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australian curriculum

history 9

geraldine carrodus | tim delany | bernie howitt
richard smith | tony taylor | carmel young

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1 What were the key features of Japanese society around 1750?

2 How did Japanese society change as a result of contact with Western powers?

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

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1 What were the key features of Indian society around 1750?

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What is...

Oxford Big Ideas History?

Oxford Big Ideas History is a brand-new series developed and written specifically to meet the requirements of the Australian Curriculum across years 7–10. Based on a big ideas framework, the pedagogy enables students to develop deep, transferable understandings and skills.

Why big ideas?

The Australian Curriculum: History identifies a range of key inquiry questions—or **big ideas**—that span each year level and direct student learning. These big ideas, together with a range of historical skills, key concepts and cross-curricular priorities, form the foundation of the Australian Curriculum: History.

Research shows that students achieve greater success when the information they learn is connected to big ideas. *Oxford Big Ideas History* provides students and teachers with the opportunity to discover, explore and connect with an inquiry-based series written for the Australian Curriculum.

What are the big ideas?

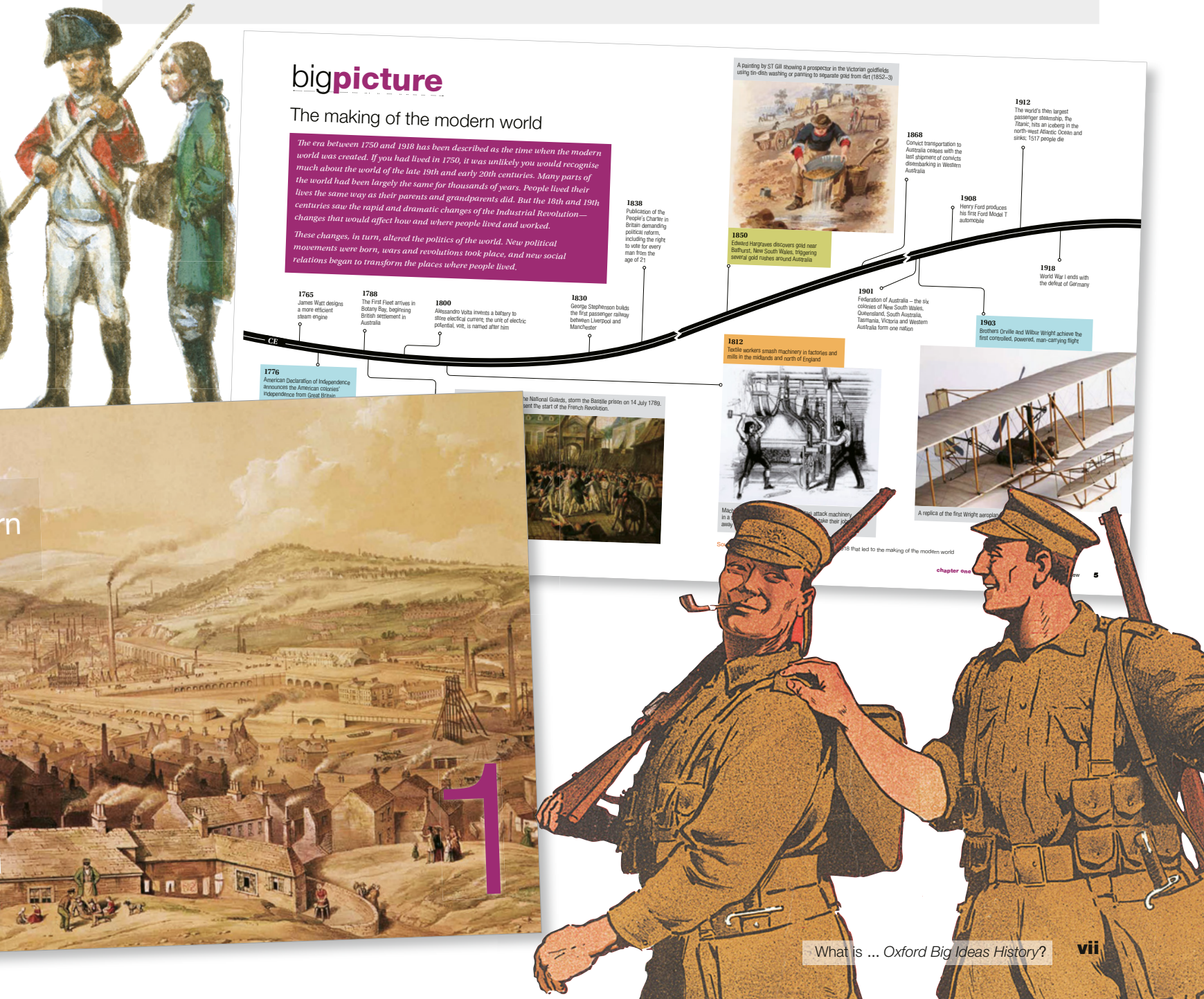
At each year level of the Australian Curriculum: History, students are expected to engage with a set of key inquiry questions, such as:

- 'How do we know about the ancient past?'
- 'What key beliefs and values emerged and how did they influence society?'
- 'How do new ideas and technological developments contribute to change?'
- 'How did the nature of global conflict change during the twentieth century?'

Oxford Big Ideas History is built around these big ideas. Each chapter of the course is carefully organised around these big questions that are linked directly to the Australian Curriculum: History—helping students develop deep, transferrable understandings and skills.

Key features

- organises learning around meaningful inquiry-based questions, or big ideas, that are closely mapped to the content of the Australian Curriculum: History
- provides complete coverage of all overview and depth study options from the curriculum across the print and digital components
- integrates both strands of the Australian Curriculum: History with an explicit focus on the acquisition of historical skills and key concepts at each year level
- caters for even the most reluctant learners, with a wealth of stunning images, illustrations and engaging source materials
- provides a complete teaching and learning program at each year level, in both print (textbooks, workbooks and teacher kits) and digital formats (obooks and interactive workbooks).

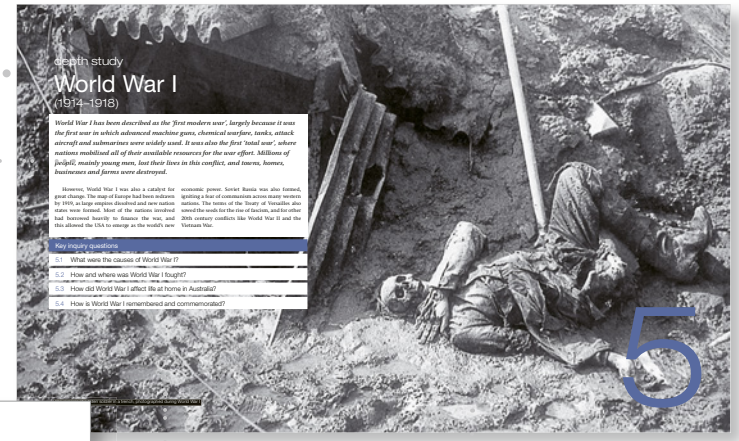


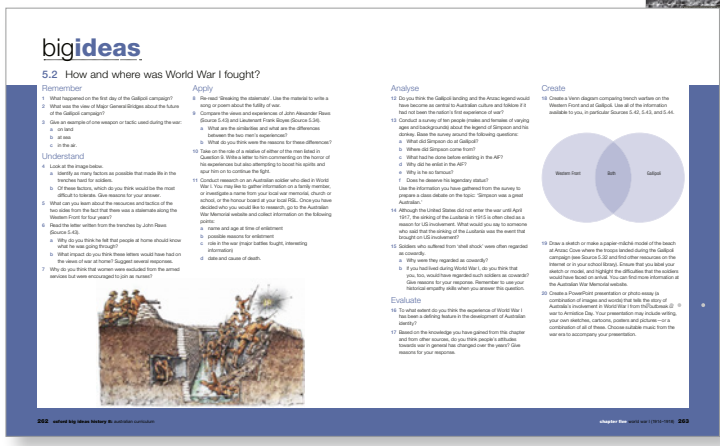
Using Oxford Big Ideas History

Big questions

Each chapter of *Big Ideas History* is structured around key inquiry questions from the Australian Curriculum. This supports students and teachers as they implement an inquiry-based approach to history.

Key inquiry questions are used to organise chapters and help students connect with learning.




bigideas

5.2 How and where was World War I fought?

Remember

1 What happened on the first day of the Gallipoli campaign?
2 What was the view of Major General Bridges about the future of the Gallipoli campaign?
3 Give an example of one weapon or tactic used during the war:
a on land
b at sea
c in the air.

Understand

4 Look at the image below.
a Identify as many factors as possible that made life in the trenches hard for soldiers.
b Of these factors, which do you think would be the most difficult to tolerate. Give reasons for your answer.
5 What can you learn about the resources and tactics of the two sides from the fact that there was a stalemate along the Western Front for four years?
6 Read the letter written from the trenches by John Rees (Source 5.43).
a Why do you think he felt that people at home should know what he was going through?
b What impact do you think these letters would have had on the views of war at home? Suggest several responses.
7 Why do you think that women were excluded from the armed services but were encouraged to join as nurses?

Apply

8 Re-read 'Breaking the stalemate'. Use the material to write a song or poem about the futility of war.
9 Compare the views and experiences of John Alexander Rees (Source 5.43) and Lieutenant Frank Royse (Source 5.44).
a What are the similarities and what are the differences between the two men's experiences?
b What do you think were the reasons for these differences?
10 Take on the role of a relative of either of the men listed in Question 9. Write a letter to him commenting on the horror of his experiences but also attempting to boost his spirits and spur him on to continue the fight.
11 Conduct research on an Australian soldier who died in World War I. You may like to gather information on a family member, or investigate a name from your local war memorial, church or school, or the honour board at your local RSL. Once you have decided who you would like to research, go to the Australian War Memorial website and collect information on the following points:
a name and age at time of enlistment
b possible reasons for enlistment
c role in the war (major battles fought, interesting information)
d date and cause of death.

Analyse

12 Do you think the Gallipoli landing and the Anzac legend would have become as central to Australian culture and folklore if it had not been the nation's first experience of war?
13 Conduct a survey of ten people (males and females of varying ages and backgrounds) about the legend of Simpson and his donkey. Base the survey around the following questions:
a What did Simpson do at Gallipoli?
b Where did Simpson come from?
c What had he done before enlisting in the AIF?
d Why did he enlist in the AIF?
e Why is he so famous?
f Does he deserve his legendary status?
Use the information you have gathered from the survey to prepare a class debate on the topic: 'Simpson was a great Australian.'
14 Although the United States did not enter the war until April 1917, the sinking of the Lusitania in 1915 is often cited as a reason for US involvement. What would you say to someone who said that the sinking of the Lusitania was the event that brought on US involvement?
15 Soldiers who suffered from 'shell shock' were often regarded as cowardly.
a Why were they regarded as cowardly?
b If you had lived during World War I, do you think that you, too, would have regarded such soldiers as cowards? Give reasons for your response. Remember to use your historical empathy skills when you answer this question.

Evaluate

16 To what extent do you think the experience of World War I has been a defining feature in the development of Australian identity?
17 Based on the knowledge you have gained from this chapter and from other sources, do you think people's attitudes towards war in general has changed over the years? Give reasons for your response.

Create

18 Create a Venn diagram comparing trench warfare on the Western Front and at Gallipoli. Use all of the information available to you, in particular Sources 5.42, 5.43, and 5.44.

19 Draw a sketch or make a papier-mâché model of the beach at Anzac Cove where the troops landed during the Gallipoli campaign (see Source 5.32 and find other resources on the Internet or in your school library). Ensure that you label your sketch or model, and highlight the difficulties that the soldiers would have faced on arrival. You can find more information at the Australian War Memorial website.
20 Create a PowerPoint presentation or photo-essay (a combination of images and words) that tells the story of Australia's involvement in World War I from the Australian declaration of war to Armistice Day. Your presentation may include writing, your own sketches, cartoons, posters and pictures—or a combination of all of these. Choose suitable music from the war era to accompany your presentation.

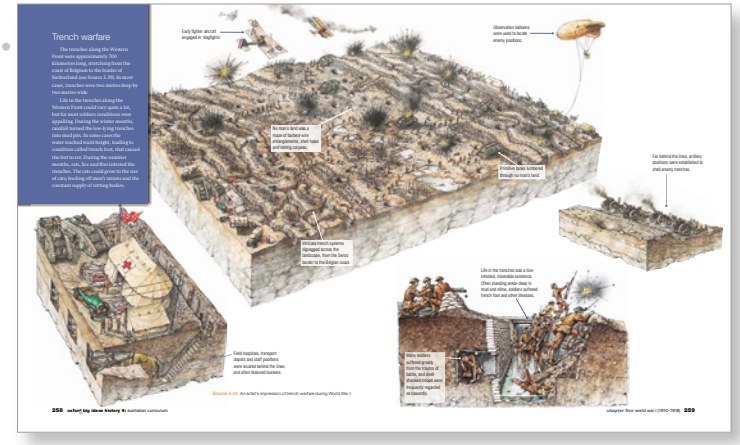
Learning sequences are carefully organised around the key inquiry questions in the Australian Curriculum to help students delve deeply into topics.

Stunning images to generate discussion and interest.

Big ideas activity blocks at the end of each section use Bloom's Taxonomy and other strategies to cater for a multiplicity of learning styles.

Engaging learning

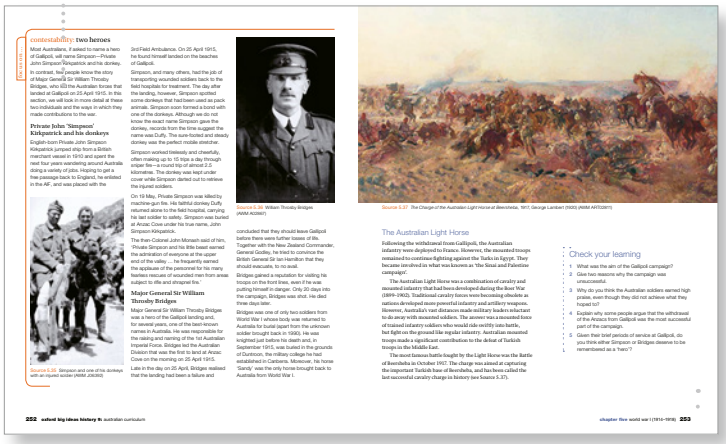
Each student book chapter combines a range of engaging historical sources, skills and concepts with a wide range of supporting activities. This content is brought to life with stunning illustrations and photographs to engage students.



Stunning full-colour illustrations, maps and photographs encourage even the most reluctant learners to engage in historical inquiry.

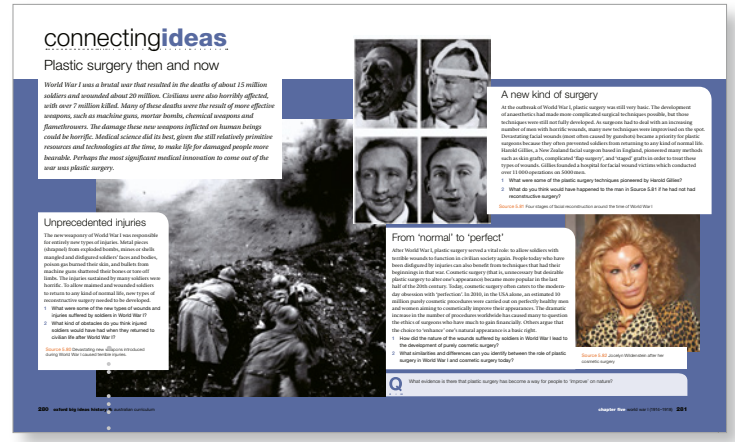
Deep learning

Key concepts are explicitly covered in overview chapter, and are constantly revisited throughout each chapter in the '**focus on ...**' boxes, allowing students to consolidate their learning.



Content is designed for depth of learning. Concepts are revisited with increasing levels of complexity so that students gain a rich understanding of key historical concepts.

Check your learning question blocks appear throughout the chapter, allowing students to reflect on and consolidate their learning.



Connecting ideas activities encourage students to transfer and connect what they have learned in each chapter to areas of interest or personal experience, making learning fun and meaningful.

Integrated teaching and learning support

obook

The **obook** is Oxford's next generation ebook, offering online and offline access to the complete range of content at each year level. Each **obook** contains a range of interactive resources, as well as links to video, audio and supporting websites. The **obook** allows students to take notes and highlight text, then save and export their work.

Workbook

Each level *Oxford Big Ideas History* is supported by a Workbook that provides extra practice of key historical skills and supports an inquiry-based approach to learning—perfect for use in class or at home. An interactive digital Workbook is also available.

Teacher Kit

Each Teacher Kit includes the student textbook in a wraparound format containing teaching strategies, lesson ideas and planning tips, assessment advice and suggested answers to all activities in the textbook and Workbook.

Australian Curriculum: History 9—Scope and sequence

The Australian Curriculum: History is organised into two interrelated strands: Historical Knowledge and Understanding and Historical Skills. *Oxford Big Ideas History 9* has been written to address both of these strands in an integrated way and enable students to meet the Year 9 achievement standard.

Year 9 Level Description (excerpt)	The Year 9 curriculum provides a study of the history of the making of the modern world from 1750 to 1918. It was a period of industrialisation and rapid change in the ways people lived, worked and thought. It was an era of nationalism and imperialism, and the colonisation of Australia was part of the expansion of European power. The period culminated in World War I 1914–1918, the 'war to end all wars'.
Key inquiry questions	The key inquiry questions at this year level are: • What were the changing features of the movements of people from 1750 to 1918? • How did new ideas and technological developments contribute to change in this period? • What was the origin, development, significance and long-term impact of imperialism in this period? • What was the significance of World War I?

Historical knowledge and understanding

		Chapters	Suggested class time
Overview	This overview of the historical period **MUST** be studied	1.0 The making of the modern world: an overview	10%
Depth studies	**Making a better world?** Choose **ONE** of the depth study options ➞	o Progressive ideas and movements [**o**book only] 2.0 The Industrial Revolution 3.0 Movement of peoples	30%
	Australia and Asia Choose **ONE** of the depth study options ➞	o Asia and the world [**o**book only] 4.0 Making a nation	30%
	World War I This depth study **MUST** be studied ➞	5.0 World War I	30%

Historical skills

Chronology, terms and concepts	• Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events and developments in different periods and places (ACHHS164) • Use historical terms and concepts (ACHHS165)
Historical questions and research	• Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry (ACHHS66) • Evaluate and enhance these questions (ACHHS167) • Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods (ACHHS168)
Analysis and use of sources	• Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS169) • Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in an historical argument (ACHHS170) • Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS171)
Perspectives and interpretations	• Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past (ACHHS172) • Identify and analyse different historical interpretations (including their own) (ACHHS173)
Explanation and communication	• Develop texts, particularly descriptions and discussions that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced (ACHHS174) • Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies (ACHHS175)

Year 9 achievement standard

By the end of Year 9, students refer to key events and the actions of individuals and groups to explain patterns of change and continuity over time. They analyse the causes and effects of events and developments and make judgments about their importance. They explain the motives and actions of people at the time. Students explain the significance of these events and developments over the short and long term. They explain different interpretations of the past.

Students sequence events and developments within a chronological framework, with reference to periods of time and their duration. When researching, students develop different kinds of questions to frame an historical inquiry. They interpret, process, analyse and organise information from a range of primary and secondary sources and use it as evidence to answer inquiry questions. Students examine sources to compare different points of view. When evaluating these sources, they analyse origin and purpose, and draw conclusions about their usefulness. They develop their own interpretations about the past. Students develop texts, particularly explanations and discussions, incorporating historical interpretations. In developing these texts, and organising and presenting their conclusions, they use historical terms and concepts, evidence identified in sources, and they reference these sources.

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overview

The making of the modern world: an overview

In 1750, the world was on the verge of great change. While agriculture and village life still dominated most areas, scientific and rational thinking was challenging an exlusively religious view of the world. Over the next 150 years, a surge of technological developments transformed Western economies and societies, with industrial towns and cities replacing agricultural communities. European powers competed to establish more ***colonies*** *to meet the demand for raw materials and establish new markets. Mass movements of people across the globe began—some were looking for better opportunities, others were transported as slaves or convicts.*

Over the period, European **empires** became engaged in conflict, dragging colonies and allies into war in the Pacific, Middle East and Europe. New war technologies increased people's capacity to destroy each other. By 1918, the world had experienced its first 'world war'.

Rapid **industrialisation** and **urbanisation** also saw the emergence of workers' rights. Revolutions in the United States of America and France became critical events in the spread of new ideas about democracy and political organisation.

Key inquiry questions

1.1 What factors affected the movement of peoples from 1750 to 1918?

1.2 How did new ideas and technologies contribute to change from 1750 to 1918?

1.3 How did imperialism affect the making of the modern world?

1.4 What was the significance of World War I?

This lithograph depicts a view of industrial Sheffield, England, in the 19th century.

1

bigpicture

The making of the modern world

The era between 1750 and 1918 has been described as the time when the modern world was created. If you had lived in 1750, it was unlikely you would recognise much about the world of the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Many parts of the world had been largely the same for thousands of years. People lived their lives the same way as their parents and grandparents did. But the 18th and 19th centuries saw the rapid and dramatic changes of the Industrial Revolution—changes that would affect how and where people lived and worked.

These changes, in turn, altered the politics of the world. New political movements were born, wars and revolutions took place, and new social relations began to transform the places where people lived.

1775
James Watt designs a more efficient steam engine

1776
American Declaration of Independence announces the American colonies' independence from Great Britain

1788
The First Fleet arrives in Botany Bay, beginning British settlement in Australia

1789
Outbreak of the French Revolution as a consequence of high bread prices and dissatisfaction with the ruling aristocrats who levied high taxes to support extravagant lifestyles

1800
Alessandro Volta invents a battery to store electrical current; the unit of electric potential, volt, is named after him

1830
George Stephenson builds the first passenger railway between Liverpool and Manchester

1838
Publication of the People's Charter in Britain demanding political reform, including the right to vote for every man from the age of 21

CE

The committee that drafted the American Declaration of Independence: (l to r) Thomas Jefferson, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Franklin, Robert R Livingston and John Adams

Citizens of Paris, headed by the National Guards, storm the Bastille prison on 14 July 1789. This event has come to represent the start of the French Revolution.

A painting by ST Gill showing a prospector in the Victorian goldfields using tin-dish washing or panning to separate gold from dirt (1852–3)

1851
Edward Hargraves discovers gold near Bathurst, New South Wales, triggering several gold rushes around Australia

1868
Convict transportation to Australia ceases with the last shipment of convicts disembarking in Western Australia

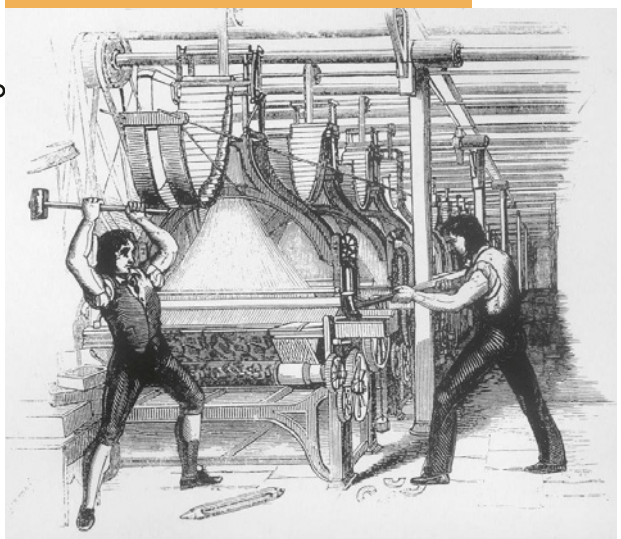
1908
Henry Ford produces his first Ford Model T automobile

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

1901
Federation of Australia – the six colonies of New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria and Western Australia form one nation

1903
Brothers Orville and Wilbur Wright achieve the first controlled, powered, man-carrying flight

1812
Textile workers smash machinery in factories and mills in the midlands and north of England



Machine-wreckers (nicknamed Luddites) attack machinery in a textile factory because they think it will take their jobs away from them.

A replica of the first Wright aeroplane used in 1903

Source 1.1 A timeline of key events during 1750–1918 that led to the making of the modern world

Source 1.2 *The immigrants' ship*, 1884, by John Charles Dollman, showing a young family moving to a new country to find a better future. The original is held by the Art Gallery of South Australia, Adelaide.

1.1 What factors affected the movement of peoples from 1750 to 1918?

According to the United Nations, the world's population grew from 310 million in 1000 CE to 790 million in 1750. By 1920, it had risen to 1.86 billion. Not only did the world's population rise dramatically in this period, but its distribution also started changing as people moved to new lands.

Between 1750 and 1900, Asia's share of the world population dropped from 63.5 per cent to under 58 per cent. In contrast, North America's population rose from 0.3 per cent to 5 per cent in the same period. Oceania's population tripled from 2 million to 6 million as British colonies in Australia and New Zealand started to prosper.

This period of great population growth also saw increased movement of peoples. There were three main categories of people moving around the world at this time. Slavery, an accepted practice, involved African people being forcibly taken to the Americas as a source of free labour. Great Britain in particular **transported** convicted prisoners to distant colonies, and Australia was specifically founded for this reason. Free settlers also started travelling to new lands in search of new opportunities. Sometimes, finds of precious metals like gold started this process. Gold rushes in the USA, Canada and Australia during the 19th century helped transform the populations of these settlements.

Major movements of peoples

By the 19th century, industrialisation in Europe was forcing people from farms into cities. It was a time of change that created problems for many societies. Factories were replacing farms as the main form of employment, and people without jobs were often forced to resort to theft to survive.

In the first countries to industrialise, some people chose to **migrate** to distant colonies. With crime rates rising as people struggled to live, the transportation of convicted criminals became another way of moving people across the world. The practice of slavery also continued to ensure that millions were forcibly relocated from Africa to the Americas.

Slavery

Slavery has been part of human society since ancient times. Many people have been captured through conquest and enslaved. Other societies have allowed bonded servitude (working for someone without wages to repay a debt), which was a kind of temporary slavery very common with poorer Britons wishing to move to the Americas. **Human trafficking** has emerged in the 21st century as a contemporary form of slavery.

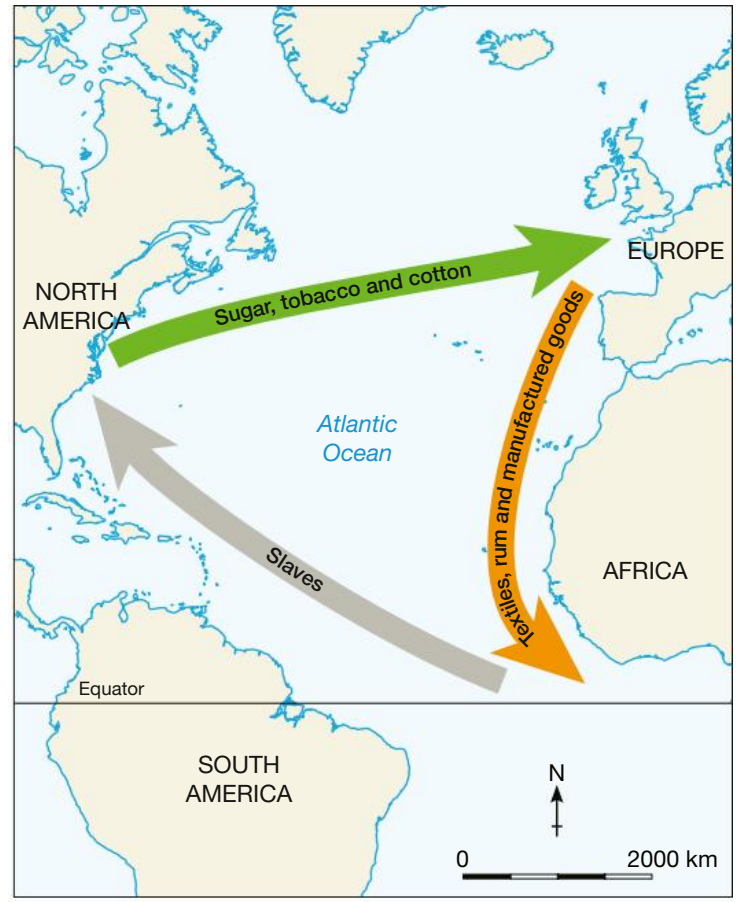
The triangular trade

Between the 16th and 19th centuries, the transatlantic slave trade was responsible for the forcible movement of around 12 million Africans to the Americas. This trade is now known as **triangular trade**. Europeans first purchased slaves in Africa and sent them to the Americas to be sold again as slaves on sugar-cane, cotton and tobacco plantations. The raw materials from those plantations were then taken back to Europe to be refined or sold in European markets. Some of the refined products of those raw products (such as textiles made from cotton and sweets made from sugar cane) were then sold in African markets (see Source 1.3).

The impact of the slave trade

Of the 12 million slaves transported across the Atlantic, it is thought that over a million died during the journey. Conditions were cruel and cramped. Those that did arrive in the Americas were usually in poor condition. The work was physically demanding, and slaves became the property of the landowners who purchased them. Families were often broken up (see Source 1.4), and life for several generations of slaves and their descendants was exceedingly difficult. It took until 1964 for a Civil Rights Act to be passed in the USA that gave African Americans genuine legal protection by outlawing racial discrimination.

One impact of the slave trade was a change in the racial composition of many communities in the Americas. Today, over 12 per cent of the population of the USA is of African American descent, while in the Caribbean countries of Haiti, Cuba and the Dominican Republic the figure varies between 35 per cent (Cuba) and 95 per cent (Haiti). This was a major movement of peoples that changed the region permanently.



Source 1.3 The transatlantic triangular trade route between Europe, Africa and the Americas

Source 1.4 *The Parting*, painted in 1863, shows a slave woman begging to be bought so that her family would not be split up

key**concepts**

Empathy

Historical **empathy** is understanding what happened in the past through the perspective of people living at the time. It involves explaining people's behaviour based on an appreciation of their specific beliefs, customs and **values**. Rather than merely knowing what people did, historical empathy allows us to understand why they did it.

Empathy does not mean judging a culture or people subjectively, by your standards. It requires an objective understanding of the social and cultural norms of the period you are studying. Historical empathy requires a deep understanding of the context of a particular period, so that you can understand people's motives and intentions. Empathy does not excuse the actions of people in the past, but it does allow us to understand them better.

By the 18th century, the slave trade across the Atlantic Ocean was well established. It is estimated that up to 12 million people may have been carried to the Americas as slaves. The conditions they travelled in were often horrific, and campaigns to abolish the transatlantic slave trade became stronger in the 19th century.

Primary sources allow us to gain some understanding of the conditions slaves endured. We cannot become African slaves, but by using empathy it is possible to develop a deeper understanding of what they experienced. That understanding may then help historians understand the motivations of the anti-slavery campaigners, and explain why the slave trade was eventually abolished.

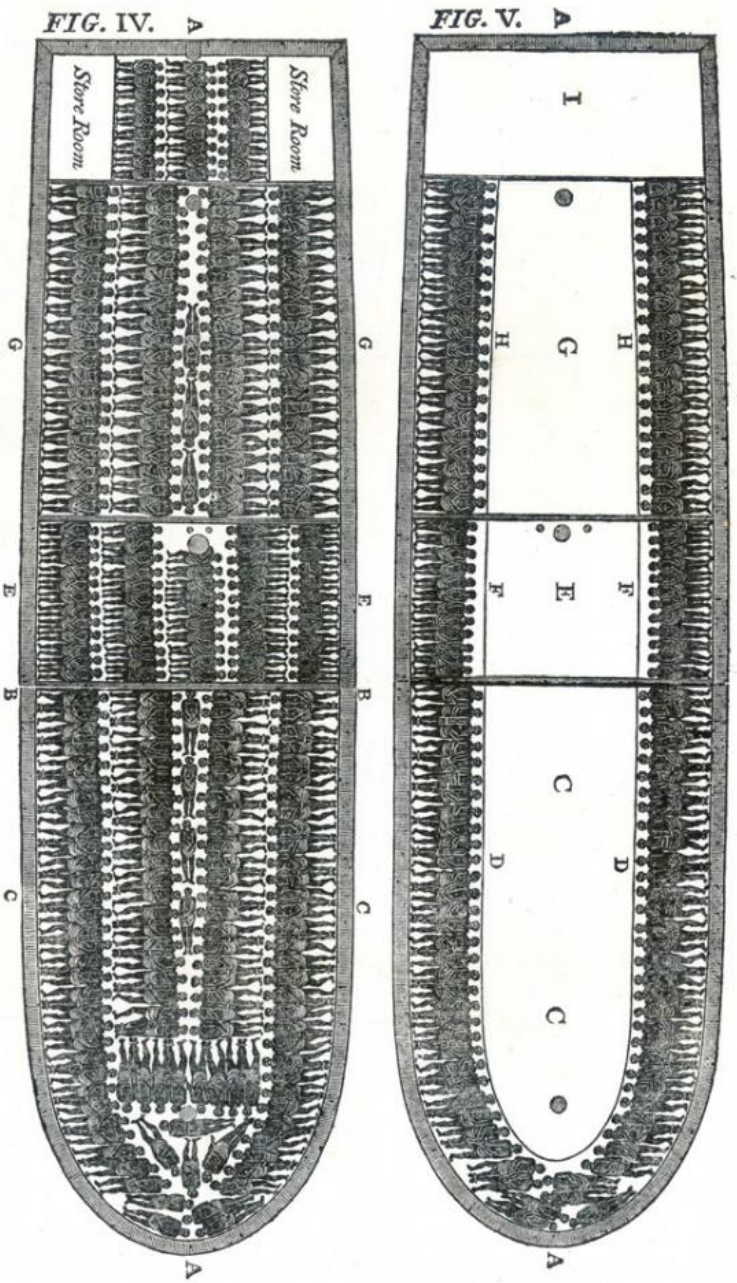
Source 1.5 A Portuguese slave owner punishing an enslaved African in 19th century Brazil, a painting by Jean Baptiste Debret

Source 1.6

I was soon put down under the decks, and there I received such a greeting in my nostrils as I had never experienced in my life; so that, with the loathsomeness of the stench, and crying together, I became so sick and low that I was not able to eat, nor had I the least desire to taste anything. I now wished for the last friend, death, to relieve me; but soon, to my grief, two of the white men offered me eatables; and, on my refusing to eat, one of them held me fast by the hands, and laid me across, I think, the windlass, and tied my feet, while the other flogged me severely. The white people looked and acted, as I thought, in so savage a manner; for I had never seen among my people such instances of brutal cruelty. 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, almost suffocated us. 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. The wretched situation was again aggravated by the chains, now unsupportable, and the filth of the necessary tubs, into which the children often fell, and were almost suffocated. The shrieks of the women, and the groans of the dying, rendered the whole a scene of horror almost inconceivable.

Extract from the autobiography of Olaudah Equiano, who was captured and sold as a slave in Benin. He wrote about his experiences in *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, or Gustavus Vassa, the African*, published in 1789.

Source 1.7 An illustration from *The Illustrated London News*, 20 June 1857, showing how slaves were packed together on board slave ships



Source 1.8 A plan of the British slave ship *Brookes* in 1789. This shows it carrying 454 slaves, 'tightly packed', after the Slave Trade Regulation Act of 1788. Before the Act, the *Brookes* carried between 609 and 740 slaves.

1 Use Sources 1.5 to 1.8 to list the conditions slaves had to endure on their journey from Africa to the Americas.

2 Research the views of those who supported the slave trade. Is it more difficult to empathise with them? Why would it be important to consider their point of view?

3 The teacher will divide the class into four groups. Each group should prepare a newspaper article about the slave trade as follows:
   - a Group 1, a pro-slavery article from 1790
   - b Group 2, an anti-slavery article from 1790
   - c Group 3, a modern article arguing why slavery was an economic necessity in the 18th century
   - d Group 4, a modern article arguing that slavery in the 18th century was morally wrong.

4 As a class, discuss the difficulties in writing the articles. Which were the easiest? How does this experience help you understand the concept of empathy?

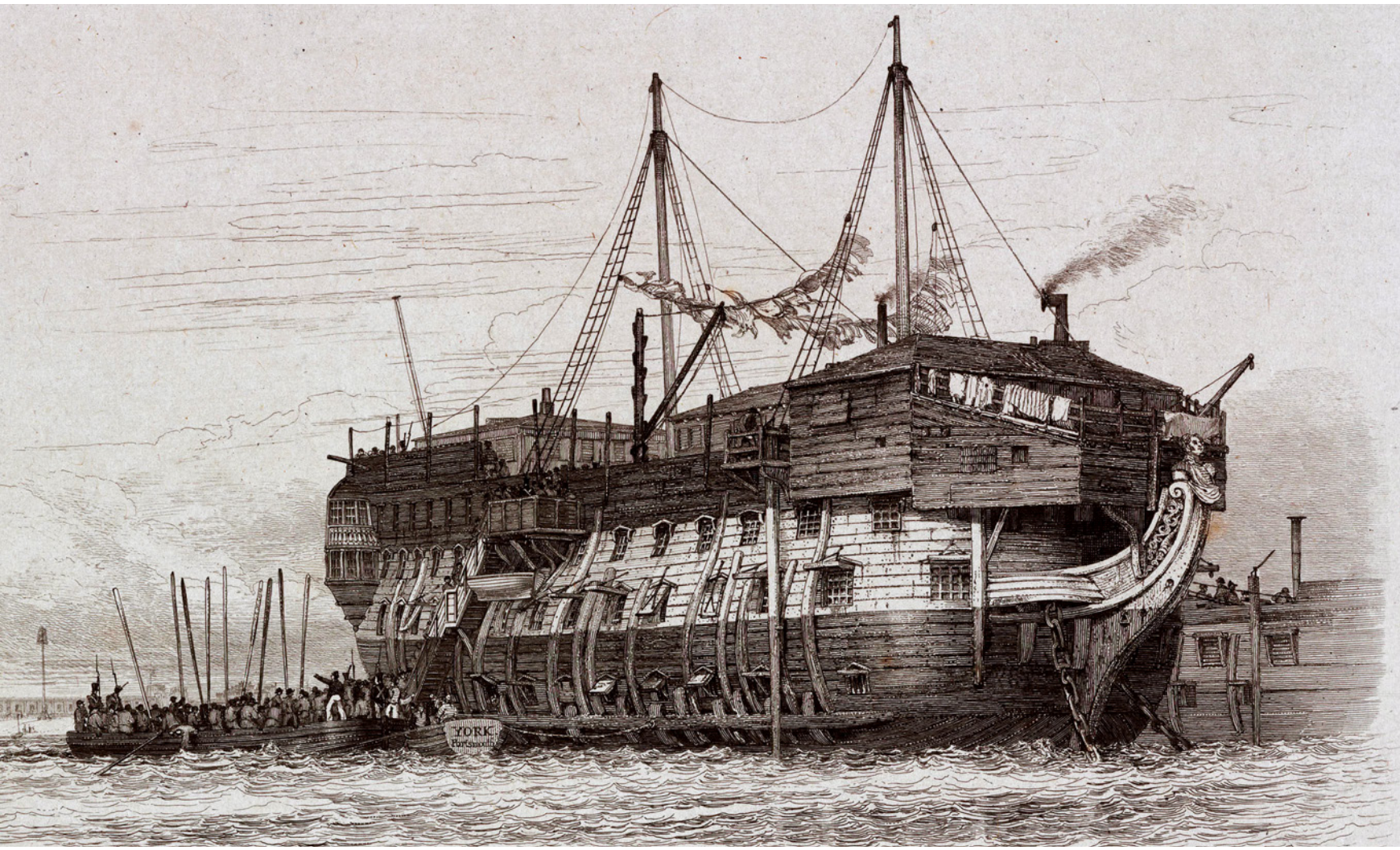
Transportation

The rapid growth in European cities had an unforseen consequence. There was a drift of people from farms into cities in search of employment. That drift was accompanied by a rise in crime as people struggled to survive. In France, prisoners were transported to Devil's Island off the coast of French Guiana in north-eastern South America. Many convicts remained in French Guiana with land grants if they survived their time on the island.

British transportation

Britain was responsible for most transportation of convicts. Until the American Revolution in 1775, most were sent to the American colonies. It is thought that about 50 000 may have arrived in North America as prisoners. Once the American colonies revolted against Britain, prisoner numbers in Britain continued to grow.

Prisoners were also housed in rotting hulks, ships that were no longer considered seaworthy (see Source 1.9). These were moored in harbours such as Plymouth, Woolwich, Chatham, Portsmouth and Sheerness. The hulks became overcrowded, and the settlement in Sydney was established, at least in part, to receive transported convicts.



Source 1.9 A prison hulk receiving convicts in Portsmouth Harbour in 1829, drawn and etched by Edward W Cooke

Source 1.10 An illustration of English convicts in leg chains being led to prison hulks for transportation, 1821

The most common offences that brought transportation to the colony of New South Wales after 1788 included pick-pocketing, sheep and horse stealing, highway robbery and burglary. Many convicts were from the new cities, and many were young.

In the Australian colonies

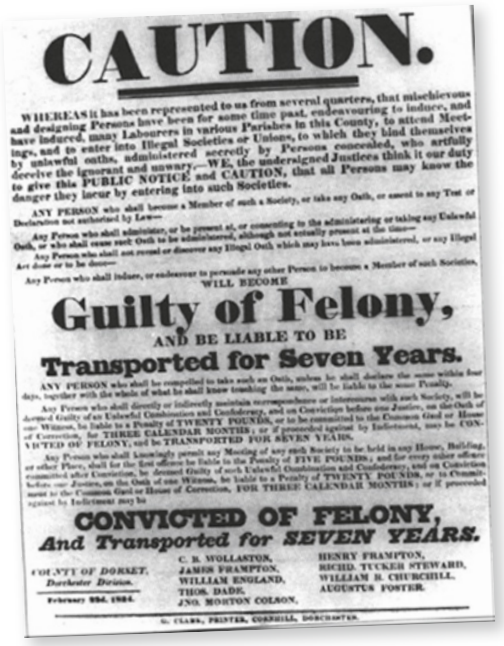
The new colony struggled to establish itself at first. Convicts and their guards had not been selected for their farming skills, and the fledgling colony came close to starvation in the first year. Australia was established as a remote outpost, and convicts were critical to the foundation of the country.

In an 80-year period up until 1868, over 165 000 convicts were transported to every Australian state except South Australia. Until the gold rushes of the 1850s, transportation was a major provider of Australia's population.

Political prisoners

One important implication of the transportation policy was the arrival of political prisoners in Australia. Many in Britain were questioning the conditions the poor were being forced to endure. Political organisations like the **Chartists** produced perfect candidates for transportation when they challenged traditional political control.

The Tolpuddle Martyrs , who encouraged agricultural workers to form a trade union, joined anti-government protesters from Ireland, Scotland and Yorkshire on the boats to Australia (see Source 1.11). Although the numbers of political prisoners was never large, it ensured that the new colony would have a vibrant community of political protesters. This would later be seen in such events as the Eureka Stockade and the popular support for anti-establishment figures such as Ned Kelly. Even the rejection of **conscription** during World War I had its roots in the attitudes of the political prisoners Britain transported.


CAUTION.

WHEREAS it has been represented to us from several quarters, that mischievous and designing Persons have been for some time past, endeavouring to induce, and have indeed, many Labourers in various Parishes in this County, to attend Meetings, and to enter into Illegal Societies or Unions, to which they bind themselves by unlawful oaths, administered secretly by Persons concealed, who artfully deceive the ignorant and unwary:—WE, the undersigned Justices think it our duty to give this PUBLIC NOTICE and CAUTION, that all Persons may know the danger they incur by entering into such Societies.

ANY PERSON who shall become a Member of such a Society, or take any Oath, or assent to any Test or Declaration not authorized by Law—

Any Person who shall administer, or be present at, or concurring in the administering or taking any Unlawful Oath, or who shall cause such Oath to be administered, although not actually present at the time—

Any Person who shall not reveal or discover any Illegal Oath which may have been administered, or any Illegal Act done or to be done—

Any Person who shall induce, or endeavour to persuade any other Person to become a Member of such Societies,

WILL BECOME

Guilty of Felony,

AND BE LIABLE TO BE

Transported for Seven Years.

ANY PERSON who shall be compelled to take such an Oath, unless he shall declare the same within four days, together with the whole of what he shall know touching the same, will be liable to the same Penalty.

Any Person who shall directly or indirectly maintain correspondence or intercourse with such Society, will be deemed Guilty of an Unlawful Combination and Confederacy, and on Conviction before one Justice, on the Oath of one Witness, be liable to a Penalty of TWENTY POUNDS, or to be committed to the Common Gaol or House of Correction, for THREE CALENDAR MONTHS; or if proceeded against by Indictment, may be CONVICTED OF FELONY, and be TRANSPORTED FOR SEVEN YEARS.

Any Person who shall knowingly permit any Meeting of any such Society to be held in any House, Building, or other Place, shall for the first offence be liable to the Penalty of FIVE POUNDS, and for every other offence committed after Conviction, be deemed Guilty of such Unlawful Combination and Confederacy, and on Conviction before one Justice, on the Oath of one Witness, be liable to a Penalty of TWENTY POUNDS, or to Commitment to the Common Gaol or House of Correction, FOR THREE CALENDAR MONTHS; or if proceeded against by Indictment may be

CONVICTED OF FELONY,

And Transported for SEVEN YEARS.

COUNTY OF DORSET, *Dorchester Division.*

February 23rd, 1834.

C. B. WOLLASTON,
JAMES FRAMPTON,
WILLIAM ENGLAND,
THOS. DADE,
JNO. MORTON COLSON,
HENRY FRAMPTON,
RICHD. TUCKER STEWARD,
WILLIAM B. CHURCHILL,
AUGUSTUS FOSTER.

G. CLARK, PRINTER, CORNHILL, DORCHESTER.

Source 1.11 Following the public posting of this caution, the Tolpuddle Martyrs were convicted and transported.

key**concepts**

Perspectives

Different people will often have different **perspectives** (or points of view) about the same topic or issue. This may be a reflection of the person's age, gender, education, prejudices or fears. It may also just reflect a lack of information. For example, witnesses to an argument between two classmates will probably have different views about what happened. These will depend on how much witnesses saw or heard; what they feel about those involved; and their own opinions about the topic being debated.

Understanding the different perspectives of people from the past helps historians to consider what might have motivated these people. The more perspectives historians consider about an event or person, the more likely they are to get closer to the truth.

Source 1.12 An illustration of the Female Factory at Parramatta, which was built in 1821.

Source 1.13

It is perfectly notorious and indubitable [undoubted], that the common practice of the convict women is to get into service, in order to obtain money by theft or prostitution, and return to the depot to spend it with their associates. The natural consequence is, that they are utterly insubordinate [disobedient] and lead most flagitious [criminal] lives, refusing to stop in any place where a restraint is put on their vices, plainly telling their masters that they infinitely prefer the depot—the scene of jollity and every evil communication.

Extract from *A System of Penal Discipline* by Rev. HP Fry, rector of St George's Church, Hobart Town, originally published in London in 1850

Source 1.14

The conduct of the female convicts is described as being 'as bad as anything could well be'. So great is the danger and dread of contamination to the children from these wretched creatures, that it is a common practice to employ men in domestic duties which in this country women always perform, and to dispense with servants altogether as much as practicable.

From a London newspaper editor's account of England's Inquiry into Transportation, reprinted in *Nenagh Gardian* (Co Tipperary, Ireland), 5 September 1838

Source 1.15

The state in which the place itself [the Parramatta Factory for female convicts] was kept, and the state of disgusting filth in which I found it, both on an early visit after my arrival, and on one preceding my departure; the disordered, unruly and licentious [indecent] appearance of the women; manifested the little degree of control in which the female convicts were kept ...

Extract from the *Report of the Commissioner of Inquiry into The State of the Colony of New South Wales*, presented by JT Bigge to the British House of Commons on 19 June 1822

1 Examine Sources 1.13 to 1.15. Can you identify the perspective of the author of each source?

2 What would be the problem of using only these sources to write a history of convicts in Australia? What other perspectives would it be necessary to consider if you wanted to develop a balanced history?

Migration

The brutality associated with the forced movement of slaves and convicts tend to overshadow the stories of large numbers of people who moved across the world relatively freely. Throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, whole families crossed seas in search of safety and better life opportunities.

United States of America

The USA was transformed in the 19th century. Between 1836 and 1914, it is estimated that 30 million Europeans migrated to the USA. Many came from Ireland after it suffered a devastating famine between 1845 and 1852. Others came from Germany, whose people were caught up in the political upheavals that eventually resulted in unification in 1871. The discovery of gold in California in 1848 also brought a new wave of migrants, including, for the first time, large numbers of Chinese. This resulted in the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, which specifically prevented Chinese **immigration** to the USA for about 10 years.

This wave of migration saw the American population grow dramatically. In the first national census in 1790, the country's population was just under four million. By the 1910 **census**, it had risen to over 90 million—a population explosion fuelled by free migration. Until the 20th century, there was no real restriction on migration to the USA, and millions of people saw it as the land of opportunity.

It was this population growth that enabled the USA to industrialise so rapidly in the 20th century. A large population meant a large domestic market and, until the Great Depression of the 1930s, the American economy boomed on the back of migration.

Source 1.16 An illustration from *Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper,* 1887, showing immigrants arriving in New York

Australia

In the first half of the 19th century, the bulk of Australia's migrants were from Britain. Like the convict population, they were escaping poverty and the apparent hopelessness of life in industrial Britain. The Irish famine also saw a rise in Irish migration to Australia.

The gold rushes from 1851 had a transformative effect on Australia's population. Free settlers flocked from around the world in search of instant wealth. As with the USA, an influx of Chinese changed the racial mix and caused resentment among the white Europeans. Ultimately, this change would contribute to the development of the **White Australia policy** immigration laws, which would be in place until the 1970s.

Check your learning

1. In your own words, define the term 'triangular trade'.
2. Where did the French transport convicts?
3. What did the British use as prisons in the 18th and 19th centuries?
4. Which Australian colony never received convicts?
5. What impact did the gold rushes have on the USA and Australia?

keyconcepts

Cause and effect

A cause is something that produces an effect or an action. An effect is a change resulting from this action. Generally an effect will then cause a subsequent action or event, which will then cause yet another action, and so on. History provides countless examples of the link between these two factors, and the ability to identify **cause and effect** is a critical skill.

Cause and effect may be observed over the short term, or a much longer period. For example, the arrival of the First Fleet to establish a colony in Australia in 1788 disrupted the lives of the Cadigal people of the Sydney Cove area immediately. Diseases such as smallpox and chickenpox infected the Indigenous population, which was decimated within a year of the colony starting. By the 21st century, the effects of European occupation on Indigenous Australians are much more widespread.

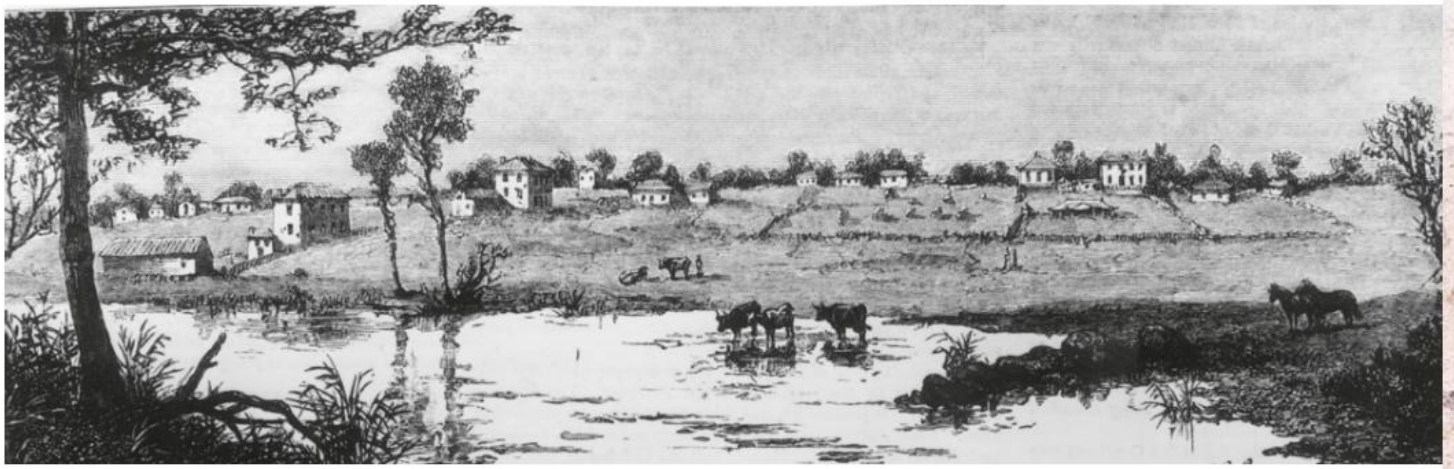
When Edward Hargraves found gold near Bathurst in New South Wales in 1851, the 'gold rush' began. The chance to dig up gold and become wealthy was irresistible for thousands who flocked to fields in New South Wales and Victoria. There is general agreement that the gold rushes changed Australia, which means that historians see this event as a cause that had clear effects.

The Australian Government's website says of Hargraves' find that, 'The discovery marked the beginning of the Australian gold rushes and a radical change in the economic and social fabric of the nation.' This is an example of cause and effect in history. A historian must provide evidence to support that link.

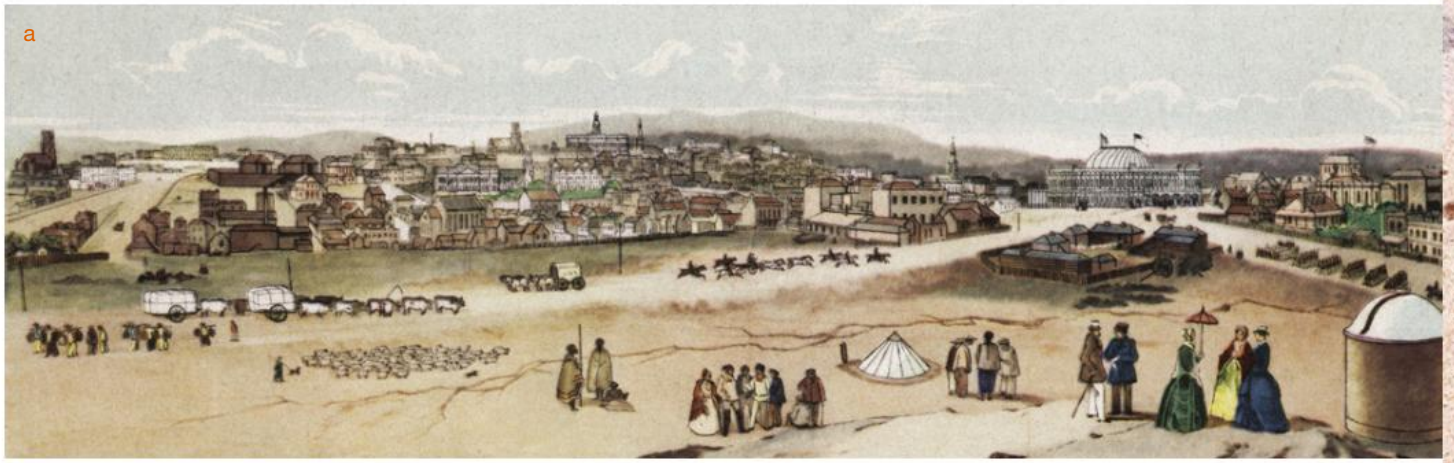
Population figures are a starting point for historians. In the gold rush decade between 1850 and 1860, the Australian population more than doubled, from 405 400 to 1 145 600. This is evidence of a dramatic effect on Australia from the discovery of gold. Many of the gold seekers came from Europe and North America, but for the first time, large numbers of Chinese also arrived. This had the effect of the colonies gradually implementing 'whites only' policies, which led to the White Australia policy after Federation in 1901.

1 Using Sources 1.17 and 1.18, explain the effect you think the gold rushes had on life in Melbourne. What other evidence would you need to establish stronger links between the gold rushes and the development of Melbourne?

2 Visit the Australian Government's website to investigate the effects of the gold rushes on Australia. How does this help you to understand cause and effect?



Source 1.17 Melbourne in 1838, before the gold rushes



Source 1.18 Illustrations a and b show Melbourne as it was in 1860.

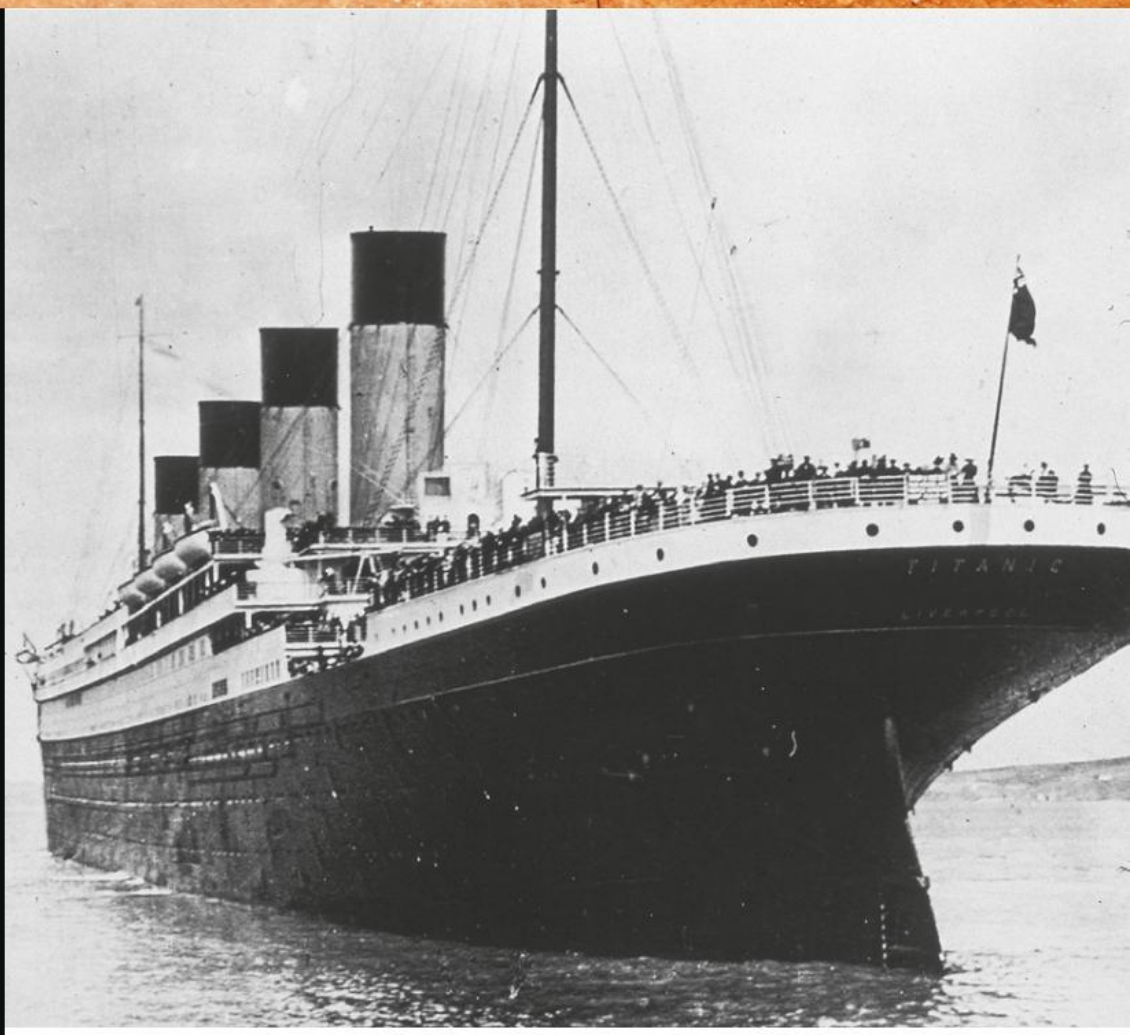
examining**evidence**

What can we learn from the *Titanic*?

In 1912 the steamship *Titanic* set out on its maiden voyage. Travelling from Southampton, England, to New York, USA, it was carrying 2223 people. The *Titanic* was the largest passenger liner in the world, and symbolised the technological progress of the Industrial Revolution.

Newspapers reported on its luxurious interior and fittings. It was also reportedly 'unsinkable'. When it sank after striking an iceberg off the coast of Newfoundland, Canada, just before midnight on 14 April, it shocked a public who had become convinced that modern technology could not fail.

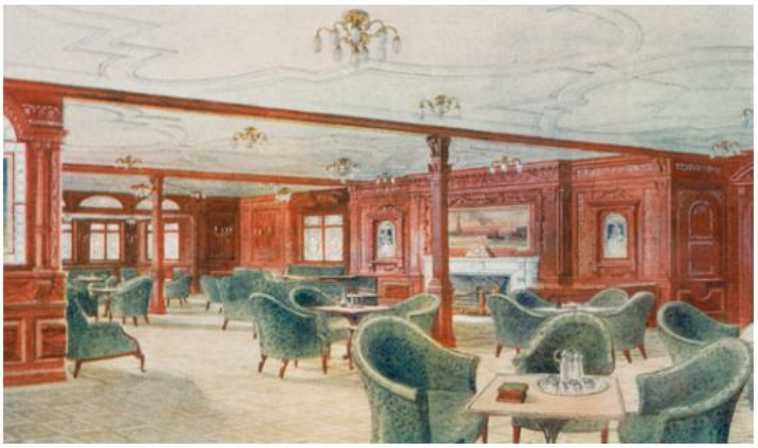
The resting place of the *Titanic* was found in 1985 and, since then, some **artefacts** have been removed from the site. Along with the plans, brochures and publicity that were produced for the launch, these artefacts form a significant body of **evidence**. Like all evidence, these artefacts have to be interpreted. The sole voyage of the *Titanic* captured a glimpse of Western society in 1912. The passengers ranged from one of the wealthiest men in the world, John Jacob Astor, to the third-class passengers who had spent everything to emigrate to the USA and start a new life.



Source 1.19 The *Titanic* on its first—and last—voyage in 1912

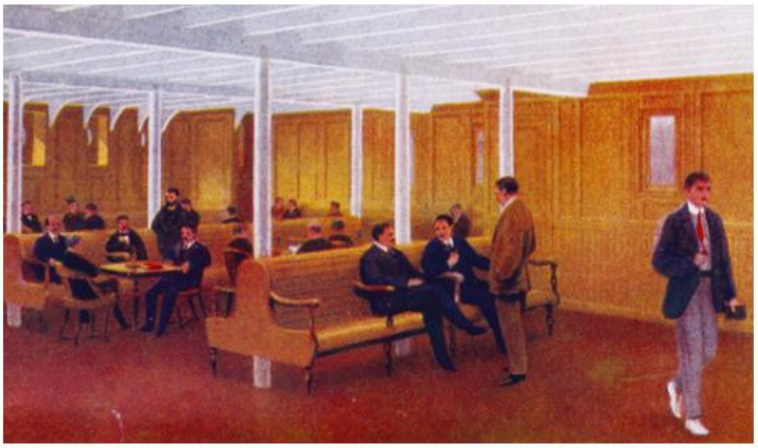
There were three classes on board the *Titanic* and information about them can reveal much about the world just before World War I. Third-class passengers were subject to a health check before boarding the ship. This was to make sure they would not be rejected for health reasons on arrival in New York and have to be returned to England. This contrasted with first- and second-class passengers who were spared this indignity.

Inspection of passenger lists reveals that the majority of first- and second-class passengers were travelling for business or pleasure. Third class consisted mainly of poor migrants hoping for a new life in the USA. This was something that had been taking place for the past century. The third-class passengers on the *Titanic* were from 33 different countries, including Britain, Ireland, Finland, Sweden and Belgium. As third-class passengers, their chances of escape from the lower decks were much lower when the ship sank, and deaths in third class were much higher than in first and second class.



Source 1.20 A first-class lounge on the *Titanic*

Source 1.21 A second-class cabin on the *Titanic*



Source 1.22 A third-class lounge on the *Titanic*

R.M.S. "TITANIC"

April 14, 1912.

LUNCHEON.

Consommé Fermier
Cockie Leekie
Fillets of Brill
Egg à l'Argenteuil
Chicken à la Maryland
Corned Beef, Vegetables, Dumplings

FROM THE GRILL.

Grilled Mutton Chops
Mashed, Fried & Baked Jacket Potatoes

Apple Meringue
Custard Pudding
Pastry

BUFFET.

Salmon Mayonnaise
Potted Shrimps
Norwegian Anchovies
Soused Herrings
Plain & Smoked Sardines
Roast Beef
Round of Spiced Beef
Veal & Ham Pie
Virginia & Cumberland Ham
Bologna Sausage

WHITE STAR LINE.

S. "TITANIC."

April 14, 1912.

THIRD CLASS.

BREAKFAST.

Oatmeal Porridge & Milk
Smoked Herrings, Jacket Potatoes
Ham & Eggs
Fresh Bread & Butter
Marmalade
Swedish Bread
Tea
Coffee

DINNER.

Rice Soup
Cabin Biscuits
Roast Beef, Brown Gravy
Boiled Potatoes
Fruit

TEA.

Cold Meat
Cheese
Pickles
Fresh Bread & Butter
Stewed Figs & Rice
Tea

SUPPER.

Cabin Biscuits
Cheese

Triple Screw Steamer "TITANIC."

2ND CLASS

April 14, 1912.

DINNER.

Consommé Tapioca
Baked Haddock, Sharp Sauce
Curried Chicken & Rice
Spring Lamb, Mint Sauce
Roast Turkey, Cranberry Sauce
Green Peas
Purée Turnips
Boiled Rice
Boiled & Roast Potatoes
Plum Pudding
Wine Jelly
Cocoanut Sandwich
American Ice Cream
Nuts Assorted
Fresh Fruit
Cheese
Biscuits
Coffee

Source 1.23 Menus from the *Titanic's* first-, second- and third-class dining rooms

Check your learning

1. Why is the *Titanic* so famous?
2. Why did people think the *Titanic* was unsinkable?
3. How were third-class passengers treated in comparison to first- and second-class?
4. How do Sources 1.20 to 1.23 give us evidence for the reality of migration and class distinctions in the early 20th century?

skill**drill**

Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events

Timelines should now be a normal way of organising material in your study of History. It is a relatively straightforward procedure to place chronological events on a line. This is a good way to begin or conclude the study of a specific topic.

If you create a timeline sequence at the start of a topic, it helps you to see the big picture over the entire period. This is essential if you are trying to understand the important historical concept of cause and effect. A timeline helps you see how some events can lead to others. For example, if you were studying the 21st century, it would be difficult to understand why the USA invaded Afghanistan in 2001 if you had not already noted the al-Qaeda attacks on New York and Washington that year. If events are not sequenced in chronological order, it is difficult to see if there is any relationship between them.

Creating a second timeline at the end of a study is an opportunity to revise key events. You always have to make a decision about the events that are selected for a timeline. Doing so at the conclusion of a topic means establishing a sense of priority about which events have been regarded as significant. That is an important role for a historian.

Step 1 Place the events in Source 1.24 in chronological order.

Step 2 Comment on the significance of each event.

Step 3 Try and establish links between events.

Step 4 Which events are necessary before others can take place?

Source 1.24 Significant events between 1750 and 1918

1908 – Henry Ford launches the Model T automobile

1865 – American Civil War ends with about 620 000 dead

1811 – Textile workers (called Luddites) smash machinery installed in factories and mills in the midlands and north of England

1862 – Richard Gatling patents the Gatling gun

1800 – Alessandro Volta invents a battery to store electrical current

1912 – *Titanic* sinks

1872 – World's first National Park proclaimed at Yellowstone in the USA

1765 – James Watt designs a more efficient steam engine

1879 – Thomas Edison unveils electric light system

1903 – Wright brothers launch first heavier-than-air powered flight

Check your learning

1. Compare the list above (Source 1.24) to Source 1.1. Are there events on the timeline that you think should be included in this list? Why?
2. Explain how any two events on this timeline are linked. How do these two events allow you to show cause and effect?
3. What other information would you need to use this timeline as a summary of the world between 1750 and 1918?

bigideas

1.1 What factors affected the movement of peoples from 1750 to 1918?

Remember

1 How much did the world's population grow between 1750 and 1918?

2 What factors forced people to move from farms to live in cities during this period?

3 How many Africans were sent to the Americas as slaves?

4 Name three of the groups of political prisoners that were transported to Australia.

5 What was the event that caused so many Irish to migrate in the 19th century?

Understand

6 Who benefited from the triangular trade?

7 Why were gold rushes so important to the USA, Canada and Australia?

8 How can a study of the *Titanic* help us understand the world at the start of the 20th century?

Apply

9 Write a diary entry for the captain of a slave ship explaining why it is important to maintain strict discipline on the ship.

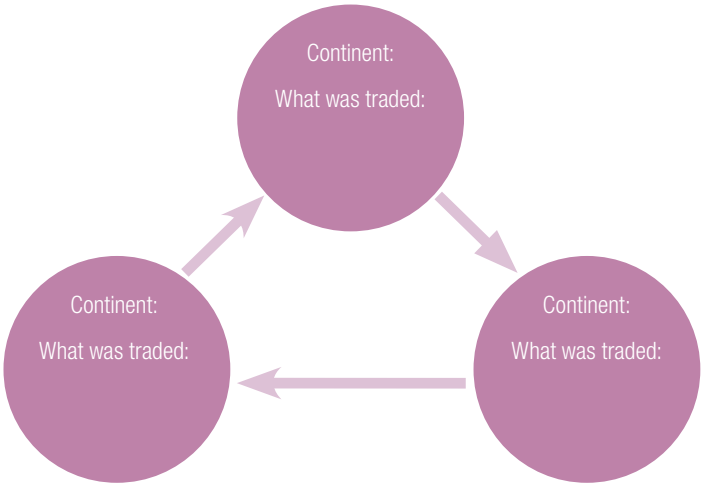
10 Explain the reaction of Americans, Canadians and Australians to the presence of Chinese migrants during the gold rushes.

Analyse

11 Review the of events between 1750 and 1918 shown in Source 1.1. Explain and justify which one you think is the most significant.

12 Research what has been recovered from the *Titanic*. How do those discoveries help you understand the class system of the time?

13 Between the 16th and 19th centuries, the transatlantic slave trade was responsible for the forcible movement of around 12 million Africans to the Americas. This process became known as triangular trade. In your notebook copy and complete the chart below, recording the continents involved in the trade and what was traded.



Evaluate

14 How different would Australia be today if gold had never been discovered?

15 Why would the USA be such a popular destination for migrants in the 19th century?

Create

16 Create a poster or chart that explains the triangular trade between Europe, Africa and the Americas.

17 Design a poster to attract migrants to either Australia or the USA in the late 19th century.

Source 1.25 *The Battle of Princeton*, painted in 1784, shows General George Washington leading his army against the British in the War of Independence on 3 January 1777.

1.2 How did new ideas and technological developments contribute to change from 1750 to 1918?

The period from 1750 to 1918 was one of great change. In 1756, Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Russia and the Netherlands were involved in a major conflict that became known as the Seven Years War. European powers fought over the control of ***colonies*** *in North America, the Caribbean, Asia and West Africa as they asserted their emerging technological superiority. The period ended with another war—World War I—involving major European powers that also drew in much of the world.*

Between those two wars, technology changed dramatically. James Hargreaves' spinning jenny (cotton spinning frame) paved the way for mass production of material in factories, while James Watt's improvements of a basic steam engine revolutionised transport and manufacturing. These inventions sparked the Industrial Revolution. It took the world from agricultural villages to the emergence of high-rise cities. Transport began as horse and cart, and finished with aeroplanes flying the skies.

Ideas about how to organise society were also a key part of the period. The American War of Independence in 1775 showed that royal authority could be challenged. This followed the challenges to papal authority during the **Reformation** of the 16th century. The emergence of philosophical ideas based on reason rather than religion is referred to as the **Enlightenment**. It accompanied the development of scientific inquiry and rational thought, and dominated the 18th century. It provided the basis for the modern **secular** (not religious) state.

A time of revolution

On 4 July 1776, America's 13 British colonies passed a Declaration of Independence from Britain. The Declaration claimed that 'all men are created equal', and asserted that people were endowed with certain unalienable rights (rights that one is born with by virtue of being human). This was revolutionary thinking at a time when the idea of rights for all people was regarded as a philosophical concept rather than something practical.

On 14 July 1789, the Bastille prison in Paris was stormed as a protest against royal power. It was a defining event in what became known as the French Revolution. The Revolution's cry of 'liberty, equality, fraternity' picked up on the new social order the American Revolution had championed.

American Revolution

The American Revolution can refer to a number of actions and events during the second half of the 18th century that combined to transform the British colonies of northern America into a new republic named the United States of America.

Boston Tea Party

This event occurred on 16 December 1773, and has become symbolic of American resentment of British rule. The key complaint of the American colonists was that they were being taxed by a government (Great Britain) in which they had no representation. The cry of 'no taxes without representation' became the rallying cry for Americans. The complaints had started in 1765 when the British Parliament had introduced the Stamp Tax, which was a direct tax on British colonists in North America.

When the British government refused to remove a tax on tea, American colonists dumped a load of tea into Boston Harbor. It was a direct challenge to British control, and became a rallying point for Americans. It further publicised the American demand of 'no taxation without representation'.

Although not used in print until the 1830s, the term 'Boston Tea Party' has become symbolic of direct action against oppression. At the time, British attempts to punish Americans because of the tea protest merely hardened American attitudes. In 2009, a new political movement that was conservative and anti-taxes was established under the name 'Tea Party' in direct reference to the 1773 protest.

War of Independence

Britain's response to the Boston Tea Party was to impose direct British control on the colony of Massachusetts. When the military governor tried to seize American weapons, military clashes broke out between the resisting Americans and the British Army. The American response led to a Declaration of Independence on 4 July 1776, which announced the formation of the United States of America.

There was a state of war until 1783. The American colonists received assistance from France, Spain and the Netherlands, who all had their own political reasons to oppose Britain. A treaty in Paris in 1783 formally ended the war, and recognised the USA as controlling an area from the Canadian border to Florida, and from the eastern seaboard to the Mississippi River in the west.

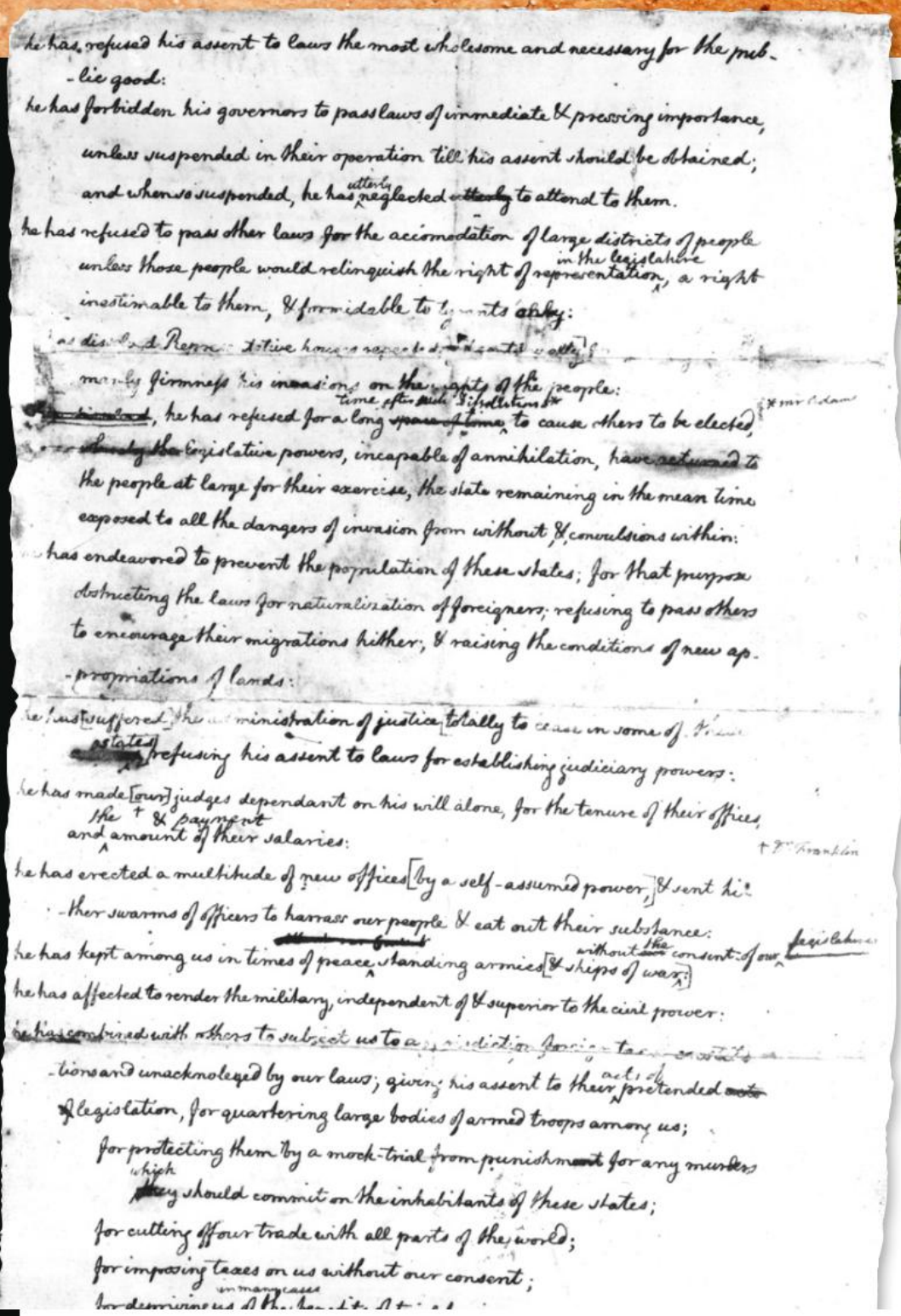
Source 1.26 The destruction of tea at Boston Harbor in 1773

Source 1.27 George Washington enters New York in 1783 after driving out the British.

examining**evidence**

Declaration of Independence

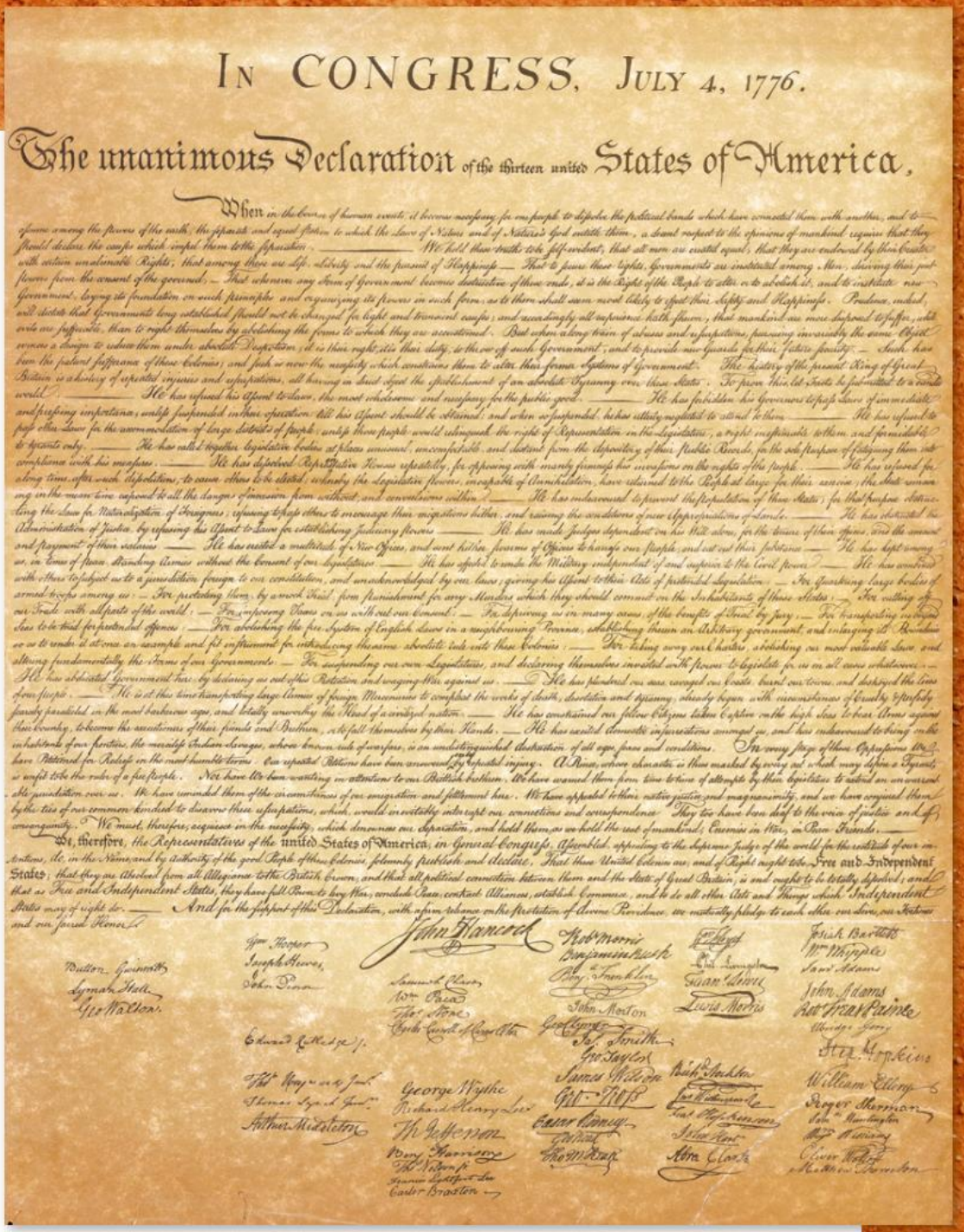
The Declaration of Independence is one of the most famous documents in the world and is considered one of the most important documents in American history. The date of its adoption by the Continental Congress of the original 13 American colonies, 4 July, is a public holiday in the USA—Independence Day. It confirmed the right of the USA to declare its independence from Britain, and listed a range of specific grievances against King George III and the British government.



he has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the pub-
-lic good:
he has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate & pressing importance,
unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained;
and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.
he has refused to pass other laws for the accomodation of large districts of people
unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature, a right
inestimable to them, & formidable to tyrants only:
[illegible]
manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people:
he has refused for a long time after such dissolutions to cause others to be elected,
whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to
the people at large for their exercise, the state remaining in the mean time
exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without & convulsions within:
has endeavored to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose
obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others
to encourage their migrations hither, & raising the conditions of new ap-
-propriations of lands:
he has suffered the administration of justice totally to cease in some of the
states refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers:
he has made our judges dependant on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices,
& the payment
and amount of their salaries:
he has erected a multitude of new offices by a self-assumed power, & sent hi-
-ther swarms of officers to harrass our people & eat out their substance:
he has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies without the consent of our legislatures
& ships of war:
he has affected to render the military, independent of & superior to the civil power:
he has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to
-tions and unacknoleged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of
pretended legislation, for quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;
for protecting them by a mock-trial from punishment for any murders
which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states;
for cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;
for imposing taxes on us without our consent;
for depriving us in many cases

Source 1.28 An extract fom Thomas Jefferson's first draft of the Declaration of Independence, listing grievances against King George III

Source 1.29 Independence Hall in Philadelphia where the Second Continental Congress met to approve the Declaration of Independence



IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America.

When in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation. 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, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world. — He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. — He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. — He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only. — He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their Public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures. — He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people. — He has refused for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the Legislative powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within. — He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands. — He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary powers. — He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries. — He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harass our People, and eat out their substance. — He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our Legislatures. — He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil power. — He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation. — For Quartering large bodies of armed troops among us: — For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States: — For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world: — For imposing Taxes on us without our Consent: — For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by jury: — For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences: — For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies: — For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments: — For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever. — He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us. — He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people. — He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & Perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation. — He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands. — He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions. In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people. Nor have We been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which, would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. — And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

Source 1.30 A copy of the original Declaration of Independence, dated 4 July 1776

The second sentence of the Declaration captured the emerging philosophy of liberalism. It proclaimed that, '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.'

This single sentence captured the emerging philosophical claim for essential human rights. Since then it has underpinned many political, social and philosophical developments around the world. At a time when kings were regarded as having divine right to rule in many societies, this radical declaration of human rights launched a new era of rational republicanism.

Check your learning

1 What did the American Declaration of Independence do?
2 Why do Americans celebrate a public holiday on 4 July?
3 Why would Source 1.28 (Jefferson's first draft) be particularly valuable for a historian?

Source 1.31 A French political cartoon showing Louis XVI, a bishop and a noble riding on the back of a man, representing the people

French Revolution

Discontent with the French royal family and the aristocracy in general had been growing in France during the reign of Louis XVI. He came to power in 1774, at a time when France was suffering from the costs associated with the Seven Years War. Involvement in the American War of Independence failed to win France control of all of colonised Canada.

A meeting of the Estates General in May 1789 brought together the three estates of the realm—the nobility, the clergy and the people. It was unable to decide on power, and the third estate, the people, formed a National Assembly, which was a direct challenge to traditional authority. This signalled the start of the French Revolution.

Storming of the Bastille

As popular discontent simmered, a French mob moved against the Parisian prison of the Bastille on 14 July 1789. This event, more than any other, became the symbolic flashpoint of the French Revolution. Although the Bastille only contained seven prisoners at the time, it represented royal power and the *ancien régime*—the old system of government. More importantly, the Bastille contained a large store of explosives! The date of the fall of the Bastille is still a public holiday in France.

Source 1.32 A painting showing the capture of the Bastille

Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen

The first version of this fundamental document of the French Revolution was passed by the Constituent French Assembly on 26 August 1789. It provided the philosophical underpinning of the Revolution. Like the American Declaration that preceded it, this Declaration reflected the emergence of new ways of thinking about society. It reflected French political thinker Jean Jacques Rousseau's idea that the rulers only govern with the consent of the governed. The separation of powers between an executive, legislative and judicial branch of government, as advocated by the French political philosopher Baron de Montesquieu, were also included.

The Declaration opened by claiming that all men were born free and remained equal in rights. It claimed that **sovereignty** lay essentially with the nation. This was a direct challenge to the established European monarchies that saw sovereignty residing with God and hereditary royal families. Thomas Jefferson, who had been a major contributor to the American Declaration, was ambassador in Paris in 1789. He was in consultation with the French revolutionaries as they framed their own document. Although these ideas form the basis of most democratic governments today, at the time they were regarded as radical.

Source 1.33 The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, 1789

Reign of Terror

In a 1791 constitution, it was proposed that France would be run by a constitutional **monarchy** with the assembly limiting the King's powers. This arrangement caused paralysis of government, and the following year the monarchy was abolished. On 21 January 1793, Louis XVI was executed by guillotine. This sent shock waves through the royal houses of Europe who moved to defeat the republican French.

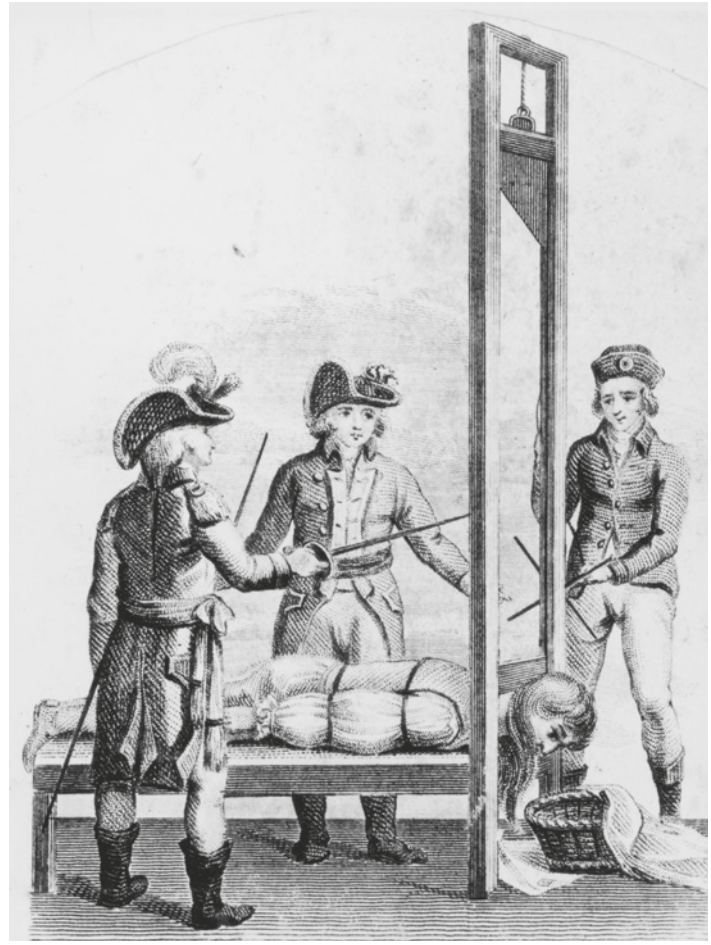
The French population was divided, and the revolutionary government's Committee of Public Safety assumed control of public life. It instituted a 'reign of terror' against perceived enemies of the republic, and records indicate that 16 594 prisoners were executed by guillotine. It has been suggested the actual figure may be significantly higher.

The revolution ends

By 1804, Napoleon I had been crowned Emperor of France, and started a period of French territorial expansion. Although it seemed as if France had again reverted to a form of monarchy, the French Revolution introduced significant change. It showed that rulers could no longer take their subjects for granted. It has been suggested that the French Revolution laid the groundwork for the modern world. Certainly, the American and French revolutions changed forever the relationship between the governments and governed, and introduced the concept of rights for all people.

Check your learning

1. Who did the Estates General represent?
2. What happened in Paris on 14 July 1789?
3. What were some of the revolutionary claims of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen?
4. Who came to power in France in 1804? What position did he hold?



Source 1.34 A victim of the Reign of Terror, *c.* 1793

key**concepts**

Significance

Billions of people have lived on Earth over the course of human history, and these people have their own story, their own biases and interpretations, and their own interactions with other people and institutions. The almost infinite threads of history this creates would be impossible for historians to analyse. As a result, historians mainly focus on particular aspects of the past (such as events, developments, movements, historical sites) that have **significance**.

To determine significance, historians look at aspects of the past (such as an event) in terms of:

- how many people were affected
- the types of people that were affected
- how long it lasted
- how it changed lives
- its importance and relevance today.

Source 1.35 *The conquerors of the Bastille*, a painting by François Flameng (1880)

The French Revolution in 1789 has been celebrated in political thought and popular culture. Many modern history courses start with an investigation of the Revolution as the foundation of the modern world. This indicates that there is a level of acceptance that the French Revolution is an event of significance.

1 Consider the bulleted list on the black panel to the left to make a judgment about whether the French Revolution was significant or not.

2 Do you agree that it is significant? Justify your response in relation to the questions you asked.

3 Source 1.35 shows a painting created over 100 years after the events of the French Revolution. Why do you think the Revolution was still an important topic 100 years later?

A time of new ideas

Since the time of Plato in ancient Greece, thinkers have argued about the best way to organise society. During medieval times in Europe, the Catholic Church dominated thinking, and most rulers drew links to God to establish legality. The American and French revolutions indicated that the 18th and 19th centuries were a time of new ideas. Philosophers asked key questions about why societies had to run the way they always had.

Sometimes this period is called the age of 'isms' because so many political, social and economic concepts emerged. There were a number of 'isms' that still contribute to the way societies are organised today.

Nationalism

One of the important impacts of the American and French revolutions was a change in how people thought about where they lived. Until the 18th century, people in Europe normally identified themselves by their local village or ruler. The concept of a nation, as it is understood today, only started emerging after the two revolutions. These revolutions led to independent nations whose citizens identified themselves as united and loyal to a democratic nation symbolised by a flag.

European peoples started seeing themselves as nations rather than members of an empire. The Irish, for example, demanded independence from Great Britain because they regarded themselves as a separate nation. In 1829, Greece freed itself from the Ottoman Empire. Two years later, in 1831, Belgium won its independence from the Dutch. In 1848, revolutions broke out across Europe as different nations started clamouring for the right to exist. None of the 1848 revolutions were successful, but by 1871 both Italy and Germany had emerged as unified nations. By 1914, the drive for nationalism in the Balkans would be a key contributor to the outbreak of World War I.

Imperialism

In basic terms, **imperialism** is the control of certain countries or states over others. From the 18th until the early 20th century this took the form of colonisation. Powerful nations imposed their economic, political and cultural domination over large parts of the world. Great Britain, Spain, France, Portugal, the Netherlands, Austria–Hungary and the Ottomans all claimed significant empires in the period after the European discovery of the Americas in 1492.

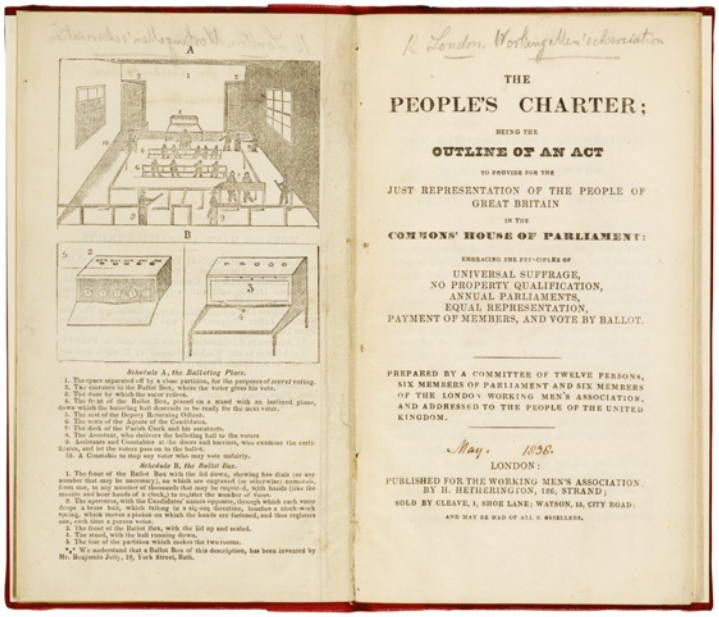
For new nations such as Italy and Germany, imperialism was also a way of justifying their existence. They became aggressive in acquiring empires, because they felt they had been left behind in the 19th-century race for colonies.

Source 1.36 *Liberty Leading the People*, painted in 1830, is a symbol of revolution.

Source 1.37 A postcard commemorating the contributions of the British colonies in World War I

Source 1.38 An industrial American woollens mill, 1920

Source 1.39 Lenin, leader of the Russian Revolution, addressing a meeting of workers, 1917



THE

PEOPLE'S CHARTER;

BEING THE

OUTLINE OF AN ACT

TO PROVIDE FOR THE

JUST REPRESENTATION OF THE PEOPLE OF GREAT BRITAIN

IN THE

COMMONS' HOUSE OF PARLIAMENT:

EMBRACING THE PRINCIPLES OF

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE,
NO PROPERTY QUALIFICATION,
ANNUAL PARLIAMENTS,
EQUAL REPRESENTATION,
PAYMENT OF MEMBERS, AND VOTE BY BALLOT.

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF TWELVE PERSONS, SIX MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENT AND SIX MEMBERS OF THE LONDON WORKING MEN'S ASSOCIATION, AND ADDRESSED TO THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

May, 1838.

LONDON:

PUBLISHED FOR THE WORKING MEN'S ASSOCIATION BY H. HETHERINGTON, 126, STRAND;

SOLD BY CLEAVE, 1, SHOE LANE; WATSON, 18, CITY ROAD;

AND MAY BE HAD OF ALL THE BOOKSELLERS.

Source 1.40 The front page of *The People's Charter*, 1838

As the USA grew into a major economic power in the late 19th century, economic imperialism also emerged. Throughout the 20th century, American products became well known globally, conquering markets without ever using a weapon.

Capitalism

By the mid-19th century writers were starting to use the term **capitalism** to refer to the system of economic organisation that relied on private ownership of industry and the means of production of goods. As the Industrial Revolution changed the way goods were manufactured, it was private **entrepreneurs** rather than governments who took the risks and made the profits.

Great Britain was the major capitalist economy in the 19th century. Industrialisation had a massive impact on the USA, and from the early 20th century, and particularly after the destruction of World War I, the USA became the largest capitalist economy in the world.

Socialism

An alternative viewpoint to capitalism was the socialist system of economic organisation. This system allowed governments to play a crucial role in the allocation of resources and distribution of wealth. In the mid 19th century, Friedrich Engels and Karl Marx developed **socialism** to counteract the capitalist tendency to overproduction and the exploitation of workers. Their socialist theories became increasingly popular as the realities of an unrestricted capitalist economy saw increasing poverty among those who only had their labour to sell.

The Soviet Union that emerged from the chaos of the Russian Empire in 1917 adopted socialist principles in establishing a planned economy. This meant the government controlled economic activity, and an all-powerful Communist Party controlled political life. Western economies such as the Scandinavian countries have adopted variations of a socialist economic model.

Chartism

As industrialisation came to dominate British life, workers started to organise to protect themselves. This was because factory and mine owners made greater profits if they could pay their workers less. Trade unions were therefore formed to protect the rights of workers. In 1838, a group with connections to trade unions demanded political representation. Its followers were called Chartists because they proposed a Peoples' Charter. **Chartism's** strategy was to give all men the vote and stop the wealthy from dominating political decision-making.

By targeting the existing political system, the Chartists realised the potential for organisation to have an impact for the lower classes. The Chartists and other early trade unionists were met with political repression, and several were transported to Australia as convicts. Here, they continued to demand equal political representation, and the Australian political system today reflects nearly all of the Chartists' 19th-century demands.

Egalitarianism

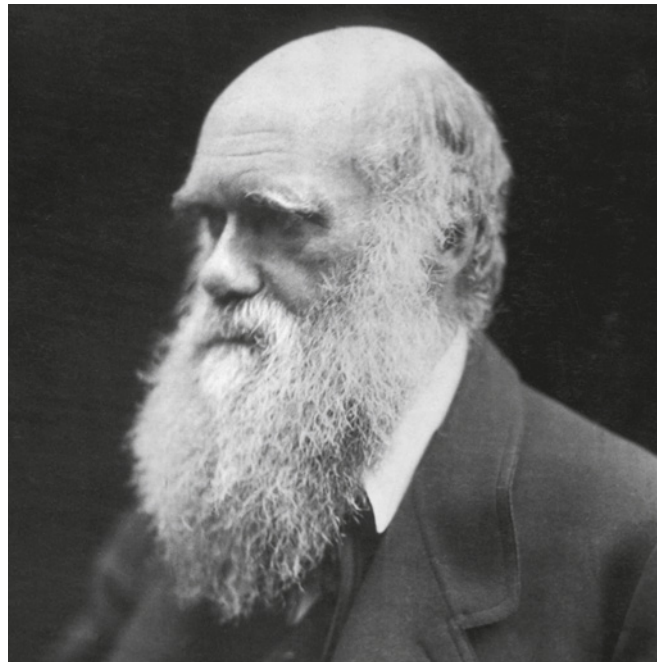
When the French Revolution championed 'liberty, equality and fraternity', it was popularising the concept of **egalitarianism**. This was the idea of equality in life and opportunity. It stressed that no person was better than another. As a political philosophy it helped to justify working-class demands for political representation. Critics of egalitarianism said that some people would not be able to fulfil their potential in an egalitarian society. In reality, resistance to egalitarianism was fuelled by a desire to keep the working class uneducated and uninvolved in politics and social life.

Social Darwinism

Darwinism refers to the theory of evolution, which was brought to prominence by Charles Darwin's 1859 book *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. It built on the work of earlier thinkers such as Thomas Malthus, who had challenged the idea that society was constantly moving towards an ideal future. Malthus saw population growth as having natural limits, and that periods of growth would be balanced by major crises.

Charles Darwin's scientific theories challenged literal interpretations of the Bible. His research showed that species evolved over time, rather than being 'created' in a moment by a divine Creator. He argued that the fittest species survived and that those species unable to adapt perished. When applied to societies, in a way Darwin never envisaged, the 'survival of the fittest' theory was used to justify European conquest of Indigenous peoples throughout the world and the submission of lower classes of people (this was known as social Darwinism). Many peolpe regarded social Darwinism as a rationale for not interferring with what was regarded as the natural 'inferiority' of some social or racial groups.

Source 1.41 A calendar from 1793, celebrating the second year of the First French republic.



Source 1.42 Charles Darwin, 1869

Check your learning

1. Where did nationalism become popular in the 19th century?
2. Describe imperialism in your own words.
3. Why would capitalism and socialism be opposed to each other?
4. What did Chartists want?
5. In your own words, define social Darwinism.

skill**drill**

Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources

In 1838, a People's Charter was written for the London Working Man's Association. It contained six demands that were regarded as essential for the British working classes to gain adequate political representation. It was a significant document of an important organisation that would have a major impact on political development in Australia.

The original People's Charter was published in the *Northern Star* newspaper on 16 June 1838. This was important as it gave people access to the demands of a rapidly growing group that would become known as the Chartists.

The six points contained in that original document were demands for:

1. the institution of a secret ballot
2. annual general elections
3. members of parliament not being required to own property
4. members of parliament to be paid a salary
5. electoral districts of equal size
6. a universal male vote.

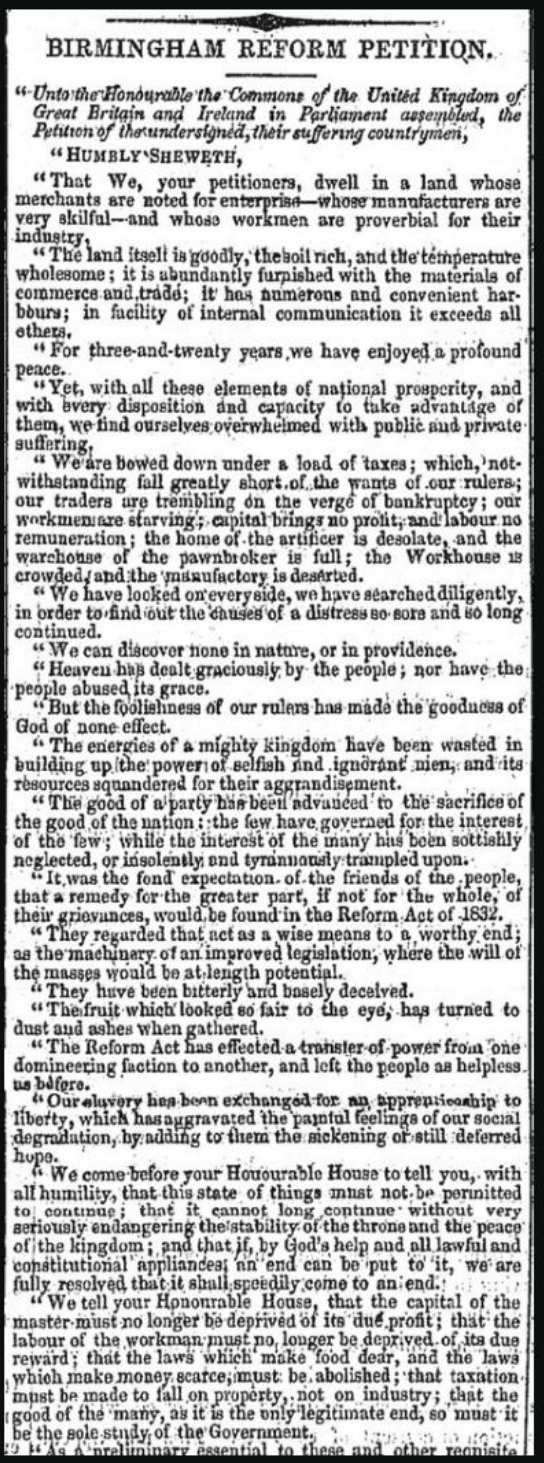
Even though the original leaflets distributed at meetings with these demands are now lost, the *Northern Star* newspaper is a valuable primary source, as the demands have been able to be reproduced by a number of secondary sources since 1838.

A number of Chartists were transported to Australia in the 1840s as British authorities tried to suppress Chartist and working-class demands for representation. Those Chartists arrived in Australia at a time when the individual colonies were agitating for political representation. The Chartist demands became highly influential in Australia in shaping our political institutions.

The People's Charter is therefore particularly useful for any historian studying political and labour history in 19th-century Britain or Australia. It does not matter if you are unable to access the original primary source of the *Northern Star*, because the content of the charter has been reproduced regularly for over 150 years. This has meant a trail of secondary sources that can be traced back to the original document.

Check your learning

1. How many of the People's Charter demands have been adopted in Australia?
2. What does this tell you about the political significance of the People's Charter?
3. What source did you use to find out about the charter? Why was it useful?



BIRMINGHAM REFORM PETITION.

"*Unto the Honourable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in Parliament assembled, the Petition of the undersigned, their suffering countrymen,*

"HUMBLY SHEWETH,

"That We, your petitioners, dwell in a land whose merchants are noted for enterprise—whose manufacturers are very skilful—and whose workmen are proverbial for their industry.

"The land itself is goodly, the soil rich, and the temperature wholesome; it is abundantly furnished with the materials of commerce and trade; it has numerous and convenient harbours; in facility of internal communication it exceeds all others.

"For three-and-twenty years we have enjoyed a profound peace.

"Yet, with all these elements of national prosperity, and with every disposition and capacity to take advantage of them, we find ourselves overwhelmed with public and private suffering.

"We are bowed down under a load of taxes; which, notwithstanding fall greatly short of the wants of our rulers; our traders are trembling on the verge of bankruptcy; our workmen are starving; capital brings no profit, and labour no remuneration; the home of the artificer is desolate, and the warehouse of the pawnbroker is full; the Workhouse is crowded, and the manufactory is deserted.

"We have looked on every side, we have searched diligently, in order to find out the causes of a distress so sore and so long continued.

"We can discover none in nature, or in providence.

"Heaven has dealt graciously by the people; nor have the people abused its grace.

"But the foolishness of our rulers has made the goodness of God of none effect.

"The energies of a mighty kingdom have been wasted in building up the power of selfish and ignorant men, and its resources squandered for their aggrandisement.

"The good of a party has been advanced to the sacrifice of the good of the nation; the few have governed for the interest of the few; while the interest of the many has been sottishly neglected, or insolently and tyrannously trampled upon.

"It was the fond expectation of the friends of the people, that a remedy for the greater part, if not for the whole, of their grievances, would be found in the Reform Act of 1832.

"They regarded that act as a wise means to a worthy end; as the machinary of an improved legislation, where the will of the masses would be at length potential.

"They have been bitterly and basely deceived.

"The fruit which looked so fair to the eye, has turned to dust and ashes when gathered.

"The Reform Act has effected a transfer of power from one domineering faction to another, and left the people as helpless as before.

"Our slavery has been exchanged for an apprenticeship to liberty, which has aggravated the painful feelings of our social degradation, by adding to them the sickening of still deferred hope.

"We come before your Honourable House to tell you, with all humility, that this state of things must not be permitted to continue; that it cannot long continue without very seriously endangering the stability of the throne and the peace of the kingdom; and that if, by God's help and all lawful and constitutional appliances, an end can be put to it, we are fully resolved that it shall speedily come to an end.

"We tell your Honourable House, that the capital of the master must no longer be deprived of its due profit; that the labour of the workman must no longer be deprived of its due reward; that the laws which make food dear, and the laws which make money scarce, must be abolished; that taxation must be made to fall on property, not on industry; that the good of the many, as it is the only legitimate end, so must it be the sole study of the Government.

"As a preliminary essential to these and other requisite

Source 1.43 An extract from the original People's Charter, published in the *Northern Star,* 16 June 1838

skill**drill**

Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry

Historical inquiry is central to the study of history. Historians do not know everything that ever happened, but they do have the skills to investigate events and developments, and draw conclusions about them. To do this, they have to come up with a series of relevant questions, and locate sources to help them answer those questions.

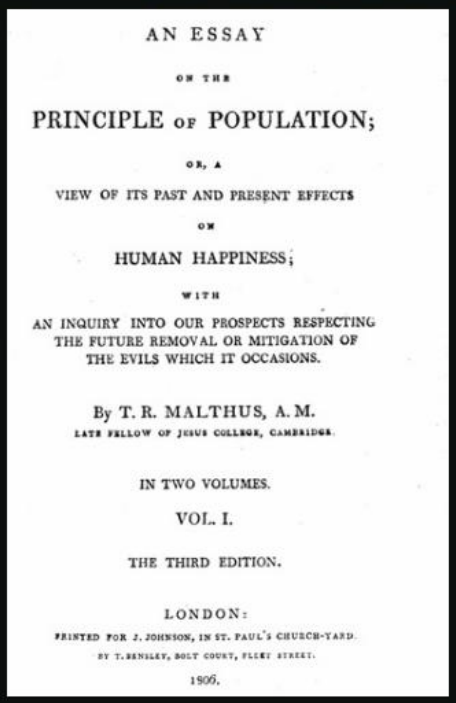
Thomas Malthus

Thomas Malthus lived in England between 1766 and 1834. A priest and also professor of history and political economy, he developed an influential theory about population.

Malthus was living at a time of great ideas. Following the Reformation and Renaissance, many societies were breaking free of the reliance on religion, which had limited free thinking. The American and French revolutions inspired ideas of liberty and human progress. Malthus' father was a friend of the noted philosopher and writer Jean Jacques Rousseau, whose idea of liberty was influential in the French Revolution. Thinkers like Rousseau suggested that society was continually improving; Malthus argued that there were limits to improvement.

The core idea of Malthus' population theory was that population would expand until there were insufficient resources for the expanded numbers. At that point, a crisis such as a famine, war or plague would strike to again limit the population.

Source 1.44 Thomas Malthus *c.* 1820



AN ESSAY

ON THE

PRINCIPLE OF POPULATION;

OR, A

VIEW OF ITS PAST AND PRESENT EFFECTS

ON

HUMAN HAPPINESS;

WITH

AN INQUIRY INTO OUR PROSPECTS RESPECTING THE FUTURE REMOVAL OR MITIGATION OF THE EVILS WHICH IT OCCASIONS.

By T. R. MALTHUS, A. M.

LATE FELLOW OF JESUS COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

THE THIRD EDITION.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR J. JOHNSON, IN ST. PAUL'S CHURCH-YARD.

BY T. BENSLEY, BOLT COURT, FLEET STREET.

1806.

Source 1.45 The title page of Malthus' *Essay on the Principle of Population*, which was first published in 1798

Given the current relevance of questions about sustainability and the future, interest in Thomas Malthus and his work is rising again.

Some key questions to help research the work of Thomas Malthus are:

- When did Malthus live?
- What were the influences on him?
- What were his main ideas?
- What did he base those ideas on?
- Is there any evidence to support his ideas?

To locate information you can always start with a search engine or library catalogue, refining your search terms to produce increasingly relevant sources.

Check your learning

1. Produce a report on Thomas Malthus that comments on his work and ideas.
2. Do you think the work of Malthus is relevant today?
3. What advice would you give someone researching the life and work of Thomas Malthus?

The Industrial Revolution

Perhaps the most profound change in the period from 1750 to 1918 was what has been called the Industrial Revolution. This was the rapid development of technology that changed the way goods were produced, how people travelled and where they lived. It was the Industrial Revolution that produced what we now recognise as the modern world.

Source 1.46 An engraving of James Watt studying improvements to the Newcomen steam engine *c.* 1763

Source 1.47 A watercolour showing the opening of the Stockton & Darlington Railway, 27 September 1825

The arrival of steam

Some basic form of steam engine had been in use since ancient times. A major development was in 1712 when Thomas Newcomen produced an atmospheric steam engine that could be used for pumping water. This was further developed by James Watt between 1763 and 1775. Watt's engine was portable, and required 75 per cent less coal to run. This meant that it could be used to power factories. This was the breakthrough that changed life in many areas.

Steam engines were used to drive machines that could spin yarn much more effectively. Factories paved the way for mass production, and destroyed the old handcrafted goods that had sustained village life for centuries. As steam was applied to agricultural machines, less manpower was required, and the drift of population from rural areas to the sites of factories in cities continued.

Transport

Steam power revolutionised transport. The development of railways was the major innovation. The Stockton & Darlington Railway in England opened in 1825, and was followed by the Liverpool & Manchester Railway in 1830. This was a vital link as it enabled raw materials brought into the port of Liverpool to be sent quickly and efficiently to the major cotton and manufacturing centre of Manchester.

In the second half of the 19th century, ocean-going steamships started to challenge sailing ships for trade. More materials were able to be moved around the world. This was particularly significant for colonies like those in Australia. The great distance between Australia and Britain could only be covered by sea. Larger and faster ocean-going vessels meant that more goods such as wool and wheat could be exported to Britain, and manufactured goods could be imported more easily into Australia.

The internal combustion engine and the production of petroleum paved the way for the second phase of the Industrial Revolution. This new engine led to the development of the automobile, which allowed people to move further and faster than ever before. Although the automobile came to prominence in Europe, it was in the

USA that it was taken up in large numbers. In a country where large distances had to be covered, the automobile quickly proved popular. When, in 1908, Henry Ford developed the **assembly line** to mass-produce the Ford Motel T, the world of personal transport was changed forever.

Mines

Coal was the necessary ingredient in the steam phase of the Industrial Revolution. The huge demand for coal in the Industrial Revolution meant that deep pit mines were developed to exploit coal seams in northern England, Scotland and Wales.

The huge demand for coal to fuel the new steam-powered machinery led to the exploitation of miners. Young children were used to work in confined spaces, or as 'pit ponies' hauling coal trucks to the surface. Conditions for miners were dangerous, and gradually workers formed trade unions to protect themselves.

Cities

The Industrial Revolution led to a rapid growth in cities. In Great Britain, London's population boomed. Major factory centres such as Manchester and Birmingham also grew rapidly as prospective workers poured in looking for opportunities. The result was overcrowding and appalling living conditions. Health risks multiplied as people lived in absolute squalor. The novelist Charles Dickens captured the miserable living conditions in British cities in the 19th century (see Source 1.49).

Source 1.49

> *What manner of life is that which is described in these pages ... The cold, wet, shelterless midnight streets of London; the foul and frouzy [smelly] dens, where vice is closely packed and lacks the room to turn; the haunts of hunger and disease, the shabby rags that scarcely hold together; where are the attractions of these things?*
>
> Extract from the author's preface to *Oliver Twist*, Charles Dickens, published by Peter Fenelon Collier, New York, 1879

The average life expectancy in Britain in 1837, the first year of Queen Victoria's reign, was in the high thirties. By 1901 it had only risen to 48. City life concentrated the population, but it also concentrated disease and poverty. It was these conditions that forced many people into crime simply to survive. Prisons became overcrowded. As a result, transportation to Australia began in 1788 and continued for the next 80 years.

Source 1.48 Underground coalminers with a pit pony, *c.* 1880

Source 1.50 An engraving showing the city of Bradford, a world-renowned centre for textiles in the 19th century

Check your learning

1. Why was steam power so important for the Industrial Revolution?
2. How did the development of the internal combustion engine contribute to a second phase of the Industrial Revolution?
3. Why did miners have to organise to protect themselves?
4. Describe life in a typical city of the Industrial Revolution.

examining**evidence**

The American Civil War (1861–1865)

The Industrial Revolution was responsible for many innovations and inventions that transformed the way people lived. When Civil War erupted in the USA between the northern states ('the Union') and the southern states ('the Confederacy') in 1861, it became the testing ground for many new weapons and approaches to warfare that would be perfected in World War I. It was also the first war to be photographed.

For the first time, photographs were available as a source of evidence for historians studying a war. Photographs became a wonderful resource for historians, but they still have to be interpreted. As with any other source, historians have to draw evidence from them.

Historians have to pose questions of photographs as they would with any other form of evidence. Key questions they must always consider when using photographs as sources of evidence include:

- Is the photograph staged?
- Is it official or unofficial?
- Is there any evidence that the photograph has been altered?
- Is the historical context of the photograph clear (for example, when exactly was it taken)?

Source 1.51 An early photo from the Civil War showing Union troops outside Washington DC, 1861

Armies are traditionally conservative, and high-level officers had been schooled in the heroic image of two armies confronting each other in strict formations. In some campaigns, the armies became bogged down in trenches, and inventors often found the army reluctant to implement new technologies. Eventually, though, the following were used in some form during the Civil War:

- air balloons (allowing aerial observation of the battle lines)
- ironclad warships (their wooden hulls were protected by iron or steel armour)
- a military telegraph system
- the Gatling gun (a multi-barrelled, rapid-fire gun; a forerunner of the modern machine gun)
- submarines
- naval mines
- repeating rifles (firearms that can fire several times before being reloaded)
- railroads as a strategic tool
- ambulance corps (special army units to deal with the wounded).

Source 1.53 A Civil War-era Gatling gun

Source 1.52 An 1861 painting of an early army field hospital set up during the Civil War

Source 1.54 An ironclad gunboat in 1861

Check your learning

1. Select one of the photos here and explain how you would use it as evidence about conditions during the Civil War.
2. Source 1.52 is a painting rather than a photo. Does this make it more reliable as evidence for a historian? Give reasons for your answer.
3. What are the limitations of using these images as evidence for studying the Civil War?

skill**drill**

Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

The development of the Internet has given everyone access to a wide range of historical sources. For the first time in human history, people have access to collections of documents at the click of a button. The contents of the world's great museums are now available online, and your computer can allow you to view film from the 20th century onwards.

This mass of knowledge presents its own challenges, and as a student it is important that you treat electronic sources in the same way as other sources. The reality is that there is no superpower that checks to ensure all the content of the World Wide Web is historically accurate, or even true. Anyone can post anything in cyberspace, and you must check the reliability and validity of anything you find on the Web.

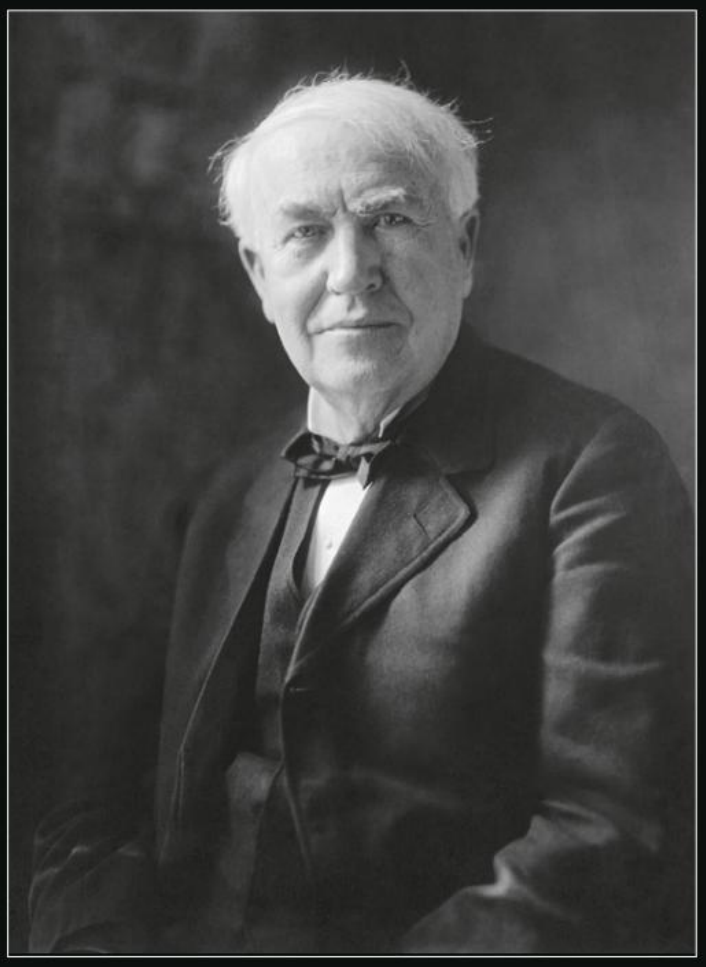
You must be aware that the suffix .com means a site is commercial, while .edu indicates an educational site, and .gov a government site. That doesn't guarantee the accuracy of a source, but will at least be a starting point in any historical investigation.

Starting research with an online search engine means that you will be given a list of possible sites that require further investigation. Companies can pay to have their sites placed higher on a search results list, so it is important that you do not trust something simply because it comes up first on a search.

You could be asked to research the inventions of Thomas Edison. His range of inventions changed the lives of many people throughout the world in the second phase of the Industrial Revolution. Key his name into a search engine and you are likely to be directed at first to Wikipedia. This is a huge democratic online encyclopaedia that allows people to construct its entries. It is an excellent starting point for much research, but at best, it is a secondary source. It is important that you find other sources to back it up.

Your search for Thomas Edison will also turn up the site www.thomasedison.com. As Edison died in 1931, it is safe to assume that the domain name was purchased by someone other than Edison himself. The domain name is no guarantee of authenticity, and needs to be checked as with any source. In this case, the author of the site has displayed his name prominently. As with printed material, if you cannot find an author, you should treat the source carefully.

Even if researching for a list of Edison's inventions you will need to check sites. While Edison had a role in a large number of significant inventions, historians dispute the importance of his role in some of these. So, simply copying a list from a website will not give you a deep understanding, or perhaps not even an accurate list.



Source 1.55 Thomas Edison, *c.* 1925

Check your learning

1. Use a search engine to find a list of Thomas Edison's inventions. Which one do you think has had the greatest influence on life today? Why?
2. Which site did you find the most reliable? Why?

bigideas

1.2 How did new ideas and technological developments contribute to change from 1750 to 1918?

Remember

1 Who was involved in the Seven Years War?

2 When was the American Declaration of Independence adopted?

3 What happened at the Boston Tea Party?

4 Which significant American politician was in Paris during the French Revolution?

5 What was the name of Charles Darwin's 1859 book?

Understand

6 Why did capitalism emerge as a popular idea for some people in the 19th century?

7 Why is the storming of the Bastille commemorated?

8 Look at the national flags of the United States of America and the Republic of France below. What do these flags symbolise?

9 Explain why the Liverpool & Manchester Railway was so important.

Apply

10 Develop an argument to support or dismiss the suggestion that *On the Origin of the Species by Means of Natural Selection* was the most important book of the 19th century.

11 How does life expectancy in Australia today compare with Victorian England? Explain the differences.

Analyse

12 What evidence would you use to show that the Chartists were influential in Australian history?

13 Research the war innovations that were used during the American Civil War. Which one do you think has been the most significant since then?

Evaluate

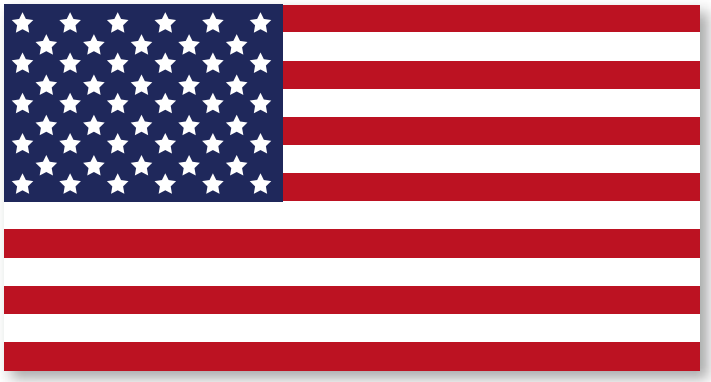
14 To what extent has the modern world been influenced by the American and French revolutions?

15 Was the Industrial Revolution a good thing? Make a list of pros and cons.

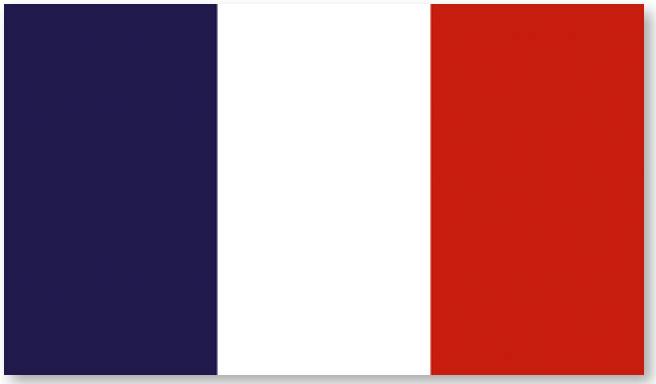
Create

16 Create a poster that will draw attention to the living conditions of the poor in 19th-century English cities.

17 In groups, develop a 'declaration of independence' that you think could be used in Australia today.



The national flag of the USA



The national flag of the French Republic

Source 1.56 *A friendly power in Egypt*, painted by WC Horsley, shows the 41st Welsh regiment marching into Cairo, Egypt, in 1887.

1.3 How did imperialism affect the making of the modern world?

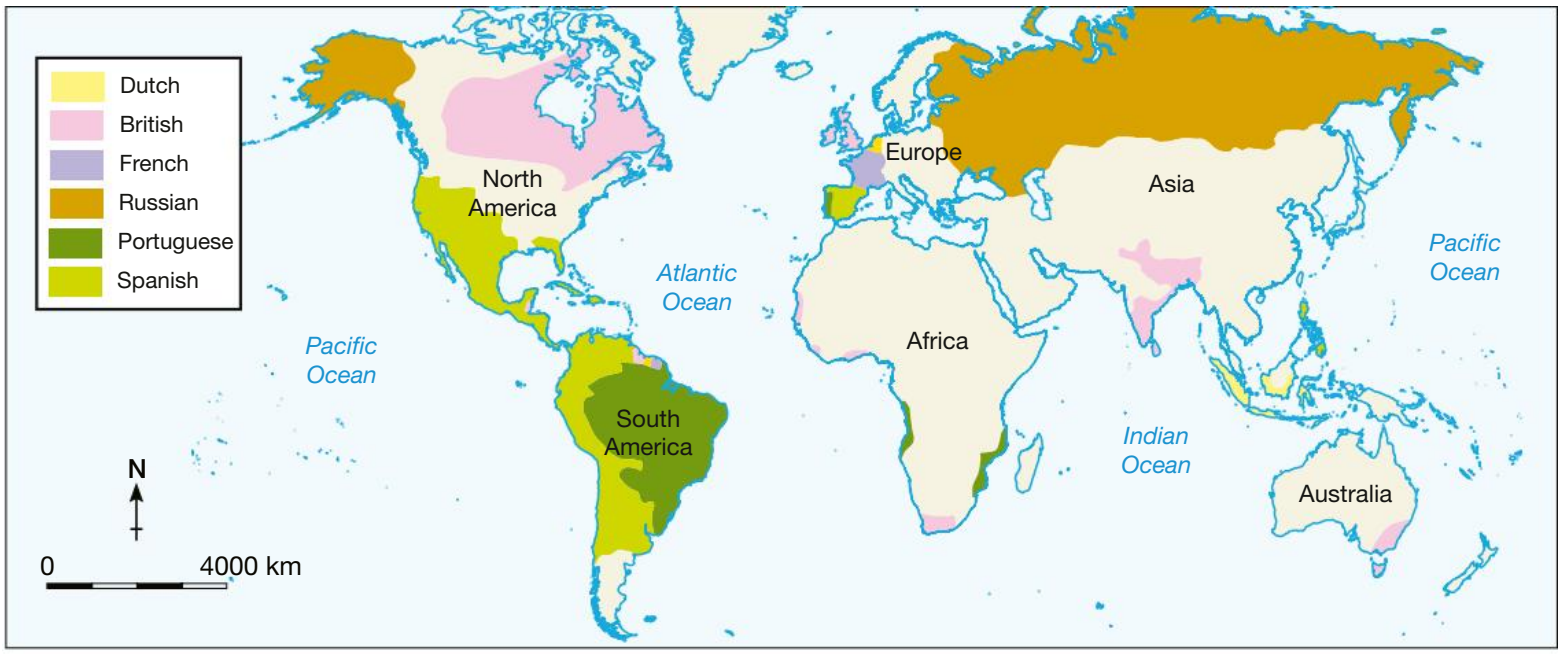
The period between 1750 and 1918 was dominated by the imperialist expansion of some countries. European nations had established expansive empires across the globe, and the conflict of imperialist ambitions was partly to blame for the outbreak of World War I. Some of those empires were falling apart by the end of the war, but imperial ambitions would remain a problem into the 21st century.

The origin of this modern **imperialism** lay in the Industrial Revolution. Countries with **colonies** abroad usually had guaranteed supplies of raw materials. Those same colonies were also valuable markets in which to sell the products manufactured from those materials. Newly united countries like Italy and Germany aggressively looked for colonies at the end of the 19th century. This imperialist drive led towards World War I.

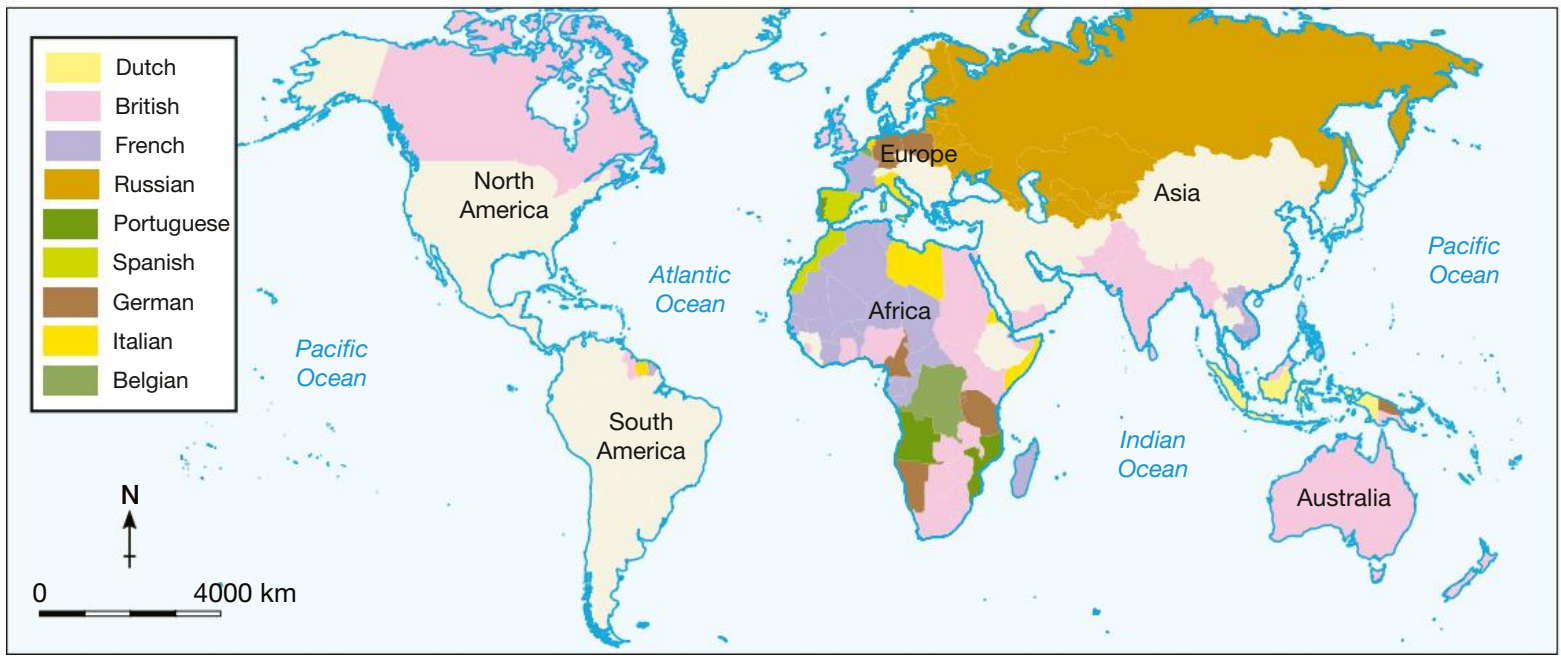
The world experienced a period of decolonisation during the second half of the 20th century. Some historians argue, however, that military invasions such as the 2003 attack on Iraq by the USA and some of its allies show that imperialism is still very much a part of the modern world.

Colonial imperialism

A quick comparison of maps of the world in 1815 and 1915 reveals the expansion of European empires over a period of 100 years (see Sources 1.57 and 1.58). Britain led the way, but other European powers also expanded—particularly into Asia and Africa.



Source 1.57 Colonial empires in 1815



Source 1.58 Colonial empires in 1915

The building of colonies around the world allowed imperialism to flourish. Colonies had the culture, economics and political system of the colonising power imposed on them. Part of the **ideology** of imperialism was the belief of the colonising powers that their way of life was superior. The development of **social Darwinism** from the mid 19th century reinforced the belief among Europeans that they had an important role to play in 'civilising' the world.

Australia developed throughout the 19th century as a series of separate colonies of Britain. From the early days of settlement, racial background dictated life opportunities in the Australian colonies. By the end of the century, Australia had federated into a single country, with Indigenous Australians largely excluded from public life. It was the Indigenous Australians who were the real victims of British imperialism. One of the motivations for federation was the desire to protect the island's coastline. Germany had created a colony in New Guinea, and Australia was increasingly aware of the growing regional threat from European imperialist ambition.

British imperialism

England had followed Spain and Portugal in world exploration in the 16th and 17th centuries. The Americas had been the major prize in this early phase of imperial expansion. Rumours of gold had driven Spanish **conquistadors** into the Americas. English pirates such as the legendary Blackbeard made a substantial living preying on the ships carrying American gold.

England formally united with Scotland in 1707 to form Great Britain, and from that period the American colonies were the source of much British wealth. Their loss in the American Revolution turned British imperialism towards Asia and Africa. Australia was established as a British colony in 1788, and was a valuable foothold in the South Pacific.

At its peak just after World War I, the British Empire controlled approximately a quarter of the world's population and land mass. This proved to be vital during the Great War, as colonies loyally provided support for the British war effort. The empire's raw materials such as wool and gold from Australia; cotton, sugar and tobacco from the Americas; gold and diamonds from Africa; and spices, fabric and tea from India, fuelled the great British boom during the Industrial Revolution.

The great opportunities for wealth and power were what drove British imperialism. Social Darwinism provided the justification of bringing civilisation to 'backward' areas of the world, but money drove imperial expansion.

Source 1.59
South African soldiers marching through Cape Town, South Africa, in 1915, after bringing the German colony of South West Africa under British control

Indian Mutiny

India had been largely colonised by private enterprise. The British East India Company had gradually expanded its control over various Indian territories through military action against Indian princes. By the middle of the 19th century, the Company effectively controlled economic and political life in most of India. In 1857, Indian resentment in northern and central India exploded into an armed uprising against British power.

Resentment against Company rule had grown as Indians were used in the army to control other Indians. One spark for the mutiny in 1857 was the development of pre-greased cartridges for new Enfield rifles. Soldiers were required to bite the end from the cartridges to release the gunpowder. Rumours circulated that the cartridges were greased with animal fat. Muslim soldiers refused to bite anything that might be greased with pig fat, and Hindus refused beef fat. It was typical of the resentments that arose from imperialism.

A British officer, Thomas Lowe, wrote about his experiences in 1860. He spoke of a 'no prisoners' policy, which led to the slaughter of many Indians as British forces gradually reasserted control. One result of the mutiny was the ending of the British East India Company's direct control. India became ruled directly by the British Crown, after the 1858 Government of India Act. For many Europeans, the mutiny confirmed views that these regions were the home of savage heathens.

Settlement of Australia

The imperialist world view had a dramatic effect on Australia's Indigenous population. From the time of first settlement, Aboriginal use of the land was not recognised by the British. The concept of ***terra nullius*** (land belonging to no one) supported the British view that land had to have housing and fences to signify ownership.

Although there are historical arguments about the nature of frontier contact between settlers and Indigenous populations, there is clear evidence that massacres did occur. The 1838 Myall Creek massacre near Inverell in New South Wales is the best known because the authorities acted against the white perpetrators. This led to the controversy being recorded in the daily newspapers.

Indigenous Australians were dispossessed of traditional tribal lands, and populations were decimated by disease, deliberate extermination and policies of removal to missions. This reflected the imperialist viewpoint that Indigenous peoples were simply an obstacle to progress that needed to be dealt with.

Source 1.60 An illustration of Indian cavalry attacking British infantry, 1857

Source 1.61 A plaque in New South Wales commemorates the massacre of Indigenous people by white settlers.

key**concepts**

Contestability

Much of the study of history involves not facts, but interpretations of facts. Historians examine as many relevant sources of evidence as possible to reach a conclusion about the past. Nevertheless, historians often disagree about conclusions even when looking at the same evidence. This is known as **contestability**. Sources themselves may be biased by the viewpoints of their creators, and historians who interpret those sources may be biased by their personal ideologies. Thus, there are often many competing interpretations of events in the past. There is rarely, if ever, a 'right' view; but some views are more warranted than others. Learning to contest viewpoints, based on evidence, is a fundamental concept for the study of history.

Relations between Indigenous Australians and white settlers have become a contested part of our history. Historians have clashed over the reliability of written and oral sources. So much Indigenous history was not recorded in written form. This has meant that historians have had to access other types of evidence. Oral histories passed through generations are invaluable in helping historians access an Indigenous perspective of history.

Source 1.62 is part of an attempt to collect the history of the Narungga people of South Australia. It gives a valuable insight into how two groups can view the same event differently. It is these different perspectives that contribute to contestability in history.

Source 1.62

In the summer of 1847–1848, George Penton (who was employed as an overseer by pastoralists George Anstey and Thomas Giles) 'caught' some Narungga setting the grass alight. This may have been an example of 'fire-stick farming', a traditional custom which is recognised today as a sustainable and important agricultural practice. However, the settlers interpreted it as 'the blacks ... trying to burn us out'. Penton punished the Narungga men by making them 'break branches off the trees and beat out the fire', which 'he kept them at ... until the perspiration fairly rolled off them'. This reaction must have puzzled and humiliated the owners of the land who had been practising this form of farming for generations.

Extract from *Nharangga Wargunni Bugi-buggillu: A Journey through Narungga History* by Skye Krichauff for Narungga Aboriginal Progress Association and Wakefield Press, 2011, pp. 59–60

1 What event is Source 1.62 describing? Identify the two perspectives evident in the source.

2 How could two historians use this same material to create different interpretations?

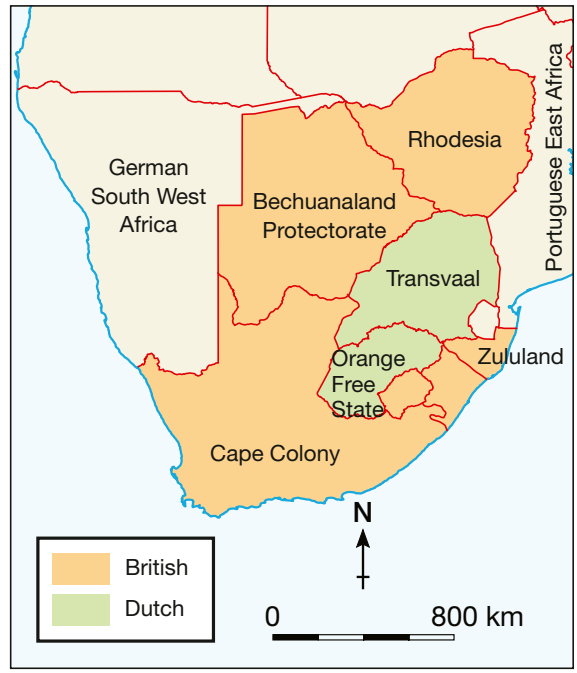
Source 1.63 Indigenous Australians in the Northern Territory starting a fire

Boer War

Southern Africa witnessed another clash of imperialist ambition. Britain had shared control of southern Africa with the Dutch-Afrikaner Boers. There had been clashes, but the situation deteriorated in the 1880s when gold and diamonds were discovered in Boer territory. An influx of wealth-seeking British into Boer lands brought the situation to a head.

In 1899, the Boers launched an attack against what they saw as an inevitable British takeover. Australia's colonies rushed to join the British war effort. The British eventually prevailed, but the arrest of three Australian soldiers—Lieutenants Harry 'Breaker' Morant, Peter Handcock and George Witton—on charges of murdering Boer prisoners caused great controversy.

This affair has become part of Australian popular culture, particularly after the 1980 film *Breaker Morant*. Morant and Handcock were executed by firing squad, and Witton eventually returned to Australia after a massive public outcry. His book, *Scapegoats of the Empire*, made it clear how he felt they had been treated. In 2011, Australian Attorney-General Robert McClelland agreed to hold an inquiry into the Morant/Handcock/Witton case and investigate requesting a pardon from the British Parliament, which failed.



Source 1.64 Southern Africa at the time of the Boer War

Source 1.65 British soldiers shooting guns at Honey Nest Kloof, 1900. This image is likely to have been staged.

skill**drill**

Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary sources

Between 1899 and 1902, Australian soldiers fought with the British Army in the Boer War. It was a bloody war against the largely Dutch Boers who also claimed the rich farming lands and resources of southern Africa. Three Australians, Lieutenants Morant, Handcock and Witton, were charged with murdering Boer prisoners. In a British court martial held in January 1902, all three were found guilty. Morant and Handcock were shot in February; Witton's death sentence was reduced to life in prison.

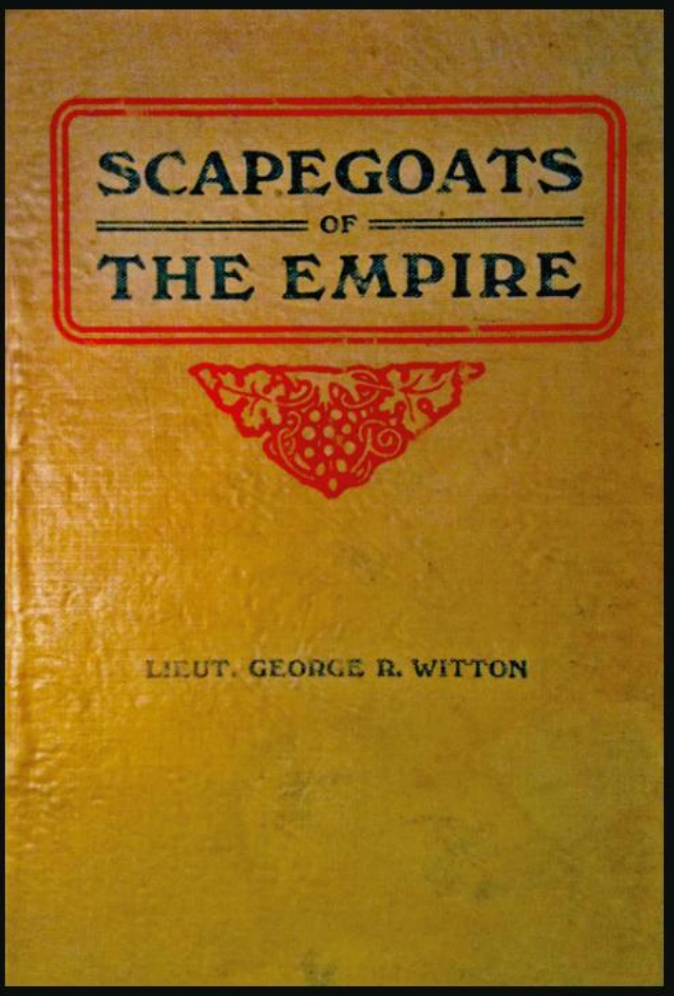
News of the court martial was difficult to access in Australia. Witton was sent to prison in Britain, and gradually Australians came to see the treatment of the three men as an injustice. In 1904, an extraordinary 80 000 Australians signed a petition to the King calling for Witton to be released. At a time when Australian loyalty to Britain and the Empire was unquestioned, it was a serious challenge to British authority. The 80 000 Australians represented nearly 2 per cent of the entire population of the country in 1904.

This petition is a primary source on the court martial of the three men because it outlines the reasons why Australians regarded Witton as innocent. In his book, *Scapegoats of the Empire*, Witton referred to the petition. He called it a 'true and faithful summary of my case'. Both Witton's book and the petition are primary sources that have the clear intention of vindicating Witton and his colleagues. They have a clear purpose, and should be approached with that knowledge.

When using a source, you can use this checklist to help you identify its origin and purpose:

- When and where was it created?
- Why was it created?
- Are you seeing a reproduction of the original or a later copy?
- Does the language used attempt to convince you of a point of view?
- Is it trustworthy? What makes it trustworthy?

The original petition can be accessed through the National Library of Australia's online collection (www.nla.gov.au), while Witton's book is available through Project Gutenberg (www.gutenberg.org), which seeks to digitally publish books in the public domain to ensure access to them.



Source 1.66 The cover of George Witton's book, *Scapegoats of the Empire*, published in 1907

Check your learning

1. Briefly research the background to the Witton case. List the main points.
2. Access either the 1904 petition or Witton's book. Apply the checklist on the left to your source.
3. What do you think the purpose of the source is?

The race for Africa

Arguably, the late 19th-century European scramble to claim territory in Africa reveals the ugliest side of imperialism. Africa had been a source of slaves between the 16th and 19th centuries, but political protests had forced an end to that trade.

European countries saw Africa as an important new market for exports if they could establish white settlements there. By 1913, seven European powers controlled the entire African continent, with the exception of Liberia in the west, and Ethiopia in the east (see Source 1.67). Even the USA had been briefly involved with an attempt to establish a colony for freed slaves in Liberia. It had been granted its independence in 1847.

Source 1.67 Africa, 1913, showing European-controlled territories

Conference of Berlin

The imperial race for colonies in Africa was an important factor in the lead-up to World War I. Germany and Italy felt they had a distinct disadvantage in the race to gain colonies, having only recently unified. The German Chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, organised the Conference of Berlin in 1884–85 to allow European powers to discuss and formalise their race to colonise Africa. Perhaps nothing symbolised this age of imperialism more clearly than European politicians meeting to decide how they would divide a continent.

American imperialism

The USA played a minor role in this period of imperialism. There had been the brief involvement in Liberia in Africa, but the Civil War between 1861 and 1865 occupied its energy. Rebuilding the large areas ravaged by the first modern war was a major priority. The USA did manage to become involved in a conflict with Spain at the end of the 19th century, which resulted in control of the Philippines, Guam and Puerto Rico, as well as a close relationship with Cuba.

Rather, 19th-century American imperialism turned inwards. This was the period of westward expansion, as white settlers moved west of the Mississippi seeking new farmlands. Americans believed they had a 'manifest destiny' to settle the land from coast to coast. For the Indigenous tribes this meant destruction of lands and culture similar to what was occurring in Australia.

Economic imperialism

By the end of the century, American commerce had developed rapidly. Inventors such as Thomas Edison helped stimulate a second phase of the Industrial Revolution. New modes of transport such as automobiles and the aeroplane developed rapidly in a country where large distances had to be covered. This helped pave the way for a 20th-century form of imperialism, where American products conquered the world, allowing the USA to become the wealthiest country in the world. American companies realised that economic power could be much more effective than military power in winning allies.

Source 1.68 An illustration of American pioneers heading west

Check your learning

1. How was imperialism linked to the Industrial Revolution?
2. Why did German imperialism appear to be a threat to Australia?
3. How did Charles Darwin become linked to imperialism?
4. Where did the USA attempt to establish a colony for freed slaves?
5. What was the Conference of Berlin?

key**concepts**

Evidence

Photographs, drawings and other images are historical sources that can provide information about the past. Sources can be used to frame arguments or ideas about history. Sources alone, however, do not constitute **evidence**. Evidence is the information you create when you critically examine a source and ask specific questions about it. You can use evidence to support a historical argument. The questions you ask about a source and the evidence that you uncover as a result will depend on the argument you are making.

Fig. 251.—The original Colt Revolver.

BREECH-LOADING REVOLVERS.

Source 1.69 A page from a Weapons catalogue, *c.* 1835, listing the new Colt .45 revolver and its features

In the 19th century, the USA expanded westwards, clashing with Indigenous peoples as they moved. The 'Wild West' became mythologised in popular culture, and part of that mythology was the role of the Colt revolver, a handgun that could fire six shots without reloading. The version known as the Peacemaker has been referred to as 'the gun that tamed the west'.

Sources 1.69 and 1.70 provide information about the Colt .45. How they provide evidence will depend on the nature of the investigation you are conducting.

1. Which source provides evidence that the Colt was a new technological development that changed the nature of weapons?
2. Which source provides evidence that the Colt .45 became associated with the settling of the American west in popular culture?
3. What other evidence would you need to create a convincing historical argument that the Colt .45 was the gun that tamed the American west?

Source 1.70 The television character Paladin firing a Colt .45 in the 1957 television series *Have Gun—Will Travel*

key**concepts**

Continuity and change

Aspects of society evolve over time, and these changes vary in their speed and intensity. For example, natural disasters tend to have an immediate impact, whereas the changes brought about by new technologies will be slower. Some aspects of society will not change at all.

Continuities are features that stay the same over a period of time, while changes are, of course, those things that change, regardless of whether the change is fast or slow.

Societies will always have a mix of **continuinity and change**. Changes may be more immediately obvious to historians, particularly if they happen fast, but historians can learn a lot about society by also studying aspects of society that have not changed. Examining why continuities have persisted can help us understand the most important underlying features of society. Likewise, analysis of trends and changing features tells us where a society has come from and where it may be going.

Source 1.71 A Coca-Cola delivery driver and his truck, New Orleans, 1929

Imperialism was not always the result of invasion. Commercial brands have been very effective at selling their products throughout the world. Coca-Cola originated in Athens, Georgia, in 1886 as a health drink. The expanding market for Coca-Cola is an example of both continuity and change: continuity in the US market from 1886 to 1945, and change in the world market from 1945 to today.

The secret formula for the syrup that is combined with carbonated water to create the drink is a closely guarded secret. It has remained a continuity that can help historians understand the spread of American capitalism in the 20th century. Coca-Cola became the first commercial sponsor of the Olympic Games in Amsterdam in 1928. They have been sponsors ever since. It has sponsored football's World Cup since 1978, and it is events like these that enable the company to be so recognisable globally.

There have been changes in Coca-Cola over the years. Cocaine from the coca leaves was an ingredient in the early years. In 1985, the company introduced a new formula and branded it 'new Coke', but consumer demand forced a return to the traditional formula. Recent awareness about the dangers of high consumption of sugar have increased the popularity of a sugar-free 'Zero' option.

1 What continuities and changes can you observe from Source 1.71?

2 Develop and apply a questionnaire on knowledge and consumption of Coca-Cola among your family and friends. What evidence for continuity and change does it give you?

bigideas

1.3 How did imperialism affect the making of the modern world?

Remember

1 What is imperialism?

2 Who were the first European countries to launch imperialist expansion?

3 How big was the British Empire just after World War I?

4 What was the Indian Mutiny?

5 What was called 'the gun that tamed the American west'?

Understand

6 How did imperialism affect Indigenous Australians in the 19th century?

7 What is social Darwinism?

8 Why do you think the 'Breaker Morant case' still involved the Australian Government in 2011?

9 Is Coca-Cola an example of economic imperialism?

Apply

10 Research the Myall Creek massacre. Do you think it was typical of relations between colonists and Indigenous Australians in the 19th century? Why?

11 Recreate the table below in your notebook, and fill it in with arguments that could be used for both sides in a debate about economic imperialism being more effective than military imperialism.

Analyse

12 What evidence would you use to show that the Conference of Berlin marked a high point in European imperialism?

13 What was the 2003 Coalition of the Willing? Was this invasion of Iraq an example of imperialism?

Evaluate

14 Why have relations between colonists and Indigenous Australians in the 19th century created difficulties for historians?

15 Research the lead-up to World War I. Is there any evidence that imperialism contributed to the outbreak of war?

Create

16 Examine Sources 1.56 and 1.60. Create two descriptions of these sources, one from a British perspective, and one from an Indian perspective.

17 Develop an advertising campaign to sell Coca-Cola to Australians celebrating federation in 1901.

Economic imperialism		Military imperialism	
Arguments for	**Arguments against**	**Arguments for**	**Arguments against**

Source 1.72 Russian troops during World War I, 4 April 1917

1.4 What was the significance of World War I?

The heir to the Austrian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, was assassinated on 28 July 1914. This sparked a chain of events that led to World War I. This war, fought from 1914 to 1918, introduced weaponry that caused casualties on a massive scale. There were theatres of war in Europe, the Middle East, Turkey and the Pacific. With so many of the combatants having empires, many parts of the world became involved in the fighting. For these reasons it has been called the first 'world war'.

At the conclusion of the war, a Peace Conference was held in Paris. This was to negotiate a peace settlement that would enable the world to return to normality. Our historical knowledge enables us to conclude that this did not happen because an even larger world war broke out in 1939. In 1919, however, hopes were high that this had been 'the war to end all wars'.

Australia's involvement in World War I has become mythologised. Our involvement in the ill-fated invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula in 1915 has been described as our 'coming of age' and our 'baptism of blood'. Australia had become a nation in 1901. Unlike many other countries, that process was carried out without a war of independence. Instead, Australian politicians had created a nation founded on the principles of modern democracy that peoples are still fighting to achieve in other parts of the world. World War I became the opportunity to create a national story that could compete with the drama of the American and French revolutions.

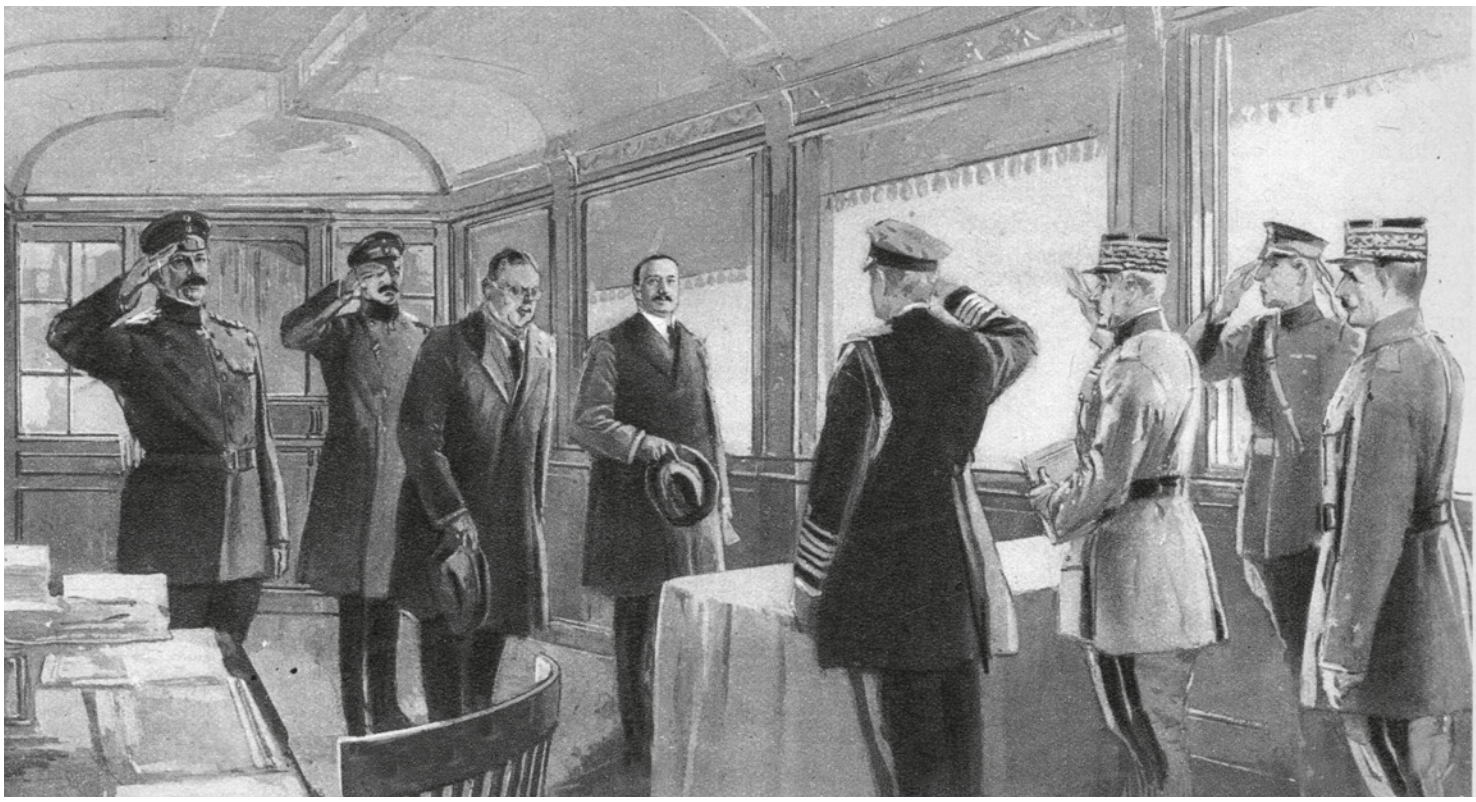
The ‘war to end all wars’

World War I was a horrific experience for those involved. The statistics are damning. It is estimated that 10 million people were killed and 20 million wounded as a result of actual combat. Although official statistics vary, and are often confusing, there is no doubt that many countries suffered horrendous losses. There are also civilian casualties to be taken into consideration. Australia lost over 50 000 men, a huge toll in a population of 4.5 million, it meant over 1 per cent of the population were victims of the war.

There were other consequences of the war. Four major European empires disappeared. The Austro-Hungarian, Russian, German and Ottoman empires, as well as their associated royal families, lost all power. New nations emerged as the old empires broke up. The Russian Empire was replaced after a communist revolution in 1917. This led to their withdrawal from the war. Most western countries became suspicious of a communist Russia, and there were strained relations from 1917.

The Paris Peace Conference, which produced the Treaty of Versailles in 1919, represented a grab for land by some victors. Australia used the opportunity to secure its borders by claiming a mandate over what had previously been German New Guinea.

Some of the actions during and after World War I still have major implications for world security. Britain had been afraid that the large number of German migrants in the USA might have influenced them to enter the war on Germany’s side. As many of the German migrants were Jews, Britain in 1917, through the Balfour Declaration, supported a Jewish homeland in the Middle East. Austria–Hungary was broken up into a number of smaller states including Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia, two areas that struggled to find national identities at various times since then. Turkey emerged as a modern, secular republic after the break-up of the Ottoman Empire. Its origins were strongly linked to the performance of its young men in successfully defending the Gallipoli Peninsula from foreign invasion in 1915.



Source 1.73 An illustration of the signing of the Armistice, 11 November 1918

skill**drill**

Identify and analyse perspectives of people from the past

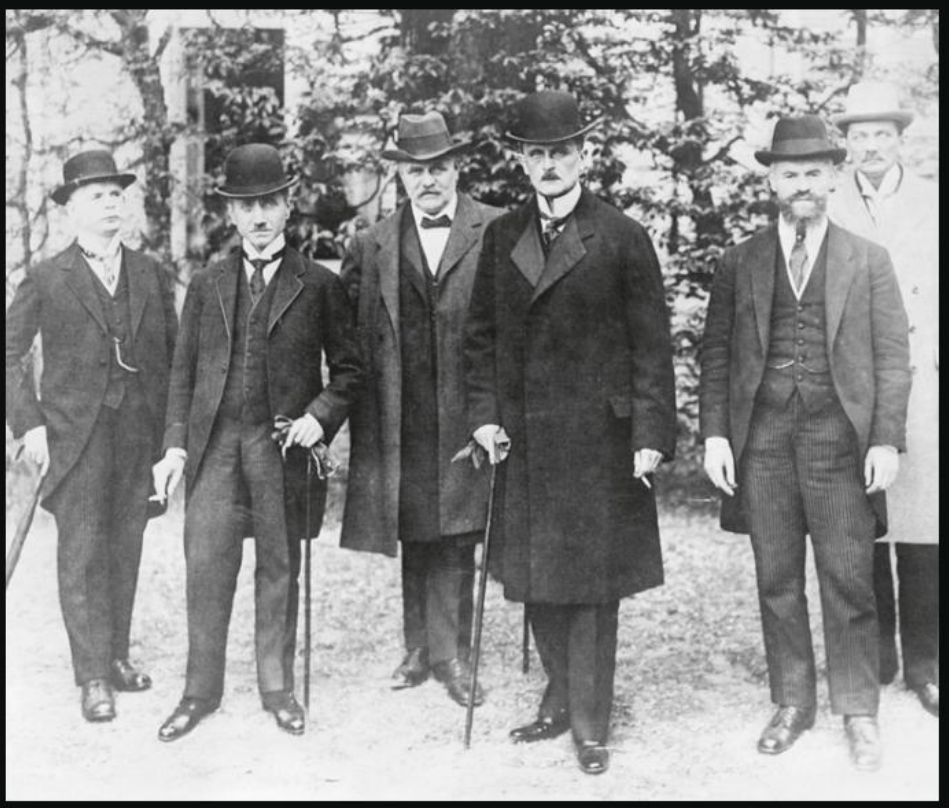
The Treaty of Versailles was the formal peace treaty between the Allied powers and Germany after World War I. It was signed on 28 June 1919 after six months of negotiations at the Paris Peace Conference. One of the most controversial clauses in the treaty was Article 231 (see Source 1.74).

Source 1.74

> *The Allied and Associated Governments affirm and Germany accepts the responsibility of Germany and her allies for causing all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the war imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her allies.*
>
> Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles

Historians still argue about what has come to be known as the 'war guilt clause', because it is regarded as blaming Germany for World War I. This reflects later historical understanding, as it certainly was not given that name at the time. One of the problems in interpreting a source like this is the knowledge that World War II broke out 20 years later. The authors of the Treaty of Versailles did not know that World War II would occur, and historians have to be very careful of applying later knowledge to events.

Article 231 is a primary source. It is historians that decide what it means, and like all words, is open to a variety of interpretations. In her 1976 book, *The Illusion of Peace*, American historian Sally Marks argued that Germany actually was not treated that harshly. Rather, the view that Article 231 showed 'war guilt' was a later interpretation by German politicians looking to justify their claims for power.



Source 1.75 Members of the German delegation to the Paris Peace Conference

Economist John Maynard Keynes, writing in 1920, saw the treaty as laying the seeds of future conflict because it had not considered the rebuilding of the defeated powers. Count Brockdorff, leader of the German delegation to the Paris Peace Conference, said on 7 May 1919 after seeing the terms, 'I would be a liar if I agreed to this.'

These are all legitimate interpretations of the Treaty of Versailles and Article 231 in particular. They show clear perspectives on the sources. Historians will always bring specific perspectives to their work, and studying history involves identifying these perspectives.

Check your learning

1. Describe the historical context of the Paris Peace Conference, which produced the Treaty of Versailles.
2. Read Source 1.74, Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles. Do you think it blames Germany for World War I? Which parts of the Article did you use to support your interpretation?
3. Locate another interpretation of Article 231. Identify the perspective of the author of the interpretation. What evidence do they use?

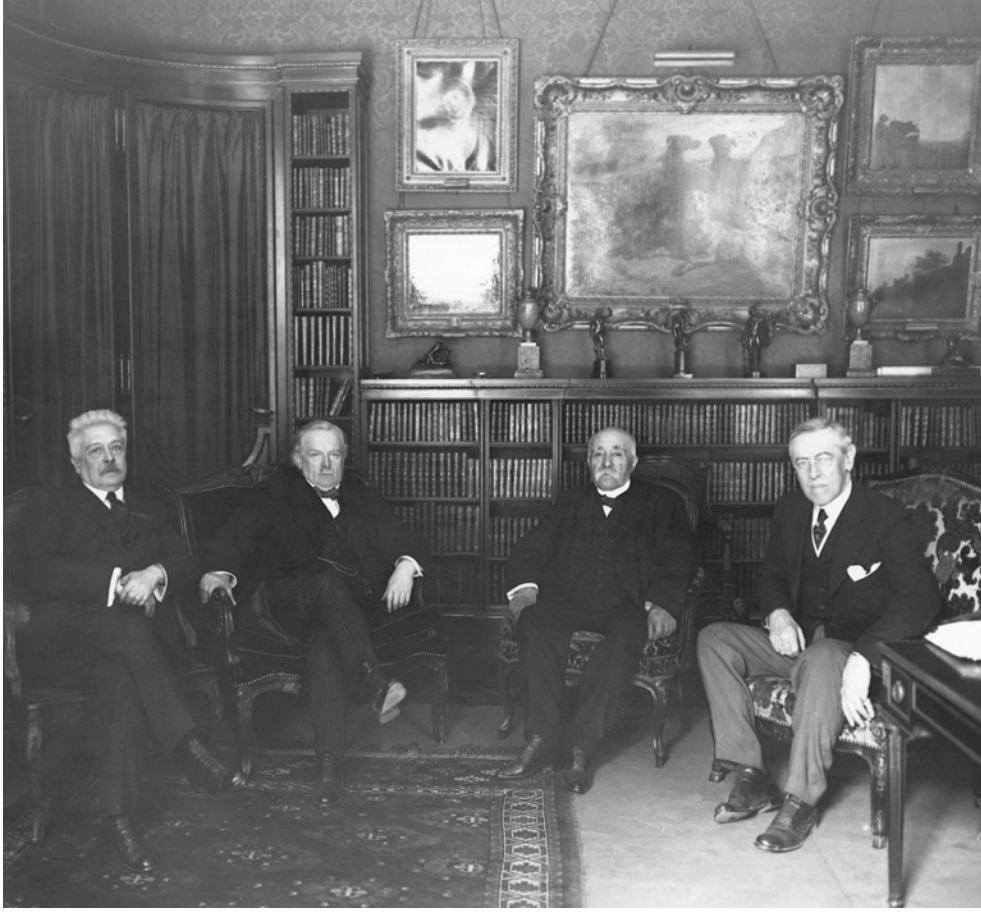
Paris Peace Conference

The Paris Peace Conference brought the victors together to decide the terms of peace. World War I had shocked those involved with its scale and duration. The development of innovations such as gas warfare, tanks and long-range artillery resulted in massive loss of life. Trench warfare on the Western Front in France and Belgium had destroyed towns and valuable farming lands.

There was a desire for revenge from many nations that had suffered. This led to the famous Article 231 (the 'war guilt clause') of the Treaty of Versailles, which appeared to place the blame for the war at the feet of Germany.

The 'Big Four'

The leaders who dominated the Paris Peace Conference were British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, French Prime Minister Georges Clemenceau, American President Woodrow Wilson and Italian Prime Minister Vittorio Orlando. They were known as the 'Big Four', but they became the 'Big Three' after Orlando left in a rage, feeling he had not been given sufficient territory.

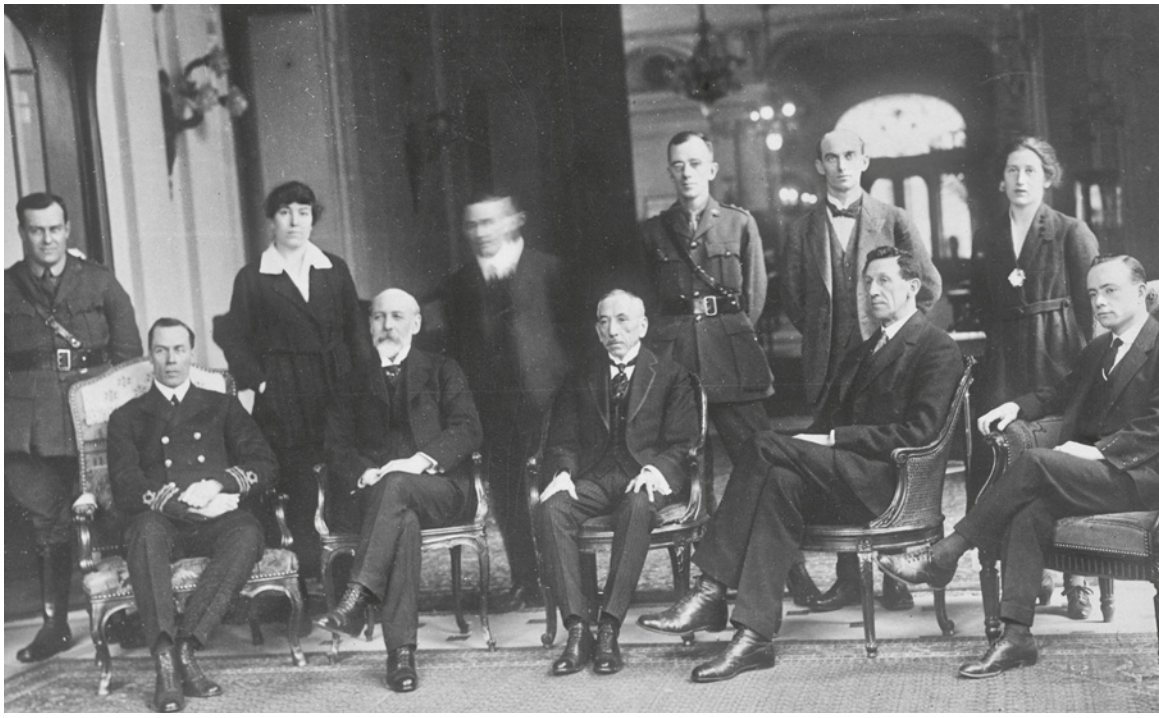


Source 1.76 The 'Big Four': Vittorio Emanuele Orlando of Italy, David Lloyd George of Great Britain, Georges Clemenceau of France, and Woodrow Wilson of the USA

The racial equality debate

There were a number of controversies at the Conference, and many delegates of smaller nations left discouraged. Ireland, for example, failed in its attempt to be recognised as independent from Britain. One successful smaller nation was Australia. Its delegation was led by Prime Minister Billy Hughes. He had two major demands: that Australia be allowed to continue its racially discriminatory **White Australia policy** and that it gain control of German New Guinea. He succeeded on both counts.

Japan's delegation had proposed a racial equality clause be included in the Charter of the League of Nations. Hughes vehemently opposed any mention of racial equality, and won British support. Japan's proposal was rebuffed, and historians suggest it was this action that drove Japan towards a more independent and anti-Western foreign policy. This would lead the Japanese thrust through Asia towards Australia in World War II.

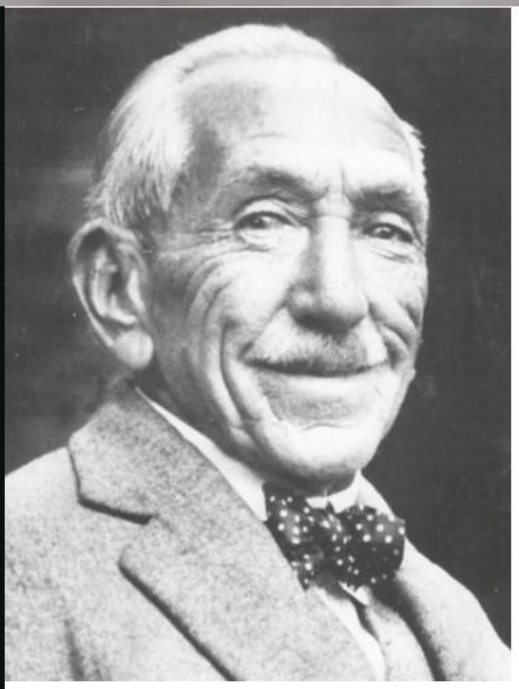


Source 1.77 Billy Hughes and the Australian delegation at the Paris Peace Conference, 1919 (AWM A02615)

significant**individuals**

Billy Hughes (1862–1952)

Billy Hughes was the prime minister of Australia for most of World War I. The actions taken by Hughes during this time give a distinctly Australian insight into some of the key issues of the war. Two of the major issues for which Hughes is best remembered are conscription and his role in the post-war peace conference in Paris.



Source 1.78 William 'Billy' Hughes

Source 1.79 Prime Minister Billy Hughes giving a conscription speech in Sydney, 1916

Early life

William Morris Hughes was born in London in 1862 to Welsh parents. He immigrated to Australia in 1884, working largely as a labourer. Hughes began his life in politics after entering the New South Wales colonial parliament in 1894. By 1901, he was a Labor member of the first federal parliament.

Political career

During his federal parliamentary career, Hughes represented the Labor Party, the 'National Labor Party', the Nationalist Party, the Australian Party, the United Australia Party and the Liberal Party. He represented four different seats in New South Wales and Victoria. When he finally died in office in 1952 at the age of 90, he was the oldest federal parliamentarian in Australian history.

Always prepared to enter into political deals to maintain power, he was prime minister from 1915 until 1923. Although popular with voters, he struggled to win the support of colleagues because of his willingness to move from party to party to secure his own position. In over 51 years in federal parliament, Hughes belonged to six different political parties.

Wartime achievements

It is Hughes' role as Australia's wartime prime minister that brings him most attention. After replacing an ailing Andrew Fisher in 1915, Hughes managed to split the Labor Party over conscription, split the country on the same issue, and successfully fought to have any mention of racial equality banned from the charter of the League of Nations. Through all this, he won a reputation as 'the Little Digger', a fierce defender of Australian rights.

Source 1.80 Billy Hughes and General John Monash in France, 1918

Source 1.81 An anti-conscription cartoon by Claude Marquet, in the *Australian Daily Worker*, 13 December 1917

His willingness to support Britain saw him attempt twice to conscript Australian men to serve in World War I. These campaigns in 1916 and 1917 were very divisive for Australian society, and twice Hughes was rejected in **plebiscites**. He travelled to Paris in 1919 to ensure Australia had its own voice at the Peace Conference.

In Paris, Hughes campaigned on the two issues that he regarded as fundamental to Australia's interests. He wanted Australian control of German New Guinea and the continuation of the White Australia policy. He was successful on both counts, but his alienation of the Japanese on the issue of racial equality would come back to haunt Australia in World War II.

Check your learning

1. How long was Billy Hughes in federal parliament?
2. How many political parties did he represent?
3. In your own words, define the term 'plebiscite'.
4. What were Hughes' demands at the Paris Peace Conference? How successful was he?

Source 1.82
Delegates at the first session of the Council of the League of Nations

The achievements

Ultimately, the Paris Peace Conference produced five separate peace treaties with Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary and the Ottoman Empire. It also established a League of Nations to act as a forum for the settlement of international disputes before they became armed conflicts.

The participants left Paris believing they had constructed the groundwork for a new era of peace and prosperity. A lot of rebuilding needed to be done in Europe, but **reparations** from Germany were to help with this and also provide some economic certainty. Despite the changes in Europe and the break-up of old empires, it was hoped that Paris would be the start of a return to 'business as usual'. But this did not happen, and the world moved towards a depression, and in 1939, a second world war began.

League of Nations

American President Woodrow Wilson had arrived at the Paris Peace Conference with 14 Points that he believed would help build a stronger post-war world. The final point insisted, 'A general association of nations must be formed under specific covenants for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.' This was the origin of the League of Nations.

The League was created in Paris, but Wilson was unable to convince his own Congress to pass legislation supporting it. As a result, despite Wilson's key role in the League's formation, the USA was never a member. This revealed one of the great weaknesses of the League—members came and went.

Australia was a foundation member, and it was through a League of Nations mandate (authority) that Australia gained control of German New Guinea. It was also Prime Minister Hughes' absolute insistence that the League remove any reference to anti-racist aims that showed the potential for failure right from the start.

The League did achieve some successes, however. It was effective in moving against slavery in African regions. It regulated the sale of legal drugs, was particularly active against prostitution and trafficking of women, and supported refugees. It established a Committee for the Status of Women that became part of the United Nations in later years.

The International Labour Organization (ILO), although linked, was independent of the League. It achieved restrictions on the addition of lead to paint, improvement in child labour laws and limits on working hours. It also championed the rights of women in the workplace. The ILO became an agency of the United Nations after World War II.

Ultimately, the League of Nations was considered a failure because it was unable to prevent the outbreak of World War II. Lacking an army or any means of compulsion, it was unable to enforce rulings. Members came and went, which was a major reason it was unable to function effectively. It did provide an essential learning curve, which ensured that the United Nations that emerged from World War II would be a much more effective organisation.

Check your learning

1. Approximately how many soldiers were killed during World War I?
2. Which empires disappeared after World War I?
3. What did Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes want from the Paris Peace Conference?
4. Which world leader called for the establishment of the League of Nations?
5. What was one success of the League of Nations?

bigideas

1.4 What was the significance of World War I?

Remember

1 What was the event that sparked the outbreak of World War I?

2 Which two countries use the Gallipoli campaign as part of their foundation mythology?

3 How many men did Australia lose during World War I?

4 Which organisation established a Committee for the Status of Women?

5 Who was the Prime Minister of Australia for most of World War I?

Understand

6 Why do Australians regard the Gallipoli campaign as so significant?

7 Why was the Balfour Declaration significant?

8 Why would Count Brockdorff say he was a liar if he agreed to Article 231 of the Treaty of Versailles?

9 How was Billy Hughes able to stay in federal parliament for so long?

Apply

10 Was it fair that the 'Big Three' ended up dominating the Paris Peace Conference?

Analyse

11 Why do you think people thought that World War I would be the 'war to end all wars'?

Evaluate

12 Did Billy Hughes' success in acquiring permission from League of Nations to control German New Guinea, make Australia safer?

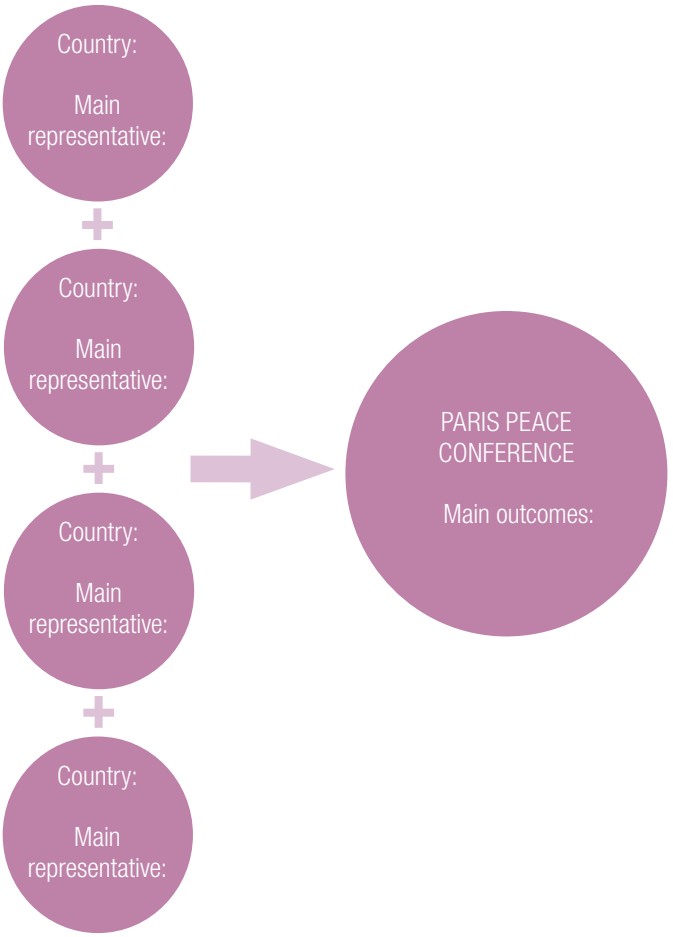
13 Conduct some Internet research into the Paris Peace Conference held at the end of World War I. The Conference brought the victors together to decide the terms of peace. The leaders of the 'Big Four' countries dominated the conference. Copy the following graphic organiser at right into your notebook and provide the missing information.

14 Based on the research you conducted for Question 13, do you think the Paris Peace Conference was a success? Why/why not?

Create

15 Create a speech for Woodrow Wilson when he returned to the USA from Paris. Use it to try and convince the American people why the USA should join the League of Nations.

16 Prepare a eulogy for Billy Hughes' funeral. You will have to think about which perspective you will focus on, and why you are making this decision.



depth study

Making a better world?

In this depth study, students will investigate how life changed from 1750 to 1918 through the detailed study of a major development. The study includes the causes and effects of the development, and the Australian experience of it.

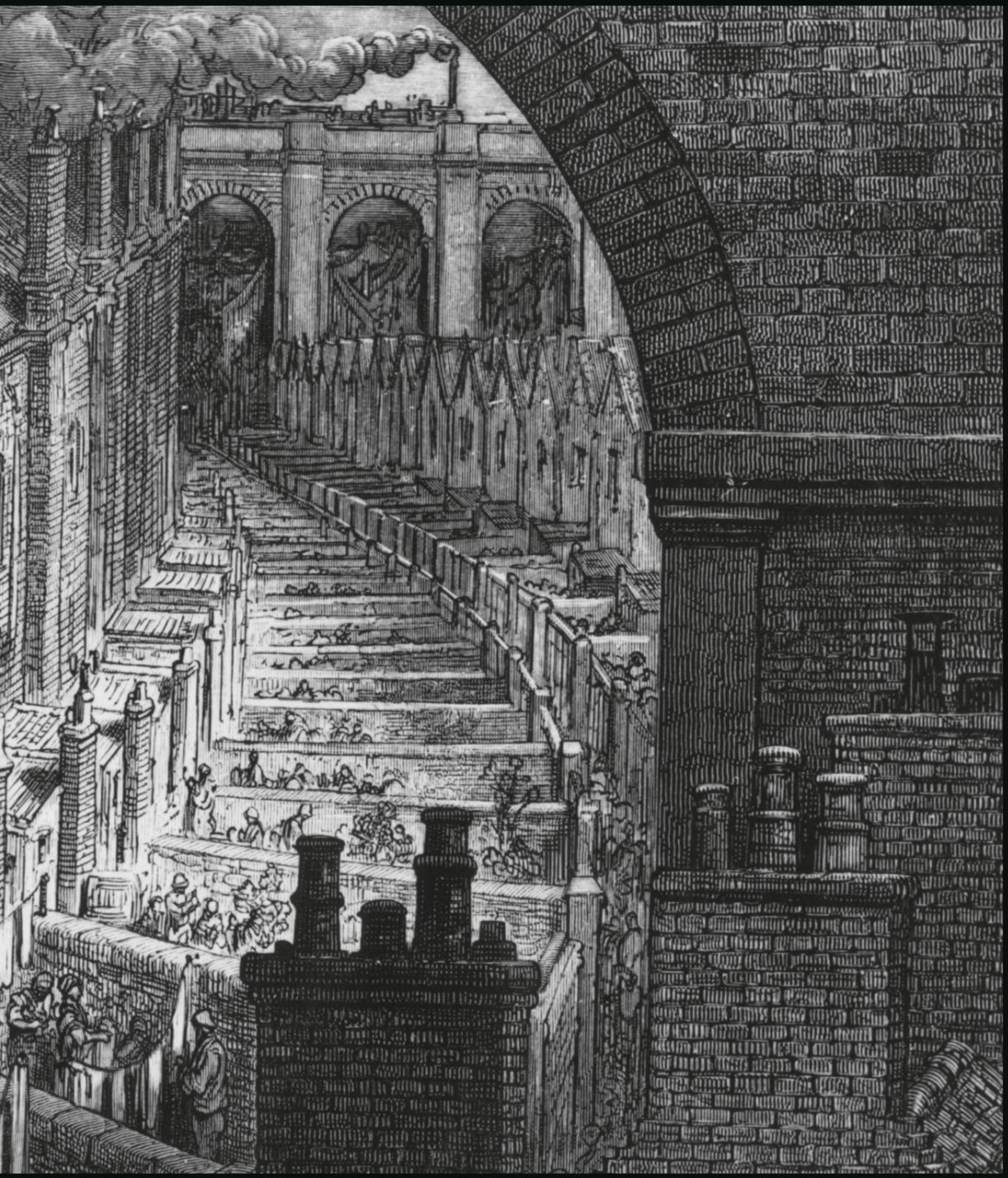
Students choose ONE of the following depth study options:

2.0 The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914)

Progressive ideas and movements (1750–1914) [**obook** only]

3.0 Movement of peoples (1750–1901)

An artist's impression of a slum area of London, *c.* 1875



depth study option

The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914)

In 1912, the luxurious ocean liner Titanic *set out on its maiden voyage to New York. With over 2000 people on board it was the largest passenger steamship in the world. It represented the peak of over a century of unprecedented development—the Industrial Revolution, which began with weaving machines and ended with the first aeroplanes.*

In the 19th century, men and women flocked from impoverished agricultural towns to work in urban factories, where coal- and oil-powered engines transformed the speed and scale of manufacturing. New technologies created markets for mass-produced iron and steel. Huge propeller-driven ships replaced the old wooden sailing vessels that had plied the seas in previous centuries. Steam trains linked new factory towns. New inventions created thriving markets for new products.

The *Titanic* was the last flagship of the Industrial Revolution, representative of its achievements as well as its arrogance. About 600 kilometres off the coast of Newfoundland, Canada, the *Titanic* struck an iceberg, and sank two hours later in the freezing waters. Over 1500 people died. Like the Industrial Revolution itself, the *Titanic's* first and only voyage was an immense achievement, a technological landmark in human history, but also a disaster for many participants.

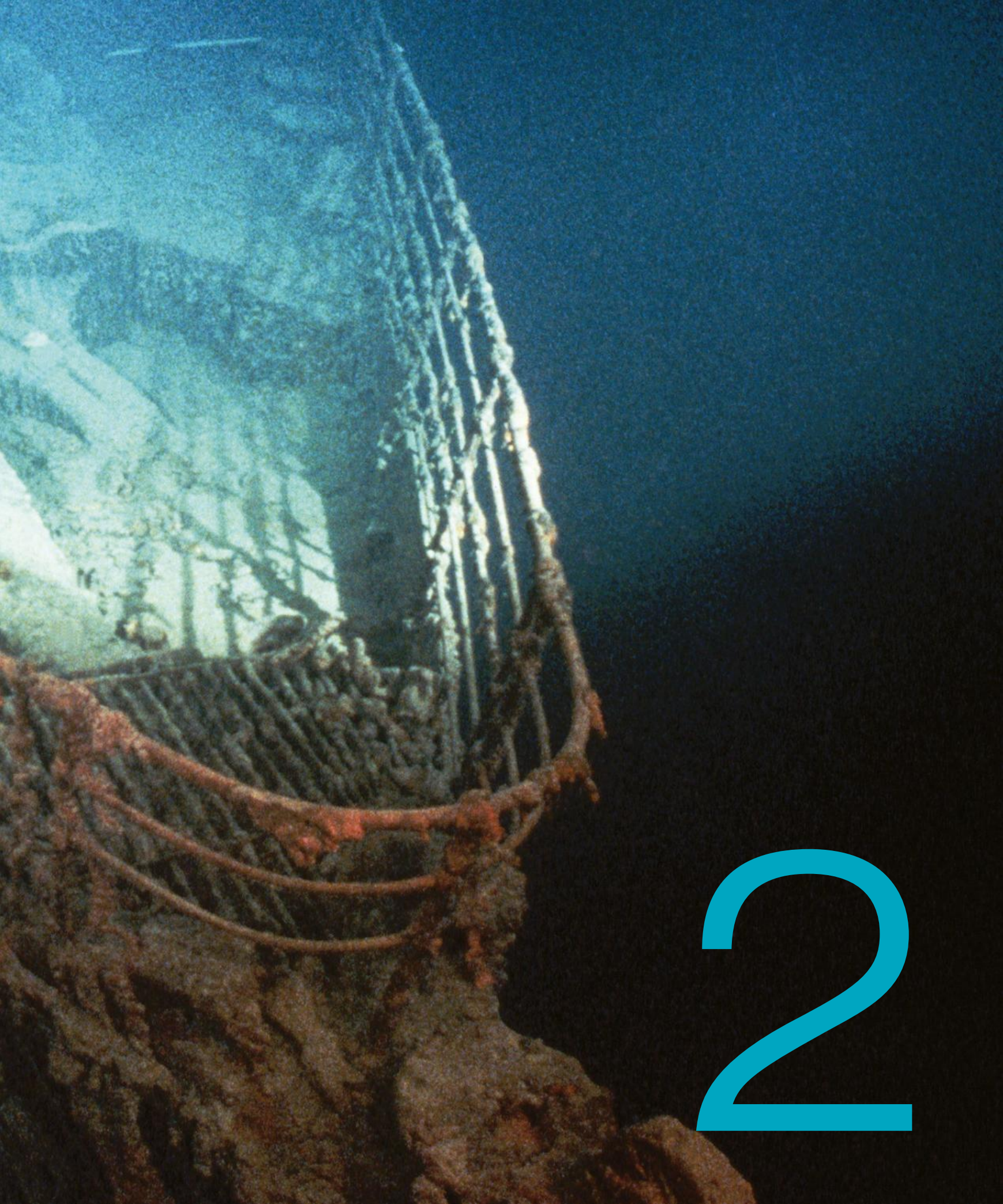
Key inquiry questions

2.1 How did new technology make the modern world?

2.2 How did changing technology affect people's lives?

2.3 What is the impact of changing technology on societies?

The *Titanic* as it is today—resting on the bottom of the ocean



2

bigpicture

The Industrial Revolution

The flying shuttle introduced a more efficient way of weaving

The Industrial Revolution was an era of fundamental change in agriculture, transportation, textile and metal production, economic views, politics and social structure. The 'revolution' was slow but thorough, forever altering the way people lived and worked. Changes in widely different fields or industries fed into each other, vastly increasing productivity and creating spin-off effects elsewhere.

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

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

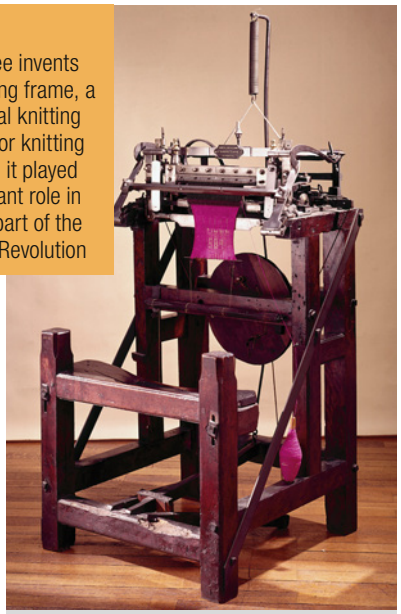
1792
Inventor William Murdoch uses coal gas for house lighting

1709
Abraham Darby discovers how to make coke from coal, making it a more efficient fuel in the production of iron

1775
James Watt creates an efficient steam engine

CE

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



A stocking frame, *c.* 1770

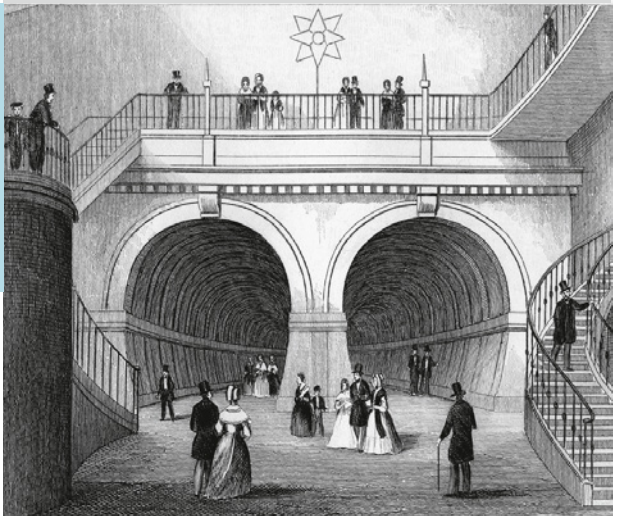
1710
Thomas Newcomen builds a steam engine to pump water from coalmines

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

A woman using a spinning jenny

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

Brunel's engineering feat: the Thames tunnel



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

1821
Michael Faraday demonstrates the principle of an electric motor

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

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

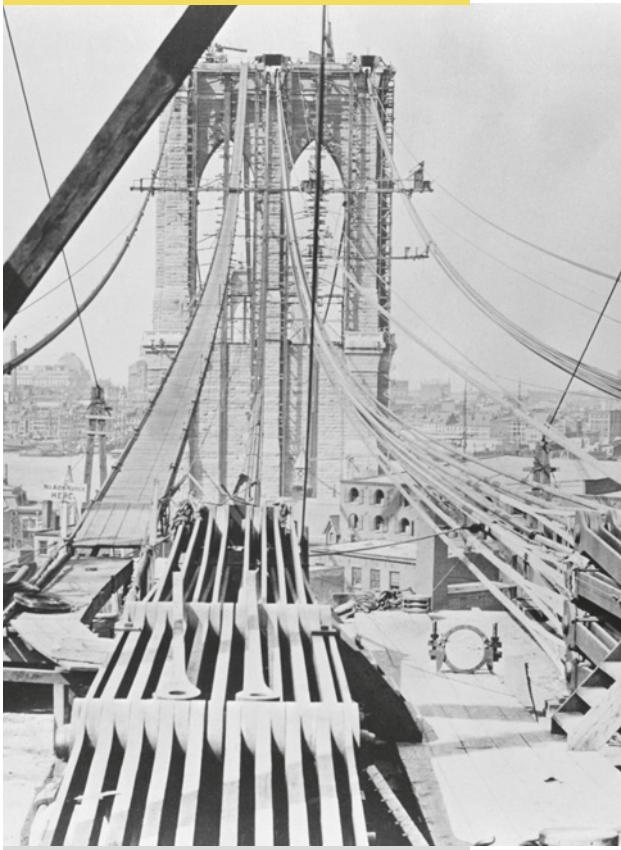
1863
Bulk steel creation is made possible through the open-hearth process created by Siemens-Martin; the use of steel combined with reinforced concrete enables the construction of skyscrapers

1866
First transatlantic telegraph cable laid

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

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

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



The Brooklyn Bridge under construction, *c.* 1878

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

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

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

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

Source 2.1 A timeline of key events and developments of the Industrial Revolution

Source 2.2 This painting from 1831, *The Progress of Steam, A View in Regent Park 1831,* humorously shows suggested replacements for horse-drawn carriages.

2.1 How did new technology make the modern world?

The Industrial Revolution started in Great Britain around 1750, and spread beyond Britain in the 20 years that followed. It was caused by linked new developments in ***textile*** *manufacturing, coal mining and iron production, and the resultant increase in speed and output. A 'second' Industrial Revolution arose in the mid to late 19th century when the earlier inventions were applied in new areas. This included the use of mass-produced steel to create countrywide railway networks or to reinforce concrete to create skyscrapers. This revolution did not just change the way things were produced, it changed how and where people worked and lived.*

The Industrial Revolution begins

The changes in Britain between the mid 1700s and the late 1800s affected population, areas of settlement, employment and social position. In the 1700s, Britain was still an agricultural society with a mostly rural population. Manufacturing was small and localised. This was also true for most of the rest of the world, where rearing animals and small-production farming were the main economic activities.

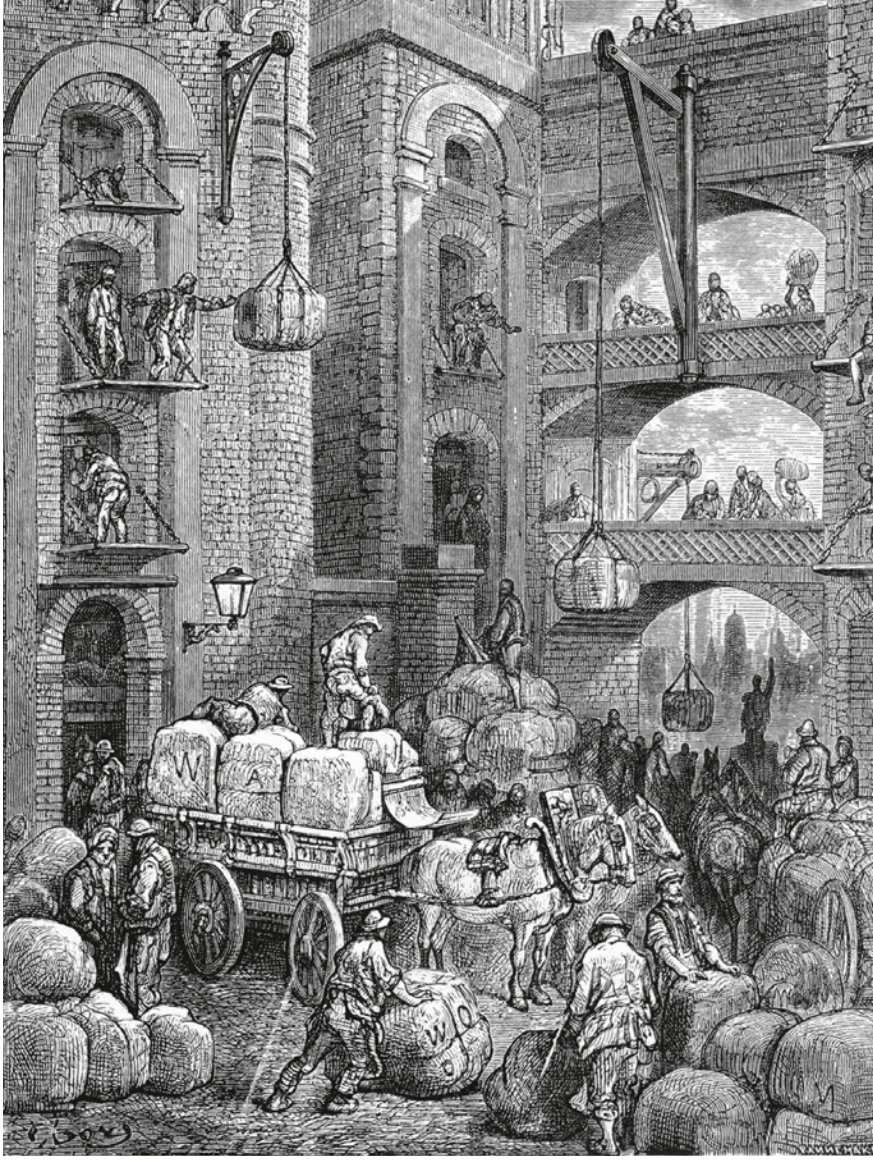
Although mining, manufacture and trade were vital to the economy, they were not as important as agriculture. Landownership was the path to prosperity and wealth. Agricultural societies depended on the seasons—planting seeds in the spring and harvesting crops in the autumn—and on the richness of the soil.

There is no single event that marks the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in Britain. The industries that first experienced it were connected to the production of iron, coal, cotton and wool. The transformations of the Industrial Revolution only become apparent when we look at how changes in each of these industries influenced the practices of the others in turn—a 'domino effect', as improvements fed into each other to create new materials, new demands and new ideas.

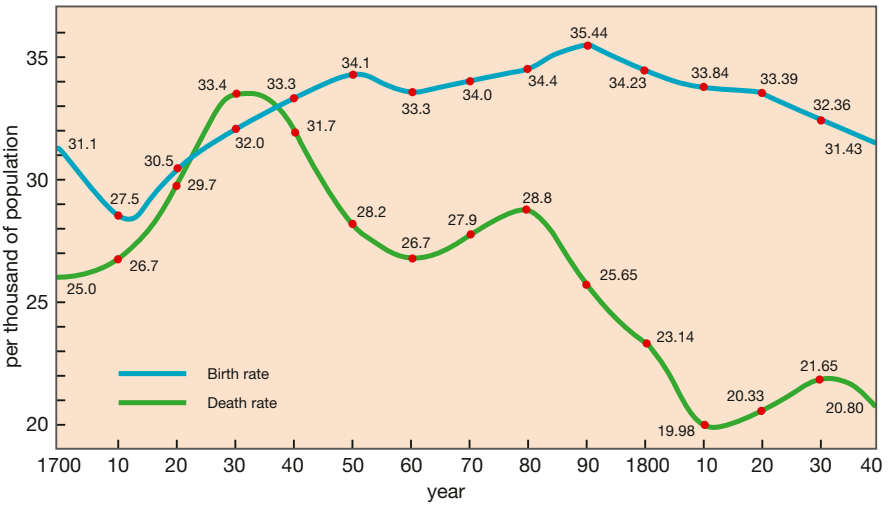
People in the 1700s seldom travelled far away from the place where they were born. Roads were poor and most travel was on foot or by horse (either as a rider or as a passenger in a carriage). Britain's road system had not improved greatly since the end of Roman control, around 1300 years earlier. Towns and villages were self-contained and small. In most cases, the working day was defined by daylight—from sunrise till sunset.

British society was stratified (divided into levels) by wealth and position based on birth. The noble or aristocratic families made up only one per cent of the population but controlled about one-seventh of the nation's wealth. Gentlemen did not involve themselves in trades or professions but tied up most of their wealth in land. Only Anglican men were entitled to attend the universities, to hold a seat in Parliament or to be employed in government positions—there was still discrimination against Catholics, Jews and other faiths. Diet was poor and life expectancy was short. Illness was common because of poor hygiene, bad or non-existent sewage systems, and polluted water supplies.

The country was radically transformed in the 1800s. The population quadrupled, death rates rapidly decreased (see Source 2.4), travelling conditions improved dramatically, and the structure of British society moved from rural to urban communities. Factories and factory towns were linked by new roads and railway lines. In short, people led longer lives, travelled more and lived less isolated lives than their immediate ancestors did.



Source 2.3 A 19th-century London scene



Source 2.4 Population change in Britain, 1700–1840

Source 2.5 Coalbrookdale ironworks operating at night, 1801

Iron

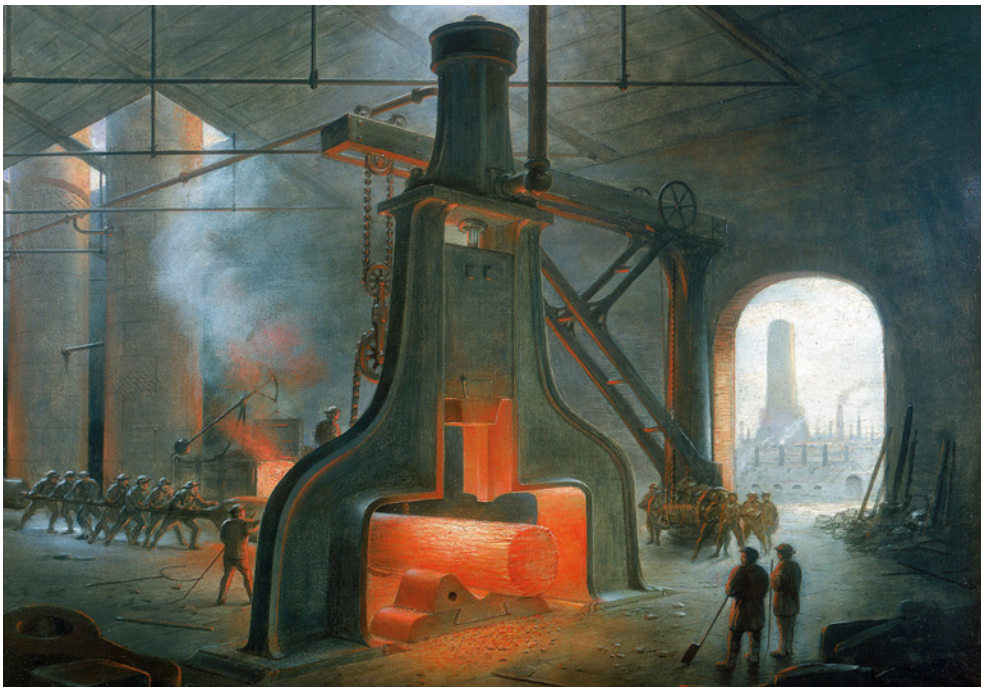
In 1750, iron ore in Britain was plentiful and did not need to be imported from other countries. Iron producers (or 'ironmasters') had to heat (smelt) the iron ore to extract the raw metal or 'pig iron' from the rock. Generating such heat required charcoal, but making charcoal required large quantities of wood, and supplies were dwindling. Charcoal production itself was a slow and arduous task.

In 1709, Abraham Darby, an ironmaster at Coalbrookdale in Derbyshire (see Source 2.5), England, found a way to bake coal to make coke, a smokeless fuel that burned hotter. Coke could be used to smelt iron ore instead of charcoal. Foundries no longer needed to be close to forests, but could instead be established near coalfields.

The shift to the coalfields caused the iron and coal industries to become strongly linked. Besides the widespread use of coke, new inventions made the smelting process more efficient. In 1784, ironmaster Henry Cort was able to combine two processes, known as 'puddling' and 'rolling', which made the large-scale production of pig iron possible. The amount of pig iron smelted in Britain rose from 25 000 tonnes in 1728 to 60 000 tonnes in 1788 and 125 000 tonnes in 1796.

As production increased, new uses were found for iron. Cheaper iron utensils and larger pots and pans improved the efficiency of household kitchens. By 1788, Paris had gained 64 kilometres of cast-iron water pipes. Iron was used as a building material in factories and houses, transforming the design of buildings, such as London's Crystal Palace of 1851, which had a roof and walls made from iron frames and giant panes of glass. By the time the Crystal Palace was built, British pig-iron production was 2.25 million tonnes, 18 times as much as in 1796. Similarly, the French put iron to use in 1889 in Gustave Eiffel's famous tower, an iron lattice structure that remained the tallest structure in the world until 1930 (see Source 2.6). Orginally intended to last for only 20 years, it is 324 metres tall, as high as an 81-storey building, and was created as the centrepiece of the 1889 World's Fair in Paris.

Source 2.6 The Eiffel Tower under construction, 1889



Source 2.7 Foundry workers using a large steam hammer to shape red-hot iron, Manchester, England, 1832

Coal and the steam engine

In 1700, Britain was mining 3 million tonnes of coal per year, rising to 10 million tonnes by 1800. The coal mined in 1700 was mainly intended for home use. As fireplaces became more common in houses, so too did the demand for coal. Even in 1842, long after the Industrial Revolution began, 20 of the 30 million tonnes of coal then mined in Britain was consumed by households.

Increased demand led to deeper mines, which in turn required more efficient pumping systems to keep water from flooding lower levels. Two inventors, Thomas Savery (around 1698) and Thomas Newcomen (around 1710) developed different types of early steam engines to pump water from mines.

While repairing a Newcomen steam engine in 1764, engineer James Watt realised that he could greatly increase its efficiency. In 1774, Watt formed a partnership with Matthew Boulton to manufacture the new steam engines, although it was 18 years before they made a profit. Between 1775 and 1800, Watt's and Boulton's firm made 496 steam engines, not just for the coal industry but for cotton-spinning factories, flour mills, breweries and sugar cane crushing mills.

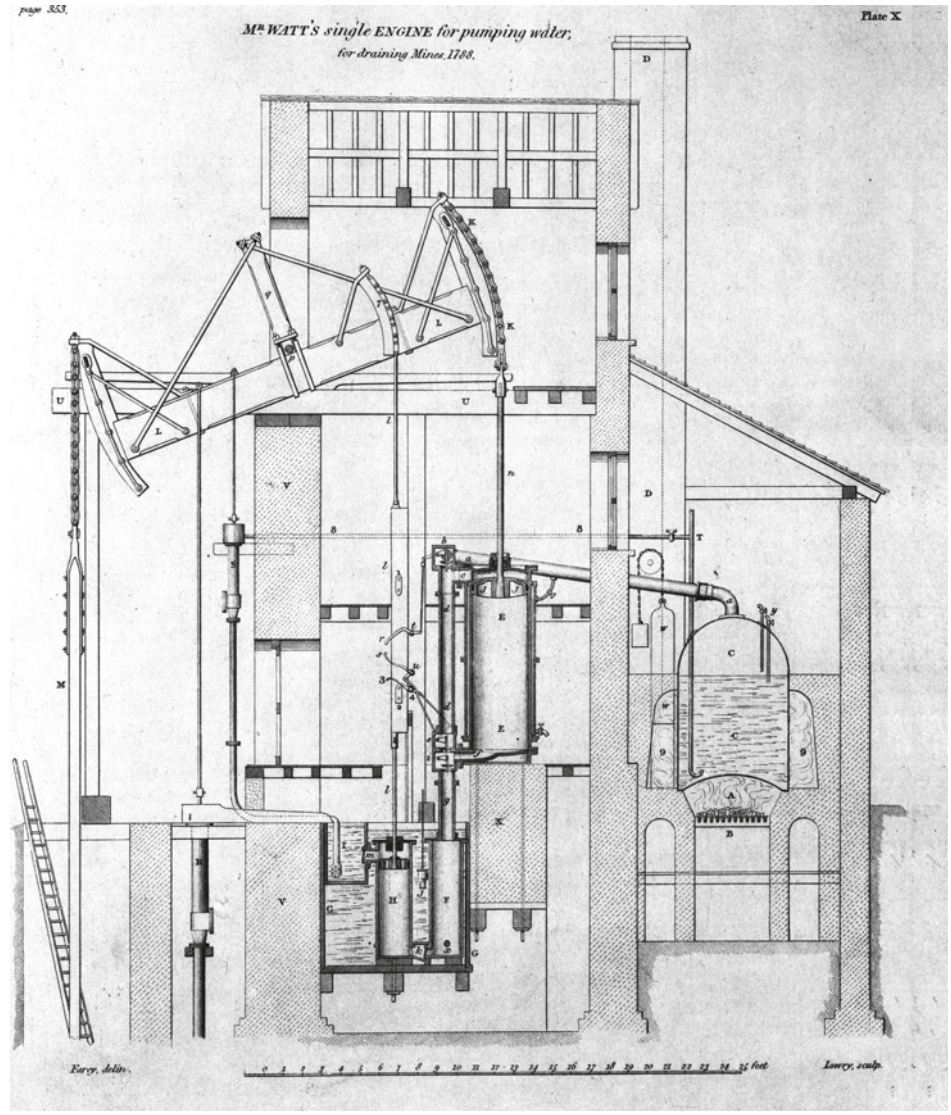
Source 2.8

What I said about your steam engine, I believed; I said it was the most ingenious of human inventions, can you tell me of one more ingenious? I can think of none unless you will except the Jew's Harp which is a combination of wind & wire instruments—or the partridge-call which is a combination of the drum & fiddle.

Seriously, I do think the inventor of a wheel for a carriage had wonderful luck, or wonderful genius. The bow [and] arrow is also a curious invention, which the people of New South Wales, a continent of 2000 miles square, had not discover'd.

Extract from a letter by Erasmus Darwin (English physician, 1731–1802, grandfather of Charles Darwin) to James Watt, 19 January 1790

The ever-increasing demand for coal from factories and households led to the opening of new mines, the deepening of older mines, and the development of roads and wagonways (iron lines along which horse-drawn carts travelled) to move the coal from where it was mined to where it could be distributed, usually seaports.



Source 2.9 James Watt's steam engine for pumping water from mines

Check your learning

1. How did life change for British people between the mid 1700s and the late 1800s?
2. Look at Source 2.4. What was the most dramatic change in the British population from 1700 to 1840?
3. Name some of the new uses and products that arose from the availability of mass-produced iron.
4. Why were the iron production and coal-mining industries so closely linked?
5. What difference did the wider availability of coke make to the iron-making process?
6. Why was James Watt's invention so important at this time in history?

Source 2.10 Weavers originally worked from their homes, using their own looms, rather than in factories.

Cotton and wool industries

Production of coal and iron leapt in the 18th century because of technical innovation, increased demand and new uses. However, it was in the textile industry that the Industrial Revolution truly made its mark, as it led to the development of the factory.

The production of woollen goods was long established, and therefore less open to mechanisation or new ideas. Wool was used for clothing and blankets, and was an important export **commodity**. During the Napoleonic Wars (1803–15), Britain supplied woollen goods to the armies of Russia, Prussia and Sweden, as well as its own.

Cotton production was a newer industry, with fewer traditions to overcome. The raw material was imported from abroad, and much of the product was exported again, mainly to African countries. While the home market grew as cotton came to replace linen, the bulk of British-manufactured cotton continued to be exported. Between 1750 and 1770, British cotton exports rose ten times.

Technical innovations made such rapid production increases possible. Originally, the raw cotton was first spun on a spinning wheel, then the spun cotton was woven on a hand-loom, owned and operated by weavers. Spinners and weavers usually worked at home, hence the term 'cottage industry'. The spinners and weavers lived in their cottages, and the raw and spun cotton was brought to them. Spinning took a long time to process raw cotton, while weaving took a much shorter time to process the spun cotton—especially after John Kay's invention of the flying shuttle, which brought about larger looms and a greater demand for yarn.

Three inventions ensured that there was enough cotton for the increasingly more efficient weavers. In 1765, James Hargreaves invented the 'spinning jenny', which allowed one spinner to spin several threads at the same time. It is said that he got the idea when his daughter, Jenny Hargreaves, accidentally overturned a spinning wheel. Watching it continue to spin upright instead of horizontally, Hargreaves realised that several upright wheels could be spun at the same time by a single power source.

As author Charles Dickens noted, life for spinners and weavers had changed, and not for the better (see Source 2.11).

Source 2.11

It was about this time that the natural balance between spinning and weaving was so much disturbed. John Kay, of Bury, had just invented the fly-shuttle, which enabled the weaver to get through as much work again as before; and he had been mobbed and nearly killed for his pains. He escaped, wrapped up in a sheet of cotton wool, and was thus carried bodily through the mob by two of his friends, who did not think that an invention which doubled work and production merited Lynch-law condemnation. Poor Kay, after some more vicissitudes [difficulties], went to Paris, where he lived in great poverty and distress, and where he finally died in very painful circumstances. Robert Kay, his son, in his turn invented the drop-box, by means of which three spindles of different coloured wefts could be used successively without the trouble of replacing them on the lathe; and thus weaving got another step forward. Robert was not more popular than his father. He was mobbed and insulted, his machines broken to pieces, and himself dangerously threatened: for was he not the natural enemy of the workmen, and was it not worth a good day's work at any time to harry and annoy one who had presumed to invent anything that should lighten labour and increase trade? By these inventions, then, weaving had got the start of spinning, and there was not enough weft to be had for the loom. The weavers lost half their time in collecting their yarn ounce by ounce from the cottages; and even then they had to bribe the spinsters with all sorts of fair words and fine promises, before they could get enough of it to be of any use...

To help remedy this disturbed balance, Hargreaves then made his spinning-jenny, which substituted eight spindles for one; afterwards the eight spindles were raised to eighty; when the sapient [wise] spinners took the alarm, and after great rioting and bitter wrong-doing, drove Hargreaves, broken-hearted, to Nottingham. There he died in want and distress...

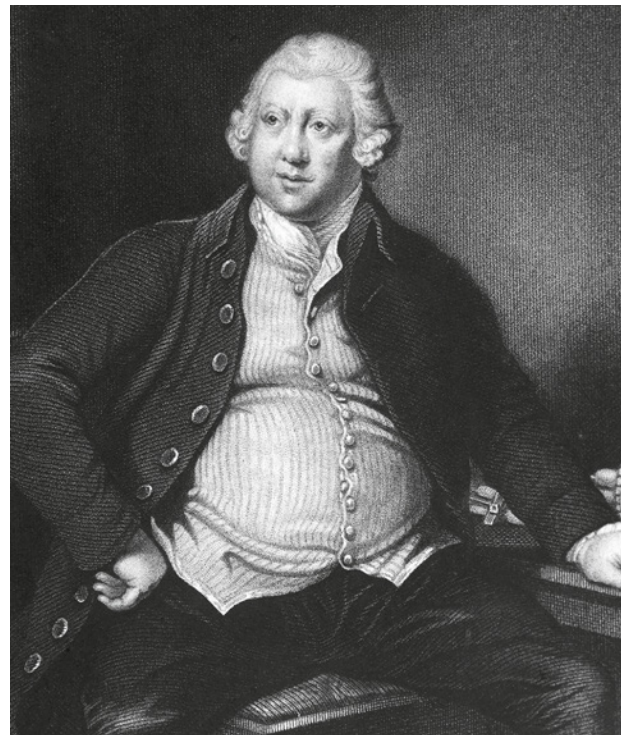
Charles Dickens, 'The Mule-Maker', *All the Year Round*, 28 April 1860, p. 63

The spinning frame (water frame), invented by Richard Arkwright in 1768, was a combination of spindles and rollers. By the 1780s, the rollers and spindles were joined together by Samuel Crompton in a device called 'Crompton's mule', allowing a single power source to spin multiple machines. It was not long before steam power, originally developed for driving mining pumps, was applied to the spinning mules. Richard Arkwright bought his first steam engine in 1785 to use in one of his cotton-spinning factories.

Source 2.12
Arkwright's water frame

focus on ...

significance: Richard Arkwright



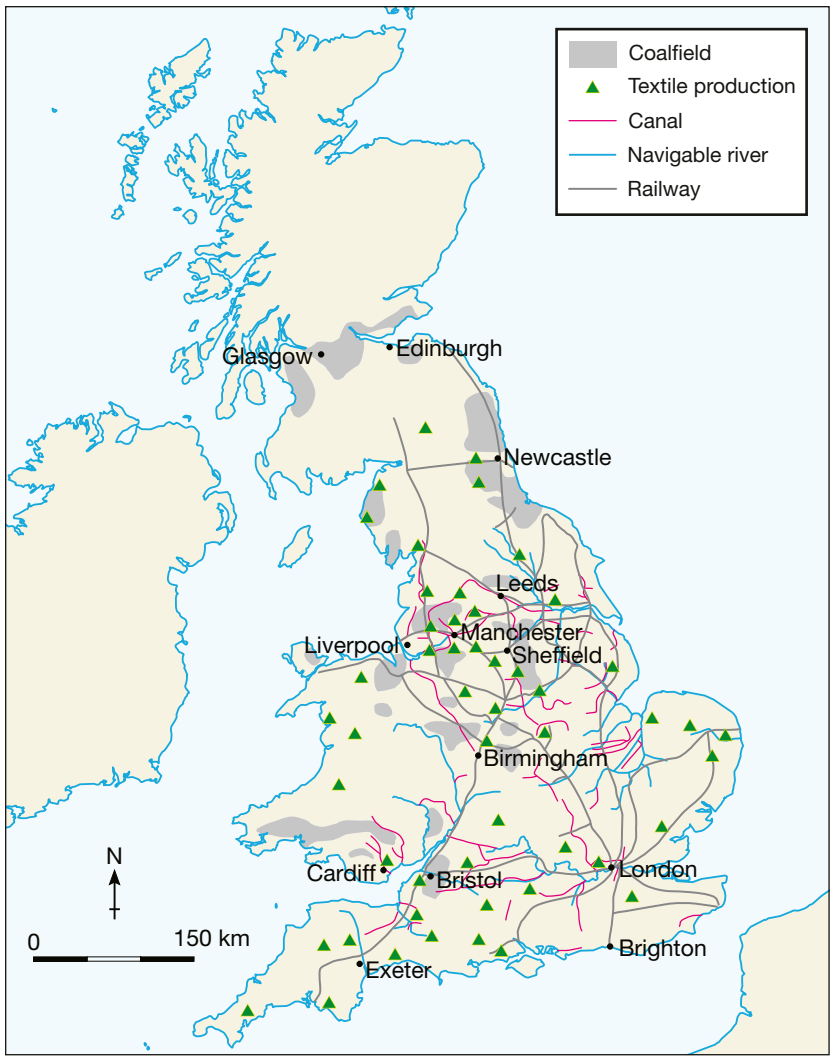
Source 2.13 Portrait of Richard Arkwright

Richard Arkwright (1733–92) was an iconic figure of the Industrial Revolution, rising from rags to riches. One of 13 children, he was too poor to go to school. Instead, he became an apprentice barber and wigmaker, before developing an interest in the new cotton trade. Working with the clockmaker John Kay, he invented a 'water frame' that could spin cotton quickly. It was a water-powered machine with three sets of rollers arranged in pairs that rotated at different speeds. The yarn produced was then twisted together on spindles. This created a thread that was stronger than that made by a spinning jenny.

Arkwright struggled to raise funds to open a mechanised cotton mill. He and a partner invested 12 000 pounds in a mill, a huge amount of money at that time. Soon he was selling water frames to other manufacturers so that by the mid 1780s over 30 000 people worked in factories.

Arkwright was a harsh boss. He fined workers for being late and employed child labourers on low pay. He faced constant disputes from colleagues with whom he had taken out shared patents, including John Kay. He was knighted in 1786 and gained a prominent social position as the High Sheriff of Derbyshire County.

Source 2.14 Whitney's cotton gin transformed the production of cotton, especially in the southern states of the USA.



Source 2.15 This map shows the concentration of textile production and coalfields in Britain in the early 19th century.

Another boost to the cotton industry arrived from the USA in 1793, with Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton gin (engine), a machine that used hooks, brushes and a wire screen to swiftly separate cotton fibres from seeds. This innovation helped to reduce the price of cotton and vastly increased exports, mainly to Britain, which rose from 0.5 million pounds in 1793 to 20 million pounds by 1801.

A great deal of British textile production took place in north-west England, close to coalfields or sheep farms, and with harbour facilities and water mills nearby. Cheaper cotton and the growing market for textiles, particularly during the Napoleonic wars (uniforms, sails, tents and bandages), meant that the Lancashire town of Manchester saw 20 new cotton factories built by 1802. This rate of expansion continued even after the defeat of Napoleon in 1815, thanks to the use of mechanical looms to speed up weaving. In 1813, the cotton industry had 2400 power-looms. In 1829, this increased to 55 000, and by 1859 to 224 000. By 1850, Lancashire had 1800 factories employing 328 000 workers.

Check your learning

1. How did new inventions transform the textile industry during the Industrial Revolution?
2. What *negative* elements of Richard Arkwright's life and character typified the Industrial Revolution?
3. What military uses were there for British textiles in the Napoleonic Wars?
4. Why was Lancashire in north-west England a geographically ideal location for textile mills?

The role of transport

Transport in 1750s Britain was slow and costly, whether by road, river or coastal shipping. The latter method was used to carry coal from the north-east of England to London. The journey from London to the Scottish capital Edinburgh, a distance of just over 640 kilometres, took between 10 and 12 days by horse-drawn coach. By 1836, this time had dropped to just under two days, and by 1850 it had become a 12 hour trip—thanks to various transport improvements.

Canals

The Industrial Revolution required quicker and cheaper transport to move coal to factories and homes, or manufactured goods to markets. Major rivers, such as the Severn and Thames, were made more navigable by dredging and clearing by the 1760s, when better transport links began to arrive in the form of **canals**. These man-made waterways, initially for horse-drawn barges, first appeared on routes that served industries, such as the 1761 Bridgewater canal that linked coalfields to Manchester (see Source 2.15). As much of the expense of coal was due to the cost of moving it, not mining it, the canal caused the price of coal to drop by half. The new lower price fed even faster growth in cotton mills. Cheaper coal transport also dropped the price of cotton weaving, increasing the profits for mill owners.

Canal building spread across the north of England. One of the longest was the Liverpool to Leeds canal, 204 kilometres long, begun in 1770 and finished in 1816. 'Canal mania' spread to the English Midlands where a canal from the Staffordshire coalfields to Birmingham in 1769 also resulted in coal prices dropping by half. The cuts in transport costs spurred on further industrial development.

Source 2.16 Changes in travel times (hours) from London to key cities, 1836 and 1850

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

Source 2.17 Canals, such as this one in Leeds, played an important role linking mills with the sources of their raw materials.

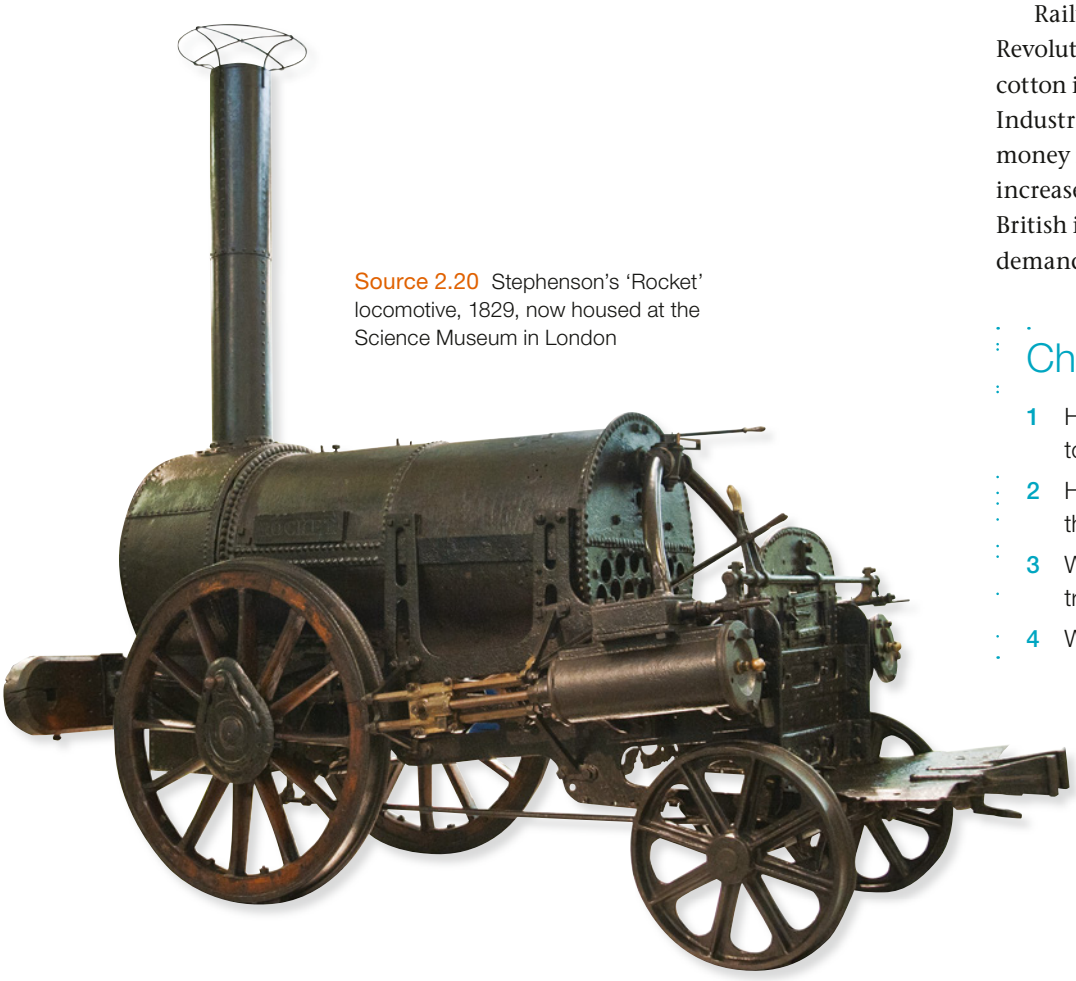
Source 2.18 A view of Tyburn Turnpike in London, 1813, showing the toll house and a toll being collected from a horseman near the gate.

Roads and bridges

While canal use was the most spectacular change in transport before the railways, there were improvements to other forms of transport and travel. The roads in 18th-century Britain were either maintained by local inhabitants, who carried out repairs only when absolutely necessary, or by turnpike trusts —agencies that collected fees for the maintenance of roads. Roads outside London, however, were very poorly maintained.

New industrialists such as Josiah Wedgwood (ceramics), John Wilkinson (iron) and Matthew Boulton (coins and metalwork) required speedy travel for their businesses. Communications were either in person or by letter, as there were no telegraphs or telephones. Pressure from these businessmen led to an increase in turnpike trusts and an improved upkeep of the roads. By 1765, the mail coach took less than three days from London to Edinburgh. In the mining areas, wagonways and tramroads were built to link mines and canals.

Source 2.19 This bridge in the town of Ironbridge, designed by Thomas Pritchard and built by Abraham Darby in 1779, is the world's first iron structure.



Source 2.20 Stephenson's 'Rocket' locomotive, 1829, now housed at the Science Museum in London

Growing industries also needed more reliable and convenient ways of crossing rivers. In 1779, industrialist Abraham Darby III built the world's first cast-iron bridge (see Source 2.19), which was proposed and designed by Thomas Pritchard to link a mining town with nearby industrial centres in Coalbrookdale. A toll was charged to use the bridge, and the area became known as Iron Bridge Gorge. The bridge gained greater attention in 1795 when it remained standing after a major flood. Thereafter, many more bridges started to use iron construction instead of stone.

Railways

The world's first railway was a line built in 1825 between the coalfields in Darlington and the seaport of Stockton in north-east England. The new invention combined two developments: the rail-mounted mining trucks, formerly pulled by horses, and the steam engine, formerly used to pump water from the mines. The engineer George Stephenson had the idea to make an engine that could use its power to move itself on the rails, and so built the first 'locomotive engine' in 1814.

Railways added a whole new phase to the Industrial Revolution. In 1830, a track linked the Manchester cotton industry to the port of Liverpool for exports. Industrialists made rich by earlier innovations invested money in railways in the 1830s and 1840s, generating increased demand for iron. Between 1830 and 1840, British iron production doubled, mostly to meet demand from the railways.

Check your learning

1. How important was a reliable transportation system to the Industrial Revolution?
2. How did the arrival of steam-powered engines alter the existing transportation systems?
3. What was the relationship between canals and the transportation of coal and wool?
4. Why did road upkeep improve in mining areas?

Britain's place in the Industrial Revolution

Historians are still arguing about why Britain should have become such a powerhouse of the Industrial Revolution, whereas other European countries were slower to modernise. The two countries that might have had an industrial revolution first (The Netherlands and France) followed paths that made this unlikely. The Netherlands had concentrated on trade, finance and plantations in what is now Indonesia, while France had been unable to recover from the economic depression of the 17th century. The political upheavals in 17th-century England (the civil war and the overthrow of King James II) had led to the political triumph of a group who encouraged and favoured the business world. There were no legal restrictions preventing men moving from farming to mining or industrial work. Much wealth was made by men willing to invest in new businesses. There were no barriers inside Britain to stop people trading with each other anywhere in the country.

It has been suggested that Britain's island status left it as the only European state not devastated by the wars in Europe and with a large merchant shipping fleet. Its growing empire provided both a rich source of raw materials and a marketplace for manufactured goods. Britain had a relatively stable society, partly because its wars were fought overseas, with little possibility of counter-attack. Britain also had **resources** and manpower close at hand—in 1700, five-sixths of all the coal mined in the world was mined in Britain, creating an ideal situation for mechanisation and industrialisation.

Britain's foreign expansion was a huge influence. Britain spent 43 years of the 18th century at war, generating demand for military supplies, but also taking over new markets in conquered territories. British colonies in far-flung places such as India and Australia generated new trade routes and commodities.

In Britain between 1750 and 1800 there was a population explosion. This increase was not important at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution but later provided the extra workers required. Much later, after the 1840s, this increased population also became **consumers**—the market for new inventions and imports. Approximately 6.5 million people are believed to have lived in Great Britain in 1750. By the 1850s, the official census confirmed the population had risen to more than 27.5 million.

Check your learning

1. How did Britain's geographical and political position favour its leading role in the Industrial Revolution?
2. Name two ways in which Britain's rising population aided the growth of the Industrial Revolution.
3. How did colonisation help Britain become so powerful?

Source 2.21
A 19th-century engraving showing goods from the British colonies being unloaded into a warehouse by the Thames in London

Agricultural transformation

Agriculture was also transformed in large parts of Britain during the Industrial Revolution. Small plots of farmland were consolidated into larger, more efficient fields. The land itself was used more efficiently, both for farming and for the breeding of livestock (such as cattle, sheep and pigs). These two improvements affected and encouraged each other.

Farms grew in size throughout the 18th and 19th centuries. This was mainly due to more than 4000 **Enclosure Acts** passed by the British Parliament. These Acts brought land that had previously been worked in common by groups of small farmers into private ownership. Other land, until then known as 'waste', was also enclosed. The effect was not just larger farms but a more businesslike and commercial attitude among the remaining farmers. Landlords, who owned three-quarters of the land by 1790, rented land to tenants who needed high yields to pay their rents and to feed their families. This created a new group of former farmers, who had lost their livelihood and now sought work in the cotton mills, ironworks and other new industries.

Source 2.22 Stone walls like these were built to enclose what was once common land.

focus on ...

empathy: the enclosures

For thousands of people, the enclosures deprived them of free access to land that had supported their families for centuries. Landlords 'allowed' some tenants to demolish their own houses and take the wood away to build elsewhere. Others simply set fire to the buildings. Many newly homeless Britons flocked to the growing factory towns, while others sought new lives abroad.

Between 1775 and 1850, over 25 000 Scots fled the 'Highland Clearances' for the USA or Canada. They left after attacks by landlords on the houses they had lived in for generations.

Source 2.23

> *Their wretchedness was so great that, after pawning everything they possessed to the fishermen on the coast, such as had no cattle were reduced to come down from the hills in hundreds for the purpose of gathering cockles on the shore. Those who lived in the more remote situations ... were obliged to subsist upon broth made of nettles, thickened with a little oatmeal. Those who had cattle [resorted to] bleeding them and mixing the blood with oatmeal, which they afterwards cut into slices and fried.*
>
> James Loch, *The Sutherland Improvements*, 1820

In his poem 'The Deserted Village', Oliver Goldsmith suggested that the enclosures would scare away the most precious resource of all, the peasants themselves, who were irreplaceable.

Source 2.24

> *Sweet smiling village, loveliest of the lawn,*
> *Thy sports are fled, and all thy charms withdrawn;*
> *Amidst thy bowers the tyrant's hand is seen,*
> *And desolation saddens all thy green:*
> *One only master grasps the whole domain,*
> *And half a tillage stints thy smiling plain:*
> *[...]*
> *Ill fares the land, to hast'ning ills a prey,*
> *Where wealth accumulates, and men decay:*
> *Princes and lords may flourish, or may fade;*
> *A breath can make them, as a breath has made;*
> *But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,*
> *When once destroy'd, can never be supplied.*
> *[...]*
> *But times are alter'd; trade's unfeeling train*
> *Usurp the land and dispossess the swain;*
> *Along the lawn, where scatter'd hamlets rose,*
> *Unwieldy wealth, and cumbrous pomp repose;*
> *And every want to opulence allied,*
> *And every pang that folly pays to pride.*
>
> An extract from Oliver Goldsmith's 'The Deserted Village', 1770

The new commercial approach to farming led to improved management of the crops. Farmers had practised crop rotation for centuries, leaving a field fallow (unused) for a period in order to avoid exhausting the soil. Seventeenth-century landowner Charles Townshend proposed a new, more efficient four-crop rotation system, alternating wheat, root vegetables, barley and clover. Wheat and barley were harvested for humans, while the fallow period was now replaced by clover, which could be used as grazing food for animals, but also restored nitrogen to the soil.

The greatest innovation in people's diets was the introduction of potatoes and root vegetables, such as turnips. These vegetables could also be fed to animals during the winter, allowing quality livestock to be raised all year round. Cattle and sheep produced more beef and mutton, and horses grew bigger and stronger, enabling them able to do more work. 'He was particularly fond of that kind of rural improvement which arises from Turnips,' wrote the poet Alexander Pope of Townshend. 'It was the favourite subject of his conversation.' The new four-crop rotation revolutionised production in British farms, and gained its inventor the unwelcome nickname Turnip Townshend, while forcing British cookbooks to come up with new recipes.

By the early to mid 1800s, farming machinery included mechanical drills for sowing and threshing machines for wheat and barley. These made farming more efficient, increasing the return from the land, and the amount of land that could be prepared, farmed and harvested in a season. In the 1820s, new systems of draining marshes of water opened up new fields for farming. By the 1840s, fertilisers were widely used, again raising the productivity of the land. The agriculturalist Robert Bakewell began selective breeding on his property, developing quick-fattening sheep for tastier mutton. He used native stock, selecting fine-boned sheep with good wool. He improved the Lincoln Longwool, which became a new breed, the Leicester, known for its meaty body and good lines (see Source 2.25).

Bakewell also bred cattle for beef production. His ideas produced stronger animals that were noted for their larger size and better quality. While these various improvements came about gradually, they did raise enough output to feed the growing urban population.

Source 2.25 Leicester ram, 1842. New sheep breeds arose as a result of a selective breeding program carried out by Robert Bakewell.

Source 2.26 Cyrus McCormick's reaping machine of 1831

Check your learning

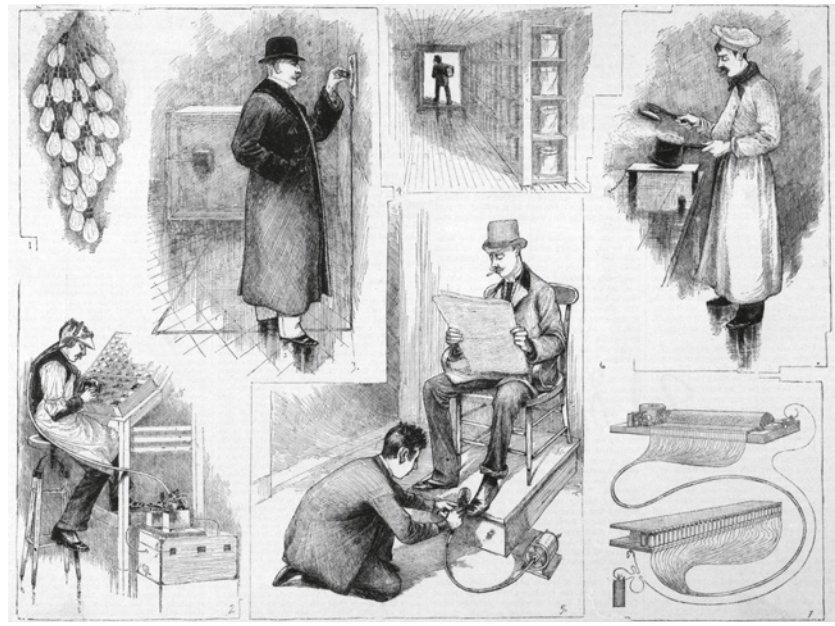
1. What did the 'enclosure' of land mean?
2. Approximately how many Acts did the British Parliament pass that related to enclosure in the 1700s and 1800s?
3. What innovation led to Charles Townshend's nickname 'Turnip Townshend'? Why was it important?
4. In what way did mechanisation affect the harvesting of farm produce?
5. What was Robert Bakewell known for?

The second Industrial Revolution

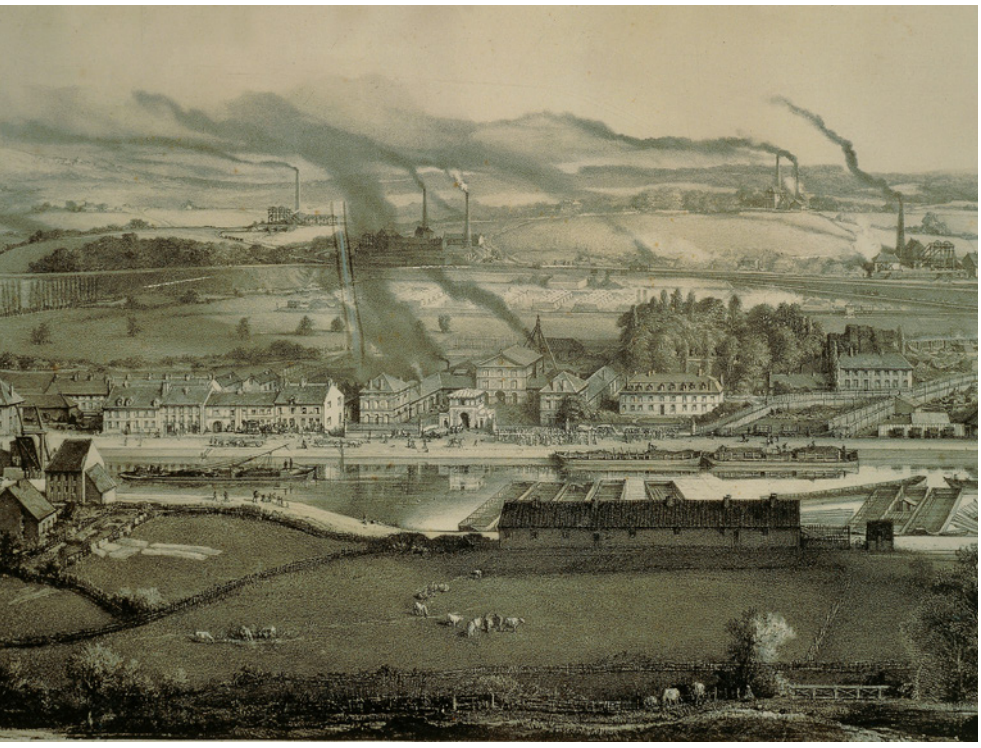
The first Industrial Revolution (*c.* 1750–1850) altered living styles and standards, and saw the introduction of industrialisation. The second Industrial Revolution (*c.* 1850–1914) witnessed the rapid development of technology, which put that industrialisation to use. The discovery of electricity offered yet another source of power for industry and further changes in lifestyle (see Source 2.27). It also led to new forms of communication, such as the telegraph and the telephone.

Recognising the potential to earn money from new inventions and new markets, investors poured money into new technologies. There were many failures, but today we remember the successes, such as advances in the use of rubber, dyes and of an engine that worked on a new fuel: petroleum. Thanks to this lighter power source, it eventually became possible to use it in the world's first heavier-than-air flying machine.

New prosperity created new divisions between social classes and greater political awareness. This led to calls for reforms in working conditions, coming to the rescue of child labourers and factory workers who were working impossible hours and in dangerous environments. Demands for better working conditions often caused conflict rather than improvements.



Source 2.27 With the discovery and harnessing of electricity, people quickly found uses to make their lives easier.



Source 2.28 France's emergence as an 'industrial' country, with industries such as large-scale coal mining, was later than that of Britain.

Spread of the Industrial Revolution

Although Britain attempted to stop the spread of industrial knowledge beyond its borders, it was not successful. Ideas, machines and designs were soon copied abroad. Britain began to regard technology itself as a new export. Manufacturing spread across Europe and then into other parts of the world. The USA benefited the most from this second Industrial Revolution. New technologies and processes led to the manufacture of steel and light metal alloys, chemical and electrical engineering, and the creation of the internal combustion engine.

Europe

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

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

Germany had large areas of coal and iron, and these were quickly exploited using the new technologies. Between 1870 and the start of World War I in 1914, Germany developed at such a rate that it outstripped British manufacturing output.

Americas

A recent book on the Industrial Revolution, *The British Industrial Revolution*, by Alan Allport, described the spread of the ideas of the Industrial Revolution from Great Britain to the Americas as an act of treason. Take the case of Samuel Slater (see Source 2.29), 'the father of the American factory system', who sailed from London to the USA, intending to sell knowledge of mechanisation gained as an apprentice in one of Richard Arkwright's mills.

Slater was knowingly acting against British government rules that banned the emigration of skilled engineers. He travelled under a new identity, as a farmer, having memorised the design and layout of the mill. Once in the USA, he and his partners opened the first of several cotton mills on Rhode Island (see Source 2.30), using the stolen know-how. He died a millionaire, having brought the 'revolution' to New England, which was to develop as a rival to Lancashire in industrial textile manufacturing.

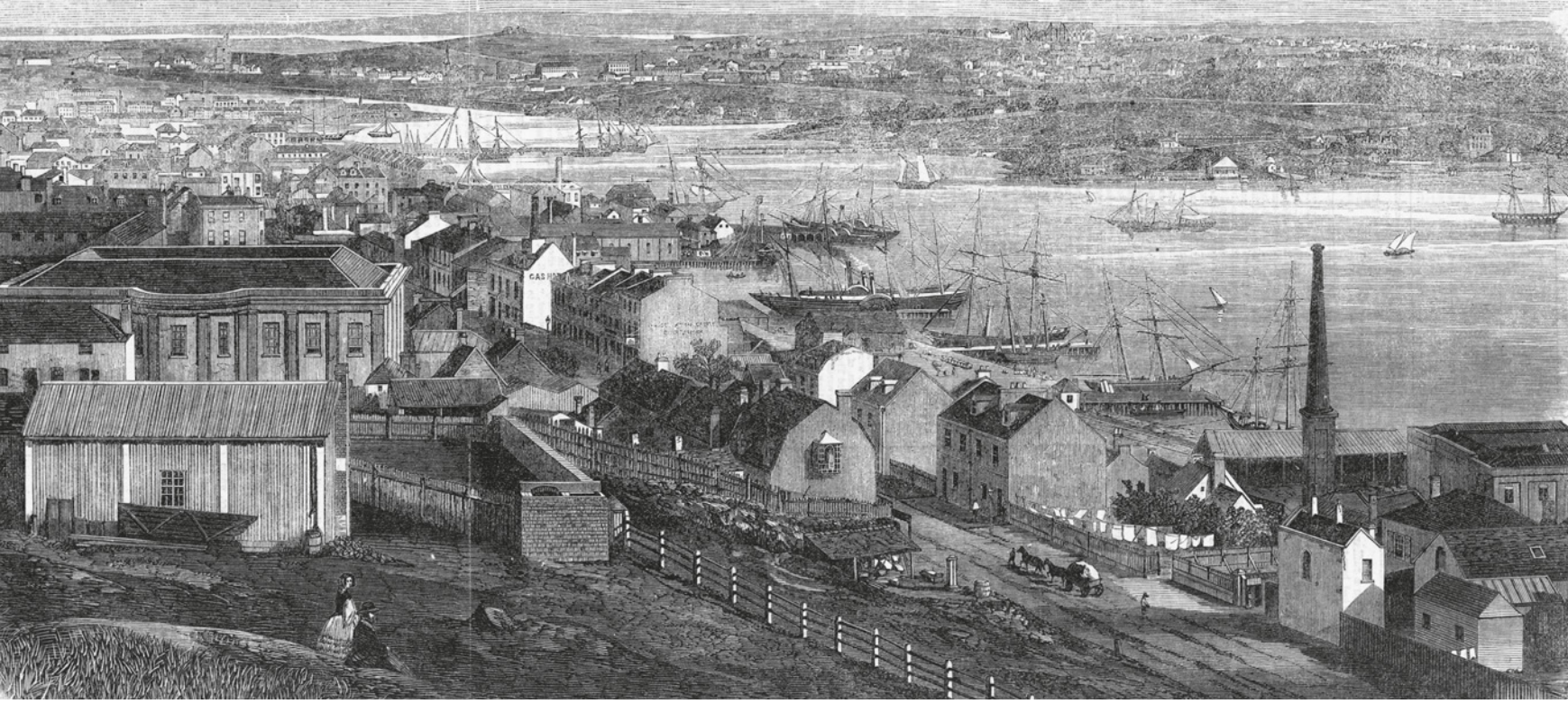
Source 2.29 A portrait of industrialist Samuel Slater

Source 2.30 Samuel Slater's first mechanical cotton mill (the tall building in the centre) in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, USA

Japan

Japan had been effectively cut off from Western influences for 260 years, after the expulsion of Christian missionaries in the 17th century. The arrival of American warships in the 1850s shook the Japanese government and led to the Meiji Restoration, which overthrew the old *samurai* rulers, 'restoring' the Emperor's authority as the figurehead of a new, modernist government.

Initially, large quantities of goods were imported from Europe and America, flooding local Japanese businesses and manufacturers. However, Japan swiftly adopted Western ideas and inventions, selecting the best from modern nations: an army based on the German model, a navy based on that of Britain, a legal system from France and education from Prussia. Japanese goods were highly sought after overseas, particularly tea, silk, cotton fabrics and buttons. Japan also imitated the West in its adoption of an aggressive policy of overseas expansion, seizing territory in China and Korea in the late 19th century.



Source 2.31 The settlement of Sydney, *c.* 1870

Australia

The settlement of Australia was developed as a scientific solution to the problems faced by Great Britain that, in many cases, had been generated as a by-product of the Industrial Revolution. Rising crime in the new factory towns, or among unemployed farm labourers, could be reduced by the **transportation** of the criminals to a distant land. Later, Australia offered a colonial destination for free British migrants. By 1813, a steam mill was operating in Sydney, major roads had been constructed in order to transport goods to and from the seaports, and a strong pastoral (stock-raising) industry had developed inland. As other colonies were settled, it became clear that strong transportation systems would need to link the colonies to aid in their development.

Railways were in use in Australia by the 1850s, as well as steamship travel along the coast and major rivers. New railway developments were spurred by the discovery of gold. Gold itself offered greater wealth for the Australian colonies to take advantage of new technologies such as the electric telegraph and electrically lit houses and shopping malls in nearby towns. In 1872, Australia became firmly linked to the rest of the world through its Overland Telegraph and submarine cables to Asia, and from there back to Europe.

Source 2.32

> *Paddy's Market is one of the institutions of Melbourne. It is all covered in now, and lighted with electric lamps, which have a beautiful, fairy-like effect. With the vegetable and fruit stalls, it presents a busy, lively scene on a Saturday night, full of character and colour, something for a painter to revel in ... Fifteen years ago, it was not all covered in, and had no electric lights. Tramps, outcasts and homeless vagabonds used to congregate here and pass the night out of the dew, for there were corrugated-iron roofs over some parts of it.*
>
> Hume Nisbet, 'Tripping through Paddy's', 1886, quoted in Tim Flannery, *The Birth of Melbourne*, Text Publishing, 2002, pp. 347–8.

However, Australia's development was in many ways hectic and unplanned, as became apparent at **Federation** in 1901, when the newly united states were found to have three different rail gauges, conflicting ideas about industry and its development or protection, and disagreements about tariffs and their use.

Check your learning

1. Why do you think that Samuel Slater was accused of being a traitor when he built a cotton mill in Rhode Island?
2. Explain how the Industrial Revolution differed in Britain and one other European country.
3. Name three areas in which Japan's modernisation followed a Western model, and the countries from which it copied.
4. What evidence was there in 1901 that the development of Australia had been hectic and unplanned?

Expansion of factory systems to mass production

Progress and developments from the 1850s brought about advances in engineering and machine tools. Machinery both shortened the time required to make a product and reduced the number of people that were necessary for its production. Workers were needed to look after the machines, but they did not need to be as skilled. Moreover, they needed to be located in a factory to carry out their work. The workers' influence on the production of goods was tied to maintaining the machine and the quantity that it produced, not to the quality of the product.

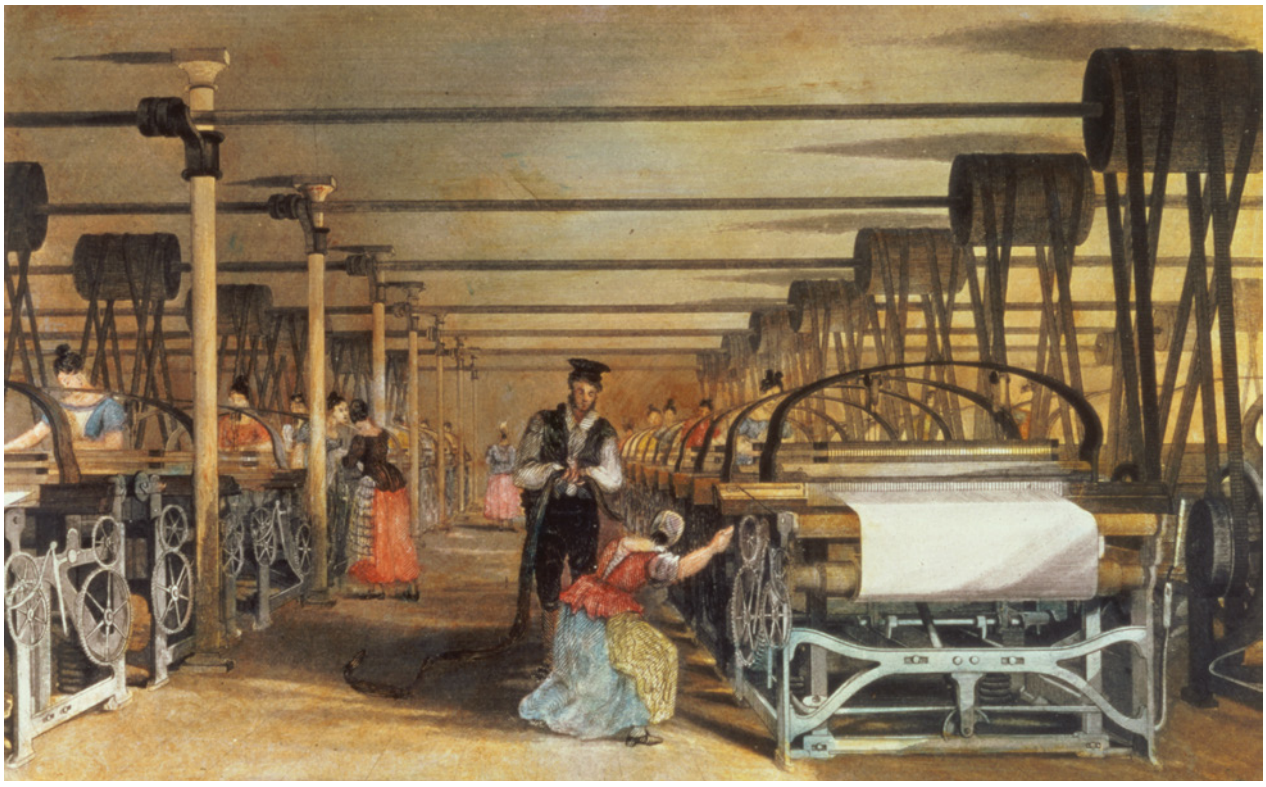
Cotton became Britain's chief export, replacing wool. British cotton goods accounted for 5 per cent of all national income. People such as Richard Arkwright had foreseen that production needed to be centralised, with all workers in the process being housed in one location. Many production centres turned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

There were some obvious benefits. The overall standard of living improved, salaries increased from 25 pounds in 1750 to 44 pounds in 1860. However, the new production methods also created new problems, leaving many skilled cottage workers jobless, and encouraging a factory system that only valued large-scale production at low cost. Employment was offered to women and children because they could be paid less. Factories became notorious for poor safety conditions and harsh working environments. Working in these factories involved long hours, mindless repetitive tasks, unsanitary work areas and conditions in which workers either froze or roasted depending on the time or season of the year, until parliamentary reform began to regulate these conditions.

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

Check your learning

1. How many disadvantages can you list for working in a factory?
2. Why were women and children popular choices as factory workers?
3. How did industrialisation lead to the creation of 'factory towns'?



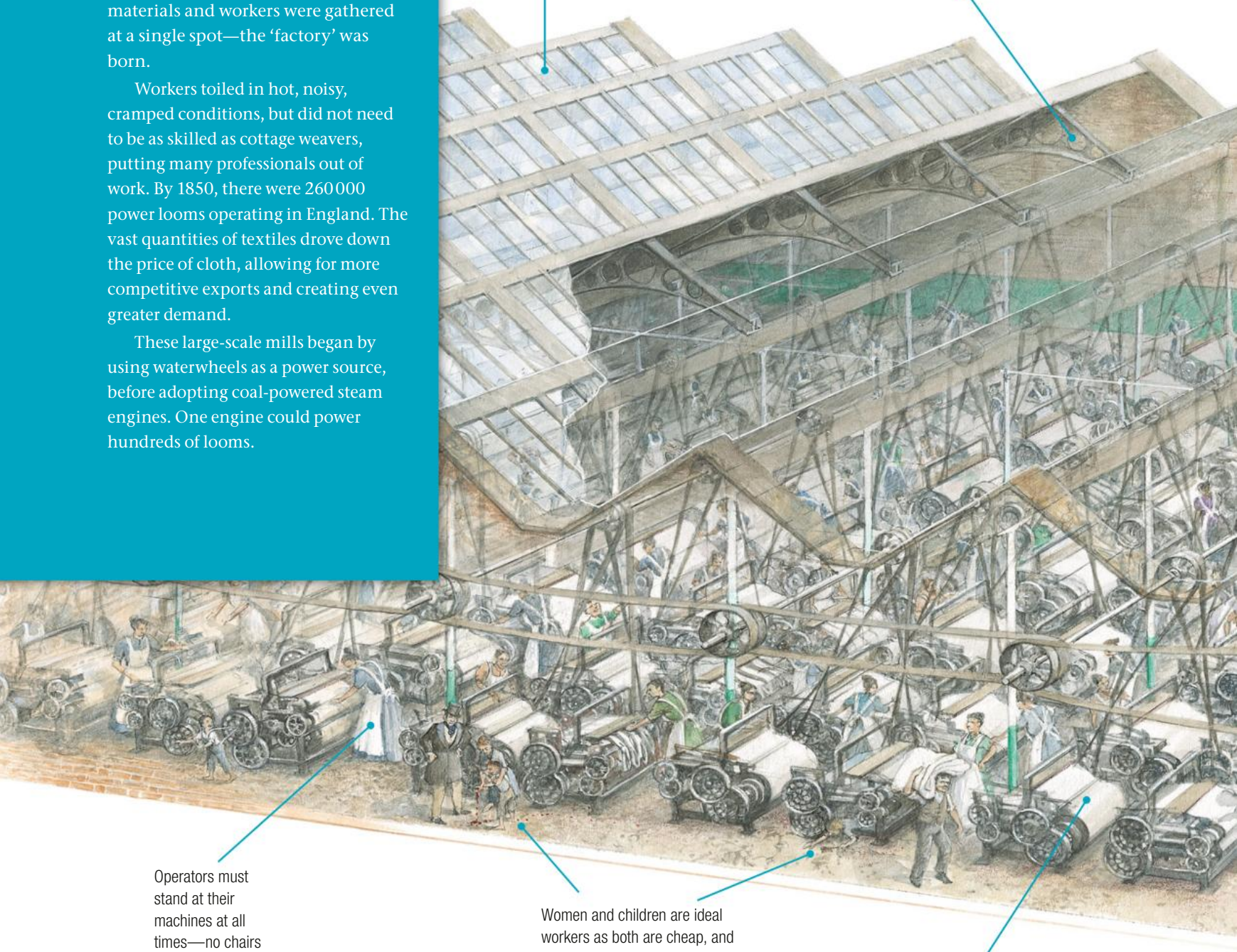
Source 2.33 An illustration of power-loom weaving in a textile factory, 1834

From cottage to cotton mill

The combined influence of steam power and new technology caused radical changes in architecture, population movement and working life. Textile production had once been spread out among multiple cottages, where spinners and weavers would work from home. Now, both raw materials and workers were gathered at a single spot—the 'factory' was born.

Workers toiled in hot, noisy, cramped conditions, but did not need to be as skilled as cottage weavers, putting many professionals out of work. By 1850, there were 260 000 power looms operating in England. The vast quantities of textiles drove down the price of cloth, allowing for more competitive exports and creating even greater demand.

These large-scale mills began by using waterwheels as a power source, before adopting coal-powered steam engines. One engine could power hundreds of looms.



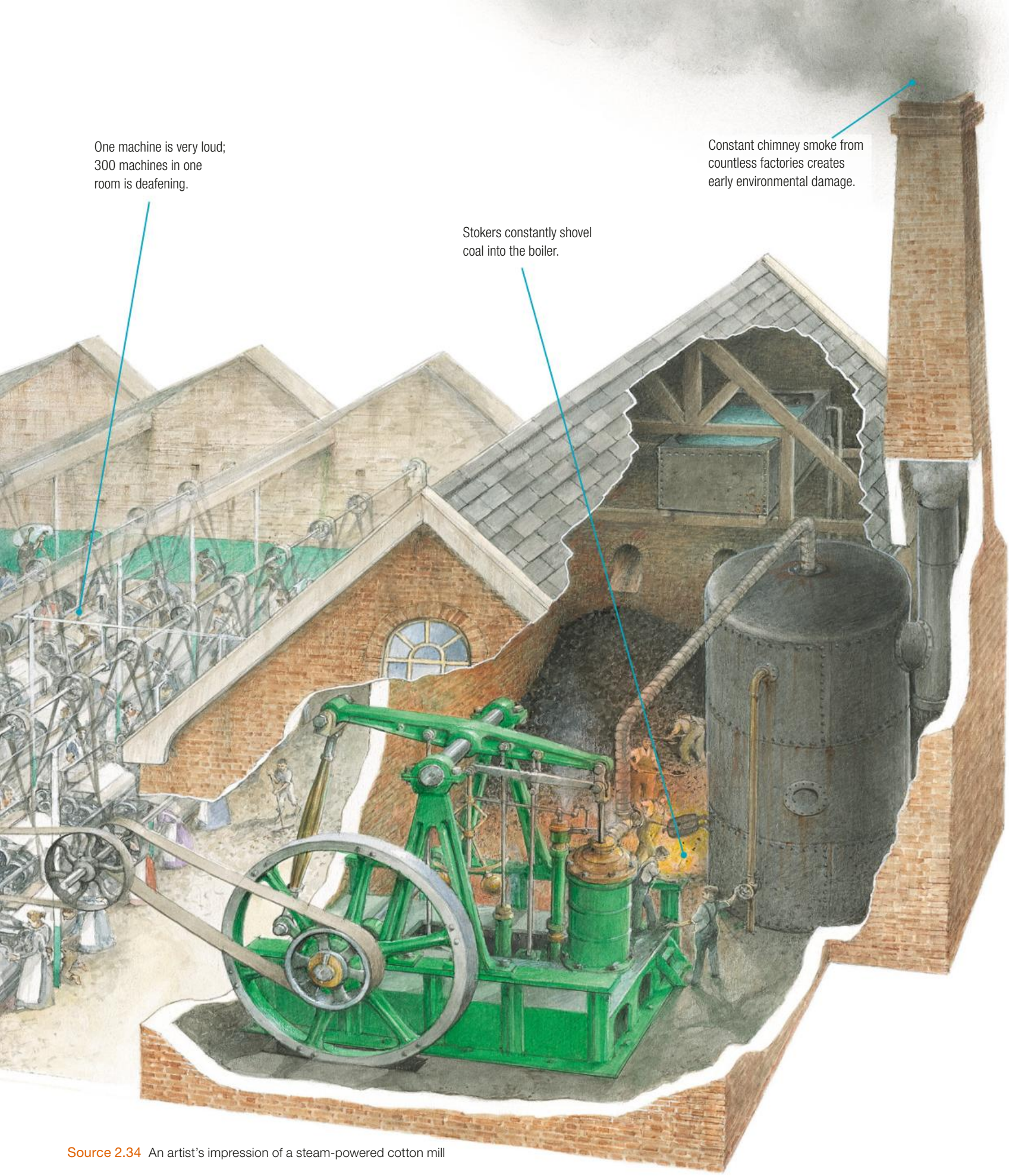
'Northern lights'—skylights in the north-facing roof sections—allow sunlight in, but protect the factory interior from the heat that would be caused by direct sunlight.

Cast-iron roof beams support the ceiling, but also allow for open floor space for all the machinery.

Operators must stand at their machines at all times—no chairs are allowed

Women and children are ideal workers as both are cheap, and nimble children can squeeze between the machines to reload spindles and repair broken threads. Accidents are common and many are fatal.

Machines are expensive, encouraging factory owners to operate around the clock to recoup their costs.



Source 2.34 An artist's impression of a steam-powered cotton mill

Improved transportation

As the production of goods increased, and the markets for commodities grew further and further apart, transportation for both people and goods required improvement, expansion and standardisation.

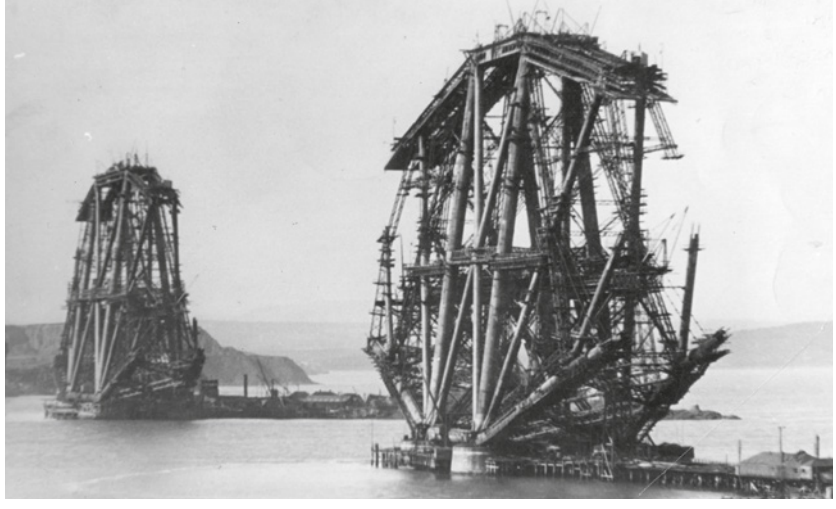
Railways

Development of railways in Britain grew rapidly, with permission for the construction of 438 new lines granted by Parliament between 1844 and 1846. More workers were required in the iron factories to meet railway orders, and another 200 000 men were employed, just on laying railway tracks. By 1848, over 40 million train journeys were made in Britain. Between 1840 and 1850, 9650 kilometres of railway track had been laid in Britain, 11 250 kilometres in Europe, and another 11 250 kilometres in the USA. An investment scheme even encouraged British investors to fund a railway in India, generating yet more work for British iron manufacturers.

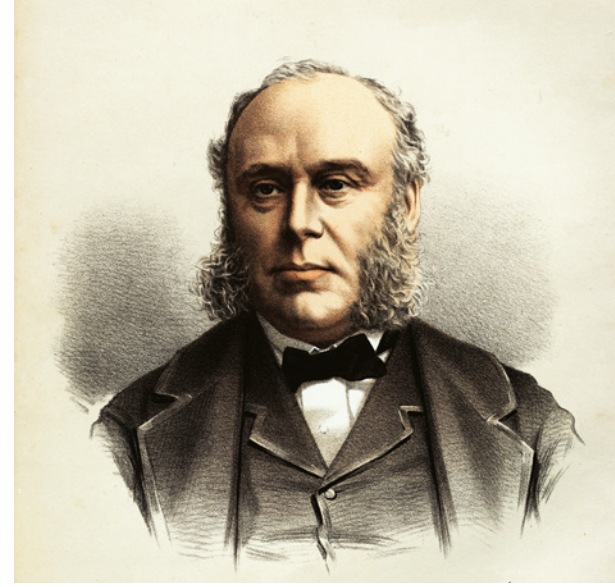
All of Britain was now linked by rail. People could travel to work by train so they could now live further away, and travel for holidays became more common. Some commodities became more readily available, such as fresh flowers and milk, delivered to London on early morning 'milk trains' from Cornwall and Devon in the south-west. In 1848, William Henry Smith (see Source 2.36) opened the first newsagent at a railway terminus in London's Euston station, selling cheap books and magazines to entertain passengers on their journeys. The WH Smith company subsequently dominated book sales in the new environment.

The new train routes required strong, reliable bridges (such as the Forth Railway Bridge, see Source 2.35) that could carry a locomotive and its cargo across rivers and gorges. Iron bridges, already gaining in popularity after the famous example in Coalbrookdale, now had a new use, and further increased demands on iron production.

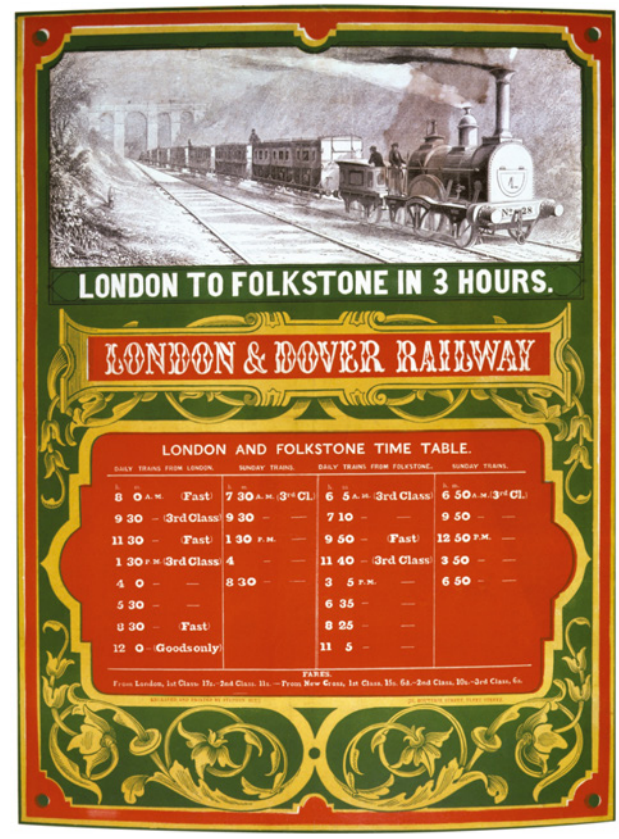
Railway companies introduced timetables (see Source 2.37), which introduced the need for clocks that would tell the same time in both the town of departure and arrival. To stay in contact, including checking the clock times, telegraph lines were built along the tracks.



Source 2.35 The Forth Railway Bridge in east Scotland under construction. By the time of its completion in 1890, it was the longest bridge of its kind.



Source 2.36 An engraving of WH Smith



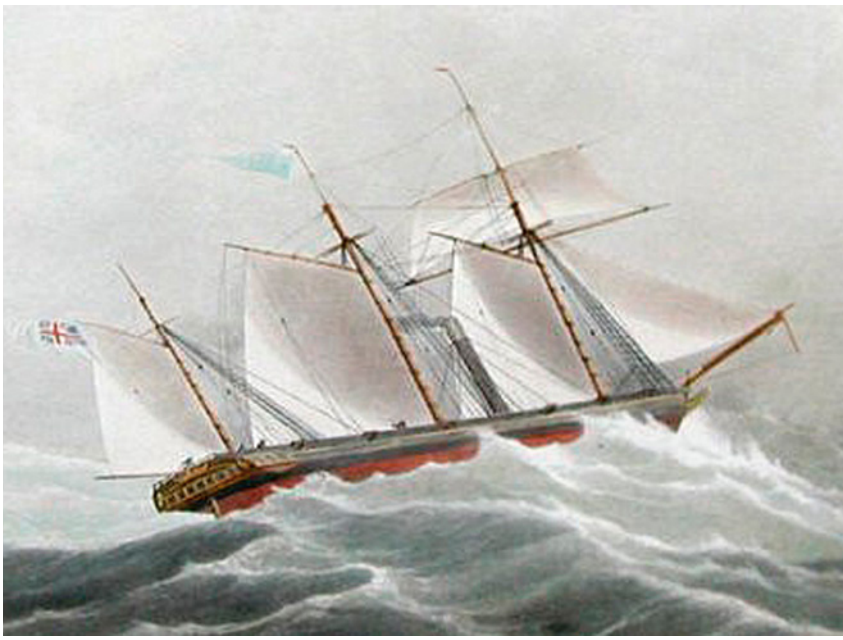
Source 2.37 An early timetable for the London to Dover Railway

With different companies and engineers involved in building various railway lines across the country, disagreement arose about the ideal track gauge (the distance between the two tracks). To resolve the situation, the British Parliament passed the Gauge Act in 1846, making the use of a standard gauge compulsory. By 1892, all British railway lines were using the standard gauge.

Ships

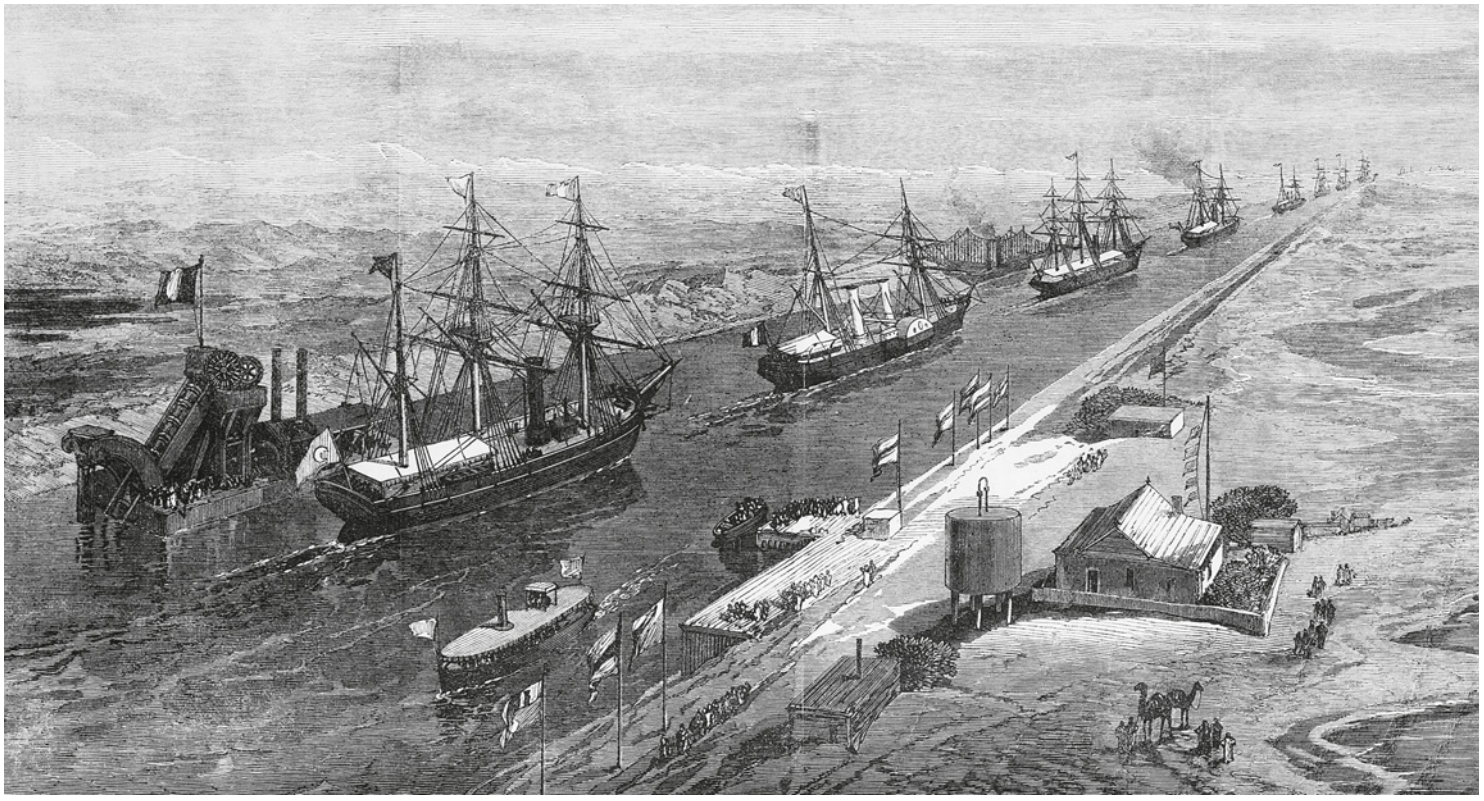
Even though iron is heavier than wood, iron ships could be lighter, because their hulls only needed to be 1 centimetre thick, whereas wooden hulls needed to be at least 30 centimetres thick. In 1822, the *Aaron Manby*, an iron paddle steamer, sailed across the English Channel. By 1838, ships were crossing the Atlantic Ocean purely under steam power. The ease with which the paddle wheels could be damaged led to the development of the screw propeller, which was placed under the stern. The first ship to be propeller-driven was the *SS Archimedes* in 1839 (see Source 2.38), and within seven years propeller-driven ships were crossing the Atlantic.

The *Great Eastern*, launched by Isambard Brunel in 1858, was a five-funnel ship that had paddle wheels and a screw propeller, as well as six masts for sails. With space for 4000 passengers, it remained the largest ship in the world for the next 40 years. Despite its technical achievements, it was a costly ship to run and encountered many misfortunes. It made a loss as a passenger liner, and only gained true success when it was refitted in 1865 to lay telegraph cable between Great Britain and the USA.



Source 2.38 The *SS Archimedes*, the first propeller-driven steamship

Steamships began to overtake sailing ships as the preferred means of transport. While their ability to take cargo was reduced by the large amount of space they required for storing coal, they were faster and more reliable. The invention of the more fuel-efficient two-cylinder engine helped to overcome the storage problem. Steamships benefited further from the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 (see Source 2.39), which cut the distance to India and Australia by over 5000 kilometres. Sailing ships, relying only on the wind, still had to make a longer trip around the southern tip of Africa.



Source 2.39 An engraving showing the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869

significant**individual**

Isambard Kingdom Brunel (1806–59)

Isambard Kingdom Brunel was a fortunate engineer, born at a time when new materials and demands created a rich field of opportunities for design and invention. His life spanned the critical period that saw the rapid expansion of the use of iron in the construction of railways, ships and buildings. This was a period in which Brunel found fame as a pioneering designer.

Early life

Brunel was no stranger to the shifting fortunes of the Industrial Revolution. He was still at school when his father, the French-born engineer Marc Brunel, was thrown in prison for unpaid debts, only for the British government to pay the outstanding sum in order to keep him from offering his services to the Russians. Although Brunel received a classical education, his primary hobby was building model boats. After completing an apprenticeship as a clockmaker in France, Brunel returned to Britain, where he worked on his father's groundbreaking Thames Tunnel, a railway line under the river, plagued by accidents and thorny engineering problems.

Bridges and railways

Amid heated competition, the young Brunel's plans for the Clifton Suspension Bridge (see Source 2.42) in south-west England beat all other contenders by throwing away old-fashioned Gothic designs for a modern look that he called his 'Egyptian thing … quite extravagantly admired by all'. He believed that innovation and experimentation was vital and welcome: 'I am opposed to the laying down of rules or conditions to be observed in the construction of bridges lest the progress of improvement tomorrow might be embarrassed or shackled by recording or registering as law the prejudices or errors of today.'

At the age of 27, Brunel was appointed the chief engineer for the Great Western Railway, which eventually stretched 230 kilometres from London to Exeter. Brunel surveyed the route himself in order to ensure the smoothest passage. He also designed viaducts, cuttings and numerous iron bridges to carry the trains, as well as massive iron-supported train sheds and buildings, such as the vast Paddington station in London, to house the new technology and passengers. Brunel even took a hand in the design of the railway itself, claiming that the standard gauge was an unwelcome holdover from the days when rails were only used for mining carts, and that better speeds could be obtained by using wider rails.

Source 2.40 Isambard Kingdom Brunel, in front of the launching chains of the *Great Eastern*, *c.* 1850

A new kind of ship

Before the Great Western Railway was even complete, Brunel announced that he had a vision of an even greater project—the construction of a steam-powered ship that would allow passengers to continue their journey all the way from the English coast to New York. In 1838, his paddle steamer the *Great Western*, made of wood but reinforced with iron, crossed the Atlantic in 15 days. By 1843, Brunel's *Great Britain* was the first truly 'modern' ship, built entirely of iron, and with a six-bladed screw propeller instead of a paddle wheel. Late in his life, Brunel began work on the *Great Eastern* (see Source 2.41), the largest steamship built before the 20th century. It was designed not only for the long journey to India and Australia, but back again without refuelling, as it was believed at the time that there was no coal in Australia.

Brunel's legacy

Brunel hoped to retire to Brunel Manor, a house and garden that he had designed himself to enjoy in his old age. However, he died from a stroke in 1859, and never lived to see it finished.

Brunel is remembered as one of the pioneers of the Industrial Revolution, although history largely remembers his successes, not his failures. Many Victorian critics hated his noisy trains, and thought his bridges were eyesores. His experimental pneumatic railway was abandoned when it proved to be three times as expensive as steam, while his proposed 'broad gauge' rail size, although more efficient and comfortable for passengers, was phased out because it did not match other lines in the country. He was nearly killed during the construction of the Thames Tunnel, and although the *Great Eastern* was the largest ship ever built at the time, it ran over budget and struggled to make a profit once launched. Nor did Brunel live to see some of his most famous monuments—neither the Clifton Suspension Bridge nor the *Great Eastern* were completed until after his death.

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

Source 2.41 A model of the *Great Eastern* steamship, designed by Isambard Brunel

Source 2.42 Clifton Suspension Bridge, as it stands today in Bristol

Check your learning

1. What did Brunel train as before taking a job with his father's firm?
2. Why did the British government bail Brunel's father out of debtors' prison?
3. Where did Brunel find inspiration for the design of the Clifton Suspension Bridge?
4. Why do you think Brunel's first steamship was called the *Great Western*?
5. What two design innovations distinguished the *Great Britain*?
6. What evidence is there that everything did *not* always go Brunel's way?
7. Which of Brunel's creations have stood the test of time?

Source 2.43 The world's first motorcycle built by Gottlieb Daimler, 1855

Source 2.44 The first Mercedes Benz motorcar, 1886

Internal-combustion engine

While the steam engine was useful for factories or trains, it was too large to use in smaller businesses or smaller vehicles. In 1859, Belgian engineer Étienne Lenoir developed an engine that sucked coal gas and air into a cylinder, where it was ignited by a spark. This pushed down a piston that turned a wheel. It was the basis for what became known as the internal-combustion engine. In 1860, a Parisian journal declared that the steam age was over, although early internal-combustion engines were still slow and unreliable.

By 1876, the German engineer Nikolaus Otto had created an engine that was compact but unmovable, because it needed to be close to a supply of coal gas. His associate Gottlieb Daimler experimented with an engine that used a waste product that had previously been discarded in the production of paraffin. This new fuel was called 'gasolene' and was eventually known as gasoline or petrol.

Daimler first used it to power a wooden bike. Another German, Karl Benz, produced a powered tricycle in 1885, but it was Daimler who built the first true 'horseless carriage' in 1887. These petrol-driven vehicles quickly replaced the few unreliable steam-driven carriages of the time.

Mass transport of people by vehicles became possible through the development of a heavier-duty engine by another German, Rudolf Diesel, in 1892. His engines were powerful enough to drive large carriages and motorbuses.

As the engines increased in reliability and power, private cars became rich men's toys. It was Henry Ford (see 'focus on continuity and change') who first made cheap production of automobiles possible, which fulfilled the promise of a car for the common man, not just the very wealthy.

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

focus on …

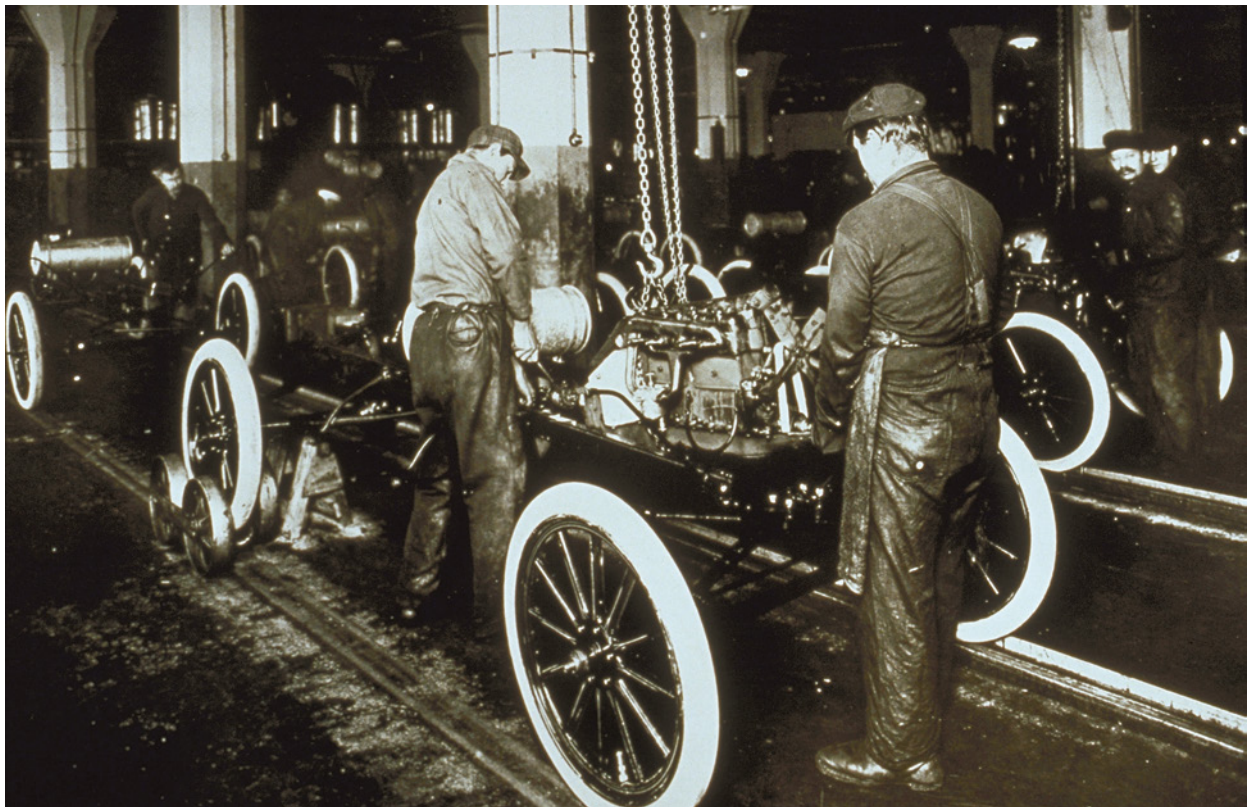
continuity and change: the assembly line

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

Source 2.45

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

Henry Ford, *My Life and Work*, 1922



Source 2.46 The assembly-line production of the Ford Model T, as seen here in a photo from the early 20th century, made automobile ownership more than a dream for many.

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

Check your learning

1. What commodities became more readily available as a result of a countrywide rail network in Britain?
2. Why did the invention of the automobile have to wait for the availability of a gasoline engine?
3. What innovation allowed Henry Ford to manufacture the first truly affordable automobile?
4. In your own words, define 'Fordism'.

Source 2.47 Physicist and chemist Marie Curie in her laboratory in 1905

Other improvements

Chemistry

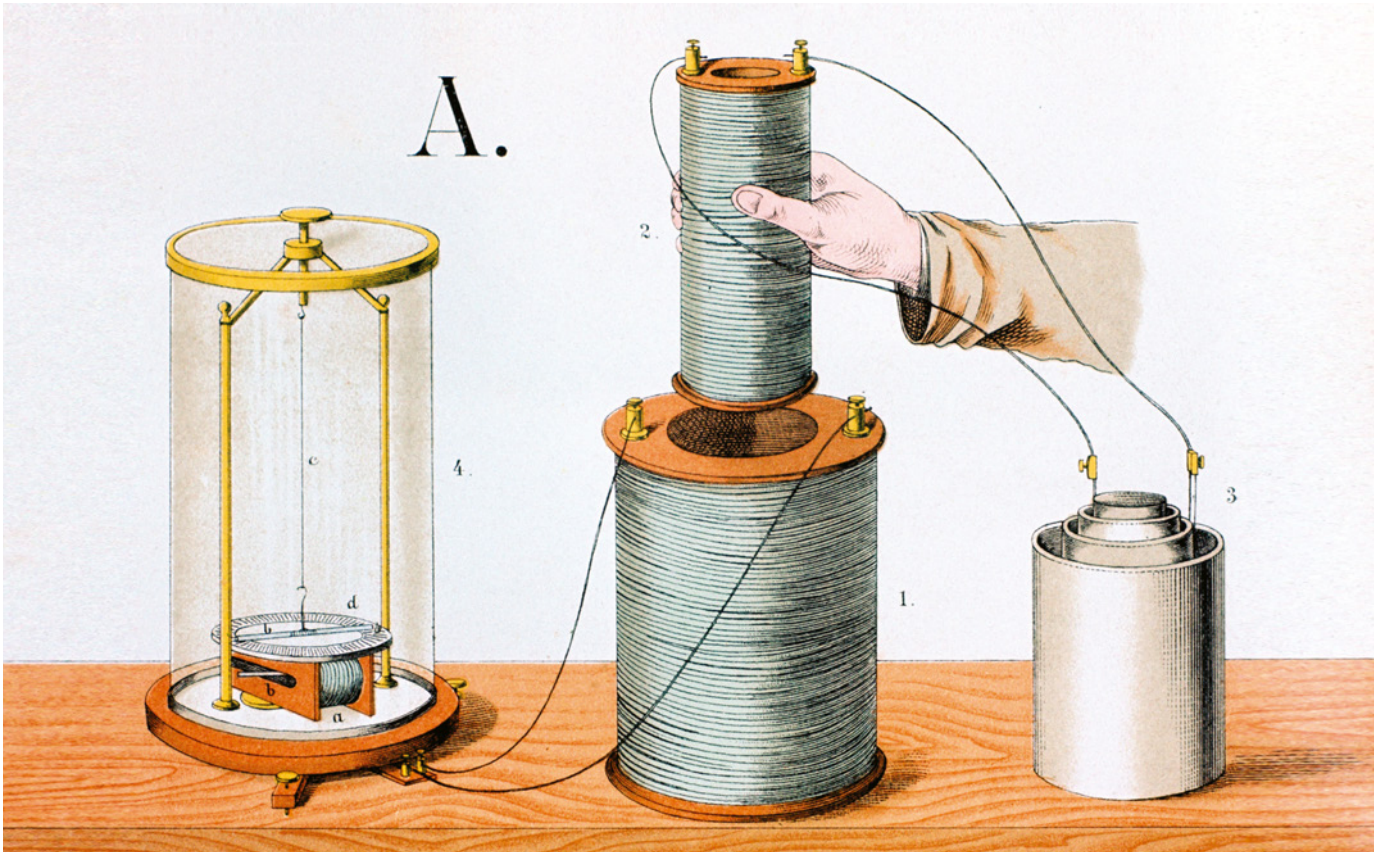
Scientific thought had previously worked on the theory that four basic elements—fire, earth, water and air—were the components of all things. Scientists began to look beyond this with the first creation of a table of elements, the beginnings of the modern periodic table, in 1789. French chemist Antoine Lavoisier identified 23 elements. He named different chemical compounds made by the combination of these chemical elements and developed a system that recognised the weight of atoms.

During the 1800s, other scientists broke down over 70000 chemical compounds, often in search of new materials for inventions or improvements to existing materials. In the process, they discovered how to make petroleum, vulcanised rubber, Portland cement and synthetic dyes. Polish-French researcher Marie Curie (see Source 2.47) isolated the element radium and coined the term 'radioactivity', which would become a controversial source of power after the end of the Industrial Revolution.

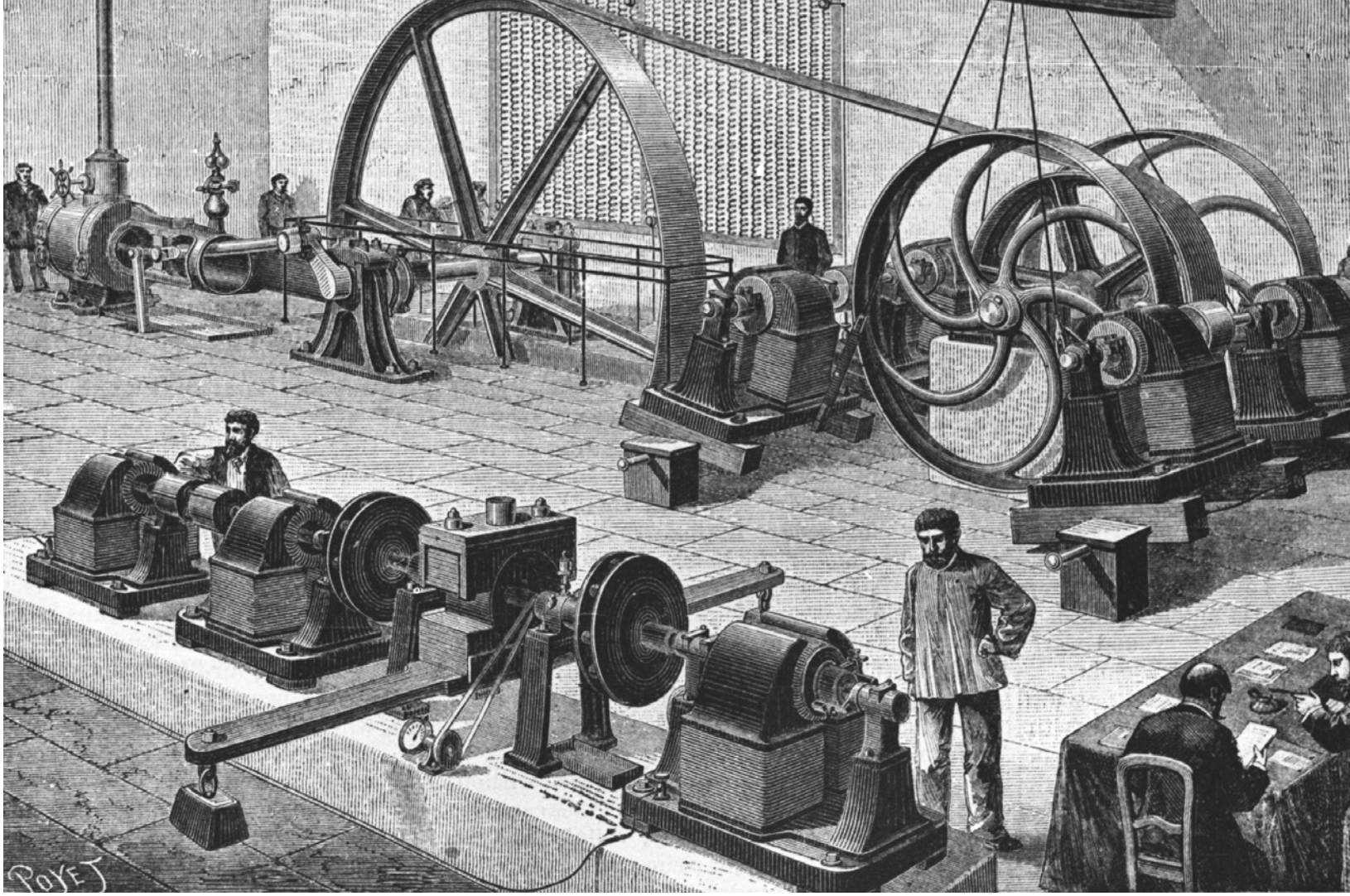
Electricity

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

In the 1880s, electric power stations began to appear. These stations offered an alternative to the steam engines for driving machines and to gas for lighting. Electricity was not the work of one person or nation. The English scientist Michael Faraday produced the first continuous



Source 2.48 Faraday's electromagnetic induction experiment, 1882



Source 2.49 An 1887 woodcut depicting a power station

flow of electric current. His work in electromagnetic induction was the basis for dynamos and other electric motors. He produced current by rotating a coil between the two poles of a horseshoe magnet. A dynamo turned the mechanical power needed to rotate the coil into electric current. This current could then drive a machine by using the energy.

Power stations were first built for the provision of electric lighting, developed through the work of Joseph Swan, an Englishman, and Thomas Edison, an American. Together they produced 'Ediswan' bulbs to light houses and streets.

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

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

Wires were strung around Britain to carry power to both factories and homes. Power grids were created to share the electricity produced and to cater for high-demand areas. As factories moved away from coal areas a general movement of population followed many new industries from the north down to the south.

Communications

The discovery that electricity could be sent along wires helped to develop a new communication system: the telegraph. Its use was almost entirely linked to the British railways up until 1850, but in 1851, London and Paris were linked by an undersea cable. By 1866, a transatlantic cable allowed communication between Britain and the USA. Improvements were made when Samuel Morse developed a coded system, using a series of dots and dashes to represent letters of the alphabet.

Regular trains also encouraged a cheap and efficient postal system. Previously, when post was carried by horses, the charge was based on the weight of the article and the distance it had to travel. The new postal service offered a standard rate, represented by a one-penny stamp, which was paid for by the sender of the letter. The Penny Post, for letters weighing up to 14 grams, allowed a letter to be sent anywhere within the country.

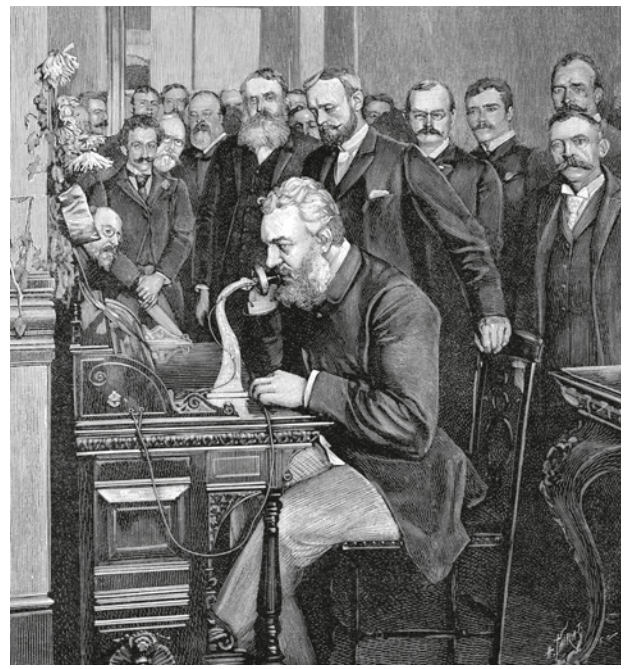
focus on ...

contestability: the invention of the telephone

Scottish-born Canadian inventor Alexander Graham Bell has long been credited with inventing the telephone. Certainly he was the first to patent it (in the USA in 1886) after conceptualising and developing his version of the telephone while still in Canada (he later became an American citizen).

However, other inventors were also working on a similar invention at the same time, among them Innocenzo Manzetti and Thomas Edison.

It is difficult to determine who was first, as many inventions and components that would eventually become the telephone were being developed and produced at around the same time. We can certainly say that no single person was solely responsible for the invention of the telephone.



Source 2.50 Alexander Graham Bell making the first telephone call between New York and Chicago, 18 October 1892

Other inventors also worked towards wireless communication. In 1896, Guglielmo Marconi showed off his first wireless telegraph. By 1899, he was transmitting between Britain and France. It was quickly realised that wireless would be of great use for shipping and a series of stations were set up for this purpose. In late 1903, without fanfare, Japanese warships were fitted with the new technology. In 1905, the Japanese Admiral Togo Heihachiro used coded wireless communications to track, intercept and sink a Russian fleet at the Battle of Tsushima, changing the nature of naval conflict in the 20th century.

Check your learning

1. What advances in the scientific field aided the development of the 'second' Industrial Revolution?
2. What was Antoine Lavoisier's contribution to science?
3. Why was the development of the battery so important for users of electricity?

bigideas

2.1 How did new technology make the modern world?

Remember

1 Who invented the spinning jenny and what was the reaction to it?

2 Why were the changes in agriculture—enclosures and the move away from small farming—linked to the early stages of the Industrial Revolution?

3 What happened to the populations of Great Britain and Europe between the 1750s and the 1850s?

4 Why could it be said that the development of electric motors was the work of many inventors rather than just one?

5 What developments were needed in steam engines before they could be used more generally for power in not just textile mills but other areas as well?

6 Why was the opening of the Suez Canal such an important event in this period of history?

Understand

7 Explain the rapid growth in canal transport in Britain and then its rapid decline.

8 Explain the importance of the internal-combustion engine to developments in social change and the growth of wider travel.

9 What was the difference between the 'first' Industrial Revolution in the 1750s and after, and the 'second' Industrial Revolution 100 years later?

Apply

10 Write a report that encourages governments to lay a transatlantic cable for telegraph and other communication.

11 Do you believe that Great Britain and other European nations benefited more from the Industrial Revolution or suffered greater social disruption and change? Give reasons for your answer.

12 How did the technological advances of the Industrial Revolution shape the world as we know it in the developed nations of Europe, North America and parts of Oceania?

Analyse

13 What were the advantages and disadvantages of the first steamboats that were able to cross the Atlantic Ocean and other large stretches of water?

14 Look at Source 2.16. Explain the reasons for the rapid development in transportation systems between these cities. What sort of transportation would have become available and why would it have been so much faster than previous transportation methods?

Evaluate

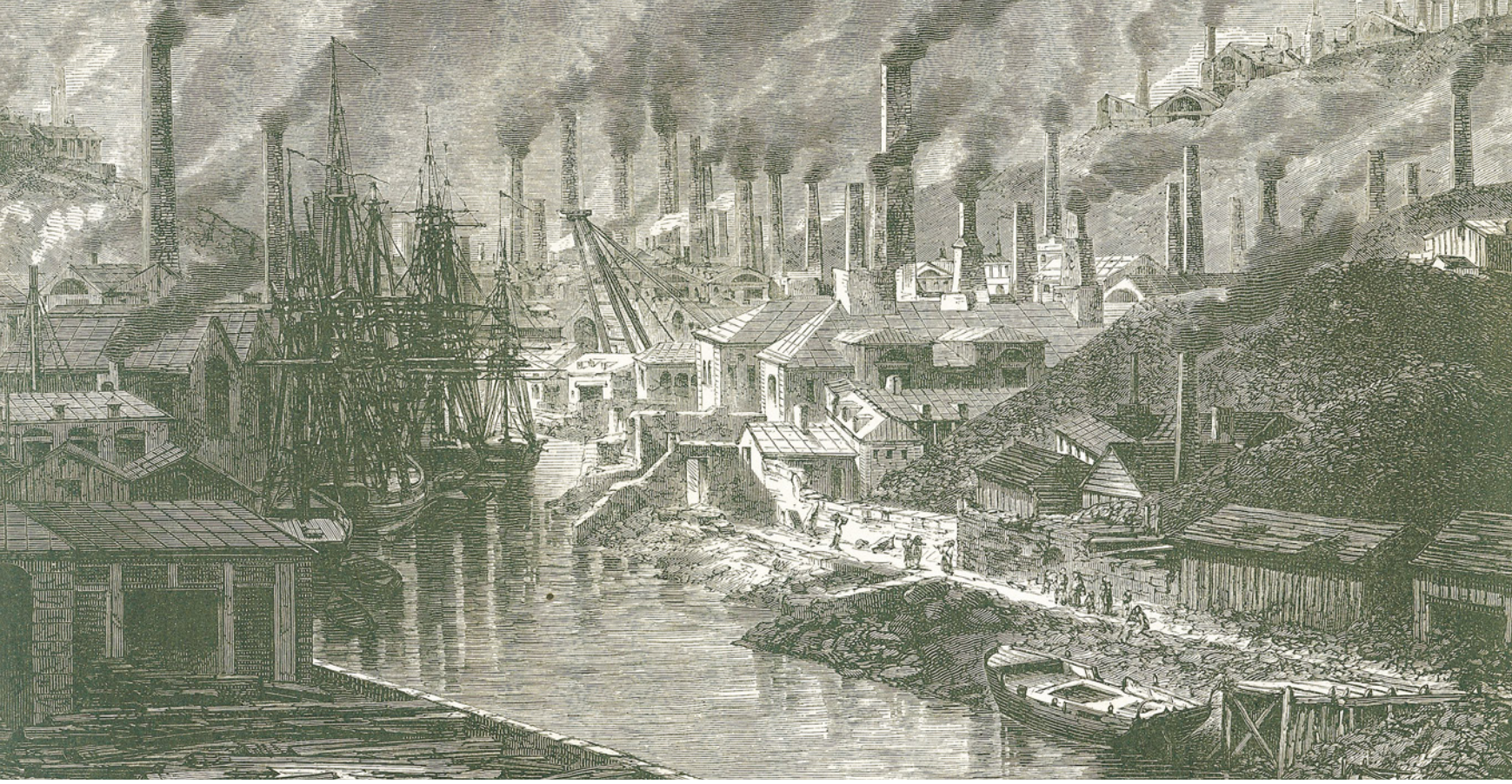
15 How important was the development of the steam train to the growth and spread of the Industrial Revolution in Great Britain and in other countries?

16 Why was the adoption of electricity as a means of powering industry slower than its alternatives such as water or steam power?

Create

17 Design a poster that advertises the advantages and benefits of either Daimler's new motorcycle or the first Mercedes Benz car.

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



Source 2.51 A 19th century engraving showing copper foundries in Swansea, Great Britain

2.2 How did changing technology affect people's lives?

The Industrial Revolution dramatically altered the social structure of Great Britain and other countries. The population shifted from rural to urban environments, as many people were forced to give up farming because of the land enclosures and sought jobs in the new factories and mills. People crowded into cities and often faced inadequate housing and uncertain work. Slums appeared alongside new factories, and overcrowded and unsanitary living conditions became the norm. Working conditions were frequently as bad as living conditions. For many people, the move from country to city was not a happy experience.

'Satanic mills' come to the world

Factory and mill owners operated without government regulation, and often cut corners in safety and conditions in the pursuit of higher profits. This included long working hours and the use of cheaper labour, which could be legally obtained by employing only women and children. Long working days took their toll on families, and children were dragged into working life with little opportunity for education. Urban slums and poor sanitation increased the infant mortality rate, although

poverty and starvation lessened after government countermeasures from the 1820s onwards. However, child labour and other poor working practices continued for some time.

The phrase 'dark satanic mills' was introduced by the English poet William Blake in 1808. It was frequently used in the 19th century to refer to the miserable working conditions of labourers in Britain. Many writers of the time were appalled by the plight of poor people whose work seemed endless and unrewarding, and whose lives were cut short by poverty, disease and injury. One of these concerned individuals, Friedrich Engels, a German industrialist and philosopher, wrote extensively about this situation (see Source 2.52).

Source 2.52

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

Source 2.53 An artist's impression of a scene from a London slum during the Industrial Revolution

Child labour

At the start of the Industrial Revolution, children were seen as ideal employees. They were small enough to fit between the new machinery, they were cheap to employ and their families were grateful for the extra income. There was no real concern about their education being affected as education was not compulsory, and most working-class families could not afford to send their children to school anyway. Children often started work at the age of four or five. Their jobs were simple, such as collecting dropped fluff from underneath the weaving machines. In many cases, the employees were orphans provided to the factories or mills by the local authorities.

Children's pay was well below that of adults, often about one-fifth or one-sixth of the adult wage. Such payments were sometimes in the form of vouchers that could only be used at stores owned by the factory owner. There, the children could use them to purchase clothing or basic food such as flour, allowing the factory owner to avoid spending real money as well as make extra profit on sales.

Source 2.54 Children working in factories were frequently exploited and injured.

Source 2.55

I work at Mr Wilson's mill. I think the youngest child is about 7. I daresay there are 20 under 9 years. It is about half past five by our clock at home when we go in ... We come out at seven by the mill. We never stop to take our meals, except at dinner.

William Crookes is overlooker in our room. He is cross-tempered sometimes. He does not beat me; he beats the little children if they do not do their work right ... I have sometimes seen the little children drop asleep or so, but not lately. If they are catched asleep they get the strap. They are always very tired at night ... I can read a little; I can't write. I used to go to school before I went to the mill ...

Evidence from a young textile worker, Factory Inquiry Commission, Great Britain, Parliamentary Papers, 1833

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

Child labour in factories also declined as complex machinery became more difficult for children to handle. In other areas, such as mining, their use as labourers was limited or barred. It is hard for us now to imagine their lifestyles or the conditions in which they worked. Source 2.55 comes from evidence given to a British government inquiry into factories.

The impact of urbanisation

In the 1750s, only 15 per cent of the population of Great Britain lived in either towns or cities. By 1850, the urban population had risen to 50 per cent, and by 1880 to 80 per cent. This shift to **urbanisation** was due to changes in agricultural practices and the lure of new jobs in the factory towns. Between 1801 and 1871, the proportion of the British population working in manufacturing rose from 40 per cent to 66 per cent.

The new middle classes often established their homes on the outskirts of the new towns and cities, at the farther end of the new rail lines. The majority of the unskilled workers lived closer to the factories, in slum areas with poor sanitation. In Liverpool in 1865, 40 per cent of young children died in such conditions, and the average life expectancy was just 29 years. Birth rates were low, but population continued to grow because of the constant migration from the countryside.

Housing was back-to-back or in apartment blocks. Areas such as St Giles in London, Voigtland in Berlin and Saint Georges in Lyons were all similar. There was no proper sewerage, no fresh water and little or no garbage disposal. Many buildings were unsound or unfit to live in. Those who endured such conditions often sought refuge in alcohol and other drugs. Crime was rife, particularly in the slums of the larger cities such as London (see Source 2.56).

Source 2.56

> *... the social order makes family life almost impossible for the worker. In a comfortless, filthy house, hardly good enough for mere nightly shelter, ill-furnished, often neither rain-tight nor warm, a foul atmosphere filling rooms overcrowded with human beings, no domestic comfort is possible. The husband works the whole day through, perhaps the wife also and the elder children, all in different places; they meet night and morning only, all under perpetual temptation to drink; what family life is possible under such conditions? Yet the working-man cannot escape from the family, must live in the family, and the consequence is a perpetual succession of family troubles ... And children growing up in this savage way, amidst these demoralising influences, are expected to turn out goody-goody and moral in the end! Verily the requirements are naïve, which the self-satisfied bourgeois makes upon the working-man!*
>
> Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844*

As urban areas grew, new technologies were applied in building, even in workers' housing. Planned, drained and uncluttered new urban settlements replaced slums. **Public transport** allowed workers to live further away from the factories in which they worked—first there were horse-drawn trams and then came cable trams or electric trolley systems. Cities began to develop suburbs: outlying communities from which city workers could commute into town on the new transport systems. In 1863, the first part of London's underground railway network opened, linking suburban trains to the city centre. By the 1870s, the ability to create skyscrapers allowed for even denser retail and office areas in city centres, where land was more expensive.

Gas-powered and then electric street lighting helped transform the atmosphere of the cities at night, reducing the gloomy, dangerous streets and encouraging leisure activities after dark such as theatres and music halls.

Source 2.57 Poor people in Whitechapel, a London slum

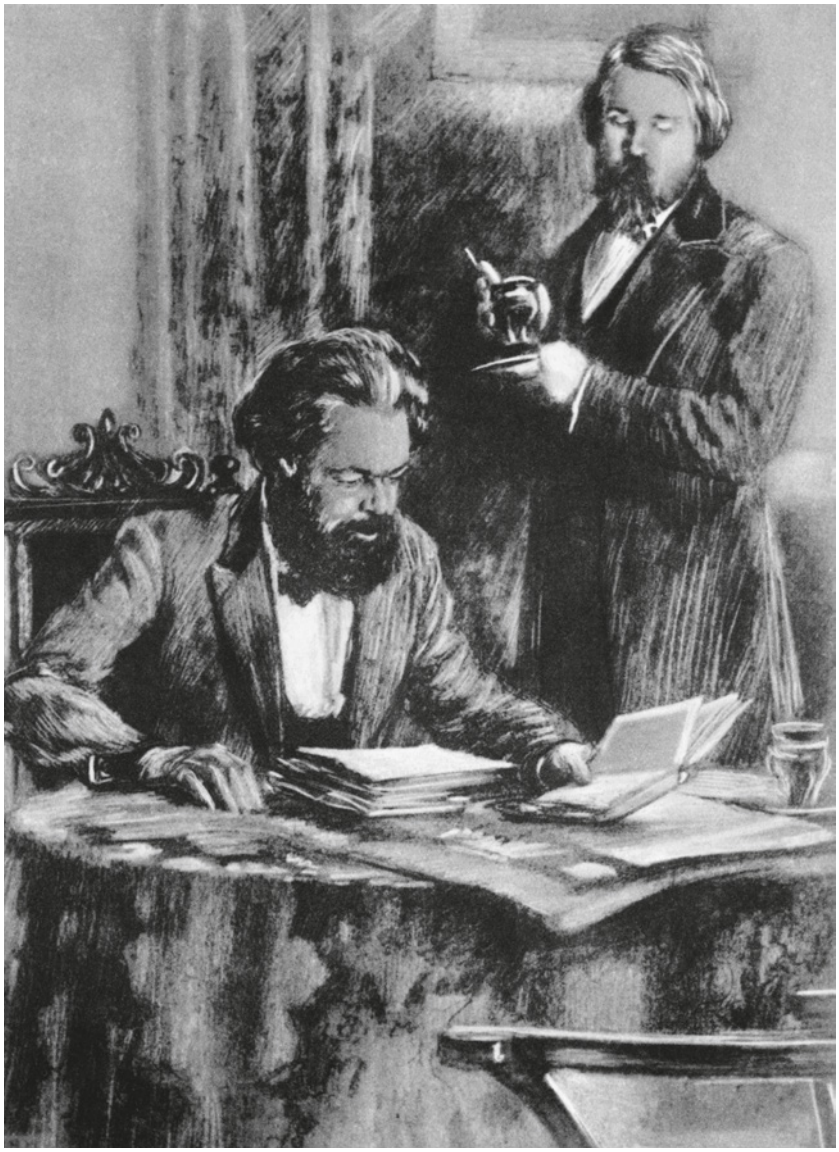
Check your learning

1. Why did people move from the rural areas to the towns and cities?
2. Why did women and children make up a large part of the industrial working population in the early years of the Industrial Revolution?
3. What effects could the move to the cities have on families?
4. After a bad start, how did the Industrial Revolution start to improve living conditions for city dwellers?
5. What was the average life expectancy in Liverpool in the 1860s? Did people tend to actually die at this age, or was there another factor that lowered life expectancy?

Responses to industrialisation

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

Many workers found it hard to adapt to the new city life. Foodstuffs such as bread and water, which had been essentially free for the taking on their farms, had to be purchased in the cities. The rapid growth of the cities meant that there had been little planning, and that government policies were often unclear or inadequate. The new cities had no defined social rules, and left many workers feeling alienated and friendless. Some embittered workers began to demand better lifestyles, conditions and political rights. The result was a rising interest in social revolution, with social thinkers such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels gaining a following among the working classes.



Source 2.59 An illustration showing Karl Marx (seated) and Friedrich Engels

Source 2.58

The division of labour, the application of water and especially steam, and the application of machinery, are the three great levers with which manufacture, since the middle of the last century, has been busy putting the world out of joint. Manufacture, on a small scale, created the middle-class; on a large scale, it created the working-class, and raised the elect of the middle-class to the throne, but only to overthrow them the more surely when the time comes. Meanwhile, it is an undenied and easily explained fact that the numerous, petty middle-class of the 'good old times' has been annihilated by manufacture, and resolved into rich capitalists on the one hand and poor workers on the other.

Friedrich Engels, *The Condition of the Working-Class in England in 1844*

In his influential book *Capital: A Critique of Political Economy* (1867), German philosopher Karl Marx suggested that the Industrial Revolution was driven by **capitalism**: the exploitation of the workers by, for example, the owners of the land and factories, railways and roads, shops and banks (the means of production, distribution and exchange). For capitalism to work, it needed an army of urban workers (the **proletariat**), who worked for less than the value of their labour. Later theorists would build on Marx's work to promote a new society that delivered a fairer distribution of wealth.

This was the beginning of **socialist** ideas, laying the foundations not only for a **welfare state** (in which the state took responsibility for all its subjects, rich and poor) but also for **communism**, in which the state attempted to abolish private property altogether.

Luddites

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

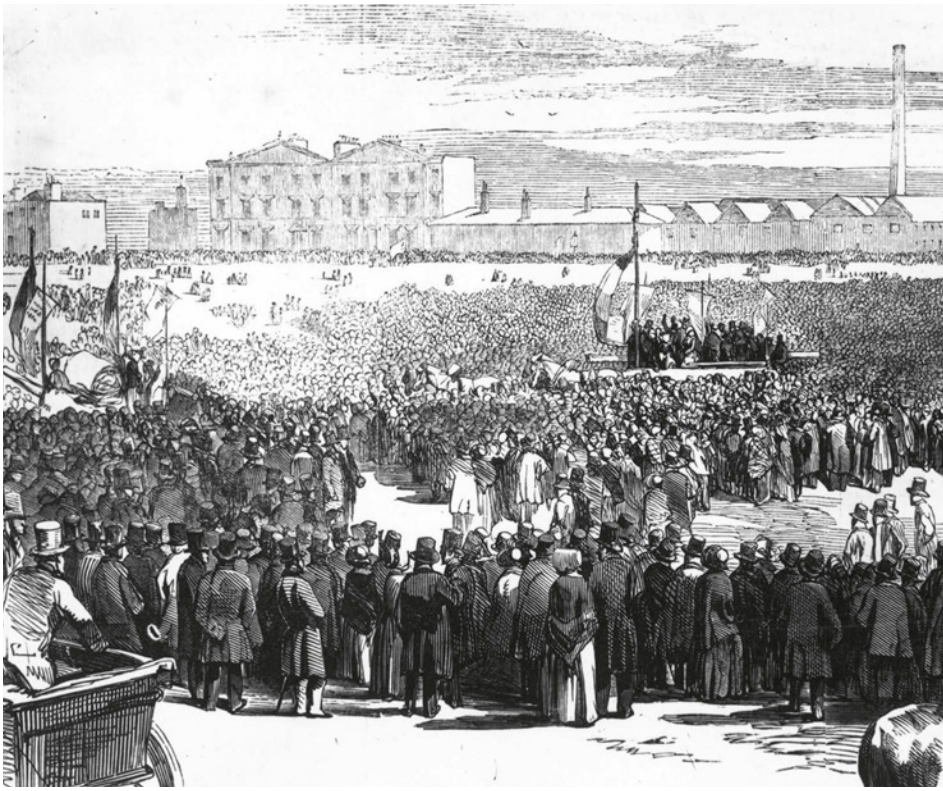
The Luddites were stamped out but their actions showed that there was a need for political action that would benefit workers and improve the conditions that they were forced to accept.

Chartism

In 1834, the British Parliament attempted to deal with modern conditions by reforming the 233-year-old Poor Law. The new *Poor Law Amendment Act 1834* decreed that anyone requiring assistance, except for the old and sick, had to enter a government workhouse. These institutions often fed their residents poorly, worked them extremely hard and broke up families. Nor was there much chance of reform—the hope was that they would be so unattractive that the poor would instead find work outside.

Widespread discontent over the Poor Law Amendment Act reminded many people that they had little say in government. Reform bills in 1832 had extended the right to vote, but only to about 600 000 out of 3 million men over the age of 21. Members of Parliament were still not paid, which limited the number of men who could afford to stand for office. In 1838, a group of reformists published a People's Charter written as a bill that could be presented to Parliament, demanding a better life for people through the use of parliamentary change (see Source 2.61).

Chartism (the movement in support of the People's Charter) spread through Great Britain and led to a general meeting at the British Coffee House in Cockspur Street, London. One faction wanted to use peaceful persuasion while another suggested physical force, even revolt. Feargus O'Connor, an Irish reformer who had been voted into Parliament but failed to meet the property qualification, said at one meeting, 'physical force was treason only when it failed; it was glorious freedom when it was successful'.



Source 2.60 An illustration of a Chartist meeting in 1848

Source 2.61 The Chartist claims

The six points of the People's Charter

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source 2.62 This cartoon shows the British Prime Minister of the time, John Russell, greeting a man delivering a bill from the Chartist movement

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

A second petition was drawn up in 1842 and presented to Parliament in May, this time with over three million names. Members of Parliament, however, were reported to have felt that it was 'utterly incompatible with the very existence of civilisation'. Strikes spread as wages dropped, but by October the strikes had failed, no general uprising had broken out as expected and many Chartists were jailed on charges of sedition (agitation against the State).

A third petition was drawn up in 1848, when revolutions in Europe encouraged a revival of the Chartist ideas. This petition was signed by two million people but again it was ignored. Feargus O'Connor was finally elected to Parliament in 1847 but was arrested soon after and died in an asylum in 1855.

Many Chartists gave up on Britain and **emigrated**. Some went to the USA, such as Allan Pinkerton who set up the famous detective agency. Others went to Italy to support Garibaldi in his defence of the new Italian republic. Many more ended up in Australia. Several in Australia were involved in establishing the Ballarat Reform League, which put forward Chartist ideas for the working people of Australia.

Emergence of trade unions and socialism

Workers found a number of ways of banding together to protect their interests. Skilled workers realised that they needed to provide some protection for themselves so that, in case of illness or injury, they would not become victims of the Poor Laws. They formed Friendly Societies, paying a weekly subscription that would provide them with an old-age pension, money for funerals or a small income during illness. Poorer people in some cases set up similar 'cooperatives' to buy goods in bulk in order to cut costs. These cooperatives often ran small grocery stores and paid members a dividend from profits.

Some industries developed trade clubs, which quickly developed into unions that fought for common aims, such as higher wages. A union's main weapon was the threat of a stoppage in work: a strike. The Combination Acts of 1799 and 1800 banned workers in Britain from meeting to demand increased wages or shorter working hours. Punishment for this crime was three months in jail.

After protests and debate, **trade unions** were legalised in 1825, swiftly leading to the establishment of groups such as the National Association for the Protection of Labour, with over 100 000 members. The largest union was the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union, established in 1833 by a mill owner, Robert Owen. Unexpectedly, considering the widespread stereotype of the dastardly mill owner, Owen supported the welfare of his workers, abolishing child labour (for those under the age of ten) in his mills, providing schooling and good housing (see Source 2.64). He also paid good wages, including sick pay.

Factory Acts

The Factory Acts were inspired by complaints about the employment of child labourers, who worked long days in appalling conditions. Although many mill owners saw no problem with this, Robert Owen argued that children, crippling hours and bad conditions could all be removed without adversely affecting profits. In 1802 and 1819, British politician and industrialist Robert Peel (senior) was instrumental in passing laws that restricted the hours that children had to work. Unfortunately, many mill owners were either Justices of the Peace or influential with local judges, so that these laws were not enforced. By 1830, most of the 250 000 mill workers in Britain were under 18.

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

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

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

Check your learning

1. What did Karl Marx think was the driving force behind the Industrial Revolution?
2. Look at the first point of the People's Charter. What large group was left out of their demands for voting rights?
3. In your own words, and based on what you have read here, define 'Luddite'.
4. Why did Chartists regard a property qualification for Members of Parliament as a barrier to true democracy?
5. What was unusual about Robert Owen's support for reform in factory conditions?
6. How did workers benefit from joining cooperatives and unions?
7. What was the legal punishment before 1825 if workers gathered to discuss a demand for higher wages?
8. Look at Source 2.63. Describe what you think it would have been like to be a child labourer in a mine.

Source 2.63 Young American boys working as mine helpers, *c.* 1900, before the introduction of child labour laws in the USA

Emergence of modern lifestyles

Robert Owen was not the only factory owner who came to see that happier workers would work harder. After Owen built his idea of the perfect factory in New Lanark (see Source 2.64), Titus Salt in Bradford experimented with ideal housing, providing well-built homes with built-in drainage as well as a local hospital, public baths, churches and schools. In Alsace, France, workers were allowed to gradually buy the cottages in which they lived. These workers' cities also had schools, hospitals and baths. Similar 'cities' were developed in other European nations.

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

As writers and artists began to highlight the living conditions of the poor (see Source 2.65), wealthier members of society became more aware of the suffering around them and began demanding reforms from factory owners and politicians.

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

New laws restricted the opening times of pubs and taverns, bringing about a decline in public drunkenness. As a labourer's working hours decreased, some managers realised that there was nothing stopping them running the factory for 24 hours a day. The valuable machinery was kept going all the time, but the workers changed in 'shifts', with electric light now allowing them to work even at night.

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

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

Source 2.64 New Lanark (now a World Heritage Site) in South Lanarkshire, Scotland, where Robert Owen provided his mill workers with housing, health care and education

Source 2.65 A 19th century cartoon comments on the indifference of London's wealthy to the poor.

Check your learning

1. What were the features of Titus Salt's model town?
2. Why was sport encouraged as a leisure pursuit among factory workers?
3. What is 'shift work', and how did it improve productivity in factories? What do you think the effects would have been on workers?
4. Give three examples of how improving conditions for workers would make them better workers.

bigideas

2.2 How did changing technology affect people's lives?

Remember

1 What was the complaint of the Luddites and how did they address it?

2 In what industries were most women and children employed, and why were they preferred as employees over men?

3 Why do you think Feargus O'Connor was described as a radical for the way he suggested Chartists could bring about change?

4 What effect did the invention of steam locomotives have on the ability of all people to travel?

5 Why did slums develop in many cities?

Understand

6 In Source 2.55 what do you believe the young woman is trying to say about work conditions in her factory and the treatment of child workers?

Apply

7 What were the major effects on society of the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution?

8 Argue either Robert Owen's case for the improvement of factory and living conditions for workers, or the case of a member of parliament who believes that conditions are fine as they are.

Analyse

9 Look at the various changes that reflected a growing awareness by the workers that they needed to develop a political and social voice.

- a How were these expressed in Great Britain?
- b What was the response of the government at this time to these expressions?

Evaluate

10 Summarise Friedrich Engels' findings about the condition of the working class in England.

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

12 How might governments have avoided the development of slums and of harsh working conditions in factories? Why didn't they involve themselves in these areas sooner?

13 Many people today call people who are afraid to use computers or other technology 'Luddites'. Given what you have read here, how were the original Luddites different from modern-day 'Luddites'?

Create

14 Create a poster advertising a Chartist meeting. Include in it the six proposals shown in Source 2.61.

15 Write a newspaper report about a Luddite attack on a factory. Explain in your report why the attackers felt that they had to break the new equipment and the response of the owners to the Luddites' views.

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

Source 2.66 An abandoned lead mine from the 19th century

2.3 What is the impact of changing technology on societies?

New technologies can change a society in both the short and long term. Growth in urban areas, the development of cities and changes in social patterns became apparent fairly quickly. But perhaps we are only now beginning to see the long-term effects—massive population growth, pollution and climate change—all of which can be traced back to the Industrial Revolution.

The advantages brought by the Industrial Revolution, including higher standards of living, education, better food and medical treatment, only benefited the industrialised world. Other areas of the world were left behind or exploited for their resources, and today strive to bring themselves 'up to date' amid political tension and conflict.

In a sense, **globalisation** has allowed the industrialised world to export many of the problems of the Industrial Revolution—long hours, poor working conditions, child labour—to developing countries. Meanwhile, the environmental change we are only now beginning to appreciate is directly linked to the chimneys of the 19th century, while the fossil fuels we burn to maintain our affluent lifestyles are running out. Not only do we use petroleum products in our automobiles, we also use them in the manufacture of our iPads, mobile phones, computers and other similar devices.

Population explosion

The years since the Industrial Revolution have seen an unprecedented growth in the population of the world. This has slowed in the industrialised nations but continues to rise sharply in the developing world. In 1801, the world population was approximately one billion people. By 2027, it could climb above eight billion.

Urbanisation

Throughout Great Britain and the rest of Europe, there was a mass movement of people from the rural areas to the growing cities. In 1801, only 17 per cent of the population of Europe lived in the cities. By 1891, this had grown to 54 per cent. In Britain, the growth cities were Leeds, Manchester and Birmingham, as well as London. After terrible initial problems with disease caused by poor or non-existent sanitation, city reform began with the beginnings of **urban planning**, the installation of iron piping for water, and careful street and housing planning (see Source 2.67). But fully planned cities are rare, and most suffer from urban decay, increasing crime and reduced greenery.

Source 2.67 The building of a London sewer, *c.* 1860

Source 2.68 The effects of industrialisation are seen in scenes such as this, where chemicals from a nearby chemical plant have killed the trees.

Environmental impacts

The Industrial Revolution introduced new sources of air and water pollution. Coal burnt in the production of steam power produced heavy layers of smog that hung over the towns and cities where the factories were based. Evidence of its effects was found when modern scientists tested hair samples from famous people such as Isaac Newton and Napoleon Bonaparte, discovering high concentrations of the metallic elements antimony and mercury. Initially, it was believed that the test results indicated that these people had been poisoned.

Air pollution

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

The developing world and its growing economies, particularly those of India and China, have copied the example of the industrialised nations by becoming large producers of pollution and smog in the process of increasing their own industry (see Source 2.69).

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

Source 2.69 Modern China catches up in the industrial race

focus on ...

continuity and change: London's killer smog

London has long been known to experience heavy fogs. However, the increasing volume of gases and fumes emitted by London's factories and house chimneys over time has encouraged the occurrence of smog. The word 'smog' is a combination of 'smoke' and 'fog'. Smog is not white, like pure fog, but coloured a dirty yellow or brown. This is because the water in the atmosphere clings to tiny particles of airborne pollution. Depending on the components of this pollution, smog can be dangerous, causing corrosion, skin irritations and breathing problems. In December 1813, smog descended on London, and again in 1873 when deaths increased by 40 per cent above normal figures, presumably because some people were already ill. Other deadly smog events struck in 1880, 1882, 1891 and 1892. It was always worst in London's East End, which contained the largest concentration of factories. The novelist Charles Dickens wrote about the effects of such an event (see Source 2.70).

Source 2.70

> *It was a foggy day in London, and the fog was heavy and dark. Animate London, with smarting eyes and irritated lungs, was blinking, wheezing, and choking; inanimate London was a sooty spectre, divided in purpose between being visible and invisible, and so being wholly neither.*
>
> Charles Dickens, *Our Mutual Friend*, 1865

The killer smog returned to London in December 1952 (see Source 2.71), lasting over four days. It was caused by a combination of condensation of water with the 2000 tonnes of sulphur dioxide and other pollutants coming daily from the city's coal-burning industries and heating equipment. The smog stung eyes, burned skin and brought on fatal respiratory diseases in some unlucky city dwellers. Medical services estimated that between 4000 and 12 000 residents died as a result. There have been further occurrences of heavy smog since then, but nothing like the Great Smog of '52.

Source 2.71 Picadilly Circus, London, during the 'killer smog' of 1952

Water pollution and sewage difficulties

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

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

Source 2.72 Modern cleaning of the Thames; this device collects floating rubbish, such as plastic and wood.

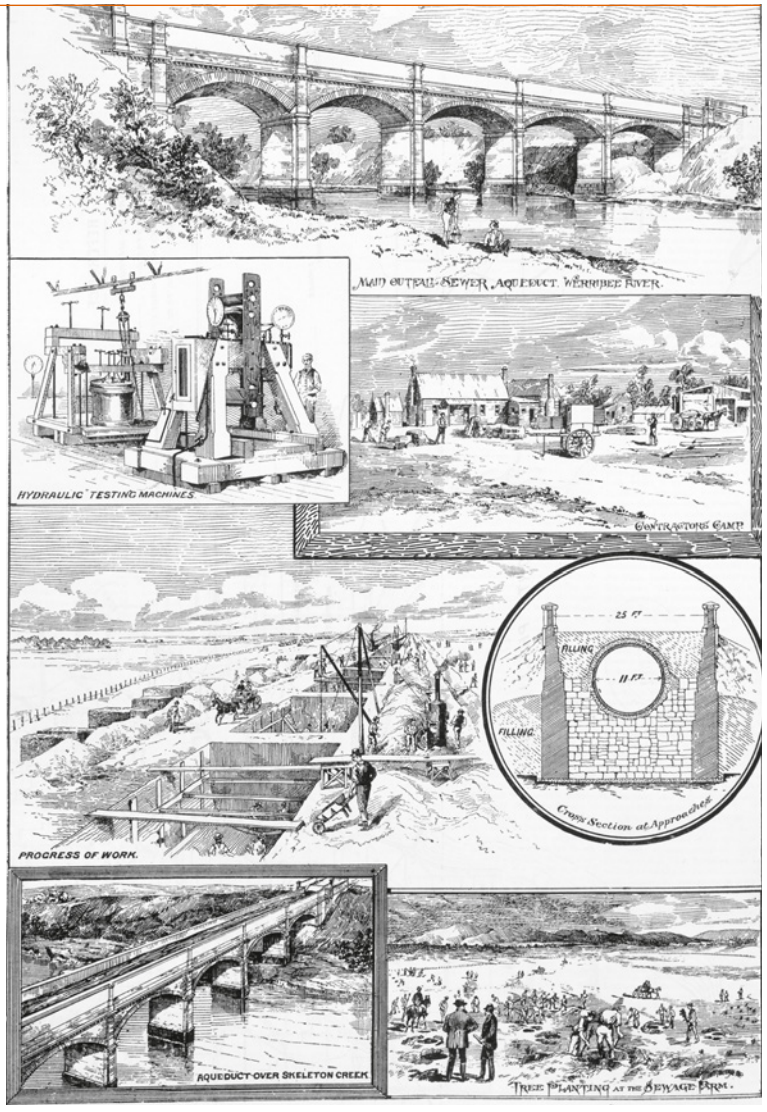
focus on ...

significance: 'Smellbourne'

In the 1850s, a reservoir had been created at Yan Yean to provide a regular supply of fresh water to the city of Melbourne, but there was no sewerage system in place. Instead, open cesspits and human waste ran directly into the Yarra River, leading to the city's nickname: 'Smellbourne'. There was a 'night soil' collection system (waste products collected from outhouses or 'dunnies' behind city homes) but its disposal was haphazard, resulting in an outbreak of typhoid.

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

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



Source 2.73 An engraving showing works on the new sewerage scheme for Melbourne, 1892

Industrial waste

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

Deforestation and land clearance

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

Source 2.74 A modern example of the effects of deforestation in Haiti

Check your learning

1. Why did the London fog become deadly?
2. Why was Melbourne nicknamed 'Smellbourne'?
3. What effect did industrialisation have on waterways such as the Thames?
4. What are some of the long-term environmental effects of the Industrial Revolution?
5. What were the unexpected consequences of the removal of trees from some mountain areas?
6. Why did the Industrial Revolution not benefit developing countries such as India?
7. Why did some scientists at first believe that Napoleon had been poisoned? What was the real reason for their findings?

Source 2.75 An illustration showing slaves picking cotton in the USA

Trade and increased manufacturing

Between the 1750s and the second half of the 1800s, Britain and most of Europe transformed into industrial societies, with urban populations reliant on coal, iron and other raw resources. New production methods created not only more jobs, but cheaper products for the workers to spend their wages on. Population growth increased demand, which drove further improvements in manufacturing technology.

Products were advertised in the new newspapers, new shops opened for business, and travelling salesmen offered goods door to door. Overseas markets also grew, particularly for British goods in the Americas. Raw materials were sought overseas in exchange for the manufactured goods that were being exported. In the early part of the Industrial Revolution, this trade included slaves—who picked the raw cotton in the USA that was exported to British mills. Britain dominated Atlantic trade and its economy flourished.

Investment was encouraged with strong legal and financial institutions supported by a stable political situation in Britain, while France struggled with the disruption caused by its political revolution and economic depression. Britain also flourished thanks to having lower taxes than its European neighbours and maintaining strong control of the sea routes between its colonies, which acted as both markets and sources for raw materials.

Imperialism

Africa, the Americas, Asia and Australia offered **entrepreneurs** new sources of materials, power and trade. The Industrial Revolution was linked closely to the push by the existing European powers to create new **empires** or to consolidate the empires that they already held.

The increase in production of goods meant that new markets had to be found to sell these goods. The new colonies offered this as well as cheap sources of the materials needed for production—timber, cotton, oils and ores. African nations, for instance, could offer little resistance to European takeovers. Various European nations struggled against each other to gain footholds in the areas that had not yet been seized. Others skirmished to gain control in areas where colonies had already been established.

European nations battled over massive areas of land in Africa (see Source 2.76), and carved up trading concessions in China. In some cases, disputes were settled with the trading of entire regions, with large areas of French Canada handed to Great Britain in exchange for the West Indian islands of Martinique and Guadeloupe. Britain lost its US colonies after the War of Independence (1775–83), but established or retained dominions in Australia, Canada and New Zealand. Emigration to these colonies increased in the 1830s and the 1840s to overcome social difficulties and poverty in Britain. By the mid 1860s, over 100 000 people were leaving Great Britain every year.

The British East India Company handed over control of India to the British government in 1858, creating a huge colonial market, made up of a patchwork of direct-ruled territories and allied princedoms. In India, the Industrial Revolution led to new communication and transportation systems, built by British investors with the products of British steel mills. As a result, much of the investments' profits ended up back in Britain.

Britain ruled India for almost a century, using it as a source of raw materials and a new market. Many of the British traders and missionaries based in these colonies did not believe that they were exploiting the locals. Rather, they thought they were working hard to bring the light of civilisation to 'savages' through education, sanitation, Christianity and the benefits of the Industrial Revolution.

Source 2.76 This map shows the division of the African continent among European empire builders in 1913.

Check your learning

1. What was the driving force behind imperialism in the 19th century?
2. If European powers did not go to war in their conflicts over territory, how did they resolve their disputes?
3. Why were Australia and New Zealand settled as colonies?
4. How many people emigrated from Great Britain from the 1860s onwards?
5. Why did many people leave Great Britain during the Industrial Revolution?

bigideas

2.3 What is the impact of changing technology on societies?

Remember

1 For how long was the Thames so polluted that fish could not be found upstream from London Bridge?

2 How did Melbourne resolve its difficulty with sewage?

3 What are the environmental effects of rapid deforestation?

4 In what ways did the Industrial Revolution encourage an increase in overall world population?

5 Why were there large outbreaks of disease in many of the European cities as their populations grew?

6 Why did trade markets grow under the influence of the Industrial Revolution?

Understand

7 List some of the environmental effects of the Industrial Revolution that have now been identified.

8 Look at Source 2.76 and compare it with a map in a modern atlas. What are the similarities? What are the differences?

Apply

9 Why might some developing countries feel that they can industrialise without being concerned about the effect that their development is having on the world environment at present?

Analyse

10 Carry out an investigation into the use of landfill in an area near you. How quickly have these sites been filled and how much longer will they be able to service your community?

11 Carry our research into the clearing of forests in areas such as the Amazon and in countries such as Indonesia. Why are these areas being deforested and what effect do scientists believe it will have on both the environment and on animal and human life in those areas?

Evaluate

12 What do you believe have been the major effects of the Industrial Revolution on the world as we know it now?

13 Do you think the USA could have become a superpower in the 20th century if it had not used slave labour in its early years as a growing nation? Give reasons for your response.

14 Over the centuries, what has been the relationship between industrialisation and outbreaks of serious diseases and illnesses? Use examples from this text and from your own research to answer this question. Provide examples to support your answer.

Create

15 Create a poster that advises people how to limit their pollution of waterways.

16 Write a letter to the newspaper arguing that alternative energy sources need to be investigated for the purposes of industrial and domestic power.

17 Create a table such as the one below using Word or Excel. Fill in the cells with examples of the resources that we use every day, examples of how these resources are used, information about whether they are renewable or not, and the renewable resources that could be used in place of non-renewable resources. The table has been started for you. Find more examples through independent research, individually or in pairs. Once you have gathered your information, present it to the class using presentation software, and include images (photographs or your own illustrations) to support your text.

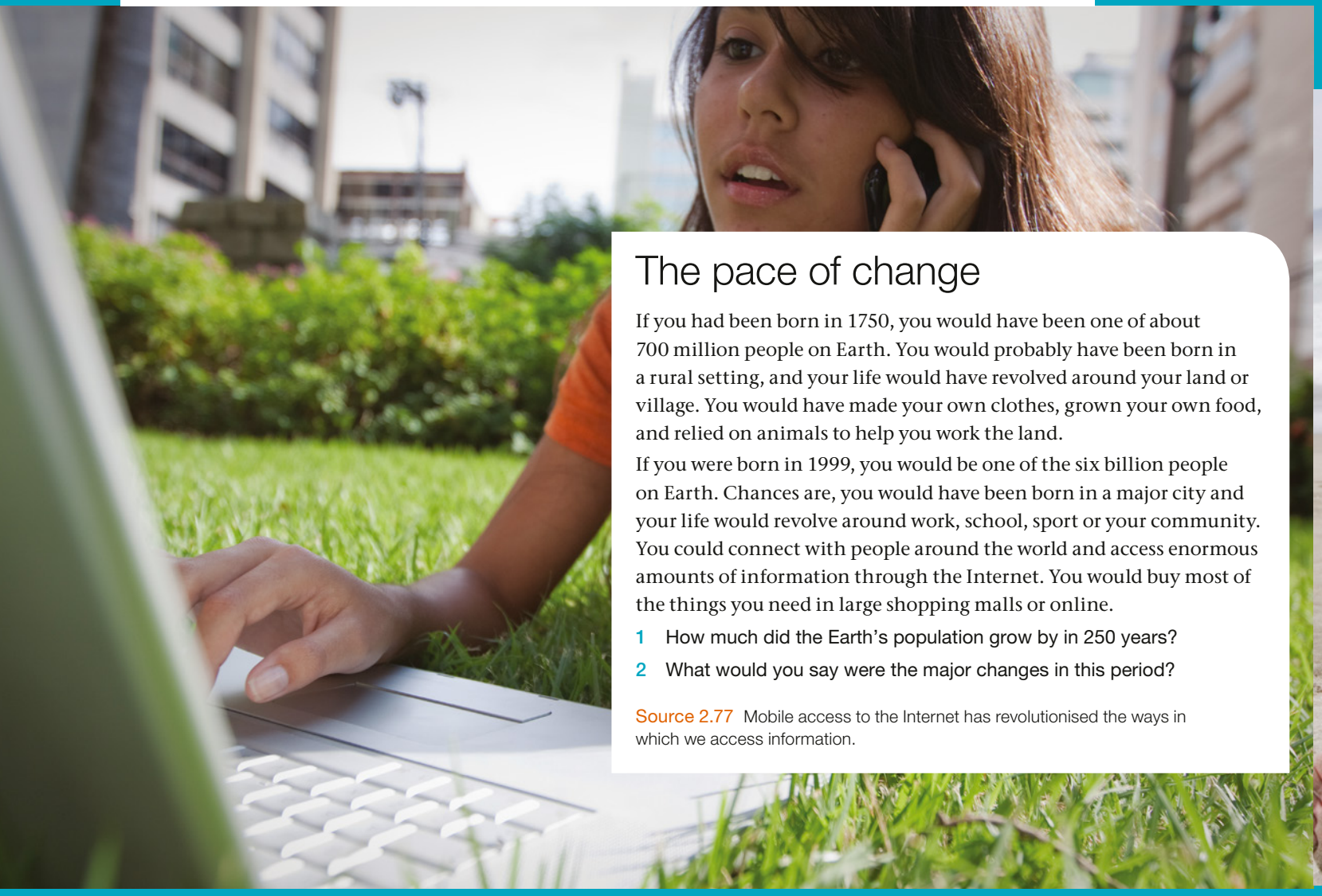
Resource	Example of use	Renewable or non-renewable?	Alternative to non-renewable resource
petroleum (oil)	automobile fuel (petrol)	non-renewable	electricity
coal	generation of electricity (e.g., in Australia)	non-renewable	wind, tidal power
water	generation of electricity (e.g., in USA and Canada)	renewable	

connectingideas

The information revolution

The late 18th and early 19th centuries saw massive changes in the way goods were produced. The impact on society was so rapid and significant that these changes were regarded as revolutionary. This was the Industrial Revolution. People started moving close to the factories in which they worked, and major industrial cities emerged.

How does this 'revolution' compare to the so-called 'information revolution' we are currently experiencing? Will digital technologies lead to major changes in society like the Industrial Revolution did?



The pace of change

If you had been born in 1750, you would have been one of about 700 million people on Earth. You would probably have been born in a rural setting, and your life would have revolved around your land or village. You would have made your own clothes, grown your own food, and relied on animals to help you work the land.

If you were born in 1999, you would be one of the six billion people on Earth. Chances are, you would have been born in a major city and your life would revolve around work, school, sport or your community. You could connect with people around the world and access enormous amounts of information through the Internet. You would buy most of the things you need in large shopping malls or online.

1 How much did the Earth's population grow by in 250 years?

2 What would you say were the major changes in this period?

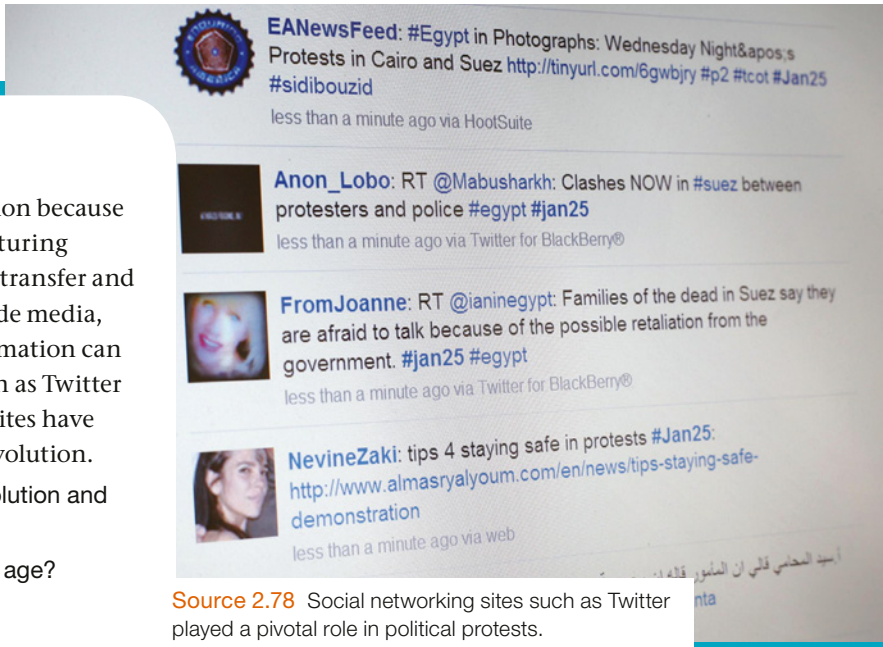
Source 2.77 Mobile access to the Internet has revolutionised the ways in which we access information.

The information revolution

The revolution we are experiencing is called the information revolution because many businesses have shifted traditional industries such as manufacturing (which were products of the Industrial Revolution) to industries that transfer and manipulate information. Examples of these kinds of industries include media, advertising and entertainment. In addition to these industries, information can be shared faster than ever before through social networking sites such as Twitter and Facebook. In some countries (such as Egypt), social networking sites have been used to help topple governments and bring about true social revolution.

1 How would you describe the difference between the Industrial Revolution and the so-called information revolution?

2 What evidence can you produce that we are living in an information age?



Source 2.78 Social networking sites such as Twitter played a pivotal role in political protests.

Source 2.79 Information technology has changed the meaning of the term 'at the office'.

The new satanic mills?

During the Industrial Revolution, many of the people at that time found their lives transformed by the changing nature of work and the machines they used. Instead of working close to home, people had to travel far away to work. With the introduction of electricity, people found themselves working longer hours because their days were no longer dictated by the rising and setting of the sun. The new technology and work practices ensured that people worked harder and faster than ever before.

Today, people are finding that, once again, their lives are being transformed by technology. Information technology has ensured that people can be connected to their work at any time, day or night. People find that their lives are now being run by their own machines, such as their smart phones and their laptops. People can now always be 'at work'.

1 Do you think that new technologies are forcing people to work more than they want to? Give reasons for your answer.

2 In what ways has the information revolution been a benefit to people? Explain your response.

Q How much information do we need in today's society? Do we already have too much access to information?

depth study option

Movement of peoples (1750–1901)

*There are particular characteristics of **migrant** peoples, especially those who leave their homelands voluntarily. They tend to be risk-takers—people who are not prepared to put up with poverty and oppression. They do not expect others to solve their problems. Even those who are forced to migrate against their will have generally shown themselves to be adaptable and resilient. Of the vast waves of migrants who left Europe and the British Isles over the past 200 years, most displayed these characteristics. The countries to which they moved are the richer for their migration.*

Places such as the Americas and Australia had huge numbers of **immigrants** arriving during this period. These new lands promised fresh opportunities, and they arrived with hopes of a better life. For many reaching New York, the Statue of Liberty was a symbol of this and a welcome sign for European arrivals. While some made their fortunes, many others faced further challenges, discrimination and hardships.

Key inquiry questions

3.1 What events influenced the movement of peoples around the world?

3.2 How did the movement of peoples affect the lives of slaves, convicts and free settlers?

3.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?

The Statue of Liberty and Ellis Island, New York City. Ellis Island, shown in the background, was the processing centre for new arrivals to the United States.

3

bigpicture

Movement of peoples

From the middle of the 18th century, dramatic changes in agriculture and industry started a process that led to a massive movement of peoples. Some of these movements were forced, some voluntary. Slavery was a cruel practice that saw Africans forcibly removed from their villages and shipped to the Americas as a labour force. As crime rates rose in rapidly expanding British cities, convicts were ***transported****. Initially they went to the North American colonies, but after the American War of Independence in 1776, the new* ***colony*** *of New South Wales was the destination.*

Both North America and Australia became popular destinations for ambitious Europeans looking to improve their lives. The discovery of gold in both places accelerated this process. There were schemes to encourage migration, and the 19th century saw a shift in population from Europe to North America and the Pacific particularly. This came at a cost for the Indigenous peoples who ended the 19th century largely dispossessed of the land that had been central to their culture and way of life.

CE

1619
The first African slaves brought to the American colony of Virginia

1770
The continent of Australia claimed in the name of the British Crown by Captain James Cook

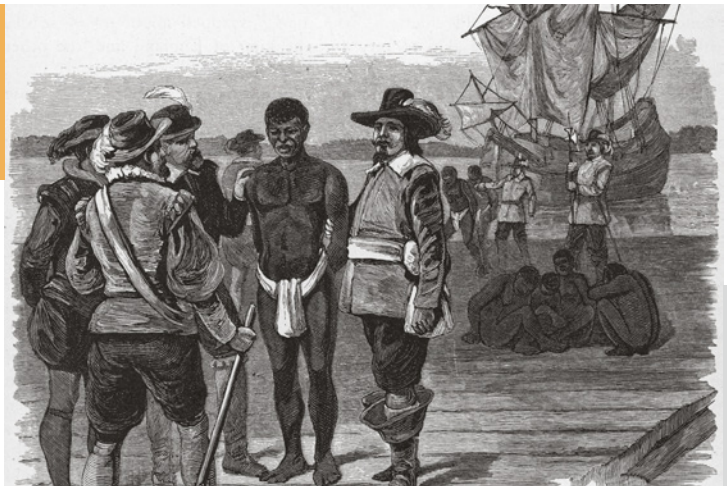
1776
Declaration of Independence of the American colonies from Britain; end of convict transportation to American colonies

1788
The first convict settlement established in New South Wales

1789
The United States of America established

1806
The importation of African slaves to USA banned

1836
The free colony of South Australia established



An engraving titled *Introduction to slavery*, showing slaves being examined on a dock in Jamestown, Virginia, in the late 1610s

An engraving showing Caroline Chisholm meeting newly arrived immigrants on the wharves at Sydney *c.* 1845

1838
Caroline Chisholm arrives in Australia and establishes help for female immigrants

1848
Gold is discovered in California, sparking a gold rush

1851
Gold is discovered in New South Wales and Victoria, leading to an Australian gold rush

1861–1865
The American Civil War between the northern and southern states of the USA

1868
The end of convict transportation to Australia when the final convicts land in Western Australia

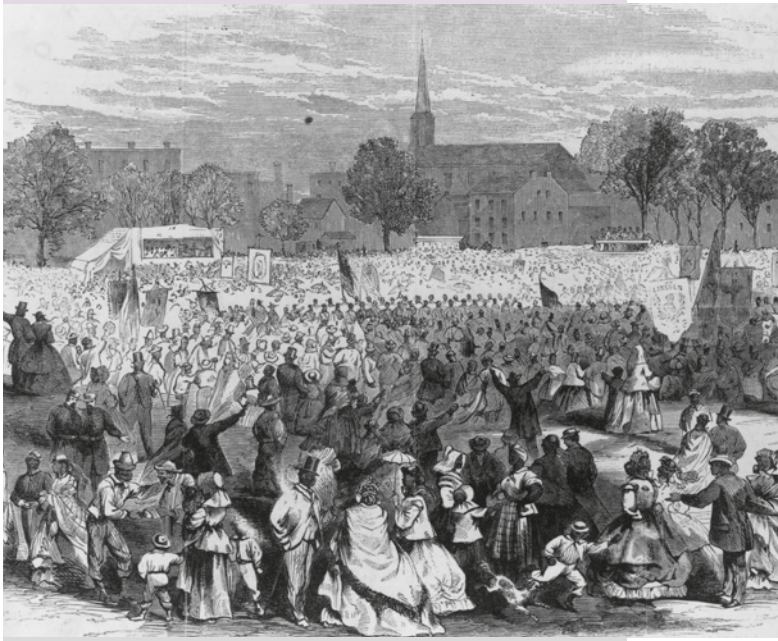
1890
The Battle of Wounded Knee marks the end of Native American resistance to western expansion

1901
Australian colonies are federated

1847
Great Famine in Ireland, also known as the Irish Potato Famine, approaches its peak

This wood engraving from the *London Illustrated News*, December 1848, shows an Irish peasant family being evicted from their cottage. They are unable to pay rent because their potato crop failed due to potato blight.

1865
The Thirteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution formally ends slavery



Washington DC's black community celebrates the passage of the 13th Amendment, which outlawed slavery.

Source 3.1 A timeline of key events and developments influencing the movement of peoples around the world

Source 3.2 *The Emigrant Ship*, a painting by Charles J Staniland, *c.* 1880, shows a ship docked in Liverpool, England, with emigrants to the new world on board being waved off by friends and relatives.

3.1 What events influenced the movement of peoples around the world?

The reasons why populations move today are similar to those that motivated people in past centuries. People ***emigrate*** *from their homelands because of push factors such as poverty, famine, overcrowding, natural disasters, war and conflict, political or religious oppression, or simply a spirit of adventure. They move to new lands because of pull factors such as the promise of a better life, better employment opportunities, more space, more fertile soil, greater personal freedom and the opportunity to shape the future of an undeveloped land.*

The Industrial Revolution was the key event that influenced the movement of peoples at this time. From its beginning around 1750, right through to the early 20th century, millions of people were relocated across the globe. This movement also took place against a background of **imperialism**, when European powers sought to expand their influence and control across the world. Newly 'discovered' lands in America, the Pacific and parts of Africa became known as 'the new world'.

Many of these migrants moved willingly, hoping for a new start. Others, such as slaves and convicts, were given no choice. This led to a great variety of migration experiences. Each group—whether free settler, assisted immigrant, slave, or convict—made a particular contribution to the lands in which they settled.

At the same time, these great movements of population had significant impacts on the original inhabitants of the new worlds. In North America, Australia and much of Africa, indigenous peoples were dispossessed of their lands and exploited.

Influences on emigration—push factors

In 1750, Europe's population was 163 million, and North America's 2 million. By 1900, Europe had grown to 408 million, while North America's had rapidly risen to 82 million. Those figures indicate where the major movement of peoples was taking place. What was happening in Europe in this period to push so many people towards starting a new life elsewhere?

Source 3.3 *The Last Of England*, a painting by Ford Maddox Brown, 1852–55, shows a couple emigrating with their baby in a ship named *Eldorado*, with the white cliffs of Dover in the background.

focus on ...

perspectives: types of migrants

When dealing with the movement of people there are key perspectives that will be considered. Their perspective will influence how they view or react to specific events. To consider perspectives it is important to define some key terms:

- **emigration:** the departure of people from their native countries
- **immigration:** the entry of people into a new country
- **migration:** the movements of peoples within a country or from one country to another
- **convict:** a convicted person transported to serve a sentence in the British colonies
- **slave:** a person who is wholly the property of another person
- **free settler:** a person who pays their way to settle in a new country
- **assisted migrant:** a person who receives assistance from a government or organisation to move to another country.

This is the way these terms are used within this topic. It is important to consider the impact a particular perspective will have on a source. It raises questions of bias that should always be taken into account when reading accounts from the time.

Source 3.4 The seed drill invented by Jethro Tull made sowing of crops easier and involved far less waste of seed. It also required fewer labourers.

Agricultural revolution

Until the early 18th century, the majority of people in Europe lived in rural areas and were engaged in agriculture. Land use had changed little since the Middle Ages, and the same families worked the same land generation after generation. Most peasants worked strips of land, barely producing enough to feed their families. Their lives were simple and there was a certainty to the rhythm of the seasons and the roles of the various members of rural village communities.

All of this was to change with the development of new farming techniques and agricultural machines during the 18th century. The agricultural revolution began in Britain but quickly spread to Western Europe. New methods of crop rotation, animal breeding, machines for ploughing, sowing seed and harvesting improved crop yields and quality of meat.

These new approaches to farming were beneficial for the landowners, but they were also responsible for the displacement of many peasants. Landowners enclosed fields for planting and grazing. They still required peasants to tend the crops and animals, but the new machines required fewer labourers. This was the first major example of technology claiming jobs.

The agricultural revolution resulted in a wave of migration from the country to the newly emerging towns and cities. Many who had lost their livelihoods in the rural villages, especially the young and single, flocked to the towns and cities looking for work. This migration coincided with the Industrial Revolution.

Source 3.5 Children were often forced to work in factories during the Industrial Revolution. This was a push factor for some families to emigrate.

Industrial Revolution

At the same time as new methods and machines were modernising agriculture, new approaches to manufacturing and food processing were also emerging. The steam engine paved the way for the development of steam-powered machines including the locomotive, spinning and weaving machines, pumps to assist mining and smelters to process the ores.

A vast unskilled or semi-skilled labour force was required to support this new industrial economy. Working conditions were terrible and there were also no laws about child labour. No laws meant children as young as six were often employed in the mines and factories. They could fit into small spaces and climb under machines, and worked in great danger.

The great migration of people from rural areas into the towns and cities provided the labour force to work in the new factories. Cities such as Manchester, Liverpool and Birmingham in England all grew rapidly. This resulted in great overcrowding and unhealthy living conditions. For many of the poor in these industrial cities, as well as the displaced in rural areas, emigration provided an outlet.

For some of the most disadvantaged in the industrial towns and cities, petty crime became a way of life. A great increase in crime and overcrowded jails contributed to another of the major forces behind emigration from Britain in the 18th and 19th centuries—the transportation of convicts to **penal colonies** in North America and Australia.

Population growth

During the 18th century, improvements in food production and new discoveries in medicine and hygiene led to a significant increase in population. The birth rate was rising, fewer children were dying and the average adult was living longer. Between 1750 and 1800, the population of Britain grew from six and a half million to nine million. This population growth created great pressures, especially at a time when new technology on farms and in factories was reducing the number of available jobs. Emigration acted as something of a safety valve, reducing pressure on jobs, housing and resources.

Natural disasters: the Irish potato failure

Over the centuries, natural disasters have motivated groups of people to leave their homelands in the simple quest for survival. The work of Thomas Malthus (see Chapter 1) suggested that such disasters were part of a natural cycle of population control. In the middle of the 19th century, one of the greatest movements of people out of one country occurred, as a result of the failure of the potato crop in Ireland.

The majority of Irish people were tenant farmers on lands owned by English overlords. The crops and animals that they produced on their small holdings were used as rent payments, leaving most peasant families to rely heavily on the potato crop for their sustenance. In the 1840s, the potato crop failed several years in a row as a result of impoverished soils and a disease called potato blight. Most landowners refused to waive the rents, which would have enabled the Irish farmers to survive this tragedy. The result was starvation in Ireland while tonnes of edible crops were shipped to England. Those who were evicted from their cottages for non-payment of rent often finished up in **workhouses** where they received meagre accommodation and food. Disease was rife in most workhouses and the already starving and weakened peasants had little resistance. The most disastrous years of famine were 1847 to 1849. The famine, which became known as the Great Famine, led to between one and one and a half million deaths. Up to two million emigrants also left Ireland at this time.

Over a period of ten years, the population of Ireland decreased by one-third. A small percentage of those who left Ireland travelled to Australia and New Zealand, but most went to North America because the journey was shorter and cheaper. However, it is estimated that up to one in five emigrants died on the voyages of the so-called 'coffin ships'. Poor sanitation, overcrowding and disease meant that many passengers, already weakened by starvation, were not able to survive the journey.

Discrimination

Over the centuries, many waves of emigrants left their homelands to escape religious or political persecution. American colonies, for example, had been established by Puritans escaping religious persecution in Britain.

Jewish people had suffered discrimination in Europe for centuries. They often became scapegoats when times were tough, because they appeared to be wealthy and successful. This perception was only partly true. Many Jewish people, especially in Eastern Europe, were not allowed to own land and were among the poorest peasants. During the 19th century there were organised attacks on Jews. This led to many fleeing to countries like the USA.

Source 3.6 A 19th century engraving showing an attack on Jewish citizens in Kiev, Ukraine

Forced emigration

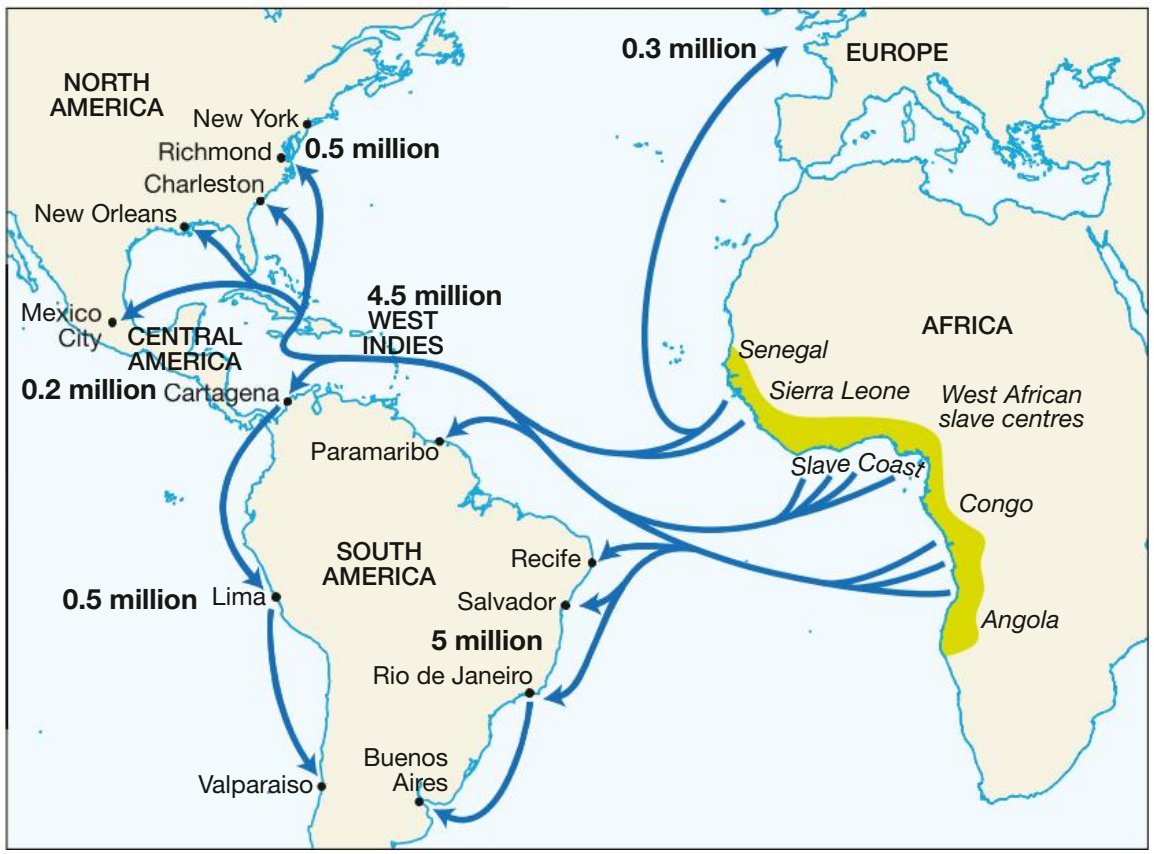
Not all people who leave their own countries do so willingly. The ultimate push factors were slavery and deportation as a convict. From the early 17th century, hundreds of thousands of African people were captured and transported across the Atlantic as slaves. This meant they were taken prisoner and then sold as a **commodity**. The purpose of this scheme was to provide a labour force in the North American colonies. A similar but less extensive program involved the capture of South Sea Islanders and their transfer to Queensland from the 1860s. These South Sea Islanders were used as cheap labour on Queensland plantations.

Between 1788 and 1868, over 165 000 convicted British criminals, many guilty of only minor crimes, were transported across the sea to the Australian colonies. Although the vast majority were unwilling emigrants, the opportunities offered to convicts who did not reoffend were plentiful. Many ex-convicts reflected that transportation had eventually provided a better way of life than they could ever have hoped for in their homelands. Only a small percentage of convicts returned to Britain when they had completed their sentences.

Source 3.7 South Sea Islanders on a Queensland pineapple plantation in the 1890s

Check your learning

1. What is the difference between emigration and immigration?
2. What was the agricultural revolution?
3. Name three cities that grew rapidly during the Industrial Revolution.
4. What impact did the Irish potato failure have on migration?
5. Where did cheap labour for Queensland plantations come from?



Source 3.8 The slave routes that many unwilling emigrants undertook in their forced journeys across the world from Africa to the Americas

Influences on immigration —pull factors

The choice of destination played a significant role in the decision of many emigrants to leave their homelands. For those who had a choice, a number of factors pulled them towards particular destinations. North America and Australia offered stability, democracy and a future. The discovery of gold in both regions also led to a dramatic shift in population.

During the 18th and 19th centuries, North America, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa offered abundant land almost for the taking. In some cases, free grants of land were made. Even when land was not free, prices were usually low and it was relatively easy for newcomers to acquire farms. This was possibly the greatest factor that pulled new immigrants towards these countries with vast, fertile but undeveloped acres.

North America

North American colonies in what is now the USA fought a War of Independence to break free of British control in the 18th century (see Chapter 1). This led to a period of western expansion as the modern USA took shape. As settlers moved west across the country, new settlements and trade routes developed. All this created employment and opportunities to own land. The chance to be a part of this new nation was a powerful pull factor drawing new immigrants.

By the late 19th century, Canada was a British colony that was starting to open up. Like the USA, it had large areas of land available, and to encourage development, land was given free to settlers along the route of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

In 1848, gold was discovered in California. This led to a gold rush of people seeking instant wealth. Around 300000 people arrived in California over the next five years, transforming the area. This was followed by a Colorado gold rush, and the western states grew rapidly. The concept of the USA as a land stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean was firmly established.

An image was created of North America as a land of opportunity. The idea of 'America' as a prosperous democracy was a powerful pull factor for many Europeans seeing their lives worsen as the Industrial Revolution changed the world forever.

focus on ...

continuity and change: Idaho Springs

In 1859, gold was discovered in Idaho Springs in Colorado, USA, as part of the Colorado gold rush that followed the one in California. Like many areas, Idaho Springs was transformed by the sudden influx of prospectors and the support industries necessary to keep them supplied.

Source 3.9 A 19th century street scene in Idaho Springs, Colorado, as goldminers flock to the area

Source 3.10 The same street in Idaho Springs in 2011

It is easy to say that the gold rushes transformed different areas. These two photographs were taken over 100 years apart. You should train yourself to look for obvious differences, but also take the time to explore continuities. Continuities are often more difficult to recognise. They are also important in historical study. The basic town layout for Idaho Springs has continued since the 19th century.

Australian colonies

When the First Fleet arrived to establish a British colony in Australia in 1788, they brought around 750 convicts, soldiers and government officials. This was the first British population of Australia. Life was difficult in such a different climate, but gradually the first colony expanded. By the 19th century there were colonies in Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia.

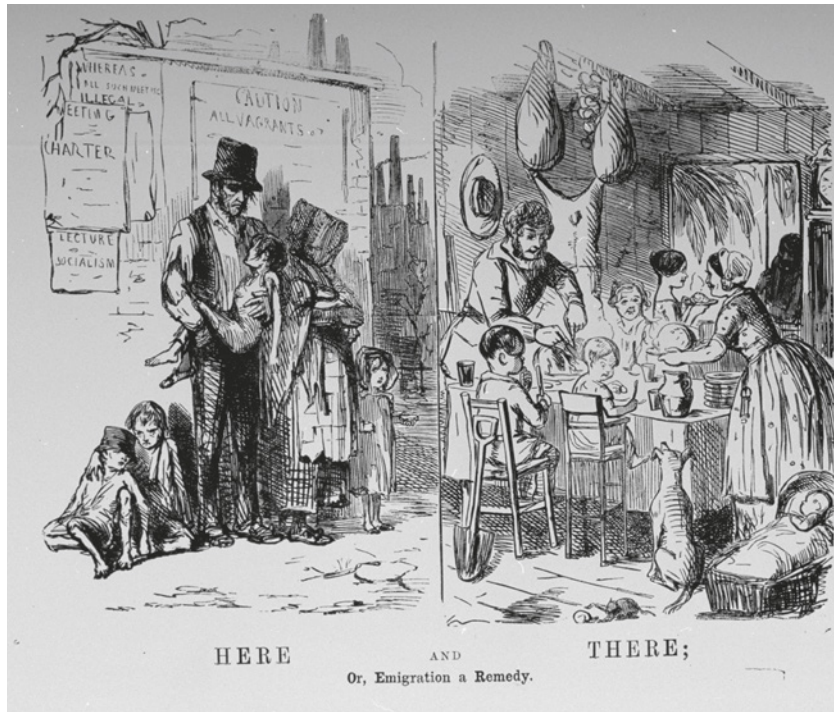
Source 3.11 The ST Gill painting *Digger's Wedding* in Melbourne was subtitled 'The Dangers of Horrid Democracy'.

As exploration opened the continent to settlement, the need for workers increased. Convicts were gradually replaced by free settlers and a new class of assisted migrants. If workers possessed a particular skill, prospective employers could apply for financial assistance to bring them to Australia. This would be an approach that would also boost immigrant numbers in the 20th century.

As in the USA, the discovery of gold helped transform Australia (see Chapter 1). Gold was first discovered by Edward Hargraves near Bathurst in New South Wales in 1851. The Australian population more than doubled between 1850 and 1860. Among those who came to Australia during the gold era were political refugees including **Chartists** and rebels. There was a perception that in newly settled lands there was a greater opportunity to think and speak freely, practise one's chosen religion and express differing political views. Many stayed to become settlers in the new nation that would emerge with Federation in 1901.

Check your learning

1. What are the major pull factors that influenced emigration in the period?
2. Where did Canada offer free land to settlers?
3. Name two American states that experienced gold rushes.
4. Why was the assisted migration scheme to Australia established in the 19th century?



Source 3.12 One of many posters used in Britain during the 19th century to encourage people to emigrate to the new world.

bigideas

3.1 What events influenced the movement of peoples around the world?

Remember

1 What is the difference between a free settler and an assisted migrant?

2 How much did the Irish population reduce as a result of the Great Famine?

3 When was gold discovered in California and New South Wales?

Understand

4 Why was the agricultural revolution a push factor for emigration?

5 How did a rising British crime rate in the 18th century contribute to American and Australian immigration?

6 List the major differences between Sources 3.9 and 3.10 showing Idaho Springs.

Apply

7 Why was population growth in Europe a push factor in emigration during this period?

8 Research discrimination as a push factor in migration from Europe at this time. Select one example to research in detail as a specific example of discrimination in action.

9 Why do you think new arrivals would stay in the USA or Australia after the gold rushes? Which do you think would be more important in their decision-making, push factors or pull factors?

Analyse

10 How would the perspectives of a convict, slave, free settler and assisted migrant differ if they were explaining why they had moved to another country?

11 Examine Source 3.5. What risks are there for the children shown working? What actions should be taken to make the workplace safer?

12 Does an analysis of the two Idaho Springs photos (Sources 3.9 and 3.10) allow you to understand the impact the gold rush had on the area? What other sources could help a historian come to a more definite conclusion?

13 Research the use of South Sea Islander labour in Queensland in the 19th century. Does it resemble slavery?

Evaluate

14 Were the people brought over on the First Fleet the best to establish a new colony? Who or what else do you think should have been included?

15 What are the arguments for and against the Great Famine being the most important event in 19th-century Irish history? Would you argue for or against the idea? Why?

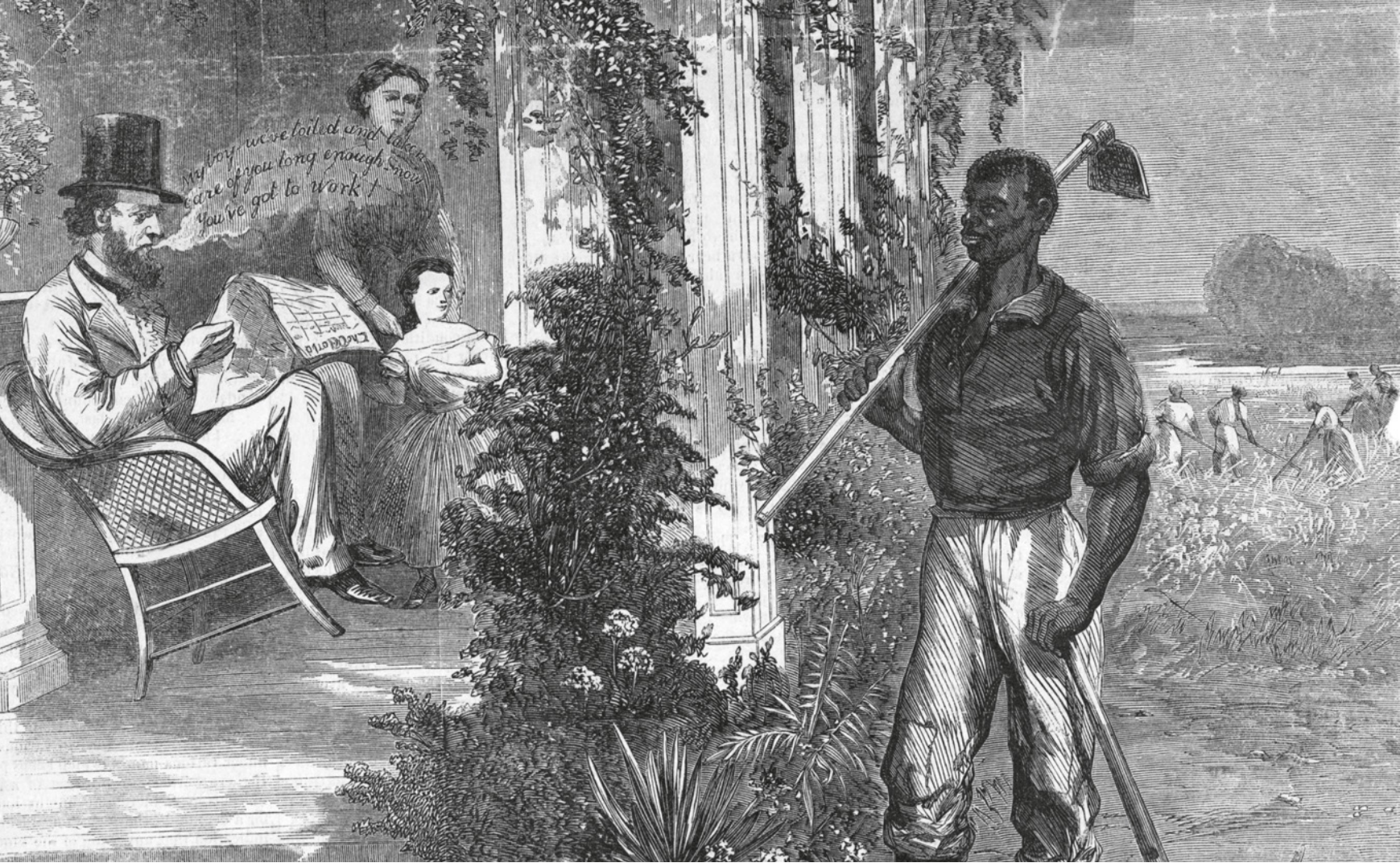
16 Copy the table below in your notebook, and provide the major reasons why people in the period 1750–1901 moved to North America and Australia under the headings 'push factors' and 'pull factors'. Which do you think were the most significant for the majority of people who moved?

	North America	Australia
Push factors		
Pull factors		

Create

17 Select an area that has been influenced by gold rushes and create a digital photo collection that would allow you to explain continuities and changes in the area.

18 Examine Source 3.12, which represents a pull factor of opportunities in a new land. Create a written or visual work that would encourage emigration to the USA, Canada or Australia in this period.



Source 3.13 An 1824 engraving showing a slave and his wealthy master, southern USA

3.2 How did the movement of peoples affect the lives of slaves, convicts and free settlers?

Whether forced, as with slaves and convicts, or chosen, as with free settlers, travelling to start a new life could be a difficult and dangerous journey. Experiences differed depending on circumstances. Free settlers could begin their new lives immediately. This often required adjustment to a new environment, culture and social organisation.

Convicts had a set period of servitude to undertake. If that was completed successfully, there were opportunities available in the new land. For slaves there was very little to look forward to. Slavery was normally for life, and children were born into slavery. Until the 13th Amendment of the US Constitution abolished slavery in 1865, there was very little for slaves to look to the future for.

Slaves in the Americas

Slavery has been a part of life since ancient times. Even in today's world, forms of slavery exist. The idea that one person can own another is rejected by modern societies, but economic necessity can lead people to do desperate things. **Human trafficking** and child abuse are still components of exploitation that make up the experience of some in the modern world.

In the southern British colonies of America such as Virginia, North and South Carolina and Georgia, there were major labour problems. In these colonies, many of the farms were large plantations requiring backbreaking labour in the hot sun. Workers of European background were unwilling to undertake plantation work, except for very high wages. This would have made the plantations unprofitable, so another solution had to be found. That solution was found in the institution of slavery, which dominated the economy of much of North America for over 200 years. This meant that the slaves became the property of the person who bought them, and any children also became their property.

Initially, there were slaves and slave owners in all of the original 13 British colonies of the USA, but by the time of the War of Independence and the creation of the USA in the 1780s, slavery was largely confined to the southern states.

It was regarded as acceptable that raiding parties could land in West Africa. By negotiation or force, they would gather boatloads of human beings, chain them together and sail to the Americas. On arrival, they would be sold to landowners who were desperate for cheap labour. Completely removed from family, tradition, culture and hope, the experiences of these forced immigrants were often horrific.

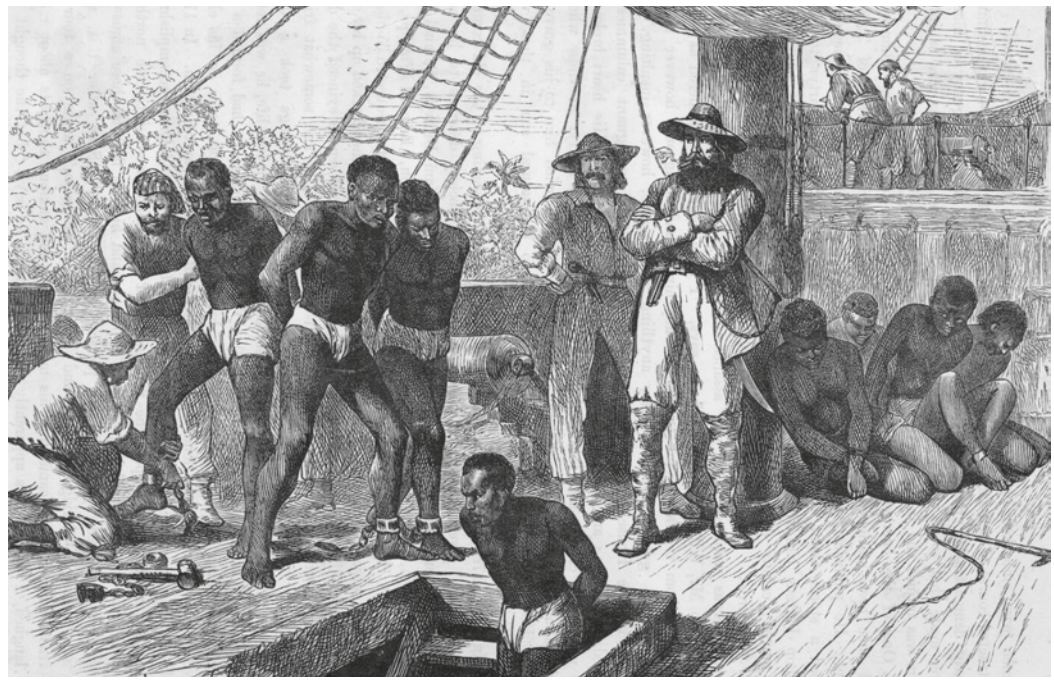
The journey

Slaves were kidnapped on the Guinea or Gold Coast of Africa. Slave catchers used rope nets to capture young Africans, then herded them into cages. They were then loaded onto slave ships. Often Africans were captured while they were out hunting and their families had no idea what had happened to them.

The slave journey was a brutal and terrifying experience. Slaves were chained together in the hold for up to 23 hours a day. They were allowed an hour's exercise on deck, purely to keep up their fitness so that they would fetch a good price on arrival in America. The holds were never cleaned and after a few days the stench was unbearable. Slaves were violently punished for any misdemeanours and female slaves were frequently assaulted by crew members. A ship's doctor described the situation on a slave ship thus: 'It is not in the power of the human imagination to picture a situation more dreadful or disgusting.'

The triangular trade

By the end of the 17th century, a **triangular trade** was firmly established. Ships loaded with cotton, timber, tobacco and furs from North America crossed the Atlantic to Britain and Europe. The ships then headed for Africa with cargoes of manufactured goods and then back to America with their holds full of slaves (see Chapter 1, Source 1.3).



Source 3.14 Slaves were shackled before being put in the ship's hold, *c.* 1835.

Arrival

When the slave ships docked at one of the American ports, the slaves were unloaded and prepared for auction. Sores were covered with tar. Troublesome slaves were given laudanum, a drug to calm them down, while lethargic slaves were given a tot of brandy to make them seem more alert. The slaves were paraded like animals before the interested buyers. Potential purchasers would examine them thoroughly, look in their mouths, feel their muscles and even comment on their ability as potential breeders of more slaves. The entire process was dehumanising and undignified, especially as the slaves had no idea where they were or what was ahead of them.

Source 3.15 An artist's impression of a slave auction

Source 3.16

A buyer would walk up and down 'tween the rows and grab a woman and try to throw her down and feel of her to see how she's put up. If she's purty strong he'd say 'Is she a good breeder?' If a gal was eighteen or nineteen and put up good she was worth 'bout fifteen hundred dollars.

Recollection of a former slave, quoted in Norman Yetman, Life under the 'Peculiar Institution', Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970, p. 124.

The majority of slaves brought to North America worked on southern plantations and farms. They were given English names and usually went by the surnames of their masters. The men worked long hours in the cotton or tobacco fields. They were accommodated in simple huts and had few comforts. Women slaves were more likely to work in the house, although some tended animals and vegetable patches. Female slaves were often at the mercy of male members of the household.

Slaves who tried to escape were punished severely. Whipping was common for those who were caught, and repeat offenders could have their teeth filed into points so that it was obvious to all that this slave was troublesome.

Source 3.17 An illustration of a slave owner whipping a slave to death

In the southern states most slaves worked on farms or plantations, but there were also slaves in the towns, working as house servants, messengers, labourers, coach drivers and blacksmiths. By 1800, slavery had been abolished in all of the northern states. Half a million African Americans living in the northern states were no longer enslaved, but neither did they enjoy equality with the white population. Most African Americans in the north still occupied the most menial jobs, lived in the worst conditions and were discriminated against in a range of ways.

The Caribbean

Slavery had been part of the Americas since the arrival of the Spanish at the end of the 15th century. The Caribbean area was particularly profitable for sugar cane. Sugar became popular in Europe as it made the flavour of many foods more acceptable. This led to demands for slave labour to maintain the supply of sugar, as well as tobacco.

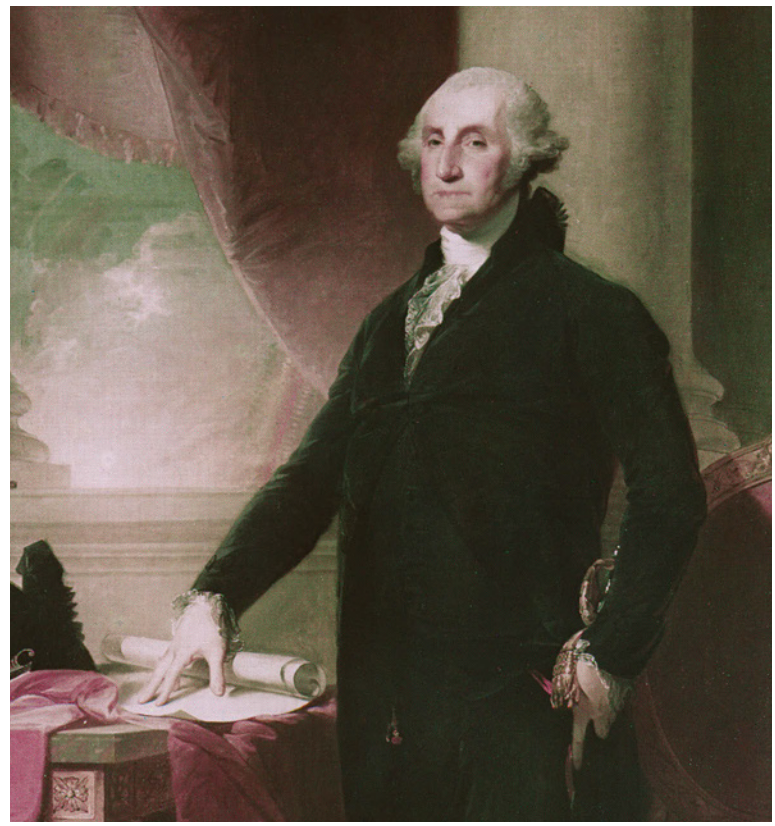
The British moved to abolish slavery in the region in the 1830s, and France followed soon after. This influx of Africans into the region had a significant impact on the composition of the region. Many Caribbeans claim an affinity with Africa, and restoring those cultural links has become a significant part of Caribbean life.

Check your learning

1. Which amendment to the US Constitution formally ended slavery in the USA?
2. What were troublesome slaves given to calm them down before being sold?
3. What were the two main products that slaves produced in the Caribbean?
4. The American Declaration of Independence states that 'all men are created equal'. Is it possible for slavery to exist in a society that recognises this?
5. Why did Washington not abolish slavery when he became president?
6. How do you explain the many contradictions in Washington's actions and attitudes in relation to slavery?

focus on ...

significance: George Washington, slave owner



Source 3.18 George Washington

George Washington (1732–1799) was the Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army during the American War of Independence and became first President of the USA in 1789. Washington inherited the Mount Vernon plantation in Virginia when he was only 11 years old. At that time, there were 11 slaves on the plantation. Over the course of his life, that number grew to more than 300.

Washington was regarded as a kind slaveholder. He was uncomfortable with the institution, but afraid of the consequences if all the slaves were freed. In April 1786, he wrote to Robert Morris, an influential merchant and future politician, 'I can only say that there is not a man living who wishes more sincerely than I do to see a plan adopted for the abolition of slavery.'

Washington did not free his slaves during his lifetime. However, under his will, all of his slaves were freed and special provisions were made to care for older slaves no longer able to work.

Washington had reason to be grateful to his slaves for more than the work they did on his plantation. He always suffered from bad teeth and by the time he was 50 he had to rely on a full set of dentures. A special plate made of ivory was created, into which slaves' teeth were inserted. Although this improved his appearance it was apparently the cause of constant pain. Some historians have suggested that this is the reason why Washington wears a pained expression in many of his portraits.

Convicts

One of the most significant migrations to Australia in the early years of European settlement was the result of convict transportation. Like the African slaves brought to North America, the convicts were unwilling immigrants. Unlike the African Americans, their sentences were for limited periods, usually between two and seven years. Even though they could be assigned to free settlers, they were never the property of anyone else, and when their sentences had been served they were completely free. They also had the advantage of a shared language and culture with their masters. Although some received cruel treatment, few experienced the barbaric punishments that the slaves had to endure.

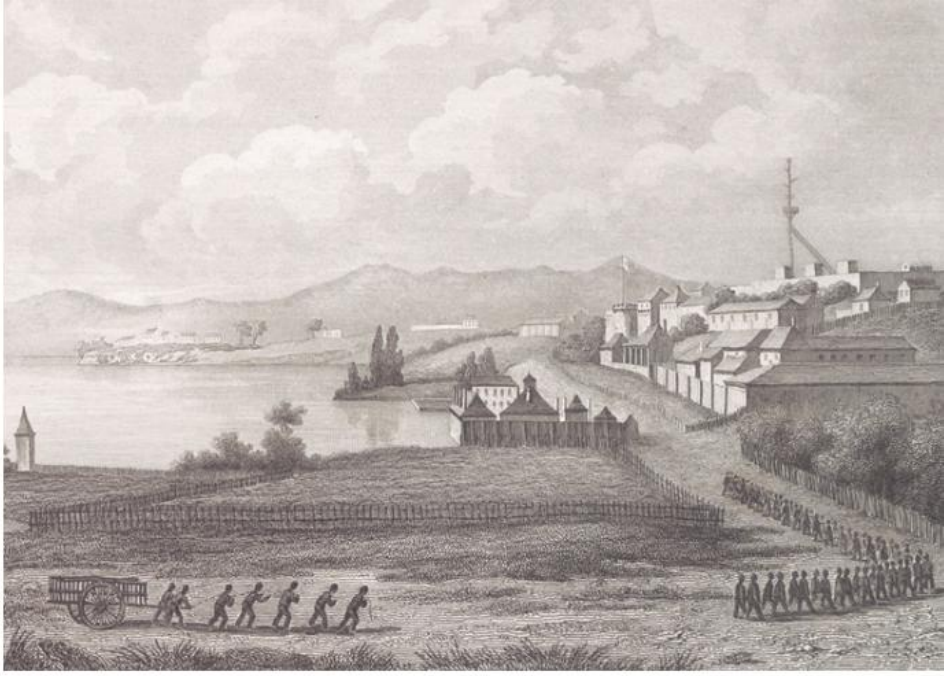
The First Fleet

The immigrant population of Australia was initially based on convict transportation. When New South Wales was first settled as an English colony in 1788, more than half of the arrivals on the First Fleet were convicts. Convict colonies were later established in Moreton Bay (Brisbane), Norfolk Island, Tasmania and Western Australia. For more than 80 years, convicts and ex-convicts provided a labour force that helped to develop the Australian colonies.

Source 3.20

Air which has been breathed is made poisonous to a more intense degree by the effluvia [smells and secretions] from the sick ... My reader will judge of its malignity when I assure him that my clothes were, in my first journeys, so offensive that in a post chaise [horse-drawn carriage], I could not bear the windows drawn up; and was therefore obliged often to travel on horseback ... even my antidote, a vial of vinegar, has after using it in a few prisons, become intolerably disagreeable.

An extract from *The State of the Prisons in England and Wales, with Preliminary Observations, and an Account of Some Foreign Prisons* by John Howard, Warrington, 1777



Source 3.19 The prison at the penal colony established at Port Arthur in Tasmania, *c.* 1854

Conditions in England

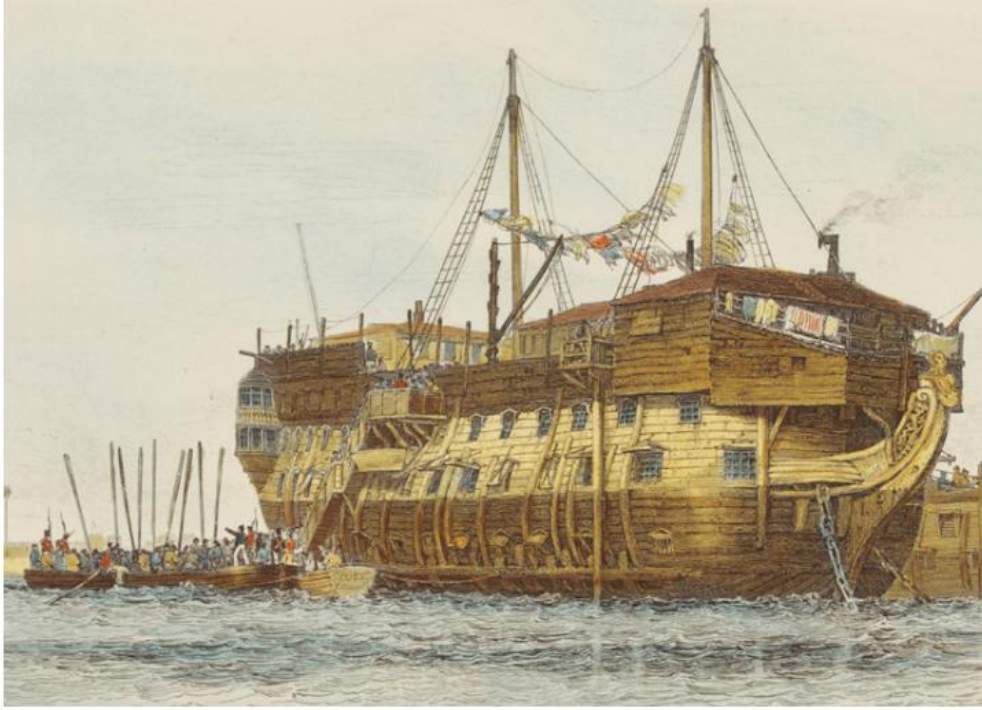
The background to the idea of convict transportation is to be found in changes in Britain and Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries. The agricultural and industrial revolutions, combined with the growth in population, had led to an increase in crime in Britain. Most criminals were poor, unskilled and uneducated people from overcrowded British towns and cities or from impoverished rural areas. The movements of people away from rural villages into towns and cities created great pressure on available jobs, housing and supply of food and services. For some, petty crime was an easy way out, for others it was a necessity—steal or starve.

There was little understanding of rehabilitation, so the only response to this growth in criminal activity was punishment. Those found guilty of such crimes as murder, **treason** or theft of valuable goods could be sentenced to death. In the late 18th century, at least 200 crimes were punishable by execution.

Source 3.21 Arrivals at Sydney Cove—the lucky ones who survived the journey

Those who escaped the death penalty were imprisoned in overcrowded jails where conditions were far worse than in the most disadvantaged slums. John Howard, an investigator of prison conditions, wrote about the state of British jails in 1777 (see Source 3.20).

When jails became overcrowded a new solution was found. Criminals were imprisoned in the many unseaworthy vessels to be found lining the shores of British harbours. These hulks, as they were known, were even more cramped and unhealthy than the prisons (see Source 3.22). It was also more difficult to make them secure, so riots and escapes were a constant problem.



Source 3.22 Prisoners being rowed out to a hulk, 1829

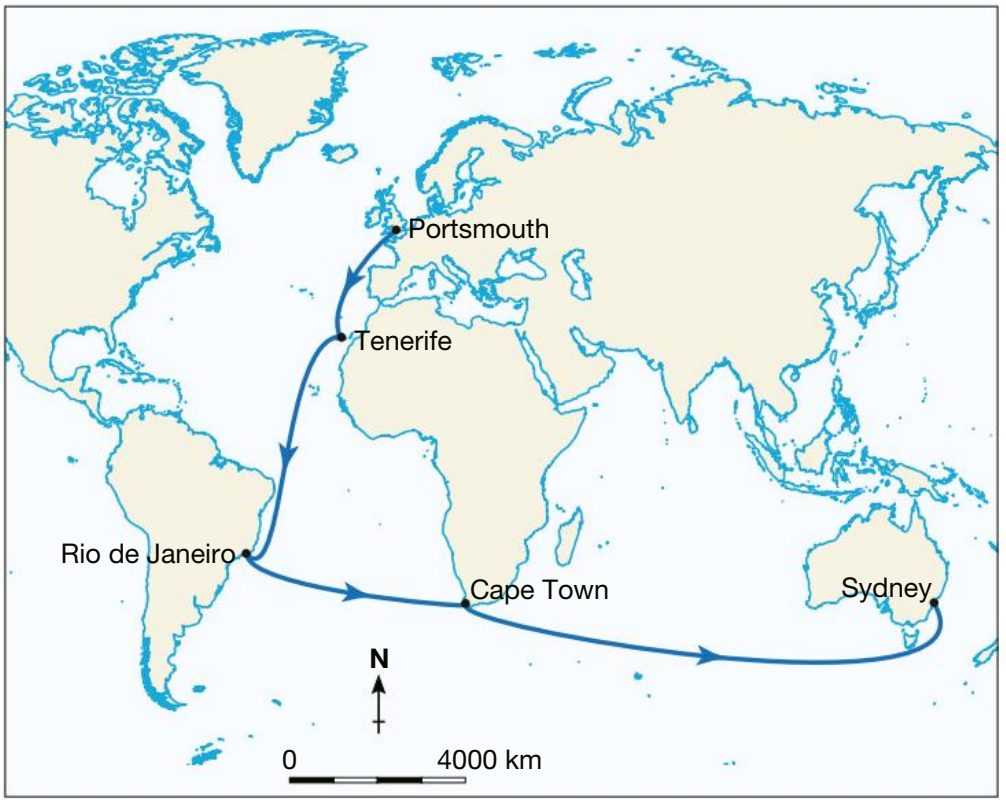
The journey

The First Fleet of 11 ships arrived at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788. Finding the area unsuitable for settlement, the fleet moved on to Port Jackson (Sydney Harbour) and landed at Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788. Of the 1400 passengers, more than half were convicts. They were the first of more than 160000 convicts transported to the Australian colonies before the practice ceased in 1869.

Conditions on board the First Fleet were cramped for the convicts who spent most of the voyage restrained below deck. Most of the convicts who arrived in 1788 were in reasonable condition, but must have been stunned at the new environment they found themselves in. The seasons were reversed, the heat unlike anything they had previously experienced, and the soil seemingly unfit for sustaining the new colony.

Later convict arrivals during the 18th century appear to have had a worse experience. Cruelty by captains and crew, scurvy, dysentery, typhoid and seasickness all combined to make the journey a horrendous experience.

By 1801, so many convict lives were being lost on the journey that English authorities reviewed the process. Ships were only despatched twice a year at the end of May and beginning of September to avoid southern hemisphere winter conditions. Independent surgeons were appointed to supervise the treatment of convicts, and a bonus was paid for the safe arrival of convicts.

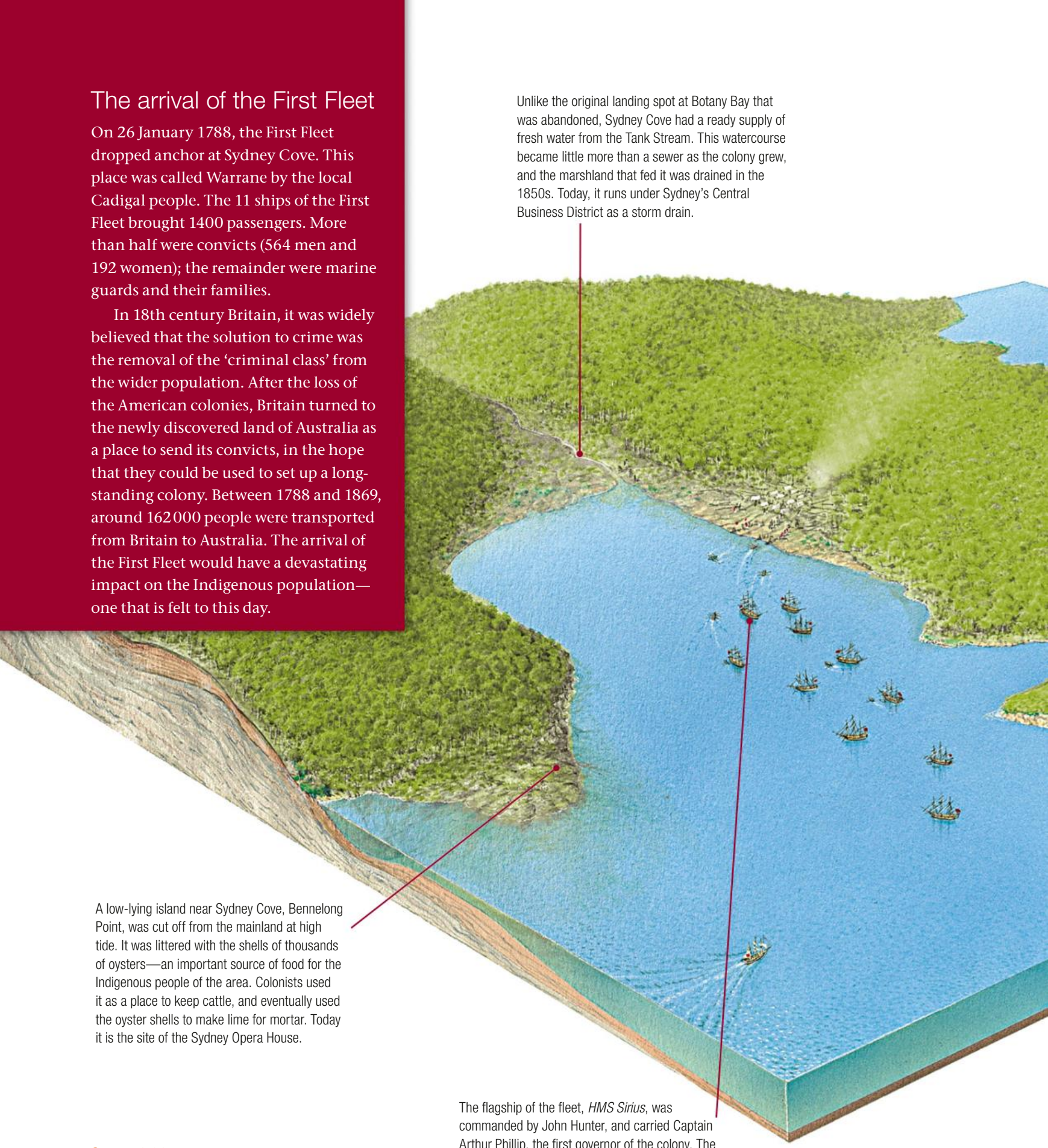


Source 3.23 The route taken by the 11 ships of the First Fleet from England to Australia

The arrival of the First Fleet

On 26 January 1788, the First Fleet dropped anchor at Sydney Cove. This place was called Warrane by the local Cadigal people. The 11 ships of the First Fleet brought 1400 passengers. More than half were convicts (564 men and 192 women); the remainder were marine guards and their families.

In 18th century Britain, it was widely believed that the solution to crime was the removal of the 'criminal class' from the wider population. After the loss of the American colonies, Britain turned to the newly discovered land of Australia as a place to send its convicts, in the hope that they could be used to set up a long-standing colony. Between 1788 and 1869, around 162 000 people were transported from Britain to Australia. The arrival of the First Fleet would have a devastating impact on the Indigenous population—one that is felt to this day.

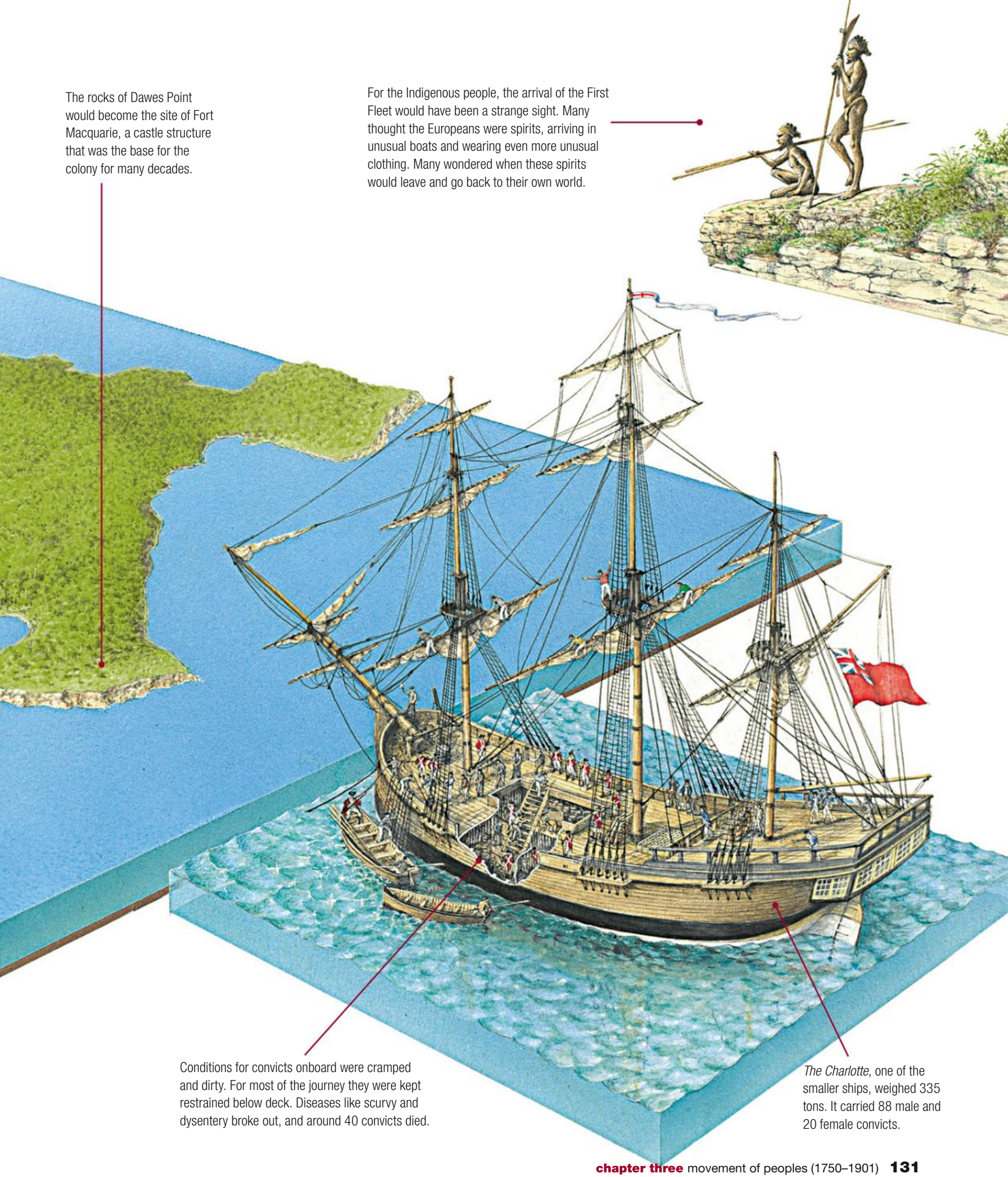


Unlike the original landing spot at Botany Bay that was abandoned, Sydney Cove had a ready supply of fresh water from the Tank Stream. This watercourse became little more than a sewer as the colony grew, and the marshland that fed it was drained in the 1850s. Today, it runs under Sydney's Central Business District as a storm drain.

A low-lying island near Sydney Cove, Bennelong Point, was cut off from the mainland at high tide. It was littered with the shells of thousands of oysters—an important source of food for the Indigenous people of the area. Colonists used it as a place to keep cattle, and eventually used the oyster shells to make lime for mortar. Today it is the site of the Sydney Opera House.

The flagship of the fleet, *HMS Sirius*, was commanded by John Hunter, and carried Captain Arthur Phillip, the first governor of the colony. The ship was wrecked two years later on Norfolk Island.

Source 3.24 An artist's impression of the arrival of the First Fleet in Sydney Cove



The rocks of Dawes Point would become the site of Fort Macquarie, a castle structure that was the base for the colony for many decades.

For the Indigenous people, the arrival of the First Fleet would have been a strange sight. Many thought the Europeans were spirits, arriving in unusual boats and wearing even more unusual clothing. Many wondered when these spirits would leave and go back to their own world.

Conditions for convicts onboard were cramped and dirty. For most of the journey they were kept restrained below deck. Diseases like scurvy and dysentery broke out, and around 40 convicts died.

The Charlotte, one of the smaller ships, weighed 335 tons. It carried 88 male and 20 female convicts.

Making a go of it

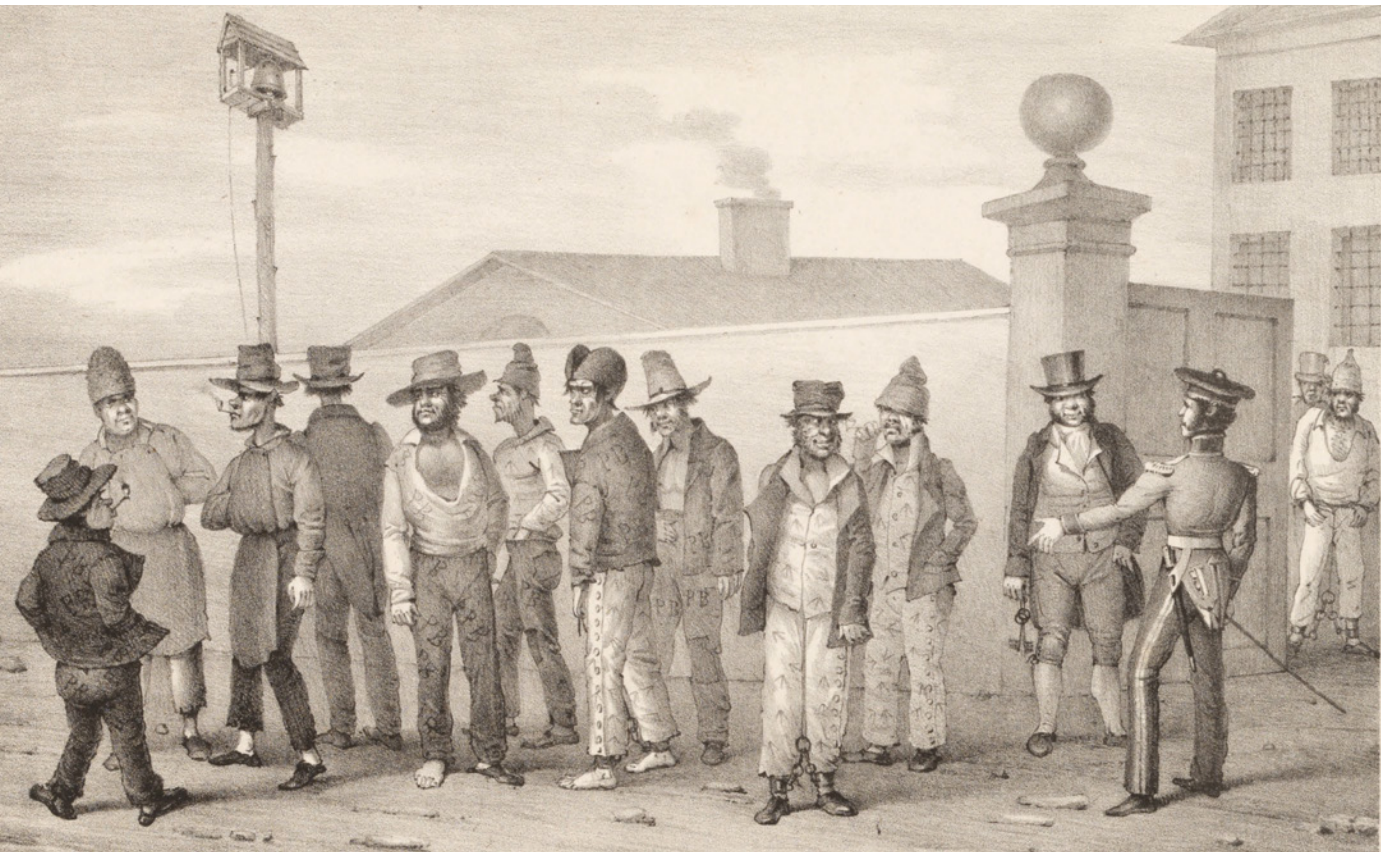
Once convicts arrived in Australia, their future was largely dependent on their attitude. For many, it was desperation to improve their life that led to them being transported. If they served their time, there were plenty of opportunities in a colony establishing itself on the other side of the world. Any skills such as building and food preparation ensured a bright future.

The experiences of convicts in Australia varied greatly. In the first decades in New South Wales, many convicts were housed in government barracks similar to prisons and were sent out daily, often in chain gangs, to build roads, bridges and houses. Others were assigned to free settlers to work on farms or to act as labourers in private businesses such as breweries, brickworks, saddleries or smithies. The treatment of assigned convicts depended on the nature of the master. Most were harsh and demanding, but some also showed compassion and fairness, teaching assigned convicts skills that would assist them once they had served their terms.

The majority of convicts played an important role in the development of this country. In most cases, their labour in the towns and on the farms went unnoticed or unacknowledged. However, some ex-convicts went on to take up significant positions in colonial society, and even to found **dynasties**.

Well-known ex-convicts included Francis Greenaway (architect), James Blackburn (engineer), William Bland (surgeon), John Davies (journalist and publisher), William Field (pastoralist and businessman), Simeon Lord (merchant and magistrate), Mary Reiby (businesswoman), Robert Sidaway (theatre organiser), Samuel Terry (merchant) and D'Arcy Wentworth (surgeon and pastoralist).

D'Arcy Wentworth was the father of William Charles Wentworth, one of the most significant figures in New South Wales society for much of the 19th century. There is some dispute as to whether D'Arcy should be described as a convict because he volunteered to go to Botany Bay before he was sentenced for highway robbery.



Source 3.25
A government jail gang in Sydney, 1830

examining**evidence**

Assigned convicts

The following sources relate to attitudes to assigned convicts. A range of sources and perspectives are presented. You should always check to see where the original source comes from. This is called the provenance of a source, and helps a historian make decisions about its usefulness for historical inquiry. It may also reveal potential **bias**. Establishing the provenance of a source is one of the most important steps for historians when they start their research.

Source 3.26

Mr Robert Arlack belonged to a class at that time ... who looked solely upon their assigned servants or government men as machines for getting money, and who, with this view worked them most unmercifully ... In fact, they considered convicts to be only a more expensive kind of labouring cattle ... they never thought of giving these unfortunate wretches a single ounce of any nourishment they could possibly avoid ...

Extract from *Ralph Rashleigh* by James Tucker, 1845 (reprinted in 1952 by Angus & Robertson)

Source 3.27

The overseer rises at day break, and rings a bell, which is affixed to a tree, as a signal for the men to proceed to their labour ... The bell is rung again at eight o'clock, when the men assemble for breakfast, for which they are allowed one hour; they again return to their labour till one o'clock, when they have an hour for dinner, and they afterwards labour from two till sunset.

Extract describing convicts' daily routine on Dunmore Station, from *An Historical and Statistical Account of New South Wales as a Penal Settlement and as a British Colony* by John Dunmore Lang, 2nd edn, 1837

Source 3.28

I am happy to inform you that I am now very comfortably situated within a mile of Hobart Town ... As to my living, I find it better than ever I expected, thank God, I want for nothing in that respect. As for tea and sugar, I could almost swim in it.

Extract from a letter by convict Richard Dillingham to his parents, in Harley Forster (ed.), *The Dillingham Convict Letters*, Cypress Books, 1970

Source 3.29

... transportation is not a single punishment, but rather a series of punishments, embracing every degree of human suffering, from the lowest consisting of a slight restraint upon the freedom of action, to the highest consisting of long and tedious torture ...

Extract from the *Report from the Select Committee of the House of Commons Committee on Transportation,* London, 1838. Quoted in SA Roberts, *The Squatting Age in Australia*, Melbourne University Press, 1964, pp. 16–17

Check your learning

1. What is the provenance of each source here?
2. What can you learn about the lives of assigned convicts from these sources?
3. How would you explain the range of attitudes and experiences?
4. What additional research would you have to do to gain a clearer picture of the treatment of assigned convicts?

Elizabeth Needham

Elizabeth Needham was sentenced to a term of transportation for seven years on 19 July 1786 at Middlesex Gaol. She travelled on the First Fleet, and was married to another convict within days of arriving. Both Elizabeth and her husband received land grants when their sentences expired. This was an approach designed to encourage convicts to remain in Australia and contribute to the building of a new society.

After her husband's death, Elizabeth took over the licence of the Wheatsheaf Inn as well as working as a seamstress. She married again in 1797 to another freed convict, and established a shop and licensed store. She retained control of her own money and invested in shipping. In 1810, she married another freed convict who had accumulated his own wealth. By the time she died in 1825, Elizabeth Needham had returned to England three times to visit, but chose to live her life in her new country.

Elizabeth Needham's story indicates the opportunities that existed for convicts in the new colony. Like Mary Reiby, who was also sent to Australia as a convict (and whose face is on the 20-dollar note) after her success in business, Elizabeth's story reveals that there was social and economic progress in convict Australia regardless of one's origins or gender.

Political prisoners

Crimes that could lead to transportation included bigamy (being married to more than one person at a time), stealing a shroud from a grave, receiving stolen goods, counterfeiting coins, secretly marrying, and cutting or burning clothes.

Another significant criminal category was that of political prisoners, those who criticised the king or opposed authority. **Luddites**, rioters who were against the use of machinery that caused the loss of jobs, could also be transported. Early trade unionists were also among those sent to the colonies. One such group, six men from the English village of Tolpuddle, was transported for seven years in 1834. However, the men became popular heroes and only two years into their sentence they were pardoned and returned to England. For their sacrifice they earned the title 'Tolpuddle Martyrs'.

Along with the Tolpuddle Martyrs were political activists like the Chartists. These political prisoners played a crucial role in the establishment of **representative democracy** in the Australian colonies as they developed.

Check your learning

1. When did the first convicts arrive in Australia?
2. What would the adjustment to life in Australia for convicts and their guards have been like when they first arrived?
3. Why did British authorities review the transportation process in 1801?
4. Who were the Tolpuddle Martyrs?

Source 3.30 Four of the six Tolpuddle Martyrs sentenced to seven years' transportation to New South Wales

Source 3.31 *The Emigrant's Farewell*, a painting by James Fagan, 1853, showing a family group of free settlers saying goodbye to loved ones before their departure

Free settlers

From the beginnings of European settlement in 1788, most people who have come to Australia have done so in search of a new and better life. Early settlers were pushed from their home countries by a combination of economic necessity, natural disasters, conflict and tension, but they have also been drawn to Australia by its promise. From the time of the First Fleet, free settlers, some wealthy but many from ordinary backgrounds, chose to come to Australia. They found ways of paying for the journey and establishing themselves in their new homes. In the early years of each colony, many of these people became the first landowners, establishing pastoral properties that were to form the basis of the country's thriving wool industry.

Assisted migration

Over the course of European colonisation and settlement of Australia, a great many migrants were assisted to emigrate. Even with the convict population providing a labour force in the early years, shortage of workers was a constant problem in the Australian colonies. There was also an idea that the colonies needed 'a better class of settler' and this led to the notion of assisting respectable immigrants. From the 1820s, a range of schemes was developed to attract and assist migrants who would be useful and productive citizens.

In 1822, the government of New South Wales began paying or subsidising the passage of settlers—this was called **assisted migration**. A government agent in London vetted single men and families to make sure that they had the qualities required in the new colonies. Youth was one of the desired attributes and most assisted migrants were under 30. People with skills were also given preference over the unskilled. The greatest demand was for workers with a background in agricultural work. There was also a need for workers in trades such as building, food processing, quarrying, road making and dock work. Some later complained that the agents were not honest about what migrants could expect in Australia, but most adjusted to their new life and many prospered.

By the 1830s, new colonies had been established in Tasmania, Western Australia, Port Phillip (Victoria) and South Australia. Labour shortages were a problem in all colonies, partly because land was cheap and settlers took advantage of the ability to become landowners. In Western Australia the first settlement on the Swan River had foundered for a number of reasons, including the low price of land. If a settler could become a landowner, he had no desire to work for someone else.

The colony of South Australia, established in 1836, was based on a plan developed by EG Wakefield. Land was to be sold at a higher price than in the other colonies and the money earned was to be used to bring out assisted migrants who would work for wages. One of the essential elements of the plan was that the colony should be for free settlers only and that there should be no convict labour. By 1835, enough land had been sold to finance migration to the colony. Between January 1836 and December 1840, over 9000 applications had been received and, by December 1840, almost 5000 immigrant labourers had arrived in South Australia. Among them were many Germans who settled in the Adelaide Hills and the Barossa Valley and pioneered South Australia's wine industry.

The colony of Port Phillip (later Victoria) was also established as a free colony. An attempt to set up a convict colony at Sorrento had been made in 1803, but the colony was quickly abandoned due to lack of water. When John Batman and John Pascoe Fawkner crossed from Tasmania in 1835 to establish Melbourne, the new colony was to be a free settlement. Some pastoralists who came to Port Phillip from Tasmania and New South Wales brought assigned convicts with them. There were also some gangs of convicts sent from Sydney to help with public works. But overall, the convict presence in the colony was minimal and Victoria, like South Australia, prides itself on being free of the convict stain.

In the late 1830s, a new program known as the Bounty Scheme was developed. The conditions varied from colony to colony but the general principles were the same. Landowners or business owners would pay the passage of a labourer or sometimes a whole family. In return, the migrant would work for the employer for two to five years, to pay back the cost of the journey. The landowner or employer would also receive a payment or bounty from the government. On a property or farm, the assisted migrant would be provided with food and lodging and sometimes a token income, till the passage was paid.

Costs of passage also varied but, in 1841, the price for a man and wife (both aged under 30) was 30 pounds, with 5 pounds for each child over one year of age. Between 1834 and 1850, approximately 70000 migrants came to Australia under some sort of assistance scheme. Roughly half were female. The majority of men listed their occupations as labourer or unskilled worker. Most women were farmhands or domestic workers.

focus on ...

perspectives: settlement of the Yorke Peninsula

After surveys of the area had been conducted in the 1840s, settlers applied for licences to run sheep on the Yorke Peninsula in South Australia. By the end of 1847, 23 applications had been made. By August 1849, 63 horses, 270 cattle, 50000 sheep and 106 were residents in the area, living on seven stations.

For these new settlers, this was a land to be opened up. Being the first settlers into a new area usually meant large areas of the best land to farm. The most attractive areas to white settlers were the open plains where sheep could graze, and near existing waterholes.

The Yorke Peninsula was also the traditional country of the Narungga people. Kangaroos, wallabies and emus grazed on the grasses of the clearer areas. The Narungga regularly fired the grasslands to maintain their health and continue to attract animals that were an important part of their diet. The wells and waterholes were under the supervision of various families for the benefit of all.

Source 3.32 A sheep farm on the Yorke Peninsula, South Australia

Typical of the settlement of the Australian frontier, there were two very different perspectives regarding the land of the Yorke Peninsula. To the Narungga, this was their home, a place where they had intimate knowledge and a connection as long as time. The four 'totem' groups of the Narungga were the Emu, the Red Kangaroo, Shark and Eaglehawk. This further emphasised the deep connection between the land and the people.

For the settlers, the land represented the opportunity for wealth. It was a resource that, if exploited correctly, could set a family up for life. That meant grasslands for sheep and cattle, and waterholes for animals and wells to support farms.

These different perspectives would translate into physical clashes right across the Australian frontier as European settlers moved into the new colonies.

Female immigrants

Both push and pull factors were at work in the range of programs involved in bringing female migrants to Australia. In the earliest years of each colony there was a marked gender imbalance. Men outnumbered women by up to four to one. Apart from convict women, most female migrants were the wives, daughters or sisters of male settlers. As the government and bounty schemes developed from the 1820s, there was a push to attract female free settlers to the colonies. As well as supplying much-needed labour as nannies, domestics, factory and farm workers, there was a belief that women would have a civilising influence on these raw colonial societies.

Source 3.33 A ship carrying poor needlewomen to Australia, from *The Illustrated London News*, 17 August 1850. There were no private cabins for assisted migrants.

One of many schemes in the 1830s was run by the London Emigration Committee. Even though wages for women were much lower than those for men, there was still high unemployment among women in Britain and few prospects for young, single girls. The idea of assisting women to emigrate seemed to meet the needs of Britain as well as those of the new colonies. The London Emigration scheme lasted for four years and was responsible for bringing nearly 3000 women to Sydney. In its advertising, the committee appealed in 1833 for 'unmarried women or widows; must be between the ages of 18 and 30 and must be of good health and character'.

Under another scheme developed after 1838, the Irish Poor Law Unions offered free passage to Australia for poor girls aged between 14 and 18 years. Young women, many of them orphans, were chosen from the workhouses. This scheme had the advantage of reducing the number of dependent young women in Ireland as well as providing a labour force for the Australian colonies. Unfortunately, little support was offered to these women when they arrived in the colonies.

There were only limited arrangements to accommodate the women on their arrival in Sydney. Many had no choice but to stay in cheap, unsuitable and often unsafe lodgings where they were vulnerable to all sorts of exploitation.

Gaining employment was also a lottery. Some gained domestic posts with families but many were 'employed' by single men including ex-convicts, who took advantage of them. Some of those who could not gain employment turned to theft or prostitution to survive.

Source 3.34 Many new arrivals ended up around The Rocks in Sydney.

focus on ...

empathy: Caroline Chisholm

Source 3.35 Caroline Chisholm

An improvement to the situation of immigrant women came with the arrival of Caroline Chisholm in 1838. Chisholm became aware of the appalling conditions in which many young women were living in The Rocks district of Sydney and took matters into her own hands. She began by appealing to Governor Gipps for a building in which to house immigrant women. Not put off by his initial refusal, she persisted and was eventually rewarded with the use of a large but rat-infested shed. Within months, this shed had become home to up to 100 young women. Over the next few years, Chisholm opened a further 16 hostels to house immigrant women and ease their transition to colonial life.

Caroline's work extended beyond housing. She taught skills to the immigrant girls and assisted them to find postings that were safe and adequately paid. Her care for them was recorded by Roger Therry in 1862. In some cases, when young women were to be employed on country properties and farms, she actually 'accompanied them to their places and left them there with an earnest admonition to the heads of each family to be careful of those whom she said she regarded as her children … '.

The gold rush

The discovery of gold in 1851 brought a new wave of free settlers, trebling the population of Australia in only 10 years. Although the gold migrants were still predominantly British, there was a broader range of nationalities, including Chinese, Germans, Italians and Americans. The new arrivals were also slightly better educated and many of them were more politically aware than earlier migrants. Chartists and those who had experienced the 1848 revolutions were among the gold seekers. The Eureka rebellion was partly about unfair practices and taxes on the goldfields but it also reflected growing concerns about political rights. It is suggested that the constitutions drawn up by the colonies in the 1850s were more democratic than they might have been had the Eureka rebellion not occurred.

The gold migrants made an enormous contribution to the economic development of Australia. The gold wealth, coupled with the efforts of pastoralists, small farmers, merchants, manufacturers, professionals and labourers, ensured that the period from 1860 to 1890 was a time of economic boom. In the later decades of the century, more migrants, some of them assisted but most paying their own way, poured into the Australian colonies. There was also a growing population of native-born Australians.

At the time of Federation in 1901, 2 908 303 people (77.2 per cent) counted in Australia were Australian-born and 857 576 (22.8 per cent) stated that they were born overseas. Of those, 679 159 were born in Britain, which was 18 per cent of the entire population. Of the 74 673 from other European countries, and 47 014 from Asia, the overwhelming majority had arrived in Australia in search of gold or a better life.

Source 3.36 Tom Roberts' *Coming South*, 1886

Check your learning

1. How old were most assisted migrants to Australia?
2. Who developed the plan to establish South Australia?
3. What was the Bounty Scheme?
4. What did Caroline Chisholm do?

bigideas

3.2 How did the movement of peoples affect the lives of slaves, convicts and free settlers?

Remember

1 What was the major product slave labour produced in the southern USA?

2 Where were convicts originally housed when they came to Australia?

3 Who was Elizabeth Needham?

4 How did Caroline Chisholm help immigrant women in Australia?

Understand

5 Explain why Europeans were not regarded as a suitable labour force for plantations in the Americas.

6 Who were the Luddites? Research the group and find out what their activities were.

7 Examine Source 3.23 (map of convict route to Australia). Describe the conditions in the different stopover locations on the way to Australia. What impact would this have had on the convicts below deck?

8 Explain how the Wakefield plan worked.

Apply

9 How do Sources 3.14 to 3.17 support the suggestion that slavery was a dehumanising experience?

10 How could convicts make a contribution to Australian society once they had finished their term?

11 Why was the Bounty Scheme important for Australia's development?

Analyse

12 How did people make money from the triangular trade?

13 Examine Source 3.21. Do you think this is an accurate depiction of new arrivals in Sydney in the 18th century? Explain your answer.

14 Examine Source 3.36. What evidence helps you decide whether this is a convict or free settler ship?

Evaluate

15 Could North America have developed without slavery?

16 In groups, discuss the suggestion that Australia benefited more from receiving convicts than Britain did removing them. As a class, discuss the evidence that allows you to come to a conclusion.

17 Were free settlers more important to Australia's development than convicts?

18 Examine Source 3.32. What perspective would European settlers have of the photo? What would be the perspective of the Narungga?

Create

19 Create a diary for a convict recording his or her journey to Australia in the late 18th century. Research conditions on the ships. Be aware that your level of literacy would have been low.

20 Develop a folio of evidence for and against the suggestion that convicts in Australia were lucky.

21 Research the experiences of women in colonial Australia and create an interview with a young woman who either:

a finds herself working in the city, or

b finds herself working on the rural frontier.

Source 3.37 Henry Burn, *Swanston Street from the Bridge*, Melbourne, 1861. Melbourne grew rapidly as a result of the gold rushes.

3.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?

The massive movements of peoples between 1750 and 1901 had significant impacts. In Australia, forced movement (convict transportation) and free settlement created a new nation by 1901. An apparently wild environment on the opposite side of the world had established a new nation without a war for independence. It organised a form of representative government, and created a prosperous agricultural industry. Cities developed, and towns were linked by railways and, eventually, roads for motor vehicles. The resistance of the Indigenous Australians was more pronounced than many early accounts recognised. Ultimately the advantages white Australians enjoyed were not shared with the Indigenous population, who suffered immensely from the movement of peoples to Australia.

In the USA it was a similar story. A larger country, and closer to Europe, it had used both convicts and slaves to help build the country. The importation of both was eventually stopped, but their labour was critical in establishing the original 13 colonies. As those colonies became the United States of America, they expanded westwards. Railways were again an early way of bringing settlements together, and again the Indigenous population was brushed aside as the new arrivals transformed the land.

Australia

Australia changed dramatically in the period between 1788 and 1918. It started as a tiny, struggling British colony on Sydney Harbour. By 1918 it was an independent nation mourning the enormous loss of life in foreign lands during World War I.

The main reason for this transformation was the arrival of people prepared to move here and help build a new nation. From the start, colonial Australia comprised people who were willing to do something different and make a go of their situation. This applied equally to convicts who were forced to come here, free settlers or diggers seeking gold.

Source 3.38 A view of Sydney *c.* 1800 by an unkown artist

It appears that most convicts chose not to return to Britain. The dramatic rise in native-born Australians during the 19th century supports this conclusion. If a convict was granted a conditional pardon, it meant they were not allowed to return to Britain. After transportation ended in 1868, there were sufficient settlers to allow Australian colonies to develop. The gold rushes marked the change in Australia where free settlers began to dominate.

The one group who suffered during this period were Indigenous Australians. The 19th century was the period of colonial expansion that destroyed their cultural links to the land. Indigenous Australians found themselves on the fringes of the new society, as their lives, values and traditional attachments were all swept aside by 'progress'.

Impact of convicts on Australia

Historians still debate the impact convict transportation had on the development of an Australian identity. It is argued that the original convicts had to be tough to survive the original jailing in Britain, journey to Australia and assignment on arrival. Once here, the old and weak died, and the lazy or angry clashed with authority, which would respond with floggings and forced labour on chain gangs. Those who survived and prospered were the ones who saw transportation as a fresh start. They developed their skills, used whatever education they had, and usually married.

This combined to give them a degree of respectability they could never dream of in Britain. Children born here were no longer the dregs of society—they were the start of a new society. Thus the Australian colonies became places of opportunity and social mobility. With so many sharing criminal backgrounds, being an ex-convict was less of a social stigma.

Impact of free immigration on Australia

Free immigrants have been coming to Australia since the time of the First Fleet. In the early years of New South Wales and Tasmania, free settlers were outnumbered by convicts. However, by the 1830s, the majority of settlers in the Australian colonies were either immigrants who had paid their own fares, or those who had been assisted. There was also a growing population of locally born children to both free settlers and convicts. By 1850, there were six colonial settlements, and the cities of Sydney, Hobart, Brisbane, Perth, Adelaide and Melbourne had all been established.

Free immigration also led to the emergence of **squatters**. These were settlers who moved into wilderness areas and laid claim to the land they used. It completely ignored Indigenous claims, and originally relied on landmarks to show boundaries. Farms were established near water sources, and sheep in particular became a major source of wealth. Successful squatters could become wealthy and move up the social ladder very quickly. By December 1837, sheep stations stretched for 1600 kilometres from southern Queensland into South Australia.

The farms of squatters developed rural Australia. In 1836, the New South Wales colonial government legitimised squatting by charging a pound an acre for the homestead lot. The squatter was then entitled to as much land as they could reasonably take possession of. Large landholdings developed, and wheat and wool became two crucial products that generated much of Australia's wealth. Modern rural Australia still reflects many of the settlement patterns and family histories of the squatter period.

Source 3.40 A painting from 1826, by Augustus Earle, entitled *A native family of New South Wales sitting down on an English settler's farm*

Source 3.41 An etching *c.* 1860, by Samuel Calvert, entitled *Natives attacking shepherd's hut*

Source 3.39 A painting by ST Gill showing an early squatter farming sheep

Impact of European settlement on Indigenous Australians

The settlement of Australia was always going to cause conflict with Indigenous Australians. Until the arrival of the British, most Indigenous Australians had led lives of continuity. Culture was based on links to each other and the land. The land sustained a population that was able to eat well. Indeed, when Bennelong, an Indigenous man captured by Governor Phillip, lived with the settlers, he struggled to live on their rations. A week's food for the colonists was barely enough for a day's meals for Bennelong.

For the Europeans, successful living was dependent on private ownership of land, cultivation of the soil, building houses and fences, and outward demonstrations of progress. Indigenous Australians had a totally different concept of landownership and use. They believed that they belonged to the land and that it was there to meet the needs of the whole community. There was no concept of private ownership or of demonstrating ownership with boundaries and fences. They had learned to live in harmony with the land and they had an elaborate culture and spirituality that gave meaning to their lives.

The early years of colonisation

Governor Phillip, the first governor of New South Wales, was instructed to treat the Aboriginal people kindly and to attempt to share with them all the 'benefits of white civilisation'. However, there was no mention of any recognition of their rights to the land. There was also little attempt, in any of the colonies, to understand Aboriginal society or culture. Well-meaning but misguided settlers, including Phillip, gave the Aborigines European food, clothing, alcohol and tobacco. Not only were these bad for their health but gradually the Indigenous people lost many of their hunting and food-gathering skills, which led to further disintegration of their culture.

One of the most devastating impacts of white colonisation was disease. Aborigines had no resistance to serious diseases such as smallpox and cholera. Even illnesses such as influenza, the common cold, measles and chicken pox could prove fatal. Sexually transmitted diseases and depression also severely affected the birth rate. Aborigines were dying in their thousands while the number of newborn babies was declining year by year.

In Port Phillip, an estimated Indigenous population of up to 30 000 at the time of settlement in 1835 had shrunk to between 3000 and 5000 by 1850. Apart from disease, the displacement of Aborigines from their land was a major cause of their decline. Aborigines appeared **nomadic** and showed no outward signs of possession. This led many settlers to believe that they could be moved from place to place with no negative consequences. As the pastoralists and their flocks moved across the Western District and Gippsland, Aborigines were simply driven off their traditional lands. This often resulted in clashes with other groups further out. Indigenous Australians responded in various ways. Some decided it was better and easier to accept their fate and become dependent on the white settlers. Others strongly resisted what they saw as invaders in their land. Robbed of their traditional game they speared sheep and cattle for food and some also attacked white property (see Source 3.41). These attacks often led to retaliation by white settlers.

Violence on the frontier

The whole question of the extent of violence towards Indigenous Australians is a complex one. It has caused considerable controversy among historians. Some argue that violence and massacres were widespread and others suggest that these claims have been exaggerated. It is difficult to get at the whole truth about many of these violent clashes because they took place in remote areas. Moreover, it was illegal to attack Aboriginal people. People found to have killed them could be tried for murder. Therefore, massacres were often denied or numbers were underreported.

Nevertheless, violent attacks on Aborigines certainly took place. Latrobe University historian Richard Broome has examined conflicting figures about Victorian massacres and suggests that around 1000 Aborigines in Victoria died as a result of white violence. Among these attacks were a series of massacres against the Kurnai people of Gippsland. Warrigal Creek, Boney Point and Butchers Creek were all scenes of violent killings of Aboriginal people.

Source 3.42 A plaque commemorating the massacre of Indigenous Australians by white settlers

At Warrigal Creek in 1843, hostilities began with a drunken attack by white settlers that resulted in the death of several of the Kurnai people. To avenge these deaths, the Kurnai killed Ronald Macallister, nephew of a powerful landholder in the district. In retaliation, a planned series of attacks was made on the Kurnai, resulting in many Aboriginal deaths. Estimates range between 60 and 150, but it is difficult to gain an accurate number. Rumours and even some drunken boasting about the massacre brought the event to the attention of the authorities. However, no one ever officially admitted to participating in or witnessing the massacres so no official action was ever taken.

At Myall Creek, New South Wales, in June 1838, 12 stockmen murdered 28 Aboriginal people, many of them women, children and the elderly. This event has two distinctions. It is one of the worst examples of a brutal and unprovoked attack on Aborigines. It is also the only case in which white men were found guilty and punished for violence against Aboriginal people. Seven men were convicted and hanged for the events at Myall Creek. It is also recorded by Broome that in Port Phillip (Victoria), 59 Aborigines were found guilty of killing white men. This figure is also contested, but even allowing for some inaccuracy it gives a clear message. There were considerably more Aborigines killed by whites than there were whites killed by Aborigines.

The gold rushes

By the time of the gold rushes, the numbers of Indigenous Australians in all colonies had severely declined. Disease, malnutrition, violence and a low birth rate had all taken their toll. It is estimated that the Indigenous population in 1850 was only about 10 per cent of the total at the time of settlement in 1788. There were gold-rush migrations to New South Wales and Victoria in the 1850s, and to Queensland and Western Australia later in the 19th century. New settlers continued to displace the remaining Aborigines from their land and their culture.

The gold rush was a mixed blessing for the remaining Aborigines. The departure of many stockmen to the goldfields meant that skilled Aborigines working on properties were now in greater demand. Most had been working for little or no pay before 1851. Following the discoveries of gold, some pastoralists actually began paying wages to Aborigines that were comparable to wages for white workers. However, the gold discoveries also meant the end of any chance of traditional living for many Aborigines in the areas where gold was discovered.

On goldfields from Victoria to Queensland, from the Northern Territory to the west, Indigenous Australians were exploited. Aboriginal guides were used by prospectors branching out into unsettled areas. Without the assistance of these guides, many Europeans would have become lost and died of thirst. However, they were poorly paid (often with tobacco or alcohol) and often exploited and abused by European goldminers. Aboriginal women in the gold areas were subject to sexual harassment. There are even stories of Aboriginal men and women being plied with alcohol so that their drunken antics would amuse the miners.

Source 3.43 *Australia—news from home*, an illustration by George Baxter, 1853, showing white settlers on the goldfields reading of home while two Aboriginal men look on

The situation at Federation

By 1900, there were few people of purely Aboriginal blood left in Australia. The majority of people of Aboriginal descent were living on reserves, protectorates or missions. In Queensland, the Northern Territory and Western Australia, some Aborigines were living between the two cultures—working on cattle properties but still camping around waterholes and living off the land. They were able to maintain some links to their traditional culture and way of life. There were also Aborigines living on the fringes of towns and cities. Many of them did not feel that they belonged to either culture.

Overall, the Indigenous people had poorer health, shorter life spans, lower educational levels and a greater likelihood of imprisonment than the white population of Australia. Their place on the margins of the newly formed nation was clearly illustrated through the Constitution. The new federal government was given no power to legislate over Aboriginal matters and Aborigines were not to be counted in the **census**. Moreover, under the Franchise Act of 1902, Aborigines, even those who had been able to vote before 1900, were denied the right to vote in federal elections.

The waves of immigration from 1788 had helped to make Australia one of the most prosperous, free and democratic nations on earth by 1900. Unfortunately, the country's original inhabitants were denied full participation in the benefits of this bountiful land.

Source 3.44 Blankets are distributed to Aborigines in New South Wales, *c.* 1888

focus on ...

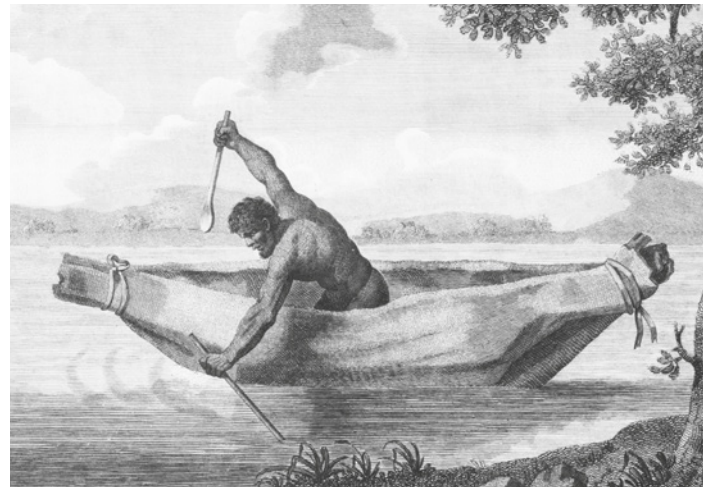
significance: Pemulwuy

Historians still debate how much resistance there was to white settlement by Indigenous Australians. There is no doubt that a Bidjigal man led significant resistance to the early British settlement in the region that is now Sydney. He has become known as Pemulwuy, but was also given other names and spellings by Europeans who were struggling to understand the Darug language.

Pemulwuy appears to have been born around 1750, and in 1790 speared Governor Phillip's gamekeeper, John McIntyre. When McIntyre died, Phillip sent an expedition to hunt Pemulwuy, but they found no trace of him. By 1792, Pemulwuy was leading resistance in the Parramatta area to the west of Sydney. He would often raid for food or in retaliation for ill-treatment of Indigenous Australians. In 1797, he led a raid on the government farm at Toongabbie. Settlers led a reprisal party that shot Pemulwuy seven times. He was captured and placed in hospital.

Despite a chain around his leg, he escaped, and was among a group of Aborigines who met the Governor's party at Botany Bay a month later. This helped create the legend that he could not be killed by bullets. Among Aboriginal people in the Sydney region, Pemulwuy became revered as the leader of resistance.

So effective was Pemulwuy's campaign that on 1 May 1801 Governor King issued an order that Aborigines near Parramatta, Georges River or Prospect could be shot on sight. In November,



Source 3.45 The only known illustration of Pemulwuy by Samuel Neele,

King outlawed Pemulwuy and offered a reward for his capture, dead or alive. The following year, Pemulwuy was shot dead. His head is supposed to have been removed and sent to Britain. This certainly occurred during the early years of British settlement. The return of Aboriginal remains to Australia has been an ongoing issue for British and Australian governments. The issue of the return of Pemulwuy's skull was raised in Federal Parliament in September 2011 by Christopher Pyne.

Check your learning

1. Why was it important for convicts to get married if they could?
2. How many colonial settlements were there by 1850?
3. When was squatting legitimised?
4. What attitude was Governor Phillip instructed to take towards the Aborigines?
5. How were Indigenous Australians regarded in the 1901 Federal Constitution?
6. Why is Pemulwuy important?
7. What problems does Pemulwuy's life and achievements present for historians?
8. Should Pemulwuy's skull be returned to Australia? What should happen to it if it is?

The USA

There were a number of similarities between the USA and Australia in the period of 1750–1901. Both were expanding from British colonies to become independent countries. As they expanded, there was confrontation with their Indigenous population. Frontier settlement meant conflict and, ultimately, dominance by the European population.

The settlement of the USA has fuelled a century of popular culture. The clash of 'cowboys and Indians' was a staple of films, television and comics in the 20th century. Like Australia, the USA was also changed by a series of gold rushes. It started a period of mass migration that transformed the country.

In 1800, the population of the USA was just over 5 million people. By 1920, this had grown to 106 million. This had been a massive movement of people, mainly from Europe. British transportation of convicts to North America had stopped in 1776, when the American colonies fought their War of Independence. The newly independent country became increasingly attractive to free settlers in the 19th century. Like Australia, it seemed a land of great promise at a time when the standard of living for many Europeans was affected by the Industrial Revolution.

Westward expansion

In the years after the War of Independence, immigrants to the USA poured out across the central plains in search of land and new opportunities. They travelled on foot or on horseback, by riverboat and barge or by horse-drawn vehicles. From the 1860s onwards, wagon trains carried settlers westwards. Cattle ranchers drove herds of cattle across the plains, and railways crossed the land carrying supplies to the west and bringing meat and other produce back east.

All this 'progress' took place at the expense of the Native Americans. On the central plains lived a number of Indigenous tribes, the largest of which was the Sioux. For all of the people of the plains, the buffalo was the lifeblood of existence. Every single part of the buffalo was used. There was no waste and a buffalo was only killed when the people were sure that it could be used in its entirety.

George Catlin spent a number of years in the 1830s travelling in the lands of the Sioux people. He recorded his observations in writings and paintings. Catlin wrote of the dependence on the buffalo (see Source 3.47).

Source 3.47

> *There are, by a fair calculation, more than 300 000 Indians, who are now subsisted on the flesh of the buffaloes, and by those animals supplied with all the luxuries of life ... The great variety of uses to which they convert the body and other parts of that animal, are almost incredible to the person who has not actually dwelt among these people, and closely studied their modes and customs. Every part of their flesh is converted into food. The [skins] are worn by the Indians ... The horns are shaped into ladles and spoons ... their bones are used for war clubs ... Their sinews are used for strings and backs to their bows ...*

Extract from *Letters and Notes on the Manners, Customs, and Condition of the North American Indians* by George Catlin, 1857

Source 3.46 *Buffalo Hunt* painted by Karl Bodmer, 1832–34

focus on ...

significance: Buffalo Bill (1846–1917)

Among the buffalo hunters was William Cody, widely known as Buffalo Bill. He is reputed to have shot more than 4000 buffalo in just two years. Cody served in the American army from 1868 to 1872, and then he began his touring Wild West Show.

Cody's attitudes towards the Native American people were complex and contradictory. While he was in the army, he scouted ahead to prepare for attacks on native people. However, he often assisted native peoples and even warned them of proposed attacks. In his Wild West Show he involved Native Americans and encouraged them to display their customs and skills. He is reported to have said of the natives, 'For centuries they have been hounded from the Atlantic to the Pacific and back again.'

It is also obvious from the many posters advertising the Wild West Show that Cody never used the term 'Indian' but always described the native people as 'American'. However, some historians have suggested that Cody exploited the Native Americans in his show, depicting them as aggressive towards the settlers. His performances included re-enactments of attacks on stage coaches, wagon trains and settlers' cabins, and generally presented the Native Americans as either aggressive or childlike and simple.

Source 3.48 Buffalo Bill in a studio portrait with Sitting Bull who was a part of his show

Destruction of the buffalo

One of the first casualties of westward expansion was the buffalo. It is estimated that in the early 19th century, there were upwards of 13 million buffalo on the plains. By the mid 1880s that number had shrunk to fewer than 1000. Many thousands of buffalo were shot in order to provide meat for the American army troops stationed in the west and for the crews building the Union Pacific Railroad. Many buffalo were also shot for sport, and their remains were left to rot where they fell. The loss of the traditional source of so many basic needs had a devastating impact on the native people of the plains.

One of the consequences of the destruction of the buffalo herds was that the plains people began attacking the cattle herds and white settlements in order to survive. This gave the colonists the excuses they wanted to attempt to move the remaining Native Americans into **reservations**.

The discovery of gold in the Black Hills of Dakota brought more settlers into the area. North Dakota was Sioux territory and the Sioux resisted settlers moving onto their land as long as possible. The famous Battle of the Little Bighorn was fought between the Sioux and the US army in 1876. Although the Sioux, with the help of the Cheyenne and Arapahos people, were victorious at Little Bighorn, the battle marked the end of their freedom. By the 1880s, most native peoples of the plains were confined to reservations.

focus on ...

significance: the Battle of Wounded Knee

The symbolic end to any idea that the Native Americans could continue their traditional life came with the Battle (or Massacre) of Wounded Knee in 1890. During the 1880s, a new movement called the Ghost Dance had spread among the remaining Sioux and other clans of the northern plains. They believed that the dance had a mystical power. It would take the people back to their traditional way of life before colonisation. The white settlers would be gone and the native flora and fauna would reappear. The ghost dancers wore brightly coloured shirts, which they believed would protect them from soldiers' bullets.

The white settlers were disturbed by this dance and asked for protection. On 28 December 1890, on the banks of Wounded Knee Creek, the army opened fire on the Sioux camped there. At least 300 Sioux men women and children died. Twenty-five soldiers also perished.

By the turn of the 20th century, the vast majority of Native Americans were living on government reservations. Here they were dependent on handouts and for many there was a loss of pride and self-esteem. They were encouraged to forget their traditional culture and customs, and assimilate into the white American way of life.

Source 3.49 *Ration Day at the Reservation*, by Joseph Sharp, 1919, depicting Native Americans applying for rations at the Government Agency

Check your learning

1. Why were the buffalo herds destroyed in the 19th century?
2. What are the positive and negative attitudes William Cody held towards Native Americans?
3. What would Native Americans have thought of Cody's hunting of buffalo?
4. Which tribe lost their lands when gold was discovered in Dakota?
5. What was the last major battle between Native Americans and soldiers in the 19th century?
6. What was the Ghost Dance?

White settlement

The settling of the west became an important part of America's understanding of itself as a nation. It became accepted that white settlers had a manifest destiny to settle the land of the Native Americans. This meant that they were following God's plan by expanding westwards. They believed it was their destiny as a people to settle the entire continent of North America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast.

Land Run of 1889

An example of the white attitude to Native American land was the Land Run of 1889. After lands in Oklahoma Territory had been purchased from Native American tribes, President Harrison authorised the opening of 2 million acres. Over 100 000 prospective settlers lined up to stake a claim for land. At a signal from the army, this huge line of people dashed across the countryside to try and claim pieces of land to establish farms.

This happened so quickly that Oklahoma City and the cities of Norman and Guthrie literally sprang up in a day. Small landholdings became farms,

Source 3.50 Oklahoma City in 1889

and Native Americans gave up all rights to lands that white settlers could use. This process was repeated over the next four years, as millions more acres were granted to the ever-expanding demands of white settlement.

Colorado—the 'Centennial State'

The story of Colorado is typical of the settling of the American West. It was home to a range of Native American tribal groups. They often followed different ways of life, with the Pueblo people living a settled life in cliff dwellings, while the Comanche, Arapaho and Cheyenne were more plains-style **nomads** who were forced out of the area.

The massacre at Sand Creek in 1864 was a turning point in the way white Americans started to regard Native Americans. A large number of Cheyenne and Arapaho women and children were massacred by the US army. This was initially portrayed as a heroic victory, but investigations revealed the brutality of the soldiers.

The discovery of gold was the key to the rapid expansion of Colorado. The Rocky Mountains proved to be the source of rich goldfields. In 1858, the Pike's Peak gold rush brought prospectors flocking to the region. Cattle ranchers followed the miners, which again led to the displacement of the Native American tribes. With an increasing population, Colorado was proclaimed a state by President Ulysses Grant in 1876. As this occurred shortly after the celebrations for the centenary of American independence, it has become known as the Centennial State.

Check your learning

1. In your own words, define Manifest Destiny.
2. How many settlers lined up for the 1889 Land Run?
3. Why is Colorado called the Centennial State?
4. Which tribal groups were forced off the land in Colorado?

Source 3.51 Denver, capital of Colorado in the early 20th century

Impact of slavery

From the 16th to the 19th centuries, an estimated 12 million Africans were shipped as slaves to the Americas. The USA became the destination for 645 000 of these Africans who had literally been stolen from their homes. Slavery became limited to the southern states by the 19th century. As campaigners started to question the morality of the entire concept of slavery, it became an increasingly divisive issue in the USA.

Civil War

By 1860, the USA was divided over the issue of slavery. In the 1860 presidential election, Abraham Lincoln was elected on a platform of preserving the unity of the nation. He set out his vision in his famous 'House Divided' speech (see Source 3.52).

Source 3.52

> *A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure, permanently, half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved—I do not expect the house to fall—but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction; or its advocates will push it forward, till it shall become alike lawful in all the States, old as well as new—North as well as South.*
>
> Abraham Lincoln, in a speech delivered in 1858

Source 3.53 An artist's impression of one of the bloody battles of the American Civil War

Lincoln's election led to the secession (withdrawal) of 11 southern slave states. They created a new nation, the Confederate States of America. The southern army fired the first shots of the civil war on 12 April 1861. The war was fought bitterly for four years. It tore the nation apart, often dividing friends and families as well as armies and leaders. In 1863, President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation freeing all slaves in the Confederate states. When the war ended in April 1865, slaves in the middle states, which had not seceded, were also freed.

The freed slaves

The Civil War brought slavery to an end but it did not lead to equality for the descendants of those kidnapped from the African coast hundreds of years earlier. The responses of slaves to the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863 depended to some degree on their circumstances and age. Some left their masters immediately and took to the roads, usually heading north. Often they did not get far and it was not long before makeshift camps developed on the edges of southern towns and cities. A few of the ex-slaves damaged property and looted plantation mansions before they left. One group of slaves on a plantation in Mississippi drove the master out and began farming the land themselves. Nearly 200 000 African Americans, most of them former slaves, joined the northern army when they were allowed to, after 1863.

In some cases, ex-slaves rented parts of former plantations and began to cultivate the land themselves. However, many older slaves and those who had not been treated badly by their masters chose to remain. This was sometimes out of a genuine belief that they were better off staying put, but often because they did not know where to go or how to fend for themselves (see Source 3.54).

Source 3.54

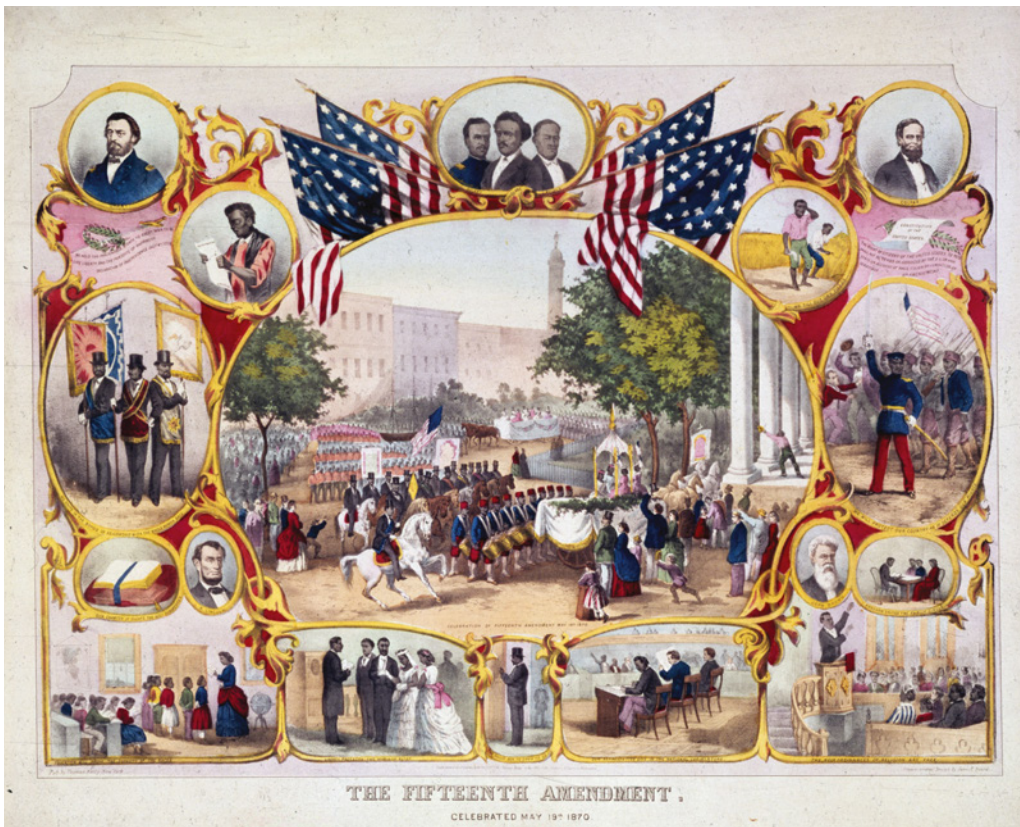
> *Slavery was better for some of us. Had no responsibility; just work, eat, sleep. Slaves prayed for freedom, got it and didn't know what to do with it. Slavery was a bad thing. But the freedom they got, with nothing to live on, that was bad too.*
>
> *I've been working for white folks washing and cooking, ever since freedom came.*

Extracts from an interview with Patsy Mitchner, a former slave who was interviewed in 1937 at the age of age 84

Reconstruction

The years immediately after the Civil War were known as the Reconstruction period. Between 1865 and 1870, a series of laws and arrangements brought all the rebel states back into the USA. Congress also passed several amendments that were supposed to ensure the future security of the former slaves. The most important of these was the 15th Amendment, which stated that no one could be denied the right to vote 'on account of race, colour or previous condition of servitude'.

Many ex-slaves took advantage of this and used their vote to elect black politicians or whites known to be sympathetic to their cause. In South Carolina by 1877, the majority of members of the lower house were former slaves.



Source 3.55 A poster celebrating the passing of the 15th Amendment in 1870

The Jim Crow years

This situation was not to last. As the northerners gradually withdrew from overseeing Reconstruction during the 1870s, southern state governments began to undo many of the changes. It was also at this time that the racist organisation Ku Klux Klan developed. By 1900, many black southerners lived in what was described as 'a state worse than slavery'. Various tricks and methods of intimidation were used to stop African Americans from using their vote. The dates and venues of polling stations would be changed at the last minute and only white voters would be notified; voters could be denied the vote on the basis of literacy or length of residency. Segregation (separation of racial groups) was also widespread across the south and in some areas of the north. Schools, churches, shops, transport, neighbourhoods and public parks were all strictly divided between whites and blacks. In theory they were 'separate but equal' but in reality the white facilities were always superior. The laws relating to segregation became known as Jim Crow laws. Jim Crow was a black character in a well-known minstrel song of the late 19th century.

Source 3.56

> *The theories of race held by most white southerners, which had led them to establish 'Jim Crow' practices in secular life, made it next to impossible for them to welcome Negroes into their church congregations. And the relatively small percentage of whites [who accepted blacks in their congregations] were willing to do so only on condition that such members would continue to sit in the galleries formerly reserved for slaves, and not take part in the church's social or business affairs.*
>
> Extract from *The Negro in America*, Arnold Rose, Harper, 1948

Despite their low social position, by the end of the 19th century, African Americans were probably more important to the American economy than they had been in the slavery era. They provided much of the unskilled and semi-skilled labour force, and in most cases their pay was lower and their conditions poorer than for white workers. Even though they had access to poorer education and fewer opportunities, there were some outstanding black Americans who played leading roles in medicine, business, writing, invention and music.

Some key African American figures of this period include Dr Daniel Williams (surgeon), Frances Harper (poet and writer), Jan Matzeliger (inventor of a shoe-making machine), Ida B Wells (journalist and newspaper editor), Dr WEB Dubois (historian and sociologist) and Mary McLeod Bethune (teacher).

The consequences of migration and resettlement for the descendants of African slaves are difficult to assess. The experiences of the original slaves brought from Africa were almost always negative. Over the decades, most descendants of the transported slaves also suffered physical and emotional damage, even after emancipation in 1863. Nevertheless, their contribution to the nation that became their home was significant, economically and culturally. By the turn of the 20th century, the movements that would see black Americans strive for equality were beginning. For many black Americans, they felt their journey to full acceptance was symbolised by the election of Barack Obama as the 44th President of the USA in 2008.

Source 3.57 Members of the Ku Klux Klan at a secret meeting in the early 20 century

Check your learning

1. How many slaves were shipped to the USA?
2. What was the Emancipation Proclamation?
3. Who was Jim Crow?
4. Who was the 44th President of the USA?

bigideas

3.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?

Remember

1 What could happen to convicts who resisted authority?

2 How much did the New South Wales government charge squatters for homestead land in 1836?

3 How much did the population of the USA grow between 1800 and 1920?

4 What was the 15th Amendment to the US Constitution?

Understand

5 Why did many convicts not return to Britain when they finished their term?

6 Why was the buffalo so important for the Native Americans of the plains?

7 Why did segregation continue after the Civil War?

Apply

8 Examine Source 3.49. What are the arguments for and against placing Native Americans on reservations?

9 What would be valid arguments to convince the American Congress to make Colorado a state?

Analyse

10 How did Australia change in the 19th century?

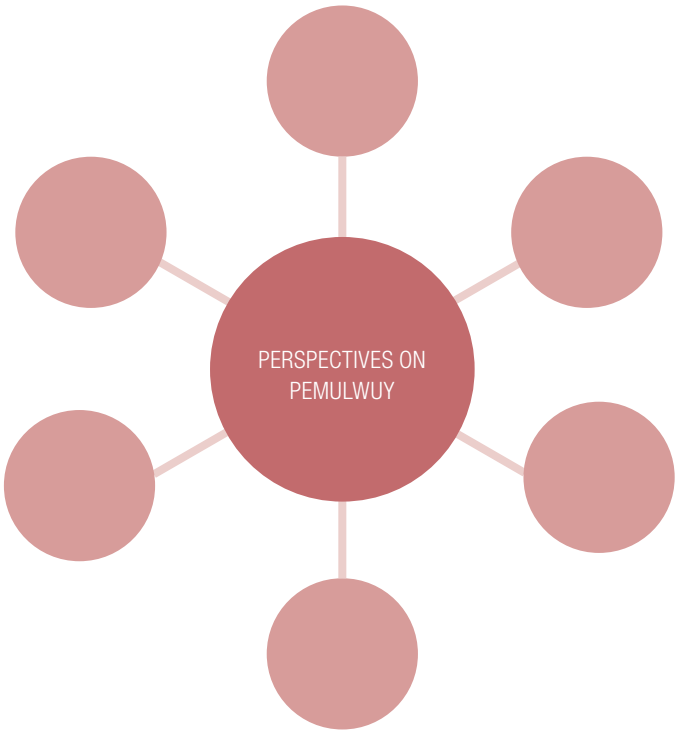
11 Research the Ku Klux Klan. What do their aims tell you about the conditions under which former slaves lived at the end of the 19th century in the southern USA?

12 Research the Battle of Sand Creek in 1864. How should it be commemorated?

Evaluate

13 Is there enough evidence to suggest Indigenous Australians resisted the spread of Europeans?

14 In your notebook, recreate the graphic organiser below to record the different perspectives people could hold about Pemulwuy. Do you think there is one perspective that is more accurate than any other?



15 Reread Source 3.54. Could slaves be better off as slaves than as free men and women?

Create

16 Create a before-and-after collage that shows the changes in the area where you live during the 19th century.

17 Create a memorial for Pemulwuy that celebrates his achievements.

connecting**ideas**

Is there slavery in the 21st century?

In the 19th century, political and ethical concerns helped to bring about the end of the slave trade. People rejected the idea that it was acceptable to force people to work against their will or to transport them for that purpose. There is, however, still slavery in the world today—even though it is no longer officially endorsed. Instead, people are enslaved illegally by individuals and criminal gangs in both poor 'developing' countries and rich 'developed' countries such as the USA, Britain and Australia. Modern-day victims find themselves in a foreign environment, trapped as slaves or as very poorly paid domestic or factory workers in sweatshops.

Source 3.59 In Managua, Nicaragua, 30 000 workers are employed in 'Maquilas'—textile factories that are all foreign owned by Mexican, American and Taiwanese firms.

Source 3.58 Amnesty International activists protesting against human trafficking on 7 March 2008.

Human trafficking

Human trafficking is the illegal trade and exploitation of men, women and children. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), there are at least 12 million people trapped in conditions of forced labour through human trafficking. Some people may have been bought (or kidnapped) outright as slaves, or they will have been lured into 'debt labour'—the exchange of labour over a period of years in exchange for the opportunity to live in a better country. The kinds of work these people do ranges from factory or farm work to forced prostitution. Victims are usually held against their will once they arrive in their new 'homes' and are forced to do whatever the traffickers (or the people they have been sold to) demand. It is a very difficult situation to get out of, and because the victims have sometimes moved to another country or region illegally, they cannot receive any help from police or government agencies.

1 In your own words, define human trafficking.

2 What do you think are some reasons why people who have been enslaved cannot just leave?

Sweatshop labour

The global nature of business today has also seen a different kind of 'slavery' emerge. Although some international companies have improved employment opportunities for some people in developing countries, many pay very low wages and do not provide safe working conditions. For example, in some Asian, South American and African countries, adults and children are frequently used in factories known as 'sweatshops' to produce goods (such as clothing and sporting equipment) for Western markets. The work is hard and sometimes dangerous. The hours are long, and frequently workers never have a day off. The workers are paid far less than they would be paid if they were working in a country such as Australia. Some are virtual slaves because they cannot get out of the trap of working every day for long hours. There are also sweatshops, usually in the clothing industry, in developed countries such as Australia.

1 Why do you think factories like this are called sweatshops?

2 Explain why you think people are willing to work in sweatshops.

Source 3.60 Hundreds of UNITE protesters rally on 7 August 2001 in New York City.

Combating human exploitation in the 21st century

Thankfully, there are organisations such as the ILO and World Vision Australia who keep the public and governments informed about human trafficking and slavery, and campaign to bring an end to these practices. Some governments are also working to get rid of slavery within their own countries. For example, in 2000, Brazil began its 'National Pact to Eradicate Slave Labour in Brazil'. This successful pact between government and businesses ensures that businesses will not use slave labour or buy or sell products that have been made with slave labour.

No Sweat is an international organisation dedicated to exposing sweatshops not only in developing countries, but also within developed countries such as Britain, Australia and the USA. Consumers can make sure they are not contributing to the exploitation of workers by purchasing items with the 'No Sweat' label. Similarly, UNITE (Union of Needletrades Industrial and Textile Employees) is seeking to make clothing manufacturers more accountable for the conditions in which their clothing is produced.

1 If you could get a great new shirt for $10, knowing that it was made in a sweatshop, would you buy it? Why or why not?

2 What can businesses and individuals do to make sure that they are not encouraging modern-day slavery?

Q Take on the role of a teenager who works in a sweatshop. Write a short story in the first person describing a day in your life. You may want to go online to find out more about sweatshops before you write.

depth study

Australia and Asia

In this depth study, students will investigate the history of Australia or an Asian society from 1750 to 1918.

Students choose ONE of the following depth study options:

- Asia and the world [**obook** only]
- 4.0 Making a nation

A modern-day Chinese New Year parade along Little Bourke Street in Melbourne's Chinatown

MASK
CHINA

depth study option

Making a nation

A nation is a centrally governed country in which there is a sense of unity and belonging. Nations usually share common territory and language. Their people tend to have a common background, shared culture and values, and united aspirations about the future. Naturally, not all members of a nation have everything in common, but there is usually a dominant set of characteristics shared by a majority of the population.

Nations form and develop in a variety of ways. Some, such as Britain, have evolved over more than a thousand years. Others, like Italy and Germany, were formed through the joining of states and territories, as a result of treaties and wars. They both became nations in 1871. Some nations such as Indonesia and India were formed as a result of decolonisation. Colonial powers withdrew from these areas during the 20th century, allowing them to become independent nations.

The Australian nation was formed peacefully from the six separate colonies that had been established on the Australian mainland in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. These colonies joined together as a result of a positive vote from a majority of the people in each colony. In 1901, the Australian nation was created.

Key inquiry questions

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

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

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

Rock art of ship, Nanguluwur Cave, Nourlangie, Kakadu, NT, Australia

4

bigpicture

Making a nation

The story of Australia's progress from convict dumping ground to democratic nation is a dramatic and exciting one. The six colonies were all settled separately from England. They shared many common characteristics—culture, language, diet, political systems and religion. They also had a similar lack of recognition for the rights of the original inhabitants of the country.

During the second half of the 19th century, the colonists became increasingly aware of what they shared. The idea of nationhood began to grow. In the last decade of the century, a series of conventions and gatherings led to the development of the Australian Federal Constitution. On 1 January 1901, the first Australian Parliament was opened at the Exhibition Building in Melbourne.

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

1788
New South Wales: first settlement at Sydney Cove

1824
Queensland: Moreton Bay convict settlement

1829
Western Australia: Swan River colony

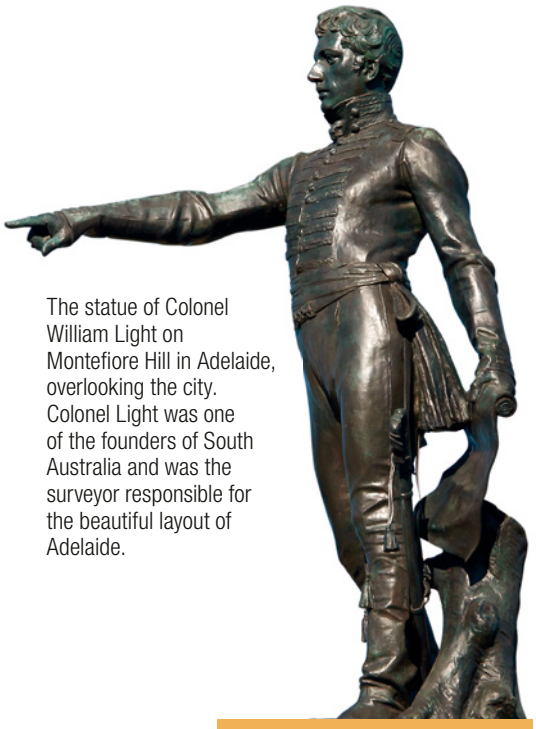
CE

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

A cottage in early Hobart, 1806

1813
Crossing of the Blue Mountains, New South Wales

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



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

Children at work in the Berrys Creek school, Victoria, in the 1890s

1872
Free compulsory and secular education

1836
South Australia: settlement of Adelaide

1838
Myall Creek massacre, New South Wales

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

1851
Start of the Australian gold rush

1856
Eight-hour day

1889
Henry Parkes' Tenterfield Address

1901
Federation: Commonwealth of Australia proclaimed on 1 January

1907
Harvester Judgement

Zealous Diggers at Bendigo, painting by ST Gill, 1854

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

Source 4.1 A timeline of key events in the development of Australia

Source 4.2 An artist's impression of the view at the Swan River Colony in Western Australia

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

The six colonies established in Australia in the 18th and early 19th centuries were established for a combination of reasons. Those who established colonies in Australia were motivated by a desire for land, wealth and freedom. Initially, Sydney and Hobart were ***penal colonies****, but as time passed, many more free settlers were attracted to the opportunities offered by the Australian colonies. As European settlers spread across the country, few of them recognised or were prepared to acknowledge that the country was already populated.*

Indigenous people before colonisation

When the first European settlement was made at Sydney Cove in 1788, there was no official recognition that the country was inhabited, even though Captain James Cook, who had claimed the land in 1770, had made many references to the Indigenous people in his journals. Cook wrote of the Indigenous people: 'These people may truly be said to be in the pure state of nature, and may appear to some to be the most wretched upon Earth; but in reality they are far happier than we Europeans.'

The concept of ***terra nullius***, which means 'land belonging to no one', underpinned the settlement of all of the Australian colonies. It was used by Governor Bourke of New South Wales on 10 October 1835. He did this in response to John Batman's claim that he had bought land from the Aborigines around Port Phillip Bay in Victoria. Bourke argued that as the Aborigines did not own the land, they could not sell it. There was a general belief that because the Indigenous people did not appear to have a concept of landownership or use, they had no rights to the land. They did not fence the land, farm it or build on it.

However, the Aborigines had a very strong bond with the land, which was the source of all of their physical, social and spiritual needs. Because they had a concept of shared landownership, they saw no necessity to fence off certain areas or to show possession through the building of permanent structures.

The establishment of colonies in Australia

The Australian colonies were established for a range of reasons. One was to provide a place of punishment for many of the convicts who were crowding Britain's jails. The colonies further offered the opportunity for poor people from Britain to begin a new life and even acquire land. The colonies were also a great source of wealth and raw materials for British government and industry. They provided timber and flax for shipbuilding, and wool, minerals and grains later on.

Underlying the whole colonial experience was a strong acceptance of the idea that British values and achievements were superior to those of any other peoples. This belief allowed the British, along with other Europeans, to believe they had both a right and an obligation to take control of other countries or territories, without regard to the Indigenous peoples.

The process of European settlement of Australia was gradual. Changing conditions in Britain led to the first permanent European settlement in New South Wales in 1788—a convict colony at Sydney Cove. Over the next century, settlers followed explorers, convict societies were replaced by free settlements, and locally born children were joined by waves of new immigrants.

James Cook

In the late 18th century, the British looked at the southern land with interest. James Cook, a highly capable navigator, was appointed commander of a ship called the *Endeavour*. He was instructed to sail to New Holland (as Australia was then called) and investigate the plants, animals, available natural resources and the native population. He was ordered to befriend the Indigenous people and take possession of the land for Britain.

Cook claimed the east coast of Australia in the name of Britain, and brought back to Britain favourable reports of the soil and climate. He gave mixed reports of the Indigenous people. He was generally sympathetic, without ever acknowledging that they had any claim to the land.

Source 4.3

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

The decision to settle Botany Bay

One of the places where Cook had landed was Botany Bay, just south of Sydney Harbour. Britain decided to establish a penal colony there. Factors that contributed to this decision included the following:

The **Industrial Revolution** and widespread crop failures meant that many people in Britain had moved to the towns and cities seeking work. Some of those unable to find work turned to crime to survive.

Before the American Revolution, some British prisoners had been transported to the American colonies, but after the Declaration of Independence in 1776, this was no longer possible.

Norfolk Island, although over 1200 kilometres off the coast of New South Wales, was a valuable source of hard timber that was suitable for ships' masts and flax used for making sails.

Because of the overcrowding in British jails, many convicts, guilty mainly of petty theft, were imprisoned on rotting ships called 'hulks' (see Source 4.4). The increasing numbers of convicts soon made the prison hulks extremely crowded and full of disease. The Government feared that those diseases would spread to the general public.

Britain wanted to maintain its role as the leading seafaring and colonial nation. Having a colony in the 'Great South Land' was a good way to secure this position.

Source 4.4 Prison hulks on the Thames River, London, 1805. These hulks were usually old naval ships that were no longer seaworthy.

Source 4.5 An oil painting depicting the arrival of the First Fleet

The First Fleet

The First Fleet, comprising 11 ships, sailed from the English town of Portsmouth on 13 May 1787. Despite poor weather, the fleet finally arrived at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788. However, the area was declared unsuitable for settlement. The fleet sailed on to Sydney Cove, landing on 26 January. The fleet's commander, Captain Arthur Phillip, became the first governor of the first Australian colony, New South Wales.

The voyage

The First Fleet consisted of two warships, six convict ships and three supply ships. On board were naval officers, four companies of marines for protection, administrators and their families, and male and female convicts. The fleet was comparatively well-stocked, and three stops were scheduled to take on fresh supplies. The journey took eight months to arrive in Sydney from England.

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

Source 4.6 Captain Arthur Phillip

Although he was aware of the poor conditions in which convicts were housed, Captain Arthur Phillip was concerned for their health. They were allowed on deck regularly to wash and breathe fresh air, and were regularly checked by a medical officer. Convicts were given full rations, although only around a litre of water a day was available per person. The First Fleet convicts arrived in Australia with a surprisingly low death toll.

The Second Fleet arrived in Sydney in 1790. It had left England with 1000 convicts on three ships—half the number of ships than there had been in the First Fleet. Conditions on board were horribly different to those on the First Fleet. The Second Fleet was run by a firm of **slavers** (people engaged in the slave trade) who said they would deliver the convicts to Australia for a fixed sum, whether they survived or not. Two hundred and sixty-seven convicts died on the voyage. Many convicts were not given their full rations of food; the surplus was sold on arrival in Sydney and the profits were kept by the company. Four hundred and eighty convicts had become dangerously ill from scurvy, dysentery and fever, and many could not stand or walk to shore without help. One convict ship in the Fleet had suffered a 30 per cent mortality rate, the highest of any convict transport ship ever to make the journey to Australia.

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

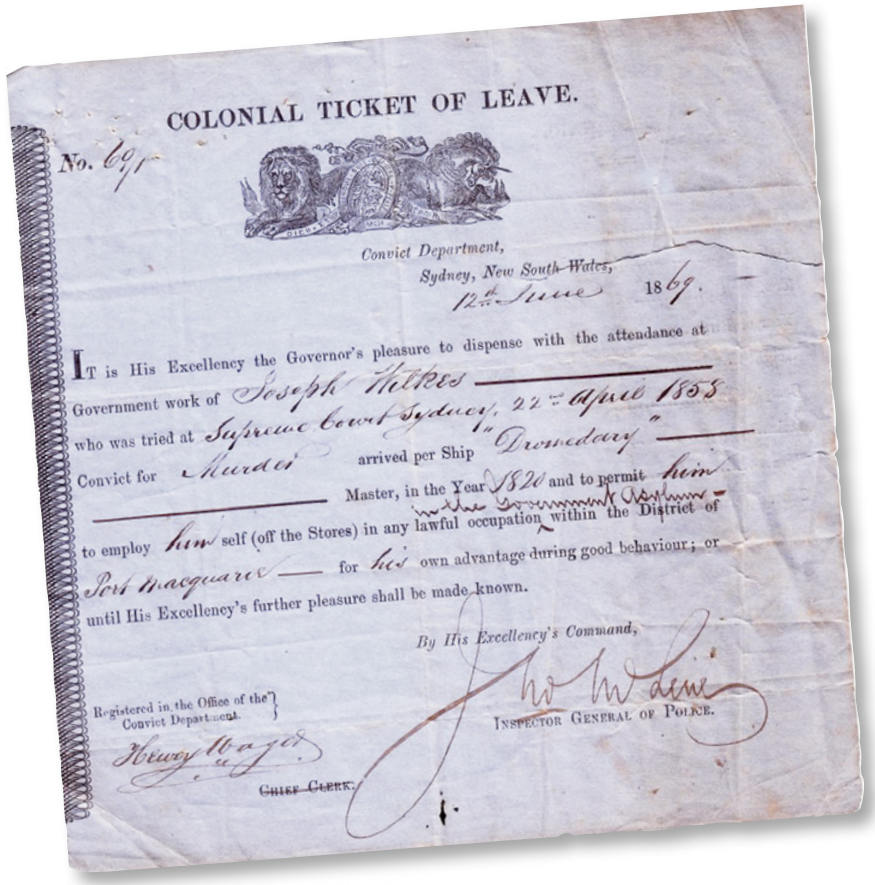
The authorities were horrified by the poor treatment of the convicts on the Second Fleet. An inquest in England held the ships' masters and surgeons responsible. By 1801, a review of the transportation of convicts had put regulations in place. A limit of two transportations a year was set. They were also timed to avoid dangerous winters in the southern hemisphere. Surgeon superintendents were required on all ships and were responsible for the health of the convicts. Bonuses were paid to the shipping companies for the safe delivery of convicts to the colony.

Convict life

Convicts were transported to the eastern colonies from 1788 until 1850. In 1850, transportation was introduced to Western Australia and continued there until 1868. Even after the end of transportation, there were still many convicts and ex-convicts in the population.

Arrangements for the life and work of convicts varied according to the area and the time. In the early years, most convicts worked on vital public works, such as roads and buildings. Some convicts were assigned as unpaid servants to farmers and townspeople. The governor decided the servants' food and clothing rations. By the 1820s, the majority of convicts in New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land worked for private employers, including people who themselves had once been convicts.

In 1801, Governor King introduced the 'ticket of leave' system. Good behaviour was rewarded with a pass, which allowed prisoners to choose their employers and to work for wages. Occasionally, heroic acts were



COLONIAL TICKET OF LEAVE.

No. 691

Convict Department,
Sydney, New South Wales,
12th June 1869.

IT is His Excellency the Governor's pleasure to dispense with the attendance at Government work of Joseph Hilkes who was tried at Supreme Court Sydney, 22nd April 1853 Convict for Murder arrived per Ship "Dromedary" Master, in the Year 1820 and to permit him in the Government Asylum to employ himself (off the Stores) in any lawful occupation within the District of Port Macquarie for his own advantage during good behaviour; or until His Excellency's further pleasure shall be made known.

By His Excellency's Command,

Registered in the Office of the Convict Department.

Henry Major
CHIEF CLERK.

INSPECTOR GENERAL OF POLICE.

Source 4.7 A ticket of leave—these were given to well-behaved convicts.

rewarded with an absolute or conditional pardon. Some of these ticket-of-leave convicts, such as Mary Reiby, went on to become prosperous and influential citizens.

Punishments for offences committed after transportation were severe. Drunkenness and refusing to work could result in a flogging. Those considered to be the worst offenders, incapable of rehabilitation, were sent to Norfolk Island, about 1000 kilometres off the coast of New South Wales, or to Port Arthur in Van Diemen's Land. The regimes in these places were particularly brutal. Here, solitary confinement and hard labour on a chain gang (prisoners who performed manual labour while chained together) were the norm.

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

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

The convict legacy

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

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

Check your learning

1. How do you explain the different survival rate between the First and Second fleets?
2. Identify the contributions made by convicts to the development of the colonies.
3. What was the main purpose of convict settlements at places such as Norfolk Island and Port Arthur?

The Australian colonies

New South Wales

Captain Phillip stayed almost five years in the colony. Although Phillip answered to the British government, he was, in effect, the ruler of the colony. His chief achievement was the survival of the colony and the establishment of Sydney and Parramatta. He was known to be a humane leader, and this extended to his relations with the Aboriginal people of the Sydney area, the Cadigal and Wangal Wangal peoples. It was Governor Phillip who named the suburb of Manly after the strong and manly Aborigines that he met in that area across the Harbour.

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

The spread of settlement in New South Wales

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

By the 1830s, although there was still plenty of convict and ex-convict labour, there was a growing move to bring out free settlers who could form a labouring class but eventually become landowners. In 1831, a 'bounty' immigration policy was introduced. Under this scheme, potential employers in the colony were able to choose British workers. The workers were then assisted with the cost of their passage. In return, the assisted settlers (often whole families) would guarantee to work for their patrons for two to three years. Many assisted immigrants went on to become influential citizens in the colonies. One was Henry (later Sir Henry) Parkes, a Premier of New South Wales and one of the leaders of the federation movement.

Source 4.8 A view of Government Farm at Rose Hill, New South Wales, 1791

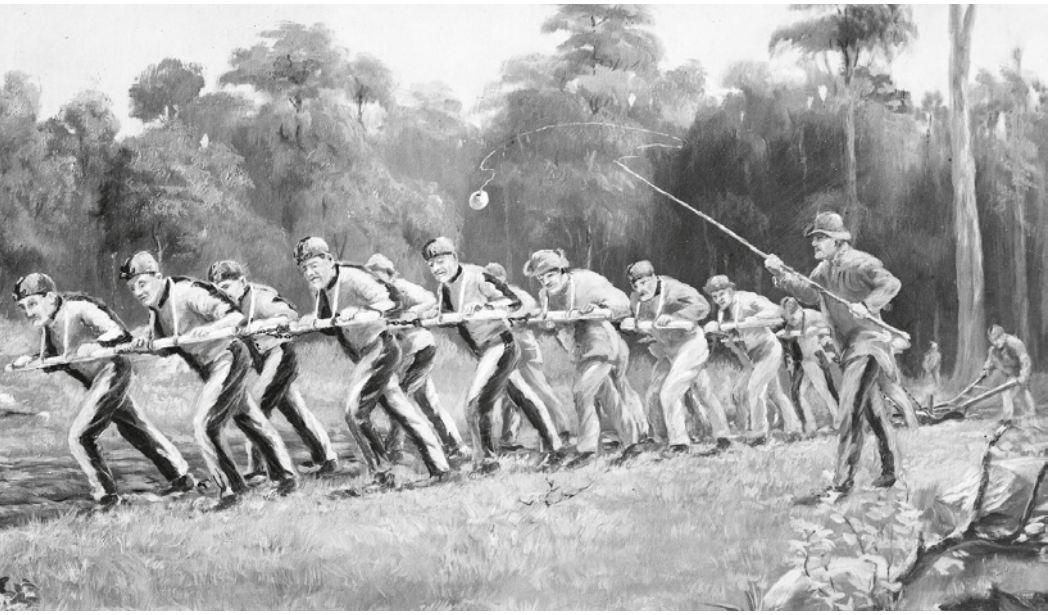
Source 4.9 The prison at Port Arthur. Many have commented on the irony of such a brutal institution being situated in a place of such remarkable natural beauty.

Van Diemen's Land

The first explorer of the area, Abel Tasman, named Van Diemen's Land after the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia). Its name was changed to Tasmania (for Abel Tasman) in 1853.

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

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



Source 4.10 *The Plough Gang*, a painting of Port Arthur convicts

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

In 1825, Van Diemen's Land, which had been part of New South Wales, became a colony in its own right and it achieved the right to self-government in 1854.

The impact of European settlement on the Indigenous people of Van Diemen's Land (the Parlevar or Palawa people) was more devastating than in most mainland colonies. As the settlers and their flocks spread across the island, Aboriginal people were displaced from their traditional lands and dispossessed of their culture and traditions. The main killer of Aborigines was European disease, but they also suffered as a result of loss of food sources and traditional skills. Violence against Aborigines also accounted for deaths, although it is difficult to gain accurate figures about such actions because massacres were often covered up.

The Tasmanian Aborigines did not accept colonisation and made many attempts to retaliate against the settlers who were taking over their lands. This resulted in a period of tension between the two groups that has been described as guerrilla warfare and also as the Black War.

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

Queensland

The area around Moreton Bay (now Brisbane) was home to the Jagera and Turrbal people for up to 40 000 years. In 1824, a convict settlement was established on the shore of Moreton Bay under the leadership of Lieutenant Henry Miller. A year later it was moved to the banks of the Brisbane River. Over 2200 convicts, most of them hardened criminals, were sent to the settlement between 1824 and 1839.

Source 4.11
A hand-coloured etching showing a convict being flogged at Moreton Bay in 1836

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

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

Source 4.12 *The Foundation of Perth 1829* by George Pitt Morison (This painting was commissioned to mark the centenary of the founding of Western Australia in 1929.)

Western Australia

The area around the Swan River had been occupied by several Indigenous groups, including the Nyoonga people, for thousands of years. They lived along the shores of the river where there was an abundant supply of fish, game birds, fruit and berries.

The first European settlement in Western Australia was at King George Sound in 1826. This was prompted by a fear that the French were interested in colonising the area. In 1829, Captain James Stirling established the Swan River colony in the name of the British government. The main city was Perth and the port at the entrance to the harbour was called Fremantle. Unlike settlements in New South Wales, Hobart, Moreton Bay and Norfolk Island, the new colony was to be a free settlement without the stain of convictism.

The population of the settlement grew slowly. Farmers spread into the south-western corner of the colony between Perth and Albany. While the idea of a free settlement was appealing to immigrants, they quickly found that there was a drastic shortage of labour. Land prices were low so most free settlers became farmers, leaving few to work for wages.

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

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

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

The Port Phillip District (Victoria)

The first attempt to settle what would become Victoria was made at Sorrento near the mouth of Port Phillip Bay in 1803. The settlers' first contact was with the peoples of the Kulin nation who lived in the areas surrounding Port Phillip Bay. The Sorrento settlement was abandoned after only a few months due to lack of fresh water. Unlike New South Wales, Tasmania or Queensland, the colonisation of Victoria was driven by free settlers rather than convicts.

In 1834, the Henty brothers settled illegally in the area around Portland. A year later, Melbourne (originally called Bearbrass) was founded. John Batman crossed Bass Strait from Tasmania and explored the area around the Yarra River. He claimed to have purchased the land from members of the Wurrundjeri, the local Indigenous communities. More recently, some historians have argued that John Pascoe Fawkner has greater claim to have founded Melbourne and others suggest that John Lancey deserves the title.

The Port Phillip colony grew quickly, largely because of profits from wool. Many immigrants brought their flocks from Van Diemen's Land and New South Wales and took up pastoral leases in the Western District and in Gippsland. Melbourne developed as a processing centre and port for the export of wool. By 1850, it was an impressive city of 22 000 people, with many fine streets and buildings, an art gallery, theatres, hospitals and schools, and beautiful botanical gardens.

Port Phillip had been established as a free settlement. There were some convicts in the colony because they had been brought from Van Diemen's Land and New South Wales, but they were never a significant part of the population. From the late 1830s, assisted migrants were brought to the colony to provide a labour force. Such was the opportunity offered in the colony that by 1850, one in five of these assisted migrants had become landowners.

The colonisation of the Port Phillip District had a disastrous impact on the Indigenous people of the region. European diseases such as smallpox and measles led to many deaths; violence and loss of food sources also contributed to the decline in Aboriginal numbers. It is estimated that by 1850 the Indigenous population had declined to about 3000.

In 1851, under the Australian Colonies Government Act, the colony of Port Phillip was separated from New South Wales and renamed Victoria after the reigning monarch. Following the discovery of gold in August 1851, Victoria was to become one of the richest and most progressive of the Australian colonies.

Source 4.13 John Batman's treaty with the Aborigines in 1835 (painted by JW Burt in 1885 to mark the 50th anniversary of the treaty)

South Australia

South Australia was established by an Act of British Parliament in 1834 and settled in 1836 on the banks of Adelaide's Torrens River. Its first governor was John Hindmarsh. The colony was based on a plan by Edward Gibbon Wakefield, to create an ideal society. It was to be convict free; land was to be sold at a reasonable price and the revenue was to be used to bring out emigrants who would become a labouring class. The colony was founded with the aim of recreating all the best elements of the British homeland.

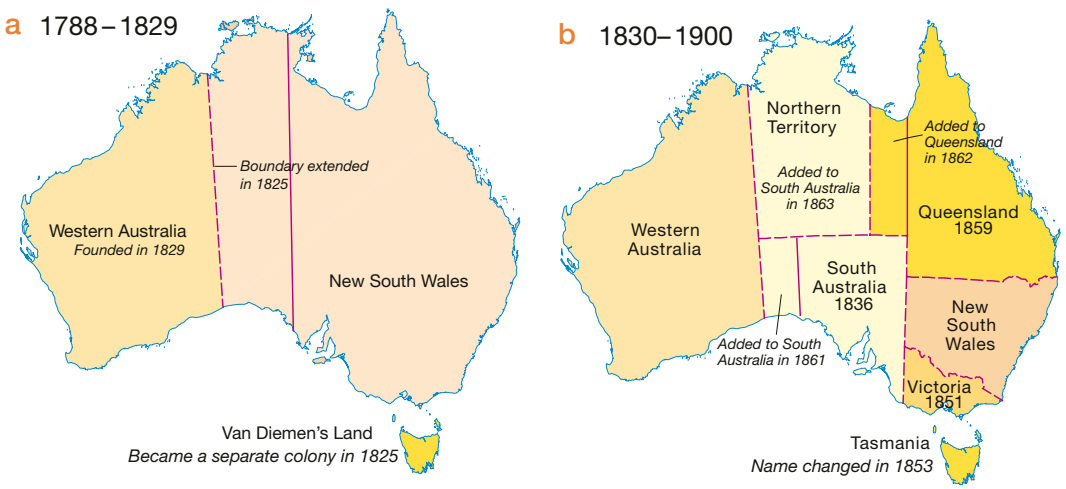
Adelaide was one of the first towns built. It was designed by surveyor Colonel William Light. The regular grid of streets and the border of parklands surrounding the city make Adelaide one of the best-planned cities in the world.

The early economy of the new town relied primarily on sheep farming. During the 1840s, the South Australian colony spread further inland when deposits of copper were discovered at Burra in 1845. In the 1840s, the foundations of the wine industry were laid, by German immigrants in the Barossa Valley and Irish settlers in the Clare Valley.

The Indigenous people of the Adelaide area were the Kaurna people. At the time of the establishment of the colony there were between 500 and 1000 Kaurna in the area. Unlike the other colonies, South Australia was not based on the doctrine of *terra nullius*. The South Australia Act acknowledged the existence of the Indigenous people and stated that no settler could interfere with their enjoyment or use of the land.

There is little evidence of direct violence between Europeans and Kaurna; however, the Kaurna people fell victim to the same problems as Aborigines in other colonies. The majority died of diseases such as typhoid and smallpox. Others suffered because their culture was undermined and their way of life destroyed.

Source 4.14 Colonel William Light



Source 4.15 Australian colonial settlements, a 1788–1829 b 1830–1900

Check your learning

1. List as many different reasons as you can for the establishment of colonies in Australia between 1788 and 1836.
2. What benefits were provided to colonies by the presence of convicts?
3. Why did colonial leaders in Port Phillip, South Australia and (initially) Western Australia take pride in the fact they were not convict colonies?
4. What impact did the initial establishment of settlements have on the Indigenous population?

Source 4.16 Rundle Street, Adelaide, *c.* 1865. By the middle of the 19th century, Australian cities were flourishing. Even cities like Adelaide, which were not directly affected by the gold rushes, grew in population and wealth.

Development in the mid 19th century

At first, the establishment of the Australian colonies centred on the main settlements, which became the capital cities. With the growth of population through migration and natural increase, there was a growing need to expand from these settlements. Between 1810 and 1860, much of inland Australia was opened up as a result of many journeys of discovery by adventurers known as explorers. The land closer to the coast was used largely for agriculture. The drier inland areas were increasingly used for pasture for sheep and cattle. The Industrial Revolution in Britain created a huge demand for raw materials such as wool. Yorkshire was the centre of the wool manufacturing trade in England, and the factories of Leeds and Bradford were hungry for the fleeces of **merino** sheep bred in the Australian colonies. The population and prosperity of the Australian colonies were strongly boosted by the discovery of gold in the 1850s.

The opening of the interior

By 1810, it was becoming clear that the crops brought from England to supplement the New South Wales colony's own crops were not doing well. The land around Sydney was filling up quickly and settlers saw the need to spread further inland to open up larger stretches of land to grow crops and to graze sheep and cattle.

Transport

As settlers cleared land to graze cattle and sheep, they established small towns. Roads were made back to the main settlements to transport wool and supplies. Ironically, although the Europeans were taking over Aboriginal lands, they were unaware that they were benefiting from Aboriginal knowledge of the areas. Indigenous trading trails had been operating along the clearest and most accessible routes for thousands of years. The sheep farmers moved their sheep along these routes. Later, the first postal services on horseback used the Indigenous trails to deliver mail to farmers.

Echuca was one of the busiest inland ports in the 19th century. Paddle steamers carried cargoes of wool from properties along the Murray–Darling river system to the railway at Echuca and from there to Melbourne for export.

Initially, inland travel was on horseback, by stagecoach or by cattle cart. Over time, more efficient modes of transport were introduced. The first Australian passenger railway, linking Melbourne and Sandridge (Port Melbourne), opened in September 1854. Throughout the 19th century, sailing ships grew in number, size and speed. By the 1850s, steamships began travelling to Australia.

By 1860, all the colonies boasted busy ports in their capital cities. There were also many ports along the inland river systems. The colonists enjoyed regular communication through the network of steamships, railways and the telegraph, which linked the eastern capital cities by the late 1850s.

Check your learning

1. How did settlers benefit from Aboriginal knowledge of the environment?
2. Why was transport so important to the opening up of the country?
3. How had transport and communication improved by the latter part of the 19th century?

Source 4.17 The historic port of Echuca on the Murray River

Source 4.18 ST Gill, *The New Rush*, Ballarat Fine Art Gallery

Source 4.19 Alluvial goldmining using cradles

The gold rushes

The most significant influence on the economic and social development of the Australian colonies in the 19th century was the discovery of gold. Gold tripled the population of the colonies and made Melbourne one of the richest cities in the British Empire. Gold also helped lay the foundations of the democratic nation that was to be established in 1901.

However, the gold rushes also strengthened the belief in white superiority that had underpinned the colonies since their beginnings. The movement of thousands of people into the inland goldfields led to the further dispossession of the Indigenous people. Moreover, gold seekers from China also faced discrimination and even violence.

Gold was found in the Australian colonies from around 1823. The amounts discovered, however, were quite small and were all on government-owned land. This meant that the gold should have been surrendered to the governor, so the finds were not usually reported. In April 1851, Edward Hargraves claimed, correctly, that 'payable' (profitable) gold existed in Bathurst. The New South Wales government rewarded him 10 000 pounds, and Hargraves announced his find to the newspapers. The Australian gold rush had begun!

Gold discoveries moved quickly from Bathurst to Victoria. By the end of 1851, 20 000 men were working on the goldfields in Ballarat, Bendigo and elsewhere. Half the male population of Melbourne and Adelaide left for the Victorian goldfields. Immigrant ships carrying would-be goldminers arrived in 1852 and, by 1858, 150 000 people were living on the Victorian goldfields. The gold rushes brought 622 000 people to Australia in the 10 years after 1851.

Mining methods

Prospectors sought two main types of gold: **alluvial gold** and **deep reef gold**. Alluvial gold was washed up in the creek and river beds, from underground streams. It was the easiest to find for most miners and searching for it did not require much equipment. A pick and shovel, and a panning dish to swirl dirt and water to separate the gold was one cheap option. Another method was a rocker, which resembled a baby's cradle and could be 'rocked' to catch the gold on a sieve.

By about 1853, much of the alluvial gold had been found and miners turned their attention to the deep reef gold buried many metres below the surface. Mines

had to be sunk underground, and expensive machinery and complex processes (such as **puddling**) were needed to separate the gold from the quartz rock in which it was trapped. When this deep shaft mining began, groups of miners would form companies, pooling their money and labour to operate one mine. Often they would toil for many months before they received any reward for their labours. All miners had to pay a licence fee during this time, something that they bitterly resented. This was to be one of the factors that contributed to the Eureka rebellion at Ballarat in December 1854.

Life on the goldfields

Most of the people living in the goldfields were men. Some women did brave the difficult conditions with their children in order to keep their families together. While some children were able to attend school, education was of varying quality and often depended on teachers' willingness to give up time from the goldfields. Most children were expected to work with their parents and were more likely to be injured or to die from disease. Children under the age of five made up a majority of deaths on the goldfields. Some women died from a lack of sanitation and medical care in childbirth.

Source 4.20 Children panning for gold

The smell of the encampments was overwhelming for those who were not accustomed to it. Unsanitary conditions led to diseases such as dysentery and typhoid. Illnesses also resulted from a poor diet, as there were few fresh foods. Exotic foods were available but they were very expensive and a strain on the budget of many miners.

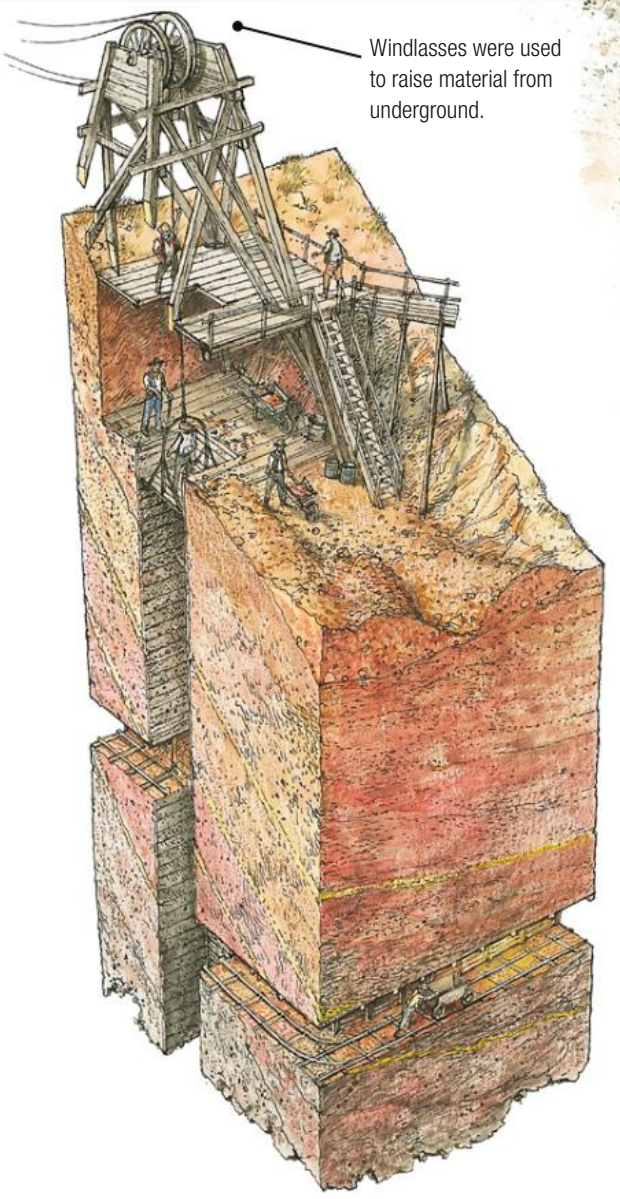
The success of the goldminers varied. In the early years, most were able to make a reasonable living from alluvial gold. However, when mining of the deeper reefs began, many miners struggled. Of course, there were very successful miners like George Lansell, whose profitable mining company in Bendigo earned him the title 'the Quartz King'.

The people who were most assured of a steady income on the goldfields were the traders, shopkeepers, transporters and others who provided services to the miners. John Chandler and his father, who arrived in Melbourne in 1850, developed a very successful business carting goods to and from the gold towns.

Working on the goldfields

Most diggers worked from dawn until dusk, six days a week. In the early years most miners were able to make reasonable returns and a few had major strikes. Most found very little at all.

Living conditions were hard for everyone on the goldfields. In places like Bendigo, for example, around 40 000 people lived close together in tents. Water and fresh food were scarce and sanitation was very poor. Garbage piled up around the diggings and toilets were simply holes dug in the ground. The smell from the camps was unbearable for those who were not used to it.



Windlasses were used to raise material from underground.

Shaft mines enabled miners to go deeper underground to extract quartz, which would then be crushed to expose the gold.

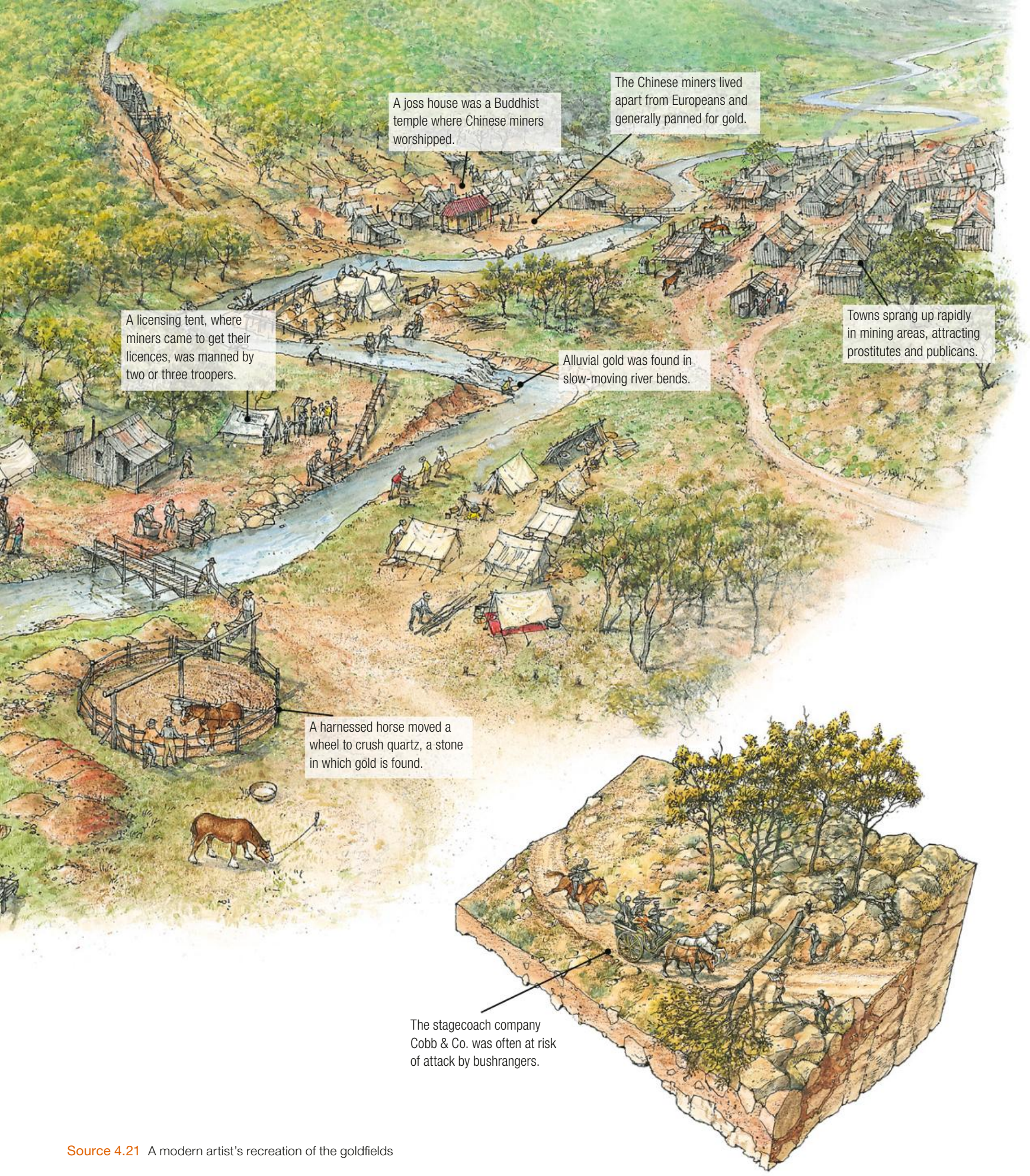
Miners lived in tents or huts close the river, often in unsanitary conditions.

Horse-powered puddling machines broke up the quartz in water, allowing the gold to sink.

Tracks and carts were used for moving soil and rocks.

Tailings were the waste matter from the mining process.

A sluice box was another tool used for separating gold from other materials.



Source 4.21 A modern artist's recreation of the goldfields

focus on ...

empathy: food on the goldfields

In order to have a real understanding of the hardships and rewards on life on the goldfields, it is necessary to look closely at the way the miners lived. One aspect of life that has not really changed in over 150 years is the importance of food in people's lives. Food is not just for sustenance, it is also a means of social interaction and celebration. By examining food and dining we can begin to have some empathy with the miners as real people, even though they are from another age.

There is a general idea that the miners lived on a boring diet of mutton, damper and tea. This was true to an extent, but diaries and letters show a much more varied and even exotic selection of foods. Below is a list of food items and prices recorded by a party of four diggers in the early 1850s.

Source 4.22

Mutton forequarter	*4 shillings*
Coffee	*2 shillings and 6 pence*
Potatoes	*6 pence per pound*
Porridge	*1 shilling per pound*
Tongue	*2 shillings and 5 pence per pound*
Anchovy paste	*1 shilling and 5 pence per pot*
Mustard	*2 shillings per pot*
Pickles	*1 shilling per pot*
Lemon peel	*2 shillings and 6 pence per pound*
Hot cross buns	*4 pence*

(Note: 1 shilling = 10 cents, 6 pence = 5 cents, 5 pence = 4 cents, 1 pound = 450 grams)

James Selby, a medical practitioner and fossicker on the Victorian goldfields around 1852–54, recorded in his diary that he had 'dined this day with Nankeville who regaled me with a Cornish pasty … ' and 'went to drink tea and eat bacon currant fritters with Hunt … ' Another miner described 'a collation of beef steak, cold ham, Dutch cheese, sardines, pickles and damper'.

There are also accounts of miners making gigantic Christmas puddings with gold nuggets liberally sprinkled through the mixture.

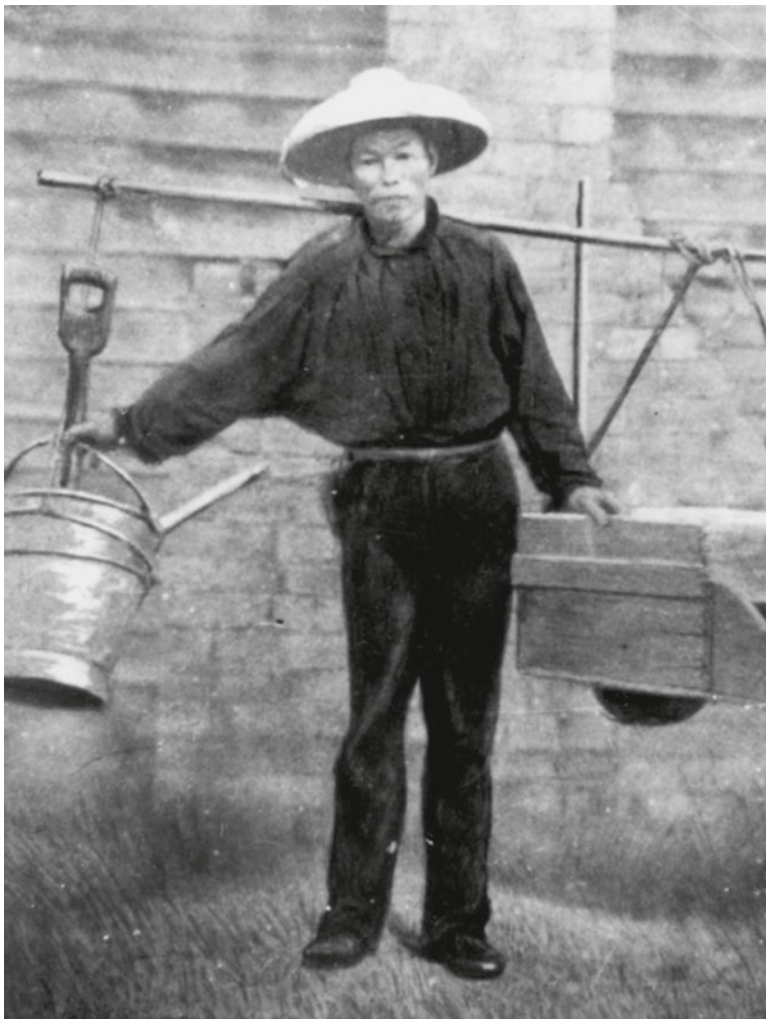
Chinese miners

The increase in immigration to the goldfields led to a more diverse cultural mix in the Australian colonies. One of the largest ethnic groups was the Chinese. By 1858, there were 33 600 Chinese immigrants in Victoria. Their language, culture, religion, appearance and habits, such as smoking opium, meant that they were often viewed with suspicion by the Europeans. They were also accused of introducing exotic diseases into the goldfields. The Chinese community kept to themselves.

One of the main causes of resentment against the Chinese was their approach to mining. Denied access to the best mining areas, near water, they often successfully reworked claims (pieces of land) that European miners had abandoned. The practice of sending gold home to their families was also viewed as taking wealth away from Australians. This was despite the fact that many European miners sent gold home to their families as well.

The feelings of miners towards the Chinese were set out by 413 miners from Rocky River in a petition to the New South Wales parliament in 1858.

Source 4.23 A Chinese miner on the goldfields



Source 4.24 A sketch of a Chinese restaurant in Ballarat

Resentment of the Chinese community flared into violence on some occasions. Two of the worst incidents occurred at Buckland River in Victoria in 1857, and at Lambing Flat in New South Wales, when a mob of several thousand miners attacked the Chinese encampment in June 1861. About half of the Chinese miners were brutally beaten or injured in the attack. Only one aggressor, William Squires, was subsequently convicted and sentenced. From 1855 onwards, colonial governments in Victoria and South Australia passed anti-Chinese legislation.

Despite widespread anti-Chinese feeling, there were some Europeans who showed sympathy and even admiration for them. Antoine Fauchery, a French miner, described the Chinese as 'strong, industrious and patient'.

By the 1870s, the focus of goldmining had moved to Queensland. On several goldfields, Chinese miners outnumbered Europeans. The decline in alluvial goldmining saw many Chinese return to China, though a small community remained.

Check your learning

1. Why were early gold finds not reported?
2. What was the immediate impact of the gold discoveries?
3. What were two different types of mining?
4. Which people were able to make a more regular income on the goldfields than the miners?
5. What reasons did European miners give for their opposition to the Chinese?

The impact of colonisation on Indigenous people

The impact of European settlement on the Indigenous people of Australia was disastrous. Contact with early explorers and traders introduced new diseases to which Aborigines had little or no immunity. The settlers that followed the explorers would push onto Indigenous land, disturbing established territories and introducing new species of animals that would change the face of Australia. They would also threaten the Indigenous ways of life and spiritual practices.

By the end of the 19th century, the destruction of the traditional lifestyles of Indigenous people was almost complete. In the more remote parts of South Australia and Western Australia, there were small numbers of Aborigines still living in a traditional manner. However, most Aborigines were living in reserves, missions or protectorates. A small number lived and worked on farms and pastoral stations, and managed to live a life that moved between the two cultures.

The rest lived on the fringes of European society—in camps on the edges of towns and cities. These were probably the most disadvantaged of all. Many had lost their links to traditional family and culture, their health was poor, and alcohol and tobacco abuse were a problem.

Source 4.25 Court House, Goondiwindi, Queensland, on 24 May 1890.
Local Aborigines gathered to receive blankets to mark the birthday of Queen Victoria.

Early contacts

At first, European contact was usually accidental. There were sightings and landings before 1788, as sailors looked to establish new trade areas or colonies in the Asian area. There are some records of Aboriginal contact with the Macassans (from the island of Sulawesi in Indonesia), the Dutch, the English and the French before James Cook's official 'discovery' of Australia.

It is also argued by some historians that a fleet of Portuguese ships sailed around the south coast of Victoria and that one ran aground near Warrnambool. Early settlers in the 1830s in that area reported that some of the local Aborigines were lighter skinned than the rest and that some seemed to know a few Latin words. This was taken as evidence that Portuguese sailors from the wrecked ship had interbred with the Aborigines.

First settlers

Historical records of early contact between first settlers and the Aborigines tend to be European. Much less weight has been given to the oral accounts that have been told through generations of Aborigines. Some of the European accounts are from people in official positions and others are kept in private diaries and records. From these accounts it appears that relationships between the Aborigines and settlers in the area around modern Sydney were good for the first 12 to 15 months of contact after the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788.

It has been recorded that, soon after landing, Aborigines welcomed the Europeans—some even danced with them. Some Aborigines believed that the Europeans were ancestral spirits returning from the sea, as their white skin was the colour of death. They showed the Europeans some good fishing spots and shared the fish that they had caught. Yet conflict soon developed. Shots were fired at Aborigines who took some shovels from the colony. The local Aborigines moved away from the colony for some time.

As winter set in and food became scarce, conflict grew between the Aborigines and settlers. The shooting of kangaroos and other animals by the Europeans meant the Aborigines had scarce supplies of winter skins for clothing. The fish stocks, which were always uncertain in Port Jackson, suffered from being fished too heavily. Governor Phillip ordered land to be cleared for agriculture, which continued Aboriginal dispossession.

By the next year, conflict became more violent, with deaths on both sides. In an attempt to build some lines of communication, Governor Phillip ordered the kidnapping of some Aboriginal men. The first man taken, Arabanoo, died of smallpox. Two others, Bennelong and Colbee, also caught smallpox but survived. Both men escaped from the colony but Bennelong returned. He was fed at the governor's table and dressed in European clothes.

Following the Aboriginal practice of sharing everything, Bennelong encouraged other Aborigines to join him so that they could enjoy the food as well. Unfortunately, Bennelong also developed a taste for alcohol and was eventually to die from alcoholism when he accompanied Governor Phillip back to England.

Check your learning

1. Which groups of people had had some contact with Aborigines before the official 'discovery' by Captain Cook?
2. What evidence suggests that a Portuguese ship may have been wrecked on the Warrnambool coast before European colonisation of the area?
3. Why were the settlers at Sydney Cove originally welcomed by the Aborigines?
4. In what ways did the Aborigines help the first settlers?
5. Was the kidnapping of certain Aborigines justified in order to promote communication between the two peoples? Give reasons for your opinion.

The impact of settlement

Within years of the establishment of European settlement in each of the colonies, the numbers of Aboriginal people declined considerably. Within three years of settlement around Botany Bay and Port Stephens, up to 90 per cent of the local group, the Darug people, are thought to have died. In Port Phillip, the numbers of members of the Kulin nation surrounding Port Phillip Bay are believed to have declined from over 30 000 in 1835 to no more than 5000 in 1850.

Estimates of the Aboriginal population of Australia prior to European settlement vary greatly, from a minimum of 318 000 up to 750 000. The population was spread throughout the continent but the majority lived a semi-**nomadic** life in the south-east, with large groupings thought to have been established along the Murray River.

Traditional hunting areas and food sources were disturbed as the colony expanded. Food became scarcer in the wild and traditional gathering areas were cleared for agricultural development. Fences appeared and access to waterholes or sacred sites became difficult or impossible.

European intrusion displaced the people in the more populous areas. This resulted in warfare between the Aboriginal groups, something seldom mentioned in historical accounts until recent times.

Conflicts also developed as the settlers spread out and local Aborigines began to resist the Europeans. Diseases introduced by the Europeans spread quickly and had a dramatic effect on the Aboriginal population.

Source 4.26 *Collins Street, Melbourne Town, 1839*, painted by William Knight (National Library of Australia)

Diseases

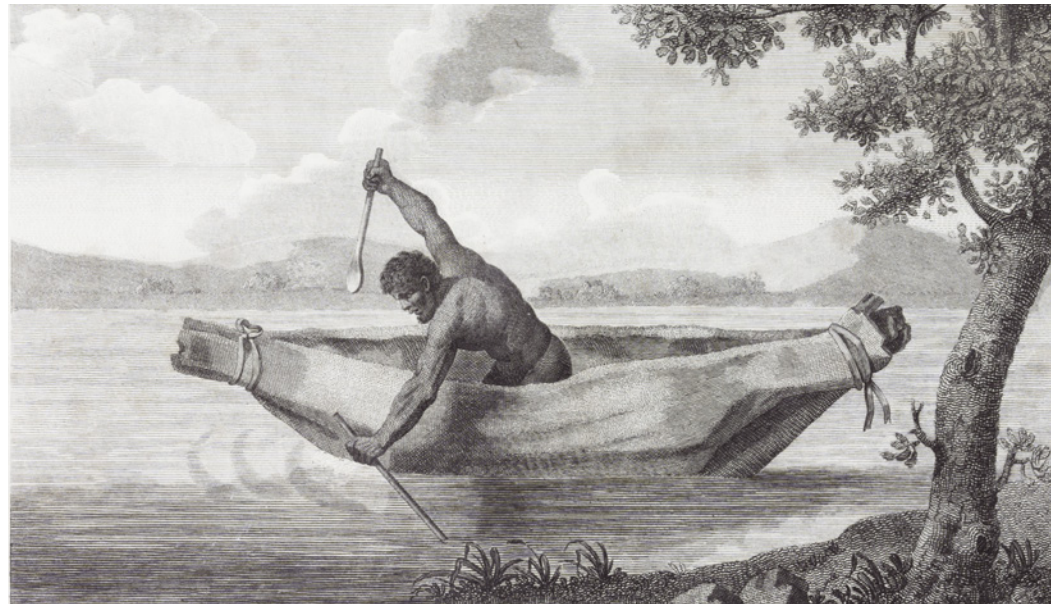
By far the biggest killer of Aborigines was disease. Introduced diseases such as the common cold and tuberculosis wiped out large numbers of Aborigines, often a generation at a time. Many diseases that were only mildly dangerous to Europeans were lethal to Aborigines, who had no immunity.

Syphilis and other sexually transmitted diseases not only caused deaths but rendered many women infertile, leading to a declining birth rate. Other diseases, including measles and influenza, also spread rapidly throughout the Aboriginal population. Smallpox is thought to have wiped out at least 50 per cent of the Aboriginal population of Australia.

The question of whether smallpox was brought by the Macassans or European settlers has not yet been resolved. Outbreaks of smallpox did tend to tie closely to the Macassans' visits to northern Australia. The disease then moved down the east coast as Aboriginal groups traded.

Frontier conflict and resistance

By the late 1700s, conflict grew between the Europeans and Aborigines. In the Hawkesbury area of New South Wales, 26 Europeans and 200 Aborigines died as a result of the conflicts that took place between 1794 and 1800. One well-known Aborigine who resisted the Europeans was Pemulwuy. He would launch attacks on the settlers, burning their crops and destroying their huts. In 1801, Governor King offered a reward for Pemulwuy's capture. Pemulwuy was shot and killed by soldiers and the resistance movement fell off for a brief period.



Source 4.27 An artist's impression of Pemulwuy in a canoe spearing fish

focus on ...

contestability: massacres

In her book *The Original Australians*, Josephine Flood examines seven reported massacres of Aborigines (see Source 4.29). She concludes that Waterloo Creek, Myall Creek, Hornet Bank, Cullin-la-ringo and Coniston were massive reprisals (or 'paybacks') for the murder of white settlers. She describes the conflicts at Pinjarra as a 'battle', and at Forrest River as a 'myth'.

Flood says that in only one of these cases, Myall Creek, the white perpetrators were found guilty and hanged. She also argues that the violence was the initial result of the lawless state of the frontier territory and that, on the whole, once a police or a military presence was established such violence declined.

It should be mentioned, though, that in six of the seven case studies, the police themselves were the perpetrators of the attacks. Often these police groups contained Aboriginal recruits or trackers, particularly in Queensland. The events that Flood has examined are just some of those that were reported. It is highly likely that others occurred, and there is no doubt that such violence caused a decline in the Aboriginal population.

Source 4.28 *Maltreatment of the blacks*, 1880 engraving by CH Hunt, State Library of Victoria, Melbourne

Source 4.29 Key dates of conflict and resistance

Location and date	Europeans involved	Cause	Casualties
Pinjarra WA, 1834	Mounted police led by Governor Stirling	Expedition to arrest an Aborigine for the murder of a soldier	15–35 Pinjarup killed in open battle. One soldier speared.
Waterloo Creek NSW, 1838	Five officers and 20 mounted police	Spearing of five stockmen who had taken prime Kamilaroi land for grazing	Five Kamilaroi killed in an initial attack. The survivors were chased to Waterloo Creek where 40–50 were killed as they tried to escape the armed pursuit.
Myall Creek NSW, 1838	Nine ex-convict stockmen and one native-born station manager	The group wished to complete the Waterloo Creek reprisals and went 'hunting some blacks'.	The resident group of 28 Kwaimbal Aborigines at Myall Station were shot and hacked to death. They were mainly women and children, and some old men.
Butcher's Creek VIC, 1841	Pastoralist Angus McMillan and his men	Retaliation for Aboriginal aggression	An estimated 30–35 Aborigines were shot by settlers.
Hornet Bank QLD, 1857	Billy Fraser, native police and a force of armed squatters	A reprisal for the rape and murder of 11 whites at Hornet Station. The motive for the Aborigines' attack was the rape of Aboriginal women by boys from the Fraser family.	150 Yeeman killed over a year.
Cullin-la-ringo QLD, 1861	Native police	The killing of Horatio Wills, 10 other men, three women and five children	The number shot is unknown, but was several times higher than the number of whites that were killed.
Forrest River WA, 1926	Police patrol	Attempted arrests for cattle-spearing	A ceremonial group of 250 attacked, with three Aborigines wounded and 31 camp dogs killed. Rumours spread of other Aboriginal deaths but no evidence in any form was ever found. Many of those said to be killed were later found alive.
Coniston NT, 1928	Punishing raid by police	The death of a white dingo-trapper	Constable George Murray admitted to 31 killings, 17 in an initial patrol and 14 in a patrol three weeks later. Also, two ceremonial gatherings were dispersed. Murray bragged that the first figure of those killed was 70 not 17. He was cleared of wrongdoing, which found he had acted in self-defence.

focus on ...

significance: Windradyne

Windradyne was a young Wiradjuri warrior who was involved in a series of confrontations with the settlers around Bathurst, New South Wales, in 1823–24. He led a number of raids before being captured in 1824.

He was released a month later but took up raiding again. Seven settlers were killed and military help was sought, but Windradyne eluded the soldiers sent after him. In December 1824, he turned up at Governor Brisbane's feast in Parramatta where a 'truce' was called. An olive branch was presented to him along with a straw hat with 'Peace' written on it.

Windradyne suffered from gangrene after an intertribal battle. He was treated at Bathurst Hospital but cut off his bandages and left. He later died from gangrene.

Source 4.30 An artist's portrait of Windradyne

Collaboration

While there were times of conflict, there were also times that Aborigines and Europeans worked together. Many Aborigines became trackers or police. Bennelong worked with Governor Phillip to bring Aborigines into the settlement. Another Aborigine, Bungaree, sailed with Matthew Flinders between 1801 and 1803. He was taken to facilitate communication with Aborigines along the way. However, Flinders did not realise the great differences among the Aboriginal language groups. The further they moved away from the settlement, the more difficult it became for Bungaree to communicate with the local inhabitants.

In Port Phillip, Billibellary, an elder of the Wurrundjeri people, worked closely with the new arrivals in the early years. He attempted to enable his people to move between the two cultures.

Missions and protectorates

While officially the missions and protectorates were set up to look after Aborigines, in fact they caused them a tremendous amount of damage. Even in these early years, hundreds of Aboriginal children were removed from their families (although this did not become government policy until the 20th century). The first mission was established in 1815 to 'civilise' the Aborigines, which meant teaching them to think and live like Europeans. In 1824, another mission was established at what is now Newcastle in New South Wales. All the Aborigines held in that mission disappeared; some died of disease and others escaped.

By 1838, the Aborigine Protection Society had been established in London, but in Australia the Society did not do well. Over 211 missions were established.

In Port Phillip, the Melbourne Mission was set up under the leadership of George Langhorne in 1837. Its aims were to 'civilise and Christianise' the Aborigines. It had little success because the Aborigines could come and go as they pleased. Also, because it was so close to Melbourne, the Aborigines became reliant on European products such as white flour, sugar, alcohol and tobacco.

Source 4.31 An etching of the new Norcia Mission cricket team

Most missions and protectorates failed within a few years, but there were some relative successes such as the mission at New Norcia in Western Australia and at Hermannsburg in the Northern Territory. What made these missions stand apart was their respect for Aboriginal culture. These establishments acted as sanctuaries for old people, women and children. They tried to maintain the Aboriginal culture, learn their language and save Aboriginal artefacts.

Dispossession

If land, culture and way of life are removed, we refer to this as **dispossession**. As the European settlers spread across the country, Aboriginal groups were pushed from their land. The Wiradjuri people were one group who experienced the major impact of this dispossession. As the Europeans crossed the Blue Mountains and settled Bathurst, trees were cleared for sheep- and cattle-grazing, and kangaroos and possums were killed. Native grasses and soil were damaged by the hoofs of these introduced species. Furthermore, Aboriginal links to the land and its features were destroyed by land-clearing, the construction of European huts and yards, and the fencing-in of areas, particularly waterholes. Many of these places were sacred in Aboriginal culture.

Indigenous people often reacted angrily to these intrusions. Some Aborigines attacked the farms, stole or killed livestock and speared the settlers. In turn, settlers often took revenge into their own hands, with punishing and vicious raids on the camps of those Aborigines thought to have attacked them—or to the nearest Aboriginal group (see Source 4.29)

By the late 19th century, there was a general belief among officials that the Aboriginal people would die out. A new protection policy, sometimes referred to as 'smooth the dying pillow', was developed. On the surface, it involved better treatment for Aborigines, but in reality it stripped them even more of their independence, self-confidence and traditional culture.

In 1901, when the colonies federated, it was made clear that the original people had no place in the new nation. The new federal parliament had no powers to make laws relating to Aborigines and they were not to be included as members of the population for the purposes of the census. Before 1901, some Aborigines in several colonies had received the right to vote, but in 1902 this right was removed from all Aborigines. They were effectively non-existent people in the land they had called home for over 40 000 years.

Check your learning

1. Give five examples of the negative impact of European settlement on Aborigines.
2. What was the major reason for the deaths of Indigenous people?
3. Why is there controversy about the numbers of Aborigines who died as a result of violence?
4. What is the meaning of dispossession?
5. Why were European diseases so damaging to the Aboriginal people?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 What does *terra nullius* mean?

2 What was the main reason for the deaths of so many Indigenous people?

3 Why was Captain Arthur Phillip a good choice to head the First Fleet and become the first governor of New South Wales?

4 How were convicts who behaved badly or committed further crimes punished in the penal colonies?

5 What were the main motivations of free settlers who came to the Australian colonies between 1788 and 1850?

6 What evidence is there that the goldminers' diet was not as monotonous as is often suggested?

7 Identify three ways in which European settlement undermined the traditional way of life of the Aborigines.

8 What were the aims of the missions and protectorates and why did they fail?

Understand

9 Explain why Aborigines did not cultivate the land or build permanent homes.

10 In your own words, describe the conditions for convicts on the First Fleet and suggest why there were relatively few deaths on the journey.

11 Why did the early settlers feel the need to explore and settle the interior away from the main towns on the coast?

12 How important was wool in the development and expansion of the colonies?

Apply

13 Go to the Port Arthur Historic Sites website and click on the History tab. Read the stories of two of the male convicts. Construct a dialogue between the two in which each explains his convict background and experiences at Port Arthur. (Each could argue that his experiences were worse than the other's.) Your dialogue should be approximately 500 words in length and each convict should speak at least five times.

Investigate one of the massacres listed in Source 4.29. Write a police report that explains the background to the event, what is known and what is open to question.

Analyse

14 Examine Source 4.26.

- a What messages does this painting give about the impact of European settlement on the Melbourne area and the local Aborigines?
- b How is this message conveyed?
- c Imagine a conversation between two of the Aborigines in the foreground of the picture. Write the script for such a conversation, drawing on your knowledge of the settlement of Port Phillip and the impact on the Indigenous people.

Evaluate

15 What can you learn about the attitudes and values of European colonisers from the fact that they did not recognise Aboriginal ownership of Australia?

16 Carefully examine the artist's impression of the goldfields (Source 4.21). Use the images and descriptions, plus other information from this chapter, to write a letter to your family in Britain about your life in a gold town. Your letter should contain at least six paragraphs, each focusing on a different aspect of life or happenings in a gold town.

Create

17 Write a death notice about either Bennelong (New South Wales) or Billibellary (Port Phillip), to appear in *The London Times*. You are writing as a British colonist who has spent some time in Australia. Your article should reflect the values of the time.

18 Consider all of the information that you have been given on Aborigines before and after European colonisation. Use this and other research to write an essay on the following question: 'To what extent was the dispossession of the Aborigines the result of European ignorance?'

Source 4.32 Tom Roberts' painting *The Opening of the First Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia by His Royal Highness the Duke of Cornwall and York, 9 May 1901*

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

Groups of colonies settled in the same geographical area have, over time, combined to form nations. This happened in the USA in the late 18th century and in Australia in 1901. The urge to unite is strongest where separate colonies share a sense of identity and culture. The Australian colonies were all established as separate units, yet they had much in common.

All six Australian colonies were settled by people from Britain, who spoke the same language, followed the same customs and traditions and had the same legal and political systems. In the later years of the 19th century, two ideas began to emerge. One was the recognition of the many ideas and values that were shared among the Australian colonies and the people who inhabited them. The other was the belief that much could be gained by uniting the separate colonies to form a nation.

The idea of nationhood was strengthened by a growing appreciation and love for the Australian countryside, its plants and animals and its distinctive characteristics. By the 1890s, the majority of the people were Australian born, and the idea of some degree of separation from 'the mother country' was seen as a logical step for the colonies to take.

Despite many shared ideals and values, the movement to create an Australian nation was not a smooth one. While many supported the idea, there were those who feared a loss of the rights of individual colonies.

Forming a nation

Emerging Australian identity

A sense of Australian identity was slow to develop during the 19th century. Many of the thousands who came here as free settlers or **assisted migrants** were initially unwilling to bond with their new country. Their culture, customs, buildings, gardens, clothing, food, institutions and pastimes were all closely modelled on Britain. They longed only for the day they could return to their 'real home'.

This sense of alienation was even stronger for convicts. As Australia was a place of exile, most of the convicts who arrived in New South Wales or Van Diemen's Land felt no link to this strange and often harsh land. Uncertain and sometimes negative feelings about the country are revealed in the art and written records of the period.

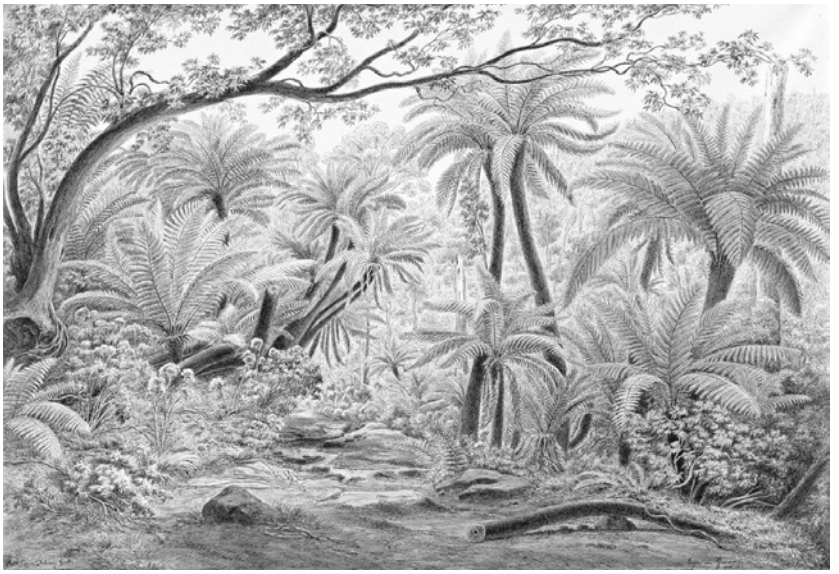
Source 4.33 An early painting of Oxford Street, Sydney, showing British-style clothing and buildings (Jacob Janssen, 1847)

Source 4.35 refers to an expedition with a party of eight people, including an Aboriginal guide, in the area of Buninyong, near Ballarat.

Source 4.35

> *We reached the hill on the second day; ascended it, and being disappointed by the thickly wooded and inferior nature of the country ... the party broke up, some returning down the Moorabool to the settled district, while the remainder, on getting on the track of the cart, followed it and continued their exploration ... to Lake Burrumbeet. The water of the lake was at that time brackish [salty] and the country was thought to be too distant for occupation.*

Extract from a letter by Thomas Learmonth (1853), a squatter who eventually settled near Ballarat, cited in TF Bride (ed.), *Letters from Victoria Pioneers*, William Heinemann, Melbourne, 1965, p. 95



Source 4.34

Eugène von Guérard
born Austria 1811, worked in Australia 1852–81, died England 1901
Ferntree or Dobson's Gully, Dandenong Ranges 1858
pen and ink and wash
37.9 x 54.8 cm (image and sheet)
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Felton Bequest, 1960

In the second half of the 19th century, attitudes towards being Australian were starting to change. Some ex-convicts and assisted migrants who had initially resisted the idea of staying in Australia now began to see the economic and social benefits of this new society.

The impact of gold

Gold brought enormous growth in wealth and population to the Australian colonies. Over the 1850s, the value of gold produced was $21 million, and by the 1890s, the value was still $18 million.

The period 1860 to 1890 is known as 'the long boom'. It was a period of great expansion and development in the mining and pastoral industries. The capital cities expanded and many new towns developed in regional areas.

The impact of the 1850s gold rushes was most significant for Victoria, the colony that included the mining towns of Ballarat, Bendigo and Castlemaine. By the end of the 1850s, Melbourne was one of the wealthiest cities of the British Empire, with the colony producing about one-third of the world's gold and making up half of Australia's European population.

During the gold rush decade, groups of Germans, Poles, Americans and Chinese joined a community that had previously been dominated by settlers from Britain. The arrival of the Chinese raised fears among the people of European background.

The gold rushes had a lasting effect on Australia. The population increased from 437 000 to 1.1 million during the 1850s. Gold money helped to establish overseas trade, improve transport and build roads so that more inland areas could be opened up to farming. The introduction of coaching companies, such as Cobb & Co. in 1853, improved travel in the colonies. By 1861, 110 towns and cities were linked by telegraph.

focus on ...

significance: Marvellous Melbourne

By the end of the 1850s, Melbourne was one of the wealthiest cities of the British Empire. Between 1850 and 1890, fuelled by the gold rush, Melbourne's population grew from 22 000 to half a million. This made Melbourne the second biggest city in the British Empire after London and larger than many European capitals of the time.

This population growth, along with the enormous wealth of the goldfields, supported a boom that lasted for 40 years and became known as the era of 'Marvellous Melbourne'. This wealth had a huge impact on the development of Melbourne. Many of the buildings and institutions established at this time are still a central part of the life of the city today and provide many of Melbourne's landmarks.

With the arrival of more educated gold seekers from England, there was a corresponding growth in the number of schools, churches, learned societies, libraries and art galleries in the city. The University of Melbourne was founded in 1855 and the State Library of Victoria in 1856. Parliament House, Melbourne, was started in 1855, though not completed until 1929. Ornate office buildings rivalled those of New York and London. Money was poured into lavishly decorated banks, hotels and coffee palaces.

Melbourne's civic pride swelled. The elaborate Royal Exhibition Building was built in 1880 to house the Melbourne International Exhibition. It was a world-class building to show off the latest in commerce and industry, art, science and education.

The city spread out in all directions and wealthy new suburbs sprung up. The new suburbs were serviced by networks of trains and trams that were among the largest and most modern in the world.

But this growth encouraged increased speculation, and in the 1880s caused rapid inflation in land prices. Victorian business and politics became notorious for corruption and English banks lent freely to colonial speculators, keeping the boom going on a mountain of debt.

In 1891, the good times came to an end. Banks closed their doors, stockbrokers panicked and thousands lost jobs, homes and savings. Growth in Melbourne slowed for some time and Melbourne entered a more sober era.

Source 4.36 The Parliament House Building in Melbourne

Source 4.37 *The Invalid Digger* by ST Gill (1854)

Gold and national unity

Some historians have suggested that the many gold immigrants who arrived in the 1850s actually slowed down the development of national unity. There is some evidence to support this but only in the short term. Letters and diaries of gold immigrants suggest that many gold immigrants initially saw Australia as a temporary residence. They expected that Australia would provide a quick fortune after which they would return to Britain or Europe. For some, gold did indeed bring great wealth. For many others, the experience was difficult and unrewarding. Not all diggers enjoyed success or support. Weston Bate has suggested in his book *Lucky City* that the main reason for the establishment of the Ballarat Hospital in 1855 was that there were so many sick miners abandoned by their mates.

By the late 1860s, most of the gold immigrants had chosen to stay in Australia. Gold discoveries gave the colonies great wealth and boosted their populations. There was relatively full employment. Towns and cities developed and settlement expanded inland. Gold immigrants settled on small farms, went into businesses or began work in various trades and professions.

The majority of gold-rush immigrants were still from the British Isles. However, there is evidence that many of them were slightly better educated, and more politically aware than the pre-gold arrivals. Achievements such as the right to vote for all men over the age of 25 and the eight-hour day are regarded as having been influenced by the new waves of immigrants after 1851.

Despite their initial misgivings, the majority of gold immigrants reflected increasingly positive attitudes towards their adopted country and its future. They began to identify with the landscape, no longer seeing it as harsh and forbidding. Australia had many attractions: a more relaxed lifestyle, a lack of strict class barriers and the potential prosperity of an economy based on gold and wool. The idea of moving towards a single nation was developing.

Source 4.38

> *You can have no idea what a fine place this is, with its lofty hills and deep glens, white sandy beach and rippling waves; but, above all, the mountain so high over the rest that you see to an immense distance; on one side of the peninsula, Bass's Straits, on the other, the whole extent of Port Phillip Bay ... I am very often on the top, enjoying the free air, and looking at everything far and near.*

John McLure, a Scottish-born tutor to the sons of Andrew and Georgiana McCrae at their Arthur's Seat property, near Melbourne, in 1854. From H McCrae (ed.), *Georgiana's Journal: Melbourne 1841–1865*, William Brooks, Sydney and Brisbane, 1934, pp. 192–3

Source 4.39 A poster depicting the fight for the eight-hour day

Identifying with Australia

By the late 19th century, many British customs and practices were being altered to suit the different physical and social conditions of Australia. Verandahs were added to British-style houses to keep out the heat. Clothing was lighter and less fussy, and new words and pronunciations crept into the language. The word *cocky* to describe a small farmer, *billy*, *larrikin*, *battler*, *bludger* and *outback* all came into common usage, especially in the bush. The diet was similar to that of most people in Britain, but more nutritious because meat, dairy produce and vegetables were readily available.

There was also a freer and more **egalitarian** spirit among the Australian colonists. Most of these adaptations took place unconsciously. Many people believed that they were still living a very British lifestyle. It was only when they travelled to Britain, or welcomed visitors from 'home', that they became aware of how much attitudes and practices were changing.

focus on ...

perspectives: egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is related to the word 'equality'. It does not mean that all people were equal, merely that all had (in theory) equal opportunity. As the nation was forming, Australia was seen as a country in which all had an equal chance to prosper. Unlike Britain, there was no strict class system. However, this did not mean that there were no class differences. There was still a large gap between the wealthy, the middle class and the poor. There was also a distinction between white people of British origin and non-whites. A wealthy and successful Chinese merchant usually had less social acceptance than a white person on a low wage in an unskilled occupation.

However, this egalitarian spirit did mean that the children of convicts or poor immigrants might rise to positions of importance in politics, business and the arts. What counted most under Australia's egalitarian social system were hard work, risk-taking and an ability to make the most of the land's opportunities.

It also meant that people were more inclined to mix with those of other classes. Relations between bosses and workers, pastoralists and shearers, politicians and voters were far more informal than they were in Britain.

ANTIPODEAN

Bridget: 'Well, I like your appearance, and the wages you offer will suit — have you any references from your last servant?'
Mistress: 'No! I have not, I'm sorry to say.'
Bridget: 'Oh! Then I couldn't think of accepting the appointment.'

Source 4.40
This cartoon from *Melbourne Punch* (1883) reflects the sense of equality that was growing in the Australian colonies.

Check your learning

1. Which colony produced the most gold in the period 1850 to 1900?
2. What were the two main ways in which the discovery of gold assisted in the development of the Australian colonies after 1850?
3. Why do some historians suggest that gold slowed the development of national unity?
4. What role did gold play, in the longer term, to create positive feelings about Australia?
5. How would you define egalitarianism?
6. What point about egalitarianism is made in Source 4.40?

Source 4.41

Arthur Streeton
Australia 1867–1943, lived in England 1899–1919
Near Heidelberg 1890
oil on canvas
53.4 x 43.1 cm
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Felton Bequest, 1943

Source 4.42

Tom Roberts
born Great Britain 1856, arrived Australia 1869, died 1931
Slumbering sea, Mentone 1887
oil on canvas
1.0 x 76.5 cm
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Purchased with the assistance of a special grant from the Government of Victoria, 1979

Art and literature

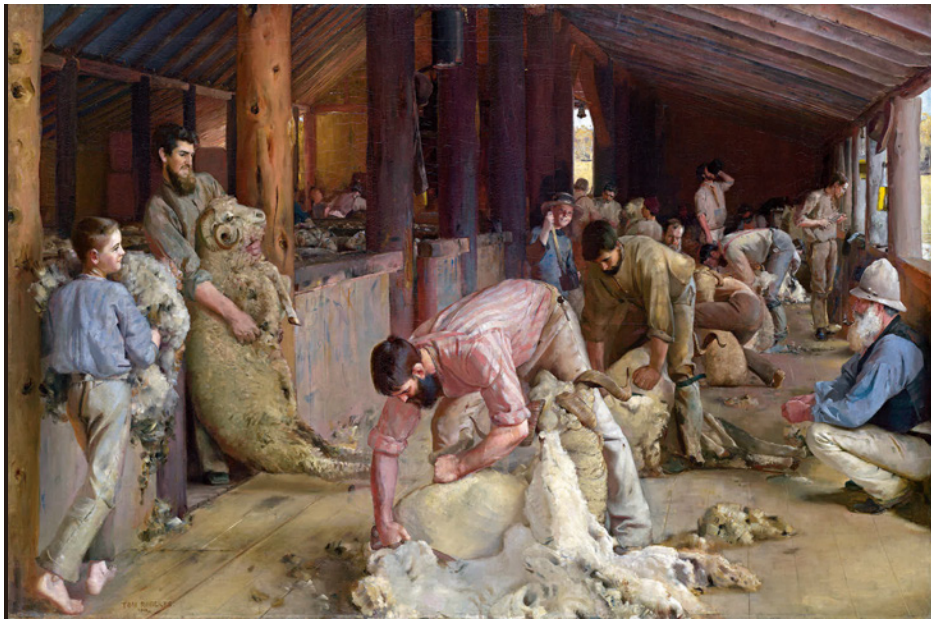
In the 19th century, Australians began to show their growing national identity through art and literature. Appreciation grew for new styles that were distinctly Australian. In the early 19th century, painters tended to see the Australian landscape through European eyes. Landscapes were usually dark and hostile. Human figures tended to be dwarfed by high mountains or trees. Town scenes were often similar to those found in Britain. Cottages were quaint and the people were neatly dressed.

It was not until the 1870s and 1880s that artists began to show the landscape and people as they really were. Their work was also becoming more popular and respected. Painters of the Heidelberg School (now referred to as the Australian Impressionists) started painting in the open air. Tom Roberts, Fred McCubbin and Arthur Streeton were among the first painters to capture the true colours of Australia—the blues, golds and greyish greens. This can be seen, for example, in Arthur Streeton's *Near Heidelberg* (Source 4.41) and Tom Robert's *Slumbering sea, Mentone* (Source 4.42).

Late 19th-century Australian painters presented simpler, everyday themes and ordinary people. Subjects included bushfires and floods, drovers and shearers. Tom Roberts' famous painting *Shearing the rams* (Source 4.43) celebrated—and romanticised—the difficult, dirty and often back-breaking work in the shearing shed. The 'gun' shearer is positioned at the centre of the painting while the overseer is seen squatting at the side. This has been seen by some as indicating the democratic nature of a shearing shed.

In early 19th-century paintings, people often appeared as small figures, overpowered by the landscape. By the 1880s and 1890s, instead of looking threatened by their environment, people looked 'at home'. The beach was increasingly becoming a part of the Australian way of life. In Charles Conder's *A holiday at Mentone* (Source 4.44), people are depicted using the beach for recreation, but are still in formal poses and dressed in European-style clothes.

A new body of literature also reflected these Australian themes and subjects. Like the artists, early 19th-century writers had tended to portray Australia as an alien and threatening place. By the 1880s and 1890s, poets and storytellers were writing positively about Australia. Stories of men who roamed the land and tamed the bush became popular. Drovers, selectors, shearers, even bushrangers, filled tales in magazines such as *The Bulletin*, *The Queensland Worker* and *Dawn*, a magazine edited by Louisa Lawson, who was the mother of writer and poet Henry Lawson. Writers such as Joseph Furphy, Barbara Baynton and Banjo Paterson portrayed the bush as a good and welcoming place to be. This was often at the expense of the city. Henry Lawson was a little more realistic. In some of his stories, such as 'The Drover's Wife', Lawson acknowledged that the bush could be a lonely and even dangerous place (see Source 4.47).



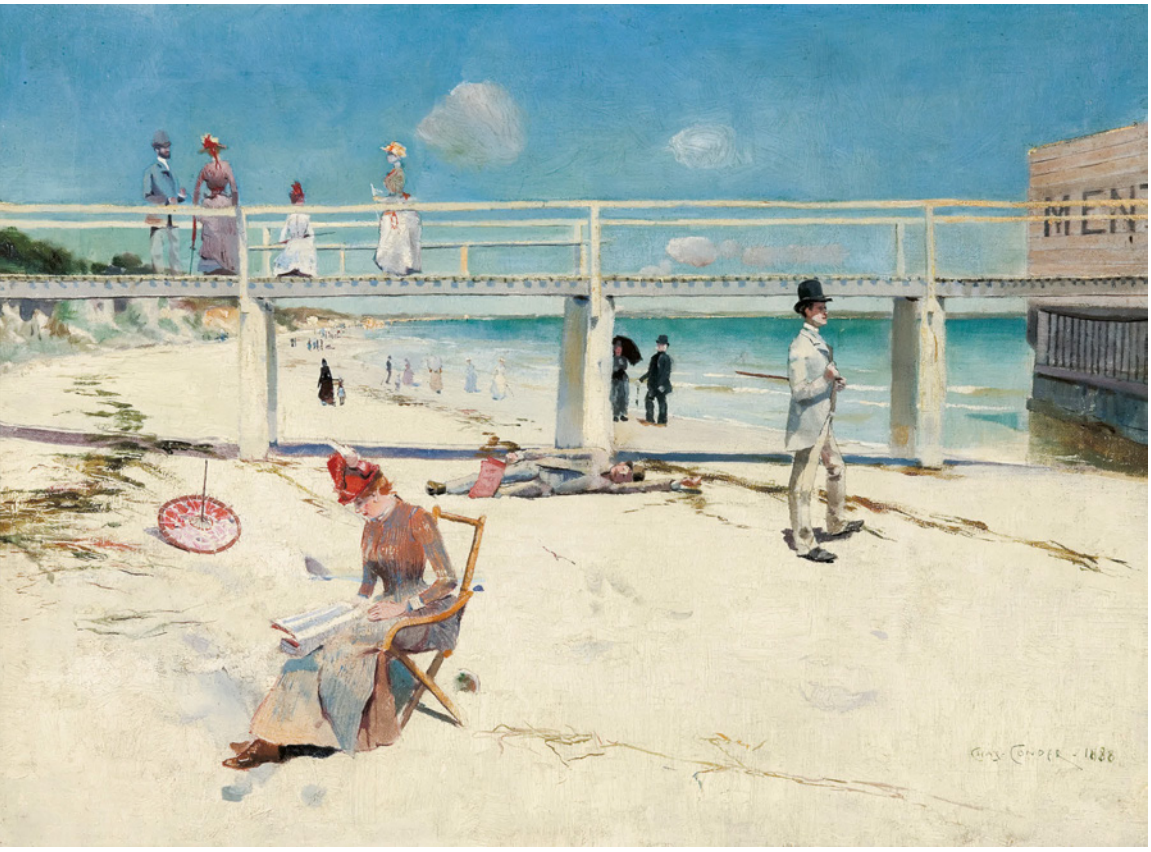
Source 4.43

Tom Roberts
born Great Britain 1856, arrived in Australia 1869, died 1931
Shearing the rams 1890
oil on canvas on composition board
122.4 x 183.3 cm
National Gallery of Victoria, Mebourne
Felton Bequest, 1932

Towards the end of the 19th century, paintings and stories that reflected British themes and styles were still popular. Some critics thought the new trends in Australian art and literature to be unacceptable as serious culture. An art critic described the first exhibition of the Heidelberg painters in August 1889 (the *9 by 5 Impression Exhibition*) as 'a pain to the eye'. However, the new body of Australian material was becoming increasingly popular with ordinary Australian colonists. Australian art and literature reflected the developing sense of identification with Australia. It also stimulated positive feelings about the environment and way of life, and it played a role in the growing movement towards the creation of a nation.

Adapting to the Australian environment

In the early years of colonisation, farmers attempted to use the seed, equipment and methods that they had brought from Europe. In most cases these were unsuitable for the Australian environment. Over the course of the 19th century, people made many changes to ideas and practices that had been brought from Britain, to make them more suitable to the Australian environment. The development of the stump-jump plough and a strain of wheat that was resistant to leaf rust allowed farmers to use the land more efficiently and increased their productivity.



Source 4.44

Charles Conder
Australia/Britain, 1868–1909
A holiday at Mentone 1888, Melbourne
oil on canvas
46.2 x 60.8 cm
South Australian Government Grant with the assistance of Bond Corporation Holdings Limited through the Art Gallery of South Australia Foundation to mark the Gallery's Centenary 1981
Art Gallery of South Australia, Adelaide

Source 4.45
The Rosella trademark was first used on bottles of jam and tomato sauce in 1895.

Depictions of Australian flora and fauna were increasingly used on food products and as decorations on masonry and in stained glass. The use of brand names such as 'Rosella' for tomato sauce (see Source 4.45), 'Emu', 'Dingo' and 'Ringer' showed a growing confidence in things Australian.

Schools were still largely based on the British model, particularly in the cities. Most private schools not only copied the British curriculum but also styles of building and administration. Melbourne and Sydney universities were modelled on Oxford and Cambridge but with some concessions to the more egalitarian values of the colonies. The Melbourne University graduation ceremony was based on the Oxford model but graduating students were allowed to simply bow to the chancellor, not prostrate themselves on the floor as they would in England.

However, Australian elements were creeping into the curriculum. As well as lists of English counties and the monarchs of England, aspects of Australian history and geography were included. In country primary schools, the nature study table was likely to contain specimens of local flowers and plants. The drawings on the blackboards were of native wildlife such as kangaroos and wallabies.

focus on ...

contestability: the myth of the Australian bushman

It is often difficult for historians to gain a clear understanding of the past. Evidence and opinions may seem to contradict each other. Much of the evidence gained from late 19th century art and literature suggests that the bushman was the typical Australian. Moreover, the image conveyed is of an idyllic life in the bush, where mates supported each other and life moved to a natural rhythm in harmony with the seasons.

The reality is that up to 75 per cent of people lived in towns and cities, and that life in the bush could be harsh, unforgiving and lonely. The image also almost completely ignores the fact that there were women living and working in the bush.

Source 4.46

In my wild erratic fancy, visions come to me of Clancy
Gone a-droving 'down the Cooper' where the western drovers go;
As the stock are slowly stringing, Clancy rides behind them singing,
For the drover's life has pleasures that the townsfolk never know.

And the bush hath friends to meet him, and their kindly voices greet him
In the murmur of the breezes and the river on its bars,
And he sees the vision splendid of the sunlit plains extended,
And at night the wondrous glory of the everlasting stars.

I am sitting in my dingy little office, where a stingy
Ray of sunlight struggles feebly down between the houses tall,
And the foetid air and gritty of the dusty, dirty city
Through the open window floating, spreads its foulness over all.

And in place of lowing cattle, I can hear the fiendish rattle
Of the tramways and the buses making hurry down the street,
And the language uninviting of the gutter children fighting,
Comes fitfully and faintly through the ceaseless tramp of feet.

Extract from 'Clancy of the Overflow' by AB (Banjo) Paterson, *The Bulletin*, 21 December 1889

Source 4.47

The two-roomed house is built of round timber, slabs, and stringy-bark, and floored with split slabs. A big bark kitchen standing at one end is larger than the house itself, veranda included.

Bush all around—bush with no horizon, for the country is flat. No ranges in the distance. The bush consists of stunted, rotten native apple-trees. No undergrowth. Nothing to relieve the eye save the darker green of a few she-oaks which are sighing above the narrow, almost waterless creek. Nineteen miles to the nearest sign of civilization—a shanty on the main road.

The drover, an ex-squatter, is away with sheep. His wife and children are left here alone.

Four ragged, dried-up-looking children are playing about the house. Suddenly one of them yells: 'Snake! Mother, here's a snake!'

The gaunt, sun-browned bushwoman dashes from the kitchen, snatches her baby from the ground, holds it on her left hip, and reaches for a stick.

'Where is it?'

'Here! Gone in the wood-heap;' yells the eldest boy—a sharp-faced urchin of eleven. 'Stop there, mother! I'll have him. Stand back! I'll have the beggar!'

'Tommy, come here, or you'll be bit. Come here at once when I tell you, you little wretch!'

The opening paragraphs of 'The Drover's Wife' by Henry Lawson

Growing Australian awareness

By the latter decades of the 19th century, colonists were starting to realise that the hopes and fears they shared could be more efficiently dealt with by one nation than by separate colonies.

The term 'Australia' had only occasionally been used in the early 19th century. One of the first to do so was William Charles Wentworth who set up a newspaper called *The Australian* in 1824. However, in the 1850s, goldminers from Europe were still more likely to say that they were going to Bathurst or Ballarat than to Australia. Some in Britain used the name 'Botany Bay' when referring to any part of Australia as late as the 1860s.

From about 1860, businesses and organisations were increasingly using the name 'Australia'. The Australian Natives Association (ANA) was one of the most significant of these. The ANA was set up in 1871 as a friendly society (an early version of today's health funds). In the 1880s, its members broadened their purpose, seeking to promote identification with Australia. They pushed for 26 January—commemorating the arrival of the First Fleet—to be celebrated as Australia's national day. In the 1890s, they began campaigning for **federation** (the uniting of the colonies into a single country).

Trade unionists were also starting to think of Australia as one country. Early **trade unions** tended to be based in particular colonies, but by the 1870s intercolonial unions were forming. Miners and shearers often crossed colonial borders as they moved around the country seeking work. In 1894, William Guthrie Spence (see 'significant individuals') formed the Australian Workers' Union to fight for the rights of shearers, miners and bushmen, wherever they worked in Australia.

Source 4.48 *The Lawn at Flemington on Melbourne Cup Day*, Karl Kahler, *c.* 1887

Another influence that brought Australian colonists together was sport. Although Australian Rules football was not played in every colony, it was well established in Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia. The first intercolonial football game was played between Victoria and South Australia in 1879. Cricket was played in the colonies almost from the beginning, and the first Test Match against England was played (and won by Australia) in Melbourne in 1877. Horse racing was also part of colonial life. The first horse race is recorded to have taken place in Sydney within weeks of settlement. By the 1880s, the Melbourne Cup had already developed its reputation as 'the race that stops a nation'. Even in the remotest parts of Australia, people followed the results, and the Cup fashions were reported in magazines such as *The* Bulletin.

The White Australia ideal

One of the unifying threads that drew many Australian colonists together was a belief in white superiority. The settlers who colonised Australia had a profound belief that white, European civilisation was more advanced and complex than any other. In their dealings with the Indigenous people (and later with non-Europeans, especially Chinese and South Sea Islanders) the Australian colonists became more convinced of their superiority. By the late 19th century, as the colonists moved towards federation, a white Australia was seen as an essential component of the future that they envisioned for their nation.

Indigenous Australians

The belief in white superiority was reflected in the colonists' treatment of the original inhabitants. Much of the land on which the Aborigines had lived for up to 60 000 years was cleared and converted to farms or grazing land. Towns were often established at sites that were sacred to the Aborigines—on hills, river banks or in shaded valleys.

These actions broke down Aboriginal traditions and spiritual links with the land. By the time of federation, up to 80 per cent of the Aboriginal population had been destroyed by introduced diseases, loss of livelihood, alcohol abuse, malnutrition and violence. Most were living on reserves, missions or protectorates. There, they were usually forced to wear European clothes, convert to Christianity and live according to western customs and traditions (see Source 4.49). There was a general belief among the colonists that the Aborigines would eventually become extinct.

The Chinese and South Sea Islanders

During the gold rush era, more than 30 000 Chinese came to Australia to mine for gold. Many of those who remained faced severe discrimination, under the law and also in society. Suspicion of non-white immigrants, particularly Chinese, was based on two fears expressed by colonists. One was a fear that Chinese workers would work for lower wages and therefore present a threat to the working conditions of Australian colonists. The other was the purely racist notion that non-whites would contaminate the pure white race of British Australians. These views were widely expressed in parliament, in popular literature and in cartoons (see Source 4.52). One of the arguments frequently used by supporters of federation was that

Source 4.49 *Marriage of Aboriginal natives, Coranderrk*, wood engraving, 18.8 x 22.9 cm, Melbourne, *c.* 1873

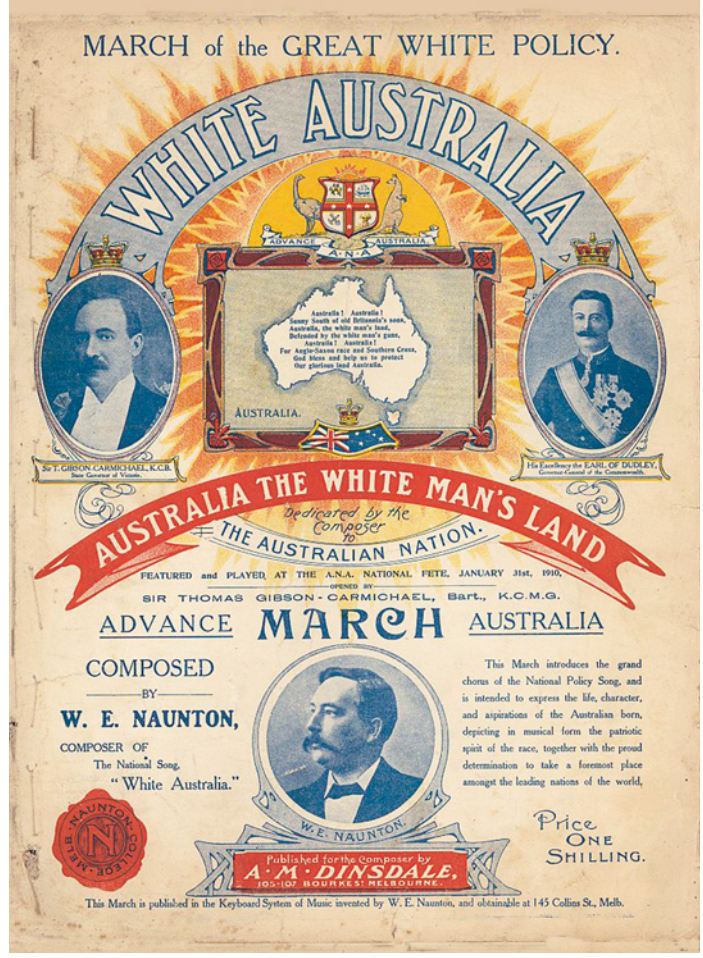
a united nation would be better able to make laws to restrict further 'unwanted' immigration.

From the 1860s, up to 50 000 South Sea Islanders, or Pacific Islanders, had been captured and brought to Queensland to work in the sugarcane fields. Conditions on these voyages were terrible and many died. Those who made it alive to Australia were excluded from the full rights of citizenship enjoyed by whites. Under the *Pacific Island Labourers Act 1901*, most of them were deported.

The White Australia ideal was an important element in Australia's developing sense of national identity. Indeed, one reason why Australians accepted federation was to enable a nationwide immigration policy. Alfred Deakin, who became Australia's second prime minister, was one of many politicians and campaigners for federation who expressed a desire to preserve Australia as a white nation (see Source 4.50). The very first law passed by the new parliament in 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act. This act used a complicated dictation test to ensure that only 'desirable' immigrants could enter the country.

Source 4.50

> *The unity of Australia is nothing, if that does not imply a united race. A united race not only means that its members can intermix, intermarry and associate without degradation on either side, but implies one inspired by the same ideas and an aspiration towards the same ideals, of a people possessing the same general cast of character, tone of thought, the same constitutional training and traditions ... Unity of race is an absolute essential to the unity of Australia.*
>
> Speech by Alfred Deakin on the Immigration Restriction Bill, Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates, 12 September 1901



Source 4.51 Sheet music for the 'White Australia' song, composed by WE Naunton, with words by Naunton and HJW Gyles, and performed at the Australian Natives' Association National Fete, 31 January 1910

Check your learning

1. In what ways had people living in Australia changed or adapted to their new environment by the late 19th century?
2. How was the growing appreciation of Australian flora and fauna and the way of life reflected through art and literature?
3. What role did negative attitudes towards non-whites play in the movement towards federation?
4. Explain how the trade union movement and the work of WG Spence aided in the development of Australian national identity.

Source 4.52 'The Mongolian Octopus—his grip on Australia', a cartoon that appeared in *The Bulletin* in 1886

freshideas

Explaining different attitudes and loyalties

There is often a tendency to generalise about large groups of people. This is something that the historian should attempt to avoid. At any given time, even groups that share many similar ideas will still have variations in their attitudes.

In the late 19th century, there were approximately 4 million people in Australia. Although they shared many similar attitudes and characteristics, they were not all the same. There were many different types of people with different backgrounds and experiences. This led them to have a range of attitudes towards the developing nation.

Differences could be explained by such factors as:

- age
- gender
- ethnic or national background
- place of birth
- residence in Australia (city, town or bush)
- education, occupation and economic circumstances
- length of time spent in Australia.

Examine the following profiles of people in the year 1898.

1 Draw up a chart placing the characters in order from 'Most likely to have a strong identification with Australia' to 'Least likely to have a strong identification with Australia'.

2 Explain and justify your choice of the 'most likely' and 'least likely'. Use evidence from the profiles and additional information from this chapter to support your views.

3 Explain what factors seem to you to be the most important in leading people to develop a close identification with Australia.

4 Can you suggest other factors or experiences that could have encouraged people to develop a strong sense of national identity with Australia?

Ernie O'Reilly (aged 41)

Ernie is the son of an Aboriginal woman and an Irishman who emigrated to Australia in the 1840s. As a child, Ernie lived on the fringes of white settlement and he learnt to read and write. Then his parents separated and his mother took Ernie back to live with her family. Ernie felt that he did not belong in either culture, but he gradually adapted to his new life and is now farming on a small allotment near his mother's traditional land. Life for him is a daily battle to make ends meet.

Maria Bortelli (aged 38)

Maria emigrated from Italy with her husband and five children in 1880. Her husband found work as a factory labourer and they rented a house in Collingwood, Melbourne. The children attended a local school. They suffered some discrimination but the boys were good footballers and this helped them to be accepted. In the 1890s depression, Stefano lost his job and Maria had to take in washing and ironing to make ends meet. Maria dreams of returning to her village in Calabria.

Yoh Lee Lieu (aged 63)

Lee Lieu came to Australia in 1855 at the age of 20. He mined for gold in Bendigo and suffered discrimination but not violence from European miners. He sent some gold back to his family but kept some to start a cabinetmaking business in Melbourne. He was very successful, and married the daughter of a Scottish immigrant. He would like to bring more members of his family to Melbourne but is prevented from doing so by the anti-Chinese immigration laws.

Herbert Gladesville (aged 57)

Herbert is a Toowoomba businessman and leader of the local branch of the Australian Natives Association. He is an active supporter of the federation campaign, because he believes that federation will benefit Queensland. Herbert's English-born mother had never really thought that Australian education was good enough for Herbert and sent him to boarding school and university in Britain.

bigideas

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

Remember

1 What overall vision did Australians have for their nation as they approached federation?

2 Why was a sense of Australian identity slow to develop during the 19th century?

Understand

3 How do you explain the fact that most Australians accepted the idea of an egalitarian society even though they often saw evidence to the contrary?

4 How important was the idea of a white Australia in the lead-up to federation?

Apply

5 Australia is regarded as an egalitarian society today. Think of three examples of laws or public policies that demonstrate Australia's egalitarianism today.

Analyse

6 Many of the accounts of life on the goldfields refer to the spirit of mateship and camaraderie that existed among the diggers. ST Gill's painting *The Invalid Digger* (Source 4.37) and Weston Bate's research suggest a different situation.

- a Conduct further research to discover which view is more likely to be accurate.
- b Use this material to write a short essay on the topic: 'Mateship on the goldfields, myth or reality?'

7 Re-read 'focus on contestability' about the myth of the Australian bushman.

- a What message does each extract in Sources 4.46 and 4.47 give about the life of the bushman? Refer to features of the poem and short story to support your analysis.
- b Why do you think that the vast majority of paintings, poems and stories from the late 19th century reflected a positive, romanticised image of the bushman?
- c What role do you believe this myth of the Australian bushman played in the development of a sense of Australian identity?

Evaluate

8 Examine Sources 4.41 to 4.44 and assess them as products of both a European and an Australian culture. Recreate the following table in your notebook and fill in the information.

Painting	European features	Australian features
Near Heidelberg		
Slumbering sea, Mentone		
Shearing the rams		
A holiday at Mentone		

Create

9 Make a list of all the elements that made up the sense of Australian identity in the late 19th century (such as belief in white superiority and the legend of the bushman). Use books and the Internet to collect a range of images that reflect these various elements, such as cartoons, paintings and pictures of people, buildings or gardens. Use the images to create a collage or an annotated PowerPoint demonstration.

Source 4.53 This photograph shows the procession of the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall going to open the first Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia in Melbourne, 9 May 1901.

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

In the early years of the 20th century, Australia was seen as one of the most progressive nations in the world. Laws relating to working conditions and welfare created what has been described as 'a working man's paradise'. The economy was strong and the new nation prospered. Nevertheless, it was by no means a perfect society. The benefits of this progress and prosperity were largely only open to white Australians of British origin. Asian and African immigrants were denied entry under the Immigration Restriction Act 1901, and many southern and eastern Europeans faced social discrimination. Moreover, the Indigenous people were ignored in the federal Constitution, and their standard of living fell far below that of mainstream Australians.

Demonstrating nationhood

Movement towards federation

On 1 January 1901, Australia became a nation. The **Federation** was achieved as a result of two **referendums**, one in 1898 and another in 1899. In the second referendum, a majority of people in most of the colonies voted to support the new Constitution that

Source 4.54

> *In Australia a man feels himself a unit in the community, a somebody; in England he is one amongst twenty-seven millions, a nobody. This feeling brings with it a greater sense of self-respect and responsibility. Altogether, then, it may be said that the balance of the modification is generally on the side of improvement rather than of deterioration. The Englishman in Australia improves more than he deteriorates.*
>
> Extract from Richard Ernest Twopeny, *Town Life in Australia*, 1883

would create the Commonwealth of Australia. The only colony in which the people did not vote for federation in 1899 was Western Australia, but the people of the west voted 'Yes' in the middle of 1900.

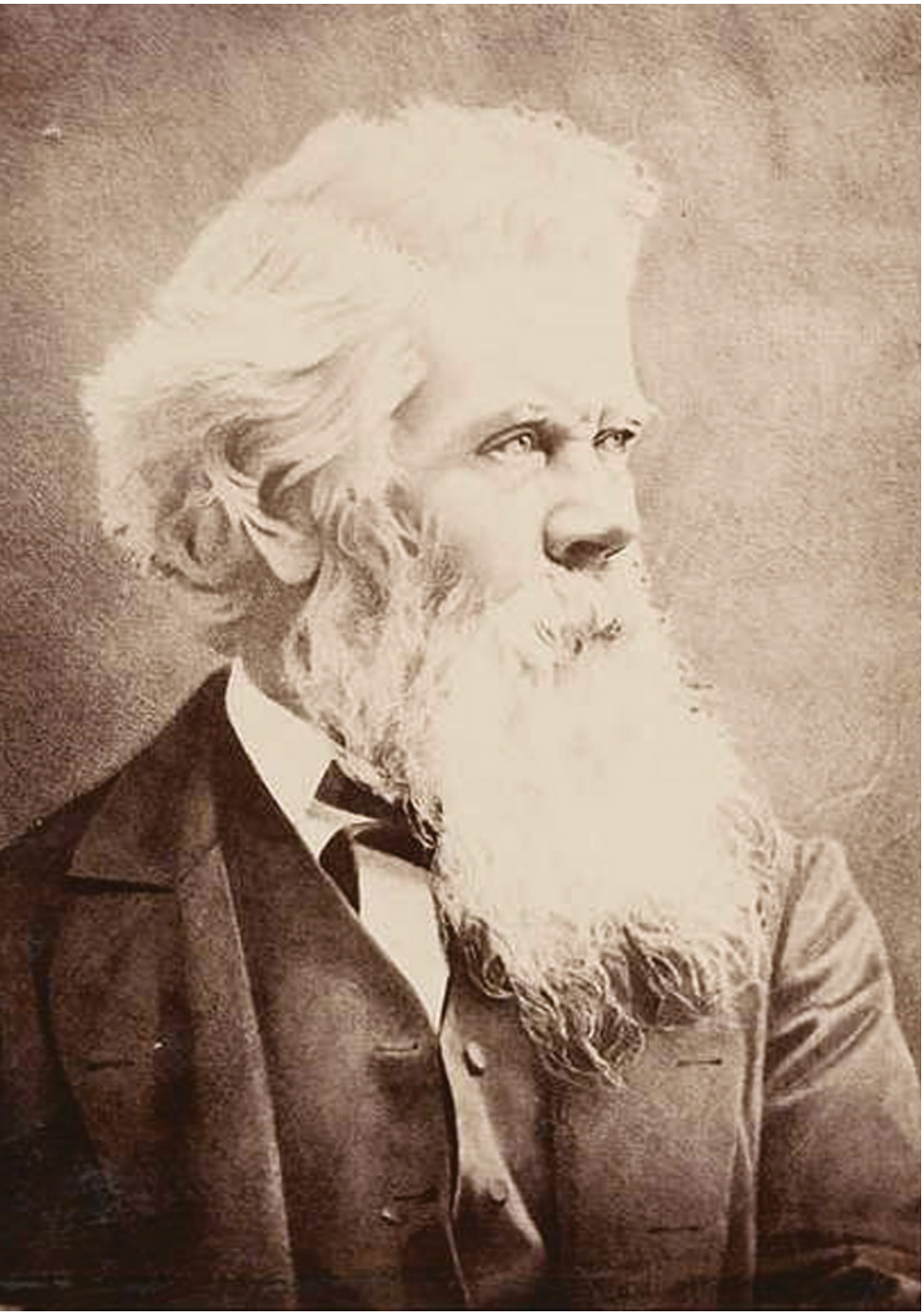
In the lead-up to federation, there was a shared belief that a single, unified country would provide ordinary people with the chance to create a new and superior society. They had a vision of a nation that included the best qualities of their British heritage, while providing opportunities for everyone, not just the privileged few.

It must be recognised, however, that the road towards federation was not always a smooth one. There were obstacles that had to be overcome before the people were ready to embrace the idea of one nation. These included a strong sense of local identity in some areas, and rivalries among colonies. Some people were also strongly loyal to the British Crown and resisted any lessening of British power. There were also disagreements as to the exact nature of the federation that was to be created. Some wanted a stronger central government, while others wanted the state governments to have the greatest power. Then there were those who simply resisted change and were happy for things to continue as they were.

Source 4.55 An invitation from the Government of Victoria to a celebration of Australia's Federation

Nevertheless, as the colonies approached the end of the 19th century, most of these obstacles were overcome. A majority of people voted in favour of the creation of the new Australian nation. Several other factors also encouraged this movement towards federation, including defence and economic concerns, and an increasing recognition of 'sameness' among the colonists.

The movement towards federation is generally regarded as having begun with Sir Henry Parkes' Tenterfield Address in 1889 (see Source 4.57). However, the idea had been around at least since 1847 when Henry Grey (the third Earl Grey)—British Colonial Secretary from 1846 to 1852—proposed a Federal Assembly. The intention was that this assembly would meet regularly to allow colonial leaders to discuss matters such as customs and tariffs, railways, and postage services. However, the idea was not taken up by the colonial leaders and the movement lapsed until the 1880s. The important steps in the federation campaign are summarised in Source 4.58.



Source 4.56 Sir Henry Parkes

Source 4.57

Instead of a confusion of names and geographical divisions, which so perplexes so many people at a distance, we shall be Australians, and a people with 7000 miles of coast, more than 2 000 000 square miles of land, with 4 000 000 of population, and shall present ourselves to the world as 'Australia'.

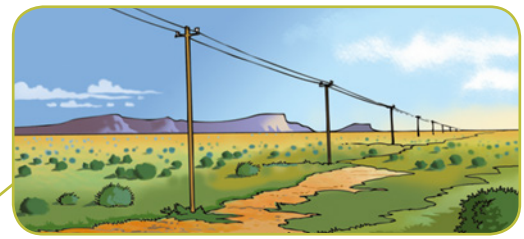
We shall at once rise to a higher level, we shall occupy a larger place in the contemplation of mankind, the sympathies of every part of the world will go out to us, and figuratively, they will hold out the right hand of fellowship.

Extract from the speech by
Sir Henry Parkes at Tenterfield,
New South Wales, on 24 October 1889

Source 4.58 Key stages in achieving federation

1847 Earl Grey proposes a loose colonial federation

1858 Telegraph links Melbourne, Sydney and Adelaide

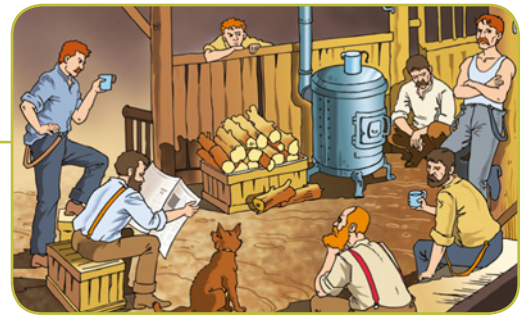


1867 Intercolonial conference on uniform postal issues

1871 Australian Natives Association formed

1876 All main Australian cities linked by telegraph

1879 First intercolonial trade union congress



1880 Intercolonial conference; main issue discussed is Asian immigration

First issue of *The Bulletin* published

1881 First Australia-wide census; Aboriginal people were excluded

1883 Federal council formed to start preparing a constitution for federation

1886–89 Federal council meets irregularly

1889 Major General Sir Bevan Edwards suggests a uniform defence policy for the colonies

Sir Henry Parkes delivers his famous speech at Tenterfield in favour of federation

Intercolonial trade union congress held; decision taken to put forward political candidates

1891–93 Depression and strikes; draft Constitution lapses

1893 First federation league formed; Corowa Conference and start of a popular federation movement

1897 Second federal Constitutional Convention held in Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide; second draft Constitution drawn up

1898 First referendum on the federal Constitution; passed by Victoria, Tasmania and South Australia and defeated by New South Wales

1899 Second referendum held, following amendments to the Constitution; passed by New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Queensland

1900 Queen Victoria signs the Australian Constitution; referendum passed in Western Australia

1901 Commonwealth of Australia proclaimed on 1 January 1901; first Commonwealth parliament opens in Melbourne on 9 May 1901

significant**individuals**

People who helped to shape the nation

Australia's emergence as a nation in 1901 was the result of the inspiration and effort of a wide range of colonists in the cities, in the bush, in important positions and in every walk of life. As the colonies developed, there was a growing recognition that Australia was a land with a great and optimistic future. The contributions of some of the significant individuals who shaped the nation have been recorded and celebrated. However, for every trade union leader, politician, journalist or feminist there were hundreds of thousands of ordinary men and women who played equally important roles in building the nation.

William Guthrie Spence

William Guthrie Spence (1846–1921) is known as the father of the Australian trade union movement. The child of gold rush immigrants, he worked as a miner before helping to form the Amalgamated Miners Association of Victoria in 1874. In the 1880s, he was the key figure in the formation of Australia-wide unions for miners and shearers.

Because these unions had large memberships, they were able to achieve better pay and conditions for workers. After the depression in the 1890s, employers tried to cut back on these gains. Spence then formed the Australian Workers Union, which covered miners, shearers and rural workers. Spence was a strong supporter of federation and was elected to the first Australian parliament in 1901.

Source 4.59 William Spence

Source 4.60 This statue of Sir Henry Parkes was unveiled in 1996 in Centennial Park, Sydney, on the centenary of his death.

Sir Henry Parkes

Born in England, Sir Henry Parkes (1815–1896) emigrated to Australia with his wife in 1839. He had a rich and varied career in commerce, publishing and politics, before serving five terms as Premier of New South Wales, between 1872 and 1892.

Parkes earned the title 'Father of Federation' following his famous Tenterfield speech in 1889. However, he had proposed the idea of federation as early as 1867 at an intercolonial conference.

In 1881, he proposed that a federal council be set up to start preparing a constitution for federation. The federal council came into being two years later. However, it did not meet with Parkes' approval as he did not believe that New South Wales had enough power to plan and work towards a federation. New South Wales did not take part in its early meetings during the 1880s.

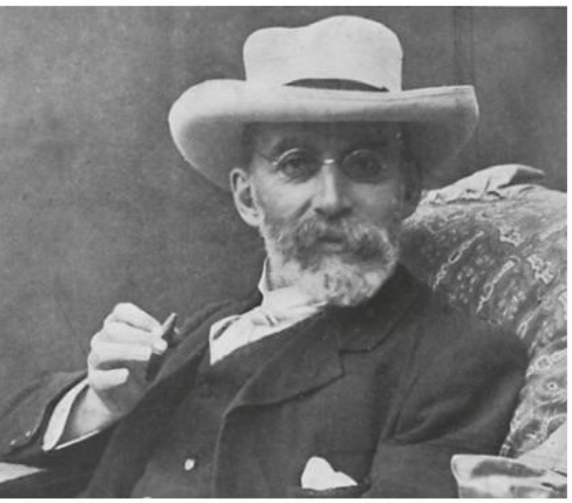
In 1891, Parkes was appointed Chairman of the National Australian Convention, held in Sydney. At this Convention, the first draft Constitution was developed. Over the

next few years several obstacles to the federation movement emerged. One was the depression of the 1890s. Another was the resignation of Parkes as Premier in October 1891. Nevertheless, Parkes did continue to promote the idea of unity. He argued strongly for federation in a lecture tour through Victoria in 1893. Parkes died in April 1896 from complications following pneumonia. Five years later the cause he had championed so strongly, federation, became a reality.

John Feltham Archibald

John Feltham Archibald (1856–1919) was a key figure in the literary and publishing life of the Australian colonies in the late 1800s and early 1900s. He played a significant role in raising awareness of an Australian national identity.

In 1880, Archibald established *The Bulletin* magazine, which he used to promote Australian art and literature. Nicknamed the 'bushman's bible', *The Bulletin* was read in shearing sheds, country pubs and all the capital cities around Australia. It was the first Australian magazine to pay real attention to local issues. It was also among the first to support values and characteristics that were distinctively Australian.



Source 4.61 John Archibald

Ironically, although the magazine claimed to promote egalitarian values, it also campaigned unashamedly for a white Australia. Some of its cartoons represented the Chinese in a grotesque manner (see Source 4.52). The August 1890 edition included a list of things denounced by *The Bulletin*—this included 'religious interference in politics, foreign titles and the Chinese'.

Archibald died in 1919, having left a bequest for an annual portrait prize. This Archibald Prize has become one of Australia's most prestigious art awards.

Catherine Helen Spence

Scottish-born Catherine Helen Spence (1825–1910) was one of Australia's earliest feminists. With her journalistic background, she was always able to articulate her views and opinions. She had a great interest in social reform, especially in relation to the rights of women. Spence was also the first woman to preach in a South Australian church and she worked hard to arrange foster homes for abandoned or at-risk children.

It was no surprise to those who knew her that Spence would also be at the forefront of the movement to gain votes for women. She became vice-president of the Women's Suffrage League in 1891 and played an important role in ensuring that South Australian women were the first in Australia to gain the vote, in 1894.

Women in South Australia had also won the right to stand as political candidates in 1894 and Spence was the first to take advantage of this change. She stood for election to the 1897 Federal Convention. Although she was unsuccessful (coming 22nd out of 33 candidates) her action still showed that women were capable of running political campaigns. She was a strong supporter of proportional representation in parliament and campaigned on this issue until her death in 1910.

Souce 4.62 Catherine Helen Spence

Check your learning

1. Briefly identify what you see as the key contribution of each of these individuals to the building of the Australian nation.
2. Why did the 1890s depression have a negative impact on union membership and union gains?
3. Sir Henry Parkes and John Feltham Archibald both contributed to the growth of national unity. Which do you believe made the greatest contribution and why?
4. Why do you think that Catherine Helen Spence had so little success in her attempt to be elected to the Federal Convention in 1897?

Defence concerns

In the early 1880s, a number of European countries were adding to their **empires** in Africa and Asia, and some were interested in setting up colonies in the Pacific region. Some colonists feared that this imperialist frenzy might lead to a takeover of some Australian territory.

A number of colonial leaders saw that the colonies could better defend themselves if they united. Two events in 1889 strengthened this view. The first was Major General Sir Bevan Edwards' examination of the defence systems of the colonies. His subsequent report to the British government recommended that the colonies form united defence forces and strategies. The second event was the speech given at Tenterfield by New South Wales Premier, Sir Henry Parkes. Parkes may have been inspired by Edwards' report, but his address went further. Parkes recommended the creation of an Australian government and set out steps by which it could be achieved.

Economic influences

Many historians argue that the main driver for federation was economic. Federation would allow branches of businesses, banks, import and export merchants and manufacturers to develop across colonial barriers. It would also allow for uniform trading policies. It was thought that one of the main obstacles to economic progress was the two different customs systems that operated between the colonies.

In Victoria, protective tariffs (taxes) were placed on all goods entering the colony from interstate or overseas. This made the imported products dearer and, therefore, 'protected' the manufacturers of locally made goods.

In New South Wales, no extra charge was placed on imported goods. This meant that imported goods were not more expensive than locally produced goods. Supporters of this policy of **free trade** argued that it would be easier to sell their goods overseas and in other colonies, if tariffs on incoming goods did not exist.

Removing tariffs imposed between colonies was supported by those who traded across borders, such as the farmers in the Riverina district of southern New South Wales. Although the rich wool-growing region of the Riverina was in New South Wales, it was easier for the farmers to market their wool through Victoria. The wool bales would be transported by riverboat through the Murray–Darling river system to Echuca, then by train to Melbourne. Federation and the removal of intercolonial tariffs would definitely advantage the Riverina wool growers.

On the other hand, sugarbeet growers in the Maffra area of Victoria opposed the removal of tariffs. They were in competition with the Queensland sugarcane growers. Because sugar importers had to pay a tariff to bring sugar into Victoria, Queensland sugar was more expensive. The Maffra sugar producers had no desire to have to compete on an equal footing with Queensland growers.

Source 4.63

> *Your Commissioners are firmly convinced that the welfare of Australia will be promoted by the abandonment of all restrictions upon intercolonial trade ...*
>
> *We recommend the adoption of intercolonial free trade, on the basis of a uniform tariff, and regard it as the corollary [natural consequence] of federation of the Australian colonies ... The benefits arising from intercolonial free trade will far outweigh any disadvantages which may result.*

Extract from a Report from the Royal Commission on Intercolonial Free Trade to the Parliament of South Australia, 1891

The 1890s depression

Another economic influence on federation came from the 1890s depression. The long boom from the 1860s, largely the result of gold, came to an end in the early 1890s with large-scale business collapses, a fall in farm prices and rising unemployment. Many in the eastern colonies, especially in Victoria and South Australia, argued that a centrally managed economy could prevent future depressions or allow them to be better managed.

The view in Western Australia was that a centralised economy would disadvantage the west because conditions there were very different. Western Australia was also concerned that because of its small population, it would not have a significant representation in a national parliament. This issue was addressed by the establishment of a two-house system.

Increasing recognition of 'sameness'

As politicians, business people, shearers, bush workers, hawkers (travelling salesmen), entertainers and railway workers travelled around the country, from colony to colony, they helped to spread news and stories from other areas. This phenomenon became known as the bush telegraph. The travellers and the people they encountered along the way became increasingly aware that the things that drew colonists together were far stronger than the things that drove them apart. This movement towards a common identity was also reflected in magazines such as the so-called 'bushman's bible', *The Bulletin*, which was widely read throughout the country.

By the 1890s, more than 70 per cent of the people in the Australian colonies had been born in Australia. Although many of their parents still spoke of Britain as 'home', the native-born were more likely to identify with Australia and to feel positively about the culture, customs and way of life. In the lead-up to federation, many appeals were made to the native-born (which did not include the Aborigines) to support the idea of a new nation. These arguments were set out in the pro-federation poster 'To the Australian Born' (see Source 4.65).

Source 4.64 Bush hawkers (travelling salesmen)

To the Australian Born.

No people in the world have been so manifestly marked out by destiny to live under one Government as the people of this island continent; but no people with so little reason have been so disunited in their public actions.

The Vote on Tuesday next will determine whether we will continue as we are, **a cluster of petty provinces,** each waging a wasteful competition with the other by means of hostile tariff's and railway rates; or whether **we shall have the courage to accept the responsibility cast upon us by our heritage of this great Continent.**

"A Continent for a People, a People for a Continent," was Mr. Barton's fine expression of a noble hope four years ago. If Australians are true to themselves this hope will be realised on June 20th.

All the difficulties in the way of Union vanish if we look at them as **Australians,** and not as the inhabitants of any single province. There should be no more difference between, say **Victoria** and **New South Wales,** than there is in **Great Britain** between **Somerset** and **Yorkshire.**

Australia is our home. Our aspiration is to **make Australia great.**

If this is **"sentiment"** it is also **"hard sense."** No Nation has ever played a worthy part in the world unless it has had confidence in its own future.

A Nation's Greatness does not depend upon Acreage of Territory or Material Wealth, but on the **nobleness of the thoughts by which its people are inspired;** and of all the impulses to noble deeds which history records there is none more universal or more potent than this sentiment of Nationality.

Let us become a Nation

and establish in the Southern Hemisphere a POWER which makes for Peace and Order in the sight of other nations, and which will prove to men of every race that the decendants of Britons in AUSTRALIA HAVE NOT LOST THEIR CAPACITY FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Source 4.65 A poster encouraging Australian-born citizens to vote for federation, 1899

Check your learning

1. What factors contributed to Sir Henry Parkes' title as the 'Father of Federation'?
2. Why do you think that it took until the 1880s before a distinctively Australian magazine became popular?
3. How do you think John Archibald would have explained the contradiction between the ideas of egalitarianism and racism expressed in his magazine?
4. What obstacles had to be overcome before federation could be achieved?
5. What was the connection between the defence fears of colonists and the arguments for federation?
6. What economic benefits did federation seem to offer to the colonies?
7. What influences could make a native-born Australian more likely to support federation than someone born overseas? (The profiles in Fresh Ideas could help you answer this question.)

Source 4.66 A handkerchief created as a souvenir of Australian Federation

The achievement of Federation

The Australian people had their first opportunity to vote on the federal **Constitution** in June 1898. For the referendum (a citizens' vote to change the Constitution) to be passed, a simple majority (over 50 per cent) was required in a majority of colonies. In the first referendum, only the people of New South Wales, South Australia, Tasmania and Victoria voted. A majority of people in each colony voted 'Yes'. However, the referendum was not passed. It had been stipulated that a minimum 'Yes' vote of 80 000 would be required in New South Wales, but only 71 595 was reached.

A year later, after some changes were made to the Constitution, a second referendum was held. This time, all colonies except Western Australia voted 'Yes'. The people of Western Australia had been less supportive of federation as they felt isolated from the eastern colonies. The sense of isolation was exaggerated by the fact that there was no rail connection between Perth and the other capital cities. Western Australia also had a small population and many feared that, in a federal parliament, its interests would be swamped by those of the larger colonies.

Source 4.67

> *It is all very well to talk about a Federal Australia. It may be highly sentimental and patriotic, but the stern questions are —Will it pay us? Will it pay the manufacturer of Western Australia to sacrifice his 15 or 20 per cent [tariff income] to meet the more advanced, better equipped and overstocked manufacturer of the eastern colonies?*

Extract from a letter by WT White to the *Bunbury Herald*, 31 May 1898

In 1900, the delegates took the agreed Constitution to London to have it approved by the British government. They were so confident that Western Australia would eventually join that they left a space in the Constitution document for the name Western Australia to be inserted. While they were in London, the news came through that the people of Western Australia had also voted to join the federation. Australia became a federation in January 1901, and the first Commonwealth parliament opened in May.

The Australian government

The Constitution outlined the structures through which Australia would be governed, and the roles and responsibilities of the prime minister and each state. The characteristics of the new government reflected the values of Australians at the time. Australians, who shared a common language and sense of belonging, wanted to govern themselves. However, they still believed that they were a part of the British Empire and so retained the British style of government, the parliamentary system and the monarch.

The Australian government is a federal system, made up of a group of states and territories—the former colonies. The federal government makes decisions about matters that affect the whole country, such as defence, immigration and money. State and territory governments remain responsible for local issues, such as roads and hospitals.

The government was established as a bicameral system. This means it was made up of two houses of parliament: the House of Representatives and the Senate. The system of government is largely based on the British or Westminster system, but the two-house system is modelled on the American government. This was because there was some anxiety about uneven populations in the different states.

The House of Representatives, sometimes called the lower house, represents all the people of Australia. It is made up of representatives of electorates that are formed on the basis of population. Therefore the most populous state, New South Wales, has the largest number of seats in the House of Representatives and Tasmania has the smallest. The lower house is responsible for the formation of the government. The government is formed by the party or parties that have the majority of elected delegates. The Prime Minister generally is leader of that party and is responsible for the overall governing of the nation.

The Senate represents the states that make up the Commonwealth. All of the states are given equal representation in the Senate, regardless of population. The Senate's role is to monitor and review the actions of the House of Representatives. The Senate also has the right to block the proposed legislation of the government and to send legislation back to the House of Representatives with suggested amendments.

Check your learning

1 What can you learn from the fact that New South Wales set a higher than 50 per cent target to gain a 'Yes' vote in the federation referendums?

2 Read the letter from WT White to the *Bunbury Herald* (Source 4.67).
   - a What main argument is he using against Western Australia's joining the federation?
   - b Suggest two other reasons why many Western Australians were not enthusiastic about federation.
   - c Suggest one reason why some people in Western Australia did support federation and eventually voted for it.

3 Examine the souvenir handkerchief (Source 4.66). Does anything about it surprise you? Explain your answer.

The nation after federation

Once Australia became a federation, the issues and ideals that had formed the nation continued to be important. National identity continued to play a role in determining Australia's economic and social policies. The nation in the early 20th century was regarded as one of the most progressive in the world. Its standard of living was high, the pay and conditions of workers were improving, women had more democratic rights than women in most other parts of the world, and the fledgling sense of Australian identity became stronger and more confident.

A working man's paradise

As we have seen, some supporters of federation believed it would become easier to improve workers' rights. Some expected a 'working man's paradise' to develop. By the turn of the century, many people who had come to the Australian colonies were prospering. Pastoralists, merchants and manufacturers were among those who enjoyed a comfortable lifestyle.

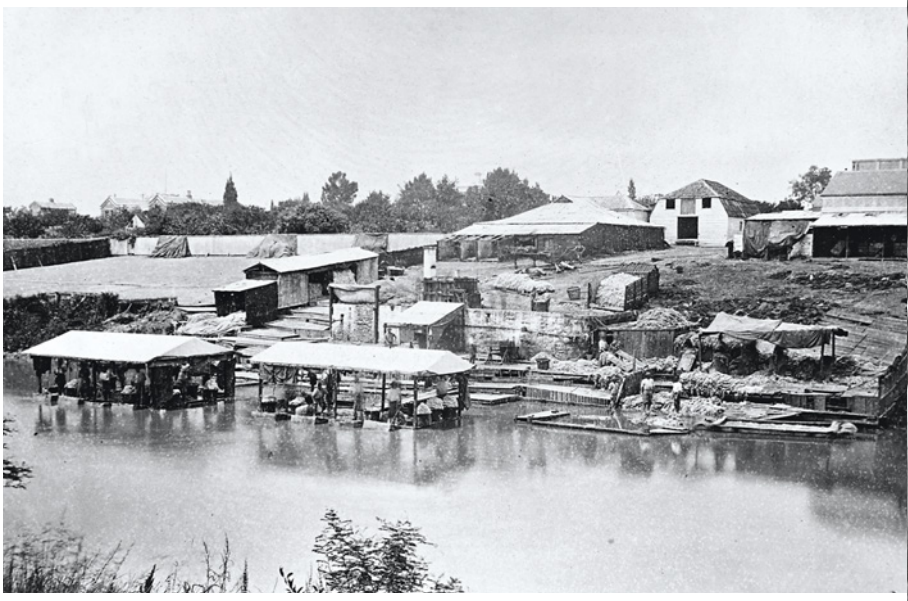
Even before federation, numerous opportunities were open to ordinary people. From the 1870s, free and compulsory education was available to all children up to Year 8. Also, a large portion of the male population had the right to vote by then. In the years following federation, a number of laws contributed further to this **egalitarian** idea.

Working conditions

For many men, the early years of the 20th century offered rights and conditions that were unheard of in other parts of the world: a guaranteed basic wage, an eight-hour day (with a half day on Saturday), a pension if he lived to 65 and assistance should he become disabled or unable to work before that age.

The diet of most Australians, even those on low wages, included plenty of meat and vegetables, and all children received a free dental check-up once a year. Many workers managed to find the few shillings necessary to belong to a friendly society (an insurance organisation that relied on mutual support between members), which provided some insurance against medical and hospital bills.

Nevertheless, life for working people was still not ideal. Many factory workers toiled in unsafe and unhealthy conditions. The factories were poorly ventilated, extremely hot in summer and cold and damp in winter. They tended to be overcrowded. There were no safety regulations for workers working on often poorly maintained machinery and injuries were common.



Source 4.68 This photograph from around 1870 shows wool-washing on the banks of the Yarra River in Melbourne. The owners of the factories and processing plants that lined the river used it as an outlet for their waste.

Source 4.69 Rippon Lea House in Melbourne in 1903, home of the Sargood family in 1903

Source 4.70 A working-class family home in Melbourne *c.* 1890

Factory workers also had to work long hours. Although the standard was the eight-hour day, many workers were expected to do more and overtime often went unpaid. They had no protection in times of short-term illness and no unemployment benefits. In spite of the overall prosperity of the economy, employment was unstable and erratic among unskilled and semi-skilled workers. The factories, which were often situated in working-class areas, polluted the air and waterways with chemicals and other wastes (see Source 4.68).

Living conditions

Housing

Despite egalitarian ideals, all Australians did not live equally. In the cities, the wealthy lived in large homes with gracious gardens and servants to attend to their needs. Meanwhile, working people tended to live in humble, overcrowded rented cottages with few facilities and little hope of ever becoming homeowners.

These cottages tended to be small inner-city terraces or attached houses built in rows alongside factories. Families with eight or more children would occupy these houses, often with all the children sleeping in one room. The buildings were usually shoddily built from cheap materials and had little insulation.

Health and sanitation

While the middle and upper classes could afford proper sewerage and plumbing in their homes, these facilities were not provided in the workers' cottages. The toilet was generally a can with a seat resting on the top of it. It was situated in a small shed outdoors near a back alley. The waste would be taken away by waste collectors called 'nightmen'.

These poor housing conditions often led to serious illnesses among the working class. The lack of sanitation encouraged the spread of infectious diseases such as whooping cough, tuberculosis and diphtheria. These diseases often hit the young, and infant mortality rates were high. In 1901, there were 103.6 deaths for every 1000 live births. For the first decade of the 20th century, male children had a life expectancy of 55.2 years and females 58.4 years.

Education

All children were given free access to education through government schools up to Year 8. But many children from poorer families were expected to work as soon as possible to help support the family. Children from affluent families attended private schools. Education for girls tended to focus on subjects such as literature, music and French. As well, they were prepared in how to run a household. Boys were encouraged to continue with their education through to tertiary level and to be trained in a profession.

Improving the working man's paradise

The image of the working man's paradise was challenged by Henry Lawson in his poem 'Faces in the Street' (see Source 4.71). Moreover, many women and most non-whites (including Aborigines and many Asians) were excluded from full citizenship rights.

Protections for workers

In the early years of the 20th century a number of social reforms were made to improve the lives of workers in Australia.

Harvester Judgment (1907)

One of the most important reforms of this time was the introduction of the principle of a basic minimum wage. This wage ($4.20 per week) was deemed to be enough to support a man, his wife and three or four children in basic comfort.

The issue was brought to the attention of Justice Higgins in 1907 when the owner of the Sunshine Harvester Company of Victoria applied to the Commonwealth Arbitration Court for permission to sell his farm machinery without paying the excise tariff. The owner had to show that he was paying his workers a fair wage. Justice Higgins investigated the amount that would be needed under normal circumstances a worker would need to support himself and his family. He set down this amount in his judgment.

Invalid and old-age pensions

The Invalid and Old Age Pensions Act was passed in 1908. This was in response to the growing numbers of people aged over 65 years in the population at this time. The period 1891–1902 saw this number increase by 60 per cent. It came about in recognition of the fact that many invalids and elderly people had no means of supporting themselves. They had worked hard to build the country, paid their taxes and they deserved some help in return.

Maternity Allowances Act

In 1912 the Labor government introduced the Maternity Allowances Act. The aim was to reduce infant mortality rates by improving access to medical services for pregnant women. The government also agreed to pay five pounds to the mother at the birth of every child.

Source 4.71

They lie, the men who tell us for reasons of their own
That want is here a stranger, and that misery's unknown;
For where the nearest suburb and the city proper meet
My window-sill is level with the faces in the street
Drifting past, drifting past,
To the beat of weary feet
While I sorrow for the owners of those faces in the street.

And cause I have to sorrow, in a land so young and fair,
To see upon those faces stamped the marks of Want and Care;
I look in vain for traces of the fresh and fair and sweet
In sallow, sunken faces that are drifting through the street
Drifting on, drifting on,
To the scrape of restless feet;
I can sorrow for the owners of the faces in the street.

An extract from 'Faces in the Street' by Henry Lawson, 1888

This lump sum was known as the 'baby bonus' and was designed to encourage women to have more children to build a stronger Australia with a bigger white population. Women who preferred to work rather than marry and have children were accused of selfishness and of putting their own desires before the needs of the nation.

The 'baby bonus' was not available to Aboriginal women.

Source 4.72 Early laws of federation

Law	Description
Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902	Extended the right to all women over 21 to vote in federal elections. However, women could not vote in state elections in Queensland until 1907 and Victoria until 1908. Under an amendment to this Act, Aborigines, including those who had been entitled to vote under the Constitution in 1901, were now denied the right to vote. It was 1965 before all obstacles to Aborigines' voting had been removed.
Conciliation and Arbitration Act 1904	Gave employers and unionists a forum to settle industrial disputes.
Harvester Judgement (1907)	Set a basic weekly wage, which was equivalent to $4.20 for a man, his wife and four children.
Invalid and Old Age Pensions Act 1908	Enabled men over 65 to retire on a modest pension. It also provided support for men unable to work because of a severe disability. The pension was means tested and amounted to approximately $1.00 per week.

Women's rights

Women did not have equality with men, but from the beginning of colonisation they had played a significant role in the development of the country. They had shown over the course of the 19th century a growing tendency to share the burdens of clearing the land, tending farms and developing the inland. From 1870, primary education had been compulsory for all boys and girls so that by the time of federation, most young adults had basic literacy and numeracy skills.

By the 1890s, small numbers of women were beginning to complete secondary education and enter university. Sydney University first opened its doors to women students in 1881.

There had been some agitation for **suffrage** (voting rights) for women from the 1880s, and the first Women's Suffrage Society was formed in 1889. In 1894, South Australian women were granted the right to vote and the right to stand for parliament. This right was extended to women in Western Australia in 1899. Catherine Helen Spence became the first woman in Australia (and possibly the world) to stand for political office. She stood (unsuccessfully) for a seat at the Second Federal Constitutional Convention in 1897.

The federal Constitution adopted in 1901 allowed all people who already had the right to vote in their states, to exercise this right in federal elections. This meant that all men and women in South Australia and Western Australia and Aborigines in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania were allowed to vote (although few Aborigines exercised this right).

In one of the earliest Acts of the new parliament, the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*, the vote was extended to all Australian women over 21 and taken away from Aborigines.

These political rights meant Australian women enjoyed greater freedoms than others in most parts of the world. Nevertheless, they were by no means equal to men. The average wage for female workers was just over half the male wage, they had few rights in cases of divorce or desertion, and they lost all rights to property if they married. A single woman who inherited money or property was allowed to keep it but a married woman had to pass ownership to her husband.

Check your learning

1. What evidence is there that Australia could be called a 'working man's paradise' in the early 20th century?
2. List the positive and negative features of the position of women at this time.
3. What was the link between free and compulsory education and the movement for women's rights?

Defending the nation

The new Australian government was officially responsible for defence and foreign policy. In reality, though, all decisions on external matters were still in the hands of the British government. This was demonstrated when Australian soldiers fought alongside the British forces in World War I (see Chapter 5). Over the next 13 years, several events led to limited increases in the defence capabilities of the Australian government (see Source 4.73). These small steps did not mean Australia was able to defend itself against invasion or attack. However, they did increase the sense of independence and self-confidence of the new nation.

Source 4.73 A time line showing increases in Australia's defence capabilities, 1903–1911

1903	The Defence Act established compulsory military training for home defence.
1907	Alfred Deakin won the approval of the British government to set up an Australian navy.
1908	The Australian government invited the United States fleet to visit Australia, without consulting Britain.
1909	The Australian naval fleet was officially commissioned at a cost of $7 million. Compulsory military training for men and boys was extended.
1911	The Royal Military College was established at Duntroon in Canberra.

A distinctive Australian culture

Expressions of Australian identity through art, literature, journalism, clothing, buildings, sport and social practices became even stronger once the nation was created.

In the early part of the 20th century, the artists began to show the Australian landscape and lifestyle more confidently and realistically. Hans Heysen's *A lord of the bush*, 1908, is unmistakably Australian, with none of the influence of French Impressionism that was present in the late 19th century paintings (see Source 4.74).

Literature also became more obviously Australian. The poems of Bernard O'Dowd celebrated Australia's nationhood, and Joseph Furphy published his classic novel of the Australian bush, *Such is Life*, in 1903. The bush stories of Steele Rudd were put into dramatic form in 1912, drawing enthusiastic audiences for *On Our Selection* and *Dad and Dave*.

One of the world's first full-length movies was made in Victoria in 1906. This achievement was a sign of Australia's new confidence as a nation. The subject was the colonial outlaw Ned Kelly.

Source 4.74

Hans Heysen
born Germany 1877, arrived Australia *c.* 1884, died 1968
A lord of the bush 1908
oil on canvas
134.0 x 103.0 cm
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Felton Bequest, 1908

Australian signs and symbols were increasingly used. The Australian flag was officially approved by King Edward VII in 1903. While the Southern Cross was depicted, the Union Flag (popularly called the Union Jack) in the upper left-hand corner showed our continuing connection to Britain. The Australian Coat of Arms, adopted in 1912, also used distinctively Australian symbols. The red kangaroo and emu are set against our national flower, the wattle.

The Immigration Restriction Act

The Immigration Restriction Act was the first law to be passed by the Commonwealth parliament in 1901. This Act, which came to be known as the White Australia Policy, did not specifically exclude non-whites from entering the country. It simply stated that a prospective immigrant could be given a dictation test in any language chosen by an immigration official. Unwanted immigrants were simply given the test in a language they did not understand. The result of this system was that very few non-whites were admitted to Australia and after a few years, non-white immigrants were less and less likely to apply to enter Australia. It was the 1960s before the phasing-out of this policy began.

Ironically, there was still a strong Chinese presence in Australia. Many were gold immigrants or their children, and some had developed successful businesses and had positive feelings about the country. At federation, the Chinese communities in the capital cities and former gold towns enthusiastically celebrated the occasion with street arches and parades (see Source 4.75).

In the early 20th century, only a few were willing to argue against the racism of the majority. A Tasmanian politician, Norman Cameron, argued in parliament against the Immigration Restriction Bill of 1901, as did Melbourne bookseller EW Cole, and Bernard O'Dowd, the editor of the labour newspaper *Tocsin*.

Source 4.75 Chinese Arch, Melbourne, 1901, Australian Federation celebrations

Source 4.76

> *I know that the coloured races are classed inferior races, but I must admit that I cannot see evidence of their inferiority which do not equally brand the white races of Europe and America as inferior. The notion of inferiority appears to me to be a myth sprung originally from European ignorance and nourished now by a foolish self conceit.*
>
> Bernard O'Dowd, *Tocsin*, 25 April 1901

Check your learning

1. List four laws or other features of the new nation that support the belief in white superiority.
2. In what ways did Australian culture become more distinctively Australian after federation? Can you explain this change?
3. What point is Henry Lawson making in the poem 'Faces in the Street' (Source 4.71)? Look at the legislation passed by the new parliament (Source 4.72). Do you think that Lawson might have written a slightly different poem in 1908?
4. Examine the steps taken by Australia towards an independent defence policy before 1912 (Source 4.73). Which do you believe to be the most important of these steps and why?

Aboriginal people after federation

When the colonies federated, many of the rights extended to the citizens of this new nation were denied to the original inhabitants. Under section 51, the Constitution specifically stated that the federal government had no power to make laws for Aborigines. This power remained in the hands of the states. Moreover, under section 128, Aboriginal people were not to be counted in the census, effectively denying them membership of the Australian community.

In addition, a number of Acts passed by the new Commonwealth parliament specifically excluded Aborigines. They were not entitled to vote (even though some Aborigines could vote before federation). They were denied the basic wage and they were not eligible for aged and invalid pensions. They were excluded from military training, and Aboriginal mothers did not receive the baby bonus.

The Commonwealth government also sought to control the movement of Aboriginal people within the country, leading to policies such as the forced adoption or institutionalisation of some part-Aboriginal children. These children have been described as the **Stolen Generations**.

Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson was one of the strongest opponents of Aboriginal people being given the right to vote (see Source 4.77).

Source 4.77

> *We must take steps to prevent any Aboriginal from acquiring the right to vote. Surely it is absolutely repugnant to the greater number of the people of the Commonwealth that an Aboriginal man or Aboriginal lubra or gin [woman]—a horrible, degraded, dirty creature—should have the same rights that we have decided to give to our wives and daughters ... The honourable gentleman fails to recognise that we have taken this country from the blacks, and made it a white man's country, and intend to keep it a white man's country, so that there is no earthly use in the honourable gentleman saying that 100 years ago this was a black man's country ... We are aware of the fact that it is very regrettable, and the only consolation we have is that they are gradually dying out.*
>
> Western Australian Senator Alexander Matheson, Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates, Senate, 22 May 1901

Source 4.78 'At the ANA Gala', *Melbourne Punch*, 28 January 1897. This cartoon shows Aboriginal people being denied entry to an Australian Natives Association fête.

However, not all attitudes towards Indigenous people were negative. The Australian Natives Association (ANA) did not allow Aboriginal members, but it is interesting that some of its members did speak out against the treatment of Aborigines. In a letter to *The Age* on 7 June 1901, the General Secretary protested against 'the alleged inhuman treatment of Aborigines in Western Australia'. The letter also stated that 'this Association takes a deep interest in this subject'.

In 1902, the Commonwealth Electoral Act was passed, making some changes to voting rights. In the parliamentary debates leading up to this Act, some argued that Aboriginal people should be allowed to vote. Among them was government Senator and future High Court Judge Richard O'Connor. He stated: 'I think we might treat the position of Aborigines under our electoral laws not only fairly but with some generosity ... ' However, O'Connor received very little support and when the Act was passed, all voting rights were taken away from Indigenous Australians. It was not until 1965 that all Aborigines were given full voting rights. The last state to extend voting rights to Aborigines was Queensland.

The Stolen Generations

The Stolen Generations is a term that refers to children of Australian Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander descent who were removed (sometimes forcibly) from their families by governments, churches and welfare bodies. Most were brought up in institutions or fostered out to white families. The practice had begun in the earliest days of European settlement, when children were used as guides, servants and farm labour. Removing these children from their families was official government policy in some states until 1969.

The extent of the removal of these children and the reasoning behind their removal are contested. Newspaper articles and reports to parliamentary committees suggest a range of motivations. These included child protection, beliefs that Australia's Indigenous people would 'die out', and a desire to 'civilise' Indigenous children through their **assimilation** into white society.

Source 4.79 In 2008, a crowd gathered in Perth to watch Prime Minister Kevin Rudd's historic apology broadcast from Canberra live on a big screen

In 1995, the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from their Families was established. The Inquiry report, called *Bringing them home*, was tabled in the Commonwealth Parliament on 26 May 1997. The Inquiry found that between one-tenth and one-third of Indigenous children were removed from their families, but could not be more precise due to the poor state of records.

On 13 February 2008, the then Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd, issued a formal apology to the Stolen Generations.

Check your learning

1. Identify four specific ways in which Aborigines were left out of participation in the new nation.
2. What are three points about Aborigines made by Senator Matheson in Source 4.77?
3. Rewrite the document by Senator Matheson as though you are an educated Aboriginal man or woman commenting on what the white people have done to your land and culture.
4. Why is there controversy around the issue of the Stolen Generations?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 What were three factors, apart from national identity, that helped to bring about federation?

2 How was the federation of the Australian colonies actually achieved?

Understand

3 Why was Sir Henry Parkes known as the 'Father of Federation'? Do you believe that he deserved this title?

4 How important was the idea of a white Australia in the lead-up to federation and the early years of the new nation?

5 Why do you think that Chinese colonists were so enthusiastic about celebrating federation?

Apply

6 Put yourself in the position of someone who has been a supporter of federation since reading Henry Grey's proposal in 1847. Write a letter to a newspaper dated 1880 putting forward the case for federation. Make reference to the benefits that you believe would come from federation.

7 Look at the invitation to Victoria's federation celebrations (Source 4.55).

- a Choose three of the symbols used on this invitation and suggest why they may have been included.
- b What is it about this invitation that suggests that the federation of the Australian colonies was seen as an occasion for great celebration?
- c Suggest three possible reasons why many Australians supported federation at this time.

8 Women in Victoria were able to vote in federal elections from 1902. However, they could not vote in state elections until 1908. In pairs, prepare a role play between a Victorian suffragette and a man opposed to extending votes to women. The dialogue takes place in 1905.

9 Research one of the following leaders of the federation movement: Alfred Deakin, Edmund Barton, Dr John Quick, David Syme or Samuel Griffith. Imagine you have been asked to write a newspaper obituary or deliver a eulogy at the funeral of your chosen leader. You should cover:

- his brief biographical details
- personality features or 'quirky' stories
- his role in the federation movement
- an overall evaluation of his contribution
- a prediction on how his role in Australian history will be viewed.

10 Briefly explain the terms 'free trade' and 'protection'.

11 You are setting up a toy-manufacturing business. The toys are made from a combination of local and imported materials. Prepare a report for your partners arguing the case for either protection or free trade. You should also explain why the other choice would not suit your business.

Analyse

12 Look carefully at the paintings *Near Heidelberg* by Arthur Streeton (Source 4.41) and *A lord of the bush* by Hans Heysen (Source 4.74).

- a Compare their composition, use of colour, and the ways in which the landscape and environment are shown.
- b Which do you believe to be more distinctively Australian? Refer to features of the painting to support your view.
- c How would you explain the changes in style and composition between the two paintings completed nearly 20 years apart?

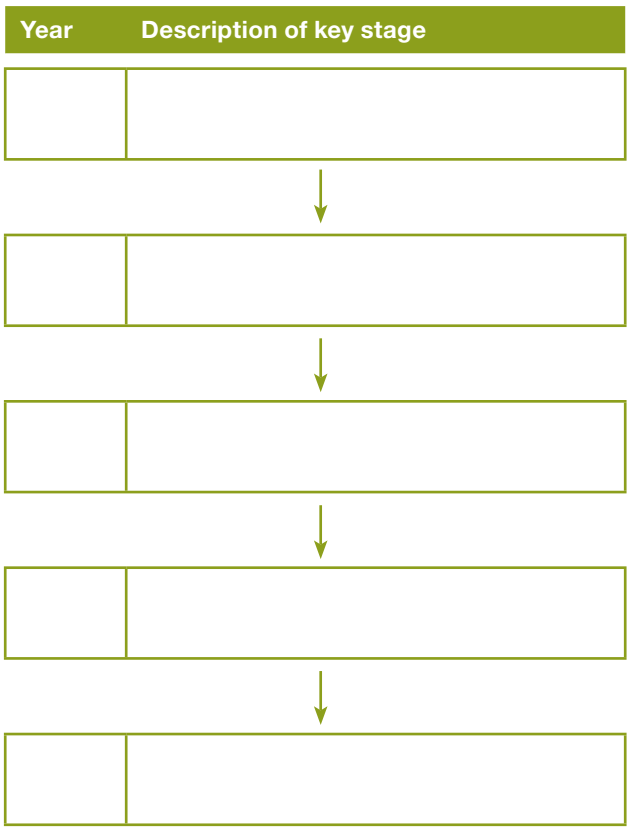
13 Using Google Images, search for *Bulletin* cartoons, 1880s and 1890s. Select three cartoons that reflect different aspects of the growing sense of Australian identity that you have read about in this chapter.

Evaluate

14 Examine the Sargood family photo (Source 4.69). To what extent is the image presented in this photo typical of life for Australian people in the early 20th century? Use other information in this chapter, plus additional research, to support your answer.

15 Look again at the key stages in the achievement of federation (Source 4.58).

- a In your notebook, create a flowchart such as the one shown below, and identify five stages that you consider to have been the most important. Put the stages in chronological order.
- b Provide a brief explanation justifying your selection of each stage you have chosen.



Create

16 In groups, construct a board game that reflects the federation movement. Use Source 4.58 and other information in this chapter, along with and additional research. Your game should reflect the factors that led to federation, as well as the factors that hindered the movement. You might like to consider a 'snakes and ladders' format.

17 Prepare a poster designed to encourage colonists to vote for federation in the 1899 referendum. It should appeal to national identity and at least two other influences on federation.

18 Create a PowerPoint or Photo Story demonstration of the key steps in the movement towards federation.

19 Imagine that you are Catherine Helen Spence. Prepare and record an audio or video presentation of the campaign speech that you used to attempt to gain election to the 1897 Federal Constitutional Convention. Your speech should deal with the importance of federation and the convention, and the reasons why you, as a woman, would be an excellent candidate.

20 Look at the observation about Australian people by RE Twopeny (Source 4.54). This was a view shared by many in the late 19th century, but not by all. There were still some colonists and visitors who saw the Australian colonists as brash and vulgar. There were others who resented the egalitarian spirit and wished to retain the strict class system that existed in Britain. Imagine that you are a wealthy pastoralist who disagrees with Twopeny's observations. Rewrite the document reflecting your horror at the views expressed. You may draw on other sources, including the *Melbourne Punch* cartoon in Source 4.78.

connectingideas

Another 'gold' rush?

When gold was discovered in Australia, it led to great changes in Australian society and culture. Some historians consider the gold rushes to be one of the most significant events in Australia—one that boosted the economy and the social development of the young nation. Around 100 years later, Australia is experiencing what many might call a second gold rush—this time in the form of a 'mining boom'. This is the term used to describe the dramatic increase in sales of Australian ore and minerals to overseas markets.

Source 4.80
Open-cut coal mining near Newcastle today

The historical view

Geologically, Australia is a fortunate country. It is rich in all kinds of minerals, ores, and metals. Since the Industrial Revolution, many of those minerals have become economically important. Coal was being extracted by the end of the 18th century near Newcastle in New South Wales. It became the colony's first export when it was sent to Bengal in 1799. The city of Newcastle grew on the back of the coal industry, and later became a significant producer of steel.

By the time of the gold rushes, exports of South Australian copper and lead brought in more money than wool and wheat from all of Australia. By the end of the 19th century, mining was crucial to the Australian economy. Tin, gold, silver, lead, zinc and iron ore across Australia provided much of the wealth at the time of Federation.

1 What was Australia's first export?

2 Why would there have been a demand for Australian minerals in the 19th century?

A modern boom

In the 1960s, limits on the export of iron ore were lifted, and mining in Western Australia started a minerals boom. In the 21st century, Australia is one of the world's leading mineral producers. A 'mining boom' has been referred to in the media in Australia since 2003. In 2006–2007, mineral exports totalled $107.8 billion (around 77 per cent of Australia's total commodity trade). Australia has the world's largest resources of brown coal, lead, nickel, uranium and zinc, and ranks second in the world for metals like copper, gold and silver.

There is no doubt that mining makes a major contribution to Australia's economy. That contribution is not without criticism, however. Critics comment on the fact that the mining industry only employs about 2 per cent of the Australian population, that Australia exports raw materials rather than process them here, that many of the profits go to overseas countries, that the distribution of minerals means some states get more benefits than others, and that the mining industry is ultimately unsustainable and environmentally destructive.

1 How important is the mining industry to 21st century Australia?

2 Look at the criticisms in the second paragraph. Which of the criticisms do you think is the most important to address?

Source 4.81 Mt Whaleback, the largest single-pit, open-cut iron ore mine in the world

The future

Will the 21st century mining boom change Australia in the way the gold rushes did? Certainly the wealth the mining boom is generating is seen as a once-in-a-generation opportunity to invest in Australia. As long as China and India continue to demand Australian resources, the boom will continue. Governments want to ensure they use the money to develop infrastructure projects such as transport and environmental projects to 'remake' the nation.

Certainly a major difference since the gold rushes has been the emergence of sustainability as an important factor in considering future directions. Australian governments now face the choice of using funds from non-renewable resources. They have to decide whether the country should prioritise education and the environment for investment, or develop industries that may create more jobs.

1 What is a non-renewable resource?

2 Should we use Australia's resources to benefit the nation?

Source 4.82 A future worth investing in?

Q As a class discuss the following: What should Australia do with the wealth generated by the mining boom of the 21st century?

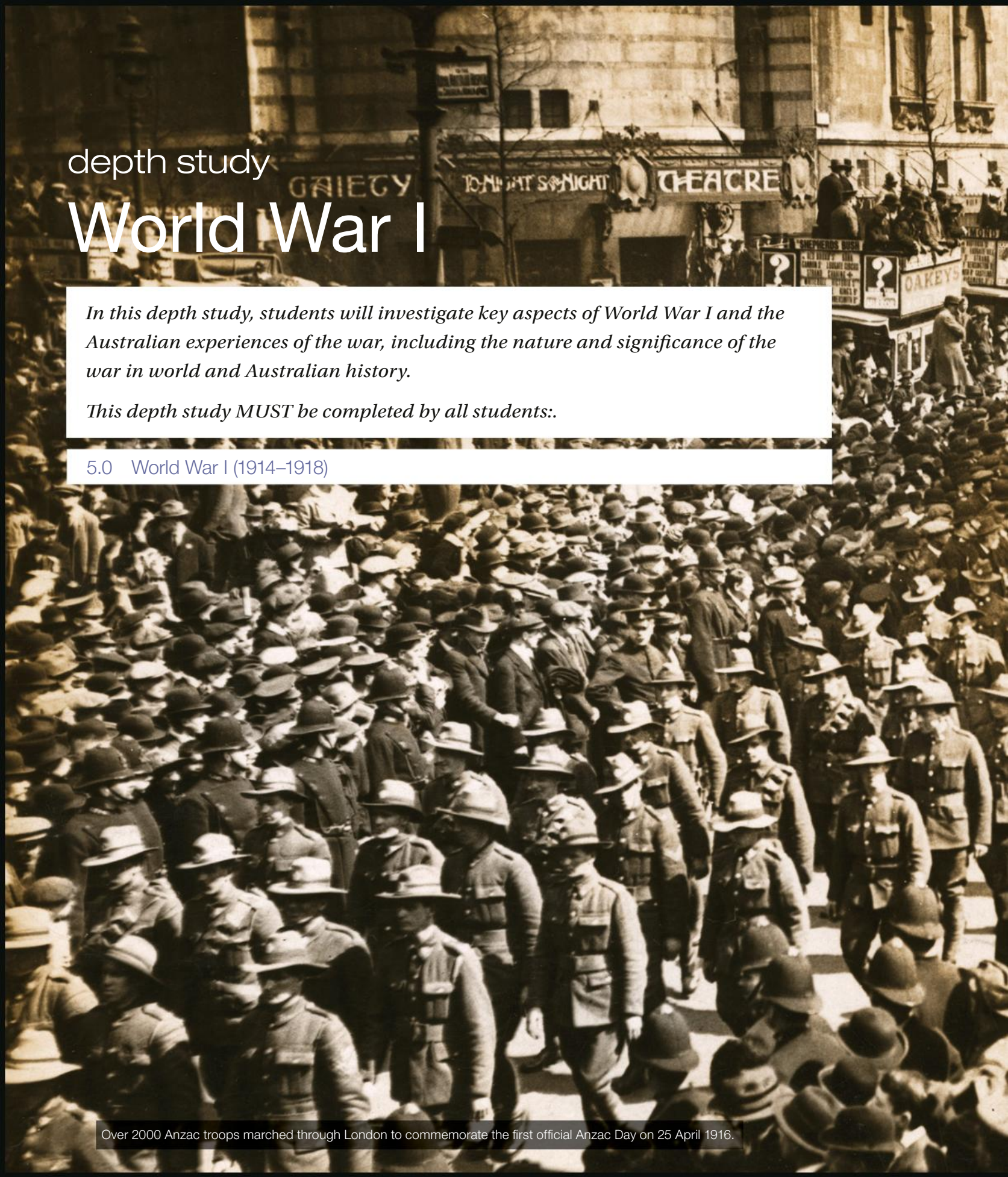
depth study

World War I

In this depth study, students will investigate key aspects of World War I and the Australian experiences of the war, including the nature and significance of the war in world and Australian history.

This depth study MUST be completed by all students:.

5.0 World War I (1914–1918)



Over 2000 Anzac troops marched through London to commemorate the first official Anzac Day on 25 April 1916.

depth study

World War I
(1914–1918)

World War I has been described as the 'first modern war', largely because it was the first war in which advanced machine guns, chemical warfare, tanks, attack aircraft and submarines were widely used. It was also the first 'total war', where nations mobilised all of their available resources for the war effort. Millions of people, mainly young men, lost their lives in this conflict, and towns, homes, businesses and farms were destroyed.

However, World War I was also a catalyst for great change. The map of Europe had been redrawn by 1919, as large empires dissolved and new nation states were formed. Most of the nations involved had borrowed heavily to finance the war, and this allowed the USA to emerge as the world's new economic power. Soviet Russia was also formed, igniting a fear of communism across many western nations. The terms of the Treaty of Versailles also sowed the seeds for the rise of fascism, and for other 20th century conflicts like World War II and the Vietnam War.

Key inquiry questions

5.1 What were the causes of World War I?

5.2 How and where was World War I fought?

5.3 How did World War I affect life at home in Australia?

5.4 How is World War I remembered and commemorated?

The remains of a fallen soldier in a trench, photographed during World War I

5

bigpicture

World War I (1914–1918)

Wars have many different causes, so it is important to look at both long-term and short-term factors. The long-term causes of World War I can be traced back to at least the mid 19th century. These included tensions between the European powers, the creation of the alliance system, the arms race, the Balkan wars,and the rise of nationalism.

Long-term factors such as these often form the real basis for going to war, but in many instances it takes a catalyst to trigger outright conflict. In the case of World War I, this catalyst was the assassination of the heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Less than two months later, all of the great powers of Europe were engaged in a bitter war that was to last more than four years.

CE

January 1915
The first Zeppelin raid on Britain

April 1915
The Germans are driven back from Ypres (Belgium)

August 1915
Battles of Lone Pine and the Nek at Gallipoli

December 1915
The evacuation from Gallipoli

1–4 August 1914
Germany declares war on Russia and France, and invades neutral Luxembourg and Belgium; World War I begins

December 1914
The Christmas Truce: soldiers from both sides come out of their trenches and share drinks and greetings on Christmas Eve

28 June 1914
Archduke Franz Ferdinand (heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne) and his wife are assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia–Herzegovina

Franz Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria

May 1915
A German U-boat sinks the *Lusitania*, killing 1198 people, including 128 Americans; this event contributes to the decision of the USA to enter the war in 1917

25 April 1915
The landing at Gallipoli

Australian soldiers at Gallipoli

March 1918
The Ludendorff Offensive begins in a final attempt by Germany to break through the Allied lines and win the war

April 1918
Australian troops recapture the town of Villers-Bretonneux

August 1918
The start of the Allied counter-offensive

The signing of the Armistice between the Allies and Germany in a railway carriage in the French forest of Compiègne on 11 November 1918

November 1918
The Armistice (ceasefire) is signed; end of World War I

January–June 1919
The Paris Peace Conference is held to decide the fate of Germany; the Treaty of Versailles is drawn up

1917
Fighting continues on the Western Front; battles are fought at Passchendaele, Ypres, Pozières and Bullecourt

April 1917
The USA joins the war

October 1917
Communist revolution in Russia

A key moment in the Russian Revolution: the storming of the Winter Palace in 1917

1916
The stalemate continues on the Western Front

July–November 1916
The Battle of the Somme; tanks are used for the first time

October 1916
The first conscription plebiscite in Australia is narrowly defeated

Source 5.1 Timeline of key events in World War I

Source 5.2 An English recruitment poster from World War I, urging men to join the fight

5.1 What were the causes of World War I?

*World War I involved all of the great powers of Europe. Because these nations had such large **empires**, many other colonies, nations and **dominions**, including Australia, were also drawn into the conflict.*

Wars between nations start for a variety of reasons. These can include historical tensions, territorial disputes or competition among nations for resources or economic markets. Other factors, such as different political ideologies and systems of government, can also drive nations towards war. Short-term factors, such as the deaths of key figures or the mobilisation of armies, can be the triggers that turn tension and hostility into outright war.

Background to World War I

The **Great War**—as World War I was referred to at the time—was caused by a complex interaction of factors that had been simmering for more than 20 years. National rivalries, jealousies over territory, competition over economic progress, competition over the size of armies and navies, and the race to colonise new parts of the world all contributed to the tension.

In the 1870s, a newly unified Germany had attempted to consolidate its place in European politics by developing a system of alliances. This system changed the nature of European diplomacy, and resulted in the development of two alliances, consisting of all the European powers. The powers believed that these alliances would act as a deterrent to war, because if a member of one alliance was attacked by a member of the other, all the members of both alliances would be involved. This was called 'balance of power' politics.

The disagreement that provoked World War I grew from the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand (heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne), and his wife on 28 June 1914.

Source 5.3 The Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria and his wife, Sophie. Their assassination in June 1914 sparked the outbreak of World War I.

Europe in the lead-up to war

In 1901, Europe appeared peaceful. Queen Victoria had occupied the British throne for over 60 years and many of her descendants married into royal houses all over Europe (see Source 5.4). As a result, many of the royal families of Europe were closely related. Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany and the British Prince of Wales (later King George V) were all first cousins (see Source 5.5). The Tsar's wife was also one of Queen Victoria's granddaughters.

In the lead-up to World War I, many thought it was unlikely that close relations would become involved in armed conflict—and certainly not fighting on opposing sides.

Source 5.4 Queen Victoria (seated front centre) photographed with members of her extended family in 1894. Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany is seated front left.

Source 5.5 Tsar Nicholas II of Russia with his cousin King George V—their mothers were sisters.

On the surface, Europe seemed prosperous and peaceful at this time. The Industrial Revolution had transformed Western Europe, with new production methods and technology affecting almost every sector of society. Governments had made improvements in health care, sanitation and relief for the poor. Roads, canals and railways made transport easier and more accessible, and literacy rates were rising. The middle classes had generally been extended further political rights and enjoyed a higher standard of living. The working classes had also won some improvements, such as the right to vote in Britain after 1867.

However, this prosperity masked both international and domestic tensions. There were jealousies among many of the royal families, despite their close relationships. Issues such as the different rates of economic progress, the size of colonial empires and the development of weapons, armies and ships all caused rivalry.

The rate of economic progress, together with improvements in the standard of living, was also unevenly spread. The Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries had little impact on the nations of Eastern Europe such as Austria–Hungary, the Balkan states and Russia. This contributed further to the rivalry between nations. Even in industrialised nations like Britain and Germany there was a huge gap between rich and poor. Many working-class families lived in cramped, unsanitary conditions or in urban slums. Women were still not allowed to vote in Europe, and nationalist movements divided people along ethnic lines. Many governments and people were afraid of the rising influence of radical movements like socialism and anarchism. Although Europe seemed to be peaceful before World War I, rivalries and tensions bubbled beneath the surface—so much so that by the time Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife were assassinated, Europe was ripe for war.

Source 5.6 Europe before World War I

Causes of World War I

There were a number of short- and long-term factors that led to the outbreak of World War I. Key concepts such as **nationalism**, **imperialism**, militarism and the alliance system began to dominate international relations in the late 19th and early 20th century.

Nationalism

Put simply, nationalism is a sense of pride in and love of one's nation. It grows out of an understanding that the people of a nation share a common language, culture and history. In Europe, nationalism played an important role in the lead-up to World War I.

Nationalism can either unite or divide the people of a nation or region. For example, feelings of nationalism contributed to the unification of many small Germanic kingdoms to form the German Empire in 1871. A sense of nationalism also encouraged cooperation between Germany and Austria–Hungary, because German-language speakers ruled both empires. Nationalism also played a role in the federation of Australia's six separate colonies in 1901.

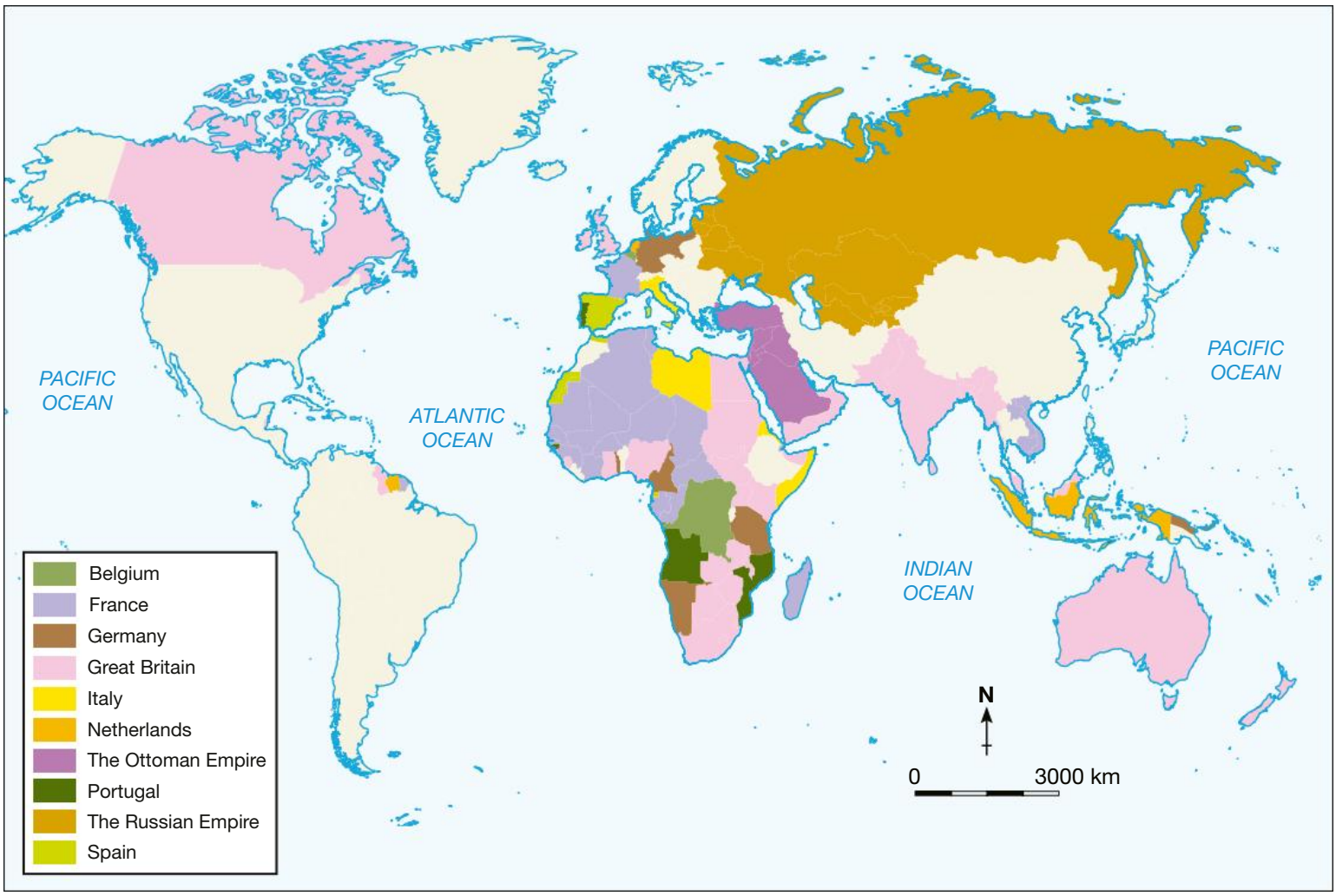
One example of a country that was attempting to assert its independence was Bosnia–Herzegovina, an area in south-eastern Europe known as the Balkans (see Source 5.6). In the years before World War I, Bosnia–Herzegovina was under the control of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. However, Bosnia–Herzegovina was made up of many different ethnic groups, including Bosnians, Serbs and Croats, who did not see themselves as historically, ethnically or culturally linked to either Austria or Hungary. Instead, most of the people of Bosnia–Herzegovina wanted to join with Serbia to form their own nation.

Russia had been supporting moves by Bosnia–Herzegovina to become independent and unite with Serbia, so when a Serbian youth was accused of assassinating the Austrian Archduke, Russia was drawn into the conflict that followed.

Imperialism

Another factor that led to tensions between European countries in the lead-up to World War I was imperialism. Imperialism is the policy of one country extending its territory to create an empire, usually for financial and strategic reasons.

European powers, such as Britain, Spain, France and Portugal, had colonised much of the world, including North and South America, Australia and parts of Asia, between the 15th and 19th centuries (see Source 5.7). By the late 19th century, European nations were engaged in a new wave of imperialism, often called the 'scramble for Africa'.



Source 5.7 European global empires in 1914

The main rivals in the race for new colonies this time were Britain, France and Germany. Britain had the largest colonial empire, with colonies and dominions (such as Australia) all over the world. France also had many colonies around the world. Germany, however, had only been a unified nation since 1871 and was still trying to build a large colonial empire when war broke out.

Kaiser Wilhelm II, ruler of Germany, was eager to add to the number of German colonies. In 1905, and again in 1911, Germany attempted to block further colonial expansion by France by sending troops to take control of a number of French colonies in North Africa. In both cases, France, with Britain's support, resisted Germany's attempts, resulting in the defeat of Germany.

focus on ...

cause and effect: beginnings of a war

In the case of many historical events, it is difficult to distinguish between cause and effect. Often there is a circular pattern. This is well illustrated by the arms race that preceded World War I.

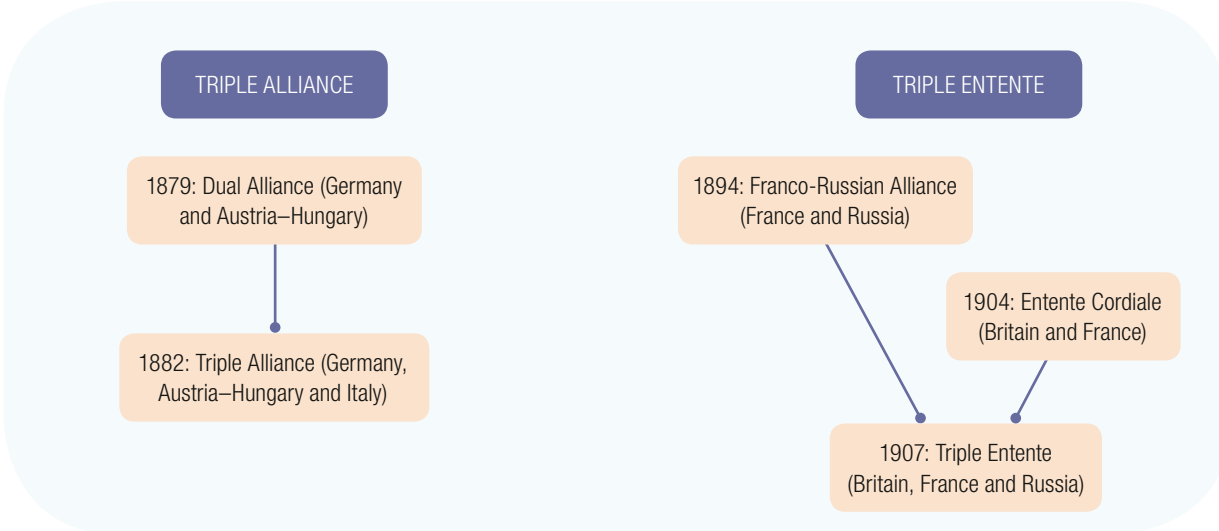
Fear of war prompted many nations, particularly Britain and Germany, to build up their armies and navies. However, the rivalry this arms race caused increased the likelihood of outright war.

The same applies to the network of alliances. These were formed as protection against invasion by members of the other alliance—a sort of security against war. The reality is that the alliances actually made the war longer and more widespread. When a dispute developed between Austria and Russia following the assassination of the Archduke, all six major powers, and their empires, were drawn into the conflict.

Alliances

One of the key factors that led to a total European war was the alliance system. Between 1879 and 1907, leading nations grouped themselves into two alliances—the 1882 Triple Alliance and the 1907 **Triple Entente** (see Source 5.8). *Entente* is a French word meaning an 'understanding' or alliance. Each participating nation promised to provide military support if one of its members was attacked.

Another aim of these alliances was to prevent wars. It was assumed that no power would go to war if there was a risk that a conflict between two nations could easily build into a conflict among many. These alliances increased the tension between **Triple Alliance** and Triple Entente countries.



Source 5.8 The development of European alliances from 1879 to 1907

In addition to the key countries listed in Source 5.8, many other countries, colonies and territories were attached to one or other of the alliances (see Source 5.7).

All British colonies (such as India) and dominions (such as Australia and New Zealand) automatically became part of the Triple Entente. Japan had signed a treaty with Britain in 1902. This meant that they could all be drawn into conflict if war broke out. Bosnia–Herzegovina was also considered a member of the Triple Entente because Russia was a key supporter of Bosnia–Herzegovina's bid for independence from the Austro-Hungarian Empire. A conflict between Bosnia–Herzegovina and Austria–Hungary would therefore become a conflict between all the countries that were members of the two alliances.

Militarism: the arms race in Europe

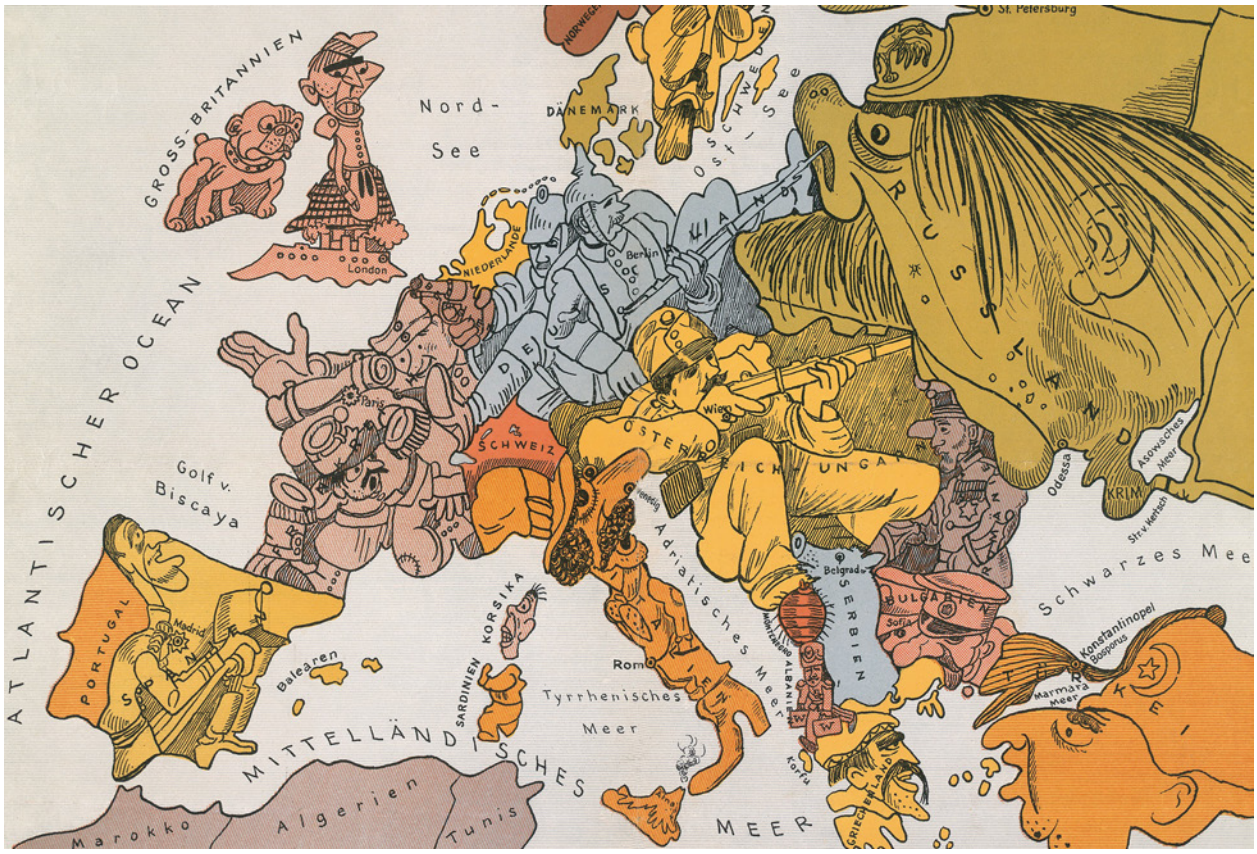
No war can be fought without guns, ammunition and soldiers. In the early 20th century, modern battleships and submarines were also important weapons of war. Despite claims of European powers that they were not preparing for war, most were training armies and building up their stores of ships and weapons.

Germany and Britain were the leading players in what was called the 'arms race'. Britain had the largest navy but was still pouring millions of pounds into ships and armaments. Germany was economically powerful and possessed a large army. Its leader, Kaiser Wilhelm II, wanted to establish Germany as a world power. To achieve this goal, the Kaiser poured resources into strengthening the German armed forces.

By early 1914, even though the leaders of Europe were still talking of peace, they were clearly preparing for war.

Check your learning

1. How would you sum up the situation in Europe around 1900? Explain your answer.
2. In your own words, explain the term 'nationalism', noting both its positive and negative features.
3. Why was Germany's colonial empire so much smaller than Britain's?
4. What is meant by the term 'balance of power' politics? Explain both the benefits and the drawbacks of this system.
5. Does an arms race necessarily mean that war is likely? Give reasons for your answer.



Source 5.9 A German cartoon 'Map of Europe 1914' by W Trier, satirising the political and military situation in Europe at the beginning of World War I

Source 5.10 Balkan states in 1914

Source 5.11 An artist's impression of the assassination of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo

The outbreak of World War I

The event that triggered the start of World War I took place in the Balkan states, an area of south-eastern Europe (see Source 5.10). The Balkans were very unstable. Three major imperial powers were actively involved in the region: Austria–Hungary, the Russian Empire and the Ottoman (Turkish) Empire.

The complex relationships between these powers made the Balkans a potential crisis point. Austria–Hungary controlled parts of the Balkans and, in 1908, had annexed (taken control over) Bosnia–Herzegovina. Russia supported Serbian nationalists, who wanted Bosnia–Herzegovina as part of Serbia.

The Emperor of Austria–Hungary was aware of the tension in the Balkans. Believing that the people would be dazzled and charmed by a royal visit, he sent his nephew and his wife on a goodwill visit to the city of Sarajevo in Bosnia–Herzegovina. On 28 June 1914, most of the people of the area lined the streets, enthusiastically welcoming the royal couple. However, a small group of Bosnian Serb nationalists took the opportunity to show their feelings about their imperial rulers.

While visiting the city, Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie were shot and killed by Gavrilo Princip, a member of a Serbian nationalist group called the Black Hand.

The declaration of war

The expansion of the conflict from an incident in the Balkans to a world war was a direct result of the alliance system. Austria–Hungary, with support from Germany, quickly issued an ultimatum consisting of ten demands to Serbia. Serbia agreed to accept nine of the demands but refused to agree to the last one—that officials from Austria–Hungary be involved in the investigation into the assassination of the Archduke. When Serbia failed to agree to all ten demands, Austria–Hungary declared war on Serbia on 28 July 1914.

Empires mobilise

Russia saw itself as Serbia's protector. It responded by mobilising its army for war against Austria–Hungary and Germany. On 31 July, Germany demanded that Russia stop these preparations for war. Russia did not respond and so Germany declared war on Russia. The Germans had also asked the French government what its intentions were. France issued a vague response, stating that it would 'follow its own interests'.

The Schlieffen Plan and the invasion of Belgium

By 1914, the German General Staff had decided to invade France through Belgium in the event of a two-front war. This was based on a 1905 strategy drawn up by Chief of Staff Alfred von Schlieffen, called the **Schlieffen Plan**.

The Schlieffen Plan was based on the following assumptions:

- Russia would take at least six weeks to get its army ready for war.
- France would be easily defeated in six weeks.
- Belgium would not resist any German attack.
- Britain would remain neutral.

If war broke out, Germany would attack France by marching through Belgium. Belgium and France would be quickly defeated, after which Germany could turn its attention to Russia.

If this plan was implemented, it would violate Belgium's neutrality. Britain had signed a treaty in 1839, guaranteeing to come to the defence of Belgium if another country attempted to invade its borders. As a result, the German invasion of Belgium forced Britain to become involved in the growing conflict.

focus on ...

contestability: the Schlieffen Plan

Historical events can become contestable with the release of new sources of information. The Schlieffen Plan is a good example because it has become the accepted explanation of German tactics in 1914. More recently, however, historians like Terence Zuber have used material released from German archives after the fall of the Berlin Wall to challenge this view. They argue that the 1905 Schlieffen Plan was not a practical war plan, but actually a theoretical training exercise. This argument is based on inconsistencies between the 1905 Schlieffen Plan and the German mobilisation plans implemented in 1914.

Zuber points out that the Schlieffen Plan was for a war against France on a single front, yet in 1914 Germany was planning for a war against France and Russia. The actual document was also in the possession of Schlieffen's daughters in 1914, not with the General Staff. Historians have to be prepared to accept the emergence of new evidence that challenges accepted beliefs. The Schlieffen Plan has long been accepted as fact, but as Zuber argues, it can now be regarded as contestable.

The war escalates

On 3 August 1914, British Prime Minister Herbert Asquith and Foreign Secretary Sir Edward Grey sent a message to the German government announcing that Britain would declare war if Germany did not withdraw its troops from Belgium by midnight. There was no response to the message, so on 4 August 1914 Britain, and its empire, found itself at war with Germany.

Italy was also a member of the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria–Hungary. It was expected that Italy would join the war on their side. However, under the wording of the Triple Alliance, members were not bound to support each other if one had been the aggressor. Italy used this clause to remain neutral at the start of the war and to switch to the Triple Entente in May 1915.

Turkey entered the war on the side of the Triple Alliance in October 1914. It was against Turkey that Australia's first land battles took place. The USA also came into the war, on the side of the Triple Entente (or Allies), in April 1917, after Germany had resumed its unrestricted submarine warfare.

Source 5.12

Key dates in the lead-up to World War I	
28 June 1914	Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand
23 July 1914	Austria–Hungary presents ten demands to Serbia
25 July 1914	Serbia agrees to only nine of the ten demands
28 July 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Serbia
29 July 1914	Russia promises support for Serbia
1 August 1914	Germany declares war on Russia
3 August 1914	Germany declares war on France and invades Belgium
4 August 1914	Britain declares war on Germany (Australia becomes involved)
6 August 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Russia
23 August 1914	Japan (an ally of Britain) declares war on Germany
29 October 1914	Turkey enters the war on the side of Germany
23 May 1915	Italy enters the war on the side of the Triple Entente

Check your learning

1. Why did the Archduke and his wife tour Sarajevo?
2. Explain why there is historical debate over the use of the term 'Schlieffen Plan' to describe Germany's actions in World War I.
3. Why did Serbia reject Austria–Hungary's ultimatum in July 1914?
4. Carefully examine the key dates leading up to World War I (Source 5.12). Use this information to construct a flow chart that shows the lead-up to World War I.

Australia's entry into World War I

Before World War I, Europe had been relatively peaceful for over 40 years. The last major war had been fought in 1871, meaning that a whole generation of young men had grown up with no real experience of war. The same was true of Australia. Apart from a small number of soldiers who had fought for Britain in the Sudanese and Boer wars, Australians had not been engaged in war and had little understanding of what it meant.

Possibly because of this, there was a perception that war was glorious, exciting and heroic. Young people, especially boys, were brought up on military stories and were taught military drills in school. In these stories, the heroes were rarely wounded or killed; they won their battles effortlessly, and the drills taught them to obey orders and work together.

The great adventure

When World War I began, Australia had been a single, united country for only 13 years. Although Australia was self-governing, it was still a dominion of the British Empire. As such, Australia was obliged to follow the instructions of Britain in many areas of government. Therefore, when Britain declared war on Germany, Australia was also at war, as were all other countries in the Empire.

In Australia, a wave of enthusiasm for the war effort swept the country. The men of Australia rushed to enlist in the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). According to legend, many were concerned that the war might end before they got to Europe. The Australian government initially promised to supply 20000 men to the British war effort by the end of 1914—in reality, the number of men enlisted by this time was around 50000.

Source 5.13 Australian recruitment poster from 1915 (AWM ARTV00021)

The reasons for enlistment were varied and complex. Some men were driven by a desire to show what this new young nation could contribute to a world conflict. Others went to war because of pure loyalty to Britain, 'the mother country'. Many of the first wave of volunteers were former British soldiers and other British citizens who happened to be in Australia. Still others wanted to show support for Britain in case we should need Britain's help at some stage in the future. Leader of the Opposition (later Prime Minister) Andrew Fisher pledged that Australia would 'stand beside the mother country to help and defend her to the last man and the last shilling'.

As well, there were young men who joined out of a spirit of adventure, an opportunity to leave home, to see the world, to meet French girls. Whole football and cricket teams joined, as did groups of workmates from businesses and factories in cities and country towns. Many women encouraged their husbands, boyfriends, brothers and even fathers to enlist. Many young women preferred to socialise with men in uniform.

The opportunity to earn a good income also acted as an incentive. The pay was 6 shillings (60 cents) per day, a figure calculated to match the average wage of Australian workers, minus the cost of rations. The promise of regular pay also motivated many unemployed men to volunteer. As the war progressed, hatred of the enemy also became a motivation for enlistment. Propaganda stories (often exaggerated) of German atrocities were used in recruiting campaigns.

In every city and town, recruiting rallies were held. Platforms would be set up with the Australian and British flags side by side as a backdrop to the speeches. High-profile sportsmen such as footballers, cricketers and athletes would be planted in the crowd. When the call went out for young men to step forward and sign up, it was frequently one of these sportsmen who led the charge.

Among those who offered to enlist were Aboriginal Australians. Only 400 Aborigines were accepted for service, and they were all deemed to be 'of substantial European origin or descent'. When Australian soldiers returned from World War I, there were many benefits available to them to assist their readjustment to civilian life. Aboriginal soldiers, however, were denied access to these benefits.

Of course, not all motives for joining the war effort were noble. There were stories (perhaps just rumours) of soldiers changing their names before enlisting in order to get away from their wives or other commitments. Others enlisted to escape the boredom of jobs they hated, to leave school early, or to escape the strict rules and confines of their family homes.

Those who had fought in the Boer war had some understanding of the brutality of war, but for most, war seems to have meant adventure. Of all the thoughts that ran through the heads of those who enlisted, particularly in the first few months, the idea of death or even injury seems to have been very much in the background.

Source 5.14 Recruitment posters such as this appealed to the 'sportsmen' in Australia (AWM ARTV00026).

Questioning voices

Not all Australians were enthusiastic about the war. Some argued that it was not Australia's war and that a force from this young country could make little difference to the outcome. Others were opposed to the war because they were **pacifists**—people who do not think violence is an answer. One group of pacifists were the Jehovah's Witnesses, a religious group for whom any engagement in war went against their beliefs.

There was also a small group of conscientious objectors and pacifists—people who oppose war and believe that they would betray their principles by enlisting or fighting, or by supporting war. Among this group was the Women's Peace Army, led by **suffragette** (a woman demanding the right to vote) Vida Goldstein (see Source 5.15).

Source 5.15 Vida Goldstein was both a suffragette and a pacifist.

Some Australians did not enlist because they were afraid, or because they believed it was to their economic advantage to remain at home. Little has been recorded about these people. Often those who were reluctant to go to war used excuses such as poor health or family responsibilities to explain their decision not to enlist.

Taken together, however, all of these questioning groups seem to have made up only a small fraction of the total population. In 1914 and through most of 1915, the dominant feeling towards the war was positive and supportive. It was only as the harsh reality of war became known that some Australians began to question their initial enthusiasm.

focus on ...

perspective: motives

Australian soldiers enlisted in the First AIF for a range of reasons. The age, background, circumstances and values of particular soldiers were all significant factors. The following sources provide a brief insight into the motives of some of the men that enlisted.

Source 5.16

I wasn't eighteen. I was working on the lathe, next to another chap ... I said to him 'why don't you enlist?' I said, 'I'll enlist if you do' ... I went right up to Victoria Barracks and enlisted. We left the factory and I had to get my father's signature. Well, I forged that.

Stan D'Altera (in A Thomson, *Anzac Memories*, Oxford University Press, p. 27)

Source 5.17

I couldn't help myself. Mum was a widow and she needed me to help run the farm ... But I read what Andrew Fisher said and I went, 'Fisher's message to England was that Australia would stand behind her to the last man and the last shilling.'

Unnamed soldier (in P Adam-Smith, *The Anzacs*, Penguin, p. 17)

Source 5.18

The Bugles of England were blowing o'er the sea,
As they had called a thousand years, calling now to me:
They woke me from my dreaming in the dawning of the day,
The Bugles of England—and how could I stay?

JD Burns, a student at Scotch College, Melbourne, in 1914 (in EM Andrews, *The Anzac Illusion*, Cambridge University Press, p. 40)

Source 5.19

... I have joined the Australian Army ... it's not bad money here, 5/- a day and clothes and food ... nearly as good as cabinet making and not half as hard. You may [think] it funny [my] turning up such a good job, but ... this [employer] had only about three days work left for us ... things are so bad out here for there is a drought on [and] we haven't had any rain for months, so I [thought] I would join the army.

Corporal RE Antill in a letter to his parents, 1914 (defencemagazine)

Source 5.20

I have enlisted and I don't regret it in the very least. I believe it is every young fellow's duty. There are far better men than any of us have already gone ... we are the sort of men who ought to go.

Private AJ McSparrow (in B Gammage, *The Broken Years,* p. 7)

Check your learning

1. What was the attitude of most Australians to war before 1914? Why did they hold this attitude?
2. Why were some people or groups not enthusiastic about the war?
3. What techniques were used by the government to encourage men to enlist?
4. Reread Sources 5.16 to 5.20.
   a. How many different motivations and attitudes can you identify?
   b. What other reasons might have motivated men to enlist?
5. Create a conversation between the unnamed soldier in Source 5.17 and a younger brother who has been left to run the farm alone. Your conversation should include three arguments 'for' and 'against' enlisting in 1914.

bigideas

5.1 What were the causes of World War I?

Remember

1 Write definitions in your own words for the terms:
   a imperialism
   b nationalism
   c alliance.
2 What were the two major alliances formed before World War I? Which countries were the members of the two alliances?
3 Give three reasons why many Australians strongly supported Australia's involvement in World War I.

Understand

4 Why might Serbia have refused to agree to the last of Austria–Hungary's demands: that Austro-Hungarian officials be involved in the investigation into the assassination of the Archduke?
5 How do you explain the fact that the rulers of Britain, Germany and Russia, although they were first cousins, were engaged in such bitter conflicts with each other over the course of World War I?
6 At the start of the war, the Ottoman Empire (Turkey) was neutral. If Turkey had remained neutral, the story of the war, in particular Australia's role, would have been very different. There would not have been a Gallipoli campaign and 25 April would be just another day on the calendar.
   a Conduct research into the reasons why Turkey chose to enter the war, and why Turkey became involved on the side of the Triple Alliance.
   b How would the Triple Entente powers have been helped if Turkey had remained neutral?
7 Why did recruiters rely on a sporting image to encourage young Australian men to enlist?

Apply

8 Examine the background of World War I.
   a List and briefly explain all the major causes of World War I.
   b Choose the cause that you believe was most significant and explain why you have chosen this cause.
9 If the assassination of the Archduke had not taken place, do you believe that World War I would still have occurred? Explain and support your opinion.

Analyse

10 Examine the two recruiting posters (Sources 5.13 and 5.14. Identify all the methods used on these posters to encourage enlistment. Support your answer with reference to words or images in the posters.

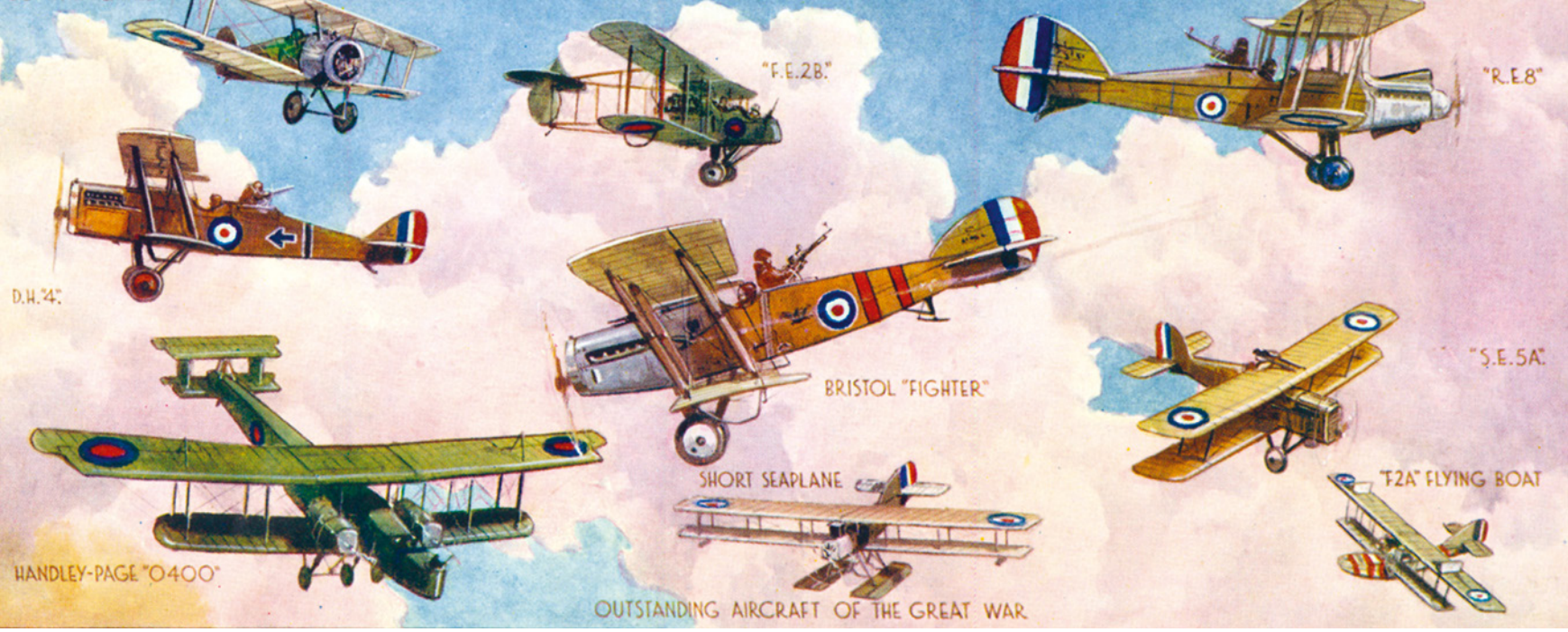
Evaluate

11 Think about some of the reasons why young men decided to enlist for World War I. Do you think the same reasons apply for young Australians who enlist to fight in wars overseas today?

Create

12 Create an illustrated timeline or flow chart of the events leading to the outbreak of World War I. You may like to illustrate the timeline by hand, or use the Internet to locate illustrations of the events.
13 Use a range of print and digital resources to locate and print a series of recruitment posters from World War I (two of which must be Australian). Be sure to include posters from a range of different countries that were involved in World War I. Analyse these posters, looking for points such as:
   - appeal to sense of national identity
   - appeal to sense of adventure and excitement
   - appeal to sense of outrage and anger at the enemy.

   Create a PowerPoint or other multimedia presentation in which you identify the key features of the posters in each category. Discuss whether you think each poster was successful in encouraging people to get involved in the war effort and why.



Source 5.21 British aircraft played a vital role in the new way of fighting wars.

5.2 How and where was World War I fought?

World War I was fought across a larger area than any previous conflict. Theatres of war ranged from the Middle East to the Western Front, from Russia to the Pacific, the North Sea to the Dardanelles, and from northern Italy to Africa. Each region produced its own unique demands, tactics and conditions of warfare. The common feature across all regions and theatres was the emergence of new technologies.

The nature of warfare in World War I

Unlike earlier wars, World War I was fought across a large part of the world and involved many countries. Britain, France and Russia faced Germany and its allies on the Western Front. Germany also fought against Russia on the Eastern Front. There was fighting in Turkey and the Middle East and in North Africa. There were also small conflicts in the Pacific Ocean, where a combined effort of Japanese and Australian forces took over German colonies in New Guinea. Battles at sea interrupted shipping and trade. War was also fought in the air and under the sea for the first time—terrorising civilian populations.

New technology

Over the course of World War I, many new technologies were introduced, and existing military vehicles and weapons were improved. Developments in powerful, long-range weaponry, such as the machine gun and heavy artillery, were particularly important. Deadly new chemical weapons were also a significant development.

Much of this technology is blamed for extending the war, as the conflict quickly became an evenly matched battle of technology and tactics—with neither side able to break the deadlock. Unlike earlier wars, in which the soldiers moved around constantly to gain an advantage, both sides on the Western Front were forced to dig **trenches** for protection, bringing the armies to a stalemate.

Guns and artillery

Machine guns, which had first been used during the American Civil War, were improved for use in World War I (see Source 5.22). Many were capable of firing up to 600 rounds of ammunition per minute in short bursts. Facing one machine gun was similar to facing 250 soldiers with rifles. However, the guns often overheated and were heavy and difficult to move through the mud. Nonetheless, they were devastating when used against oncoming troops.

Heavy artillery guns could fire large shells over a long distance, usually projecting them in an arc to land on the target from above. Like machine guns, artillery weapons were heavy and difficult to move. They were usually mounted on wheels that often became bogged down in the mud or got stuck in craters.

Gas

In April 1915, Germany introduced poison gas (see Source 5.23) as a weapon of war. Chlorine, which was blown over the enemy trenches, burned and destroyed the respiratory tracts (airways) of anyone without a gas mask, causing terrible pain and death. Other gases were introduced throughout the war, including mustard and tear gas. Poison-gas attacks were so horrific that their use was banned in 1925 under the Geneva Protocol.

Tanks

The British army introduced the first tanks into the war in September 1916 at the Battle of the Somme. While they were successful at overcoming barbed wire obstacles and trenches, the mechanical unreliability of these early tanks limited their impact. They had been rushed into production and frequently broke down or became stuck in muddy ditches. The crews inside the tanks had to endure unbearably hot and noisy conditions, almost constantly choking on the fumes inside the cab. By the end of 1917, improvements in tank technology and tactics meant that tanks were becoming more effective.

Source 5.22 British machine gunners firing during the Battle of the Somme

Source 5.23 A soldier and dog work to find the wounded in poisonous war areas.

Source 5.24 German airmen attach a 100-kilogram bomb to the underside of a Gotha bomber.

Source 5.25 Dogs were sometimes used to carry messages to and from the front. This one brings news to a soldier in the trenches.

Aircraft

Large-scale aerial warfare was conducted for the first time during World War I. At first, small planes were used to scout enemy positions. Later, planes armed with machine guns were used in aerial combats, known as **dogfights**.

Huge airships called **zeppelins**, named for their inventor Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin, were used by the Germans in the first air raid over England in January 1915. Made of a cylindrical metal frame covered with fabric and filled with gasbags, a zeppelin was able to fly higher than conventional aircraft and drift almost silently over its targets. This made zeppelins difficult to fight against with normal anti-aircraft weaponry. The zeppelins' ability to hit their targets accurately was poor though, and they were also vulnerable to strong winds that could blow them off course. Towards the end of the war, zeppelins were largely replaced by multi-engine bomber planes, such as the Gotha G.V. Britain responded with its equivalent, the Handley Page Type O bomber.

Communications

Advances in communication allowed faster contact between commanding field officers behind the front line and soldiers at the front line. The development of telephone and wireless (radio) systems allowed instant front-line reports and quick decisions. However, phone lines, which had to be laid in each new location, were easily damaged by the artillery, and the wireless radios were heavy and difficult to move. Despite the increasing use of these new technologies, soldiers still acted as runners to relay information. Motorbike couriers, carrier pigeons and even dogs were used at times (see Source 5.25).

Check your learning

1. Identify three ways in which World War I was different from preceding wars.
2. Did new developments in technology actually extend the war?
3. Why do you think that the use of poison gas was banned under the Geneva Protocol while the use of other types of weapons was not?
4. What were the advantages and disadvantages of new developments in communications?

Where was World War I fought?

In World War I, the greatest loss of life was in Europe. Many of the best-known land battles of World War I were played out in an area in France and Belgium known as the Western Front (see Source 5.26). However, the Eastern Front was also very important, especially in terms of the conflict between Germany and Russia. A third front, along the border between Italy and Austria, was the scene of fierce fighting and great loss of life.

Because so many European nations had large colonial empires, people from all over the world participated in the conflict. Members of the British Commonwealth (such as Australia, India, South Africa, Canada and New Zealand) were involved in the conflict. The war came close to Australia because Germany had colonies in Samoa and New Guinea. As early as August 1914, New Zealand forces occupied German Samoa with no loss of life. Australian forces had driven the Germans out of New Guinea by the end of 1914.

Source 5.26 The countries involved in World War I and the sites and years of major battles

focus on ...

significance: Lawrence of Arabia

At the outbreak of World War I, Thomas Edward Lawrence was a university student, specialising in the Middle East. When the war began, he enlisted in British intelligence and took part in a campaign in the Middle East. Lawrence became a close adviser to an Arabic prince, Faisal. Lawrence and Faisal helped to unite the Arabic tribes and encouraged uprisings that distracted the Ottoman (Turkish) troops.

The type of warfare used in the Middle East was different from that used at Gallipoli and in France. Rather than large armies attacking each other in force, they used a guerrilla-style campaign. This involved small bands of independent, non-military Arab tribesmen launching surprise attacks on the Turks. These tactics forced the Turks to divert troops to protect supplies and communication, weakening their ability to respond to other attacks.

Lawrence worked with the Arab tribes against the Turks and supported their demands for independence. His adventures as 'Lawrence of Arabia' made him a popular hero. Later, Lawrence's reputation as a heroic figure was questioned by historians who were critical of the accuracy of Lawrence's writing about his part in what was called the Arab Revolt.

Source 5.27 TE Lawrence in Arabia, 1915

The war also took place in the Middle East. The Gallipoli campaign, for example, was designed to open up access for the Allies. They needed this access in order to get troops and supplies into Russia—to aid the campaign on the Eastern Front. In the end, the Gallipoli campaign was abandoned, but not before the deaths of around 140000 soldiers from countries including Britain, Canada, France, Australia, New Zealand, India and Turkey. More than half of those killed were from Turkey.

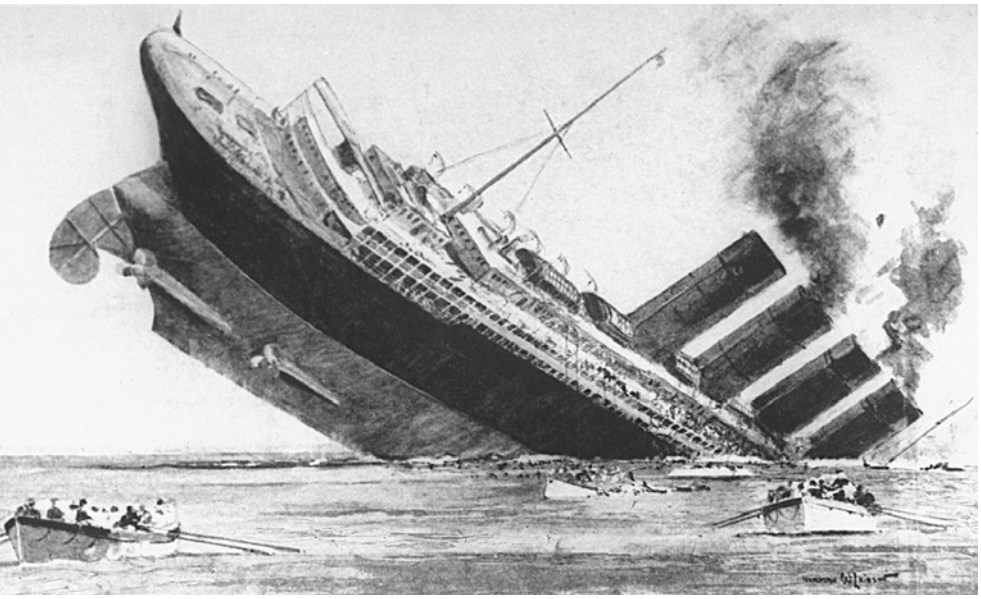
Following the withdrawal from Gallipoli in December 1915, some of the Allied troops, including the Australian Light Horse, were redeployed to Palestine where they and the Arabs fought against the Ottoman (Turkish) Empire.

Japan, a rapidly modernising nation, was also involved on the side of the Triple Entente. In 1914, in response to a request from Britain, Japanese ships led raids on German naval vessels around Chinese waters. The Japanese further provided 17 battleships to assist British naval actions in the Mediterranean and in South Africa. It is interesting that Japan also took advantage of the war situation to extend its power and influence in China.

The USA enters the war

At the start of the war, the USA was neutral, but its sympathies definitely lay with the members of the Triple Entente. The USA continued to trade with Britain and, it is believed, to provide indirect support for the war effort.

In an attempt to stop trade across the Atlantic, the Germans began to use submarine warfare. On 7 May 1915, the British passenger ship *Lusitania* was sunk by a German submarine, killing 1198 passengers (see Source 5.28). Among the dead were 128 Americans.



Source 5.28 A sketch of the passenger ship *Lusitania* sinking on a trip from Liverpool to New York after it was hit by a torpedo from a German U-boat on 7 May 1915

Following the sinking of two more British ships carrying American passengers, Germany agreed to stop submarine attacks on ships carrying civilians. This pledge lasted until March 1917—a month in which German submarines sunk more American ships. On 6 April 1917, the USA declared war on Germany.

Another suggested motivation for the USA joining the war was the large amount of money that American bankers had lent to the British and French. It was important that the Triple Entente countries win the war in order for them to pay back the debt to the USA. The addition of thousands of fresh American troops at this crucial point of the war was intended to boost the war effort of the Triple Entente and maximise their chances of winning the war.

This is in fact what happened. The American troops were fit and enthusiastic. The USA also supplied extra food, facilities, and money to fund the final months of the campaign.

Check your learning

1. World War I was predominantly a European war. Why were people from so many other parts of the world involved?
2. What impact do you think the early Australian and New Zealand successes in the Pacific would have had on attitudes to war?
3. What was TE Lawrence's role in the Middle East?
4. Identify the main reasons why the USA became involved in World War I. Which do you believe to be the most important? Why?

Australia's first battles

The first major battle of World War I for Australian troops took place on the Gallipoli Peninsula in Turkey. Many Australian men who enlisted in the early months of the war believed they would be travelling to Europe to fight against the Germans. However, in October 1914, Turkey entered the war on the side of Germany.

British strategists decided that Australian and New Zealand soldiers should join the Gallipoli campaign, which was designed to knock Turkey out of the war as quickly as possible.

For eight months, from April to December 1915, the Allies continued to fight on the Gallipoli Peninsula, but the campaign was ultimately a failure. As a result, the majority of Australian soldiers were moved to the Western Front. There they engaged in trench warfare for the next three years, until November 1918. Australian troops who remained in the Middle East, mainly the Light Horse, continued to fight the Turks, especially in the Australian and Anzac Mounted Divisions and the Imperial Camel Corps.

Source 5.29 A painting by Lieutenant General Sir Carl Jess, *Australian infantry on fatigues at Gallipoli*

Formation of the Anzacs

When the war began, there was an equally enthusiastic response from Australia and New Zealand. Initially their two forces were separate. The Australian troops formed the First Australian Imperial Force and the New Zealanders the First New Zealand Expeditionary Force.

Early in 1915, as the two forces were training in Egypt, it was decided by General Birdwood, commander of the Australian and New Zealand forces, to form a combined **corps**. The first name suggested was the Australasian Army Corps, but this was rejected by New Zealand. Eventually the title Australia and New Zealand Army Corps (or ANZAC) was adopted. It was under this banner that the soldiers of both countries fought at Gallipoli and throughout World War I.

Gallipoli

The first major engagement of the Anzacs was as part of a campaign that aimed to take the Ottoman Empire (Turkey) out of the war. The plan was to open up a supply line from the Mediterranean through to Russia.

The only way that Britain and France could move troops, equipment or armaments to their ally Russia was through the Mediterranean Sea and into the Black Sea. To do this they had to pass through Turkish waters (see Source 5.30).

The first part of the campaign plan was launched in March 1915. This involved a naval attack through the Dardanelles—a sea passage from the Mediterranean Sea to the Black Sea. This action failed because the entrance to the Dardanelles had been mined. Three Allied battleships were destroyed by these mines, and another three were badly damaged.

A plan was then developed to launch a land attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula from the Aegean Sea coast. The hope was that the Allies would surprise the Turks, defeat them quickly and then march on to take control of the Turkish capital, Constantinople (now Istanbul). This would open up the desired supply lines through to Russia, and help the Allies to fight Germany and Austria from the east.

On 25 April 1915, ground troops from Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, India and the British dominion of Newfoundland (now a Canadian province) landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The campaign was in trouble from the beginning. As the Australian and New Zealand troops landed at what is now called Anzac Cove (see Source 5.32), they faced cliffs up to 100 metres high and heavy resistance from behind the Turkish fortifications. Those soldiers who made it to the beach were unprotected as they faced the Turkish guns. The Anzacs managed to secure the beach and made limited progress up the cliffs and inland.

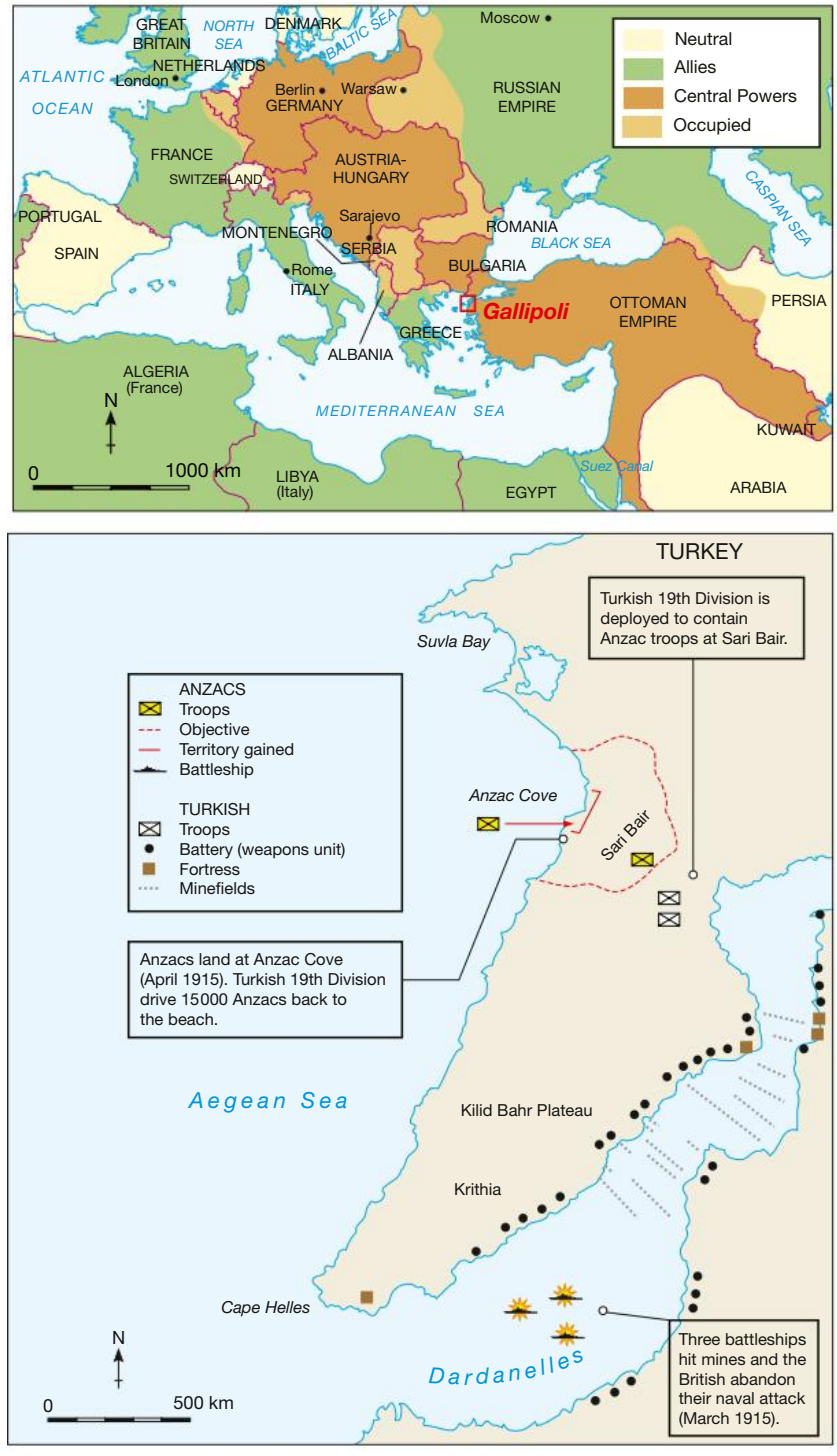
Although the plan had been to make seven kilometres of progress, the day ended with barely one kilometre achieved. More than 600 Australian soldiers were killed on the first day of the campaign. On hearing of the disastrous landing, the British commander of the campaign, General Sir Ian Hamilton, ordered the troops to 'dig, dig, dig until you are safe'.

Hamilton's decision to persist with the campaign was supported by news of the success of the Australian submarine *AE2*. On 25 April it became the first Allied warship to penetrate the Dardanelles, and attacked Turkish shipping until it was damaged and scuttled on 30 April.

In May 1915, the Turks launched a great counter-offensive to destroy the beachhead, but were driven back. During this battle, Australian Lance Corporal Albert Jacka became a national hero after receiving the Victoria Cross for single-handedly holding a trench and killing seven Turks. In August, the Australians and New Zealanders launched two famous diversionary attacks. The Australians captured Lone Pine in fighting so fierce that seven Victoria Crosses (the highest Commonwealth military decoration for valour 'in the face of the enemy') were awarded to their men. At the Nek, a charge by Lighthorsemen cost 234 lives on an area the size of three tennis courts.

On the battlefield, respect grew between the Turkish soldiers and the Anzac troops. Each side saw the other as honourable, and agreements were made to hold fire and bury the dead respectfully (see Source 5.31) and both sides had an amnesty to enable a number of dead Turkish soldiers to be buried under the Red Crescent flag of their nation. Over time, the two sides even began trading with each other.

Despite these offensives and counter-offensives, the situation on Gallipoli was to remain essentially unchanged for the eight months of the campaign.



Source 5.30 The Gallipoli Peninsula (detail above) and its position in the region (top map)

Source 5.31

It is stated in messages from Cairo that the majority of wounded who have arrived there deny the stories of Turkish atrocities. They state that the Turks are fighting most fairly. In one case, a Turk dressed the wounds of a British soldier under fire.

Another left his water bottle with a wounded Australian. An Australian who was taken prisoner, but subsequently escaped, stated he was very well treated.

Extract from the Melbourne newspaper *The Argus*, 22 June 1915

Conditions at Gallipoli

Conditions at Gallipoli were extremely difficult. The Allies landed in the Turkish spring. A sweltering summer followed. The bitterly cold winter would really take its toll. For men used to temperate Australian conditions, the icy north wind and snowfalls cut right through the meagre protection offered by inadequate uniforms. Frequent rainfalls flooded the trenches and turned the battlefields to mud.

Despite the rain and snow, drinking water was in short supply. It had to be shipped in to the troops, and this could be difficult if a supply ship ran into problems. Water was rationed carefully and soldiers were so conscious of the shortages that they often shaved with leftover cold tea. Food was more plentiful, although lacking in variety. Rations commonly included canned meat, corned beef (called 'bully beef') and hard biscuits. Fresh food was rarely available.

Poor health was a major problem. Painful conditions and diseases such as trench foot, dysentery, diarrhoea and gastroenteritis were common in the damp conditions of the trenches. Illness was spread by rats, lice, flies and mosquitoes. Many pests were attracted by the strong odour of decomposing bodies and human waste. Poor sanitation and poor food-handling practices meant the germs were often transferred to food and water supplies.

Withdrawal

In December 1915, the Anzacs were finally ordered to withdraw from Gallipoli. To hide the fact that they were leaving, they rigged up some rifles to fire at random. They did this by attaching tins to the rifles' trigger mechanisms with string. When the tins filled with water dripping from other tins suspended above, their weight caused the triggers to be pulled and the rifles to fire. This tactic became known as the 'ghost guns of Gallipoli'. Soldiers also carefully wrapped the horses' hooves in cloth to muffle the sound of their leaving. The last Australian soldiers were evacuated overnight on 19–20 December. Because of its efficiency, the silent withdrawal is usually remembered as the most successful part of the Gallipoli campaign.

Over the course of the campaign, 8709 Australians died, and 19 000 were wounded. Over the same period, over 80 000 Turks were killed. During their time on Gallipoli, the 'diggers'—as Australian troops became known—displayed a courage and ingenuity that would form the basis of the Anzac legend. This legend would contribute to the Australian sense of identity over the course of the 20th century.

Source 5.32 Anzac Cove, Gallipoli

Source 5.33

> *We landed on Gallipoli in what we were wearing and continued to wear it day and night until the socks were the first garments to become unwearable, and they were cast out and we went barefoot in our boots.*
>
> *We discarded our tunics during the day as the weather became hotter, and working and living in earthen trenches, while sometimes sweating profusely caused our pants and thick pure woollen shirts to become even worse than filthy.*
>
> *We got only sufficient fresh water, in fact, on some days barely enough to drink, so washing garments was out of the question, and so the only alternative was to get down to the beach and wash our garments and ourselves in the brine, which as far as our garments was concerned made little difference.*
>
> *There were parasites which caused an abominable itch to which ever part of the skin where they operated. They lived and bred mainly in the seams of the inner garments and as there was no hot water or chemicals available for their control or destruction the field was open for them to multiply and flourish. The best control means available was to wear the clothing inside out and then there were no seams next to the skin for the pest to hide away in and breed. This I did with my flannel shirt, but I simply could not come at wearing my trousers inside out, even though many of the other men did. It simply looked too awful.*

An extract from a letter that Lieutenant Frank Boyes wrote about conditions at Gallipoli

Source 5.34 Gallipoli, Turkey, 18 December 1915. This photo is of an Australian Army mock attack arranged in the Anzac area for photographic purposes two days before the evacuation took place (AWM H10379)

focus on ...

contestability: two heroes

Most Australians, if asked to name a hero of Gallipoli, will name Simpson—Private John Simpson Kirkpatrick and his donkey.

In contrast, few people know the story of Major General Sir William Throsby Bridges, who led the Australian forces that landed at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915. In this section, we will look in more detail at these two individuals and the ways in which they made contributions to the war.

Private John 'Simpson' Kirkpatrick and his donkeys

English-born Private John Simpson Kirkpatrick jumped ship from a British merchant vessel in 1910 and spent the next four years wandering around Australia doing a variety of jobs. Hoping to get a free passage back to England, he enlisted in the AIF, and was placed with the 3rd Field Ambulance. On 25 April 1915, he found himself landed on the beaches of Gallipoli.

Source 5.35 Simpson and one of his donkeys with an injured soldier (AWM J06392)

Simpson, and many others, had the job of transporting wounded soldiers back to the field hospitals for treatment. The day after the landing, however, Simpson spotted some donkeys that had been used as pack animals. Simpson soon formed a bond with one of the donkeys. Although we do not know the exact name Simpson gave the donkey, records from the time suggest the name was Duffy. The sure-footed and steady donkey was the perfect mobile stretcher.

Simpson worked tirelessly and cheerfully, often making up to 15 trips a day through sniper fire—a round trip of almost 2.5 kilometres. The donkey was kept under cover while Simpson darted out to retrieve the injured soldiers.

On 19 May, Private Simpson was killed by machine-gun fire. His faithful donkey Duffy returned alone to the field hospital, carrying his last soldier to safety. Simpson was buried at Anzac Cove under his true name, John Simpson Kirkpatrick.

The then-Colonel John Monash said of him, 'Private Simpson and his little beast earned the admiration of everyone at the upper end of the valley … he frequently earned the applause of the personnel for his many fearless rescues of wounded men from areas subject to rifle and shrapnel fire.'

Major General Sir William Throsby Bridges

Major General Sir William Throsby Bridges was a hero of the Gallipoli landing and, for several years, one of the best-known names in Australia. He was responsible for the raising and naming of the 1st Australian Imperial Force. Bridges led the Australian Division that was the first to land at Anzac Cove on the morning on 25 April 1915.

Late in the day on 25 April, Bridges realised that the landing had been a failure and concluded that they should leave Gallipoli before there were further losses of life. Together with the New Zealand Commander, General Godley, he tried to convince the British General Sir Ian Hamilton that they should evacuate, to no avail.

Source 5.36 William Throsby Bridges (AWM A02867)

Bridges gained a reputation for visiting his troops on the front lines, even if he was putting himself in danger. Only 20 days into the campaign, Bridges was shot. He died three days later.

Bridges was one of only two soldiers from World War I whose body was returned to Australia for burial (apart from the unknown soldier brought back in 1990). He was knighted just before his death and, in September 1915, was buried in the grounds of Duntroon, the military college he had established in Canberra. Moreover, his horse 'Sandy' was the only horse brought back to Australia from World War I.

Source 5.37 *The Charge of the Australian Light Horse at Beersheba*, 1917, George Lambert (1920) (AWM ART02811)

The Australian Light Horse

Following the withdrawal from Gallipoli, the Australian infantry were deployed to France. However, the mounted troops remained to continue fighting against the Turks in Egypt. They became involved in what was known as 'the Sinai and Palestine campaign'.

The Australian Light Horse was a combination of cavalry and mounted infantry that had been developed during the Boer War (1899–1902). Traditional cavalry forces were becoming obsolete as nations developed more powerful infantry and artillery weapons. However, Australia's vast distances made military leaders reluctant to do away with mounted soldiers. The answer was a mounted force of trained infantry soldiers who would ride swiftly into battle, but fight on the ground like regular infantry. Australian mounted troops made a significant contribution to the defeat of Turkish troops in the Middle East.

The most famous battle fought by the Light Horse was the Battle of Beersheba in October 1917. The charge was aimed at capturing the important Turkish base of Beersheba, and has been called the last successful cavalry charge in history (see Source 5.37).

Check your learning

1. What was the aim of the Gallipoli campaign?
2. Give two reasons why the campaign was unsuccessful.
3. Why do you think the Australian soldiers earned high praise, even though they did not achieve what they hoped to?
4. Explain why some people argue that the withdrawal of the Anzacs from Gallipoli was the most successful part of the campaign.
5. Given their brief periods of service at Gallipoli, do you think either Simpson or Bridges deserve to be remembered as a 'hero'?

The Western Front

Although the Gallipoli campaign was the first major engagement for Australian and New Zealand troops, it was not the first campaign of the war. Nor was it the centre of action. The fighting that took place along the Western Front through France and Belgium (see Source 5.39) was the most destructive and enduring of all of the theatres of war during World War I.

At the start of the war, in August 1914, the Germans had marched through Belgium into France. Fierce resistance from the British and French stopped them from moving further into France. However, the Allies were unable to drive the Germans back. By Christmas 1914, there was a deadlock. The Germans and the Allies faced each other across a line of trenches (see Source 5.38) that stretched from Ostend on the Belgian coast in a south-easterly direction to the Swiss border (see Source 5.39 for more detail).

Source 5.38 French soldiers wait in their trenches on the Western Front during World War I.

Source 5.39 The Western Front, 1915. The two-trench system ran unbroken from the Belgian coast to Switzerland.

The Western Front is seen by many historians as the defining experience of World War I. New weapons, such as gas and tanks, were introduced there. Defensive tactics using machine guns, trenches, barbed wire and artillery meant that rather than a rapid war of movement, war on the Western Front became bogged down in a senseless series of attacks and counter-attacks, each achieving little but costing millions of lives.

Breaking the stalemate

Between 1915 and 1918, many attempts were made to break the stalemate of trench conflict. These attempts tended to follow a pattern. Initially there would be a long and sustained artillery attack—opposing trenches would be bombarded with explosive shells. These attacks could go on for a few hours or sometimes for many days. It was believed that this would force the defending troops underground, destroying their fortifications and clearing the way for troops to cross **no man's land** (the narrow strip of land between opposing trenches that belonged to neither army).

Weighed down with heavy equipment, soldiers would cross the strip of territory to their opponent's trenches. Struggling through mud-filled shell holes created by their own artillery, they might learn that the bombardment had not destroyed the barbed-wire obstacles between the lines. More frightening still was the possibility that the artillery attack had failed to destroy the enemy's position. Often, as attacking soldiers made their way across no man's land, the enemy would emerge from deep bunkers to fire on them with machine guns.

Generally, such assaults on enemy trenches failed to achieve their goals. Confusion, smoke, noise and death turned plans into chaos. If attackers reached enemy lines, hand-to-hand (or one-on-one) combat with rifles, bayonets, pistols and grenades often followed. If ground was gained, it could be retaken in a counter-offensive only weeks later. The only real consequence of most of the battles that took place on the Western Front over four years was death and injury.

Source 5.40 Allied soldiers at the Battle of the Somme, 1916

The Somme

The first Battle of the Somme (an area along the banks of the Somme River) was one of the most costly attempts to break the stalemate of the trenches. Between July and November 1916, the Allied forces tried to break through German lines. Focused on a 19-kilometre front in northern France, the soldiers managed to push the Germans back by about eight kilometres. These gains came at an enormous price. The initial 'softening up' bombardment used over 1.5 million shells in a week-long attack. British deaths on the first day of the assault are estimated at over 19000. Thirty-five thousand were injured and 2000 were counted as missing. French casualties for the first day alone were around 7000.

Later in the Somme campaign, Australian and New Zealand troops fought at Pozières from 23 July to 8 August 1916. After making early gains, Australia suffered over 23000 casualties. By the end of the Somme campaign, casualty figures for the Allies were around 620000 dead and wounded, and 500000 for the Germans.

Australian engagements on the Western Front

Australians fighting on the Western Front between 1916 and 1918 were engaged in numerous battles that were to earn more than 50 Victoria Crosses for the soldiers who participated. Australians again distinguished themselves in battle and earned a reputation for courage and toughness, especially in 1918, under the leadership of General Sir John Monash.

There was also terrible loss of life. In battles along the Somme, and at towns such as Passchendaele, Villers-Bretonneux, Ypres and Amiens, thousands of soldiers were killed or wounded, often for little gain in the futile 'game' of trench warfare.

Two of the most destructive battles involving Australians were at Fromelles in northern France in 1916 and at Bullecourt, closer to Paris, in 1917. At Fromelles, an attack on the German trenches was designed to draw German attention away from an onslaught on the German lines 80 kilometres to the south, on the banks of the Somme River.

The attack was unsuccessful and the cost was terrible. In one day, 1917 Australian soldiers were killed and over 3600 were injured, some to die later of their injuries. This event has been described as 'the worst 24 hours in Australia's entire history'.

Because the Germans quickly regained any territory they had lost, the Australians had no opportunity to bury the dead. The Germans buried many in mass pits. During the 1920s, most of the bodies were reburied in Commonwealth War Graves cemeteries, but one mass grave remained undiscovered until 2007. In that year, as a result of painstaking research by war historian Lambis Englezos, a burial site was identified on the edge of the town of Fromelles.

It has since been confirmed that up to 400 Australian soldiers are buried in this mass grave. The process of identifying these soldiers and preparing them for reburial (see Source 5.41), with full military honours, in a newly built cemetery is slow and delicate. Up to 75 soldiers have been positively identified so far through the use of DNA technology.

Source 5.41 The remains of Commonwealth soldiers who died during the Battle of Fromelles, and objects recovered at the site, are recorded by specialists of the Oxford Archaeology Institute after being recovered in mass graves in Fromelles.

Check your learning

1. In your own words, define the Western Front.
2. Why had the war become 'bogged down' on the Western Front by the end of 1914?
3. Why is the first Battle of the Somme regarded as one of the most disastrous battles of the war?
4. When it was obvious that little or nothing was gained through repeated assaults on enemy trenches, why do you think military commanders continued to order these assaults?
5. Despite their knowledge of terrible loss of life and injury, soldiers continued to take part in these assaults on the Western Front. Suggest three reasons why they did so.

Life in the trenches

The trenches that soldiers dug during World War I were typically around two metres deep by two metres wide. On both sides, conditions were barbaric, although German trenches tended to be better engineered and more comfortable than the French and British equivalents. To avoid snipers (marksmen trained to 'pick off' enemy soldiers from concealed locations), soldiers spent most of the daylight hours under the trench line—most attacks took place at dusk or in the early morning when visibility was poor. Soldiers were often bored during the day, and caught brief moments of sleep where they could. Those falling asleep on watch could be severely punished.

The soldiers had to share the trenches with millions of rats (see Source 5.42) that fed on the remains of dead soldiers left on the battlefields. With so much available food, some rats grew to be as large as cats. They bred constantly and spread disease as they ran over the faces of the sleeping soldiers.

Source 5.42 German soldiers display the result of a night's rat-catching in a trench on the Western Front.

Lice were also constant companions that lived and laid eggs in the seams of the soldiers' uniforms. The troops were often unable to bathe or change their clothes for weeks at a time. Even when washed, it was almost impossible to rid clothes of the lice eggs. Lice were responsible for the spread of 'trench fever'. If soldiers were fortunate enough to end up in military hospital, it took them up to 12 weeks to recover from this painful illness. As the war continued, delousing stations were built behind the trench lines.

Relentless rain turned the trenches to canals of stagnant mud. Trench foot, acquired from standing for long periods in wet, muddy conditions, was a fungal infection that caused swelling. Serious cases could result in amputation. The winter of 1916 was one of the harshest on the Western Front. The cold was so intense that water was carried to the troops as blocks of ice. Boiled water would develop a crust of ice after only a minute or two. Soldiers slept huddled together for warmth under their quota of two blankets each.

Adding to the smell of death and decay that hung over the trenches was a variety of other sickening odours. The smell of unwashed soldiers and overflowing latrines (toilets) mixed with the remains of poison gases, cigarette smoke and a variety of food smells was so intense that new arrivals were often physically sick.

John Alexander Raws was a South Australian soldier who spent only four weeks on the Western Front before he was killed in shelling on 23 August 1916. He wrote to his family, describing conditions in the trenches (see Source 5.43).

Source 5.43

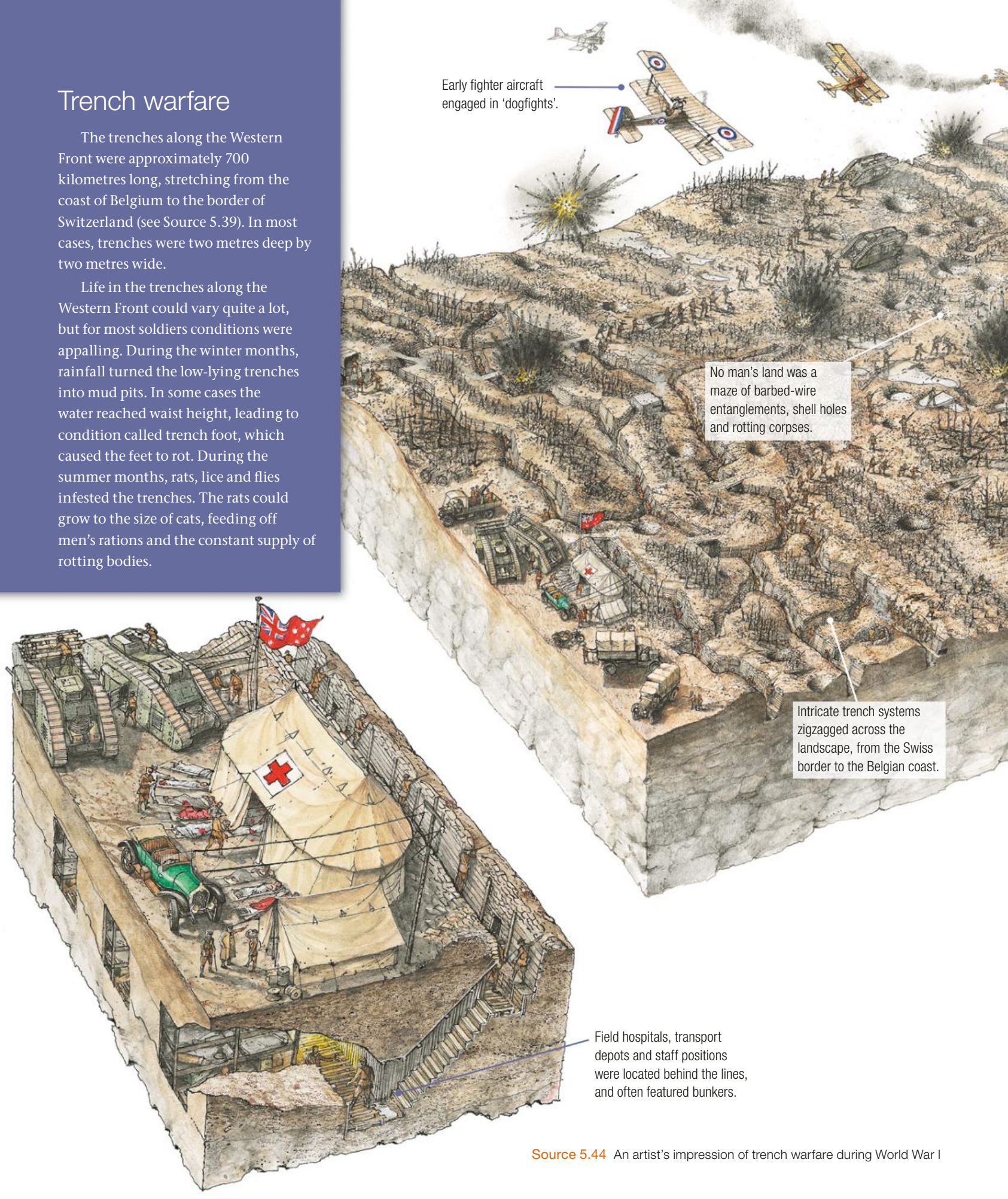
We are lousy, stinking, ragged, unshaven, sleepless. Even when we're back a bit we can't sleep for our own guns. I have one puttee [fabric strip wound around the lower leg for protection], a dead man's helmet, another dead man's gas protector, a dead man's bayonet. My tunic is rotten with other men's blood and partly splattered with a comrade's brains. It is horrible but why should you people at home not know.

John Alexander Raws

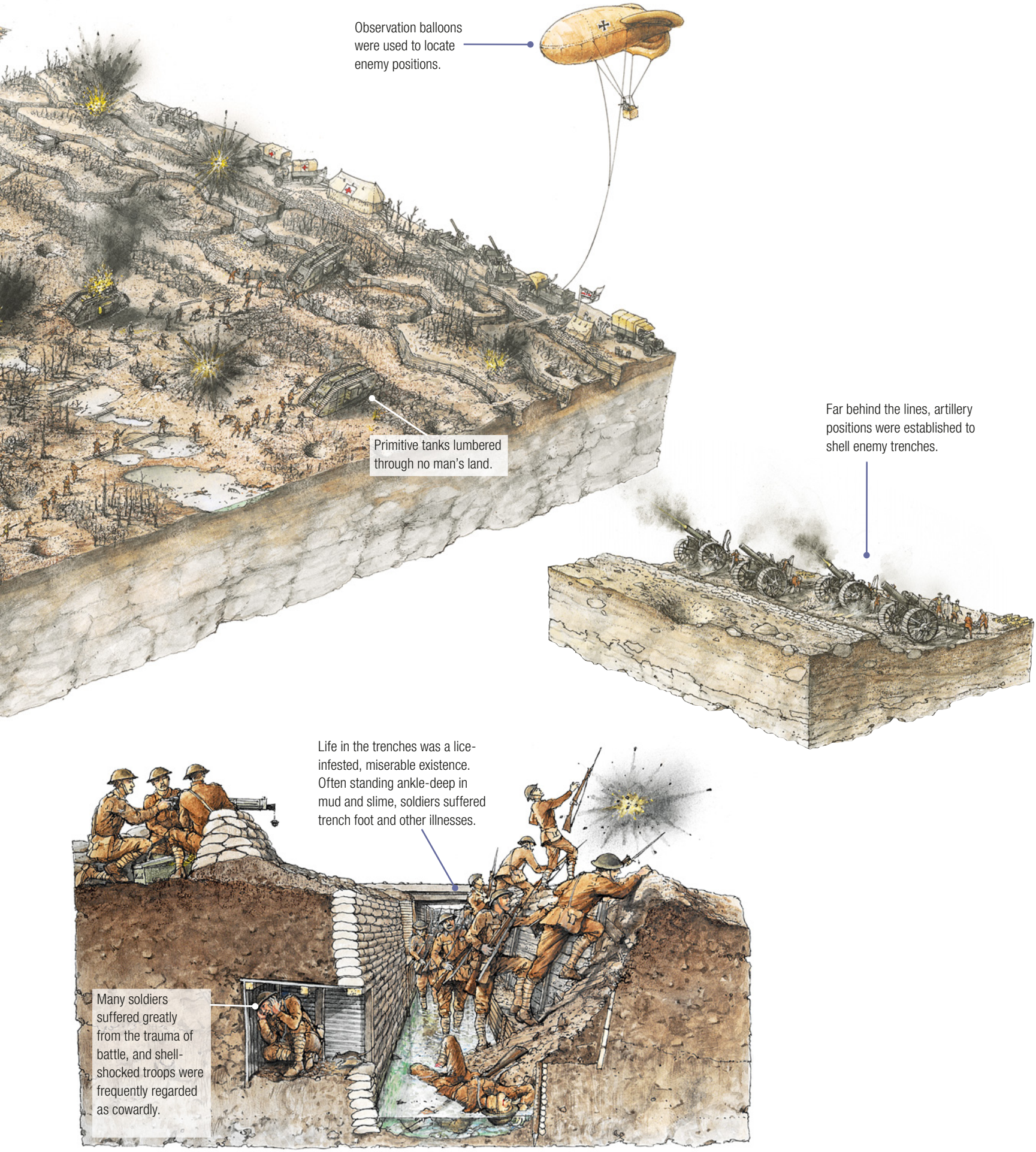
Trench warfare

The trenches along the Western Front were approximately 700 kilometres long, stretching from the coast of Belgium to the border of Switzerland (see Source 5.39). In most cases, trenches were two metres deep by two metres wide.

Life in the trenches along the Western Front could vary quite a lot, but for most soldiers conditions were appalling. During the winter months, rainfall turned the low-lying trenches into mud pits. In some cases the water reached waist height, leading to condition called trench foot, which caused the feet to rot. During the summer months, rats, lice and flies infested the trenches. The rats could grow to the size of cats, feeding off men's rations and the constant supply of rotting bodies.



Source 5.44 An artist's impression of trench warfare during World War I


Observation balloons were used to locate enemy positions.
Primitive tanks lumbered through no man's land.
Far behind the lines, artillery positions were established to shell enemy trenches.
Life in the trenches was a lice-infested, miserable existence. Often standing ankle-deep in mud and slime, soldiers suffered trench foot and other illnesses.
Many soldiers suffered greatly from the trauma of battle, and shell-shocked troops were frequently regarded as cowardly.

Source 5.45 A nurse in a makeshift hospital on the Western Front

Nurses on the Western Front

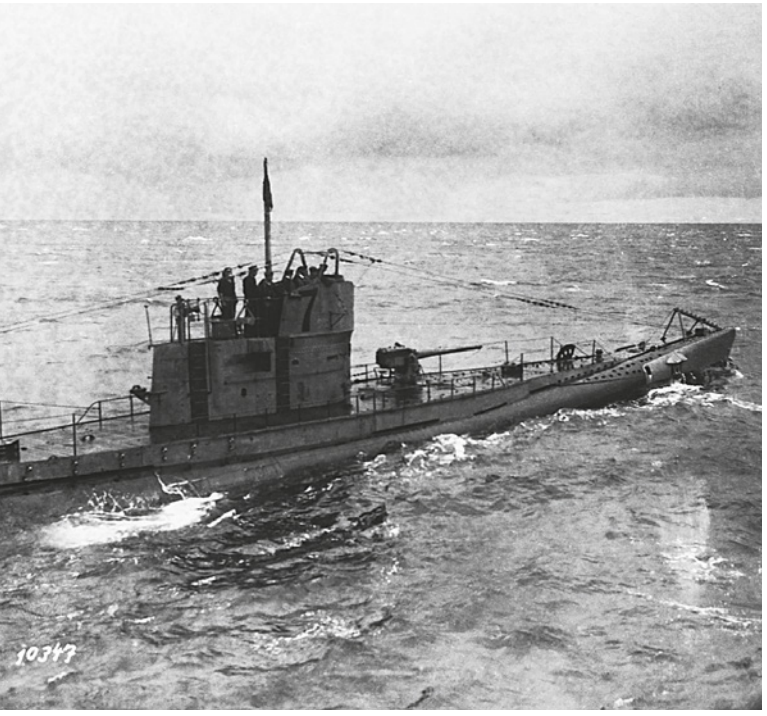
At the start of the war, a small number of women wanted to join the services but were told that war was 'no place for ladies'. The only women allowed to enlist and serve overseas were nurses.

The nurses worked under appalling conditions, especially on the Western Front where makeshift field hospitals were set up often in trenches behind the lines (see Source 5.45). The nurses became known as 'the roses of no man's land'.

Over the course of World War I, 2562 Australian nurses joined the AIF as members of the medical units. Out of this number, 2139 served overseas in the Middle East and on the Western Front. Twenty-five women lost their lives while serving overseas and 388 received military honours.

Source 5.46

> *I cannot remember what came next, or what I did, except that I kept calling for the orderly to help me and thought he was funking [showing cowardice], but the poor boy had been blown to bits. Somebody got the tent up, and when I got to the delirious pneumonia patient, he was crouched on the ground at the back of the stretcher. He took no notice of me when I asked him to return to bed, so I leaned across the stretcher and put one arm around and tried to lift him in. I had my right arm under a leg, which I thought was his, but when I lifted I found to my horror that it was a loose leg with a boot and a puttee on it. It was one of the orderly's legs which had been blown off and had landed on the patient's bed. The next day they found the trunk about 20 yards away.*
>
> Sister Kelly, an Australian nurse in France described her experiences when a bomb hit a casualty clearing station behind the lines



Source 5.47 A surfaced World War I German U-boat

War at sea

In 1914, the sea was vital for transportation, trade and communications. Protecting one's own sea lanes—or striking at those of the enemy—was an essential part of the war effort.

Because the main fleets of Britain and Germany were considered vital to any sea campaign, both nations were unwilling to use them in a large naval battle unless absolutely necessary. As a result, the only major sea battle of any importance between Britain and Germany was fought at Jutland in 1916. Although both sides claimed victory, most historians believe the British triumphed. After this, German ships were largely restricted to harbour defence.

Submarines were an alarming new weapon used during World War I. They were first used by the Germans to attack and sink merchant ships (see Source 5.47). They were commonly referred to as U-boats (*Unterseeboote*) and were able to limit the transportation of imported food and vital goods between allied countries. The involvement of the USA in World War I was a direct result of Germany's U-boat campaign.

Another naval tactic that reduced the ability of ships to carry soldiers and supplies, was the laying of underwater mines (explosives) in the North Sea. Although agreements had been made regarding where mines could be placed, neither side was very strict in following them. Mines made the North Sea a very dangerous place for ships. This was also a problem for the **neutral nations** of Norway and Sweden, which were heavily reliant on the North Sea for their trade with the rest of the world.

Source 5.48 South Australians celebrating Armistice Day near Parliament House

The end of the war

The stalemate on the Western Front dragged on through 1916, 1917 and into 1918, with little change. By early 1918, troops on both sides were exhausted, resources were depleted and morale was at rock bottom. For the surviving original Anzacs who had enlisted with such enthusiasm in 1914, there was a feeling that the war would never end.

Australian troops had distinguished themselves at Pozières, Ypres, Passchendaele and Villers-Bretonneux. In mid 1918, they helped to drive the Germans back from south of the Somme. Some Australian officers, particularly General John Monash, distinguished themselves on the Western Front, with Monash responsible for developing tactics for coordinated infantry, artillery, tank and aircraft attacks.

On 11 November 1918, the Armistice (ceasefire) was signed and 'the war to end all wars' was over.

Check your learning

1. Identify and list some features of life in the trenches.
2. Suggest one reason why it was good that soldiers such as John Alexander Raws (Source 5.43) wrote to family about the real horrors of war, and one reason why it was not.
3. In what ways did submarines change the way in which World War I was fought?
4. What qualities did nurses need to possess in order to do their jobs successfully under such difficult circumstances?

bigideas

5.2 How and where was World War I fought?

Remember

1 What happened on the first day of the Gallipoli campaign?

2 What was the view of Major General Bridges about the future of the Gallipoli campaign?

3 Give an example of one weapon or tactic used during the war:
   a on land
   b at sea
   c in the air.

Understand

4 Look at the image below.
   a Identify as many factors as possible that made life in the trenches hard for soldiers.
   b Of these factors, which do you think would be the most difficult to tolerate. Give reasons for your answer.

5 What can you learn about the resources and tactics of the two sides from the fact that there was a stalemate along the Western Front for four years?

6 Read the letter written from the trenches by John Raws (Source 5.43).
   a Why do you think he felt that people at home should know what he was going through?
   b What impact do you think these letters would have had on the views of war at home? Suggest several responses.

7 Why do you think that women were excluded from the armed services but were encouraged to join as nurses?

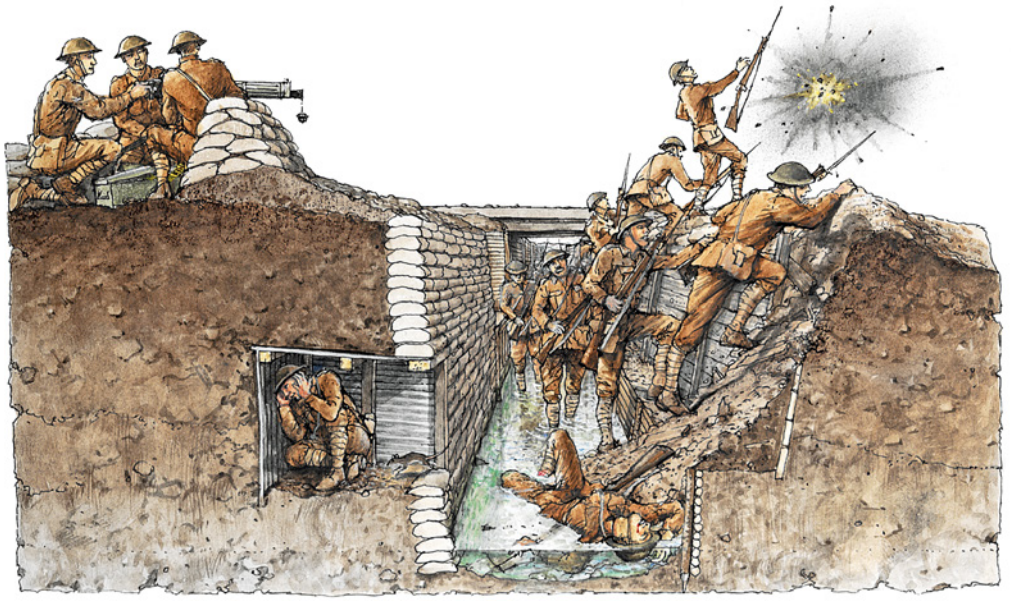
Apply

8 Re-read 'Breaking the stalemate'. Use the material to write a song or poem about the futility of war.

9 Compare the views and experiences of John Alexander Raws (Source 5.43) and Lieutenant Frank Boyes (Source 5.33).
   a What are the similarities and what are the differences between the two men's experiences?
   b What do you think were the reasons for these differences?

10 Take on the role of a relative of either of the men listed in Question 9. Write a letter to him commenting on the horror of his experiences but also attempting to boost his spirits and spur him on to continue the fight.

11 Conduct research on an Australian soldier who died in World War I. You may like to gather information on a family member, or investigate a name from your local war memorial, church or school, or the honour board at your local RSL. Once you have decided who you would like to research, go to the Australian War Memorial website and collect information on the following points:
   a name and age at time of enlistment
   b possible reasons for enlistment
   c role in the war (major battles fought, interesting information)
   d date and cause of death.



Analyse

12 Do you think the Gallipoli landing and the Anzac legend would have become as central to Australian culture and folklore if it had not been the nation's first experience of war?

13 Conduct a survey of ten people (males and females of varying ages and backgrounds) about the legend of Simpson and his donkey. Base the survey around the following questions:

- a What did Simpson do at Gallipoli?
- b Where did Simpson come from?
- c What had he done before enlisting in the AIF?
- d Why did he enlist in the AIF?
- e Why is he so famous?
- f Does he deserve his legendary status?

Use the information you have gathered from the survey to prepare a class debate on the topic: 'Simpson was a great Australian.'

14 Although the United States did not enter the war until April 1917, the sinking of the *Lusitania* in 1915 is often cited as a reason for US involvement. What would you say to someone who said that the sinking of the *Lusitania* was the event that brought on US involvement?

15 Soldiers who suffered from 'shell shock' were often regarded as cowardly.

- a Why were they regarded as cowardly?
- b If you had lived during World War I, do you think that you, too, would have regarded such soldiers as cowards? Give reasons for your response. Remember to use your historical empathy skills when you answer this question.

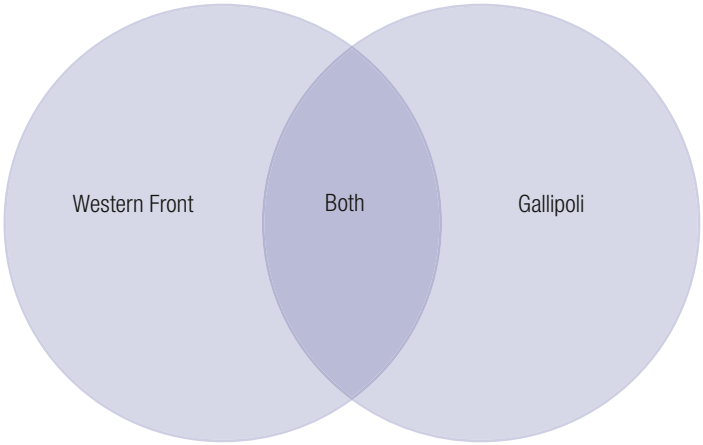
Evaluate

16 To what extent do you think the experience of World War I has been a defining feature in the development of Australian identity?

17 Based on the knowledge you have gained from this chapter and from other sources, do you think people's attitudes towards war in general has changed over the years? Give reasons for your response.

Create

18 Create a Venn diagram comparing trench warfare on the Western Front and at Gallipoli. Use all of the information available to you, in particular Sources 5.42, 5.43, and 5.44.



19 Draw a sketch or make a papier-mâché model of the beach at Anzac Cove where the troops landed during the Gallipoli campaign (see Source 5.32 and find other resources on the Internet or in your school library). Ensure that you label your sketch or model, and highlight the difficulties that the soldiers would have faced on arrival. You can find more information at the Australian War Memorial website.

20 Create a PowerPoint presentation or photo essay (a combination of images and words) that tells the story of Australia's involvement in World War I from the outbreak of war to Armistice Day. Your presentation may include writing, your own sketches, cartoons, posters and pictures—or a combination of all of these. Choose suitable music from the war era to accompany your presentation.

Source 5.49 An Australian pro-conscription poster from 1917 encouraging Australians to enlist. After heavy casualties on the Western Front, Britain pressured Australia to make a bigger contribution to the war effort.

5.3 How did World War I affect life at home in Australia?

World War I was different from all other wars that came before it. Historians often describe it as the first 'total war', because it was the first time that nations had mobilised all of their industries, resources and citizens for the war effort. Before World War I, most people's involvement in wars was usually limited to paying taxes and worrying about friends and family members engaged in the fighting. 'Total war' placed many new pressures on those left at home.

During World War I, civilians in all countries were forced to make sacrifices. Shortages of food, luxuries and even everyday necessities had to be accepted so that armies could be adequately supplied and supported. With so many men away at war, there was an expectation that women would take on many duties previously the responsibility of men. Women did a great deal of voluntary work, including fundraising and assisting with recruiting. They also moved into previously male domains in the workforce, such as working in munitions factories. In Britain, women were also able to join the armed forces, but only for home defence.

The effects of the war on the European home fronts

World War I had a wide-ranging impact on the European home fronts. All of the European combatant (fighting) nations introduced some form of conscription or national service. In Germany, for example, the Hindenburg Programme in 1916 made all men aged between 17 and 50 eligible for national service, either in the army or in war-related industries. In all combatant nations, soldiers too badly wounded to return to the front had to be cared for by a combination of government aid and charity. Food shortages were a problem for all the home fronts. In Germany, people were forced to make do with substitute goods, such as coffee made from acorns instead of coffee beans.

The war also had a major impact on **neutral nations**. Denmark, Norway and Sweden relied on the North Sea trade, and this was threatened by Germany's submarine warfare. Despite remaining neutral throughout the war, the Netherlands suffered widespread unemployment and food shortages because of the drop in trade, and was even forced to introduce rationing in 1917.

Source 5.50 A comparison of British Commonwealth casualties, World War I

Country	Total soldiers sent to war	Total casualties (captured, missing, wounded or killed)	% of casualties
Britain	5 000 000	2 535 424	50.71
Canada	422 405	210 100	49.74
Australia	331 781	215 585	64.98
New Zealand	98 950	58 526	59.01
India	1 096 013	140 015	12.77

Statistics from *Australian Campaigns in the Great War*, Lt. The Hon Staniforth Smith

Source 5.51 Australia Labor Party anti-conscription leaflet

The effects of the war on Australia's home front

World War I had a significant impact on Australia. The nation was only 13 years old when it was drawn into this conflict, which is still seen as one of the most important events in the history of the world.

As a result of World War I, Australia lost over 60 000 young men. Many of these men were the fittest and most able of the male population. As a percentage of total troops sent to war, Australia's losses were the highest of any of the Commonwealth nations (see Source 5.50).

The initial enthusiasm with which most Australians greeted the outbreak of war did not last. By the middle of 1915, the reality of war began to dawn. Following the landing at Gallipoli, Australians received the news of more than 2000 deaths. As a result, many in the nation took a more sober view or became disillusioned. There was still strong support for the war and the soldiers, but any excitement had evaporated.

By late 1916, Australia was a bitterly divided country. Not only was there a growing dissatisfaction with the war, but a real sense that there was 'inequality of sacrifice'. Many working-class Australians felt that they had contributed the most in terms of enlisting soldiers, and that they were also being exploited at home. There was a perception that middle- and upper-class people were less affected by the war. Some were even seen to be profiting from lucrative government war contracts.

These perceptions were not always accurate, but they still had an impact on the growing divisions in the nation. There was also division between those who had gone to war and those who had not. Much of this bitterness came to a head with the **conscription** debate in 1916 and 1917.

The War Precautions Act

In 1914, the federal government passed the War Precautions Act, which gave the government increased powers for the duration of the war. This Act gave the federal government the legal right to, among other things, monitor and **intern** German–Australians, levy a direct income tax, censor letters and publications, and set fixed prices for certain goods.

The impact of war on Australian women

Most women were supportive of involvement at the start of the war and more than 2000 served, generally as nurses. While these women faced dangerous conditions overseas, the women on the home front also found their lives changing.

Before the war, most women had been homemakers, with a small number working in traditionally female roles such as teaching, nursing, dressmaking or domestic work. However, with around 500 000 young men off at war, women wanted to support the war effort at home. There was some resistance by **trade unions** to hiring women in traditionally male jobs, as it was thought that this might lower wages. However, women were able to take on some traditionally male roles, such as store clerks and bank tellers. The government controlled war-related work and women were rarely able to gain jobs in these areas. By the end of the war, the percentage of women working outside the home had risen by about 13 per cent.

During the war, vast numbers of women were involved in volunteer organisations such as the Australian Red Cross and the Country Women's Association. These groups put together care packages for soldiers and their families. Women and girls sewed and knitted to ensure that the troops had warm clothing, and they raised money to help those affected by the war.

Some women, such as political activist Vida Goldstein, were opposed to any involvement in the war. Goldstein formed the Women's Peace Army in 1915. There were also some women who wanted to play a more active role in the war effort. The Australian Women's Service Corps was formed with the aim of training women to take over male jobs in the services at home, to free more men to fight overseas. However, they were told that their services were not necessary.

Source 5.53

> *The Australian Women's Service Corps, which has a membership of 1000, and which was formed recently with the object of training women to undertake the duties of motor-drivers, orderlies, clerks, and kitchen hands, in order to release men for fighting purposes, a few weeks ago made an offer to the Defence authorities to provide 700 women for such duties. A reply has been received from Mr. T. Trumble, secretary of the Defence department, thanking the corps for its patriotic offer, but intimating that there are no positions available wherein the services of women could be utilised.*
>
> *The Argus*, Melbourne 4 January 1917

When the war was over, there was an expectation that women who had moved into men's traditional roles would return to the home, making way for returned soldiers. Most women were willing to do this. However, there were roles such as secretaries, typists and telephonists that continued to be regarded as women's work.

Source 5.52 Australian Red Cross poster

Even the women who had worked in voluntary occupations had gained skills and confidence. For many women, especially younger ones, the war had opened up opportunities that were to help shape their lives as the nation moved into the 1920s.

Discrimination against 'the enemy within'

Throughout the second half of the 19th century, many Germans had settled in Australia. They were particularly well represented in areas such as the Barossa Valley in South Australia and the Western Districts of Victoria. Germans lived in the major cities and small towns. Almost immediately after the start of World War I, these German–Australians came under suspicion and scrutiny. Many Anglo-Celtic Australians believed they had divided loyalties.

At the time, many German–Australians had come to think of themselves as Australian first. Indeed many of them enlisted in the AIF. For example, the first Australian commander of the AIF, General John Monash, was the son of German migrants. However, when Australia and the rest of the British Empire were at war with Germany, German–Australians were considered potential threats to national security, and many were taken into custody.

In response to the threat of German–Australians, the government closed down German schools and changed the names of towns that it thought sounded 'too German'. In New South Wales, Germantown became Holbrook; in Tasmania, the town of Bismarck became Collinsville; and in Victoria, Mount Bismarck was renamed Mount Kitchener—after the British Field Marshal, Lord Kitchener. In Townsville, the German Gardens became the Belgian Gardens. Many German–Australians changed their names to more English-sounding ones.

There are also reports of absurd reactions, such as children throwing stones at German breeds of dog such as the dachshund and rottweiler. Even soldiers with German names who enlisted in the Australian army sometimes faced suspicion and hostility.

Over the course of the war, 4500 people considered to be 'Germans' were imprisoned in Australia. Of these, 70 had been born in Australia and about 700 were naturalised Australians.

Source 5.54 This poster, created by the New South Wales Recruitment Committee, uses anti-German sentiment to encourage people to enlist in the armed forces.

focus on ...

empathy: prejudice during war time

When times are tough, whether through war, depression or natural disaster, it is human nature to look for someone to blame.

Ethnic or religious groups such as Irish Catholics, Jews or Muslims have often been held responsible, or used as scapegoats (those seen to bear the blame), for particular events over the course of history. The general public usually knows little about the scapegoat group, which makes it easier to hate and blame. When individual members of the targeted group are actually known it becomes easier to empathise with them.

During World War I, Germans and Turks were demonised in the press, in posters and in general conversation. In the 1917 election, Australian-born Germans were forbidden from voting. A soldier fighting in France wrote to the *British-Australasian Magazine* in 1918 objecting to the fact that his mother (an Australian-born woman of German descent) was denied the vote: 'Now this has hurt me very much … She worked hard in every respect towards assisting the troops on this side, she paid particular attention to the Red Cross.'

However, there were still Australians who empathised with Germans. Some in the Barossa Valley continued to mix on friendly terms with neighbours, and to shop and trade with German businesses such as wineries and bakeries. When there was talk of banning the German language in schools, the NSW Education Minister Arthur Griffiths said, 'I might remark that we are at war with the German nation; we are not at war with German literature.'

Source 5.55
Aspro was developed in Australia as a direct result of the war. Aspirin, a pain relief medication that had been used in Australia for years, became unpopular because it was made by the German company Bayer.

Impact on the Australian economy

World War I had a major economic impact on Australia and other nations. The cost of providing weapons, ammunition and supplies to the forces at home and overseas was vast. To meet these expenses, the federal government introduced income tax. It was also necessary to borrow funds from overseas. Australia borrowed heavily from Britain to build vital wartime infrastructure, such as expanded railways. Australia would take over 20 years to pay back loans taken out during the war.

The redirection of raw materials to the war effort and the needs of wartime industries caused inflation. As a result, the cost of living in Australia rose by up to 50 per cent during the war years. The war also disrupted international trade. Naval blockades and the use of shipping for military purposes meant fewer ships were available to move trade goods to overseas markets. The Australian government had introduced tariffs (or taxes) on imported goods to protect its local wartime supplies. Many countries looked elsewhere for trade and discovered new sources in Japan and the USA.

On the positive side, however, Australia developed new industries. The fact that fewer goods could be brought in from overseas meant that inventive Australians began to develop alternatives that were made here. By the end of the war, 400 new products were being manufactured in Australia. The Newcastle steelworks, opened in 1915, was flourishing, the Australian National Shipping Line had been established and the role of the Commonwealth Bank expanded considerably.

One new product, developed as a direct result of the war, was a medication called Aspro (see Source 5.55). Before the war, aspirin (which at the time was a trademarked German-made pain reliever called Aspirin) had been widely used for pain relief in Australia. After the outbreak of war, the use of aspirin became unpopular and unpatriotic because it was made by the German company Bayer. Two Australian pharmacists, George Nicholas and Henry Smith, analysed aspirin and came up with an Australian version, which they called Aspro. Aspro became one of the most widely used over-the-counter medicines available in Australia.

There were people who profited from supplying goods needed for the war effort. These included farmers who supplied wheat, dairy products and meat to feed the soldiers here and overseas. Wool was in great demand for soldiers' uniforms and munitions factories were working overtime to support the war effort.

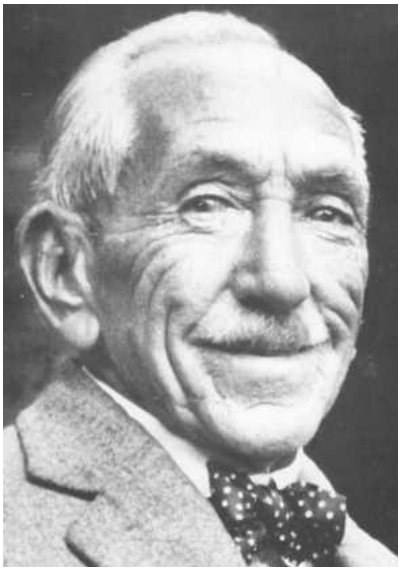
However, many workers felt that they were not sharing in the wartime profits. Wages fell but the cost of living rose. This led to some resentment and even to strike action in the coal industry, the railways and the wharves. These strikes drew much criticism. The strikers were described as unpatriotic and selfish, and they were largely unsuccessful.

Source 5.56 Wool, used to make soldiers' uniforms, was a valued commodity during the war.

The conscription debate

One of the most divisive and bitter arguments of the war was about the issue of **conscription**. Conscription is the act of calling up eligible people (in this case, men) for compulsory military service. By 1916, most of the initial excitement of war had been replaced by the grim reality that war meant suffering and death. Although there was a peak in enlistments after Gallipoli, from late 1915, numbers steadily declined.

The Labor Prime Minister, Billy Hughes (see Source 5.57), announced in 1916, following a trip to the Western Front, that conscription was vital to continue the war effort. This was despite the fact that only a year earlier he had declared, 'In no circumstances would I agree to send men out of this country to fight against their will.'



Source 5.57 William Morris (Billy) Hughes

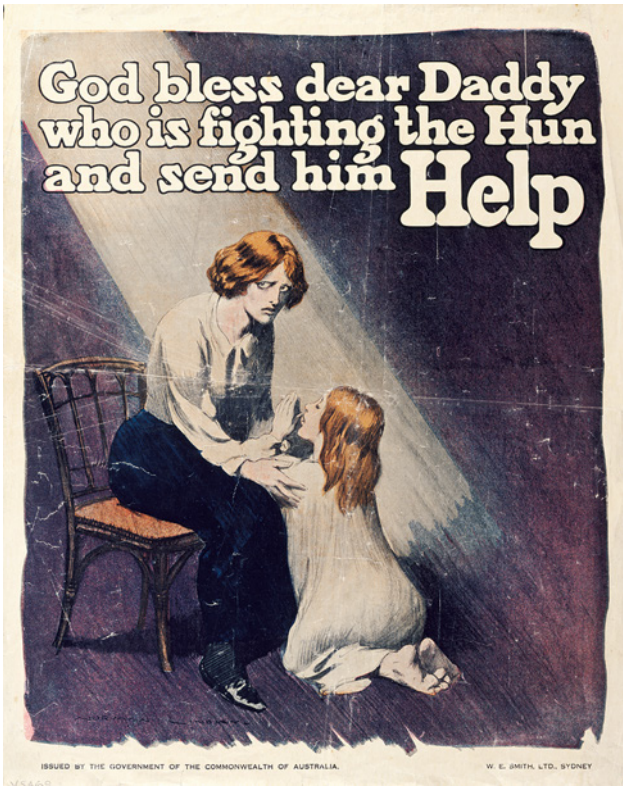
A plebiscite (a public vote or opinion poll) on conscription for overseas service was held in October 1916. It was narrowly defeated. Most of Hughes' Labor parliamentarians were opposed to conscription and, as a result, the Labor Party split. At the end of 1916, Hughes and 24 of his supporters left the Labor Party and formed a new party. The new Nationalist Party was made up of Hughes and his supporters, along with most of the former members of the Liberal Party. A second plebiscite was held in late 1917 and it was also defeated. Hughes could still have introduced conscription, as the results of the plebiscite were not binding, but he chose not to.

Although both plebiscites were defeated, achieving no change at all, the divisive impact on the nation was lasting. The issue split friends, neighbours, workmates and even families. Well into the 1920s the scars of these bitter battles could be felt in the Australian community.

Supporters of conscription tended to be middle- and upper-class people of British and Protestant background. The pro-conscriptionists argued that it was the patriotic duty of Australians to continue to support the war effort. They accused opponents of being lazy and selfish, of being 'German lovers' and of letting down the thousands who had already given their lives. In their **propaganda**, they used images of noble Australian soldiers and showed the Germans as grotesque, inhuman monsters (see Source 5.58).

Opponents of conscription were more likely to be working class, Catholic and of Irish background. Catholic Archbishop Daniel Mannix was the unofficial leader of the anti-conscription campaign and he urged Catholics to vote 'No'. Those who opposed conscription claimed that Australia had already given enough of its young men. They said that it was not really Australia's war. They also argued that several hundred thousand soldiers had gone voluntarily to the war and that it was not necessary to force Australians to fight.

Source 5.58 World War I poster, encouraging Australian men to fight against a monstrous enemy



Source 5.59 A pro-conscription poster (AWM ARTV05469)

Many trade unionists opposed conscription, arguing that the war was a **capitalist** war and should not be supported. Some trade unionists also argued that if the majority of able-bodied Australian men were sent to the front, employers would begin to employ non-whites at lower wages, undermining the gains that Australian workers had made over the preceding 14 years. Women were equally divided on the issue and were used by both sides of the campaign. Images of women and children frequently appeared in conscription propaganda (see Source 5.59).

However, it is important to recognise that the divisions between the two sides were not clear. Many farmers were opposed to conscription even though they actually prospered as a result of the war. There were also some Protestant religious leaders who were anti-conscription. Among those who had lost loved ones in the war there were those who did not want others to suffer as they had.

Other bereaved families wanted to make sure that the war was won so that their sons would not have died in vain.

The consequences of war

Approximately 65 million people from 30 nations were directly involved in World War I. Of those involved, 9 million soldiers were killed or mortally wounded, 22 million were wounded and 5 million went missing in action and were never recovered. Civilians were also at grave risk. During the war, around 9 million people who were not directly involved in the fighting died from starvation, epidemics or military actions. For Australia, which was still a young nation, the total losses were enormous. About 60 000 or 18.5 per cent of Australians who served overseas never made it home.

Source 5.60 A sculpture commemorating Australian soldiers in World War I on the Anzac Memorial, Sydney

Australia, which had entered the war with such enthusiasm and confidence in 1914, was a more serious, sober and divided nation when the war was over. There had been much sorrow and division but there had also been reason for great pride. As the years progressed, many were to look back on World War I as one of the defining influences on the nation's development.

Check your learning

1. Identify three ways in which World War I changed Australia.
2. How did the war influence Australian manufacturing?
3. How did Australians show their contempt for Germany during the war?
4. Why did many farmers oppose conscription?
5. What roles did Australian women play in the war effort in Australia?

bigideas

5.3 How did World War I affect life at home in Australia?

Remember

1 What roles were open to Australian women during World War I?
2 What is a plebiscite?
3 Why do you think both sides of the conscription issue used women, especially mothers, in their propaganda?
4 What was significant about the number of Australian deaths in World War I?

Understand

5 Why do you think that Billy Hughes held two plebiscites when he had the power to introduce conscription without the nation's support?
6 Why do you think that the offer of the Australian Women's Service Corps was rejected?
7 Can you explain why middle- and upper-class people were more likely to support conscription than working-class people?

Apply

8 Divide the class into two sections, one for conscription and one against it. Hold a conscription rally. You may wish to do some further research on the arguments used and the people involved in the conscription campaigns. Each side must prepare:
   - a speech
   - a persuasive cartoon
   - a poster that would be carried in a rally.
9 Aspro was developed because Bayer Aspirin was no longer imported from Germany. Research other products that had been imported from Germany and Austria before the war to see if their banning led to the development of other Australian products.
10 Many women wrote letters to newspapers arguing for and against conscription. Choose one side of the argument and write a letter to the editor from the perspective of a parent whose son is a soldier at the front line.

Analyse

11 Negative attitudes towards Germans, even those who were born here or were naturalised Australians, were widely held during World War I.
   a How do you explain this reaction?
   b Do you think the same reaction would happen today if Australia were at war with a country from which many Australian citizens had migrated?

Evaluate

12 Do you think that wars are more likely to have a unifying or a divisive impact on a country? Explain your view.
13 Do you think the war might have affected Australia differently if conscription had been introduced? Write a report to outline the possible effects of conscription on the war effort and the home front.

Create

14 Put yourself in the role of a business operator during World War I. When one of your male employees enlisted, you employed a young woman who has proved to be excellent. You have spent time and money developing her skills and knowledge. When your former employee returns from the war, he expects to be re-employed. He has lost a leg and is suffering from shell shock. You have to decide what to do. You cannot afford to employ them both.
   a On a sheet of paper, write all the arguments for sacking the woman and re-employing the man. On the other side, list the reasons why you should keep the young woman and tell the man to look elsewhere.
   b Write a letter to the one who will not get the job, justifying your decision.

Source 5.61 The Shrine of Remembrance opened in Melbourne in 1934 to commemorate Victorians who gave their lives in World War I. Similar war memorials exist in towns and cities across Australia.

5.4 How is World War I remembered and commemorated?

Since the beginning of recorded history, certain individuals have been recognised for their actions during times of war. Whether they are seen as honourable leaders or bloodthirsty villains, key historical figures like Charlemagne, Attila the Hun, William the Conqueror, Genghis Khan and Napoleon are remembered all around the world for the contributions they made in battle and for the ways in which they altered the course of history.

In the same way, wars can be defining points in the development of nations. For example, the USA was born as a result of the American War of Independence, and the unified nations of Germany and Italy were established following a series of wars in the 19th century.

Symbols, traditions and events that commemorate war are important elements in almost all nations. Well-tended war cemeteries can be found wherever significant battles have been fought. The Australian War Memorial in Canberra is one of the most visited sites in the country. War memorials, avenues of honour and statues of war heroes can be found in virtually every Australian town and city. Events and ceremonies that commemorate the wars in which Australia has fought are held each year on Anzac Day in April and Remembrance Day in November.

The legacy of the war

The legacy of World War I has shaped many aspects of Australian society and culture over the course of the 20th century, both positively and negatively. The restrictions on trade imposed by the war forced Australia to develop new industries.

The War Service Homes scheme was responsible for the development of new suburbs—streetscapes of comfortable Californian bungalows that are so desirable today. New hospitals, including the Repatriation General Hospital established in Hobart in 1921, were set up to care for those who had returned from war with physical or sometimes mental injuries. The Returned and Services League (**RSL**), established in 1916, continues to provide support and advocacy for the veterans of any war that Australia has engaged in over the past century.

However, the war also left Australia a bitterly divided nation. The conscription debate had reignited sectarianism (disagreement between Protestants and Catholics) and split the Labor Party. The nation was saddled with huge war debts, a rising unemployment crisis, and a series of costly and unsuccessful schemes to convert large parts of the country to agricultural production. The Paris Peace Conference also had a lasting legacy on Australian society. The Australian delegation's refusal to accept the racial equality proposal ensured that the **White Australia policy** would dominate Australia's interwar immigration policy. It also turned Japan from an ally into a potential enemy.

The Anzac legend

For Australians, commemoration of war has always been closely tied to the Gallipoli landing on 25 April 1915. Despite more successful or more destructive engagements during World War I, and despite up to 15 war experiences since 1918, it is Gallipoli that symbolises Australia's war experience.

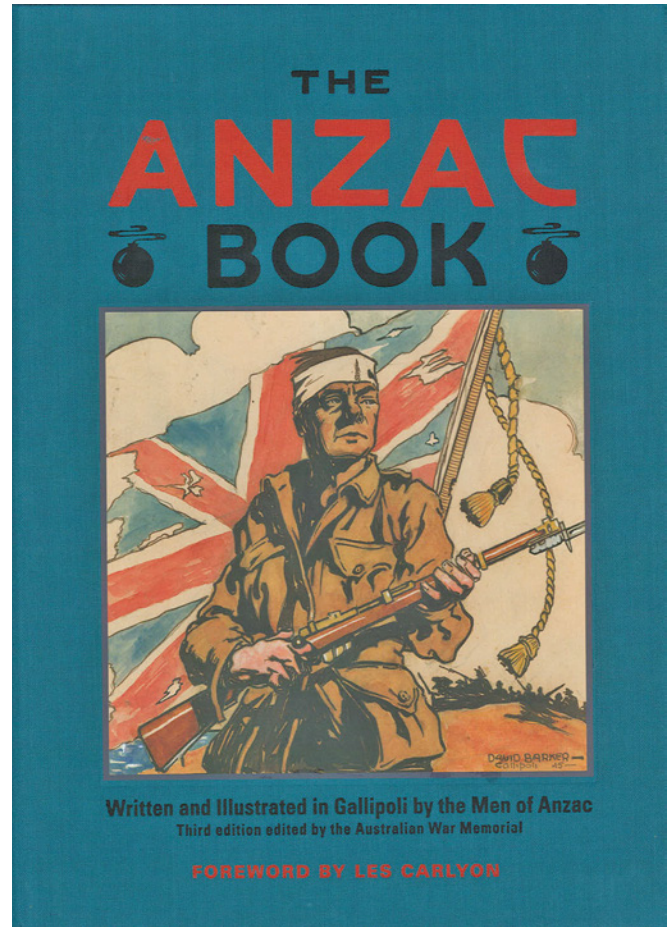
Despite the disastrous landing and loss of life, Australians at home met the news from Gallipoli with a sense of pride. In the first news reports that reached Australia, the soldiers were praised for their courage and gallantry.

British war correspondent (journalist) Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett wrote of the Anzacs, 'There has been no finer feat in this war than this sudden landing in the dark and storming the heights, above all holding on whilst the reinforcements were landing.' (*The Argus*, 8 May 1915). His views were echoed by British General Sir Ian Hamilton:

Source 5.62

> *... History contains no finer record of dauntless bravery than is here described, while the knowledge of the magnificent part taken in this spectacular drama by our own gallant troops will thrill every heart in our own land.*
>
> Ian Hamilton, 'Australia's Glorious Day: The Official Story of the Landing and Attack by Our Combined Forces at the Dardanelles'

The greatest praise of all came from King George V, who stated that the diggers had 'indeed proved themselves worthy sons of the empire'.



Source 5.63 Cover of *The ANZAC Book*, a collection of stories, poems, sketches and reminiscences by the Australian soldiers at Gallipoli, edited by CEW Bean (AWM ART90422)

Source 5.64 Dawn service is held on 25 April each year at Anzac Cove, Gallipoli.

Anzac Day commemoration

Anzac Day, 25 April, was made a day of commemoration in 1916, and ceremonies and marches were held all around Australia. A march was also held in London, England, where the Anzac troops were hailed by local newspapers as 'The Knights of Gallipoli'. By 1927, Anzac Day had become a public holiday in Australia, with marches and dawn services held around the country annually.

The events of 25 April 1915, on a peninsula in Turkey, continue to resonate with Australians today. More than any other event in Australia's history, the Gallipoli landing occupies a special place. A legend has developed around Gallipoli that grows stronger as the years pass. Schoolchildren learn about the Gallipoli landing and relish legends such as the story of Simpson and his donkey. Hundreds of thousands of Australians join in or watch Anzac marches through large capital cities and small country towns. Many more take part in commemorations and wreath-laying ceremonies at war memorials throughout the country.

Each year, increasing numbers of young Australians find their way to Gallipoli to be present at the Anzac Day dawn service. It has become something of a rite of passage. Anzac ceremonies, wherever they are held, traditionally conclude with the words from Laurence Binyon's poem 'For the Fallen':

Source 5.65

They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old;
Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn.
At the going down of the sun and in the morning
We will remember them.

Laurence Binyon, 'For the Fallen'

Origins of the legend

The significance of the Gallipoli campaign, and the origin of the Anzac legend that surrounds it, can largely be linked to the fact that it was the first time that Australians had fought in a war. As a united country, Australia had only existed for 13 years at the time it went to war. Australians at home waited eagerly for accounts of the first encounter of the Australian Imperial Force. When news of the first battles at Gallipoli appeared in Australian papers on 8 May 1915, the fact that the landing had been a failure was almost completely overlooked.

Commentators at the time, and in the years since 1915, have developed the theme that Gallipoli was a defining national experience. It has been said that 'Australia became a nation on the shores of Gallipoli'. Historians have referred to the Gallipoli experience as Australia's 'baptism of blood' or 'baptism of fire'. Australian historian Bill Gammage wrote of the experience, 'The circumstances of a national army, an arena, a brave enemy ... led three nations, Australia, New Zealand and Turkey, to create national traditions from the Gallipoli Campaign.'

Source 5.66 Anzac soldiers in the trenches using periscope rifles (AWM A03868)

Source 5.67 'A present from home—"Do they think we're on a bloomin' pic-nic?" ', cartoon from *The ANZAC Book*, 1916, edited by CEW Bean, p. 64 (AWM ART00052)

It has also been suggested that, although they were enemies, a sense of respect developed between the Anzac soldiers and the Turks. Engraved at Anzac Cove are the words written in 1934 by Kemal Atatürk, Commander of the Turkish 19th Division during the Gallipoli campaign, and the first President of the Turkish Republic, from 1924 to 1938:

Source 5.68

> *Those heroes that shed their blood and lost their lives ... you are now lying in the soil of a friendly country. Therefore rest in peace. There is no difference between the Johnnies and the Mehmets to us where they lie side by side here in this country of ours. You, the mothers, who sent their sons from far away countries, wipe away your tears; your sons are now lying in our bosom and are in peace. After having lost their lives on this land they have become our sons as well.*
>
> Memorial written by Kemal Atatürk, 1934

Source 5.69 As this photo (taken on 19 August 1966 during the Vietnam War) indicates, Australian soldiers have maintained the spirit of 'mateship' in battle first evident at Gallipoli 50 years earlier. (AWM FOR/66/0665/UN)

The Anzac legend today

The Anzac legend has not remained static. It was expected that as the last of the World War I diggers died, the significance of Gallipoli would begin to fade. There was some decline in interest in Anzac Day in the decades after World War II, but since the 1980s Anzac Day has grown in significance.

The reasons for this resurgence of interest in the Anzac legend and the Gallipoli story are complex. The attention paid to the declining numbers of World War I veterans combined with the popularity of films such as *Gallipoli* have brought the events of 1915 to the attention of the wider community. The pilgrimage of Gallipoli survivors in 1990, to mark the 75th anniversary of the campaign, brought widespread media and popular awareness of the Gallipoli landing.

Today, interest in Anzac Day has never been stronger. School assemblies, church services, television and radio programs and even sporting events are linked to the commemoration of the Gallipoli landing. In fact, as the nation approaches the centenary of Gallipoli in 2015, the place of the Anzac legend is firmly and securely at the centre of national consciousness.

Nevertheless, the legend is not without its critics. Some have suggested that other war engagements are more deserving of national commemoration. The battles at Pozières and Villers-Bretonneux in World War I, Tobruk and Kokoda in World War II and the Battle of Long Tan in the Vietnam War (see Source 5.69) have all been suggested as possible replacements for Anzac Day.

Others have argued that the focus on Anzac Day glorifies war and that other aspects of the national story, good and bad, should be recognised alongside or instead of the Gallipoli landing. It is unlikely that this will happen, but it is important to recognise that the Anzac legend is not static. As the years progress, its place in Australia will continue to grow and change.

focus on ...

significance: Alec Campbell

The last living Australian link to the Gallipoli campaign was lost on 16 May 2002 with the death of Alexander William ('Alec') Campbell, aged 103. Campbell enlisted in the AIF at age 16, after lying about his age to meet the minimum age of 18 requirement. Campbell landed at Gallipoli in November 1915. He carried ammunition, supplies and water to the trenches. He was discharged on medical grounds around a year later. Campbell's funeral was attended by the then Prime Minister John Howard and the chiefs of the defence forces. On this day, around Australia and overseas, flags were flown at half-mast to pay respect to this final link to Gallipoli.

Source 5.70 Alec Campbell

focus on ...

contestability: the Anzac legend

Although Anzac Day is significant in Australian society, opinions on its origins and importance vary. This range of sources clearly indicates that Australians have debated the meaning of the Anzac legend across time.

Source 5.72

Life was very dear, but life was not worth living unless they could be true to their idea of Australian manhood.

CEW Bean, *The Story of Anzac* (1938)

Source 5.73

Soldiers, your deeds have won you a place in the temple of the Immortals. The world has hailed you as heroes. Your comrades in the British Army have claimed you as brothers in arms, and the citizens of the Empire are proud to call you kinsmen.

Prime Minister Billy Hughes, Anzac Day ceremony, London, 1916

Source 5.74

... the beery haze which had settled over the most solemn day in the Australian calendar', wrote Seymour, 'seemed to me then somehow excessive and dangerous in that it tended to amplify the already heady sentimentality of that day.

Alan Seymour, *The One Day of the Year*, 1960

Source 5.75

The Anzac spirit is an integral part of the Australian past and present, and central to the Australian identity. When the first Anzacs swarmed the beaches of Gallipoli, the seeds of a legend were planted ... Everyone who has heard the stories from their parents, grandparents and teachers carries the Anzac spirit inside them.

Edwina Chestney, Simpson Prize Essay, 2010

Source 5.76

No one can express all that this day means to us Australians and New Zealanders. It is, said Australia's great historian Manning Clark, 'about something too deep for words'. But in the stillness of the early dawn, and in the silence that will settle once more along this shoreline, we feel it in the quiet of our hearts. The sense of great sadness. Of loss. Of gratitude. Of honour. Of national identity. Of our past. Of the spirit, the depth, the meaning, the very essence of our nations. And of the human values which those first Anzacs—and those who came after them—embodied and which we, their heirs, must cherish and pass to the future.

May they rest with God.

Address by His Excellency the Governor-General Sir William Deane at Gallipoli, 25 April 1999

Source 5.71 Australian soldiers in a boat headed towards Anzac Cove, 25 April 1915 (AWM AQ2781)

Source 5.77

Whilst alterations have been made to account for absent voices and crusades, the essential nature and heart of the legend beats to the rhythm of a bygone era. Thus, the essence of the Anzac legend has not changed; rather, it has changed us, collectively as a people.

Lauren McAlary, Simpson Prize Essay, 2010

Source 5.78

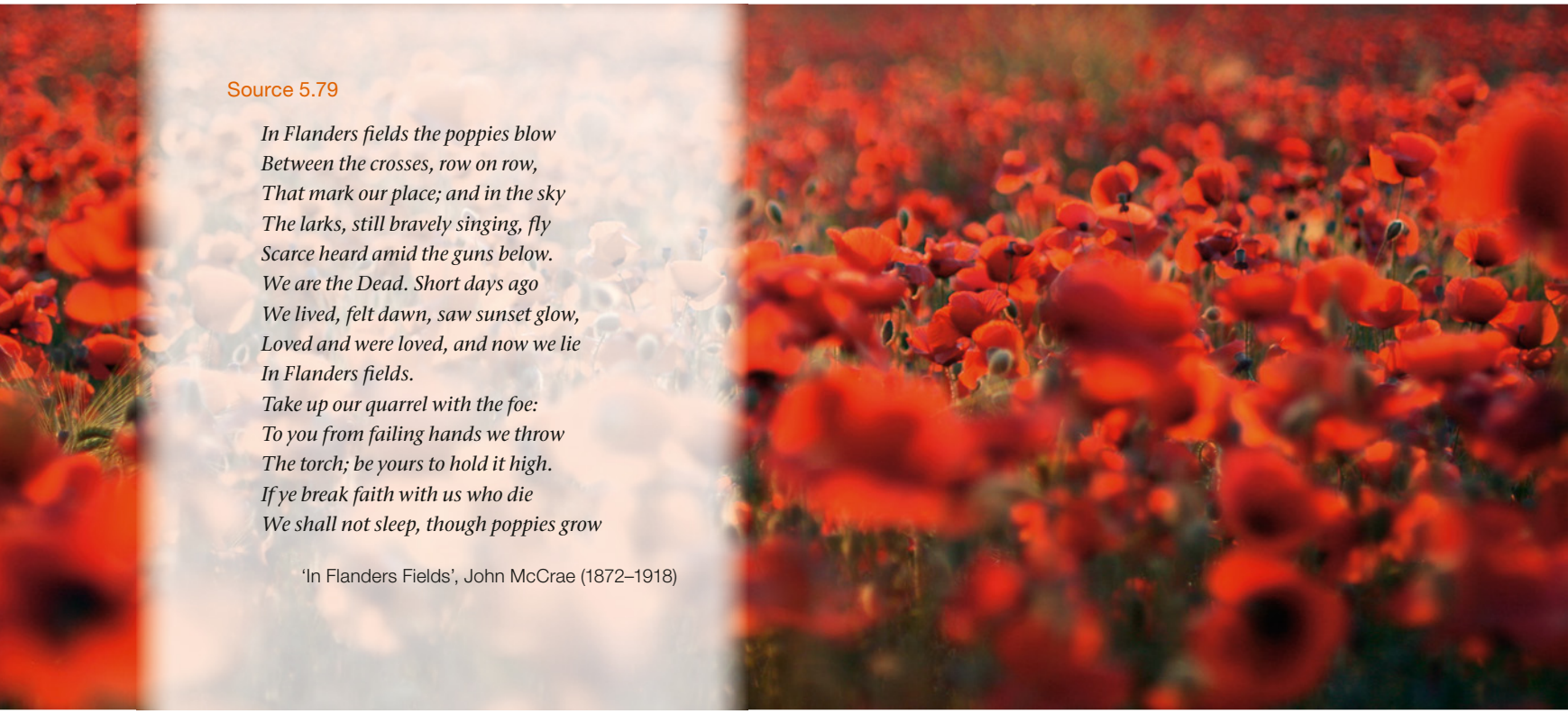
It is essential to look again at the overbearing idea that the spirit of the nation was born among the members of the Australian Imperial Force (AIF) on active service on the other side of the world. A significant problem with this proposition is the very uniqueness of their experience. The soldiers were far removed from normal life ... They were in the distinctive situation of being in all-male company for years on end, and even then their associates were drawn from a very narrow male age cohort. We might well ask how such an unnatural society could give birth to a spirit of general relevance. The key premise of the Anzac legend is that nations and men are made in war. It is an idea that had currency a hundred years ago. Is it not now time for Australia to cast it aside?

What's Wrong with Anzac? Henry Reynolds (ed.) and Marilyn Lake, New South Books, April 2010

Remembrance Day (Armistice Day)

Anzac Day is the main day for war commemoration in Australia and New Zealand. However, Remembrance Day, 11 November, is a more general recognition of the sacrifices made in war. This date marks the day and the hour when the Armistice (ceasefire) was signed, bringing an end to World War I.

In many countries, people pause for one minute at 11.00 a.m. on Remembrance Day to remember those who gave their lives in war. Red poppies are worn to symbolise the dead. At these ceremonies, the poem 'In Flanders Fields' is frequently read.



Source 5.79

In Flanders fields the poppies blow
Between the crosses, row on row,
That mark our place; and in the sky
The larks, still bravely singing, fly
Scarce heard amid the guns below.
We are the Dead. Short days ago
We lived, felt dawn, saw sunset glow,
Loved and were loved, and now we lie
In Flanders fields.
Take up our quarrel with the foe:
To you from failing hands we throw
The torch; be yours to hold it high.
If ye break faith with us who die
We shall not sleep, though poppies grow

'In Flanders Fields', John McCrae (1872–1918)

Check your learning

1. What evidence is there that war commemoration is an important part of many nations' histories?
2. In what ways do Australians commemorate war?
3. Why do you think the Gallipoli landing is such a significant event in Australia's history?
4. Why do some Australians challenge the celebration of Anzac Day?
5. Why is Alec Campbell considered to be a significant individual?
6. How do you explain the fact that there are different interpretations of the importance of the Anzac legend?

bigideas

5.4 How is World War I remembered and commemorated?

Remember

1 What was the immediate reaction in Australia to news of the Gallipoli landing?

2 According to the legend, what are the main characteristics of the Australian 'digger'?

3 Why are red poppies worn on Remembrance Day?

Understand

4 Was it significant that the Anzacs were praised by an English journalist, a British general and the King of England?

5 The Anzacs were fighting the Turks on their home soil. They could be said to have invaded Turkey. However, there seems to have been a mutual respect between the two peoples, which has grown through the years. How would you explain this?

Apply

6 Reread the memorial written by Kemal Atatürk (Source 5.68). Imagine you are one of the mothers whose sons are buried at Gallipoli. Write a letter of gratitude to Atatürk.

7 Research one of the war engagements that some suggest should replace Gallipoli as the day of national commemoration (Pozières, Villers-Bretonneux, Tobruk, Kokoda or Long Tan). Write a proposal to the Government suggesting the change and giving evidence to support your proposal.

Analyse

8 Why do you think that wars and war experiences are such significant parts in so many national stories?

9 Examine the cartoon 'A present from home' (Source 5.67).
- a What point is it making and how is the point made?
- b How would a cartoon such as this contribute to the Anzac legend?

10 Some have suggested that the Peter Weir film *Gallipoli* (1980) played an important role in the revival of interest in the Anzac legend. View the film and suggest why the film may have had this impact. Refer to specific features of the film (scenes, characters, incidents, symbols and music).

11 Examine the observations in Sources 5.72 to 5.78.
- a Divide them into two categories: those supporting the Anzac legend and those questioning it.
- b How do you explain the fact that there are different interpretations of the Anzac legend?
- c How do you envisage that Anzac Day may be celebrated in the year 2050?

Evaluate

12 It has been argued that wars are essential to a nation's development and sense of identity. Do you believe this is true? In your answer, make reference to features of Australia's war experiences at several points during World War I.

13 Around the time of Anzac Day, analogies are often made between sport and war. References are made to 'mateship', 'teams going into battle', 'combat', 'courage' and so on. Some suggest that this is appropriate; others say it is disrespectful to the soldiers who gave their lives. What is your view?

Create

14 Carefully study the observations on the Anzac legend (Sources 5.72 to 5.78). For each observation, provide an image that reflects its sentiments. You may use photographs, sketches, paintings, cartoons or other images.

15 Interview ten people (males and females of various ages and occupations). Use these interviews, plus other material in this chapter, to write an article for your school newsletter or annual. The article is to be titled: 'What Anzac Day means to Australians today'.

connectingideas

Plastic surgery then and now

World War I was a brutal war that resulted in the deaths of about 15 million soldiers and wounded about 20 million. Civilians were also horribly affected, with over 7 million killed. Many of these deaths were the result of more effective weapons, such as machine guns, mortar bombs, chemical weapons and flamethrowers. The damage these new weapons inflicted on human beings could be horrific. Medical science did its best, given the still relatively primitive resources and technologies at the time, to make life for damaged people more bearable. Perhaps the most significant medical innovation to come out of the war was plastic surgery.

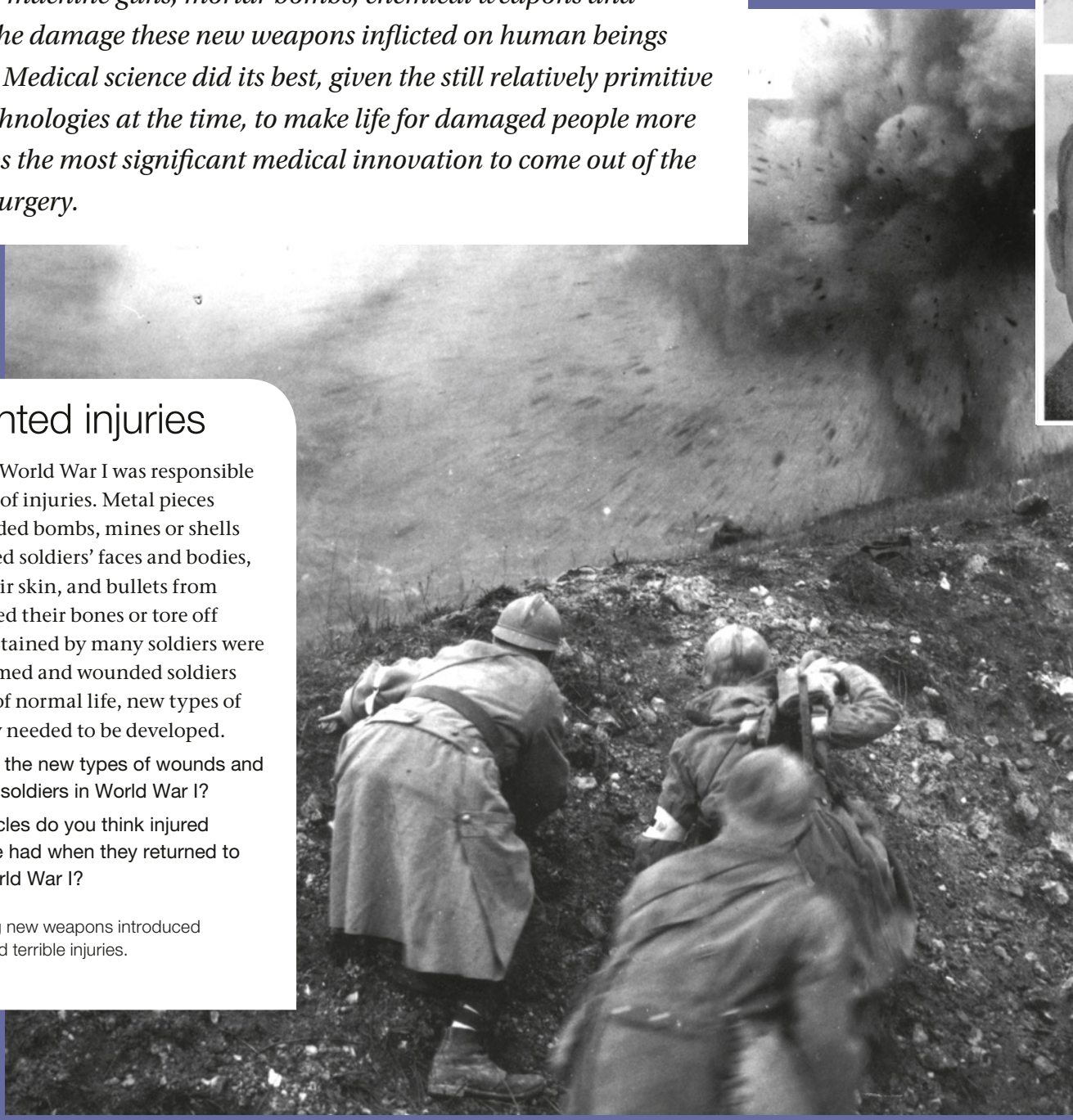
Unprecedented injuries

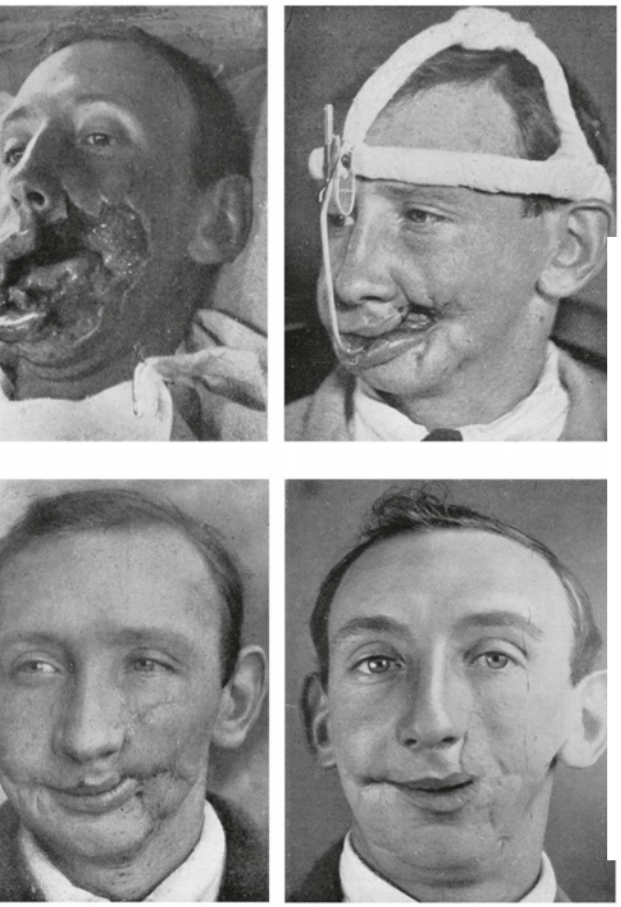
The new weaponry of World War I was responsible for entirely new types of injuries. Metal pieces (shrapnel) from exploded bombs, mines or shells mangled and disfigured soldiers' faces and bodies, poison gas burned their skin, and bullets from machine guns shattered their bones or tore off limbs. The injuries sustained by many soldiers were horrific. To allow maimed and wounded soldiers to return to any kind of normal life, new types of reconstructive surgery needed to be developed.

1 What were some of the new types of wounds and injuries suffered by soldiers in World War I?

2 What kind of obstacles do you think injured soldiers would have had when they returned to civilian life after World War I?

Source 5.80 Devastating new weapons introduced during World War I caused terrible injuries.





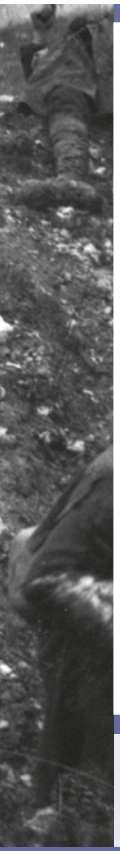
A new kind of surgery

At the outbreak of World War I, plastic surgery was still very basic. The development of anaesthetics had made more complicated surgical techniques possible, but those techniques were still not fully developed. As surgeons had to deal with an increasing number of men with horrific wounds, many new techniques were improvised on the spot. Devastating facial wounds (most often caused by gunshots) became a priority for plastic surgeons because they often prevented soldiers from returning to any kind of normal life. Harold Gillies, a New Zealand facial surgeon based in England, pioneered many methods such as skin grafts, complicated 'flap surgery', and 'staged' grafts in order to treat these types of wounds. Gillies founded a hospital for facial wound victims which conducted over 11 000 operations on 5000 men.

1 What were some of the plastic surgery techniques pioneered by Harold Gillies?

2 What do you think would have happened to the man in Source 5.81 if he had not had reconstructive surgery?

Source 5.81 Four stages of facial reconstruction around the time of World War I



From 'normal' to 'perfect'

After World War I, plastic surgery served a vital role: to allow soldiers with terrible wounds to function in civilian society again. People today who have been disfigured by injuries can also benefit from techniques that had their beginnings in that war. Cosmetic surgery (that is, unnecessary but desirable plastic surgery to alter one's appearance) became more popular in the last half of the 20th century. Today, cosmetic surgery often caters to the modern-day obsession with 'perfection'. In 2010, in the USA alone, an estimated 10 million purely cosmetic procedures were carried out on perfectly healthy men and women aiming to cosmetically improve their appearances. The dramatic increase in the number of procedures worldwide has caused many to question the ethics of surgeons who have much to gain financially. Others argue that the choice to 'enhance' one's natural appearance is a basic right.

1 How did the nature of the wounds suffered by soldiers in World War I lead to the development of purely cosmetic surgery?

2 What similarities and differences can you identify between the role of plastic surgery in World War I and cosmetic surgery today?

Source 5.82 Jocelyn Wildenstein after her cosmetic surgery

Q What evidence is there that plastic surgery has become a way for people to 'improve' on nature?

glossary

A

alluvial gold gold that is found in slow-moving rivers

assembly line machinery that is arranged in sequence so that something can be assembled quickly and efficiently

assimilation the integration of one social or ethnic group into another, usually entailing the loss of the minority culture

assisted migration the practice of paying for the transportation costs of people wanting to settle in Australia in exchange for a set period of unpaid work

B

bias a prejudice for or against something

C

canal an artificial waterway constructed for the movement of boats and ships or for irrigation

capitalism an economic system in which production and the distribution of goods is dependant on private funds for the sake of profit

cause and effect a key concept in history: the link between what causes an action, or what motivates someone to act a certain way, and the outcome of that action

census a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, etc.

Chartism a 19th century movement in support of the development of a people's charter, with the aim of electoral and social reform

colony a settlement established and maintained by an **empire** for economic or strategic reasons

commodity a product to be purchased or traded

communism an economic system in which all property is publicly owned and each person works in accordance with what he or she can do, all goods are distributed according to need

***conquistador* (pronounced *kon•KEES•ta•dor*)** a Spanish soldier or conqueror in the Spanish colonies in the New World

conscription compulsory military service

consumer someone who buys products or services

contestability a key concept in history; certain aspects of history may be contested (challenged) or left open to debate due to a lack of evidence or different perspectives

continuity and change a key concept in history: the recognition that while many things change over time (some quite drastically), others continue, even if in modified forms

corps literally 'a body'; in the military, a body of troops with special duties

D

deep reef gold gold found in quartz and mined from deep underground

dispossession the act of removing a person or group from their land or home

dogfight close combat between aeroplanes

dominion a self-governing territory of the British Commonwealth

dynasty a period of rule by successive members of a family

E

egalitarian the treatment of all people as equals and the according of rights and opportunities on that basis

egalitarianism the belief that every person is born equal in terms of rights and opportunities

Emancipation Proclamation the announcement by Abraham Lincoln on 22 September 1862 that freed black slaves in the United States

emigrate to leave one's own country to settle in another

empathy a key concept in history: the ability to understand what happened in the past from the **perspective** of the people living at the time

empire a group of countries and/or areas, probably having different languages and cultures, ruled by a central power or leader

Enclosures Acts several Acts between 145 and 1882 in which common land was enclosed and given to private individuals for their own use

Enlightenment the intellectual movement of the late 17th and early 18th centuries

entrepreneur (pronounced *on•TRUH•pren•UHR*) a person who undertakes a business in the hopes of making a profit

evidence a key concept in history: the information obtained from sources that is valuable for a particular historical inquiry; can be used to help construct a historical narrative, to support a hypothesis or to prove or disprove a conclusion

F

Federation (Australian) the formation of the Commonwealth of Australia

free trade trade between states or counties without penalties such as tariffs or taxes

G

globalisation the internationalisation of business

Great War, the the name given to the World War I when that war first began

H

human trafficking the sale and trade in human beings for the exploitation of their labour

I

ideology the intellectual basis or philosophy behind a political, social or economic system

immigration the act of moving into a country to live

imperialism the process of acquiring and maintaining colonies for economic or strategic purposes

industrialisation the process of bringing machinery into the production of goods

intern to imprison or keep confined to a particular place

L

Luddite a worker who rioted and broke machinery in protest against the use of mechanised labour (1811–1818); named after Ned Ludd

M

Manifest Destiny the belief that the entire North American continent was intended for settlement by the USA

merino (pronounced *mer•EEN•o*) a breed of sheep prized for their fine wool

migrant a person who moves from one location to another, for settlement or for work

migration the movement of people and animals

monarchy the system of rule by a monarch (king or queen)

N

nationalism a sense of pride in, and love of, one's country; patriotic feelings or patriotism

neutral nation a country not partaking in a war or taking sides in a war

no man's land the region between trenches in World War I

nomad a person who moves continually, usually with a group, in order to follow herds of animals or to suit the season (adj. nomadic)

P

pacifist a person opposed to war

penal colony a colony set up to receive and contain prisoners, usually from the mother country

perspectives a key concept in history: the way that a person or particular people view some aspect of the past; a person's perspective will often be influenced by their age, gender, level of education, personal prejudices and/or fears

plebiscite (pronounced *PLEB•uh•site*) a direct vote of all the electors of a country, city or state on a specific and important issue

proletariat the class of people who perform manual machine work for wages

propaganda an organised system of giving information or disinformation for a political or economic end

public transport a state-organised or state-run transportation system intended to carry a large number of people (buses, trains, trams, etc.)

puddling the process of separating gold from rock sludge using water

R

referendum a vote on a special issue

Reformation the 16th century movement to reform the doctrine and practices of the Roman Catholic Church, leading to the formation of the Protestant Church

reparation the act of making amends for wrongs during a war; after World War I, the burden of compensation imposed on Germany for its role in World War I

representative democracy a democratic system in which elected officials act on behalf of the people

reservation an area of land set aside as a place to live for a group of people (sometimes Indigenous people who have been dispossessed of their own land)

resource an item for use in the production and delivery of goods and services (e.g., water, labour, wind, gold)

RSL Returned and Services League

S

Schlieffen Plan (pronounced *SHLEEF•en plan*) the German military plan for the rapid invasion and defeat of France by way of an attack through neutral Belgium rather than across Germany and France's common border

significance a key concept in history; the importance that is assigned to particular aspects of the past (such as events, developments, movements and historical sites)

social Darwinism Charles Darwin's theory of evolutions applied to the social sphere, whereby 'the survival of the fittest' became the doctrine for the treatment (or lack of treatment) of 'unfit' members of society

socialism a political and economic system that advocates that the means of production, distribution and exchange should be regulated or owned by everyone in society and managed by the state, rather than by individuals

sovereignty self-government

squatter a person who takes unauthorised possession of unoccupied land

Stolen Generations the Aboriginal people of Australia who were taken from their families as children in hopes of **assimilating** them into white Australia

suffrage voting rights

suffragette a woman in the early 20th century fighting for the right to vote (see ***suffrage***)

T

***terra nullius* (pronounced *TERR•a NULL•ee•us*)** a Latin phrase meaning 'land belonging to no one'; used by the British to justify the settlement of Australia; the belief that the Indigenous inhabitants did not own the land and therefore the British could occupy and eventually own it

textile any woven material

trade union an organised group of workers formed to protect their rights and ensure their interests are taken into account

transportation in early Australia, the enforced shipment of convicts from Great Britain to Australia as punishment for criminal activity

treason an action taken against ones own country

trench the extensive system of ditches used in wartime to move troops and shelter them from enemy fire, as well as a place from which to fire against the enemy

triangular trade the trade of slaves, raw materials and manufactured goods between the continents of Africa, North America and Europe

Triple Alliance the alliance (1882–1915) of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy

Triple Entente (pronounced *TRI•ple on•TONT*) the alliance between Great Britain, France, and Russia prior to World War I; originally a series of loose agreements, it began to assume the nature of a more formal alliance as the prospect of war became more likely, and formed the basis of the Allied powers in World War I

U

urban planning the carefully planned development of cities

urbanisation the growth of cities and the movement of people from rural environments to towns and other densely populated areas

V

values the standards and ethical values of a group of people

W

welfare state a system whereby a nation attempts to ensure its citizens have their basic needs met (health care, education, housing, etc.) through taxation

White Australia policy a term used to describe a number of government policies adopted from 1901 in order to prevent 'non-whites' from settling in Australia

workhouse a public institution in which poor or indebted people are housed and fed in return for work performed

zeppelin an airship with a rigid framework, filled with gas, originally used by the German military

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Statue of bushranger Ned Kelly, dressed in homemade plate-metal armour, located in Glenrowan, Australia. After a final confrontation with police on 28 June 1880, Kelly was captured and sent to jail. He was subsequently hanged for murder at Old Melbourne Gaol in November 1880. Today, Kelly is a folk hero to many and symbol of resistance against the oppression of the British ruling class.

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