japanese coast. These were usually seeking to replenish supplies on their return from China. In 1805, the Russians sought permission to have a **trade envoy** reside in Japan. Although this request was rejected, it was clear that foreign attention had finally turned towards Japan.

Over the next few decades, the United States developed a strong interest in the Pacific region. US steamers travelling to China were in need of a coaling station in the North Pacific. US whaling ships also needed a base, as several had recently been shipwrecked off the coast of Japan. The Americans were also concerned that if they did not act soon, the British would eventually dominate the Pacific trade.

In 1852, US president Millard Fillmore announced that a naval force under the command of Commodore Matthew Perry would proceed to Japan to negotiate an agreement. On 8 July 1853, Perry's squadron of four gunboats arrived at Edo Bay. Local Japanese were alarmed at the sight of huge black ships with powerful cannons and the strong military force that accompanied Perry ashore.

JAPANESE PERSPECTIVES ON PERRY'S LANDING

> *The whole city was in an uproar. In all directions were seen mothers flying with children in their arms, and men with mothers on their backs. Rumours of an immediate action, exaggerated each time they were communicated from mouth to mouth, added horror to the horror-stricken.*

SOURCE 5.5.5 From *The Intercourse between the United States and Japan*, by Inazo Nitobe, 1891. Nitobe witnessed Commodore Perry's arrival at Edo.

Q
1 Which events in this account are presented as fact and which are presented as rumour?
2 To what extent is this a reliable account of Perry's landing at Edo Bay?

Perry was ordered by Japanese officials to move his fleet to the Dutch trading post at Nagasaki. Refusing to do so, he waited for another five days until he was able to formally present a letter of request from the US president to the Japanese emperor. The Americans had hoped to get what they wanted by ignoring the shogun and making their requests to the emperor instead. The president's letter was accompanied by one from Perry himself,

in which he made it clear that the Americans were prepared to use force, should their 'requests' be refused. Perry agreed to give the Japanese time to consider the president's letter, declaring that he would return to Edo within a year with even more warships.

> *Many of the large ships-of-war destined to visit Japan have not yet arrived in these seas, though they are hourly expected; and the undersigned, as an evidence of his friendly intentions, has brought but four of the smaller ones, designing, should it become necessary, to return to Edo in the ensuing spring with a much larger force. But it is expected that the government of your imperial majesty will render such return unnecessary, by acceding at once to the very reasonable and pacific overtures contained in the President's letter.*

SOURCE 5.5.6 From Perry's letter to the Japanese emperor, dated 7 July 1853

Q
1 **Why does Perry mention the imminent arrival of more warships?**
2 **How would the Japanese emperor have interpreted this letter?**

THE END OF ISOLATION

The arrival of Russian ships in the port of Nagasaki prompted Perry's return sooner than he had expected. On this occasion, his squadron contained eight gunboats instead of just four. After stalling for time, the Japanese authorities entered into negotiations with Perry and on 31 March 1854, the first ever treaty was signed between Japan and a foreign power. The Treaty of Kanagawa opened the minor ports of Shimoda and Hakodate to US shipping and allowed for a US consul to reside at Shimoda. The United States was also given 'most favoured nation' status, which meant that any future concession made to another power would automatically be given to them.

UNEQUAL TREATIES

This was the first of several unequal treaties between foreign powers and Japan. Within a year similar agreements had been made with the Russians, the British and the Dutch. On each occasion, Japan was pressured into making trade concessions for very little in return. In 1858, Townsend Harris, the first US consul to Japan, succeeded in opening four additional ports to US trade. The Harris Treaty also granted freedom of religious expression to Americans residing in Japan and made them subject to US rather than Japanese law. For their part, the Americans agreed not to sell opium into Japan.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- bakufu
- chonin
- daimyo
- Edo period
- inner daimyo
- outer daimyo
- peasants
- sakoku
- samurai
- shogun
- trade envoy

Understanding and evaluating

2 Reread 'Tokugawa rule'.

a Which position was the head of Japanese society?
b How did the shogun exercise his political authority?
c Which group were the traditional opponents of the shogun?
d How did the shogun favour his supporters and restrict his opponents?
e Who was at the bottom of Japanese feudal society and why?

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'Commodore Perry arrives' and 'The end of isolation'.

a Why did European traders take an interest in Japan during the late 1700s?
b Why did US interest in the Pacific region grow?
c What was the aim of Commodore Perry's visit to Japan?
d What methods did Perry adopt in order to achieve his aims?
e Describe the reaction of the Japanese people and officials to Perry's arrival.
f What was the significance of the Treaty of Kanagawa? How did the United States benefit from it?

Evaluating and applying

4 Reread 'Closed country policy' and, with a partner, make a list of the possible effects on a society of being isolated from the rest of the world. Divide your points into positive and negative consequences and see which list is longer. Add points to your list from the ideas raised by others in the class. Discuss the restrictions that would have to be applied today to stop contact with the rest of the world.

5 Reread 'The end of isolation' and then conduct independent research into what happened in Japan after the signing of the Treaty of Kanagawa. Focus your research on growing opposition to foreign interference in Japan in the period 1854–68. Present your findings in a detailed timeline of events.

UNIT 6

CHANGE AND CONTINUITY IN JAPAN

THE END OF THE SHOGUN

The end of isolation was a major humiliation for the Japanese. People blamed the shogun for not standing up to the foreign powers and anti-foreign feeling quickly spread throughout Japan. A popular movement called **Sonno Joi** (meaning 'revere the emperor, expel the barbarians') began actively resisting foreign intrusion into Japan. As its name suggests, Sonno Joi also led the call for the restoration of the emperor as the political ruler of Japan.

In September 1862, a samurai warrior belonging to the powerful Satsuma clan murdered a British merchant. The British government demanded justice in the form of a £100 000 indemnity, a formal apology from the bakufu and the arrest of Satsuma's samurai. The bakufu failed to comply and in August, British ships responded by bombarding the city of Kagoshima for three days.

In June 1863, Emperor Komei summoned the shogun to his palace and demanded that he tear up Japan's foreign treaties, expel all foreigners and close all ports to foreign trade. The shogun knew this would be impossible to carry out, but within days anti-foreigners had fired on US, French and Dutch ships in the Shimonoseki Straits. In response, a combined fleet destroyed Japanese boats, captured the shore batteries and demanded a US $3 million indemnity, well in excess of the damage they had sustained.

The bombardment of Kagoshima and Shimonoseki showed Japan's weakness in the face of foreign naval power and further undermined the authority of the shogun. In 1867, a civil war broke out between supporters of the emperor and forces loyal to the shogun. After the defeat of the shogun's army, the shogunate was officially abolished on 3 January 1868, bringing to an end over 250 years of Tokugawa rule in Japan and restoring the emperor's power.

SOURCE 5.6.1 Japanese illustration of Mutsuhito, Emperor of Japan

BEGINNING OF A NEW ERA

A year earlier, Emperor Komei had died and his 17-year-old son Mutsuhito found himself as the ruler of Japan. The new emperor took the title Meiji, meaning 'enlightened rule', and moved the capital to Edo, which was renamed Tokyo. This period, known as the **Meiji restoration**, began an era of modernisation in Japan. Mutsuhito used his new powers to introduce reforms that helped Japan catch up with the industrialised nations.

The strength of the foreign military had also convinced the anti-foreigners that resistance to foreign intrusion was pointless and many now felt that the time had come to start catching up with foreign powers. They reasoned that if Japan were equally powerful, foreign powers would be less likely to interfere. To modernise, however, Japan would be required to accept foreign ideas and adopt foreign technology. On 7 April 1868, Mutsuhito issued a declaration known as the **Five-Articles Oath**, in which he promised to reorganise Japanese society based on the model of the foreign nations.

1 *Deliberative assemblies shall be widely established and all matters decided by public discussion ...*

2 *All classes, high and low, shall unite in vigorously carrying out the administration of affairs of state.*

3 *The common people, no less than the civil and military officials, shall each be allowed to pursue his own calling so that there may be no discontent.*

4 *Evil customs of the past shall be broken off and everything based upon the just laws of Nature.*

5 *Knowledge shall be sought throughout the world so as to strengthen the foundations of imperial rule.*

SOURCE 5.6.2 The Five-Articles Oath

Q
1 **Which articles aimed to make Japanese society fairer?**
2 **Which article indicated a need to change the legal system?**
3 **How did article 5 represent a break with Japanese tradition?**

SOURCE 5.6.3 The Meiji Emperor, Mutsuhito, and his family. Held at the Library of Congress, Washington, DC, USA

Q **What evidence is there to suggest that Mutsuhito was more European in his thinking than previous Japanese rulers?**

AN END TO THE FEUDAL SYSTEM

Almost immediately, the Meiji Emperor abolished the centuries-old feudal system. This ended control by the daimyo over vast regions of Japan and gave the emperor central authority over the entire country. Remarkably, most daimyo voluntarily handed over their lands in exchange for a substantial pension. The 400 000 members of the old warrior class, the samurai, were also paid pensions to give up their feudal entitlements. Most had to supplement this income by seeking new business opportunities or by joining the army or civil service. New factories relied on the movement of people to the cities and many thousands of peasants took up these new opportunities.

REFORMING JAPAN

Within the space of a few decades, Japan's society, economy, government and military had changed completely. Japanese students were encouraged to travel abroad and learn about foreign thought and culture. Before long, a craze for foreign literature, art and ideas spread throughout Japan. Authors began writing novels and poems in European styles and European dress and fashions began to appear. Other features borrowed from Europe were:

- the latest engineering practices, from the United States
- medical and scientific advancements, from Germany and France
- compulsory education for boys and girls, from the United States and Germany
- organisation of the army, from France and then later Germany
- organisation of the navy, from Britain
- a legal system, based on the Code Napoleon of France.

Foreign economists were asked to help reform the economy and, in 1882, Japan's first central bank was established. This allowed for investment in foreign trade, industrial expansion and greater agricultural production. Initially, new industries were owned and controlled by the government but during the 1880s, these large state-run enterprises were sold. Improvements in shipping technology also led to the establishment of an export trade, and railway lines between major cities made commerce more efficient.

SOURCE 5.6.4 *Vehicular traffic in Tokyo*, Japan, 1870, by Yoshitora Utagawa. Held at the Library of Congress, Washington, DC, USA

Q
1 List the features of this artwork that show the changes occurring in Japan.
2 Why do you think the artist has also included traditional elements of Japanese society in the scene?

THE MEIJI CONSTITUTION

In 1882, a Constitutional Study Mission was sent abroad to decide on the best form of constitution for Japan's new government. Its recommendation was the German model, which had two houses of parliament and a cabinet answerable to the monarch. In 1889, the new Meiji Constitution came into effect, establishing the first parliamentary government in Asia. Despite this, real political power still resided with the emperor and his inner circle of advisers, known as the **genro**. The parliament, known as the **Diet**, consisted of an upper house, the Council of State and a lower House or Assembly. Members of the Council of State were appointed by the emperor and were mainly members of his family and the leaders of Japan's most powerful clans. It was from this group that the emperor selected the members of his genro.

JAPANESE MILITARY DEVELOPMENT

A major part of Japan's modernisation program was its aim to become an imperial power, equal in status with the European nations. China's declining influence had also encouraged Japan to expand in the region. Although the Chinese had always seen the Japanese as inferior, a treaty signed in Tientsin in 1871 recognised them as equals for the first time. This showed the extent of Japan's technological progress in a relatively short time.

In 1872, conscription for all males over 20 years of age was introduced in Japan. This enabled the creation of a large army, as all sections of society were able to become soldiers, not just the samurai. Modern weapons were purchased and Japanese officers were sent to train in European military academies. Warships were purchased from Britain and three large naval bases were constructed to house the new Japanese fleet. After some years, Japan began to construct its own modern battleships.

SOURCE 5.6.5 *Japan defeats the Chinese fleet near Phungtao*, by Kobayashi Kiyochika, 1894

EMERGENCE AS AN ASIAN EMPIRE

Japan sought to exercise its advantage over China by seeking to trade with nearby Korea. Korea had been a client state of China for centuries and remained largely under China's control. While both China and Japan had ended their isolation, Korea remained firmly closed to all foreign trade. Fearing that Korea could be easily overrun by one of the European powers, Japan looked to establish a 'sphere of influence' there.

After several failed attempts to negotiate a treaty peacefully with Korea, the Japanese threatened to use force. As a result, in 1876 Korea and Japan signed the Treaty of Kanghwa, which established diplomatic relations between the countries and allowed Japanese ships access to Korean ports. This led to protests by the Chinese government, which claimed that Japan had meddled in Korean affairs.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Diet
- Five-Articles Oath
- genro
- Meiji restoration
- Sonno Joi

2 Reread 'The end of the shogun' and then write an explanation for the ending of 250 years of Tokugawa rule of Japan on 3 January 1868. Conduct additional research in order to identify other reasons for the fall of the shogun.

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'Beginning of a new era' and 'Reforming Japan'.

a What was the period known as the 'Meiji restoration'?

b Why did Japanese people give up their opposition to foreign influence?

c How and why did the Meiji Emperor put an end to feudalism in Japan?

d Why did Western ideas and fashion first become popular in Japan?

e Which country did Japan seem to borrow most of its ideas from?

f What economic changes did Japan undergo?

4 Reread 'Japanese military development' and 'Emergence as an Asian empire'.

a How and why did Japan begin to extend its influence over China?

b What did the Japanese do to develop their army and navy?

Evaluating

5 Reread 'The Meiji Constitution' and then write a short discussion of the political changes brought about during the Meiji period. Title your discussion 'Was Meiji Japan a true democracy?'. Structure your response by considering what a true democracy is and outlining the arguments for and against Meiji Japan as a true democracy. Look for additional information on the internet by using a search engine to find information on the way Japanese government worked during the Meiji period.

Analysing

6 Create a digital photo essay representing any of the events or issues that led to Japan becoming a modern power. Download as many high-resolution visual sources as possible, including those that show links to other historical events as well as the present. Throughout your photo essay, you should include captions that briefly describe the key events, as well as block and/or scrolling text that explains the significance of the events that made Japan a modern power. Overlay your visual presentation with sound files of appropriate music, noises or spoken words.

UNIT 7

A KEY EVENT IN JAPANESE SOCIETY: WAR WITH CHINA

WAR WITH CHINA

In 1894, Chinese and Japanese troops arrived in the Korean capital, Seoul, both claiming that they had come to help suppress a local rebellion of anti-foreigners against the Korean king. Although the Koreans themselves easily crushed the rebellion, Japanese troops remained. When the Korean king refused to break off relations with China, he was imprisoned and a pro-Japanese government installed. This led to an official declaration of war by China in July 1894.

SOURCE 5.7.1 British cartoon depicting the Anglo-Japanese alliance, *Punch* magazine, 1902

Q
1 What is the evidence for the military nature of the Anglo-Japanese alliance?
2 Explain the meaning of the quote from Rudyard Kipling below the cartoon.

ALLIES.

"Oh, East is East, and West is West . . . . .
But there is neither East nor West, Border, nor Breed, nor Birth,
When two strong men stand face to face, tho' they come from the ends of the Earth!"
- RUDYARD KIPLING.

Within a month, Japan had occupied most of Korea and then entered Manchuria, a border state of China. The Japanese navy was just as dominant on the seas. In February 1895, following their naval defeat at Wei Hai Wei, the Chinese surrendered. In the resulting peace settlement, China gave up its control of Korea and ceded the Island of Formosa (present-day Taiwan) to Japan. China was also forced to pay a huge indemnity for the cost of the war.

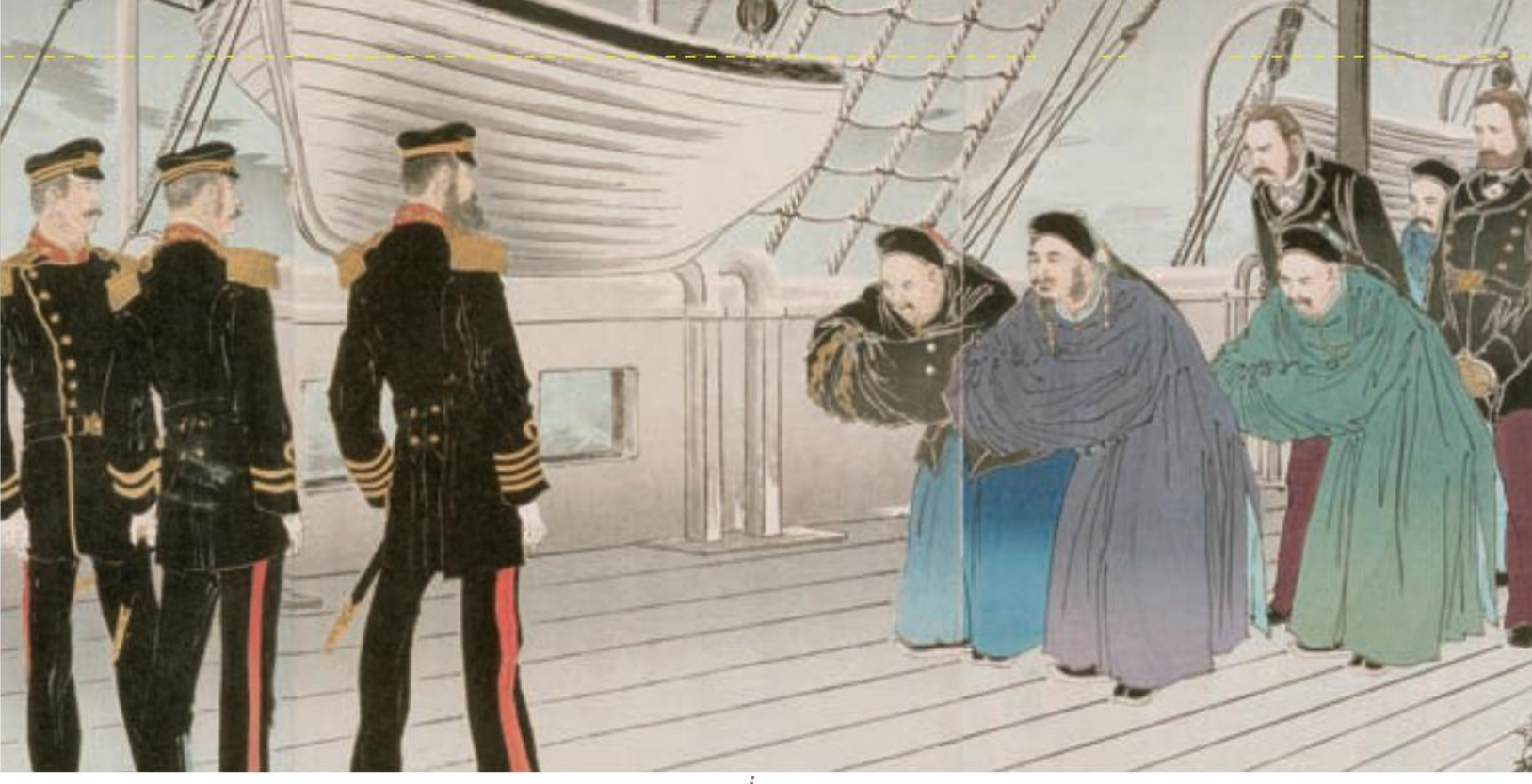
THE ANGLO–JAPANESE ALLIANCE

Japan's growing importance was recognised in 1902 with the signing of an alliance with Britain. This was the first military alliance formed between a European and an Asian power. The Anglo–Japanese alliance declared mutual friendship between Japan and Britain and stated that if one of them declared war on another power, the other would remain neutral. Furthermore, both agreed to support the other if it were jointly attacked by two or more powers. By forming an alliance with Japan, Britain hoped to prevent the Russian Empire spreading southwards, as this would have threatened India. The Anglo–Japanese alliance also did much to bolster Japan's confidence. Britain, the world's dominant imperial power, had recognised Japan as an equal in the Asia–Pacific region.

WAR WITH RUSSIA

Japan then looked to halt Russia's intrusion into East Asia by insisting that it give up its interest in Manchuria and Korea. Japan had come to see these as part of its 'sphere of influence' and viewed Russia's activity in the region as a threat. In 1904, this led to war between Japan and Russia over control of Korea.

Within weeks, the Japanese navy had blockaded the Russian naval base of Port Arthur in southern Manchuria. This prevented Russian ships from leaving and effectively gave Japan control of the surrounding seas. By December, the Japanese fleet began laying siege to Port Arthur, and within weeks they had destroyed the entire Russian Pacific fleet. Unable to supply its troops effectively, Russia suffered defeat after defeat at the hands of the Japanese. On 28 May 1905, Japanese victory at the naval battle of Tsushima brought the Russo–Japanese war to an end. This battle resulted in the destruction of a second Russian fleet, which had travelled a great distance from the Baltic Sea to recapture Port Arthur.



SOURCE 5.7.2 Japanese soldiers during the Russo–Japanese war near Tehling, Manchuria, 1906

Q How does this photograph show the use of both old and new technologies in the Japanese army?

SOURCE 5.7.3 After the Fall of Wei Hai Wei, the commander of the Chinese Peiyang Fleet, Admiral Ting Ju-Chang, surrenders, by Toshihide, c. 1894–95. Held at the Philadelphia Museum of Fine Art

Q
1. **What do you notice about the way the Japanese characters are portrayed?**
2. **How is this different from the way the Chinese are represented?**

On 5 September 1905, the Treaty of Portsmouth was signed as the final peace settlement between Russia and Japan. Russia handed over control of Port Arthur to the Japanese and promised to leave Manchuria. Russia agreed to acknowledge Korea as part of Japan's 'sphere of influence' and also ceded the island of Sakhalin to Japan. These were humiliating terms for the Russians, as never before had a European empire been defeated by an Asian nation. For Japan, victory over the Russians showed that it was a modern military power capable of carving out an empire for itself.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Understanding and evaluating

1. How did tensions over Korea develop between Japan and China?
2. Account for China's declaration of war against Japan in July 1894.
3. What was the outcome of war between Japan and China?

UNIT 8

INTRODUCING INDIA

THE BEGINNING OF MUGHAL RULE

The **Mughals** were Muslims from Persia. They were descendants of the Mongols in central Asia (in fact, the word 'Mughal' is the Indian spelling of 'Mongol'). Zahiruddin Muhammad Babur, the first Mughal emperor, was a direct descendant of Genghis Khan. Babur possessed the same military cunning as his great ancestor and, in 1526, captured the northern city of Delhi. He was the first Muslim general to use muskets and cannons, which helped him to defeat an army four times the size of his own. Mughal rule in India was based on the principles of religious tolerance and respect for human rights.

In northern India the Hindu majority were now under Muslim rule. After capturing Delhi, Babur ordered that no cows be killed, since Hindus considered these sacred. He even compensated farmers whose land was destroyed during the fighting. This approach helped to unify a diverse region made up of many local kingdoms and different religious traditions. Babur realised that Mughal rule could last only if the majority of non-Muslims supported it. Hindus were allowed to express their religion freely and to build temples. Nevertheless, when a city resisted his rule, Babur and his descendants were known to massacre large numbers of **infidels**, or non-believers. Babur's rule as Mughal emperor lasted only four years, but in that time he established the foundations of Mughal rule for the next two hundred years.

> *Hindustan (India) is a vast and populous kingdom and a productive realm, but it is a strange country. Compared to ours it is another world ... Once you cross the Indus river, the land, water, trees, stones, peoples, tribes, manners, and customs are all of the Hindustani (or Hindu) fashion. There is no limit to the people ... most of the people of Hindustan are infidels.*

SOURCE 5.8.1 Babur's reflections on India and its people before his victory at Delhi in 1526

Q
1. How does this extract suggest that the Mughals were foreign rulers?
2. Is there any suggestion that there were also Muslim people living in India at the time?

GOLDEN AGE OF THE MUGHALS

EXPANSION UNDER AKBAR

Proclaimed emperor at just 13 years of age, Akbar's rule from 1556 to 1605 was a golden age for the Mughal Empire. By the end of his reign, it had spread throughout most of north and central India. Akbar managed to unite many smaller and often hostile kingdoms and brought strong central government to India. This helped to raise more tax revenue. This revenue was used to build some of the remarkable monuments, mosques and palaces still in existence in India today. In 1569, after conquering Rajasthan, Akbar celebrated his victory by building a new city called Fatehpur Sikri ('City of Victory').

DID YOU KNOW?

AKBAR WAS PROBABLY ILLITERATE.

Akbar was one of the most intelligent political and military leaders in the history of the world. Despite having four full-time tutors to teach him how to read and write, he remained illiterate throughout his life. He was fascinated by history, philosophy, science and technology, and during his rule, Mughal art and culture flourished.

The Mughal emperor saw himself as a 'king of kings', the most important of the many rulers throughout India. Akbar's military genius enabled him to win victory after victory. His diplomatic skills helped unite many of the kingdoms within India. Enemies who submitted to Akbar's authority were richly rewarded. Most were allowed to keep collecting taxes from the peasants who worked on their lands. To obtain the loyalty of the powerful Hindu Rajputs in northern India, Akbar decided to marry Rajput wives. This helped build family alliances with the leading Rajputs. In fact, Akbar's son and successor, Jahangir, had a Hindu mother.

To connect his growing empire, Akbar built an elaborate network of roads, which also helped his armies get to trouble spots quickly. This promoted trade between different towns and provinces. Domestic trade grew significantly during the Mughal era but there was little demand for European goods. As a result, Europeans were forced to buy Indian goods with silver and gold rather than with items produced in Europe.

LET JUSTICE AND REASON BE OUR GUIDE

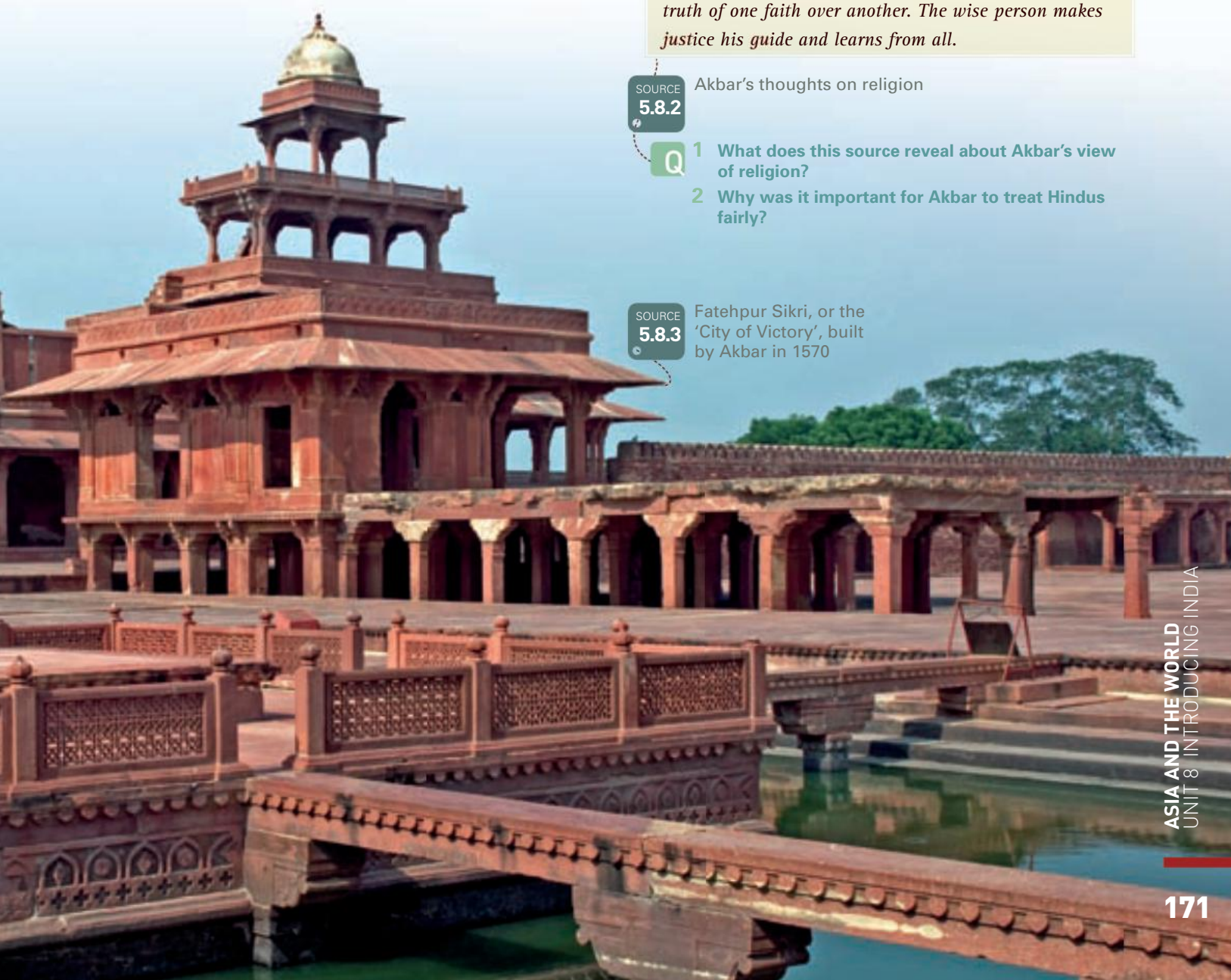
Akbar appointed Hindu as well as Muslim advisers. He won widespread support by abolishing the much-hated tax on all non-Muslims. Akbar was curious about other religions and developed close relationships with some of his Hindu advisers. Over time he began to see the merits of other religions. Each Thursday Akbar would meet with Hindu, Muslim, Christian, Jain and Zoroastrian scholars to find out what all religions shared in common. His conclusion was that in all matters, justice and reason should be the guiding principles rather than religious dogma or rules. Akbar eventually established his own religion, called the Divine Faith, which took the best features of all the religions in India, including Hinduism, Islam and Christianity.

> *In the past, to our shame, we forced many Hindus to adopt the faith of our ancestors. Now it has become clear to me that in our troubled world, so full of contradictions, it cannot be wisdom to assert the unique truth of one faith over another. The wise person makes justice his guide and learns from all.*

SOURCE 5.8.2 Akbar's thoughts on religion

Q
1 What does this source reveal about Akbar's view of religion?
2 Why was it important for Akbar to treat Hindus fairly?

SOURCE 5.8.3 Fatehpur Sikri, or the 'City of Victory', built by Akbar in 1570



SOURCE 5.8.4 Santa Cruz Church in Goa, built by the Portuguese in 1546

EUROPEAN CONTACT

PORTUGUESE MISSIONARIES

Under the Mughals, Christianity enjoyed the same level of tolerance as all other religions. During Akbar's reign, Jesuit priests were invited to join the Mughal court. Wherever Europeans established trade bases, Christian missionaries soon followed. The Jesuit missionary Francis Xavier first arrived at the Portuguese colony of Goa in 1542 and returned again in 1548. Previously, Goa had been established as the first Christian colony in India. Later, others were also established further south at Cochin and Kerala. Xavier stayed for several years in India, preaching Christianity to the local Hindu population and establishing churches.

Portuguese missionaries in Goa won many converts by offering food to poor Indians. These converts became known as **rice Christians**, since they had converted only for economic reasons and continued their old religious practices.

Offended by this disregard for their faith, the Catholic Church established an **inquisition** in 1560. This involved the trial of converts whom the Church suspected of having returned to their former religion. The inquisition took place throughout all the Portuguese colonies in Asia and lasted for well over two hundred years. In Goa alone, over 16 000 people were put on trial.

TRADE

After the arrival of the Portuguese in Goa, merchants from Holland, England, France and Denmark all established bases on the Indian coast. These were not like the Portuguese colony at Goa; they were factories used solely for the purpose of trade. Private armies protected these bases, as disputes between European traders were not uncommon. No missionaries were permitted to live on the English bases.

India offered an array of goods for Europeans, such as spices needed for the preservation of meat; silks and indigo dye for fine clothing; potassium nitrate for gunpowder manufacture; and opium, which was used for medicinal purposes. European trade grew rapidly as merchants enjoyed unrestricted access throughout India.

In 1612, King James I of England sent a trade mission to the court of Emperor Jahangir. His purpose was to request permission for new trade outposts throughout India. Jahangir welcomed the British envoy Sir Thomas Roe and invited the British to trade wherever they wished. This marked the beginning of a long period of British trade interest in India. As Britain's naval dominance grew, so did its influence in India.

> *When your Majesty shall open this letter let your royal heart be as fresh as a sweet garden. Let all people make reverence at your gate; let your throne be advanced higher; amongst the greatness of the kings of the prophet Jesus ... I have given my general command ... to receive all the merchants of the English nation as the subjects of my friend; that in what place so ever they choose to live, they may have free liberty without any restraint; and at what port so ever they shall arrive, that neither Portugal nor any other shall dare to molest their quiet ... For confirmation of our love and friendship, I desire your Majesty to command your merchants to bring in their ships of all sorts of rarities and rich goods fit for my palace ... Your Majesty is learned and quick-sighted as a prophet, and can conceive so much by few words that I need write no more.*

SOURCE 5.8.5 Excerpts from a letter sent from the Mughal Emperor Jahangir to King James I of England in 1612

Q
1. What commitment does Jahangir make to King James?
2. Which statement shows that Jahangir respects the religion of the English king?
3. Identify the words and phrases that reveal the deep respect Jahangir has for King James.

DECLINE OF THE MUGHALS

PROBLEMS OF SUCCESSION

Questions over who would succeed the living emperor always seemed to trouble the Mughals. Throughout the eighteenth century the problem became worse, as no Mughal emperor could hold onto power for more than a decade. Wars of succession, usually between sons of the emperor from different mothers, severely weakened the Mughal armies. Competing claimants to the throne were always ready to use their own armies to defeat their rival relatives. While they were fighting among themselves, the Mughals could not keep control of the provinces throughout India.

INTERNAL RIVALS

The Mughals never conquered the whole of India. Much of the south remained largely beyond their control. They also ignored local princes who had grown powerful. Although the Mughal armies had been strong enough to defeat local chieftains in battle, they could not remain in every province to ensure ongoing obedience. Many of the provincial governors who had been appointed by the Mughals simply began to apply their own laws and make their own appointments to positions of local importance. As the Mughal armies weakened, villages that were once protected by them became vulnerable to attack. Over time, local princes reclaimed more and more of their original land. This ensured that their peasants were protected and that farming was not interrupted by outside raiders.

EXTERNAL RIVALS

In 1739, the King of Persia attacked the Mughal capital of Delhi and killed more than 30 000 people. The Mughal armies never recovered from this setback and eventually became so weak that their empire was limited to just Delhi. Throughout India, power began to shift towards the local rulers, or **nawabs**, and the powerful foreign companies whose economic influence dominated entire regions. Armies belonging to the French East India Company and the British East India Company fought against one another in the Karnatic Wars from 1744 to 1763. These had begun over a dispute about who should be made the nawab of Karnataka. Each claimant to the regional throne promised important trade concessions to the company that supported him. In 1753, with the help of British troops, the French and their Indian supporters were defeated. This marked the beginning of British dominance over trade in India.

SOURCE 5.8.7 Close-up of marble inlay in the Taj Mahal

SOURCE 5.8.6 The Taj Mahal at Agra, India, by Thomas and William Daniell, published in London, 1801. The Taj Mahal took more than twenty years to build.

MUGHAL CULTURAL INFLUENCES

PERSIAN TRENDS

The Mughals always looked to Persia as their homeland, which they hoped to one day unite with India. Jahangir made Persian the official language of the Mughal court. Persian fashion was also popular among the nobles. Under Jahangir, paintings became much smaller and more in line with Persian works of art of the day. These usually depicted court scenes, the natural world and individual portraits in a colourful yet realistic way. This also showed the influence that European painting had had on Jahangir.

LITERATURE AND LEARNING

Many epics from Hindu mythology were translated into Persian and decorated with miniature scenes painted in the style preferred by Jahangir. The Mughals' love of poetry and literature meant that the Great Mughals from Akbar onwards built libraries and commissioned calligraphers to produce more and more copies of the great works of Persian and Indian literature. Akbar, Jahangir and his successor, Shan Jana, also encouraged the writing of literature in native Indian languages such as Hindi, Urdu, Tamil and Sanskrit. Both Babur and his great-grandson Jahangir wrote extensive autobiographies and almost all of the Great Mughals were prolific poets.

ARCHITECTURE

The most lasting influence of the Mughals is their elaborate architecture. In 1632, Emperor Shah Jahan was so overcome with grief at the loss of his wife that he commissioned work on a huge marble mausoleum for her. The world-famous Taj Mahal took more than twenty years to build. Its gardens alone took five years to complete. The Taj Mahal is impressive not just for its size and design, but also for its finely decorated marble exterior featuring verses from the Koran.

MUGHAL FOOD

Many of the meat dishes you are likely to find in any Indian restaurant today have their origins in Mughal times. While most Hindus are strictly vegetarian, the Mughals were meat eaters and brought many of their recipes with rich sauces to India. These were combined with new spices found only in India to produce a type of dish, which is today called Mughlai cuisine. They also introduced the portable tandoor oven, which could be used anywhere to cook bread and meat on skewers. Mughlai cuisine tends to be most common in the north of India, where Mughal influence was strongest.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- infidel
- inquisition
- Mughal
- nawab
- rice Christian

Understanding

2 Reread 'The beginning of Mughal rule'. In your notebook, complete the following 'fact file' about the Mughal emperor Babur:

- full name
- known as
- period of rule
- family descent
- religion
- achievements

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'Golden age of the Mughals'.

a For how long did Akbar rule the Mughal Empire in India?

b What methods did Akbar use to extend Mughal influence in India?

c How did Akbar develop trade in India?

d Why was Akbar respected by the majority of Hindus, event though he was a Muslim?

e Explain what the Divine Faith was and how it was created.

4 Reread 'European contact'.

a What was unique about the Portuguese colony at Goa?

b How and why did the Catholic Church persecute Christians in Goa?

c Why did Europeans see India as an important place for trade?

d Why did European trade develop throughout India?

e Describe Jahangir's response to the British trade mission that arrived in 1612. Why was this significant?

Evaluating

5 Write a one-page extended response to the following question: *What caused the demise of the Mughal Empire in India?*

Begin your research by rereading the section 'Decline of the Mughals' and then conduct your own independent research. Structure your response so that each contributing factor is explained in a separate paragraph.

Creating

6 Produce a digital photo essay on the major legacies of Mughal culture. Use the information in the section 'Mughal cultural influences' to assist you. If using an electronic slide presentation program, divide your photo essay into different sections: art, fashion, literature, learning, religion, food and architecture. Locate as many relevant images as you can, ensuring that any digital images are not too small or pixelated.

CHANGE AND CONTINUITY IN INDIA

THE BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY

GROWTH OF COMPANY INFLUENCE

Throughout the eighteenth century the British East India Company established major trading bases at Surat, Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. By 1750, they were the dominant European power in India, having defeated the French and the Portuguese. In 1757, soldiers of the British East India Company defeated the nawab of Bengal and his French allies at the Battle of Plassey. This victory extended company rule to the densely populated region of Bengal. For the next one hundred years, the company further extended its territory by allowing mini-states such as Bengal to exist, as long as native rulers favoured British interests. The British argued that without their civilising influence, rulers of local kingdoms would have treated their subjects far worse.

COMPANY RULE

In 1774, Warren Hastings became the first British governor-general of India. His term in office lasted for more than a decade, during which time he was responsible for introducing codified or written law, law courts and a civil service. He expanded the territory under company control by winning a series of wars against the Marathas and the last remaining Mughals. This gave the British East India Company important territory throughout the north and along the east coast, down to southern India. To maintain control of such a large territory, Hastings had to transform the British East India Company into a political and military institution, rather than just a commercial one.

SOURCE 5.9.1 A British officer of the British East India Company taking part in a procession, 1825–30

Q
1 How has the artist depicted the importance of the English officer in this scene?
2 Which other figures have been shown as being important and why?

SOURCE 5.9.2 Fighting during the 'Great Rebellion'. Held at the National Army Museum, London, UK

Employees of the British East India Company were permitted to engage in private trade, and Hastings and others made personal fortunes from their time in India. Bribery and corruption were common. This not only resulted in loss of profits for the British East India Company, but also bred competition and suspicion between the top men in the company. In 1772, a parliamentary committee found that leading company employees had paid over £2 million in bribes and private 'gifts' to local Indian merchants and rulers.

Hastings returned to England in 1785 and he was impeached by the Parliament in 1787. This meant that he had to defend himself against charges of improper behaviour. The trial dragged on for seven years and although he was found not guilty, Hastings was declared bankrupt due to the costs of the trial. The trial highlighted the corrupt nature of company rule and turned public opinion in England against the British East India Company.

THE COMPANY IN DECLINE

Towards the end of the eighteenth century, Parliament introduced important reforms to the way the British East India Company was run. The most important of these was the division of the company into commercial and administrative branches, and a requirement that no employee could work in both. This meant that government officials could not engage in business and therefore be tempted by corruption. Employment in the high ranks of the civil service was limited to men of British origin, but Indians were permitted to join the lower ranks. To ensure tighter company control over the mini-kingdoms under its control, a collector was appointed to collect taxes, act as local magistrate and organise the police force.

British men who had grown wealthy, either legally or illegally, in India were referred to in Britain as **nabobs**. These men lived lavish lifestyles on large estates they would never have hoped to own in England. Due to the lack of European women and the considerable expense of marrying in England, many nabobs took Indian mistresses, known as **bibi**. Within the privacy of their own estates, nabobs often dressed as Indians and adopted Indian customs. Bibis were never invited to British social gatherings. Many children were born to these men. The practice of taking Indian mistresses was officially prohibited in the 1790s.

In 1813, the British Parliament ended the monopoly of the British East India Company in India. This gave a greater number of merchants access to Indian markets. As a result, the British East India Company fell heavily into debt, as it had to compete with other British traders.

THE GREAT REBELLION OF 1857

THE SEPOY ARMY

To protect its territorial interests, the British East India Company created an army of Indian soldiers from the finest native fighters throughout India. Known as sepoys, these soldiers had helped oust the French from India and defeat local nawabs who opposed British rule. The sepoy army grew into a much larger army before the Battle of Plassey, when the British needed a stronger force to claim Bengal. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, the company's army of sepoys was about 150 000 strong, making it one of the largest armies in the world at the time. By 1852, this number had grown to 233 000.

Sepoys often took great pride in their regiments' achievements. Regular pay and a pension on retirement meant that enlistment in the sepoy army was considered prestigious. A bright red coat with gold buttons gave the sepoy a distinct look. Only men of British origin, however, could become officers.

KEY FEATURES OF THE GREAT REBELLION

In 1852, a new type of rifle, the Lee Enfield, was supplied to the sepoy army. This rifle used a special type of paper cartridge greased with fat from pig and cow fat to keep the gunpowder dry. Hindu and Muslim soldiers refused to bite the end of the cartridge open because Hindus

The British were forced to call for reinforcements from home. Although the rebel force had grown to a formidable size, it lacked clear goals about what to do next. Delhi was quickly recaptured and the leaders of the rebellion rounded up and executed.

By December, the siege of Lucknow was over and the British retook Lucknow the following March. With the help of loyal sepoys from the Punjab, British soldiers began to take revenge on villages that had supported the rebels. Rebellious sepoys were executed without trial. Some were even tied to the mouths of cannons and blasted to pieces.

MUTINY, REBELLION OR WAR OF INDEPENDENCE?

There has been much dispute between Indian and British historians about the naming of the Great Rebellion of 1857. While the British at the time saw it as a localised mutiny that was not supported by most Indians, Indian historians have tended to view it as a large-scale rebellion against foreign rule. They claim that what began as a particular problem within the sepoy army quickly attracted large-scale support from Hindus and Muslims who sought to restore Mughal rule. Some have even called it a war of independence, similar in nature to the American Revolution against British rule a century earlier.

regard the cow as sacred, while Muslims consider the pig unclean. (Some historians now consider that the Hindu and Muslim soldiers may have been misled about this use of pig and cow fat on the rifles.) Although the new cartridges provided the immediate reason for the revolt, tension had been developing for some time. Many Hindus and Muslims felt discriminated against and were angry about growing numbers of conversions to Christianity.

In May 1857, eighty-five sepoys were arrested for refusing to touch the cartridges. After attacking their barracks and killing their British officers, growing numbers of rebels marched to Delhi and occupied the city. There they attempted to restore one of the Mughal descendants to the throne. In a short time, the rebellion spread throughout the north of India to the Punjab and Bengal regions. Within weeks the rebels had also taken the cities of Cawnpore and Lucknow. In Cawnpore, all 400 English inhabitants, including women and children, were killed.

> *The bodies ... were dragged out, most of them by the hair of their head. Those who had clothes worth taking were stripped. Some of the women were alive ... they prayed for the sake of God that an end might be put to their sufferings ... Three boys were alive ... The eldest, I think, must have been six or seven, and the youngest five years. They were running round the well (where else could they go?) and there was none to save them.*

THE BRITISH RAJ

THE END OF COMPANY RULE

The Great Rebellion of 1857 brought significant changes to the nature of British rule in India. Only British officers were given charge of the artillery and more British soldiers were incorporated into the army. More importantly, though, the Sepoy Mutiny, as the British called it, brought an end to company rule and marked the beginning of direct government rule in India, known as the **British Raj** (*raj* is a Hindi word for 'rule').

Within a year, the British Parliament had appointed a new **viceroy** to carry out the will of parliament. In November 1858, Queen Victoria announced important changes to improve the nature of British rule. She declared that all her Indian subjects would be protected under British law; that religious tolerance would be shown in all affairs; that new opportunities would be provided for Indians to join the civil service; and that the land rights of native princes would be respected. This revoked an earlier law under which the British could claim land if no male heir existed to inherit it.

SOURCE 5.9.3 Extract from 'Cawnpore', a bystander's account written eight years after the massacre at Cawnpore, quoted in *A Brief History of India*, by Judith E. Walsh, 2006

Q
1 According to the account, what were the reactions of the remaining survivors?
2 What are the strengths and weaknesses of this account, in terms of its reliability?

SOURCE 5.9.4 British India and the Princely States, published in *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, 1909

Q
1 **Identify the regions that were considered Princely States after 1858.**
2 **Which regions belonged to British India?**

THE 'PRINCELY STATES'

In keeping with the promise to acknowledge the rights of native rulers, India was divided in two—British India and Princely India. While the governor-general ruled over British India, the British viceroy was ultimately responsible for both domains. British India consisted of the territory that had been ruled by the British East India Company. This made up about 60 per cent of the subcontinent. Princely India was made up of 562 Native States. Native princes were permitted to implement their own laws, but the British could intervene if trouble arose. This was their reward for not taking part in the rebellion against the British. Over time, many of these princes proved to be the greatest supporters of the British. Most were young and had been educated in England, and many spent most of the year living the high life in London.

CHANGES TO INDIAN SOCIETY

BRITISH EDUCATION

In 1835, Thomas Macaulay argued that it was in Britain's interests to create a new class of Indians that was 'English in taste, in opinions, in morals, and in intellect'. He believed this could be achieved through the establishment of English-speaking schools and universities.

By 1854, English universities had been established in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, and there were English primary and secondary schools right throughout British India. This was a remarkable achievement, since there were no government schools in Britain itself at the time.

In order to enter the British civil service, Indians had to sit a very competitive exam at one of the English-speaking universities. This system attracted many children from wealthier Indian families, and by 1918, Calcutta University had become the largest university in the world, with about 27 000 students.

Many of the printing presses established in India produced only English material. This assisted the spread of English throughout India. By 1911, printing was the second largest industry in Calcutta, the capital of the British Raj. By this time, every city in British India also had its own local language newspaper. Textbooks, however, were the most popular books published. Many of these stressed the benefits of British rule and the inferiority of Indian values. They promised a bright future to students who ended up working in the British civil service in India. Despite this, there was only a 10 per cent pass rate in the university entrance exams.

THE SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY

Under company rule, no missionary was allowed to live on the trading bases. In 1813, however, the British government ended the exclusive trade rights of the British East India Company. This opened India to new merchants and allowed more missionaries to stay for longer. Britain experienced an **evangelical revival** at this time, which saw an increase in church attendance and a new enthusiasm to preach the gospel to people of other religions, especially in India.

For Hindus and Muslims, conversion to Christianity brought great shame to their families and many reacted by disinheriting children who converted. In 1850, the British introduced the Caste Disabilities Act, which protected the property rights of individuals who converted to Christianity from other religions. The removal of this obstacle helped the spread of Christianity in India.

MODERNISATION

Throughout the nineteenth century, India was seen as the 'jewel in the crown' of the British Empire. This belief reflected the British view that they had transformed India into a civilised and prosperous society. Unlike other European colonisers, the British could proudly to point to the development of a road and rail network, schools and universities, hospitals, a large civil service and greater rights and freedoms for the natives under their control. A vast administration had led to the growth of major cities in British India. The introduction of clocks, a fairly recent contribution of the industrial age, helped organise thousands of civil servants. Office work began and ended at a set time each day. Railway timetables also were based on precise timing.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering

1 Define the terms below.

- bibi
- British Raj
- evangelical revival
- nabob
- viceroy

2 Reread this unit in order to place the following events in the correct chronological order. Then construct a timeline with dates on one side and events on the other.

- British East India Company rule ends
- The Sepoy army grows to 233 000 men
- The Great Rebellion begins
- The Battle of Plassey
- The end of the British East India Company's monopoly in India
- Calcutta University becomes the largest university in the world
- Beginning of the British Raj
- Warren Hastings becomes governor-general of India

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'The British East India Company' and 'Changes to Indian society' and then create a PMI chart about the positive and negative impacts of the British in India, as well as impacts that cannot be classified as either, but which help your understanding of the role of the British in India.

4 Reread 'The Great Rebellion of 1857'.

a What was the sepoy army and why was it important to the British East India Company?
b Why did sepoys join the British army?
c What are the different historical perspectives on the Great Rebellion of 1857? Which name do you think applies best?
d What were the causes of the Great Rebellion?
e How do you think the media in England reported events such as the massacre at Cawnpore?
f What methods did the British use to recapture fallen cities?
g How did the British deal with captured rebels and their supporters?

Evaluating and analysing

5 Reread 'The British Raj', and then create a detailed mind map titled 'Changes to British rule after the Great Rebellion'. Try to add three levels of branches, starting from the centre and expanding to the edges of the page. Begin with general points, and then expand upon these by adding new branches with more specific points. This will require you to use a full A4 page and to use most of the space provided.

UNIT 10

A KEY EVENT IN INDIAN SOCIETY: RESPONSE TO BRITISH RULE

WESTERNISATION

Many wealthier Indians adopted English culture, language and lifestyle, and came to see British ways as being superior to Indian ways. They criticised India's 'backwardness' and cultural practices, such as the caste system, under which Indians were organised into four castes, or social classes, according to their family of birth. Many educated Indians believed that this system discriminated against the majority of Indians who belonged to the lower castes or had no caste at all. Many Indian supporters of the British even gave up their Hindu vegetarianism, believing that it stunted their growth. Common practices, such as child marriage and a ban on widows from remarrying, were questioned for the first time.

SOURCE 5.10.1 British girls in sedan chair carried by Indian servants, c. 1895

Q How could a historian use this photograph to show attitudes of British colonists at the time?

INDIAN NATIONALISM

British-educated Indians became increasingly aware of their rights as they were taught about the development of British democracy. Many believed that it was time for British rule to end. Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Indian nationalism had emerged as a significant movement. Indian nationalism was the belief that India should be governed by Indians and for Indians. The formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885 attracted many educated Indians who were critical of British rule. At the risk of being imprisoned, leaders of the Indian National Congress called for home rule, which meant government run by Indians, but still belonging to the British Empire.

FIGHTING FOR THE EMPIRE

By the end of World War I, about 827 000 Indian volunteers had joined the British army. The pay of 11 rupees a month attracted many recruits. Many of the officers in the Indian Army were British. Fighting for the first time as an Indian army, many soldiers expressed their allegiance to 'King and Empire' in letters home. About 62 000 Indian soldiers died during World War I, which is roughly the same as the number of Australians who died. During World War I, nine Indian soldiers were awarded the Victoria Cross, the highest honour for an act of bravery on the battlefield.

SOURCE 5.10.2 Bengal Lancers in the Indian Army during World War I

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Analysing and applying

The Y3 method is a way of analysing a historical event by asking and answering the question 'why?' three times. The result is that you can see a historical chain of cause and effect. Here is an example.

Event or issue: Causes of the Great Rebellion of 1857

First *why*: Why did so many Indians join the sepoy army?

Second *why*: Why did sepoys revolt against their officers?

Third *why*: Why had Hindus and Muslims grown resentful towards the British?

Try the Y3 method on an event or issue mentioned in this unit. You can present your results in the form of a flow chart with boxes and arrows showing the chain of cause and effect.

INTRODUCING THE DUTCH EAST INDIES

A DIVERSE ARCHIPELAGO

During the colonial era, the cluster of islands today known as Indonesia was called the Dutch East Indies. This **archipelago** consists of about 17 000 islands, 6000 of which are inhabited by people. Java is the most populated of these islands and contains the Indonesian capital of Jakarta, which was established as the Dutch trading base of Batavia in 1619. Today, Indonesia contains 230 million people who speak 737 languages.

THE SPICE ISLANDS

For centuries before the arrival of Europeans, merchants from the Middle East and China came to the East Indies, trading mainly in spices, silk, perfume, incense and opium. Spices were highly valuable commodities at the time, considered by many to be almost as precious as gold.

In the age before refrigeration, spices such as black pepper, nutmeg, cardamom, ginger, cloves and cinnamon were important for preserving meat. Spices were also thought to have medicinal purposes and, like today, were used to flavour cooking. Nutmeg and cloves were especially rare, as they tended to grow on only a small group of volcanic islands, known as the Moluccas. These and other 'Spice Islands' were part of a long trade route that stretched across land and sea from the East Indies, through Asia and Turkey, to Venice.

The first Europeans to take part in the spice trade were the Portuguese, who established a trading base at Malacca in 1511. The arrival of the Spanish a decade later saw the beginning of European competition for control of the profitable spice route.

SOURCE 5.11.1 East Indies, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Thailand, Vietnam, published in *Geographicus*, 1842

Q What difficulties would the Dutch have had governing such a large archipelago?

> *[It] comforts the brain, sharpens the memory, warms and strengthens the maw (mouth and throat), drives wind out of the body, makes the breath sweet, drives down urine, and is good against all cold diseases in the brain and the maw.*

SOURCE 5.11.2 Dutch merchant Jan van Linschoten on the value of nutmeg. Quoted in *Indonesia*, by Florence Lamoureux, 2003

Q **How does this source help us to understand the demand for spices such as nutmeg in the seventeenth century?**

THE ARRIVAL OF THE DUTCH

During the sixteenth century, Dutch traders acted as the middlemen in the spice trade, buying spices from Spanish and Portuguese ships and selling them into northern Europe. In 1580, however, this trade was interrupted when the Spanish closed the port of Lisbon to the Dutch. By the following decade, the Netherlands had gained independence from Spain, and Dutch merchants were no longer restricted to being just middlemen. In 1595, Cornelius de Houteman led the first Dutch expedition to the East Indies and, by the following year, a further twenty-two Dutch ships had arrived. Dutch merchants were soon making profits of up to 400 per cent from the sale of spices.

In 1600, the people of the island of Ambon asked the Dutch to help them drive the Portuguese from their trading base at Maluku. In exchange for their military support, the Dutch were given exclusive trading rights to the spices grown in the region.

SOURCE 5.11.3 *The Return to Amsterdam of the Fleet of the Dutch East India Company in 1599*, by Andries van Eertvelt. Held at the National Maritime Museum, Greenwich, London

Q
1. **Why was this artwork produced?**
2. **What impression does it give about the importance of the Dutch navy at the time?**

THE DUTCH EAST INDIA COMPANY

In 1602, the Dutch East India Company was established and given a 21-year monopoly (or exclusive trade) over all foreign trade within the Dutch Empire. In 1603, the Dutch East India Company established its first trading post at Banten, on the island of Java. Known by its Dutch initials as the VOC, the Dutch East India Company became the world's first multinational company, with outposts scattered throughout the Dutch Empire.

The VOC appointed a governor-general to control all its territories in the East Indies. The governor-general was answerable to the seventeen directors of the Dutch East India Company in Amsterdam but had enormous power to declare war and sign trade agreements with other European traders and local natives. Jan Pieterszoon Coen, governor-general from 1619 to 1623, adopted an aggressive policy for control over the Spice Islands by famously declaring that the Dutch 'cannot have trade without war, nor war without trade'.

In 1619, the VOC established Batavia, their main trading base, on the island of Java. Along with control of the former Portuguese base at Maluku, the Dutch were able to dominate the trade route to and from the Spice Islands. The Dutch East India Company drove native spice farmers

from their land and encouraged the Dutch planters, called **perkeniers**, to settle in the East Indies. To minimise their costs, the perkeniers brought slaves to grow and harvest spice crops.

While the Dutch possessed the third-largest navy in the world during the seventeenth century, they lacked the industrial capacity of the British and the French. This forced them to protect the trade within their empire by making foreign imports more expensive. A 25 per cent tax on all foreign goods gave the Dutch government a tight economic control of its colonies. Despite this, the VOC was not able to maintain its monopoly of the spice trade. Eventually, other growers were able to plant spice seeds that had been smuggled from the Dutch East Indies. This eventually led to an oversupply of spices and a fall in their price. Wars with Britain and France during the second half of the seventeenth century also meant that the Dutch government had fewer resources available to help finance the Dutch East India Company.

SOURCE 5.11.5 Jan Pieterszoon Coen, governor-general of the Dutch East Indies, 1619–23, by Jacob Waben. Held at Westfries Museum, Hoorn, The Netherlands

SOURCE 5.11.4 Spices such as these were valuable commodities in Europe from the sixteenth century.

SOURCE 5.11.6 Flag of the Dutch East India Company

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- archipelago
- perkenier

Understanding

2 Reread 'The Spice Islands' and 'The arrival of the Dutch'.

a Who were the first non-Europeans to establish the spice trade?

b Why were spices considered important at the time?

c What made the Moluccas important in the spice trade?

d Where did the 'spice route' travel through?

e Who were the first Europeans to take part in the spice trade?

f What role did the Dutch originally play in the spice trade?

g When and why did Dutch merchants begin arriving in the Spice Islands?

h How did Dutch traders gain an advantage over the Portuguese?

Understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'The Dutch East India Company' and write a paragraph in response to each of the following.

a Outline the role played by the Dutch East India Company in the Dutch East Indies.

b Explain the reasons for the failure of the Dutch East India Company.

UNIT 12

CHANGE AND CONTINUITY IN THE DUTCH EAST INDIES

BRITISH CONTROL

Over time, the VOC fell further and further in debt. Dutch trade was severely interrupted during the 1780s when Holland went to war with Britain. In 1801, the Dutch East India Company was officially declared bankrupt and the Dutch government was forced to take control of its assets and territories. In 1806, the British took possession of the Dutch East Indies during the Napoleonic wars.

Thomas Stamford Raffles, the British governor of Java, introduced many important changes during this time. He abolished slavery in the East Indies, spoke out against the evils of the opium trade, ended the system of forced labour on former Dutch plantations, and introduced taxation of the population. During this time road rules were introduced—this is why Indonesians drive on the left-hand side of the road today. In 1816, after victory in the Napoleonic wars, Britain agreed to return the East Indies to the Dutch in exchange for improved trading rights.

DUTCH CONTROL: THE CULTIVATION SYSTEM

With the decline of the spice trade, the Dutch government sought to increase exports of other crops such as coffee, tea, cotton, indigo and palm oil. These were products that had become popular in Europe. Dutch administrators reasoned that Java's fertile soil meant that peasants had to work for only 120 days to feed their families. The remainder of the year could be spent planting and harvesting government crops for export. In 1830, the Dutch replaced direct taxation with a **quota** (or target amount) of produce. This meant that the Dutch government received a set quantity of produce at no cost. This system, known as the **cultivation system**, richly rewarded local chiefs for exceeding their quota.

Over time, more and more Javanese peasants were forced to set aside their best land for the cultivation of government crops. A Dutch government 'controller' ensured that regional rulers produced their set quota. In general, the Dutch were more interested in trade than political control, and tended to keep out of native affairs unless these interfered with profit making. As a result, many regional chiefs were able to exploit peasants by underestimating the amount peasants produced, forcing them to work harder on government crops.

The cultivation system was plagued by bribery and corruption. Over time, quota requirements grew larger and larger and, with less time for their own farming, peasants were often malnourished and poor.

> *England expends the whole of her enormous revenue in India and sends not a rupee (Indian currency) westwards ... while Holland receives ... more than one-third of her colony's income. We lay ourselves out to give every Indian ... what is practically a free education right up to the Universities which we have established, and still continue to establish, all over India: Holland ... keeps its Eastern subjects as stupid and ignorant as is possible.*

SOURCE 5.12.1

From *Some Notes on Java and its Administration by the Dutch*, by Henry Scott Boys, an English civil servant in India, in 1892

Q

1 **How does the author of this source view Dutch colonialism in the East Indies?**

2 **Account for this perspective.**

THE LIBERAL ERA

During the mid-nineteenth century, Dutch citizens became increasing aware of the injustices caused by the cultivation system. These changing attitudes owed a lot to the popularity of the novel *Max Havelaar* written by Dutch author Eduard Douwes Dekker in 1860. This novel highlighted the corruption of the Dutch colonial government and spoke out against the exploitation of ordinary Javanese peasants.

> *The government compels [the Javanese peasant] to produce on* his *land what pleases* it*; it punishes him when he sells this crop to anyone else but* it*; and* it *fixes the price* it *pays him ...*
>
> Famine*? In rich, fertile blessed Java—*famine*? Yes, reader. Only a few years ago, whole districts died of starvation. Mothers offered their children for sale to obtain food. Mothers ate their children ...*

SOURCE 5.12.2

From *Max Havelaar*, by Eduard Douwes Dekker, 1860, quoted in *A History of Asia*, by N. & V. Rajendra & C. Lower, 1984

At the same time, many people began calling for the East Indies to be opened up to private trade. During the 1860s, compulsory government crops were gradually abolished and the cultivation system dismantled. This marked the beginning of a 'liberal' era, during which private investment in the East Indies flourished and the welfare of native peasants was given greater consideration. In 1870, a new law stated that only indigenous Javanese were permitted to purchase land from the government, but could lease it to foreigners for up to twenty years. This led to the establishment of large plantation estates, on which hired labour replaced peasants as the main producer of export crops.

As a result, peasants lost an important source of income and many were forced to become workers on large Dutch estates, where they were paid very little and forced to work long hours. Exports to Holland grew rapidly during this period—the Dutch extracted profits from the East Indies that were twenty times the amount they spent there.

YEAR	TONNES PRODUCED
1885	380 400
1890	400 000
1895	581 600
1900	744 300

SOURCE 5.12.3 Sugar production in Java, 1885–1900

Q **This table shows the levels of sugar production during the liberal period of Dutch rule in Java. What conclusions can be drawn about the economic impact of the policy for the Dutch?**

Despite promising to improve life for peasants, the reforms of the liberal era actually resulted in a drop in living standards. Rice production fell and wages declined. A period of economic depression during the mid-nineteenth century made the problem worse and resulted in a rural famine in which over 250 000 Javanese starved to death. Despite these deaths, a rapid birth rate meant that there was even less food available for the growing population. By the end of the nineteenth century, the Javanese population had grown to about 28 million from just 2.5 million in 1800.

SOURCE 5.12.4 Dutch East Indies coin, minted in 1893

In 1901, Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands declared that the Dutch had a moral responsibility to look after the welfare of her subjects in the East Indies. This marked the beginning of the **ethical policy** based on the principles of education, irrigation and emigration.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- cultivation system
- ethical policy
- quota

Evaluating

2 Create a PMI chart about the cultivation system. Carefully consider who benefited from the system and who was disadvantaged by it.

Evaluating and analysing

3 Reread 'The liberal era'. Imagine that you are either a Dutch citizen from Amsterdam or a Javanese peasant during the liberal era (1870–1901). Explain your perspective on the reforms implemented by the Dutch government during the liberal era.

UNIT 13

A KEY EVENT IN THE DUTCH EAST INDIES: WARS OF RESISTANCE

THE PADRI WAR (1821–37)

In western Sumatra, the **Padri** declared a **jihad**, or holy war, against all non-believers, including foreigners. Their followers were required to wear white robes and turbans to show the purity of their belief and faced harsh punishments for disobedience. The Padri, or 'white people', opposed local chiefs who had traditionally acquired land through their mother's line. This was a practice strictly forbidden by Islamic shariah law.

After failing to defeat the Padri, the local chiefs turned for assistance to the Dutch, who in 1821, began a long and drawn-out war. Eventually, the Padri were forced to retreat to the heavily fortified town of Bonjol, where they were able to withstand a Dutch siege for another three years. In 1837, Bonjol fell to the Dutch, who were then able to extend their control over the island of Sumatra.

THE JAVA WAR (1825–30)

While they were fighting the Padri, far greater problems forced the Dutch to focus their attention on the island of Java. Prince Diponegoro, the Javanese ruler, led a rebellion against the Dutch for building a road across his father's burial site. Javanese nobles were also resentful of the Dutch for taking away their ownership of the land. Diponegoro soon attracted many supporters from among the peasantry, who flocked to join his army.

A bitter five-year conflict resulted in the deaths of over 200 000 people and left the Dutch government heavily in debt. Diponegoro was eventually captured after he agreed to meet with the Dutch commanders to negotiate a truce. He was imprisoned on the island of Sulawesi, where Dutch control was at its strongest.

THE ACEH WAR (1873–1904)

The longest and most costly war was for control of the islands of Aceh. While the Dutch were able to capture Banda, the capital, they found it far more difficult to control the interior of the island, where most people lived. Heavily fortified bases were built to protect Dutch troops, but Acehnese guerrilla tactics made it difficult to gain control of the countryside. By 1903, the Dutch had gradually worn down Acehnese resistance and claimed control of most of the island. The Aceh war lasted for more than thirty years, and resulted in the deaths of about 15 000 Dutch soldiers and an estimated 25 000 Acehnese.

SOURCE 5.13.1 *Submission of Prince Diponegoro to General De Kock*, by Nicolaas Pieneman, 1835. Held at the Rijksmuseum, Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Q
1 How is Dutch authority represented in this painting?
2 What are the Javanese depicted doing? What does this suggest about the message of the artist?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- jihad
- Padri

Evaluating and creating

2 Working in groups, select *one* of the wars of resistance fought against the Dutch in the East Indies. Conduct research into the following focus questions:
- **a** Which native group was opposed to the Dutch?
- **b** What was their particular grievance?
- **c** Where was the war fought?
- **d** Why did the war last as long as it did?
- **e** How did the Dutch eventually defeat the opposition?

SOURCE STUDY: UNIT 14

ASIAN CULTURAL INFLUENCES

TEA FROM CHINA

Legend has it that the Chinese emperor Shennong first discovered tea in 2737BC(BCE) when a few dried tea leaves blew into his boiling water. Although he had not noticed the brownish colour of his water, Shennong admired the refreshing taste. Certainly, tea drinking had become widespread throughout China during the time of the Tang dynasty, from 618. Over a thousand years later, the Dutch were the first Europeans to import tea to Europe. China's isolation from the West, however, meant that only small amounts of tea were traded. Because of this scarcity and the high import duties on imported items, tea was affordable only to the very wealthy.

BRITAIN'S NATIONAL DRINK

In Britain, the first advertisement for tea appeared in a London newspaper in 1658. Tea drinking seems to have become more popular after 1662, when King Charles II married the Portuguese princess Catherine of Braganza, a heavy tea drinker. Over the next century, British imports of Chinese tea grew from about 100 kilograms in 1670 to 28 000 tonnes in 1760.

In 1784, tea was made even more affordable when the British government cut the import duty on Chinese tea from 119 per cent to just 12.5 per cent. In fact, three of the eleven ships of the First Fleet to settle Australia were required to return to England via Canton in China, where they were loaded up with tea. China remained virtually the sole supplier of tea to the West until the 1880s, when British India replaced it as the major grower of tea for British export.

PRODUCT	1670 %	1760 %
Pepper	25.3	4.4
Textiles	56.6	53.5
Raw silk	0.6	12.3
Tea	0.03	25.3
Other	17.5	4.5
Total	100	100

SOURCE 5.14.1 Products exported by British East India Company, as a percentage of its total exports, 1670 and 1760

SOURCE 5.14.2 Australian tea advertisement, 1880s. Held at the State Library of Victoria

SOURCE 5.14.3 Chinese tea workers in Canton, late nineteenth century

CHINESE DESIGN

During the nineteenth century, as the popularity of 'afternoon tea' increased in England, so did the demand for fine porcelain. Queen Victoria was introduced to the concept of afternoon tea by one of her close friends, Ann Russell, who used to complain of the 'sinking feeling' she often felt in the afternoon. As dinner times became later throughout the nineteenth century for those wealthy enough to have leisure time, people often needed to have a light meal with tea to take the edge off their hunger. The idea caught on among the members of high society, as did the demand for good-quality teapots, cups and saucers.

Chinese porcelain had long been recognised as the best in the world, and British manufacturers such as Josiah Wedgwood and Henry Doulton sought to discover the secret elements of fine Chinese porcelain. To replicate superior Chinese porcelain, British 'chinaware' was often decorated with Chinese designs. This influence of Chinese style on European design is referred to as 'chinoiserie'. Chinoiserie was especially popular in Europe during the nineteenth century and influenced the design of not only ceramics, but also furniture, domestic interiors, architecture and fashion.

SOURCE 5.14.4 Trading card produced by Johnson & Johnson Tea, 1910

THE JAPAN CRAZE IN ENGLAND

With the opening of Japan to merchants in the mid-nineteenth century, Victorian England became fascinated by all things Japanese. Japanese style and culture were introduced to the wider public in several public exhibitions, most notably the London International Exposition of 1862. In 1885, a Japanese Native Village exhibition was held in Knightsbridge, London. This involved the construction of a traditional Japanese village and employment of about 100 Japanese people to re-create daily village life for visitors. Such was the interest in Japanese culture that over 250 000 people visited the exhibition in its first few months.

> *Skilled Japanese artisans and workers male and female will illustrate the manners, customs, and art-industries of their country, attired in their national and picturesque costumes ... Magnificently decorated and illuminated Buddhist temple ... Five o'clock tea in the Japanese tea-house ... Japanese Musical and other Entertainments ... Everyday Life as in Japan.*

SOURCE 5.14.5 *The Illustrated London News* on the Japanese Village in Knightsbridge, London, 1885

SOURCE 5.14.6 Four soap collection card advertisements, based on the first performance of *The Mikado*, a comic opera by W. S. Gilbert and Arthur Sullivan, in 1885

Western consumers were eager to obtain goods from Japan and sellers were just as keen to promote the exotic nature of their Japanese products. Everything from toiletries to fish food was advertised using Japanese imagery and themes.

GILBERT AND SULLIVAN'S *THE MIKADO*

Gilbert and Sullivan's famous opera *The Mikado* opened at London's Savoy Theatre in 1885 and ran for a record 672 performances. Although the setting and characters in the opera were all Japanese, much of its content was fictional and many in Japan were offended by the comic portrayal of the emperor. Nevertheless, the popularity of *The Mikado* showed the extent of the Japan craze in Britain at the time. Japanese characters from *The Mikado* were even used to advertise products such as toothpaste.

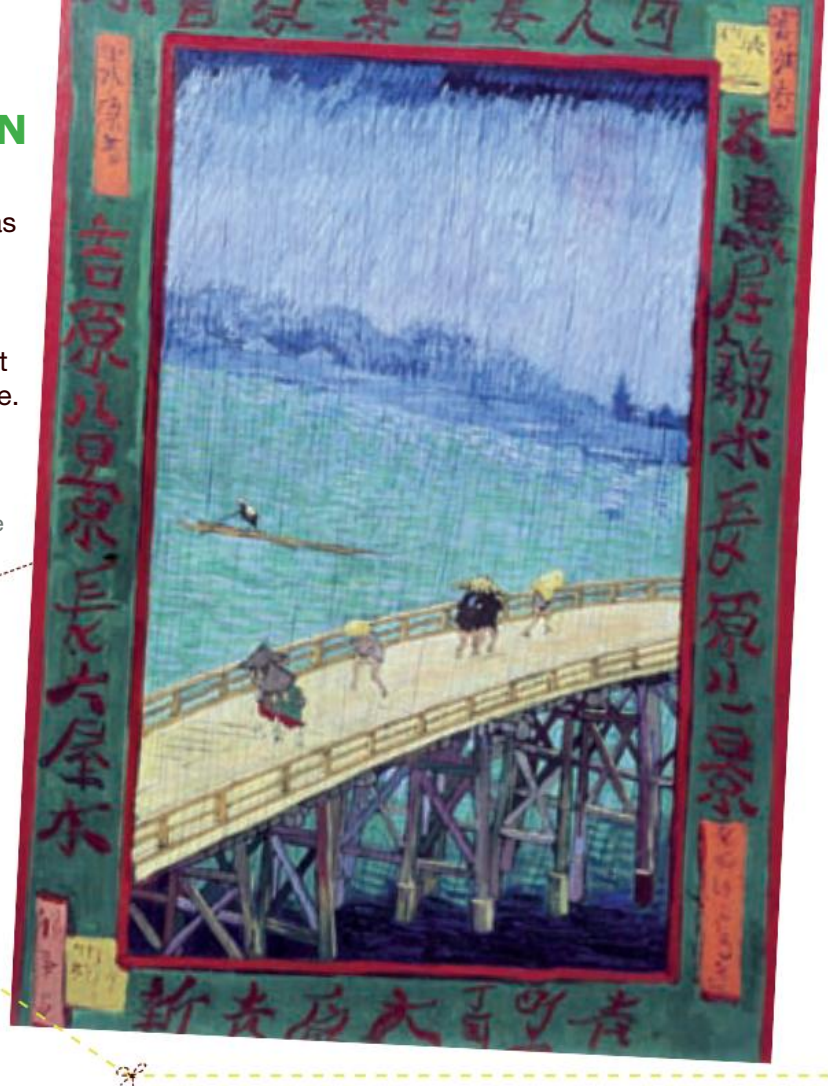
DID YOU KNOW?

KING GEORGE V HAD A JAPANESE-INSPIRED TATTOO.

The Japanese practice of tattooing was adopted in Europe during the late nineteenth century. During his 1882 visit to Japan, Britain's Duke of York, the future King George V, had a large Japanese dragon tattooed on his forearm. Japanese officials saw this as strange, as in Japan it was only commoners who typically had tattoos.

JAPANESE ART AND DESIGN

By the mid-1870s, Japanese artworks had begun having a major impact on European artists such as Claude Monet, Edgar Degas, Renoir and Vincent van Gogh. 'Japonisme' was the French name given to the artistic movement that adopted the distinctive Japanese characteristics of flat, vibrant colours with an absence of shadow or perspective.



SOURCE 5.14.7 *The Bridge*, 1886–88, by Vincent van Gogh, after *The Ohashi Bridge in the Rain*, by Ando Hiroshige (1797–1858)

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING AND EVALUATING

1 Examine Source 5.14.1 carefully and then answer the following questions:

- **a** Draw up a table for 1670 and another for 1760. Re-order each table with percentage share of products ranked from greatest to least.
- **b** Exports of which product increased the most from 1670 to 1760?
- **c** Use the information in the section 'Britain's national drink' to explain the reasons for the growth of tea consumption in Britain.

2 Reread 'The Japan craze in England' and then write dot-point notes under the following subheadings:

- Concepts: define key words related to the Japan craze.
- Causes: identify reasons for the development of the Japan craze.
- Characteristics: provide examples showing the extent of the Japan craze.

ANALYSING

3 Reread 'Chinese design', and then complete the following activities.

- **a** Define the term 'chinoiserie'.
- **b** Explain why Chinese designs became popular in nineteenth-century Britain.
- **c** Use the internet to locate as many other examples of chinoiserie as you can find.

EVALUATING AND CREATING

4 Research the japonisme art movement. Create a collage of images that highlight the main characteristics of japonisme, making sure that you label each image with its creator's name and date.

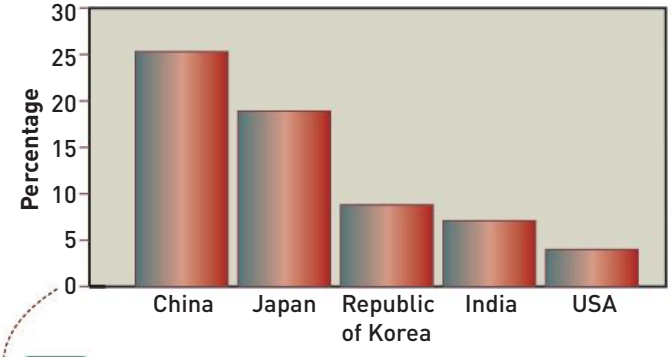
THE IMPORTANCE OF TRADE BETWEEN ASIA AND AUSTRALIA

CONNECTIONS TO...

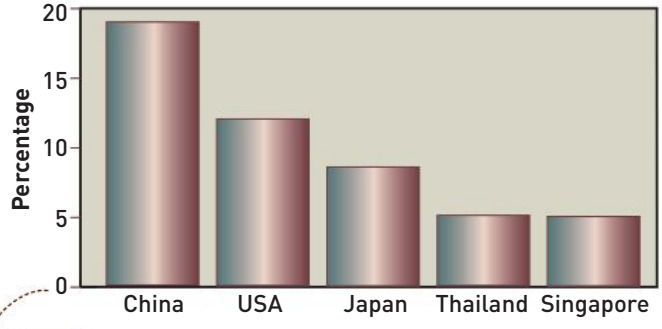
UNIT 15

AUSTRALIA'S TRADE WITH ASIA

Australia has had a long history of trade with Asia. With the development of trade restrictions in Europe, import and export in the Asia–Pacific area has become of greater economic and social importance to Australia. In 2010, Australia exported A$230 942 million worth of goods and imported A$210 113 million. China was the main source of both exports and imports. Of the top five sources of imports and export destinations, only the USA does not belong to the Asia–Pacific area.



SOURCE 5.15.1 Australia's main export destinations in 2010. From 'Australia fact sheet', Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2010



SOURCE 5.15.2 Australia's main import sources in 2010. From 'Australia fact sheet', Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2010

APEC

Established in 1989, Asia–Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) was established in response to growing trade relations within the Asia–Pacific area. The main aim of APEC is to promote regional development through better supply chains and business environments with member nations.

Australia's engagement with China and India, together with our traditionally strong commercial partners like Japan and Korea, has contributed to our economic recovery and the stability of our trade performance during the global downturn ...

In 2008–09, eight of Australia's top ten export destinations were from the Asia–Pacific. Seven out of ten of our top ten importing nations were also from the region.

China is expected to become the world's second largest economy after the US some time this decade.

India, which is Australia's fastest growing trading partner in 2008–09, is well on its way to becoming a major global economic power.

In South–East Asia, six out of ten ASEAN [Association of Southeast Asian Nations] economies are expected to grow at rates at least double the forecast OECD [Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development] average in 2010.

Australian businesses should take advantage of our proximity to this 'triangle' of global growth and build on our fundamentally strong economic links with the region.

SOURCE 5.15.3 Anthony Byrne, Parliamentary Secretary for Trade, 16 February 2010

TIME TO THINK...

Use these deep questions in small group or class discussions, as your teacher decides.

1 **CONTINUITY AND CHANGE**
Reflect on the content in this chapter. How has Australia's relationship with Asia changed over time?

2 **SIGNIFICANCE**
Identify the reasons why Australia's economic relationship with Asia is so important.

3 **PERSPECTIVES**
Not all members of APEC belong to the Asia–Pacfic area. Identify reasons why non-Asia–Pacfic countries would want to be members of APEC.

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Religions of Asia

Write a report on *one* of the following religions in the Asia–Pacific region:

- Confucianism
- Shinto
- Taoism
- Shamanism
- Cao Daism
- Mahayana Buddhism
- Theravada Buddhism
- Islam
- Sikhism
- Hinduism
- Protestantism
- Catholicism

Structure your report under the following section headings:

- How the religion came to Asia
- Main beliefs and important books
- Number of followers
- Location of followers
- Major ceremonies and symbols
- Organisation of the religion

Include fully labelled images to support your information.

#2 Research essay

Conduct independent research in response to the following essay question:

Compare and contrast the response of two Asian societies to foreign imperialism during the nineteenth century.

In planning your essay, make sure it is well structured. It should have:

- an introduction identifying two Asian societies that were forced to respond to foreign imperialism. This should provide a clear definition of the term 'foreign imperialism' and identify key events and/or issues showing similarities and differences between the response of the two Asian societies
- a body, made up of a series of paragraphs. These should each expand upon one of the events or issues outlined in the introduction
- a conclusion, which sums up the key areas of similarity and difference between responses of the two Asian societies to foreign imperialism.

Also provide a bibliography that acknowledges the sources of your information.

#3 Horseshoe debate

Prepare for a horseshoe debate by making a list of arguments for or against the following proposition:

The opening of Asia during the nineteenth century benefited only the foreign powers.

Unlike a traditional debate in which you would have to argue for the affirmative or the negative, a horseshoe debate allows you to change sides as you become more or less convinced by the arguments of your class members. The classroom should be structured with seating in the shape of a 'U' or horseshoe. On the right of the horseshoe are those who agree with the proposition and on the left are those who disagree. By sitting further to the left or right you are informing everyone that you either strongly agree or disagree with the proposition. Those who are uncertain will sit in the middle of the horseshoe, but need to decide to which side they lean.

To ensure the debate runs smoothly it is important that everyone makes a brief opening statement after seating himself or herself accordingly. Feel free to change seats as you change your mind. At the end, debrief by noting how the horseshoe looked at the beginning of the debate and how it looks at the end. Discuss the most convincing arguments, one way or the other, and give feedback to the class about whether or not you finished the debate with a new point of view.

SOURCE 5.16.1

Foreign business district in Yokohama, 1871, by Utagawa Hiroshige

CHAPTER 6

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- How did the Australian colonies develop and what were the impacts of this on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People?
- How was life different for non-Europeans living in colonial Australia?
- How and why did Australian democracy develop?
- What was life and work like for Australians at the turn of the twentieth century?
- What was the significance of the first reforms introduced by the new federal parliament after 1901?

DEPTH STUDY 2
AUSTRALIA AND ASIA

Less than a century after the arrival of the British in Australia, six separate British colonies had been established across the continent. As new settlers moved into frontier regions they frequently came into conflict with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People who actively resisted the taking of their land. Contact with European settlers brought with it killer diseases, alcohol, exploitation and abuse.

By the 1870s, a growing sense of Australian identity had developed throughout the population. This saw the call for nationhood become louder as the century drew to a close. By 1900, referendums held in each of the six colonies saw voters say 'yes' to a new federal constitution. Australian nationhood was therefore achieved peacefully and democratically because self-government based on full male suffrage had already existed in each colony. On 1 January 1901, the six former British colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia became the states of a new Australian federation. This marked the beginning of independent nationhood for the Commonwealth of Australia.

MAKING A NATION

SOURCE 6.0.1

New Year's Day 2001 marked the centenary of federation.

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1750–1918

1840 Convict transportation to New South Wales effectively ends

1850s Long economic boom throughout the colonies begins

1856 Britain grants self-rule to New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania; New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania introduce the secret ballot; New South Wales and Victoria introduce the eight-hour day

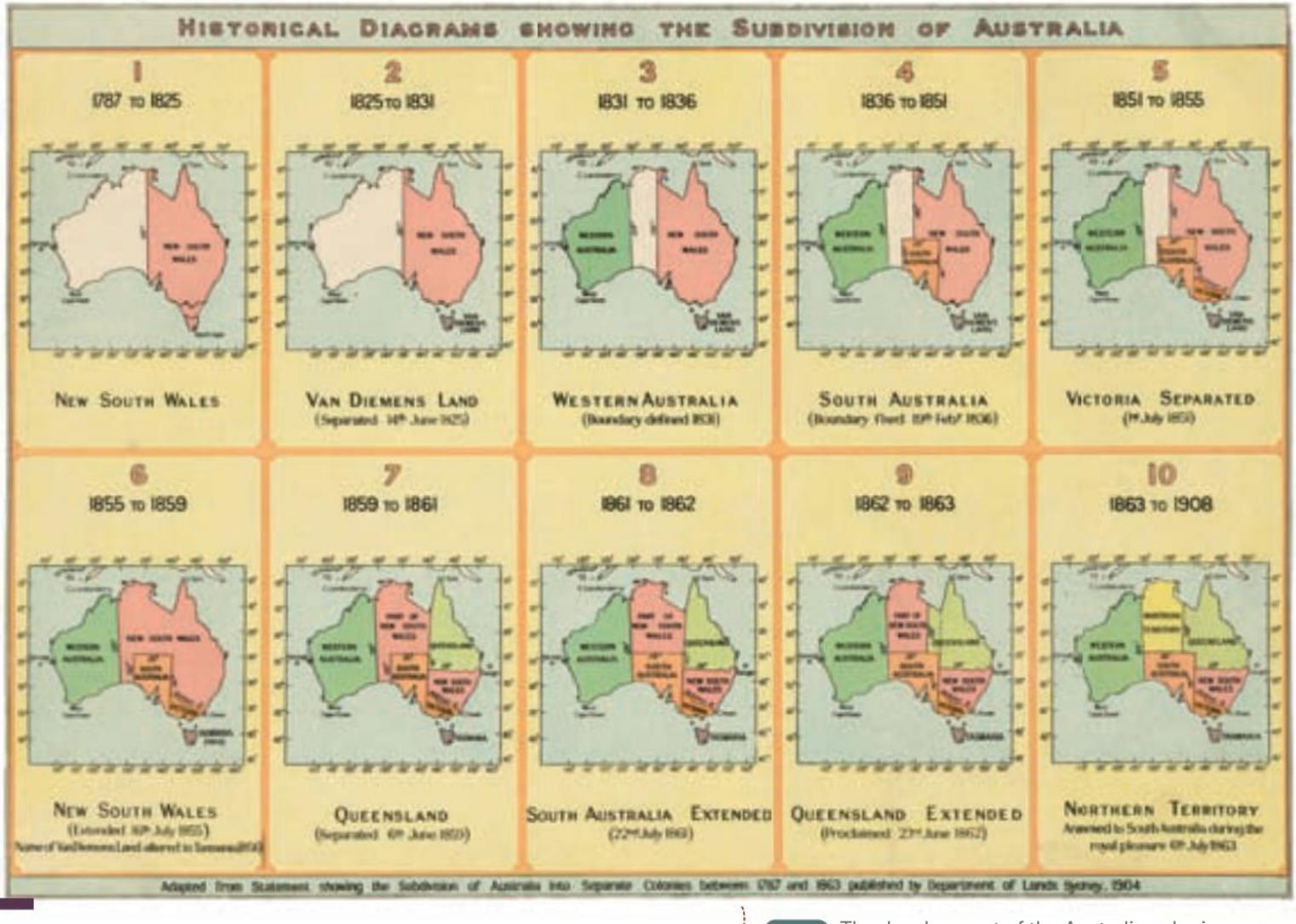
1857 Victoria introduces full male suffrage for Anglo-Australians

1859 Australian Football is born

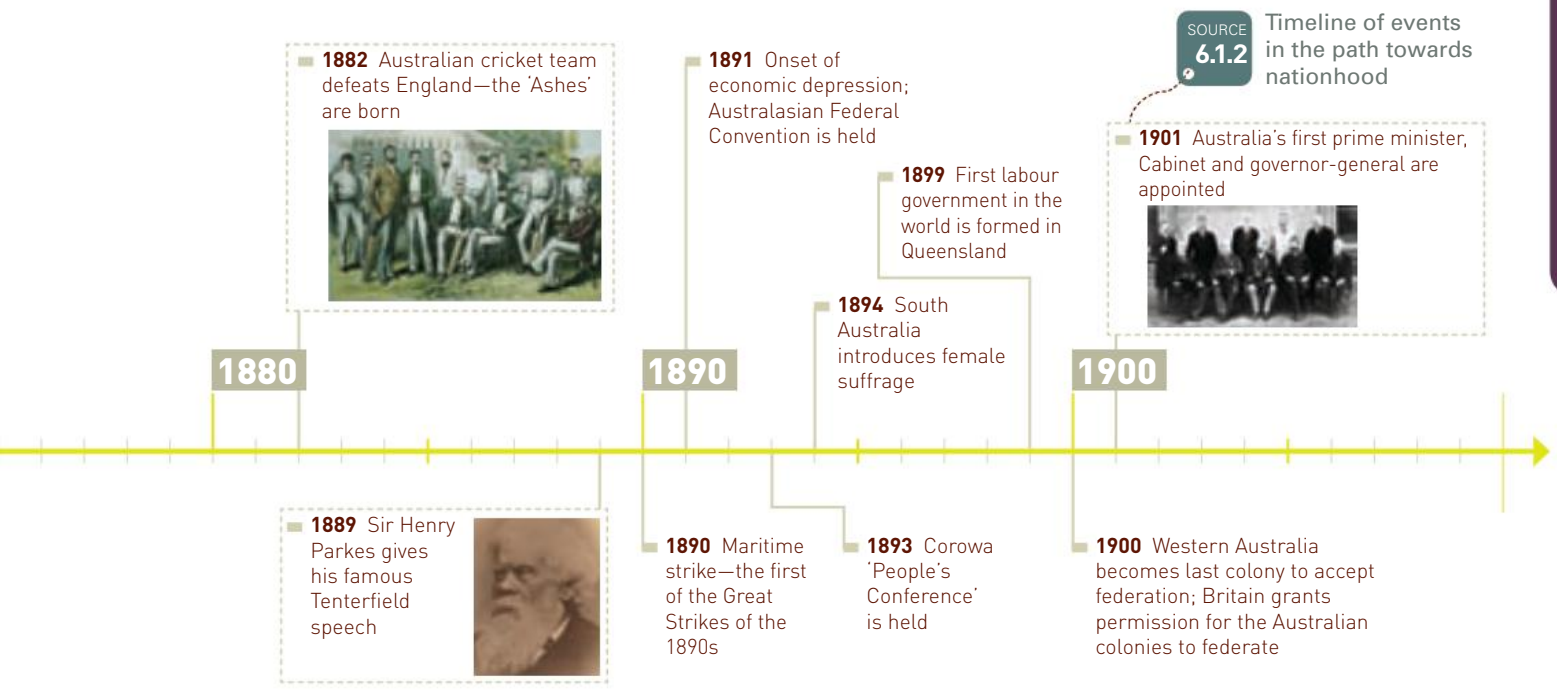
1860s Selection Acts passed to unlock land for farmer-settlers

1871 Australian Natives Association is established

1840 1850 1860 1870



SOURCE 6.1.1 The development of the Australia colonies



SOURCE 6.1.2 Timeline of events in the path towards nationhood

THE SPREAD OF BRITISH SETTLEMENT

The crossing of the Blue Mountains by Wentworth, Lawson and Blaxland in 1813 opened up new pastoral lands to feed a growing population. To ease its own population pressures, the government of Britain introduced an assisted passage scheme to encourage people to emigrate to the Australian colonies. New settlers took up this challenge, as they hoped to make their fortune as property owners—something that was virtually impossible in Britain.

With further inland and coastal exploration of the continent, new British colonies were established. Among these new settlements were:

- Van Diemen's Land (1803), which later became the colony of Tasmania
- Moreton Bay (1824), which later became the colony of Queensland
- Swan River (1829), which later became the colony of Western Australia
- Port Phillip District (1834), which later became the colony of Victoria
- South Australia (1834)—this was the only colony settled by free settlers rather than convicts.

IMPACT OF BRITISH SETTLEMENT

The British concept of ***terra nullius*** ('nobody's land') meant that there was no recognition of the original owners of the land. Driven off their land, many Aboriginal People were eventually moved into areas for which European settlers had no use. These areas restricted the movement of Aboriginal People. Unable to return to their traditional lands, many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People experienced a strong sense of loss. Diseases such as smallpox and influenza killed many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, wherever they came into contact with European settlers for the first time.

RACE AND IDENTITY

Racial attitudes played a significant role in the development of Australian identity. Most colonial Australians strongly identified with the British Empire and believed that the Anglo-Saxon race was superior in every way. The trade union movement led the call for a 'White Australia', as unionised workers feared the loss of jobs to cheaper, non-European workers. Such attitudes meant that thousands of non-European immigrants in Australia before 1901 were generally denied the same rights and freedoms enjoyed by most Australians. Among these were:

- Chinese who had first come to seek their fortune on the Victorian and New South Wales goldfields
- South Pacific Islander People who worked as labourers on the sugar-cane fields of Far North Queensland
- Afghan cameleers who had been brought to South Australia
- Japanese pearl divers who came to Western Australia as indentured labourers.

A WORKING MAN'S PARADISE?

After the gold rushes of the 1840s and 50s, major Australian cities developed rapidly. By 1888, 'Marvellous Melbourne' had become the largest city in Australia and the second largest in the British Empire after London.

Living and working conditions in inner-city working-class districts were generally poor. Unskilled workers were forced to live within walking distance of their factory or workplace and most of their wages went towards rent. Workers who were paid by **piece-rate** earned barely enough to survive on in times of low demand. The rapid growth of inner-city working-class suburbs led to an increase in poverty and crime.

For skilled workers, however, the 'long boom' from the 1850s to the 1880s brought relatively high wages, shorter working hours and the opportunity for social advancement. To these workers, who had the protection of trade unions, Australia was considered a **working man's paradise**.

A period of economic depression during the 1890s forced many men to head for the bush, where they hoped to pick up odd jobs to feed themselves or their families. This economic downturn brought new pressures for trade unions. As unemployment increased, union membership also declined. With a surplus of available workers, employers no longer had to compete for skilled workers by offering high rates of pay. Worker anger at the lack of employment opportunity as well as the erosion of pay and conditions led to a series of strikes during the 1890s. Picket lines were aimed at preventing non-unionised workers from entering the workplace. These ultimately failed, due to the willingness of government authorities to use troops to break picket lines of strikers.

The failure of the **Great Strikes** showed trade unions that strike action alone could not guarantee improvements in working conditions. Accordingly, a new political party was established in 1891 to promote the interests of workers in the colonial parliaments. Among the early achievements of the Australian Labor Party were laws that extended the right to work an eight-hour day to most Australian workers. In 1899, the world's first Labor government was formed in Queensland.

A WORLD LEADER IN RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

Prior to federation, the six Australian colonies were among the most advanced democracies in the world. From 1856 onwards, Britain had gradually extended self-rule to each colony. Most colonial parliaments enacted important democratic reforms such as full male **suffrage**, the secret ballot and pay for parliamentarians. In 1894, South Australian women were among the first in the world to receive the right to vote. As a result, Australia earned a reputation as a 'laboratory for democracy' during the nineteenth century.

SOURCE 6.1.3 Cartoon showing the importance of women's votes after the *Franchise Act 1902* was passed. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1. **Who are the two groups represented by the men in the scene?**
2. **What is the perspective of the cartoonist? Give reasons for your answer.**

A NATION IS BORN!

In 1898, referendums were held in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania asking people to vote for or against a new federal constitution. Although the 'yes' vote achieved a majority in each colony, in New South Wales it fell just short of the 80 000 requirement set by the parliament. Successful referendums were carried out in New South Wales and Queensland in 1899 and in Western Australia in 1900. The people of Australia had clearly stated their desire for federation. This was supported by the British government, which passed the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Bill on 5 July 1900, thereby granting the colonies permission for a formal separation from Britain.

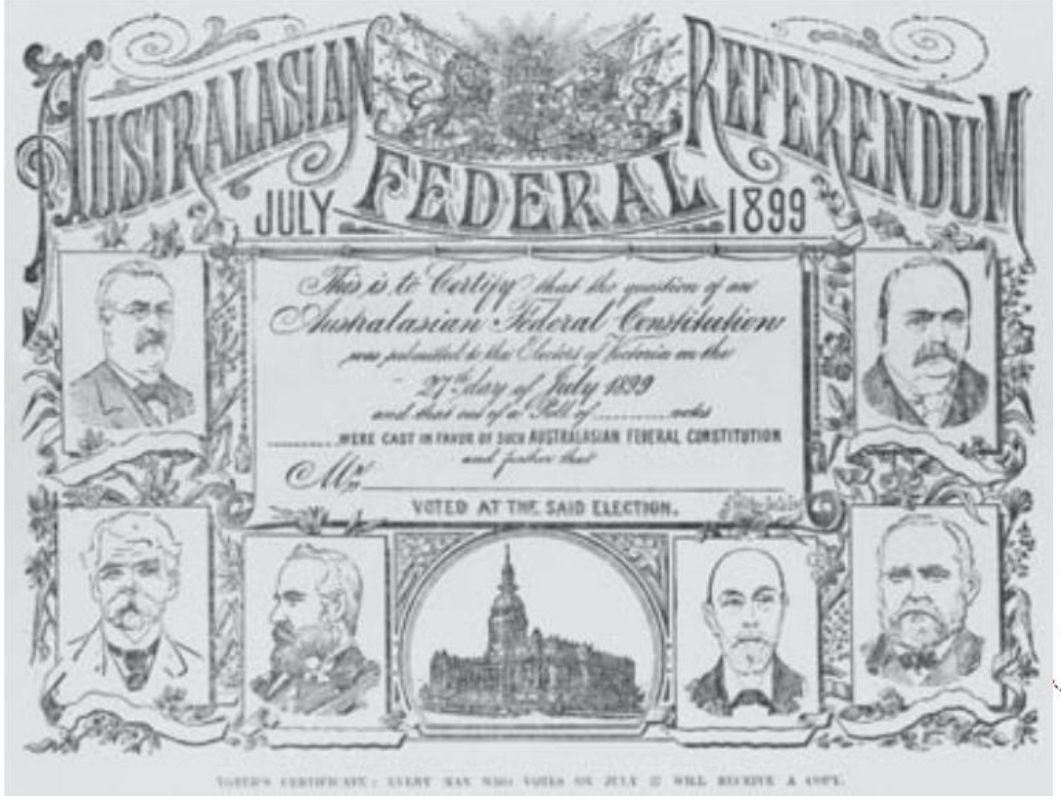
The Commonwealth of Australia officially came into existence on 1 January 1901. An 8-kilometre procession that included foreign diplomats, academics, trade union officials and politicians made its way past cheering crowds, through commemorative arches, to Sydney's Centennial Park. At 12.30 p.m., the official inauguration ceremony began. Australia's first prime minister, Edmund Barton, was sworn in beneath a white-domed pavilion especially built for the occasion.

SOURCE 6.1.4 'Advance Australia'—coat of arms of the new Commonwealth of Australia in 1901. Held at the National Library of Australia

SHAPING A NATION

The first laws passed by the Commonwealth parliament in 1901 showed that most people were concerned with protecting the racial purity of the new nation. As part of a White Australia policy, the Immigration Restriction Act and the Pacific Islander Labourers Act ensured that only immigrants of so-called 'good British stock' would be welcome in Australia.

In the years after federation, the federal parliament also passed laws granting pensions to those too old or disabled to work, compensation to Commonwealth employees who were injured or became sick at work, and a maternity leave allowance of £5 to mothers of newborn children. As a result, while Australia discriminated against its Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People and non-European immigrants, it also earned a reputation as an egalitarian society that looked after its less fortunate citizens.



SOURCE 6.1.5 Commemorative certificate for Victorian voters in the Australian Federal Referendum, 27 July 1899. Held at the National Library of Australia

UNIT 2

THE EXTENSION OF SETTLEMENT

AUSTRALIA'S FIRST NATIONS

It is estimated that in 1788 there were at least 315 000 and maybe as many as one million Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People from more than 500 different tribes and 250 language groups living on the Australian continent. These tribal groups, sometimes referred to as Australia's **First Nations**, had been here for over 60 000 years. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People survived the harsh Australian conditions for this length of time by developing the ability to adapt and manage their environment. Knowledge of and respect for the land was vital for the survival of these semi-nomadic hunters and gatherers. Archaeological evidence today suggests that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People were far more productive in their land usage than was first thought by Europeans.

> *So what had the earliest settlers discovered about Aborigines and their land? The Aborigines lived in relatively small districts with known and recognised boundaries. Although the food quest took them in many directions, they had 'fixed residences'. They defended their territories against trespassers ... They 'enjoyed' their land, exploiting a wide range of food sources. They identified with their districts and took their name from them.*

SOURCE 6.2.1 From *The Law of the Land*, by historian Henry Reynolds, 1987

Q
1 According to Reynolds, were European settlers aware that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People had a sense of land ownership?
2 What evidence does Reynolds use to support this claim?

EXPANDING THE EMPIRE

Throughout the eighteenth century, British colonisers acquired new territory for their empire in three ways:

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

The first two ways acknowledged the original owners of the land, while the third, *terra nullius*, did not.

SOURCE 6.2.2 A 1938 poster advertising the 150-year celebrations of the British settlement of New South Wales, by the Australian National Travel Association. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1 Identify the historical figures in this poster.
2 What does this reveal about people's attitudes in 1938 towards British settlement 150 years earlier?

TERRA NULLIUS AND DISPOSSESSION

The concept of *terra nullius* ignored the fact that there were people already on the Australian continent. When James Cook explored the east coast of Australia in 1768–71, he believed that a treaty with the local inhabitants was unnecessary. This was because they were so few in number and showed no sign of European land 'ownership', such as agricultural crops, fenced livestock or permanent houses. Since he could find no obvious political authority to deal with, Cook felt justified in claiming the entire 400 million hectares of Australia on behalf of the British Empire. This was despite the fact that he had explored just a small and very narrow section of the east coast.

On 7 February 1788, after the arrival of the First Fleet, Governor Arthur Phillip formalised the British colonisation of Australia with a flag-raising ceremony at Sydney Cove. Such symbols were important to the British as they 'proved' ownership of the land. Land grants given to new settlers by Governor Phillip failed to consider that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People had occupied that land for generations. Soon fences were erected, animals put to pasture and houses built. This taking of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's traditional land without any prior agreement or compensation is referred to as **dispossession**.

SOURCE 6.2.3 Sydney, from the east side of the cove, by John Eyre, 1810

Q In what ways does this scene portray Sydney as a developing settlement?

BEYOND SYDNEY COVE

As the first European population around Sydney Cove increased, so did the need for farming land to feed the growing colony. The discovery of the Hawkesbury River in June 1789 provided an important inland route to better pastoral lands. Early settlement spread northward along the coast towards the Hawkesbury River, then westward along the river itself. In 1790, Governor Phillip issued the first land grant at Rose Hill (now Parramatta) to former convict James Ruse, with the instruction to establish a farm. However, the vast open pastures needed for large-scale farming and grazing were not available along the coastal fringe. The long-term viability of New South Wales depended on the opening of new lands further westward, beyond the Blue Mountains.

WESTWARD EXPANSION OF NEW SOUTH WALES

By 1813, six attempts by the settlers to cross the Blue Mountains had ended in failure. In 1813, three graziers, Gregory Blaxland, William Wentworth and William Lawson, finally succeeded by following mountain ridges rather than valleys. These explorers crossed the Blue Mountains with the help of Aboriginal guides, whose families had been crossing the mountains for generations.

Blaxland, Wentworth and Lawson ventured as far as present-day Mount Blaxland, and in doing so opened up a path to the western plains. Governor Macquarie, eager to exploit the grazing land that they had seen, built a rough road with convict help the following year. New towns such as Lithgow and Bathurst were soon established.

Having seen what lay beyond the Blue Mountains, Macquarie was also keen for the explorers to continue further west. What they found was vast grazing pastures for sheep and cattle. Not only did this provide an opportunity for new settlers, it also helped to make the colony of New South Wales self-sufficient.

SOURCE 6.2.4 *King's Tableland, Blue Mountains—the New Road*, by Augustus Earle. Held at the National Library of Australia. This painting shows the steep ridges of the Blue Mountains near Katoomba.

THE WIRADJURI WAR

At first, the Wiradjuri people of the western plains adopted a cautious attitude towards the few Europeans who followed the explorers over the Blue Mountains. Meetings that occurred between government officials and the Wiradjuri people were generally friendly. Within a year, work on a road across the mountains had begun. On his inspection of the road, Governor Macquarie wrote of his friendly encounters with the natives.

Macquarie was careful to allow only a small trickle of settlers across the mountains at first. Within three years, however, this had all changed. In England, a government-assisted migration scheme had encouraged new settlers to come to Australia in order to fulfil their dreams of owning land.

YEAR	NUMBER OF EUROPEAN SETTLERS	HECTARES FENCED BY EUROPEAN SETTLERS	SHEEP AND CATTLE POPULATION
1821	114	1 020	33 733
1825	1 267	37 085	113 973

SOURCE 6.2.5 Growth of the settlement in the western plains of New South Wales in the period 1821–25. From *Blood on the Wattle*, by Bruce Elder, 1998

Q How does this table show the dispossession of the Wiradjuri?

A stream of new settlers gradually forced the Wiradjuri people off their land. In response, they ambushed European settlements, killed livestock and destroyed equipment. Small groups of Wiradjuri warriors were soon united under the leadership of Windradyne, who earned a reputation among the settlers as a fierce leader. Nicknamed 'Saturday' by the settlers, Windradyne was captured by colonial soldiers in 1824. This only made relations between the Wiradjuri people and the settlers worse. On his release one month later, Windradyne returned to his people with an even greater determination to expel the European settlers from his traditional lands.

In March 1824, some Wiradjuri people began stealing food from farms on the outskirts of the new settlement at Bathurst. After the killing of seven settlers, Governor Brisbane declared martial law. This led settlers and soldiers to believe that they could take whatever action necessary to protect themselves and their food. Any Aboriginal People seen around the areas of European settlements were shot and killed. The killings continued for several months throughout the Bathurst region, with a death toll of over one hundred of the Wiradjuri.

> *The best thing that can be done is to shoot all the blacks and manure the ground with their carcasses.*

SOURCE 6.2.6 William Cox, a landowner, in 1824. From *Blood on the Wattle*, by Bruce Elder, 1998

Q Given that the murder of Aboriginal People was a crime under British law, do you think Cox's views were expressed privately or publicly?

SOURCE 6.2.7 The 'Contested Frontiers' exhibition at the National Museum of Australia, 2001

CONTESTED FRONTIERS

In 2001, the National Museum of Australia opened an exhibit in its First Australians gallery called 'Contested Frontiers'. This exhibit included several examples of frontier conflict during the nineteenth century in Australia. One of these was the Wiradjuri war, a conflict between Aboriginal People and settlers and soldiers that occurred throughout the Bathurst region of New South Wales in the 1820s, and led to the imposition of martial law by the British. The Wiradjuri war display contained a variety of objects, text and images, including a present-day photograph of Bells Falls Gorge and an inscription etched on the glass showcase in front of the photograph by a Wiradjuri Elder, stating:

> *This is a place of great sadness. Our people still hear the echoes of the women and children who died here. They came to seek refuge but the armed white settlers found them and killed them.*

This reference was to the Bells Falls Gorge massacre, in which a number of Wiradjuri people allegedly had jumped off the cliffs of the gorge to avoid being shot.

HISTORIANS AT ODDS

Historian Keith Windschuttle was heavily critical of the exhibit on the Wiradjuri war, claiming that the Bells Falls Gorge massacre was nothing more than a local myth, and had no supporting primary evidence. He claimed that Aboriginal activists had helped to popularise the myth of the Bells Falls Gorge massacre after they heard about it from 'amateur historian' Percy Gresser. Gresser had written his account in 1962, some 140 years after the events at Bells Falls Gorge had supposedly occurred. This was based on well-known local Aboriginal and settler stories. These stories were for the most part consistent in their retelling of basic events.

Windschuttle questioned the use of Aboriginal **oral history**, which he saw as totally unreliable and bound to change over 140 years of retelling. He was particularly critical of the National Museum for misleading school children who came to view the exhibit.

RESPONSES TO WINDSCHUTTLE'S CRITICISMS

In the wake of Windschuttle's attacks on the National Museum, some Aboriginal activists also became critical of the exhibit. They believed that any number of better documented Aboriginal massacres could have been used instead of Bells Falls Gorge. By giving Windschuttle a chance to voice his criticisms, some were worried that people might think that other massacres were also 'made-up stories'. Brad Manera, who was responsible for creating the exhibit, claimed that it provided the present-day Wiradjuri perspective on the Bathurst massacres of the 1820s.

In 2003, Professor Graeme Davison addressed Windschuttle's criticisms. He pointed out that the display had more to do with the period of the 1820s in and around Bathurst, during which time it could be easily proven that many Aboriginal People were massacred. Bain Attwood was also critical of Windschuttle's total dismissal of Wiradjuri oral histories. Attwood showed that European settlers from the time of the massacre had spoken of it and that these stories had been recorded as long ago as 1887.

Although oral history presents unique challenges for historians, Attwood believed that when all available documentary evidence was missing, as in the case of the events at Bells Falls Gorge, then oral history could play an important role. Windschuttle was criticised for suggesting that an event did not occur simply because there was no surviving written evidence to prove it.

Historian David Roberts explained the absence of primary documents, not by claiming that the massacre had never happened, but by suggesting that the European authorities at the time could have turned a blind eye to it and therefore not recorded it.

THE MYALL CREEK MASSACRE

In May 1838, about forty members of the Wirrayaraay people moved onto the Myall Creek cattle station in northern New South Wales. The station provided the Aboriginal People with a plentiful supply of traditional food, such as possums and fish. After a hard day's work, the stockmen would often join the Wirrayaraay people for an evening of dancing and singing.

On 10 June 1838, eleven convicts and ex-convicts rode onto the cattle station at Myall Creek, looking to round up any Aboriginal People whom they suspected of having recently killed a European shepherd. Sensing trouble from the armed bounty hunters, twenty-eight Wirrayaraay people left their camp and headed for the safety of the station hut. However, most of the stockmen, including the station manager were absent at the time. Of the two present, one was relatively new to the station and had not developed any special ties with the Wirrayaraay people. He helped the eleven bounty hunters tie the group together and lead them down to a nearby creek where they were all massacred, firstly by gunshot and then, to save ammunition, by sword. Among the victims were old men and women with babies wrapped in possum skins. The next day, they returned to burn the bodies of the dead before hunting down and killing three more Wirrayaraay men.

Several weeks after the massacre, William Hobbs, the manager of the station wrote to the local police magistrate, Edward Denny Day about what had occurred during his absence. Previous massacres had failed to bring the murderers to justice. For the next seven weeks, Day collected evidence based on the testimony of the stockman who had helped carry out the massacre.

SOURCE 6.2.8 Myall Creek massacre memorial

On 27 November 1838, the eleven men were tried for murder. Despite strong public opinion that the life of an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander Person was not worth that of a European settler, seven of the eleven were found guilty and sentenced to be hanged. On 18 December they became the first people in Australia to be executed for murdering Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People. This did not prevent future massacres from occurring. Massacres continued on the frontier of settlement but were done far more discreetly, so as not to alert the authorities.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND (TASMANIA)

In 1803, Lieutenant John Bowen established a second British colony at Risdon Cove in Van Diemen's Land. The following year it was moved to Hobart. This colony was established as a settlement for the worst convicts who were considered beyond rehabilitation. Those who escaped usually took up a life of bushranging and for several decades there was little the government could do. Like the first colony of New South Wales, the second colony also struggled to survive. In 1830, another penal colony was established nearby at Port Arthur, which was reserved for particularly troublesome convicts.

In Van Diemen's Land, convict chain gangs built roads, quarried stone and were assigned as farm labourers for the growing numbers of free settlers. In 1825, the colony separated from New South Wales, but was not called Tasmania until 1856. Between 1803 and 1853, some 75 000 convicts were sent to Van Diemen's Land.

THE BLACK WARS

As the colony expanded, settlers came into conflict with Aboriginal People. Aboriginal People responded to loss of their traditional land by killing the settlers' cattle and sheep for food, which in turn led to reprisals. Eventually, Governor Arthur declared martial law in 1828, resulting in widespread killing of Tasmanian Aboriginal People. These hostilities, known as the Black Wars, eventually resulted in the removal of the surviving Aboriginal People to nearby Flinders Island in Bass Strait.

SOURCE 6.2.9 The remains of the Port Arthur convict site

SOURCE 6.2.10 Melbourne in 1836, by R. Hofmann. Held at the State Library of Victoria

PORT PHILLIP DISTRICT (VICTORIA)

The first attempt to settle the area around Port Phillip Bay occurred in 1803, when Lieutenant-Governor David Collins landed at Sullivan Bay (near present-day Sorrento) to establish a penal colony similar to the settlement at Sydney. He brought with him 308 convicts, a party of marines to keep order and seventeen free settlers. Attempts were made to construct buildings and plant crops but the venture was unsuccessful and the group left for Hobart in 1804.

Twenty years later, the explorers Hamilton Hume and William Hovell arrived near present-day Geelong on their inland trek south from Sydney. The news of rich pastures sparked fresh interest in the sourthern part of New South Wales, and in 1834 Edward Henty established the first permanent settlement at Portland Bay.

The following year, John Batman arrived from Van Diemen's Land with a group of potential settlers and landowners and negotiated a lease with the local Aboriginal People for 600 000 acres near the Yarra River. The New South Wales government refuted Batman's claim to the land, arguing that all land belonged to the Crown, not the Aboriginal People. Batman's lease was therefore declared invalid. In the same year, while Batman had returned briefly to Van Diemen's Land, John Fawkner from Launceston arrived at the Yarra River and also formed a settlement on the site where Melbourne now stands. After some dispute, the Batman and Fawkner groups agreed to share the settlement.

In 1836, Major Mitchell explored the western region of the district and pronounced it ideal for sheep and wheat farming, prompting pastoral expansion. The area around Melbourne was called the Port Phillip District until 1851, when it became independent of New South Wales and was named Victoria, after the Queen of England.

DID YOU KNOW?

JOHN BATMAN STRUCK AN UNFAIR DEAL WITH THE WURUNDJERI PEOPLE FOR THEIR LAND.

John Batman's treaty with the local Wurundjeri people saw him receive 600 000 acres of land around Port Phillip in exchange for goods such as scissors, knives, tomahawks, flour and clothing. The Wurundjeri understood very little English and historians believe that the Wurundjeri were unaware of the deal they were entering into.

MORETON BAY (QUEENSLAND)

John Oxley established the Moreton Bay settlement in 1824 as a place for the 'worst class of convict'. In the beginning, the vast majority of people who lived in the area were convicts themselves, most of whom had been transported for life and were repeat offenders. In 1839, the convict settlement was closed down, paving the way for free settlers to arrive. From 1840 onwards, settlement expanded westwards towards the Darling Downs. Contact between Europeans and Aboriginal People was often violent. Aboriginal People were dispossessed of their traditional land and many thousands killed in what has been described as a fierce 'frontier war'.

In 1859, Moreton Bay separated from New South Wales and became the colony of Queensland. Eager to attract new settlers, the new colonial government issued larger land grants than those given in other colonies and free convict labour. As a result, 25 000 new settlers arrived in the next three years. The production of sugar in the 1860s, pastoral expansion and a successful mining industry all contributed to Queensland becoming a thriving colony.

The end of convict transportation in 1868, meant that sugar farmers had to look further afield for cheap labour. They found this in the many thousands of South Pacific Islander People who, willingly and unwillingly, took on three-year work contracts at very low rates of pay.

Moreton Bay

For three long years I was beastly treated
And heavy irons on my legs I wore
My back from flogging was lacerated
And oft times painted with my crimson gore
And many a man from downright starvation
Lies mouldering now underneath the clay
And Captain Logan he had us mangled
All at the triangles of Moreton Bay

SOURCE 6.2.11

Poem written by Francis MacNamara, a convict sent from Sydney Cove to Moreton Bay

Q

1 **Describe the punishments inflicted on convicts at Moreton Bay.**

2 **Find out who Captain Logan was. Why did the convicts at Moreton Bay hate him so much?**

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

In 1830, Charles Sturt's exploration to the mouth of the Murray River coastline alerted Governor Darling to the potential for this part of the continent. By 1834, the area was declared a colony but one with an important difference—it was to be settled by free settlers rather than convicts. The following year William Light was appointed surveyor-general. It was he who developed the location and design for the city of Adelaide, the grid street patterns and the green wedges of parkland. By late 1835, more new settlers had arrived, two whaling stations had been established and the first grape vines were planted. By 1841, these vines were the basis of a wine industry, and Adelaide also became an important starting point for exploration into the interior of the continent.

THE SWAN RIVER COLONY (WESTERN AUSTRALIA)

In 1827, Captain James Stirling explored the Swan River area on the other side of the vast continent and was enthusiastic about the potential for settlement there. The Swan River colony was subsequently settled in 1829, incorporating the port of Fremantle and the town of Perth, but the settlement was slow to develop. By 1830, explorers had found a way over the Darling Range, enabling new types of farming. Expansion, however, led to much conflict with the Aboriginal People. One of the worst conflicts was the Battle of Pinjarra, which occurred in 1834.

Although the colony had been first established as a free settlement, its isolation meant that very few settlers chose to come. As a result, the economy was slow to develop, until convict labour arrived in the colony in 1850. At the same time that the eastern colonies were closing their doors on convict arrivals, Western Australia was opening up.

THE BATTLE OF PINJARRA

Shortly after the establishment of the Swan River colony in Western Australia in 1829, settlers had begun exploring the surrounding region for fertile pastoral lands. This search took them south to the Murray River, where a small group of settlers established Pinjarra, a satellite or frontier community. Pinjarra was small and isolated, about 80 kilometres south of the Swan River colony—more than a day's ride on horseback.

In response to the new European settlement on their lands, the Bindjareb people speared cattle, stole flour and occasionally attacked settlers. This escalated into a series of tit-for-tat murders, with the settlers prepared to meet violence with violence. The settlers asked the governor of the colony at Swan River, Captain James Stirling, to provide them with military protection. Governor Stirling finally gave in to their requests after the murder of a soldier on patrol in the area.

On 25 October 1834, Stirling set off with a mounted patrol of twenty-five soldiers to Pinjarra. Several days later they came across a camp of about seventy Aboriginal people—men armed with spears as well as women and children. Stirling ordered his patrol to divide into two so that they could surround the camp.

It is not clear which side acted first, but after several hours of fighting, two European soldiers had been injured (one would die of his wounds several days later) and between fourteen and thirty Bindjareb, including women and children, had been killed. Eight women were taken as prisoners as warning to the rest of the tribe but were later released. For the Bindjareb, the impact of their losses was devastating. If a person died, the rest of the tribe was forbidden from eating that person's totem animal or plant for a year. This forced many Bindjareb to work for the settlers in order to survive.

On finding out that the women were spared ... many of the men cried out that they were of the opposite sex. As it appeared that sufficient punishment had been inflicted, and as an examination showed amongst the dead fifteen very old and desperate offenders, the bugle sounded to cease the firing.

SOURCE 6.2.12

Daisy Bates, on the Battle of Pinjarra, *Western Mail*, 5 August 1926

Q

1 **According to the source, how did the surviving Aboriginal People plead for the soldiers to spare their lives?**

2 **According to the source, why did the battle 'cease'?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- dispossession
- First Nations
- oral history
- *terra nullius*

2 Use the dates referred to in this unit to construct a detailed timeline titled 'The extension of British settlement in Australia'.

Understanding

3 Reread 'Expanding the empire'.

a Explain how the British Empire acquired territory in different ways in New Zealand, India and Australia.

b How was the concept of *terra nullius* different from other ways of acquiring new lands?

c Why did Captain James Cook believe that Australia was *terra nullius*?

d In what ways did the British claim ownership of the land?

Understanding and evaluating

4 Reread 'Beyond Sydney Cove'.

a Who received the first land grant in New South Wales and for what purpose?

b What discovery enabled British settlement to spread outwards from Sydney Cove?

c Explain what the limitations of the coastal fringe were for the first colony.

d Why did attacks by Aboriginal People become more frequent?

e Which Europeans are credited with having first crossed the Blue Mountains?

f Why was the opening of the western plains significant in the expansion of British settlement?

5 Reread 'The Wiradjuri war'.

a How did the Wiradjuri respond to the first Europeans they met?

b What caused European settlement on the Western plains to rapidly increase?

c What role did Windradyne play in resisting British settlement?

d What was the result of the declaration of martial law by Governor Brisbane in 1824?

Evaluating

6 Reread 'Contested frontiers', then write a discussion in response to the following statement: *No one will ever know what really happened at Bells Falls Creek Gorge.*

Make sure your discussion includes the following features:

- an introduction to both sides of the argument
- a paragraph on the arguments against the statement
- a paragraph on the arguments in support of the statement
- a paragraph in which you make your own judgement and recommendations.

Evaluating and creating

7 Working in groups of three or four, conduct research into the Myall Creek massacre, the Battle of Pinjarra or another massacre of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People that took place in your state. Imagine that the National Museum of Australia has asked you to design a display on the massacre as part of its 'Contested Frontiers' exhibition. As a group, provide:

- information on the key events, to appear on text panels
- primary accounts of the massacre
- non-written accounts of the massacre
- relevant objects for display.

In designing your display, think about how it might best engage and interest visitors. Consider looking at a variety of museum displays online to decide which is the best for a school audience.

8 Compare and contrast the development of the six British colonies of Australia in table or spreadsheet format. Head the columns with the original names of the colonies, and the rows with the factors to be compared. These can include the following.

- Who discovered the region?
- When was it discovered?
- When was it first settled?
- What was the purpose of the original settlement?
- Which factors helped the growth of the colony?
- Which factors hindered the growth of the colony?
- On what date did it gain independence as a colony?

9 In groups of five, prepare an oral report on the development of *one* of the Australian colonies other than the one that eventually became the state you live in. You may use the table constructed in Activity 8 to help, but you should also conduct further group and independent research into the economic, political and social development of the colony.

Use ICT, visuals and source material to enhance your group's presentation.

UNIT 3

THE EXPERIENCE OF ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE

THE CONSTITUTION

On 1 January 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed.

The wording of the **Constitution** left the power over Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's affairs with the states. Many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People were excluded from the vote, pensions, **enlistment** in the armed forces, maternity allowances and employment in post offices. The ***Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*** excluded Indigenous people from Australia, Asia, Africa and the Pacific Islands from voting in federal elections.

> Item 127:
> *In reckoning the numbers of people of the Commonwealth, or of a State or other part of the Commonwealth, aboriginal natives shall not be counted.*
>
> Item 51:
> *The Parliament shall, subject to this Constitution, have power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of the Commonwealth with respect to:*
> *(xxvi) the people of any race, other than the aboriginal race in any State, for whom it is deemed necessary to make special laws.*

SOURCE 6.3.1 *Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900*, items 127 and 51 (xxvi)

Q **Explain in your own words how the phrase 'other than the aboriginal race' excluded Aboriginal People from the rights enjoyed by other Australians.**

DISPOSSESSION AGAIN

During the early 1900s, there was mounting pressure in eastern Australia to open up more land for farming. In areas where Aboriginal People had established successful farming ventures, settlers agitated to halt the establishment of reserves and revoke existing reserves. In several areas, local residents conducted openly slanderous campaigns in their attempts to have more land released.

DENILIQUIN

In 1907, settlers in the Deniliquin district on the Edwards River petitioned for the closure of an Aboriginal reserve and advocated that its residents be moved to Cumeragunja. In an attempt to make more land available for settlement the petitioners cited Aboriginal 'intemperance and idleness'. The Aboriginal community opposed the move, arguing that they were employed locally and that their employers, local graziers, would attest to their good characters. Even the local police agreed that the accusations were without foundation and sprang from a desire on the part of certain petitioners to acquire more land.

FORSTER

In 1908, a similar campaign was mounted in Forster, on the north coast of New South Wales. Letters demanding the closure of the local Aboriginal reserve were sent to politicians and the press.

Although the local residents claimed they only wanted a section of the reserve revoked, this section contained the only water source and its loss would have effectively forced the Aboriginal People to move. Again the local police supported the Aboriginal People.

> *Surely after doing all the improvements, for their own benefit, their land is not to be taken from them because it is cleared and fenced, to please the whim of any one man. The Reserve is a credit to the Aborigines, and in the Senior Sergeant's opinion it would be very unfair to remove them and send them into the bush to make a fresh start to make homes for themselves.*

SOURCE 6.3.2 Senior Sergeant Hogan, Taree, to Sub-Inspector Edwards, Kempsey, 29 November 1908. From *Invasion to Embassy*, by Heather Goodall, 1996

Q **Why does the Senior Sergeant think the closure would be unfair?**

THE ABORIGINAL PROTECTION BOARD OF NSW

The Aboriginal Protection Board of NSW also moved against the very people it was supposed to protect. After five years of severe funding cuts, the board sought to broaden its resource base by increasing the extent of land under crop at Cumeragunja. As more land and more labour were needed to keep the venture profitable, the board moved to take over the family farm blocks in 1907, on the pretext that they were being neglected. The board took all the profit from the land that was farmed, offering only wages to those former landowners they chose to employ.

THE OVERLAND STOCK ROUTE

In 1905, the Western Australian government approved the establishment of an overland stock route to bring cattle from the eastern Kimberley to the southern markets. Alfred Wernam Canning was the man selected to survey the route. He had earlier surveyed the line for State Barrier Fence No. 1, also known as the Rabbit-proof Fence, and as a result had a reputation as an experienced bushman. In 1906–07, Canning set out to find a permanently watered stock route from Wiluna in the south to Halls Creek in the north. Following the example of earlier explorers Lawrence Wells and David Carnegie, Canning planned to use Aboriginal People to lead him to water. He took neck chains and handcuffs with him to ensure that his 'guides' stayed with the party for as long as he needed them. They were chained up overnight and sometimes fed salted beef to ensure they would lead the party to water the next day.

SOURCE 6.3.3

Tiwa, by Jatarr Lily Long, 2008. Held at the National Museum of Australia. It tells of an important place on the Canning Stock Route. The hills in this painting relate to a Jujurrpa (Dreaming) story about an old woman who tried to poison two men, but it also tells of the stock route history.

Q

1 **Aboriginal paintings are often maps of Country that tell a story. Describe the Country you see in this painting.**

2 **Write a descriptive paragraph about what you would expect to see along the Canning Stock Route.**

Before the survey of the Canning Stock Route, about fifteen different language groups or 'tribes' lived in the area transected by the stock route. For thousands of years, Aboriginal People had moved across the desert as changes to climate and resources dictated. Over more recent years and for many reasons, people had moved out of their home country to the outskirts of towns and onto cattle stations, missions and small settlements. The stock route became the road along which many people moved. It followed the water holes, many of which are important ceremonial places.

SOURCE 6.3.4 Canning Stock Route

ROYAL COMMISSION

After completing the survey of the stock route, Canning returned to Perth, where he faced a **Royal Commission** into his treatment of Aboriginal People during the expedition. The camp cook, Edward Blake, had been very concerned about the treatment of the Aboriginal guides and especially of Aboriginal women. He wrote letters to the Minister of Mines outlining his concerns. When these failed to get a response he took his story to the newspapers. The publication of the story in the newspapers led Canning to request an inquiry so that he could clear his name. A Royal Commission was established to address a number of issues.

- *Forcing the natives to accompany the party.*
- *Chaining by the neck natives who had done nothing to deserve being deprived of their liberty when a horse guard would have been sufficient.*
- *Unnecessarily depriving natives of their water supply by deepening and squaring their native wells rendering it impossible for old men, women and piccaninies (children) to reach the water, and causing the water to be polluted by animals falling in.*
- *Hunting native women on foot and horseback, sometimes with rifles, for immoral purposes.*
- *Using threats and giving bribes to native men to induce them to direct their women to have connection with the members of the expedition.*

SOURCE 6.3.5 Some of the issues addressed by the Royal Commission to Inquire into the Treatment of Natives by the Canning Exploration Party, 15 January – 5 February 1908

Of the sixteen witnesses called to give evidence, only three thought it was cruel to chain Aboriginal People. Only one Aboriginal man was called to testify. The Commission cleared Canning of any wrongdoing.

White man tell Yarry go in bush away from camel to get bardie?—*No, Yarry walk close to camel.*

Yarry (Harry) tied up?—*Yes. (Chain produced)*

How Yarry tied up?—*(Witness points to his neck.)*

SOURCE 6.3.6 Testimony of Harry (an Aboriginal man from Wiluna). From the Royal Commission to Inquire into the Treatment of Natives by the Canning Exploration Party, 15 January – 5 February 1908

Charges of immorality were not laid against Canning personally. They were laid against other members of the party, but were found to be inconclusive, as there was a lack of independent evidence.

For Aboriginal People, there were issues the Royal Commission did not address.

> *You're trespassing on other people's country, other people's land. You know that word you say, 'trespassing'? You can't* ***trespass*** *on other people's property. You're breaking the law. Because we've got our own law and where the boundary ends it's the songlines you follow. That's what the old people showed us. The old people keep it in their head. 'This songline. Ah, that's where my boundary finishes.' And that person in that group where they're having a ceremony, 'Oh, his boundary now, he can sing that area, that's his country.'*
>
> *Some people might have been forced to go there and when they been get to that 'nother area, might be they been get frightened two sides: from other tribe—because they been come from 'nother place—and from kartiya [whitefella] side same time. That's why kartiya might have been chain them every night time, so they can't get away.*

SOURCE 6.3.7 Mervyn Street, 2007. From *Yiwarra Kuju: The Canning Stock Route* [Education Package], National Museum of Australia and FORM, 2010

Q **In what way did Aboriginal People think that Canning broke the law?**

The first drovers to bring cattle down the route in 1910 were killed by desert people at Well 37. A punitive expedition was sent out and several Aboriginal People were killed. Drovers became afraid to use the route and it was rarely used during the next twenty years. It was then reconstructed in the early 1930s and droving continued until 1959.

TO CHRISTIANISE AND CIVILISE

Missions were set up to house, protect and 'Christianise' local Aboriginal People. Missionaries encouraged Aboriginal People to move into mission settlements by offering food and shelter. Aboriginal nations had been devastated by disease and starvation, caused by pastoral expansion and conflict, which often led to massacre. The corrupting influences of alcohol and prostitution introduced by the intruders caused further degradation in the lives of people who were outcasts in their own country. Many missionaries believed that by Christianising and civilising the Aboriginal People they were providing the best means of survival. Others thought **extinction** was inevitable and the missions provided a place for the remaining Aboriginal People to live out their last years in peace. Whatever the motives, for Aboriginal People, the missions were yet another layer in the story of destruction that was called **colonisation**.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

When the colony of South Australia was established in 1836, the Board of Colonisation Commissioners claimed that the colony should be conducted to the benefit of Aboriginal People.

> *... not only to protect the natives in the enjoyment of existing rights but extend the guardianship of legal government, offer them subsistence and comforts of civilised men, win them to regular industry, and secure reserves of improving value for the endowment of schools and Christian teachers ...*

SOURCE 6.3.8 Board of Colonisation Commissioners. From *The Relations Between the Settlers and Aborigines in South Australia 1836–1860*, by Kathleen Hassell, 1966

But while the board promised a reservation of one-fifth of all saleable land, this promise was never honoured. Instead, small reserves were set aside to contain the 'problem' population. The first of these was the Native Location set up in Adelaide. In spite of all its intentions, South Australia soon repeated the conflict pattern that had been seen in other colonies.

In 1839, Lutheran missionaries Christian Teichelmann and Clamor Schurmann began working at the Native Location. They had arrived in the colony two years earlier but spent the time travelling with the local Kaurna people to learn their language and understand their way of life. They set up a school within the grounds of the Native Location. Schurmann wrote (to George Angas, 1840) that attendance was 'if not solely at least chiefly on account of the food' they distributed. However, they were good teachers and understood the importance of being able to communicate with the Aboriginal People in their own language.

> *We of course instruct them in their own language and think it not only unnecessary and unjust, but altogether impractical for the present to introduce the English language.*

SOURCE 6.3.9 Letter from Clamor Schurmann to George Angas, 1840

DR MATTHEW MOORHOUSE

In 1839, Dr Matthew Moorhouse was appointed Protector of Aborigines. He noted the irregular attendance at the school. He blamed this on the influence of the older Aboriginal People.

SOURCE 6.3.10 *Coming of the Light*, by Racy Oui-Pitt, 2006. Held at the National Museum of Australia

> *I can see no means, but those of compulsion on the part of the Government, that would, at present, be likely to succeed ... The parents are great hindrances to the improvement of the children, and will continue to be so for several generations unless some decisive measures are adopted to separate in a degree, the one from the other.*

SOURCE 6.3.11 From a letter from Matthew Moorhouse to Clamor Schurmann in response to poor school attendance by Aboriginal children, 1842

In 1843, the Location School began operating as a boarding school and in this way sought to separate the children from their parents. Children were often taken against the wishes of their parents. In 1845, the Native School Establishment was set up by the government to house 150 children. Moorhouse used both pressure and enticements to keep the children in school, but children still left if their parents decided to move. When they reached their teens, most returned permanently to their traditional way of life.

POONINDIE MISSION

In 1848, Archdeacon Mathew Hale arrived in the colony and planned to build an institution for older Aboriginal children, to give them Christian instruction and industrial employment, at a place that was isolated from their families and surrounded by Aboriginal People with whom they were not friendly. In 1850, the Poonindie Mission was opened at Port Lincoln. Moorhouse had already begun preparations to send older students from the Native School Establishment to Poonindie, as he saw the isolation as a means of weaning children away from their families.

> *... it is my decided opinion that every attempt will fail unless the children are removed from the influence of parents and friends. This Training Institution would accomplish a separation ... None would be taken against their wishes, but I am of opinion, when the institution is formed, the difficulty of procuring volunteers will be overcome when they find that marriage will be allowed.*

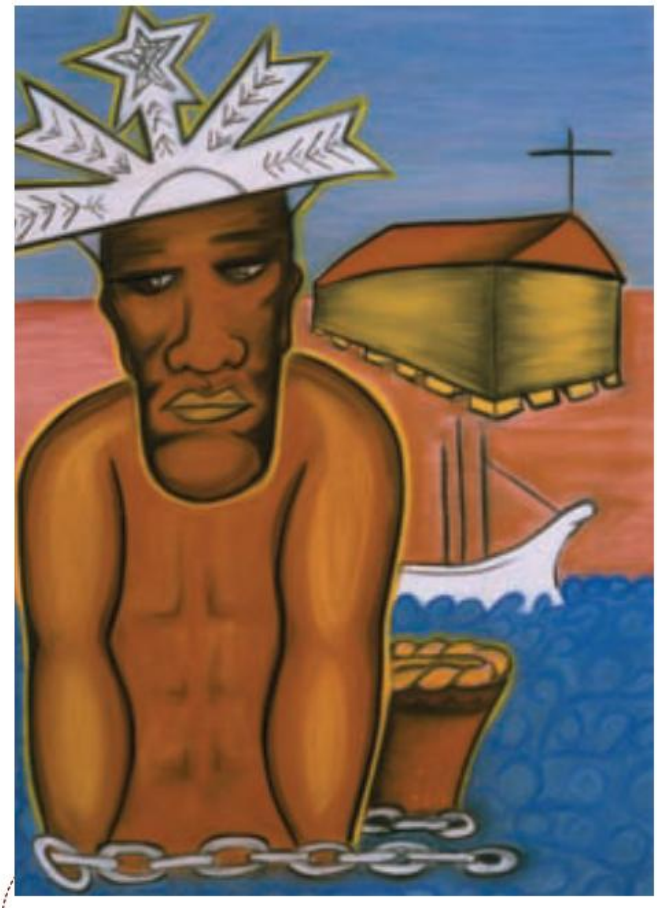
SOURCE 6.3.12 From a letter by Matthew Moorhouse to Clamor Schurmann, 1850

Q **Why would missionaries and government officials want to separate Aboriginal children from their parents?**

Traditionally, in Aboriginal society, boys were not allowed to marry until they had completed full initiation, often well into their twenties. The prospect of early marriage was indeed effective in securing the willingness of young men to be separated from their families. It is not clear, however, if they realised that this separation would be permanent.

Poonindie was established with eleven married couples and thirty-two children. They were all decently housed, clothed and fed. The older boys who worked the farm earned weekly wages and were allowed to shop for themselves at the store in Port Lincoln. The older girls learnt housework and sewing, and the younger children attended school. By 1852, Poonindie was considered a success and the government offered to allocate £1000 per year to the mission.

In 1856, Hale left Poonindie to take up the position of first bishop of Perth. Although the mission encountered some difficulties when he left, by 1872, when he revisited, it was a thriving productive venture. Removing children from their families caused separation from



SOURCE 6.3.13 *Coming of the Light*, pastel drawing, by Kathryn Norris, 1966. Held at the National Museum of Australia

Q **Sources 6.3.10 and 6.3.13 are both entitled 'Coming of the Light' yet they depict two different responses to this event. Why do you think this is so?**

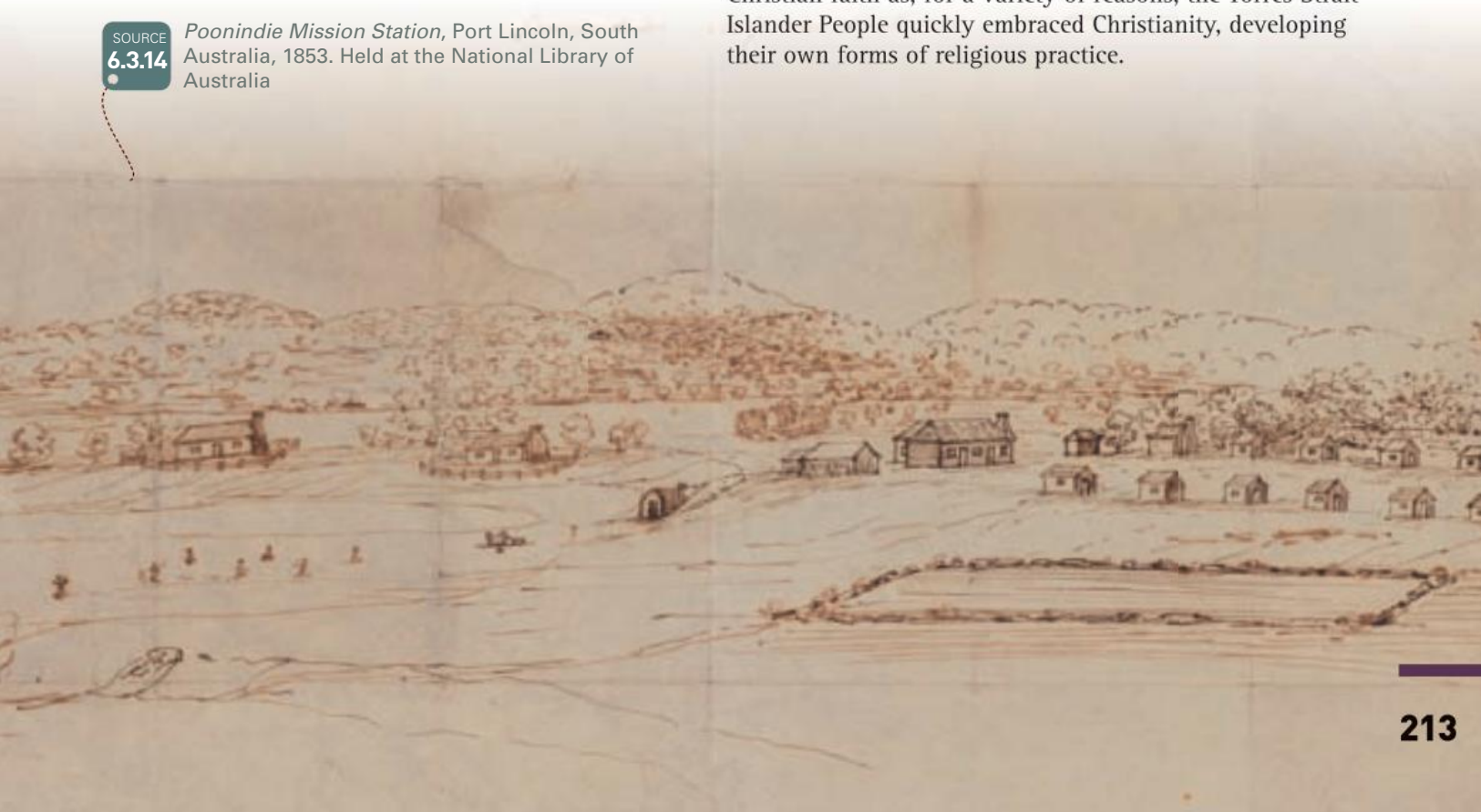
SOURCE 6.3.14 *Poonindie Mission Station*, Port Lincoln, South Australia, 1853. Held at the National Library of Australia

Country and culture but with remarkable resilience Aboriginal People formed new bonds to a new family and location. For many, Poonindie had become home, the place where they belonged. Unfortunately, the very success of Poonindie, like Coranderrk in Victoria, made the land valuable to land developers and the depression of the 1890s gave the government an excuse to close the mission and relocate the people. A lasting legacy of Poonindie, however, was the policy of separating children from their families. This was to remain government policy across much of Australia until well into the twentieth century.

COMING OF THE LIGHT

On 1 July 1871, the Reverend Samuel MacFarlane of the London Missionary Society landed on Darnley Island (Erub). This arrival of British missionaries profoundly changed island life. The Coming of the Light festival, held each year, marks the day the London Missionary Society first arrived in Torres Strait. This is a significant day for Torres Strait Islander People, and it is marked by religious and cultural ceremonies across Torres Strait and mainland Australia.

By the mid-1870s, several missions were operating throughout the Torres Strait. They helped to moderate the first—and the most violent and unregulated—period of commercial fishing and pearl shell exploitation. They provided a degree of protection to the Torres Strait Islander People and attended to their physical well-being. They also attempted to erase the traditional beliefs and sacred rites of the Torres Strait Islander People. They burned and destroyed the Torres Strait Islander People's sacred shrines and educated them to bury their dead in cemeteries. The traditional system based on the spirits was replaced by the Christian faith as, for a variety of reasons, the Torres Strait Islander People quickly embraced Christianity, developing their own forms of religious practice.



THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY

The London Missionary Society initiated the education of Torres Strait Islander People, designed especially to promote Christian values. Missionary teachers, however, were often left with few resources and education was eventually taken over by the colonial administration. Due to circumstances both economic and political, the people of Mer (Murray Island) received an excellent education. The first Training School on Mer was established by the London Missionary Society in 1879. In response to community demands, the colonial administration promised in 1886 to establish the Government School. The younger generation became bilingual and literate in the last two decades of the nineteenth century. In 1897, the Reverend James Chalmers from the London Missionary Society reported that 'the progress in Mer (Murray Island) school had been astonishing. This school was compared favourably to the best schools in the Queensland colony'.

OPENING UP THE DESERT

After reading reports about the Aboriginal People of Central Australia, Pastor G. J. Rechner and Carl Schmidt approached the South Australian government in 1874 about the possibility of acquiring land for a mission in Central Australia. A mission was established on the Finke River, about 130 kilometres west of Alice Springs on an area of some 2330 square kilometres.

In Germany, Pastors A. H. Kempe and W. F. Schwartz were selected to start the Hermannsburg mission. They arrived on 8 June 1877 to establish the first Aboriginal mission in the Northern Territory. Additional staff arrived from Germany in April 1878. Slowly, a small number of Aboriginal People came to the mission, making it possible for the missionaries to learn their language. On 30 May 1887, the first seven Aboriginal teenagers were baptised. In 1880, a church and school were opened and by 1888 Pastor Kempe was able to produce a book in the Aranda language.

Being able to speak, or at least understand a few words of, the Aranda language did little to improve relations between the Aboriginal People and the neighbouring station owners. The missionaries had been preceded by squatters, who had excluded Aboriginal People from the precious water they needed, drove off the animals they depended upon and barred access to important sacred sites. To protect pastoral interests, the government had given local police wide powers to 'make the country safe'.

Some of the Mounted Constables at Stuart, later named Alice Springs, were well known for their mistreatment of Aboriginal People. When Constable Willshire shot two Aboriginal men in February 1891, he was arrested and charged with murder but acquitted. Mounted Constable Wurmbrand arrested three Aboriginal men

SOURCE 6.3.15 Albert Namatjira painting a landscape, Hermannsburg District, 1953. Held at John Oxley Library, State Library of Queensland

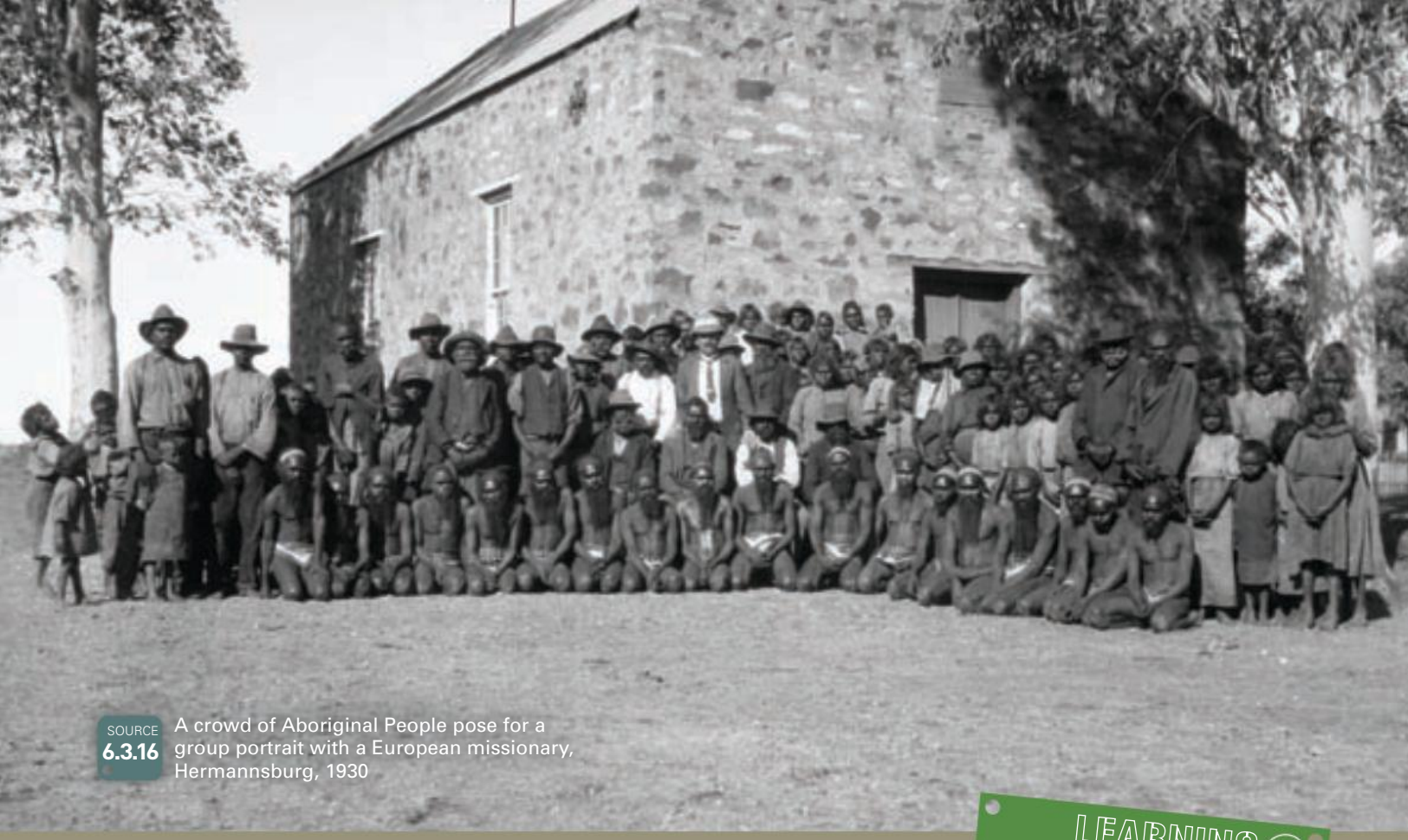
at Hermannsburg for cattle spearing and attacking the manager of Glen Helen Station. After leaving the mission he shot all three, plus another four he met on his way to Stuart. Aboriginal People were therefore very suspicious of the missionaries and progress was very slow.

Although a lot of hard work was put in by the missionaries and their helpers, the mission experienced major problems for many years. Among them were the heat, drought, frost, floods, loneliness, isolation, lack of medical facilities and insufficient money.

A new missionary, C. F. T. Strehlow, arrived in October 1894. Strehlow, in addition to teaching, preaching and administration, also did research work into the language, culture and social structure of the Aranda people. Strehlow and his wife remained at Hermannsburg for twenty-eight years, guiding the mission through all its problems, as well as droughts, floods, war and sickness.

The mission's goal was to provide Aboriginal People with religious instruction, education and employment. Its policy of working for rations encouraged adults to work on the cattle run or in associated trades such as carpentry or leatherwork. Like many other desert communities, the people at Hermannsburg were later to establish a very successful art movement, which produced Australia's first internationally known Aboriginal artist, Albert Namatjira. Today, across the central and western deserts, community art centres are now based at what were once mission stations. They are the homes of artists who recount, through their paintings, many thousands of years of cultural continuity.

Missions and reserves remain important today because of their ongoing use by Aboriginal People, and because of the deep and personal attachments many people still have to missions and reserves. Missionaries irrevocably changed the lives of Aboriginal People, destroying a spiritual and social system that had sustained them for thousands of years. However, they also gave some Aboriginal People a way to have a voice in the new social order in which they found themselves.



SOURCE 6.3.16 A crowd of Aboriginal People pose for a group portrait with a European missionary, Hermannsburg, 1930

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- colonisation
- *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*
- Constitution
- enlistment
- extinction
- Royal Commission
- trespass

2 To what church did the first missionaries to South Australia belong?

3 What does the term 'Coming of the Light' mean?

Understanding and analysing

4 Name three entitlements that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People were denied because of the wording of the Constitution.

Understanding and evaluating

5 Reread this unit. Why might have the reactions of people in the Torres Strait to the missionaries been different from the reactions of Aboriginal People?

Analysing and evaluating

6 **a** The establishment of mission stations and the missionaries' teachings were part of a deliberate attempt to break down the traditional beliefs of Aboriginal People. Why do you think many Aboriginal People today still feel that they have a connection to a mission station?

b The policy of separating children from families so that they could be educated into European society was pursued for a long time and the effects are still felt today. Why do you think successive governments followed this policy?

7 Reread Source 6.3.5 about the issues addressed by the Royal Commission into the treatment of Aboriginal People by the Canning Exploration Party. Why was it necessary to convene a Royal Commission to inquire into these issues?

8 Do you think the decision of the Royal Commission was fair? Give your reasons.

Analysing, evaluating and creating

7 Research the government report *Bringing Them Home* then listen to Prime Minister Kevin Rudd's apology to the 'stolen generations'. Set up an Oxford-style class debate on the following topic: *An apology was necessary.*

Note that in an Oxford-style debate, students choose to take either the affirmative or the negative side and the class divides at the end to choose the winning side.

UNIT 4

SOURCE STUDY:

THE SPREAD OF EUROPEAN DISEASE: THE SMALLPOX OUTBREAK OF 1789

Diseases introduced by Europeans caused many deaths among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People from the time of the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People were very susceptible to these diseases because they lacked the necessary immunity to them. One of these diseases was smallpox. At the time of the smallpox outbreak in 1789, Governor Phillip was puzzled by just how it had begun. Over a year after their arrival, none of the settlers had displayed any symptoms of the disease and none had contracted it during the outbreak among Aboriginal People. Although several small vials of the virus had come with the First Fleet, Phillip was convinced that none of these had been opened. The arrival of several French ships in Botany Bay several days after the English fleet convinced Phillip that it was they who were responsible for bringing the disease to Australia. No other ship had arrived prior to the outbreak of the epidemic.

> *We found natives laying dead on the beaches and in the caverns of rocks, forsaken by the rest as soon as the disease is discovered on them. They were generally found with the remains of a small fire on each side of them and some water left within their reach.*

SOURCE 6.4.1 Letter from Newton Fowell to his father in 1789. Held at the State Library of New South Wales. Fowell was a midshipman on the HMS *Sirius*, which was part of the First Fleet.

> *An extraordinary calamity was now observed among the natives. Repeated accounts brought by our boats of finding bodies of the Indians in all the coves and inlets of the harbour ... On inspection, it appeared that all the parties had died a natural death: pustules, similar to those occasioned by the smallpox, were thickly spread on the bodies.*

SOURCE 6.4.2 From *A Complete Account of the Settlement at Port Jackson in New South Wales*, by Captain Watkin Tench, 1793, London, UK

> *It is true that our surgeons had brought out variolous matter in bottles, but to infer that it [the smallpox epidemic] was produced from this cause was a supposition so wild as to be unworthy of consideration.*

SOURCE 6.4.3 From *A Complete Account of the Settlement at Port Jackson in New South Wales*, by Captain Watkin Tench, 1793, London, UK

SOURCE 6.4.4 Captain Watkin Tench. Held in the Penrith City Library Photo Collection, NSW. Watkin Tench arrived with the First Fleet in 1788. In his journal at the time he described the terrible effects of smallpox on the Aboriginal People and wondered how the disease arrived in the colony.

WHO BROUGHT SMALLPOX TO SYDNEY COVE IN 1789?

Historians still disagree about how the smallpox virus came to Sydney. The precise origins of the disease are important in determining whether it was deliberate or simply an unintended consequence of contact with Aboriginal People.

THE FIRST FLEET THEORY

Captain Watkin Tench, who arrived with the First Fleet, saw at first hand the devastation that smallpox caused among the Aboriginal People around Sydney Cove in 1788 and 1789. In his diary he recorded his puzzlement about where the disease had originated, and revealed that vials of smallpox had been brought from England on the First Fleet. However, he did not think these vials were a likely source of the disease (see Source 6.4.3).

In 1983, historian Neil Butlin suggested that the vials of smallpox may have been brought to Australia with the intention of exterminating the Aboriginal People. He drew attention to the fact that Major Robert Ross, the commander of the marines in Sydney Cove, had previously taken part in biological warfare against Native Americans by providing them with blankets that had been used by victims of smallpox. Butlin even suggested that the vials could have been accidentally opened by some curious Aboriginal People, but there is no direct proof of this.

THE MACASSAN THEORY

In 1911, microbiologist John Cleland was the first to suggest that smallpox had come to Australia via Macassan traders from Indonesia. These traders, who had come into contact with smallpox, were regular visitors to northern Australia. In 2002, historian Judy Campbell lent support to this theory, arguing that a network of Aboriginal trade routes connected the northern coast to Sydney. After examining scientific reports showing that the smallpox virus becomes inactive in high temperatures, Campbell supported Governor Phillip's original view that the First Fleet could not have introduced the disease. Their landing during the height of the Australian summer ruled this possibility out.

In 2008, historian Craig Mear sought to discredit Judy Campbell's Macassan theory by showing that temperatures in Sydney during 1789 reached only 29.5 degrees Celsius, well short of the 35 degree point at which smallpox becomes inactive. Furthermore, he believed that it was highly unlikely that people carrying the virus could have travelled from northern Australia to Sydney Cove by foot. Someone suffering from smallpox would simply be too ill to travel such long distances.

Just as unlikely is the idea that the smallpox virus just happened to arrive in the Sydney Cove area fourteen months after the arrival of the First Fleet. Mear believed that the most likely explanation was that the virus was carried on the clothes of First Fleet settlers. He cited examples where this had occurred at around the same time in other British colonies, such as North America.

> *There is no proof that smallpox was deliberately released by the British in Sydney but, uncomfortable as it is to Australians, it is clear from the evidence that the idea that it was introduced by Macassan fishermen in the Northern Territory and travelled to Sydney at just the time the British arrived is untenable. Somehow the British brought smallpox with them on the First Fleet. Somehow it was released into the Aboriginal community in 1789 to wreak havoc, and begin the destruction of Aboriginal societies in Australia.*

SOURCE 6.4.5 Craig Mear, 'The origin of the smallpox outbreak in Sydney in 1789', *Journal of the Royal Australian Historical Society*, 1 June 2008

SOURCE 6.4.6 The First Fleet in Sydney Cove, 27 January 1788, by John Allcot. Held at the National Library of Australia

THE CHICKEN POX THEORY

In 2010, Dr Jack Carmody, a physiologist from the University of Sydney, rejected both existing views on where smallpox had come from in 1789. He advanced a third theory: the disease referred to in the letters and journals of British colonists as smallpox was in fact chicken pox. Carmody questioned the primary accounts of the numbers who died during the epidemic. He estimated that 300 at most died, significantly less than the 2000 accepted by most historians. If smallpox had indeed been present, says Carmody, there should have been about fifty cases of it among the colonists as well. Since inoculation was costly, many convicts would not have been immune to the disease.

> *Where, then, did the often-repeated identification of smallpox originate? This came primarily from the journals of a few colonists, notably David Collins, the Judge-Advocate, and Watkin Tench, neither of whom was a medical man. They wrote either that it was smallpox (Collins) or that it looked like it (the more cautious Tench). Why, then, do I doubt the testimony of those contemporary eye-witnesses? Simply because it was only in 1767, just under 20 years before the First Fleet left, that the eminent British physician, Dr William Heberden, in a lecture to the Royal College of Physicians, first distinguished chicken pox from smallpox. Prior to that, chicken pox was simply considered a milder form of smallpox.*

SOURCE 6.4.7 Dr Jack Carmody, in an ABC Radio National segment called 'Ockham's Razor', 19 September 2010

According to Carmody, the chicken pox virus had arrived in Australia in the nervous systems of every colonist who had had the disease in childhood. Food shortages, scurvy, psychological stress and other pressures would have caused some of these colonists to contract shingles, a disease caused by the same virus as chicken pox. Pus from the scabs caused by shingles is rich in the virus and could have easily infected Aboriginal People who came into contact with it. Since they had no immunity to the chicken pox, it could have easily killed large numbers of Aboriginal People in the Sydney Cove area.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING

1 Create a chart categorising the sources in this unit as either primary or secondary sources.

UNDERSTANDING AND EVALUATING

2 Reread Sources 6.4.1 and 6.4.2. How are they similar and how are they different?

EVALUATING

3 Reread 'Who brought smallpox to Sydney Cove in 1789?'.
- **a** How can a lack of available sources lead historians to disagree over precisely what happened in 1789?
- **b** What are the three theories that have been put forward to account for the arrival of smallpox in the colony in 1789?
- **c** Why is the debate over who brought smallpox to Sydney Cove so contentious?

4 Reread Sources 6.4.3 and 6.4.5.
- **a** What proof is there in Source 6.4.3 that the First Fleet brought the smallpox virus to Sydney Cove?
- **b** What motives might Tench (Source 6.4.3) have had for rejecting the claim that the bottles of 'variolous matter' were opened?

5 Reread Source 6.4.5 and explain why Carmody believes that the primary accounts of the smallpox epidemic are mistaken. How has Carmody used evidence from a field other than history to help shed light on the past?

ANALYSING

6 Using the information in this Source Study, draw up and complete a table with the following headings: 'Name of theory', 'Main proponent/s', 'Basic argument' and 'Evidence used'.

THE EXPERIENCE OF NON-EUROPEANS IN AUSTRALIA BEFORE 1900

From 1850 to 1900, approximately seven million people left China in search of opportunities in South-East Asia, the United States of America, Canada and Australia. This mass exodus was the beginning of what is today known as the **Chinese diaspora**. It is estimated that up to 90 000 Chinese migrants came to Australia. Among other non-Europeans who came to Australia were approximately 62 000 South Pacific Islander People, who worked on the sugar-cane fields in Far North Queensland; approximately 3000 Japanese, who came to Broome in Western Australia as pearl divers; and about 2000 Afghans, who came to South Australia as camel drivers.

THE CHINESE EXPERIENCE IN NEW SOUTH WALES AND VICTORIA

The first Chinese to visit Australia were probably fishermen aboard Macassan boats from Indonesia that arrived in northern Australia each year looking for sea cucumbers (called trepang). These were used in traditional Chinese medicine and were later eaten as a delicacy. During the 1750s, Chinese traders visited northern Australia in search of sealskins and sandalwood.

COOLIE LABOUR

The first Chinese migrants to settle in New South Wales were sailors whose contracts had expired in Sydney or who had simply 'jumped' ship. With the end of convict transportation in 1840, several employers sought cheap Chinese and Indian workers. By 1850, there were nearly 3000 Chinese in New South Wales, most of whom were indentured labourers known as **coolies**. These were unskilled workers who were bound to their employer for a set period of time, usually a few years. They could not resign, even if they grew dissatisfied with their pay and working conditions, which were much worse than those of free workers.

THE GOLD RUSH

The Victorian gold rush of the 1850s attracted a great number of immigrants from all over the world, including Chinese, Europeans and Americans. Australia's population doubled during the first year of the gold rushes. Between 1852 and 1853, about 500 Chinese migrants left Hong Kong for Melbourne. By 1854, more than 2000 Chinese had arrived in the colony of Victoria. Most were single young men who expected to stay in Australia for a year or two, make their fortune and then return home to China to get married.

SOURCE 6.5.1 Anti-Chinese immigration cartoon, *Punch* magazine, 1888. The caption reads: 'Mrs Australia (to John Chinaman): "I've had quite enough of you! No admittance—not even on business"!'

SOURCE 6.5.2 *Arrival of Chinese Immigrants in Little Bourke Street*, by Frederick Grosse, c. 1873. Held at the National Library of Australia

Upon arriving at the docks in Melbourne, the new arrivals were often met by angry crowds, who hurled abuse at them and pelted them with food and other scraps. The migrants camped on the outskirts of the city until they could purchase the necessary mining equipment from local Chinese businesses. Most would then trek to the goldfields about 150 kilometres away. In towns such as Bendigo and Ballarat, Chinese miners faced regular abuse and violence. Stones were often thrown at them, and on a few occasions some were even dragged by their pigtails through the town centre.

SECRET SOCIETIES

In order to protect themselves, Chinese miners were expected to join **secret societies** such as the Kong Chew, Four Districts and Virtuous Prosperity. These organisations were considered secret not because they wanted to hide their existence from non-members but because they didn't want outsiders to know about their rules. These rules were aimed at maintaining order inside Chinese camps and avoiding trouble with European miners and authorities. Each secret society had rules for settling mining disputes, keeping the camp clean, assisting newcomers, dressing and behaving appropriately, getting on with Europeans and borrowing money. Punishments for breaking rules varied from fines of up to £5 to thirty strokes of a cane.

ANTI-CHINESE SENTIMENT

Competition between European and Chinese miners often led to conflicts over pieces of ground thought to contain gold. Many European miners resented the Chinese simply for being different. Rumours spread about Chinese opium addiction, disease, gambling and general immorality. Anti-Chinese Leagues were established throughout Victoria and later New South Wales to pressure governments into restricting Chinese immigration.

> *If these heathens [i.e. the Chinese] who came here to pollute our blood and debauch our young children are not put under severe regulations we may reckon an epidemic sooner or later that may be as deadly as leprosy.*

SOURCE 6.5.3 From *The Ballarat Star*, 20 August 1866

RESTRICTING CHINESE IMMIGRATION

In June 1855, the Victorian government enacted a law that limited the number of Chinese arrivals to one person per 10 tonnes of cargo carried by a ship. All new Chinese arrivals were forced to pay an arrival tax of £10. Most Chinese got around this law by disembarking in Adelaide and then crossing the border to the Victorian goldfields. In 1857, when the South Australian parliament applied similar immigration restrictions, Chinese arrivals began entering Australia through Sydney. Anti-Chinese sentiment led to the introduction of restrictions on Chinese immigration in New South Wales in 1861, Queensland in 1877 and Western Australia in 1886.

RACE RIOTS

European miners sometimes drove the Chinese away by banding together and threatening violence. In 1857, at Chinaman's Flat, European miners set fire to the Chinese camp, forcing the inhabitants to flee in terror and abandon their diggings.

Later that year, at Ararat, Chinese miners struck a huge gold deposit. Although they tried to keep their discovery secret, thousands of other miners rushed to the area to stake their claims. The Chinese miners were eventually robbed of their discovery when it was found that they had not paid their £1 residence ticket to mine for gold. This was a fee that many European miners had also refused to pay.

On the New South Wales goldfields, anti-Chinese sentiment ran just as high. In June 1861, 3000 European miners with picks, shovels, knives and guns marched to the Chinese camp at Lambing Flat and destroyed it. Two hundred and fifty Chinese were severely injured and most lost all their belongings. One rioter later showed off seventeen pigtails he had cut from Chinese miners. This was the first of six riots over a ten-month period at Lambing Flat, which shortly afterwards was renamed Young.

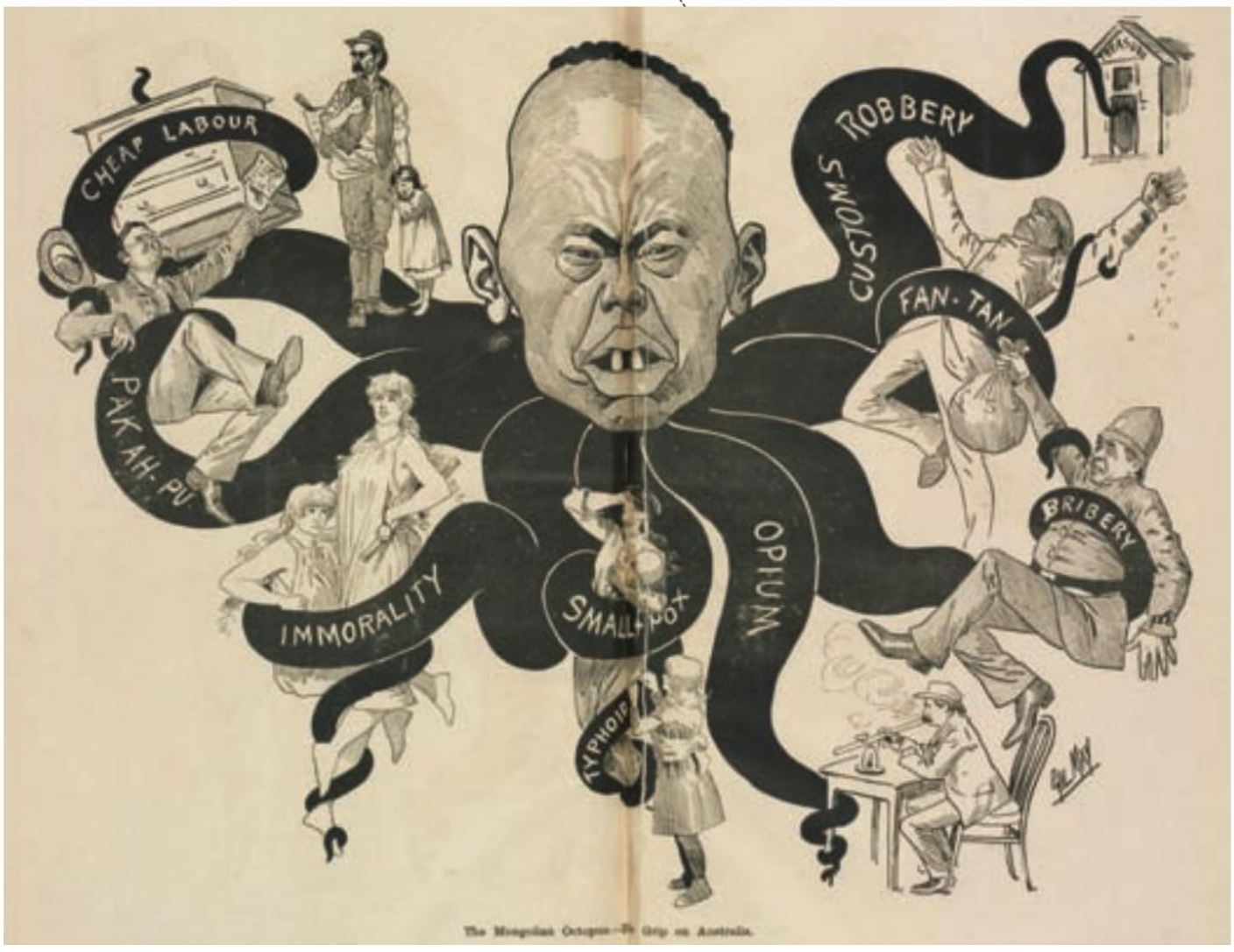
DID YOU KNOW?

QUONG TART WAS A SUCCESSFUL BUSINESSMAN WHO IMPORTED CHINESE TEA, SILK AND CROCKERY.

His nine tearooms were popular among members of Sydney's high society. Far from exploiting 'cheap foreign labour', Quong Tart paid his workers meal allowances, holiday leave and sick pay at a time when these conditions were virtually unheard of.

SOURCE 6.5.4 'The Mongolian Octopus—his grip on Australia', by Phil May, *Bulletin*, 21 August 1886

Q
1. Explain the cartoonist's perspective on Chinese immigrants.
2. What does each of the tentacles represent? Find out what 'Fan-Tan' and 'Pak Ah-Pu' are.
3. Why would such a cartoon be considered racist today?



PACIFIC ISLANDER PEOPLE IN QUEENSLAND

'BLACKBIRDING' IN THE SOUTH PACIFIC

Blackbirding was the practice of deceiving Pacific Islander People into coming to Australia, sometimes by offering small items of little worth or making false promises of high wages. Blackbirding was usually conducted by agents for plantation owners, who relied on cheap **'Kanaka'** labour to carry out the long and difficult work of harvesting sugar cane.

SOURCE 6.5.5 'Recruits' from the New Hebrides bound for north Queensland. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1 **Comment on the age, gender and appearance of the Pacific Islander People on board the ship.**
2 **Can this photograph be used as evidence of 'blackbirding'? Explain your answer.**

Between 1863 and 1904, about 62 000 South Pacific Islander People arrived in Queensland, where they were put to work on the sugar plantations in the far north. In many cases, Pacific Islander People were promised good wages, ample food and a year-long contract, after which they were promised a return passage home. The truth, however, was that work on a sugar plantation was tiring, hours were long and most 'contracts' ran for three years. Although by 1872 the practice of blackbirding had been made illegal under the Imperial Kidnapping Act (UK), the practice continued for another thirty years, with very few cases actually making it to court.

> *Quite often they were tricked into going. They were offered trinkets and pretty things. I've even heard of people off the ships dressing as priests or ministers—ah, missionaries, and encouraging them to follow them.*

SOURCE 6.5.6 From an interview with Elizabeth Warren on the ABC program *George Negus Tonight* in 2004. Elizabeth Warren is a descendant of indentured workers from the South Pacific.

Q
1 **State two ways in which South Pacific Islander People were 'tricked' into coming to Australia, according to Elizabeth Warren.**
2 **Suggest how Elizabeth Warren might have learnt this.**

THE TOWNSVILLE BLACKBIRDING CONTROVERSY

In 2004, the Townsville City Council planned to erect a bronze statue of Captain Robert Towns, the founder of the city. Robert Towns was a wealthy merchant who is credited with establishing the sugar industry in Far North Queensland. One councillor at the time even went as far as describing Towns as 'the Rupert Murdoch of the colonial era'.

Controversy soon developed over the proposed statue, however, as it was known that Towns had employed indentured labourers from the South Pacific Islands to work on his sugar plantations. These workers were paid just two shillings per week, while the average European worker earned ten times more.

The major controversy, however, was the claim made by descendants of South Pacific Islander People in north Queensland that Towns was a 'blackbirder'. In 1863, Towns became the first plantation owner in Queensland to use Pacific Island labour, bringing a boatload of sixty-seven workers to use on his cotton plantation south of Brisbane.

Historians soon joined the debate over Robert Towns. Local historians Ian and Joelle Fleming led the attack, claiming that a letter written to Towns in 1866 mentioned a shipload of 'about 1500 slaves aboard' and therefore proved his involvement in blackbirding. However, some questioned the authenticity of the letter, since no ship at the time could carry 1500 people.

SOURCE 6.5.7 Afghan cameleers, c. 1905. Held at the State Library of South Australia

Retired newspaper executive Jim Manion, who had conducted extensive research into the life of Robert Towns, cited evidence that the workers on his plantations were happy and content. Furthermore, Manion argued, South Pacific Islander People were not employed in north Queensland until after Towns's death in 1873. Historian Dorothy Gibson-Wilde weighed into the debate, arguing that it was pointless to erect a statue of Robert Towns since he was not in fact the real founder of Townsville.

SETTLING THE ARGUMENT?

To settle the controversy, the Townsville City Council commissioned retired history professor Kett Kennedy to investigate the claims that Robert Towns had taken part in blackbirding.

Kennedy's conclusion was that while Towns had technically not been involved in the blackbirding of South Pacific Islander People, he had hired others to recruit them on his behalf. Letters from Towns to his recruiting agent Ross Lewin also revealed that he had expressed concern for the welfare of the indentured workers on board his ships. Kennedy did acknowledge, however, that this might well have been an attempt by Towns to 'cover his tracks'. Kennedy also concluded that the letter referred to by the Flemings was most likely a fraud. The following year, a life-size statue of Robert Towns was erected but with a plaque that acknowledged him as a controversial character in Townsville's history.

AFGHANS IN SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Not long after the settlement of South Australia in 1836, exploration of the interior of the continent began. In early attempts to explore the 'Red Centre' horses and bullocks were used to transport equipment and materials across the desert, but these animals proved incapable of enduring long periods without water. They also had difficulty in walking across sand for long distances.

In 1839, the first camels were imported to Australia to improve transport across the Simpson Desert. Camels had earned a reputation as 'ships of the desert' due to their ability to survive harsh desert conditions carrying great loads.

CAMELEERS AND 'SHIPS OF THE DESERT'

Most Europeans had very little experience handling camels, and so specially trained camel drivers known as cameleers were also brought to Australia. Although they came from several different places throughout central Asia and India, most cameleers were Afghans. Australians referred to them simply as 'Ghans' (short for Afghans). All were single Muslim men who had signed three-year contracts to live and work in central Australia.

In 1886, the first hundred camels and thirty-one Afghan cameleers arrived in South Australia. By 1900, it was estimated that there were about 15 000 camels and 2000 Afghans in Australia. These men played an important role in the inland exploration of the continent, carrying vital supplies and mail from South Australia to the north. The Overland Telegraph, which connected Adelaide and Darwin in 1872, could not have been built without the assistance of the Afghan cameleers. They also helped to establish the rail connection between Adelaide and Port Augusta and carried mail and equipment between isolated outback settlements.

GHAN TOWNS

Many of the first outback towns in South Australia developed three separate districts: one for European settlers inside the township, one for the Aboriginal People on the outskirts of the town and one for the Afghan community, also on the outskirts, known as Ghan towns. Since people of British origins generally shunned them, some Afghans married Aboriginal women. In 1861, the Afghan community at Maree in South Australia was the first to build a Muslim mosque in Australia. Maree was an important intersection on the camel trails and was nicknamed 'Little Afghanistan'.

With the development of road and rail transport, the need for camels declined. Today, the train that travels between Adelaide and Darwin is called *The Ghan* after the Afghan cameleers who worked on the construction of the original rail track.

THE JAPANESE IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA

From the middle of the nineteenth century, pearls and mother-of-pearl shells became popular in Britain and the United States for use as buttons and belt buckles. Such demand led to the establishment of Western Australia's pearling industry around Shark Bay in the 1850s.

Pearlers initially used Aboriginal women to dive for oysters, since they proved to have an excellent lung capacity. These divers could descend to depths of up to 13 metres, at times as far as 2 kilometres from shore. Since they used no diving suits, oxygen tanks, snorkels or masks, their simple method was known as skin diving. This was very risky and up to half the divers died due to drowning, shark attack, the bends or cyclones.

The discovery of the precious South Sea pearl in the 1870s attracted many Japanese, Malay and Chinese pearlers to Western Australia. In 1881, Broome was established as a pearling town and by the following decade it had earned a reputation as the pearling capital of the world. The invention of diving suits and simple breathing apparatus allowed divers to go deeper and stay underwater longer. This meant that Japanese divers soon replaced Aboriginal divers. Japanese divers were considered the best at their trade, as they seemed to cope better with high pressure. They worked as indentured labourers, initially receiving no wages but instead paying off the debt they owed to their employers for their travel costs to Australia.

SOURCE 6.5.8 Japanese pearl divers in Western Australia, c. 1905. Held at the National Library of Australia

By 1910, the town of Broome had a population of 4000 people, made up of approximately 3000 Japanese, Malays and Chinese, all of whom had some connection to the pearling industry. Many divers died during the heyday of Broome's pearling industry and the Japanese cemetery in Broome has over 700 graves of Japanese divers.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- blackbirding
- Chinese diaspora
- coolies
- 'Kanaka'
- secret societies

Understanding and evaluating

2 Reread 'The Chinese experience in New South Wales and Victoria'.

a When did the first Chinese people settle in Sydney? Why had they arrived in Sydney?

b How did the end of convict transportation lead to increased Chinese immigration?

c Why did Chinese people come to Victoria during the 1850s?

d What was the purpose of Chinese 'secret societies'? What benefits could a Chinese miner obtain by joining one of these?

e How did colonial governments deal with Chinese immigration?

3 Reread 'Afghans in South Australia' and 'The Japanese in Western Australia', then construct a two-column table to compare the two groups. Use the following criteria as headings for the table rows:

- When they came to Australia
- How many came to Australia
- Why they came to Australia
- Where they arrived and were located
- What their experiences in Australia were like
- How they are remembered today.

Evaluating

4 Write an explanation of the practice of blackbirding in Australia during the late 1800s. Begin your explanation with an introductory paragraph that defines blackbirding and provides the main features of the practice. Provide statements that tell how or why blackbirding occurred in Australia, using the sources in 'Pacific Islander People in Queensland' to help. Finish your explanation with concluding remarks about why the practice of blackbirding was considered controversial.

5 Reread 'The Townsville blackbirding controversy' and then make a list of the strengths and weaknesses of the arguments of each historian mentioned. Consider the evidence they use to support their view, as well as their perspective on Robert Towns.

LIVING AND WORKING CONDITIONS IN AUSTRALIA AT THE TURN OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

THE URBAN EXPERIENCE

The influx of immigrants due to the gold rushes of the 1850s led to the rapid development of cities such as Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide. By 1888, Melbourne had grown to become the largest city in Australia and the second largest in the entire British Empire. Housing booms in Sydney and Melbourne in the 1880s led to the creation of new outer suburbs connected by road, rail and tramway. At the close of the nineteenth century, almost two-thirds of Australia's 3.76 million people lived in urban centres.

NEW OPPORTUNITIES

The **long boom** that lasted from the 1850s to the 1890s saw Australian workers become among the best paid and least overworked in the world. A labour shortage throughout Australia, however, meant that employers were forced to offer high wages and better working conditions to attract skilled workers. These were essential for the creation of new public buildings, roads, railways, ports and housing. The growth of the wool, mining and manufacturing industries also meant that thousands of additional workers were required.

The labour shortage meant that workers had the luxury of choosing the employer that paid the highest wages. Australian male workers had an average life expectancy of 47 years—this was four years longer than male workers in Britain. It was during this period that Australia earned a reputation as a working man's paradise.

SOURCE 6.6.2 *Last Dip of the Season*, 1887. Held at the State Library of Victoria

LEISURE AND ENTERTAINMENT

After the introduction of the eight-hour day in 1856 and its gradual extension to most workers across Australia, more and more workers gradually found themselves with time on their hands. People made the most of this by attending public carnivals and celebrations, picnics and sporting events. With the working day over by 1 p.m. on Saturday, spectator sports such as football, cricket and horseracing became even more popular. In 1888, over 100 000 people watched the running of the Melbourne Cup.

> *Nowhere in my travels have I encountered a festival of the people that has such a magnetic appeal to a whole nation. The (Melbourne) Cup astonishes me!*

SOURCE 6.6.1 American author Mark Twain after his attendance at the 1888 Melbourne Cup

Towards the close of the nineteenth century, new technologies also changed the way people spent their leisure time. The invention of the penny-farthing bicycle in the 1880s provided a new mode of transport and recreation for ordinary people. While difficult and potentially dangerous to ride, the penny-farthing required little maintenance and could be purchased with credit from the banks. By the following decade, a bicycle craze had swept the colonies and more than 200 000 bicycles had been purchased. More conservative members of society objected to women riding bicycles and there was much discussion about the most appropriate clothing for bike riding. During summer, swimming and reading at the beach were also popular. Most women chose to wear bathing costumes that covered their shoulders and knees, and caps to cover their hair.

CHURCH ATTENDANCE

In 1900, most people in Australia were members of a Christian church. Church attendance was high by today's standards, with over 50 per cent of people attending each Sunday (this compares with around 9 per cent today). For many people, the local church provided much of their social life with events such as picnics, sports carnivals and religious festivals. Fetes, concerts and plays were an important way for local churches to build community support. A major feature of each Christian denomination was its connection with a particular ethnic background. For instance, German migrants in South Australia helped establish the Lutheran Church, while people of Irish descent were mainly Catholic. In city areas, religious bigotry between Protestants and Catholics often led to **sectarian** conflict and discrimination in the workplace.

SOURCE 6.6.4 A house attached to stables, Oxford St, Sydney in 1900. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

Q
1. What is the evidence to suggest that the dwellings are not permanent?
2. In what ways is this dwelling unhygienic for its occupants?

SOURCE 6.6.3 Kitchen, toilet and 'dining room' of a working-class house, Sydney, 1900. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

Q How can this photograph be used to show the living conditions of working-class people in Sydney in 1900?

LIVING CONDITIONS

Poverty was a daily reality for many unskilled workers. Inner-city areas within walking distance of the factory or workplace were overcrowded and unhygienic. High rents often forced several families to cram together inside hastily built slums. These conditions provided a breeding ground for carriers of disease such as rats and fleas. Industries such as tanning, which produced animal wastes, were kept well away from the more affluent outer suburbs. Densely populated working districts by the water were therefore often characterised by offensive smells and piles of rotting garbage. Toilets were usually nothing more than a tin bucket located in the backyard 'dunny' or shed. Behind each backyard ran an alleyway just large enough for the nightman's horse and cart. It was the nightman's job to collect the sewage from each house and dispose of it in the nearest waterway.

PUBLIC HEALTH PROBLEMS

In 1900, Sydney experienced an outbreak of bubonic plague. This had been caused by a serious rat problem throughout the city. Sufferers of the plague developed a high fever and pus-filled buboes in their armpits.

In response, health authorities ordered the houses of sufferers to be fumigated and disinfected. Squads of rat-catchers were employed to trap, kill and burn as many rats as possible. By the turn of the century, better knowledge about infectious diseases led to the improvement of isolation facilities such as the Quarantine Station on Sydney's North Head. Here patients could be treated while being kept away from the rest of the population. Overall, it is estimated that around 500 people throughout Australia died of the bubonic plague at the beginning of the twentieth century.

INNER-CITY CRIME

By 1890, the populations of Sydney and Melbourne had more than quadrupled in thirty years. Such unplanned growth led to overcrowding, particularly in inner-city areas close to factories. These areas tended to attract lots of young working-class men, many of whom had come from the country in search of work during good economic times. Called **larrikins**, these young men were known for their antisocial behaviour, which offended the members of the wealthier middle class. Groups of larrikins could typically be found on street corners where they would drink, swear, play gambling games such as 'two-up' and occasionally brawl. Chinese people were often the targets of their insults and violence. Although far fewer in number, young women who associated with larrikins were called 'larrikinesses'.

While larrikins were generally more of a nuisance than a genuine threat to most citizens, some formed their own criminal gangs. These gangs were called **pushes** and took on names such as the 'Rocks Push', the 'Forty Thieves' (from Surry Hills, Sydney), the 'Little Lonsdale Street Push' (from Melbourne) and the 'West Adelaide Push'. Pushes controlled their own patch of territory, which was usually a particular street or block. These areas often became unsafe areas for more respectable families. Gang members would use their tools of trade, such as hammers, knives and iron bars, as weapons.

Australia's first ethnic gang was the 'Tipperary Boys', a group of Irish Catholics from Melbourne who terrorised Protestant politicians and threatened to burn Melbourne down when their preferred candidate was defeated in local elections.

> *He generally follows his calling between the ages of 11 and 19. He is vulgar, mean, rude, abusive, cruel, sneaking, dishonest, cunning and an abject coward ... When assembled together larrikins insult, ill-treat and abuse all those who are weaker in number or in physical strength than themselves ... Surely a good sound flogging [is needed on] such a very offensive animal.*

SOURCE 6.6.5 Editorial about the larrikin problem in the *Adelaide Advertiser*, 1 March 1876

SOURCE 6.6.6 Rat catchers in Sydney during the bubonic plague in 1900. Held at State Records NSW

LIFE FOR THE WEALTHY

Those from the richest families in the colonies inherited their wealth and didn't have to work at all. Most members of the upper middle class were able to obtain a university education. Males typically entered the professions as doctors, lawyers and engineers, while the few women who wanted to work trained as teachers and nurses. A medical specialist in 1900 could earn over £10 000 a year, while a family doctor could earn up to £1000 a year.

The lower middle classes were **white-collar workers**—clerical and office workers—which required skills in accounting, administration and business. Such skills ensured that they received a much higher income than unskilled labourers. As a result, they could afford bigger houses on the outer fringes of the city, where life was quieter and conditions better. Greater wealth meant that the middle class could afford to go to the theatre or opera.

WORKING CONDITIONS

By the end of the century, Australia had earned a reputation as an egalitarian society free from the class distinctions of the Old World. Reforms such as the eight-hour day, however, were available only to skilled workers belonging to trade unions. For those able to obtain trade union membership—typically men of Anglo-Celtic background—Australia was a working man's paradise. They worked fewer hours, received more pay and enjoyed more rights than workers anywhere else in the world.

Nevertheless, conditions in factories were very poor by today's standards. These were often poorly ventilated and stifling in the heat of a summer. Unskilled workers could work for up to 48 hours a week for wages as low as £1 a week, with no extra pay for overtime. Qualified tradesmen earned up to £3 a week.

> *The Australian workman has substantial reason for glorying in the fact that while working fewer hours per week than is the rule in the old world, he nevertheless has more money at his disposal, and is able to secure for himself and those belonging to him a larger share of the good things in life.*

SOURCE 6.6.7 *Adelaide Advertiser*, 1902

Q **Identify three reasons why Australian workers were said to be better off than workers in the 'Old World'?**

For the majority of non-union workers, Australia was far from a paradise. Women, children, non-European immigrants and Aboriginal People continued to work long hours and were paid at rates well below the trade union **award**, or minimum industry rate. Many such workers did not have the protection of a union and were forced onto individual contracts that strongly favoured the employer. Unskilled workers tended to be paid by **piece-rate**. This also advantaged the employer since it meant that a worker went unpaid when demand was low. Unskilled workers had to look for other employment at such times, making rent payments almost impossible to meet.

FROM BOOM TO BUST

The good times brought about by the gold rushes could not last forever and by 1891, the onset of an economic depression brought the 'boom years' to an abrupt end. Widespread business closures meant that work was suddenly much harder to find. As wages decreased and shortages led to price increases, many workers decided to escape the poverty of the city by 'going bush' in search of work.

> *... if Australia at present presents the Working Man's Paradise, I should hardly care for a glimpse even of the Working Man's Hades [hell].*

SOURCE 6.6.8 From *Workingmen's Homes*, by Matilda Emilie Bertha McNamara, who ran a homeless shelter in Sydney, 1894

Q
1. **What is Bertha McNamara's view of Australian working conditions?**
2. **How might her experience have helped form this view?**

WOMEN'S EXPERIENCE

In a male-dominated society in which women tended to remain in the private sphere, sexist attitudes were widely accepted. Most women were considered dependants—that is, earning no income of their own—of their fathers or husbands. The few women who worked tended to be young and single, as married women were expected to raise children and take care of the family. The main form of work for a young woman was domestic service, which meant being a housemaid, a cook or a nanny for wealthier families. Educated middle-class women usually became teachers or nurses.

SOURCE 6.6.9 Female domestic servant, late 1800s. Held at the State Library of Victoria

Q
1. **What do you suppose the approximate age of this girl is?**
2. **What were her alternatives to working as a domestic servant?**

SOURCE 6.6.10 A small selector's hut in Gippsland, Victoria (c. 1886), a colour photo-lithograph by Nicholas Caire. Held at the National Gallery of Australia

Q
1 What basic items does this selector have to manage his land?
2 Describe the construction of his hut.

With the development of clothing manufacture, skilled women began entering the textiles and footwear industries. This brought them into the factories, where hours were long and pay was by the piece. Membership in large trade unions was restricted to males, and women were therefore forced to accept much poorer working conditions.

> *I would rather be back at school again than at service… You said it was better for me to write and let you know than it was to run away… I get eight shillings [about 80 cents] a week. It is a good thing that I do as I break so many things and I have to replace them again.*

SOURCE 6.6.11 Excerpt from a letter written by a young girl who was a domestic servant in 1890, quoted in *No Paradise for Workers*, by K. Buckley & T. Wheelwright, 1983

Q
1 Why was it difficult for this girl to make any money?
2 What is her attitude towards work?

A wife was seen as the property of her husband, in legal terms, until 1873, when marriage laws began to recognise the rights of women in marriage. Even then, a divorced woman could only take her clothing and personal items as property from the marriage in the event of divorce. Since there were so few employment opportunities available to women, divorce was very rare. Many women therefore endured unhappy and even violent marriages because they were financially dependent on their husbands. By 1911, over 80 per cent of Australian women were still considered dependants.

THE RURAL EXPERIENCE

THE SELECTION ACTS

For colonial governments, the sale of land was an important way of encouraging further immigration from Britain. It was also the quickest way to raise the revenue needed to build basic transport infrastructure such as roads and railways. As a result, from the 1860s onwards, colonial governments passed a series of Selection Acts, intended to break the monopoly of the wealthy squatters and allow the 'small man' and his family onto the land. Individual farmers could select up to 640 acres (about 260 hectares) for a fixed price.

THE LIFE OF A SELECTOR

Selectors were small-scale farmers who typically owned between 60 and 100 acres (between 24 and 41 hectares) of land. Many lacked the expertise to succeed in Australian conditions and could not compete with much wealthier squatters who controlled larger, and often better, land adjacent to rivers and streams. If he was lucky, the selector could afford to pay a few bush hands to help cut trees, clear land, build a house and establish a farm. This pioneering work was incredibly difficult and required ingenuity as well as strength.

Many selectors failed to understand the basics of farming. By clearing all land of native vegetation, many selectors also exposed their land to dust storms and water erosion. On top of this, droughts, floods, bushfires, frost, hail and insect plagues could all destroy a selector's crop. This often meant he could not pay back his debts to banks and local stores.

Their dependence on a successful crop often meant that the small selector and his family were tied to the land. The long distance to town was only travelled at harvest time, when a selector would deliver his wheat to market. Unfortunately for many, the distance to town often meant that the wheat was past its best by the time the buyer inspected it. Successful selections, therefore, tended to be close to town and a supply of running water.

THE LIFE OF A SHEARER

Shearers performed an essential role in the rural economy, as without their skill, squatters had nothing to sell. Shearers were itinerant workers not bound to any single employer, as shearing was seasonal work. During the 1830s, when the wool industry was in its growth phase, shearers could sell their services to the squatter willing to pay the most. The best shearers could shear up to 200 sheep a day using hand-operated blade shears. For his services, the shearer could expect to be paid £1 for every hundred sheep shorn. The shearing seasons would last through spring and autumn. Shearers usually had to find other work, such as shepherding, during the summer and winter months. Shepherding, however, gradually died out when boundary fences were built to divide pastoral lands.

Shearing work demanded physical strength and stamina. Working and living conditions at the shearing stations were generally poor. Living quarters were filthy, with dirt floors and poor ventilation. Shearers were expected to purchase their own supplies and food rations from the station depot at hugely inflated prices. Individual work contracts required them to remain on the station until all the sheep were shorn. If the shearer left before this, he would forfeit any pay already earned. If the station manager was not satisfied with the quality of his work, a shearer could also be refused pay.

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- award
- larrikins
- long boom
- piece-rate
- pushes
- sectarian
- selectors
- white-collar workers

2 Reread 'The urban experience' and then answer true or false to each of the following statements. Rewrite all false statements so that they are true.

a Melbourne grew to be the second largest city in the British Empire.

b Towards the end of the nineteenth century, people were gradually moving to rural areas.

c Australian workers earned a reputation as among the lowest paid workers in the world.

d An oversupply of workers during the long boom led to a decline in wages for all workers.

3 Reread 'The Selection Acts' and 'The life of the selector' and then complete the following cloze passage in your notebook.

_____ Acts were laws passed by colonial governments to attract new _____ from Britain to Australia. Those who could afford to purchase a small land holding became known as _____. Life for these individuals was very difficult, as they had to _____ land and establish a farm. Many failed simply because they lacked experience in _____. By clearing the land of all its natural vegetation, many selections suffered soil _____. _____ disasters could also send them to ruin.

Understanding and evaluating

4 Reread 'Working conditions'.

a Why had Australia earned a reputation as a 'working man's paradise' by the end of the century?

b Which workers tended to be better paid? Explain how this group had achieved higher wages and better conditions?

c Which groups of workers were the least well off and why? Why did many city workers decide to 'go bush' during the 1890s?

5 Reread 'Women's experience'.

a Why did the majority of women not seek employment?

b What type of woman was most likely to go to work?

c What types of work did some women in nineteenth-century Australia perform?

d Why were conditions poorer and rates of pay much lower for women?

e How were wives seen according to the law and how did this affect the lives of some women?

Understanding and creating

6 Create a colonial newspaper social page that indicates the various things readers can do for entertainment and social life in their leisure time. Your page should contain a written editorial, as well as advertisements to attract people to spend their time and money on a range of activities. Base your social page on the information in 'Leisure and entertainment' and 'Church attendance', as well as your own research.

Evaluating

7 Use the information in 'The life of a shearer' as well as your own research to write a paragraph explaining why shearers were important to the economy of colonial Australia. In your answer, consider the importance of well-cut wool, the difficult work of shearing and the growing market for Australian wool during the nineteenth century.

KEY EVENTS: THE DEVELOPMENT OF AUSTRALIAN DEMOCRACY

EMERGENCE OF SELF-GOVERNMENT

Upon their arrival in 1788, the British appointed a governor to rule the colony of New South Wales. The first three governors of New South Wales, Phillip, Hunter and King, had virtually unrestricted authority or **autocratic power**, to create new laws and punish those who broke them. In the early years of settlement, such wide-ranging powers were critical for the survival of the struggling colony. Due to the slow communication and vast distance from Great Britain, the British Colonial Office rarely overruled the governor's decisions. These were not always popular, as was demonstrated in 1808 when members of the New South Wales Corps arrested Governor William Bligh and temporarily seized government. New South Wales remained a penal colony until the middle of the nineteenth century, and as such was considered incapable of self-government.

SOURCE 6.7.1 The autocratic power of the early governors of New South Wales

As the rate of transportation slowed and the population of convicts and ex-convicts declined, Britain began to view the possibility of **responsible government** in New South Wales more favourably. The term 'responsible government' refers to government that is accountable to the representatives of the people.

The first step towards responsible government was the passing of the *New South Wales Act 1823* by the British Parliament. For the first time, members of the colony could play a limited role in the law-making process. This occurred through the newly created Legislative Council, which was made up of five appointed representatives who could advise the governor. In 1842, the first New South Wales constitution introduced limited voting rights and the membership of the Legislative Council was increased to thirty-six. Qualified landowners elected two-thirds of these, while the governor appointed the remaining third.

In 1850, the Australian Colonies Government Act gave the New South Wales Legislative Council the power to create its own constitution. It also established similar self-governing colonies in Victoria, South Australia and Van Diemen's Land (renamed 'Tasmania' six years later). Fully responsible government finally came to New South Wales in 1856 when a new and entirely elected body, the Legislative Assembly, was created.

A LABORATORY FOR DEMOCRACY

Significant democratic change came to colonial Victoria in the wake of the Eureka rebellion of 1854. Although the authorities had swiftly crushed the Eureka rebellion, widespread support for the arrested miners forced the government to come to terms with their demands. With the passing of the Electoral Act on 19 March 1856, Victoria became the first electorate in the world to introduce the secret ballot. South Australia followed two weeks later and in 1858 New South Wales passed similar legislation. As a result, the secret ballot became known throughout the world as 'the Australian ballot'. Within a year of the Eureka rebellion, the government of Victoria had also introduced pay for parliamentarians, annual elections and the removal of property rules for voting. South Australia and New South Wales soon followed with similar reforms, earning Australia the reputation as 'a laboratory for democracy'. Britain, for example, did not achieve full male **suffrage** until as late as 1918.

COLONY	YEAR
Victoria	1857
South Australia	1857
New South Wales	1858
Queensland	1872
Western Australia	1877
Tasmania	1896

SOURCE 6.7.2 The year that full male suffrage for colonial Australian voters was introduced in each of the Australian colonies

Q How many years did it take from 1857 before full male suffrage had been introduced in all six colonies?

CAMPAIGN FOR WOMEN'S SUFFRAGE

Despite the introduction of important democratic rights in the Australian colonies, women were still denied the right to vote until the 1890s. The first women's suffrage groups emerged from earlier organisations such as the Social Purity Society, which were concerned with bringing an end to sexual abuse, prostitution and drinking of alcohol. Eventually, however, members of the Social Purity Society realised that their aims could only be achieved if women were able to elect their supporters to parliament. As a result, the Women's Suffrage League of South Australia was created in 1888.

Women's suffrage groups used a variety of ways to campaign for the right to vote. These included producing information leaflets, holding public rallies and debates, sending delegations to lobby parliament and gathering **petitions**. The most famous of these petitions was collected in Victoria in 1891, when in the space of ten weeks about 30 000 signatures were transferred onto a 260-metre-long linen scroll. This huge scroll became known as the 'monster petition' and was officially presented to Victorian Premier James Munro in September 1891.

> *That government of the people by the people, and for the people should mean all the people, and not one half... That taxation and representation should go together, without regard to the sex of the taxed... That all adult persons should have a voice in making the laws which they are required to obey... That, in short, women should vote on equal terms with men.*

SOURCE 6.7.3 Demands of Victorian Women's Suffrage Petition, 1891. Held at the Public Record Office, Victoria

Q
1 What was the purpose of this petition? What did its authors and signatories hope to achieve?
2 In your own words, summarise the arguments used in this source to support the introduction of women's suffrage.

SOURCE 6.7.4 Front cover of the *Australian Woman's Sphere*, October, 1900. Held at the State Library of Queensland

Q
1 What is the message presented by the cover of the *Australian Woman's Sphere*?
2 What visual and written techniques does the cartoonist use to communicate the message?

In 1894, a similar petition was presented to the South Australian parliament and, later that year, South Australia became the first Australian colony to grant women the right to vote. This made it the second electorate in the world after New Zealand to achieve universal suffrage. In 1899, Western Australia became the only other Australian colony to grant women the right to vote before the turn of the century.

DID YOU KNOW?

VICTORIA COULD HAVE BEEN THE FIRST PLACE IN THE WORLD TO GRANT WOMEN THE RIGHT TO VOTE.

The words of the Victorian Electoral Act of 1863 wrongly stated that 'all people' who owned property were entitled to vote. Some wealthy women took advantage of this by casting their votes in the 1864 Victorian election. The mistake was fixed the following year, however, as it was never the intention to allow women to vote! Victorian women would have to wait another forty-four years before they could do so.

COLONIAL DISUNITY

In the decades before 1900, Australian federation was by no means a certainty. Disunity among the Australian colonies posed the greatest obstacle to nationhood.

Rivalry between the two largest colonies, New South Wales and Victoria, was especially strong. By 1888, Melbourne had grown to become Australia's largest city and the second largest in the British Empire after London. The Melbourne exhibition, which opened in August 1888, was a symbol of Victoria's status as the wealthiest Australian colony. It showcased scientific, technological and cultural achievements from twenty-eight countries and attracted more than two million visitors over nine months. Melbourne's reputation as 'Marvellous Melbourne' did little to mend the growing rift with New South Wales.

Smaller colonies such as Tasmania also resented the domineering attitude of the larger colonies. South Australia, a colony established by free settlers rather than convicts, had won democratic rights for its citizens that were unequalled anywhere else in Australia. Many South Australians therefore feared going backwards under a federal system. In 1890, Western Australia was granted self-government by Britain and was determined not to lose its new independence to a federal parliament on the other side of the continent. Supporters of federation therefore faced the difficult task of trying to unite colonial politicians behind the idea of federation. Nevertheless, as the century drew to a close there were compelling reasons for Australian nationhood.

REASONS AGAINST FEDERATION

While colonial rivalry in the early 1880s made unity difficult to achieve, those who opposed federation did so for many different reasons.

PROTECTIONISM

Protectionism refers to a set of economic policies that protect local industry from external competition. This is usually done by the imposition of **tariffs** (taxes on imported goods). High tariffs encourage people to buy cheaper, locally made goods. Victorian governments strongly favoured the policy of protectionism to help emerging industries during the economic boom that followed the gold rushes. Most other colonies, except New South Wales, also adopted the policy of protectionism.

SOURCE 6.7.5 Anti-federation cartoon that appeared in the *Daily Telegraph* in 1899, from *Birth of a Nation*, by N. Brasch, 2007

Q
1. How is the colony of New South Wales portrayed? What is the figure doing?
2. How are the disadvantages of federation represented in the cartoon?
3. What are the advantages of remaining independent and how have these been shown?

In border towns such as Corowa, on the Murray River, high tariffs made the cost of basic items extraordinarily high. In the case of bread, for example, the wheat then the flour and finally baked bread could cross the border between New South Wales and Victoria several times. On each occasion the buyer had to pay a tariff at the colony's Customs House. Some businesses got around this problem by smuggling goods across borders. Federation would mean the removal of tariff barriers between the colonies and would therefore expose Victorian businesses to competition from other states.

LOSS OF COLONIAL POWER

People in Tasmania and Western Australia were concerned that in a federation, the larger states would place their own interests first. On the other hand, some in New South Wales and Victoria felt that it was unfair for taxes collected in larger states to be spent in smaller states.

> *... no scheme of federation is likely to be entertained for a moment which would interfere with the complete control of the individual States over their own real and personal property, the laws relating to trades, contracts, local government, health, or any social experiment which they might desire to try, or any other matter concerning their social condition or welfare as civilised communities.*

SOURCE 6.7.6

From a speech by Samuel Griffith in 1896. Held at the University of Sydney Library. Griffith was Queensland premier and a supporter of federation.

Q **According to Samuel Griffith, what had to be guaranteed for federation to work?**

DISTANCE BETWEEN THE COLONIES

Although each colony had developed a basic rail network by the 1880s, the fastest method of transport between capital cities was still by boat. The boat trip between Sydney and Melbourne could take up to seven days. Western Australia, the most remote colony, had to be convinced of the benefits of federation. The vast distances between the colonies also raised questions of where a federal parliament would be located and how often national representatives would gather to meet.

THE LABOUR MOVEMENT

Some trade unionists felt they had a better chance of improving wages and conditions in their own colonies rather than in a federal system. Workers had won strong representation in most colonial parliaments and did not want to risk going backwards under a new system. Many felt that a federal parliament would give employers an opportunity to overturn laws, such as the eight-hour day, which had made Australian workers the envy of the world.

CHEAP LABOUR

Queensland sugar-cane farmers had benefited from the labour of Pacific Islander People. They feared that a federal parliament would create laws restricting the immigration of cheap, non-European workers. Even worse, the prospect that Pacific Islander People would be deported back to their place of origin meant a significant loss of income for many wealthy Queenslanders.

SOURCE 6.7.7

Pacific Islander People in Far North Queensland in the early 1880s. Held in the John Oxley Library, State Library of Queensland. The original caption of this photograph was 'Time expired Kanakas ready to return to the Islands'.

Q
1. **How could a historian use this photograph as evidence that Pacific Islander People who worked as labourers adopted aspects of European culture?**
2. **The caption and date of the photograph suggests that Pacific Islander People were being deported from Queensland well before federation in 1901. What evidence could a historian use to confirm whether or not the caption is accurate?**

GREATER ECONOMIC CONCERNS

During the economic depression of the early 1890s, colonial politicians believed there were more urgent concerns to deal with than federation. Popular support for federation was difficult to gain when people faced the hardships of unemployment and homelessness. The great strikes of the 1890s also created widespread social unrest, taking people's attention away from less pressing issues such as federation.

"Will the white people of Queensland suffer themselves to be ousted by Javanese, Syrians, Chinese or Japanese, and go down before the black, brown, and yellow invaders?"

SOURCE 6.7.8 Cartoon published in *The Worker* in 1897 showing opposition to Queensland labour laws. From *Federation*, by J. & J. Barwick, 2001

Q
1 Which group does each of the following represent:
   a the people trying to enter the doorway?
   b the character trying to close the door?
   c the door itself?
2 What elements of the cartoon would most people today consider racist?

DID YOU KNOW?

NEW SOUTH WALES PREMIER HENRY PARKES SUGGESTED THAT THE STATE BE RENAMED 'THE COLONY OF AUSTRALIA'.

Just before the centenary of British settlement, Premier Parkes caused offence to Victorians by suggesting that New South Wales be renamed 'The Colony of Australia'. One Melbourne newspaper mocked this proposal by suggesting that New South Wales instead be called 'Convictoria'!

REASONS FOR FEDERATION

Supporters of federation pointed to a range of social, political and economic benefits of Australian nationhood.

DEVELOPMENT OF AUSTRALIAN NATIONALISM

Nationalism was a powerful, worldwide force throughout the nineteenth century. This was the belief that people of the same region, ethnicity, culture or language should unite to form their own nation states. By 1871, two new European nation states, Italy and Germany, had come into existence. Australian nationalism also grew around this time, as poets and artists began to express uniquely Australian themes in their work. As the number of Australian-born people began to outnumber those born overseas, an Australian identity emerged. In 1880, the Australian Natives Association began its push for the federation of the British colonies in Australia.

IMMIGRATION RESTRICTION

Most believed that for the European race to prosper and thrive in Australia it had to retain its British character. This could only be achieved by preventing non-European immigration. Before 1901, each colony had different laws regarding the entry of immigrants as it was difficult to control the arrival of non-Europeans into Australia. It was believed that a federal system would allow for the creation of a 'White Australia' by restricting Chinese and other non-European immigration. Federation would close any 'back doors' such as Queensland, which had seen the arrival of about 60 000 Pacific Islander People.

SECURITY AND DEFENCE

Each colony had its own defence force but during the 1880s, all had grown concerned over German and French expansion in the South Pacific region. This highlighted the inadequacy of colonial defences and united the Australian colonies in dealing with a potential invasion from the north.

German interest in Papua New Guinea was of particular concern to Queensland, which in 1883 sought permission from Britain to take control of the southern half of Papua New Guinea. The British rejected this idea and, two years later, Germany claimed north-eastern Papua New Guinea. In response, Queensland, Tasmania, Victoria, Western Australia and Fiji formed the Federal Council of Australasia in 1885.

New South Wales premier Henry Parkes believed, however, that only a federation could improve national defence. While the Federal Council had limited diplomatic powers and lacked the support of New South Wales, it marked an important step towards colonial unity on federation.

FREE TRADE

'Free traders' called for the removal of tariffs and other trade barriers between the Australian colonies. The main support for **free trade** came from New South Wales, where competition between businesses was most intense. Business owners in New South Wales wanted free access to markets in other colonies and saw Victoria's protectionist policies as unfair. Supporters of free trade believed that a federal system would remove tariffs between the states and result in lower prices for consumers. It was also believed that foreign trade and investment would be easier to attract if goods came from an established nation rather than from small and distant colonies.

IMPROVED COMMUNICATIONS

By 1880, all capital cities were connected by telegraph, and a telephone cable had been laid between Sydney and Melbourne. Communication between the distant colonies was much easier and enabled the development of stronger political links.

NEED FOR A SINGLE RAIL NETWORK

Each colony had taken responsibility for the construction of its own rail network with little consultation with others. As a result, each colony used different **rail gauges**, or track widths. Even after 1888, when the eastern colonies had become linked by rail, passengers and goods had to pass through a customs checkpoint and then board another train. This made transport unnecessarily costly and time-consuming. It also posed a particular problem for the movement of soldiers northwards in the event of an invasion.

SUPPORT OF BRITAIN

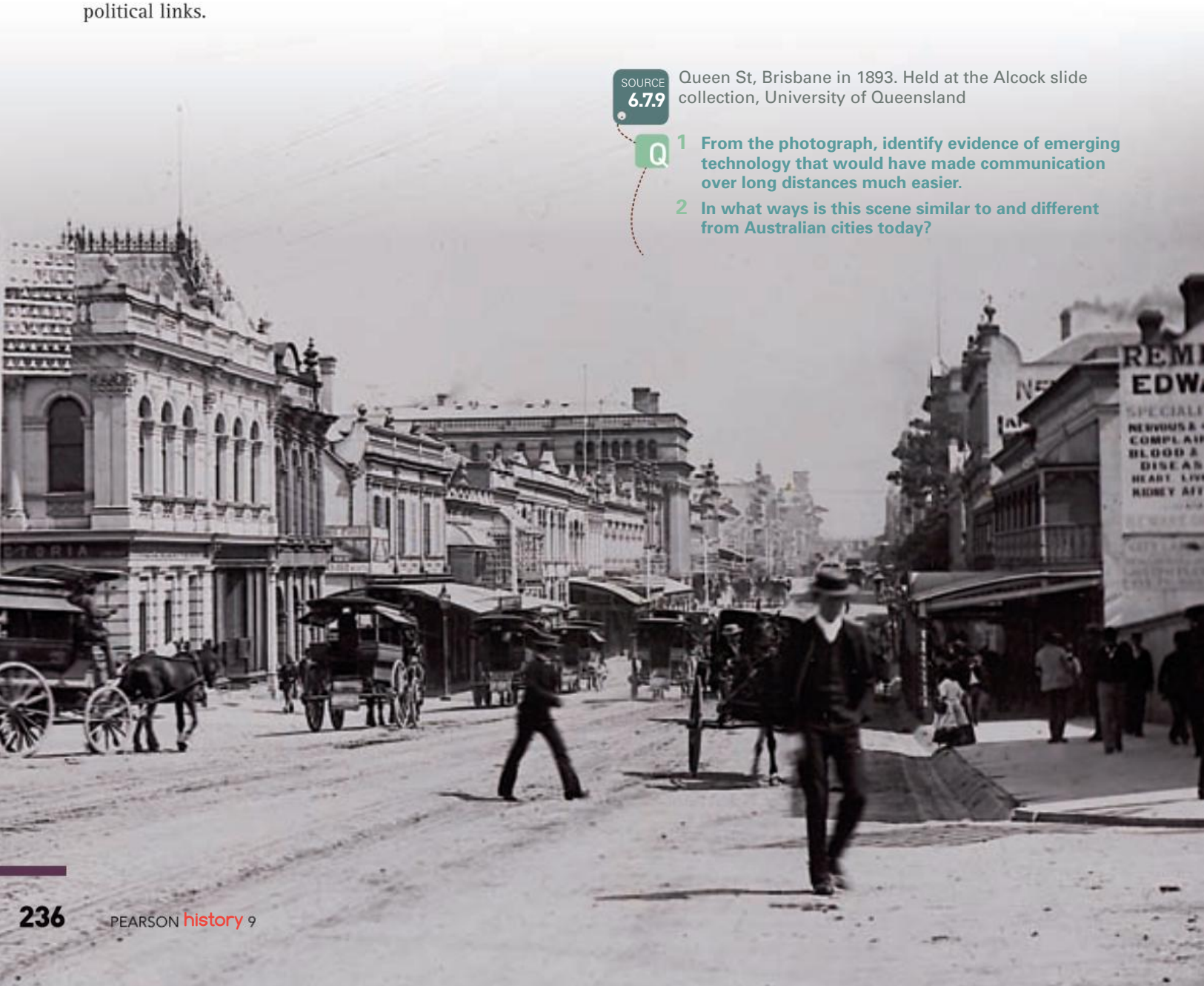
Despite the boast that 'the sun never sets on the British empire', such a large global empire proved to be costly and problematic for the British government. Under the prime ministership of William Gladstone, Britain sought to gradually loosen the control of its colonies by encouraging responsible government.

SOURCE 6.7.9 Queen St, Brisbane in 1893. Held at the Alcock slide collection, University of Queensland

Q

1 From the photograph, identify evidence of emerging technology that would have made communication over long distances much easier.

2 In what ways is this scene similar to and different from Australian cities today?



SOURCE 6.7.10 Edmund Barton, the leader of the NSW federation movement, went on to become Australia's first prime minister. Held at the National Library of Australia

A PEOPLE'S FEDERATION

After resigning as premier in 1891, Sir Henry Parkes asked Edmund Barton to lead the federation movement in New South Wales. At a time when many people had lost interest in federation, Barton helped establish **federation leagues** throughout the colony. These organisations aimed to promote the cause of federation within local communities.

On 31 July 1893, seventy-four delegates gathered at Corowa on the New South Wales–Victorian border to discuss the role voters could play in helping to decide the major issues of federation. Corowa was chosen as the site of this 'people's conference' because it symbolised the problems of colonial disunity. The Corowa Conference declared that each colony should elect ten representatives to a Constitutional Convention, which would be responsible for creating a draft federal constitution. This would then be either accepted or rejected by the voters of each colony in a **referendum**. These important decisions made Corowa the 'birth place of federation'.

GOING IT ALONE?

A second Constitutional Convention was held over the course of 1897 and 1898 to draw up a draft federal constitution. Elected delegates from each colony except Queensland and Western Australia met to debate the details of the new constitution. Fearing that a federation would bring an end to cheap Pacific Island labour on its sugar plantations, Queensland refused to take part. Western Australia felt that it could look after its own interests better than a federal parliament thousands of kilometres away. By this time New Zealand had also decided not to join an Australian federation.

WHAT TYPE OF FEDERATION?

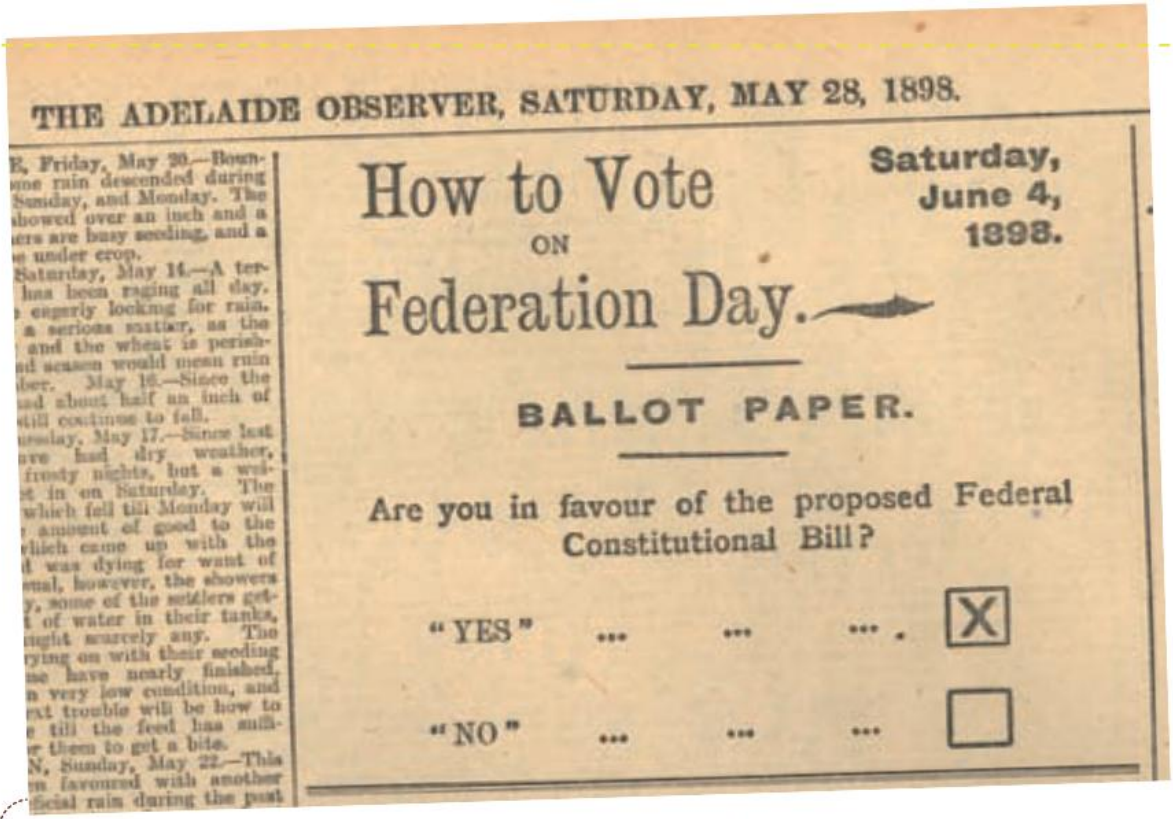
The first stage of the Second Constitutional Convention took place in Adelaide in March 1897, where the basic principles of a federal constitution were agreed. These included a **bicameral parliament** based on Britain's **Westminster system**. New federal laws would be proposed by a 'lower house' or House of Representatives, made up of elected members from around the nation. Debate, however, centred on the role of the 'upper house' or Senate.

To ensure that the smaller states were fairly represented it was eventually agreed that an equal number of senators from each state should be elected. The Senate would act as a 'house of review' with the power to have **Bills** (proposals for new laws) sent back to the House of Representatives for amendment (change). Each state would also keep the right to make its own laws except in matters that affected the whole nation or Commonwealth. Delegates also agreed that a **High Court** was needed to interpret the constitution.

To maintain political links with Britain it was decided that the British monarch should be made the official head of state and that a governor-general be appointed to act as the monarch's representative in Australia. Once the Senate had passed a Bill, the governor-general would turn it into law by giving **royal assent** (approval).

THE COLONIES DECIDE

In June 1898, voters from New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania and South Australia took part in colonial referendums to decide whether or not the draft constitution should be accepted. Due to their opposition to federation, Queensland and Western Australia did not take part. The referendum results showed that a majority of voters in the four colonies accepted the draft constitution. In New South Wales, however, the 'yes' vote fell just short of the 80 000 needed for the referendum to be carried. This was of some concern to supporters of federation, as a future federation could only work with the support of New South Wales, which was the largest colony. In January 1899, the colonial premiers agreed to amend the draft constitution to address the concerns of New South Wales voters. One of these changes was that a new federal capital should be located inside the borders of New South Wales, no more than 160 kilometres from Sydney. The premiers also succeeded in gaining the support of Queensland but still failed to win over Western Australia.



THE ADELAIDE OBSERVER, SATURDAY, MAY 28, 1898.

E, Friday, May 20.—Boun-
ne rain descended during
Sunday, and Monday. The
showed over an inch and a
ers are busy seeding, and a
e under crop.
Saturday, May 14.—A ter-
has been raging all day.
eagerly looking for rain.
a serious matter, as the
and the wheat is perish-
ad season would mean ruin
ber. May 16.—Since the
ad about half an inch of
still continue to fall.
esday, May 17.—Since last
ave had dry weather,
frosty nights, but a wi-
et in on Saturday. The
which fell till Monday will
amount of good to the
which came up with the
t was dying for want of
ual, however, the showers
y, some of the settlers get-
t of water in their tanks,
ught scarcely any. The
rying on with their seeding
me have nearly finished,
n very low condition, and
xt trouble will be how to
e till the feed has suffi-
r them to get a bite.
N, Sunday, May 22.—This
n favoured with another
cial rain during the past

How to Vote ON Federation Day.

Saturday, June 4, 1898.

BALLOT PAPER.

Are you in favour of the proposed Federal Constitutional Bill?

"YES" ... ... [X]

"NO" ... ... [ ]

SOURCE 6.7.11 'How to vote' referendum leaflet published in *The Adelaide Observer*, 28 May 1898. Held at the State Library of South Australia

Q
1. What does this leaflet encourage voters to do?
2. Why did supporters of federation in NSW produce such leaflets for the 1898 referendum? (In your answer refer to the referendum results in NSW that year.)

A second referendum was held on 20 June 1899 in all colonies except Western Australia. This time a clear majority in all five voting colonies declared their support for federation. On 5 July 1900, the British Parliament passed the Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Bill, giving its approval for the creation of a new Australian nation. On 31 July 1900, Western Australia finally agreed to federate after recording a strong 'yes' vote in its federation referendum.

DID YOU KNOW?

THAT FEDERATION CRITIC NSW PREMIER SIR WILLIAM LYNE WAS ALMOST THE FIRST PRIME MINISTER OF AUSTRALIA?

With elections for the new House of Representatives not due to take place until March 1901, Lord Hopetoun, Australia's first governor-general, had to appoint a caretaker government. Without seeking the advice of the colonial premiers, Hopetoun appointed NSW premier Sir William Lyne as prime minister simply because he was the premier of the largest state. This was an embarrassing error, since Lyne was a leading critic of federation. The 'Hopetoun blunder' as it became known, was eventually rectified after protests from the other premiers forced Lyne to hand in his commission. Hopetoun was then advised to appoint Edmund Barton as Australia's first prime minister.

COLONY	NSW		VIC.		SA		TAS.		QLD		WA	
Year	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
1898	71 595	66 228	100 520	22 099	35 800	17 320	11 797	2 716	–	–	–	–
1899	107 420	82 741	152 653	9 805	65 990	17 053	13 437	791	38 488	30 996	–	–
1900	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	44 800	19 691

SOURCE 6.7.12 Results of the federation referendums, 1898–1900

Q
1. Use the information in the section 'The colonies decide' to explain why there are blank spaces for some colonies in each referendum.
2. Which colony showed the strongest support for federation in 1898 and 1899?
3. Which colony recorded the closest referendum result over the three years?

FEDERATION

The Commonwealth of Australia officially came into existence on 1 January 1901. All six former British colonies became the member states of a new and independent nation. The official inauguration of Australia's first federal Cabinet took place inside a specially constructed federation pavilion in Sydney's Centennial Park. Over 60 000 people gathered to watch as Edmund Barton was sworn in as Australia's first prime minister and Lord Hopetoun as the first governor-general.

SOURCE 6.7.13 Western Australian federation leaders in front of the referendum tally board, 31 July 1900. Held at the National Library of Australia

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- autocratic power
- bicameral parliament
- Bill
- federation leagues
- free trade
- High Court
- nationalism
- petition
- protectionism
- rail gauge
- referendum
- responsible government
- royal assent
- suffrage
- tariff
- Westminster system

2 On a single page, create two mind maps titled 'Reasons against federation' and 'Reasons for federation'. Use the headings in this chapter as the branches of your mind maps.

Understanding

3 Reread 'The colonies decide' and 'Federation'.

a Why did Queensland and Western Australia refuse to take part in the first federation referendum in 1898?

b Why was the first referendum not considered affirmative in NSW despite a majority voting 'yes'?

c How did the British parliament view the Australian colonies' wish to federate?

d When and where was the new Commonwealth of Australia officially declared?

Understanding and evaluating

4 Reread 'Campaign for women's suffrage'.

a What were the aims of early colonial women's groups?

b Why did members of the Social Purity Society begin to support the push for women's suffrage?

c How successful do you think the 1891 Women's Suffrage Petition in Victoria was? To help answer this, read the 'Did You Know?' box.

d Which two Australian colonies were the first to grant women the right to vote?

5 Use the information in 'Colonial disunity' to answer the following questions.

- **a** Why did colonial disunity during the 1880s make federation difficult to achieve?
- **b** Where did most people's loyalty lie at the time?
- **c** Why had people in New South Wales grown jealous of Victorians?
- **d** What concerns did South Australians have about federation?
- **e** Why were Western Australians reluctant to join an Australian federation?

6 Reread 'Protectionism' (under 'Reasons against federation') and 'Free trade' (under 'Reasons for federation'), then copy and complete the following table.

	PROTECTIONISM	FREE TRADE
Definition		
Main supporter		
Advantages		
Disadvantages		

Understanding, evaluating and applying

7 Reread 'Emergence of self-government' and then create a timeline showing the important dates and events on the way to fully responsible government in New South Wales. In your description of each event, include a brief explanation of how the event helped New South Wales move closer towards self-government.

Understanding, creating and analysing

8 Create a timeline titled 'The path to federation'. On one side of your timeline include the dates of important events such as conferences, conventions and referendums. Don't forget to also include events that were temporary setbacks to federation. On the other side of the timeline, name the event and give a brief outline of its contribution to federation. Be sure to leave sufficient space between the events to show the time-gap between them.

Analysing, evaluating and creating

9 Use the knowledge you have gained in this unit to construct a digital presentation on the historical role of the women's suffrage movement in Australia. Use an internet search engine to locate high-resolution images and accurate information on the aims, significant individuals, key events and achievements.

Evaluating and analysing

10 Reread 'Reasons against federation' and 'Reasons for federation', then write a counter-argument for each of the following arguments against federation.

- **a** 'Federation will remove tariffs between states. This will allow New South Wales businesses to take Victorian jobs.'
- **b** 'Large states like New South Wales will dominate a federation. This will lead to a loss of independence for smaller states like Tasmania.'
- **c** 'An Australian federation is just too impractical. The distance between the colonies makes it difficult to communicate.'
- **d** 'Federation will introduce a new legal system that could undo all of the gains workers have achieved over the past decade.'
- **e** 'A federal parliament will bring an end to non-European immigration. Employers will be forced to pay higher wages to Anglo-Australian workers.'
- **f** 'Forget federation. It is just a symbolic step that doesn't mean much when people are unemployed and homeless.'

Creating and analysing

11 Reread 'What type of federation?' then create a flow chart showing how a Bill becomes law in the Australian Parliament. Your flow chart should include three different-shaped boxes for the House of Representatives, the Senate and the governor-general. Include arrows to show where a Bill is created, sent and passed. Also provide explanations of the role of each by including terms such as 'amendment', 'royal assent', 'upper house', 'lower house', 'house of review' and 'states' rights'.

GOVERNMENT POLICIES AND THE ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE'S RESPONSE

THE TASMANIAN EXPERIENCE

From about 1800, sealers and whalers were plying their trade along the southern coast of Australia. Local Aboriginal People began to trade kangaroo and seal skins for hunting dogs and food. Women's sexual favours were also offered, as this type of bargain paralleled customary marriage negotiations. When they failed to obtain women voluntarily, it was common practice for men to kidnap Aboriginal women and keep them as slaves for their own use. Even before the British set up a colony in Tasmania, this practice had affected Aboriginal Tasmanians in a serious way. It created an imbalance in the sexes and led to a decline in birth rates and inspired in people a desire for revenge against all intruders.

SETTLEMENT

In 1802, Governor King ordered Lieutenant John Bowen to establish a settlement at Risdon in Van Diemen's Land, as a means of deterring both French interest and US whalers in the area. A small expedition of forty-nine people set out and in September 1803 a settlement was established on the banks of the Derwent River.

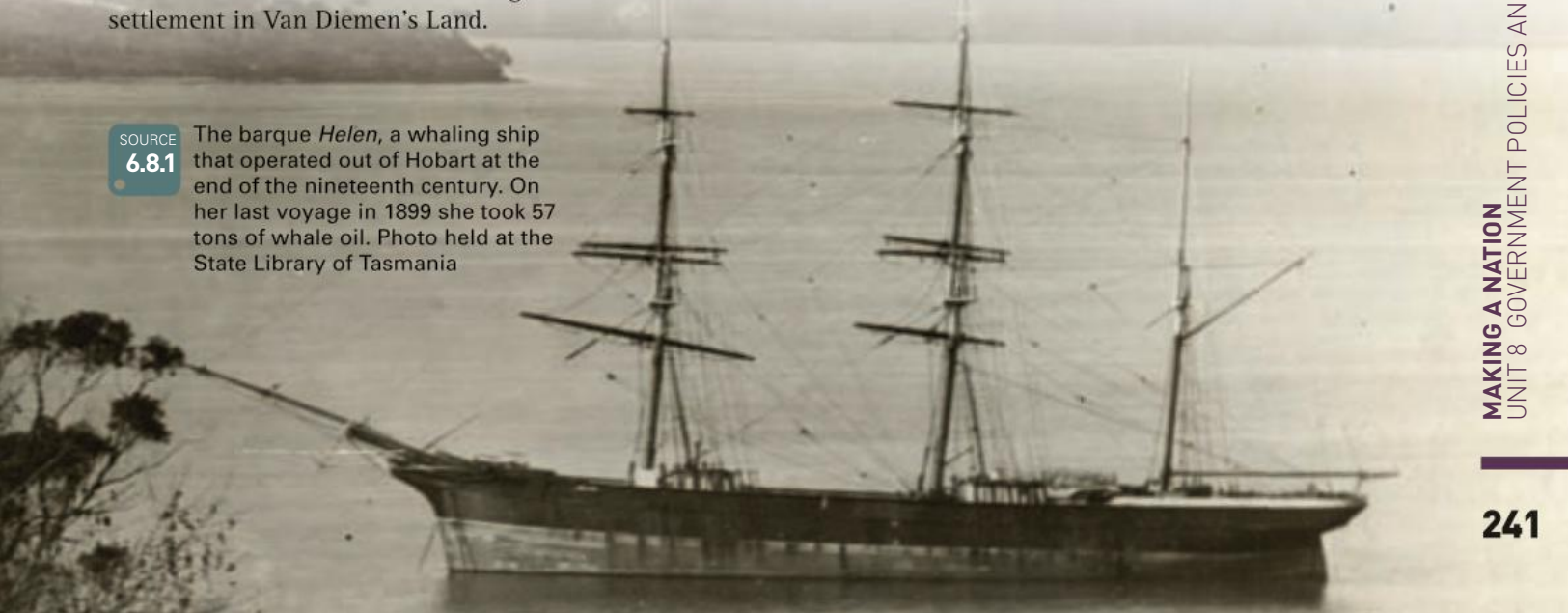
In April 1803, HMS *Calcutta* with 308 convicts aboard set out with David Collins, carrying a **commission** which made him lieutenant-governor of a settlement to be formed at Port Phillip. On arriving at Port Phillip, Collins found the entrance to the port to be dangerous, the soil to be sandy and water to be scarce. Collins reported his findings to Governor King, who suggested he join Bowen's settlement on the Derwent. In February 1804, Collins became the first lieutenant-governor of the new settlement in Van Diemen's Land.

Severe food shortages in the early years meant that convicts were encouraged to forage in the bush and the practices begun by the whalers and sealers were continued. Convicts, bushrangers and stock-keepers kidnapped Aboriginal women and children to use as prostitutes and cheap labour. When this happened, Aboriginal People sought revenge.

> *[I] ... could not have believed that British subjects would have so ignominiously stained the honour of their country and themselves, as to have acted in the manner they did towards Aborigines.*

SOURCE 6.8.2 Thomas Davey, Lieutenant Governor of Van Diemen's Land, 1813, in correspondence to George Arthur, quoted in *The Last of the Tasmanians*, by James Bonwick, 1870

There was little growth in the British population until 1818, when increasing numbers of free settlers began to arrive and a change of policy in Britain led to convicts being transported directly to what had become Hobart Town. The rapid expansion of settlement put increased pressure on the resources needed by Aboriginal People. By 1830, there was a non-Aboriginal population of 23 500 people and over a million sheep occupied the traditional lands of the Aboriginal People. The traditional owners of the land found it increasingly difficult to meet their needs for food and continue their obligations in regard to sacred sites.



SOURCE 6.8.1 The barque *Helen*, a whaling ship that operated out of Hobart at the end of the nineteenth century. On her last voyage in 1899 she took 57 tons of whale oil. Photo held at the State Library of Tasmania

RESISTANCE

Aboriginal People resisted this invasion but at an enormous cost. Settlers and stock-keepers wantonly killed Aboriginal People and bragged about their deeds. Aboriginal People responded with more revenge killings.

The violence escalated. Governor George Arthur, who arrived in 1824, had a reputation for humanitarian treatment of slaves in British Honduras. He attempted to establish 'native institutions' but Aboriginal People would not stay in them, as they did not want to be separated from their Country or their children. In 1828, he issued a **proclamation** for a temporary separation of Aboriginal People from the British population. But it was the Aboriginal People who had to leave. If Aboriginal People did not leave voluntarily they were captured and imprisoned. The violence continued and Arthur declared martial law in the settled districts and gave the military authorisation to shoot any Aboriginal person on sight. Martial law continued for three years.

> *All the Aboriginal tribes of this Island with which we are acquainted ... are actuated with one common purpose of murdering the white inhabitants whenever met with ... their attacks have been unhappily attended with a degree of success.*

SOURCE 6.8.3 Governor George Arthur's justification for the establishment of martial law. From correspondence between Arthur and His Majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies, 1831

In 1830, a bounty was introduced of £5 for every adult Aboriginal person captured and £2 for every child. Also in 1830, Arthur organised a human chain known as the 'Black Line', which moved across the settled regions to drive Aboriginal People off their lands—2000 free men, 500 troops and 700 convicts spent three weeks and about £35 000 (about $35 million today) to catch two Aboriginal People, one a child. Governor Arthur issued another proclamation, copies of which were attached to trees around the settlements.

SOURCE 6.8.4 Governor George Arthur's Proclamation to the Aboriginal People, c. 1830. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

Q **Do you think Aboriginal People would have understood these picture boards? Explain your reasoning.**

DID YOU KNOW?

IN MANY HISTORY BOOKS THE PROCLAMATION IS INCORRECTLY CITED.

In 1866, lithograph posters of Governor Arthur's proclamation were printed for the Melbourne Intercolonial Exhibition as a souvenir to attract visitors to the Tasmanian stall. They were also used at the 1867 Paris Exposition Universelle. The lithograph posters were incorrectly titled 'Governor Davey's Proclamation to the Aborigines, 1816'.

WALYER

In 1828, a young woman named Walyer escaped from some sealers who had enslaved her and returned to lead the Emu Bay people in their struggle against the invaders. A tall woman, described as an 'Amazon', she taught her people how to use firearms and led attacks upon the enemy. She was captured in 1831 and died a few months later while in the charge of George Augustus Robinson.

> *From several aborigines, I received information respecting an amazon named Tarerenore, alias 'Walyer', who was at the head of an aboriginal banditti. This woman speaks English, and issues her orders in a most determined manner.*

SOURCE 6.8.5 George Augustus Robinson's description of Walyer, in a letter to Colonel George Arthur, 1828

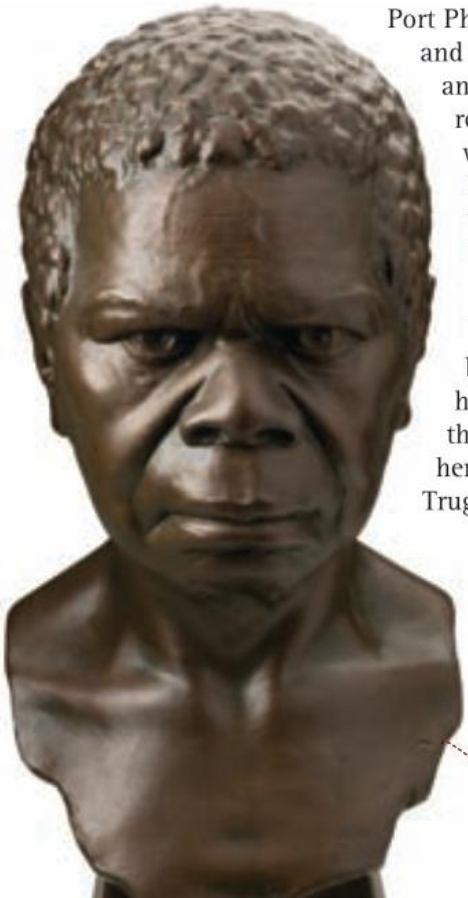
In 1829, Arthur had appointed Robinson as the Chief Protector of Aborigines in Tasmania. Robinson planned to contact Aboriginal People and set up a **mission** on Bruny Island. The plan was to introduce the Aboriginal People to Christianity and 'civilise' them in the ways of the Europeans. The mission started with the nineteen Aboriginal People left of the 160 who were known to inhabit the island just six years earlier. Robinson set about learning the language and customs of the people and distributed clothing and rations. The rations were not conducive to good health and the people either died or left the mission. In 1831, the mission was closed and the survivors moved to Gun Carriage Island, but died of sickness and depression, due to their confinement. Between 1830 and 1834, Robinson travelled throughout Tasmania, attempting to locate and negotiate with Aboriginal People. With him travelled a group of thirteen Aboriginal People, including Truganini. In 1835, another station was established on Flinders Island (Wybalenna), to which 123 people were moved. Within three years their numbers had almost halved. In 1839, when Robinson left Flinders Island to take up the position of 'Protector of Aborigines' at Port Phillip, he left behind sick and dying people.

SOURCE 6.8.7 Group portrait of four Aboriginal People from Tasmania, c. 1878. Held at the State Library of Victoria. These people were possibly relatives of Truganini.

TRUGANINI

Truganini was only seventeen when she first met Robinson. Her mother had been stabbed to death by British men, and her two sisters kidnapped. She later watched her promised husband mutilated and drowned. She went with Robinson seeking protection but did not always agree with him and often criticised his strategies. She accompanied Robinson to Port Phillip but ran away and was charged as an accomplice in the revenge killing of two whalers. She was sent back to Flinders Island where she resumed her earlier lifestyle.

When Truganini saw William Lanney's body mutilated after his death, she requested that when she died her body be respected. Truganini died in 1876.



SOURCE 6.8.6 Plaster bust of Truganini, by Edmund J. Dicks, 1931

From 1904 until 1947, Truganini's body was displayed at the Tasmanian Museum and erroneously labelled 'The last Tasmanian Aborigine'. This falsehood was subsequently perpetuated in history books and for one hundred years Aboriginal Tasmanians were written out of Australian history. In 1978 the government authorised the Royal Society of Tasmania to take possession of the skeleton.

> *By the turn of the century most Indigenous families had been removed to Cape Barren Island off the north coast of the Tasmanian mainland where they were effectively segregated from non-Indigenous people. Until the late 1960s Tasmanian governments resolutely insisted that Tasmania did not have an Aboriginal population, just some 'half-caste' people.*

SOURCE 6.8.8 From *Bringing Them Home: Report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families*, April 1997

Q

1. **Why was Truganini regarded as the 'last of her race'?**
2. **Why might Aboriginal Tasmanians today find this offensive?**
3. **How might the Tasmanian government's insistence until the late 1960s that Tasmania did not have an Aboriginal population still affect Aboriginal Tasmanians today?**

PROTECTION AND PATERNALISM AT PORT PHILLIP

Contact between Europeans and Aboriginal People in Victoria was marked on the one hand by conflict and on the other by a heavy-handed paternalism that did not recognise the rights of Aboriginal People and did not understand the complex structure of Aboriginal society.

Sealers and whalers operating around Bass Strait interacted with Aboriginal People of the Port Phillip area in much the same way as they did with Aboriginal Tasmanians. Stealing of women and children occurred and new, strange diseases were introduced. These diseases spread, not only through human carriers but on waterways from New South Wales through south-eastern Australia, long before Europeans themselves moved southwards. Smallpox, in particular, decimated the Aboriginal People. So when Edward Henty landed men and stock at Portland Bay in 1834, the impact of European settlement was already known to the local people. Henty's settlement, like the 'treaties' enacted by John Batman with Aboriginal People around Port Phillip, was illegal, transgressing both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander and colonial law. However, by the time this was recognised by the colonial government, both parties were entrenched and within fifteen years, pastoral holdings had spread throughout most of what was to become Victoria.

In 1836, the new settlement was brought under the control of the British government. As early as 1837, George Langhorn attempted to establish an Aboriginal mission on the banks of the Yarra in order to provide Aboriginal People with a basic British, Christian education. The venture failed within two years, for while Aboriginal People were happy to come to the settlement to obtain food and supplies, they soon left to fulfil cultural obligations.

ROBINSON AND THE PROTECTORATE

The Victorian colony was monitored in Britain. Not wanting a repeat of the Tasmanian experience, the Port Phillip **Protectorate** was established and in 1839, George Augustus Robinson was brought from Tasmania to be the 'Chief Protector of Aborigines'. He and four sub-protectors were charged to move among the Aboriginal People, learn about them and recommend laws and regulations for their protection and control. James Dredge, William Thomas, Edward Stone Parker and Charles Sievwright were the **Assistant Protectors**.

Robinson made friends with the local Aboriginal People through showing courtesy by shaking hands when meeting them, learning to speak their language and never openly criticising their customs. As settlers took more and more of the land, large numbers of Aboriginal People were forced into Melbourne looking for food and blankets. Robinson was not a good administrator but neither was he supported by the colonial government. The result was that Aboriginal People continued to die through starvation and disease.

> *Several of them are suffering severely from syphilis, dysentery, etc. Five or six have recently died. Some of them say by and bye Port Phillip black fellows—Waworong black fellows—'quomby dead—all gone'.*

SOURCE 6.8.9 From the diary of James Dredge, 7 May 1839

Q
1. Why did European diseases have such a devastating effect on Aboriginal People?
2. Why might Aboriginal People have believed that they would all soon be dead?

Robinson allocated districts to the assistant protectors but for the first ten months of his appointment remained at central headquarters. The original concept of the protectors moving with the Aboriginal People as they travelled around their territory was soon abandoned. The assistant protectors had families who needed a place to live, so within a short time stations were set up, usually with a house for the protector, a school and accommodation for Aboriginal People. Gardens were established and Aboriginal People were enticed to the station with promises of food and protection from settlers who wished them harm.

From the start, the protectorate was under-resourced and beset by difficulties, not the least of which was that Aboriginal People did not wish to remain at the stations permanently or become 'civilised'.

> *One of them complained in his anger that I was stealing their children by taking them away to live in huts, and work, and 'read in book' like white fellow.*

SOURCE 6.8.10 From the journal of Assistant Protector Parker

Q Why might Aboriginal People have been angry that their children were learning to 'read in book'?

Within ten years it was acknowledged that the protectorate was a failure and the last station was closed. In 1850, William Thomas was appointed Guardian of the Aborigines.

DID YOU KNOW?

WILLIAM BUCKLEY LIVED WITH ABORIGINAL PEOPLE FOR THIRTY-TWO YEARS.

William Buckley was a convict sent with Lieutenant-Governor Collins to establish a settlement at Port Phillip. He absconded and was left at Port Phillip when Collins sailed to Tasmania. He was adopted by the local Aboriginal People and lived with them for thirty-two years.

BOARDS FOR PROTECTION

In 1860, the Legislative Council of the now self-governing colony of Victoria established the Central Board to Watch Over the Interests of the Aborigines. The board oversaw the establishment of four major church mission stations: Ebenezer at Lake Hindmarsh in the Wimmera (1861), Ramahyuck at Lake Wellington in West Gippsland (1861), Lake Tyers in East Gippsland (1861) and Lake Condah in the Western District (1867). Government stations were also established at Framlingham reserve, near Warrnambool (1861) and Coranderrk reserve near Healesville (1863).

In 1869, the Board for the Protection of Aborigines replaced the Central Board. The board had complete control over the lives of Aboriginal People in Victoria. Aboriginal People were directed where to live, with whom to live and for how long.

> *It was agreed that the child 'Rees' proposed to be removed from Coranderrk should not be removed, as the parents are not fit guardians for the infant, that the police should be communicated with respecting the removal of the half caste 'Burns'; that Johnny Phillip should not be allowed to leave Coranderrk Station at present; and that Jemmy Barker should have a certificate given to him and be required to leave the Coranderrk Station. He should be refused rations and shelter.*

SOURCE 6.8.11

From the minutes of a meeting of the Board for the Protection of Aborigines, 6 May 1873

Q **How might these minutes have affected the lives of Rees, Rees's parents, Burns, Johnny Phillip and Jemmy Barker?**

BARAK AND CORANDERRK

According to Barak, he was born in 1813 but it is possible he was born up to ten years after this. Whatever the case, he witnessed Batman's arrival in 1835. He also noted that 'Captain Cook landed at Western Port'. While it is likely he was referring to Collins's visit in 1803, this story demonstrates how quickly the idea of Cook as the first intruder had taken hold in mythology. Barak attended the first Aboriginal mission school but was never a regular student. Along with his uncle Billibellary he joined the **Native Police Corps** under Captain Dana. At this time he was given the name 'William'.

In 1842, Lieutenant-Governor La Trobe, alarmed at the conflict, which continued to worsen, ordered Captain Henry Dana to recruit men for a Native Police Corps. Initially, there were twenty-four men and, while they had to submit to a form of military discipline, allowances were made for their traditional way of life. For ten years, the Corps worked relatively well under Dana's command, as they were usually called upon to deal with 'wild blacks' from beyond their territory. Barak liked to tell a story of being set to track the Kelly Gang (see Source 6.8.12).

> *I said, 'Robbers in there, go and get them' but they said, 'You go in we follow'. I said 'I have no gun. I track. You are cowards.' Then they say 'We go back for help and tell Mr Hare'.*

SOURCE 6.8.12

William Barak, tracker with the Native Police Corps. Records verify that Superintendent Francis Hare was in charge of organising the hunt for the Kelly Gang.

Q **Why do you think this was a favourite story for Barak to tell?**

In 1863, Barak was part of the group of Aboriginal People who travelled to the newly established Aboriginal station at Coranderrk at Healesville in Victoria. He became well known for his stories of the early days of settlement and the superintendent at Coranderrk arranged to have them ('My Words') copied down. By 1865, there were 104 people living at Coranderrk, with John Green as General Inspector. Barak's cousin Wonga was the leader of the community. The people worked hard to create a self-supporting community and Green was recognised as a friend and respected as a leader.

> *My method of managing the blacks is to allow them to rule themselves as much as possible. When there is any kind of strife amongst them this is always settled at a kind of court, at which I preside.*

SOURCE 6.8.13

From John Green's first report to the Board for the Protection of Aborigines

Eleven acres of hops were planted and proved to be very successful. Despite his success, Green was constantly criticised by the board, who wanted to move the Aboriginal People from Coranderrk. The success of the venture had made the land valuable and local settlers wanted to relocate the Aboriginal People so that the land could be opened up for farming. Green became so frustrated with the board that he threatened to resign. This was just what the board had been waiting for. They accepted Green's resignation and began the process of relocating the Aboriginal People.

At this time of great turmoil Wonga died, leaving Barak to take over leadership of his people. Barak had a letter sent to the board setting out their problems. He then organised a deputation to go to the next board meeting. The board heard their complaints but did nothing. During this time Coranderrk was badly managed and the people grew hostile as rigid rules were enforced and their living conditions deteriorated. Barak then led a deputation,

walking all the way from Healesville to Parliament House. When it looked as though the government might support the closure, Barak led a second deputation, in which every man on the station took part. As a result, the government set up an inquiry, which recommended that the station be made a permanent reservation, that the board be abolished and that the reservation come under the direct control of the Chief Secretary.

In 1885, school teacher Joseph Shaw took over the management of the reserve. He was well liked and Barak ensured that people listened to him. However, in 1886 an Act was passed that decreed that all able-bodied 'half-castes' under the age of 35 were required to leave the reserve. This was a tremendous blow, as it left only old and infirm people to do the work. Barak died in 1903 and was buried in the small cemetery at Coranderrk.

SOURCE 6.8.14 *A Black Trooper from the Yarra Tribe,* by William Strutt, 1850. Held at the State Library of Victoria

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- Assistant Protector
- commission
- mission
- Native Police Corps
- proclamation
- protectorate

2 **a** Who asserted he had signed a 'treaty' with Aboriginal People around Port Phillip?

b What did George Langhorn establish in 1837?

Understanding and analysing

3 Why were people in England concerned about the violence at Port Phillip?

Understanding and evaluating

4 What were George Augustus Robinson's qualifications to be Chief Protector of Aborigines?

5 **a** Why do you think the Port Phillip Protectorate failed? Explain your reasons.

b Why did the government set up reserves and support missions throughout Victoria? What did they hope these would achieve?

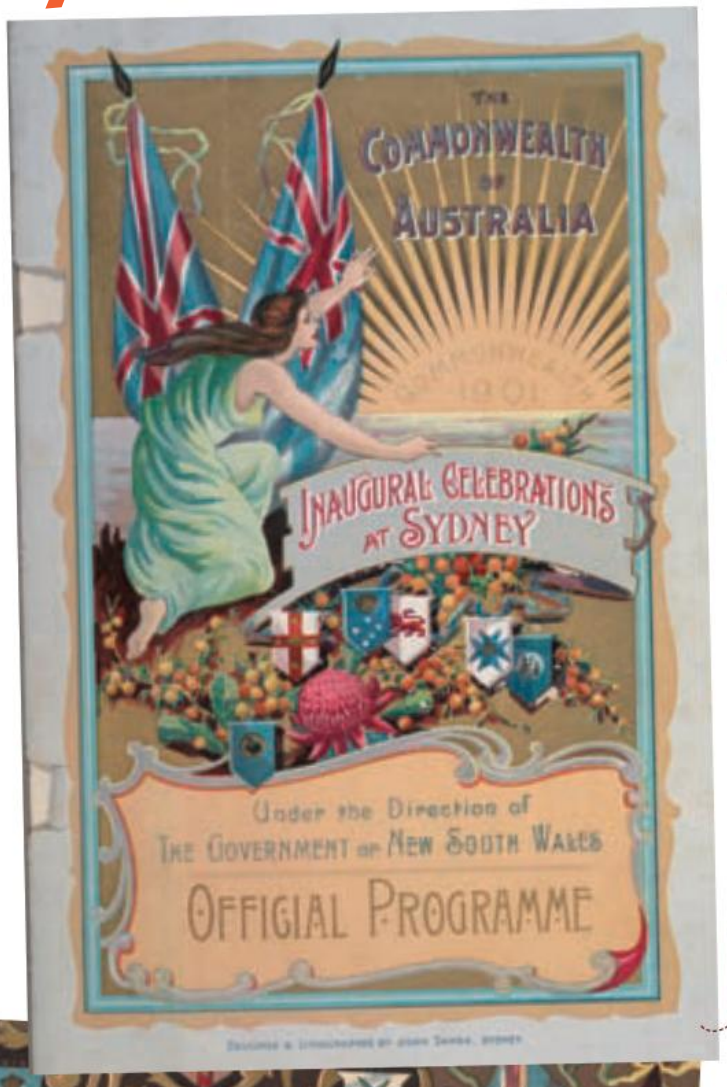
Analysing, evaluating and creating

6 Read the story of Barak and Coranderrk.

Think about the board's reasons for wanting to close Coranderrk. Think about how Barak countered these. There were two papers in Melbourne at the time—*The Age* and *The Argus*. *The Age* reported the views of Graham Berry, Premier of Victoria, who was recognised as a radical politician and sympathetic to the Aboriginal People. *The Argus* was more conservative and reported the opposing views. Write a story for *The Age* and then a story for *The Argus*. Then write a Letters to the Editor section, showing the division of public opinion. You will need to write at least four letters.

UNIT 9

SOURCE STUDY: CELEBRATING THE BIRTH OF A NATION



> *And who will pay the bill?*
> *For the fireworks, gorge and swill,*
> *For the arch on the street and hill?*
> *Why, the common people will!*

SOURCE 6.9.1 Excerpt from a poem in *The Bulletin*, 1901, on federation celebrations

On 1 January 1901, a national holiday was declared for the official inauguration of the Commonwealth of Australia. In larger towns and cities, buildings were draped with streamers and bunting was suspended across main roads. In the evening, people from Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane saw the rare spectacle of buildings being illuminated by electric lighting. An official state banquet at Sydney's Town Hall marked the beginning of eight days of celebration throughout New South Wales, which included sports carnivals, public picnics, concerts, parades and fireworks displays.

SOURCE 6.9.2 Cover of the official program of the Commonwealth of Australia inauguration celebrations. Held at the National Library of Australia

FEDERATION ARCHES

Federation inspired an outbreak of arch building across Australia. As a structure, the arch was chosen because it makes a connection between two points. It symbolised the union of the former British colonies in the new federation. Local organisations, community groups and industry bodies competed with one another to produce the most elaborate federation arch. Larger arches such as the Municipal Arch in Melbourne were painted to appear like marble, while others, such as the Wool Arch in Brisbane, were more artistic in their expression. Many arches bore a special name or theme, such as the French Arch, which bore the declaration 'France welcomes Australian federation'.

SOURCE 6.9.3 Souvenir federation postcard. Held at the State Library of South Australia

SOURCE 6.9.4 The Melbourne Arch, which appeared in federation celebrations in Sydney in 1901. Held at the Museum of Australian Democracy, Old Parliament House

SOURCE 6.9.5 The Citizens Arch, located in Bourke St, Melbourne, to welcome the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York, 1901. Held in the Pictures Collection, State Library of Victoria

A ROYAL VISIT

The Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York were popular royals and their visit was only the second undertaken by a member of the royal family to Australia. After arriving in Melbourne to open the new parliament, the Duke and Duchess visited all of the states as part of an eight-month tour of the British Empire. Souvenirs of the visit showed the affection most people had for the British royal family. Medals, coins, plates and handkerchiefs were among the many items produced to commemorate their visit. Those who had wanted Australia to become a republic, however, strongly criticised the attention given to the royals.

> *There was too much Cornwall and York and too little Commonwealth on all the mottoes [motifs] and designs.*

SOURCE 6.9.6 Comment by *The Bulletin* about the royal visit in 1901

THE NATIONAL FLAG COMPETITION

In September 1901, the new federal government launched a nation-wide competition for the design of a new national flag. Over 30 000 entries were displayed in Melbourne's Exhibition Building. The republican *Bulletin* derided the entries for their overwhelming use of the Union Jack. Other creative designs included a Union Jack shackled in convict leg irons and a six-tailed kangaroo, each tail representing the six states of the Australian federation. Five entries were remarkably similar and shared the £200 prize money. The final version was slightly different to all five winning versions, but shared elements of each one. The final version was formally adopted in 1902 with the approval of King Edward VII. This was different from the flag we use today, as the Federation star had six rather than seven points—the seventh point was added later to represent the two territories.

SOURCE 6.9.7

Australian national flag officially adopted in 1902. Held at the State Library of New South Wales

> *...Australia is still Britain's little boy... That bastard flag is a true symbol of the bastard state of Australian opinion, still in large part biased by British tradition, British customs, still lacking many years to the sufficiency of manhood which will determine a path of its own... The flag represents the old generation ...*

SOURCE 6.9.8

The Bulletin on the design adopted for the Australian flag, 28 September 1901, quoted in *Modern Australia in Documents: 1901–1939*, edited by F. K. Crowley, 1973

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

1 **a** How does Source 6.9.1 show that state pride was still alive at the time of federation?

b What does the message on the Melbourne Arch (Source 6.9.4) reveal about the nature of the relationship between the states of the federation?

c Reread Sources 6.9.6 and 6.9.8 and explain the attitudes of *The Bulletin* at the time of federation.

d What does Source 6.9.6 reveal about the nature of the relationship between Australia and Britain at the time of federation?

e How is the original Australian flag, depicted in Source 6.9.7, different from today's flag?

2 Working with a partner, conduct research into federation celebrations that were held in your state. Find out the names and designs of federation arches that were used, as well as the official events held to celebrate the new federation. Present your research findings in the form of a display poster. Incorporate a range of different visual primary sources, ensuring that you include captions explaining the meaning and significance of each image.

ANALYSING

3 Find out about the many different types of arches built to celebrate federation. Use an internet search engine to find images of as many arches as you can find. Title each image with the name of the arch and provide a brief caption about the creator of the arch and its message, location and dimensions.

UNIT 10

KEY LEGISLATION THAT SHAPED AUSTRALIA

OPENING OF FEDERAL PARLIAMENT

The first Australian federal election occurred on 30 March 1901. Edmund Barton's Protectionist Party narrowly defeated the Free Trade Party led by George Reid. The Protectionists lacked an outright majority, however, and were forced to form a minority government with the support of the Labor representatives. Several weeks later on 9 May, the first Australian federal parliament was officially opened inside Melbourne's Royal Exhibition Building. Until a new capital was established, Melbourne would remain the site of the federal parliament. The Duke of Cornwall and York, who would become King George V nine years later, had come to Australia especially for the occasion.

SOURCE 6.10.1 The opening of the first Australian federal parliament, 1901, by Tom Roberts. Held at the National Archives of Australia

Q
1 **Describe the mood the artist has tried to capture in this scene.**
2 **How is the close relationship between Australia and Britain depicted?**

THE WHITE AUSTRALIA POLICY

The first two laws passed by the new parliament formed the basis of the White Australia policy, which was designed to maintain the racial purity of the new nation. On 17 December 1901, the Pacific Island Labourers Act was passed, allowing for the deportation of Pacific Islander People from Queensland. By 1908, only 1654 Pacific Islander People remained in Australia. This was seen as a major victory for the labour movement, which had been vocal in its protest over the loss of jobs to cheap, non-European labour.

CLASS OF LABOUR	COST PER YEAR			COST PER WEEK		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
European labour	80	7	10	1	10	11
Pacific Island labour	36	14	10	0	14	1

SOURCE 6.10.2 Wages on Queensland sugar-cane plantations, *Commonwealth Parliamentary Papers*, 1901–1902, Vol. 2 (£ = pounds, s. = shillings, d. = pence)

Q
1 How many Pacific Island workers could be employed for the cost of one European worker?
2 Explain the reasons why Pacific Islander People received less pay than European workers.

On 23 December, the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* was passed, prohibiting the entry of all non-Europeans into Australia. Virtually all members of parliament supported the Bill. The Act also defined the precise method by which non-Europeans were to be excluded from entering. This was a fifty-word dictation test given only to people coming from Africa, Asia and the Pacific Islands. Rather than simply banning the entry of all non-Europeans into Australia, this dictation test gave the White Australia policy a look of respectability. It allowed the government to claim that its basis for exclusion was an immigrant's level of education rather than their race. Some politicians, however, were concerned that the dictation test would allow the entry of educated Japanese, many of whom could speak English. To solve this problem, the legislation stated that a customs officer could administer the dictation test in any European language they chose.

> *I do not think that the doctrine of the equality of man was really ever intended to include racial equality. There is no racial equality. There is that basic inequality. These races are, in comparison with white races… unequal and inferior.*

SOURCE 6.10.3 Prime minister Edmund Barton's introduction to the Immigration Restriction Bill to parliament on 26 September 1901, in *Debates*, 26 September 1901

Q
1 What is meant by the phrase 'the doctrine of the equality of man'?
2 Why does Barton believe that different races are not equal?

DID YOU KNOW?

CUSTOMS OFFICIALS CONDUCTED TESTS IN LANGUAGES THEY DIDN'T UNDERSTAND.

In 1934, customs officials tried to prevent Egon Erwin Kisch from entering Australia by giving him a dictation test in Scottish Gaelic. Kisch was an anti-Nazi activist who came to Australia to attend an anti-war congress in Melbourne. On arriving, Kisch refused to take the discriminatory test. A legal team took his case to the High Court where they proved that the customs official administering the test was unable to speak Scottish Gaelic himself, even though he had been born in Scotland!

In 1902, Britain signed a military alliance with Japan. The White Australia policy embarrassed Britain for the offence it caused its new ally. Japanese people tended to see themselves as being more advanced than other Asian societies and wanted the British government to pressure Australia into having the ban on Japanese immigration lifted.

VOTING RIGHTS

Prior to federation, each of the colonial parliaments had introduced full male suffrage, or the right to vote for all males of European background over the age of 21. Only South Australia and Western Australia had introduced female suffrage before federation. The writers of the draft constitution had debated whether or not to grant women the right to vote in federal elections but in the end decided that only women entitled to vote in colonial elections could vote federally. This excluded the majority of Australian women, since the two most populous states, New South Wales and Victoria, had not introduced female suffrage. These women did not have to wait too long, however, as the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* gave all European Australian women the same voting rights as European men in federal elections.

> *…all persons not under twenty-one years of age, whether male or female, married or unmarried… shall be entitled to vote at the election of Members of the Senate and the House of Representatives.*

SOURCE 6.10.4 *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*

Q
Universal suffrage means the right to vote of all people over a certain age. Explain whether or not the Commonwealth Franchise Act introduced universal suffrage in Australia.

A 'FAIR GO' FOR AUSTRALIAN WORKERS

In the decades after federation, the new federal parliament was responsible for the introduction of social reforms that were among the most progressive in the world.

In 1904, the Australian Labor Party (under John Watson) took office, becoming the first national labour government in the world. Watson could only form a minority government by gaining the support of the Protectionists led by Alfred Deakin. During his four months in office, Watson introduced the Conciliation and Arbitration Bill into parliament. In December 1904, the Bill was passed and a Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Court was established for the first time.

The main role of the court was to prevent industrial disputes by mediating between representatives of the employer and the trade union. When this failed, the court would act as an umpire to bring about a settlement to the industrial dispute. Importantly, the court also had the power to create an award, or industry-wide set of conditions, which applied to all workers.

THE HARVESTER JUDGMENT

In October 1907, the President of the Conciliation and Arbitration Court, Justice H.B. Higgins heard the case of H.V. McKay, the owner of Sunshine Harvester Works. Manufacturers such as McKay were given tax exemptions by the federal government, if they could prove that they paid their workers 'fair and reasonable wages'.

> *Surely the State, in stipulating for fair and reasonable remuneration for the employees, means that the wages shall be sufficient to provide these things [food, water and shelter], and clothing, and a condition of frugal comfort estimated by current human standards.*

SOURCE 6.10.5 Excerpt from Justice Higgins's judgment in the Harvester case, 1907. Held at the Parliamentary Library, Parliament House

Q According to Justice Higgins, what should be considered 'fair and reasonable' wages?

McKay had sought to apply for this tax exemption from the Conciliation and Arbitration Court, but his application was opposed by the trade union representing his workers. The dispute between McKay and the union was essentially over what constituted a 'fair and reasonable wage'. The trade union in the case, the Agricultural Implement Makers' Society, claimed that the workers at Sunshine Harvester were being underpaid at 36 shillings (the equivalent of $3.60, or about $163 in today's dollars) per week. McKay argued that 36 shillings was an average weekly wage for an unskilled worker.

In arriving at his decision, Justice Higgins sought to establish whether or not 36 shillings a week could support a worker, his wife and a typical family of three children. He closely examined the cost of food, clothing, health and transport and concluded that a male worker needed a minimum of 42 shillings a week to support an average family.

The Harvester judgment, as it was known, was given on 8 November 1907. It was a landmark decision because it established a basic wage of 7 shillings per day with higher rates for overtime. This was more than a 25 per cent increase from the average unskilled wage at the time and established a new standard in Australian industrial law of setting wages according to the principle of a 'living wage' rather than what a business was prepared to pay.

MAJOR SOCIAL LEGISLATION

In the decades after Federation, the new Commonwealth Parliament passed several new laws designed to improve the lives of injured workers, new mothers and people who were too old to continue working. Such social legislation was virtually unheard of anywhere else in the world and was thought to reflect the egalitarian spirit that existed in Australia. Under the prime ministership of Labor leader Andrew Fisher between 1908 and 1914, the Australian government began to play a role in helping less fortunate citizens of the Commonwealth. Fisher's government was responsible for introducing the following legislation into Parliament.

- The *Invalid and Old Age Pension Act 1908*: This introduced the payment of a pension of ten shillings a week to those over the age of 65 or who were prevented from work due to a disability.
- The *Workers Compensation Act 1912*: This enabled compensation to any federal government employee who was injured or made sick through their work.
- The *Maternity Allowances Act 1912*: This allowed the payment of £5 to every woman considered part of the Commonwealth on the birth of a child. This amount was equivalent to more than two weeks pay at the time and helped families cope with an extra mouth to feed, as well as the loss of income if the woman worked.

Despite bringing significant improvement to the lives of many less fortunate Australians, some of the new legislation continued to discriminate against Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, those who had recently arrived in Australia, as well as people of African, Asian or Pacific Island origin. While the Australian Constitution continued to exclude Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People as citizens of the Commonwealth, any law passed for the benefit of ordinary people did not apply to them.

SOURCE 6.10.6 Edmund Barton and Alfred Deakin, 1898. Photo held at the National Library of Australia

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 The following events are in random order. Locate the date of each event and then organise them chronologically.

- Conciliation and Arbitration Act passed by federal parliament
- Franchise Act passed by federal parliament
- First federal Labor government formed—John Watson becomes prime minister
- Immigration Restriction Act passed by federal parliament
- Harvester judgment given by Justice Higgins
- Pacific Island Labourers Act passed by federal parliament
- First Australian federal parliament opened
- Military alliance signed between Britain and Japan

Understanding and evaluating

2 Reread 'Opening of federal parliament'.

a What were the results of the first federal election?

b Why was Edmund Barton able to form only a minority government in May 1901?

c In what ways was Australia's close relationship with Britain demonstrated on the day federal parliament was opened?

3 Reread 'The White Australia policy'.

a What was the basic aim of the White Australia policy?

b Compare and contrast the aims of the Pacific Island Labourers Act with those of the Immigration Restriction Act.

c Why was a dictation test included as part of the Immigration Restriction Act?

d Explain why the British government was embarrassed by the Immigration Restriction Act.

Analysing and evaluating

4 Examine Source 6.10.1, a painting by artist Tom Roberts of the opening of federal parliament in Melbourne. Conduct research into the artist, his work on the painting, the features of the painting itself, its accuracy as a historical source and where it can be seen today. Present your findings in a brief report with section headings, relevant images and a conclusion about the reliability of the painting as a source of history.

Analysing and creating

5 Use the information in this unit as well as your own independent research to create a poster showing who the winners and losers were in the early years of federation. In your research, consider the impact of new federal laws on:

- non-Europeans
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People
- males
- females
- workers.

Support the information in your poster with evidence in the form of primary and secondary quotes, visual source material, outlines of key events and statistical data. Consider presenting your information in a graphic organiser such as a mind map or table.

CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 11

THE REPUBLIC DEBATE

The Australian constitution established at the time of federation made Australia a constitutional monarchy. Under this system of government a nation's head of state is a king or queen. Although the prime minister is the leader of the government in Australia, the British monarch is its official head of state. Since Queen Elizabeth II is not a resident of Australia, the governor-general acts as her representative.

A republic, on the other hand, is a system of government in which the head of state is one of its citizens. In some republics, such as the United States of America, the president is both the head of state and the leader of the government. Other republics, such as the People's Republic of China, are not democratic, but nonetheless have a citizen as the head of state. Other examples of republics today are the French Republic and the Republic of Indonesia.

KEATING'S CALL FOR AN AUSTRALIAN REPUBLIC

In a speech to the House of Representatives on 7 June 1995, prime minister Paul Keating stated his view that 'Australia's head of state should be an Australian and that Australia should become a republic by the year 2001'. As Australia was a multicultural society, Keating argued, the British monarchy was an outdated and meaningless symbol for many, and failed to promote Australia's interests overseas. Keating proposed that an Australian president be appointed to replace the governor-general, performing the same, largely ceremonial, function.

OPPOSITION TO AN AUSTRALIAN REPUBLIC

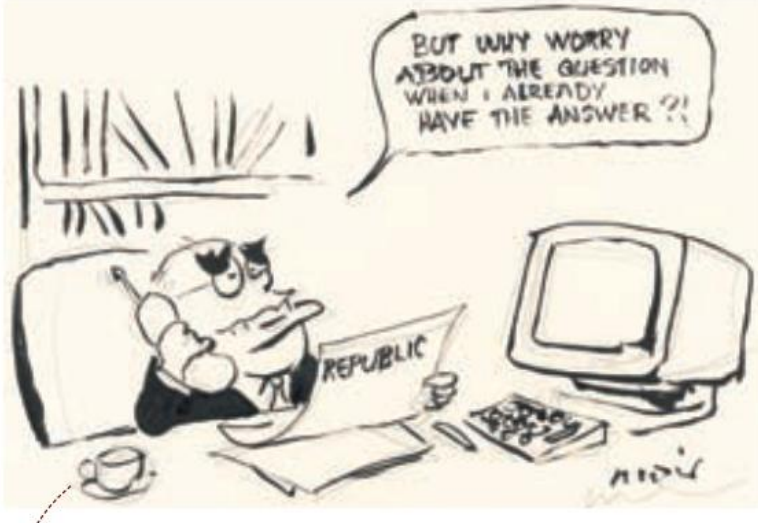
A majority of federal politicians from all parties supported Keating's call for a republic. Opposition leader John Howard was one of a few parliamentarians who were opposed, preferring the current system. Howard was eager to highlight Australia's special, ongoing relationship with Britain but acknowledged that a growing majority of Australians now favoured a republic. Other opponents of an Australian republic argued that Keating had only raised the issue to divert attention away from other, more important issues such as the economy. Some even believed that his Irish ancestry automatically made him anti-British and that his push for an Australian republic was nothing more than a personal crusade.

THE 1998 CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

In 1996, Keating and the Labor Party were voted out of office and replaced by a Liberal–National Party coalition, with John Howard as prime minister. Howard recognised the public support for an Australian republic and throughout the election campaign promised to settle the issue by establishing a Constitutional Convention.

In February 1998, 152 delegates met at the old Parliament House in Canberra to debate proposed changes to the constitution and decide the best method of appointing a future Australian president.

Despite the fact that most delegates were in favour of a republic, agreement was difficult to reach over whether an Australian president should be appointed or elected. Some republicans wanted the president to be appointed by a two-thirds majority of parliament (indirect election), while others believed the Australian people should elect a future president (direct election). After a vote, the indirect model was accepted by the convention. It was then agreed that a referendum would be held on whether or not Australian voters accepted the proposed changes to the constitution.



SOURCE 6.11.1 Cartoon criticising John Howard's attitude towards the framing of the referendum question, by Alan Moir, 1998. Held at the National Library of Australia

THE 'YES' CASE

In the lead-up to the referendum, the Australian Republican Movement presented arguments in favour of the 'Yes' case. Its leader, Malcolm Turnbull, was appointed chairman of the 'Vote Yes' committee, which aimed to convince voters of the need to change the constitution. Many notable Australians, including Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander leaders, barristers, academics, sports people, business people, television personalities and retired and serving politicians from all major parties, supported the 'Yes' case.

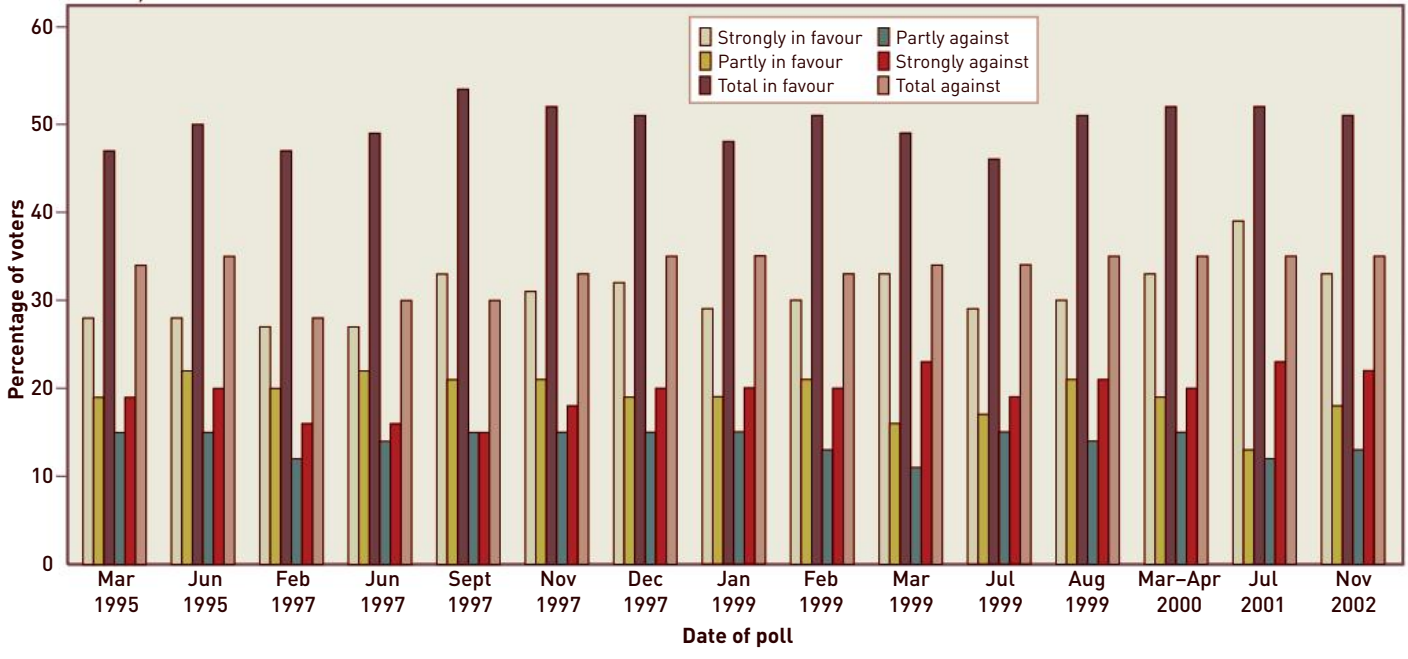
SOURCE 6.11.2 Australian Republican Movement chief Malcolm Turnbull on the last day of his campaign for the historical Australian Referendum Yes vote, at Hyde Park in Sydney, 5 November 1999

THE 'NO' CASE

SOURCE 6.11.3 Arguments advanced by the 'No' case

Australians for a Constitutional Monarchy, under the leadership of Kerry Jones, advanced the 'No' case. Jones, a former music teacher, was appointed to chair the 'Vote No' committee. Under the banner of 'No Republic!', campaigners argued that there was no need to change a model of government that had been and continued to be highly effective. Republicans were accused of wanting 'change for the sake of change' and ignoring Australia's British heritage.

SOURCE 6.11.4 Support for an Australian republic, 1995–99



THE REPUBLIC REFERENDUM OF 1999

On 6 November, after months of intense campaigning from both sides of the debate, Australians cast their votes in the historic republic referendum.

Like the majority of referendums before it, the republic referendum ended in defeat. For a referendum to be carried, two conditions have to be met. Firstly, a majority of voters throughout the country have to vote 'yes', and secondly, a majority of the six states and two territories require a 'yes' majority. Source 11.6 shows that neither of these prerequisites was achieved.

The defeat of the republic referendum was due to the framing of the referendum question, which asked voters whether or not they supported the appointment of a president by a two-thirds majority of the members of the parliament. While opinion polls right up to the day of the referendum indicated overwhelming support for an Australian republic, most voters rejected the model put to them and therefore voted 'no'.

> *The fact is that if the plans for our nationhood were being drawn up now, by this generation of Australians and not those of a century ago, it is beyond question that we would make our Head of State an Australian ... This is not because our generation lacks respect for the British monarchy, or the British people, or our British heritage, or the British institutions we have made our own, or our long friendship with the British in peace and war. On the contrary, Australians everywhere respect them, as they respect the Queen. But they are not Australian.*

SOURCE 6.11.5 From Paul Keating's speech to federal parliament, 7 June 1995

STATE OR TERRITORY	'YES' %	'NO' %
New South Wales	46.43	53.57
Victoria	49.84	50.16
Queensland	37.44	62.56
Western Australia	41.48	58.52
South Australia	43.57	56.43
Tasmania	40.37	59.63
Australian Capital Territory	63.27	36.73
Northern Territory	48.77	51.23
TOTAL	45.13	54.87

SOURCE 6.11.6 Results of the 1999 referendum by state and territory, Australian Electoral Commission

SOURCE 6.11.7 Queen Elizabeth II receives flowers from a welcoming crowd at Federation Square, Melbourne, October 2011.

TIME TO THINK...

Use these deep questions in small group or class discussions, as your teacher decides.

1 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

a What, if anything, would change if Australia were to become a republic?

b Why do you think that most referendums since the time of federation have failed?

c Why do you think Australians are so reluctant to change the constitution?

2 SIGNIFICANCE

Why do you think that support for an Australian republic came from both sides of politics?

3 PERSPECTIVES AND CONTESTABILITY

Do you think Australia should become a republic? Give reasons to justify your answer.

4 CAUSE AND EFFECT

Why do you think the 1999 referendum on an Australian republic failed, despite the fact that most Australians polled at the time appeared to support the idea?

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Significant Australians of the colonial period

Select one of the following famous Australians from the colonial period and conduct a historical investigation into their life and significance to nineteenth-century Australian history. Present your findings in a written report that outlines the important events of their life and explains the contributions they made to colonial Australia. Provide a range of written and visual primary and secondary sources that show different perspectives on the individual. Ensure all sources are appropriately referenced.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People

1 Pemulwuy (c.1750–1802)
2 Bennelong (c.1764–1813)
3 Truganini (c.1812–1876)

Convicts

1 John 'Black' Caesar (c.1763–1796)
2 James Ruse (1760–1837)
3 Mary Bryant (1765–c. 1794)

Explorers

1 Matthew Flinders (1774–1814)
2 Ludwig Leichhardt (1813–1848)
3 Charles Sturt (1795–1869)

Pioneers

1 John Macarthur (1767–1834)
2 William Farrer (1845–1906)
3 Lawrence Hargrave (1850–1915)

Political leaders

1 William Wentworth (1790–1872)
2 Henry Parkes (1815–1896)
3 Edith Cowan (1861–1932)

Bushrangers

1 Ben Hall (1837–1865)
2 Dan Morgan (c.1830–1865)
3 Ned Kelly (1855–1880)

Artists

1 Jane Price (1860–1948)
2 Frederick McCubbin (1855–1917)
3 Arthur Streeton (1867–1943)

Writers

1 Henry Lawson (1867–1922)
2 Banjo Paterson (1864–1941)
3 Mary Gilmore (1865–1962)

Suffragists

1 Mary Lee (1821–1909)
2 Louisa Lawson (1848–1920)
3 Vida Goldstein (1869–1949)

Political and social activists

1 Caroline Chisholm (1808–1877)
2 Peter Lalor (1827–1889)
3 Bertha McNamara (1853–1931)

INQUIRY TASKS

#2 Obstacles to federation

Imagine that the principals of the local schools in your area have gathered to discuss the possibilities of amalgamating. Identify the differences between these schools by considering their type (e.g. single-sex or co-educational, public or private, primary, secondary or K–12); religious affiliation (if any at all); structure; curriculum; disciplinary policy; grounds and amenities; uniform; and size. Working in groups of four, discuss whether or not such an amalgamation is practical, what the advantages and disadvantages would be to each school and how each would need to adapt in the new structure. After each group has shared their ideas with the class, write an extended response comparing the obstacles in this imaginary scenario with the process of Australian federation in the late 1800s.

#3 A new Australian flag?

Conduct independent research into Ausflag and the Australian National Flag Association (ANFA). Compare and contrast their origins, aims, leadership, organisation and key arguments. Make your own set of recommendations on whether or not you feel it is time to change the Australian flag. Use your findings in a class debate on the topic 'That the Australian flag no longer symbolises the values of modern Australia'. Prepare for the debate by discussing your arguments with the other members of your team.

#4 Changing Australian identity

As a class, create a wall display with visual and written sources that show how ideas of Australian identity have changed over time. In your research, identify what Australian society was like in 1901, what attitudes and values were commonly held and how Australians saw themselves. Contrast this with what it means to be an Australian today. In particular, look at changes to people's values and attitudes; Australia's relationship with other countries; the make-up of Australian society; and the rights and freedoms of all Australians.

SOURCE **6.12.1** Chinese arch, Melbourne, Australian Federation celebrations, 1901

CHAPTER 7

INQUIRY QUESTIONS

- How did World War I contribute to Australia's sense of nationhood?
- What were the reasons that men from Australia and other parts of the world enlisted to fight in World War I?
- How did changes in technology contribute to the characteristics of the war?
- What was the impact of the war economically, socially and politically on Australia between 1914 and 1918?
- How did World War I contribute to Australia's sense of nationhood?

DEPTH STUDY 3
WORLD WAR I

World War I produced death and destruction unlike any previous military conflict. It began as a European war in 1914 but spread to the Middle East, the Far East, Africa, the Pacific Ocean and the waters around South America. It involved troops from not only the European powers but also from parts of their empires: African colonies, Canada and Newfoundland, Australia, New Zealand, India, and the Caribbean. By its conclusion in 1918, over 9 million combatants had been killed.

WORLD WAR I

SOURCE 7.0.1

Australian stretcher bearers resting at a dressing station near Ypres, Belgium, October 1917. Held at the Australian War Memorial

UNIT 1

SNAPSHOT 1914–1918

SOURCE 7.1.1 Timeline of World War I

27 June Duntroon Military College founded

28 June Franz Ferdinand and his wife assassinated at Sarajevo

4 August Britain declares war on Germany

11 September Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force lands in New Guinea

1 November AIF sails from Australia for Europe

19 February Britain commences bombardment of Turkish forts in the Dardanelles

25 April Allied troops, including Australians, land on Gallipoli peninsula

9 November HMAS *Sydney* sinks German cruiser SMS *Emden*

19 December Allies begin evacuation of Gallipoli

19–20 July Battle of Fromelles

23 July Australians begin attack on Pozières ridge

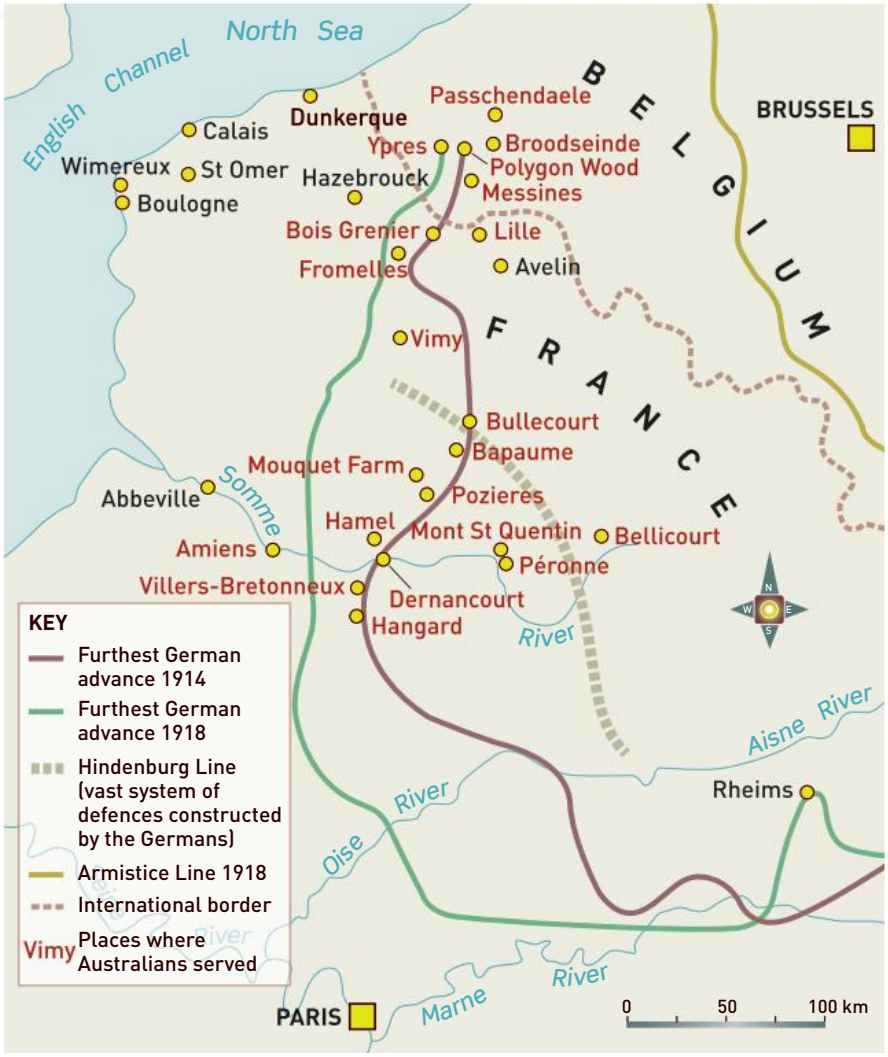
1911 1914 1915 1916

ORIGINS AND MAJOR FEATURES OF THE WAR

World War I is often said to have been caused by the **assassination** of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austro–Hungarian Empire, and his wife, Sophie, Duchess of Hohenberg, in the Bosnian city of Sarajevo. Their deaths occurred on 28 June 1914, and by 4 August all the great European powers were at war. The assassination was a trigger for the European powers to honour their alliances and look after their own interests. One by one they mobilised and prepared for war: the empires of Germany and Austria–Hungary on one side and those of Russia, France and Great Britain on the other. Other countries joined later. It was a war between empires because its roots were in nationalism and imperialism. The empires fought to gain a bigger empire or to preserve the empire that they had.

As the war continued it became difficult to stop, as the idea of losing became unthinkable after so many resources had been invested and there was so much suffering.

SOURCE 7.1.2 Australians in World War I: on the Western Front



SOURCE 7.1.4 A small crowd watches the departure of A9 *Shropshire* and A18 *Wiltshire* from Port Melbourne in October 1914. The two troop transports are at the left of the photograph.

28 October First conscription referendum in Australia is defeated

11 April First Battle of Bullecourt

3 May Second Battle of Bullecourt begins

25 April Australian troops recapture Villers-Bretonneux

31 May John Monash takes command of the Australian Corps

4 July Australians capture the town of Hamel

8 August German army suffers significant defeat at the Somme

18 January Paris Peace Conference begins

1917

1918

1919

23 December Battle of Magdhaba

20 December Second conscription referendum in Australia is defeated

31 July Start of the Third Battle at Ypres

11 November Armistice with Germany

1 October Australian Light Horse enters Damascus

1 September Mont St Quentin is captured

28 June The Treaty of Versailles signed with Germany

SOURCE 7.1.3 Australians in World War I: the Palestine Campaign

AUSTRALIA WILL BE THERE, BUT AT WHAT COST?

Being part of the British Empire meant that Australia was committed to the war immediately. Men flocked to enlist, many fearful that they would miss out on a great adventure. As the war progressed, the horrors of Gallipoli and the Western Front changed people's perspective. Many soldiers who returned home were physically and mentally scarred after the war.

Out of the suffering of this war arose the Anzac legend. The landing on the Gallipoli peninsula in 1915 was Australia's 'baptism of fire'. Throughout World War I, Australian soldiers demonstrated the same characteristics under fire that they showed at Gallipoli.

The soldiers returned to a country that was proud of their achievements: Anzac Day had already been celebrated in 1916. The war had divided Australians and caused major political and social changes, which were exacerbated by the conscription plebiscites of 1916 and 1917.

UNIT 2

CAUSES OF THE WAR

A WORLD OF RAPID CHANGE

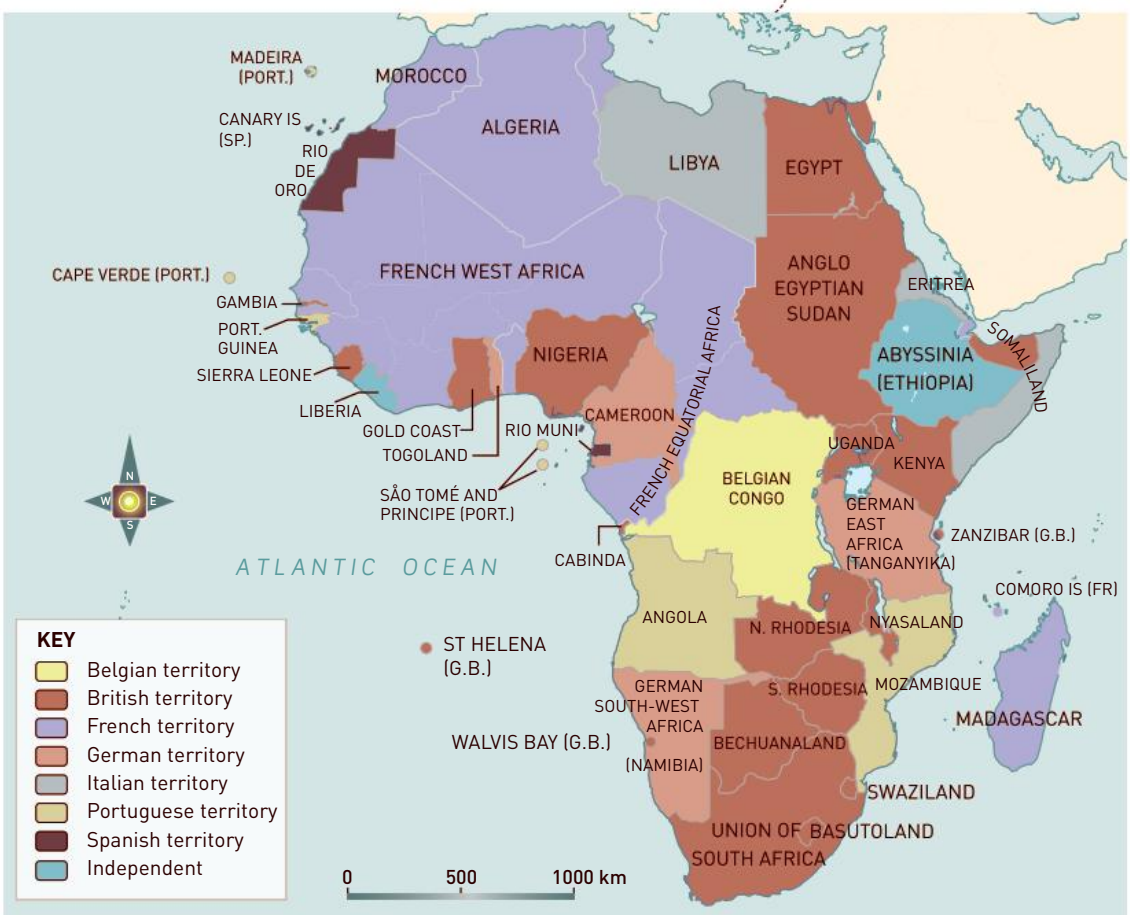
The nineteenth century was a time of new ideas and new technology. There were revolutions in France and North America at the end of the eighteenth century. These were followed by more revolutions in the nineteenth century, as liberal ideas spread throughout Europe. The revolutions of 1830 gave Belgium and France monarchs who were elected by the people. The 1848 revolutions were an attempt by the middle class and the workers to gain more political and economic power in a number of European states.

There were also **reactionary**, or **conservative**, forces at work. Those who had power wished to retain it. The Congress of Vienna (1815) at the end of the Napoleonic Wars saw a return to the European boundaries and ruling class structures of 1789. The stability created by the great European powers was eroded by growing nationalism and wars. One result was the creation of the German Empire following the Franco–Prussian War of 1870–71.

The Industrial Revolution led to increased manufacturing production, the creation of three very strong economic and military powers (Britain, Germany and the United States) and rapid growth in many other countries. Between 1900 and 1914 in Western countries there was accelerating change in manufacturing technology, mass production, the arts and sciences, communication technologies and the growth of cities. Economic and political power shifted from the landed aristocracy to the industrial middle class.

SOURCE 7.2.1 Africa in 1914

Q
1 Which two countries were not under the control of a European country in 1914?
2 Egypt had been occupied by the British since 1882, even though it was not formally part of the British Empire. Why was Egypt so important to Britain?

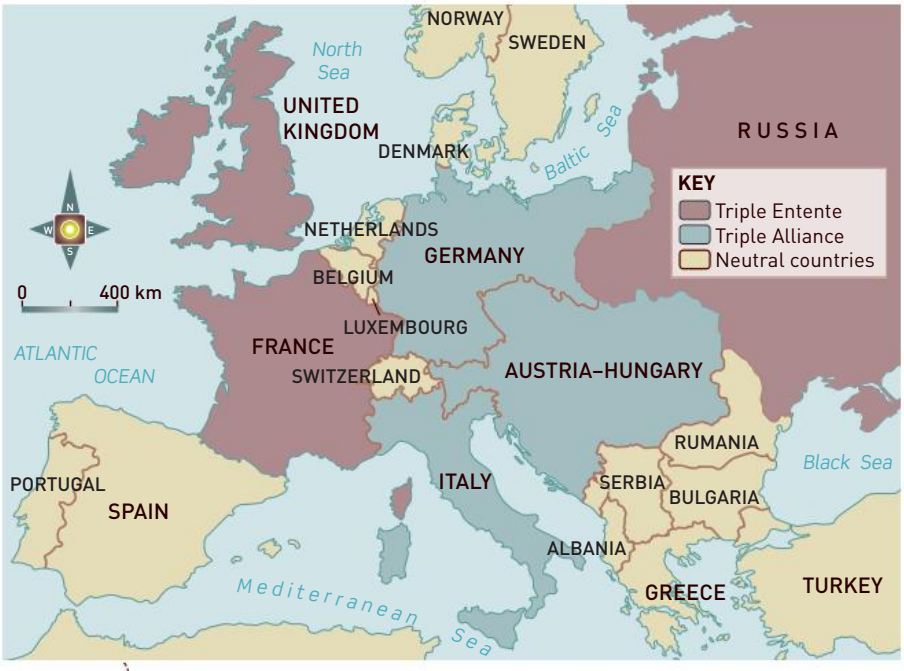


A NEW IMPERIALISM

The Industrial Revolution meant that new markets and new sources of raw materials were sought. Industrialised European nations sought colonies.

Germany did not seek to extend its empire outside Europe until 1884. Prior to this, Germany focused on securing an empire within Europe and developing a system of alliances to isolate France. The German Chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, finally supported the development of an overseas empire because of the need for new markets. The development of an empire also provided Germany with the opportunity to build a new navy and become a world power. Germany's colonies were in the western Pacific and Africa; it also sought to obtain influence in the Middle East.

Tensions between countries with colonies increased as they tried to exert influence in their own colonies or in the colonies of other colonial powers, increasing the possibility of war.



SOURCE 7.2.2

Alliances in Europe, June 1914. The Triple Entente was an alliance between the United Kingdom, France and Russia. The Triple Alliance was an alliance between Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy. Neutral countries had no formal alliances with any one country.

NATIONALISM AND ALLIANCES

Nationalism has been identified as one of the major causes of World War I. Extreme nationalism is expressed when a nation regards itself as superior to others. Extreme nationalism was prevalent in Europe in the years leading up to 1914.

GERMANY AND FRANCE

Germany had been suspicious of France since the end of the Franco–Prussian War, in which France was easily defeated. France lost territory, and had to pay large **reparations** (or payments for damages). The peace treaty was signed in the Hall of Mirrors in the former French royal palace at Versailles, an act that was designed to further humiliate France.

Germany's foreign policy was designed to deny France allies. Germany had an **alliance** with the Austro–Hungarian Empire and Italy (the Triple Alliance). France was eventually able to come to a friendly understanding (or **entente**) with Russia and Great Britain (the Triple Entente). This understanding overcame the differences associated with the expansion of their individual empires. Tensions increased between the two alliances, and countries prepared to defend themselves against each other. Germany was extremely nervous, as it faced the danger of having to fight a future war to both the east and west (two fronts).

THE NAVAL ARMS RACE

Britain, by 1914, had largely kept out of European affairs for one hundred years. Despite the agreement with France and Russia, Britain was still not obliged to fight in a future war. Britain had a small permanent army, as it was the only European nation without national **conscription**. Britain relied on the dominance of its navy to protect itself and its empire. Its naval supremacy was threatened by Germany after Kaiser Wilhelm II became emperor in 1888. Wilhelm II was a strong supporter of German imperialism and nationalism and he expanded the German navy. This action meant that Britain had to expand her navy in order to keep it larger than that of Germany. This naval rivalry—an **arms race**—increased the chance of war with Britain, even though Germany believed that Britain was its natural ally.

DID YOU KNOW?

GERMANY INVESTED HEAVILY IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF A RAILWAY LINE THAT WOULD RUN FROM HAMBURG TO THE PERSIAN GULF, VIA CONSTANTINOPLE.

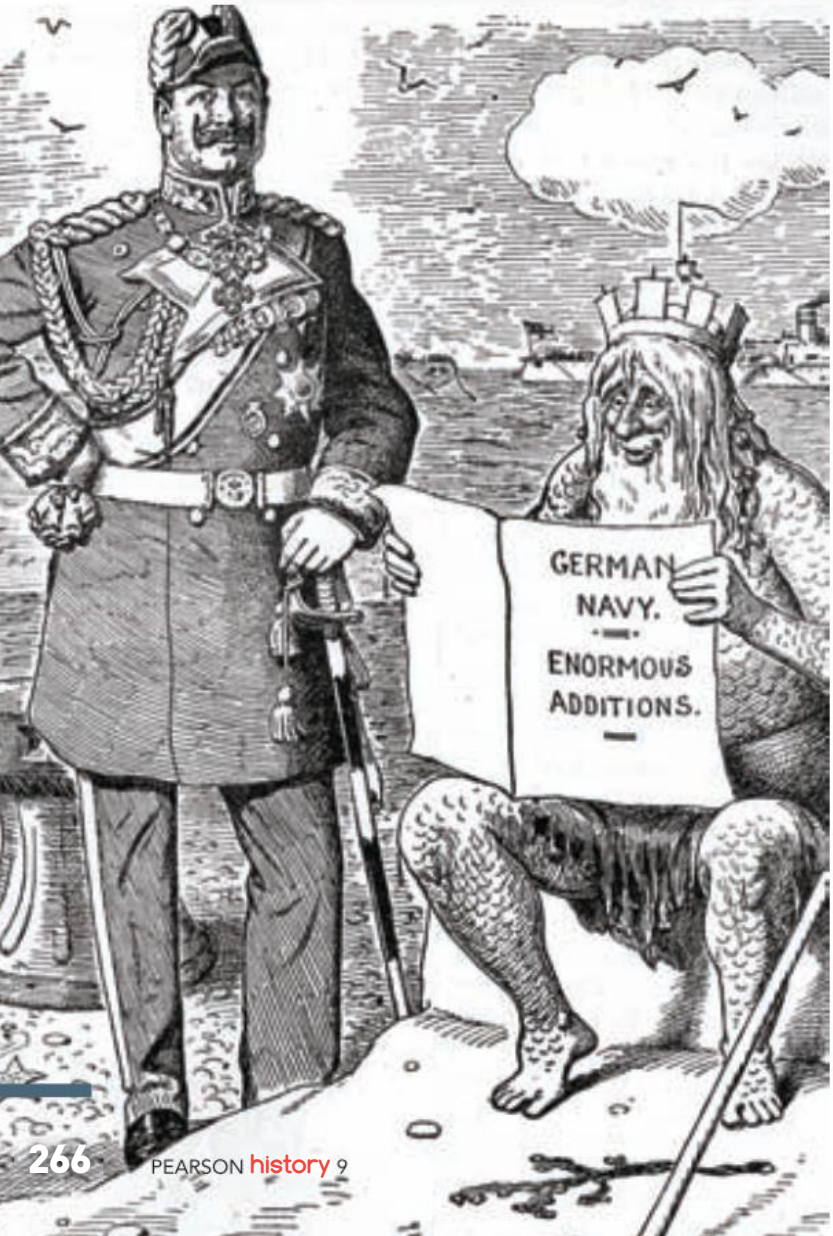
Almost all the work, which began in 1903, was in the deserts and mountains south of Constantinople (present-day Istanbul). The German banks invested, in today's terms, about $125 billion, between 1914 and 1918. This amount of money was in addition to loans to the Turkish government to enter the war on the side of the Central Powers and to continue fighting.

THE ROAD TO WAR

A number of international crises occurred between 1890 and 1914, increasing tensions between the powers as they sought colonies and influence, and resulting in increased military expenditure. Germany, in particular, continued to threaten France. Britain was prepared to support France, and therefore Germany had to back down rather than create armed conflict. The possibility of an alliance between Britain and Germany was now gone. Wars in the Balkans in 1912 and 1913 led to a conference of the European great powers in London. The aim was to prevent the little wars from spreading, but Europe was already heading towards a major conflict.

SOURCE 7.2.3 HMS *Dreadnought*, in 1906 or 1907

Q Why would this ship have an advantage over other ships in a battle at sea?

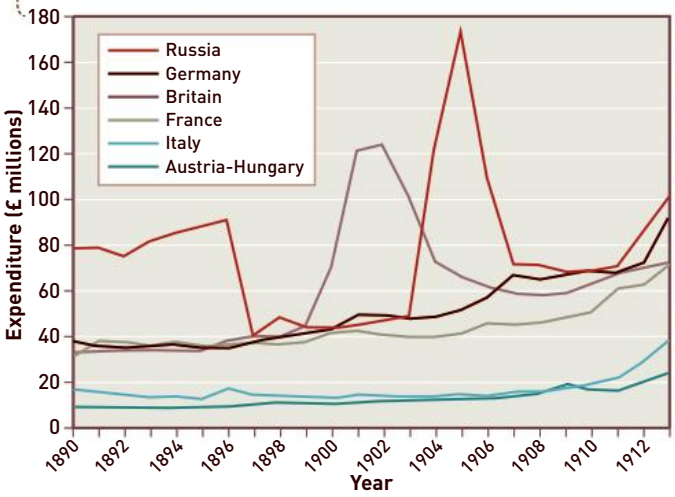


SOURCE 7.2.4 This cartoon appeared in *Punch* magazine on 27 June 1900; *Punch* was a weekly magazine published in Britain.

Q Who are the two characters in the cartoon and why do you think they are depicted?

SOURCE 7.2.5 Defence expenditure of the European powers, 1890–1913

Q Describe the trends in defence expenditure for each of the six powers.



THE CATALYST

Bosnia and Herzegovina, were annexed by Austria–Hungary in 1908. This was not a popular move among other European nations, especially Serbia, who wanted Bosnia and Herzegovina to be part of the pan-Slav state.

On 28 June 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand (heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne) and his wife, Sophie, Duchess of Hohenberg, were visiting Sarajevo to inspect the manoeuvres of the army. As the motorcade passed through the streets, Gavrilo Princip, a member of the Serbian group the Black Hand, shot and killed the duke and his wife.

The Austro-Hungarian Empire, which had been looking for an excuse to attack Serbia, retaliated. The situation between Serbia and Austria–Hungary escalated. On 28 July, Austria–Hungary **mobilised** and declared war on Serbia. This act of war and the previous tensions brought the European alliance system into play. Russia, which was a supporter of the pan-Slav state, declared war on Austria–Hungary. Germany, as a supporter of Austria–Hungary, declared war on Russia. France was now at war with both Austria–Hungary and Germany. Great Britain declared war on Germany, claiming Germany had invaded Belgium, a neutral country, on its way to invading France. Great Britain was also afraid of German domination in Europe, as this would allow Germany to control the Channel ports.

AN EAGERNESS FOR WAR

There was widespread public support for war throughout Europe. The warm, fine summer in July allowed people to gather outdoors and listen to nationalistic speakers. Politicians were swept along by public opinion as nationalism turned to **jingoism** (an extreme form of nationalism supported by an aggressive foreign policy). The European rulers were concerned about the possibility of war, but were also concerned about maintaining the prestige of their nations. Austria could not allow Serbia to get away with the assassination. Germany supported Austria. Russia had to support the pan-Slav state. Germany could not allow Russia and France to threaten it. In preparation for war, the German army leadership had a plan (the Schlieffen Plan) to fight a war on two fronts. The basis of the plan was to defeat the French quickly and then turn on the Russians, whom, it was assumed, would mobilise more slowly. This plan required an advance through Belgium, whose neutrality had been guaranteed by the European powers in 1839.

SOURCE 7.2.6 Rival alliances in World War I

Q
1 Which countries or empires made up the Allied Powers and which the Central Powers?
2 Which countries remained neutral during the war?

* NEJD means 'upland' in Arabic. It refers to a variety of Arabic regions.

DID YOU KNOW?

A REVOLUTIONARY VESSEL, HMS *DREADNOUGHT*, CAME INTO SERVICE IN THE BRITISH NAVY IN 1906.

It had steam turbines and was the fastest battleship at that time. More importantly, its ten main guns were all of the same size (12 inches or 304.8 millimetres), rather than the more usual set-up of a few main guns with smaller secondary guns. It was the first of a large number of bigger, faster ships in both the British and the German navies.

AUSTRALIA ANSWERS THE CALL

Australia was still a 'young' country in 1914. European settlement had occurred in 1788 and federation in 1901. In this respect, Australia was similar to New Zealand, South Africa, Canada and Newfoundland. These countries were bound to Britain in many ways but were not forced to fight with Britain in Britain's wars. Australians rallied to support the 'mother country' when Britain declared war on Germany. This was because of the close kinship and emotional ties and the knowledge that if Britain lost, Australia could become a German colony. Another concern was that, due to the White Australia policy, Australia could be at the mercy of Japan without Britain's protection.

THE SIZE OF AN ARMY

At the beginning of the war the European continental armies were very large—approximately one million each for France, Germany, Austria–Hungary and Russia. Britain's available standing army was only about 250 000 because, unlike the other European powers, it did not have conscription. Only 125 000 men were available to cross the English Channel to fight. Britain did not have trouble with men wanting to enlist. The Liberal government had no trouble convincing people that they were fighting for Belgium's neutrality, and they kept quiet about it being in Britain's national and imperial interest to go to war.

PRIME MINISTERIAL RESPONSE

Great Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August 1914. Shortly before that date the Australian prime minister, Joseph Cook, sent an important cablegram to the British government. In this he offered, in the event of war, to 'place the vessels of the Australian Navy under the British Admiralty', as well as send an 'expeditionary force of 20 000 men of any suggested combination to any destination desired by the Home Government', which would be at the 'complete disposal of the Home Government'. Australia would be responsible for the organisation, transportation and maintenance of this force. Australians who saw the posting of this offer outside newspaper offices burst into cheers.

SOURCE 7.2.7 Volunteers queuing to enlist outside Victoria Barracks, Sydney, 1914. Held at the Australian War Memorial

The offer also appeared in the British press on 4 August, before war was declared. The Secretary of State for Colonies in the British government sent a telegram to the Australian government on 6 August stating that the offer would be accepted. Australians were already seeking to volunteer for service before that date. Due to the foresight of the Inspector-General of the Australian Military Forces, William Bridges, Australians would fight as a **national unit**, rather than being broken up and attached to various British units.

VOLUNTEERING TO ENLIST

Despite the initial enthusiasm to enlist (20 000 in the first few weeks of the war), only 50 000 Australians had volunteered by the end of 1914; at this time the enlistment age was between 21 and 35 years. By the end of the war in 1918 this number had increased to 400 000.

DID YOU KNOW?

MAJOR GENERAL WILLIAM BRIDGES WAS, APART FROM THE UNKNOWN SOLDIER BURIED AT THE AUSTRALIAN WAR MEMORIAL, THE ONLY AUSTRALIAN SOLDIER FROM WORLD WAR I WHOSE BODY WAS RETURNED TO HIS COUNTRY.

Even his live horse was brought back to Australia. Bridges founded the Royal Australian Military College at Duntroon in 1911. He also established the Australian Imperial Force (AIF) and led the First Division at Gallipoli, where he was fatally wounded by a sniper in May 1915.

> *[I]f we go to war and they call for men here I will make one quick and lively. I think I know what it is to rough it now and if it is my lot well here goes I am itching to get a dig at a few Germans ... we have all got the war fever ... I am too excited to give my mind to writing tonight I shall have to be off to get another Herald to see how things go.*

SOURCE 7.2.8 From the diary of R. E. Antill, a cabinet maker from Victoria, quoted in *The Broken Years*, by Bill Gammage, 2010

Q
1 **Rewrite this extract in your own words.**
2 **What reasons does Antill give for his going to war?**

> *I thought that [the war] ... was too colossal to last long and that Christmas 1914 would see it all over. But ... I then realised that it was going to be a long struggle, and that it was time to get a wriggle on ... [By January 1915] I felt very fit for a big fat greasy German.*

SOURCE 7.2.9 From the diary of A. C. Youdale, a commercial traveller from NSW, quoted in *The Broken Years*, by Bill Gammage, 2010

Q
1 **What reasons does Youdale give for his going to war?**
2 **For what other reasons may men have enlisted, apart from those indicated in Sources 7.2.8 and 7.2.9?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- alliance
- arms race
- assassination
- Australian Imperial Force
- conscription
- conservative
- entente
- jingoism
- mobilised
- national unit
- nationalism
- reactionary
- reparations

Understanding and analysing

2 Examine Sources 7.2.2 and 7.2.6, and conduct research when necessary, to answer the following questions.

a Which countries made up the Triple Alliance (Central Powers) in June 1914?
b Which countries made up the Triple Entente in June 1914?
c Which country changed sides during the war? Why did this happen?
d Which countries joined the Allied Powers during the war? Why did they do this?
e Which countries joined the Central Powers during the war? Why did they do this?

Understanding and applying

3 Examine Source 7.2.5. Answer the following in a total of 200 words.

a Which group was spending more on defence in 1913, the Central Powers or the Triple Entente?
b Undertake research to explain why defence spending in Russia spiked in 1905, and in Britain in 1901–02.

Analysing and evaluating

4 Conduct research in the library or on the internet on the following people and events. In 500 words, explain which of these people and events was the most important cause of World War I. Give reasons for your choice.

a The assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife at Sarajevo
b Kaiser Wilhelm II
c The development of the Schlieffen Plan
d Nationalism
e Imperialism
f The naval arms race between Britain and Germany

THE WAR IN EUROPE

A EUROPEAN CONFLICT?

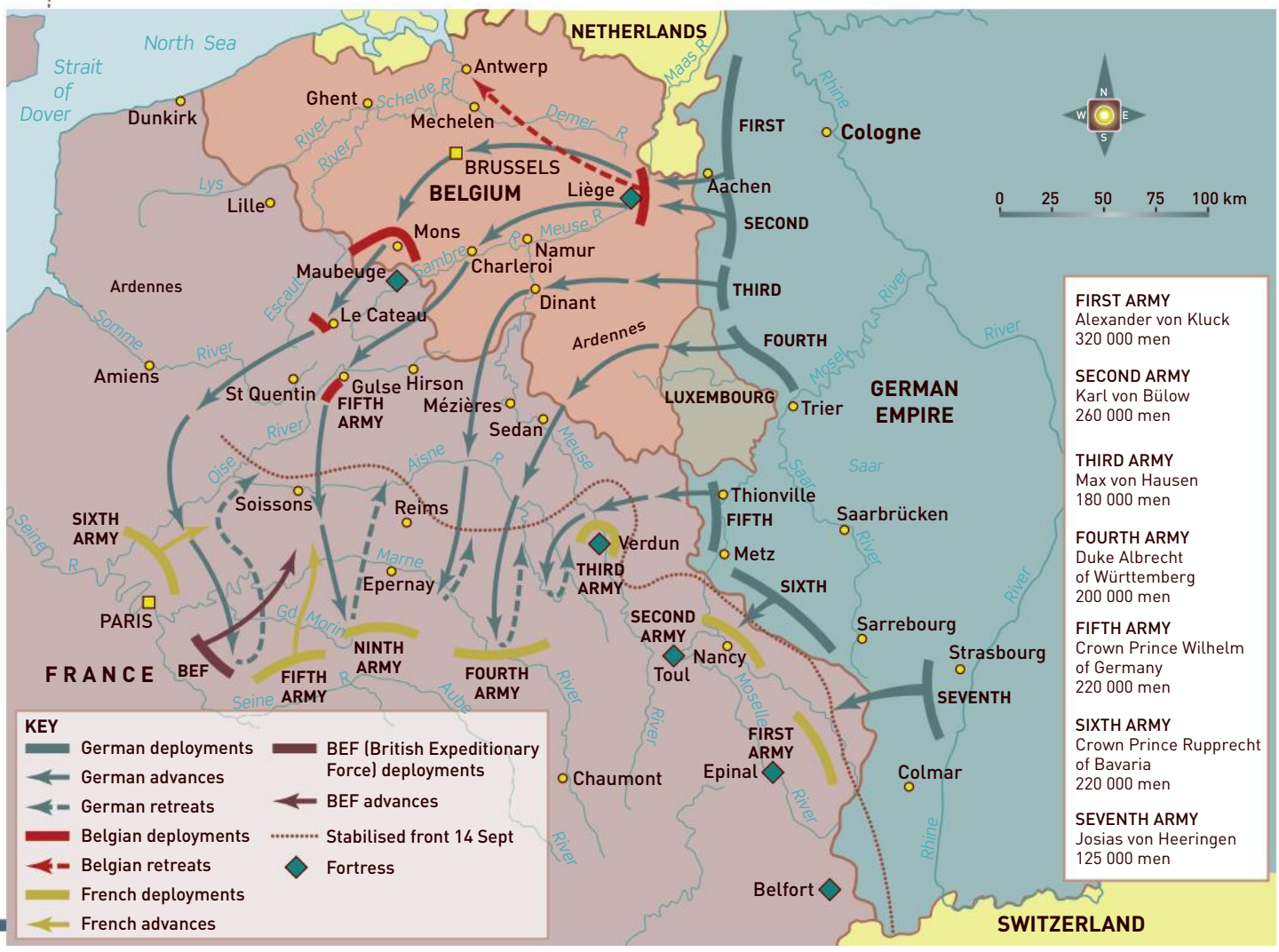
World War I was different from earlier wars, as developments in technology enabled armies to engage in battle in new ways, for example trench warfare aided by machine guns. Improvements in transport also allowed the war to spread far beyond its point of origin and enabled troops to journey across oceans.

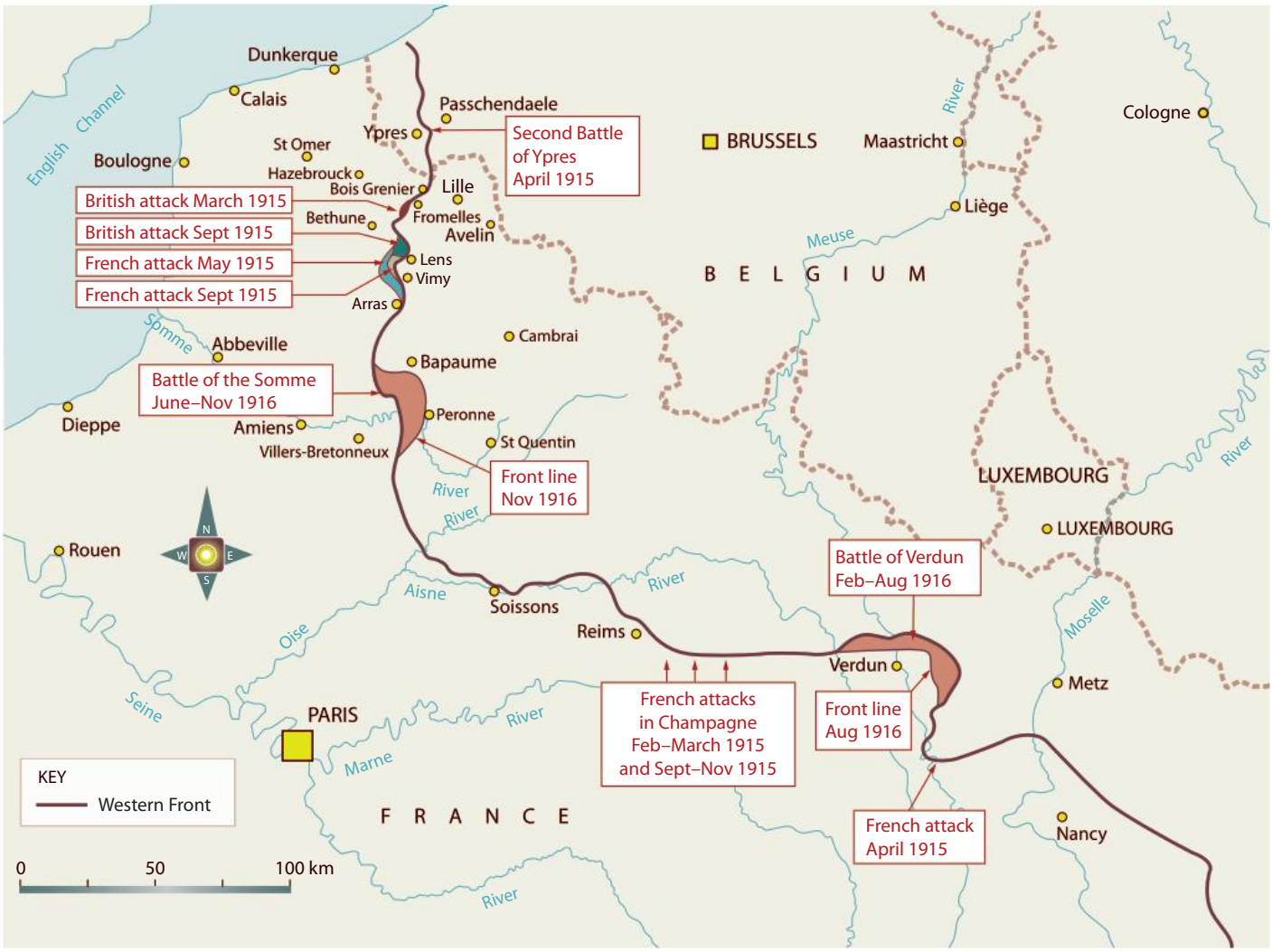
SOURCE 7.3.1 The movement of armies in Western Europe between 4 August and 14 September 1914

Q
1 How many men made up the seven German armies?
2 Describe the movements of each of the German armies, mentioning relevant place names.

THE WESTERN FRONT

World War I was predominantly a European war. The main theatre was the **Western Front** and it was here that Australians mainly fought after the end of the Gallipoli campaign in 1915. The aim of the German army at the beginning of the war was to defeat France quickly by capturing Paris and then move to the east to attack and defeat Russia before it had mobilised. The early attack on Germany by Russia in 1914 created the Eastern Front; Russia fought both Germany and Austria–Hungary on this front. Other fronts developed throughout Europe or on its fringes: Gallipoli, Salonika, northern Italy and the Middle East.





SOURCE 7.3.2 Major offensives on the Western Front, 1915–16

Q
1 Name the places where the Germans attacked in 1915 and 1916
2 Name where the Allies attacked in the same years.

THE WAR IN 1916

The year 1914 was marked by trench warfare; 1915 brought more change as new weapons were used, such as gas and flamethrowers.

In 1916, the war of **attrition** began. This kind of warfare meant that neither side could expect a quick victory. The war also became a '**total war**', affecting civilians as well as armies, industry and its workforce. Most aspects of daily life on the home fronts of all participants in the war were affected by the war effort.

DID YOU KNOW?

AMONG THE GERMAN ARTILLERY AT VERDUN WERE THIRTEEN 'BIG BERTHAS'.

A Big Bertha was a 420 millimetre mortar capable of firing shells weighing one tonne. Verdun was also significant because it was the first battle in which combat aircraft flew in formations.

VERDUN AND THE SOMME

The major battles of 1916 were at Verdun and the Somme. These two battles were excellent examples of attrition. Verdun was, at that time, the longest battle in history (21 February to 15 December). The Germans attacked with the major aim of killing as many French soldiers as possible. The British (with reduced French support) attacked on the Somme on 1 July to attempt a breakthrough and to ease pressure on the French at Verdun. The British suffered approximately 60 000 casualties on the first day, of whom nearly 20 000 were killed.

By the time the Battle of the Somme ground to a halt in December, the French had suffered approximately 585 000 casualties from the two battles, the British nearly 420 000 and the Germans approximately 830 000. Australia suffered over 22 000 casualties on the Somme—half of the Australian soldiers who took part in that battle.

THE AMERICANS ARE COMING!

On 7 May 1915, the passenger liner *Lusitania* was sunk by a German submarine during an unrestricted **U-boat** campaign, off the southern coast of Ireland. Over 1000 people died, of whom 128 were citizens of the United States of America. The United States, being a neutral country, sent various notes of concern to the German government but did not enter the war. Germany called off the campaign, but reintroduced it at the start of 1917. Germany had suffered a large number of casualties in 1916, there were problems facing the German home front, and the German High Seas Fleet was unable to have any impact on the war. The Germans hoped that the reintroduction of the unrestricted U-boat campaign would bring a quick conclusion to the war.

The United States, although it was already providing Britain and its allies with money and arms, had adopted an **isolationist** policy. The return to the unrestricted U-boat campaign in 1917 was seen to demonstrate a disregard for human rights and international law, and had an impact on trade. At the same time, the United States discovered a German plot to encourage Mexico to go to war against the United States. After much consideration by the US president, Woodrow Wilson, the United States declared war on Germany in April 1917. The US army grew from 107 000 at the start of 1917 to 1.3 million by August 1918.

THE THIRD BATTLE OF YPRES: 1917

The Ypres **salient** developed as the armies tried to outflank each other in the race to the sea at the end of 1914. A salient is a piece of land that extends into enemy territory so that the enemy surrounds it on three sides. The first stage of the Third Battle of Ypres in 1917 was a successful attempt by the British to break out of the salient at Messines and take part of the high ground overlooking Ypres.

The next stage was a much grander plan. British Commander-in-Chief Douglas Haig wanted to attempt another breakthrough. A complete breakthrough was not possible. The lowland drainage system was destroyed by artillery barrages, and this was followed by heavy rain. The result was that the battlefield became a field of mud and water-filled craters. A series of short offensives produced casualties totalling about 300 000 on each side, of whom about 38 000 were Australians.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE TANK WAS SUPPOSED TO BE THE WONDER WEAPON TO BREAK THE STALEMATE ON THE WESTERN FRONT.

The tank was a British secret weapon. The tanks were dispatched to the front lines, for security reasons, in containers labelled 'water tank'—which is where the name 'tank' comes from. Tanks first saw action in the Battle of the Somme. Their value in the war was, until 1918, more for **propaganda** purposes than for actual results.

YEAR OF ALLIED VICTORY: 1918

Germany had suffered huge casualties in the battles of 1916 and 1917, but by March 1918 its forces on the Western Front had been replenished. Russia had withdrawn from the war after the 1917 November revolution, signing a peace treaty at Brest-Litovsk. Consequently, German soldiers were released from the Eastern Front.

Germany knew that US troops would keep coming in larger numbers throughout 1918 and gambled on changing from a defensive position to an offensive position to gain victory before the Americans could influence the course of the war. The attack began on 21 March and made immediate breakthroughs. Ultimately it was yet another offensive that failed.

The Allies launched major offensives in the autumn of 1918. The war became one of movement again and the Germans were forced to retreat to new strong points such as Mont St Quentin. The Allies continued to inflict more casualties on the opposition than they suffered themselves.

By late 1918, morale in the German army had declined and more and more German soldiers surrendered. The German home front was also in a dire state. Ludendorff, in charge of German military strategy after 1916, recommended peace to the German government. By the first week in November, Germany was fighting alone: Austria–Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey had signed **armistice** agreements. Kaiser Wilhelm II was forced to abdicate and Germany signed its armistice agreement with the Allies on 11 November 1918. Germany had been defeated and fighting concluded on 11 November, with the German armies still on foreign soil.

SOURCE 7.3.4 Two US soldiers run past the remains of two German soldiers toward a bunker in the meuse-Argonne area in 1918.

SOURCE 7.3.3 The Ypres sector battlefield in 1917

Q
1 Describe the appearance of the landscape.
2 What difficulties would troops experience when fighting in this environment?
3 How effective would tanks be in such an environment?

SOURCE 7.3.5 The movements of the front line on the Somme in 1918

Q **Explain the movements of the front line as shown on the map.**

THE AUSTRALIANS IN THE EUROPEAN WAR

In 1915 the Australian troops went to the Somme. They were joined there by the newly arrived 1st, 2nd and 4th Divisions of the AIF. The newly arrived 5th Division took over the relatively quiet part of the front line at Fromelles on 10 July 1916. Fromelles was approximately 65 kilometres north of the Somme. It was here that the British decided to mount an attack to draw some German forces from the front at the Somme.

FROMELLES

The Battle of Fromelles was fought on 19 and 20 July 1916. It was the first time that Australians fought on the Western Front. Allied artillery fired at the German positions for only twenty-four hours. The poor planning by British officers resulted in a frontal attack met by machine gunfire. A total of 1917 Australians were killed in twelve hours. The 5th Division sustained 5533 casualties, the British Division 1547 and the Germans fewer than 1500. Many wounded Australians died in No Man's Land before they could be rescued. At the end of the Battle of Fromelles, the remaining Australian troops went to the Somme.

SOURCE 7.3.6 Men of the 53rd Battalion waiting for the attack at Fromelles. Held at the Australian War Memorial

THE SOMME—1916

At the Somme, three Australian Divisions were important in the taking of Pozières ridge and its village. The 1st, 2nd and 4th Divisions launched, between them, a total of nineteen attacks on German positions. Between 23 July and early September the Australians encountered heavy shelling and numerous counter attacks. The Australian divisions also attempted to take a major strong point, Mouquet Farm, but were unsuccessful and suffered heavy casualties.

BULLECOURT

The AIF attacked the Hindenburg Line at Bullecourt in April and May 1917. Both attempts, the first supported by tanks, resulted in significant Australian casualties. This confirmed for the Australians that they no longer wished to be led by British officers.

DID YOU KNOW?

AUSTRALIA SUFFERED MORE CASUALTIES IN 1917 THAN IN ANY OTHER YEAR OF THE WAR.

In 1917, over 21 000 Australian servicemen died.

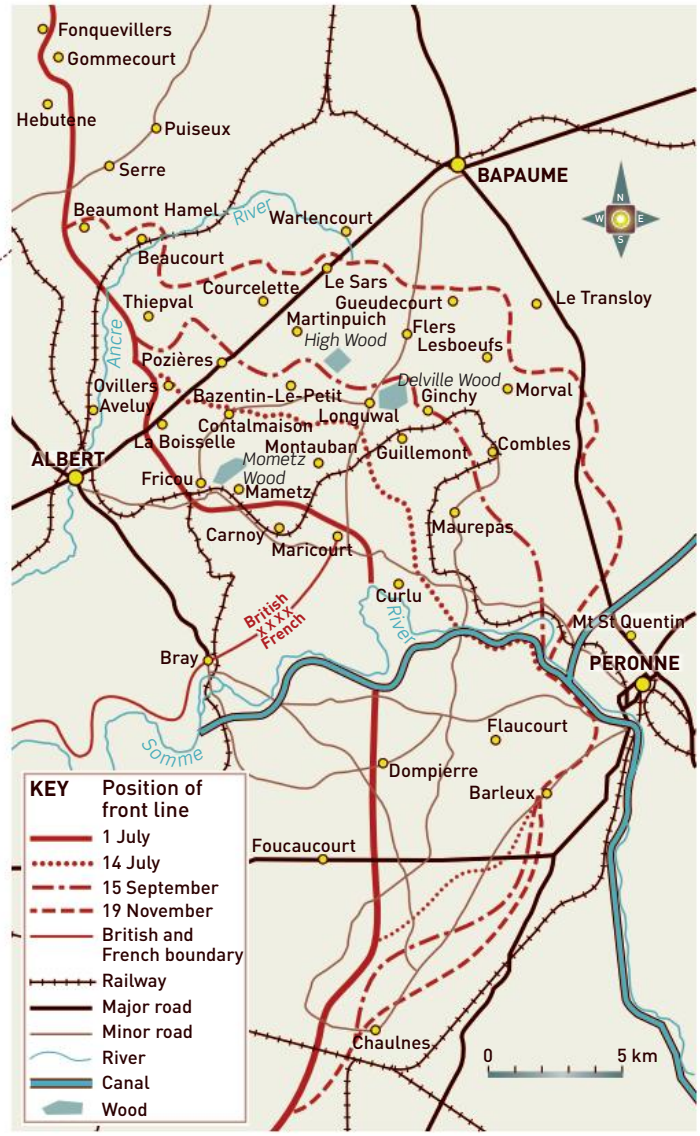
THE THIRD BATTLE OF YPRES

The Australians fought at the Third Battle of Ypres. The Australians took Broodseinde Ridge. They were also assigned to take Passchendaele, which sat on a low ridge. The Australian troops were unable to do so and Passchendaele was eventually taken by the Canadians. Today, Tyne Cot cemetery sits on the Passchendaele ridge and, as well as the remains of German pillboxes, it contains nearly 12 000 graves, 8366 of them with no names. The names of nearly 35 000 British troops who died between August 1917 and the end of the war but have no known grave are also found at Tyne Cot cemetery.

THE SOMME—1918

Australian troops were ordered to halt one thrust of the 1918 German offensive at the strategic village of Villers-Bretonneux. The Germans captured Villers-Bretonneux on 24 April. Australian and British troops counter-attacked and retook the village. In July, the Australian troops, came under the leadership of John Monash. They retook

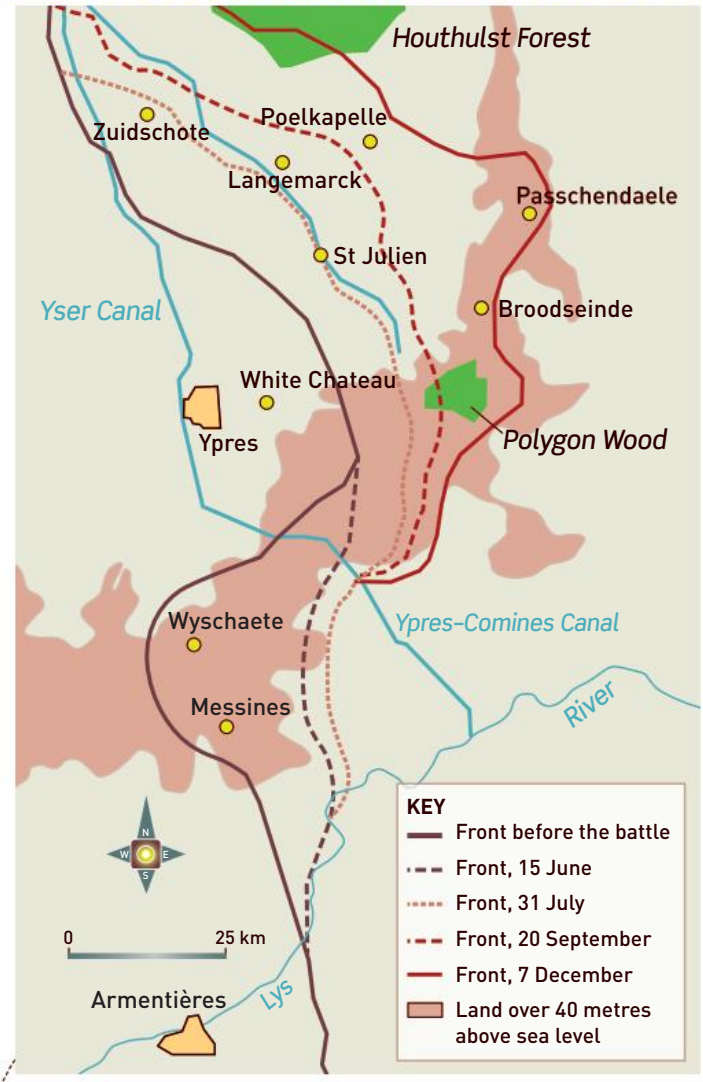
SOURCE 7.3.7 The Somme Battlefield, 1916



the nearby village of Hamel in an attack that linked infantry with artillery, tanks and aircraft. Retaking Hamel provided assistance for a general Allied attack.

Australia was part of the Allied offensives that overran the German positions on 8 August. The Australians continued their advance until the Hindenburg Line was broken on 5 October. The Australian soldiers suffered severe casualties, as they often led the attacks. After taking the village of Montbrehain on 5 October 1918, the Australian troops were taken out of the line to rest. Australian soldiers did not return to the front before the war ended.

SOURCE 7.3.8 Tyne Cot Cemetery: More Australians are buried in this war cemetery than in any other for World War I.



SOURCE 7.3.9 The Third Battle of Ypres

Q **What is the straight-line distance between the Allied front line at Ypres in June 1917 and the new Allied front line at Passchendaele in December 1917?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- armistice
- attrition
- isolationist
- propaganda
- salient
- total war
- U-boat
- Western Front

2 Reread 'The war in 1916'. Why can the Battles of the Somme and Verdun be called battles of attrition?

Understanding and analysing

3 Reread 'The Australians in the European war' and conduct any necessary research to answer the following questions.

a Why was the Battle of Fromelles fought?

b What was the result of the battle for the Australian soldiers?

c Did the Australian soldiers have a strong case for being led by their own officers? Support your answer with evidence from the text, and your research.

Understanding and creating

4 Examine Source 7.3.4.

a Describe what you can see in this photograph.

b Imagine that you are a US soldier advancing in this area. Write a 300-word account of your experiences.

Understanding, analysing and creating

5 Conduct research in the library and on the internet on Albert Jacka.

a Prepare an electronic slide presentation about Albert Jacka of at least five slides in length and containing images.

b Write a recommendation for Jacka to receive his military awards.

UNIT 4

THE GALLIPOLI CAMPAIGN

ORIGINS

Leaders of the major powers were concerned that the war could go on for a very long time. The British government, in particular, was looking for ways of overcoming the stalemate on the Western Front. One option was to use the increasing numbers of Britain's new **volunteer** army to force victory in Turkey.

Winston Churchill, the First Lord of the Admiralty, pursued the idea of a new '**theatre of war**'. He eventually settled on a plan, supported by the British War Cabinet, to send a naval force to enter the Dardanelles and sail through to Constantinople. The hope was that this would cause Turkey to surrender, as well as providing access for the Russians to the Mediterranean Sea. This plan would also threaten Germany by forming a new front in its south. The fleet began to bombard the Turkish guns protecting the Dardanelles on 19 February 1915. By this date, the plan had been expanded to include an invasion by Allied troops on the Gallipoli peninsula, if required. This decision was made in case the fleet was unsuccessful in destroying the Turkish forts—which is what happened.

THE AUSTRALIAN IMPERIAL FORCE

The Australian Imperial Force (AIF) gathered in King George's Sound near Albany, Western Australia, to form a **convoy** for their transport to the war. The thirty-eight transports and four escorting cruisers left during the night of 1 November 1914. The convoy, which included ships carrying New Zealand soldiers, did not reach Alexandria, Egypt, until 3 December 1914. Along the way, the Australian cruiser *Sydney* left the convoy to destroy the German raider *Emden* in the Cocos Islands.

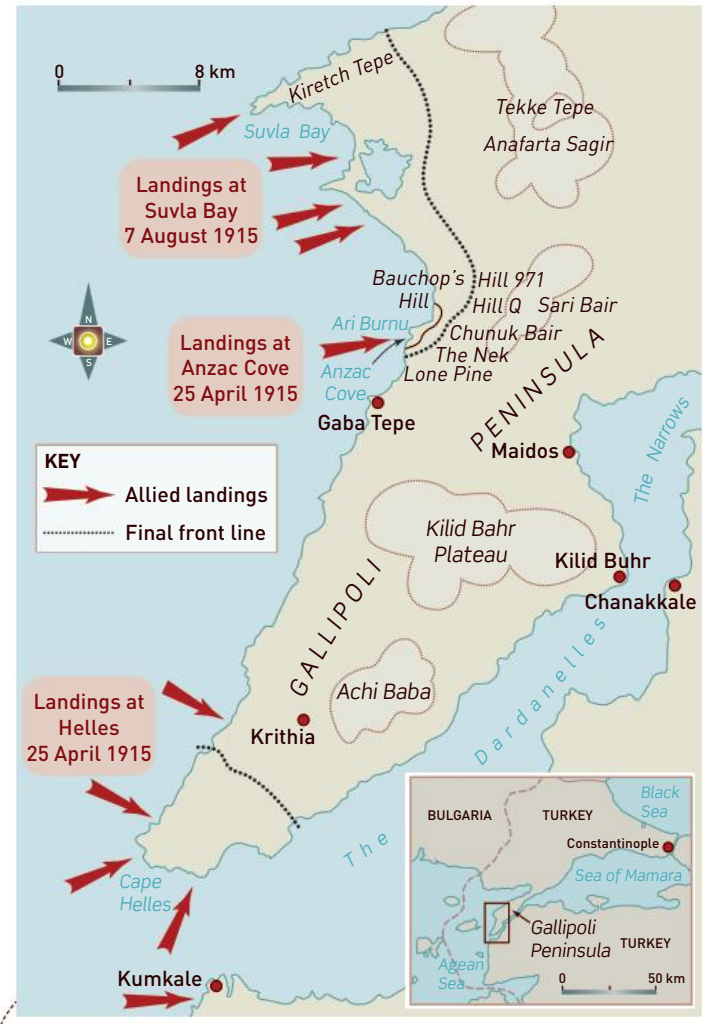
TRAINING IN CAIRO

The convoy was originally to go straight to England, where troops would be trained prior to being sent to the Western Front. This did not happen because the Australians could only be housed in tents over the English winter. The British Secretary of State for War, Lord Kitchener, agreed that the troops could go to camp in Cairo, Egypt.

The Australian and New Zealand troops undertook training in Cairo, still believing they would go on to Europe. The failure of the Allied fleet to take the Dardanelles meant that an invasion force had to be assembled. The Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC) became part of the Mediterranean Expeditionary Force, a force that was formed in haste and badly supplied. It consisted largely of inexperienced troops. It was led by Sir Ian Hamilton who lacked strong leadership skills. The British and French forces were to land at Cape Helles, and the Anzacs north of Gaba Tepe. The two forces were to advance to the north and east respectively and seize the high ground overlooking the Dardanelles and the forts.

SOURCE 7.4.1 Australian troops at the Mena training camp, Egypt, Christmas 1914. The great pyramid of Cheops can be seen on the right.

Q **What does this photograph tell you about camp life in Egypt?**



SOURCE 7.4.2 Allied landings on the Gallipoli peninsula

Q **Use the internet to find a map that shows the Gallipoli peninsula and surrounding countries. How far is it from Anzac Cove to Alexandria in Egypt and Constantinople in Turkey?**

DID YOU KNOW?

THE FIRST AUSTRALIAN TO WIN A VICTORIA CROSS IN WORLD WAR I WAS ALBERT JACKA.

He landed at Gallipoli on 26 April 1915. On 19 May he retook an Australian trench by leaping into the trench and killing most of the Turks who were there. Jacka became an instant national hero.

> *25 April 1915: Left [Lemnos] at 6.20 am. Firing heard. In sight of land and ships at 12 pm. Won't be long before we get a go now. The warships big guns were in use and the roar was like a thunderstorm. Violent bombardment at 5.30 pm. Several shells fell close to our bows and one came right over. Big guns stopped firing at dusk, tho' there was plenty of rifle fire during the night. We are still abroad and the boys are just itching to get ashore. The infantry attack in the morning, the sailors tell us, was magnificent.*

SOURCE 7.4.3 From the diary of Gunner Brian Lyall, who died of wounds on Gallipoli on 1 December 1915. Quoted in *Letters from an Anzac Gunner*, edited by K. M. Lyall, 1990

Q
1 **Rewrite the diary entry of Brian Lyall in your own words.**
2 **What is his opinion of the Anzac troops who landed on 25 April and how does he come to form this opinion?**

SOURCE 7.4.4 Anzac Cove in February, 1919. Held at the Australian War Memorial. The material on the beach includes barbed wire and water cans.

Q **Why would it have been difficult for an invasion force to land on this beach in 1915?**

GALLIPOLI LANDINGS

The Anzacs were expected to take the heights of the Sari Bair Range, before moving on to their main objective, Mal Tepe, approximately eight kilometres inland. None of this was achieved in their eight months on the peninsula. On 25 April, from approximately 4.30 a.m., members of the 3rd Australian Brigade landed at Gallipoli near Ari Burnu point. The troops continued to land throughout the day. The Anzacs fought to hold a triangular piece of land against the Turkish soldiers. Within 24 hours, almost 1700 casualties were evacuated from the place now known as Anzac Cove.

Williams discusses in detail the bombardment of the Anzac position [on 25 April] by the Ottoman artillery. He confirms that more Ottoman artillery pieces were involved, around 44, not the figure of 24 usually accepted, and that ammunition expenditure, compared to the duration of the bombardment and the length of front, was of similar intensity as during attacks on the Western Front at around the same period. Williams exposes starkly the partial collapse of morale in the Anzac under this bombardment, suggesting that as many as 2000 men might have 'straggled' from the firing line back to the beach and nearby gullies.

SOURCE 7.4.5 From a review by John Donovan of *The Battle of Anzac Ridge*, by Peter Williams, 2007

Q
1. Do you believe this to be a reliable source? Why?
2. What comments does Williams make in his book about the Anzac troops?
3. Do these comments match those of Brian Lyall? Why may this be so?

THE AUGUST OFFENSIVES

Initially, the Gallipoli campaign was not expected to develop into trench warfare. As the campaign progressed, and the landings resulted in a stalemate, trench warfare became the norm. The Turks held the high ground and resisted any attacks on their positions. The Anzacs consolidated their positions, thus preventing any attempts by the Turkish troops to push the Anzac forces back down to Anzac Cove. Summer in the Gallipoli trenches was a difficult time. Hot weather and flies produced diseases such as fever and dysentery. By August, one in five Australian soldiers was either sick or wounded.

SARI BAIR

The British command planned a major offensive for August. The major aim of this offensive was to break out of the small area in which the Anzac forces had been contained since the April landings. Another aim was to take the high ground, the Sari Bair Range, in the centre of the peninsula. This area had been one of the objectives set for the first day of the landing back on 25 April.

The objectives for the August offensive were Chunuk Bair and Hill 971, high points on the Sari Bair Range. A number of attacks were planned to divert Turkish forces from the defence of the real objectives. The diversionary attacks were to occur at Helles, Lone Pine, The Nek, Quinn's Post, Pope's Hill and German Officer's Trench.

LONE PINE AND THE NEK

On 6 August 1915, Australian troops attacked the Turkish troops at Lone Pine. Initially, the front-line trenches were quickly taken, but the Turkish soldiers were reluctant to allow the Australian soldiers to maintain their newly won position. The fighting that took place has been described as some of the worst of World War I. The Australian and Turkish troops fought for three days, often in hand-to-hand combat. There were approximately 2000 Australian casualties and three times that number of Turkish casualties in the battle at Lone Pine.

The Australian force that attacked the Turkish troops at The Nek on 7 August 1915 comprised two regiments of the Australian 3rd Light Horse Brigade. The attack began at 4.30 a.m. and was planned as a series of rolling attacks by the Brigade. When the first charge headed towards the enemy trenches the Australians were confronted by relentless rifle and machine gun fire. The same fate met the second and third wave of troops. Colonel Noel Brazier attempted to call off the fourth charge. This message did not clearly come through to the troops and the fourth wave of troops suffered the same fate as the first three.

CHUNUK BAIR

The task of taking Chunuk Bair was given to the British and New Zealand troops. Just as the battles at Lone Pine and The Nek are important events in the development of the Australian Anzac legend, the battle of Chunuk Bair is important to the development of the New Zealand Anzac legend.

The troops left on 6 August, with New Zealand rifle and Maori soldiers leading the way. The first major problem occurred when the troops failed to meet up on 7 August—the British and Indian troops became lost in the dark. The troops who were present attacked and reached within 200 metres of the summit of Chunuk Bair, suffering heavy casualties. When the New Zealand troops were ordered to follow, their commander, Lieutenant-Colonel William Malone, refused. He argued for the attack to take place at night. On 8 August, the troops, accompanied by some of the British troops, made it to the top, but the summit was abandoned. The Turkish troops had taken up a position at a higher point and they opened fire on the New Zealand and British soldiers. Less than one-tenth of the 760-strong troop survived. The remaining troops maintained their position for two days until they were relieved by the British. On 10 August, the Turkish forces attacked Chunuk Bair and the British soldiers were killed.

HILL 971 AND HILL Q

The Australian Fourth Brigade under John Monash left Anzac Cove to attack Hill 971 on the night of 6 August. The attack was planned to begin at the same time as the attack on Chunuk Bair, in the early morning of 7 August. The difficult march at night resulted in the Australians becoming lost. Indeed, they were unable to assault their objective over the next three days. On the night of 8 August Turkish gunfire caused 600 casualties in the Fourth Brigade in a few minutes.

The Indian Brigade had the task of occupying Hill Q, which lies between Chunuk Bair and Hill 971. This brigade became so lost in its night march that some of its troops ended up with the Australians and some with the New Zealanders. One small group of Indian soldiers was able to reach the top of Hill Q but was quickly pushed off by artillery fire from both Turkish and Allied guns.

THE RESULT

Little ground was gained in all the August offensives, which began on 6 August and ended on 27 August. The planning for the breakout provided the Anzac troops with impossible tasks. Many of the troops had been fighting on the peninsula since April. They were tired and many were sick, but they were expected to march long distances at night, over unknown country, to reach objectives in too short a period of time.

SOURCE 7.4.6 The bodies of Australian soldiers at Southern Trench, Lone Pine on 8 August 1915. Held at the Australian War Memorial

SOURCE 7.4.7 An Australian officer saying goodbye to a dead comrade shortly before the evacuation. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q
1 What evidence is present in the photograph to indicate that a battle has occurred here?
2 How would you feel if you came upon this scene on this day?

Q
Imagine that you are the officer in the photograph. What would be your feelings at a time like this?

A COMPLETE FAILURE

The British Cabinet decided to abandon the campaign on 7 December 1915. The most successful part of the entire campaign was the evacuation. The Turks knew nothing of the troops' departure and not one soldier was killed by enemy fire.

The campaign was a complete failure. Nothing was gained from both the naval attacks and the landings. The total number of casualties, battle and non-battle, was approximately 390 000. The Australian battle casualties totalled 25 725, of which 8709 were deaths. Australia had fought as a country for the first time, but the effect of the campaign went deeper: the Anzac spirit was born.

SOURCE 7.4.8 From 'War Is Helles', by Peter Hart, *Wartime* magazine, no. 38, 2007

Anzac: the one word guaranteed to generate a sentimental buzz right across Australia. It still generates enormous uncritical attention in the popular media; but little attention is paid to the serious analysis of the Anzac performance being carried out by dedicated Australian military historians. A peculiar [one-eyed] view prevails, one that [includes] only the fighting at Anzac. Everything else at Gallipoli is dismissed as irrelevant, boring or ... incompetent. That straitjacket [makes impossible] any real understanding of what was going on. Above all, the Anzac myths that originated during and since the war are widely accepted as gospel truth ...

It is important to stress that, at both Anzac and Helles, it is not a matter of doubting the courage of individual soldiers; rather it is more a matter of accepting [a British] military incompetence lethally combined with inexperienced troops who had no exposure to modern warfare.

Q **What does Hart say about the performance of Australian troops at Gallipoli?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- convoy
- theatre of war
- volunteer

2 Reread 'Origins'.

a Who was the First Lord of the Admiralty in Britain in 1914?

b How was the Dardanelles campaign intended to solve the stalemate on the Western Front?

c Why did the Anzacs continue their training in Egypt rather than in England?

Remembering, understanding and analysing

3 Examine Sources 7.4.3, 7.4.4 and 7.4.5.

a What do these sources tell you of the difficulties confronting the Anzac landing and movement towards their objective?

b Conduct research in the library or on the internet to determine other reasons why the campaign experienced difficulties at both Cape Helles and Anzac Cove.

Understanding

4 Reread Source 7.4.8.

a Work in a group of four students to write a fifty-word summary of Hart's extract in your own words.

b Read your summary to the rest of the class. Do the summaries of other groups match your own?

c Make amendments to your own summary, if necessary.

Understanding, evaluating and creating

5 Reread this unit, closely re-examining all sources. Support this information with your own additional research. Work in groups of four students to complete the following activities and provide evidence for all conclusions.

a What were the aims of the Gallipoli campaign, for both sea and land forces?

b Outline, and account for, the results of the campaign.

c Produce a newspaper article for an Australian newspaper in 2012 in which you evaluate Australia's contribution to the total campaign, taking into account the roles played by Australia's allies.

OTHER THEATRES OF WAR

AUSTRALIANS IN NEW GUINEA, 1914–21

Able Seaman Billy Williams was the first Australian casualty of World War I on 11 September 1914, on the island of what is now called New Britain off the coast of New Guinea. North-east New Guinea and its islands to the south-east had been a German colony since 1884. A wireless station there was important for the Germans patrolling the South Pacific. A volunteer force, the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force, was sent to destroy the wireless station. Six Australians were killed during the fight for the territory and it was occupied by Australian servicemen until 1921.

SOURCE 7.5.1 *Landing at Kabakaul*, by official war artist Charles Bryant, 1925, depicting the landing on New Britain in September 1914. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q **Use an outline map of Australia and New Guinea to show the locations of New Britain island, Port Moresby, Bismarck Sea and Kabakaul.**

AUSTRALIANS IN THE MIDDLE EAST, 1915–18

The campaign in the Sinai and Palestine, like New Guinea, did not result in the defeat of Germany. It deserves recognition because it was the major British **offensive**, after Gallipoli, that did not occur on the Western Front. It was fought in an environment where the climate was dry, temperature ranges were great and vegetation scarce or non-existent. The settlements were scattered and, in this environment, the use of cavalry and camels became important.

A Turkish force unsuccessfully attacked the Suez Canal in 1915. It was not until August 1916 that the British Empire's Egyptian Expeditionary Force advanced to the east. The Turks did not collapse but withdrew to various fortified positions. These positions had to be taken on the way to, and in, Palestine.

By December 1917, the British forces had captured Jerusalem. It was not until October 1918 that the Australian Light Horse entered Damascus, and they were the first of the Allied forces to do so. This honour was supposed to go to the Arab tribes led by T. E. Lawrence (also known as Lawrence of Arabia).

SOURCE 7.5.2 Machine gunners from the 3rd Light Horse Regiment in action in Palestine at the end of 1917. Held at the Australian War Memorial

OTHER THEATRES OF WAR, 1914–18

German colonies in the Pacific Ocean were quickly conquered by Japan, New Zealand and Australia. German wireless stations were also destroyed in Africa. Togoland, (now Togo) also fell quickly. Kamerun (Cameroon), German South-West Africa (Namibia) and German East Africa (Rwanda, Burundi and Tanganyika) took much longer. The Germans had to fight individual or combined forces from Britain, France, Belgium, Portugal and South Africa. Other fighting occurred in parts of Europe, such as Serbia, Salonika and Rumania.

Italy officially sided with the Allies in May 1915 and attacked Austria–Hungary. Italy's main aims were to gain territory from Austria–Hungary on the Italian northern border and to build a defensive buffer along the eastern edge of the Adriatic Sea. Only at the very end of the war did the Italians break through in the often mountainous terrain, even though they generally outnumbered the defenders. The Austro–Hungarians had the advantage of good defences on the higher ground.

Russia had a number of great victories in their west, primarily against the Austrians. Major defeats by the German armies, and discontent among Russian people, contributed to the March revolution in 1917, in which Tsar Nicholas II was **deposed**. After the subsequent November revolution of 1917, Russia pulled out of the war, and signed a peace treaty with Germany, Austria–Hungary and Turkey at Brest-Litovsk in early 1918.

SOURCE 7.5.3 Italian troops leaving their trench in the snow to attack the Austro–Hungarians on the Italian Front

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the term below.
- deposed
- offensive

2 Study 'Australians in New Guinea, 1914–21' and examine Source 7.5.1.
- a Who was the first Australian casualty of World War I and on which island was he wounded?
- b Why did the Australian force land on this island?
- c Describe what is depicted in Source 7.5.1.

3 Study 'Other theatres of war, 1914–18' and examine Source 7.5.3.
- a Why did Italy attack Austria–Hungary in 1915 and why was there so little success until late 1918?
- b What problems would the armies have faced when fighting on the Italian Front?

Remembering, understanding and analysing

4 Study 'Australians in the Middle East 1915–18' and Source 7.5.2.
- a Describe the physical conditions of the Middle East.
- b Research the internet to find photographs of Australian soldiers in combat on the Western Front. How is their dress different from the soldiers in Source 7.5.2? Why might this be so?

Understanding and applying

5 Undertake research using an atlas or on the internet to locate the places mentioned in this unit. Mark these locations on blank world maps.

Analysing and evaluating

6 Examine each of the sources in this unit. Do you believe that they are reliable sources? Give reasons for your decision.

Evaluating and creating

7 Conduct research on Lawrence of Arabia.
- a What role did T. E. Lawrence play when with the Arab tribes? Ensure that you investigate their arrival at Damascus.
- b Evaluate Lawrence's importance to British victory in the Middle East in 100–300 words.

THE EXPERIENCE OF ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE DURING WORLD WAR I

FIGHTING FOR COUNTRY

When war was declared in August 1914, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men were barred from enlisting. The *Defence Act 1903* had provided for a compulsory military training scheme that did not include Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men. This, together with a constitution that gave the federal government responsibility for defence but not for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, effectively meant that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People could not enlist. This lasted until 1917, when the need for more soldiers led to a revision of the Defence Act.

> *Half-castes may be enlisted in the Australian Imperial Force provided that the examining Medical Officers are satisfied that one of the parents is of European origin.*

SOURCE 7.6.1 From *Too Dark for the Light Horse* (Resource Book), Australian War Memorial

About 400 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men served in World War I, some from the very earliest days, although the exact number will never be known. This is partly because the army did not record the race of enlistees, but also because Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People often claimed to be Indian, Italian or Maori. There were no segregated units.

Reasons for enlisting included seeking adventure, travel, regular pay and a chance to be considered equal to other Australians. Many distinguished themselves on foreign battlefields and many died.

NEW SOUTH WALES

It was not unusual for several members of a family to enlist. One such family was the Knight family from Toorale station near Louth in north-western New South Wales. Three brothers—Bill, Albert and Joe—enlisted and were sent overseas to fight for Australia.

Bill joined in 1914, transferring to the 43rd **Battalion** in 1916. On 4 October 1917, he won the Military Medal and lost an arm at Broodseinde. He returned home in 1918.

Albert joined in 1916 and was sent to the 13th Battalion near Ypres, Belgium. He was wounded in fierce fighting on 11 April 1917. He rejoined his battalion and was transferred to the 43rd Battalion in September. After outstanding service in the Passchendaele fighting he was promoted to lance corporal. On the Somme in May 1918, Albert put his foot on a bomb, which exploded, and he spent another two months convalescing before returning to the front in July. He was promoted to temporary corporal in August, and on 30 September took part in the attack on Bony in northern France. In broad daylight, Albert Knight and a mate advanced over 183 metres in the open under heavy fire, located enemy weapons, and destroyed them. Albert won a Distinguished Conduct Medal. In July 1919, he returned to Australia.

The third brother, Joe, died of illness on 16 February 1917, a month after reaching England as a 13th Battalion reinforcement.

Like many other Aboriginal soldiers who returned home after World War I, the Knight brothers hoped to regain some of their own land under the 1917 Returned Servicemen's Settlement Scheme. However, of the estimated 154 Aboriginal men from New South Wales who had fought overseas, only one was successful in obtaining land under this scheme. Returning Aboriginal servicemen also often came home to find that their families had been torn apart. In 1915, amended legislation gave the Aboriginal Protection Board the power to remove Aboriginal children from their families.

VICTORIA

On 9 August 1918, in France, Reginald Rawlings and Henry Thorpe from Victoria, were killed in action. Reginald Rawlings had been born at Framlingham Mission in 1890. In July 1918, with just three months of the war left to fight, the allied commanders planned a final breakthrough. The remaining five Australian divisions were all thrown into the battle. Rawlings was part of an Australian team whose role was to attack the German trenches with bombs or hand grenades. On the night of 28 July, he led his team into the German trenches, defeating the enemy and establishing a block in the trench. That night he won the Military Medal.

> *At MORLANCOURT on night 28/29 July 1918, during the attack on enemy system this soldier had the responsible position of first bayonet man in a bombing team which worked down the enemy C.T., routed the enemy and established a block in the trenches. Pte Rawlings displayed rare bravery in the performance of his duty killing many of the enemy, brushing aside all opposition and cleared the way effectively for the bombers of his team. His irresistible dash and courage set a wonderful example to the remainder of the team.*

SOURCE 7.6.2 Reg Rawlings's citation for the award of the Military Medal. From *Forgotten Heroes: Aborigines at War from the Somme to Vietnam*, by Alick Jacomos and Derek Fowell, 1993

Henry Thorpe was born in Orbost in 1887 and volunteered for service in February 1916. In August 1916, in the trenches in France, he was wounded for the first time. In 1917, shortly after being appointed lance corporal, he was wounded for the second time. In October 1917, Thorpe's platoon was given the job of mopping up enemy pill boxes and dugouts. On 5 October he was promoted to corporal. He was awarded the Military Medal.

> *Near Ypres on 4/5 October 1917 L/Cpl THORPE displayed great courage and initiative in mopping up enemy dugouts and pill boxes. In the capture of Battalion Objective he was conspicuous for his courage and leadership, handling his men with skill and materially assisting his Company Commander. By his splendid example and disregard of all danger he inspired those under him.*

SOURCE 7.6.3 Henry Thorpe's citation for the award of the Military Medal. From *Forgotten Heroes: Aborigines at War from the Somme to Vietnam*, by Alick Jacomos and Derek Fowell, 1993

On the same day that Rawlings was killed, Henry Thorpe was shot in the stomach. He was taken by a stretcher bearer to an aid station but died shortly after.

In the Lovett family from Lake Condah in Victoria, five sons served overseas in World War I. Alfred, Leonard, Edward, Frederick and Herbert saw action in France, Gallipoli and Palestine. All five brothers returned to Victoria. Four of them were to enlist and fight again in World War II. Yet in 1918, just as these soldiers were returning home, the mission on which they had lived was closed and the families were forced to move from their home.

SOURCE 7.6.4 Private William Reginald Rawlings, who was killed in action on 9 August 1918, during the capture of Vauvillers, France. He is buried in the Heath Cemetery, Harbonnières, France. This studio portrait, taken c. 1916, is held at the Australian War Memorial.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

In January 1915, Captain J. L. Hardie of the Fourth Military District advised that 'Aborigines' of Point McLeay and Point Pearce who wished to enlist for service with the Expeditionary Forces would be accepted. Herbert Milera, Eric Angie and Tom Adams Jun. of Point Pearce, and Roland W. Carter, Jack Houley and James Kartinyeri of Point McLeay volunteered, and Thomas Bonney wished to join the Navy.

However, on 11 February, Captain Hardie wrote to the Chief 'Protector of Aboriginals', regretting that applicants could not be accepted 'as explained to you by phone'. A pencil note by W. G. South reveals the reason: 'White men object to share a tent with Blacks'.

SOURCE 7.6.5 Even after their applications for service with the Expeditionary Forces had been refused, as outlined in this extract, Herbert Milera and Roland Carter served, and Carter spent time as a prisoner of war. To enlist they simply went to another enlistment station and did not identify as an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander Person. From *Survival in Our Own Land: 'Aboriginal' Experiences in 'South Australia' since 1836*, edited by Christobel Mattingley and Ken Hampton, 1988

Q How do you think you would feel if you volunteered to fight for your country but were rejected because someone objected to being close to you?

Roland Wenzel Carter enlisted on 18 July 1915. He embarked for Egypt in September and later joined the 50th Battalion in France. In August 1916, he was wounded in action but after a week in hospital returned to his battalion. He was wounded a second time in April 1917 and taken prisoner by the Germans. After three months in hospital he was taken to a prisoner-of-war camp at Zerbst. He was later transferred to other camps.

Carter returned to Australia in April 1919. He continued to suffer pain and discomfort in his wounded shoulder throughout the rest of his life. However, he was assessed as having no war-related disabilities and was not deemed eligible for an invalid pension.

This leaves me in fairly good health. I am getting good treatment here. Last Friday I went to the town to see the moving pictures. All the Native prisoners of war went. We have church here every other Sunday.

SOURCE 7.6.6 An extract from a letter Roland Carter wrote to his family in January 1918. His treatment in the camp may have been better than he received in his home country. From *Ngarrindjeri Anzacs*, by Doreen Kartinyeri, 1996

Cyril Spurgeon Rigney enlisted in April 1916, three months after he was married. In November 1916, he joined the 43rd Battalion and went to France. His daughter, Aileen Martha, was born in December. Cyril was killed in action in France in July 1917 and was posthumously awarded the British War Medal and the Victory Medal. He never met his daughter, although his sister had sent him a photograph of her. Rigney's widow remarried and his daughter was later placed in the care of her great-aunt and great-uncle. She was awarded a pension, which was placed in a trust fund.

Whenever she [Cyril Rigney's daughter, Aileen] wanted to buy clothing, she had to order from a department store catalogue and her goods would be sent to her by mail. If she wanted cash, she had to apply to the Repatriation Department. It appears that she was the only child of a soldier killed in action who had to do this.

SOURCE 7.6.7 From *Ngarrindjeri Anzacs*, by Doreen Kartinyeri, 1996

When she turned 21, Aileen Rigney requested that the balance of the pension be transferred to a bank account. The Deputy Commissioner of Repatriation refused her request, but a compromise was reached, and the monthly payments were doubled.

Mr McLean, the Protector of Aboriginals, is of the opinion that it would be a mistake to hand over a large sum of money to any of these people and on the other hand, the girl herself says that she is getting no benefit by receiving it in small amounts as at the present time.

SOURCE 7.6.8 From *Ngarrindjeri Anzacs*, by Doreen Kartinyeri, 1996

Q Why might the Protector have thought it was a mistake to give Aileen Rigney the money? How would we judge this decision today?

Rigney's brother Rufus was also killed in France. His cousin Gordon was gassed at Villers-Bretonneux and received shrapnel wounds in both knees. When he later lodged a claim for expenses of health problems that he believed were as a result of his war service, his application was rejected.

TASMANIA

As Aboriginal People from Tasmania were thought to be extinct, it is even more difficult to estimate how many enlisted. Historian David Huggonson has uncovered the names of several Aboriginal men from Cape Barren and Flinders Islands who were among the first to enlist. Many were from the Maynard and Mansell families, but there were others, such as Oscar Vince from Longley, who enlisted in 1916.

SOURCE 7.6.9

Oscar Vince's enlistment papers. Held at the National Archives of Australia, Canberra

T 1042

A 60815

CLAREMO...
FEB 27 1916
CAMPAIGN

AUSTRALIAN MILITARY FORCES

AUSTRALIAN IMPERIAL FORCE.

Attestation Paper of Persons Enlisted for Service Abroad.

No. 526 / 726

Name VINCE Oscar Henry

Unit 40th BATTALION, A.I.F.

Joined on 25. 2 16

Questions to be put to the Person Enlisting before Attestation.

1. What is your Name? ... ... — 1. Oscar Henry Vince
2. In or near what Parish or Town were you born? ... — 2. In the Parish of ... in or near the Town of Longley in the County of Tasmania
3. Are you a natural born British Subject or a Naturalized British Subject? (N.B.—If the latter, papers to be shown.) ... ... — 3. Natural Born
4. What is your age? ... ... — 4. 20 Yrs 6 Months Years.
5. What is your trade or calling? ... ... — 5. Farmer Labourer
6. Are you, or have you been, an Apprentice? If so, where, to whom, and for what period? ... ... — 6. no
7. Are you married? ... ... — 7. no
8. Who is your next of kin? (Address to be stated) ... — 8. (Father) Vince. Henry Morris LOWER LONGLEY TASMANIA
9. Have you ever been convicted by the Civil Power? ... — 9. no
10. Have you ever been discharged from any part of His Majesty's Forces, with Ignominy, or as Incorrigible and Worthless, or on account of Conviction of Felony, or of a Sentence of Penal Servitude, or have you been dismissed with Disgrace from the Navy? ... ... — 10. no
11. Do you now belong to, or have you ever served in, His Majesty's Army, the Marines, the Militia, the Militia Reserve, the Territorial Force, Royal Navy, or Colonial Forces? If so, state which, and if not now serving, state cause of discharge ... ... — 11. no
12. Have you stated the whole, if any, of your previous service? — 12. no
13. Have you ever been rejected as unfit for His Majesty's Service? If so, on what grounds? ... ... — 13. no
14. (*For married men, widowers with children, and soldiers who are the sole support of widowed mother*)—Do you understand that no separation allowance will be issued in respect of your service beyond an amount which together with pay would reach eight shillings per day? — 14. ~~no~~
15. Are you prepared to undergo inoculation against small pox and enteric fever? ... ... — 15. Yes.

I, Oscar Henry Vince do solemnly declare that the above answers made by me to the above questions are true, and I am willing and hereby voluntarily agree to serve in the Military Forces of the Commonwealth of Australia within or beyond the limits of the Commonwealth.

And I further agree to allot not less than ~~two-fifths~~ three-fifths of the pay payable to me from time to time during my service for the support of my wife and children.

Date 11th February 16. Oscar Vince + Oscar Vince / Oscar Vince + Oscar Vince

Signature of person enlisted.

*This clause should be struck out in the case of unmarried men or widowers without children under 16 years of age.
†Two-fifths must be allotted to the wife, and if there are children three-fifths must be allotted.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

In Western Australia, as in other parts of the country, whole families of young Aboriginal men enlisted. In December 1914, Private Lewis Farmer enlisted. He was 19 years old. During 1915, in March, November and December, his brothers Larry, Kenneth and Augustus Pegg also enlisted. Larry and Lewis sailed for Egypt in June 1915. Kenneth, who was just 18, sailed in February 1916, and the eldest brother, Augustus, embarked on 1 April 1916.

In mid-1916, both Kenneth and Lewis returned to Australia, having been wounded in action. Larry survived the Gallipoli campaign and was sent to France. He died in action at the age of 22. Kenneth re-enlisted and set sail for Europe once again in December 1916.

Augustus Pegg Farmer took part in historic battles at Bullecourt, Lagincourt and Ypres. In August 1918, he was killed at the battle of Merricourt. He was later awarded the Military Medal.

On 11 November 1918, World War I ended and the youngest brother, Kenneth, returned to Australia.

SOURCE 7.6.10 Oscar Vince in World War I AIF uniform. Held at the State Library of Tasmania

Q **Not much is known about Oscar Vince. If you were a historian, how would you use the evidence in Sources 7.6.9 and 7.6.10 to find out more about him?**

QUEENSLAND

Records suggest that over 150 Aboriginal men from Queensland enlisted. Of these eighteen were killed in action, twenty-two were wounded and five were gassed. One of those killed was Private Charles Martyn. His section leader, Corporal Jim Montgomery, came from the same country town in Queensland as Martyn—Goombungee. Corporal Montgomery wrote to Martyn's mother shortly after his death. He also saw to it that Martyn was given a decent burial and ensured that his personal effects were sent home to the correct address. Montgomery was killed the following year.

> *When the tiny town of Goombungee on the Darling Downs unveiled its memorial to the war dead of the district there were the usual ritual proceedings, with prayers, hymns, and a bugler who played the Last Post. When the names of all the fallen soldiers were read out, many people became emotional. At the back of the crowd stood a solitary dark woman. Her son [Charles Martyn] had also been killed and she stood weeping throughout the whole ceremony. However, not one person sought to comfort her or bring her forward into the throng. She was, according to Eileen Parlour, who witnessed the proceedings as a child,* ***ostracised****.*

SOURCE 7.6.11 This story is related by historian David Huggonson in *Too Dark for the Light Horse* (Memorial Box), Australian War Memorial.

Another Queensland soldier, Douglas Grant, evoked great curiosity among scientists and anthropologists when he was a prisoner of war in a camp outside Berlin. When he was about 12 months old his parents had been killed, possibly in a punitive expedition by Native police. Scotsman Robert Grant was on a collecting expedition for the Australian Museum at the time, and rescued the infant child. He later adopted Grant and brought him up with his own son. Douglas Grant received a good education and spoke English with a strong Scottish burr.

In the prisoner-of-war camp he was regarded as a prize captive and given comparative freedom. When Grant returned to Australia, he failed to gain the same acceptance that he had known as a prisoner of war. He became disillusioned and unhappy, and died a broken and rejected man.

> *Like his fellow prisoners ... we quickly learned that he was a man of superior intellect. He was a gentleman, and very honest, and he was appointed by the prisoners themselves to be in charge of the receipt of all the Red Cross parcels which made their drab life tolerable.*

SOURCE 7.6.12 A German scientist, who later visited Australia, recalled Douglas Grant from a prisoner-of-war camp. From 'Aborigines in the First AIF', by Lieutenant C. D. Clark, *Australian Army Journal*, 1973

RETURNING HOME

Despite the fact that they received almost no public acknowledgement, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers gave valuable service in World War I. While serving in the Australian Imperial Force, many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men experienced, for the first time, freedom from the negative and racist stereotypes held by the majority of citizens.

When Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers returned from the war and took off their uniforms and medals, they found nothing had changed. They were still not recognised as citizens of Australia.

> *... I am father of a soldier who gave his life for his King on the battlefield and thousands of coloured men enlisted in the A.I.F. They will doubtless do so again though on their return last time, that is those who survived, they were pushed back to the bush to resume the status of aboriginals ... the aboriginal now has no status, no rights, no land and ... nothing to fight for but the privilege of defending the land which was taken from him by the white race without compensation or even kindness.*

SOURCE 7.6.13

From a letter by activist William Cooper to the federal Minister of the Interior just before the outbreak of World War II. From *Forgotten Heroes: Aborigines at War from the Somme to Vietnam*, by Alick Jacomos and Derek Fowell, 1993

SOURCE 7.6.14

By Cecil Fisher, an Aboriginal Australian who served in Korea. From *Too Dark for the Light Horse* (Resource Book), Australian War Memorial

Black Anzac

They have forgotten him, need him no more
He who fought for his land in nearly every war
Tribal fights before his country was taken by Captain Cook
Then went overseas to fight at Gallipoli and Tobruk

World War One two black Anzacs were there
France, Europe's desert, New Guinea's jungles, did his share
Korea, Malaya, Vietnam again black soldier enlisted
Fight for democracy was his duty he insisted

Back home went his own way not looking for praise
Like when he was a warrior in the forgotten days
Down on the Gold Coast a monument in the Bora Ring
Recognition at last his praises they are starting to sing

This black soldier who never marches on Anzac Day
Living in his Gunya doesn't have much to say
Thinks of his friends who fought some returned some died
If only one day they could march together side by side

His medals he keeps hidden away from prying eyes
No-one knows, no-one sees the tears in his old black eyes
He's been outcast just left by himself to die
Recognition at last black Anzac hold your head high

Every year at Gold Coast's Yegumbah Bora Ring site
Black Anzac in uniform and medals a magnificent sight
The rock with Aboriginal tribal totems paintings inset
The Kombumerri people's inscription of LEST WE FORGET

Q **Does the first line of this poem accurately reflect the experience of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers once their war service was over?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms below.
   - battalion
   - ostracised
2. From what family in Victoria did five sons serve overseas in World War I?

Understanding and evaluating

3. Why do you think Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers returning home may have felt discriminated against when they were unable to secure blocks of land under the Returned Solder Settlement Scheme?

Analysing, evaluating and creating

4. **a** List all the examples you can find in this unit of what happened to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander soldiers when they returned to Australia.
   b Why were these things able to happen in a democratic country?
   c Reread Source 7.6.13. Draft a reply from the Minister of the Interior to William Cooper. Do you think what you have written is historically accurate? How could you find out?
5. Douglas Grant was treated well as a prisoner of war. Imagine he made a friend in the camp who was not Australian—perhaps English or French. As Grant, write a letter to this friend, telling of your experiences when you returned home to Australia.

FIGHTING AND RECORDING THE WAR

TRENCH WARFARE

World War I was not the first time that **trenches** were used on the battlefield. The American Civil War (1861–65) and the Russo–Japanese War (1904–05) were major conflicts in which trenches were used. The Boer settlers used trenches in the early stages of the South African or Boer War (1899–1902). During the Boer War the British considered using trenches to be fighting 'unfairly'.

FIXED TRENCH WARFARE

World War I was the first war in which fixed trench warfare became the accepted method of fighting. The trenches were built to protect the defenders: in dry country they were dug and reinforced, in wetter areas they were built up from the ground using sandbags. The German trenches were usually of better construction than those of the Allies, as they were made of reinforced concrete where possible, and were also usually on higher ground.

WEAPONS OF THE BATTLEFIELD

Once World War I ceased being a war of movement, major attempts were made to break the stalemate. Improvements in technology had provided the attackers with new and more powerful weapons, but the same weapons were also available to the defenders. The entrenched defenders were more likely to win in these situations. It took years before some military leaders could come to terms with this fact, resulting in millions of casualties.

SOURCE 7.7.1 British soldiers in a front line trench in France

Q
1 **Describe the appearance of the trench and list the building materials with which it is made.**
2 **The soldiers in the photograph are all in the same trench. Why are some of them harder to see than others?**

ARTILLERY AND MACHINE GUNS

Artillery was the major killer on the battlefield. The **high-explosive shells** detonated on impact and spread jagged pieces of metal. **Shrapnel** shells exploded above the ground and sprayed bullet-sized pieces through the air. Guns were also used to fire gas shells later in the war. Field artillery fired in a flatter trajectory and hit the target side-on. **Howitzers** fired shells in a higher arc and the shell came down on top of the target. The German guns were far superior guns to those of the French at the beginning of the war. German artillery pieces had a recoil mechanism, which meant that the gun did not move from the spot from which it was fired and time was not wasted in re-aiming it. The Germans also understood much earlier the importance of machine guns on the modern battlefield.

> *Imagine, if you can, a storm, a tempest, growing steadily worse, in which the rain consists entirely of cobblestones, in which the hail is made entirely of masonry blocks. Remember that a mere 120 [mm shell], at the point of impact, has gathered the same energy and releases, just as instantaneously, the same destructive force as an express train hitting the buffers at 90 kilometres an hour ... And we're underneath it, you follow?*
>
> *... waiting from moment to moment for the inevitable, fatal moment when our wretched carcasses are going to be squashed flattened, ground instantly into dust.*

SOURCE 7.7.2 A French corporal recalls his experience under artillery fire on the first day of the Battle of Verdun, quoted in *The Road to Verdun*, by Ian Ousby, 2002

The quality and quantity of artillery improved during the war. **No Man's Land** between the trenches was a killing zone when offensives occurred. Artillery, machine guns and barbed wire made it almost impossible to reach the opposition's trenches. The Germans were the leaders in the development of new military technologies throughout the war. They developed high-quality trench fortifications, steel-cored bullets, trench mortars (small howitzers), steel helmets and **incendiary bullets** to shoot down observation balloons.

> *Last night I was on the gun and am still here. We have had a busy day of it—have fired hundreds of rounds and are feeling a bit knocked up now. The noise was something frightful and my ears are tingling now from the effects. We were going hard for over three hours. These stunts don't come too often otherwise I'm afraid our ears would have a hard time. As it was we had to put cotton wool in them to keep them from bleeding. They are calling me to carry ammunition now so I must away.*

SOURCE 7.7.3 From a letter written by Australian Gunner Bill Lyall to his wife on 18 June 1916, quoted in *Letters from an Anzac Gunner*, edited by K. M. Lyall, 1990

GAS AND FIRE

Germany was the first to use chlorine gas (April 1915) and flamethrowers (July 1915) on the battlefield. The French had used tear gas as early as August 1914 but once the Germans used chemical weapons, all countries followed. Chlorine was followed by phosgene gas and then mustard gas, which caused terrible blisters both inside and outside the body.

IN THE AIR

Above the trenches, the war in the air grew in importance. Aeroplanes were of great value for reconnaissance purposes. They were also used for attacking enemy trench systems, supporting or defending against offensives, and attacking supply depots, transportation and civilian targets. Germany was the leader in the technology of the bomber, using their Zeppelin, Gotha and Giant bombers to bomb cities such as London. The role of the fighter plane was primarily to protect the bombers and observation aircraft of all types, including balloons.

THE WAR AT SEA

A number of engagements occurred at sea during World War I. These included the British attack on the Dardanelles and HMAS *Sydney*'s sinking of the German cruiser SMS *Emden*.

The great naval battle of the war, the Battle of Jutland, was fought on 31 May 1916 between 250 vessels of the British and German fleets. The Battle of Jutland produced no definite result but ensured that the German fleet remained in its safe anchorage until the end of the war.

PHOTOGRAPHY DURING THE WAR

Soldiers were forbidden to take personal cameras with them to war zones. Governments were concerned that the photographs of the true horrors of battle would have negative effects on the civilian population, resulting in fewer enlistments and less support for the war effort. Governments supplied their own official cameramen and, therefore, most movie footage and still photographs show very few dead bodies and war action. Some soldiers, however, secretly took photos of the reality of the front.

CHARLES BEAN

Australia's official correspondent for the AIF was Charles Bean and he took photographs at Gallipoli. However, Bean was not given permission to take photos at the Western Front. Official photographers were appointed, one of whom was George Hubert Wilkins, who frequently placed his life in danger to photograph Australian troops.

Another official photographer was Frank Hurley. Bean did not like some of Hurley's work because Hurley would sometimes ask soldiers to restage events that he had missed, or he would produce images which were made up from a number of photographs (called a **composite image**).

SOURCE 7.7.4 A composite image taken by Frank Hurley in 1917

Q
1 **Describe the appearance of the landscape.**
2 **Describe the action that is taking place.**
3 **What images may Hurley have combined to produce this composite image?**

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- composite image
- high-explosive shells
- howitzer
- incendiary bullets
- No Man's Land
- shrapnel
- trenches

2 Reread 'Trench warfare'. Give two examples of the war becoming 'total'.

Remembering, understanding and analysing

3 Reread Sources 7.7.2 and 7.7.3.

a Describe what the French corporal experienced at Verdun.

b A French soldier said that men came out to rest from the battle with the 'weight of horrifying memories'. Describe the features of Source 7.7.2 which may contribute to these memories.

c Describe what Bill Lyall experienced on 18 March.

d What are the dangers faced by those who fire the artillery? Think beyond what is found in Source 7.7.3.

Analysing and evaluating

4 Conduct research in the library and on the internet and write a total of 300 words on the following tasks.

a Outline the life of Charles Bean, focusing on his work between 1914 and 1940.

b How important was he in helping us to remember the Australians in the war of 1914–18?

5 Historians should always be careful when viewing any sources, even photographs. It is possible that they may not be reliable. The historian must use knowledge gained from other sources to assist in determining the reliability of a new source.

Given this information, do you believe that the photograph in Source 7.7.4 is reliable? Give reasons for your answer.

UNIT 8

SOURCE STUDY:

BATTLE OF MONT ST QUENTIN

In March 1918, the Germans launched a major offensive on the Western Front. It achieved significant breakthroughs but not victory. The attack was stopped and turned, and allied counter-attacks drove the Germans eastwards.

July 1918 saw the confirmation of John Monash as commander of the newly formed Australian Corps: there would no longer be any British officers leading Australians into battle. As part of the Allied offensive in the last three months of the war, the Australian 2nd Division captured Mont St Quentin near Péronne, a hill of strategic importance if only 100 metres high. It took two days of heavy fighting on 31 August and 1 September to take the heavily defended summit and Charles Bean called it 'the most brilliant achievement' of the AIF. The battle has been used to indicate the significant role that Australians played in the last months of the war. But the significance of that role must not be exaggerated: the number of Australian soldiers on the Western Front was relatively minor compared to the armies of Britain, France and the United States.

1 September, 1918: It had gone six o'clock. For a couple of minutes I waited anxiously ... The [German] machine gun fire multiplied considerably ... I led my platoon out of the trench into the open. The amount of machine-gun fire was terrific ... The whole atmosphere was filled with an intense multiplicity of shrill biting reports. It was like a mighty enlargement of the chorus of ... cicadas in full blast. We moved forward leisurely and steadily, found a way through the thick barrier of wire in front of [a] trench, and got across the trench into the open valley. A wounded man, belonging to the Machine Gun Coy., lay in a shell-hole and begged to be taken away. But our job was to advance and fight. I ordered the men to follow me, and not to stop to attend to him. It seems a heartless thing to do, but ... it is war.

SOURCE 7.8.2 From the diary of Australian soldier Percy Smythe, in his time at Mont St Quentin

SOURCE 7.8.1 A communication trench containing members of the 6th Australian Infantry Brigade. The photo was taken at 1.30 p.m. on 1 September, when the final assault on Mont St Quentin was about to begin. Held at the Australian War Memorial

... General Monash had decided upon a most vigorous stroke. It was almost certain that next day the Germans would withdraw behind the Somme, and prisoners at this stage constantly spoke of having heard that the withdrawal was only a stage in an intended retirement to the Hindenburg Line. Despite [British General] Rawlinson's statement that there was no object in hastening the Germans' withdrawal here, Monash had decided to follow them so closely that he might not only hurry them off the Somme bridgeheads at Péronne but rush two Australian brigades across the bridges on to two main heights a couple of miles beyond ... particularly the prominent hill a mile north of [Péronne], Mont St Quentin. Its capture would almost certainly force the Germans at once from Péronne and would threaten the Somme line south of it ...

Ahead along the whole face of the Mount, Germans were running back, making for its northern and southern shoulders. The Australians, who had expected heavy fighting, hurried, with minds now carefree, half running, trying to catch them and taking occasional shots ...

For the troops attacking Mont St Quentin [on 31 August] the fight was for the time being over ...

An astonishing feat had been achieved and not only the troops routing on that grey morning among the mounds ... were elated by it. The battalion commanders back behind the knoll could hardly believe their eyes as the prisoners flooded through. Back near Amiens Rawlinson wrote:

As I was dressing this morning Archie rang me up to say that the Australians had captured Mont St Quentin. It is indeed a magnificent performance ...

SOURCE 7.8.3 From *Official History of Australia in the War of 1914–1918*, Vol. VI, by Charles Bean, 1942

SOURCE 7.8.4 Part of the Mont St Quentin diorama at the Australian War Memorial

BATTLE OF MONT ST QUENTIN

Mont St Quentin was a most unusual battle ... in the Great War. It does not connect with the popular image of that war: it did not involve costly trench-to-trench assaults, slogging, futile attacks and mud; instead, it was a short battle of rapid movement and quick decisions made by many commanders, often acting on their own initiative ...

Battles are confusing affairs, both to take part in and to write about. At first reading, the various soldiers' accounts of Mont St Quentin are simply baffling. Even when their authors had clear recollections of where they were and what they did—and often they did not—the task of describing what was an inescapably chaotic experience defeated all but the most determined. Even with Charles Bean's detailed interview notes ... we have a scrappy and confused impression of what happened ... Even John Monash ... admitted that it was 'difficult to write a connected and consecutive account of the details of the fighting' ...

The more closely we investigate what happened at and after Mont St Quentin, we find that ... we have been the unwitting victims of a confidence trick. It began with hasty wartime correspondents' reports ... [that] wrote about the taking of the Mont as a triumph. Congratulatory messages ['the finest single feat of the war'] and especially Monash's self-serving memoir cemented the reputation—one hardly ever subjected to a thorough analysis. Charles Bean's account in his official history ... added to the battle's standing, though his judgement was qualified. Most subsequent accounts, unwilling to investigate Monash's boasting, confirmed his judgement. Like most confidence tricks, it has succeeded because the victims entered willingly into their deception ... [It was a] mismanaged, messy success ...

SOURCE 7.8.5 From *Men of Mont St Quentin*, by Peter Stanley, 2009

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYSING

1. Reread Source 7.8.2. Describe Percy Smythe's experiences in No Man's Land. Do you believe that he had a position of authority? How do you know? Use specific words from the text to support your answer.
2. Reread Source 7.8.3. What role did Charles Bean believe that General Monash played in the battle? What success was achieved by the Australians? Use specific words from the text to support your answer.
3. Examine Source 7.8.1. The photograph was taken by official war photographer George Hubert Wilkins. Describe the information that is shown in the photograph, being as detailed as you can. Are photographs always going to be reliable sources? Give reasons for your conclusion.
4. Dioramas are three-dimensional models and that of Mont St Quentin (see Source 7.8.4) was the first created to show a historical event. The original sculptor was Charles Web Gilbert. Describe what is shown in the diorama, providing as much detail as possible. How closely does it match the information in Source 7.8.2? Why do you believe this may be so?
5. Examine Source 7.8.5. Why does Peter Stanley believe that writing about battles is very difficult?
6. Work in groups of four people and conduct research in books and on the internet to discover more information about the Battle of Mont St Quentin. Present your group's findings as an electronic slide presentation to the rest of the class. Focus on the lead-up to the assault on the hill and the details of the assault itself.

ANALYSING AND EVALUATING

7. Work with a partner and use all the sources in this unit and your research to answer this question: How accurate is Peter Stanley's summation of this battle?

THE IMPACT OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA: THE HOME FRONT

UNIT 9

THE POLITICAL FRONT

At the beginning of the war there was no real division between the Australian political parties at both state and federal level. There was no need for the suspension of party government and the formation of a wartime coalition government. All parties supported the war and legislation likely to produce serious debate was largely left for after the war. This situation of relative political harmony did not last. During the period of the war, Australian society was split on a number of issues, one of which was conscription.

The caretaker Cook Liberal government at the beginning of the war was replaced by the Fisher Labor government at the September 1914 federal election. The concerns of the new federal government were different from those of the states. The states were more concerned about how the war might upset their public works budgets and possibly lead to unemployment. The federal government wanted to control the economy of the country so that it could better pursue the war effort.

NEW ACTS OF PARLIAMENT

William Morris (Billy) Hughes, attorney-general in the Fisher government, was the person mainly responsible for early war legislation. Exports of products such as copper and tin were restricted to the ports of allies. The **Trading with the Enemy Act** introduced severe penalties for trading with enemy states; businesses could be taken over by the government and even raided without warrants.

The **War Precautions Act** was the major change introduced during the war. The Act was an attempt to deal with the crisis conditions that arise during war. The federal government was also given almost absolute control to make the war effort as efficient as possible. The War Precautions Act legalised censorship, gave government control over newspapers, prevented people from making statements that might alarm the public, and allowed for military control. In essence, the constitution was suspended for the duration of the war and for the nine months following. There was no need for parliament to sit during this time.

SOURCE 7.9.1 The cover of the Sydney magazine *Lone Hand*, October 1914. Held at the State Library of NSW

Q
1 Describe what is happening in the drawing.
2 What does this tell you about Australia's relationship with the British Empire?

WAR PRECAUTIONS ACT

Arrest in Sydney

SYDNEY, Friday—An application was made to Mr Justice Ferguson in Chambers to-day for bail to be granted to Thomas Barker, who, it was stated, had been arrested on a charge under the War Precautions Act. Barker, it was alleged, had published pamphlets likely to prejudice recruiting.

Mr Bathgate, on behalf of the Crown, said that no objection would be taken to bail of a substantial amount being granted. Bail was fixed at £100, with one surety for a similar amount.

SOURCE 7.9.2 Reported in *The Argus* (Melbourne, Victoria), 11 September 1915

CENSORSHIP

Censorship had not operated in Australia before the war. It was introduced under the War Precautions Act to prevent news being released that could be of value to the enemy or might be incorrect or misleading. Censorship was not without its problems and newspaper editors expressed their concerns. Too often censorship was used to present the government view, particularly in the case of the conscription debates.

CENSORING DESPATCHES

Despatches from the war front were often censored twice. On Gallipoli, Charles Bean found that some of his despatches had to be written twice to satisfy the military censor and then may have been censored again when they reached Australia. It was important to keep the horrors of war hidden from the public. This could not be done for too long: published casualty lists and the telegrams to families revealed the reality of war.

AUSTRALIA'S ECONOMY

The Fisher government attempted to make Australia self-sufficient in its production of weapons and clothing. Although there were inefficiencies in its organisation of this large-scale production effort, government-owned factories ran efficiently, particularly those in the clothing sector, such as the one at Geelong (Victoria). A small arms factory established at Lithgow (New South Wales) by 1912 manufactured rifles during the war. The manufacture of larger weapons and shells did not eventuate.

INDUSTRIAL GROWTH

Industrial workers numbered as many as rural workers by 1891. Most industries before the war were small in scale and aimed at the home market: processed foods, beer, shoes, clothing, gas and farm machinery and tools. Heavy industry was growing slowly but the advent of World War I hastened the process, as Australia had to produce goods that it could no longer obtain from overseas. This resulted in approximately 400 new products by the end of the war.

A steel industry began at Lithgow in 1905. In 1911, mining company Broken Hill Proprietry Limited (BHP) expanded into steel-making; its Newcastle (New South Wales) steel works opened in 1915. Production was stimulated by the war, as steel could no longer be imported from Belgium and Germany. One of BHP's first major orders was for 66 000 rails to expand Australia's railway network. BHP continued to grow through the war and beyond as it combined foreign investment with adaptation of overseas techniques of steel-making.

SOURCE 7.9.3 The internment camp at Holsworthy, NSW, in 1916. Held at the Australian War Memorial. Note the newly erected double fence made from barbed wire, barracks and other buildings. Holsworthy was by far the largest of all the internment camps.

Industrial growth was not without its problems. Partly due to government policies, the cost of living rose and wages did not grow fast enough to keep up with rising prices. Trade union membership increased and strikes occurred in the coal, waterfront and railway transport industries. In May 1917, twenty unions went on strike at the same time. The government used the War Precautions Act to end the strikes and there were no more strikes until the end of the war.

AUSTRALIA'S TRADE WITH BRITAIN

Britain was Australia's biggest trading partner by far in 1913. Submarine warfare caused the sinking of so many ships that Britain began to bring in its supplies from North and South America. A trip across the Atlantic Ocean was far shorter than one from the south-eastern edge of Asia. Australia could have experienced a major depression if Britain had not paid for the wool, meat and metals that were being stockpiled in Australia's silos and warehouses.

INTERNEES AND OTHER GERMAN-BORN AUSTRALIANS

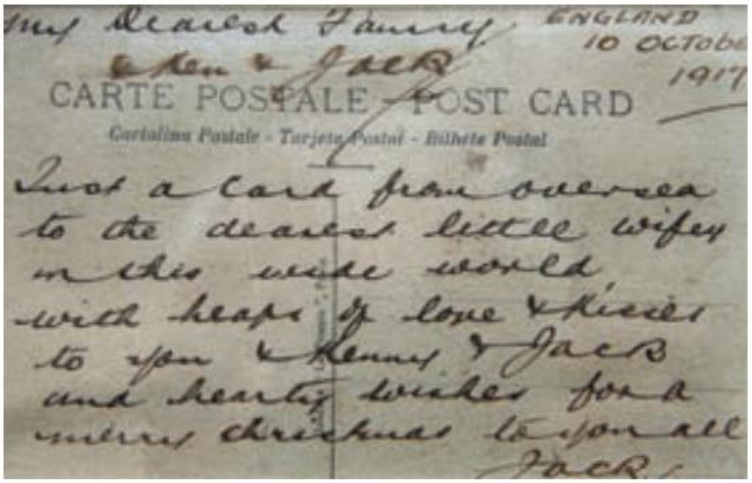
The majority of Australia's 33 381 German-born residents at the 1911 census lived in Queensland and South Australia. At the beginning of the war these people had to register at local police stations. Australians had little or no ill-feeling towards these citizens in 1914 but increasing casualty rates, reports of German **atrocities** against civilians in Belgium and other strong anti-German **propaganda** changed this situation.

Action taken against German-born Australians included exclusion from employment opportunities and some physical attacks. Throughout Australia, but mainly in South Australia, places with German names were renamed with English or Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander names. Some people of German background showed sympathy for the German cause in the war. They were placed in internment camps, often established in old jails. These internment camps were established at such places as Enoggera in Queensland, Langwarrin in Victoria, Rottnest Island and Garden Island in Western Australia, Torrens Island and Fort Largs in South Australia, Molonglo in the ACT, Bruny Island in Tasmania, and the New South Wales settlements of Berrima, Bourke, Trial Bay and Holsworthy. Still, only about 4500 people were interned during the war, 15 per cent of whom were naturalised Australians.

The **internees** lived as normal a life as possible while confined in the camps, allowing for the prison environment and presence of guards. They played various sports, primarily football (soccer), and were able to pursue such cultural pursuits as drama and music. The internees also undertook physical work associated with the camps or for the community.

COMMUNICATION WITH THE FRONT

Australia and South Africa were the only nations in the war to have citizen armies. Australians went to war willingly in 1914. Families at home lived with the knowledge that death and injury were highly likely. The death or injury of a loved one at the front was usually communicated by telegram to those waiting at home. The wounded soldier could then follow this up with a letter setting out details of his injuries, hoping to ease the fears of his family and friends. Officers and friends would normally send letters of condolence to the families of fallen soldiers. These letters described the circumstances in which the soldiers died in order to give loved ones some comfort. Letters and postcards were important means by which families kept in touch with their soldiers overseas.

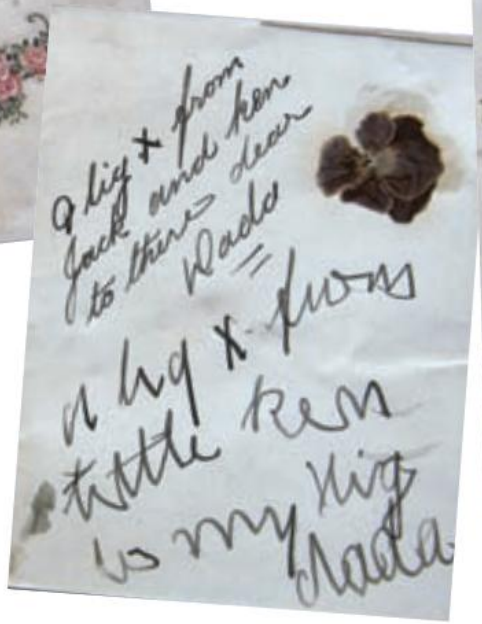


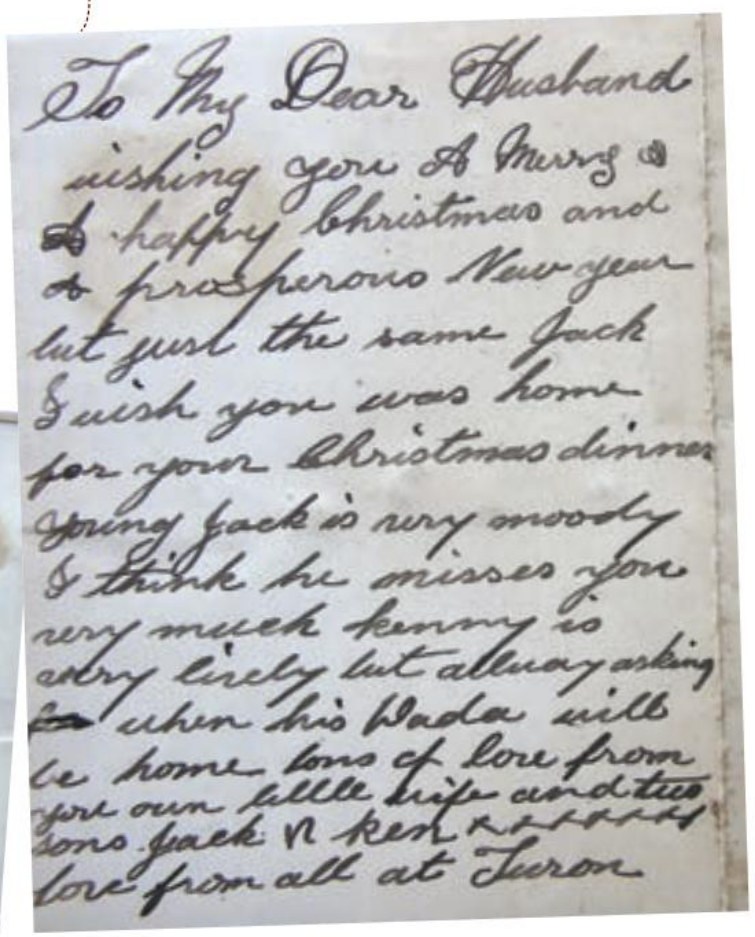
SOURCE **7.9.4** A postcard from Australian soldier Jack Clubb (34th Battalion) to his wife, Harriet Frances (Fanny) Clubb, showing both the front and the back of the postcard. Jack Clubb enlisted on 19 June 1917 and saw action at Rouelles in France. He was wounded and reported missing in action on 13 April 1918 but found on 20 April 1918. He spent time in hospital in both France and England.

Q **What evidence is there in the postcard of the impact on Jack of being away from home?**

SOURCE **7.9.5** Three pages from a Christmas message sent by the Clubb family to Jack Clubb on the Western Front

Q
1. **What does the cover of the card tell you about the Australian home front?**
2. **What evidence is there on the other pages of the postcard of the impact on the family of Jack being away at the war?**





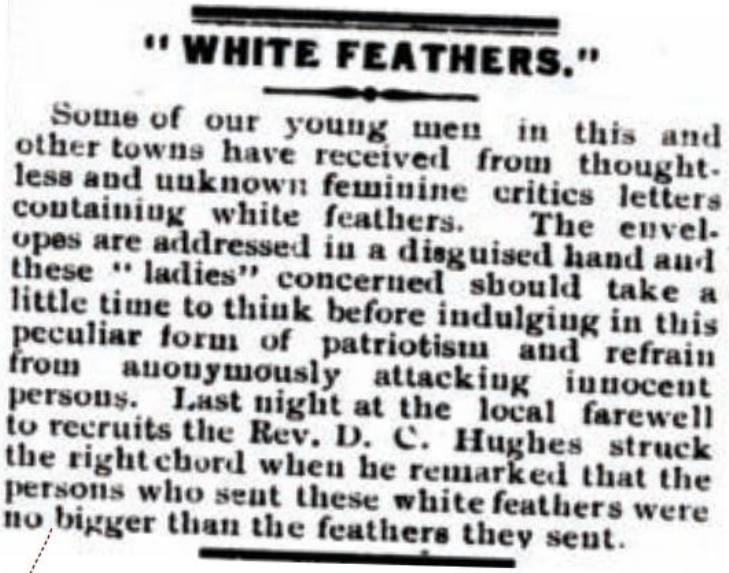
WOMEN ON THE HOME FRONT AND AT WAR

WOMEN ON THE HOME FRONT

Before World War I, there were fewer women in paid occupations than there were men. The work that women did was often paid less than that of men. As the number of men who went to the front line increased, more women were employed. The number of women in the workforce rose from 24 per cent at the start of the war to 37 per cent by the end of 1918. This increase occurred mainly in industries that were traditionally associated with women, for example the textile industry. Trade unions and other groups opposed the employment of women during World War I for fear that wages would be lowered and jobs taken away from men.

Women were encouraged to support the war effort through a number of activities. Groups such as the Red Cross supported the war effort through fundraising and other activities. Government campaigns encouraged women to support the war by investing in bonds. Women and children also dealt with the absence of men during the war effort. This included raising children on their own, dealing with the grief of losing loved ones and surviving from day to day with a shortage of rations.

Some women did not want their men to go to war. Others believed that eligible men must do their duty and supported their decision to enlist. Still others placed pressure on them to enlist; one method was to send them a **white feather**, a symbol of cowardice.



"WHITE FEATHERS."

Some of our young men in this and other towns have received from thoughtless and unknown feminine critics letters containing white feathers. The envelopes are addressed in a disguised hand and these "ladies" concerned should take a little time to think before indulging in this peculiar form of patriotism and refrain from anonymously attacking innocent persons. Last night at the local farewell to recruits the Rev. D. C. Hughes struck the right chord when he remarked that the persons who sent these white feathers were no bigger than the feathers they sent.

SOURCE 7.9.6 Report in the *Queanbeyan Age* and *Queanbeyan Observer* (NSW), 1 October 1915. Held at the National Library of Australia

Q
1 By what method were white feathers sent in Queanbeyan?
2 What did the Reverend Hughes think of the people who sent the feathers?

SOURCE 7.9.7 Five nurses from the Australian Army Nursing Service, *from left* R. C. Everard, L. Nicoles, E. Hoile, M. D. Smith and P. Marsh (seated)

WOMEN AT WAR

Women volunteered for service during World War I. The majority of women worked as nurses often on the front line. During the war just over 2500 women served as nurses, 25 of whom died. While over 300 of the nurses who served in World War I were decorated, only seven nurses were awarded the Military Medal. Women also sought work as cooks, drivers and interpreters, but these roles for women were not supported by the government. Service organisations such as the Royal Women's Army Corps were not formed until World War II.

SOURCE 7.9.8 A poster encouraging women to buy war bonds during World War I, c. 1918. Held at the Australian War Memorial

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- atrocities
- censorship
- internee
- propaganda
- Trading with the Enemy Act
- War Precautions Act
- white feather

2 Reread 'Australia's economy'.

a What were the major changes to the Australian economy during World War I?

b In what ways did these changes establish new financial relationships between the federal and state governments into the future?

Remembering, understanding and analysing

3 Reread 'The political front'.

a How did the concerns of the states differ from those of the federal government at the beginning of the war?

b What impact did the War Precautions Act have on the Australian home front?

c Reread Source 7.9.2. With what was Mr Barker charged?

d Conduct research on the internet to find an additional newspaper item dealing with the War Precautions Act and share the items among your class.

Understanding, applying and creating

4 Reread 'Internees and other German-born Australians' and conduct necessary research to respond to the following tasks.

a Which people were likely to be placed in internment camps?

b Collect images from various internment camps and list the activities in which internees are engaged in the images.

c Write a 300-word report in which you describe the daily life of people detained in internment camps.

Understanding and analysing

5 Study 'Commnication with the front' and Sources 7.9.4 and 7.9.5.

a What emotions may Jack have been experiencing at the time of writing the card, knowing what faced him in the future?

b What emotions may have been experienced by Fanny and the children? Provide evidence from Source 7.9.5.

c Compare the covers of the two cards. Describe the contents of each and explain why they may have those characteristics.

Analysing and evaluating

6 Examine Source 7.9.6 and conduct appropriate research in the library or the internet.

a Giving a white feather was one method women used to encourage men to enlist. What other types of persuasion were used?

b Which of the types of persuasion used by women do you believe was the most likely to succeed? Give reasons for your decision.

7 Research in the library or on the internet the roles performed by each of the following organisations: the Country Women's Association, the Women's Christian Temperance Union, the Australian Women's National League, the Voluntary Aid Detachment, the Australian Comforts Fund and the Cheer-Up Society.

Which one of these organisations do you believe did the best work for the home front? Give reasons for your answer.

THE IMPACT OF WORLD WAR I ON AUSTRALIA: CONSCRIPTION

THE ENLISTMENT DILEMMA

Prior to 1915, the most dangerous activity for Australians had been working in the mining industry. This changed during World War I. As war casualty figures were published, people began to question their initial enthusiasm for war.

YEAR	DEATHS
1915	8 474
1916	13 696
1917	21 736
1918	14 240

SOURCE 7.10.1 Numbers of Australian servicemen who died in each year of the war

Q **Draw a line graph to illustrate the information shown in the table and describe the changes shown on your graph.**

A variety of **propaganda** campaigns and a reduction in the required physical standards of entry in 1915 contributed to increased enlistments. Until the middle of 1915 there had been no organised **recruitment** program; men joined in response to their own feelings or private pressures. The Australian government was forced into action because it had promised Great Britain more men than it was able to deliver. Men who had thought that they would not be needed came forward, along with those who had wanted to join but whose physical standard did not reach that required in 1914.

From the middle of 1915, various patriotic ceremonies were organised to raise money for the war effort and to encourage enlistment. The new monuments erected to honour those killed in the war were popular sites for such ceremonies.

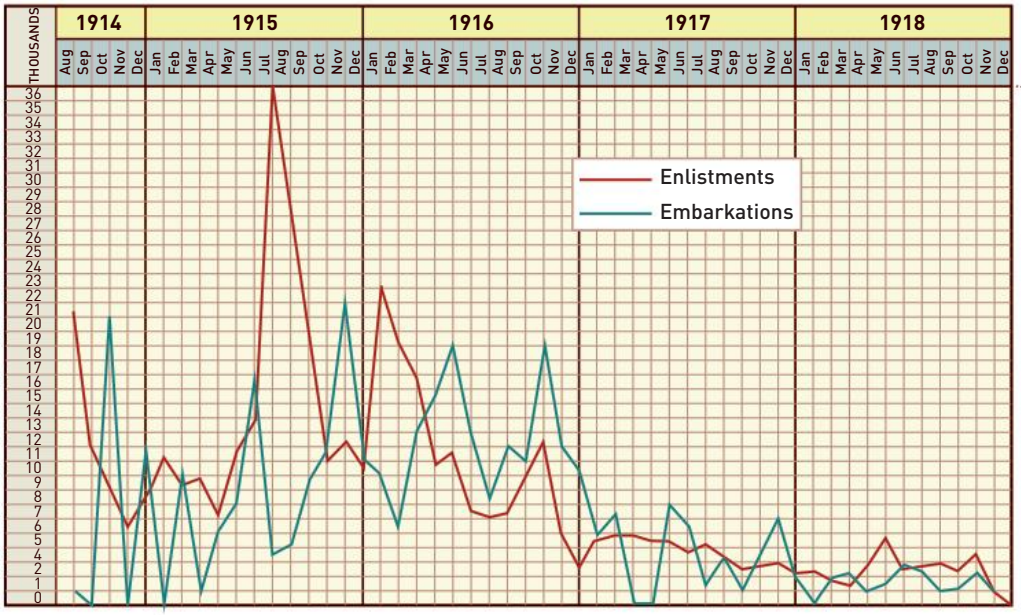
The ceremonies were usually religious or nationalist in nature. One or more returned soldiers often participated, as the ceremonies were also aimed at recruitment. Posters encouraging people to enlist were also used to attract recruits.

After July 1915, enlistment numbers declined again. Recruiting committees throughout Australia worked hard to get numbers up again at the beginning of 1916 but after an initial rise they began to decrease again.

DID YOU KNOW?

THE MINIMUM HEIGHT FOR NEW RECRUITS WAS DROPPED TO FIVE FEET TWO INCHES (157 CENTIMETRES) IN JULY 1915.

The minimum height requirement in 1914 was five feet six inches (168 centimetres), which, along with other requirements, meant that the original recruits had outstanding physical characteristics.



SOURCE 7.10.2 Australian enlistments and embarkations for overseas service during World War I. From *Official History of Australia in the War of 1914–1918*, Vol. XI, by Ernest Scott, 1941

Q

1. **Describe the changes in enlistment numbers throughout the war. Ensure that you provide the dates of major changes.**
2. **What do the enlistment figures for 1917 and 1918 indicate about the number of Australians serving on the Western Front at that time?**

DIVISION IN AUSTRALIAN SOCIETY

Billy Hughes became Australia's seventh prime minister in October 1915. Like his Labor Party colleagues, he was against **conscription** (compulsory service in the armed forces).

A visit by Hughes to Britain in early 1916 including a visit to Australian troops at the front. This visit convinced Hughes that the troops were doing a great job. He believed that the troops, and Britain, needed all the help that Australia could possibly give them to win the war. Britain had introduced conscription at the beginning of 1916 and Hughes believed that Australia should do the same.

The **War Precautions Act** would have allowed the government to legislate to introduce conscription but Hughes was concerned that the Labor-dominated Senate might not pass the legislation. The alternative was a **referendum** on conscription: the people would decide and then that decision would be binding on all politicians. It would not be like a referendum to change the constitution. It would more correctly be called a **plebiscite** in which the people would vote directly on a matter of national importance; the result would give clear guidelines for the politicians to follow.

SOURCE 7.10.3 A recruitment poster from 1915

Q
1 What techniques does the poster use to encourage men to enlist?
2 Why does Lieutenant Jacka appear on the poster?

SPLITS IN LABOR AND AUSTRALIA

THE FIRST REFERENDUM

There were two referendums in Australia on conscription. The first was on 28 October 1916 (to give the government power to force men to serve overseas during the current war) and the second on 20 December 1917 (to give the government power to compel men to join the army to reinforce the AIF overseas). Both were narrowly defeated. The referendums split the country and destroyed, for over ten years, the chance of a Labor government at federal level in Australia.

THE SECOND REFERENDUM

After the loss of the first referendum, Billy Hughes was expelled from the Labor Party, taking 23 of the 65 Labor members with him. He retained the prime ministership and he and his followers initially formed the National Labor Party. This group then joined with the Liberals to form the Nationalist Party, with Hughes as leader, and won the 1917 general election.

Conscription was not an issue in the 1917 election but, after the slaughter on the Western Front in 1917, Hughes tried a second referendum to compel troops to fight overseas and build up Australian numbers. He chose to do this by referendum even though he now had a Senate that would have supported the legislation.

The country split into two camps over conscription—'Yes' and 'No'. Differences were bitter, as people felt strongly about their point of view. Differences between social classes and religions were heightened. **Sectarianism** (strong devotion to a particular religion) had been present in Australia since the first colonists arrived. Protestants viewed Catholics, who were predominantly of Irish background, as disloyal to Britain because of the Irish quest for Home Rule. Being against conscription became associated with Irish disloyalty to Britain. The Catholic Archbishop of Melbourne, Dr Daniel Mannix, spoke out strongly against conscription, particularly in 1917. He probably caused as many people to vote 'Yes' as 'No' because of the large number of issues underlying the debates. Speeches and posters were aimed at producing fear and guilt on both sides.

DID YOU KNOW?

A NUMBER OF RECRUITMENT MARCHES WERE HELD, MAINLY IN NEW SOUTH WALES, TO ENCOURAGE MEN TO ENLIST.

The marchers would start at country towns and collect recruits along the way; when they stopped along the way at towns, they were always treated well. Overall, the marches were not very successful in terms of recruitment numbers.

THE LAST YEAR OF THE WAR

Prime minister Hughes did not attempt a third referendum but the government continued until the end of the war to encourage as many men to enlist as possible, continuing with propaganda campaigns and enlistment marches.

SOURCE 7.10.4 A recruiting poster from 1918, drawn by Norman Lindsay. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q What emotions are being targeted to increase the number of men enlisting?

SOURCE 7.10.5 In this photo, taken by the Yarra River a week before the second referendum (20 December 1917), men are selling photos of Doctor Mannix. Dr Mannix was the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Melbourne and a leading figure in the anticonscription debate.

Q What do you think the men would do with the money raised from the sale of these photographs?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below:

- conscription
- plebiscite
- propaganda
- recruitment
- referendum
- sectarianism
- War Precautions Act

2 Reread 'The enlistment dilemma'.

a What was the change in the minimum height for new recruits from August 1914 to July 1915?

b Why did this change occur?

c Did it have a long-term impact on enlistment numbers?

Understanding and evaluating

3 Research the life of Dr Daniel Mannix.

a What contributions did Mannix make to Australian society before, during and after World War I?

b Do you believe that his role in the conscription debate was reported fairly? Why?

Analysing

4 Choose one of the sources from this unit.

a Examine your source carefully. Discuss what you think the source is about, seeking assistance with words that you do not understand.

b Write a five-line summary of what the source is saying.

c Does your source support the 'Yes' or the 'No' vote? Does the source use very emotive language? Give evidence to support your answers.

d Share the answers of your group with the other groups.

Analysing and evaluating

5 Using information in this and earlier units, plus research on the internet, evaluate the contributions of prime ministers Joseph Cook, Andrew Fisher and Billy Hughes to the Australian war effort.

Analysing and creating

6 Work in groups of four people to complete the following task.

The year is 2015 and Australia's allies have gone to war and want our assistance. Recruiting has been at low levels for many years and the government needs to enlist 10 000 troops within three months.

Prepare a plan to recruit the troops and prepare a poster as part of your plan.

UNIT 11

THE IMPACT OF WORLD WAR I: ENDING AND COUNTING THE COST OF THE WAR

THE PEACE SETTLEMENTS

The armistice on the Western Front began on 11 November 1918 and was only an agreement to cease fighting. A **peace treaty** was needed to bring the war to its final conclusion. The aim of a peace treaty was to attach blame, to impose punishments and **reparations**, and to reward the winners.

Germany had no input to the treaty until their representatives were summoned to the **Peace Conference** in Paris to view the document at the end of April 1919. The special train on which the German representatives travelled was made to slow down as they passed through the most damaged areas so that they could be reminded of what Germany had done to the people and countryside of France. The German delegation was prepared to be blamed for the war. The treaty document contained a declaration of German and Austro–Hungarian guilt.

The German delegates, government and people were horrified at the details of the document. The blame for the war meant that Germany was responsible for all damage and therefore the payment of reparations, ultimately determined at over £22 billion. Germany's army was to be limited to 100 000, there would be no air force or submarines and only six naval vessels. All colonies were lost, as well as land and people in Europe. Germans believed that they had been fighting a defensive war to save themselves from the Slav 'menace' to their east.

Germans felt betrayed: they believed that US President Wilson would give them a just peace but now they saw him as a hypocrite. More importantly, many German people were upset enough to believe that they had not lost the war and that their new government had 'stabbed the army in the back'.

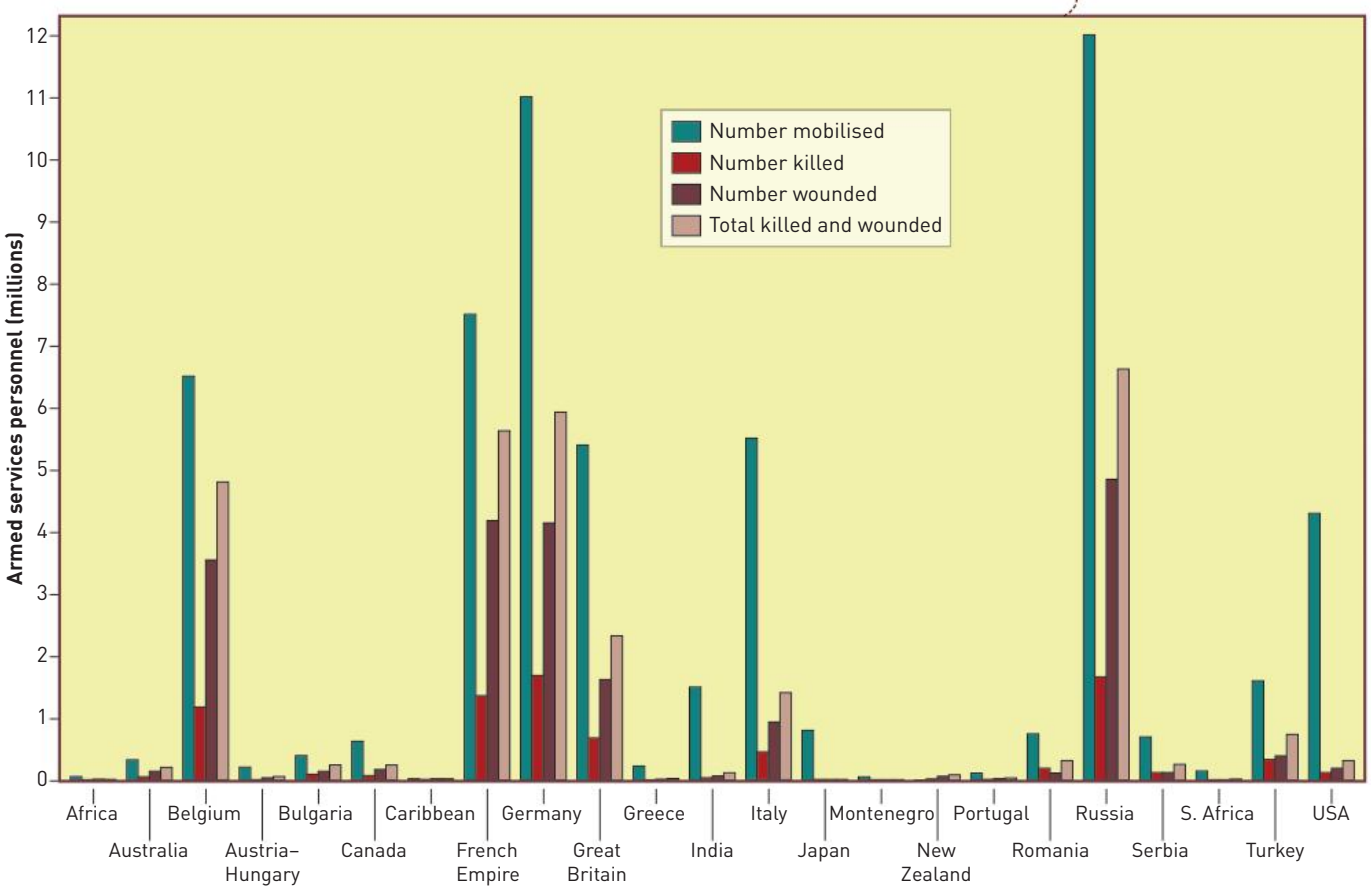
Germany was told to sign the treaty on 28 June 1919 or an Allied army would invade their homeland. The German government finally agreed and the Treaty of Versailles was signed in the Hall of Mirrors. The signing of the treaty to end the Great War against Germany took place five years to the day after the assassination in Sarajevo. Separate treaties with Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey were finalised over the next five years.

The League of Nations was part of the Treaty of Versailles but lacked strength. Britain and France did not have the money to fully support the organisation. Germany was not allowed to join in 1919; Russia chose not to join. The United States government voted against the United States joining the League. The League was therefore unable to help ensure future peace.

SOURCE 7.11.1 The Hall of Mirrors at Versailles: the signing of the Treaty of Versailles

SOURCE 7.11.2 Europe in 1919

SOURCE 7.11.3 Casualties of World War I



AUSTRALIA'S GAINS AT VERSAILLES

The Australian prime minister Billy Hughes fought strongly for Australia and the other British dominions to represent themselves at Versailles, and not to be represented by Britain. Hughes told the leaders at the Peace Conference that he spoke for 60 000 dead Australians.

Through much hard negotiation, Hughes and his delegation obtained important things for Australia at the conference. Australia now had a new international status and this gained her membership of the new League of Nations and its potential advantage of protection. Australia was to receive reparations from Germany for her war dead (60 000) and debts (£30 million). Hughes, despite strong opposition from Wilson, was able to gain a mandate over New Guinea and associated islands. This provided some protection from a potential future expansion by Japan to lands south of the equator. In addition, an attempt by Japan to gain recognition of the principle of **racial equality** was defeated. This time it was necessary for the support of Wilson to achieve the defeat, which ensured that Australia could retain the White Australia Policy.

The Australian casualties were higher in proportion to their numbers than those of any other portion of the British forces. This was probably due to the fact that the Australians were nearly all 'front line' troops, engaged throughout the war in heavy fighting ... The figures for casualties here shown are as corrected in 1921.

SOURCE 7.11.4 Casualties as a percentage of total embarkations for a number of parts of the British Empire. From *Official History of Australia in the War of 1914–1918*, Vol. XI, by Ernest Scott, 1941

Q **Why do you think that Australia has a higher percentage of casualties than the other countries listed in the table?**

COUNTRY	TOTAL CASUALTIES	TOTAL EMBARKATIONS	PERCENTAGE
British Isles	2 535 424	5 000 000	50.71
Canada	210 100	422 405	49.74
Australia	215 585	331 781	64.98
New Zealand	58 526	98 950	59.01
India (native)	140 015	1 096 013	12.77

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.
- peace conference
- peace treaty
- racial equality
- reparations

2 Study 'The peace settlements' and Source 7.11.2.
- a What penalties were imposed on Germany in the peace treaty document?
- b What areas of land were taken away from Germany?

Remembering, understanding and evaluating

3 Reread 'Australia's gains at Versailles'.
- a What were Australia's gains at Versailles?
- b What motives lay behind the Australian delegation's demands? Would the evidence in Sources 7.11.3 and 7.11.4 have helped their case?
- c Did Australia deserve to receive what it did from the conference or should it have received greater benefits? Why?

THE COMMEMORATION OF WORLD WAR I

THE ANZAC LEGEND

Anzac Day has become the major celebration day in Australia. Anzac Day celebrates the great traditions born on the shores of Gallipoli in 1915.

> *Anzac Day goes beyond the anniversary of the landing on Gallipoli in 1915. It is the day we remember all Australians who served and died in all wars, conflicts, and peacekeeping operations. The spirit of Anzac, with its human qualities of courage, mateship, and sacrifice, continues to have meaning and relevance for our sense of national identity.*

SOURCE 7.12.1 *Australian War Memorial News* (email newsletter), February 2011

Q **Why does the 'spirit of Anzac' have these human qualities?**

> *It has been common rhetoric that Australia became a nation on Gallipoli. The statement is true in a sense, but not for the reasons commonly given. The heroism of the Anzacs was not different in kind from the courage and endurance of the early pioneers. Australia became a nation because for the first time she was plunged into the responsibilities of nationhood.*

SOURCE 7.12.2 From *Australia*, by R. M. Crawford, 1965

Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett, a British war correspondent, went ashore at Anzac Cove on the evening of the first day of the landing. His report on the fighting on the peninsula reached Australia before those of the Australian official war correspondent, Charles Bean. His description of the Anzacs provided the basis on which the legend of their fighting prowess and mateship developed.

> *The Australians rose to the occasion. They did not wait for orders, or for the boats to reach the beach, but sprang into the sea, formed a sort of rough line, and rushed at the enemy's trenches. Their magazines were not charged, so they just went in with the cold steel, and it was over in a minute for the Turks in the first trench had been either bayoneted or had run away, and the Maxim guns were captured ...*
>
> *The courage displayed by ... wounded Australians and New Zealanders will never be forgotten ...*
>
> *In fact, I have never seen anything like these wounded Colonials in war before. Though many were shot to bits, and without hope of recovery, their cheers resounded throughout the night and you could see in the midst of a mass of suffering humanity arms waving in greeting to the crews of the warships. They were happy because they knew they had been tried for the first time, and had not been found wanting ...*

SOURCE 7.12.3 Extracts from the report by Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett in the *Hobart Mercury*, 12 May 1915

The reported achievements of the Anzacs were such that even the failures in August and evacuation at the end of 1915 did not detract from the legend. In fact, the other part of the legend was born: Australians were brave but misused by incompetent British officers. A. B. 'Banjo' Paterson wrote poetry about it and Winston Churchill wrote his finest prose about it. Gallipoli did wonders for Australian nationalism and was even used to reinforce Australia's strong position within the Empire. The legend was reinforced throughout the rest of the war.

Anzac Day has been a special day since the first landings and war memorials sprang up in large numbers in the 1920s and 1930s. Each war memorial is **sacred ground**; it represents the resting place of all those young soldiers who could never be brought home to be buried. The war memorials were financed by local communities with government support and occupied important places within almost every town and city in Australia. The war memorials are still used as the sites of Anzac Day ceremonies today.

ANZAC DAY WAS INSTIGATED DURING WORLD WAR I

DID YOU KNOW?

As casualties mounted during World War I, the Australian government sought new ways to motivate people to support the war effort. Anzac Day was, in a sense, a propaganda exercise.

There are very few Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander names on memorials and you need to have local knowledge to detect them. This is because they would have been given British names, as would any Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander People living close to major settlements. The army did not want Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People until after the first conscription referendum failed; the need for more men meant that the army accepted Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander men of mixed parentage. There were probably about 400 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians in the AIF by 1918 and their names are mainly on honour boards in reservations.

THE TOMB OF THE UNKNOWN AUSTRALIAN SOLDIER

Australia's Unknown Soldier was entombed in the Hall of Memory at the Australian War Memorial on 11 November 1993. The body was exhumed from the Adelaide Cemetery at Villers-Bretonneux in France and flown back to Australia to lie in state in Old Parliament House in Canberra for three days. He was one of the Australian soldiers of World War I who could not be identified because he was found without an identity disc. The then prime minister, Paul Keating, explained the significance of the Unknown Soldier in his eulogy at the interment: 'The Unknown Soldier honours the memory of all those men and women who laid down their lives for Australia. His tomb is a reminder of what we have lost in war and what we have gained'.

Many countries of the world have such a tomb. Britain and France entombed their Unknown Soldiers shortly after the end of the war. Australia first began to discuss bringing home such a soldier in 1921. At that time it was decided that the Unknown Soldier in London represented all soldiers of the British Empire, and so there was no need to bring an Australian soldier home. Since then, public opinion has changed, and the old ideas of imperialism have died. In 1991, the project for the return of the soldier was commenced. The funeral of the returned Unknown Soldier from World War I was the first such funeral in Australia since that for General Bridges in 1915.

SOURCE 7.12.5 The Hon. Nicola Roxon MP (right), representing the Prime Minister, places a poppy on the tomb of the Unknown Soldier after the Anzac Day parade, 2011.

A TARNISHED LEGEND?

Some Australian historians question the Anzac legend. This is not to diminish the sacrifice for their country, but to look at the soldiers as real people who had both strengths and weaknesses.

Australia had a **citizen army**; many soldiers found it difficult to follow the rules and regulations of armies. The Australian government did not bend to pressure from the British army to allow **capital punishment** for serious offences such as desertion. On Gallipoli, the harsh conditions of the fighting produced crimes of sleeping on duty and self-inflicted wounds. In Europe, the number of Australians on charges was greater than for any other force of the British Empire forces. The number increased as the war came to its end, and even into 1919. Unwilling soldiers who were pressured to enlist deserted from camps while still in Australia.

> *I understand why the Australians obsess about Gallipoli. It's their first time in action—but there's nothing like Mont St Quentin there. Mont St Quentin is the most amazing achievement. They leapfrog the Somme, they take an incredibly well-fortified position.*
>
> *Then it's taken by battalions right at the end of their tether, they're using everything they've learnt about war over the last two, three years. It's a fantastic achievement. Now that should be what they remember, not messing up in the gullies and ridges of Gallipoli.*

SOURCE 7.12.4 Peter Hart, from the Imperial War Museum, UK, in an interview on *The Great History War*, an Australian television program broadcast in 2008

SOURCE 7.12.6 Corporal Ron Fischer, who served in Australia and New Guinea, participates in the 2011 Anzac Day parade to the Shrine of Remembrance, Melbourne.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the terms below.

- capital punishment
- citizen army
- sacred ground

Understanding and analysing

2 Reread 'The Anzac legend' and examine Sources 7.12.1 and 7.12.2. Form into groups of four students to discuss and respond to the following.

a Why has Anzac Day become more important to Australians than Australia Day?

b What does each source have to say about Australia and Australians?

c Write a short group summary, in your own words, of the perception of Australia and Australians provided by the two sources.

Analysing and applying

3 Conduct fieldwork in the area around your school to learn about the location and characteristics of your local war memorial. Consider the following possible features:

- Where is the memorial situated? On what sort of site?
- What is its shape (obelisk, arch, column, tower, pavilion, cenotaph)?
- Does it have a statue (soldier in action pose, at ease, at attention, with reversed arms and bowed head; nurses, angels)?
- Does it have war trophies such as guns?
- Does it have a function (hall, hospital, drinking fountain, council chambers, carillon, pavilion in a park)?
- What inscriptions are on the memorial (names of soldiers who served and/or died, other words)?

Conduct internet research to determine how similar or different your memorial is from other war memorials in Australia. Select at least one memorial from every Australian state and territory for comparison purposes.

Analysing and evaluating

4 Reread Source 7.12.3.

a What does Ashmead-Bartlett's description of the Anzacs add to the interpretations of Australia and Australians in Sources 7.12.1 and 7.12.2?

b Do you believe that Source 7.12.3 is reliable? Give reasons for your decision.

5 To historians, the term 'legend' refers to a story that is popular, is often told, and does not use all the historical detail available. Construct a mind map called 'The Anzac legend as historical narrative'. Show how pieces of the Anzac legend fit the three characteristics of a legend above.

Understanding, analysing and evaluating

6 Reread 'A tarnished legend?' and Source 7.12.4.

a Rewrite Hart's statement in your own words.

b Do you believe that it is a reliable source? Why?

c Come to an agreement between all class members as to what the statement means.

d Does Hart's statement pose a threat to the Anzac legend, particularly when combined with information from the section 'A tarnished legend?'?

e How could you look more closely at the quality of service of Australians at war? What may be the dangers in doing this?

CONNECTIONS TO...

SURVIVORS OF THE WAR

UNIT 13

THE END OF THE WAR

Australians generally rejoiced at the end of the fighting in 1918. It was many months before all the surviving troops were brought home. Some soldiers had returned home during the war. Many of these were wounded so badly that they could not recover sufficiently to return to the fighting. Others were sent home in disgrace: they were found to be unsuitable soldiers because of their crimes or inability to work within the army system.

SOURCE 7.13.1 A crowd rejoices at the end of the war in Swanston Street, Melbourne, in November 1918.

SOURCE 7.13.2 An Australian soldier recovering in an English hospital, attempting to write a letter using the stumps of his wrists. Held at the Australian War Memorial

Q **What emotions may this soldier have experienced as he considered his return to Australia?**

REPATRIATION

About 3300 Australian soldiers returned home due to the loss of a limb. Other disabilities were less obvious: internal damage to organs and muscles, damage to mental health, and respiratory conditions caused from gassing and the poor conditions in the trenches. The last was the cause of many soldiers returning home with tuberculosis.

General Sir John Monash remained in London for eight months after the end of the war to oversee the process of returning the soldiers to their homeland, known as repatriation. The meetings between soldiers and loved ones could be warm or traumatic. One soldier lay on his bed when he returned to Australia and said nothing: he had been buried by debris from a nearby shell explosion in the war.

RETURN TO FAMILY LIFE

It is hard to generalise about the life of the Australian soldiers after they returned to their families. Many had disabilities which made a return to normal life very difficult. Returning to former employment was also difficult. Mental and physical conditions often meant that men could no longer function in the workplace, in spite of government retraining schemes. Blindness, deafness, facial disfigurement and other conditions made men difficult to employ. The situation was made worse by high levels of unemployment after the war.

Men had been separated from their families for some time, some for four years. People change over the years and it was not always easy to slip back into the world they left. Those who chose to behave badly while away often committed crimes on their return. Those who enlisted to get away from responsibilities found them waiting on their return.

SOURCE 7.13.3

Returned World War I soldiers queue at the employment section windows of the Repatriation Department in Melbourne, Victoria. Held at the Australian War Memorial

THE REPATRIATION DEPARTMENT

The Repatriation Department provided pensions for returned soldiers. The pension was based on the concept of the man as breadwinner in the family and the wife as running the household. If a man, because of his war service, was no longer able to fulfil his role, he was paid a pension based on his number of dependants and the severity of his injuries. When disabled soldiers died the Repatriation Department paid their wives a war widow's pension if it could be shown that death was caused by an incident in the war; this was very difficult to prove in many cases.

Many men did not have obvious injuries; for example, the war may have caused ongoing pain from a gunshot wound, or chest problems due to gassing. In these cases, war veterans received only part-pensions—not enough money to live on comfortably. The Repatriation Department continually reviewed the fitness of those receiving pensions, only too eager to reduce the amount paid.

These situations placed a great deal of pressure on accepted gender roles. Women had to find some way of earning an income, which was very difficult to do at the time. They were forced to organise their households to save money on food and clothing. On top of all this was the need to provide support for their husbands or sons. Housewives' associations were formed to relieve some of the pressure. The divorce rate increased after the war. The causes included the woman's emotional and physical workload, a long separation in the relationship and adultery—almost as many men returned to Australia with venereal disease as were killed in the war.

Menin Gate

A gleaming pillared archway leads on to the Menin Road
To mark the ghastly harvest the God of War has sowed.
I stand by this stately gateway as the shades of evening fall
And hear the sad sweet echoes as the silver bugles call.

The boom of the traffic silenced; no sound of step is here
As a spectral army gathers from fields they held so dear.
Squadrons in rank are standing in the silent misty gloom,
The valiant men of Britain from many an unmarked tomb.

By the marble gate to the city, that leads to their blood-drenched field
Where the pride of a nation perished—who died but would not yield—
I seem to see a radiant form gaze on this vast array
And slowly raise a nail-marked hand and wipe a tear away.

'Ere the notes of bugles ended and the busy traffic flowed,
I knew that the Weeping Christ had stood by the gate to the Menin Road.

SOURCE 7.13.4 e

Major George Thompson wrote this poem in 1959 when he returned to the World War I battlefields where he had fought in 1917 and 1918.

Q
1 **What memories does Thompson have of the war in which he fought?**
2 **Do you think that it would have been good for him to revisit the battlefields and write about them?**

TIME TO THINK...

Use these deep questions in small group or class discussions, as your teacher decides.

1
CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

a What do you think of the level of support of the Repatriation Department for returned soldiers after World War I? How do you come to this conclusion?

b The Australian government continues to support its returned ex-servicemen and families of soldiers killed on duty. What types of support should it provide?

2
IMPACT OF BELIEFS AND VALUES

a What were the specified gender roles of men and women in Australia of the 1920s and 1930s?

b Do you believe that Australian women would behave today in the same way if Australia was involved in a war that produced as many casualties World War I produced?

INQUIRY TASKS

#1 Court is in session

The International Court of Justice is to reopen the case of the causes of the outbreak of war in 1914. Germany and Austria–Hungary were found guilty of causing the war in the original trial in 1919.

Half of the class will form groups of four students to research the causes of World War I and develop arguments to overturn the initial verdict.

The other half of the class, also working in groups of four, will research and prepare a case supporting the original guilty verdict.

The new cases are to be presented to your class as part of a short play in which the International Court of Justice is in session. A decision must be made as to whether the initial verdict is to be overturned or not, using the evidence presented at the new trial.

Include the following in your research:

- imperialism policies of the Great Powers
- Pan-Germanism and Pan-Slavism
- Germany's fear of Russian growth
- Serbia's aims for the Balkans
- the influence of the Germany military on German government policy
- the declining power of the Austro–Hungarian Empire
- France's desire for revenge
- British fear of German growth
- other considerations which you may find to be relevant.

#2 To join or not to join?

As a member of a group of six students, prepare a multimedia presentation to present to the remainder of your class.

Compare and contrast enlistment in the armed forces of Australia and Great Britain in World War I.

Ensure that, for each country, you look at:

- changes in enlistment numbers over time
- changes over time in reasons for enlisting
- attempts at compulsion to join the armed forces
- the effectiveness of compulsion to serve in the armed forces.

#3 Butchery?

American author Ernest Hemingway wrote that World War I was 'the most colossal, murderous, mismanaged butchery'.

a Form into groups of six, appointing a spokesperson and a scribe.

b Research the meanings of the words 'colossal', 'murderous', 'mismanaged' and 'butchery'. Come to a common agreement on your meanings and rewrite Hemingway's statement in your own words.

c Prepare a multimedia presentation of at least ten slides in which you outline how new technology allowed the butchery to occur, using images to support your outline.

Ensure that your presentation includes the following information:

- types of technology available in 1914
- types of technology developed and used for the first time during the war
- differences between armies in the acceptance of new technology
- differences between armies in the application of new technology
- the ability of the military leaders to manage the technology.

INQUIRY TASKS

#4 The art of persuasion

Norman Lindsay wrote *The Magic Pudding*, a classic book for Australian children, in 1917. He also produced cartoons and posters for the Australian government during World War I.

Examine the poster in Source 7.14.1. Work in pairs, one of you imagining that you are an adult Australian male and the other an adult Australian female in 1918.

a Write down the emotions that you feel after examining the poster, keeping in mind as many issues as possible associated with the Australian home front over the war years.

b Explain the techniques that Lindsay is using to make you decide what you need to do for your country.

c Design a new poster to be used in 1918 to encourage greater war effort. Show your poster to the rest of the class and say why your poster is more effective than Lindsay's.

SOURCE 7.14.1 Recruitment poster by Norman Lindsay, 1918. Held in the Australian War Memorial

#5 Helping to build an empire or a nation?

Imagine that a government research team has presented an argument that has caused great uproar in the Australian community and threatens the source of Australian nationhood. The argument is that 'the AIF, which landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula in 1915, was part of an imperial force that invaded the territory of a sovereign state (Turkey) to help Britain expand its empire'.

Consider your response to this statement. Use the information in this chapter and further research to prepare a presentation to the class in which you reject or support the argument, giving reasons for doing so.

After having heard the presentations of other class members, write an extended response in which you outline the arguments for and against the statement.

SOURCE **7.14.2** Two soldiers look at the writing on the crosses at Vlamertinghe cemetery, near Ypres, 1917. Held at the Australian War Memorial

GLOSSARY

alliance agreement by two or more nations to support one another militarily

alluvial (gold) gold found in soil formed from deposits of silt and gravel

Anglo-Indian person of mixed British and Indian descent

Anglophile non-English person who speaks and acts as an English person

anti-Christian edict proclamation against trade and other relationships with those of Christian faith

archipelago cluster of islands

armistice agreement to cease fighting

arms race competition between countries to achieve the greatest quantity of military weapons

assassination murder of a public figure for political reasons

Assistant Protector of Aborigines person who assisted the Protector of Aborigines

assisted passage scheme nineteenth-century British government migration scheme to encourage migration to Australia

atrocity shocking or tasteless act

attrition gradual wearing down of the power to resist; to reduce the effectiveness of military forces

Australian Imperial Force name of the Australian army in World War I and World War II

autocratic power unrestricted authority

award minimum legal wage within a particular industry

bakufu military government headed by the shogun during the Tokugawa period in Japan

Ballarat Reform League organisation formed in 1854 to protest against the regulation of the Ballarat gold diggings

ballot box container into which votes are cast

battalion military ground force with three or more companies or units

bibi nabob's Indian mistress

bicameral parliament two-chambered parliament

Bill proposal for new law

blackbirding recruitment of workers through trickery or deception

bolter convict who has escaped

boom years period of prolonged economic growth

bounty scheme migration program introduced by Britain to attract women and families to the Australian colonies

Boxers religious sect of Chinese martial artists

British Raj British rule in India

Canton System system of regulations created by the Chinese to limit European trade

capital wealth

capital offence serious crime punishable by death

capital punishment punishment by death

capitalism economic system based on competition between sellers

caste system Indian social structure by which everyone is placed into one of four main groups, each of which has different privileges and responsibilities

censor adviser to the emperor in China during the Qing dynasty

censorship prevention of information reaching an audience, unless in an acceptable form

centenary one-hundred year anniversary

Chinese diaspora Chinese dispersion

chonin class in feudal Japan that included craftspeople, artisans and merchants

citizen army army made up of ordinary members of the community rather than professional soldiers

coke solid that remains when coal is heated to remove gases

collective ownership shared ownership of land or other resources; the opposite of private ownership

colonialism policy of a country to take over another area and exploit its resources

colonisation establishment of direct control by an outside power over the affairs of people who are native to that area

commission authoritative grant or order

Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902 Act of Parliament that determines who can and cannot vote; under section 41 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People were technically able to vote unless they resided in Western Australia or Queensland; women could only vote under section 41 in South Australia and Western Australia (this was changed in 1903)

composite image construction of one image by using the features of at least two separate images

conscription compulsory service in armed forces

conservative cautious or traditional

Constitution statement of fundamental principles underlying the governance of a country

convert change religion, politics or opinion

convict stain sense of unease about convict past

convoy group of transport vehicles travelling together, usually for safety

coolie unskilled Chinese labourer

corporal punishment physical punishment

cottage industry production of goods by small groups of people, often in their own homes or small workshops

cultivation system method used by the Dutch in the East Indies to ensure that enough crops were produced for export to Europe

cultural imperialism imposition of a dominant foreign culture on a local culture

daimyo Japanese feudal lord

Declaration of Independence formal statement issued on 4 July 1776 by the Continental Congress of America declaring independence from Great Britain. This occurred during the War of Independence between the American colonists and the British government

democracy system of government in which citizens elect representatives to make laws on their behalf

democratic socialism system of government aimed at achieving a classless society via parliamentary reform; also known as Fabian socialism

deposed removed from power

diaspora dispersion of people from their original country

Diet Japanese parliament

digger gold miner

diggings areas of mining activity on the gold fields

diplomat representative of a foreign country

dispossession loss of land without prior agreement or compensation

divine revelation view that knowledge of the universe comes from God

divine right of kings medieval belief that a monarch was God's specially appointed leader of society

division of labour system of labour organisation in which workers are allocated particular tasks and their work is supervised

economic imperialism use of wealth by one nation or group to influence a less powerful or much poorer nation or group

edict decree or proclamation issued by a sovereign power or an authority

Edo period rule in Japan by the Tokugawa family, which lasted from 1603 to 1868

egalitarianism belief that all people are equal socially and politically

egality social and political equality

emancipist convict whose sentence had expired

embassy official residence of one country's diplomatic mission to another country

emigration exit from a country for the purpose of permanent settlement in another country

enclosed system repackaging and fencing of land that had been held in common by village farmers into individual farms

Enlightenment eighteenth-century intellectual movement that promoted rational thought as the basis of knowledge

enlistment process of joining the armed forces

entente informal alliance; friendly understanding between states

entrepreneur person who invests money into a business venture, especially an enterprise that involves risk but has the potential to be very profitable

ethical policy the official policy adopted by the Dutch colonial administration in the Dutch East Indies after 1901. It aimed to treat colonial subjects humanely

Eurocentrism view that European ideas and values are best for everyone

evangelical revival period during the eighteenth century when there was a renewed interest in religious life in Britain

exclusivists wealthy free settlers in Australia, so named to differentiate themselves from convicts and emancipists

extinction dying out of a species or race

factory system use of a production line to increase the number of goods manufactured

fallow left uncultivated so fertility (usually of soil) can be restored

federation league local organisation formed in the 1890s to promote the cause of Australian federation

feint attack intended to draw enemy defences away from the real target

female factory factory in which all the workers are women

feudalism medieval system whereby land was divided among lords and barons in exchange for an oath of loyalty to the king

First Nations native groups that first inhabited major areas of Australia and the Americas before the arrival of Europeans

Five-Articles Oath declaration by the Meiji Emperor signalling his policy of reform and borrowing from the West

flogging punishment by whipping

franchise right to vote

free trade trade unrestricted by trade barriers such as tariffs

genro group of powerful advisers to the Japanese emperor

governor chief administrator of a colony who usually had full legal authority from their country of origin

Great Strikes series of strikes in Australia in the 1890s

gunboat diplomacy pursuit of foreign policy or discussions with a display of military power; originally referred to the use of warships by European powers when negotiating with other countries

hierarchical system 'pyramid' shaped social structure, with a few elites at the top and a mass of commoners at the bottom

High Court supreme court and final court of appeal in Australia

high-explosive shell shell fired by artillery that will create a large explosion when it hits the target

home front people and activities of a country at war but not directly involved in the war

Hong merchants agents through whom all European trade with China had to occur

howitzer artillery piece that fires shells in an arc so that the shells come down on top of the target

hulk old, disused ship moored in a river or harbour

humanism belief that human beings have the capacity to make the best world possible

hypothesis predicted outcome of an experiment, which is either confirmed or rejected by the results

immigration entry to a country for the purpose of permanent settlement

imperialism expansion of the influence of one country over others

incendiary bullet bullet that causes a fire when it strikes the target

indentured labourer worker contracted to work in exchange for the cost of their journey or a small wage

independence ability of a group or nation to control its own affairs

indigenous people original inhabitants of an area

individualism belief in personal rights and freedoms rather than the collective good

Industrial Revolution period of transformation aided by new developments in technology that had a profound social, cultural and economic impact on society

infidel non-believer

inflation increase in prices or cost of living over time

inner daimyo Japanese feudal lords who were rewarded for their loyalty to the Togukawa clan by being granted the best lands, often in close proximity to the domains of Tokugawa

inoculation administration of a small dose of a disease in order to build immunity to that disease

inquisition religious investigation

internee person who is locked up as a prisoner

involuntary migration forced movement from an area or country

isolationist not participating in economic or political relations with other countries

jihad holy war

jingoism extreme form of nationalism

junk sailing vessel

'Kanaka' slang term once used to refer to Pacific Island labourers.

kowtow deep bow as gesture of respect

Labour Electoral League local organisation that encouraged working men to vote, so that Labour representatives could be elected to Parliament

laissez-faire minimal interference from government

land grant gift of land, for example by the early governors of New South Wales, so that it could be cultivated or developed for the benefit of the colony

larrikins young men known for their anti-social behaviour

legation small embassy

liberalism belief in the protection of individual rights and freedoms

long boom period of sustained economic growth in the Australian colonies from 1850 to 1890

Mandate of Heaven Chinese belief that the emperor was given his right to rule by the gods. This right could be taken away if he failed to rule wisely

mass production use of machines to manufacture large quantities of goods

Meiji restoration period after the Japanese emperor was restored as the ruler of Japan in 1868, during which time the policies of modernisation and Westernisation were pursued

merchant trader

Middle Kingdom old Chinese view of China as the centre of the world, both geographically and culturally

mission Christian community established in foreign land to convert indigenous people to Christianity. This often involved not only preaching but also building schools and hospitals

mobilise prepare to go to war

monopoly exclusive trade

Mughal Muslim from Persia

nabob Englishman in British India who was rich enough to own an estate, yet liked to dress and live as a local Indian prince

national unit group of servicemen who represent one country

nationalism belief that people of the same race, culture or ideals ought to be able to belong to the same nation state

Native Police Corps police force that employed both 'white' and Aboriginal People. The Corps was established first in the Port Phillip District, and later in other colonies

nawab princely ruler of a region within India

New World regions of the world discovered during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries which were then settled by Europeans. The North American and Australian colonies were considered the main regions of the New World

'nineteen counties' boundaries of settlement in early New South Wales

No Man's Land killing zone between two opposing trench systems

oath of allegiance vow of loyalty

offensive military campaign involving an attack

open field system land cultivation system whereby village farming land was divided into three large fields and farmers had strips of land in each field. Each year one field was left fallow

opium drug produced from the opium poppy

oral history information about the past that has been gathered through the retelling of experiences

ostracised excluded or banished from a community

outer daimyo feudal lords in Japan who were the traditional enemies of the Tokugawa clan. They mostly controlled land some distance away from the capital

Padri Islamic radicals who wanted to eliminate all non-Muslim influence on West Sumatra, which was controlled by the Dutch during the nineteenth century

panning technique where gold and other heavy metals are separated from alluvial soil

patriotism pride in one's country

peace conference meeting of the representatives of countries at war to determine the conditions of the peace treaty

peace treaty conditions agreed to by warring countries to end the war

peasant small-scale farmer or farm labourer

penal colony settlement established for the purpose of housing prisoners

People's Charter written set of demands for political reform written in 1838 by representatives of the British working class

perkenier Dutch planter

petition collection of signatures to show support for or opposition to current or proposed laws

picket line human barrier of striking workers formed to stop non-union workers from entering a work site

piece-rate method of payment for work done by item produced

pillbox small low, concrete structure used to house troops and weapons for defence purposes

plebiscite vote by an entire population to accept or reject a proposal

proclamation public and/or official announcement

production line process in which a specific work task is performed over and over again

propaganda presentation of the incomplete truth for the purposes of creating and directing public opinion

protectionism economic policy designed to protect local industries from external competition

protectorate region controlled by a foreign power, with native powers kept in place to help control local population

puddling stirring iron in a furnace to remove impurities

pull factor something about a foreign country that it attractive to new settlers

Puritans small Christian sect

push factor something about a country that makes people want to leave

pushes urban gangs of young males

quota target amount

racial equality equal treatment for members of all races

rail gauge rail track width

reactionary politically conservative

reason rational thinking

recruitment process of encouraging people to enlist in the army

referendum vote by the entire electorate on a specific question

remuneration reward or payment for services

reparations payments for damages

republic system of government in which the head of state is one of the citizens

reserve government land set aside for use by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People. Often this land was unwanted by settlers

resistance opposition

responsible government government that is answerable to the people it represents

revolution sudden and often violent change in political leadership that creates a new social and economic structure for the nation

revolutionary socialism radical movement aimed at achieving a classless society immediately through a the violent overthrow of the government

rice Christian Indian convert to Christianity on being offered food

rotary motion moving in a circular path, for example a wheel

royal assent royal approval

Royal Commission formal government inquiry into an issue

sacred ground area of land that has special significance to a group of people

sakoku Japan's closed country policy, which lasted from 1633 to 1853

salient piece of land that extends into enemy territory so that the enemy surrounds it on three sides

samurai member of the Japanese warrior class during feudal times

scholar–official highly educated civil servant appointed by the Chinese emperor

secret society Chinese organisation established to protect the wellbeing of its members and make sure they lived by a specific code of conduct

sectarianism discrimination towards or exclusion of a group of people, based on a certain set of beliefs, often religious

secularism belief that the Church should have no role to play in government affairs

selector small-scale property owner who took advantage of the Selection Acts of the 1860s to establish a basic farm in the Australian colonies

sepoy Indian soldier in the British army

shogun Japanese military ruler

shonin *see* **chonin**

shrapnel pieces thrown out by an exploding bomb or shell

slave person who is the property of another

smelting process of separating metal from ore

social Darwinism belief that human races compete with one another for survival

social mobility ability of people in a society to become wealthier and move up from the socioeconomic class into which they were born

socialism belief that wealth should be redistributed from the rich to the poor

Son of Heaven traditional Chinese view that the emperor was a representative of God on Earth

Sonno Joi movement calling for the expulsion of foreigners and the restoration of the emperor's power

sphere of influence part of the world where a certain foreign power was recognised as having influence over others

spinning jenny multi-spool spinning frame invented by James Hargreaves in 1767 to manufacture yarn

squatter person who settled illegally on vacant Crown land

squattocracy squatters as a class; this term referred to the fact that squatters were emerging as the aristocracy or ruling class in Australian society

station large property on which animals such as cattle or sheep are raised

stockade temporary barrier to protect inhabitants from attack

suffrage right to vote

suffragists campaigners for women's right to vote

tariff tax on imported goods

terra nullius Latin for 'vacant land'. This was the legal basis upon which the British settled Australia in 1788

theatre of war large area in which all types of military action are found

toll payment made for the right to use a road, canal, bridge, etc.

total war war in which any weapons may be used and in which civilians can become targets because the home front is involved in the war effort

trade deficit result when the value of a country's imports is higher than the value of its exports

trade envoy government official given the task of establishing trade links with a foreign power

trade union organisation of workers from a particular industry united to achieve improvements in pay and working conditions

Trading with the Enemy Act legal restriction of commercial activities in countries with which you are at war

transatlantic slave trade European transportation of African slaves across the Atlantic Ocean to the American colonies

transplant (societies) smaller version of the society from which settlers came

transportation removal of prisoners from Britain by ship to a penal colony

trench warfare development of roughly parallel fighting lines, separated by No Man's Land, in which troops have some protection from attack and the weapons of the opposing forces

trenches long ditches constructed as a defence against attack

trespass injure a person or their property

triangular trade three-way trade comprising a source of raw materials, a manufacturer of goods and a market for the finished product

triennial elections elections held every third year

U-boat German submarine

unequal treaties one-sided treaties

universal suffrage right of all adults to vote

vaccination infection with a microbe to stimulate the immune system to build immunity against a certain disease

vertical motion movement up and down

viceroy person who acts as a deputy to the sovereign ruler, for example the viceroy of India

village common large piece of land that local people with 'common rights' could use

voluntary migration act of leaving a home country of one's own free will

volunteer person who joins the military forces of their own free will

War Precautions Act Act of parliament in 1914 to enable the Australian government to conduct the war

Western Front World War I trench system that ran from Belgium to Switzerland

Westminster system British system of democracy in which laws are created through the two houses of parliament

white feather symbol of cowardice

white-collar worker clerical or office worker

working man's paradise commonly held nineteenth-century view of Australia as offering workers the best rights, the shortest working day and the most pay of any workers in the world

INDEX

A

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People 208–14
  Battle of Pinjarra 206
  Christianisation/missions 211–15
  dispossession of land 200–206, 208
  Dr Matthew Moorhouse 211–12
  effect of British on 130–31, 197, 200–206
  First Nations 200
  land and conflict 131
  Myall Creek massacre 203–4
  native police 133–5
  opening of desert 214
  Poonindie Mission 212–13
  protection and paternalism 208, 244–6
  Queensland 132–5
  response to government policies 241–6
  rights 62
  Royal Commission 210–11
  terra nullius 200–201
  the Black Wars 204
  Truganini 243
  Walyer 242–3
  World War I 283–8
  Wiradjuri war 202
Aboriginal Protection Board of NSW 208
Afghan immigration 223
agricultural revolution 78–9
American Revolution 25
anti-war movement 63
Anzac legend 307–8
  see also Gallipoli campaign; World War I
APEC (Asia–Pacific Economic Cooperation) 191
architecture, China 148–9
art 33–4, 57
  China 148–9
  India 174
  Japan 190
Asia
  influence on world 23–4
  trade with Australia 191
  trade with Europe 19–20
Asia and the world 142–93
  responses to imperialism 145
  see also China; Dutch East Indies; India; Japan
Asian cultural influences 187–90 (source study)
Australia
  1998 Constitutional Convention 254–5
  1999 republic referendum 256
  Anzac legend 307–8
  birth of a nation 247–9 (source study)
  capitalism 41
  Chartism 52–3
  Church attendance 226
  colonial disunity 233
  commerce 42
  conflict between historians 203
  Constitution, the 208
  convicts 110, 123–5
  development of democracy 54, 198–9, 231–9
  egalitarianism 29–30 (60–61 source study)
  emergence of self-government 231
  extension of settlement 126, 197, 200–207
  federation 233–9, 247–9
  female suffrage 29
  First Fleet 118, 130
  government policies 199, 241–6
  growth of working class 17
  impact of Industrial Revolution 17
  industrialisation 83
  key legislation 199, 208, 250–53
  laboratory for democracy 231–2
  labour movement 46–7, 234
  leisure and entertainment 225
  life of the wealthy 228
  living conditions 198, 225–30
  migration to 113
  nationalism 55–8, 235
  opening of federal Parliament 250
  protectionism 233–4
  public health problems 227
  republic debate 254–6
  right to vote 28, 251
  rural life 229–30
  smallpox 216–18 (source study)
  spread of European disease 216–18
  strikes 47
  trade unionism 46, 98
  trade with Asia 191
  White Australia policy 251
  women 228–9, 232–3
  working conditions 17, 198, 225–30
  see also Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People; immigrant populations; immigration; making a nation—Australia; World War I
Australian egalitarianism 29–30 (60–61 source study)
Australian Labor Party 47
Australian wool 17, 42
  industry growth 126

B

Battle of Mont St Quentin 292–4 (source study)
'blackbirding' in the South Pacific 222–3
  see also slaves/slave trade
Boxer rebellion 21, 157–9
Britain
  Chartism 52
  industrialisation 78–83
  Japan craze in England 189
  trade with China 153
  see also World War I
British East India Company
  decline 176
  company rule 175–6
  Great Rebellion of 1857 176–7
  growth of influence 175
British Empire 81
British in Australia 130–31
  missions 212–14
  spread of settlement 197
  support of self-government 236
  see also Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People
British rule in India 20–21
  see also Dutch East Indies

C

canals 75–6
capitalism 14, 38
  emergence of, key ideas 41–4
celebrating the birth of a nation 247–9 (source study)

change and continuity
China 150–56
Dutch East Indies 184–5
India 175–9
Japan 164–7
changes to cities and landscapes 94–7
source study 86–7
changes to working conditions 90–93 (source study)
Chartism 27–8, 38, 40
emergence of, key ideas 52–3
cheap labour 79
see also labour and slavery
children, Industrial Revolution 88–9
China 146–59
birth of dynasty 146
Boxer rebellion 21
Canton System 19, 152
change and continuity 150–55
Emperor Qianlong 149
hereditary professionals 147
literature/art/architecture 148–9
Middle Kingdom 150
migration 23
opening 153
opium 153–5
porcelain 188
Qing society 147–8
scholar-officials 148
tea 187–8
war with Japan 168–9
see also Asia and the world
Chinese in Australia 219–21
anti-Chinese sentiment 220
secret societies 220
Christianisation of Aboriginal People 211–15
Christianity
India 179
Portuguese missionaries, India 172
spread of 20, 50
cities and landscapes
changes to 86–7 (source study)
growth of 15
inner-city crime 227
civil rights movement 62–3
classical democracy 26–7
coal mines 92–3
communications 89, 95, 236
conscription in Australia, World War I
divisions in society 302
enlistment dilemma 301
convicts 11, 17, 42, 106–7
escapees 123–4
experience of 118–19
punishment and reform 124–5
journey 118–19
convict transportation and the Industrial Revolution 106–7, 110–11
crime and punishment 110
overcrowded prisons 110
poverty and unemployment 110
to Australia 110
cotton industry 73–4
crime/punishment and convict transportation 110, 124–5, 227

D

Darwinism 40
democracy
development in Australia 54, 198–9, 231–9
struggle for 27–9
disease in Australia, spread of 216–18
documenting Queensland 132–5 (source study)
Dutch East Indies 145, 181–6
arrival of Dutch 182
British control 184
cultivation system 184
Dutch East India Company 182–3
liberal era 184–5
Spice Islands 181–2
wars of resistance 186
see also Asia and the world

E

economic ideas, emergence 25–35
egalitarianism 39
Australian 29–30, (60–61 source study)
emergence of, key ideas 59
Eiffel Tower 86–7 (source study)
emigration, Industrial Revolution 112–13
see also immigrant populations; immigration; migration
enclosed system, agriculture 79
Enlightenment, the 4–6
civilisation and progress 6–7
ideas of 4
influence of 5
environment, impact on 95–6
Eureka rebellion 28, 54–5
Europe
contact with India 172
socialism 45
European discovery and exploration 8
European disease, spread in Australia 216–18 (source study)
European imperialism 19–24
Asian responses to 145
rebellion against 20–21
see also imperialism
European influence 22
everyday life
electricity 89
frontier squatters 127–9
gas lighting 89
squatters 127–8
steam power 88
telephones 89
experience of non-Europeans pre-1900 219–24
experience of slaves 114–17 (source study)
see also slaves/slave trade

F

Fabian Society 46
factory work 90–91
federation, Australia 233–9, 247–9
colonies decide 237–8
free trade 236
reasons for 235–6
feudal society, Japan 161, 165
see also Japan
first American colonies 9
France *see* World War I
free settlers
and convicts 123
classes of travel 120
experience of 120–22
to Australia 9
French Revolution 26
frontier, the 126–9

G

Gallipoli campaign, World War I 276–80
August offensives 278–9
failure of 280
origins 276
training in Cairo 276–7
Germany *see* World War I

government, Australia 54, 198–9, 231–9
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's response to policy 241–6

I

ideas
emergence of 25–30
progressive 36–67
immigrant populations 219–24
coolie labour 219
gold rush 219–20
see also emigration; migration; movement of peoples
immigration
restricting Chinese 220
restriction 235
see also emigration; migration; movement of peoples
imperialism 38, 40
and colonisation 48
emergence of, key ideas 48–51
reasons for 49–51
rivalry 51
see also European imperialism
India
change and continuity 175–9
British education 178–9
British Raj 177–8
British rule 20–22
modernisation 22, 179
Mughals 170–74
response to British rule 180
trade 20
societal changes 178–9
see also Asia and the world; British East India Company
Industrial Age 13–18
industrialisation 71
conditions influencing 78–83
welfare 18
Industrial Revolution 68–101
changes to cities and landscapes 86–7, 94–7
changes to working conditions 90–93
convict transportation 17
emigration 112–13
factory system 14, 73
industrialisation conditions 78–83
long-term impacts 94–8
personal experiences 88–9
rise of capitalism 14
settlement patterns 84–5
short-term impacts 94–8
slave trade 105–9
technology 13, 72–7
trade and transport 14, 75–7
innovation, spread of 81–3, 96
steam engines 121
see also technology
interpreting historical sources 31
iron industry 74, 86–7

J

Japan 19, 160–69
art and design 190
Australian immigration 224
change and continuity 164–7
Commodore Perry 162–3
early contact 160
emergence as empire 167
end of isolation 163
end of the shogun 164
imperialism 24
industrialisation 83
Meiji constitution 166
military development 166–7
modernisation 22–3
reforming 165
Tokugawa rule 160–62
war with China 168–9
war with Russia 168–9
see also Asia and the world

L

labour and slavery 108–9
see also slaves/slave trade
liberalism 27
literacy rates 32
literature, China 148–9
living conditions
Australia 198, 225–30
Industrial Revolution 15–16
see also working conditions
London Missionary Society 214

M

Macquarie, Governor Lachlan 125
and Aboriginal People 131
making a nation—Australia 194–259
manufacturing 13
see also industrialisation; Industrial Revolution
Marx, Karl 45
medicine 13
men, Industrial Revolution 88–9
middle class, rise of 80, 97–8
migration 9–12, 23, 107
see also emigration; immigrant populations; immigration
modern world, making of 2–35
'advanced peoples' 6–7
birth of 4–7
emergence of ideas 25–30
European imperialism 19–24
ideas shaping 26–7
Industrial Age 13–18
movement of peoples 8–12
see also world
Moreton Bay (Queensland) 205–6
movement of peoples 102–41
blackbirding 11–12
British in Australia 130–31, 197, 212–14
convicts 11
early settlers 8
European discovery 8
free settlers 9, 120–23
frontier 126–9
impacts on immigrant populations 137
impacts on slaves 137–8
involuntary migration 10–12
long-term impacts 136–8
nature and extent 8–12
short-term impacts 136–8
slave trade 10
voluntary migration 9
see also emigration; immigrant populations; immigration; migration
movements
population 84–5
progressive 36–67

N

nationalism 27, 38, 39, 235
emergence of, key ideas 55–8
India 180
World War I 265
New South Wales
experience of Aboriginal People 208
Chinese 219–21
Aboriginal People, World War I 283
settlement 201–2

O

open field system, agriculture 78
overland stock route 209–11

P

Pacific Islander People 222–3
Parkes, Sir Henry 57–8
photography 32
political ideas, emergence 25–35
population movements 84–5
  distribution and growth 96
  new opportunities 84
  see also emigration; immigrant populations; immigration; migration; movement of peoples
Port Phillip District (Victoria) 205, 219–21
  Aboriginal People 211, 244–6
poverty 84
  convict transportation 110
  Australia 226
progressive ideas and movements 36–67
protection and paternalism, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People 208, 244–6
protest 62–7
public health problems 227
punishment *see* crime/punishment and convict transportation

Q

Queensland
  documenting 132–5 (source study)
  Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People, World War I 287
  Moreton Bay, settlement 205–6
  Pacific Islander People 222–3

R

race and identity 197, 251
race riots 221
radical 60s 62–3
railways 76–7, 88, 236
raw materials, Britain 80
republicanism 27
republic debate 254–6
Revolution, Industrial *see* Industrial Revolution
rights and freedoms 198
rise of capitalism 14
roads 75
rural experience 229–30

S

selectors 128–9, 229
settlement patterns 84–5
  extension of settlement 200–206
  Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People's response 241–6
  see also Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People; Australia; immigrant populations; immigration; migration; movement of peoples
shearer life 230
slaves/slave trade 10
  Africa 114
  experience of 114–17 (source study)
  Industrial Revolution 105–9
  need for labour 108–9
  profiting from 109
  the Americas 114–15
  see also movement of peoples
smallpox outbreak of 1789 216–18 (source study)
snapshots
  Asia and the world 1750–1918 144
  Industrial Revolution 1750–1914 70–71
  making a nation—Australia 1750–1918 196–7
  movement of peoples 1750–1901 104–5
  progressive ideas and movements 1750–1918 38–40
  World War I 1914–1918 262–3
social Darwinism 38
  emergence of, key ideas 55–8
social ideas, emergence 25–35
socialism, emergence of, key ideas 38, 39, 45–7
South Australia
  Afghan immigrants 223
  experience of Aboriginal People 211
  Aboriginal People, World War I 285
  settlement 206
squatters 43–4, 127–8
  and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People 131
  and selectors 128–9, 229
  establishing a home 127
  everyday life 127–8
steam engine 72, 121
steam power 88
steamships 77, 88
Swan River Colony (Western Australia), settlement 206

T

Tasmania
  Aboriginal People and government policy 241–3
  Aboriginal People, World War I 285–6
  settlement 204
technology
  advancements 13
  imperialism 49
  innovation 73–4, 80–83, 96, 121
terra nullius 200–201
Torres Strait Islander People *see* Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People
trade 14, 19–20
  China 151–2, 153–4
  free trade, Australia 236
  India 172
trade unionism
  Australia 29, 46
  emergence of, key ideas 38, 45–7
  growth 97–8
transport 75–7, 94–5, 105
  Britain 80, 108
transportation *see* convict transportation

U

unemployment 84
urban experience, Australia 225–8
urbanisation 84–5
useful sources, changing range of 31–5 (source study)

V

Van Diemen's Land, settlement 204
Versailles, Australia's gains (World War I) 306

Victoria (Port Phillip District)
Chinese 219–21
experience of Aboriginal People 211, 244–6
Aboriginal People, World War I 283–4
settlement 205

W

war *see* World War I
Watt, James 72
welfare 18
Western Australia
experience of Aboriginal People 209–11
Aboriginal People, World War I 287
Japanese immigrants 224
settlement 206
women
Australia, World War I 299–300
experience in Australia 228–9
Industrial Revolution 88–9
see also everyday life; living conditions
women's liberation movement 63
women's suffrage 232–3, 251
working conditions
Australia 17, 198, 225–30, 252
changes to 90–93 (source study)
Industrial Revolution 15–16
see also living conditions
world
and Asia 142–93
protest in the 62–7
see also modern world, making of
World War I 260–315
a new imperialism 265
Australia 263, 268–9, 273–5, 276–88, 292–303, 306–15
Australian Imperial Force 276–7
Battle of Mont St Quentin 292–4 (source study)
causes/origins 262, 264–9
censorship 296
Charles Bean 291
commemoration of 307–9
cost of 263, 304–6
eagerness for war 267–8
ending the war 304–6, 310
experiences of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People 283–8
fighting 289–91
fixed trench warfare 289
Gallipoli campaign 276–80
impact on Australia—conscription 301–3
impact on Australia—home front 295–300
in Europe 270–75
internees 297
Middle East 281
naval arms race 265
New Guinea 281
non-European theatres of war 281–2
photography 291
recording 289–91
repatriation 311
return to home 288, 311–12
Somme 271, 274
survivors 310–12
Third Battle of Ypres 272, 274
trench warfare 289
Verdun 271
volunteering to enlist 269
war at sea 290
war in 1916 271–2
weapons 289–90
Western Front 270
world of rapid change 264
see also Gallipoli campaign; World War I
written sources (of information) 32

Melbourne's Royal Exhibition Building by night, 1888, State Library of Victoria. In 1888, electric lights were installed which enabled visitors to come to the building for night viewing, a world first.