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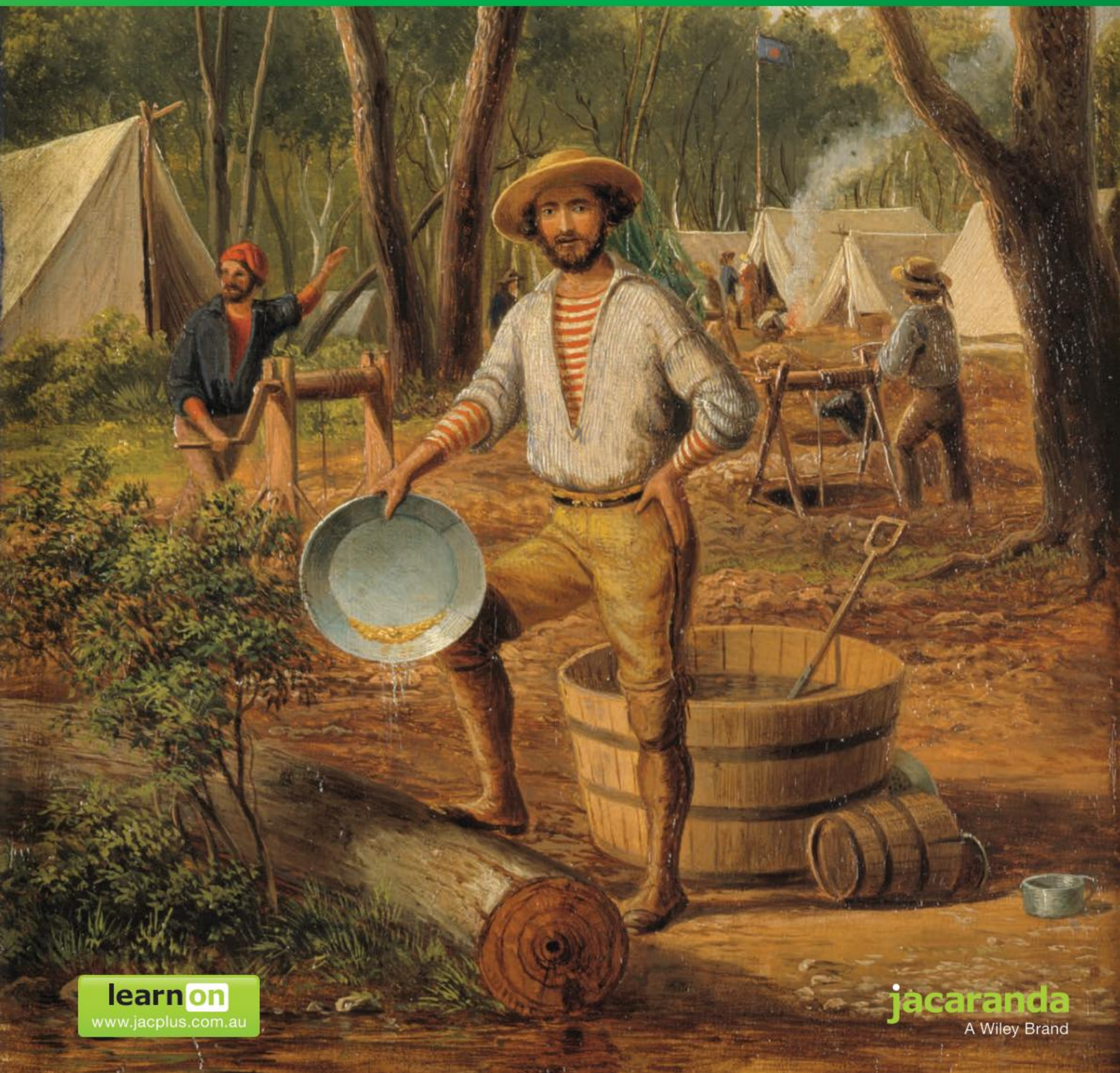
HISTORY ALIVE 9

VICTORIAN CURRICULUM | SECOND EDITION



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JACARANDA

HISTORY ALIVE 9

VICTORIAN CURRICULUM | SECOND EDITION

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Born Vienna 1811, Died London 1901
I HAVE GOT IT, 1854
oil on canvas, 25.2 × 19.8 cm
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This textbook contains images and names of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people who are, or may be, deceased. The publisher appreciates that this inclusion may distress some Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. These images and names have been included so that the young multicultural audience for this book can better appreciate specific aspects of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander history and experience. It is recommended that teachers should first preview resources on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander topics in relation to their suitability for the class level or situation. It is also suggested that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander parents or community members be invited to help assess the resources to be shown to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children. At all times the guidelines prescribed by the relevant educational jurisdictions and curriculum bodies should be followed.

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HOW TO USE

the *Jacaranda History Alive* resource suite

The ever-popular *Jacaranda History Alive for the Victorian Curriculum* is available as a standalone History series or as part of the *Jacaranda Humanities Alive* series, which incorporates History, Geography, Civics and Citizenship, and Economics and Business in a 4-in-1 title. The series is available across a number of digital formats: learnON, eBookPLUS, eGuidePLUS, PDF and iPad app.

Skills development is integrated throughout, and explicitly targeted through SkillBuilders and a dedicated History skills topic for each year level.

This suite of resources is designed to allow for differentiation, flexible teaching and multiple entry and exit points so teachers can *teach their class their way*.

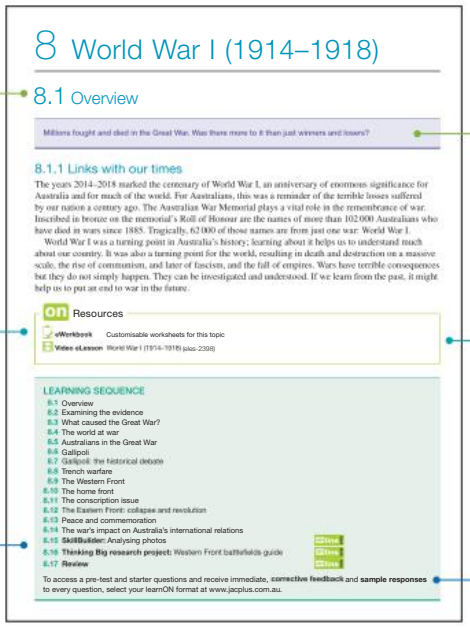
Features

All topics start with an **Overview** which includes a pre-test to gauge students' readiness to begin.

An online **workbook** is available for customisation and printing.

SkillBuilders, **Thinking Big research projects** and **Reviews** are available online for every topic.

Skills keys identify each question according to the skill targeted, providing insights into skills development. Progress and results can be tracked and filtered by skill online.


8 World War I (1914–1918)

8.1 Overview

Millions fought and died in the Great War. Was there more to it than just winners and losers?

8.1.1 Links with our times

The years 2014–2018 marked the centenary of World War I, an anniversary of enormous significance for Australia and for much of the world. For Australians, this was a reminder of the terrible losses suffered by our nation a century ago. The Australian War Memorial plays a vital role in the remembrance of war. Inscribed in bronze on the memorial's Roll of Honour are the names of more than 102 000 Australians who have died in wars since 1885. Tragically, 62 000 of those names are from just one war: World War I.

World War I was a turning point in Australia's history; learning about it helps us to understand much about our country. It was also a turning point for the world, resulting in death and destruction on a massive scale, the rise of communism, and later of fascism, and the fall of empires. Wars have terrible consequences but they do not simply happen. They can be investigated and understood. If we learn from the past, it might help us to put an end to war in the future.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson World War I (1914–1918) (eles-2358)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

8.1 Overview
8.2 Examining the evidence
8.3 What caused the Great War?
8.4 The world at war
8.5 Australians in the Great War
8.6 Gallipoli
8.7 Gallipoli: the historical debate
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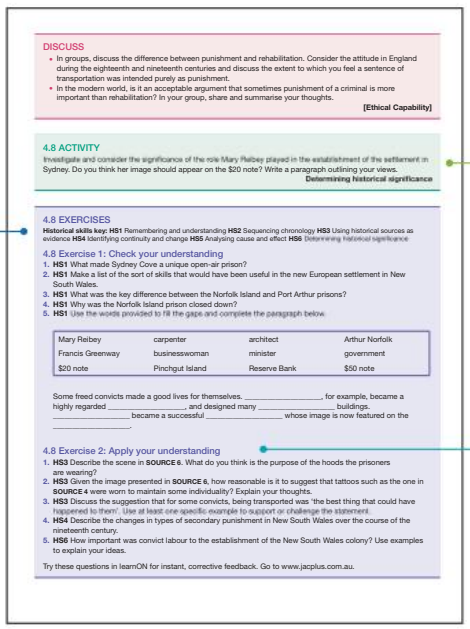
8.15 SkillBuilder: Analysing photos
8.16 Thinking Big research project: Western Front battlefields guide
8.17 Review

To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, corrective feedback and sample responses to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

Topics open with an **inquiry question** to spark students' curiosity about the topic.

OnResources feature boxes provide guidance about additional resources online.

Corrective feedback and **sample responses** are available online for every question.


DISCUSS

- In groups, discuss the difference between punishment and rehabilitation. Consider the attitude in England during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and discuss the extent to which you feel a sentence of transportation was intended purely as punishment.
- In the modern world, is it an acceptable argument that sometimes punishment of a criminal is more important than rehabilitation? In your group, share and summarise your thoughts.

[Ethical Capability]

4.8 ACTIVITY

Investigate and consider the significance of the role Mary Reibey played in the establishment of the settlement in Sydney. Do you think her image should appear on the $20 note? Write a paragraph outlining your views.

Determining historical significance

4.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding HS2 Sequencing chronology HS3 Using historical sources as evidence HS4 Identifying continuity and change HS5 Analysing cause and effect HS6 Determining historical significance

4.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. HS1 What made Sydney Cove a unique open-air prison?
2. HS1 Make a list of the sort of skills that would have been useful in the new European settlement in New South Wales.
3. HS1 What was the key difference between the Norfolk Island and Port Arthur prisons?
4. HS1 Why was the Norfolk Island prison closed down?
5. HS1 Use the words provided to fill the gaps and complete the paragraph below.

Mary Reibey	carpenter	architect	Arthur Norfolk
Francis Greenway	businesswoman	minister	government
$20 note	Pinchgut Island	Reserve Bank	$50 note

Some freed convicts made a good lives for themselves. _____, for example, became a highly regarded _____, and designed many _____ buildings. _____ became a successful _____ whose image is now featured on the _____.

4.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. HS3 Describe the scene in SOURCE 6. What do you think is the purpose of the hoods the prisoners are wearing?
2. HS3 Given the image presented in SOURCE 6, how reasonable is it to suggest that tattoos such as the one in SOURCE 4 were worn to maintain some individuality? Explain your thoughts.
3. HS3 Discuss the suggestion that for some convicts, being transported was 'the best thing that could have happened to them'. Use at least one specific example to support or challenge the statement.
4. HS4 Describe the changes in types of secondary punishment in New South Wales over the course of the nineteenth century.
5. HS6 How important was convict labour to the establishment of the New South Wales colony? Use examples to explain your ideas.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

A range of activities is provided to promote deeper inquiry, encourage collaboration and help students to develop their research skills.

Exercise sets at the end of each subtopic allow students to **check** and **apply** their understanding.

Content is presented using age-appropriate language, and a wide range of engaging sources, diagrams and images support concept learning.

Skillbuilders model and develop key skills in context.

In each topic, a **Thinking Big research project** provides opportunities for students to delve deeper, think creatively and work collaboratively.

3.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

online

Identifying and analysing different perspectives of people in the Industrial Revolution

When examining any historical issue or event, we should try to build up an accurate picture of what actually happened in the past. If we are relying on a primary source in the form of an eyewitness report of an event, we need to be aware of possible bias or prejudice on the part of that eyewitness.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

3.12 Thinking Big research project: City life visual diary

online

SCENARIO

As a 14-year-old living in one of the large industrial towns in Britain during the Industrial Revolution, you want to leave a record for future generations to understand what life was like for working-class people at this time. You will create an annotated visual diary of your daily life to describe the living and working conditions that you and your family experience.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: City life visual diary (pro-0182)

SOURCE 3 An 1804 engraving of a wooden punishment collar as described in **SOURCE 5**. The writing indicates the crime for which the prisoner is being punished.

DISCUSS

The opium trade was highly lucrative for the British in the 19th century, but its impact on China was significant.

1. Do you think all the positive and negative consequences were considered by the British as the trade progressed?
2. How much do you think governments in the modern world have an obligation to try to reach a balance of positive outcomes for both sides?
3. Think about what might happen today if a trade agreement between Australia and another nation had positive outcomes for one side but negative outcomes for the other. How might each country react in that situation?

[Ethical Capability]

7.7.3 Expanding contacts

Foreign ideas

The Jesuit missionaries of the sixteenth century brought with them not only Christianity but also European ideas and technology, particularly in the fields of astronomy and science. They shared their European views with the Chinese and returned to Europe with tales of China's wonders. Yet their numbers were small and any ideas or new technology they conveyed tended to remain within the emperor's inner circle rather than circulated throughout the country.

Discuss features explicitly address Curriculum Capabilities.

Links to the **myWorldHistory Atlas** are provided throughout.

SOURCE 5 Chinatown in Melbourne. This community was originally established in the 1850s during the gold rushes.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.

- Australia and Asia > **The Chinese diaspora**

7.7 ACTIVITY

a. Construct a visual diagram that summarises the causes of the Chinese Diaspora. Include both 'push factors' (reasons to leave China) and 'pull factors' (reasons to migrate to a particular country).
b. On a world map, label the countries and regions, with the dates if possible, to which Chinese migrants primarily travelled.

Analysing cause and effect

Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31697)
Crossword (doc-31698)

Interactivity The Industrial Revolution: Technology and progress crossword (int-7636)

KEY TERMS

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

A range of questions and a post-test are available online to test students' understanding of the topic.

Key terms are available in every topic review.

learnON

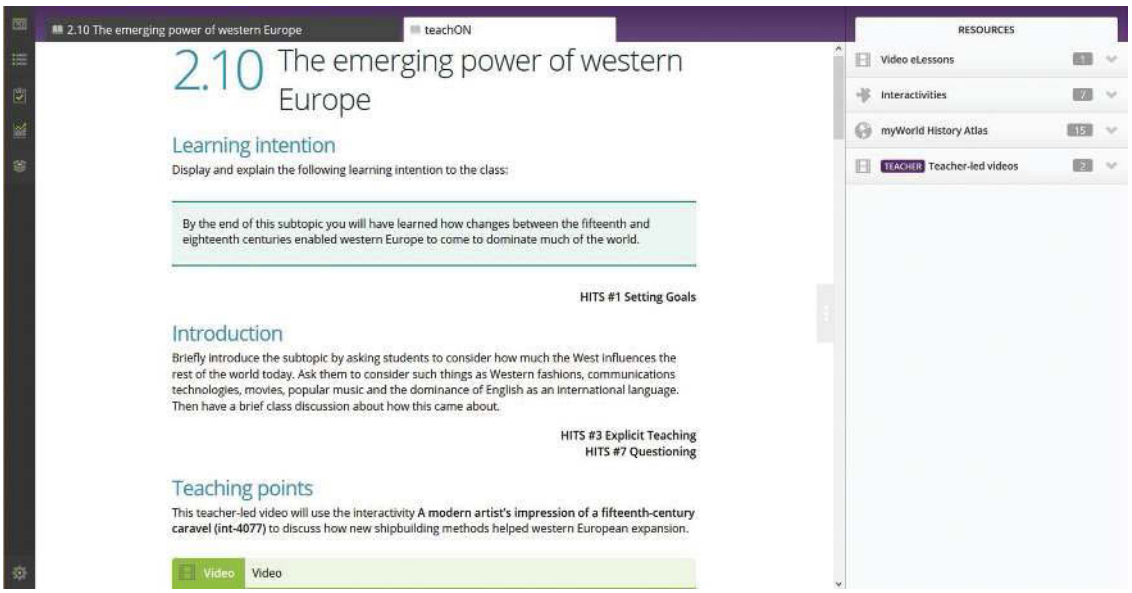
Jacaranda History Alive learnON is an immersive digital learning platform that enables student and teacher connections, and tracks, monitors and reports progress for immediate insights into student learning and understanding.

It includes:

- a wide variety of embedded videos and interactivities
- questions that can be answered online, with sample responses and immediate, corrective feedback
- additional resources such as activities, an eWorkbook, worksheets, and more
- Thinking Big research projects
- SkillBuilders
- teachON, providing teachers with practical teaching advice, teacher-led videos and lesson plans.

teachON

Conveniently situated within the learnON format, teachON includes practical teaching advice, teacher-led videos and lesson plans, designed to support, save time and provide inspiration for teachers.



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1 Historical skills and concepts

1.1 Overview

1.1.1 Links with our times

In 2017, a crowd gathered in southern Israel to commemorate the centenary of the Battle of Beersheba. Approximately 100 horsemen from Australia participated in a re-enactment of the cavalry charge. The historical event has often been referred to as 'the last successful cavalry charge in history'.

The Australian 4th Light Horse Brigade was tasked with capturing the fortified desert town of Beersheba on 31 October 1917. The town, which was strategically important and possessed the only water supply in the region, was held by the Turkish army. Comprising troops on horseback, the 4th and 12th regiments of the brigade charged at the Turkish trenches. With bayonets in their hands, they jumped the trenches and rode straight into Beersheba, seizing its water wells and the rest of the town. The victory was a turning point in the campaign to defeat the German-allied Turkish army in the Middle East. It led to the eventual fall of the Ottoman Empire.

We know these things because historians use clues like archives, letters and weapons as well as many other historical sources to bring the past to life. They use evidence that includes all kinds of traces, from skeletons to newspapers, paintings and photographs. The study of history involves using such evidence in an attempt to find the truth about what happened in former times.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Investigating the past (eles-1057)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

1.1 Overview
1.2 Why we study history
1.3 Historical skills
1.4 Perspectives and empathy
1.5 **SkillBuilder:** Sequencing events in chronological order online only
1.6 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

1.2 Why we study history

1.2.1 How and why do we study history?

History is a journey of discovery through time. Often it will excite you, and sometimes it will shock and amaze you. Sometimes it will seem as though the people of past societies were from another planet. At other times their actions and ideas will feel similar to those of your friends and neighbours.

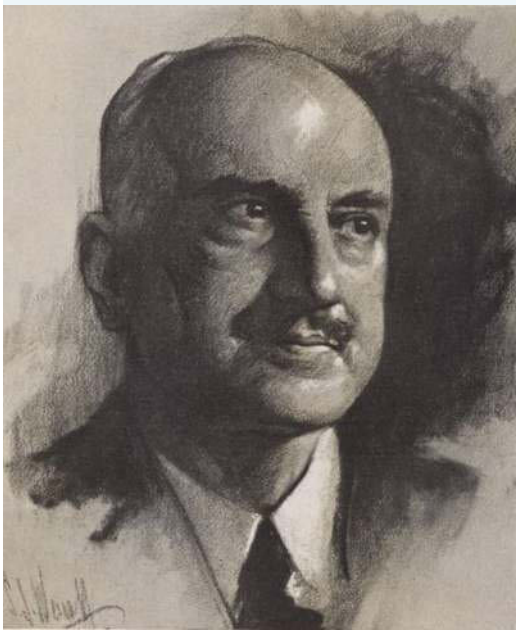
What is a historian?

A historian is a person who researches, interprets and writes about the past, including the history of countries, people, periods of time, particular events and issues. Historians research into past civilisations, cultures and societies. They try to build up a picture of how people in other times lived and acted. Historians try to make sense of past ideas, customs and beliefs, the ways people were ruled and how they made their living. Historians inquire into the past by examining sources, including archives, diaries, books and artefacts. Historians also try to understand and explain how people's lives were shaped by other people and events, what they thought about their times and how they brought about changes in their own world.

1.2.2 The value of history

History is the study of the past and of the causes of historical events. The term comes from the ancient Greek word *historia*, which originally referred to inquiry, or the act of acquiring knowledge through inquiry. Some people question the need to understand the past, but there are many very good reasons for studying history. Knowledge of history helps us to understand our heritage. We start to understand where our ideas, languages, laws and many other aspects of our lives came from. We can also develop more open minds and learn to appreciate cultures that are different from our own.

SOURCE 1 A drawing of the philosopher George Santayana (1863–1952) from the cover of *Time* magazine in February 1936. He is popularly known for the aphorism, 'Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it.'



History, the present and the future

Perhaps you already know that we can never understand the time we live in or what the future may hold if we do not understand the journey that brought us to this point. Human societies did not appear in the present as if from nowhere. They developed over many thousands of years. By understanding the past, we might just be able to avoid repeating past mistakes and make our world a better place in the future.

History, work and leisure

The kinds of skills you will learn while studying history are also important in many careers. These skills will help you to:

- carry out research
- organise information and check it to determine its accuracy
- draw conclusions and make decisions based on **evidence**
- recognise the difference between fact and opinion
- understand that there is usually more than one way of thinking about any problem
- think critically
- communicate effectively
- present findings and conclusions through reports, the media, books, lectures and exhibitions.

A person trained in history may conduct research and analysis for governments, businesses, individuals, historical associations, and other organisations. They may work in administrative or policy roles where they can make use of their research and analysis skills. A person trained in history may be involved in preserving artefacts or historic records. Conservation work similar to that shown in **SOURCE 2** is one of the key responsibilities of historians and archaeologists.

There are a number of other careers related to the study of history. These include:

- anthropologists
- archaeologists
- archivists and museum workers
- curators
- documentary and film makers
- economists
- history teachers
- lawyer
- lecturers, tutors and researchers
- police and armed forces
- political scientists
- sociologists
- writers and authors.

SOURCE 2 Conservation works in 2018 on the southern facade and dome of the Royal Exhibition Building, in Melbourne, which was built to host the first official World's Fair in the Southern Hemisphere. It was completed in 1880.

A knowledge of history is important in our everyday lives too. History gives many people great personal pleasure. How much more enjoyment do people experience from travel, books and movies when they know about the history that shaped the places they visit or the stories they read or watch on a screen!

History and democracy

In Australia we live in a democratic society. This means we have the right to choose our political representatives and leaders through voting. We cannot vote responsibly, however, unless we can make our own judgements about the ideas these leaders put forward. To do that, we need to know something about the past.

DISCUSS

How might understanding our past help us avoid repeating mistakes in the future? **[Ethical Capability]**

1.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is history?
2. **HS1** Fill in the spaces in the following passage by choosing words from the box below.

civilisations	beliefs	cultures	events	research	sources	people

Historians conduct _____ into past _____, _____ and societies. Historians try to build up a picture of the ideas and _____ of people in the past, how they lived and acted and how their lives were shaped by other _____ and _____. They inquire into the past by examining _____, including archives, diaries, books and artefacts.

3. **HS1** Why is it important to learn historical skills?
4. **HS1** Who might a person trained in history work for?
5. **HS4** Identify five careers related to learning about history.

1.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Read George Santayana's quote in **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Rewrite this quote in your own words.
   (b) How does this quote show that the study of history is important?
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 2**. The Royal Exhibition Building is the first World Heritage-listed building in Australia. Why do you think so much effort goes into conserving such traces of the past?
3. **HS5** Think of at least one event from the past where the people involved have *not* learned from earlier experiences and events. Explain what happened.
4. **HS5** Today we live in a world in which people are sometimes killed over differences in religion. How might a knowledge of history help bring understanding between people of different religions?
5. **HS1** What can we gain from understanding our heritage?
6. **HS6** Suggest why any one of the following possible events might have historical significance in the future for a historian researching and writing about the age we are living in.
   (a) There was an increase in the number of Australians who did not practise religion.
   (b) Inequality (the gap between rich and poor) increased in Australia.
   (c) The Australian government took in more refugees.

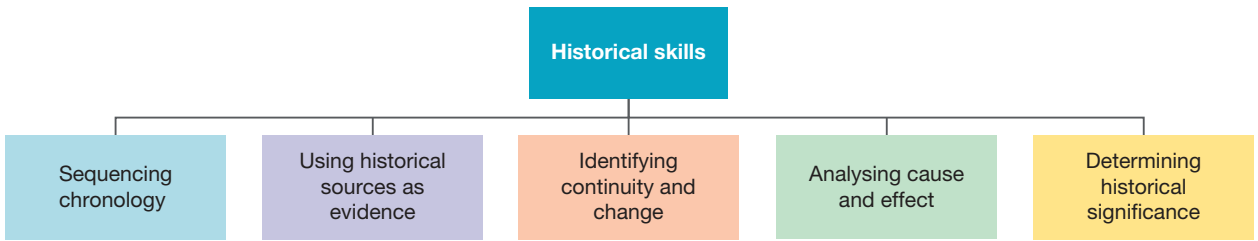
Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

1.3 Historical skills

1.3.1 What are historical skills?

There are a number of historical skills, shown in **SOURCE 1**, which you will develop throughout your study of history. These skills are integral to studying history and are vital for engaging in a historical inquiry. You should recognise most of these skills from your previous studies in history, and you will become more proficient in them as you explore the topics throughout this course. Each historical skill is explained in more detail below.

SOURCE 1 A diagram showing the five historical skills

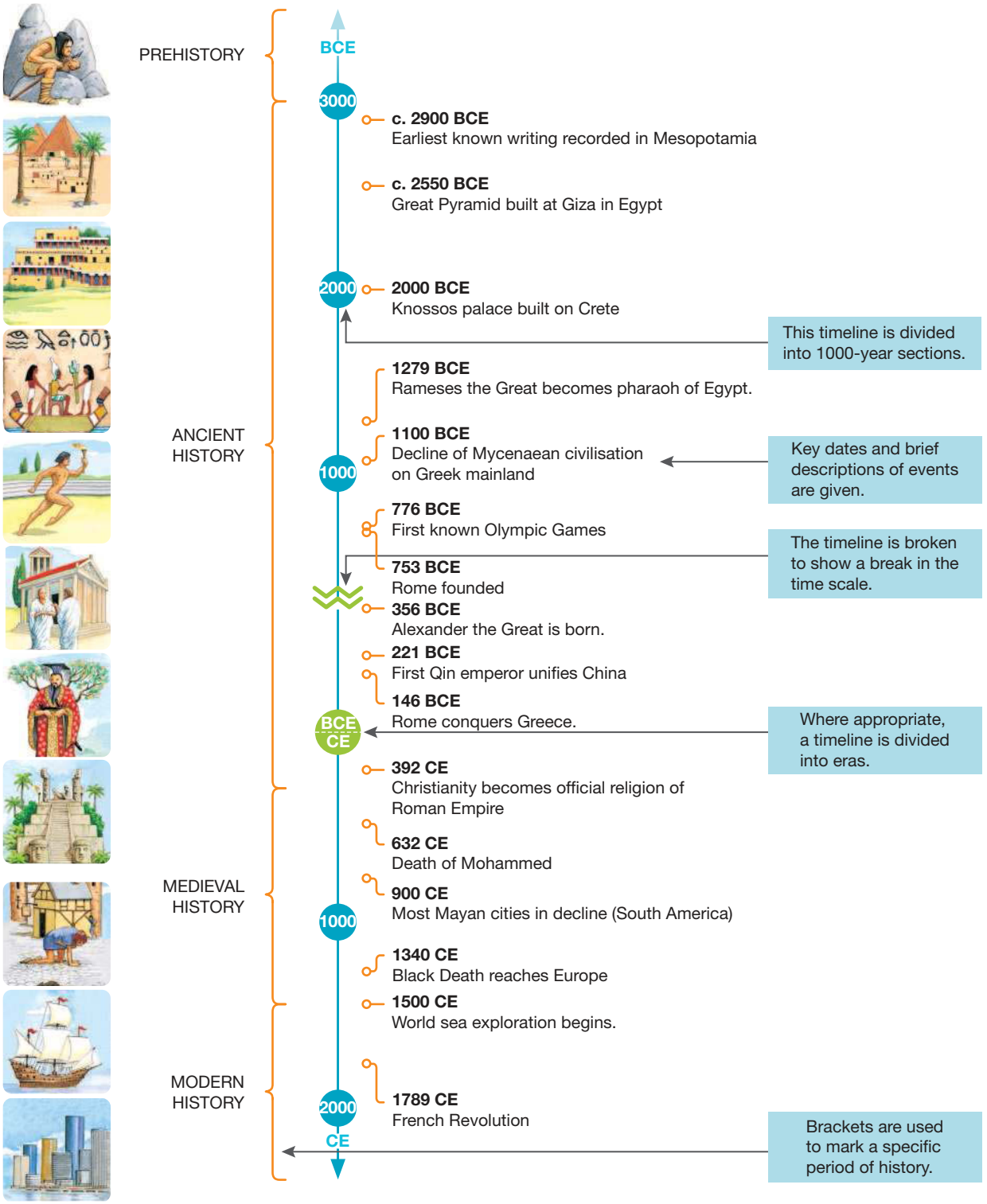


1.3.2 Sequencing chronology

Chronology involves recording events in order of time. It is an important skill in history because historians need to know the sequence of the events that occurred in order to make sense of what happened. A story will make more sense if we start at the beginning and work towards the end. For example, your morning routine is likely to consist of waking up in the morning, showering, getting dressed, eating breakfast, then brushing your teeth. After this you might travel to school, then attend your first class for the day. This is an example of chronology; it is your sequence of events in order of time for your morning.

A historian will use a **timeline** to see how one event might have contributed to another. A timeline representing some events from 3000 BCE to modern times can be seen in **SOURCE 2**. You should be familiar with the creation of timelines from your previous studies in history. Timelines can cover very short or very long periods of time, and can look very different. For example, they can be horizontal (across the page) or vertical (down the page). However, they always place events in chronological order.

SOURCE 2 A timeline showing some events from 3000 BCE to modern times



Dividing the past

To make sense of the past we divide it into ages or periods that have something in common. Prehistory is the prehistoric period (the time before people invented writing as a means of recording activities and events). Prehistory ended at different times in different parts of the world. For example, in China it ended thousands of years ago, while in Australia it ended a little over 200 years ago. We also use the terms Stone Age, Bronze Age and Iron Age. These refer to materials that people had learned to shape into tools and weapons in prehistoric and ancient times. Ancient history covers the time from the earliest civilisations around 3000 BCE to around 650 CE. The Middle Ages, or medieval history, covers the time from around 590 CE to around 1500 CE. In Year 9, we will study the Making of the Modern World (1750–1914) and the Modern World and Australia (World War I, which took place in 1914–1918).

Counting time

In Australia, the system we have traditionally used to count years is one that was first used in Christian countries in AD 525. In this system, AD stands for anno Domini (Latin for 'in the year of our Lord'). The year AD 2012 means 2012 years since the assumed birth of Christ. This period is also known as the Christian Era. Although this system is still used throughout the world, many historians now use the term CE (Common Era) instead of AD. The dates are the same: 2012 CE is the same year as AD 2012. We count forward, so 50 years later the year would be AD 2062 (or 2062 CE). BC means 'before Christ', and for these years we count backwards. Therefore, 500 BC would be 300 years earlier than 200 BC. Historians now commonly use the term BCE (Before Common Era) instead of BC.

When dates are uncertain we put '*c.*' before them. It stands for *circa* (Latin for 'about').

DID YOU KNOW?

There is an easy way of getting it right with centuries. The first 100 years of the Common Era are called the first century CE. The first 100 years before the Common Era are called the first century BCE. To work out what century a date is in, you simply add one (1) to the number of hundreds in a date. The year 2011 has 20 hundreds, so it is in the twenty-first century CE. The year 705 BCE has 7 hundreds, so it is in the eighth century BCE.

Other ways of counting time

There are other ways to count time. For example, the Islamic calendar starts counting from the time of the flight of the prophet Mohammed from Mecca. This occurred in the year 622 CE.

Creating timelines

Creating a timeline from the sources that a historian locates can be a difficult task. Historical sources do not always come with the time and date provided, so they may need to be researched further to identify their historical relevance, as well as who produced the source and where it came from. However, there is much more to history than putting events in order and understanding the sequence and flow of events. As a history student, you will also need to be aware of continuity and change, cause and effect, as well as long-term causes and short-term triggers.

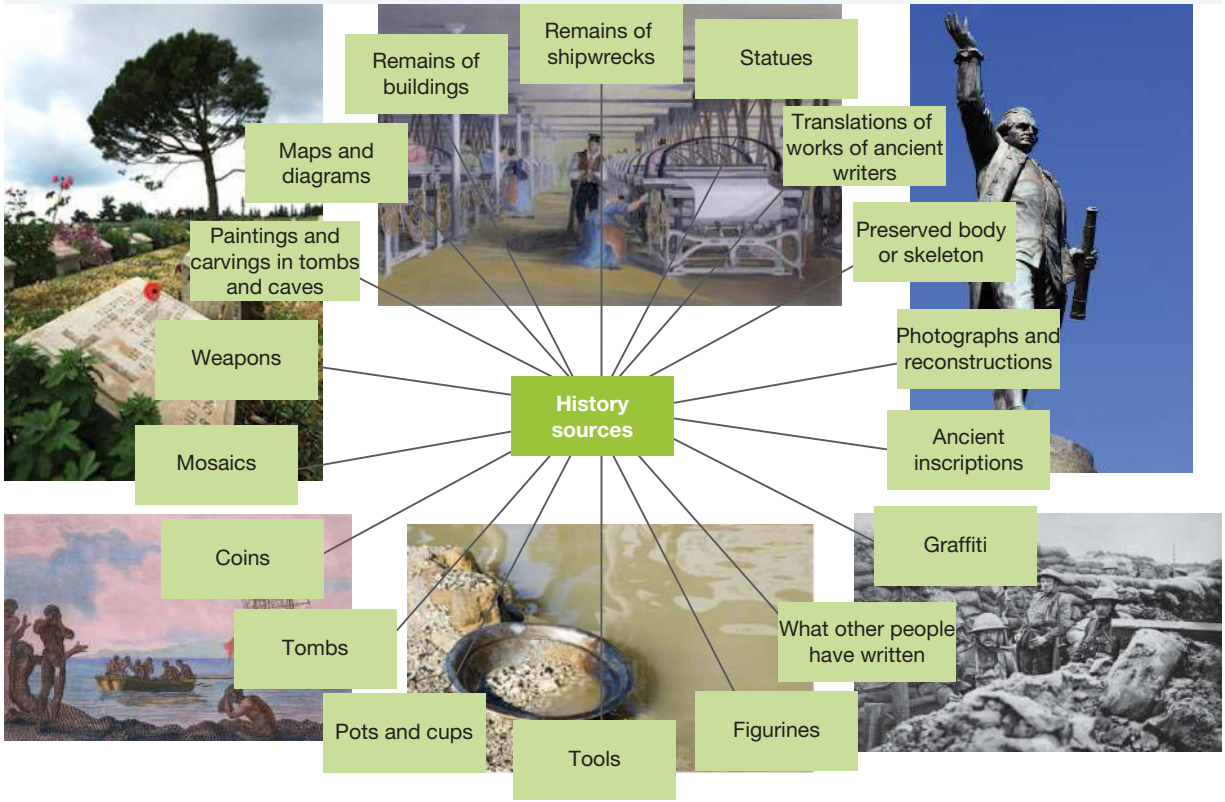
1.3.3 Using historical sources as evidence

It is important to analyse sources from the time we are studying to judge how reliable they are and explore the different points of view, or perspectives, of people from the past. This also involves questioning later sources that are interpretations of that time.

Primary and secondary sources

Evidence refers to the available facts or information that indicate whether something really happened. Evidence can come from two types of sources: **primary sources** and **secondary sources**. Primary sources were created or written in the period of time that they relate to. Secondary sources are reconstructions of the past written or created after the period that they relate to.

SOURCE 3 Some types of primary sources



Depending on the event and place, primary sources might include weapons, letters, newspapers, art, photographs or many other traces. For most periods of history we can divide primary sources into written and archaeological sources. Written primary sources can include such things as poems, songs, letters, myths and legends. Archaeological sources are objects that were made in the past. They include many kinds of artefacts such as tools, weapons, pottery, coins, games, toys and jewellery. Some **artefacts** have written sources inscribed on them. Archaeological sources also include works of art such as sculptures and paintings, and constructions such as tombs, temples and sometimes entire cities.

Secondary sources include books and articles. They can also include websites, models, timelines, computer software and documentary films. To create secondary sources, historians often:

- locate information in primary sources
- interpret that information
- use it to explain what happened.

Analysing and evaluating sources

Historical sources are valuable but they do not explain themselves. When using historical sources as evidence, historians will need to ask questions about each source, such as where did the source come from (origin) and why was it created (purpose)? A source may be fact or someone's opinion — that is, it could be **biased**. One way to test sources for reliability is to compare them with other sources. If this evidence leads to the same conclusion, we call it supporting evidence. If it leads to different conclusions, it's called contradictory evidence. When we use sources to try to find out about the past, we have to ask some questions. For example:

- What type of source is this?
- When was the source written or created and by whom?
- Why was this source written or created?
- What evidence does the source provide?
- What was happening at the time the source was written or created?
- Is the source trustworthy?

Using evidence from sources, historians form a **hypothesis** (a possible theory to explain what happened). To test the hypothesis we look for evidence that supports it. We also look for other evidence that contradicts it. We need to be careful. We have to ask: What other information do I need to support my theory?

Just as in the investigation of a modern crime, we look at what contributed to an event and how those things fit together. We ask questions that begin with who, what, where, when, how and why. In this way, history is like any other kind of investigation, but it is more difficult because there are often gaps in our evidence. We usually cannot find all the clues we need. It can be like trying to solve a jigsaw puzzle when many pieces have been lost.

Wherever historians find sources and whatever methods they use to test their hypotheses and interpret the past, there will always be differing interpretations that are debated and contested. The issue of **contestability** is a very important concept in the study of history. Historical debates are ongoing. They occur when, for example, there is a lack of evidence or when different perspectives (points of view) lead to different conclusions. There are ongoing debates on many things, including the causes of particular wars and the roles of particular individuals, groups and ideas in bringing about significant changes.

1.3.4 Identifying continuity and change

Historians study the changes that have occurred over time, but some things remain constant over periods of time. It is important to be able to identify when a change has occurred and when things have continued unchanged. This is known as identifying **continuity and change**.

Change refers to something that is different from what has occurred in the past. This may occur over a long period of time and, in this case, it may be difficult to detect the precise moment of change. Change can also occur dramatically or suddenly. Such changes are often associated with single events and are referred to as turning points in history. Continuity refers to the things that endure, relatively unchanged, over time. You will find that many things remain the same across long periods of time in history. Sometimes these continuities last into the modern world.

We can make comparisons between and among historical events occurring at the same time, between and among different historical periods, and between present time and the past. The use of timelines can help to understand the sequence of historical events, which should assist in identifying turning points that produced change.

SOURCE 4 An elevated view of Melbourne in 1908, showing Flinders Street railway station beside the Yarra River. The current railway station building, which can be seen in development here, was officially opened in 1910.

SOURCE 5 An elevated view of modern Melbourne along the Yarra River from Flinders Street railway station

1.3.5 Analysing cause and effect

In history, events do not simply occur without reason. Every event will have a cause and is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences. Being able to identify patterns of **cause and effect** is an essential skill that allows historians to explain how and why things happened in the past. This skill can also make it possible to predict what may take place in the future.

Causes may include people, societies, politics, beliefs, economics or any other historical factor. Likewise, effects can include impacts on people, societies, politics, beliefs, economics or any other historical factor. It is important to understand that not all causes leading to a specific event are equally significant — some causes may have more influence than others.

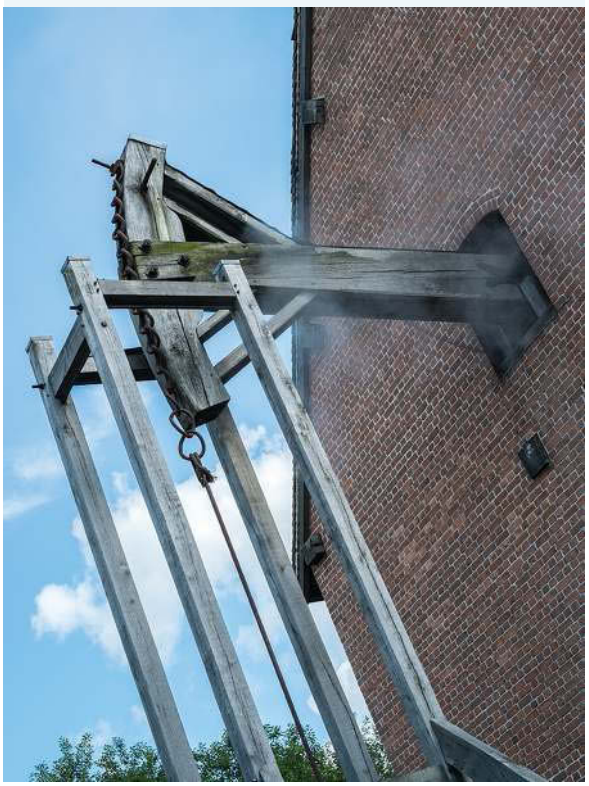
The ability to analyse cause and effect requires a good understanding of sequencing chronology. We can identify series of historical events and developments over time, both in the short term and in the long term. Some causes occur immediately before an event began, while others may have existed for several years, decades or centuries before they caused the event. Some effects occur immediately after an event or action, while other may occur years, decades or centuries following the event or action. Causes and effects may be organised using chronology. For example, a timeline may be used to put events, ideas, movements and turning points in order to identify possible links between the causes and effects and to distinguish between what are long-term and short-term causes and effects.

An example of a series of historical events that has a number of causes and effects, both short term and long term, is the Industrial Revolution. This was a period of major industrialisation and technological innovation that took place between approximately 1750 and 1914. It began in Great Britain and quickly spread throughout the world. The revolution essentially involved the change from the production of goods by hand to the production of goods with machinery in factories. New materials and sources of power, along with new forms of transport, dramatically transformed the way in which many people lived.

The Industrial Revolution that began in Britain in the mid-eighteenth century had a number of causes. One major cause was Britain's influence as a global empire. The British controlled colonies in North America, the Caribbean, the Indian subcontinent and West Africa. This gave them access to raw materials which could be transformed into finished products to sell to an increasing population. Other causes of the Industrial Revolution include:

- the development of new technology, including new machinery and steam engines
- developments in agriculture, including new methods of farming and changes in land ownership
- access to raw materials, including an abundance of convenient deposits of coal and iron ore
- the development of transport systems, including waterways, roads, and railroads
- population growth, including people from the countryside being freed up to work in the factories in the cities
- stability in government, including the rule of law and protection of assets
- the availability of investment, including the willingness of financial institutions and entrepreneurs to finance new ventures.

SOURCE 6 A Newcomen steam engine used to pump water from flooded coal mines in nineteenth-century Britain



The Industrial Revolution also resulted in a number of effects. There was a huge rise in the rate of population growth. Most of this population growth occurred in the towns and cities. Other effects of the Industrial Revolution include:

- *industrialisation* — machines used to produce goods in factories reduced the need for hard physical labour
- *improvement in living standards* — health improved, leisure time increased, goods became more affordable
- *poor working conditions* — factory workers in factories, including women and children, often worked in unpleasant or dangerous conditions for long hours and low pay
- *social unrest and trade unions* — rapid changes led to unrest and protests; workers formed trade unions to improve their pay and work conditions
- *the growth of new ideas* — economic theories such as capitalism and socialism were developed to explain how business, workers and the economy should operate; political ideas and scientific ideas also flourished
- *impacts on the environment* — air pollution and water pollution increased; deforestation and land clearance resulted in further environmental problems.

SOURCE 7 A photo taken by Lewis Hine of dust-covered 'breaker boys' at a US coal mine in January 1911. A breaker boy was required to separate impurities from coal by hand.

1.3.6 Determining historical significance

Historical **significance** is the importance that is assigned to particular aspects of the past. These aspects may include events, individuals or groups, developments in the past, ideas or movements, and historical sites. There is far too much history to study or learn all of it. We need to make judgements about what is important and what is less important. This is an essential, yet challenging, historical skill.

When we try to establish the significance of an aspect of the past, we have to consider a number of questions.

Such questions include:

- How relevant was it to people living at that time?
- How many people were affected?
- How did it change people's lives?
- How long were people's lives affected?
- How important and long lasting were the consequences?
- How relevant is it to the contemporary world?

SOURCE 8 Private John Simpson used donkeys to carry men away from the front line at Gallipoli, often exposing himself to fire. This statue stands at the Australian War Memorial.

SOURCE 9 Stretcher bearers carrying the wounded through the trenches during the Gallipoli Campaign in 1915

1.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify the five historical skills.
2. **HS1** Explain what is involved in sequencing chronology.
3. **HS2** Write the meaning of the following terms: ages, BC, AD, BCE and CE.
4. **HS1** Describe the difference between primary sources and secondary sources.
5. **HS1** Provide two examples of written sources and two examples of archaeological sources.
6. **HS1** How do historians create secondary sources?
7. **HS1** Explain what the term 'bias' means and why we might not be able to trust a primary source.
8. **HS1** Describe a way to test primary sources for reliability.
9. **HS1** Complete the following sentences by choosing words from the box below.

contestability	theory	debate	contradict	evidence

   (a) A hypothesis is a _____ or possible explanation that has to be tested by looking for _____ that might support it and other evidence that might _____ it.
   (b) _____ is the situation when particular interpretations of the past are open to _____.
10. **HS1** Explain how a historian identifies continuity and change.
11. **HS1** Outline the difference between short-term causes and effects and long-term causes and effects.
12. **HS1** Describe a way to establish the significance of an aspect of the past.

1.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS2** Using **SOURCE 2** as a model, make a timeline of your life up to the present. On it, write the important events of your life. Use the terms AD or CE, century and decade. Then explain how your timeline helps you to present an overall picture of your life so far.
2. **HS3** Look at the mind map in **SOURCE 3** and describe each of the sources pictured around the mind map.
3. **HS3** Suggest what we might learn about the past from graffiti or one of the other types of primary sources listed in the mind map.
4. **HS3** Why would it be wrong to think that primary sources are more reliable than secondary sources?
5. **HS3** Make a list of some kinds of primary sources that could be used to create a history of your school (a secondary source). Beside each source in your list, write down what you think you could find out by using it as evidence.
6. **HS4** Examine **SOURCES 4** and **5** closely. Identify the changes that have occurred in Melbourne between 1908 and the present. Identify the similarities (or continuities) between Melbourne in 1908 and the present.
7. **HS5** Look at the image of the steam engine in **SOURCE 6** and the image of the breaker boys in **SOURCE 7**. Imagine that you have travelled back in time to meet the boys. Explain to them the causes of the Industrial Revolution and the effects of this historical period.
8. **HS6** Examine **SOURCE 8** and **SOURCE 9** closely. Why are the actions of John Simpson considered more significant than those of other stretcher bearers at Gallipoli? Explain your answer.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

1.4 Perspectives and empathy

1.4.1 Understanding how they thought and felt

It is very important for historians to empathise with those they study. This means trying to understand how people thought and felt at different times in the past. In other words, **empathy** can be defined as imagining what someone else might be thinking or feeling. At different points throughout your study of history you will be asked to put yourself in the situation of someone in the past. This is not a creative writing task, in which you can let your imagination run wild. Rather, you will be using historical imagination. This requires using your imagination, but basing your ideas on evidence.

We try to understand the **perspective** of people in the past by looking at their points of view, attitudes and values. Often we can get a sense of the way people thought and felt through primary sources such as diaries or through visiting museums and historical sites. Using empathy, we work with all the evidence we have in order to imagine what the past was like for people who were there at the time. We need to consider questions such as:

- Who were these people?
- Where did they live?
- How did they live?
- What mattered to them?
- What did they believe in?
- What did they see, hear, taste, smell and feel?
- What did they fear and what did they hope for?
- Did they have feelings similar to or different from ours?
- Did they all think and feel the same as one another, or did they have differing perspectives?

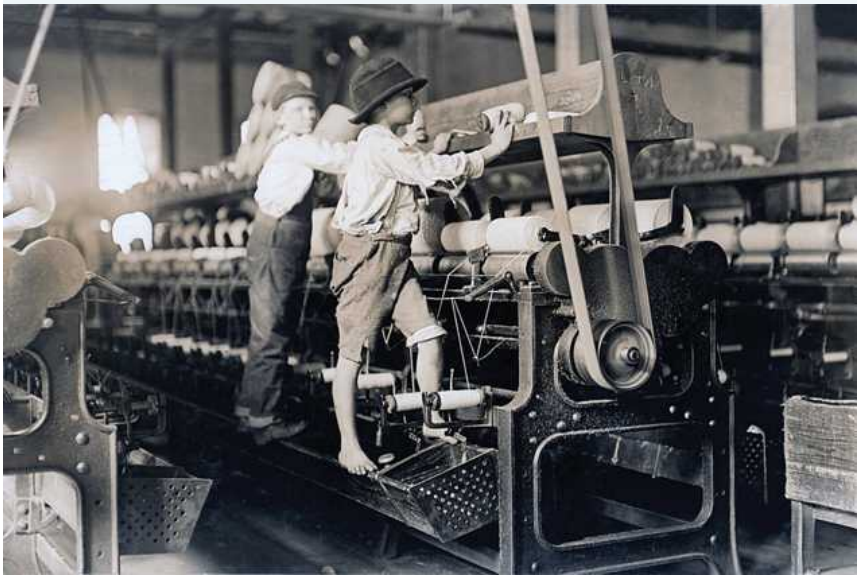
How should we judge people in the past?

When we learn about some of the things people did in the past, it is natural that we make moral judgements. For example, we naturally see child labour as wrong. What we should try to avoid is judging people in the past by beliefs or standards that did not exist in their time. The Industrial Revolution was a new, unknown period in British history, before which no legal provisions existed regarding child labour. Mine and factory owners needed the skills that at the time and under the circumstances only children could provide. In hiring children, they did not contravene the British laws of the day. The families of the children needed the extra income, and the politicians wanted the economy to function and grow; society on the whole did not view child labour as morally wrong.

We should also remember that, in the future, people may think many kinds of behaviour we consider 'normal' are, by their standards, wrong.

SOURCE 1 Dust-covered coal-mining breaker boys; their job was to break coal into pieces, sort them by size and separate any impurities (rocks or other materials), all by hand. This was deemed unskilled work, so it was usually undertaken by the youngest workers.

SOURCE 2 Child labourers working in a cotton mill, mending broken threads, fixing snags and replacing empty bobbin reels



DISCUSS

Working in small groups, think of something that happens in our own time that some people believe is wrong. An example could be the way some countries are wealthy while in others children die of starvation and preventable diseases. Do you think that at some time in the future people might consider ours to have been an unjust age? **[Ethical Capability]**

1.4 ACTIVITY

Using the internet and/or other information sources, find the meaning of the word 'sympathy'. Explain how empathy is different from sympathy. **Remembering and understanding**

1.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What does it mean to empathise with the people you study?
2. **HS1** How is historical imagination different to just letting your imagination run wild?
3. **HS1** What is historical perspective?
4. **HS1** Identify the questions that might be asked when using empathy in order to imagine what the past was like for people who were there at the time.
5. **HS1** Why could it be wrong to judge people from past times by the standards of our times?

1.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Compare **SOURCES 1** and **2**. What are the similarities and differences between these sources?
2. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the child labourers shown in **SOURCE 1** and describe:
   (a) what you can see, hear, taste and smell
   (b) how you feel about the work you do and how you physically feel after a day's work
   (c) how you feel about the owner of the mine you work in.

3. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the child labourers shown in **SOURCE 2** and describe:
   (a) what you can see, hear, taste and smell
   (b) how you feel about what you are doing and about your factory bosses.
4. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the factory or mine bosses managing child workers. Would you be likely to consider what you are doing immoral or would you accept it as 'the way things are'? Explain your answer.
5. **HS6** Why do you think it is important for historians to empathise with the people they study?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

1.5 SkillBuilder: Sequencing events in chronological order

online only

What is a timeline?

A timeline is a diagrammatic tool for placing events in *chronological order* (the order in which they happened). A simple chronology would be one, for example, that showed in sequence, or time order, key events of a day in your life. Generally, timelines are constructed using a sequence of dates with the addition of descriptive labels. A timeline may cover a short period or many centuries. Timelines may be as simple as a horizontal or vertical line, or highly visual with use of colour and images.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

1.6 Review

online only

1.6.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.
Select your learnON format to complete review questions for this topic.

on Resources

eWorkbook Crossword (doc-31696)

Interactivities Time out: Sources (int-0782)
Historical skills and concepts crossword (int-7635)

KEY TERMS

artefact an object made or changed by humans
biased one-sided or prejudiced, seeing something from just one point of view
cause and effect the concept that every historical event will have a cause, and every event or action is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences
chronology a record of past events in order of time, from ancient Greek *chronos* (time) and *logos* (to work out)
contestability when particular interpretations of the past are open to debate
continuity and change the concept that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant
empathy the ability to understand and share another person's thoughts and feelings
evidence information that indicates whether something has really happened
hypothesis (plural: hypotheses) a theory or possible explanation
perspective point of view or attitude
primary sources objects and documents that were created or written in the period of time that they relate to
secondary sources reconstructions of the past written or created after the period that they relate to
significance the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past; for example, events, developments, movements and historical sites
timeline a diagrammatic tool representing a period of time, on which events are placed in chronological order

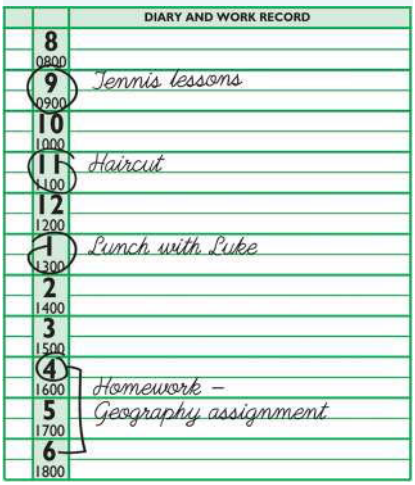
1.5 SkillBuilder: Sequencing events in chronological order

1.5.1 Tell me

What is a timeline?

A timeline is a diagrammatic tool for placing events in *chronological order* (the order in which they happened). A simple chronology would be one, for example, that showed in sequence, or time order, the key events of a day in your life.

SOURCE 1 A simple chronology

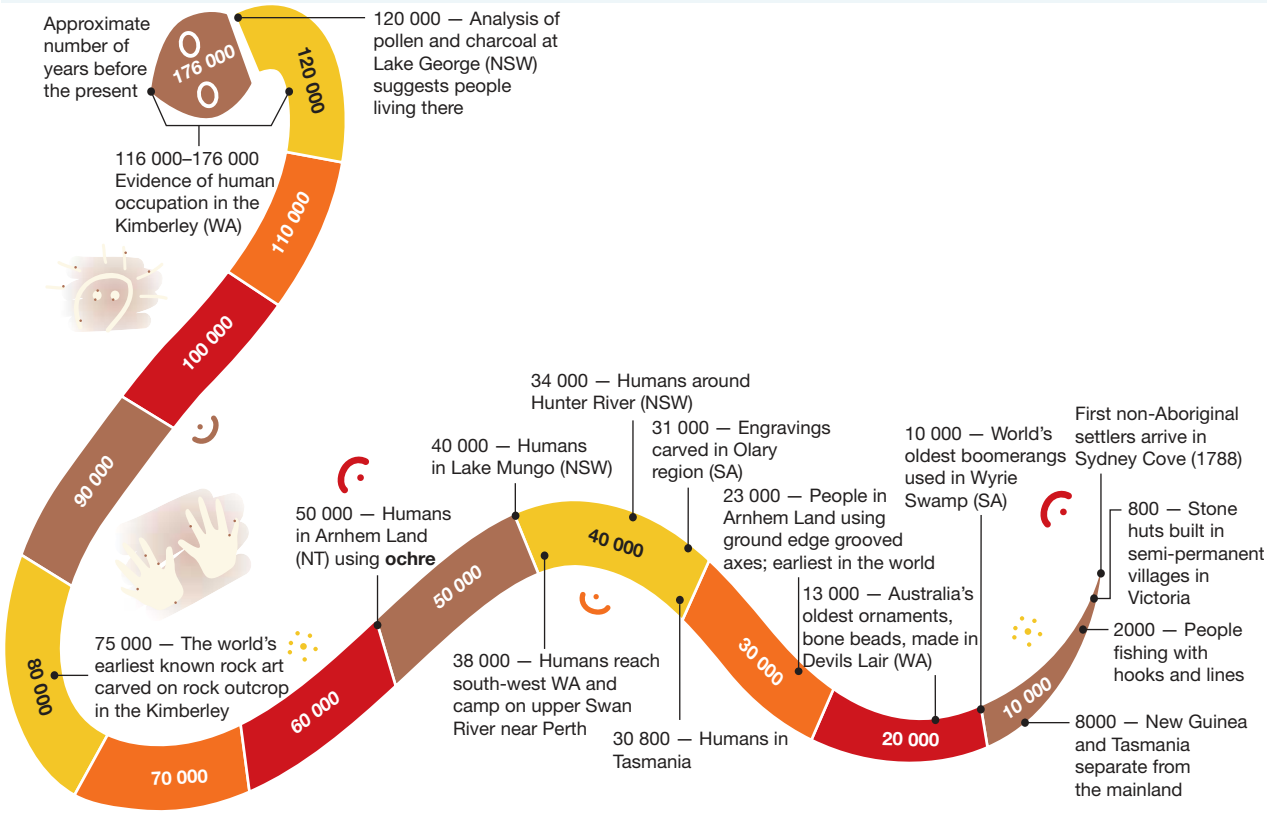


Why are timelines useful?

Timelines are useful because they can help us make sense of events in the past. Timelines are particularly useful in the study of history. Creating a history timeline will help to:

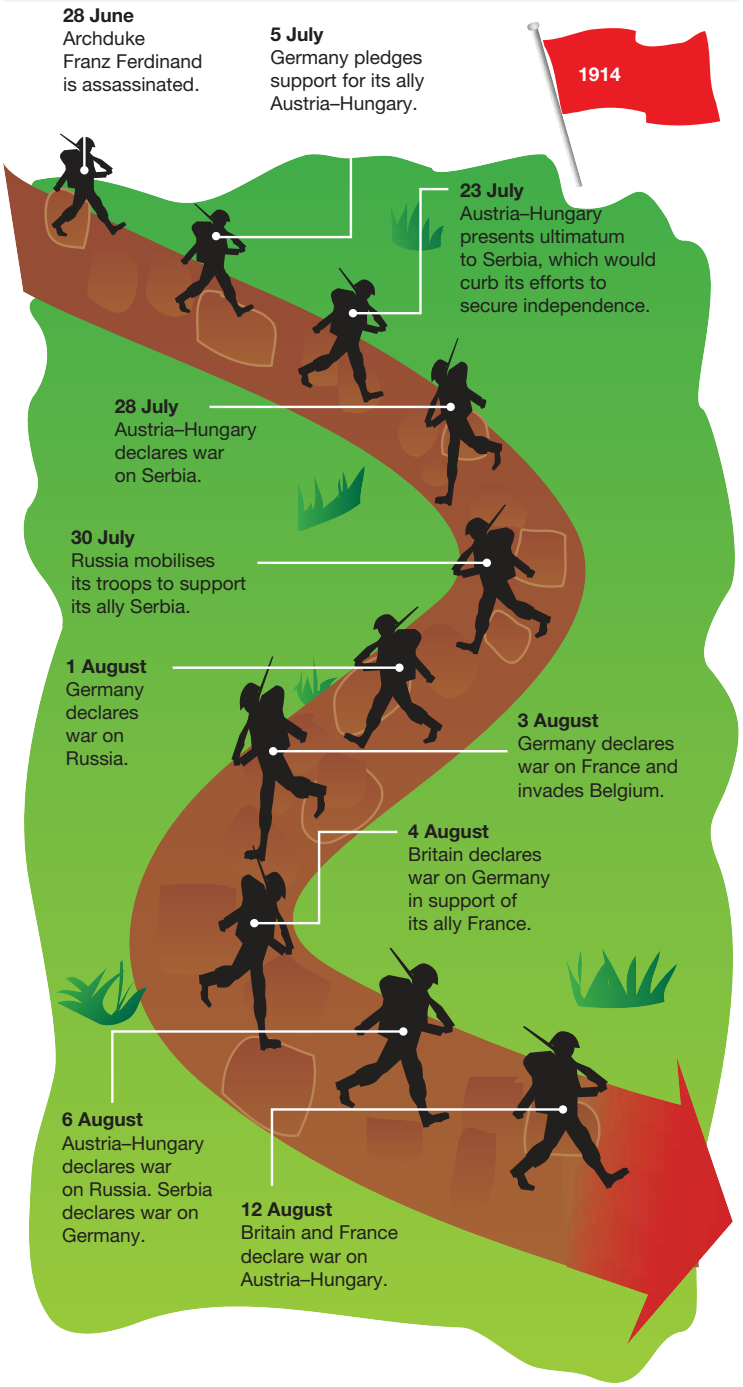
- understand the order in which events occurred
- describe the time distances between events
- identify what has changed over time
- identify what has stayed the same over time
- analyse how one event might relate to other events
- compare what might have been happening in different places at the same time
- assess if one event might have led to another event (cause and effect).

SOURCE 2 An example of a timeline that covers a long span of time

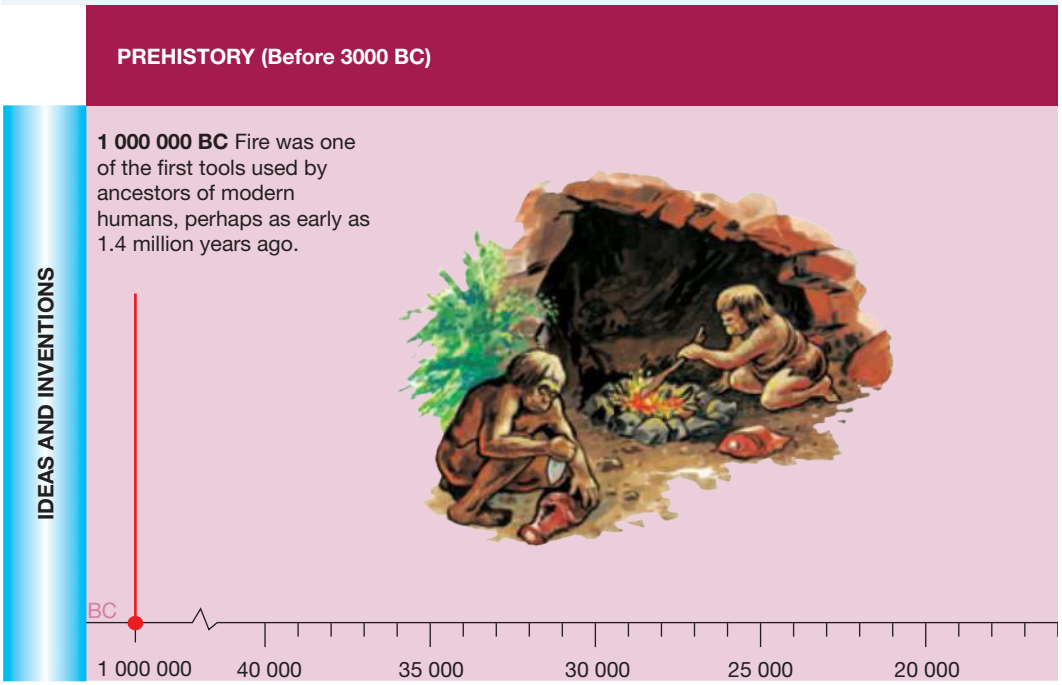


Generally, timelines are constructed using a sequence of dates with the addition of descriptive labels. The timeline may span thousands of years (see **SOURCE 2**) or cover a very short period (see **SOURCE 3**). In print, timelines may be as simple as a horizontal or vertical line, or highly visual, with use of colour and images (see **SOURCES 4**, **5** and **6**). Using digital technology, interactive online timelines can be created; users can click on a date and see a descriptive label, an image or even hear an audio narrative or sound effects.

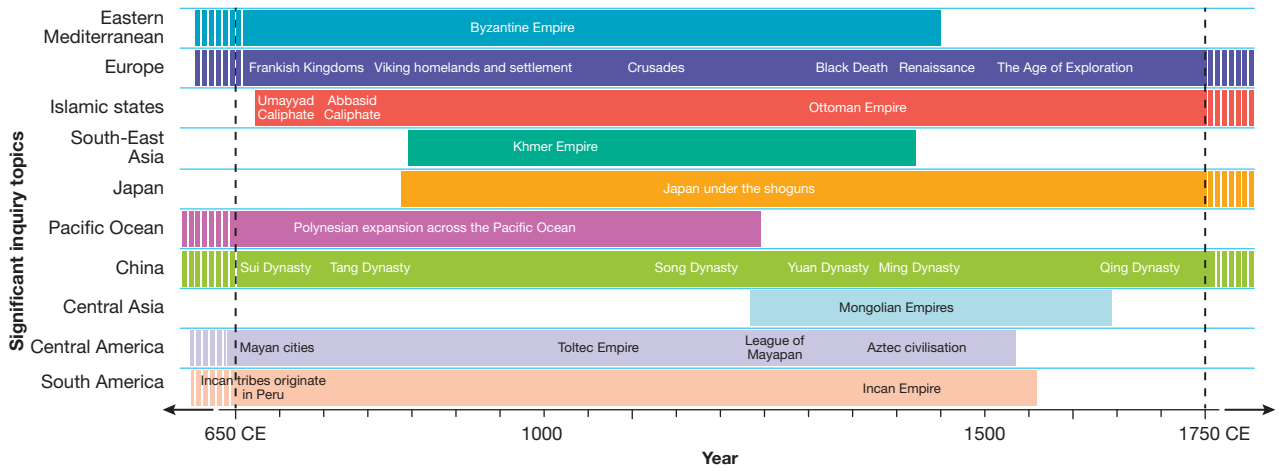
SOURCE 3 An example of a timeline that covers a short span of time



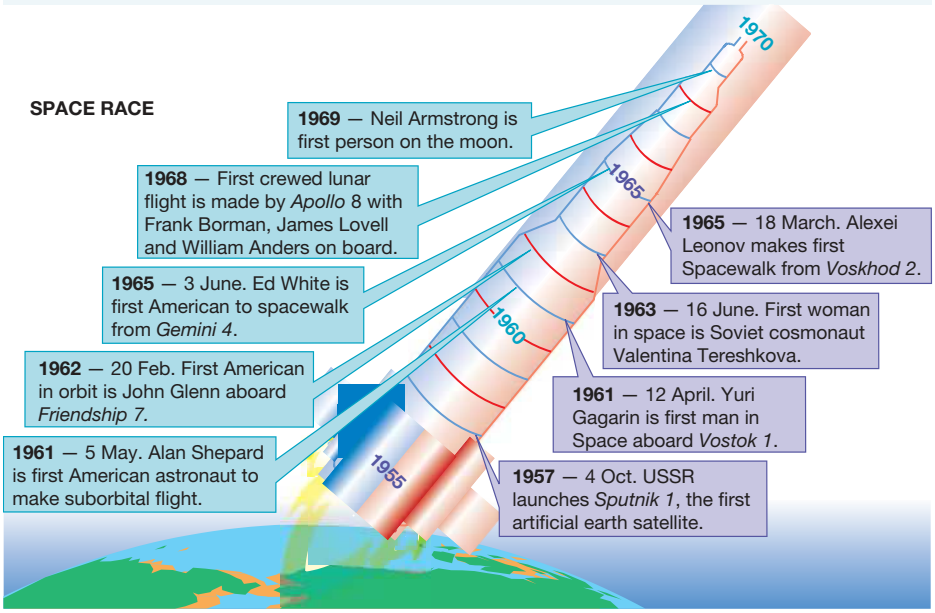
SOURCE 4 An extract from a timeline that provides some illustrative material to accompany descriptive text labels



SOURCE 5 An example of a horizontal timeline that uses coloured bars to compare significant events in different places at the same point in time



SOURCE 6 An example of a timeline that uses a drawing of an object related to the subject or theme of the timeline



1.5.2 Show me

How to create a timeline

Timelines can cover very short or very long periods of time.

- They can focus on just a few months or years.
- They can focus on big, sweeping changes over thousands of years.
- In most cases, they are divided up into equal blocks of time, such as decades or centuries. This is not essential but it helps us to see not only the order of events but how close or how far apart they were.
- A break in the timeline (using a zigzag line, for instance) can show a long span of time between one date and the next.
- To make equal blocks of time you need to use a scale — for example, 1 centimetre = 10 years.
- Timelines can be horizontal (across the page) with the earliest dates on the left and later dates to the right.
- Alternatively they can be vertical (down the page), in which case the dates usually run from the earliest at the top to the latest at the bottom.
- Often we have only approximate dates for events in ancient history. In those cases, we put 'c.' in front of the date. It stands for *circa*, which is Latin for 'around' or 'about'.

Step 1

Study the **SOURCE 7** timeline. Look at the way this timeline has been constructed.

- It is a vertical timeline.
- It has been divided into centuries.
- A scale of 1 centimetre = 1 century has been used.

Step 2

Mark events alongside the appropriate time period of the timeline — use pointers to indicate the exact location on the timeline where the event belongs.

Step 3

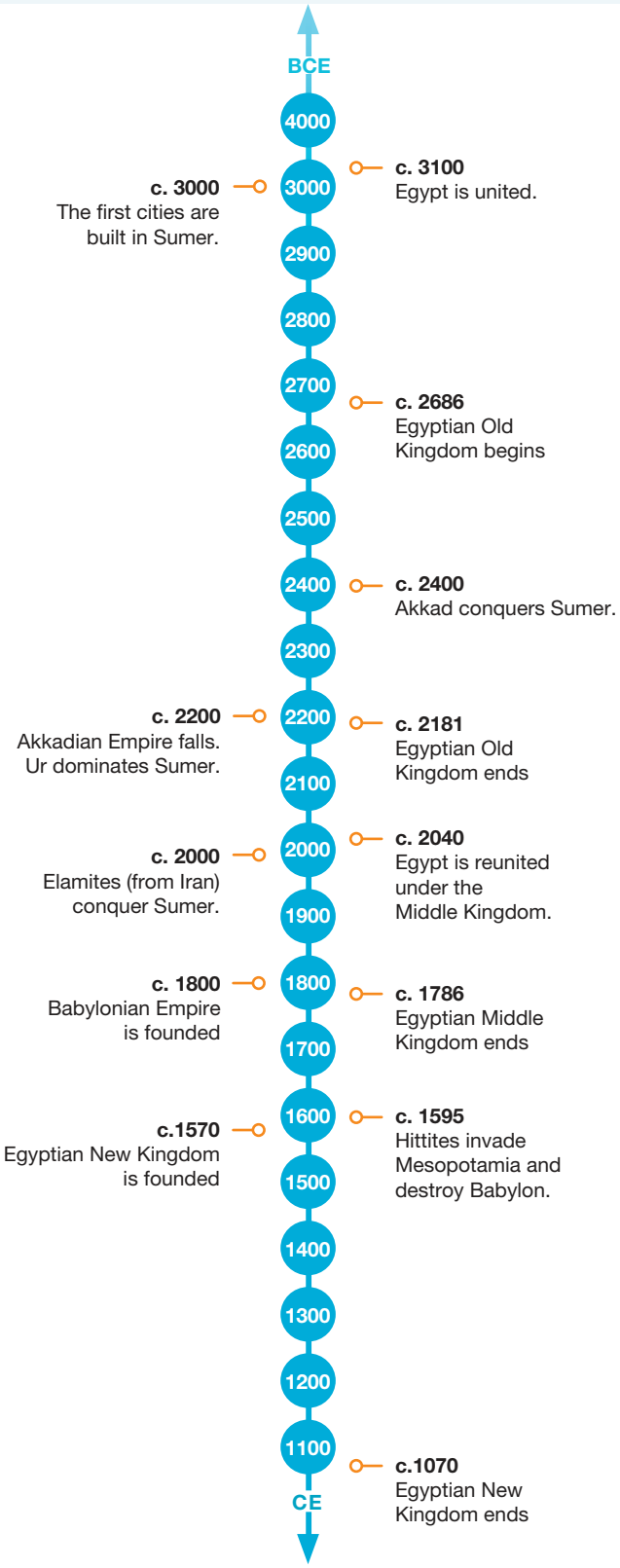
Make sure your completed timeline has a clear title.

The title should state:

- the time period covered
- the subject or theme
- the beginning and end dates.

Model

SOURCE 7 Timeline of the rise and fall of kingdoms and empires in Egypt and Mesopotamia between 3000 BCE and 1000 BCE



1.5.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

1.5 ACTIVITIES

1. Construct a timeline of key events during the periods covered in Year 9 — The Making of the Modern World (1750–1918) and The Modern World and Australia (1914–1918).

- Use a vertical or horizontal timeline.
- Decide what scale you will use.

Key events for your timeline:

1765 The American Revolution begins.
1769 James Watt invents a steam engine capable of providing continuous power.
1783 The Treaty of Paris was signed, formally ending the American Revolution.
1788 The First Fleet arrives in Botany Bay.
1789 The French Revolution begins.
1793 Eli Whitney invents the cotton gin.
1799 Napoleon Bonaparte stages a coup d'état, marking the end of the French Revolution.
1830 Stephenson's Rocket hauls the first train on the Manchester-to-Liverpool railway line.
1833 The Slavery Abolition Act abolishes slavery throughout the British Empire.
1834 The Poor Law Amendment Act forces the poor to live in workhouses.
1838 The First Opium War begins.
1851 Gold is discovered in the newly named Colony of Victoria.
1861 The American Civil War begins.
1863 President Abraham Lincoln signs the Emancipation Proclamation, officially freeing the slaves in the United States.
1865 The American Civil War ends.
1874 British Parliament passes the Factory Act, setting maximum allowable working hours per week for all workers.
1876 Alexander Graham Bell patents the first telephone.
1882 Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy form the Triple Alliance.
1894 First Sino-Japanese War begins.
1901 Australia celebrates Federation.
1907 Britain, France and Russia form the Triple Entente.
1914 Britain declares war on Germany.
1915 The Anzacs land at Gallipoli on the morning of 25 April.
1918 The Armistice, signed on 11 November, ends the fighting in World War I.

Your timeline will help you to analyse and compare events. For example, you could use it to answer questions such as:

- When did the American Civil War begin and end?
- When did World War I begin and end?

2. Apply your skills to answer the following questions.

(a) What time span does your timeline cover (i.e. how many years in total are covered by your timeline)?
(b) How many years elapsed between the start and the end of the French Revolution?
(c) Which came first — the American Revolution or the French Revolution? What period of time separated the two historical events?
(d) Identify three significant events during the period of time illustrated on the timeline for:
  i. Britain
  ii. Australia.
(e) What event of significance for Britain occurred during the period of the American Revolution?
(f) What was the consequence of Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy forming the Triple Alliance, then Britain, France and Russia forming the Triple Entente? (*Hint:* Look for an event that happened after the formation of these alliances.)

1.6 Review

1.6.1 Key knowledge summary

1.2 Why we study history

- Historians investigate and interpret the past.
- History helps us to understand our heritage and appreciate other cultures.
- History helps us to understand the present and what the future may hold.
- History provides us with essential skills.

1.3 Historical skills

- Sequencing chronology refers to recording past events in order of time.
- Using historical sources as evidence relates to analysing sources to judge how reliable they are and explore the different points of view, or perspectives, of people from the past.
- Identifying continuity and change is the ability to recognise that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant.
- Analysing cause and effect relates to understanding that every historical event will have a cause, and every event or action is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences.
- Determining historical significance is the ability to make judgements about the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past, such as events, developments, movements and historical sites.

1.4 Perspectives and empathy

- Historians try to discover how people thought and felt at different times in the past.
- Using historical imagination means using your imagination but basing your ideas on evidence.
- We should avoid judging people from the past by the standards of our own age.

on Resources

eWorkbook Crossword (doc-31696)

Interactivities Time out: Sources (int-0782)

Historical skills and concepts crossword (int-7635)

KEY TERMS

artefact an object made or changed by humans
biased one-sided or prejudiced, seeing something from just one point of view
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chronology a record of past events in order of time, from ancient Greek *chronos* (time) and *logos* (to work out)
contestability when particular interpretations of the past are open to debate
continuity and change the concept that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant
empathy the ability to understand and share another person's thoughts and feelings
evidence information that indicates whether something has really happened
hypothesis (plural: hypotheses) a theory or possible explanation
perspective point of view or attitude
primary sources objects and documents that were created or written in the period of time that they relate to
secondary sources reconstructions of the past written or created after the period that they relate to
significance the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past; for example, events, developments, movements and historical sites
timeline a diagrammatic tool representing a period of time, on which events are placed in chronological order

2 The Industrial Revolution: Technology and progress

2.1 Overview

Money, efficiency, innovation. What were the causes and effects of the Industrial Revolution?

2.1.1 Links with our times

A revolution is generally thought of as a time of momentous change, during which old ways of doing things are rapidly superseded by new approaches. It is often said that today we are living through a 'technological revolution' that has dramatically changed the way we work, communicate and process information. To the people of the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the changes in manufacturing, transport, agriculture, trade and living conditions that occurred during the Industrial Revolution were every bit as revolutionary as the technological changes happening today.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson The Industrial Revolution: Technology and progress (eles-2392)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

2.1 Overview
2.2 Examining the evidence
2.3 Causes of the Industrial Revolution
2.4 The agricultural revolution
2.5 The growth of empire
2.6 Entrepreneurs, banks and the middle class
2.7 The population explosion
2.8 Power: from horses, wind and water to steam
2.9 Making textiles: from home to factory
2.10 Coal and iron
2.11 Canals, roads, railways and shipping
2.12 Industrial innovation spreads to the world
2.13 **SkillBuilder:** Identifying continuity and change online only
2.14 **Thinking Big research project:** Promoting industrialisation online only
2.15 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of technology in the Industrial Revolution

CE

1680

1694
The Bank of England is established.

1700

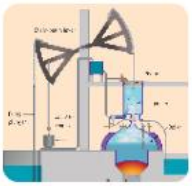
1700 onwards
Improvements in agricultural technology contribute to the agricultural revolution.

1707
The first turnpike trusts are established.

1709
Abraham Darby develops a blast furnace capable of producing high-quality iron.

1712
Thomas Newcomen develops the 'atmospheric engine', the first practical steam engine.

1720



1740

1757
The Sankey Canal is opened.

1730s–1780s
The invention of new and larger spinning and weaving machines shifts textile industry into factories.

1760

1761
The Bridgewater Canal is opened.

1763
Victory in the Seven Years' War gives Britain increased trade access to colonies in India and North America.

1769
James Watt invents a steam engine capable of providing continuous power.

1780

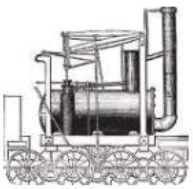
1785
The Boulton and Watt steam engine is first used in a textiles factory.

1783
Henry Cort's 'puddling' process further improves the quality of iron products.

1800

1801
The first official population census is held in Britain.

1813
The first working steam locomotive, known as *Puffing Billy*, is built.



1820

1825
The first English public steam railway (from Stockton to Darlington) is opened.

1830
Stephenson's *Rocket* hauls the first train on the Manchester to Liverpool railway line.

1830s
Railway building begins in France and Germany.

1840

1842
Samuel Morse develops the single wire telegraph.

1851
The Great Exhibition is held in London.

1860

1876
Alexander Graham Bell patents the first telephone.

1880

CE

2.2 Examining the evidence

2.2.1 How do we know about the Industrial Revolution?

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

Why industrial 'revolution'?

The term *Industrial Revolution* was first popularised by the English historian Arnold Toynbee in the late 1870s and early 1880s. Historians such as Toynbee looked at the society in which they lived and compared it with what they knew of English society a little over a hundred years earlier. To these observers the nature and speed of the changes they documented were 'revolutionary' because they radically impacted the way many people lived.

Primary sources

How do we know about the changes that occurred during the period in history known as the Industrial Revolution? We have a number of sources available to us, including the following.

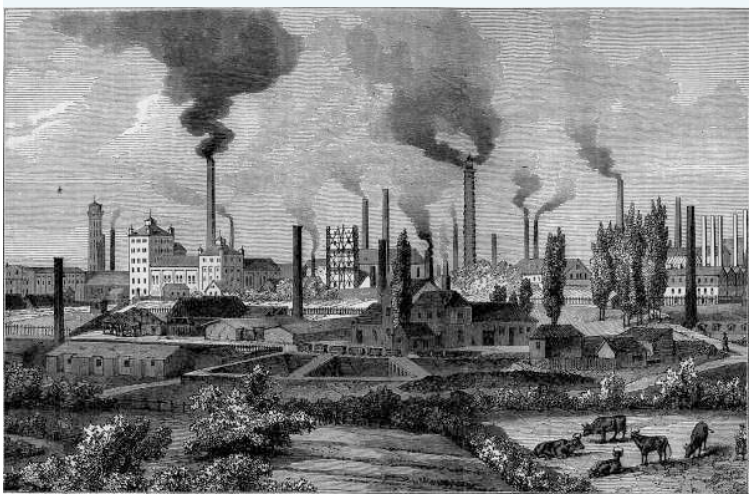
Inventions and patents

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

Contemporary writers

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

SOURCE 1 Contemporary writers commented on life in the rapidly growing cities, and artists used their talents to depict the growth of factory production located in large towns.



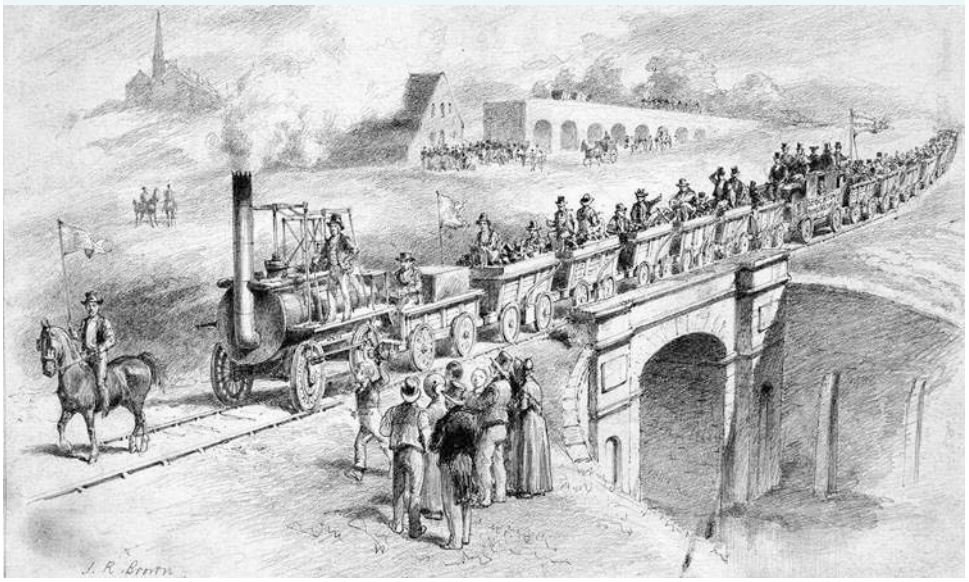
Census figures

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

Paintings and drawings

In the eighteenth century, British artists were famous for producing paintings of country landscapes. By the early nineteenth century, artists began to record scenes of the new industrial towns that accompanied the Industrial Revolution. These often contrasted dramatically with the peaceful calm of the country scenes, showing billowing smoke from factory chimneys and the busy activity of the industrial town. Changes in transport, such as the development of railways, also attracted the attention of artists. Many paintings and drawings were produced to celebrate these new developments.

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



2.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Use the words provided in the following table to fill the gaps and complete the paragraph below.

Middle	New	Britain	transformation
reshaped	clothing	transformed	sources
features	not	transport	technological

Great _____ changes took place in _____ during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. These changes completely _____ the way in which food, _____ and other necessities were produced. _____ materials and _____ of power, along with new forms of _____, _____ a society that had _____ changed dramatically since the _____ Ages. This _____ is the source of many of the _____ of our way of life today.

2. **HS1** Why did English historian Arnold Toynbee coin the term 'Industrial Revolution'?

3. **HS1** Explain why the registration of patents provides us with useful information about the period of the Industrial Revolution.
4. **HS4** What sort of significant changes are evident in population census figures for nineteenth-century Britain?
5. **HS4** How can the work of writers and artists inform us of the types of changes occurring during the Industrial Revolution?

2.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. What evidence is there in this picture of the types of changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution?
2. **HS3** Explain what evidence in **SOURCE 2** suggests that a completely new form of transport was being celebrated.
3. **HS3** What impression of the new industrial towns do you believe the artist of **SOURCE 1** was trying to create for viewers of this work?
4. **HS4** Using examples from the information provided in this subtopic, explain why late nineteenth-century historians believed the changes of the previous hundred years were a major 'revolution'.
5. **HS6** 'The Industrial Revolution created the modern world in which we live.' Based on the material provided in this subtopic, explain why you agree or disagree with this statement.

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2.3 Causes of the Industrial Revolution

2.3.1 The importance of cause and effect in history

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

One of the reasons to study history is to identify cause and effect. If we understand the factors that caused something bad to occur in the past, we may be better able as a society to avoid it happening again. If we can recognise the causes of something beneficial, we may be able to repeat it in a different location, or different time. The process of **industrialisation** has raised the **standard of living** of the vast majority of people living in countries that have experienced industrialisation. It is currently raising the standard of living in countries such as China and India. Nevertheless, many countries in the world have not experienced industrialisation, and their inhabitants live in relative poverty. If the citizens and governments of those countries can recognise the factors that have contributed to industrialisation, they may be able to encourage the process and raise their own standard of living.

SOURCE 1 Farmers in developing countries still use methods that have been used for centuries, while industrialised countries have long since mechanised agriculture.

DISCUSS

In either a class discussion or a 'think, pair, share', outline one reason why the process of industrialisation might improve the standard of living of a country. **[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]**

2.3.2 Underlying causes and immediate causes

When we plant a seed in the garden, we expect a plant to grow from that seed. The immediate cause of the plant growing is the placing of the seed in the soil. However, if the soil is of poor quality with low levels of nutrients and the seed is never watered, the plant may not grow. Good-quality fertile soil is an underlying cause of plant growth. We can examine the causes of the Industrial Revolution in a similar manner. The following are often identified as causes of the Industrial Revolution that began in Britain in the mid eighteenth century. Some can be considered as underlying causes or long-term trends — the fertile soil in which industrialisation flourished. Some can be considered immediate causes — the short-term triggers that led directly to the changes we identify as the Industrial Revolution.

Technology

The Industrial Revolution first took off as a result of two developments in technology. The first was the invention of a number of new machines designed to process raw cotton into cloth. These machines were too large to be locatedin an average house or cottage, so factories were built to accommodate them. The second development was the invention of steam engines capable of powering these cotton-processing machines. The use of steam power allowed factories to become larger and produce huge quantities of cotton cloth. The textile industry set the pattern for other industries, and large-scale factory production soon became the norm across a range of different manufacturing activities.

Agricultural revolution

Prior to the eighteenth century, most of the population of Europe was engaged in food production. In Britain, two broad changes were occurring by the middle of the eighteenth century:

1. New methods of farming were gaining popularity, improving the quantity and quality of food and the output of fibres such as wool for clothing.
2. Changes in land ownership had been underway for over 100 years. Common land that had been shared by villagers was enclosed by wealthy landowners, creating larger farms on which the new farming methods could be applied.

These changes contributed to an increase in population, but did not require the extra people to work on farms. They would eventually become the factory workers of the Industrial Revolution.

SOURCE 2 Major sites of industrialisation in Britain

Source: Spatial Vision

Access to raw materials

Steam engine operation depended heavily on good-quality coal to provide strong reliable heat. Britain had large deposits of coal, most of which were readily accessible, so mining developed alongside the growth in factory production. As **SOURCE 2** shows, the location of coalfields strongly influenced the location of industry during the period of the Industrial Revolution. Britain also had plentiful deposits of iron ore, which could be processed into steel and used for building factory machinery and other useful equipment.

Wealthy middle class

In medieval Europe and Britain, the vast majority of the population consisted of lower-class peasants who worked the land owned by the upper-class aristocracy. The middle class were the specialised craftsmen and merchants who, relying on trade and commerce, usually lived in the towns; they were a small minority throughout the Middle Ages. As Britain grew to become a major trading nation, many members of the middle class became very wealthy and used their savings to invest in business ventures. It was this investment that funded the growth of factories during the Industrial Revolution.

Transport

Britain is a relatively compact nation geographically, with easy access to the sea through large ports. The transportation of raw materials to factories and of finished products to customers, both local and overseas, was relatively simple. River transport was very efficient and canals could be built to connect many of these rivers. The development of steam as a means of locomotion eventually transformed transport networks across Britain and later the world.

Expanding empire

Since the great age of exploration in the sixteenth century, European ships and merchants had sailed to all parts of the world and had discovered a wide variety of new products that could be imported into Europe. The Spanish and Portuguese had conquered most of South America, and the Dutch had colonised the islands that now make up Indonesia. The British had established colonies in North America, the Caribbean, the Indian subcontinent and West Africa. The British were quick to realise the possibilities of importing raw materials from their colonies and transforming them into finished products to sell to the increasing population. Improving the methods of producing finished cotton products to meet this growing market became very important in the latter half of the eighteenth century.

2.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How can an understanding of the causes of a historical event be of benefit to future generations?
2. **HS1** Identify the two key technological advances that allowed industrialisation to take off in Britain in the latter part of the eighteenth century.
3. **HS1** What was the impact of changes in agriculture during the eighteenth century in Britain?
4. **HS1** Describe why the existence of a wealthy middle class was important to the development of the Industrial Revolution.
5. **HS1** Explain why an efficient transport system was useful in the process of industrialisation.
6. **HS1** What contribution did an expanding empire make to the Industrial Revolution in Britain?

2.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. Explain how you think the farming techniques shown could be made more efficient by the use of mechanical equipment.

2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**, identify the main sites of economic activity and population growth during the Industrial Revolution.
3. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 2** tell us about the importance of access to raw materials and transport during this period?
4. **HS5** Of the causes identified in this subtopic, which do you believe to be underlying causes of the Industrial Revolution and which do you think were immediate causes? Give reasons for your answers.
5. **HS6** Why could the Industrial Revolution be described as the most important period of change in modern history?
6. **HS6** Explain how developing countries could benefit from the example of the Industrial Revolution in Britain.

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2.4 The agricultural revolution

2.4.1 Traditional open-field farming

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

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

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

Disadvantages of the open-field system

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

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

2.4.2 Enclosure

The agricultural revolution involved three main developments:

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

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

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

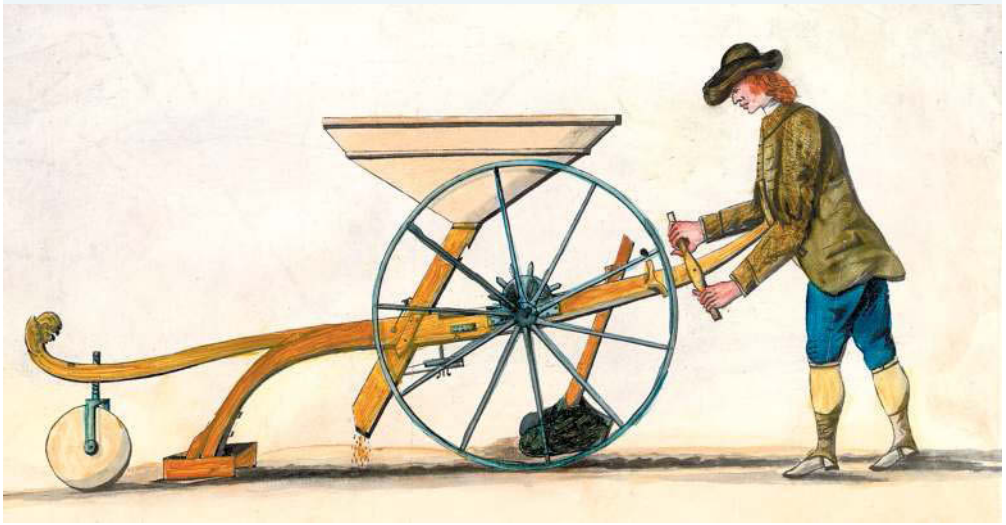
2.4.3 Adoption of new techniques of farming

Increased control over their farms and stock allowed farmers to adopt new, more efficient methods of farming, and developments in farming equipment further increased efficiencies.

Jethro Tull's seed drill

Traditionally seed was scattered by hand into ploughed furrows. This often meant a lot of wastage as the wind could blow much of the seed away or birds could eat it. In 1700, agricultural inventor Jethro Tull developed a horse-drawn seed drill that could plant three rows of seed at a time (**SOURCE 3**). A hole would be drilled for seeds to be dropped in, the hole covered and the drill moved forward to the next planting position. It is estimated that this invention produced a crop five times larger than had been achieved on the same area of land using the old methods.

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



The Rotherham plough

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

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

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

Changes in crop rotation methods

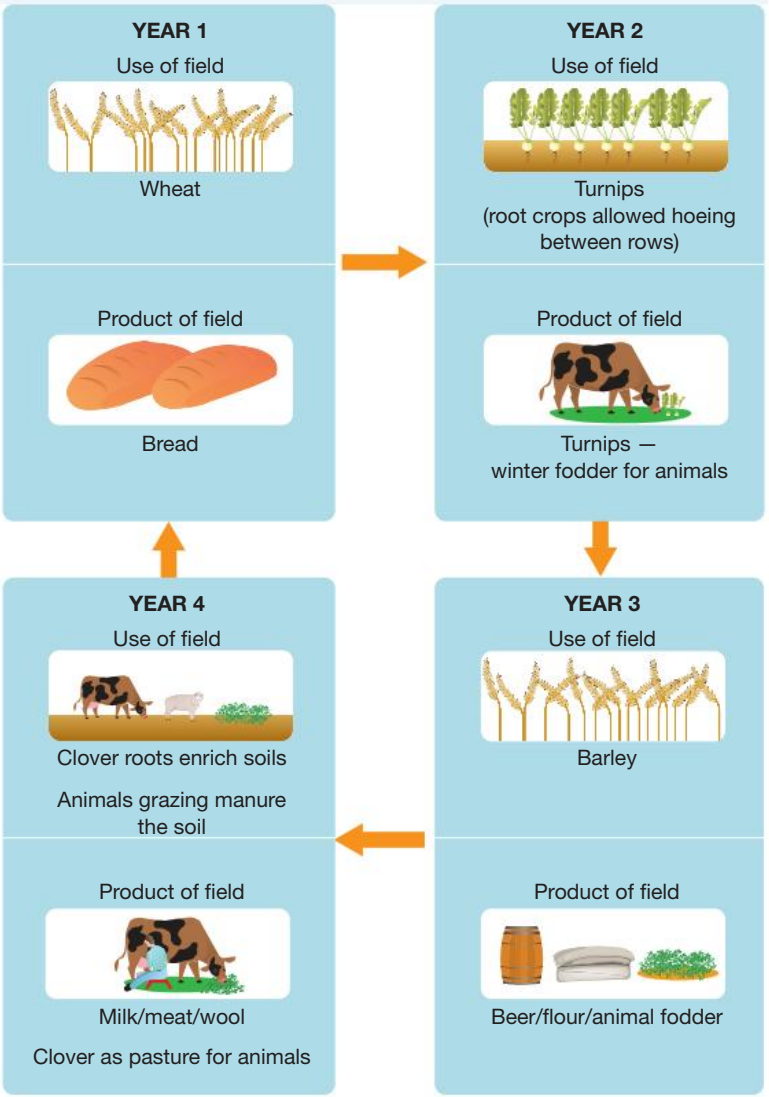
As the open fields were enclosed, new systems of crop rotation were introduced. The most successful of these was the four-crop rotation system introduced by Lord Charles Townshend (or 'Turnip' Townshend, as he became known) on his own estates. His farm was divided into four fields, with wheat in the first, turnips in the second, barley in the third and clover in the fourth. Each year the crops would be rotated by one field,

so that in the second year, the first field would contain clover, the second wheat, the third turnips and the fourth barley. This rotation continued over a four-year cycle. The planting of clover and turnips following the crops of wheat and barley helped replace nutrients in the soil, and therefore helped produce better crops the following year. The clover was used as a nutritious summer food for livestock, while turnips could be fed to animals in winter. This meant that livestock no longer needed to be slaughtered before each winter, as had traditionally been the case.

Improved stock-breeding methods

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

SOURCE 6 Four-crop rotation in one field



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

2.4.4 A business approach to farming

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

SOURCE 8 Improvements in farming output

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

2.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is meant by 'enclosure' in relation to farming lands?
2. **HS1** What impact did the enclosure of farms have on the peasants and tenant farmers who had previously worked the land?
3. **HS1** Outline the contribution of each of the following people to the improvements in agriculture in England in the eighteenth century:
   (a) Jethro Tull (b) Joseph Foljambe (c) 'Turnip' Townshend (d) Robert Bakewell
4. **HS1** What do we mean when we refer to 'a business approach to farming'?
5. **HS1** Identify how the business approach to farming differed from the subsistence approach that had operated previously.
6. **HS1** Explain how the traditional three-field rotation system worked.
7. **HS1** What were the major disadvantages of the three-field rotation system?
8. **HS1** Explain how the four-field rotation system operated.

2.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** In **SOURCE 1**, identify the areas that would have been common land.
2. **HS5** What use was made of fallow land? Explain why this would have improved the land for crops for the next two years.
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 2**. Explain why enclosure made the continuation of communal strip farming impossible.
4. **HS3** How could enclosure allow a farmer to maintain good health and breeding within his livestock?
5. **HS3** Compare the different methods of ploughing depicted in **SOURCES 4** and **5**. Explain two ways by which the use of the Rotherham plough could have reduced costs for the farmer.
6. **HS3** By comparing **SOURCES 1** and **6**, explain how enclosure and the use of the four-field system might have overcome the disadvantages of the three-field rotation system.
7. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 8** and answer the following.
   (a) By what percentage did wheat exports rise between 1705 and 1765?
   (b) How might we explain the increase in weight of livestock sold for slaughter between 1710 and 1795?
8. **HS5** Explain why each of the following innovations could only have occurred after the enclosure of farms.
   (a) The four-field crop rotation system (b) Selective breeding of animals
9. **HS5** The Industrial Revolution relied on the availability of an urban workforce to work in factories. Identify and explain two ways in which the changes in agricultural methods supported the growth of such a workforce.

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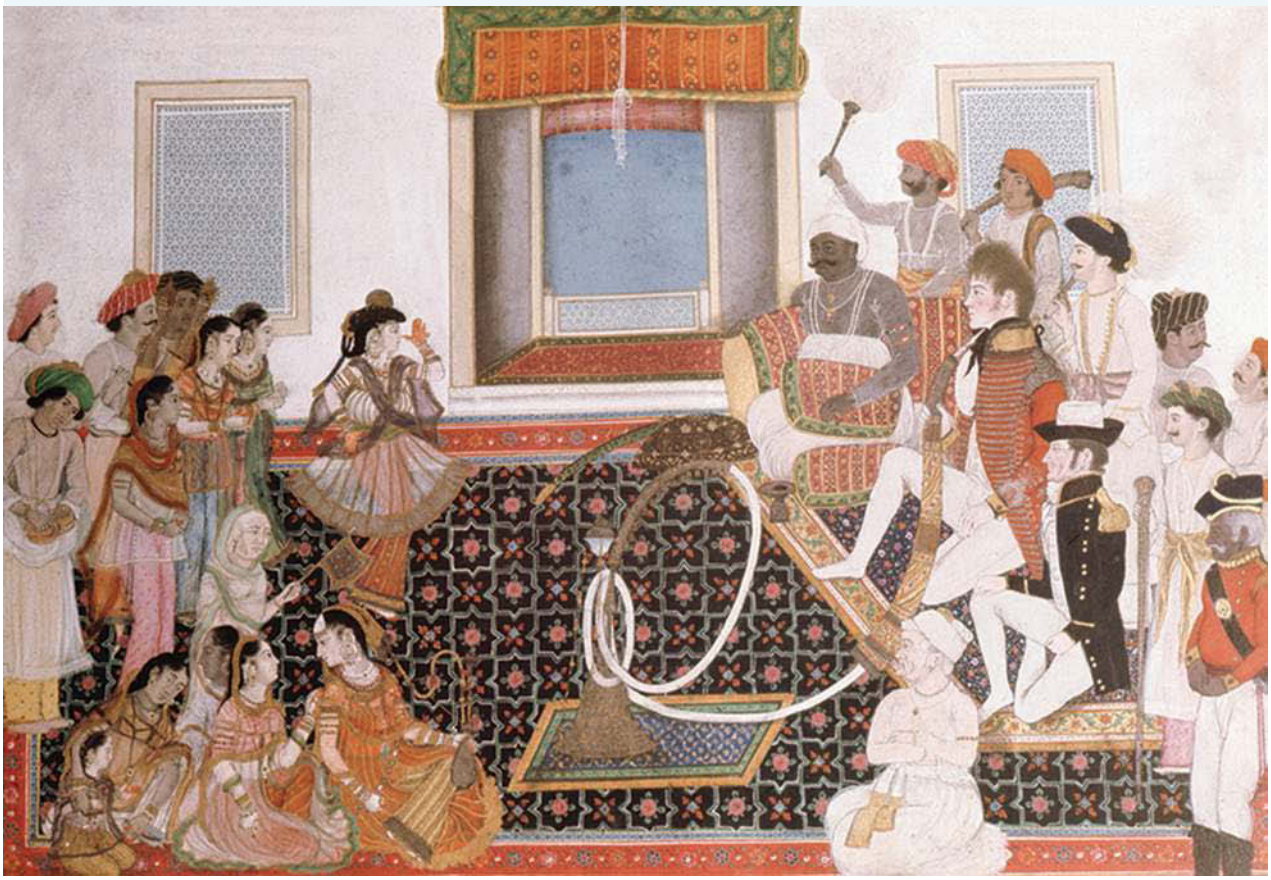
2.5 The growth of empire

2.5.1 The British East India Company

In the fifteenth century, European countries such as Portugal and Spain set out to explore the lands around the Atlantic Ocean to expand their trading links. This led to the establishment of **trading posts** on the western coast of Africa, and the discovery of the Americas. In the early sixteenth century, Vasco da Gama found a sea route to India, and the Dutch, French and English soon joined in the race to establish **colonies** and trading posts in the newly discovered lands. As British **maritime power** grew during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Britain began to lay the foundations of what was to become the most extensive of the European **empires**.

In December 1600, Queen Elizabeth I granted a **charter** to a group of merchants, giving them exclusive rights to control trade between England and all areas of Asia east of the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa. This became the East India Company, and it sent ships to the Indian Ocean to establish trade links with India and other parts of eastern and south-eastern Asia. The company expanded its influence throughout the sixteenth century, establishing trading links in China, Japan and the Malay Peninsula. Its major area of influence was the Indian subcontinent, and it gradually came to control large areas of the region. The company employed its own private armies and used them to conquer areas of India previously controlled by the French, Portuguese and Dutch. The company engaged in trade in silk, cotton, spices and tea, shipping these in large quantities back to Britain.

SOURCE 1 The officers of the British East India Company became very wealthy and powerful as they brought more and more of India under their control.



2.5.2 The British in North America

The Spanish, Portuguese and French were quick to establish colonies in North and South America during the sixteenth century. The first successful British colony in North America was established in Virginia in 1607, and over the next hundred years, the British set up a string of colonies along the east coast of North America. The Caribbean was also a target of British colonisation, with islands such as Trinidad and Tobago, the Bahamas and Jamaica coming under British control. During this time, the French were also expanding into North America. They had established colonies in what is now Canada, and in 1681 had sailed up the Mississippi River and claimed a huge area that they called Louisiana. This would bring the French into direct conflict with the British, as Louisiana was directly to the west of Britain's thirteen coastal colonies, and the French presence there would prevent the British from spreading inland.

SOURCE 2 French and British settlements in North America before 1756

Source: Spatial Vision

2.5.3 The Seven Years' War (1756–63) and the American Revolution

In 1754 Britain and France both claimed control of the Ohio country, located to the west of Pennsylvania. The dispute soon led to skirmishes between British and French troops in this area, and in other parts of North America. France was successful in maintaining control of the Ohio country, but lacked the military power to attack the established British colonies. Between 1756 and 1760 the British waged a campaign in the Canadian territories, eventually defeating the French and taking control of eastern Canada. During this same period, French troops clashed with the private armies of the East India Company on the Indian subcontinent. The British side ultimately proved victorious and extended British influence over most of India. By the end of the Seven Years' War in 1763, Britain controlled an extensive empire, spreading from North America, through parts of Africa, to India and East Asia.

In 1775 the British colonists in the coastal colonies of North America rebelled against British rule, and a war began which would see Britain lose control of those colonies. In 1783 the Treaty of Paris was signed between Britain and the representatives of the former colonies, which subsequently became the modern-day United States of America. While this war saw the British lose their wealthiest colonies in America, their expansion in India and ongoing rule of Canada and many of the Caribbean islands still left Britain with an extensive empire by the end of the eighteenth century. In 1788 the British also took control of the eastern coast of modern-day Australia with the establishment of the colony of New South Wales.

2.5.4 The British Empire and the Industrial Revolution

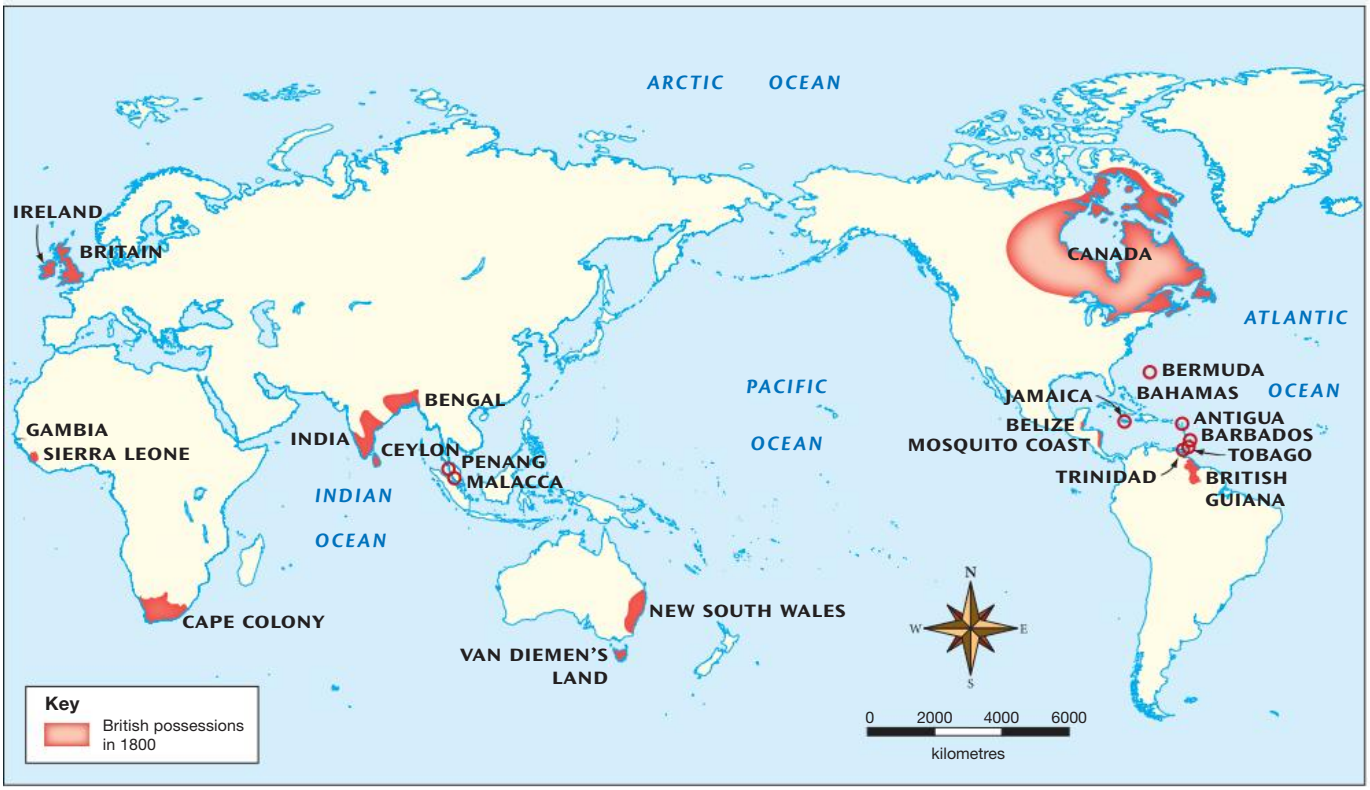
Access to the empire was an essential factor in the industrialisation of Britain. Raw materials would be imported by ship and processed in British factories, and then the finished products exported, often to the same colonies that had provided the raw materials. By 1800, Britain had the beginnings of a worldwide empire, which provided valuable sources of raw materials to feed industrial growth. Initially the cotton

industry was a major source of industrial growth, but British industry was soon able to process raw materials imported from almost every continent. To protect its trading routes, Britain also established the most powerful navy in the world, along with a very prosperous shipbuilding industry.

SOURCE 3 Main sources of raw materials from different parts of the British Empire

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

SOURCE 4 The British Empire in 1800



Source: Spatial Vision

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- 2.5 The growth of empire > **British Empire**

2.5 ACTIVITIES

1. With a partner, discuss whether you think it was fair that Britain expected the colonies to import British manufactured goods rather than encourage them to produce their own. Write a paragraph to explain your view.
   In your response, consider these questions:
   (a) What were the benefits to Britain?
   (b) What were the benefits to the colony?
   (c) Does your opinion change depending on whose perspective you are looking at?
   (d) Is it important to consider 'fairness' when thinking about a historical issue?

   [Ethical Capability; Personal and Social Capability]
2. Being part of the British Empire brought wealth, new facilities such as railways, and education to many parts of Asia and Africa, but in return these colonies lost the power to govern themselves.
   (a) Is it more important to have political power or economic wealth? Form small groups to discuss this issue.
   (b) Following your discussion, create a table like the one below to present your arguments.

Arguments for political power	Arguments for economic wealth

   [Critical and Creative Thinking]
3. **SOURCE 3** refers to baleen as a raw material imported from the colonies. Research what baleen is and what its various uses were during the nineteenth century. **Remembering and understanding**

2.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What special rights did the charter of 1600 grant to the East India Company?
2. **HS1** How did the East India Company gain control of large areas of the Indian subcontinent?
3. **HS1** What were the main goods the East India Company traded to Britain?
4. **HS1** When and where was the first British settlement in North America?
5. **HS1** Where were the main French colonies in North America?
6. **HS1** What was the dispute that led to the outbreak of skirmishes between the French and British in North America in 1754?
7. **HS1** Which additional territory did Britain gain in North America after 1763?
8. **HS1** How did the British come to lose control of their original colonies on the east coast of North America?
9. **HS1** Why was the development of an empire an important factor in the industrialisation of Britain?
10. **HS1** Why was it important for Britain to have a powerful navy during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?

2.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 1** tell us about the relationship between the officers of the East India Company and the native population?
2. **HS3** What evidence is there in **SOURCE 1** of the great wealth of these officers?
3. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCE 2** helps you to understand why Britain and France were likely to come into conflict in North America.
4. **HS3** How many British colonies were there on the east coast of North America by 1756? Name the three largest.
5. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3**. Which colonies were the major sources of cotton and sugar for Britain?
6. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 4**. Why would it have been important to control Cape Colony in southern Africa at this time?
7. **HS3** The English are famous for their love of tea, but the tea plant is not grown in Britain. Identify which colonies supplied their tea.

8. **HS4** Many of the raw materials imported from the colonies were not naturally grown in Britain, but their importation made significant changes to British life. Identify three such raw materials, and explain how they might have had an impact on the lives of ordinary British people.
9. **HS4** At the beginning of the nineteenth century, most of Africa had not yet been colonised by European powers; by the end of that century, most of Africa was under the control of various European empires. From what you know so far about industrialisation and the importance of empire, suggest possible reasons for this huge change during that century.
10. **HS5** Was the growth of the British Empire in the seventeenth and eighteenth century an underlying or an immediate cause of the Industrial Revolution? Give reasons for your answer.
11. **HS5** The British Empire continued to grow even more strongly during the nineteenth century. Explain why the Industrial Revolution may itself have been a cause of this further growth.

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2.6 Entrepreneurs, banks and the middle class

2.6.1 Entrepreneurship and the middle class

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

In medieval Europe, the most powerful class was that of the land-owning aristocracy, while the most numerous group was the peasant class who worked the land. The middle class consisted of the tradesmen, craftsmen and merchants, most of whom lived in the towns. The sixteenth century in Britain saw an increase in trade and commerce, and a growth in the wealth of many of the middle class, including many who bought land from aristocrats and established farming on a commercial basis. Many of these middle-class businesspeople entered parliament and sought to have laws passed that would favour trade and commerce. From 1642, the English Civil War broke out in Britain between the middle-class parliamentarians and their supporters on the one side, and the king and the aristocracy on the other. King Charles I was deposed and executed in 1649, and parliament ruled without a king for 11 years. When the monarchy was restored in 1660, the new King Charles II had to negotiate with a much more powerful parliament. The victory in the civil war had given a powerful place to the middle class in Britain, and the English Parliament came to strongly represent the interests of the merchants, traders and others involved in running businesses.

Government support for business

Between 1650 and 1673 Parliament passed the Navigation Acts, which required all goods traded between Britain and its colonies to be carried in British ships. There was also stronger enforcement of the Statute of Monopolies of 1623, which protected the rights of inventors to profit from patents on their inventions. By the eighteenth century, an environment that favoured **entrepreneurship** had developed in Britain. Scottish philosopher Adam Smith recognised the value of having a government supportive of trade and commerce in his 1776 book *The Wealth of Nations* (see **SOURCE 1**).

SOURCE 1 Adam Smith, *The Wealth of Nations*, 1776

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

Entrepreneurship

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

SOURCE 2 Adam Smith, whose head appears on the British £20 note, believed that entrepreneurship was a significant factor in the creation of wealth.

2.6.2 The importance of banks

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

Growth of the banking system

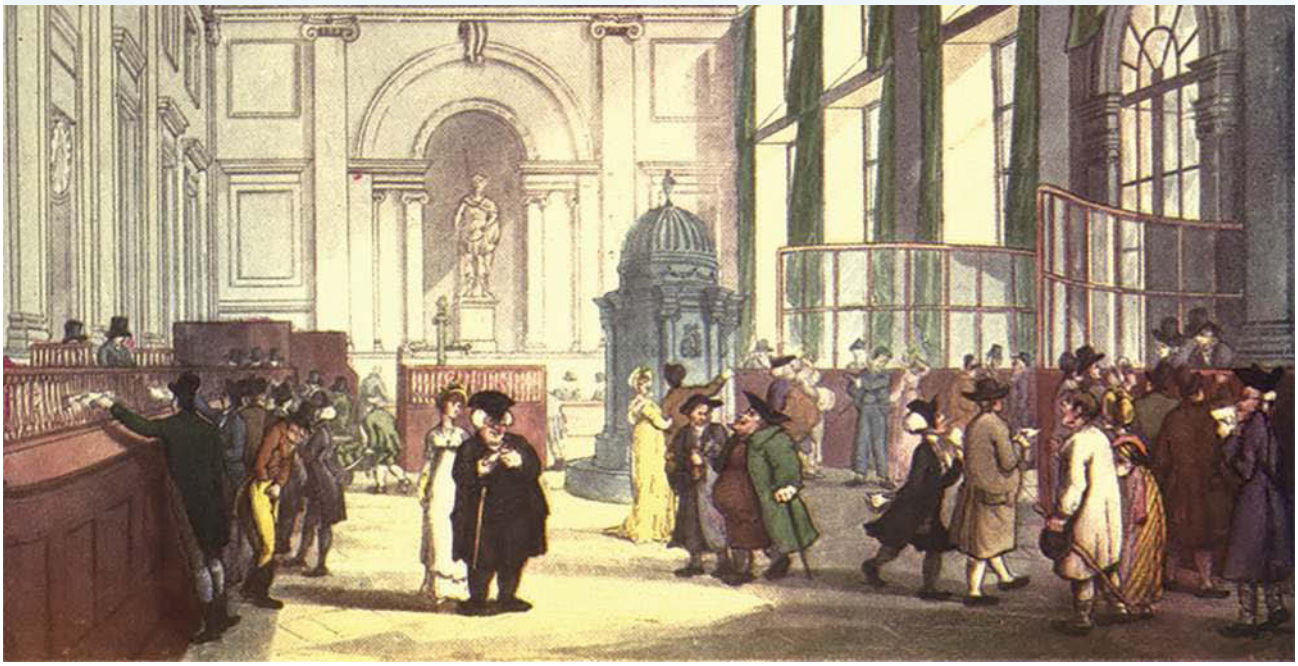
Modern banking as we now understand it dates from Renaissance Italy, and in particular from the wealthy cities of Venice and Florence. The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in England and Scotland saw the spread of banking practices that were the forerunners of today's modern banks. Before 1546 in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

SOURCE 3 Renaissance Italy was the birthplace of modern banking. This artwork from the fifteenth century shows an Italian banking house.

Goldsmith bankers

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

SOURCE 4 The Bank of England, established in 1694, became the major source of lending for the government. This artwork was created in the nineteenth century.



DID YOU KNOW?

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

DISCUSS

French leaders are believed to have used Adam Smith's term 'a nation of shopkeepers' as an insult against the British. How might the qualities of 'a nation of shopkeepers' have contributed to the progress of the Industrial Revolution? Discuss in small groups. **[Critical and Creative Thinking]**

2.6 ACTIVITY

Adam Smith is often described as the father of modern economics and of modern capitalism. Using the internet and/or library resources, find out who Adam Smith was and what he did to earn these titles.

Determining historical significance

2.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How did the middle class in Britain become so powerful by the beginning of the eighteenth century?
2. **HS1** In what ways did the English Parliament support business interests during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries?
3. **HS1** Explain what is meant by *entrepreneurship*.
4. **HS1** Why were cottage industries able to survive without access to a modern banking system?
5. **HS1** What was the role of goldsmiths in the development of the banking system?

2.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** From **SOURCE 1**, explain Adam Smith's attitude to the role of the middle class in influencing government decisions.
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 2**. What can you see depicted in front of Adam Smith's face on this banknote? What does this tell us about the importance that many people place on Adam Smith's ideas as an influence on the Industrial Revolution?
3. **HS3** Compare and contrast **SOURCES 3** and **4**. What does the image of the inside of the Bank of England in **SOURCE 4** tell us about the importance of banking in England, when compared to the activities shown in **SOURCE 3**?
4. **HS6** Explain the significance of the legalisation of the charging of interest on borrowed money in England.
5. **HS5** How important was a successful banking system as an underlying cause of the Industrial Revolution? Explain.

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2.7 The population explosion

2.7.1 Before the eighteenth century

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

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

SOURCE 1 This seventeenth-century engraving depicts the effects of the Black Death, which struck Europe in the late 1340s, and kept the population low in Britain for centuries.

DID YOU KNOW?

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

2.7.2 Eighteenth-century population growth

The British population began to increase steadily again during the first half of the eighteenth century, reaching 6 million by the late 1750s. Eradication of the plague and improvements in medical science saw a fall in the death rate. By mid century the changes in agriculture had begun to have an impact, increasing the supply of good-quality food capable of feeding a larger population. Dietary deficiency diseases such as **scurvy** and **rickets** declined as food quality improved, leading also to a decline in the **infant mortality rate**.

The population explosion

The population really took off in Britain after 1760, doubling over the next 60 years, and doubling again in the following 60 years (see **SOURCE 2**). Agricultural improvements meant that good crops could be relied on every year, removing fears of the periodic famine that had been common for centuries. Fresh meat was now available in winter; cheaper potatoes could be eaten all year round, and dairy produce, such as butter and cheese, was enjoyed more widely. In the latter part of the eighteenth century vaccination against diseases such as smallpox began to reduce deaths from infectious diseases. The widespread use of child labour in factories and mines in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries appears to have encouraged many families to have more children as a means of increasing family income.

SOURCE 2 Population growth in England and Wales, 1761–1881

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

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

SOURCE 3 Edward Jenner pioneered vaccination against smallpox in 1796, as shown in this nineteenth-century artwork.

2.7.3 Impact of the population explosion

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

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

2.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** In which years between 1300 and 1700 was the British population growing?
2. **HS2** During which years of the same period was the population falling?
3. **HS1** What was the estimated population of Britain in 1700?
4. **HS1** Explain how the changes in agricultural production methods contributed to population growth after 1700.
5. **HS1** What medical advances contributed to population growth during this time?
6. **HS1** How might the use of child labour in the early days of the Industrial Revolution have encouraged families to have more children?
7. **HS1** How did the growth in population encourage factory owners to increase production?

2.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain the influence of the Black Death, or plague, as depicted in **SOURCE 1**, on the British population in the fourteenth century.
2. **HS1** Why did the plague continue to have an influence on the population?
3. **HS3** Using the information in **SOURCE 2**, construct a graph depicting population growth in England and Wales between 1761 and 1881. You may use a bar graph or a line graph; make sure your graph is to scale.
4. **HS3** Explain how we can tell that the medical procedure carried out in **SOURCE 3** was still a relatively new development.
5. **HS3** What conclusions can you draw from **SOURCE 4** about the conditions experienced by women and children working in factories?
6. **HS1** Why was it necessary for whole families to be employed in this way?
7. **HS5** It could be said that population growth in Britain before 1800 helped *cause* the Industrial Revolution, while population growth after 1800 was an *effect* of the Industrial Revolution. Based on what you have learned about industrialisation in Britain in this period, do you agree or disagree with this proposition? Explain.

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2.8 Power: from horses, wind and water to steam

2.8.1 Horse power

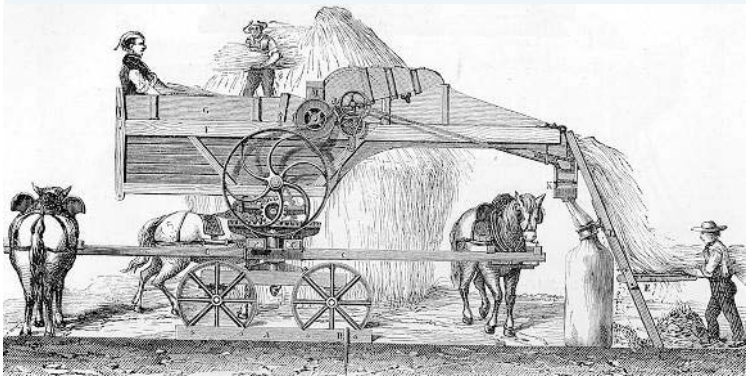
The early years of the Industrial Revolution relied on traditional sources to provide power for agricultural use, for machinery in factories and for transport. With the development of a viable steam engine, steam power rapidly replaced horse, wind and water power.

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

Horses in agriculture and mining

With the coming of the agricultural and industrial changes of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, there was a continuing reliance on horses as a source of power. For example, the horse-powered threshing machine was used to separate grain from the stalks and husks of the wheat plant (see **SOURCE 1**). This machine was invented in 1784 by a Scotsman, Andrew Meikle. Small ponies, known as pit ponies, were used to haul carts full of coal in underground coalmines. Canal boats or barges used to move goods were hauled along by horses walking along tow-paths on the canal bank (see **SOURCE 2**).

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



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

2.8.2 Water power

Water power had been used in England since ancient Roman times. A water wheel with blades or buckets around its rim would be driven by flowing water from a stream or river (see **SOURCES 3** and **4**). The power generated by the turning water wheel was used to mill grain into flour.

Early sawmills used water wheels to power large circular saws. Many of the first textile mills in England were powered by water, with the force of the water sufficient to drive machines in multistorey factory buildings.

SOURCE 3 A medieval flour mill with water wheel

SOURCE 4 Early cotton mills were built next to rivers to make use of the water flow for power.

2.8.3 Wind power

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

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

2.8.4 Steam power

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

Steam power in coalmines

The Newcomen engine was a huge step forward because it allowed underground coalmines to be sunk to greater depths. The inability to remove excess water had always been one of the barriers to deep-pit

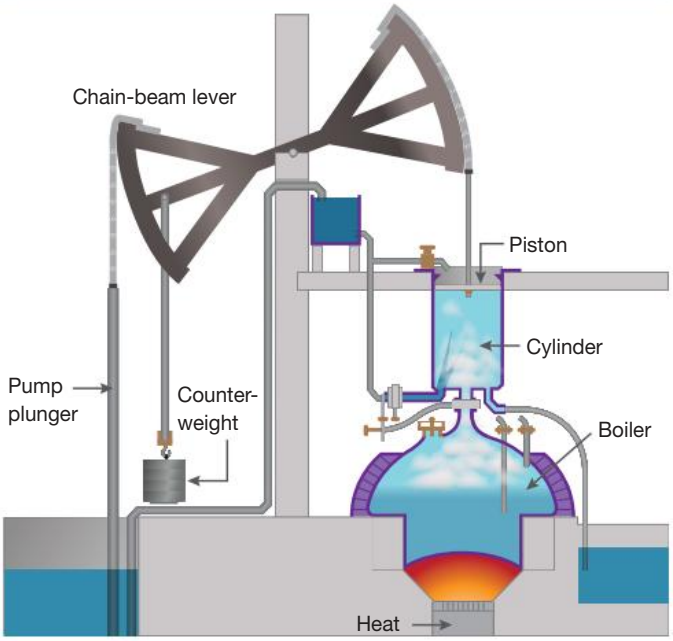
mining, and so had restricted the amount and quality of coal that could be extracted (see subtopic 2.10). The coalmining industry really took off from the mid-eighteenth century. As the Industrial Revolution gathered pace, coal would prove to be a very important fuel.

James Watt's steam engine

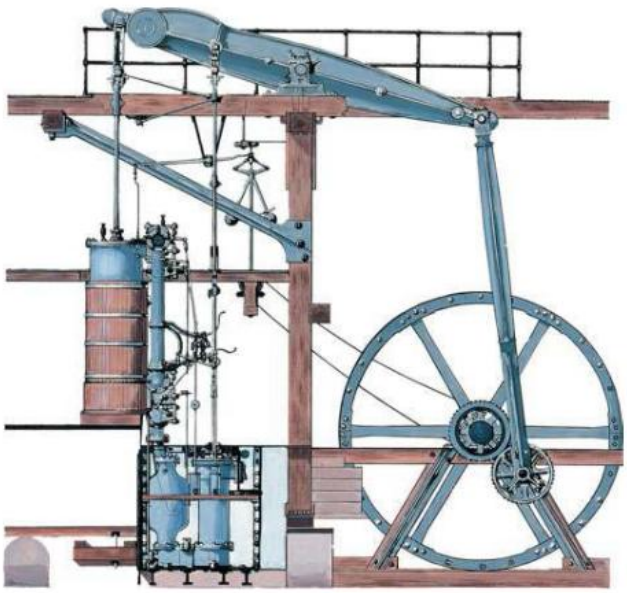
The next big step forward was James Watt's steam engine, developed around 1769. Watt produced an engine that had a separate compartment for cooling the steam back to water, after it had been used to drive a piston. Instead of driving a large beam, Watt's steam engine powered a large flywheel, so it could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

The development of the steam engine was to be a pivotal event in the Industrial Revolution. Steam engines were able to power larger and larger machines, which in turn led to bigger factories (see **SOURCE 8**). Their successful use in coalmines saw coal replace wood as the major fuel source. Steam was to revolutionise both land and sea transport in the nineteenth century as railways and steam-driven ships came into use.

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



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



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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

2.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain why horses and similar animals were very valuable in pre-industrial times.
2. **HS1** Identify and explain two examples of the use of animals as a source of power that continued even after the agricultural and industrial changes of the eighteenth century.
3. **HS1** Explain how water was traditionally used to provide power.
4. **HS1** Outline two uses of wind power in traditional pre-industrial society.
5. **HS1** What is the major limitation of wind power?
6. **HS1** Explain how the Newcomen steam engine operated.
7. **HS1** Explain how the Boulton and Watt steam engine operated.

2.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCE 1** demonstrates the combination of new technology with traditional sources of power.
2. **HS3** Identify the advantages that the towing of barges full of goods, as shown in **SOURCE 2**, has over the transportation of goods in a horse-drawn cart on land.
3. **HS3** In **SOURCE 3**, where is the water coming from to drive the mill wheel? What method might be used to stop the wheel?
4. **HS3** Explain why the site shown in **SOURCE 4** was chosen as a suitable location for a water-powered textile mill.
5. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 4** tell us about the limitations of water power as a means of driving factory machines?
6. **HS3** Explain why, although power from a windmill such as that seen in **SOURCE 5** might have worked well for milling grain, wind power would have been unsuitable for driving machinery in a factory.
7. **HS3** Compare **SOURCES 6** and **7** and explain how Watt's improvements to the steam engine would have increased the usefulness of steam as a source of power.
8. **HS3** Explain what **SOURCE 8** tells us about the main form of power in Manchester, England, by the middle of the nineteenth century.
9. **HS4** The early years of the Industrial Revolution did not rely on new forms of power, but made innovative use of traditional forms of power. Outline two examples where this was the case.
10. **HS5** Many historians claim that the Industrial Revolution did not really take off until steam power was widely used. Identify and explain three major contributions that steam power made to the Industrial Revolution.
11. **HS6** Newcomen's steam engine is often compared unfavourably with that of Boulton and Watt. Given that the Newcomen engine was developed more than fifty years before Watt's improvement, and considering its main use, why is it still considered a significant historical development?

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2.9 Making textiles: from home to factory

2.9.1 The traditional textile industry

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

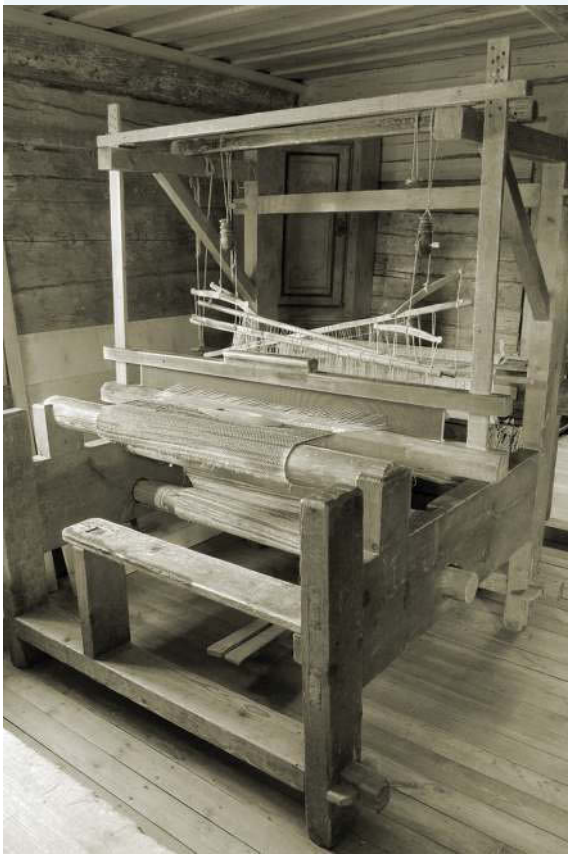
Textile production had been an important part of the English economy for centuries, but the emphasis was mainly on woollen goods. Cotton cloth was produced only in small quantities, as English cotton producers could not compete in quality or price with imported cloth from India. Until the eighteenth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

Raw fibre was delivered to villages by merchants, who later collected the finished products, and paid the villagers for their work. The traditional textile production steps of **carding**, **spinning** and weaving are described in **SOURCES 1–2**.

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

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

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



2.9.2 Innovation in the textile industry

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

Spinners and weavers

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

The move to factory production

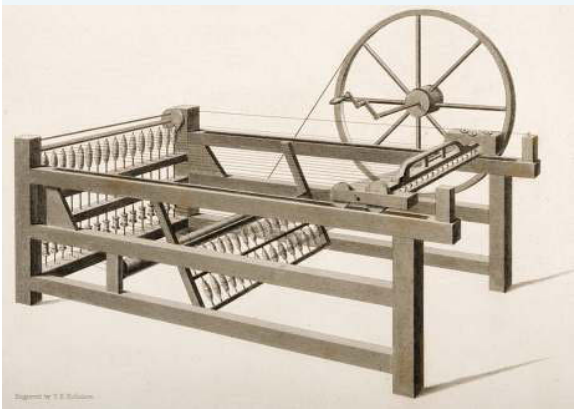
The new spinning and weaving machines outgrew the cottages of spinners and weavers. Larger buildings were needed to house them, and textile production began to be moved into specialised factories, known as cotton mills. By the 1780s all stages of textile manufacture were becoming centralised in mills,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

DID YOU KNOW?

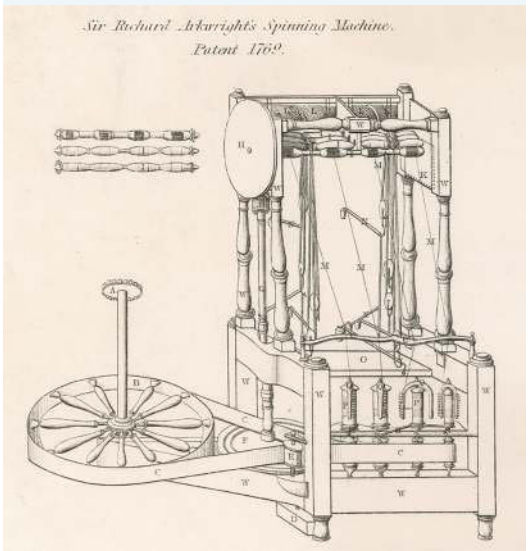
The first large textile factories in England were located in and around the city of Manchester. The term *manchester* is still used in Australia today to describe household cotton-based items such as bed linen, tablecloths and towels.

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

SOURCE 5 Innovation in the textile industry, 1764: John Hargraves developed the spinning jenny, which could spin multiple threads simultaneously.

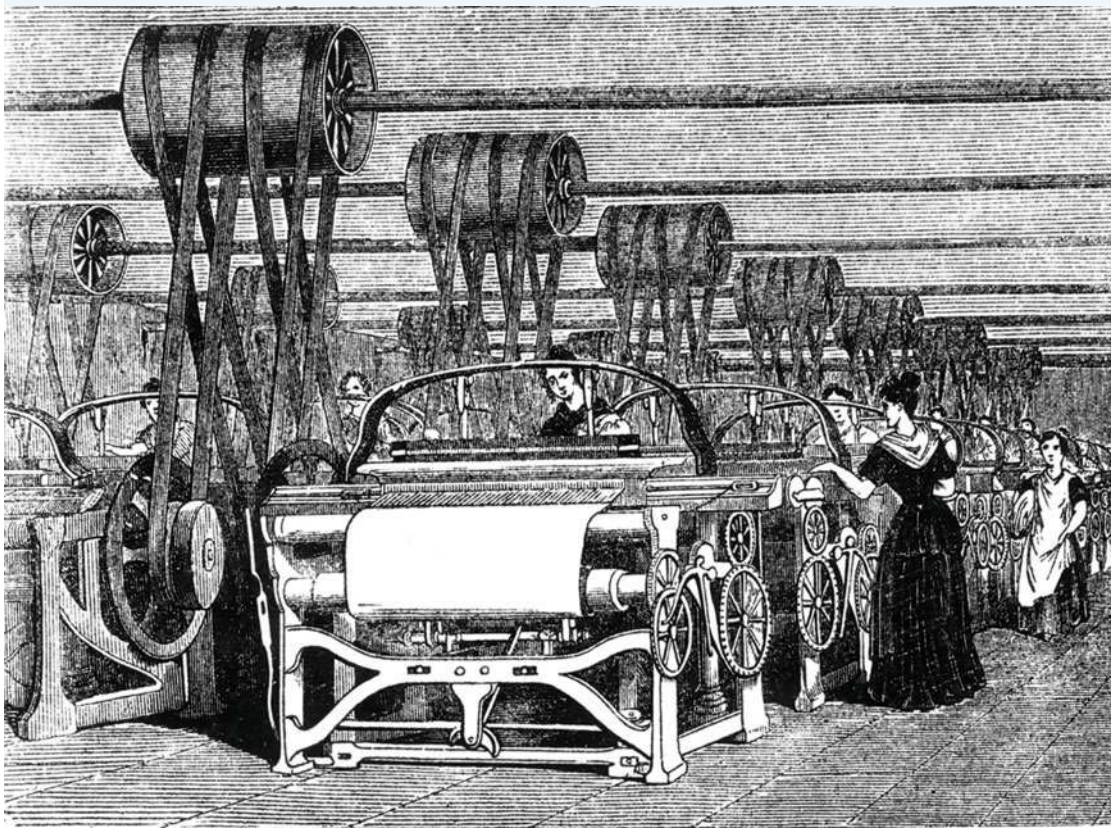


SOURCE 6 Innovation in the textile industry, 1769: James Arkwright patented the water frame, a spinning machine powered by running water. Similar machines were later powered by steam.



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

SOURCE 8 Innovation in the textile industry, 1780s: Textile production began to be centralised in factories. Initially they were built close to rivers to draw on water power, but eventually this became unnecessary as steam power was adopted. Edmund Cartwright developed the power loom, shown in this artwork from c. 1844, which mechanised the weaving process.



2.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why was the English textile industry traditionally based on wool rather than cotton?
2. **HS1** Create a flow chart to outline the step-by-step process by which textiles were produced.
3. **HS1** Until the eighteenth century, textile production was a cottage industry, carried out in the homes of workers. Outline the production tasks performed by children, women and men.
4. **HS1** Explain two factors that led to an increased demand for cotton products by the 1750s.
5. **HS1** Why did it become necessary to move away from cottage textile production to factory production?

2.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What is happening in **SOURCE 1**? Which members of the family would carry out this task?
2. **HS3** What function is carried out by the machine depicted in **SOURCE 2**?
3. **HS3** With reference to **SOURCE 3**, explain the difference between the warp and the weft in the process of weaving.
4. **HS3** Explain why the invention of the flying shuttle shown in **SOURCE 4** made it necessary for a machine such as the spinning jenny (**SOURCE 5**) to be invented.
5. **HS3** Explain the significance of machines such as those shown in **SOURCES 6** and **7** in the move away from cottage industry.
6. **HS3** The power loom in **SOURCE 8** was originally powered by water, and later by steam. Examine the source and explain how either source of power drove the loom.

7. **HS4** It is often said that 'necessity is the mother of invention'. Describe the ways in which each of the new inventions in the eighteenth-century textile industry was a response to necessity.
8. **HS5** Most historians agree that the Industrial Revolution in Britain began with the textile industry. Explain whether you think the developments in this industry were an underlying or an immediate cause of the Industrial Revolution.
9. **HS6** Imagine you were a farm worker earning extra money by spinning or weaving in your cottage.
   (a) What effect would the change to factory production have on your way of life?
   (b) Why would you have regarded this as a significant change?
   (c) Explain your likely reaction to this change.

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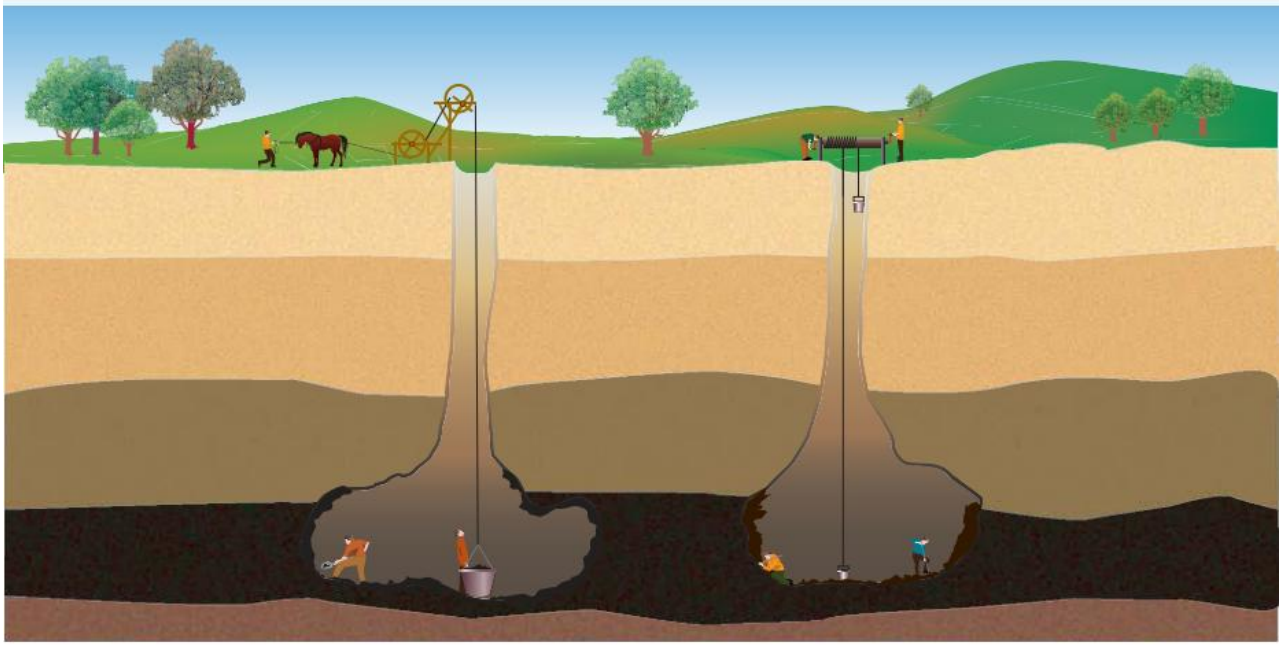
2.10 Coal and iron

2.10.1 Coalmining

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

Coal is a much more efficient fuel than wood; that is, a given weight of coal will burn for longer and provide greater heat than a similar weight of wood. Britain had a very rich supply of coal, but traditional coalmining practice allowed only the extraction of coal from shallow **bell pits** (see **SOURCE 1**). This meant that coal was not widely available and was therefore more expensive than wood. Deep-pit mining could not be pursued because of the amount of water that would flood the shafts. Pumping out surplus water from mines with the use of steam-driven pumps (see subtopic 2.8) made coal more readily available and cheaper to mine. This coal could be used as fuel for the steam engines that would come into more widespread use as the Industrial Revolution progressed.

SOURCE 1 Coalmining was traditionally carried out in shallow bell pits.



2.10.2 Developments in iron production

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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

Burning coke in blast furnaces

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

Henry Cort and 'puddling'

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

As iron production methods improved, quantities increased and large-scale production made good-quality iron cheaper. By 1850 Britain was producing more than 70 times as much iron as it had in 1760 (see **SOURCE 3**).

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

SOURCE 3 British pig iron production, 1760–1850

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

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

2.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why was coal a preferable fuel to the burning of wood?
2. **HS1** How did deep-pit mining become possible during the eighteenth century?
3. **HS1** What process was employed to remove impurities from iron ore extracted from the ground?
4. **HS1** What had been used as the traditional source of heat for English blast furnaces?
5. **HS1** What was the name of the product that came from the blast furnace?
6. **HS1** Identify the problem that Abraham Darby was able to solve and explain his solution.
7. **HS1** In what way did Henry Cort improve the production of iron?

2.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe how coal was extracted from the bell pits depicted in **SOURCE 1**.
2. **HS3** Explain how this method of mining limited the use of coal before the eighteenth century.
3. **HS3** The Iron Bridge shown in **SOURCE 2** was opened in the 1780s. Explain why such a bridge would not have been practical before this time.
4. **HS3** Present the information in **SOURCE 3** as a line graph. Make sure you keep it to scale.
5. **HS4** Would it have been possible to increase the quantities and improve the quality of iron products if coalmining techniques had not also improved at around the same time? Give reasons for your answer.
6. **HS5** Would you describe the improvements in coalmining practices in the eighteenth century as an immediate or underlying cause of the Industrial Revolution?
7. **HS5** Would you describe the developments in production of higher-quality iron in the eighteenth century as an immediate or underlying cause of the Industrial Revolution?
8. **HS6** In what ways do you think the figures in **SOURCE 3** suggest that a revolutionary change occurred in Britain between 1760 and 1850?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

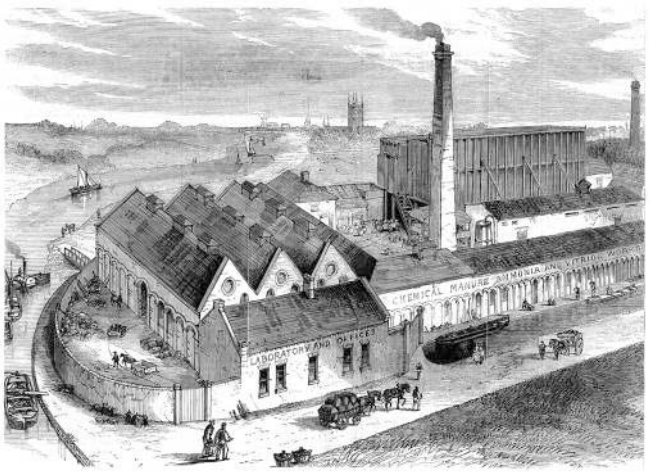
2.11 Canals, roads, railways and shipping

2.11.1 The importance of transport

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

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

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



2.11.2 Canals

Transportation of goods by water had always been important in the island nation of Britain. With a large number of navigable rivers, coastal and river shipping had been widely used for centuries. Most roads were still no more than muddy tracks and horse-drawn carts could carry only small loads without getting bogged. Much larger loads could be transported on boats and barges, so rivers and canals were one answer to transporting the products of industrialisation. The first major canals of the Industrial Revolution were built to transport coal from the Lancashire coalfields to newly developing industrial cities. The Sankey Canal, built to carry coal to the city of Liverpool, was opened in 1757. The Bridgewater Canal, financed by the Duke of Bridgewater and opened in 1761, carried coal from the Duke's mine to the growing city of Manchester. Alongside each canal was a tow-path on which the horse towing a barge would walk (see subtopic 2.8). One horse could tow a barge carrying ten times the weight that could be loaded onto a cart.

'Canal mania'

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

SOURCE 2 An artwork from around 1754, depicting the Duke of Bridgewater

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

2.11.3 Roads

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

Turnpike trusts

From 1707 onwards, groups of nominated **trustees** were given the power to collect these tolls and supervise road maintenance. These toll roads were known as **turnpikes**, and the groups of trustees called **turnpike trusts**. By the 1750s most of the main roads leading to London had been converted to turnpikes. By the

1830s more than 30 000 kilometres of turnpikes connected most of the major cities in England, Wales and Scotland. The quality of roads between major cities improved dramatically during this time, although the less important roads remained in a poor state. Eventually the railways took business away from the turnpikes, rendering them unprofitable, and road maintenance became the responsibility of local councils.

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

SOURCE 5 Extracts from the toll sign at Aberystwyth turnpike in Wales

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

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

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

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

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

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

2.11.4 Railways

One of the biggest advances in transport came with the growth of the railways. This development came as a result of applying steam engines to tramway systems. In coal and iron ore mines, horses were used to draw wagons out of the mines along tracks. By the beginning of the nineteenth century steam technology had developed sufficiently for experiments to begin in the use of steam to drive moving vehicles. The first

locomotives were used to haul trucks loaded with coal from mines. These inspired the engineer George Stephenson to promote the use of steam locomotives to haul a wide variety of goods, as well as passengers.

The first successful railways

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

In the meantime, Stephenson and his son Robert were contracted to build a railway line between Manchester, the largest textile-producing city, and Liverpool, a major port almost 60 kilometres away. Opened in 1830, the line was constructed as a double track to allow trains to travel in both directions. It was designed to bring imported raw materials to Manchester and to return completed goods to Liverpool for export. Stephenson's latest locomotive, the 'Rocket', was used to haul both goods and passengers between the two cities. The line was a huge financial success and became the model for a succession of railways that were soon constructed throughout Britain.

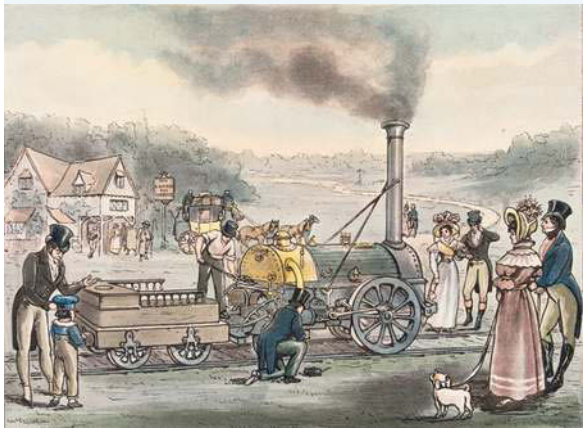
SOURCE 6 Steam locomotives were first used to haul trucks from coalmines, as shown in this nineteenth-century artwork.

The railways expand

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

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

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



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

2.11.5 Developments in shipping

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

The age of the clippers

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

SOURCE 10 Clippers such as the *Cutty Sark*, shown in this twentieth-century artwork, could transport goods more quickly than many steamships of the time.

DID YOU KNOW?

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

Steam power

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

2.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why were reliable methods of transport more important to the process of industrialisation than they had been in pre-industrial society?
2. **HS1** What was the purpose of the first canals built in Britain?
3. **HS1** Why was the use of a barge towed by a horse on a canal more economical than a loaded cart pulled by a horse?
4. **HS1** Why was the period between the 1760s and 1815 known as the period of 'canal mania'?
5. **HS1** Who was responsible for the maintenance of local roads before the eighteenth century?
6. **HS1** Why did main roads between larger towns and cities so often fall into a state of disrepair?
7. **HS1** What were turnpike trusts and how were they able to improve road transport?
8. **HS1** What was the purpose of the first locomotives built in Britain?
9. **HS1** When was the first railway built in Britain and what was its purpose?
10. **HS1** What specific features did the railway line between Manchester and Liverpool have that made it a model for other railways?
11. **HS1** How did the construction of railways revolutionise transport in Britain between 1830 and 1852?
12. **HS1** Identify the two main changes to shipping that resulted from the Industrial Revolution.
13. **HS1** Why were paddle steamers not appropriate for international trade? Which development ultimately allowed steamships to take over international shipping?

2.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe the methods of transport available to the factory in **SOURCE 1**.
2. **HS3** Why would **SOURCE 2**, the portrait of the Duke of Bridgewater, have been painted with the particular background depicted?
3. **HS3** Explain the likely location of the scene shown in **SOURCE 3**. What do you think would be the function of the building on the right side of the painting? Give reasons for your answer.
4. **HS3** What message was the artist who produced **SOURCE 4** attempting to convey?
5. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 5**. Identify three groups of people who were exempt from tolls on the Aberystwyth turnpike in Wales.
6. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 8** tell us about the possible future use of rail transport in the period after 1830, when compared with **SOURCES 6** and **7**?
7. **HS3** Explain why it is appropriate to label **SOURCE 9** 'the march of progress'.
8. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 10** tell us about the two main advantages of clipper ships as a form of transport for goods to and from Britain?
9. **HS2** Draw up a timeline that shows the developments in road, canal, rail and shipping transport in Britain between 1700 and 1860. For each point on the timeline, explain why you think it was a major step forward.
10. **HS5** Were improvements in transport during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries an immediate or underlying cause of the Industrial Revolution? Justify your conclusion.
11. **HS5** Canals and railways were initially privately owned and designed to make a profit for their owners. Explain why a factory owner might be prepared to pay these additional transport costs.
12. **HS6** While initially designed to carry goods, railways soon began carrying passengers, and were able to do so at a relatively cheap fare. What impact might this have had on ordinary people and their families?

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2.12 Industrial innovation spreads to the world

2.12.1 Industrialisation in Europe

As the first country to experience industrialisation, Britain led the world in factory production and the mechanisation of transport and agriculture.

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

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

France

In France, the first railways were begun in 1832. While these were financed by French entrepreneurs and banks, virtually all railway construction was carried out under the supervision of British engineers. Imported British locomotives were used until the 1850s, when French industry began to produce its own. Industrialisation progressed slowly during the nineteenth century in France, where agriculture remained the dominant economic activity.

Germany

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

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

2.12.2 The United States industrialises

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

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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

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2.12.3 Japan industrialises

From the early seventeenth century until 1868, Japan had largely turned its back on the outside world. However, in 1868 the newly installed Meiji Emperor decided that Japan should look to the west to modernise, and so began a series of reforms. He built up the navy and sent Japanese ships all around the world to trade. A modern communications system was set up and railways were constructed to connect all of the major cities and towns. An education system was set up based on modern western knowledge and practices, and Japanese students travelled the world to learn of the latest technological developments. Japan learned from Britain about the significance of a successful textile industry, and quickly overturned the traditional home-based industry into modern factory production. By the beginning of the twentieth century, Japanese textiles were competing successfully on world markets. The Japanese also learned of the importance of importing raw materials and exporting finished products, and they established a successful iron and steel industry based largely on imported iron ore and coal.

SOURCE 3 Japanese industrial growth 1875–1913. Industrialisation was a key part of Japanese modernisation in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

Year	Coal production (metric tonnes)	Railway distances (kilometres)	Rolled steel production (metric tonnes)
1875	600 000	30	
1885	120 000	750	
1895	5 000 000	3500	
1901	10 000 000	5800	5000
1905	13 000 000	7850	65 000
1911	19 000 000	10 500	184 000
1913	21 300 000	11 850	219 500

Source: Adapted from http://www.sjsu.edu/faculty/watkins/meiji.htm and *The Cambridge History of Japan*, Volume 6 at p. 430

2.12 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.12 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** In what ways was Britain the dominant industrial power in the world in 1850?
2. **HS5** How did the end of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815 contribute to the spread of industrialisation into Europe?
3. **HS1** Describe the key features of the spread of the Industrial Revolution into France.
4. **HS1** In what way was Germany able to overtake Britain in the industrialisation process by the beginning of the twentieth century?
5. **HS1** Give two examples of innovations contributing to industrialisation that were pioneered in the US.
6. **HS1** How were American inventors able to contribute to the eventual development of worldwide communications networks?
7. **HS1** Outline two aspects of industrialisation that the Japanese were able to learn from the established industrial powers.
8. **HS1** Why did Japan concentrate so heavily on education in its modernisation program?

2.12 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Identify another form of technology that **SOURCE 2** tells us was in common usage by the end of the nineteenth century.
2. **HS3** Calculate the percentage growth between 1875 and 1913 of:
   (a) Japanese coal production
   (b) Japanese railway distances.
3. **HS3** Japanese steel production only commenced in 1901. Construct a line graph demonstrating the growth in production between 1901 and 1913.
4. **HS6** Based on the experiences of Europe, the US and Japan, identify three factors that you believe are necessary for a pre-industrial society to make the transition to an industrial society in a relatively short period of time.
5. **HS5** Britain, France, Germany and the US were all able to industrialise using their own resources of coal and iron ore. How was Japan able to industrialise without having these natural resources?

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2.13 SkillBuilder: Identifying continuity and change

online only

Identifying and evaluating continuity and change in the Industrial Revolution

The period of the Industrial Revolution brought more rapid change than had ever occurred previously anywhere in the world. It is important to be able to identify turning points that caused change, and to be able to describe the rate and extent of the change by examining the significance of events, ideas, people and groups.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

2.14 Thinking Big research project: Promoting industrialisation

online only

SCENARIO

As a member of the Victorian colonial parliament of the 1870s, you are aware of the wealth that industrialisation could bring to the colony. You will research and prepare a speech to be delivered in parliament, promoting greater industrialisation in the colony and convincing others of its value.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Promoting industrialisation (pro-0181)

2.15 Review

online only

2.15.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

2.15.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31697)
Crossword (doc-31698)

Interactivity The Industrial Revolution: Technology and progress crossword (int-7636)

KEY TERMS

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

2.13 SkillBuilder: Identifying continuity and change

2.13.1 Tell me

The importance of identifying continuity and change

We study history to help us understand the world around us and the society we live in. Our society never stands still, and change is all around us. Nevertheless, many elements of society have remained constant for long periods of time. By recognising those elements, and comparing them with those things undergoing rapid change, we can begin to understand the significance of those changes. For example, as we have seen in this topic, farming practices in Britain at the start of the eighteenth century had changed very little in over 600 years. This is an example of long-term continuity. During the eighteenth century, farming practices were revolutionised so that in less than 100 years there had been a complete change. It is the speed of that change that makes it so significant. The period of the Industrial Revolution brought more rapid change than had ever occurred previously anywhere in the world. It is important to be able to identify turning points that caused the change and to be able to describe the speed, rate and extent of the change, by examining the significance of events, ideas, people and groups.

2.13.2 Show me

How to identify continuity and change

We learn to identify periods of continuity and periods of change by examining a variety of historical sources. Contemporary writers and artists often record rapid change happening around them. Statistics from the period in question can often inform us of dramatic or significant change. Look back at the statistical tables in subtopics 2.6 and 2.9. In each case the figures demonstrate periods of significant change through the Industrial Revolution. They contrast with statistics from previous centuries that indicate very little change over long periods of time.

Examining an example: the growth of the railways

One dramatic change that occurred during the period of the Industrial Revolution was the development of the railways. In 1825 and 1830, the first railway lines were experiments in attempting to use steam power to transport goods and people. Within 50 years, railway lines crisscrossed all of Britain and rail travel had become a major form of transport.

Consider the following question:

'To what extent did the development of the railways bring significant change to the way of life of people in Britain?'

We can begin to answer this question by examining the following historical sources.

SOURCE 1 Transport capability

Method of transport	Tonnage carried	Distance travelled in a day
Horse-drawn cart	2 tonnes	30 kilometres
Railways	40 tonnes	300 kilometres

SOURCE 2 Journey times from London (in hours)

Destination	By horse-drawn carriage (1836)	By train (1850)
Edinburgh	43	12
Liverpool	24	7
Exeter	18	5
Birmingham	11	3
Brighton	6	1.5

SOURCE 3 Total British railway length (in kilometres)

Year	Total length
1840	3000
1845	4000
1850	10 000
1860	14 000
1880	25 000
1900	30 000

SOURCE 4 Number of passengers carried

Year	Total population	Total number of passengers carried
1845	18 million	30 million
1900	32 million	1100 million

SOURCE 5 A description of a major railway junction on the outskirts of London in 1876 from A. Trollope, *The Prime Minister*, 1876

It is quite unnecessary to describe the Tenway Junction, as everybody knows it. From this spot, some six or seven miles distant from London, lines diverge east, west, and north, north-east, and north-west, round the metropolis in every direction, and with direct communication with every other line in and out of London. It is a marvellous place, quite unintelligible to the uninitiated, and yet daily used by thousands who only know that when they get there, they are to do what some-one tells them. The space occupied by the convergent rails seems to be sufficient for a large farm. And these rails always run one into another with sloping points, and cross passages, and mysterious meandering sidings, till it seems to the thoughtful stranger to be impossible that the best trained engine should know its own line.

What conclusions can we draw from these sources in response to the above question? Look first at **SOURCE 1**.

What change occurred? These figures show us that one train hauling a number of goods wagons could carry 20 times the weight of goods as a horse-drawn cart, and could cover 10 times the distance in a day.

What was the impact of the change? This ultimately meant that both raw materials for factory production, as well as finished goods, could be transported more cheaply, because of the greater volumes and speed. It also meant that fresh food could be transported to the growing cities and still be fresh when it arrived, as the journey would not take much more than a day.

Conclusion: Access to cheaper goods and a greater variety of food would have brought significant change to the way of life of people in Britain.

SOURCE 2 allows us to draw similar conclusions about the level of changes to people's way of life.

What change occurred? Before the nineteenth century, most people did not travel far from their hometown or village. The railway allowed people to travel more easily and quickly.

What was the impact of the change? With the ability to travel to other towns and cities in around a quarter to a third of the time, people could become more mobile and travel greater distances, to find work or for other purposes.

SOURCES 3 and **4** help us draw similar conclusions.

What change occurred? By the middle of the nineteenth century, most of Britain was accessible by rail with all major cities connected to each other. This rail network continued to expand, so that by the end of the century there was hardly anywhere in Britain that was more than a few kilometres from a railway line or a station.

What was the impact of the change? In 1845 the railways carried 30 million passengers, with a total population of 18 million – the equivalent of 1.6 rail journeys per head of population for the year. By 1900 this had grown to the equivalent of 34 rail journeys per head of population.

Conclusion: This level of usage is a clear indication of a major change in the way of life of the British people in little over half a century.

Anthony Trollope's description in **SOURCE 5** carries some additional implications.

What change occurred? Trollope was born in 1815, so he was 60 years old when he wrote these words. He had grown up in the era before the railways, and had lived through the period of its greatest expansion.

What was the impact of the change? His description of the junction as a 'marvellous place' and 'quite unintelligible to the uninitiated' is an indication of his amazement at the rail system and the way it had grown so rapidly. Most people of his age would have had similar feelings about this new technology.

Conclusion: This extract also tells us how sophisticated the system had become by 1876, with large rail junctions controlling dozens of trains going in all directions across the country.

Each of these sources tells us of a revolutionary rail transport system that not only captured the imagination of people in Britain (and ultimately around the world), but brought major changes to people's way of life. So efficient and effective was rail transport that it is still a highly favoured means of transport today. This change that occurred so rapidly in the nineteenth century has continued to influence our lives even in the twenty-first century.

2.13.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

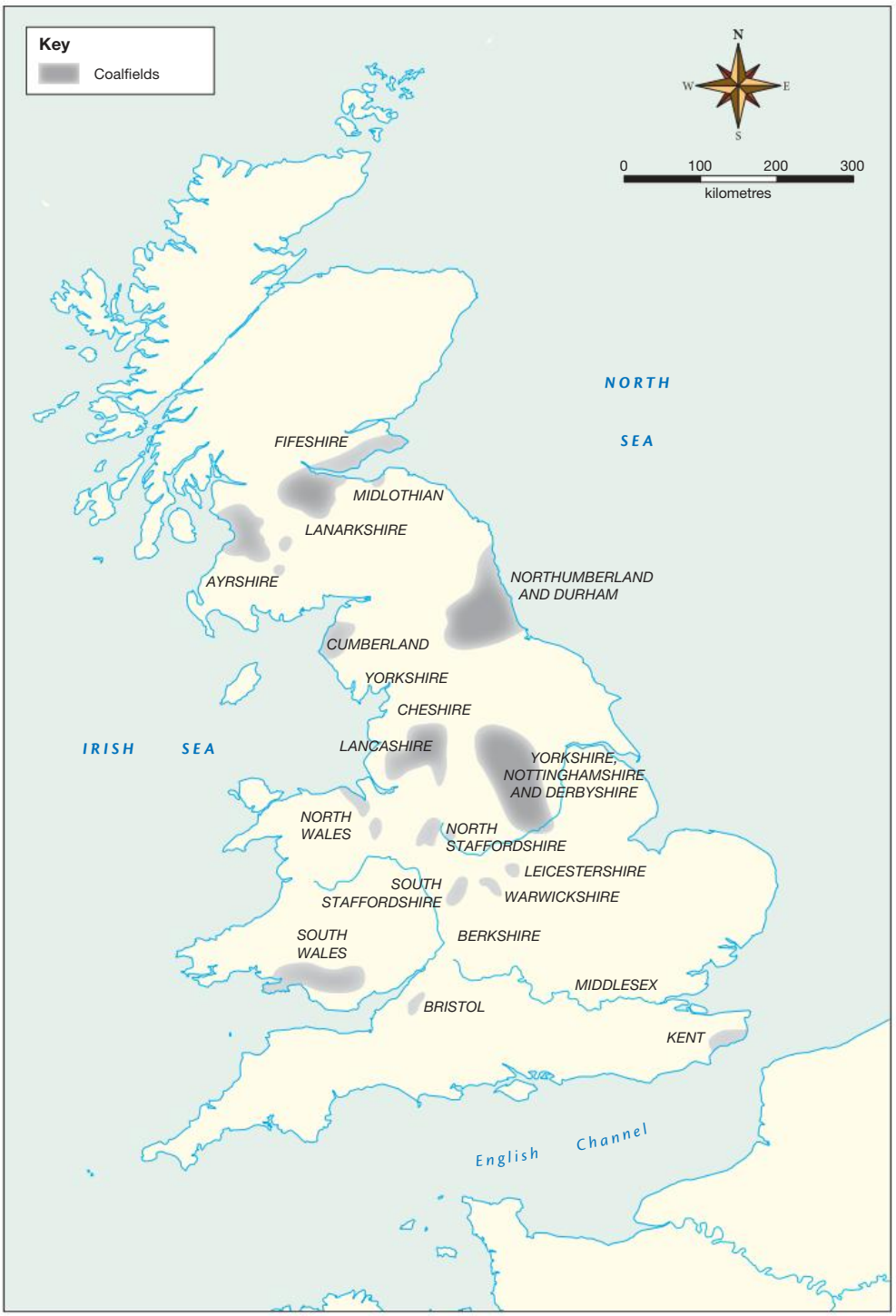
2.13 ACTIVITIES

1. Using the example above as a model, and **SOURCES 6**, **7** and **8**, explain the relationship between the following significant changes that occurred in Britain during the nineteenth century:
   - improvements in coalmining
   - the use of steam power
   - the growth of the textile industry
   - rapid increases in the population of particular cities.

   Consider the following questions in your answer:
   (a) What change occurred?
   (b) What was the impact of the change?
   (c) What conclusions can you draw about the individual change?
   (d) What conclusion can you draw about all the changes looked at together?
2. Based on what you have learned in this SkillBuilder, apply your skill in identifying continuity and change to answer the following questions.
   (a) Outline two changes caused by improvements in coalmining.
   (b) How did the development of steam power affect the location of textile factories?
   (c) What general conclusions about the changes in population patterns can you draw from the sources in this SkillBuilder?
3. Reflect on your development of this skill by answering the following questions.
   (a) Do you understand the concepts of continuity and change? Define these terms in your own words.
   (b) How would you rate your ability to explain continuity and change using sources? Score yourself out of 5, with 1 being weak and 5 being strong.
   (c) How can you improve your ability to use sources to explain continuity and change?

[Personal and Social Capability]

SOURCE 6 A map of Britain showing the location of major coalfields



Source: Spatial Vision

SOURCE 7 Number of cotton mills in Great Britain, 1787 and 1835

	1787	1835		
County		Operating	Empty	People employed
Berkshire	2	—	—	—
Cheshire	8	109	7	31 512
Cumberland	—	13	—	1658
Derbyshire	22	93	3	11 585
Durham	—	1	—	33
Lancashire	41	683	32	122 415
Leicestershire	—	6	—	592
Middlesex	—	7	—	350
Nottinghamshire	17	20	—	1723
Staffordshire	—	13	—	2048
Westmorland	5	—	—	—
Yorkshire	11	126	—	11 211

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

SOURCE 8 Population growth in major English cities 1750–1861

Town/city	1750 (estimated)	1801	1861
London	675 000	959 000	2 804 000
Bristol	45 000	64 000	154 100
Birmingham	24 000	74 000	296 000
Liverpool	22 000	80 000	443 900
Manchester	18 000	90 000	338 300
Leeds	16 000	53 000	207 200
Sheffield	12 000	31 000	185 200

Source: British census figures

2.14 Thinking Big research project: Promoting industrialisation

Scenario

We tend to think of Australia as primarily a source of raw materials, exported to other countries. It is true that Britain relied on Australian wool for its textile industries, and Australia was one of the largest exporters of gold following the gold rushes of the 1850s. In fact, the Australian colonies were engaged in small-scale manufacturing almost from the time of early European settlement. After the gold rush period, many immigrants to Australia brought knowledge and skills relevant to industrialisation, creating an environment favourable to the further development of industrialisation in the Australian colonies.

Task

As a member of the Victorian colonial parliament of the 1870s, you are aware of the wealth that industrialisation could bring to the colony. You will research and prepare a speech to be delivered in parliament, promoting greater industrialisation in the colony and convincing others of its value. Your speech should include:

- examples of successful industrialisation that have already occurred in Victoria and other colonies
- possible future industrial opportunities, based on the raw materials available, particularly those that are currently being exported in their raw state.

Process

- Open the ProjectsPLUS application in the Resources for this topic. Click on the **Start new project** button tab to enter the project due date and set up your project group if you wish to. You can work independently or with a partner, which will allow you to swap ideas, but you will need to deliver your speech independently. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric and some helpful weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research.
- Conduct your research.
  - Research details of early industrialisation in Australia, such as manufacturing, processing of raw materials, the building of factories, and making use of different sources of power to run those factories. These will provide examples of existing successful industrialisation.
  - You should also find out what raw materials were being exported from Australia by the 1870s, where they were being exported to, and the industries that were making use of those raw materials. For example, the huge population growth in Victoria and across Australia between 1850 and 1880 caused by the gold rushes would have provided both a workforce and market for a local textile industry.
  - You could research relevant population figures to support your argument.
  - All the information you gather needs to be used to provide arguments in favour of increased industrialisation in Victoria.
- Remember to record details of your sources so you can create a bibliography to submit with your completed speech transcript. Add your research notes and source details to the relevant topic pages in the Research forum. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered, if you wish.
- Once you have completed your research, prepare your speech and bibliography.
- Present your speech to the class and submit your speech transcript and bibliography to your teacher for assessment.

Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Promoting industrialisation (pro-0181)

2.15 Review

2.15.1 Key knowledge summary

2.2 Examining the evidence

- The term 'Industrial Revolution' was coined to describe the rapid changes that had occurred in Britain from the late eighteenth century through the nineteenth century.
- New inventions that contributed to changes were usually patented, so we have details of these inventions and the years they were introduced.
- Contemporary writers and artists depicted the developments they saw around them during the changes brought by the Industrial Revolution.
- Census figures can provide us with details of population growth, as well as the locations of increased population.

2.3 Causes of the Industrial Revolution

- Technological developments were a major contributing factor to the growth of industrialisation in Britain during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.
- Changes in agriculture became an underlying cause of the Industrial Revolution, by contributing to population growth.
- Easy access to raw materials also contributed to the development of industrialisation in Britain.
- A wealthy middle class willing to invest in new production methods was another contributing factor.
- The development of transport systems assisted the movement of raw materials and finished products.
- The growth of empire provided a source of raw materials, as well as markets for the sale of finished products from British factories.

2.4 The agricultural revolution

- British agriculture had used the traditional open-field system, which had a number of disadvantages.
- Enclosure of farming land consolidated open fields into large farms, changing farming methods.
- New techniques in seed planting, ploughing and crop rotation improved the efficiency of farming and increased crop yields.
- Improved stock breeding methods also improved the quality of farm animals.
- The introduction of a business approach to farming provided farmers with the opportunity to sell surplus produce for a profit.

2.5 The growth of empire

- The British East India Company began trading with a number of Asian regions in the early seventeenth century and eventually brought most of India under British control.
- The 13 North American colonies and colonial possessions in the West Indies had become important parts of the British Empire by the middle of the eighteenth century.
- The Seven Years' War provided Britain with further opportunities to expand empire in both North America and India.
- The American Revolution eventually saw Britain lose the 13 colonies, but retain control of Canada.
- The empire became an important source of raw materials to fuel the Industrial Revolution in Britain.

2.6 Entrepreneurs, banks and the middle class

- The seventeenth century saw the rise of a powerful middle class in Britain, with strong commercial interests.
- The growth of the banking system provided middle-class merchants and factory owners with a source of finance to invest in new industrial processes.
- The British government strongly supported the growing commercial middle class, passing laws that favoured trade and commerce.
- The middle class developed strong entrepreneurial attitudes, which made them willing to embrace new methods of production.

2.7 The population explosion

- Prior to the eighteenth century, the British population had been kept fairly stable because of regular reappearances of the plague, as well as recurring famines.
- Improvements in medical science and the eradication of the plague saw a steady increase in the British population during the first half of the eighteenth century.
- Improvements in farming led to a more regular food supply, which contributed to a population explosion from the mid-eighteenth century onwards.
- The rapid rise in population provided a market for new cheap industrial goods, as well as a workforce for the new factories.

2.8 Power: from horses, wind and water to steam

- Horses had been a traditional source of power in medieval Europe, both for personal transport and the haulage of goods.
- Horse power was used for agricultural machinery and to haul barges along newly constructed canals.
- Water power had traditionally been used for milling of grain, and it became the first power source for newly built factories.
- Wind power was another traditional source of power in Britain.
- Steam power proved to be a great advance for both mining and manufacturing by providing a reliable means of driving machinery.

2.9 Making textiles: from home to factory

- Until the eighteenth century, textile manufacturing had been carried out in the homes of farm workers.
- During the eighteenth century, larger and more efficient spinning and weaving machines were developed and needed factories to house them.

2.10 Coal and iron

- Coalmining had traditionally taken place in bell pits, but these could not be made very deep because they would soon flood with water.
- The introduction of steam-driven pumps to pump out the surplus water allowed for larger, deeper coalmines, and a consequent increase in coal production.
- The use of coke in blast furnaces resulted in the improvement of quality of the iron produced.
- New techniques such as ‘puddling’ produced a stronger, more flexible form of iron, which led to an increased variety of uses.

2.11 Canals, roads, railways and shipping

- Large factories needed reliable transportation to bring raw materials, and to distribute the goods produced to the marketplace.
- The building of canals to supplement river and coastal transport provided quick and efficient movement of goods.
- The establishment of turnpike trusts in the latter part of the eighteenth century saw improvements to the maintenance of roads.
- The use of steam to drive locomotives revolutionised transport in Britain after 1830.

2.12 Industrial innovation spreads to the world

- With the end of the Napoleonic Wars, countries in Europe became more interested in adopting many of the industrial techniques pioneered in Britain.
- France and Germany began to industrialise during the 1820s, and began building their own railways during the 1830s.
- The United States had begun to industrialise soon after its break from Britain in the early 1780s, and American inventions were to revolutionise communications during the nineteenth century.
- Following the Meiji restoration, Japan looked to the west and soon adopted industrialisation as a means of modernising its economy.

A timeline of technology in the Industrial Revolution

CE

1680

1694
The Bank of England is established.

1700

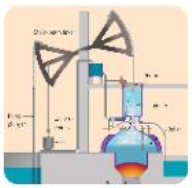
1700 onwards
Improvements in agricultural technology contribute to the agricultural revolution.

1707
The first turnpike trusts are established.

1709
Abraham Darby develops a blast furnace capable of producing high-quality iron.

1712
Thomas Newcomen develops the 'atmospheric engine', the first practical steam engine.

1720



1740

1757
The Sankey Canal is opened.

1730s–1780s
The invention of new and larger spinning and weaving machines shifts textile industry into factories.

1760

1761
The Bridgewater Canal is opened.

1763
Victory in the Seven Years' War gives Britain increased trade access to colonies in India and North America.

1769
James Watt invents a steam engine capable of providing continuous power.

1780

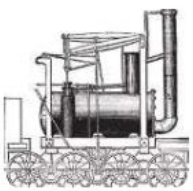
1785
The Boulton and Watt steam engine is first used in a textiles factory.

1783
Henry Cort's 'puddling' process further improves the quality of iron products.

1800

1801
The first official population census is held in Britain.

1813
The first working steam locomotive, known as *Puffing Billy*, is built.



1820

1825
The first English public steam railway (from Stockton to Darlington) is opened.

1830
Stephenson's *Rocket* hauls the first train on the Manchester to Liverpool railway line.

1830s
Railway building begins in France and Germany.

1840

1842
Samuel Morse develops the single wire telegraph.

1851
The Great Exhibition is held in London.

1860

1876
Alexander Graham Bell patents the first telephone.

1880

CE

2.15.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

2.15 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

Money, efficiency, innovation. What were the causes and effects of the Industrial Revolution?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question, outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31697)
Crossword (doc-31698)

Interactivity The Industrial Revolution: Technology and progress crossword (int-7636)

KEY TERMS

animal husbandry breeding and caring for livestock, usually in a farm environment
bell pit a traditional form of coalmining in which a shaft is dug down to a seam of coal and then excavated outwards, with the coal raised to the surface using a winch and buckets
Black Death a deadly disease that ravaged Europe, killing between a quarter and a half of the population in the second half of the fourteenth century. It continued to occur periodically over the next 300 years.
blast furnace a type of furnace into which air is forced to raise the temperature sufficiently to carry out the smelting of iron ore
carding the process of untangling and and straightening raw wool or cotton fibres
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coke a type of fuel produced by using heat to remove impurities such as coal gas and tar from coal
colony an area of land settled by people from another country. This can involve military conquest if the original inhabitants resist that settlement.
cottage industry small-scale manufacturing in which raw materials are processed in workers' homes
empire a number of different countries or colonies controlled by the government of one country
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entrepreneurship the act of being an entrepreneur
fallow land left unplanted
famine a severe shortage of food, leading to starvation, usually due to crop failures over a sustained period of time
goldsmith a craftsman who works with gold and other precious metals
industrialisation the process by which a country transforms itself from mainly agricultural production to the manufacturing of goods in factories and similar premises
infant mortality rate a means of measuring the percentage of babies who fail to survive their first birthday
maritime power having strong naval forces
Napoleonic Wars a series of wars between the French Empire, led by Napoleon Bonaparte, and a number of other European nations between 1803 and 1815
patent a legally enforceable right to make or sell an invention, usually granted by government, to protect an inventor's idea from being copied
pig iron the initial product resulting from the smelting of iron ore in a blast furnace

rickets a softening of the bones, leading to deformity of the limbs, caused by a deficiency of calcium and vitamin D
rural population people living in the countryside, rather than in towns or cities
scurvy a disease caused by poor diet, especially a deficiency of vitamin C
spinning the twisting of carded fibres into lengths of continuous thread or yarn
standard of living how well off a country or community is, often measured by the level of wealth per head of population
subsistence farming farming that provides only enough to satisfy the basic needs of the farmer or community
trading post a store or settlement established by a foreign trader or trading company to obtain local products in exchange for supplies, clothing, other goods or cash
trustee an individual or group appointed to manage property on behalf of another person or organisation
turnpike trusts organisations established by parliament with the power to collect tolls on particular roads, and use the money to pay for maintenance of those roads
turnpike a type of toll road
urban population people living in cities or large towns
warp the fixed vertical threads used in the weaving process
weft the horizontal movable thread that is woven through the warp to create cloth

3 The Industrial Revolution: The impact on people

3.1 Overview

The Industrial Revolution was a period of rapid technological progress and social transformation; did the changes that occurred benefit everyone?

3.1.1 Links with our times

The population in Britain increased dramatically during the Industrial Revolution. Changes in agricultural practices and job opportunities in the newly established factories brought large numbers of people into rapidly growing towns and cities. This influx of people was not matched by the provision of the types of services that we take for granted today, such as running water, electricity and sewerage. Housing was often hastily and shoddily built, and urban slums quickly developed.

While today a range of laws and regulations protect workers' rights with regard to fair wages and safe working conditions, in the early years of the Industrial Revolution no such legal safeguards existed. Working conditions were often dangerous and unhealthy, and employers could get away with paying very low wages. Similarly, the safeguards that exist today to ensure access to education and to prevent the exploitation of young people did not exist two hundred years ago, and children as young as four could be employed in mines and factories.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson The Industrial Revolution: The impact on people (eles-2393)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

3.1 Overview
3.2 Examining the evidence
3.3 The impact of enclosure
3.4 Conditions in factories and mines
3.5 Child labour
3.6 Urban conditions and people's health
3.7 Poor laws and workhouses
3.8 Social unrest and trade unions
3.9 The growth in ideas
3.10 Reformers and progress
3.11 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing different perspectives
3.12 **Thinking Big research project:** City life visual diary
3.13 **Review**

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To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of changes during the Industrial Revolution

CE

1790

1795
Food riots in parts of England protest high bread prices.

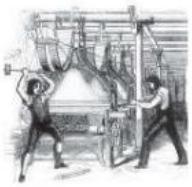
1800

1799–1800
Parliament passes the Combination Acts, making trade unions illegal.

1810

1811–13
Luddites engage in damaging textile machines.

1819
Parliament passes a Factory Act limiting hours of factory work by children. Large numbers of protesters are killed or injured in the Peterloo Massacre.



1820

1824
The Combination Acts are repealed, allowing workers to form trade unions.

1830

1830
The 'Swing Riots' result in damage to farm machinery in parts of rural England.

1833
Parliament passes a Factory Act banning children nine years and younger from working in factories.

1834
The Poor Law Amendment Act forces the poor to live in workhouses. The six 'Tolpuddle Martyrs' are transported to Van Diemen's Land for swearing an oath of loyalty to their trade union.

1840

1842
The Mines Act bans the employment in coalmines of girls and women, and boys under the age of 10.

1848
The Public Health Act sets up Boards of Health to deal with sanitation problems in cities and towns.

1850

1860

1871
The Trade Union Act gives unions official legal status.

1870

1874
Parliament passes a Factory Act, setting maximum allowable working hours per week for all workers.

1875
The Public Health Act extends the powers of Health Boards to control water supply and sewerage systems.

1880

CE

3.2 Examining the evidence

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

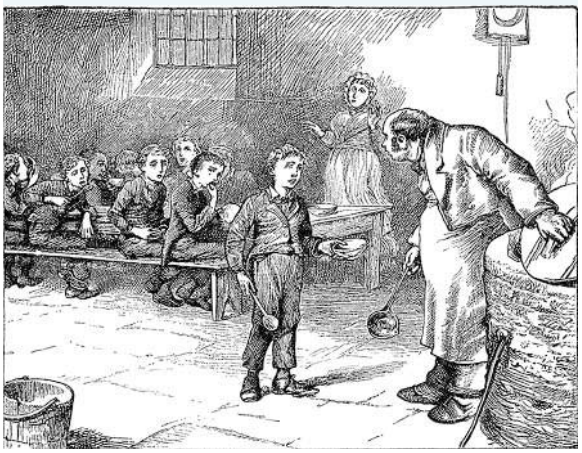
In this topic we will look at the effects of the Industrial Revolution on many of the ordinary people in Britain. These were the people who worked in factories and mines and lived in the towns that sprang up around these workplaces. Many of them had lost access to their livelihood because of the enclosure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

Contemporary writers and commentators

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

SOURCE 1 Painting from the cover of a modern edition of Charles Dickens' novel *Hard Times*.

SOURCE 2 Illustration from an early edition of *Oliver Twist*. Dickens used his novels to publicise social issues of the time.



Government statistics

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

Records of government inquiries

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

SOURCE 3 Testimony of Thomas Wilson, Esq., of the Banks, Silkstone, owner of three collieries, before the 1842 Mines Commission

I object on general principles to government interference in the conduct of any trade, and I am satisfied that in mines it would be productive of the greatest injury and injustice. The art of mining is not so perfectly understood as to admit of the way in which a colliery shall be conducted being dictated by any person, however experienced, with such certainty as would warrant an interference with the management of private business. I should also most decidedly object to placing collieries under the present provisions of the Factory Act with respect to the education of children employed therein.

Paintings and drawings of contemporary artists

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

SOURCE 4 *Coalbrookdale by Night*, painted around 1800 by Philip James de Loutherbourg

3.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why can the works of writers provide us with source material in relation to changes taking place in Britain during the Industrial Revolution?
2. **HS1** Give two examples of the way in which government statistics can provide information about changes in society.

3. **HS1** What is a weakness in using statistics as a historical source?
4. **HS1** Explain why the records of a government inquiry can be a useful historical source.
5. **HS1** The use of photography became common in the second half of the nineteenth century. Why might photographs be of more use to historians than paintings?

3.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Charles Dickens' novel *Hard Times* is set in the fictional industrial town of Coketown. Describe the impression that the **SOURCE 1** painting, which was used on the novel's cover, gives of life in Coketown.
2. **HS3** Charles Dickens' novel *Oliver Twist* is the story of a poor orphan in nineteenth-century England. The illustration in **SOURCE 2** depicts a well-known scene from the novel, in which, on his first day at the orphanage, Oliver outrages the master by daring to ask for more food. Explain what the illustration tells us about the treatment of orphans at this time.
3. **HS3** Refer to **SOURCE 3** to answer the following questions.
   (a) What is the opinion of Thomas Wilson on the role of the commission and of government regulation of coalmining?
   (b) What do we know about Thomas Wilson that may have influenced his opinion?
   (c) Do you agree or disagree with his opinion? Give reasons for your answer.
4. **HS3** Coalbrookdale was a coalmining and iron-smelting town in the English Midlands.
   (a) From an examination of **SOURCE 4**, describe what you think it would have been like to live in this town.
   (b) Do you think the artist had a favourable or unfavourable opinion of the town? Explain your answer.
5. **HS3** Identify two ways in which you might be able to detect whether or not a writer, painter or witness at a government inquiry is biased or impartial in their presentation of information.
6. **HS3** What strategy could you use to ensure that you get the most accurate information about the past?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.3 The impact of enclosure

3.3.1 Changes in population

Agricultural change that accelerated during the eighteenth century led to an improvement in the quality and quantity of food produced and enabled Britain to support a larger population (see subtopic 2.4). Most of this population growth occurred in the growing towns and cities. Population statistics tell us that from the second half of the eighteenth century, rural population growth slowed in comparison with urban population growth (see **SOURCE 1**).

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

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

3.3.2 The impact on people in the countryside

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

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

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

SOURCE 2 While wealthy farmers benefited from enclosure of their farms, poor farm labourers and their families often suffered.

The Speenhamland system

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

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

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

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

SOURCE 3 From F. Moore, *Considerations on the Exorbitant Price of Proprietors*, 1773

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

SOURCE 4 From D. Davies, *The Case of the Labourers in Husbandry*, 1795

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

3.3.3 Protests and riots

Conditions in many rural areas became so bad for poor farm labourers that some were driven to extreme action to survive and to try and protect their traditional way of life.

The food riots of 1795

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

SOURCE 5 From the *Ipswich Journal*, August 1795

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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

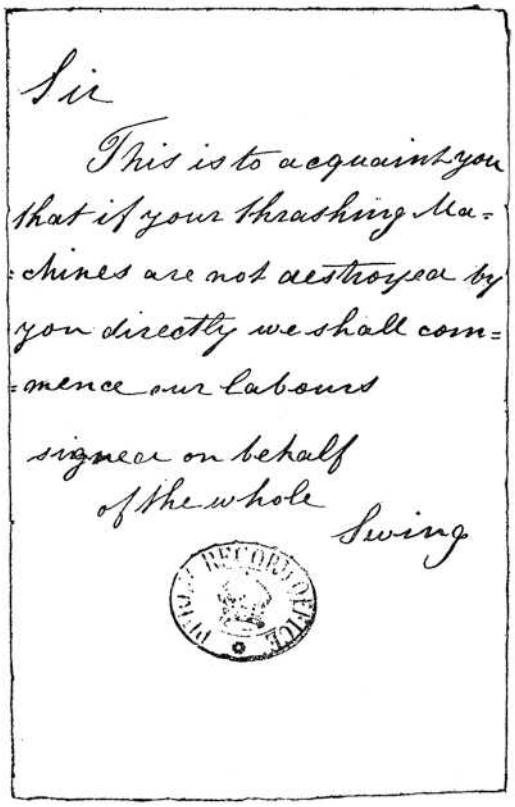
Swing Riots of 1830

In the 1820s the increasing use of labour-saving technology such as the threshing machine (see subtopic 2.8) forced large numbers of labourers and their families into poverty. This placed pressure on the systems in place to care for the poor (see subtopic 3.7). In 1830 riots broke out in the south and east of England. The rioters were generally unemployed farm workers, who would burn down haystacks (see **SOURCE 6**) and damage the farm machinery that they blamed for their hardship. The unrest became known as the Swing Riots because wealthy farmers were sent threatening letters signed by a 'Captain Swing'. It was a name made up by rioters in the county of Kent, but its use soon spread to other parts of England.

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

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

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



Sir

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

signed on behalf of the whole

Swing

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

Ten Pounds REWARD.

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

Thrashing Machine

THEREIN WAS

Feloniously Broken and Destroyed;

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

Ripple, 5th August, 1831.

DEVEREUX, PRINTER AND BOOKBINDER

3.3.4 A surviving open-field village

Despite the widespread enclosure of farming land in the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, some instances of open-field farming survived. One example is the village of Laxton in Nottinghamshire, in the English Midlands. While farming is carried out using some modern methods — the tractor has long ago replaced the horse-drawn plough — many features of the open-field system remain. The three open fields are divided into strips as they were in medieval times, and nearly everyone in the village has rights to some of the land; everyone has grazing rights on common land. The village is said to be prosperous and the villagers are very proud of their heritage. The village and its farming practices have become an educational resource for school and university students. The University of Nottingham even has a website dedicated to the village and its farming practices.

SOURCE 9 The open-field land around the farms forming the English village of Laxton was never fully enclosed and still operates the traditional three-field rotation system managed by a Court Leet and Jury.

3.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS5** Outline one major cause of the increase in population in Britain during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.
2. **HS1** Which group in society appears to have benefited most from enclosure? In what ways did this group benefit?
3. **HS1** What benefits did farm labourers lose as farms were enclosed?
4. **HS1** Give two reasons why a farm labourer's wages might vary greatly from week to week or season to season.
5. **HS1** What was the aim of the Speenhamland system?
6. **HS1** Why did the Speenhamland system ultimately fail?
7. **HS1** Describe two factors that led to the high price of bread in 1795.
8. **HS1** Why had large numbers of farm workers been reduced to poverty by the 1820s?
9. **HS1** How did these workers respond to their hardship?
10. **HS1** What was the origin of the name 'Swing Riots'?
11. **HS1** What features of the traditional open-field system have been retained by the village of Laxton in England?
12. **HS1** Other than the use of tractors, what other modern methods could be employed by the farmers of Laxton that wouldn't disrupt their open-field system?

3.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1** and answer the following questions, providing evidence from the statistics.
   (a) Was the rural population rising or falling in the period from 1751 to 1861?
   (b) During which period did the urban population experience the greatest increase in actual numbers?
   (c) Between 1751 and 1801 the urban and rural populations grew by a similar number — a little over 1.5 million each. Why does the table show such a huge difference in the *percentage* increase between urban and rural population growth during this period?
   (d) In approximately which year did the population split equally between urban and rural?
   (e) If the trends shown in the table continued beyond 1861, what would you expect the statistics for 1881 to show?
2. **HS3** In what ways do **SOURCES 2** and **3** demonstrate that different groups of people were affected differently by the enclosure movement?
3. **HS3** Explain what the writer in **SOURCE 4** means when he writes that farm labourers were reduced from a state of 'partial independence to the precarious condition of mere hirelings'.
4. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 5** tell us about the nature of the food riots of 1795?
5. **HS3** While most of the Swing rioters' anger was directed at threshing machines (see **SOURCES 7** and **8**), why do you think they would have engaged in burning haystacks as well?
6. **HS3** What does the writer in **SOURCE 7** mean when he says 'we shall commence our labours'?
7. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 9**.
   (a) Describe two features that you can see as evidence of the open-field system.
   (b) Explain why the villagers would have been proud of their system of farming.
8. **HS3** From the information provided in this subtopic, do you believe the food riots of 1795 were justified? Identify one piece of information from the sources that would convince you to either support or oppose the activities of the protesters.
9. **HS4** Given the negative effects of enclosure on many of the people, do you believe it would have been better to retain the open-field system as the village of Laxton did? Give reasons for your answer. (You may need to refer back to material in topic 2 to examine both sides of this issue.)

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

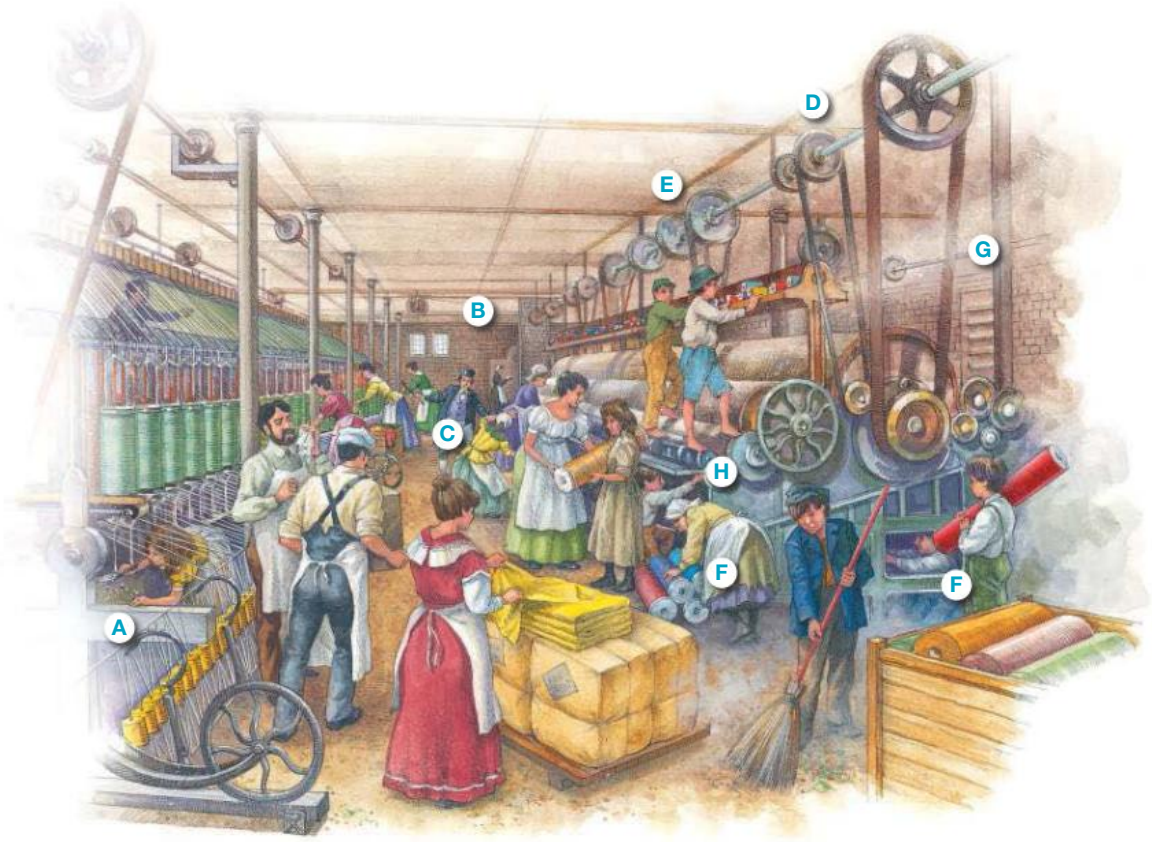
3.4 Conditions in factories and mines

3.4.1 Inside a textile factory

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.4.2 Working in the coalmines

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

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

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

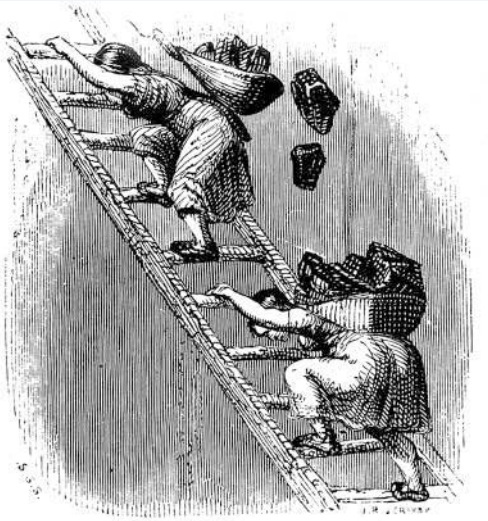
Who worked in the mines?

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

SOURCE 5 Coalmines were dark, dangerous places, where miners were exposed to many risks.

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

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



3.4.3 The Mines Commission, 1840–42

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

3.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why were early nineteenth-century textile factories unpleasant places to work?
2. **HS1** Why were children in these factories in particular danger?
3. **HS1** Why did mining become more dangerous as mines became deeper?
4. **HS1** In what ways might all members of a family be engaged in coalmining?
5. **HS1** In addition to mine workers, who else might have been called to give evidence before the Mines Commission of 1840–42?
6. **HS1** What were the consequences of the commission's findings?

3.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1** and answer the following.
   (a) Identify two examples of the unhealthy nature of the atmosphere in the factory.
   (b) Identify two examples of the work carried out by children in the factory.
   (c) What was the method used to drive the machines?
   (d) How do we know that factory owners were not interested in the safety of their workers?
2. **HS3** Explain why factory owners would not want their employees to have access to a clock or watch, as indicated in **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3**. How were factory workers punished for stopping their machines, or not following factory rules?
4. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 4** tell us about working conditions in a typical textiles factory in 1819?
5. **HS3** From the images in **SOURCES 5**, **6** and **7**, identify and explain three possible sources of injury to mine workers.
6. **HS3** Did pregnant women receive any special treatment while working in the mines? Support your answer with evidence from **SOURCES 8** and **9**.

7. **HS3** In **SOURCE 8**, Isabel Watson describes her husband as being 'touched in the breath'. Explain what you think she means by this statement.
8. **HS3** From information in **SOURCE 10**, calculate the total distance that Agnes Kerr travelled each day while working in the mines, and the total weight of the coal she 'hurried' each day.
9. **HS3** Examine the individual eyewitness accounts in **SOURCES 2, 3, 4, 8, 9** and **10**.
   (a) For each source, explain why you find the testimony believable or not believable.
   (b) Most of these sources were evidence given before parliamentary committees or commissions. Why do you think the British Parliament carried out so many inquiries into working conditions at this time?

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3.5 Child labour

3.5.1 Children in the textile factories

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

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

Piecers and scavengers

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

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

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

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

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

3.5.2 Children in the mines

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

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

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

SOURCE 4 A young trapper opening the door for a truck of coal pushed by children

3.5.3 The ‘climbing boys’

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

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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

DISCUSS

Child labour is still a reality in many parts of the world today. In small groups discuss what might be done to solve this issue. From your discussion, come up with three possible solutions. **[Ethical Capability]**

3.5 ACTIVITY

We look back on the child labour of the early years of the Industrial Revolution as something quite foreign to our society today, but at that time the children of peasants and the working classes worked beside their parents from a young age. Families often relied on every member working in order to survive.

Working with a partner, complete the following tasks.

(a) Outline what you believe the attitudes of each of the following individuals might have been towards child labour in the 1830s:

i a factory or mine owner
ii working-class parents of young children
iii working-class children
iv Members of Parliament in favour of reform to factory and mine working conditions.

(b) Why do you think early Factory Acts only reduced rather than abolished child labour? Explain your view. **[Ethical Capability]**

3.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why was the employment of children so attractive to the owners of textile factories?
2. **HS1** Describe the roles of 'piecers' and 'scavengers' in a textile factory.
3. **HS1** Explain the roles of 'hurriers' and 'trappers' in coalmines.
4. **HS1** What were the risks faced by young girls employed as hurriers in coalmines?
5. **HS1** Describe the job carried out by climbing boys, and the hazards that they faced.

3.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** From **SOURCE 1** identify the main types of injuries that could be suffered by piecers in a textile factory.
2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**, explain why the job of scavenger in a textile factory was so dangerous.
3. **HS3** The artists who drew **SOURCES 3** and **4** were attempting to present the negative side of child labour in coal mines. Explain how each artist has achieved this in their drawings.
4. **HS3** What impression was the artist trying to create in **SOURCE 5**? Explain how this has been achieved.
5. **HS3** The drawings in **SOURCES 3** and **4** were originally published in the report of the Parliamentary Mines Commission in 1842. Why would the Commission have included drawings of this type in its official report?
6. **HS4** In rural communities children had helped with many different tasks, so the employment of children was not new. Explain why child labour became more of a problem during the Industrial Revolution.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.6 Urban conditions and people's health

3.6.1 Urbanisation and overcrowding

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

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

SOURCE 1 From Alexis de Tocqueville, a French aristocrat writing about Manchester in 1835

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

SOURCE 2 From a letter to a parliamentary inquiry in 1840, written by Dr Roberton, a Manchester surgeon

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

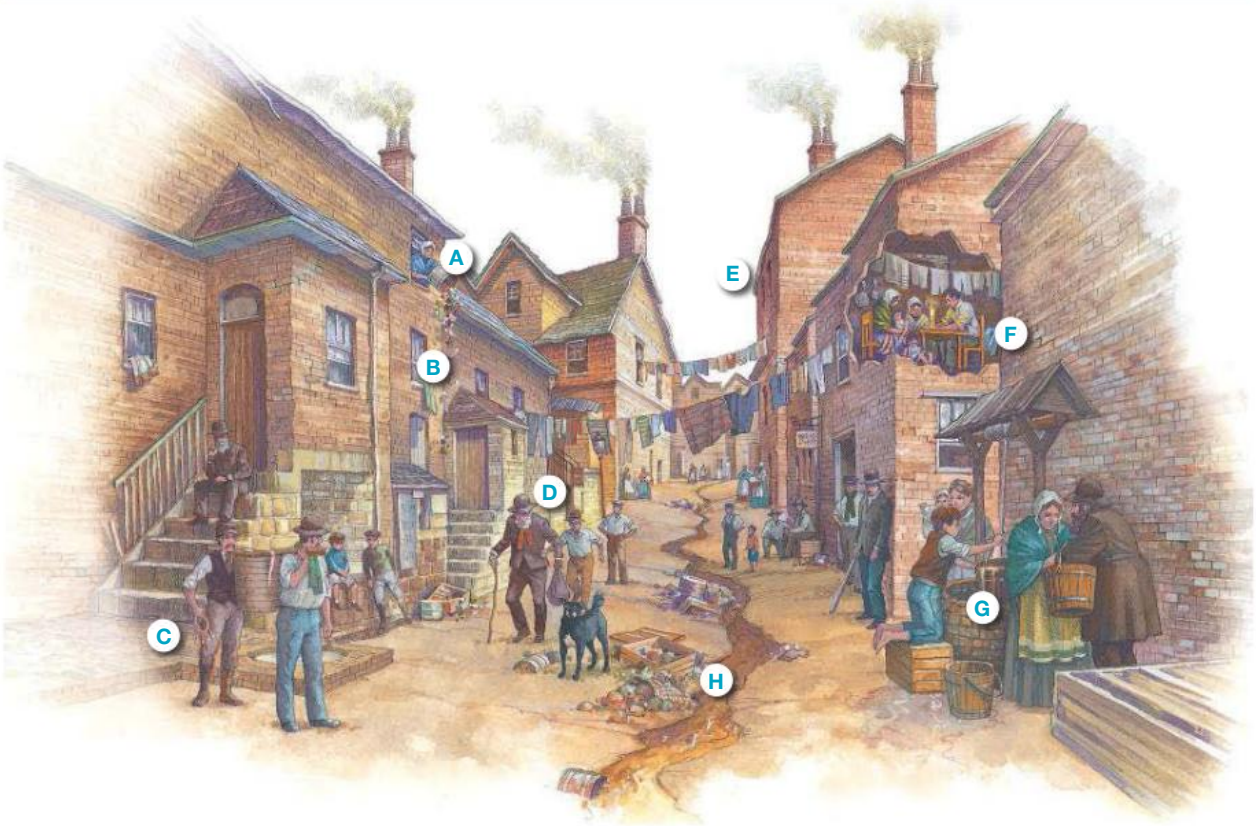
SOURCE 3 From Dr William Duncan, *Report on the Sanitary Condition of Liverpool*, 1839

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

3.6.2 Housing and sanitation

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

SOURCE 4 Most factory workers lived in poor-quality, overcrowded housing without sanitation.



- **A** Rubbish was thrown into the street and left to rot, as there was no organised rubbish collection.
- **B** Houses had small windows or no windows at all.
- **C** Sewage was collected in cesspits, which were emptied by 'nightmen', although not always as regularly or often as necessary.
- **D** Crime, such as pickpocketing, flourished in these squalid conditions.
- **E** Houses were of poor quality, built using the cheapest possible materials.
- **F** Families were often crowded into a single room.
- **G** There was no piped water supply, so water was collected from communal wells or nearby rivers.
- **H** Streets were no more than narrow lanes, with open drains running down the middle.

DID YOU KNOW?

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

3.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did the population of cities such as Birmingham, Manchester and Leeds grow so rapidly in the first 30 years of the nineteenth century?
2. **HS1** Explain two ways in which the builders of houses in factory towns kept costs down.
3. **HS1** Choose the appropriate words from the following table to fill the gaps and complete the paragraph below about housing in industrial towns.

newer	wealthier	family	lower
one	ample	child	older

Some families rented _____ houses that had previously belonged to the _____ classes. In these cases, each _____ was often crowded into _____ room for cooking, eating and sleeping.

4. **HS1** How did people living in these areas get rid of their rubbish and human waste?
5. **HS1** Why would disease have spread quickly in towns such as Manchester and Liverpool?

3.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain what the writer in **SOURCE 1** meant by, 'From this filthy sewer pure gold flows.'
2. **HS3** Identify the two main criticisms that Dr Roberton (see **SOURCE 2**) expressed in relation to the planning and layout of Manchester.
3. **HS3** How might the conditions described in **SOURCE 3** have contributed to the spread of diseases such as cholera?
4. **HS3** Use **SOURCE 4** to identify five features of nineteenth-century industrial cities and towns that would have made them unpleasant places to live in.
5. **HS4** Identify the differences and similarities in living conditions that a family might notice when moving from a small country village to a large industrial city.
6. **HS5** Why might crime have flourished given the conditions that prevailed in large cities in the nineteenth century?
7. **HS5** What is meant by the term 'urbanisation'? Why would you expect there to be a strong connection between industrialisation and urbanisation?

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3.7 Poor laws and workhouses

3.7.1 The Old Poor Law

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

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

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

3.7.2 The New Poor Law

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

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

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

SOURCE 2 From a Rochester correspondent to *The Times*, 26 December 1840

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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

3.7.3 Life in the workhouse

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

Imposition of strict rules

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

SOURCE 3 This nineteenth-century photograph shows women in a workhouse unpicking short lengths of tar-coated rope — a task known as 'picking oakum'.

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

3.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Who was responsible for looking after the poor in pre-industrial England?
2. **HS1** What was the Poor Rate?
3. **HS1** Explain the difference between indoor relief and outdoor relief.
4. **HS4** What were the three main changes brought in with the passing of the New Poor Law?
5. **HS1** Why was there a deliberate policy to make the workhouse an unpleasant place to live?
6. **HS1** Give two examples of the ways in which life in the workhouse was made as unpleasant as possible.
7. **HS1** In what types of activities were workhouse inmates employed?
8. **HS1** Explain how children were treated in the workhouse.

3.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** In **SOURCE 1**, the adult male is obviously very ill and possibly dying. Given that the man would probably have been the main wage earner in the family, describe what message about poverty the painter was attempting to convey.

2. **HS3** From what you can identify in **SOURCE 2**, what methods were used to make the workhouse as unpleasant as possible?
3. **HS3** What was oakum? Explain why the women in **SOURCE 3** were given the task of picking oakum.
4. **HS3** Identify two things that **SOURCE 4** tells us about life in the workhouse.
5. **HS4** Consider life for the poor under the Old Poor Law and the New Poor Law.
   (a) Create a table to compare conditions under each law.
   (b) Do you think life became easier or harder for paupers after 1834? Give reasons for your answer.
6. **HS5** Identify what the treatment of paupers under the New Poor Law tells us about attitudes towards poverty in nineteenth-century Britain. How does this relate to the high value placed on business success and entrepreneurship at this time?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.8 Social unrest and trade unions

3.8.1 Social unrest, protests and riots

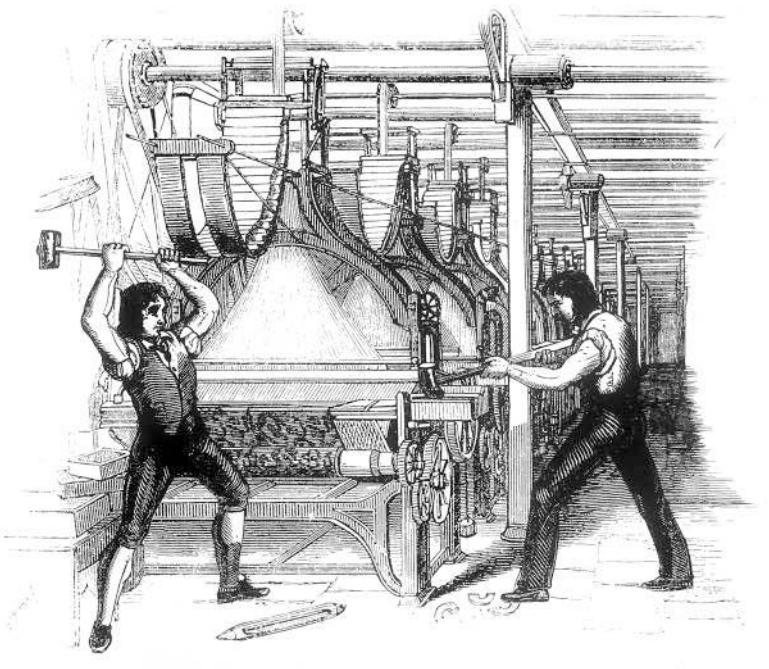
As the industrial and agricultural revolutions progressed, many factory, mine and farm workers were dissatisfied with their working conditions. Initially this materialised as protests and even riots, but as the nineteenth century progressed, workers began to organise into unions to work towards improvements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

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

The Luddites

Many skilled artisans of the old cottage textile industry felt that the use of machines in factories had robbed them of their livelihood. Between 1811 and 1817, groups of these workers protested by destroying the new machines. They were known as **Luddites**, after their probably fictitious leader, King Ned Ludd. In 1811 more than 1000 industrial machines were smashed. Between 1812 and 1813, 14 Luddites were executed and many more were transported to the colonies for life.

SOURCE 1 This nineteenth-century artwork depicts Luddites smashing power looms in a cotton mill.



Peterloo Massacre

The most infamous incident of this period was known as the Peterloo Massacre. In August 1819 a group of around 50 000 protesters gathered peacefully at St Peter's Fields near Manchester to demand economic and political reform. They were attacked by mounted troops; 15 were killed and more than 600 seriously wounded. Incidents such as this helped awaken many to the social problems that had arisen from the agricultural and industrial revolutions.

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

3.8.2 Trade unions

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

The Combination Acts

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

The Chartists

The right to vote for the election of members of the British Parliament had always been restricted to men who owned property worth a relatively substantial value. This meant that the majority of men could not vote, and that no women could vote. In the period after the end of the Napoleonic Wars (1803–1815), many groups were formed to promote the idea of making the vote more democratic. The meeting that led to the Peterloo Massacre was an example of these campaigns.

In 1832, the Parliament passed the Reform Act, which lowered the value of the property that a voter was required to own, and allowed tenant farmers paying rent above a certain level to vote. In the minds of many people this did not go far enough. When the Poor Law Amendment Act was passed in 1834, it further angered many people, because it was seen to be punishing people who had no voting rights.

In 1836 a group of tradesmen formed the London Working Men's Association. Its leaders, William Lovett and Henry Hetherington, had been active in promoting greater rights for the working class. Hetherington had printed a number of newspapers promoting universal adult male **suffrage**. In 1838 the association published its People's Charter, which set out six aims. These were:

1. the vote for all men over the age of 21
2. secret ballot at elections
3. no property qualification for members of parliament
4. payment of members of parliament, so that standing for parliament was not restricted to the rich
5. equal-sized electorates, so that each vote had equal value
6. annual elections for parliament.

Supporters of the People's Charter became known as Chartists. A number of large public meetings were then held in various parts of England, Wales and Scotland, supporting the aims of the charter. These meetings were attended by many thousands of working-class people.

In 1839 the Chartists presented a petition signed by 1.3 million working people, but the parliament refused to hear the petition. Protest marches were held throughout the country, some of which were met with armed troops. Some Chartist leaders were arrested, and Lovett himself spent a year in prison. In 1842 large numbers of workers went on strike in support of improved wages and the principles contained in the People's Charter. Many were arrested and more than fifty Chartists were sentenced to transportation to the Australian colonies. All six aims of the charter, except for annual elections, were eventually adopted within Britain, and have formed the basis for democratic government in many countries around the world.

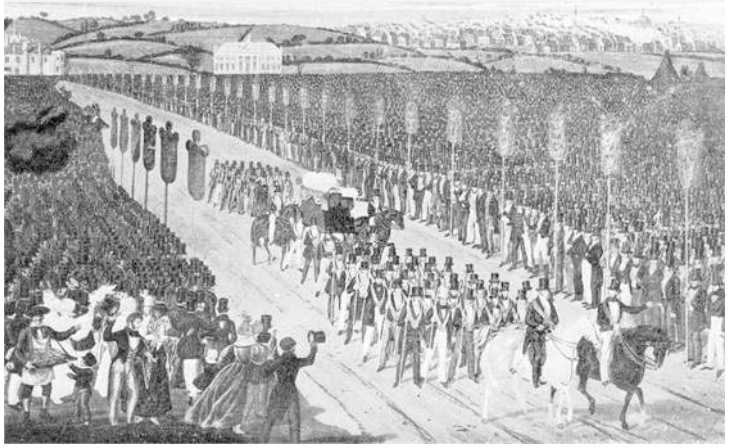
DID YOU KNOW?

British Chartism clearly influenced the Eureka Rebellion at Ballarat, Victoria in 1854 (see subtopic 6.3); the miners' demands were inspired by Chartist ideals. The first president of the Ballarat Reform League was Welsh-born Chartist John Basson Humffray, and Reform League members Henry Holyoake and Thomas Kennedy had both been active Chartists in England.

The Tolpuddle Martyrs

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

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



The New Model Trade Unions

In the 1850s groups of skilled tradesmen set up their own unions, beginning with the Amalgamated Society of Engineers in 1851. These unions provided members with a wide range of services, such as sickness benefits. They attracted strong support and soon became a model for other worker groups. Consisting largely of skilled tradesmen, these unions tended to be quite conservative and concentrated on negotiation with employers, rather than strike action. This helped make unions more 'respectable' in the eyes of many.

Improved legal status

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

3.8 ACTIVITY

The term 'Luddite' is still used today. Find out what the term means in its modern usage, and discuss whether or not you believe this is an appropriate use of the term. **Identifying continuity and change**

3.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Who were the Luddites, and what activities did they engage in?
2. **HS5** What was the effect of the Peterloo Massacre on attitudes to social problems that had arisen from the Industrial Revolution?
3. **HS1** Why were factory owners opposed to the formation of unions?
4. **HS1** What was the purpose of the Combination Acts?
5. **HS5** Explain the issues that led to the formation of the London Working Men's Association.
6. **HS1** Outline the demands included in the People's Charter of 1838.
7. **HS1** Where did the main support for the charter come from?
8. **HS1** What was the response of the British government at the time to the demands of the Chartists?
9. **HS1** Why were the Tolpuddle Martyrs transported as convicts to Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) in 1834?
10. **HS1** Explain how trade unions had become an accepted part of society by 1875.

3.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. Do you think the artist here was opposed or sympathetic to Luddites? Support your answer with evidence from the source.
2. **HS3** Identify three features of **SOURCE 2** that tell us that the artist was opposed to the actions taken by the troops in the Peterloo Massacre.
3. **HS3** Consider **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) What does it tell us about the nature of the protest against the Tolpuddle Martyrs' punishment?
   (b) Why would an artist regard the Tolpuddle Martyrs protest as an important event to document?
4. **HS4** To what extent do you believe that the development of the People's Charter in 1838 was a major turning point in both British and Australian history? Give reasons for your answer.
5. **HS5** Support for the Tolpuddle Martyrs and the People's Charter demonstrates that many people were becoming more politically active.
   (a) Identify and explain two underlying or long-term causes of this increased activism.
   (b) Which events might have provided the short-term triggers that motivated people to become active?
6. **HS5** How can we tell that the British Parliament was more strongly influenced by the interests of factory owners than by those of ordinary workers? Why might this have been the case?

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3.9 The growth in ideas

3.9.1 Economic ideas

The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries had been a period of great intellectual growth in Britain and Europe. The Scientific Revolution of the seventeenth century saw great advances in physics, mathematics, chemistry and biology. For the first time, scientists began to draw conclusions from experimentation and observation of the world around them, instead of simply accepting religious explanations. In the eighteenth century, the period known as the Enlightenment saw a challenge to traditional views of the structure of society and the role of religion, and asserted the rights of individuals to participate as equals, no matter what their social status. The willingness to question existing beliefs and to formulate new philosophies continued into the nineteenth century.

Many of the new ideas related to the operation of the economy, overturning the traditional feudal approach that still operated throughout much of Europe.

Capitalism

A belief in the ability of individuals to create wealth through their own entrepreneurship was central to the ideas of capitalism. These principles were strongly promoted by Adam Smith and others late in the eighteenth century. Central to Smith's beliefs was the removal of excessive regulation of business, so that all businesses were free to compete in open markets. He believed that if all individuals were free to pursue their own self-interest, this would lead to a better and wealthier society for all individuals. He described this as 'the invisible hand' that improves society, even though none of the individuals participating may have had this as their main aim (see **SOURCE 1**). Central to the belief in capitalism was a belief in competition. By competing against each other, businesses that charged the lowest prices would attract more customers, and therefore be the most successful. Lower prices would be the social benefit that would flow from this competition. By the end of the nineteenth century, capitalism had become the predominant economic theory of Britain, Europe, the United States, and most of the industrialised world.

SOURCE 1 Adam Smith, *The Wealth of Nations*, 1776

By preferring the support of domestic to that of foreign industry, he intends only his own security; and by directing that industry in such a manner as its produce may be of the greatest value, he intends only his own gain, and he is in this, as in many other cases, led by an invisible hand to promote an end which was no part of his intention. Nor is it always the worse for the society that it was no part of it. By pursuing his own interest he frequently promotes that of the society more effectually than when he really intends to promote it.

Socialism

Opposed to capitalism were the ideas of socialism. There were many influential socialist thinkers in the nineteenth century. They shared a belief in greater economic and political equality. They believed this could be achieved only by workers owning and running enterprises collectively or by the state owning these enterprises on their behalf. The British reformer Robert Owen held strong socialist ideals. Another significant proponent of socialism was Karl Marx, a nineteenth-century German philosopher. Marx believed that history was shaped by struggles between social classes. He predicted that revolutions throughout Europe would completely change societies. As the Industrial Revolution proceeded, those who had nothing but their ability to work — the **proletariat** — would overthrow the **bourgeoisie**. The workers would then create a socialist society in which wealth would be shared fairly. Marx thought that socialism would eventually lead to a stage of even greater equality that he called 'communism' (see **SOURCE 2**).

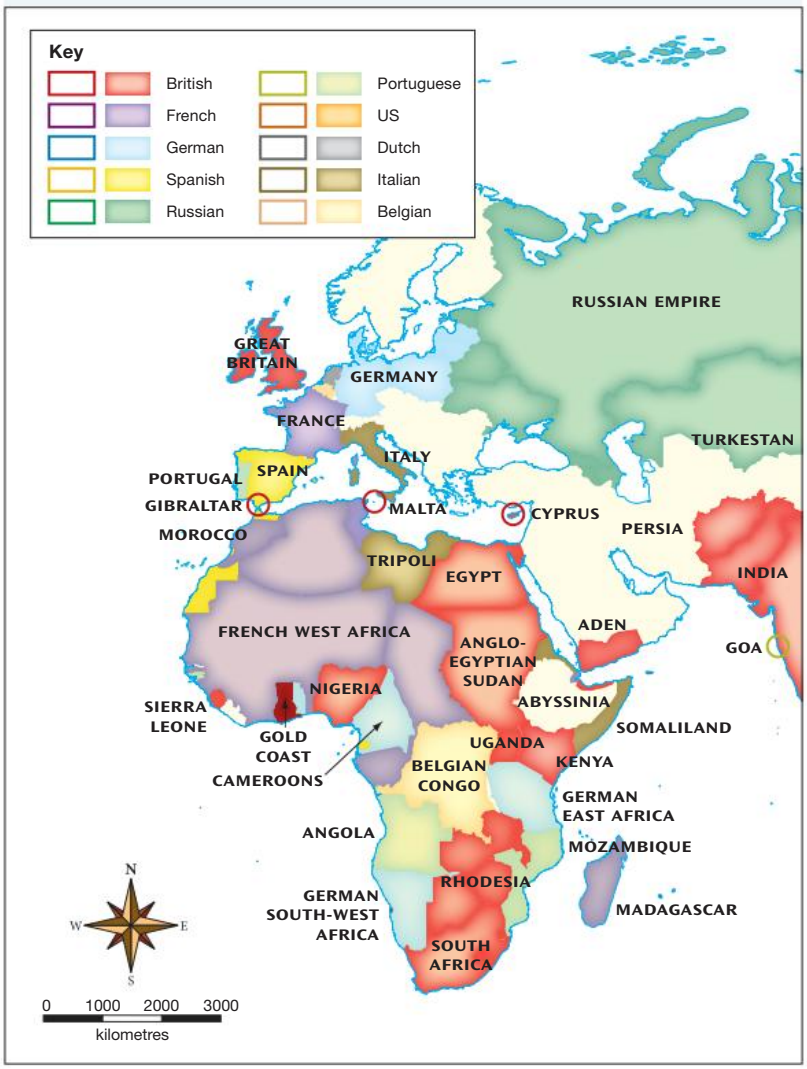
SOURCE 2 Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels, *The Communist Manifesto*, 1848

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

Imperialism

Imperialism was the theory behind the expansion of European empires, particularly during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Instead of simply trading with foreign countries, an empire could be created by conquering those countries and taking control of their resources. Britain had been able to accelerate its industrial growth through the expansion of its empire, which gave it access to a range of raw materials. This served as a model for other European countries during the nineteenth century. In particular, Britain, France, Belgium, Germany and Italy expanded their empires into Africa during the latter half of the nineteenth century, so that by the beginning of the twentieth century, the African continent had been almost completely divided up between the European powers (see **SOURCE 3**).

SOURCE 3 European imperial territories in Africa, 1914



Source: Spatial Vision

3.9.2 Political ideas

Traditional European feudal society had been divided into strict social classes. At the top were royalty and the aristocracy, who owned most of the land, and who passed on their land and titles to their offspring. Then there was the middle class: the tradespeople, artisans and businesspeople. At the bottom were the lower class, the vast numbers of peasants who worked the land for the aristocracy. As Britain industrialised, large numbers of these peasants moved to the towns and became industrial workers. The higher up you were in the social classes, the more power and wealth you held. During the Enlightenment of the eighteenth century, this structure and power imbalance came to be challenged by a number of writers. From 1789 onwards in France, this social structure was completely overthrown by the French Revolution.

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism was the belief that all people are created equal and should all have equal rights. It was an idea proposed by a number of European writers and philosophers during the eighteenth-century Enlightenment and was completely at odds with the traditional division of the population into strict social classes with unequal rights and power. Americans such as Benjamin Franklin had visited Europe and been inspired by many of the ideas of the Enlightenment. Principles of egalitarianism were the foundation of the United States *Declaration of Independence* in 1776 (see **SOURCE 4**), even though equality was not granted to slaves of African descent at that time.

SOURCE 4 United States *Declaration of Independence*, 1776

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 ...

Egalitarianism was also at the heart of the French Revolution. The delegates to the National Constituent Assembly adopted the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen* in August 1789 (see **SOURCE 5**). This document enshrined the ideals of egalitarianism for all citizens, including an equal right to elect representatives to make laws. Ideas of egalitarianism strongly influenced reformers like Robert Owen, the Chartists and many socialist writers such as Marx and Engels.

SOURCE 5 National Constituent Assembly of France: *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen*, 1789

Article I — Men are born and remain free and equal in rights. Social distinctions can be founded only on the common good.

Article II — The goal of any political association is the conservation of the natural and imprescriptible rights of man. These rights are liberty, property, safety and resistance against oppression.

Article III — The principle of any sovereignty resides essentially in the Nation. No body, no individual can exert authority which does not emanate expressly from it.

Article IV — Liberty consists of doing anything which does not harm others: thus, the exercise of the natural rights of each man has only those borders which assure other members of the society the enjoyment of these same rights. These borders can be determined only by the law.

Article V — The law has the right to forbid only actions harmful to society. Anything which is not forbidden by the law cannot be impeded, and no one can be constrained to do what it does not order.

Article VI — The law is the expression of the general will. All the citizens have the right of contributing personally or through their representatives to its formation. It must be the same for all, either that it protects, or that it punishes. All the citizens, being equal in its eyes, are equally admissible to all public dignities, places and employments, according to their capacity and without distinction other than that of their virtues and of their talents.

Nationalism

Nationalism developed as a doctrine during the French Revolution. Prior to this time, loyalty by inhabitants of a country was directed towards the king or a similar monarch. Soldiers fought for the monarch rather than for the broader concept of the 'nation'. Article III of the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen* states that: 'The principle of any sovereignty resides essentially in the Nation. No body, no individual can exert authority which does not emanate expressly from it' (see **SOURCE 5**). This changed the focus of loyalty from the King to that of the 'Nation'. When France found itself at war against other European powers in 1793, it introduced a form of conscription called the *levée en masse*, in which all French citizens were to devote all their energies to the defence of the nation (see **SOURCE 6**). Nationalist ideas also spread from France in unintended ways. In lands conquered by French armies during the Revolutionary Wars, other groups discovered a sense of national identity as they resisted French rule. This was even more marked during the wars waged by the French Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte, who seized absolute power in 1804 and ruled France until his defeat in 1815.

SOURCE 6 Declaration of the French National Convention, 23 August 1793

From this moment until such time as its enemies shall have been driven from the soil of the Republic, all Frenchmen are in permanent requisition for the services of the armies. The young men shall fight; the married men shall forge arms and transport provisions; the women shall make tents and clothes and shall serve in the hospitals; the children shall turn old lint into linen; the old men shall betake themselves to the public squares in order to arouse the courage of the warriors and preach hatred of kings and the unity of the Republic.

Following the defeat of Napoleon, the old European empires were restored. One of these was the Austro-Hungarian Empire, even though it contained peoples of many nationalities including the Czechs, Slovaks, Poles, Romanians, Croatians, Bosnians and Italians. Nationalism continued to cause unrest in many parts of Europe. Nationalists in the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian empires wanted the right to form their own nations. Greece won autonomy from the Ottoman Empire in 1829. Belgium became independent from the Netherlands two years later. In 1848, nationalist revolutions broke out in many parts of Europe, although these were not successful and most failed within twelve months. Among Italians and Germans in their many states, there were those who wanted to create one Italy and one Germany. Italy achieved national unity in 1870 and Germany in 1871.

3.9.3 Scientific ideas

The scientific developments of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were seen by many as a challenge to the authority of the Christian religion in Europe. Many people still believed in the literal interpretation of the Bible, that God had created the Earth and all life in seven days, and that all human beings were descended from Adam and Eve. The discoveries and publications of Charles Darwin were to challenge these fundamental beliefs.

Darwinism

Charles Darwin was a **naturalist** who, aboard the HMS *Beagle*, sailed around the world between 1831 and 1836. On his travels, he began to notice variations and similarities between different animals, plants and birds, and came to the conclusion that some species may have changed over time. In his journals he suggested that life may have evolved over time to adapt to changing environmental circumstances. Those organisms that adapted best were most likely to survive and continue to breed and produce offspring. This theory was described as the 'survival of the fittest', and it proposed that only the strongest/most adaptable would survive because the others would not be able to compete with them.

In 1859, Darwin published *On the Origin of Species*, in which he laid out his theory of evolution through natural selection. He proposed that genetic variations in all plants and animal species led some to be more

successful than others, and that this continuous process had produced the wide variety of different species we see around the world today. His 1871 book, *The Descent of Man, and Selection in Relation to Sex*, set out his view that humans were descended from an ape-like creature. Darwin's theories were very controversial at the time and became known as 'Darwinism'.

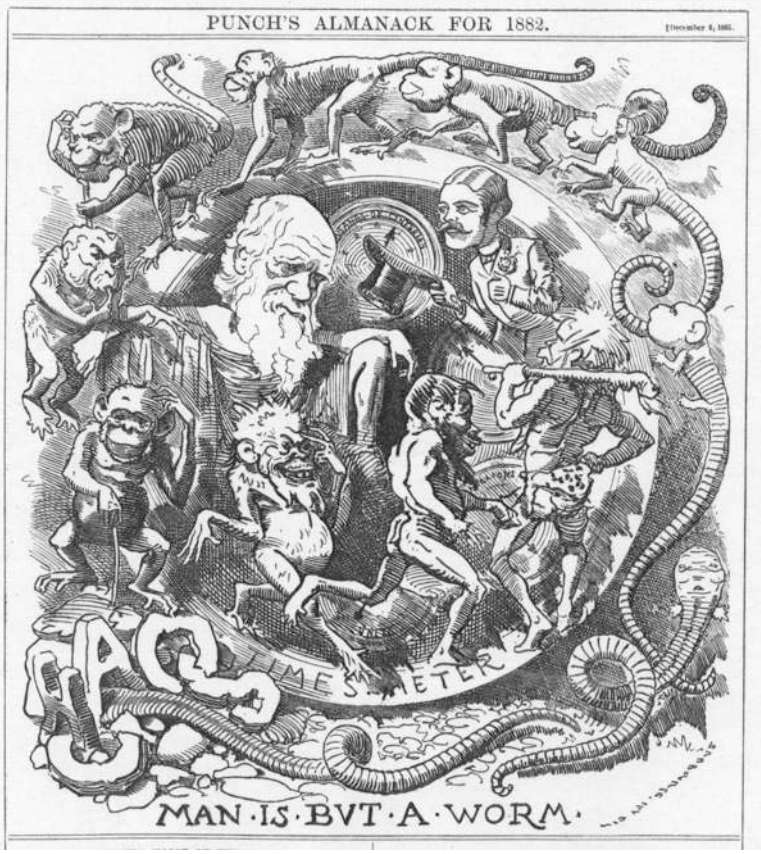
SOURCE 7 Charles Darwin, *On the Origin of Species*, 1859

As many more individuals of each species are born than can possibly survive; and as, consequently, there is a frequently recurring struggle for existence, it follows that any being, if it vary however slightly in any manner profitable to itself, under the complex and sometimes varying conditions of life, will have a better chance of surviving, and thus be *naturally selected*. From the strong principle of inheritance, any selected variety will tend to propagate its new and modified form.

Religious responses to Darwinism

Darwin's theories of evolution directly contradicted the Christian churches' teachings about the creation of the world and life within it. The reaction of religious groups to Darwin's theories varied considerably. Leaders of more conservative churches dismissed his theories completely and refused to accept anything other than the literal interpretation of the Biblical creation story. Liberal church leaders claimed the mechanism of evolution as the means by which God had created life and saw no inconsistency between Darwin's theory and their own beliefs. While the scientific community accepts the general principles of Darwin's approach, the theory of evolution remains controversial to this day. There are still some Christian groups that only accept the Biblical creation story.

SOURCE 8 Many cartoonists made fun of Charles Darwin and his theories. This cartoon was published in *Punch* magazine in 1882.



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- Making a better world? > **Nationalism: Napoleon Bonaparte**
- Making a better world? > **Nationalism: The Congress of Vienna**
- Making a better world? > **Nationalism: Italy and Germany**
- Making a better world? > **Imperialism: the Boer War**

3.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** In what way did Adam Smith believe that society as a whole would benefit from the efforts of entrepreneurs?
2. **HS1** In what ways were the beliefs of socialists completely opposed to those of capitalists?
3. **HS1** What did Karl Marx believe would ultimately happen in industrialised European countries?
4. **HS1** How did the British Empire provide a model for other European countries to follow as they became industrialised?
5. **HS1** How did imperialism impact on the African continent in the second half of the nineteenth century?
6. **HS1** What were the key principles of egalitarianism?
7. **HS1** Identify two examples of the application of the principles of egalitarianism.
8. **HS1** Explain how the concept of nationalism developed in France during the French Revolution.
9. **HS1** How were nationalist ideas spread to other European countries?
10. **HS1** Name four countries that were created as a result of nationalist sentiment in Europe during the nineteenth century.
11. **HS1** What experience did Charles Darwin have that led him to develop his ideas about the 'survival of the fittest'?
12. **HS1** Why was Darwin's *The Descent of Man, and Selection in Relation to Sex* so controversial?
13. **HS1** What was the reaction of the established churches to Darwin's theories?
14. **HS1** Why were some church leaders able to accept Darwin's theories?

3.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain Adam Smith's concept of the 'invisible hand' as referred to in **SOURCE 1**, and give an example of how it might work.
2. **HS3** Describe what sort of action Marx and Engels were promoting in **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3**. Identify two areas in Africa that were not controlled by European powers.
4. **HS3** According to **SOURCE 3**, which European countries had the largest areas of Africa under their colonial control?
5. **HS3** Explain what is meant by the following sentence in **SOURCE 4**: 'Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed ... '.
6. **HS3** Identify the wording in **SOURCE 5** that directly negates the idea of different social classes having different rights and privileges.
7. **HS3** Prior to 1789, the law in France consisted largely of decisions made exclusively by the king and his advisors. Describe how Article VI in **SOURCE 5** directly opposes this idea of royal lawmaking power.
8. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 6**. In what ways was this declaration designed to appeal to the national loyalty sentiments of French citizens at the time?
9. **HS3** Explain what Darwin meant by the term 'naturally selected' in **SOURCE 7**.
10. **HS3** Identify what is being suggested by the cartoon in **SOURCE 8**.
11. **HS5** Identify some of the possible ways in which Adam Smith's ideas might have influenced the attitudes of many factory owners in Britain during the Industrial Revolution.
12. **HS5** Were the ideas of egalitarianism an underlying cause or an immediate trigger for the American and French revolutions? Give reasons for your answer.
13. **HS5** How did theories of nationalism affect Europe during the nineteenth century?
14. **HS4** Why would the principles of egalitarianism have led to a major change in any European country in which they were introduced?
15. **HS4** Explain why many religious groups might have trouble accepting the theories of Charles Darwin.
16. **HS6** Why is Charles Darwin regarded as one of the most important and significant scientists of the nineteenth century? Give reasons for your answer.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.10 Reformers and progress

3.10.1 Influential reformers

The early years of the Industrial Revolution were marked by appalling working and living conditions for factory and mine workers. Many prominent citizens became concerned about the conditions experienced by ordinary working people and actively sought to bring about change. Improvements began to be introduced during the nineteenth century, with laws passed to protect workers and improve living conditions often being the result of determined campaigning by these prominent individuals.

Robert Owen

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

SOURCE 1 At Robert Owen's New Lanark mill, education, including dancing classes, was provided to children.

Lord Ashley (later the Earl of Shaftesbury)

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

Edwin Chadwick

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

3.10.2 Factory reform

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

SOURCE 2 Factory reform

Factory Act 1819 — Limited the hours worked by children to a maximum of 12 per day
Factory Act 1833 — Banned employment of children under 9 and limited 10–13-year-olds to a 48-hour week in the textiles industry. To enforce this rule, factory inspectors were introduced (although there were initially only four inspectors for all of England).
Factory Act 1844 — Reduced the maximum working hours for women to 12 hours per day
Ten Hour Act 1847 — Reduced maximum working hours for women and children to 10 hours per day
Factory Act 1850 — Prohibited women and children from working in a factory before 6 am or after 6 pm
Factory Act 1874 — Set a maximum of 56.5 hours of work per week for all workers

3.10.3 Public health reform

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

The Public Health Act of 1848

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

SOURCE 3 The construction of sewers in London removed cesspits from the streets and improved sanitation.

London sets the standard

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

The Public Health Acts of 1872 and 1875

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

DID YOU KNOW?

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

3.10 ACTIVITY

Compare the provisions of the various Factory Acts with today's employment standards. Give two examples of these Acts not going far enough to protect workers. **Identifying continuity and change**

3.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Outline two of the achievements of Robert Owen in improving the lives of factory workers and their children.
2. **HS1** How did Owen demonstrate that it was not necessary for factory owners to exploit their workers?
3. **HS1** How did Lord Ashley use his position as a member of Parliament to deal with issues of child labour?
4. **HS1** Describe the contribution made by Edwin Chadwick to the improvements in sanitation in England.
5. **HS5** How did the Factory Acts of 1819 and 1833 and the Ten Hour Act of 1847 affect the working hours of children?
6. **HS1** Which of the Factory Acts limited the number of hours that could be worked in a week?
7. **HS1** What was the role of the Central Board of Health, created by the Public Health Act of 1848?
8. **HS1** In what way did London set the standard for the rest of the country in dealing with sanitation issues?
9. **HS4** Explain the improvements that occurred as a result of the Public Health Acts of 1872 and 1875.

3.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** From **SOURCE 1**, suggest some of the classes other than dancing that might have been taught at Robert Owen's New Lanark school.
2. **HS3** Do you think the artist who produced **SOURCE 1** was a supporter or opponent of Owen's ideas? Give reasons for your answer.
3. **HS3** **SOURCE 2** indicates that initially only four factory inspectors were appointed to enforce the Factory Act of 1833. Explain how well you think this Act would have been enforced. Give reasons for your answer.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3** and explain why the provision of an underground sewerage system can be regarded as a major achievement.
5. **HS3** What methods can you identify in **SOURCE 3** that were used to build the sewers?
6. **HS2** Draw up a timeline to demonstrate the improvements in urban living standards that occurred in Britain after 1842.
7. **HS5** What effect would you expect the improvements in sanitation to have had on population growth in Britain? Explain why you would come to this conclusion.

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3.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

online only

Identifying and analysing different perspectives of people in the Industrial Revolution

When examining any historical issue or event, we should try to build up an accurate picture of what actually happened in the past. If we are relying on a primary source in the form of an eyewitness report of an event, we need to be aware of possible bias or prejudice on the part of that eyewitness.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

3.12 Thinking Big research project: City life visual diary

online only

SCENARIO

As a 14-year-old living in one of the large industrial towns in Britain during the Industrial Revolution, you want to leave a record for future generations to understand what life was like for working-class people at this time. You will create an annotated visual diary of your daily life to describe the living and working conditions that you and your family experience.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: City life visual diary (pro-0182)

3.13 Review

online only

3.13.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

3.13.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31699)
Crossword (doc-31700)

Interactivity The Industrial Revolution: The impact on people crossword (int-7637)

KEY TERMS

biased account narrative or description in which a writer presents only one side of an issue in an attempt to convince the reader
bourgeoisie capitalist middle classes; the owners of the means of production, distribution and exchange — factories, shipping, banks and other businesses
cesspits pits into which householders with no toilets could empty their waste, which was later collected by workers known as nightmen
cholera a bacterial disease of the intestines, causing vomiting and diarrhoea. It is transmitted through contaminated water and can lead to death through dehydration.
impartial observations comments that recognise all sides and opinions relating to an issue or event, leaving it to the reader to form his or her own judgment
indoor relief the provision of assistance to the inmates of a workhouse
Luddites a group of protesters who expressed their opposition to industrialisation by smashing factory machines
naturalist a term once used to describe a scientist who studies plants and animals. Today such a person would be called a biologist.
outdoor relief the provision of assistance to the poor while allowing them to remain in their own homes
parish an area of local government centred on the local church, which fulfilled some of the functions that local municipal councils perform in society today
pauper a very poor person
picking oakum unpicking short lengths of rope coated in tar. Oakum would be rammed between the planks on wooden ships to make them watertight.
proletariat the working class, especially industrial wage earners
repeal withdrawal of a law or set of laws by Parliament
royal commission a special public inquiry set up by government to investigate a particular issue and to make recommendations for changes in the law
strike attempt by employees to put pressure on their employer by refusing to work
suffrage the right to vote
typhus a fatal disease spread through the bites of lice and fleas
workhouse an institution built to house the poor

3.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

3.11.1 Tell me

What is historical perspective?

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

Why is it important to recognise a historical perspective?

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

3.11.2 Show me

How to identify or recognise historical perspective

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

Examples of historical perspective

Example 1: William Bell Scott was a nineteenth-century painter, and one of the first to produce paintings celebrating the achievements of the Industrial Revolution. His most famous work, *In the nineteenth century the Northumbrians show the world what can be done with iron and coal* (see **SOURCE 1**), was painted in 1861, and contains a broad range of activities associated with the industrial changes that had occurred in Britain during the previous hundred years. It was one of a series of paintings produced for a wealthy family in Northumberland. Bell Scott had visited Robert Stephenson's engineering workshop in Newcastle in the county of Northumberland.

When we analyse the painting, a number of features stand out. In the centre are three working men, with large hammers raised ready to hit an object, possibly the wheel of a locomotive. A fourth man is in the background, also busy at work. These men are all powerfully built and probably represent the ideal of the British worker – powerful and determined. They do not look undernourished or ill, or the victims of exploitation. In the bottom right-hand corner of the painting, a newspaper is draped over a mechanical drawing of a locomotive of the type built by Robert and George Stephenson. In the background, a similar locomotive crosses an iron bridge. This bridge is the same as the high-level iron bridge designed by Robert Stephenson, which crossed the Tyne River in Newcastle.

In the foreground of the painting are a number of products of the Industrial Revolution – the iron anchor, a marine pump, the artillery barrel the little girl is sitting on, and a small pile of artillery shells next to it.

SOURCE 1 Bell Scott's painting celebrating the achievements of the Industrial Revolution

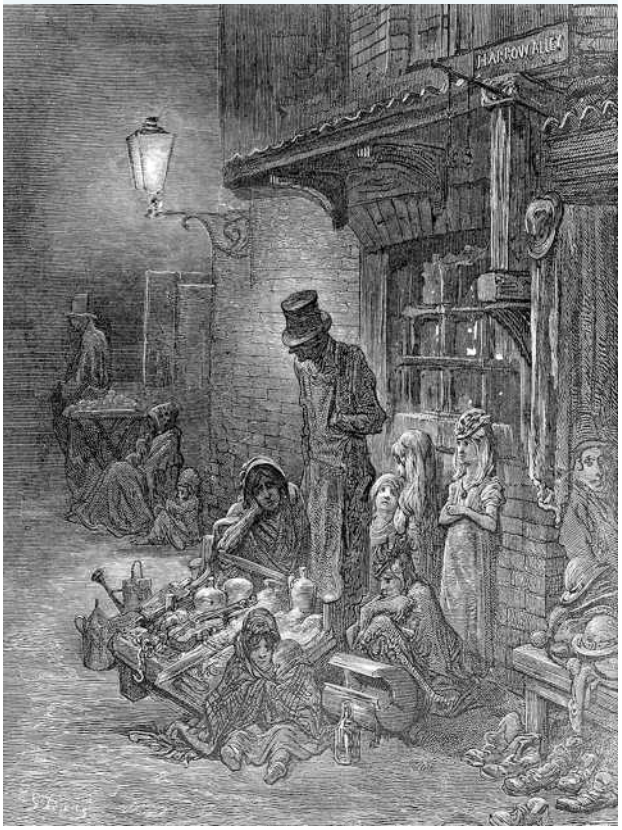
All of these illustrate Britain's military and naval power. The little girl herself looks healthy and well fed, and may be the daughter of one of the workmen. She holds a package that could be her father's lunch, as well as a school book, signifying that she is attending school and being educated. Education for working-class children was considered an ideal in Victorian England, and this painting suggests that ideal was being achieved.

Behind the little girl a young boy stands, looking out over the dockside activities. In his right hand he holds a lamp of the type used in coal mines. This suggests that he works in the mines, and yet he also looks healthy and well dressed. On the river below we see both steamships and sailing ships, as well as a barge carrying coal. Coal was a very important part of Northumbrian life, as the area was a major source of coal. On the dockside, two businessmen are talking in the lower left-hand corner, a young woman carries a pail on her head, and other people seem actively occupied. Across the top of the painting we see poles carrying telegraph wires, signifying improvements in communication that came with industrialisation. When we take in the painting as a whole, we see a very positive depiction of the effects of the Industrial Revolution.

Example 2: William Blanchard Jerrold was a writer and journalist. In 1869 he collaborated with French artist Gustave Doré to produce a book called *London: A pilgrimage*. Published in 1872, this book featured descriptions and drawings of many of the poorest parts of London and its most impoverished inhabitants. It included 180 engravings by Doré showing slum areas, extreme poverty and the depressed state of much of the population. Jerrold and Doré were accused by many of showing only the worst aspects of London, but they clearly wanted to make their readers more aware of the conditions suffered by the poor. Examine **SOURCE 2**.

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

SOURCE 2 This engraving by Gustave Doré of a scene in the London street of Houndsditch appeared in *London: A pilgrimage* in 1872.



3.11.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

3.11 ACTIVITIES

1. Examine **SOURCES 3–5**. For each quote:
   (a) Find out as much as you can from the school library or the internet about the author and write a brief statement about that person's perspective in relation to child labour in mines and factories. Consider the following questions in your research:
      i. Who are they?
      ii. When are they writing?
      iii. Why are they writing about it?
      iv. What are they trying to achieve or what point are they trying to make?
   (b) Explain how the quote demonstrates that perspective.

SOURCE 3 From Michael Sadler, in a speech in the House of Commons, 16 March 1832

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

SOURCE 4 Henry 'Orator' Hunt, in a speech in the House of Commons, 16 March 1832

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

SOURCE 5 Henry Thomas Hope, in a speech in the House of Commons, 16 March 1832

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

2. Based on what you have learned in this SkillBuilder, apply your skill in analysing different perspectives to answer the following questions.
   (a) Which extract do you find most convincing? Why?
   (b) For each extract, identify the values or beliefs the author is revealing.
   (c) For each extract, identify what benefit the author stands to gain if his point of view is persuasive.
3. Reflect on your development of this skill by answering the following questions.
   (a) Do you understand what a historical perspective is? Define the term in your own words.
   (b) How would you rate your ability to analyse different perspectives and recognise bias in historical texts? Score yourself out of 5, with 1 being weak and 5 being strong.
   (c) How can you improve your ability to use sources to analyse different perspectives and recognise bias in historical texts? **[Personal and Social Capability]**

3.12 Thinking Big research project: City life visual diary

Scenario

As a 14-year-old living in one of the large industrial towns in Britain during the Industrial Revolution, you want to leave a record for future generations to understand what life was like for working-class people at this time. To do this, you have decided to create an annotated visual diary of your daily life to describe the living and working conditions that you and your family experience.

Task

Create an annotated visual diary of your daily life.

- The diary should be presented in the form of a booklet, as a poster on A2-sized cardboard (or similar), or as a PowerPoint presentation.
- It should consist of a series of images that represent different aspects of life in Britain in the industrial towns of the time.
- To create the images, you may use your own artistic abilities, or you can download images from online sources.
- Each image should contain a paragraph in your own words explaining what is happening, and how it relates to life as a 14-year-old during the Industrial Revolution.
- If you choose to present your work in the form of a booklet, each page should include one image and explanation, and the booklet should have a cover page with an appropriate title.

Process

- Open the ProjectsPLUS application in the Resources for this topic. Click on the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group if you wish to. You can work independently or with a partner, which will allow you to swap ideas and share responsibility for the project. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric and some helpful weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research.
- Conduct your research and locate or create appropriate images.
- Remember to record details of your sources so you can create a bibliography to submit with your completed diary. Add your research notes and source details to the relevant topic pages in the Research forum. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered, if you wish.
- Write the 'diary entry' text to accompany each image.
- Check your diary thoroughly, ensuring that you have used correct spelling and grammar.
- Submit your completed visual diary and bibliography to your teacher for assessment.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: City life visual diary (pro-0182)

3.13 Review

3.13.1 Key knowledge summary

3.2 Examining the evidence

- Contemporary writers and commentators can give us an insight into the changes that took place in Britain during the Industrial Revolution.
- During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the British government began collecting statistics about population, recording information about where people lived and the changes that occurred in society during this time.
- The evidence given at special government inquiries can provide evidence of people's living conditions.
- Painters and other artists are useful sources of information in relation to changes during the Industrial Revolution.

3.3 The impact of enclosure

- Agricultural improvements led to a large increase in the population from the latter part of the eighteenth century onwards.
- The enclosure of farmland was of benefit to landowners, but ordinary farm workers suffered as a result.
- The Speenhamland system was established to provide aid to the poor in rural towns and villages.
- Food riots in 1795 and the Swing Riots of 1830 are examples of unrest in rural areas.

3.4 Conditions in factories and mines

- Working conditions in textile factories were very unpleasant and often dangerous, with factory workers, including women and children, forced to work long hours.
- Men, women and children all worked in coalmines, in dangerous and unhealthy conditions.
- The Mines Commission of 1840–42 heard evidence on the working conditions in mines.
- The Mines Act of 1842 placed restrictions on the employment of women and children in coalmines.

3.5 Child labour

- Young children were employed in textile factories in the dangerous jobs of 'piecers' and 'scavengers'.
- Young girls were employed in mines as 'hurriers', pulling carts of coal along narrow tunnels.
- Children as young as four or five were employed in mines as 'trappers', opening and shutting ventilation doors.
- Young boys were also employed to climb into chimneys and clean them.

3.6 Urban conditions and people's health

- Near textile factories, towns grew into large cities, with overcrowding, a lack of sanitation and very little planning.
- Buildings were often erected cheaply, so accommodation for factory workers was of very poor quality.

3.7 Poor laws and workhouses

- Following a government inquiry, the Poor Law of 1834 forced the poor into workhouses.
- Life in the workhouses was made as unpleasant as possible, with families split up, and cruel punishment for those breaking the rules.
- Inmates of the workhouses were put to work at menial tasks.

3.8 Social unrest and trade unions

- Rapid changes led to unrest and protests such as those of the Luddites.
- Trade unions had been banned, but were allowed to operate after 1824.
- The Chartist movement developed during the 1830s, calling for democratic reforms in the election of parliament.
- As the nineteenth century progressed, trade unions gradually became established as legitimate organisations.

3.9 The growth in ideas

- Economic theories such as capitalism and socialism presented different ideas as to how businesses, workers and the economy should operate.
- The development of imperialism saw the expansion of European empires into Asia and Africa.
- The political idea of egalitarianism grew from the eighteenth-century European Enlightenment, and inspired both the American and French revolutions, as well as the aims of groups such as the Chartists.
- Nationalism first developed in France as a response to the wars against other European powers, and became a driving force behind the unification of Italy and Germany in the nineteenth century.
- Charles Darwin proposed a scientific theory of evolution, which became known by many as 'Darwinism'.

3.10 Reformers and progress

- Prominent reformers such as Robert Owen and Lord Ashley campaigned for improved working conditions in mines and factories.
- Reformers such as Edwin Chadwick campaigned for improved sanitation in large cities.
- During the nineteenth century, parliament passed a number of Factory Acts, gradually improving conditions for ordinary workers.
- Large cities such as London were given the power to improve urban living conditions, and gradually worked to deal with public health issues, such as the need for sewerage systems.

A timeline of changes during the Industrial Revolution

CE

1790

1795
Food riots in parts of England protest high bread prices.

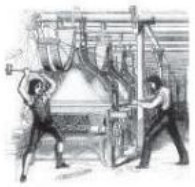
1800

1799–1800
Parliament passes the Combination Acts, making trade unions illegal.

1810

1811–13
Luddites engage in damaging textile machines.

1819
Parliament passes a Factory Act limiting hours of factory work by children. Large numbers of protesters are killed or injured in the Peterloo Massacre.



1820

1824
The Combination Acts are repealed, allowing workers to form trade unions.

1830

1830
The 'Swing Riots' result in damage to farm machinery in parts of rural England.

1833
Parliament passes a Factory Act banning children nine years and younger from working in factories.

1834
The Poor Law Amendment Act forces the poor to live in workhouses.
The six 'Tolpuddle Martyrs' are transported to Van Diemen's Land for swearing an oath of loyalty to their trade union.

1840

1842
The Mines Act bans the employment in coalmines of girls and women, and boys under the age of 10.

1850

1848
The Public Health Act sets up Boards of Health to deal with sanitation problems in cities and towns.

1860

1871
The Trade Union Act gives unions official legal status.

1870

1875
The Public Health Act extends the powers of Health Boards to control water supply and sewerage systems.

1874
Parliament passes a Factory Act, setting maximum allowable working hours per week for all workers.

1880

CE

3.13.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

3.13 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

The Industrial Revolution was a period of rapid technological progress and social transformation; did the changes that occurred benefit everyone?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question, outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31699)
Crossword (doc-31700)

Interactivity The Industrial Revolution: The impact on people crossword (int-7637)

KEY TERMS

biased account narrative or description in which a writer presents only one side of an issue in an attempt to convince the reader
bourgeoisie capitalist middle classes; the owners of the means of production, distribution and exchange — factories, shipping, banks and other businesses
cesspits pits into which householders with no toilets could empty their waste, which was later collected by workers known as nightmen
cholera a bacterial disease of the intestines, causing vomiting and diarrhoea. It is transmitted through contaminated water and can lead to death through dehydration.
impartial observations comments that recognise all sides and opinions relating to an issue or event, leaving it to the reader to form his or her own judgment
indoor relief the provision of assistance to the inmates of a workhouse
Luddites a group of protesters who expressed their opposition to industrialisation by smashing factory machines
naturalist a term once used to describe a scientist who studies plants and animals. Today such a person would be called a biologist.
outdoor relief the provision of assistance to the poor while allowing them to remain in their own homes
parish an area of local government centred on the local church, which fulfilled some of the functions that local municipal councils perform in society today
pauper a very poor person
picking oakum unpicking short lengths of rope coated in tar. Oakum would be rammed between the planks on wooden ships to make them watertight.
proletariat the working class, especially industrial wage earners
repeal withdrawal of a law or set of laws by Parliament
royal commission a special public inquiry set up by government to investigate a particular issue and to make recommendations for changes in the law
strike attempt by employees to put pressure on their employer by refusing to work
suffrage the right to vote
typhus a fatal disease spread through the bites of lice and fleas
workhouse an institution built to house the poor

4 Movement of peoples (1750–1914)

4.1 Overview

From slaves, to convicts, to migrants, in what ways did people move around the world in the past?

4.1.1 Links with our times

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

Today slavery is outlawed, but it still occurs in some countries. Slavery has existed in many cultures for thousands of years, but it was during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that it played a tragic role in the development of the modern world. In Australia, convict transportation and emigration led to many leaving their homeland to make a new life; most never saw their homeland again.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson The movement of peoples (eles-2394)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

4.1 Overview
4.2 Examining the evidence
4.3 Overview of slavery
4.4 Slavery and the cotton trade
4.5 The end of slavery?
4.6 Crime and punishment
4.7 Transportation to Australia
4.8 Convict life
4.9 Emigration to Australia
4.10 Migration to the goldfields
4.11 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing cause and effect online only
4.12 **Thinking Big research project:** A migrant's letter home online only
4.13 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of key events relating to movement of peoples, 1750–1914

CE

1740

1742 The first blast furnaces are used in England.

1760

1769 James Watt invents the steam engine.

1770 Captain Cook first sights the east coast of Australia.

1780

1788 The First Fleet arrives in Botany Bay.

1789 The French Revolution begins.

1793 Eli Whitney invents the cotton gin.

1800

1807 The British Parliament passes a Bill abolishing the trading of slaves in their territories.

1820

1840

1847 Freed American slaves found the Republic of Liberia in West Africa.

1845–57 A potato blight in Ireland creates widespread famine.

1851 The Victorian gold rush begins.

1860

1861 The American Civil War begins.

1863 Abraham Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation.

1865 The American Civil War ends.

1880

1900

1901 Australia celebrates Federation.

1914 World War I begins.

1920

CE

4.2 Examining the evidence

4.2.1 How do we know about the movement of peoples?

A wide range of historical sources reveal a great deal of useful information about the years between 1750 and 1914. The Industrial Revolution changed the way many people lived and worked. Governments and employers kept records of the people who worked for them. Artists and writers recorded their own impressions of the period.

Historical sources

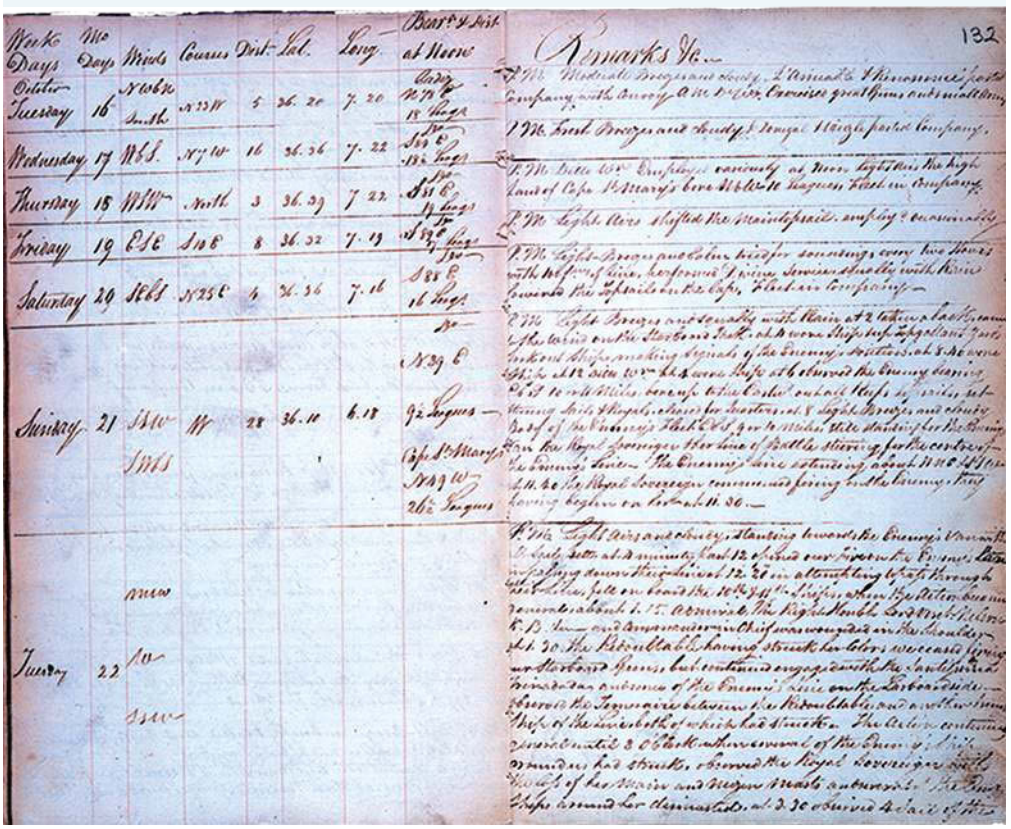
Historians have learned much about the period between 1750 and 1914 by studying a wide range of historical sources. These include written sources such as personal diaries and memoirs, official government reports and other publications. They also include visual sources such as photographs (from the 1830s onwards) and illustrations.

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

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

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

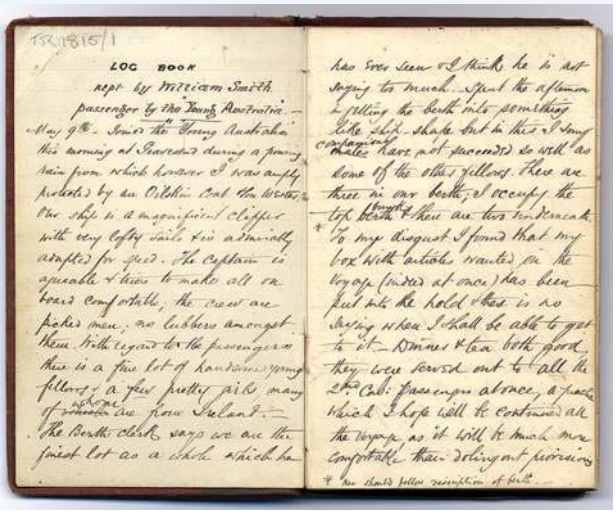
SOURCE 1 A page from a ship's log. It indicates the ship's course and the wind strength and direction, and allows room for comments by the captain.



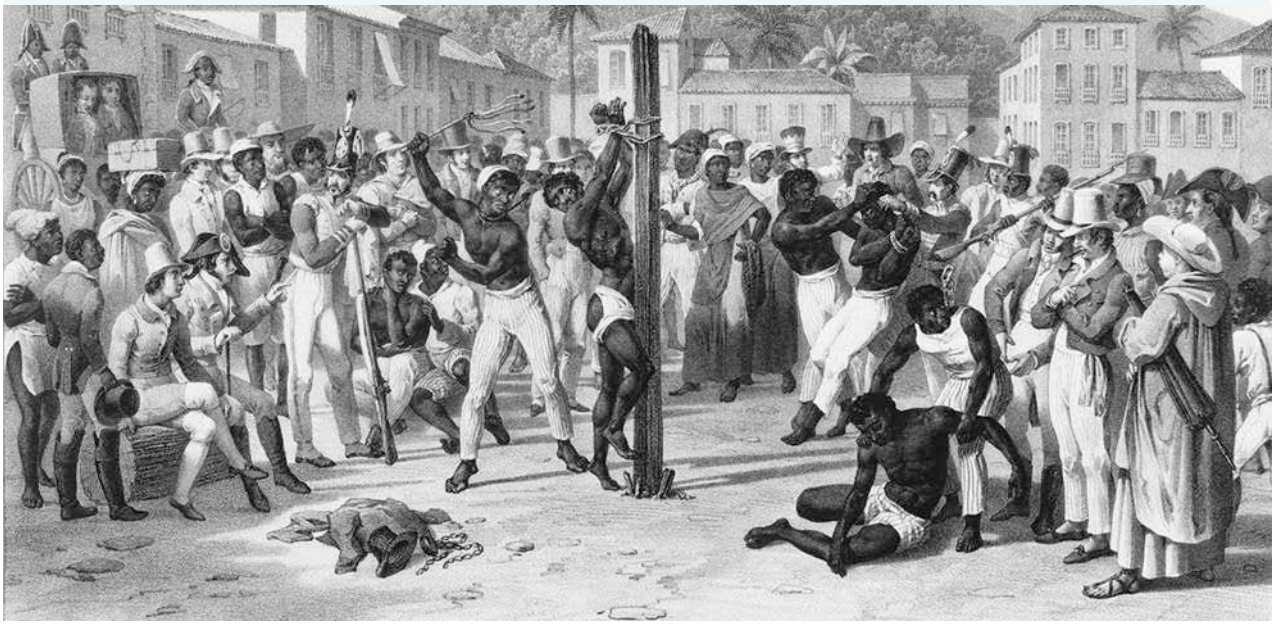
SOURCE 2 offers very different information from **SOURCE 1**. It gives an insight into a migrant's life and reveals one individual's personal feelings, rather than technical information.

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

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


LOG BOOK
kept by William Smith
passenger by the Young Australia

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



4.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How did the Industrial Revolution contribute to the way historians are able to study the past?
2. **HS1** Give two examples of (a) primary sources and (b) secondary sources. Explain what makes each source primary or secondary.
3. **HS1** Why are primary sources not necessarily more valuable to historians than secondary sources?
4. **HS1** What can **SOURCE 2** tell us that **SOURCE 1** cannot? Does this make it a more valuable source overall? Why or why not?
5. **HS1** What challenges does **SOURCE 3** raise for historians studying this time period?

4.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Identify whether each of the following would be a primary or a secondary source for the period studied in this subtopic.
   (a) A diary of a migrant coming to Australia
   (b) A photograph of slaves at work on an American cotton plantation
   (c) An 1863 newspaper report about a shipwreck
   (d) A cartoon from a newspaper portraying life on board a migrant ship
   (e) A poster advertising an upcoming slave auction
2. **HS3** In what way is the illustration in **SOURCE 3** useful to a historian? What limitations does this image have as a source? Explain what this tells us about the importance of also studying other types of sources.
3. **HS6** Explain how the significance of a historical source can change depending on what information a historian is trying to find.
4. **HS6** How significant would **SOURCE 1** be to a historian who is researching personal stories of migrants? Is there another source that you think would be more useful? Explain.
5. **HS6** Explain why government reports can be a significant historical source.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.3 Overview of slavery

4.3.1 The origins of the slave trade

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

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

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

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

SOURCE 1 shows the importance placed on slavery by one English plantation owner. Some European labourers and convicts were put to work, but in general European servants were hard to find. Most had come to America to work for themselves, not for someone else. Soon African slaves became household servants as well as manual labourers.

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

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

4.3.2 Kidnapped and traded

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

SOURCE 2 Gathering of slaves in Africa, before transportation, created in 1845

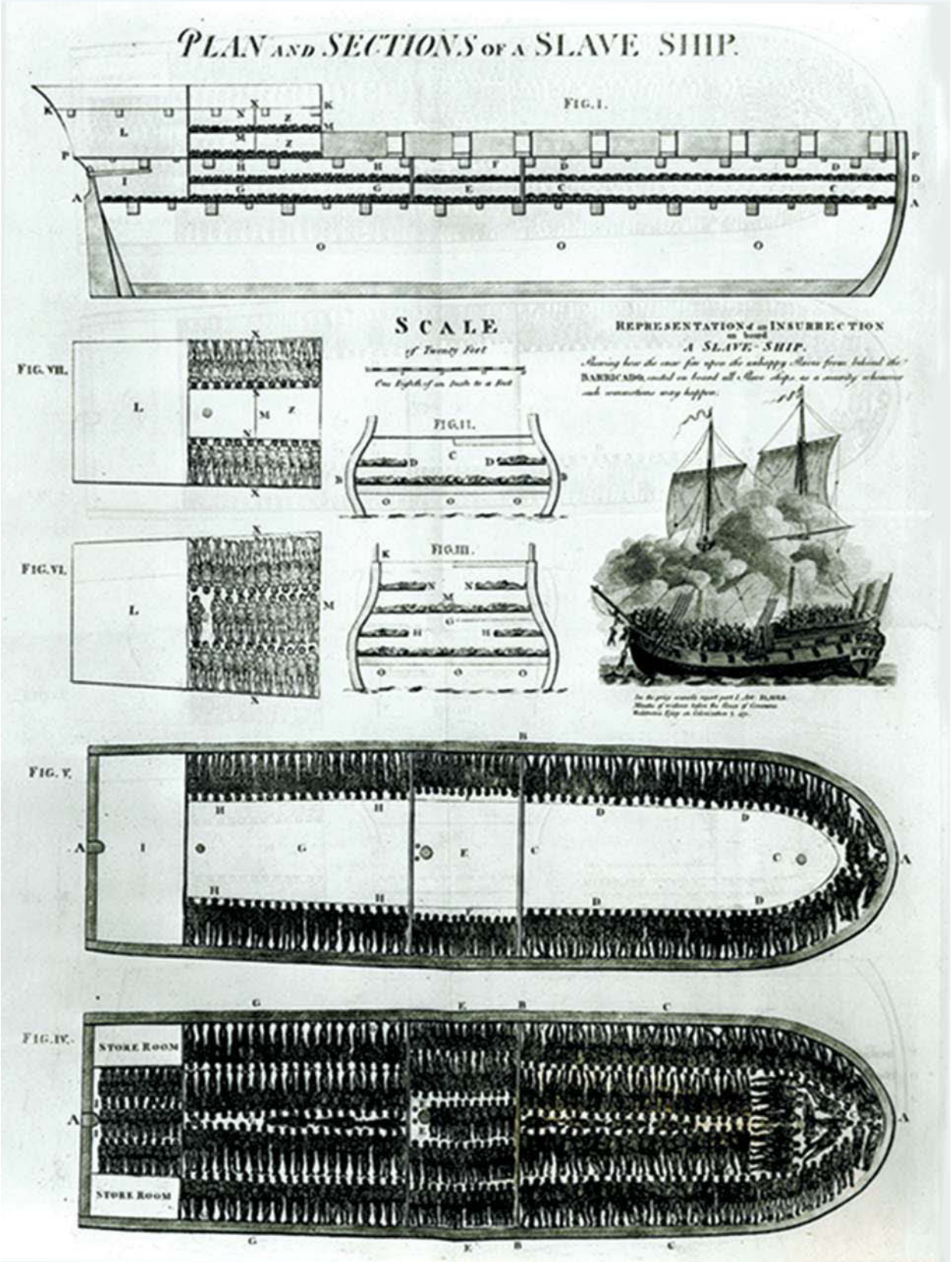
4.3.3 The Middle Passage

The route taken by slave ships across the Atlantic Ocean forms a rough triangle, hence the Atlantic slave trade is often referred to as the Triangular Trade. Ships left Europe with goods to sell in West Africa. There they sold the goods and filled their ships with slaves. The map in **SOURCE 3** shows the main route of the Triangular Trade. This 'cargo' was packed tightly in the ship's holds for the terrible Middle Passage, crossing the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas (see **SOURCE 4**). Conditions on slave ships were appalling. Those who did not survive the journey, perhaps as many as one-quarter of the total, were simply thrown overboard. For the final leg of the triangle the ships were loaded with goods and raw materials such as sugar, rum, cotton and tobacco to be sold on their return to Europe. These raw materials would be processed in Britain and then sold for profit.

SOURCE 3 This map shows the route the slave ships took in the Triangular Trade.

Source: Spatial Vision

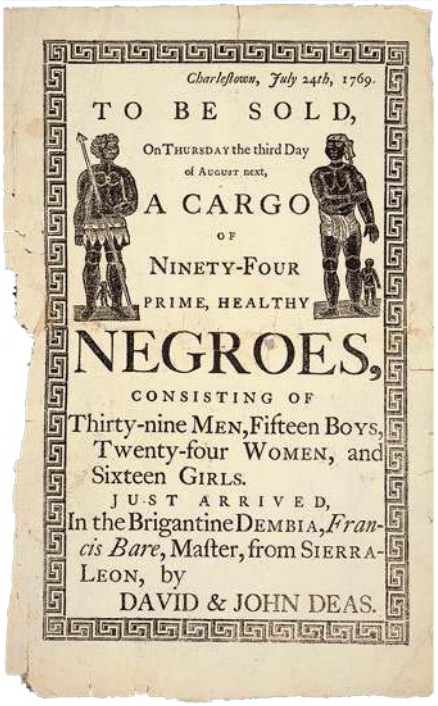
SOURCE 4 This plan of a slave ship from 1789 shows how tightly packed the slaves were.



4.3.4 Sold

As slave ships arrived at ports in the Caribbean and along the coast of North America, plantation owners would gather to make their purchases. Posters like the one shown in **SOURCE 5** advertised upcoming ship arrivals, detailing the number of slaves available and their state of health. There were generally two ways in which a slave sale would take place. The first, referred to as a 'scramble', must have been particularly terrifying for the slaves. Upon arrival in port the slaves were herded together either on the deck of the ship or in a nearby auction yard. Buyers paid a fixed amount before the sale and at a given signal rushed at the slaves, grabbing as many as they could. In the process families would often be separated, husbands from wives, parents from children.

SOURCE 5 A poster advertising an upcoming slave sale


Charleſtown, July 24th, 1769.

TO BE SOLD,

On THURSDAY the third Day of AUGUST next,

A CARGO OF NINETY-FOUR PRIME, HEALTHY

NEGROES,

CONSISTING OF

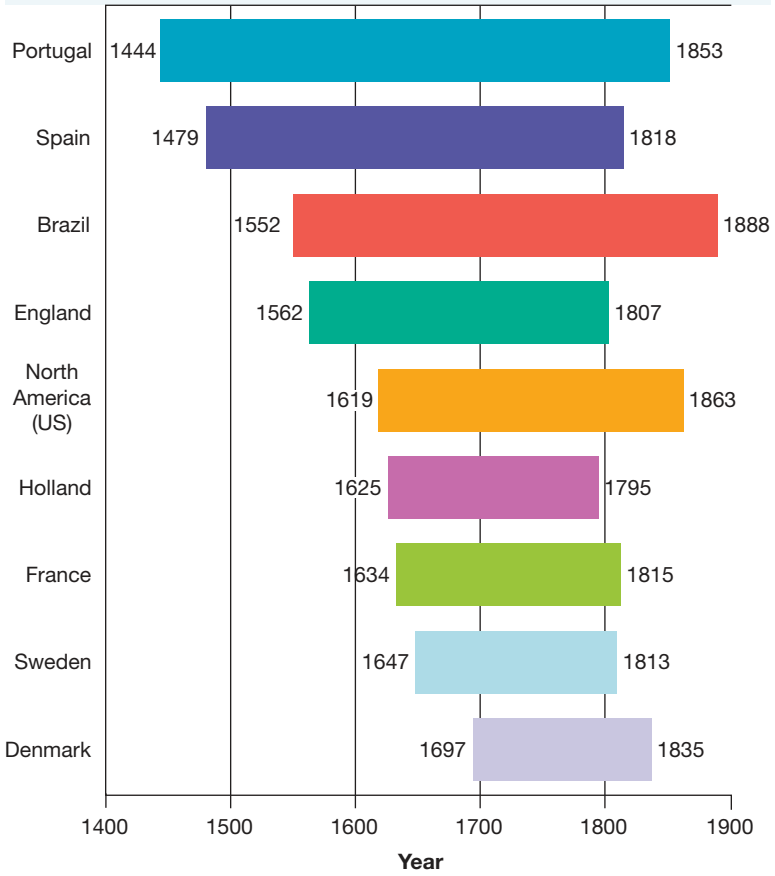
Thirty-nine MEN, Fifteen BOYS, Twenty-four WOMEN, and Sixteen GIRLS.

JUST ARRIVED,

In the Brigantine DEMBIA, *Francis Bare*, Maſter, from SIERRA-LEON, by

DAVID & JOHN DEAS.

SOURCE 6 A chart showing the approximate time that different countries became engaged in the slave trade



The other type of sale took place at an auction at which individual slaves were sold to the highest bidder (see **SOURCE 7**). Slaves were made to stand on a raised platform so they could be inspected by prospective owners. Their teeth would be examined to check their health. Signs of beatings could lower the price because they suggested a poor worker or potential escapee. In reality, scars were more likely to be a sign of violent abuse than of insolence. Sometimes unscrupulous doctors would buy weak or sick slaves in the hope of strengthening them and selling them on for a profit.

SOURCE 7 This painting by German artist Friedrich Schulz illustrates what a slave auction in the southern states of the United States may have looked like.

SOURCE 8 'Price, Birch & Co., dealers in slaves' — slave auction house, Virginia c. 1860.

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

Precise figures are unknown, but it is believed that some 12.5 million slaves were transported from Africa, with approximately 10.7 million surviving the Middle Passage to disembark in the Americas.

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Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Making a better world? > **Slave trade**

4.3. EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did the English prefer to use slaves from Africa rather than Native American people?
2. **HS1** Why did slavery become a vital part of the American economy?
3. **HS1** How did slave traders take advantage of rivalry between different African tribes?
4. **HS1** Why were slaves branded after they were bought?
5. **HS1** Why is the African slave trade referred to as the Triangular Trade?
6. **HS1** Outline the two types of slave sale that took place.
7. **HS1** Suggest why slaves were given new names by their owners after they were bought.
8. **HS1** Explain why it is difficult to gain accurate figures of the numbers of slaves bought and sold in the Triangular Trade.

4.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe the attitude towards slavery of the plantation owner in **SOURCE 1**.
2. **HS3** Sketch the map in **SOURCE 3** and then add labels to identify what the ships would have been carrying on each leg of the Triangular Trade.
3. **HS3** Explain what **SOURCE 4** suggests about the way slaves were regarded by the slave traders.
4. **HS3** Use the chart in **SOURCE 6** to answer the following questions.
   (a) What was the first country on this chart to engage in the slave trade?
   (b) What country was the last to abolish the slave trade?
   (c) Which country practised the slave trade for the longest time? Suggest a reason for this.
   (d) For how many years did England practise the slave trade?
   (e) What values and limitations does historical information presented in a graph have compared with the other sources in this subtopic?
5. **HS3** Use **SOURCES 4, 5, 7** and **8** to write a summary paragraph of the experience of a slave from living in freedom to being sold at a slave market. Refer to specific aspects of the sources as you go.
6. **HS5** Specify and explain the causes of the Triangular Trade, indicating clearly why people from Africa were transported across the Atlantic Ocean.
7. **HS5** Outline the unintended effect of using Native American people as labour.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.4 Slavery and the cotton trade

4.4.1 'King Cotton'

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

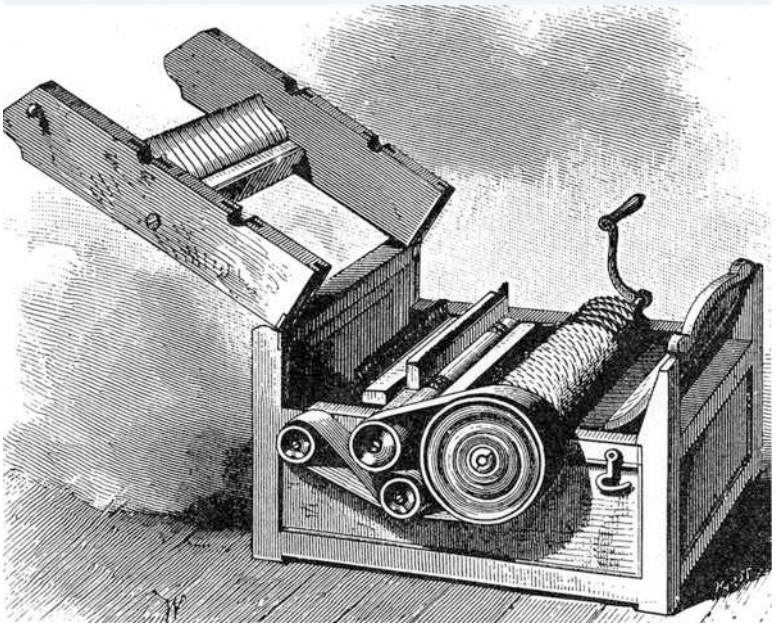
The Industrial Revolution resulted in a massive boost to the textile industry in Britain. As mechanisation increased, the need for raw materials grew. Textiles became Britain's largest export, and the textile mills demanded more and more cotton. Until the early 1800s Britain's cotton came mainly from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

The long, hot summers and rich soils of the South were ideal for cotton production, but the work in the cotton fields was brutal. After the cotton was picked, slaves had to separate the seeds from the cotton fibre.

This was very labour intensive: a slave working from dawn until dusk would be able to process about half a kilogram of cotton. In 1793 an inventor named Eli Whitney invented a machine that removed the seeds automatically (see **SOURCE 1**). With the cotton engine, or 'cotton gin' as it was called, a slave could seed more than 20 kilograms of cotton in a day — about forty times as much as before the invention.

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

SOURCE 1 Eli Whitney's cotton gin



4.4.2 Life on the plantation

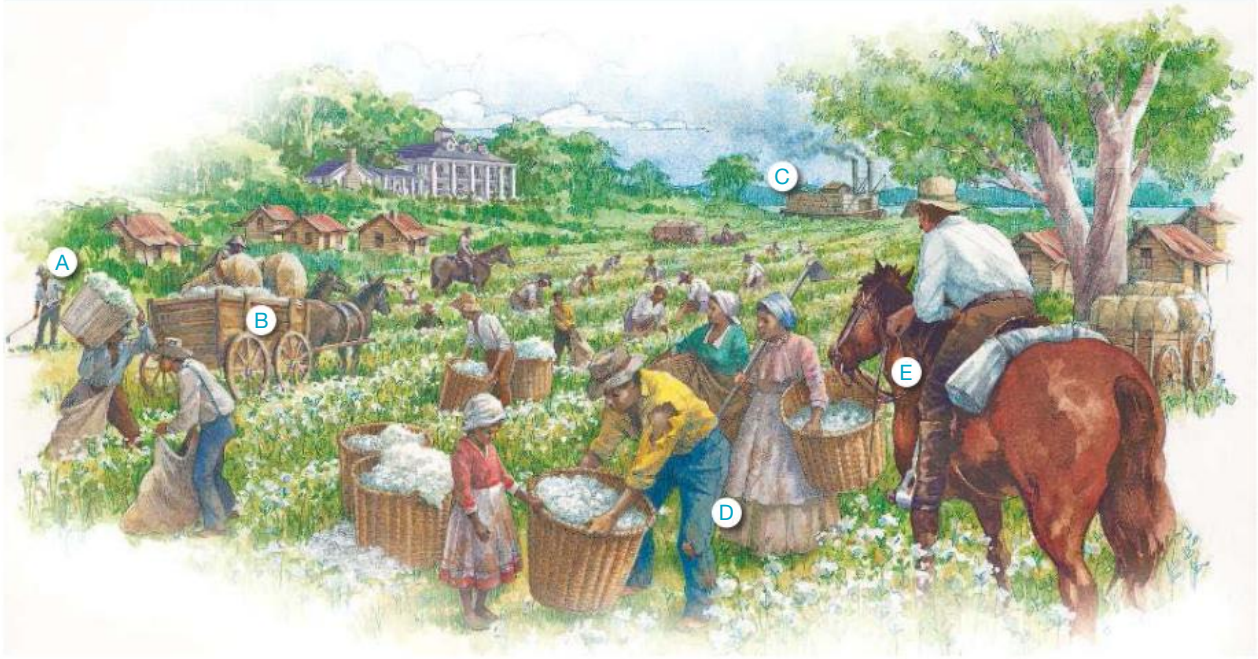
Of every 100 slaves taken captive in Africa, about 25 died before being put to work. Another third of those who survived long enough to reach a plantation died within two years. The survivors experienced the process called 'seasoning' during which they learned their roles and grew to fear the slave drivers. Punishment for wrongdoing was harsh. For any sign of resistance to cruel treatment or for working too slowly, slaves were lashed or made to walk a **treadwheel**. The other slaves were often forced to witness the punishments, which were supposed to be a deterrent. **SOURCE 2** recalls one instance of a slave being punished.

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

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

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

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



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

4.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why were the southern states of the United States an ideal place to grow cotton?
2. **HS1** What invention made removing seeds from cotton much faster?
3. **HS1** What percentage of the world's cotton did the southern states produce?
4. **HS1** Why did southern politicians coin the term 'King Cotton'?
5. **HS1** What proportion of southern farmers owned slaves?
6. **HS1** What percentage of slaves taken captive survived the 'seasoning' process?
7. **HS1** Explain why it was important for slaves to fear the slave drivers.

4.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What effect would the punishment described in **SOURCE 2** have on slaves who witnessed it?
2. **HS3** Identify elements in **SOURCE 3** that illustrate the value of cotton at the time.
3. **HS4** Identify the changes brought to America by the cotton industry.
4. **HS5** Examine the positive and negative effects on the life of a slave after the introduction of the cotton gin.
5. **HS6** How would you respond to the statement 'The invention of the cotton gin was one of the most significant events in history'? To what extent can this statement be justified?

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4.5 The end of slavery?

4.5.1 Early opposition

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

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

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

SOURCE 1 The British Parliament debates slavery.

4.5.2 The movement gains momentum

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

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

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

4.5.3 Abolition in America

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

SOURCE 3 A quote from Frederick Douglass, 1852

What to the slave is the 4th of July?

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

DID YOU KNOW?

The American Civil War was fought between 1861 and 1865 over a range of issues. Among them, the issue of slavery has become the most famous. During the war more than 150 000 freed slaves served in the Union army against the southern states that supported slavery. The most famous unit was the 54th Massachusetts Regiment, commanded by Robert Gould Shaw. The volunteer soldiers of the regiment were recruited by white abolitionists. The story of the 54th Massachusetts Regiment was the subject of the 1989 film *Glory*.

4.5 ACTIVITY

Choose one of the following people to conduct further research on: Frederick Douglass, John Newton, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Nat Turner, John Brown, Harriet Tubman. Evaluate their significance to the abolitionist cause using the criteria of importance, profundity, quantity, durability and relevance.

Determining historical significance

4.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain the meaning of the word 'abolition'.
2. **HS1** Why did the southern states resist the abolition of slavery?
3. **HS1** What was the economic argument for abolishing slavery?
4. **HS1** What important step towards abolition was made in 1807?
5. **HS1** Why would it have been almost impossible to enforce the Emancipation Proclamation?
6. **HS1** What was the outcome of the Thirteenth Amendment?

4.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 1** and suggest why it took a long time for the British Parliament to make a decision to abolish slavery.
2. **HS3** Outline the meaning of the phrase 'Am I not a man and a brother?' in **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS6** Independence Day in the United States is celebrated on 4 July. It marks the day the Declaration of Independence from Britain was signed by the first thirteen colonies. Consider the quote in **SOURCE 3**. What did Frederick Douglass mean by 'What to the slave is the 4th of July?'
4. **HS5** Summarise the short- and long-term effects of the Mansfield Judgement on the abolition of slavery.
5. **HS5** Why do you think stories such as *Uncle Tom's Cabin* helped the abolition cause even though they may have been fictional?

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4.6 Crime and punishment

4.6.1 New society, old solutions

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

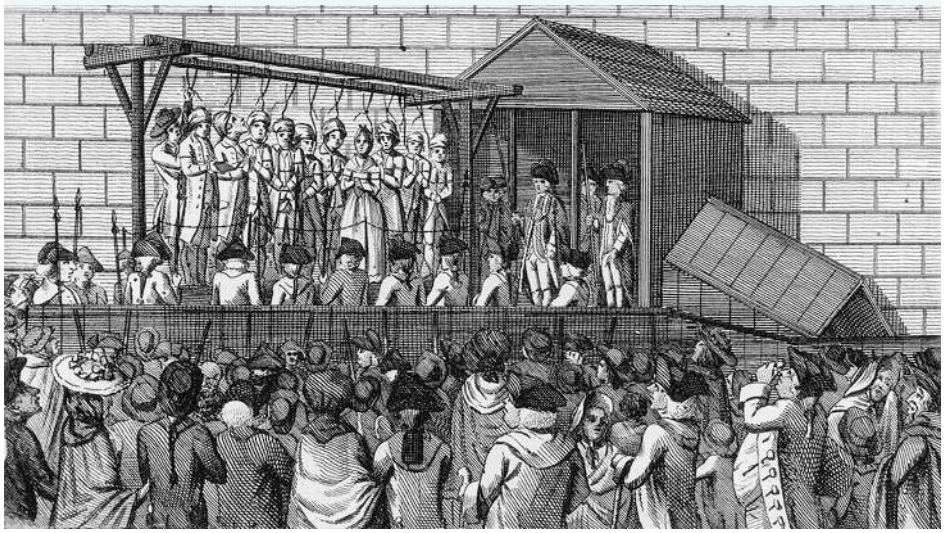
The Industrial Revolution transformed the British economic base from agriculture to industry. In a process called enclosure (see topic 2), wealthy landowners bought up small farms and fenced off common land to combine into single, large estates, in order to make production consistent and more efficient with the use of new technologies. Production was often more efficient, but the process of enclosure also resulted in poor farmers being forced from their homes and livelihoods. Similarly, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in Scotland, thousands of country people were forced from their homes during the infamous Highland Clearances by landlords eager to improve the agricultural output of their land.

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

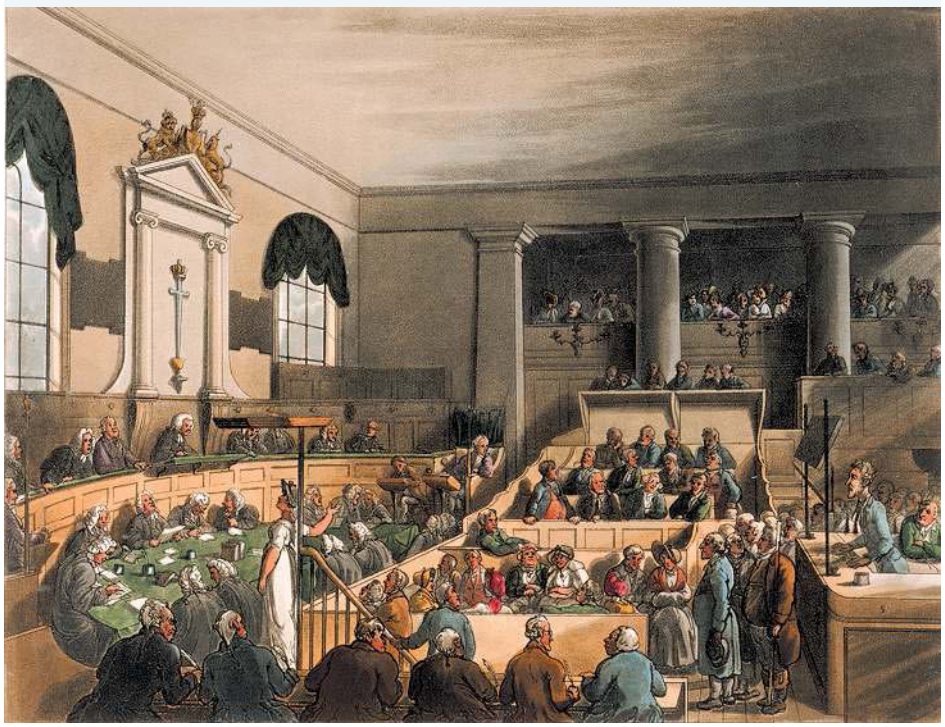
The government's response to these growing social problems was simply to make criminal punishments harsher. About two hundred different crimes drew the death penalty. Yet the threat of hanging did not have the effect the government desired. Public hangings, intended to serve as a warning, took on a carnival atmosphere (see **SOURCE 1**). Thousands of people gathered to watch, even bringing their children to the spectacle. A bulletin called *The Newgate Calendar,* subtitled 'The **Malefactors**' Bloody Register', was published each month with the names of all those executed. It soon contained biographies and stories of criminals and became a regular bestseller.

While many crimes were punishable by hanging, others carried a sentence of **transportation**. In some cases, the death penalty might be **commuted** to transportation. This meant being banished from England to serve out the sentence in one of Britain's distant colonies. In the 1700s most convicts were sent to America to work on the cotton or sugar plantations, but this was not popular with plantation owners, who found slaves more manageable. At any rate, the American Revolution of the 1770s brought this option to an end. For a while convicts were dispatched to West Africa on the ships sent out to pick up their human cargo in the Triangular Trade, but disease, starvation, desertion and mutiny took their toll on convicts and military personnel alike. The plan was a disastrous failure.

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



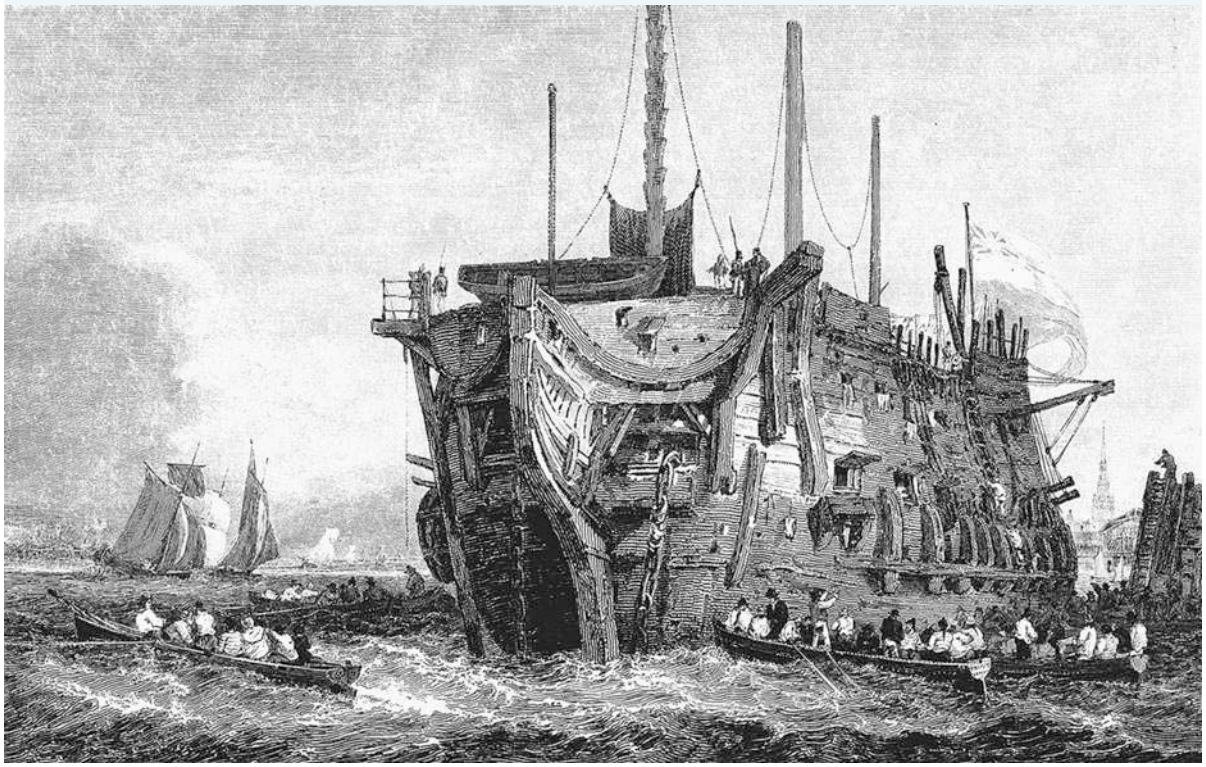
SOURCE 2 This artwork from c. 1809 shows a trial in session at the Old Bailey courthouse in London.



4.6.2 What to do?

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

SOURCE 3 A prison hulk moored in the Thames River, London. This artwork dates to c. 1826.



DID YOU KNOW?

In eighteenth-century England about two hundred crimes were punishable by the death penalty. They included murder, pick-pocketing, poaching, highway robbery, stealing horses or sheep, and cutting down young trees. Children were often among those sentenced to death.

4.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did so many people turn to crime in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
2. **HS1** Why were punishments for crimes so harsh in eighteenth-century England?
3. **HS1** Explain why the plantation owners preferred slaves rather than convicts as workers.
4. **HS1** What made Africa an unsuitable place to send convicts?
5. **HS1** What were hulks and why were they necessary?

4.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe the scene in **SOURCE 1**. Evaluate the effectiveness of the intention to make an example of those being hanged.
2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 3** as a reference, make a list of reasons why conditions on a hulk were so unpleasant.
3. **HS4** What were the main changes in the justice system that occurred in England during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries?
4. **HS5** Explain the short-term effects of the American Revolution on the transportation of English convicts.
5. **HS3** How valuable do you think **SOURCE 2** is for those studying this topic? Explain.

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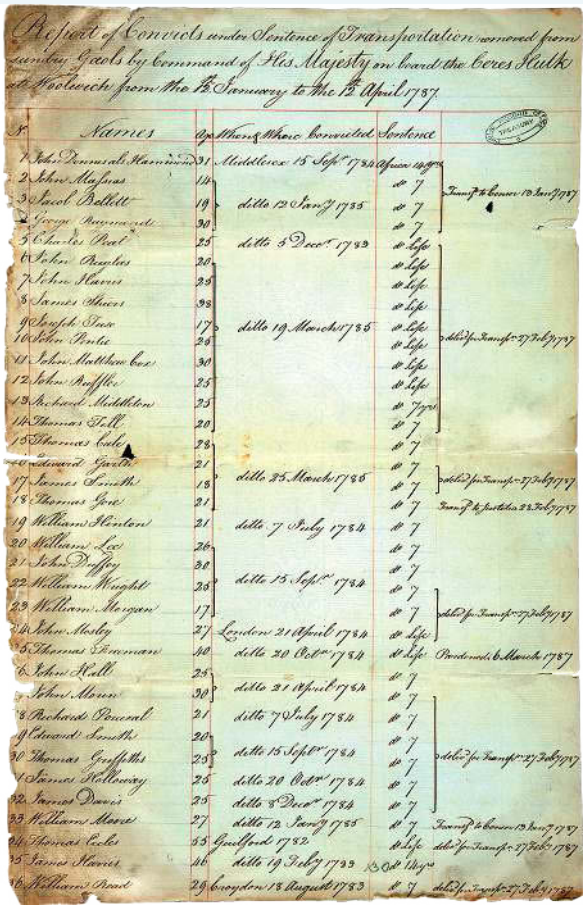
4.7 Transportation to Australia

4.7.1 A solution presents itself

In the 1770s the British government faced a major social problem. The country's prisons were overflowing and the newly independent United States refused to take any more of Britain's unwanted convicts. The hangman's noose was not proving to be an effective deterrent. New prisons were considered too expensive to build, and not many people really cared enough about the problem anyway. As the situation worsened one distant possibility began to emerge as a real option.

In 1770 Captain James Cook had sighted and charted much of the eastern coastline of Australia. But Britain, at war with France and distracted by the increasingly rebellious American colonies, was already under financial strain and did not follow up Cook's expedition. With the loss of the American colonies, however, the possibility of transportation to New South Wales began to gain support. Joseph Banks, a botanist who had sailed with Cook in 1770, enthusiastically agreed and thought that Botany Bay would be an ideal place for a settlement.

SOURCE 1 A handwritten 'report of convicts under sentence of transportation'


Report of Convicts under Sentence of Transportation removed from various Gaols by Command of His Majesty on board the Ceres Hulk at Woolwich from the 15 January to the 12 April 1787

No.	Names	Age	When & Where Committed	Sentence	
1	John Dennisall Hammond	31	Middlesex 15 Sept 1784	4 years wages	
2	John Masons	18		do 7	
3	Jacob Bellett	19	ditto 12 January 1785	do 7	Transp[d] to Bermuda 13 Jan[y] 1787
4	George Drummond	30		do 7	
5	Charles Peal	25	ditto 5 Decem[r] 1783	do Life	
6	John Bowles	20		do Life	
7	John Warren	25		do Life	
8	James Shaw	28		do Life	
9	Joseph Dare	17	ditto 19 March 1785	do Life	
10	John Potts	25		do Life	ditto for Transp[n] 27 July 1787
11	John Matthews	30		do Life	
12	John Proffer	25		do Life	
13	Richard Middleton	25		do Life	
14	Thomas Tull	20		do 7 yrs	
15	Thomas Cole	28		do 7	
16	Edward Gurle	21		do 7	
17	James Smith	15	ditto 25 March 1786	do 7	ditto for Transp[n] 27 July 1787
18	Thomas Jones	21		do 7	Transp[d] by Justices 22 July 1787
19	William Hinton	21	ditto 7 July 1784	do 7	
20	William Lee	26		do 7	
21	John Duffey	30		do 7	
22	William Wright	28	ditto 15 Sept[r] 1784	do 7	
23	William Morgan	17		do 7	ditto for Transp[n] 27 July 1787
24	John Mosley	27	London 21 April 1784	do Life	
25	Thomas Freeman	40	ditto 20 Oct[r] 1784	do Life	Pardoned 6 March 1787
26	John Hall	25		do 7	
	John Mann	30	ditto 21 April 1784	do 7	
28	Richard Pownal	21	ditto 7 July 1784	do 7	
29	Edward Smith	20		do 7	
30	Thomas Griffiths	23	ditto 15 Sept[r] 1784	do 7	ditto for Transp[n] 27 July 1787
31	James Holloway	25	ditto 20 Oct[r] 1784	do 7	
32	James Davis	25	ditto 8 Dec[r] 1784	do 7	
33	William Moore	27	ditto 12 Jan[y] 1785	do 7	Transp[d] to Bermuda 13 Jan[y] 1787
34	Thomas Cole	55	Guilford 1782	do Life	ditto for Transp[n] 27 July 1787
35	James Harris	46	ditto 19 July 1783	1 Oct[r] 1790	
36	William Read	29	Croydon 18 August 1783	do 7	ditto for Transp[n] 27 July 1787

The British soon recognised that a colony in New South Wales would serve several useful purposes. It would go some way towards compensating for the loss of the American colonies. It would provide Britain with an important military and imperial presence in the southern Pacific region. It would also be a dumping ground for convicts, whose labour could be used to help build the colony. In August 1786 the British government made the decision to establish a convict settlement in New South Wales.

Once the decision was made, the fleet had to be assembled. Captain Arthur Phillip, an experienced naval officer, was chosen to lead the fleet. It was his job to prepare the 11 ships for the 20 000-kilometre voyage. It took six months to complete the preparations and, by May 1787, the fleet had assembled at Portsmouth on the south coast of England.

The convicts walked through the town to the docks, to the dismay of many townspeople, and were rowed out to the waiting ships in small boats. The fleet left with little fanfare at three o'clock on the morning of 13 May 1787.

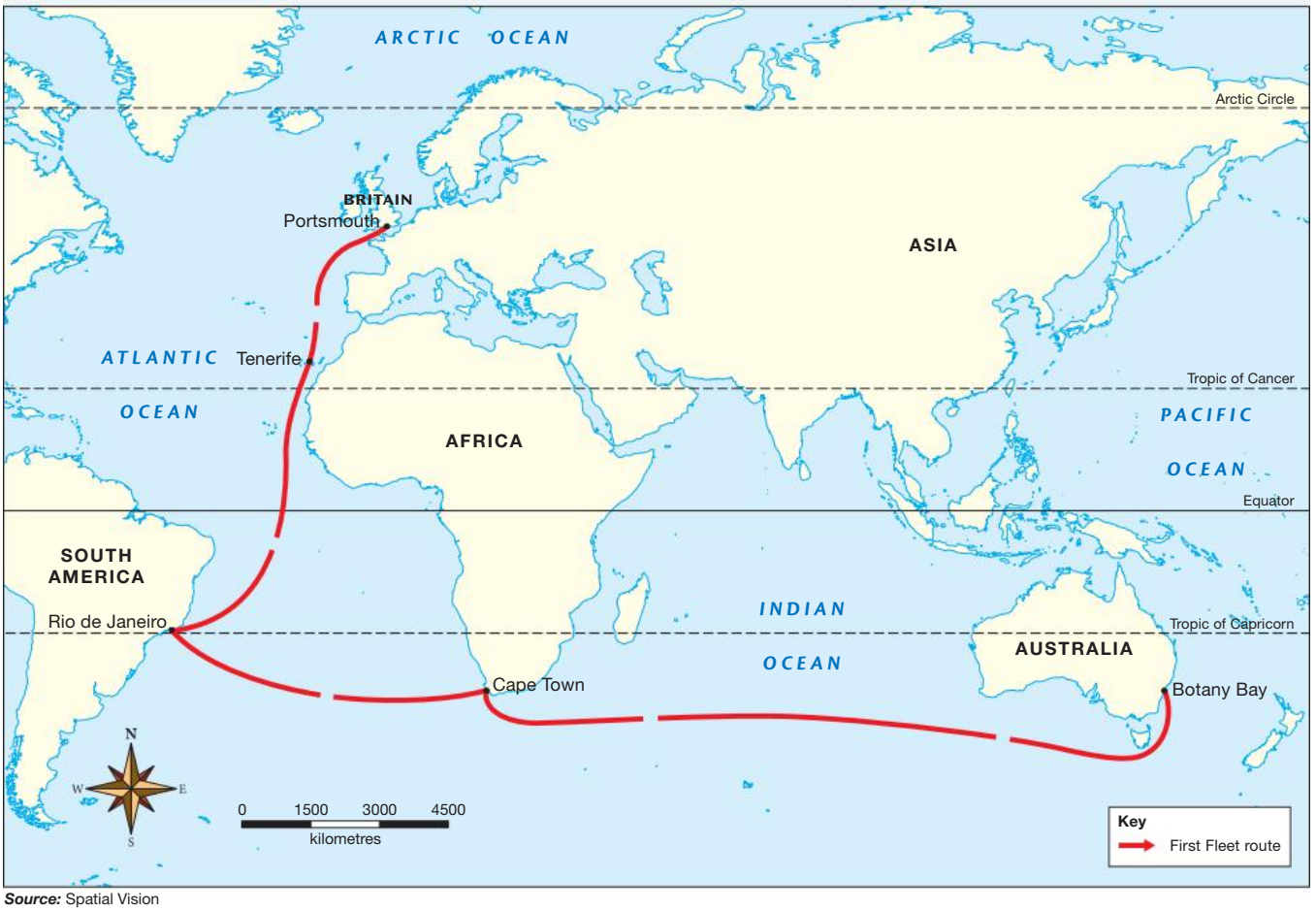
Nearly 1500 men, women and children were on board when the fleet weighed anchor. Among the officials were Captain Phillip, a judge, a doctor, a surveyor and a chaplain. The ships' crews numbered about 450. Just over 200 marines sailed with the fleet, their purpose to protect the fleet in the event of attack and to control the convicts. Twenty-seven dependants of the marines — wives and children — were also on board. Lastly, there were the convicts themselves. Numbering 759, they accounted for half the complement of the fleet. There were roughly three male convicts for every female.

SOURCE 2 A portrait of Captain Arthur Phillip painted in 1786

4.7.2 Bound for Botany Bay

Today's cruise ships can sail around the world without needing to put into port, but in the eighteenth century it was a very different story. The ships of the First Fleet were small and needed to regularly resupply. The fleet made three stops on the voyage to take on food and water and tend to repairs (see **SOURCE 3**). On their final port of call, the Cape of Good Hope on the southern tip of Africa, they also secured a range of plant seeds for food crops in the new settlement.

SOURCE 3 A map tracing the First Fleet's voyage



Source: Spatial Vision

Captain Phillip knew that the long voyage across the Indian Ocean could be the most treacherous of all. It would also be the most frightening for both crew and convicts because they were sailing into largely unknown waters. Phillip decided to split the fleet so the better sailers would not have to wait for the slower ships. For nine weeks the ships were battered by the winds of the **Roaring Forties**. Livestock were thrown about and injured, and even some of the most experienced seamen were seasick. Conditions for the convicts below deck were most likely terrible. Remarkably, none of the eleven ships were lost.

With what must have been great relief, the fleet sailed into Botany Bay on 18 January 1788, but neither the bay nor the land surrounding it met their expectations. The bay was shallow and offered little protection from storms; the soil was sandy; and there was no good, easily accessible supply of fresh water. For a moment Captain Phillip must have thought that the entire voyage might end in disaster.

All was not lost, however. In 1770 Captain Cook had sailed past another bay a few kilometres to the north and had named it Port Jackson. He did not explore it but recorded that it appeared to be a good harbour. Phillip left the fleet at Botany Bay to survey Port Jackson for himself, finding it 'the finest harbour in the world'. The rest of the fleet soon transferred to Port Jackson, anchoring in the cove within it that Phillip named after Lord Sydney, Britain's Home Secretary and the man who had appointed him. The water at Sydney Cove was deep enough for ships to anchor close to the shore, and there was a good supply of fresh water. The new colony was officially proclaimed on 26 January 1788 (see **SOURCE 4**).

SOURCE 4 Captain Arthur Phillip raising the British Union Jack at Sydney Cove. This artwork was painted in 1937.

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- Australia and Asia > **Convict transportation to Australia**

4.7.3 Trials and challenges

It was an uncertain beginning for the settlement, however, for despite its obvious other advantages, the soil around Port Jackson proved as unsuitable for planting as that of Botany Bay, and the first crops withered and died. In the first two years the settlers at Sydney Cove grew desperately short of food. Rations were reduced to stretch food supplies, and a supply ship that was sent from England failed to arrive. For Captain Phillip, now the governor of New South Wales, failure, once again, seemed a real threat. Some relief came in mid 1790 with the arrival of the Second Fleet. With it came fresh supplies, but more than a quarter of the convicts on board had died on the terrible journey and most of the survivors were too weak to work.

At last, fertile soil was found and cultivated at Parramatta on the edge of the settlement, and the crops successfully grown there finally guaranteed the long-term survival of the colony. In 1792 poor health forced Governor Phillip to resign and return to England. He took with him kangaroos, dingoes, native plants and two Aboriginal men to show to the king. Phillip's firm but fair command of the colony had ensured its survival. When food was scarce he made sure that rations were distributed equitably, with no privileges for rank, thereby alleviating resentment and potential convict revolt. By the time he left in December 1792 the colony was securely established and growing. However, this is not to say that there were no challenges. Relations with the Indigenous peoples became strained at times and as the colony grew and spread the likelihood of conflict with the Aboriginal population increased. This is explored further in topic 5.

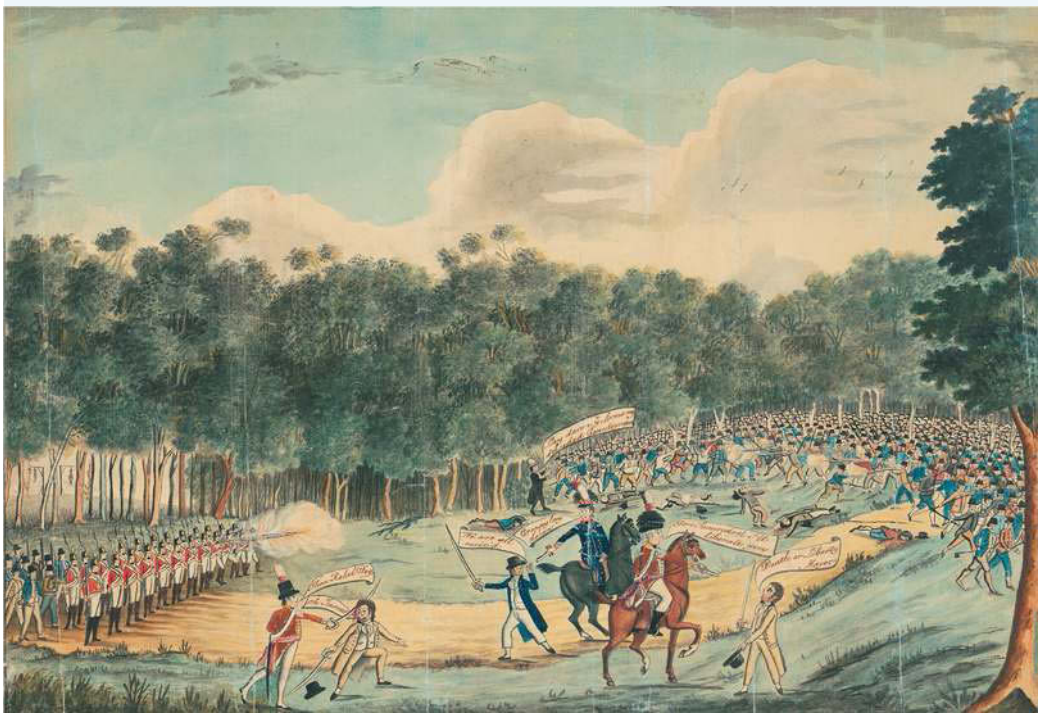
Twelve years later in 1804 the authorities in New South Wales faced the first serious challenge to their rule. Tensions that Governor Phillip had managed to avoid boiled over when a group of convicts, mainly from Ireland, began a large-scale rebellion against the British authorities in Australia. Two convicts, Phillip Cunningham and William Johnston, had an ambitious plan to lead a band of convicts against the British and create their own empire, with Cunningham as its leader. The plan was for the initial two hundred convicts from Castle Hill to meet with others at another convict settlement at Hawkesbury, bringing the group to more than one thousand. From there they would march to Parramatta and finally on to Sydney.

On the evening of 4 March 1804 the rebellion began. With cries of 'Liberty or death!', the rebels overpowered the small garrison that guarded them. They began recruiting more convicts from surrounding farms, eventually gathering a force of around 600.

However, word of the uprising had spread to Parramatta and Sydney, and a force of British soldiers marched through the night to intercept the rebels. Forced into retreat, Cunningham struggled to maintain control over the unruly, and often drunk, convicts. The British force soon caught up with them, and at a place called Vinegar Hill the soldiers attacked. Despite being armed, the rebels offered almost no resistance to the professional soldiers. The battle was over within a matter of minutes. In the aftermath nine rebels were executed and many others flogged or sent to places of secondary punishment.

The whole rebellion had lasted only three days. It was, nonetheless, the largest convict rebellion in Australian history.

SOURCE 5 A painting by an unknown artist depicting the final battle of the uprising at Vinegar Hill



4.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify two reasons why New South Wales was a favourable choice for transportation of convicts.
2. **HS1** How many years after Captain Cook's voyage did the First Fleet arrive in Botany Bay?
3. **HS1** How long did the voyage of the First Fleet take?
4. **HS1** Outline the advantages that Port Jackson had over Botany Bay.
5. **HS1** Identify the challenges facing the early years of the settlement.
6. **HS1** How long did Arthur Phillip serve as governor of New South Wales?

4.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1** carefully and answer the following questions.
   (a) What information about the convicts is provided in the report?
   (b) What other sources could help us gain a broader understanding of what happened to these convicts?
   (c) Identify the limitations of this source that might be revealed by your answer to the previous question.
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 5**.
   (a) Identify and describe the location of the following figures in the painting: convict rebels; British soldiers; execution of rebels.
   (b) How accurate might this source be in presenting the events of the battle at Vinegar Hill? Explain.
3. **HS3** Is it possible to determine whether **SOURCES 4** and **5** are primary or secondary sources? If you are unsure, what other information could help you decide?
4. **HS2** Describe the major changes to the early settlement between 1788 and 1792.
5. **HS6** Discuss the significance of Arthur Phillip to the successful establishment of the settlement. You could think about why he was chosen to lead the voyage, and the type of leadership he appears to have demonstrated in the early days of the settlement.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.8 Convict life

4.8.1 Convicts turned good

The penal settlement at Sydney Cove was isolated from other European settlements and, as a result, made a unique open-air prison. Surrounded by a seemingly endless, alien and menacing wilderness, chains and walls were scarcely needed. Nonetheless, the convicts were under no illusions that they were anything other than prisoners in this new settlement.

Convicts with skills such as carpentry were put to work building the new town and those that grew around it. Many convict-built buildings still stand in Sydney today. Projects such as the Great North Road, which runs between Sydney and Newcastle, were also built using convict labour. Working conditions for most convicts were harsh, made worse by the hot, dry climate, so different to what they were used to in England.

SOURCE 1 Mary Reibey, an ex-convict, now appears on the Australian $20 note.

Few convicts returned to England after their sentence was completed. Financial assistance from the government was unlikely, as the point of transportation in the first place was to be rid of them. The cost of the return journey was beyond the vast majority of freed convicts and so they remained in Australia. Some convicts made a good life for themselves. Mary Reibey, for example, was transported for seven years for stealing a horse. She worked as a maid in New South Wales and was allowed to marry. After serving out her sentence she became a respected and very wealthy businesswoman. Today she is featured on the Australian $20 note.

Another example of a successful convict was the architect Francis Greenway. Transported for forgery, in the colony he used his creative talents to design government buildings. Some of these buildings, such as the graceful Hyde Park Barracks (see **SOURCE 2**), can still be seen today.

SOURCE 2 Hyde Park Barracks in Sydney. This building was designed by the convict architect Francis Greenway.

4.8.2 Secondary punishment

Unfortunately, for every Mary Reibey or Francis Greenway there were many others for whom the convict life was a living hell. Those judged to be unmanageable or defiant might be sent to even more isolated places of secondary punishment. The most notorious of these were on Norfolk Island and at Port Arthur in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania).

Norfolk Island was characterised by brutal physical punishment. Lying 1700 kilometres off the coast of New South Wales, escape from this small, isolated island was practically impossible. Floggings and beatings were commonplace and convicts were worked beyond the point of exhaustion. There was no effort to reform prisoners sent to Norfolk Island — this was a place of punishment, not rehabilitation. Following a mutiny in 1834 a clergyman was sent to comfort those convicts sentenced to death. In an illustration of how terrible Norfolk Island was, the minister recorded that 'each man who heard his reprieve wept bitterly, and each man who heard of his condemnation to death went down on his knees and thanked God'. Eventually the penal settlement on Norfolk Island was closed down, partly due to the notoriety of the conditions.

Port Arthur, on the other hand, was a new type of prison. Established as a penal settlement in 1833, here psychological punishment took precedence over physical brutality. Like Norfolk Island, this was a place to send convicts who reoffended while serving their sentence. Convicts spent long periods in isolation at Port Arthur. Out of isolation, they wore hoods so that they could not recognise anyone and they in turn could not be recognised. Even the chapel building was designed so that the convicts could not see each other when they removed their hoods for worship (see **SOURCE 5**). The aim was to enforce anonymity and take away any sense of individuality. At the time this was thought to be a more effective rehabilitation technique than purely physical punishment.

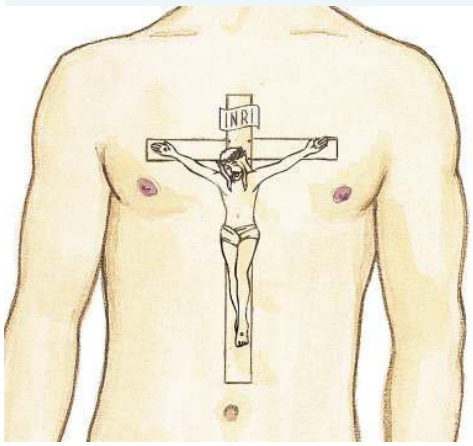
Over the 80 years from 1788 until the last convicts arrived in 1868, approximately 160 000 convicts were transported to the Australian colonies.

SOURCE 3 Pinchgut Island in Sydney Harbour was one of the earliest sites of secondary punishment.

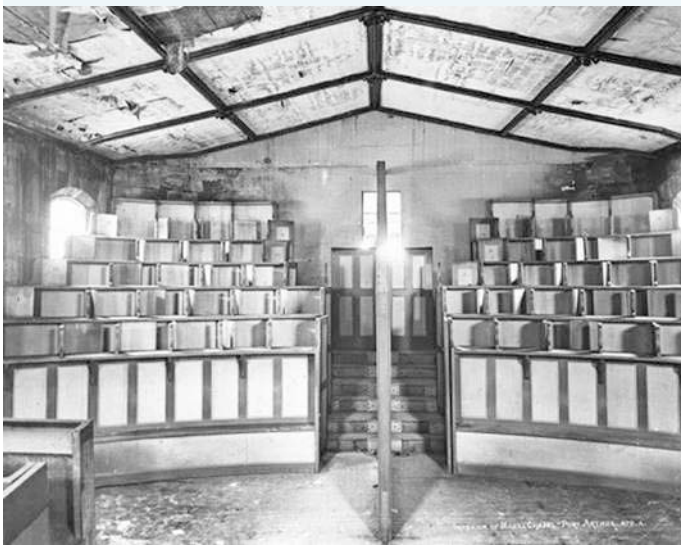
DID YOU KNOW?

In 1828 a census was taken in New South Wales to record all inhabitants of the colony, both convict and free (the Aboriginal population was not included). It found that half the population were convicts and that former convicts made up nearly half of the free population. In 1828, then, about 75 per cent of the population of New South Wales either were, or had been, convicts!

SOURCE 4 Many convicts marked themselves with intricate or detailed tattoos, possibly in an effort to regain some degree of individuality after having been reduced to a number. Ironically, one convict who managed to escape was recaptured when a constable recognised him, not by his face, but by his distinctive tattoo.



SOURCE 5 The chapel at Port Arthur prison. Even here the convicts would not be able to see each other from their individual booths.



SOURCE 6 Prisoners in the exercise yard wearing hoods for anonymity. This was a depiction of Pentonville prison in London, a prison run with the same philosophy as Port Arthur. The illustration was published in 1862.

DISCUSS

- In groups, discuss the difference between punishment and rehabilitation. Consider the attitude in England during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and discuss the extent to which you feel a sentence of transportation was intended purely as punishment.
- In the modern world, is it an acceptable argument that sometimes punishment of a criminal is more important than rehabilitation? In your group, share and summarise your thoughts.

[Ethical Capability]

4.8 ACTIVITY

Investigate and consider the significance of the role Mary Reibey played in the establishment of the settlement in Sydney. Do you think her image should appear on the $20 note? Write a paragraph outlining your views.

Determining historical significance

4.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What made Sydney Cove a unique open-air prison?
2. **HS1** Make a list of the sort of skills that would have been useful in the new European settlement in New South Wales.
3. **HS1** What was the key difference between the Norfolk Island and Port Arthur prisons?
4. **HS1** Why was the Norfolk Island prison closed down?
5. **HS1** Use the words provided to fill the gaps and complete the paragraph below.

Mary Reibey	carpenter	architect	Arthur Norfolk
Francis Greenway	businesswoman	minister	government
$20 note	Pinchgut Island	Reserve Bank	$50 note

Some freed convicts made a good lives for themselves. _____, for example, became a highly regarded _____, and designed many _____ buildings. _____ became a successful _____ whose image is now featured on the _____.

4.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe the scene in **SOURCE 6**. What do you think is the purpose of the hoods the prisoners are wearing?
2. **HS3** Given the image presented in **SOURCE 6**, how reasonable is it to suggest that tattoos such as the one in **SOURCE 4** were worn to maintain some individuality? Explain your thoughts.
3. **HS3** Discuss the suggestion that for some convicts, being transported was 'the best thing that could have happened to them'. Use at least one specific example to support or challenge the statement.
4. **HS4** Describe the changes in types of secondary punishment in New South Wales over the course of the nineteenth century.
5. **HS6** How important was convict labour to the establishment of the New South Wales colony? Use examples to explain your ideas.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.9 Emigration to Australia

4.9.1 Push and pull factors

Convicts were unwilling migrants. They were sent to Australia against their will as punishment for criminal convictions. As the colonies grew, they attracted free settlers — people who made a conscious decision to start a new life in Australia. In the eighteenth century these settlers came mainly from Europe, and they came for a range of different reasons.

The decisions of migrants to travel thousands of kilometres from their homelands in Europe to Australia were based on a variety of factors. There were often good reasons for them to leave home (push factors) and there were reasons to choose Australia as a destination (pull factors). Both these forces tended to operate at the same time.

Europe in the first half of the nineteenth century was an uncertain place. Wars and revolutions had left many people in desperate straits. In Britain the Industrial Revolution had made life unbearable for some. Unemployment, rising rents and taxes, and grim conditions in factories and in overcrowded cities led many to dream of a better life across the sea. In Scotland the notorious Highland Clearances had forced many people from their land, leaving them with few options for feeding their families (see **SOURCE 2**). In Ireland in the 1840s the failure of the potato crop led to widespread starvation and despair.

SOURCE 1 'Here and there; or, emigration a remedy', a cartoon from the English magazine *Punch* in 1848

Until 1850 most emigrants from Europe still travelled to the United States or Canada. These countries were more settled and the voyage cost only a fraction of a ticket to Australia. For this reason, those who went to Australia often did so with government help. In order to help the colonies grow, the British government encouraged 'assisted migration' to Australia by people whose skills would be useful in the new colonies. Services such as carpentry and masonry were important to help build the towns and cities. However, assisted migrants would have no say about their place or type of employment. They had to go where they were told. 'Unassisted migrants', who paid their own way, made up about one-third of migrants

to Australia in the first half of the nineteenth century. Some of them were tradespeople who were keen to establish a business in one of the new towns. Others were from wealthy families who believed their money would go further in Australia than in Britain. Many were encouraged by the promise of government land grants and convict labour.

The level of government assistance for migration followed economic cycles. For example, during the 1830s the government decided to sell land rather than give it away to migrants free of charge. The money earned by the government was used to help fund further migration. In contrast, 1841 was a depression year for New South Wales. The price of wool had fallen and unemployment rose. Migrants were not encouraged in the 1840s. In the 1850s, however, the gold rushes resulted in massive immigration. Another depression in the 1890s brought immigration to an abrupt halt.

SOURCE 2 This painting from 1865 depicts the expulsion of a family during the Highland Clearances in Scotland.

4.9.2 The voyage

For migrants travelling from England to Australia, the voyage was faster, if only slightly more comfortable, than those of the convicts. Those who could afford it paid for a private cabin, but 90 per cent of migrants had to endure steerage class. This was the cheapest passenger accommodation, typically at the stern of the ship. It was usually confined, foul-smelling and crowded, offering no privacy. Meals were simple, based around oatmeal, rice and the occasional meat stew, but migrants had to supply their own plates and cutlery. The tedious voyage could take up to four and a half months — plenty of time for migrants to wonder whether they had made the right decision!

Although steerage lacked privacy and comfort, it did create a new sense of belonging for many migrants. With nothing but time on their hands, people from many different backgrounds mingled (see **SOURCE 3**). A blacksmith from Liverpool might find himself talking to a businessman from Edinburgh or a small farmer from Kent. For many migrants this was the first time they had travelled more than a few miles from their own village. Of course, the absence of privacy in the long weeks at sea could also leave tempers frayed, and tensions sometimes boiled over.

Safe arrival in Australia did not mean the end of the migrants' worries. If they did not have jobs organised before leaving England they would have to find work, which was more of a challenge if they had arrived with their families. Employers did not want to support children who did not work. As the coastal towns grew and became crowded, migrants were sent inland to work on farms. Others moved from place to place in search of work. The Henty family, for example, emigrated to Australia in 1829 to breed sheep. They arrived first at the Swan River colony, now Perth. Finding the land poor they decided to try Van Diemen's Land, but they missed out on free land grants that the government was offering there, so they moved again to the south coast of the Port Phillip District and established a settlement at Portland. In doing so they became the first permanent European settlers in what would become the state of Victoria in 1851.

SOURCE 3 *Emigrants at dinner*, a scene from a migrant ship of the nineteenth century

SOURCE 4 From a letter written by James Henty, quoted in R. Broome, *The Colonial Experience*, 2009

I have almost come to the conclusion that New South Wales will do more for our family than England ever will. What can we do with ten thousand pounds among all of us? It would be idle to suppose we can live many years longer on less than two hundred pounds a year, unless indeed we chose to descend many steps in the scale of Society, having at the same time an opportunity of doing as well and perhaps considerably better in New South Wales, under British Dominion and a fine climate. Immediately we get there we shall be placed in the first Rank in Society, a circumstance which must not be overlooked.

4.9.3 Tyranny of distance

With family members so far away, those back in England looked forward to any news of how their loved ones were faring in the Australian colonies. Unlike today's world in which emails from around the world are received almost instantly, letters took months to reach the other side of the world. To send a letter and receive a reply could take a whole year.

During the mid-eighteenth century a range of different British publications encouraged, or at times discouraged, migration to Australia. Books promoted emigration, highlighting the potential of the colonies as a migrant destination. Despite periodic negative news of economic depression and the shadow of transportation hanging over the colonies, many in England saw the colonies as sources of opportunity, wealth and power. A less-than-perfect image of the colonies would certainly not dissuade many of those with family already in Australia from wanting to make the journey themselves.

The vast majority of migrants who came to Australia in the 1800s were from the British Isles. They brought with them what historian Richard Broome calls their 'cultural baggage', including ideas about society, religion, class and gender. As a result, British institutions and clubs were firmly established in colonial Australia. At the same time, this cultural heritage was being influenced and reshaped by the new world. That new world was being populated more and more by people born in Australia, rather than those born overseas and, while they still considered themselves British, many increasingly associated themselves with the land in which they were born.

SOURCE 5 George Baxter's painting from the mid-nineteenth century *News from Australia* depicts a family in England receiving news from a loved one in the colonies.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Movement of peoples**
- Australia and Asia > **European migration to Australia**

4.9 ACTIVITIES

1. Choose either the Highland Clearances or the Irish famine to investigate and analyse its causes, as well as its short- and long-term effects on the people of the particular country and on Australia. You may choose to present your response in a graphic organiser or as a short written response. **Analysing cause and effect**
2. Think about the patterns of migration to Australia in the nineteenth century.
   (a) What challenges facing migrants arriving to Australia today are similar to those faced by people who arrived in the nineteenth century?
   (b) Are there any challenges that are different? Consider the range of nations from which migrants arrive today, the cultural differences, and so on.
   (c) What challenges might face those who are already settled in Australia when new migrants arrive?
   (d) What qualities do you think both the new migrants and the already present population would need to help maintain a thriving community? **[Intercultural Capability]**

4.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Who were the free settlers?
2. **HS1** Explain the difference between 'push' and 'pull' factors.
3. **HS1** Write a paragraph explaining the situation in Europe in the first half of the nineteenth century, and outlining the factors that led to migration.
4. **HS1** Suggest two reasons (pull factors) why, up until 1850, most emigrants from Europe travelled to the United States or Canada rather than Australia.
5. **HS1** What sort of people did the British government encourage to migrate? Suggest why this was the case.
6. **HS1** Outline why the level of government assistance for migrants varied throughout the nineteenth century.
7. **HS1** Summarise the advantages and disadvantages of assisted migration over unassisted migration.
8. **HS1** Describe the conditions on board a migrant ship for the average passenger.
9. **HS1** How long might it have taken to receive a reply to a letter in the Australian colonies?
10. **HS1** What is your understanding of the term 'cultural baggage'?
11. **HS1** Outline in what ways the migrants of the 1800s brought the old world into the new.

4.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain how realistic you think the 'here' and 'there' scenes in **SOURCE 1** are.
2. **HS3** Comment on the reliability of **SOURCE 1** as a historical source.
3. **HS3** Evaluate the accuracy of the image in **SOURCE 5**. Does it fit with what you have learned in this subtopic about conditions aboard migrant vessels? Explain.
4. **HS3** Use **SOURCE 4** to identify:
   (a) the push factors for the Henty family
   (b) the pull factors for the Henty family.
5. **HS3** Consider the intention of the artist when painting the image in **SOURCE 5**. It was painted in the mid-nineteenth century by an English artist. Does that affect its reliability?
6. **HS3** Choose one of the migrants in **SOURCE 3**. Write a diary entry for part of your journey describing your interaction with some of the other migrants.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.10 Migration to the goldfields

4.10.1 The beginnings of a rush

In 1851 English gold prospector Edward Hargraves returned to Australia after searching for gold in California. He noticed that in parts of Australia the land was similar to areas where gold was discovered in California, and he was convinced that gold could be found in those areas too. That same year he was proved right. His discovery marked a turning point in Australia's history.

Hargraves discovered gold in New South Wales in April 1851, but because news then took some months to travel overseas, for the first year or so the diggings were worked exclusively by local diggers or those from other Australian colonies. As news of the discovery spread around the colonies, people seemed to go crazy with excitement. In an attempt to stem the flow of people rushing to New South Wales, the Victorian government offered a reward for the discovery of gold close to Melbourne. Within a few months the reward was claimed and the hysteria only grew. Husbands left their families, shepherds their flocks. Ships were stranded in port when their crews deserted en masse for the diggings. Teachers, labourers, lawyers, even government officials and policemen made a dash for the goldfields.

From the start, the early goldfields were characterised by a sense of **egalitarianism**. The class system that dominated England had no place there. It was clear from the beginning that on the goldfields luck played a more important role than money or social position. Everyone had an equal chance of success if they worked hard. This levelling effect challenged the traditional social structure from which the diggers had sprung. Some people were alarmed, fearing social collapse with the lower classes challenging the

traditional hierarchy. Many historians trace the Australian idea of the 'fair go' back to the goldfields. In **SOURCE 1**, a miner from Poland, Seweryn Korzelinski, describes the multicultural scene.

SOURCE 1 Polish miner Seweryn Korzelinski describes the egalitarianism on the goldfields.

This society comprises men from all parts of the world, all countries and religions — all mixed into one society, all dressed similarly, all forced to forget their previous habits, learnings, customs, manners and occupations. Their outward appearance does not signify their previous importance, worth or mental attainments. A colonel pulls up the earth for a sailor, a lawyer wields not a pen but a spade; a priest lends a match to a Negro's pipe; a doctor rests on the same heap of earth with a Chinaman; a man of letters carries a bag of earth. Many a one would not, a short while before, bother to look at a fellow with whom he now works. Here we are all joined by a common designation: digger. Only various shades of skin colour and speech denote nationality and origin, but it is impossible to guess previous station in life or background.

Yet while the diggers may have abandoned some of their customs and cultures, their prejudices often remained. **SOURCE 2** describes what happened when Korzelinski inquired about a fellow digger's test mineshaft.

SOURCE 2 Korzelinski describes an encounter with an English miner.

The report I received was very encouraging so I went on digging. During a break a compatriot of mine passing by stopped for a chat. My English neighbour was listening in and came up to me later asking in what language I was conversing. 'My native Polish' I replied. My neighbour explained with a great deal of embarrassment that his test hadn't shown any trace of gold and that he had misled me because he thought I was a German.

4.10.2 Word spreads

Soon after news of the gold rushes reached England, in January 1852, the towns of Ballarat and Bendigo became better known than Melbourne or Adelaide. A new rush of migration followed as Britons of all classes decided to try their luck. The result was a population explosion in Australia that the colonies were unable to cope with. In the two years following the discovery of gold more people arrived in Australia than all the convicts who had been transported in the previous 64 years. In just one week of October 1852 nearly 8000 people arrived in Melbourne. In four months during 1853, at a time when the population of the city was only 23 000, 50 000 migrants landed at Melbourne's docks.

SOURCE 3 Population growth of New South Wales and Victoria throughout the gold rush period

Year	New South Wales	Victoria
1840	110 000	10 291
1850	189 341	76 162
1860	348 546	538 234

Source: From R. Broome, *The Colonial Experience*, 2009

Melbourne was unable to absorb the sea of new arrivals and a massive city of tents called 'Canvastown' was set up on the banks of the Yarra River to try to accommodate them. It was a smelly, dirty place where outbreaks of disease were common. The extracts in **SOURCE 4** give an impression of Melbourne during the height of the migration rush. As more people arrived in Victoria the crime rate increased, a problem made worse by the fact that 80 per cent of Melbourne's police had themselves taken off to the goldfields.

SOURCE 4 Two extracts from letters written to newspapers in 1852

Extract A	Extract B
One of the most striking peculiarities here to a new arrival is the immense encampments that surround Melbourne. The vast number of tents that stud the open ground in every direction conveys a clear idea of that enormous emigration to Victoria, which requires the erection of canvas suburbs, where the hordes of adventurers may find a temporary shelter on landing, ... before starting to the great storehouses of Mount Alexander and Ballarat.	People are flocking in from all countries now, and there is not accommodation for a tenth of them. Some have to sleep in sheds who never knew anything but a feather-bed in England. We have had very heavy rains lately; several people have been drowned on their way to and from the diggings in attempting to swim the creeks, as the Government does not think of putting any bridges where required; indeed, the people are beginning to murmur against the abominable way in which our government is carried out.

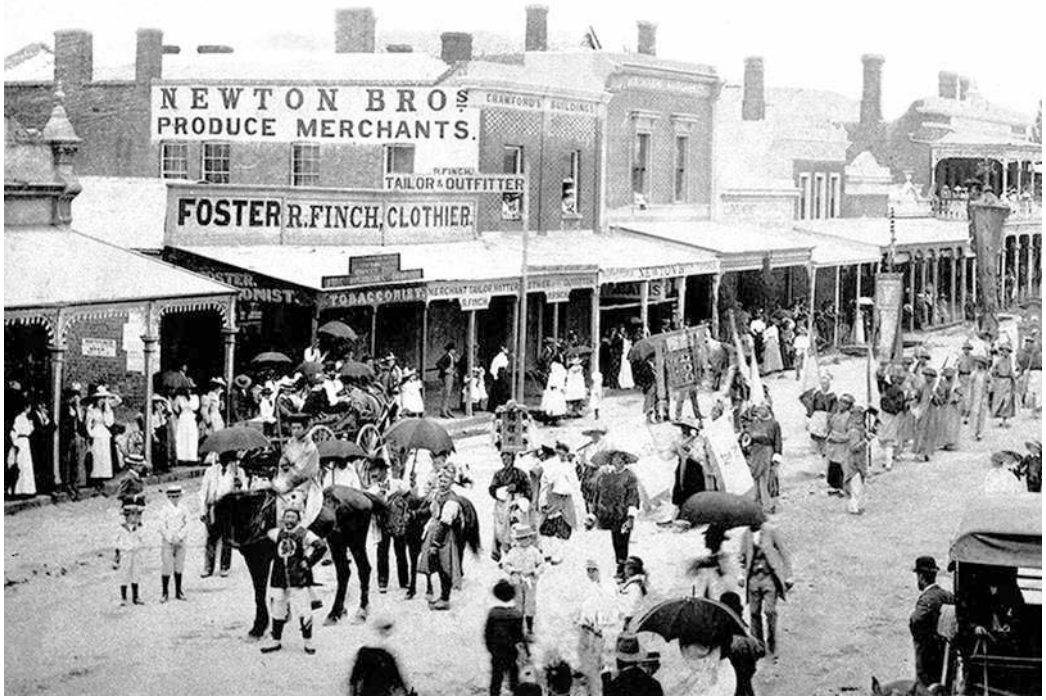
SOURCE 5 *Prospecting*, sketched by S.T. Gill (England 1818–Australia 1880) in 1839, lithograph, printed in colour, from multiple stones, from *The Australian Sketchbook*, Melbourne: Hamel & Ferguson, 1865.

4.10.3 New Gold Mountain

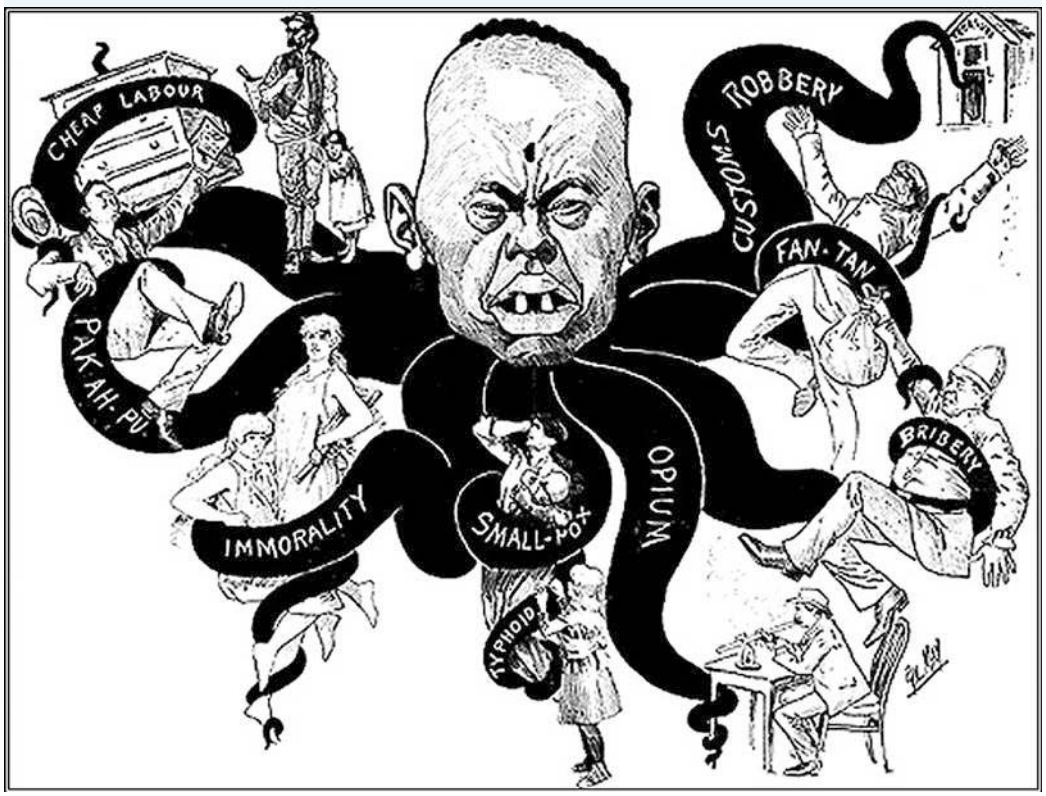
In 1853 large numbers of Chinese men arrived on the goldfields. They would eventually account for one in every five miners. Those who came straight from the Californian gold rushes referred to the Victorian goldfields as 'New Gold Mountain'. Others came directly from China, fleeing war and famine, and seeking a chance to strike it rich, like all the other diggers. Culturally they stood out on the goldfields and as a result were subject to racial violence. The Australian and British diggers resented the Chinese both for their difference and because they generally worked harder than other miners. They worked claims that had been abandoned yet still managed to extract enough gold to make a living. The Chinese on the goldfields were almost exclusively men, and the other miners chose to believe they would 'steal' their women. Tensions boiled over into violence on a number of occasions, firstly in Bendigo in 1854 but most infamously at Lambing Flat in New South Wales, where a series of anti-Chinese riots in 1860–61 saw thousands of miners drive the Chinese from the diggings. To control Chinese immigration, the Victorian government

introduced a ten-pound arrival tax to be paid by all Chinese migrants at their Victorian port of entry. To avoid this tax, the Chinese arrived at Adelaide or Sydney and travelled overland to the diggings.

SOURCE 6 Chinese migrants in Beechworth, Victoria, during the gold rushes



SOURCE 7 'The Mongolian Octopus': an infamous propaganda image published in the Sydney-based *The Bulletin Magazine* on 21 August 1886



In New South Wales, the Chinese Immigration Restriction and Regulation Act was passed in 1861 and the numbers of Chinese in the colony were closely controlled. Both Queensland and Western Australia introduced similar legislation within a decade. What became the White Australia Policy (the immigration policy that restricted the arrival of non-white migrants in the first half of the twentieth century) had its beginnings on the goldfields. It is an interesting contradiction to consider. The goldfields on the one hand saw the origins of Australia's multicultural population. The opportunity that was offered to people from other countries was recognised then as it is now, and people arrived to make a better life. However, just like today, some of those people struggled in the face of intolerance and racism.

4.10 ACTIVITY

Research when the University of Melbourne, Old Treasury Building and Grand Hotel were built or founded. What impact do you think the gold rushes had on the creation of these buildings and institutions?

Identifying continuity and change

4.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why were goldfields initially only populated by local diggers?
2. **HS1** What was 'Canvastown'?
3. **HS1** What proportion of Melbourne's police left for the goldfields in the early years of the gold rushes?
4. **HS1** Why were the Chinese the target of racial abuse?
5. **HS1** Why did some Chinese migrants disembark at Adelaide and walk from there to the goldfields?

4.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Using quotes from **SOURCE 1**, describe the sense of egalitarianism on the goldfields.
2. **HS2** Plot the information in **SOURCE 3** in a graph and describe the population growth in Victoria and New South Wales during this period.
3. **HS3** Use quotes from the extracts in **SOURCE 4** to describe what was happening to the city of Melbourne.
4. **HS3** To what extent does the image in **SOURCE 5** support the idea of the goldfields as egalitarian?
5. **HS3** How reliable is **SOURCE 7** as a historical source? When thinking about your response you should consider the following.
   (a) When and by whom was the source created? This will help to give you a sense of the context and to think about what was happening at the time.
   (b) Why was the image created? What was its purpose? Was it to inform, persuade, or perhaps intimidate?
   (c) Does it appear accurate as a representation? If not, explain how it could still be useful to a historian.
6. **HS3** Using quotes from each source, compare and contrast the sense of egalitarianism in **SOURCES 1** and **2**.
7. **HS3** **SOURCES 1** and **2** originate from the same person. Given their similarities and differences, analyse whether this affects their reliability.
8. **HS3** Using the sources in this subtopic:
   (a) find evidence that supports the statement that the goldfields were 'a place of egalitarianism'
   (b) find evidence that supports the statement that the goldfields were 'a place of racial intolerance'
   (c) explain how this illustrates the importance of using a variety of sources when looking for evidence to support a claim.
9. **HS4** Describe the changes that occurred in the city of Melbourne due to the gold rushes.

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4.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing cause and effect

online only

Analysing cause and effect in emigration to Australia

Specific events make up only a small part of the study of history. To really begin to understand any event, it is vital to be able to analyse the factors that led to it, and the way in which the event might bring about change afterwards. These are the causes and effects.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

4.12 Thinking Big research project: A migrant's letter home

online only

SCENARIO

It is the mid-nineteenth century and you have emigrated from Great Britain to Australia. You, like all migrants, have faced a number of challenges, but now you have established yourself and feel ready to write to your family back home to tell them about your experiences.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: A migrant's letter home (pro-0183)

4.13 Review

online only

4.13.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

4.13.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31701)
Crossword (doc-31702)

Interactivity Movement of peoples (1750–1914) crossword (int-7638)

KEY TERMS

abolition the end of legal acceptance of slavery
commute to change a penalty to one less severe
egalitarianism equality of all people
hulk the body of an old ship that serves as a prison rather than a sailing vessel
intercontinental involving or occurring between two or more continents
malefactor a person who does bad or illegal things
New Spain Spanish territories in the New World, including much of North America
Roaring Forties strong winds of the southern ocean that blow in an easterly direction. Called the 'Roaring Forties' because they are found around the latitude of 40 degrees south of the equator.
transportation a sentence of banishment from England for certain crimes, to be served in an overseas colony
treadwheel a punishment device, also called the 'everlasting staircase', comprising a large, iron-framed, hollow cylinder with wooden steps. As the device rotated slaves were forced to keep stepping forward.

4.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing cause and effect

4.11.1 Tell me

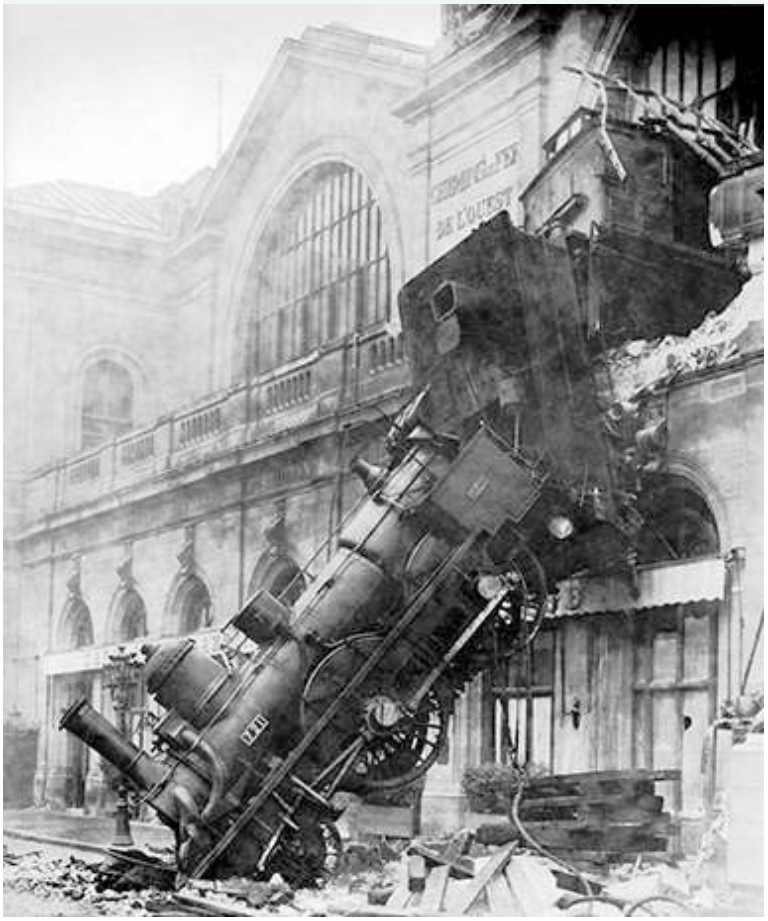
What is 'cause and effect'?

Specific 'events' make up only a small part of the study of history. To really begin to understand any event, it is vital to be able to analyse the factors that led to it, and the way in which the event might bring about change afterwards. These are the causes and effects.

Why is it important to analyse cause and effect?

Analysing cause and effect helps us evaluate the importance of different events within historical periods and build our understanding of the past. We can then make more confident historical claims in our conclusions.

SOURCE 1 Train derailment at Montparnasse station in Paris, 1895. While what happened seems clear, its causes and subsequent effects are less obvious.



4.11.2 Show me

There are many ways to go about analysing cause and effect when studying history, but they all share one common factor: they encourage you to think carefully about a topic so that you can reach conclusions that can be supported with historical knowledge and evidence.

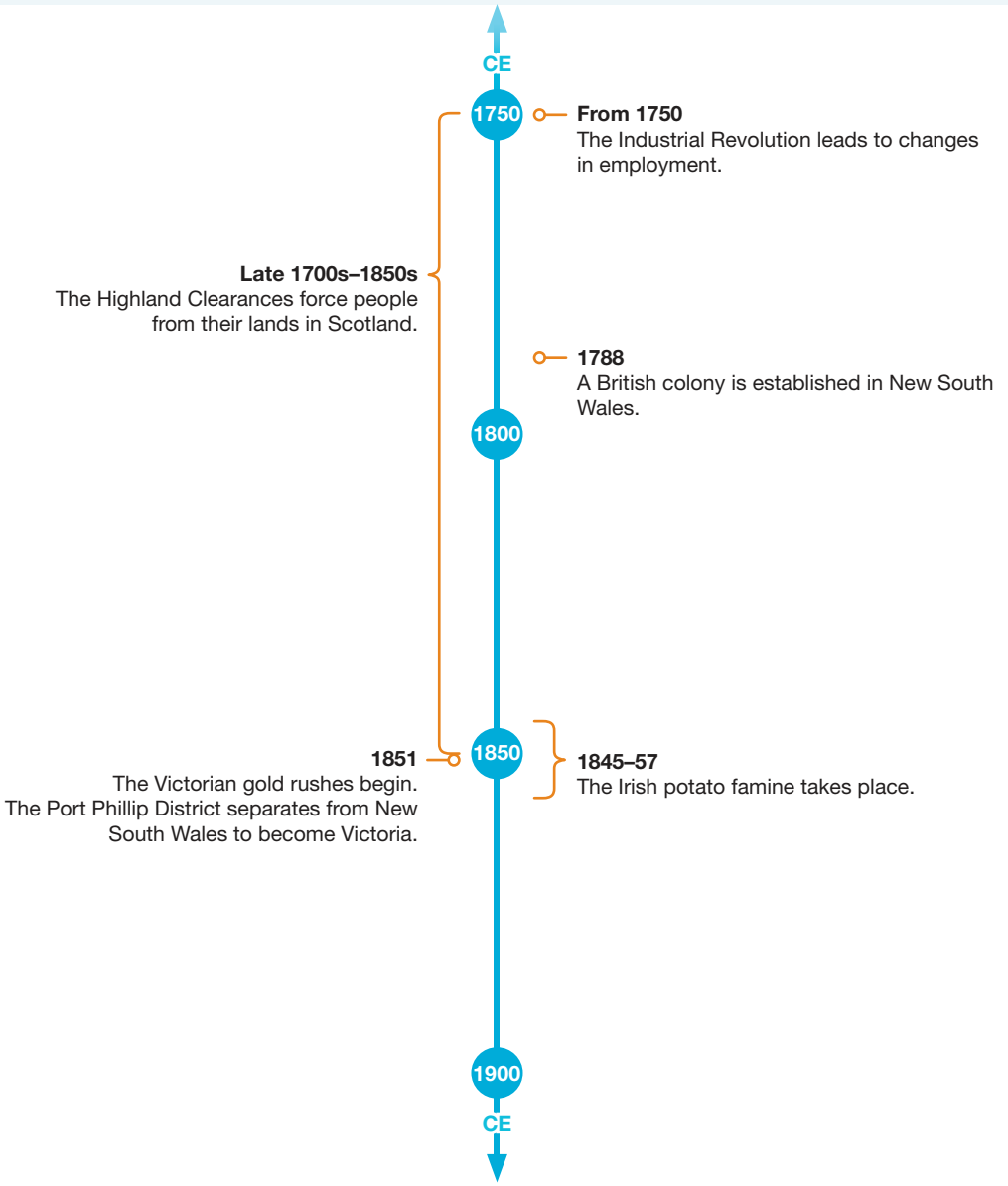
To analyse cause and effect, start by asking the straightforward question: 'Why did this event occur?' You will probably find that such a simple question is actually not that easy to answer. Remember, the causes are not always obvious.

Consider the following topic of migration from Britain to Australia as an example.

Migration to Australia from Britain occurred for a number of reasons including the impact of the Industrial Revolution, the Highland Clearances, and changes in employment opportunities and patterns.

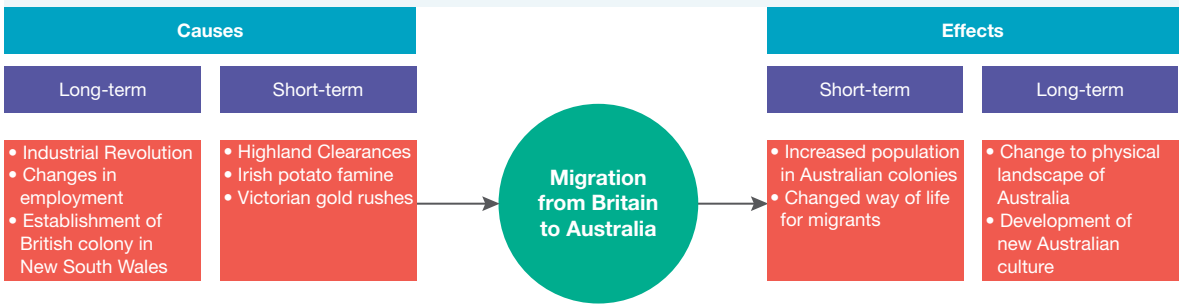
When you have identified some causes, place them on a basic timeline so that you can begin to see which could be considered long-term and which could be short-term causes. At this point, you should think about some of the short-term and long-term effects. You may not know exactly what they are because they might go beyond the time period you are studying, but it is useful to think about what changes might be brought about due to the event you are studying. To assess your own ideas, ask yourself the question, 'If one of the causes on the timeline was removed, would the key event still have occurred the same way?' If removing one item changes the way you think the event would have occurred, then you have probably identified a key cause.

SOURCE 2 Timeline of migration from Britain to Australia



Then, arrange your ideas in a graphic organiser like **SOURCE 3**.

SOURCE 3 An effective way to identify and analyse cause and consequences



Once you have constructed your timeline and graphic organiser, you should ask yourself the following questions about the effects of your key event (sample answers provided):

- What changed because of the key event? Were the changes positive or negative?
  - Change to demographics in Australia — more free settlers rather than only convicts
  - Demographic changes in Britain — large sections of the population left
  - Growth of cities and colonies in Australia
  - Development of Australian identity — influenced by this wave of migration
- How many people were affected by the event?
  - Tens of thousands affected directly — e.g. those who migrated
  - Hundreds of thousands affected indirectly — e.g. family who remained in Britain
  - Tens of thousands of Indigenous people affected
- How long-lasting were the changes? Were they permanent or did the situation return to its original state?
  - The changes were permanent. The British colonies in Australia continued to grow and Australia as it was before European migration would change completely.
- If one of the causes on the timeline was removed, would the key event still have occurred the same way?
  - One example is the Irish potato famine — had it not occurred, the number of Irish migrants coming to Australia could have been much lower — the event would not have occurred in the same way. This would suggest that the potato famine in Ireland was a key factor in the movement of people.

4.11.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

4.11 ACTIVITIES

1. Practise analysing causes and effects by working through the questions and tasks outlined in the Show me section, using 'the abolition of slavery' as your key event.
   You could consider the role of individuals as well as specific events when thinking about the causes, but you might need to do some further research to finalise the effects. The questions you ask would be similar but you would need to ask yourself: Had that individual been removed, how might the events have been different? Would change have taken longer to occur, or would it have happened more quickly? This will help reveal the importance of the individual in the events you are studying.
2. Compare your graphic organiser with others in the class. Have you identified the same or similar factors? If not, explain your thoughts to each other and decide if you need to update or adapt your own work.
3. Once you are confident that your work is complete, use it to write an extended response to the following question: 'To what extent did the actions of individual people result in the abolition of slavery?'
   In answering, you should consider both the actions of individuals and other factors that resulted in the abolition of slavery. Decide which you feel was the more important factor.

4.12 Thinking Big research project: A migrant's letter home

Scenario

It is the mid nineteenth century and you have emigrated from Great Britain to Australia. You, like all migrants, have faced a number of challenges, but now you have established yourself and feel ready to write to your family back home to tell them about your experiences.

SOURCE 1 This digger's hut on the goldfields would have been quite comfortable compared to some of the other options for accommodation. Perhaps this will form part of your letter home.

Task

Write a letter to your family, informing them of your experiences since leaving home. You will need to:

- choose the location from which you emigrated – was it England, Ireland, or Scotland?
- create an identity for your migrant self. Are you a labourer who has left Scotland to settle in western Victoria, or perhaps an Irish migrant trying your luck on the goldfields?
- decide the audience for whom the letter is being written – it will be for family members, but will it be written for parents or siblings, or both? How might this influence the tone of the letter?

The information in this topic will be a starting point for your research. Have a look through the subtopics and decide what you will tell your family about.

Your letter should include the following details:

- why you decided to emigrate
- the voyage to Australia, including the people you may have encountered
- the location in which you have settled – did you move around different places before finding somewhere to settle? If so, why?
- the work you are doing
- people you have encountered in Australia (perhaps convicts, or other migrants arriving to go to the goldfields).

All of the detail you provide should be based on accurate historical information.

SOURCE 2 This image shows a family suffering during the Irish Potato Famine. It might help you bring together some ideas for your letter home from Australia.

Process

- Open the ProjectsPLUS application in the Resources for this topic. Click on the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up members in your project group if you wish to work collaboratively. You will write your letter individually, but you may work in groups during the research phase, to enable information sharing and to help grow your ideas through collaborative discussion. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish.
- Revisit the content in subtopics 4.9 and 4.10 to identify aspects that you would like to incorporate into your letter. Use the sources to specify the historical information that you will include. You could

mention: conditions in England, Ireland, or Scotland; the voyage across the sea; population growth in the colonies; the change in lifestyle that you may have experienced after your arrival.
- Supplement your knowledge by conducting further research using the library or the internet. You should seek out appropriate text sources, as well as visual sources such as drawings and maps. Remember to record details of your sources so you can create a bibliography to submit with your letter.
- Add your research notes and source details to the relevant topic pages in the Research forum. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered, if you wish.
- When you are ready to bring your ideas together, write your letter home. It should be around 500–600 words in length and should accurately and engagingly convey your experiences to your family members.
- Compile your bibliography. Remember to check your spelling, grammar and punctuation in all your work. When you are happy with your work, submit the letter and bibliography to your teacher for assessment.

SOURCE 3 George Baxter's painting from the mid nineteenth century *News from Australia* depicts a family in England receiving news from a loved one in the colonies.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: A migrant's letter home (pro-0183)

4.13 Review

4.13.1 Key knowledge summary

4.2 Examining the evidence

- The period 1750–1900 provides a wide range of sources for historians studying the movement of people at that time.
- The sea lanes were the super-highways of the day.
- Ships had detailed logs of their journeys as well as generally accurate manifests of all their passengers and crew.
- As rates of literacy increased, more and more people kept journals and diaries recording their experiences.
- The development of photography provided a completely new way of recording events and subsequently a new type of historical source for us to investigate.

4.3 Overview of slavery

- Slavery in one form or another has existed for thousands of years.
- As Europeans established colonies in the Americas, the Native American population was enslaved and put to work.
- The slave trade spread in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to become an intercontinental trade with the transportation of slaves from Africa.
- Slaves were put to work on the British plantations of sugar, cotton and tobacco.
- For 200 years slavery was seen as an integral part of the North American economy.

4.4 Slavery and the cotton trade

- The slave trade in North America continued long after the United States gained independence from Great Britain in 1776.
- It is particularly associated with the cotton industry in the southern states.
- Only around one quarter of southern farmers actually owned slaves.
- Conditions for slaves on the cotton fields were generally tough, with harsh punishments for any wrongdoing.

4.5 The end of slavery?

- Slavery was defended by some as a way to introduce Christianity and civilisation to otherwise 'backward' people.
- Others saw it as an essential part of a nation's economy.
- Some people, known as 'reformers', called passionately for its abolition.
- In England, the Mansfield Judgement of 1772 declared slavery to be illegal in England and Wales.
- While not a complete abolition, the judgement was an important step on the way to abolishing slavery elsewhere.
- In the United States stories like those of Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* highlighted the plight of slaves and drew increased calls for abolition.
- In 1863 President Abraham Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, officially freeing the slaves in the United States.
- Life for many, if not most, freed slaves remained harsh for many years to come.

4.6 Crime and punishment

- The Industrial Revolution had a significant impact on Great Britain.
- As new industries replaced existing ones, many people could not adapt quickly enough and found themselves without work or land.
- Increased unemployment led to increases in crime.
- Harsher punishments for petty crimes did little to deter would-be criminals.
- During the eighteenth century prisons grew overcrowded.

- After the United States gained independence from Great Britain, transporting criminals to the plantations for labour was no longer an option.
- The British government needed to find a long-term solution.

4.7 Transportation to Australia

- England's overcrowded prisons presented the British government with a serious challenge.
- The United States, now independent, no longer accepted convicts and new prisons were expensive to build.
- The solution was found in the land that Captain James Cook had explored in 1770, now to be called 'New South Wales'.
- A fleet of eleven ships sailed from England in 1787 and, after a voyage of nearly nine months, established a European colony at Sydney Cove, New South Wales, in January 1788.
- The first years presented challenges to ensure the colony's survival but by the end of the eighteenth century the colony was well established.

4.8 Convict life

- Convicts who were skilled labourers sometimes used those skills in building the new colony.
- Convicts who reoffended while serving their sentence were sent to places of 'secondary punishment'.
- The most famous was Norfolk Island, known for its brutal physical punishment.
- Port Arthur was equally notorious for its psychological cruelty.
- Over the 80-year period in which convicts were sent to the Australian colonies, approximately 160 000 were transported.

4.9 Emigration to Australia

- Push and pull factors are the factors that influence people's decision to migrate.
- Push factors are the reasons why people would want or need to leave a particular place (e.g. war, famine, or lack of employment).
- Pull factors are the reasons why people might choose a particular destination (e.g. opportunity, climate, or pre-arranged employment).
- To help establish the Australian colonies, the British government often encouraged emigration.
- Those who accepted would be helped financially to make the journey in return for working in pre-arranged employment.
- Others, like the Henty family, funded their own journey, which gave them more freedom to choose their location and employment, but less security in knowing what lay ahead for them in Australia.

4.10 Migration to the goldfields

- After gold was discovered in New South Wales and Victoria in 1851, migration to Australia increased rapidly.
- Victoria's population grew from a little over 10 000 in 1840 to more than half a million only 20 years later.
- The gold rushes were not limited to people of British or European origin.
- From 1853 a large number of migrants from China arrived on the goldfields.
- The vastly different cultures meant that tension often occurred between the Chinese and European diggers.
- The Victorian government tried to limit Chinese immigration by introducing an 'arrival tax' to be paid before disembarking from a ship in Victoria.

A timeline of key events relating to movement of peoples, 1750–1914

CE

1740

1742 The first blast furnaces are used in England.

1760

1769 James Watt invents the steam engine.

1770 Captain Cook first sights the east coast of Australia.

1780

1788 The First Fleet arrives in Botany Bay.

1789 The French Revolution begins.

1793 Eli Whitney invents the cotton gin.

1800

1807 The British Parliament passes a Bill abolishing the trading of slaves in their territories.

1820

1840

1847 Freed American slaves found the Republic of Liberia in West Africa.

1845–57 A potato blight in Ireland creates widespread famine.

1851 The Victorian gold rush begins.

1860

1861 The American Civil War begins.

1863 Abraham Lincoln issues the Emancipation Proclamation.

1865 The American Civil War ends.

1880

1900

1901 Australia celebrates Federation.

1914 World War I begins.

1920

CE

4.13.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

4.13 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

From slaves, to convicts, to migrants, in what ways did people move around the world in the past?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question, outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31701)
Crossword (doc-31702)

Interactivity Movement of peoples (1750–1914) crossword (int-7638)

KEY TERMS

abolition the end of legal acceptance of slavery
commute to change a penalty to one less severe
egalitarianism equality of all people
hulk the body of an old ship that serves as a prison rather than a sailing vessel
intercontinental involving or occurring between two or more continents
malefactor a person who does bad or illegal things
New Spain Spanish territories in the New World, including much of North America
Roaring Forties strong winds of the southern ocean that blow in an easterly direction. Called the 'Roaring Forties' because they are found around the latitude of 40 degrees south of the equator.
transportation a sentence of banishment from England for certain crimes, to be served in an overseas colony
treadwheel a punishment device, also called the 'everlasting staircase', comprising a large, iron-framed, hollow cylinder with wooden steps. As the device rotated slaves were forced to keep stepping forward.

5 Australia (1750–1918): Colonisation and conflict

5.1 Overview

What happened when a civilisation attempted to colonise a country that was already inhabited?

5.1.1 Links with our times

On 29 May 2015 a Sydney Swans footballer, Adam Goodes, performed an Aboriginal war dance after kicking a goal. Goodes explained his dance by saying, 'It's Aboriginal Round. I'm proud to be Aboriginal and to represent.' While Goodes' actions were an important expression of his identity as an Aboriginal man, the dance sparked controversy.

In subsequent matches, opposition supporters booed Goodes, showing that racism was still a feature of Australian society. Many Australians joined the 'I stand with Adam' campaign in support of Goodes and in defense of his pride in his Aboriginal heritage. Nevertheless, the issue continued to raise some important questions about relations between Australians. These questions are not new.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Colonisation and conflict: Australia (1750–1918) (eles-2395)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

5.1 Overview
5.2 Examining the evidence
5.3 Two civilisations meet
5.4 Resistance
5.5 Tragedy in Van Diemen's Land
5.6 1835: Conquest — the great land rush to Port Phillip
5.7 Violence on the frontier
5.8 Reserves, missions and responses
5.9 A long, forgotten war
5.10 The Torres Strait Islanders
5.11 A celestial presence: the Chinese in Australia
5.12 **SkillBuilder:** Determining historical significance online only
5.13 The ideal of 'White Australia'
5.14 **Thinking Big research project:** Colonisation and conflict exhibition online only
5.15 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of contact and conflict to 1901

BCE

68 000
Aboriginal people arrive in Australia (current estimates).

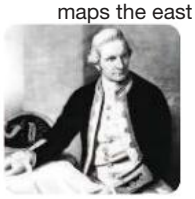
13 000
Land bridges between mainland Australia and Tasmania are flooded.

BCE

CE

1606
Dutchman Willem Janszoon makes the first documented European landing on the Australian coast.

1770
After more than 50 European ships make contact with the Australian mainland, James Cook maps the east coast and claims it for Britain.



1788
The British colony of New South Wales is established.

1790–1802
Pemulwuy leads Aboriginal resistance in the Sydney area.

1804
Aboriginal Tasmanians are killed at Risdon Cove.

1816
Macquarie sends the military to crush resistance by the Darug people.

1814
Governor Macquarie organises the first annual Aboriginal conference at Parramatta, near Sydney.

1824
The 'Black War' begins in Tasmania. Aboriginal resistance is crushed on the Bathurst Plains in New South Wales.

1835
Businessmen from Tasmania establish an illegal camp at the northern end of Port Phillip Bay.

1838
The Myall Creek massacre takes place in New South Wales.

1837
A report of the British Parliament criticises Australian colonial policies towards Aboriginal peoples.

1851
Gold is discovered in the newly named Colony of Victoria.

1855
Victorian government introduces heavier taxation for Chinese migrants.

1867–68
An Aboriginal cricket team tours England.

1881
Victoria and New South Wales restrict Chinese immigration.

1884
The Kalkadoon people make their last stand in Queensland.

1901
The Commonwealth Parliament passes the Immigration Restriction Act.

CE

5.2 Examining the evidence

5.2.1 How do we know about race relations in colonial Australia?

In this topic you will study the consequences of contact between Aboriginal peoples and Europeans in Australia up to the early twentieth century. Some consequences were intended and others unintended. In both cases, they were usually disastrous for Australia's Aboriginal peoples. Non-European immigrants also suffered discrimination during this period. Most of the hostility was directed against the Chinese who came to work on the goldfields from the 1850s, but there was also strong prejudice against Pacific Islanders who were brought over to work on Queensland's sugar plantations.

Written sources

Most of our written sources for these events, including official reports, diaries, letters and newspaper articles, derive from the colonisers. This means that for many events we have heard only one side of the story. We have to be wary of bias in such sources. However, it is important to remember that even the most biased sources can be useful because of what they might tell us about the attitudes of the people who created them.

We also need to be aware of gaps in our evidence. When settlers were killed by Aboriginal people, such killings were recorded and usually punished by white authorities. Most killings of Aboriginal people by settlers went unrecorded and unpunished, or were recorded in ways that distorted the truth.

We should not assume that all Europeans saw these events in the same way. Among those who came to Australia in the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries there were people who recognised the injustice suffered by Aboriginal peoples and other non-Europeans and who were angered by it.

SOURCE 1 A letter from Arthur Phillip, the first governor of New South Wales, to the Marquis of Lansdowne in England, 3 July 1788

My Lord
... the few extracts from my journal, is all the information I am able to give your Lordship, at present, of the Natives; who never come to us & with whom I have never been able to remain but a very short time ...
It has been my determination from the time I landed, never to fire on the Natives, but in a case of absolute necessity, & I have been so fortunate as to have avoided it hitherto ... They do not in my opinion want [lack] personal Courage, they very readily place a confidence & are, I believe, strictly honest amongst themselves ...

SOURCE 2 From *Captain John Hunter's Journal* (1793), in which he described contacts in the new settlement's first week. Hunter was the second governor of New South Wales.

In the different opportunities I have had of getting a little acquainted with the natives, who reside in and about this port, I ... think that it will be no very difficult matter ... to conciliate their friendship and confidence ... whenever we have laid aside our arms, and have made signs of friendship, they have always advanced unarmed ... I am inclined to think, that by residing some time amongst them, or near them, they will soon discover that we are not their enemies; a light they no doubt considered us in on our first arrival.

Oral history

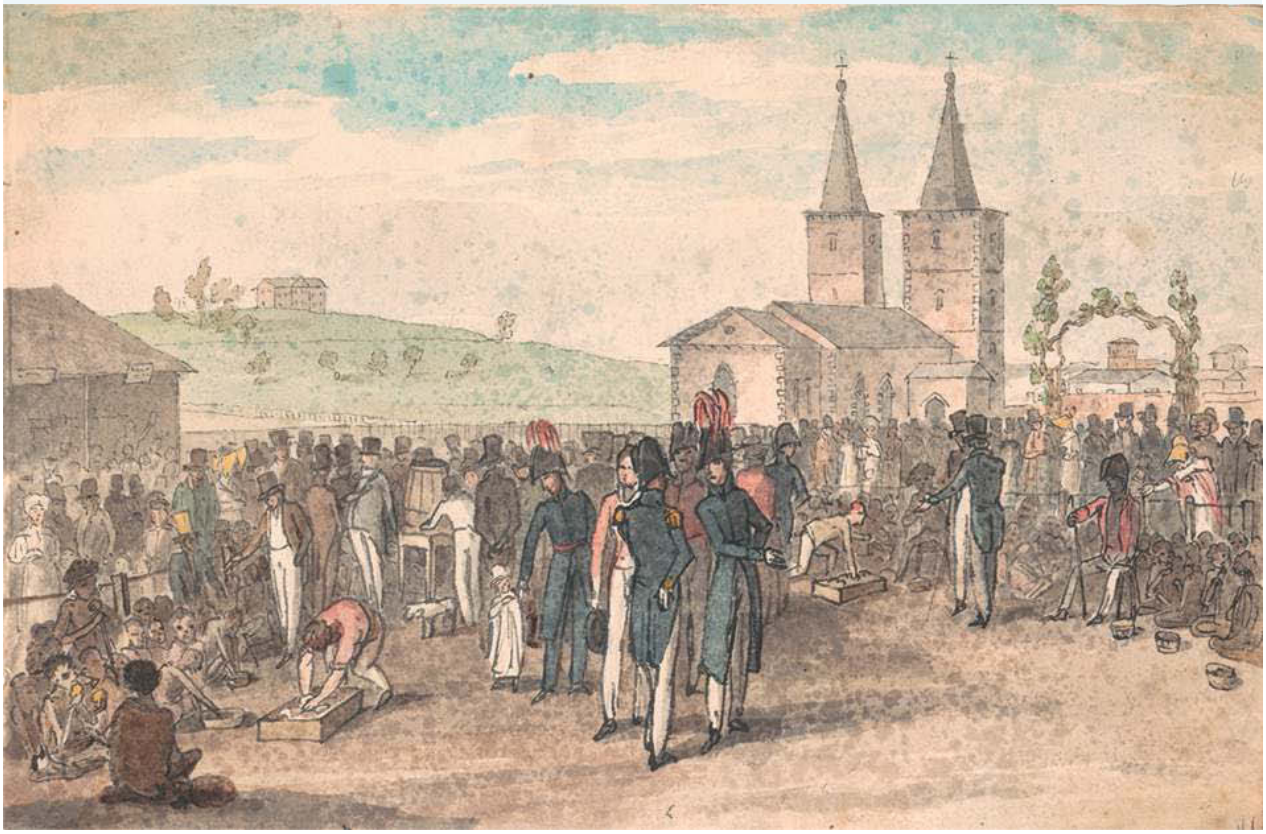
For some events we have records that were handed down by word of mouth through generations of Aboriginal people. These records tell of loss of land, massacres and other injustices. In many cases there is other evidence to support such records.

Visual records

Because Aboriginal art was mainly concerned with spiritual beliefs, we have few Aboriginal artworks that record contacts and conflict with Europeans. The fate of Aboriginal peoples did not interest most European

artists. However, some paintings and drawings by European artists do provide useful evidence. From the mid-nineteenth century we also have photographic evidence.

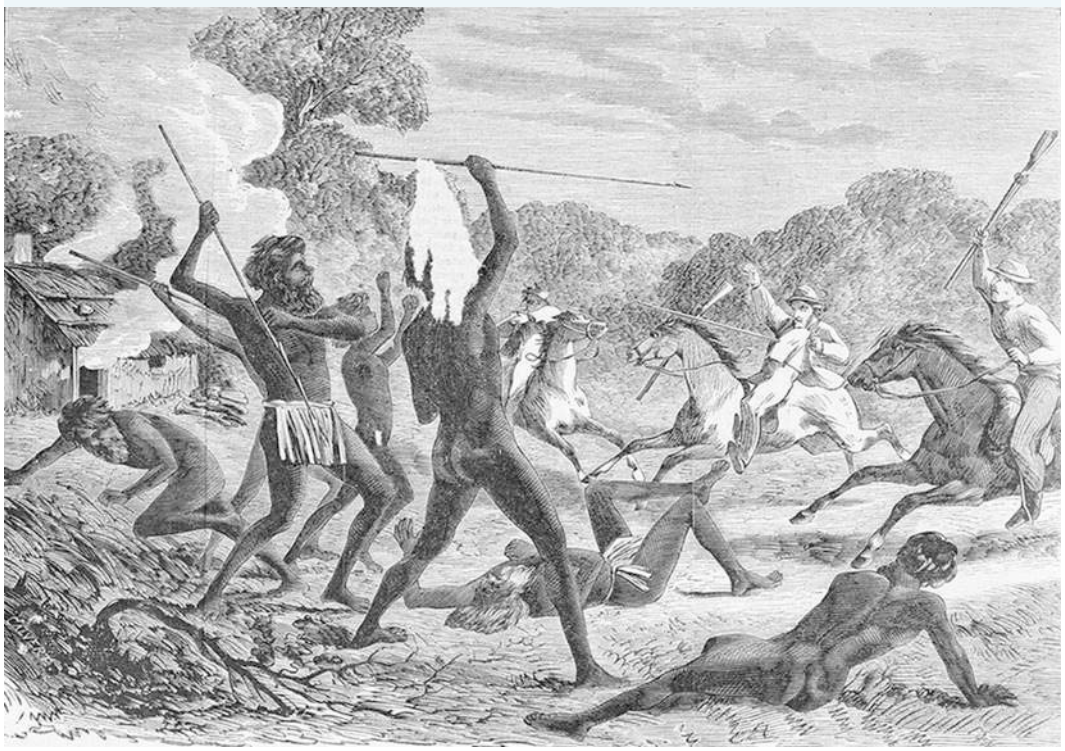
SOURCE 3 *The annual meeting of the native tribes at Parramatta, New South Wales, the Governor meeting them*, a watercolour painting by Augustus Earle, c. 1826. From 1814, under Governor Macquarie, Aboriginal people were invited to annual feasts and conferences at Parramatta, near Sydney. Hundreds of Aboriginal people attended the gatherings, which continued into the 1830s.



SOURCE 4 *The Persecuting White Men*, a lithograph thought to have been made by George Hamilton between 1848 and 1858

SOURCE 5 A *scene in South Australia* by Alexander Schramm (1813–1864)

SOURCE 6 *Australian Aborigines — War*. The image was published in *The Illustrated Melbourne Post* on 27 May 1867. The caption alongside it read, 'Fortunately, outrages of this kind are now almost unknown.'



SOURCE 7 *Collins Street, town of Melbourne, New South Wales 1839* by William Knight

5.2 ACTIVITY

In small groups, compare and contrast **SOURCES 1–7**, using the following questions as a guide.

a. Identify what the sources suggest about the relationships between the Europeans and Aboriginal peoples.
b. How might you explain the variety of relationships they show?
c. How useful is each source in helping us understand the relationships between Europeans and Aboriginal Australians? Choose two or three sources and explain their strengths and limitations. Discuss what makes a source valuable.
d. Explain what the sources indicate about the consequences of the European presence for Australia's Aboriginal peoples. Identify one intended and one unintended consequence. Combine your answers in a class discussion.

Using historical sources as evidence

5.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What are three forms of written evidence that provide information about colonial Australia?
2. **HS1** Which groups of people suffered discrimination during the colonial period?
3. **HS1** Why, in many instances, do we only have one side of the story of Australian colonisation?
4. **HS1** Explain the concept of 'oral history'.
5. **HS1** What types of visual records do we have from the colonial period?

5.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3 SOURCE 1** is an extract from a letter Governor Phillip wrote less than six months after he arrived in Australia.
   (a) What does Phillip write about the way he intends to treat Aboriginal people?
   (b) What impressions had he formed of Aboriginal people?
2. **HS3** In **SOURCE 2** what does Captain Hunter say about the Aboriginal people he had encountered?
3. **HS3** What hope does Hunter express in **SOURCE 2** for the future for European relations with Aboriginal peoples?
4. **HS3** What does the scene shown in **SOURCE 3** suggest about relations between the Europeans and Aboriginal peoples?
5. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 1, 2** and **3**. What do the sources suggest about the official British policies towards Australia's Aboriginal peoples?
6. **HS3** Describe the scenes in **SOURCES 4** and **6**. Explain what these sources suggest about the reasons for the violence.
7. **HS3** Describe the scene in **SOURCE 5**. Identify elements of the image that indicate friendly relations between Europeans and Aboriginal peoples.
8. **HS3 SOURCE 7** is a famous image of Melbourne in 1839, only four years after the Europeans' arrival in what is now Victoria. What does this image suggest about the relations between Europeans and Aboriginal peoples?

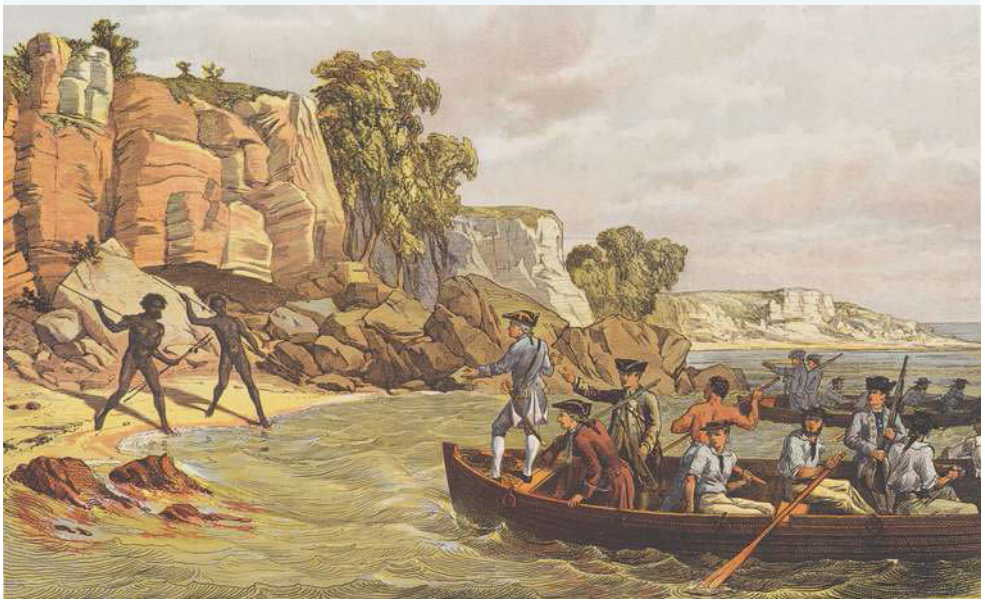
Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.3 Two civilisations meet

5.3.1 The Europeans arrive

For tens of thousands of years before British colonisation, Aboriginal Australians lived undisturbed in a range of different landscapes and climates. The seeds of conflict were sown soon after the first colonists arrived because the British authorities had no understanding of the relationships between Aboriginal peoples and their land. Instead, the British imposed their own understanding of land use and ideas of ownership.

SOURCE 1 A colonial artist's depiction of the response of the Aboriginal people of Botany Bay to the arrival of Captain James Cook in 1770. This colour lithograph was made in 1872.

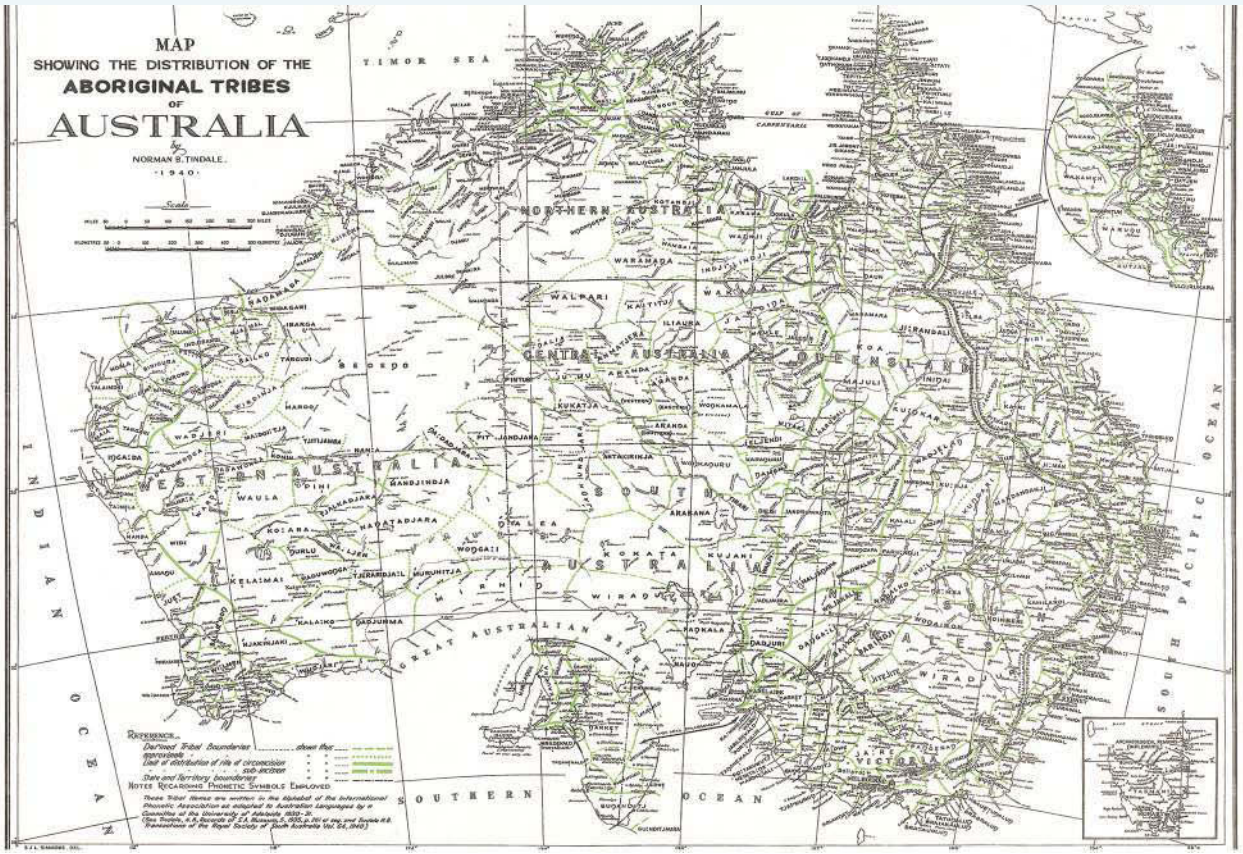


Some Aboriginal Australians had contact with people from overseas from at least the start of the seventeenth century. Macassans (from Indonesia) had often visited Australia's northern coast and some Torres Strait Islands for fishing and trade. Also, some Dutch and English explorers made landings in Australia in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The last was Captain James Cook, who charted the east coast in 1770. Cook named the country New South Wales and claimed it for the English king, George III.

SOURCE 2 From Captain James Cook's journal of his first expedition (1770)

They may appear to some to be the most wretched people on earth, but in reality they are far happier than we Europeans ... [The] earth and sea ... furnish them with all the things necessary for Life ... [They] live in a fine Climate and enjoy a very wholesome Air, so that they have very little need of Clothing ... [They] ... set no Value upon anything we gave them ... this in my opinion argues that they think themselves provided with all the necessarys of Life.

SOURCE 3 Aboriginal groups across Australia in 1940



Source: *Map Showing the Distribution of the Aboriginal Tribes of Australia*, Norman B. Tindale, 1940. Users of this map should be aware that certain words, terms or descriptions may be culturally sensitive and may be considered inappropriate today, but may have reflected the creator's attitude or the period in which they were written. Borders and terminology used may be contested in contemporary contexts.

DISCUSS

What does the **SOURCE 3** map tell us about the Aboriginal peoples' ownership of land? If there were clear boundaries and territories among Aboriginal peoples, how might they have reacted to the European presence? Discuss this issue in class. **[Intercultural Capability]**

5.3.2 Occupation begins

The First Fleet from England to colonise Australia is believed to have carried nearly 1500 men, women and children, most of whom were **convicts**. Its commander, Captain Arthur Phillip, was to be the first British governor of New South Wales. He explored Port Jackson (Sydney Harbour) and founded the first British settlement there on 26 January 1788.

Eight days earlier the Cadigal Aboriginal people had seen the British fleet at Botany Bay. They had also witnessed the arrival of two French ships commanded by La Perouse. The French fired upon an Aboriginal community in February but sailed away on 10 March. The local people could not have known that the arrival of these strange Europeans would eventually lead to the end of their sole ownership of a continent that they had enjoyed for at least 60 000 years.

'Respecting Natives'

New South Wales was founded as a **penal colony**. Some historians think that it was just a dumping ground for Britain's unwanted convicts, some consider it a strategy to exploit the continent's resources, while others think that it was a second chance for those who had broken the law. Regardless of the possible reasons, there was no doubt that the early colonial governors had wide powers, similar to those of someone controlling a prison. Their orders from Britain were to cultivate friendly relations with Aboriginal people and to offer them the protection of British law. In 1807 the third Governor of New South Wales, P.G. King, wrote a memo for his successor titled 'Respecting Natives'. In this advice he stated that he had been unwilling to force the Aboriginal people to work because he regarded them as the 'real Proprietors [owners] of the Soil'. However, Governor King had also given the settlers permission to 'fire on any natives they see'. The Europeans' fear of Australia's Aboriginal peoples, as well as their desire to possess the land, often became more important than their intentions of respect.

A wasteland?

Aboriginal lifestyles varied widely, as did the ways in which different Aboriginal language groups managed the land. In his recent book *The Biggest Estate on Earth: How Aborigines Made Australia*, historian Bill Gammage describes how Aboriginal people did much more than just wander as nomads: 'They travelled to known resources, and made them not merely sustainable, but abundant, convenient and predictable.'

However, the colonists did not acknowledge this management of the land or the variations in lifestyles, even when they became aware that Aboriginal peoples had a strong attachment to the land and a clear sense of ownership.

The British saw only that the land was not used in a European way; that is, it was not productively 'farmed' as they saw it. So they described Australia as a *wasteland*, an important concept in British law that described unoccupied or unproductive land that could be taken without asking for permission. This understanding would be expressed late in the nineteenth century as *terra nullius*, a Latin term for 'nobody's land' that would be used frequently in the legal and political debates about land rights in modern Australia.

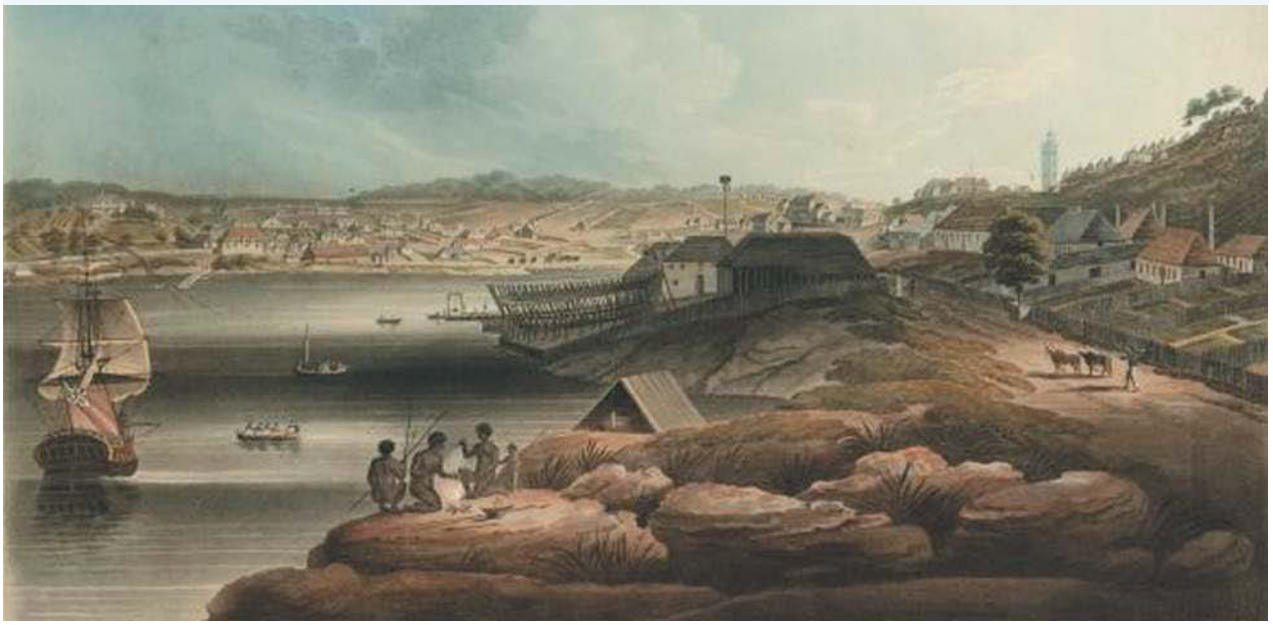
As far as the colonists were concerned, they needed food for farming and they desired the wealth that could be produced by grazing sheep for wool. Both activities required the taking of Aboriginal land. They justified this by arguing that they were 'making wasteland productive'. There was often little consideration or understanding that this was taking away not only access to sacred sites but also the food and water sources from Aboriginal communities, many of whom were reduced to starvation.

5.3.3 Culture clash

Before long the people of the main language groups around Sydney — the Darug, Kuringgai and Dharawal people — saw the new arrivals clearing land, fencing waterholes and hunting grounds, fishing without permission and trampling around sacred sites. They were breaking laws that Aboriginal people had lived by for thousands of years. They were clearly invaders, not visitors, and were acting as if they had a right to occupy the land without negotiating with the rightful owners.

For their part, the Europeans had a range of reactions to Aboriginal people. In line with the ideas of the time, the more educated Europeans tended to see Aboriginal people as 'noble savages', primitive people who lived in harmony with the natural world (see **SOURCE 4**). However, most of the new arrivals were uneducated convicts and soldiers who probably feared the people whose land they had entered. These Europeans could not understand Aboriginal **kinship** systems or why they did not behave like Europeans and build towns, churches and farms.

SOURCE 4 *A View of Sydney Cove, New South Wales*, engraved by Francis Jukes in 1804



SOURCE 5 *First Government House, Sydney*, a watercolour painted by John Eyre around 1807

The British did not consider the fact that different parts of the country belonged to different language groups. They assumed that Aboriginal people could simply move on to another area when their land was taken. Later, when they finally did gain some understanding of such matters, they continued to take land regardless.

5.3.4 Early encounters

In May 1788 two convicts were killed by Aboriginal people at Rushcutters Bay, and there were several other clashes. At first Governor Phillip was willing to blame the convicts rather than the Aboriginal people for the violence.

SOURCE 6 From David Collins, *An Account of the English Colony of New South Wales*. The event described occurred in March 1788.

Several convicts came in from the woods; one in particular dangerously wounded with a spear ... these people denied giving any provocation to the natives; it was, however, difficult to believe them; they well know the consequences that would attend any acts of violence on their part ... any act of cruelty to the natives being contrary to his Majesty's ... intentions.

SOURCE 7 From a report of events in January 1800 by Governor John Hunter

Two native boys have lately been most barbarously murdered by several of the settlers at the Hawkesbury River, not withstanding orders on this subject have been repeatedly given pointing out in what circumstances only they were warranted in punishing with such severity.

Phillip wanted to develop contacts between cultures. When Aboriginal people continued to avoid the settlement, he resorted to kidnapping them in the hope that these individuals could be influenced to encourage their people to accept British ways. Arabanoo was the first to be captured, but within six months he died of smallpox. In November 1789 Bennelong and Colebee were captured. Colebee escaped but Bennelong was later sent to England. Tragically, on his return to the colony in 1795 he was unable to fit into either Aboriginal or European society. He died in 1813.

DID YOU KNOW?

Unlike Europeans, Aboriginal people had no resistance to smallpox, a disease that arrived with the colonists. In April 1789 smallpox began to kill many Aboriginal people around Sydney. As the people retreated from the disease it spread inland. Probably half the Aboriginal population of the Sydney area was wiped out by this epidemic by 1790.

Rising tensions

In the first few decades of the colony, tensions grew on both sides. Aboriginal people were shot at when they crossed European farmland to hunt and gather food. But these farms had been established by taking Aboriginal land. In retaliation, Aboriginal warriors attacked European settlers and convicts. More and more Europeans arrived and ever more Aboriginal people died of smallpox and other introduced diseases, including whooping cough and influenza.

SOURCE 8 From the *Sydney Gazette*, 25 June 1814

The mountain natives have lately become troublesome to the occupiers of remote grounds. Mr. Cox's people at Mulgoa have been several times attacked within the last month and compelled to defend themselves with their muskets, which the assailants seemed less in dread of than could possibly have been expected. On Sunday last, Mr. Campbell's servants at 'Shancomore' were attacked by nearly 400.

SOURCE 9 In this extract from his journal of 10 April 1816, Governor Lachlan Macquarie gave his reasons for sending expeditions to crush Aboriginal resistance in that year.

I therefore, tho' very unwillingly, felt myself compelled from a ... sense of public duty ... to inflict terrible ... punishment upon them without further loss of time; as they might construe any further forbearance or lenity [leniency] on the part of this Government [as] fear or cowardice.

5.3.5 A landscape and society transformed

Whenever British settlers arrived in the territory of an Aboriginal community, the traditional custodians not only had to deal with the presence of the new people but also the changes that occurred. Introduced animals, plants, weeds and diseases devastated the land and its people.

Aboriginal people had lived in isolation for tens of thousands of years and had no immunity to the diseases that had developed in Europe and Africa. The first major epidemic around Sydney was smallpox in 1789 and the first colonists estimated that around half of Sydney's Aboriginal population died. There is also evidence that the disease travelled into Aboriginal communities that had not even had contact with the Europeans. Captain David Collins observed in 1803 that some of the Aboriginal people he met in Port Phillip Bay near Sorrento had scars similar to those caused by smallpox, despite the fact that those men had not seen Europeans before.

It was not only smallpox that was deadly. A range of other European diseases also caused thousands of deaths over the next hundred years: influenza, tuberculosis, typhoid, measles and even leprosy posed a fatal danger to Aboriginal communities. As populations were decreasing, sexually transmitted infections also affected the communities' abilities to reproduce. In some parts of Australia, Aboriginal populations decreased by as much as 80 per cent; two-thirds of these deaths were due to European diseases.

The land itself was also changed dramatically. Within 100 years of the arrival of the First Fleet, more than 100 million sheep were eating their way across Australia, consuming native herbs and grasses, displacing traditional Aboriginal food sources (such as kangaroo) and almost completely eradicating the yam daisy (murrnong), one of the most nutritious and plentiful foods before European occupation. The hard hooves of sheep and cattle compacted the soil while other introduced animals (such as rabbits) also created problems, driving some native animals to extinction.

Aboriginal communities had occupied the continent of Australia for thousands of generations and had carefully managed its resources, looking after the land and ensuring the survival of their own society and customs. Their negotiation with British settlers, and especially their ability to resist the imposition of European society, was severely weakened by these dramatic changes to the land and the impact of disease on their communities.

5.3 ACTIVITIES

1. As you work your way through this topic, annotate a blank map of Australia with the places mentioned and events that occurred there. **Remembering and understanding**
2. Working with a partner, find other examples of colonial art that depict Aboriginal peoples. Try the works of Augustus Earle, William Bradley, Joseph Lycett, John Eyre, Benjamin Duterrau or S.T. Gill.
   (a) Using specific examples from these works of art, comment on whether colonial artists had a negative or sympathetic view of Aboriginal people.
   (b) Do these works of art have a value in helping us to understand the past? Support your answer with examples. **Using historical sources as evidence**
3. Working in a small group, find more images of Cook's landing at Botany Bay in 1770 and compare them to **SOURCES 1** and **2**. For each of your images, consider:
   (a) What does it suggest about the landing?
   (b) How does it portray Cook?
   (c) What does it say about Australia's Aboriginal peoples? **Determining historical significance**

4. Many formal gatherings start with an 'Acknowledgement of Country'. Write your own 'Acknowledgement of Country' and write a letter to your school principal explaining why it could be used at the next school assembly. **[Intercultural Capability]**

5.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Use the words provided in the following table to complete the paragraph below explaining why Europeans and Aboriginal people clashed over the land.

understanding	first	use	imposed
British	seeds	ownership	relationship
conflict	ideas	own	land

The _____ of _____ were sown soon after the _____ colonists arrived because the _____ authorities had no _____ of the _____ between Aboriginal people and their _____. Instead, the British _____ their _____ understanding of land _____ and _____ of _____.

2. **HS1** Name two other groups of people with whom Aboriginal Australians had contact prior to the arrival of the British.
3. **HS1** What were Governor King's attitudes to local Aboriginal people?
4. **HS1** Explain what the British understood by the term *wasteland*.
5. **HS6** Why was the idea of the Australian continent as a *wasteland*, or *terra nullius*, so significant for the British colonists and Australia's Aboriginal peoples?
6. **HS1** What different ideas about Aboriginal Australians did educated and uneducated Europeans hold?
7. **HS1** What might the local Aboriginal peoples have thought about the actions of the Europeans after their arrival at Sydney Cove?

5.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**. What does it suggest about Cook's landing at Botany Bay?
2. **HS3** Describe Cook's reactions to Aboriginal people in **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS3** What does the **SOURCE 3** map tell us about the Aboriginal peoples of Australia?
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 4** and **5**.
   (a) What do the sources tell us about the changes that Europeans made to the country of Aboriginal peoples?
   (b) What do the sources suggest about the differences between European and Aboriginal peoples and their ways of living?
   (c) What do these images reveal about relations between the two groups?
5. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 6–9** as your evidence:
   (a) Describe the range of attitudes of colonial authorities toward Aboriginal peoples.
   (b) Explain what the sources suggest about the changing nature of the relations between Aboriginal peoples and the colonists. Make sure you note the date of each source.
6. **HS4** List the changes caused by the Europeans to Aboriginal society and the landscape.
7. **HS5** Describe how the Aboriginal peoples' traditional food sources were affected by the arrival of the Europeans.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

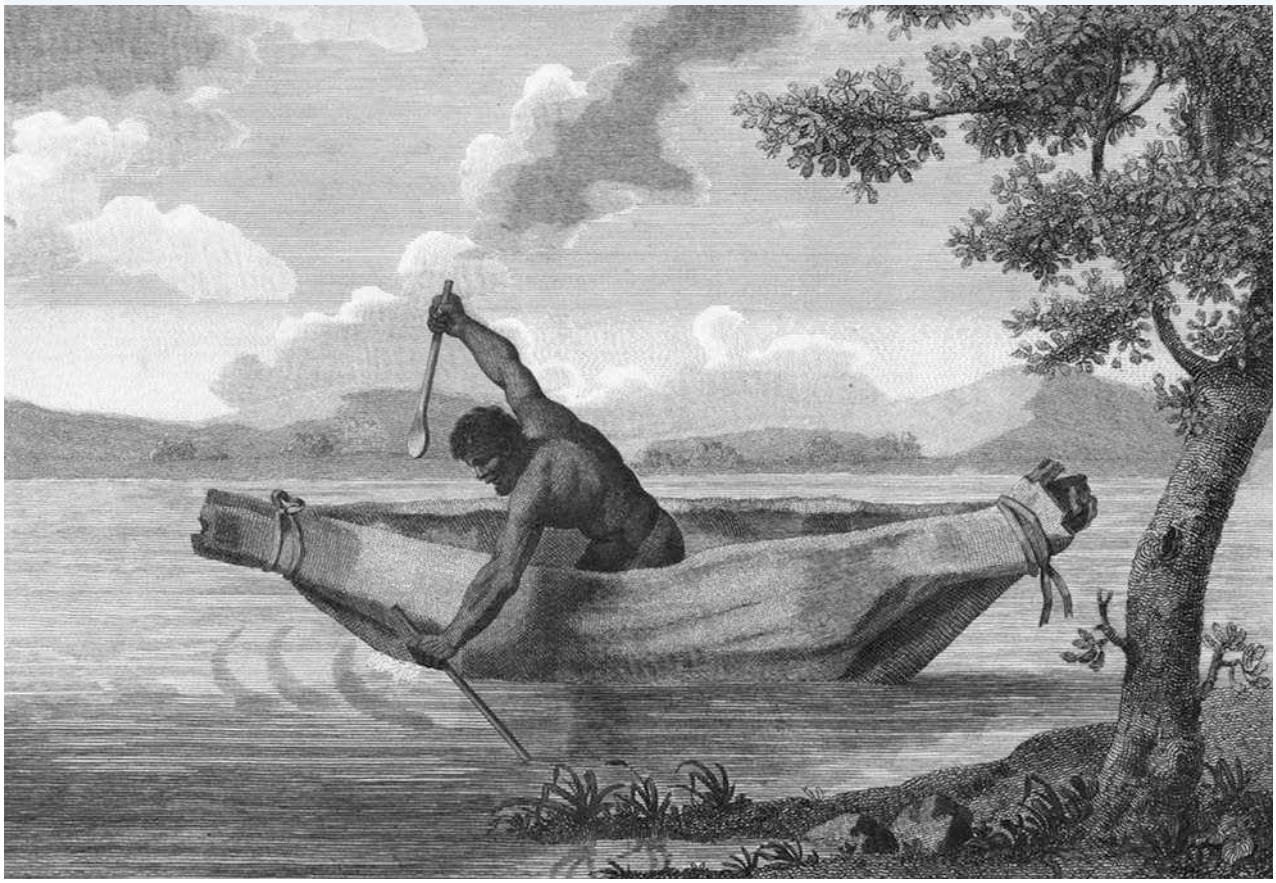
5.4 Resistance

5.4.1 Pemulwuy

Many stories about the conflict between European colonists and Aboriginal people suggest that it was very one-sided. However, although Aboriginal people may not have had the guns of the Europeans, or often their manpower, they did not lack courage or skill. Their bush skills, for example, could not be matched by the Europeans and in many instances the resistance of Aboriginal peoples caused the Europeans great fear and anxiety. Here are the stories of two Aboriginal men who fought back.

The Bidjigal warrior Pemulwuy, sometimes called the Rainbow Warrior, belonged to the Eora language group (the coastal area in Sydney). Between 1790 and 1802, he led many attacks against colonial farms and settlements, some of which were highly organised, large-scale guerrilla operations. These raids were probably motivated by hunger or as 'payback' for atrocities committed by Europeans. He and his men fought fiercely in a battle in 1797 near the newly settled town of Parramatta. Seriously wounded, Pemulwuy was put in leg irons and taken to hospital for treatment. He escaped the following month. Many of his people believed that firearms would not kill him.

SOURCE 1 *Pimbloy: Native of New Holland in a canoe of that country*, a print from an engraving by S.J. Neele. The man in the picture is believed to be Pemulwuy. Despite being continually sought by soldiers, Pemulwuy kept eluding them. He survived repeated wounds. In one attack, he was hit by seven bullets. Some Aboriginal people believed he escaped by turning himself into a bird.



Governor King became increasingly frustrated by Pemulwuy. He offered rewards, including a free pardon, to any convict who would bring him his head. That happened in 1802; Pemulwuy was murdered. His decapitated head was sent to England to be studied by scientists. They had heard a lot about the native Australians but had never seen one. Although glad he was dead, Governor King had a grudging respect for

Pemulwuy. He said of him: 'Altho' a terrible pest to the colony, he was a brave and independent character and an active, daring leader of his people.'

DID YOU KNOW?

Until recently, the remains of many Aboriginal Australians were still held in several British museums, causing great distress to Aboriginal communities who believe the souls of their ancestors cannot rest until their bodies are returned. In recent years, some British museums have commenced the process of returning such remains to their communities.

5.4.2 Yagan

Yagan was a member of the Nyungar language group of south-western Western Australia. This tall man (described as being over 1.8 metres in height) was both feared and admired by the British colonists.

At first, the Nyungar lived in harmony with the Europeans, who had established a colony on the Swan River in 1829. However, arguments soon arose over land and resources. The British mistook the Nyungar tradition of burning the land as an act of aggression. In 1831 a Nyungar was shot while taking potatoes from a settler's garden. The settler saw it as theft; the Nyungar would have seen it as taking the land's resources, to which he was entitled. Yagan sought revenge for this killing. After more battles, a reward was offered for his head.

SOURCE 2 This statue of Yagan was erected on Herrison Island in the Swan River.

When Yagan was finally captured, a European named Robert Lyon fought hard to spare his life. He admired Yagan's courage and wished to study him. Yagan was exiled to a small rocky island but escaped after six weeks. The colonists were angry about this; as punishment, they killed Yagan's father and brother, and increased the reward on Yagan's head.

For 12 months Yagan managed to avoid capture, continuing to fight for his people. Then, in July 1833, he approached two shepherds he knew, asking for flour. When his back was turned, one of them, William Keats, shot him. A reward was given for the killing of Yagan, but the editorial of *The Perth Gazette* described it as a 'wild and treacherous act': 'We are not vindicating [forgiving] the outlaw, but, we maintain it is revolting to hear this lauded [praised] as a meritorious [good] deed.'

Yagan's head was sent to England in 1835. The hair was combed, and black and red cockatoo feathers were tied around Yagan's head as decoration. It was exhibited in Liverpool until 1964, when it was buried in Everton Cemetery. In 1997, almost 165 years after being sent to England, Yagan's head was returned to Australia for a proper burial.

SOURCE 3 The head of Yagan, painted by Robert Havell

DID YOU KNOW?

Until about the 1970s Australian school textbooks did not mention Aboriginal resistance leaders, such as Pemulwuy and Yagan. In fact, some school texts ignored Aboriginal history almost entirely.

5.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Use the words provided in the following table to complete the paragraph below about Aboriginal–European conflict.

not	Aboriginal	courage	manpower
matched	fear	resistance	one-sided
conflict	guns	European	bush

Many stories about the _____ between _____ colonists and _____ peoples suggest that it was very _____. However, although Aboriginal people may _____ have had the _____ of the Europeans, or often their _____, they did not lack _____ or skill. Their _____ skills, for example, could not be _____ by the Europeans and in many instances the _____ of Aboriginal peoples caused the Europeans great _____ and anxiety.

2. **HS6** Explain why both British and Aboriginal people might have considered Pemulwuy to be a heroic leader.
3. **HS5** What might have motivated Pemulwuy to engage in violence against the Europeans?
4. **HS1** Why was Yagan both feared and admired?
5. **HS5** What might have motivated Yagan to engage in violence against the Europeans?

5.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What do **SOURCES 1**, **2** and **3** suggest about the respect these men generated?
2. **HS5** What do the examples of Pemulwuy and Yagan suggest about the possible causes of violence on the Australian frontier?
3. **HS6** Look at **SOURCE 4**. The photograph was taken on 3 March 2005 in the North Head Sydney Harbour National Park.
   (a) How do you think the Aboriginal people in the photograph might be feeling?
   (b) Why were Aboriginal remains, such as these and Yagan's and Pemulwuy's heads, not given a proper burial in the first place? Why might museums be interested in wanting to continue to display such remains?
   (c) Explain why this event is important.

SOURCE 4 Ceremony to bury the returned remains of a number of Aboriginal people

4. **HS6** Use the list of adjectives below to complete the following tasks.

troublesome	insubordinate	wild	brave
violent	fearless	savage	rebellious
bold	clever	uncontrollable	courageous
irritating	noble	intelligent	motivating

   (a) Select the adjectives you think most European colonists in the early nineteenth century might have used to describe people like Pemulwuy and Yagan.
   (b) Select the adjectives most Aboriginal people might have used to describe people like Pemulwuy and Yagan.
   (c) Write two paragraphs about one of these Aboriginal men from each point of view. Build your adjective word choices into what you write.
5. **HS6** Explain whether you think there is any value in recognising the lives of people like Pemulwuy and Yagan with monuments or statues.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.5 Tragedy in Van Diemen's Land

5.5.1 A people destroyed

In 1816 Aboriginal resistance around Sydney was crushed by military expeditions sent by Governor Macquarie. By this time British settlements had already been founded beyond the Sydney area. In 1803 and 1804 the settlements of Hobart Town and Port Dalrymple (later Launceston) were established in Van Diemen's Land, which became a separate colony in 1825.

There is no reliable evidence of how many Aboriginal people lived in Tasmania before colonisation. The most common estimate is between 4000 and 7000 people. But by 1832 there were just 203 survivors and by 1856, when Van Diemen's Land was renamed Tasmania, there were even fewer. Some historians regard what happened there as genocide (the deliberate wiping out of a race). So complete was the destruction of Tasmania's Aboriginal communities that today's surviving Aboriginal Tasmanians are mostly the descendants of Aboriginal women who were kidnapped and enslaved by white sealers. How could almost an entire population disappear in such a short time?

Hundreds of Aboriginal Tasmanians were killed in 1803, when they attempted to stop soldiers and convicts building huts near the present site of Hobart. Over the next few years, gangs of escaped convicts raided Aboriginal camps, killing men and kidnapping women. There were killings and kidnappings by lawless kangaroo hunters, sealers and whalers. European diseases also took a heavy toll. Another problem for the first Tasmanians was that whites slaughtered the native animals that were their main source of food. There were reports of shepherds being speared and attacks on settlers' huts. Settlers often shot any Aboriginal people who came near their dwellings.

War in the 1820s

Official government policy was to treat Aboriginal Tasmanians with friendship but, by the 1820s, there was a state of war in eastern Tasmania. In 1828 Governor Arthur ordered Aboriginal people out of all settled districts. In 1830 more than 2000 soldiers, convicts and settlers were formed into lines for a drive to capture all the Aboriginal people in the area of conflict or drive them through the narrow strip of land that forms Eaglehawk Neck and into the Tasman Peninsula, where they could be kept away from the settlers. Despite the scale of this operation, only two Aboriginal people were captured.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1823–24 Musquito, an Aboriginal man from the Sydney area, led a group from the Oyster Bay region. In a wave of attacks, his fighters killed several settlers and convicts before Musquito was captured, tried and executed in February 1825.

Two historians' perspectives

Keith Windschuttle and Henry Reynolds are two Australian historians who disagree about the fate of the Aboriginal people of Tasmania. Following are brief extracts of their views.

SOURCE 1 From Windschuttle, Keith (2002) *The Fabrication of Aboriginal History, Volume One: Van Diemen's Land 1803–1847*, Macleay Press, pp. 130, 351, 362, 364, 371, 386

The Aborigines were never starving or even seriously deprived of traditional food ... How many Aborigines died violently at the hands of colonists in Van Diemen's Land? ... Over the entire period from 1803 to 1831, they [Aborigines killed by colonists] average just four deaths a year ... far fewer than the colonists who died at Aboriginal hands ...

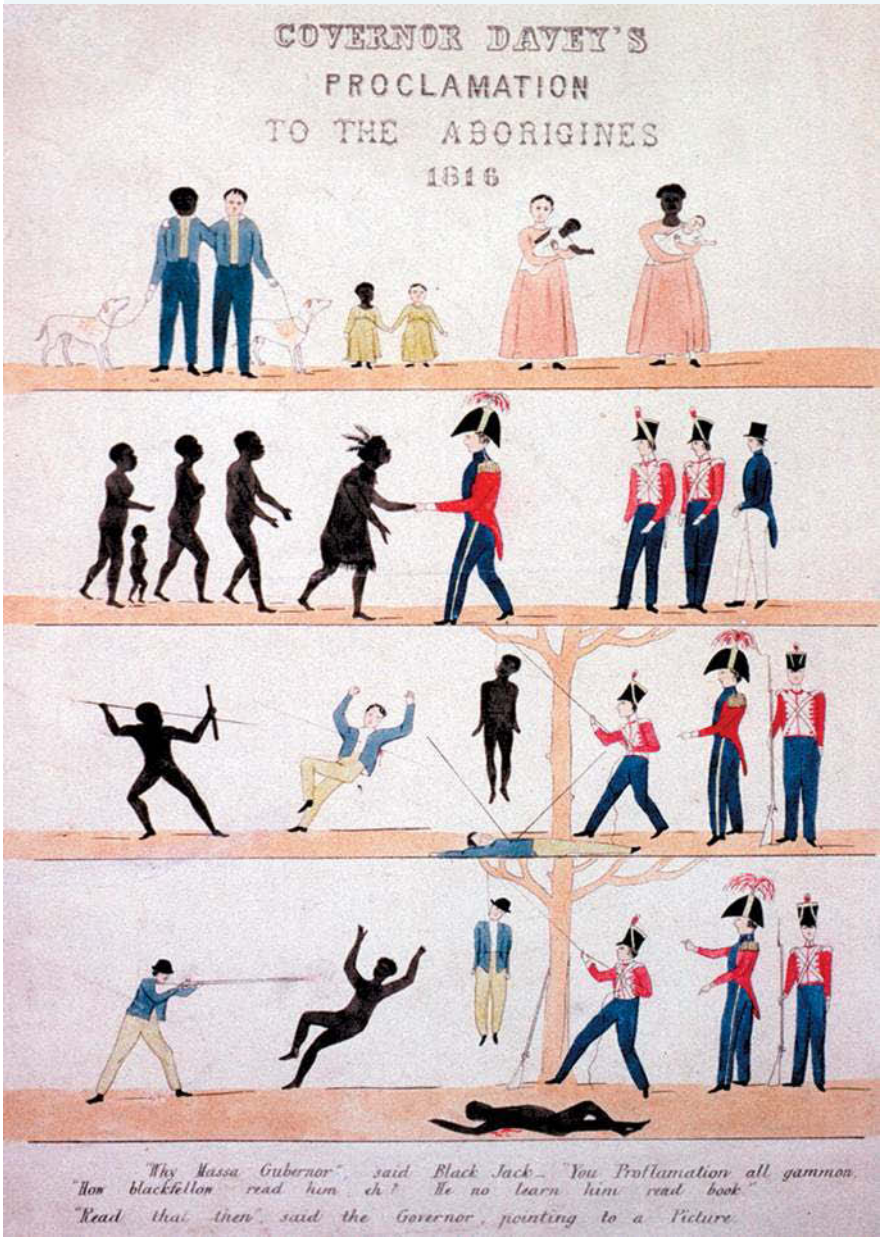
The orthodox story is that Aboriginal society was devastated by the arrival of the British colonizers ... [We] should regard the total pre-colonial Aboriginal population of Tasmania as less than 2000 ... Hence it was not surprising that when the British arrived, this small, precarious society quickly collapsed ...

SOURCE 2 From Reynolds, Henry 1995, *Fate of a Free People*, Penguin, pp. 4, 81–2, 185

How many Aborigines were killed by the settlers? We will never know with any certainty ... There is no doubt that in the earliest years of settlement from 1804 to 1824 the Europeans took more lives than the Aborigines. But in the period of the Black War — from 1824 to 1831 — the mortality rate on each side was more even: perhaps somewhere between 150 and 250 Tasmanians were killed in conflict with the Europeans after 1824 (with another 100 to 150 dying before that date), while they killed about 170 Europeans ...

It seems very likely that the mortality rate on Flinders Island was merely a continuation of a catastrophic pattern of death [from diseases] which had begun even before the first permanent settlements in 1803 and 1804 ... As Robinson traveled across Tasmania he was told by his Aboriginal companions of whole communities, which had become extinct.

SOURCE 3 Aboriginal attacks on Europeans were numerous in 1828. As part of Governor Arthur's attempt to control the escalating violence, poster boards like this one were nailed to trees in bushland surrounding the settled districts of Tasmania.



Exile, disease and despair

From 1829 to 1834, George Augustus Robinson, a Methodist lay preacher, working on behalf of the government, travelled among the survivors. Robinson believed that they would be wiped out if they remained in Tasmania and he convinced some of them to agree to what they believed would be a temporary move to an island off the Tasmanian coast. They were deceived. Between 1821 and the early 1840s survivors from many different language groups were moved to Flinders Island, where they were guarded and forced to wear European clothes and to attend sermons on Christianity. By 1847 most had died of disease and despair. Forty-seven survivors were resettled at Oyster Bay near Hobart but they continued to die. From 1869 Truganini was the only survivor at Oyster Bay. She died in 1876.

SOURCE 4 From journals written by George Augustus Robinson in the 1830s

The [Aboriginal] children have witnessed the massacre of their parents and their relations carried away into captivity by these merciless invaders, their country has been taken from them and the Kangaroos, their chief subsistence, have been slaughtered wholesale for the sake of filthy lucre [money]. Can we wonder then at the hatred they bear to the white inhabitants? ... We should make atonement for the misery we have [caused] the original proprietors of this land.

SOURCE 5 *Mount Wellington and Hobart Town from Kangaroo Point*, painted by John Glover (England 1767–Australia 1849) in 1834, oil on canvas, 76.25 × 152.4 cm. National Gallery of Australia, Canberra / Tasmanian Museum & Art Gallery, Hobart. Glover was in Hobart in 1831–32, when Robinson brought in the last of the people of the Big River and Oyster Bay regions. Just 10 days after arriving in Hobart, they were shipped to Flinders Island.

5.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is the meaning of *genocide*?
2. **HS1** How many Aboriginal people are thought to have lived in Tasmania before colonisation, and to what number had this dropped by 1832?
3. **HS1** What happened to the Aboriginal people who were taken to Flinders Island?

4. **HS1** Identify the two ways that it could be said that a state of war existed in Tasmania in the 1820s.
5. **HS5** What were the consequences of the European arrival in Tasmania for Aboriginal Tasmanians?

5.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain what Windschuttle says in **SOURCE 1** about the population loss of Tasmania's Aboriginal people.
2. **HS3** In **SOURCE 2**, in what ways does Reynolds provide a different point of view to Windschuttle?
3. **HS3** Suggest some reasons why historians disagree on the issue of the fate of Aboriginal peoples in Tasmania.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3** carefully. What was the message of this poster to the people of Tasmania?
5. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 4**. For which interpretation in **SOURCES 1** and **2** could this source provide supporting evidence?
6. **HS3** **SOURCE 3** was intended to tell Aboriginal people that they had the same protection as Europeans under British law. In what ways did British law fail Tasmania's Aboriginal peoples? Explain why you think it failed.
7. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 5**. It depicts the Oyster Bay and Big River people who came into Hobart to celebrate a negotiated peace. Considering all the sources in this subtopic, explain why the history of Tasmania's Aboriginal peoples is significant for all Australians.
8. **HS6** Why was the arrival of the Europeans such a disaster for Tasmania's Aboriginal peoples?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.6 1835: Conquest — the great land rush to Port Phillip

5.6.1 'Australia Felix' — the southern land of happiness

The year 1835 is not one that is celebrated, commemorated or even much discussed in Australian history. Yet this year marked a significant turning point in the European occupation of Australia. For years, the woolgrowers of Tasmania had thought about increasing their flocks and they looked across Bass Strait to the Port Phillip District (now known as Victoria), a place that had seen no permanent European colonists. It seemed open, available and free for the taking.

Businessmen seeking profit in the wool industry, and the British government's approval of this pursuit, started a rush for land unequalled in world history. Frantically competing with one another, 'squatters' raced to occupy the open grasslands of Victoria, moving supplies and stock at an amazing rate. By 1838 there were already 300 000 sheep in the district, a number that would rise to more than a million by 1841 and 5 million by 1851. Determined on expansion and profit, these men seemed to have little concern for the Aboriginal people of Port Phillip and their land. This pattern of occupation was copied across the entire continent of Australia. As trails were forged inland, squatters took more Aboriginal land. Trees were cut down to clear land for grazing and native animals were shot as pests. In some areas Aboriginal food supplies were destroyed. Many Europeans regarded the land they gained as their own and they were reluctant to allow the original owners to use it for hunting, gathering or ceremonies.

SOURCE 1 From *1835: The Founding of Melbourne and the Conquest of Australia*, by James Boyce, published in 2011

In 1835 an illegal squatter camp was established on the banks of the Yarra River. This brazen act would shape the history of Australia as much as would the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788, because it was now that the continent was fully open to conquest ... Melbourne's birth, not Sydney's settlement, signalled the emergence of European control over Australia ... Between 1835 and 1838 alone, more land and more people were conquered than in the preceding half century. By the end of the 1840s, squatters had seized nearly twenty million hectares of the most productive and best watered Aboriginal homelands, comprising most of the grasslands in what are now Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia and southern Queensland.

SOURCE 2 *Country NW of tableland, Aug 22*, by S.T. Gill

SOURCE 3 In 1836 Major Thomas Mitchell travelled across Victoria and recorded his impressions in his journal, *Three expeditions into the interior of eastern Australia*. The publication of his journal in 1838 helped shape European perceptions of Australia.

June 29 – The scene was different from anything I had ever before witnessed, either in New South Wales or elsewhere. A land so inviting, and still without inhabitants! As I stood, the first European intruder on the sublime solitude of those verdant plains, as yet untouched by flocks or herds; I felt conscious of being the harbinger of mighty changes ... The land is, in short, open and available in its present state, for all the purposes of civilized man ... I named this region Australia Felix ('Happy Australia').

SOURCE 4 *Australia Felix* by Arthur Streeton, 1907

5.6.2 Batman arrives

Victoria has a distinct and unique history. It was originally named the Port Phillip District by the British, but Europeans were banned from living there by the NSW governor. When John Batman arrived in 1835, he was a trespasser even in terms of British law. Individuals were not allowed to intrude on what the British government considered unoccupied land. But in 1835, a group of Tasmanian businessmen financed John Batman's exploration of Port Phillip Bay in search of suitable land for sheep farming. Batman was excited by what he found, and by the prospect of considerable wealth. Batman offered the Kulin people of central Victoria a treaty, promising an annual payment of goods (blankets, knives, tomahawks, scissors, mirrors, flour, handkerchiefs and shirts) as well as 'protection'. In return, Batman would become the owner of 234 000 hectares of land. It is the only treaty ever offered to Australia's Aboriginal peoples.

Batman's 'treaty'

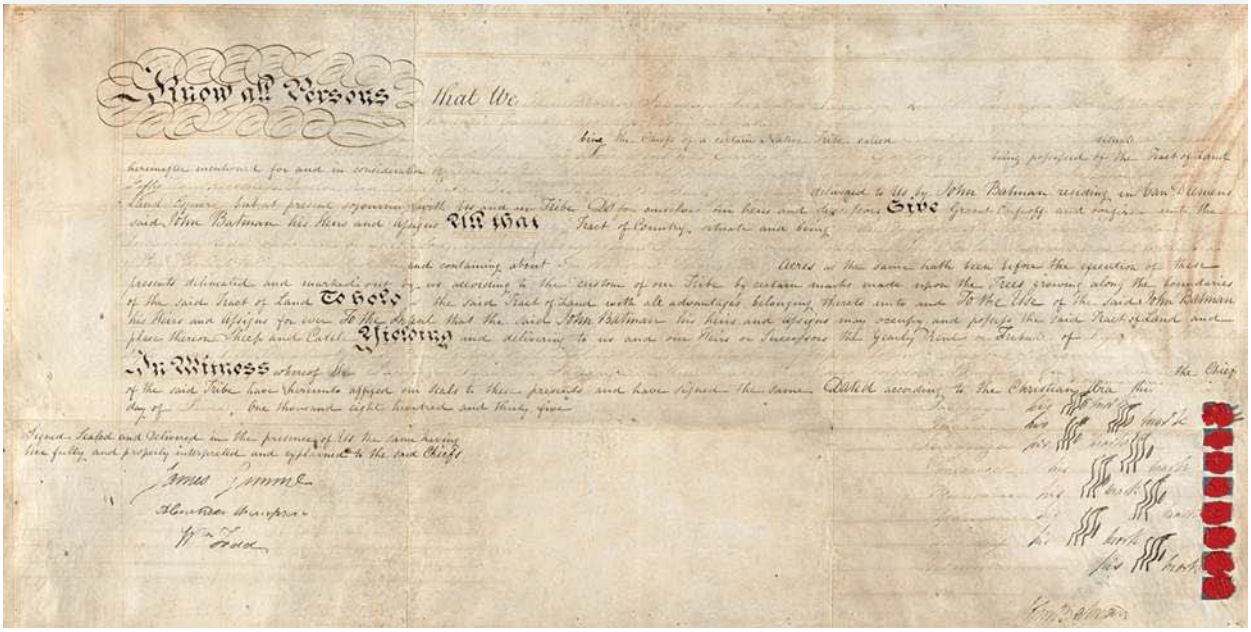
There is disagreement about the meaning of the treaty. Some consider it a trick, Batman's attempt to defraud the Kulin of their land. Others think that it was a political strategy to convince the British government that they were respectable 'settlers' willing to act fairly in their relations with Aboriginal people. As far as the Kulin were concerned, it seems that ownership of their country was never part of the agreement. It was possibly an act of hospitality, an agreement to allow Batman and his party the temporary use of the land and its resources. In this way it was also a strategic act on the part of the Kulin, representing a decision to negotiate with the white intruders rather than attempt to expel them. It would not be the only time in Victoria that Aboriginal leaders would seek to engage, manage and control their relationships with the Europeans.

SOURCE 5 *Batman's treaty with the Aborigines at Merri Creek, 6 June 1838*, painted by John Wesley Burtt, c. 1875

SOURCE 6 Letter from John Batman to Governor Arthur, the Lieutenant-Governor of Van Diemen's Land, 25 June 1835

I joined this tribe about twelve o' clock and staid with them until about twelve o' clock the next day, during which time I fully explained to them that the object of my visit was to purchase from them a tract of their country, that I intended to settle among them with my wife and seven daughters, and that I intended to bring to this country, sheep and cattle. I also explained my wish to protect them in every way, to employ them the same as my own natives, and also to clothe and feed them, and I also proposed to pay them an annual tribute as a compensation for the enjoyment of the land. The chiefs appeared most fully to comprehend my proposals ... I then explained to them the boundaries of the land which I wished to purchase ... and they each delivered to me a piece of the soil for the purpose of putting me in possession thereof, I understanding that it was a form by which they delivered to me the tract of land.

SOURCE 7 Batman's treaty, often referred to as 'The Melbourne Deed'. In the bottom right-hand corner are the marks that the 'Aboriginal chiefs' allegedly made as a sign of their agreement. Similar marks appear in Batman's journal.



In the end the New South Wales Governor Sir Richard Bourke declared the treaty illegal, asserting that it was the Crown of England that owned the land. He warned that any further attempts to purchase land from the Aboriginal peoples would be pointless and that those who did so would be trespassers on Crown land. If the woolgrowers wanted land, they would have to deal with the British government.

DISCUSS

As a class, discuss the idea that 1835 is a more important date in Australian history than 1788. Consider how important it was at the time and now. How was the history of Australia affected by this event? How many people were affected? Were the changes produced long-lasting? **[Determining Historical Significance]**

5.6.3 Ravaging the environment

It was not just the Aboriginal peoples of Victoria that the Europeans disregarded. As the Aboriginal people were displaced from the land, their careful management of the land went with them. Some of the settlers recognised the beauty of the land and appreciated that the Aboriginal people had shaped the landscape.

SOURCE 8 Griffith, Charles 1845, *The Present State and Prospects of the Port Phillip District of NSW*

It is difficult when you see trees intermixed with the most graceful flowering shrubs, grouped with all the effect which a landscape gardener could desire, and growing from a green sward, entirely free from overgrowing weeds or brushwood, not to fancy that the hand of man had been engaged in combining and arranging these elements of natural beauty.

More than five million sheep and cattle ate the native grasses close to the ground and their hard hooves compacted the soil, creating dust plains in summer and muddy bogs in winter. The traditional herbs and vegetables that had sustained Aboriginal life for thousands of years simply disappeared. Water supplies were spoilt, domestic dogs and cats went bush and attacked both sheep and native animals. Soil erosion from the widespread felling of trees became widespread.

SOURCE 9 The wife of an Italian businessman described the Yarra in the 1850s. While her real identity is unknown, Alexandre Dumas published her account in 1855 as *The Journal of Madame Giovanni*.

... these banks are merely a long series of slaughter-houses where sheep are killed; tanneries where their hides are prepared; and factories where their fat is prepared for the market. Here and there appear white mountains twenty five, thirty and forty feet high; these are the bones. These slaughter-houses, tanneries, fat, or rather tallow factories, these bones forming pyramids along the banks, give forth a pestilential odour that made me regard Port Phillip with horror ...

Not all of the damage resulted from the pursuit of profit and not all of it was intended. In many instances the original flora and fauna was destroyed as the Europeans replaced them with plants and animals of their own. Often unable to see the beauty of their new environment and homesick for the lands they had left, Europeans attempted to remake their new home. In trying to recreate what was familiar, the Europeans permanently changed the landscape that the Aboriginal peoples had made. Some of the changes were beneficial, but there was little consideration of managing a sustainable environment.

Other changes were quite deliberate and destructive. The much admired Batman's Hill, a popular park and vantage point, was levelled to make way for the new train station (now Southern Cross) and the material was used to fill the Blue Lake, a natural wetland with abundant wildlife just north of central Melbourne. Perhaps the most obvious casualty of the European arrival was the Yarra River. The waterfall that marked Melbourne's first point of settlement was blasted away and the river was soon turned into a rubbish dump.

5.6 ACTIVITY

Working with a partner, research the Kulin people. Prepare a summary of your findings to share with the class.

Using historical sources as evidence

5.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What does the term *Australia Felix* mean?
2. **HS1** What attracted woolgrowers to the Port Phillip District?
3. **HS2** Describe, using figures, the growth in the sheep industry from pre-1835 to 1851.
4. **HS1** Describe the deal that Batman says he made with the Kulin people.
5. **HS4** List the environmental changes that the Europeans brought to Victoria.

5.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. What does Boyce claim is the significance of the founding of Melbourne and the year 1835?
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 2**. What might the two figures in the image be thinking about the land they see?
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3**. Explain why Mitchell found the land so inviting.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 5**. Identify elements in the image that convey that this meeting was friendly and mutually respectful.
5. **HS3** Choose three of the sources in this subtopic and explain how they are useful in helping us understand the relations between Europeans and Aboriginal peoples in this period.
6. **HS6** Was Batman's treaty important? Support your conclusion with evidence from the sources in this subtopic.
7. **HS5** Identify one intended and one unintended result of the settlement of Melbourne. Should we condemn the actions of the colonists? Discuss.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.7 Violence on the frontier

5.7.1 Trouble at Port Phillip

One after another, Aboriginal groups across Australia fought to save their land and often resisted the Europeans with great effect. However, by the end of the nineteenth century Europeans controlled most land that was of any use to them. In several areas this was achieved through much bloodshed.

A pattern of conflict was repeated across the continent. Some settlers tried to live peacefully alongside Aboriginal people but others killed them, drove them away or exploited them. In retaliation for rapes and other acts of violence committed against their people, Aboriginal groups speared stock and shepherds and attacked homesteads. At times soldiers and police were used to crush resistance. Colonists also organised armed bands, supposedly to punish the attackers but often killing any Aboriginal people they could find.

There is disagreement about the extent of the violence. Some historians believe that violence was one of the most common and persistent features of life in Australia for 140 years after the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788. Other historians acknowledge that violence occurred but express concern that it should not be exaggerated. However, most agree that violence between European colonists and Australia's Aboriginal peoples was widespread and represents a terrible part of Australia's history. The examples in this subtopic are just a few drawn from the many and various conflicts.

It was not long after John Batman's arrival in Port Phillip Bay in 1835 that violence occurred. In March 1836 two of Charles Swanston's shepherds were killed, as well as a number of sheep. In July one of the squatters, Charles Franks, and another shepherd were found dead on the banks of the Werribee River. Almost immediately, John Batman's brother, Henry, organised some armed men and rode west of Melbourne to punish the 'guilty' Aboriginal people. Reports of what happened vary. Henry Batman testified that he didn't see any Aboriginal people killed; others claimed from 10 deaths to complete annihilation of the entire community.

In another incident, Aboriginal people near Benalla made several attacks against the Europeans and their property in 1838, possibly motivated by the abuse of their women. In one instance they killed seven Europeans. In a second example, George Faithfull described how he had been ambushed: 'The natives rushed upon us like furies, with shouts and savage yells.' Other colonists reported that they had been forced to abandon their 'runs' or were kept in great fear by the presence of Aboriginal people.

While Melbourne was relatively peaceful, in 1840 a large group of about 300 Kulin were surrounded by soldiers and police in their camp on the south side of the Yarra. They were accused of a series of thefts. One of the leaders, Windberry, was shot dead as he defended himself. The rest were rounded up and eventually 30 were jailed for a month without trial; 10 were eventually found guilty.

SOURCE 1 Windberry, considered to be an important leader of the Eastern Kulin, here sketched by William Thomas, a government official responsible for the protection of Aboriginal people. Thomas considered him to be a 'most splendid character'.

DID YOU KNOW?

At times Aboriginal resistance forced squatters to abandon their runs. However, some squatters killed entire Aboriginal communities by poisoning their waterholes or giving them poisoned flour to eat.

5.7.2 New South Wales — a state of conflict

In the Bathurst Plains in New South Wales in the 1820s a leader named Windradyne led resistance by the Wiradjuri people (see **SOURCE 2**). Governor Brisbane declared martial law in 1824. During that year probably two-thirds of the Wiradjuri were killed by groups of settlers and soldiers. At least a hundred were killed in a single massacre. The skulls of 45 of the victims were shipped to England.

Major Nunn's massacre

In the early 1830s, Europeans occupied the Liverpool Plains district, west of modern-day Tamworth; the Kamilaroi people resisted the loss of their land. In 1838 the Mounted Police, led by the colony's senior military officer, Major Nunn, massacred at least a hundred of them at Vinegar Hill on the Namoi River.

SOURCE 2 *A native chief of Bathurst*, a hand-coloured print by R. Havell & Son, 1820. The man pictured is believed to be Windradyne.

SOURCE 3 *Mounted police and blacks*, a lithograph print by Godfrey Charles Mundy, published in London in 1852. The print depicts British troops killing Kamilaroi warriors on the Liverpool Plains in northern New South Wales in 1838. Reports of the number of Aboriginal people killed ranged from 60 to 300. None of the troopers were killed.

***Source*:** Mundy, Godfrey Charles *Mounted police and blacks* (1852) Lithograph on paper, 10.9 × 18.2 cm Australian War Memorial ART50023

The Myall Creek massacre

The Myall Creek massacre is unusual because it marked the first, and almost the last, time that whites who murdered Aboriginal people suffered consequences under British law. This unprovoked and premeditated act is possibly one of the most shameful examples of the mistreatment of Aboriginal people in this period of frontier conflict. It is also one of the best documented.

In 1838 more than thirty women, children and elderly men of the Wirrayaraay cultural group were camped on Henry Dangar's Myall Creek Station near Inverell in northern New South Wales. They were friendly with the local whites and the young men of the group were away helping another station owner to cut bark. The station manager, William Hobbs, was also away, moving cattle to better pastures. Two assigned convicts, George Anderson and James Kilmeister, were the only Europeans left at the station on 9 June when 11 armed stockmen, also mostly assigned convicts or ex-convicts, rode up.

The armed men claimed that they were hunting Aboriginal people to punish them for frightening cattle. With Kilmeister joining them, they rounded up the defenceless Wirrayaraay, tied them together, dragged them away and murdered them. Anderson did not take part and he managed to hide one small boy and save his life.

Most of the victims were butchered with swords. The next day the killers returned to burn the bodies and remove as much evidence as possible. They probably never imagined that they might be punished. This was because they knew that, as non-Christians, any Aboriginal witnesses could not be sworn in to give evidence in court. However, in this case four things made it possible for the killers to be brought to trial. Anderson wanted to give evidence against the killers. Hobbs, the station manager, reported the murders to a magistrate. The magistrate acted properly, and New South Wales Governor Gipps wanted justice.

The Myall Creek trials

When 11 of the Myall Creek killers were brought to trial, there was public outrage that the government should want to punish white men for killing Aboriginal people. At the first trial the accused were supported by many wealthy squatters, including a magistrate, and were found not guilty. However, seven of the men were then charged with the murder of an Aboriginal child whose remains were found at the massacre site. At a second trial the seven were found guilty and they were hanged in December 1838.

One outcome of these hangings was that others who committed massacres made sure that no witnesses lived to give evidence. Killers could still avoid justice. Major Nunn's force had massacred more people than the Myall Creek killers in the same year, but attempts to get evidence for a trial had been unsuccessful.

SOURCE 4 The memorial stone marking the site of the Myall Creek massacre

5.7.3 Violent conflict in Victoria

Gippsland in Victoria was another area of frontier conflict. In July 1843 Ronald Macalister, nephew of a prominent local settler, was speared to death near Port Albert in Gippsland. Angus McMillan, an explorer and local squatter, led a party of whites to avenge his death. In a series of massacres, it is believed that possibly 100 Aboriginal people were killed at Warrigal Creek with up to another 50 at other locations nearby. All evidence was hastily buried to keep the killings a secret. McMillan later became a member of the Victorian Parliament and a statue was erected to honour him as a pioneer. A seat in the federal parliament is named after him. Two of the pastoralists have left chilling accounts of what happened there.

SOURCE 5 Neil Black was a prominent squatter in Gippsland who was in no doubt about what was required for success. N. Black, *Journal of the first few months spent in Australia, 30 September 1839–8 May 1840*.

The best way [to procure a run] is to go outside and take up a new run, provided the conscience of the party is sufficiently seared to enable him without remorse to slaughter natives right and left. It is universally and distinctly understood that the chances are very small indeed of a person taking up a new run being able to maintain possession of his place and property without having recourse to such means ... I believe, however, that great numbers of the poor creatures have wantonly fallen victims to settlers scarcely less savage though more enlightened than themselves, and that two thirds of them does not care a single straw about taking the life of a native, provided they are not taken up by the Protectors.

SOURCE 6 Henry Meyrick was one of a number of Scottish colonists who attempted to acquire land in Gippsland. In 1846 he wrote home to his mother. Quoted in Watson, Don 1984, *Caledonia Australis: Scottish highlanders on the frontier of Australia*, William Collins, Sydney, p. 170.

The blacks are very quiet here now, poor wretches. No wild beast of the forest was ever hunted down with such unsparing perseverance as they are. Men, women and children are shot whenever they can be met with ... I have protested against it at every station I have been in Gippsland, in the strongest language, but these things are kept very secret as the penalty would certainly be hanging.

For myself, if I caught a black actually killing my sheep, I would shoot him with as little remorse as I would a wild dog, but no consideration on earth would induce me to ride into a camp and fire on them indiscriminately, as is the custom whenever the smoke is seen. They will very shortly be extinct. It is impossible to say how many have been shot, but I am convinced that not less than 450 have been murdered altogether.

I remember the time when my blood would have run cold at the mention of these things, but now I am become so familiarised with scenes of horror from having murder made a topic of everyday conversation.

5.7.4 Fear and violence

Many of the accounts of the frontier suggest that Aboriginal people were helpless in the face of European occupation. This is far from the truth. **SOURCES 7** and **8** suggest that the presence of Aboriginal people created an atmosphere of fear and anxiety, and that fear was an important cause of the violence.

SOURCE 7 John Hunter Kerr arrived as an 18-year-old from Scotland. An account of his life was published anonymously in 1876 and there is a topic on the early relations with the Aboriginal people. From Kerr, John Hunter 1996, *Glimpses of life in Victoria*, Melbourne University Press, Melbourne, p. 138.

The western districts of Victoria were the scene of many a bloody fray in the early days of the settlement; for here the Aborigines were numerous, and the white settlers, being comparatively few, lived in constant terror of their attacks. Among other sufferers was a Mr M- ... He was riding through the bush, accompanied only by his overseer, when he was met and attacked by a party of blacks, who probably owed him a grudge ... Both gentlemen were captured and killed, and a few days later the body of Mr M- was casually found, cut open and horribly mutilated ... it is not surprising that when the revolting murder was discovered it was amply avenged by the settlers, possibly on the innocent as well as the guilty.

SOURCE 8 An article that appeared in the *Portland Mercury* in 1842

These, however, are not all the atrocities committed within a brief period of eight weeks by the 'poor blacks', (as certain philanthropic gentlemen designate this race) who possess all the worst passions of man but hardly any of his redeeming qualities. During the past four months, 3500 sheep have been destroyed, four men have been killed and two men seriously wounded. To use the graphic language of one gentleman possessing large flocks in the district: 'the country might as well be in a state of civil war, as few but the boldest of the settlers will move from their home stations.' We earnestly implore the attention of His Excellency Sir George Gipps to the fearful list of murders we have narrated. Can it be expected that any man will sullenly fold their arms and look passively on while their friends, their servants and themselves know not the hour nor the day when their peaceful homes may be turned into houses of wailing, dismay and despair. We very much fear that a cry of vengeance will shortly ring throughout the length and breadth of the land.

How many killings?

About 2000 Europeans were killed by Aboriginal people during the colonial period. Historians estimate that at least 20 000 Aboriginal people were shot or poisoned by Europeans. There were also several Aboriginal men hanged for murders of Europeans. Massacres of Aboriginal people continued into the twentieth century. The last occurred in the 1920s in Western Australia and the Northern Territory. Both of these massacres were committed by police and in both cases the atrocities went unpunished.

SOURCE 9 Aboriginal prisoners in chains at Heavitree Gap police camp, Alice Springs, on 23 June 1906. Charged with stealing beef, all ten men were sentenced to six months in Port Augusta jail.

5.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify the causes of violence between Europeans and Aboriginal people in Port Phillip.
2. **HS1** What was unusual about the Myall Creek massacre?
3. **HS1** Identify two outcomes of the Myall Creek trials.
4. **HS1** What event is believed to have sparked the massacre of Aboriginal peoples in Gippsland in the 1840s?
5. **HS1** How many Aboriginal people and how many Europeans are estimated to have been killed during the colonial period?

5.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine the sketch of Windberry in **SOURCE 1**. What impression of Aboriginal people is expressed by this image?
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCES 5** and **6**.
   (a) What do both Black and Meyrick admit about the violence in Gippsland?
   (b) Are Black and Meyrick's attitudes to violence the same? How are they different?
3. **HS3** Using evidence from the sources in this subtopic, describe ways in which Aboriginal peoples resisted the intrusion of Europeans.
4. **HS3** Consider **SOURCES 7** and **8**. What do the sources suggest about European responses to the violence? Use examples from the sources to support your response.
5. **HS3** Using the sources in this subtopic, evaluate whether Aboriginal people were helpless victims of European violence. Provide examples from the sources to support your response.
6. **HS3** Explore European attitudes to Aboriginal peoples. Make a list of the attitudes suggested by the sources in this subtopic and evaluate whether they were positive or negative.
7. **HS5** Explain the reasons for violence on the Australian frontier.
8. **HS6** Explain whether you think the violence between Europeans and Aboriginal people should be considered a 'war'. Support your point of view with evidence from this section.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.8 Reserves, missions and responses

5.8.1 'Becoming civilised'

From 1788 the British government's policy had been to treat Australia's Aboriginal peoples with friendship and kindness. However, the central fact that the British were there to occupy what they considered to be 'empty land' made this impossible. As settlement spread after 1835, increasing concern in London for Aboriginal peoples saw a recognition in 1837 that they had a 'plain and sacred right' to the land and that, as subjects of the Queen, they should be protected by law. They should also be educated, taught Christianity and 'civilised'. There were many attempts to make Aboriginal people think, behave and work like Europeans; Aboriginal people responded to these attempts in a variety of ways.

In 1816 Governor Macquarie set aside five areas around Sydney for Aboriginal people who wished to become farmers. The offer provided government assistance for six months and some Aboriginal farmers were also provided with convict labour. Macquarie wanted to end Aboriginal resistance by encouraging them to take up British ways. Several Darug families were granted land in western Sydney in an area that came to be known as the Black Town. An Aboriginal fishing village was also set aside at Elizabeth Bay. But, much later, after Macquarie left the colony, Elizabeth Bay was given to wealthy settlers.

Schools and missionaries

In 1814 Governor Macquarie set up an Aboriginal school at Parramatta, calling it the Native Institution. Macquarie thought that once Aboriginal people were educated, they would abandon their traditional lifestyles and stop resisting colonisation.

The Native Institution ensured Aboriginal children had elementary schooling, job training and lessons in Christianity. It had some successes, such as Maria Locke, an Aboriginal girl who won first place in the Anniversary Schools Examination in 1819, ahead of 20 other Aboriginal children and 100 white students. But generally, when students went back to their communities they found very little of what they had learned had any use or meaning for their lives. By 1833 the only remaining Aboriginal school in the colony had just four pupils.

By the 1830s Christian missionaries were taking on the role of bringing Christianity and European ways to Aboriginal people. They concentrated on converting children whom they separated from their parents on mission stations. At least one missionary resorted to kidnapping children.

SOURCE 1 The Parramatta Native Institution Admission List: December 1814 to December 1820

No.	Date of admission	Names	Supposed age (in 1821)	Tribe
1	28 DEC 1814	MARIA	13	RICHMOND
2	28 DEC 1814	KITTY	12	PROSPECT
3	28 DEC 1814	FANNY	9	CATTAI CREEK
4	28 DEC 1814	FRIDAY	12	PORTLAND HEAD
5	10 JAN 1815	BILLY	12	SOUTH CREEK
6	6 JUN 1816	NALOUR	—	—
7	6 JUN 1816	DOORS	—	—
8	12 AUG 1816	BETTY COX	15	HAWKESBURY
9	12 AUG 1816	MILBAH	15	COWPASTURES
10	12 AUG 1816	BETTY FULTON	16	COWPASTURES
11	12 AUG 1816	TOMMY	11	HAWKESBURY
12	12 AUG 1816	PETER	—	—
13	12 AUG 1816	PENDERGRASS	—	—
14	23 AUG 1816	AMY	8	BOTANY BAY
15	23 AUG 1816	NANCY	10	BOTANY BAY
16	23 AUG 1816	CHARLOTTE	—	—
17	9 SEP 1816	JOHN	6	CATTAI CREEK
18	28 DEC 1816	DAVIS	—	—

(continued)

SOURCE 1 The Parramatta Native Institution Admission List: December 1814 to December 1820 *(continued)*

No.	Date of admission	Names	Supposed age (in 1821)	Tribe
19	28 DEC 1816	DICKY	9	—
20	28 DEC 1816	JUDITH	13	MULGOA
21	1 JAN 1818	JENNY MULGAWAY	7	MULGOA
22	1 JAN 1818	JOE MARLOW	—	PROSPECT
23	17 JUL 1818	NEDDY	6	PROSPECT
24	25 SEP 1818	WALLIS	10	NEWCASTLE
25	15 JAN 1819	JEMMY	4	NEWCASTLE
26	1 MAR 1819	HENRY	4	KISSING POINT
27	20 DEC 1819	MARIA (MARGARET)	11	—
28	20 DEC 1819	NANNY	—	—
29	20 DEC 1819	SUKEY	—	—
30	30 MAY 1820	JOSEPH	3	—
31	30 MAY 1820	BILLY GEORGE	—	—
32	6 JUN 1820	POLLY	16	—
33	28 DEC 1820	MARTHA	10	—
34	28 DEC 1820	PEGGY	8	—
35	28 DEC 1820	CHARLOTTE	10	—
36	28 DEC 1820	CAROLINE	7	—
37	28 DEC 1820	ANNA	1	—

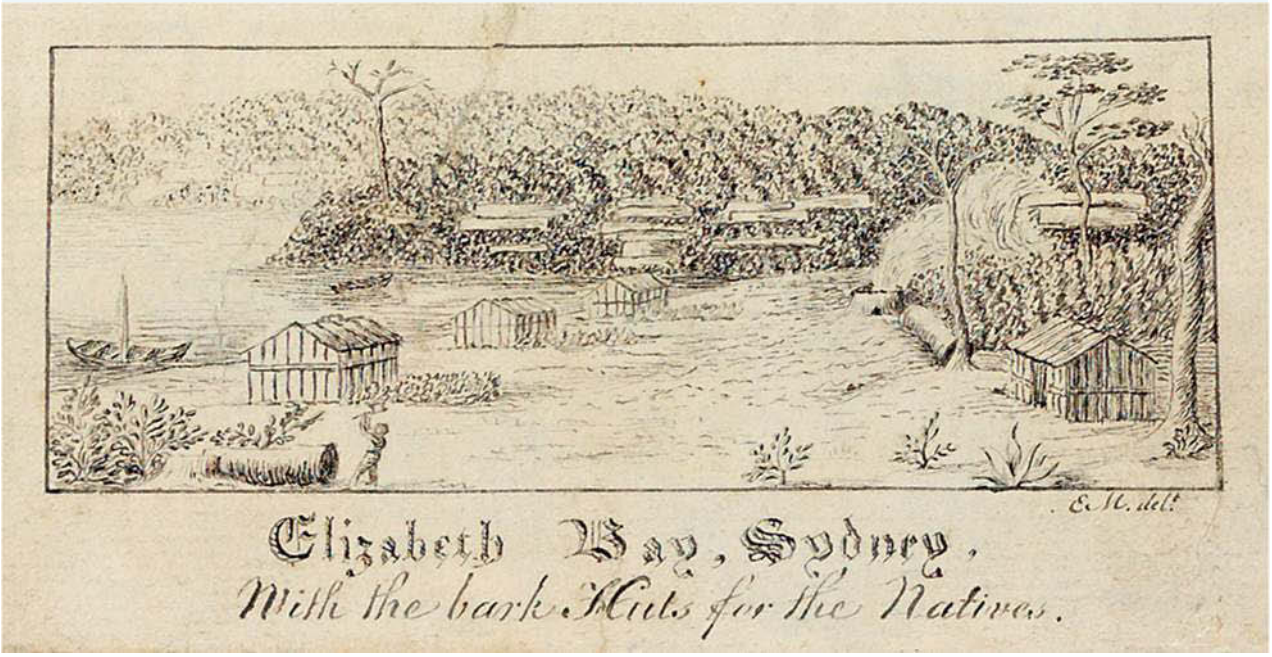
SOURCE 2 From Governor Macquarie's report to Lord Bathurst, Secretary for Colonies in the British government, 1822

I deemed it an act of justice, as well as humanity, to make at least an attempt to ameliorate [improve] their condition, and to endeavour [try] to civilise them.

SOURCE 3 From *Two Years in New South Wales*, by Peter Cunningham, published in 1827

You must absolutely secure the young, wean them from parental influence, and infuse [fill] them with new ideas and opinions ... We had an institution here, in Governor Macquarie's time, where the native children were educated, and turned out of it at the age of puberty good readers and writers; but ... their native instincts and ideas still remaining paramount [strongest], they took to their old ideas again as soon as freed ...

SOURCE 4 A sketch of Elizabeth Bay, Sydney, by Edward Mason, 1853, showing bark huts for the local Aboriginal people



5.8.2 Cultural resistance, negotiation and adaptation

The Native Police Forces

By the middle of the nineteenth century Aboriginal populations across much of Australia had been greatly reduced through violence and disease. The survivors despaired at the loss of their land and their traditional ways as they were forced to become dependent on white society.

Some young Aboriginal men found a place in this changing world by joining the Native Police Forces that were established in Port Phillip in 1842, New South Wales in 1848 and Queensland in 1859. In Queensland especially, Aboriginal troopers were used to kill people from other Aboriginal groups, and they played a brutal role in the defeat of resistance. However, they did not necessarily join the Native Police to protect settlers' property and uphold the law. In Victoria they evaded pursuing their own language groups, though they did commit atrocities against communities outside their traditional boundaries. Many joined because it gave them guns, uniforms, money and, above all, horses. Access to status and authority was understandably attractive to young Aboriginal males.

SOURCE 5 William Strutt's portrait of Munight, a member of Victoria's Native Police

SOURCE 6 *Black troopers escorting prisoner from Ballarat to Melbourne, 1851*, by William Strutt

5.8.3 The Port Phillip protectorate

In the 1830s the British government was increasingly concerned about the treatment of Aboriginal people, especially in the Port Phillip District. A protectorate system was set up. Four Protectors were appointed to investigate crimes committed by settlers against Aboriginal people, but in this they had little success. In each Protectorate, land was set aside for a station where people of the surrounding Aboriginal groups were encouraged to stay. Those who accepted the offer did so for a variety of complex reasons.

Some people of Port Phillip you should know

Not all Aboriginal people used violence in their resistance to the European presence, and many Europeans sought to engage Aboriginal people in a number of ways. The historian Richard Broome has written extensively about these responses in his book *Aboriginal Victorians.* The following examples show how individuals moved in and out of white society as it suited them, choosing to live and work in a manner that met their immediate needs while still keeping their own cultural preferences. Some appeared to adopt white society as their own, but the real situation was often more complex.

SOURCE 7 From *Aboriginal Victorians* by historian Richard Broome, 2005, p. 113

'Across the colony by the 1850's, Aboriginal people dressed like, worked like, ate like and, in some cases, acted like European rural workers ... Yet they were not the same, remaining staunchly Aboriginal in their identity and core culture.'

Here are some examples of these complex responses as Victoria's Aboriginal peoples negotiated their new world.

Billibellary

Billibellary was a *ngurungaeta* (headman), who was one of the signatories on Batman's treaty. He was also known as Jika Jika and was the chief of the Wurundjeri-willam clan, who owned the land north of the Yarra from Melbourne to Lancefield. He was the most respected elder of the Melbourne region. His clan was one of five like-minded landowning groups, forming loosely as Woiwurrung people. About 1500–2000 in number, they intermarried within a loose confederation of four other similar groups from central Victoria, all calling themselves Kulin.

As a close friend of William Thomas (Protector of Aborigines), Billibellary reported the despair that Aboriginal people felt at the loss of their land: 'Blackfellows all about say that no good have them Pickaninnys now, no country for blackfellows like long time ago.' Billibellary is remembered as a man of peace who sent his own children to the Europeans' schools and joined the Native Police Forces along with several other clan heads, increasing their own power and authority. He was a tall athletic man who tried to find a way forward without violence. He died from a respiratory disease on 10 July 1846, leaving his friend Thomas to grieve the loss of this 'valuable councillor'.

SOURCE 8 A portrait of Charles Never by William Strutt. Charles's original name was Murrumwiller and he was probably from the Murray district.

Charles Never

Charles attended a school for Aboriginal children at Merri Creek, initiated by the Baptists of Melbourne in 1845, and remained there while the school was in operation until 1848. He soon made a plan to enter white society in its upper ranks, perfecting his spoken English and the manners of a gentleman: 'I like to be a gentleman. Black gentleman as good as white.'

SOURCE 9 When Charles announced his intention to write to the Queen, asking for a piece of land and 400 pounds to build a house on it, the wife of the schoolmaster told him it would not be appropriate. He replied:

> You say one time the Queen a good woman. And yet she send white man out here, take black fellar's land, and drive them away, and shoot them, and build plenty house and garden on my land; and when I say, I ask her to give me back a piece of my land and money to build a house, you say she think I not know better. This land, my land first of all. 400 pounds not much to the Queen, and she take plenty land from me.

Thomas Bungeelene

Thomas was one of the other students at the Merri Creek Aboriginal School.

The historian Richard Broome writes: 'The journey into the European world often left Aboriginal people disoriented and disappointed.' Tommy was a troublesome student at first, but soon got used to lessons, church and singing hymns. He was baptised on 1 January 1852 and even got to shake Governor Hotham's hand when he arrived in Melbourne in June 1854. He finished his education in Fitzroy before becoming a messenger for the Department of Lands. He eventually became a map tracer for the Department of Mines, and worked within white society. He sometimes denied his Aboriginality, even to the point of washing his hands frequently to make them whiter, claiming that his parents were white. He died from gastric fever in January 1865. His last words were to request a reading from Psalm 23: 'The LORD is my shepherd, I shall not want ... surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life.'

Simon Wonga

Simon Wonga was born near Healesville in the 1820s. He was the son of Billibellary. When Wonga was in his mid teens, he severely injured his foot while he was hunting and was cared for by Assistant Protector of Aborigines William Thomas. Wonga soon befriended Thomas and his son. Wonga shared much of his understanding of traditional culture, language and beliefs with Thomas. He also learnt from Thomas how European society worked — information that would help him to develop into the skilled and respected negotiator he became in later life.

By 1851 Wonga had become *ngurungaeta* or headman of the Wurundjeri people. He used his knowledge and friends in the European community to support his people when they were treated unfairly. He tried to regain the land settlers had taken. In 1859, he took a small group of Taungurong men from the Goulburn River to see William Thomas, acting as their interpreter and mediator. In a letter to Redmond Barry, Thomas quotes Wonga: 'I bring my friends Goulburn Blacks, they want a block of land in their country where they may sit down plant corn potatoes etc. etc., and work like white man.'

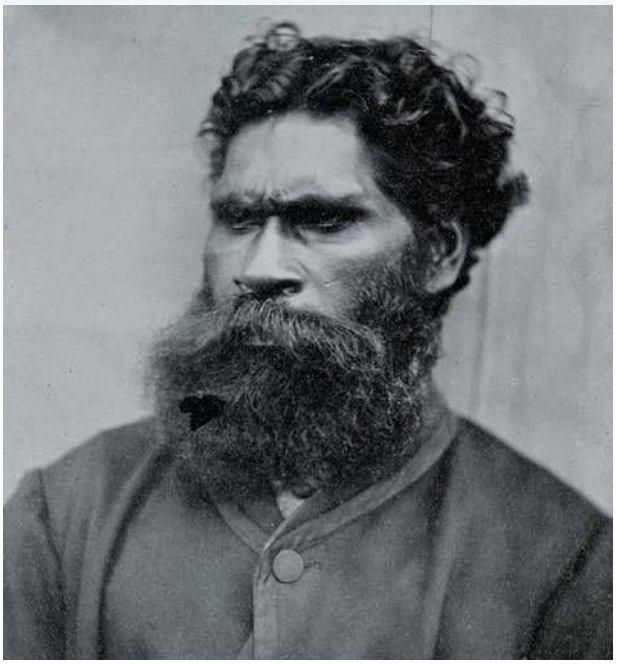
After this meeting, a deputation was sent to the Commissioner of the Land and Survey Office, where they met with officials and secured a portion of land for the Taungurong. A precedent had been set, and in 1860, Wonga returned to Thomas to ask for a piece of land for his own Wurundjeri people. The land he asked for later became the Coranderrk Aboriginal Mission. Wonga died there in 1875.

William Barak

William Barak was born into the Wurundjeri clan of the Woiwurrung people in 1823, in the area now known as Croydon, in Melbourne. Originally named Beruk Barak, he adopted the name William after joining the Native Police as a 19-year-old. Barak was a natural leader: his father was a clan head and his uncle was Billibellary.

Barak emerged as a politically smart leader, skilled mediator and spokesperson for his people. In partnership with his cousin Simon Wonga, Barak worked to establish and protect Coranderrk. He became a prominent figure in the struggle for Aboriginal rights and justice. When Wonga died in 1875, Barak succeeded him as clan leader. While at Coranderrk, Barak recorded Koorie culture through storytelling and art, and invited white settlers and dignitaries to visit the reserve. Skilled in the arts of diplomacy and friendship, over time he gained growing respect and fame within his own culture, in settler society and even abroad. In 1886 he petitioned the Victorian government for better rights and land on behalf of the residents, stating: 'We Blacks of Aboriginal Blood, wish to have now freedom for all our life time.'

SOURCE 10 A photograph of William Barak, taken around 1868, Museum Victoria



5.8.4 Coranderrk

One of the most successful schemes to turn Aboriginal people into farmers was the Coranderrk Reserve, set up near Healesville in Victoria in 1863. The Kulin people who moved to Coranderrk cleared and fenced the land and, by the 1870s, they were successfully growing hops, raising cattle and running a dairy. Despite this, the law did not recognise the people as the owners of this land. When the Board for the Protection of

Aborigines attempted to close Coranderrk in 1874, its Kulin residents marched in protest to the Victorian Parliament. Their action saved Coranderrk, but only for a time. From 1886, under the Victorian Aborigines Act, many people of mixed descent were forced to leave the reserves. This cut Coranderrk's workforce to a level that was too low to run the farms. Finally, in 1924, Coranderrk was closed.

SOURCE 11 The Kulin people at Coranderrk grew and sold arrowroot, hops and vegetables. As well as tending their fields, they earned money working on nearby properties.

SOURCE 12 From the *Report of the House of Commons, Select Committee on Aboriginal Tribes (British Settlements), 1837*

[The] native inhabitants of any land have an **incontrovertible** right to their own soil; a plain and sacred right. Europeans have entered their borders uninvited, and, when there, have not only acted as if they were undoubted lords of the soil, but have punished the natives as aggressors if they have [tried] to live in their own country.

'All the rights of British subjects'?

South Australia's governor, John Hindmarsh, proclaimed that Aboriginal people of South Australia had all the rights of British subjects. Despite such intentions, Aboriginal land was sold without consent just as it had been in other colonies, and only small areas were set aside as reserves. It was hardly surprising that conflict soon developed, with killings on both sides. Because they were not Christians, Aboriginal people had not been allowed to give evidence in colonial courts. To give them more protection under the law, in 1843 the British government allowed the courts to accept Aboriginal evidence. As a result, in 1846 a European was hanged for the murder of a South Australian Aboriginal man. Despite this, squatters continued to use violence to drive Aboriginal people off the land.

SOURCE 13 *45 Natives driven to the Police Court by the Police for Trespassing*, a watercolour/drawing by W.A. Cawthorne, 1845

5.8 ACTIVITIES

1. Research the community of Coranderrk. Considering both Aboriginal and European points of view, in what ways might it be considered a success? In what ways might it be considered a failure? Discuss with your class. **Determining historical significance**
2. Find out more about some of the Aboriginal individuals mentioned in this section, such as Barak, Wonga, Bungeelene, or the Europeans, such as Angus McMillan, Henry Meyrick, William Strutt. What does your research tell you about what has been left out of this subtopic? What do you think should be added to improve the usefulness of this text as a historical source? **Determining historical significance**

5.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** In 1837, authorities in London recognised that the Aboriginal people had a 'plain and sacred right' to the land and that, as subjects of the Queen, they should be protected by law. What else did they think should occur?
2. **HS1** Why did Governor Macquarie establish the Native Institution in Parramatta?
3. **HS1** Identify the reasons Aboriginal males might have joined the Native Police.
4. **HS1** Identify the ways that Billibellary responded to the presence of the Europeans.
5. **HS1** How did Charles Never show that he wanted to join white society?
6. **HS1** In what ways did Thomas Bungeelene adopt European ways of life?
7. **HS1** Identify the ways that Simon Wonga adapted to white society while still retaining his Aboriginality.
8. **HS1** Identify what William Barak did for his people.
9. **HS1** Describe the purpose of a protectorate.
10. **HS1** In what ways did British authorities attempt to improve the lives of Aboriginal peoples?

5.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. How many children were admitted to the Parramatta Native Institution each year? What sort of names were they given?
2. **HS3** What do **SOURCES 2** and **3** suggest about the attitudes of Macquarie and Cunningham and their understanding of Aboriginal people?
3. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 3** indicate about Aboriginal responses to attempts to 'civilise' them?
4. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 1–4**, explain whether the Europeans' attempts to change Aboriginal people were successful.
5. **HS3** Based on **SOURCES 5** and **6**, what do you think the artist, William Strutt, thought about the Native Police?
6. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 10** suggest about Barak's character?
7. **HS5** In what ways did Europeans cause a decline of Aboriginal civilisation?
8. **HS6** Explain what you think is important for students to know about relations on the frontier in colonial times.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.9 A long, forgotten war

5.9.1 Violence in Western Australia and the Northern Territory

In the 1880s most people in Australia lived in cities and were increasingly proud of their civilisation and progress. With surges in population and booming economies, there was abundant optimism and widespread prosperity. There was talk about the states uniting to form a federation, artists and writers began to explore and celebrate what it meant to be 'Australian', and with the celebration of the centenary in Sydney, people looked back with great satisfaction on 100 years of pioneering achievement. When the London journalist George Augustus Sala described Melbourne as 'marvellous' in 1885, the people of the city felt justifiably proud. The title of his article for London's *Daily Telegraph*, 'The Land of the Golden Fleece', seemed to summarise Australia.

Outside the cities, life in Australia was very different. 1885 also marks probably the most violent year on the Australian frontier. In the remote parts of South Australia, across the Kimberley district in the west and throughout the northern reaches of Queensland and the Territory, the same pattern of occupation, Aboriginal resistance and terrible European reprisal was repeated. But in this decade, modern weaponry, bush-bred horses and efficient Native Police, coupled with a general acceptance of the inevitability and necessity of the violence, produced a dreadful toll.

The exact numbers of those killed in the 1880s will never be known, but it is reasonable to assume that at least 2000 Aboriginal people died in armed conflict with the settlers, though it was probably more. The number of violent settler deaths is also hard to estimate and included not only Europeans but also Chinese miners, Pacific Island labourers and other Aboriginal people who had chosen to work with the settlers. The documented figure is 158 in Queensland during the 1880s, but it is also likely to be higher. In 1885 alone there were 25 violent settler deaths on the Queensland frontier.

The Kimberley

The Kimberley was explored by Alexander Forrest in 1879, but European occupation was relatively slow until 1885, when gold was discovered at Halls Creek and cattlemen arrived from the eastern states with herds looking for pasture. Competing for resources in rough, isolated country, Aboriginal people robbed tents and attacked travellers. This sparked fear and attacks by the Europeans. One leader of the Bunuba language group, Jandamarra, caused widespread panic when he defected from the police force, captured guns and planned a military defence of his country. He led several attacks over three years before being shot dead at Tunnel Creek on 1 April 1897. So many Aboriginal people were killed in the Kimberley district

between 1881 and around 1905 that Aboriginal people of the region called that period the 'Killing Times'. The last Kimberley massacre took place in 1927, when police murdered at least 20 Aboriginal people and possibly many more.

SOURCE 1 From Pedersen, Howard (2007) transcript, *First Australians*, SBS television series, Episode 5

In 1888, the Western Australian Government responded to the incidents of resistance right throughout the Kimberley by putting ... a whole network of police stations, to try and quell this growing Aboriginal opposition to European settlement. By the early 1890s a quarter of the whole Western Australian police force is based in the Kimberley, where there's only one per cent of the European settlement population.

SOURCE 2 While official police action was responsible for much of the violence in the Kimberley at this time, it was individual settlers who also typically engaged in the killing. The historian Henry Reynolds, who has studied relationships on the frontier for much of his life, made this point about how settlers were able to engage in this violence and maintain a clear conscience in his book *Forgotten War*, p. 214:

Many more punitive expeditions were likely mounted than were ever reported ... The prominent pioneer pastoralist Aeneas Gunn observed that it was a breach of northern etiquette to ask a man whether he had shot a blackfellow or not. He also expressed the view common amongst his contemporaries that they were not primarily responsible for the widespread violence on the frontier, writing that 'There are few, if any, of the Northern pioneers who would not prefer to live at peace with the natives. But the hostilities are, in the majority of instances, forced upon them.'

DID YOU KNOW?

A royal commission in Western Australia found in 1905 that it had been the practice for the past 30 years to keep Aboriginal prisoners in heavy neck chains for the entire length of their sentences. It also found that Aboriginal women on cattle and sheep stations were often captured by white stockmen, raped and used as slave labour.

A notorious incident in the Territory

In 1884, four well-respected copper miners were attacked and killed in the far north-west of the Northern Territory, inciting outrage from the settler community. The *Northern Territory Times* asserted that Aboriginal people were 'murderers and robbers by nature, and nothing but the most severe punishment will have any lasting effect on them'. Private parties rode off in search of vengeance, with one group cornering a group of Aboriginal people in a lagoon. The official report stated that 20 or 30 Aboriginal men were killed; others indicated that it was possibly more than 150 men, women and children. What makes this example even more remarkable is that those who killed the miners were already known and later arrested and convicted. Henry Reynolds makes the point that the slow process of the law was not enough to pacify the settlers' rage and desire for vengeance.

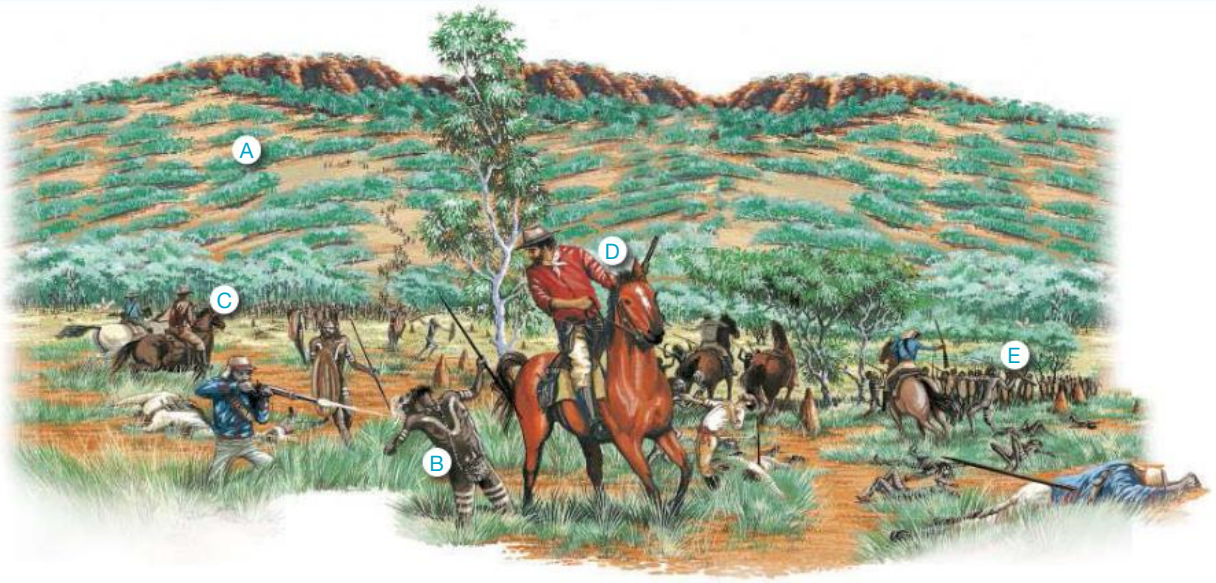
5.9.2 Violence in Queensland

Colonisation of Queensland began in 1825 and it became a separate colony in 1859. Between the 1860s and the 1890s, detachments of Queensland Native Police led by white officers made several brutal attacks on Aboriginal camps, killing indiscriminately. Where they could, Aboriginal people fought back. The largest battle occurred in 1884.

From the 1860s squatters had begun to occupy land between Cloncurry and Camooweal in western Queensland. This was the land of the Kalkadoon people, who waged a guerrilla war of resistance for 13 years. At Battle Mountain in 1884 around 600 Kalkadoon warriors made their last stand against

200 armed whites and Native Police. The Kalkadoons fought bravely but spears, stones and boomerangs were no match for repeating rifles and revolvers. Almost 85 per cent of the Kalkadoons were killed.

SOURCE 3 The defeat of the Kalkadoons



A Battle Mountain lies about 80 kilometres north-west of Mount Isa. The country is rocky and hilly. Boulders, giant termite mounds and tufts of porcupine grass pepper the landscape.

B Warriors prepared for battle by painting three stripes around their upper arms and legs and a boomerang shape on their chest. The leader wore a thick string around his neck, tied to another around his waist, and a white feather-down headdress.

C Each detachment in the native police force comprised about six native troopers headed by a European officer.

D The landowners were often heavily armed, carrying both .45 Colts and carbines. Native troopers carried carbines but were not trusted to carry revolvers.

E The Kalkadoon warriors were described as 'the elite of the Aboriginal warriors' and as 'tall, muscular men of magnificent physique and endurance, many of whom towered over their European opponents'.

5.9.3 Exploitation and protection policies

After the Australian colonies gained self-government from 1856, the new colonial parliaments showed much less concern for Aboriginal people than had the British government. An enormous amount of 'Crown land' was now held by squatters in the form of **pastoral leases**. On many of these leases, squatters exploited Aboriginal people as cheap labour.

Rather than protect the rights of Aboriginal people to use their land, the colonial governments preferred to force them onto reserves. From the late nineteenth century Protection policies were introduced in most of the colonies (or, from 1901, states). Under these policies, many Aboriginal people were controlled by reserve or mission administrators. Protection policies were based on the belief that Aboriginal people were dying out and that all that could be done for them was to prevent unnecessary suffering. From as early as the 1880s some Aboriginal children were taken from their families under these policies.

Gradually, colonial and state governments passed laws that gave them legal rights to remove or separate Aboriginal children from their families without having to show good reason in court. Such laws operated in Queensland from 1897, in Western Australia from 1905, in South Australia and the Northern Territory from 1911 and in New South Wales from 1915. As early as 1910, Inspector Thomas Clode, a South Australian police officer who was given the position of Sub-Protector of Aborigines, described such policies as 'nothing short of kidnapping'. Children taken away under these laws were deprived of ties with their families, communities, cultures and languages, and many also suffered abuse and exploitation.

SOURCE 4 From *The Queenslander*, 23 May 1885. *The Queenslander* was the leading weekly Queensland newspaper in the 1880s. It ran a courageous campaign for more humane policies towards Aboriginal people.

On all stations ... in this western portion of Queensland a certain number of ... [Aborigines are] employed ... The vast majority receive no **remuneration**, save **tucker** and clothes. They are ... talked of as my, or our niggers, and are not free to depart when they like ... Cases have occurred where blacks belonging to both sexes have been followed, brought back and punished for running away from their nominal employers.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 1848 the British Secretary of State, Earl Grey, informed the Governor of New South Wales that Aboriginal people must keep the right to use their land for traditional purposes. In 1996 the High Court of Australia found that the rights referred to by Earl Grey still existed. This was the famous Wik judgment, a landmark decision on Aboriginal land rights.

SOURCE 5 From a dispatch of Earl Grey, British Secretary of State, to Governor Fitzroy in 1848

These [squatters'] leases are not intended to deprive the natives of their former right to hunt over these Districts, or to wander over them in search of subsistence [food and other needs] ... except over land actually cultivated or fenced in for that purpose.

An inquiry into the forcible removal of the children of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples was conducted in the 1990s. The *Bringing Them Home* report acknowledged the hardships Aboriginal peoples endured and the sacrifices they made. It also recognised the strength and struggles of the thousands of people who were affected by these policies. By 2001 all state and territory governments had apologised to the Stolen Generations. However, it was the federal government's apology in 2008, delivered by then Prime Minister Kevin Rudd, that was considered to be the most significant.

SOURCE 6 Prime Minister Kevin Rudd, 13 February 2008

We apologise for the laws and policies of successive Parliaments and governments that have inflicted profound grief, suffering and loss on these our fellow Australians. We apologise especially for the removal of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children from their families, their communities and their country.

Aboriginal voting rights

How did Aboriginal people fare as Australia's colonies gained democratic rights? All adult white men gained the right to vote for the lower house of parliament in New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia during the 1850s. After campaigns for equal rights, adult white women also gained voting rights between the 1890s and the first decade of the twentieth century. Federation took place on 1 January 1901. It marked the creation of a nation from the six British colonies in Australia (see topic 6).

In the first federal elections in 1901, South Australian Aboriginal men and women could vote, Aboriginal men of New South Wales, Victoria and Tasmania could vote, but not the Aboriginal people of Queensland and Western Australia. The Franchise **Bill** was proposed to extend voting rights at federal elections to women and Aboriginal people in all states. However, most elected members of the Federal Parliament opposed Aboriginal voting rights. They extended the right to vote at federal elections to all women but not to Aboriginal Australians. Instead, many Aboriginal people who had voted in the first federal election had that right taken away from them during the following two decades.

DISCUSS

Discuss in small groups how important it is to work towards reconciliation with Aboriginal Australians. What suggestions would you make to improve race relations in Australia? Record some of the ideas as the discussion proceeds. **[Intercultural Capability]**

5.9 ACTIVITIES

1. Research why Aboriginal people were denied voting rights in the new Commonwealth of Australia. When did they eventually gain the vote? **Analysing cause and effect**
2. Working with a partner, suggest some reasons why the history of the Australian frontier was not taught to most Australians until recently. See if you can find out why this has changed. Make a list of suggestions to teachers about how to teach Australian history. **Analysing cause and effect**
3. Research the experiences of Aboriginal children who were taken from their families. Discuss with your teacher how you might conduct this research and how to structure your report. Consider background information, circumstances of removal, the life led after removal, the chances of ever finding family, cultural and geographic dislocation, long-term consequences for families. **Determining historical significance**

5.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What were the factors that made frontier violence more disastrous for Aboriginal people in the 1880s?
2. **HS1** What made Jandamarra more dangerous than other Aboriginal leaders?
3. **HS1** Describe the conflict at Battle Mountain in your own words.
4. **HS1** What did colonial governments prefer to do with Aboriginal people?
5. **HS5** Explain why Aboriginal children were taken from their families. Describe the impacts of this policy.
6. **HS1** Describe what happened to Aboriginal voting rights around the turn of the century.

5.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. What does this suggest about the nature of frontier violence in the Kimberley?
2. **HS3** Explain what point Reynolds makes in **SOURCE 2** about settler attitudes to the law.
3. **HS3** With reference to the sources in this subtopic, what are the problems of establishing the truth of what happened on the frontier?
4. **HS4** Describe the ways in which frontier conflict in northern Australia was similar to and different from conflict in other parts of Australia earlier in the century.
5. **HS6** Identify three significant things that students should know about frontier conflict in Australia towards the end of the nineteenth century. Explain why you have chosen each point.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.10 The Torres Strait Islanders

5.10.1 Early contact

The Torres Strait Islands are the hundreds of islands, many tiny, scattered between the tip of Cape York, in Queensland, and Papua New Guinea. Many have been inhabited for thousands of years. No two islands are identical, each having its own landscape and history.

The Torres Strait Islanders are a separate people in origin, history and way of life. Today they live in 18 permanent communities on 17 islands, though they still frequent their traditionally owned islands for fishing, gardening and recreation. The Torres Strait Islanders (hereafter called Islanders) traded with Aboriginal people of Cape York and the people of Papua New Guinea before the Europeans arrived. There were five distinct cultural groups and each nation had its own name. Because they were gardeners and fearless defenders of their territories, Islanders were well regarded by European visitors.

Initial European contact was made in 1606 when the Spanish navigator Luis Vaez de Torres sailed through what is now called the Torres Strait.

After 1770, when Captain Cook proclaimed part of Australia's eastern coast as Crown land, many British ships favoured Torres Strait as a passage to the Pacific. While the first European settlement was established on Albany Island in 1863, a 'pearl rush' in 1870 brought thousands of people from all over the world. A year later the London Missionary Society brought Christianity to Darnley Island and the Islanders' lives were transformed. The first Christian service was performed on 1 July 1871, and that day is still celebrated as 'The Coming of the Light.' Missionary teachers incorporated traditional ritual and belief but ended the practice of reciprocal killing and the trading in human heads. They also imposed a new language, Torres Strait Creole (currently called 'Ailan Tok'), which was embraced as a shared language by the Islanders. Islanders also accepted Christianity as a fulfilment of their existing religious beliefs rather than the imposition of a new one.

SOURCE 1 Priests Joseph Lui Snr. and Poey Passi at their graduation ceremony on Moa Island, 1925. The merging of pre-colonial beliefs and traditional Christianity is an important part of Islander culture.

SOURCE 2 Pearling was an important industry for the Islanders in both cultural and economic terms. Islanders were exploited as cheap labour, but this enabled them to contribute to their own community.

5.10.2 Discrimination and control

Between 1872 and 1879 the government of Queensland progressively claimed the Torres Strait Islands in the name of the Crown. Initially, the Islanders enjoyed more independence under European control than did mainland Aboriginal people. This was mainly because the then Queensland Government Controller, John Douglas, would not allow Islanders to be classified as Aboriginal people under the *Queensland Aborigines Protection Act 1897*.

An extraordinarily tolerant and enlightened man, Douglas exerted his authority with minimal disruption to the Islanders' lives. He created a system of island councils, responsible for maintaining law and order, essential services and schools. Douglas' death in 1904 made the Islanders more vulnerable to outside control by the Queensland government, placing them 'under the dog Act' as they put it. Soon Islanders' lives were restricted by a curfew and pass system, their wages were controlled by the Protector, they had to ask permission to withdraw money and children were expected to go to government primary schools before either going to work on the boats (for boys) or doing domestic work (for girls).

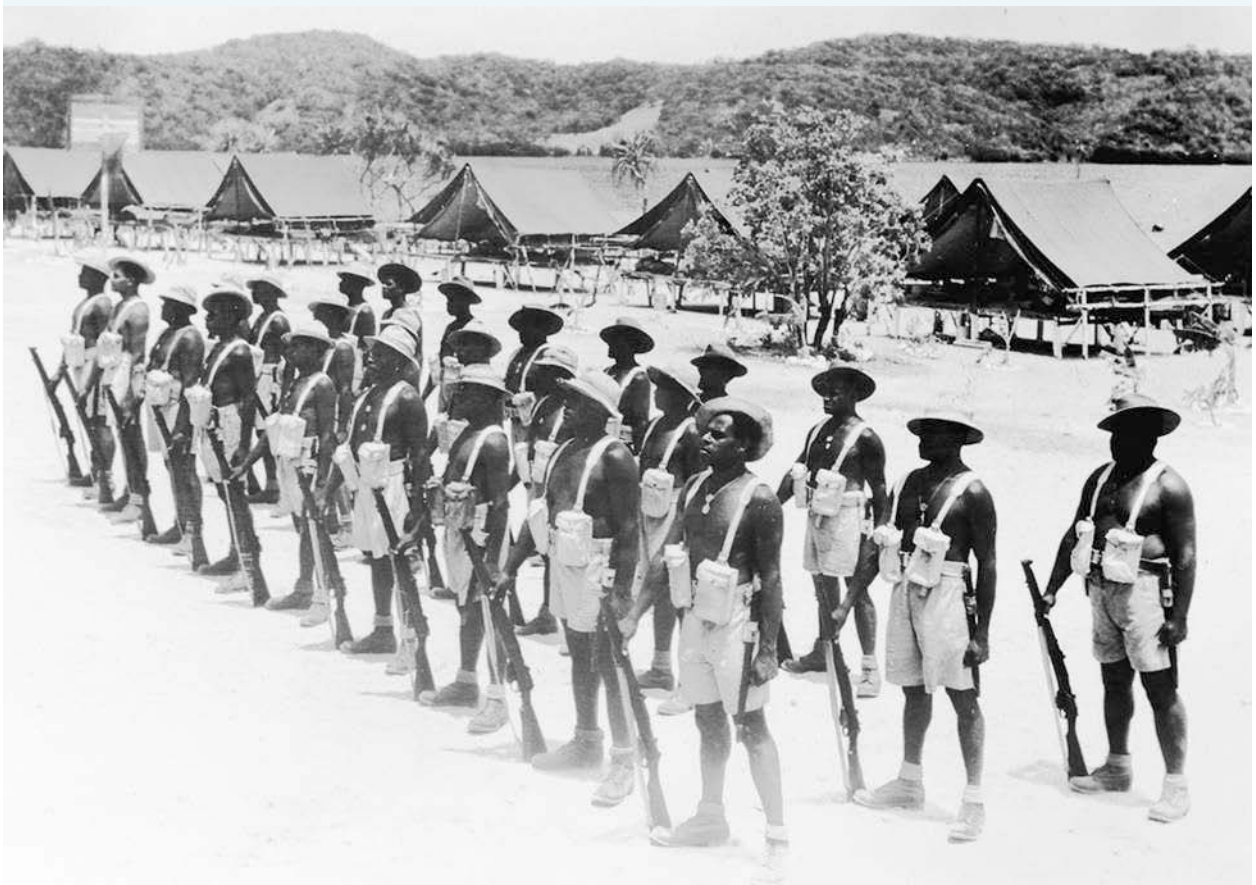
Islanders also became subject to the same racial discrimination that operated thoughout Queensland. Schools, swimming baths, theatres and even dances were racially segregated and Islanders were not allowed to enter hotels. Marriage, sexual relations and friendships between races brought official disapproval. While the Catholic school on Thursday Island defied the rules of segregation, the 'white' state school admitted Europeans, Japanese and Chinese, and the 'coloured' school took everyone else.

Frustrated by the loss of ability to run their own affairs, Islanders working on Queensland government–owned boats staged a strike in 1936. It lasted nine months; the outcome was that Island Councils were allowed to have more substantial input into the management of their boats and other affairs.

The Islanders also benefited in 1939 when the Queensland government passed the Torres Strait Islanders Act, for the first time legally recognising the Islanders as a separate people.

Many Islanders also served in the Australian armed forces during the Second World War. They were initially paid only one-third of the wage of the Europeans. They went on strike in 1943 and again in 1944 to demand the end to discrimination. The government doubled their wages, eventually. Over 800 Islanders served in the armed forces. After the war, many Islanders who served in the armed forces still faced discrimination and exclusion.

SOURCE 3 Thursday Island, 1945. A squad of the Torres Strait Light Infantry Battalion train in their company lines, 1945.



Source: Australian War Memorial 119169

5.10 ACTIVITY

With a partner, research the traditional lifestyles of Torres Strait Islanders and their history. Prepare a brief presentation of your findings. **Identifying continuity and change**

5.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the main characteristics of the Torres Strait Islands and their people.
2. **HS1** What is celebrated by Torres Strait Islanders as 'The Coming of the Light'?
3. **HS1** What changes did the Europeans bring to the Islands?
4. **HS1** What controls did the Queensland government impose on Torres Strait Islanders?
5. **HS1** Explain how Islanders negotiated with the government and identify the outcomes.

5.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What do the sources in this subtopic suggest about the changes the Europeans brought to Islander society?
2. **HS4** Do you think the changes that the Europeans brought to Islander society were positive or negative?
3. **HS3** What do the sources in this subtopic suggest about Islander responses to change?
4. **HS6** Explain why John Douglas' contribution is important to the history of the Torres Strait Islands.
5. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 1, 2** and **3** as your evidence, write half a page explaining how Islander culture survived despite the massive change that came with European control.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.11 A celestial presence: the Chinese in Australia

5.11.1 Chinese arrive on the goldfields

Mak Sai Ying (also known as John Shying), who arrived to Australia in 1818, was the first recorded Chinese immigrant to Australia. After a decade of farming, Ying was listed as the publican of The Lion, a hotel in Parramatta, possibly signifying his social and economic success. Material advancement was a powerful motive for most migrants to Australia and this is also true for the Chinese. However, immigration from China was very limited in the first half of the nineteenth century. The labour shortage in Victoria in the 1840s brought 1700 convicts but it also encouraged squatters to engage small bands of Chinese workers as shepherds on four-year contracts. Paid only half the wages of local shepherds, the Chinese were initially welcomed into Victoria. However, once gold was discovered in 1851 and large numbers of Chinese appeared on the goldfields, in direct competition with Europeans, prejudice and discrimination became common.

The Victorian gold rushes produced a second transformation of the society that had been established at Port Phillip in 1835. The traditional hunter-gatherer society of up to 60 000 Aboriginal people had been displaced by a prosperous pastoral economy of 77 000 Europeans and over 6 million sheep by 1851. Only 10 years later, the population was a staggering 540 000, Melbourne was a large and renowned city surrounded by other successful inland towns, and people had come from around the world to find their fortune. Many of these people came from China.

Like most other miners, the Chinese came for material wealth and security. Ninety per cent of the Chinese came from the Guangdong province in southern China, an area that had experienced war, rising rents and land shortages, so like the European migrants, there were many who had much to gain from making a living in Victoria.

Although miners came from around the world, the Chinese were a distinctive national group, different in language, religion, culture, dress and appearance. They also travelled together in large groups and were virtually all male. The Chinese were also very determined men who worked hard and were set on returning to China with their wealth. All of these factors were used as excuses for hatred and discrimination by some of the Europeans, though it was possibly the Melbourne newspapers and their articles about 'an invasion from China' that stirred a lot of the hostility. There were other complaints against them: many Chinese worked on Sundays, some smoked opium (which was legal at the time but morally frowned upon) and gambling was popular. They seemed to be a strange and threatening presence.

SOURCE 1 Lum Khen Yang in 'The Wesleyan Chronicle, 1 Feb 1859' quoted in *Colonial casualties: Chinese in early Victoria*

Our money and property were plundered, we had not the means of purchasing a morsel to put into our mouths and there appeared no way by which we could extricate ourselves from poverty ... We happily heard intelligence regarding a new gold-field in an English colony. We were told that men from all parts of the world were congregated there ... that the people were peaceably disposed, and that the country abounded in everything. The idea of going to such a country was delightful ... I then made an effort to get as much money as would pay my passage to this productive country.

SOURCE 2 *Flemington, Melbourne*, by S.E. Brees, painted around 1856. Long columns of Chinese men travelling to the goldfields aroused fear and hostility amongst European miners.

SOURCE 3 The description of the Chinese miners by the Polish digger Seweryn Korzelinski

Small in stature, with small eyes and long plaits of hair, made even longer by a piece of string with a tassel tied at the end of it. They are very funny to watch when they walk overland, for they usually travel in large groups of a hundred or so, one behind the other in a long line like wild geese. They don't walk normally but take short steps and appear to be running very slowly. Each one carries a long pole over his shoulder with baskets of victuals hanging at both ends.

5.11.2 Conflict on the goldfields

Alarmed at the increasing numbers of Chinese migrants, the Victorian government passed the first of a number of racial discrimination laws in 1855, imposing an extra tax on every Chinese person landing in Victoria. Undeterred, ships began landing at Robe in South Australia. Long streams of Chinese miners then trekked from South Australia to the goldfields in Victoria. Conflicts soon arose as European miners drove Chinese miners from productive claims and the Chinese fought back. The government stepped in to organise Chinese Protectorates (similar to the Aboriginal Protectorates), with separate living areas, elected representatives, interpreters and access to legal rights. There was a great deal of official prejudice expressed against the Chinese.

DID YOU KNOW?

The worst anti-Chinese riots were at Buckland River in Victoria, in 1857, and in 1861 at Lambing Flat, the site of the present-day town of Young in New South Wales. In 1881 New South Wales and Victoria passed laws stating that any ship coming to Australia could carry only one Chinese passenger for every 100 tons of cargo.

SOURCE 4 The description of the Chinese immigrants by the *Report of the Victorian Goldfields Commission of Enquiry*, 1855

Their generally filthy habits are repulsive to the Christian population. The question of ... such large numbers of a pagan and inferior race is a very serious one.

Three years later John Fawkner, one of the founders of Melbourne, demanded that the government act to stop 'the Gold Fields of Australia Felix from becoming the property of the Emperor of China' and that they represented 'great social evils, immorality and crime ... bringing about results highly detrimental to the habits of the rising generation'.

Some groups of miners went beyond words. As the numbers of Chinese swelled to over 25 000 by 1857, a serious anti-Chinese riot erupted at Buckland River, when 30 to 40 miners pushed the Chinese from their claims, robbed them and then burned their tents. Four Chinese miners drowned in the freezing Buckland River. A similar riot occurred in New South Wales at Lambing Flat, near the town of Young, in 1861.

SOURCE 5 The Roll Up banner around which a mob of about 1000 men rallied and attacked Chinese miners at Lambing Flat in June 1861. The banner is now on display in the museum at Young.

SOURCE 6 From the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 20 July 1861

... the crowd of rioters took the road to Lambing Flat ... every Chinese resident in the township on whom hands could be laid was attacked and maltreated ... Unarmed, defenceless, and unresisting Chinese were struck down in the most brutal manner by bludgeons ... and by pick handles ... every article of property they had endeavoured to take with them was plundered.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Australia and Asia > **Chinese Diaspora**

5.11.3 Contested history

There are many aspects of studying history that lead to debate and argument. Students need to be aware that sources and accounts all present particular perspectives that need to be interrogated by looking at other sources. This is also true in this topic. In many history books the riots, resentment and hostility directed towards the Chinese has created an image of Chinese passivity and helplessness. This may not be the case. The following sources suggest that many Chinese immigrants, in spite of the conditions under which they lived and worked, went on to become successful members of the community.

SOURCE 7 The website www.egold.net.au emphasises the diverse experiences of Chinese people and their contribution to Victoria.

The Chinese, who at one stage during the late 1850s accounted for one in ten Victorians, settled in the key goldfields centres of Bendigo, Ballarat and Castlemaine. They brought with them their distinctive way of life and specialised mining techniques. Some encountered hostility and racist attitudes but as a group the Chinese were renowned for their industry.

Although best known for their role in the goldmining industry, they were involved in many other pursuits on the goldfields. Many worked as herbalists, merchants and restaurateurs. Others played an important role in the development of the region by working as market gardeners and continued to do so well into the twentieth century.

Lee Heng Jacjung was one individual who made a life for himself in Victoria. He arrived in Australia from California and settled on the Fryers Creek diggings, where he acted as an official interpreter. He married and settled near Mount Alexander, and became a valued member of his community. Similarly, James Acoy was an interpreter and prominent businessman in Castlemaine, which had one of the biggest goldfield Chinese communities. In 1855 he married a 17-year-old German girl and built a house in Castlemaine; together the couple had 10 children. While imprisoned for corruption in 1869, he had many supporters across the community who believed his conviction was unjust.

SOURCE 8 From R.W. Dale, *Impressions of Australia*, published in 1889

... the **virtues** of the Chinaman, rather than his **vices**, provoke the popular resentment against him. His ... industry, his patience, his powers of endurance ... make him a very formidable person.

SOURCE 9 The Chinese also conducted a sustained series of protests and petitions against unfair taxation from 1855 to 1861, in some cases winning concessions from the government. The following appeared in Natives of China residing in Victoria petition, 4 August 1857; Chinese Resident in Castlemaine petition, 18 August 1857.

Nearly all of us left our native land at the solicitation of Europeans, to seek abroad that prosperity which we could not find at home, on the assurance that we should receive the protection of your laws so long as we remained obedient to them; and that we should be governed in that spirit of equity which we have been accustomed to associate with the English name; but that, since our arrival, we have been subjected to a series of insults and oppressions from the ignorant, the cruel, and the malicious, though we are not conscious of having merited such injustice ... Every nation is allowed to come into this colony – why not the Chinese? At first the government was very good to our petitioners but now it is going to be different.

5.11 ACTIVITIES

1. Find your own evidence of relations between Europeans and Chinese at this time in Australia's history. Include both written and visual sources. Compare your findings with the evidence from the sources in this subtopic. What overall picture do you get of the relationship between the Europeans and Chinese during this period? **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. Explore the idea of Chinese helplessness. Research the ways Chinese people resisted the taxation imposed by the government. In what ways did they respond to European aggression on the goldfields? **Analysing cause and effect**
3. Research the contribution of the Chinese community in Victoria up to 1901. **Determining historical significance**
4. Find out what role the Chinese community played in the celebrations of Federation in 1901. How does your research alter your understanding of this subtopic? **Determining historical significance**

5.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify two important reasons why Chinese people came to Australia in this period.
2. **HS1** List the reasons why Europeans resented the Chinese.
3. **HS1** Identify the actions the Victorian government took to manage the Chinese presence in Victoria.
4. **HS1** How did the European miners act toward the Chinese?
5. **HS6** What is significant about the lives of Lee Heng Jacjung and James Acoy in Australia?

5.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. How does Lum Khen Yang feel about coming to Australia?
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3**. How does Korzelinski feel about the Chinese?
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 1, 2** and **3**. Do any of the three sources suggest a threatening presence? Explain your answer.
4. **HS3** List the various occupations that Chinese people had other than goldmining, as detailed in **SOURCE 7**.
5. **HS3** In **SOURCE 9**, identify the complaints the Chinese are making.
6. **HS3** Examine all the sources in this subtopic. Create two lists of evidence, one identifying poor relations between European and Chinese miners and one identifying mutual acceptance. Which list is stronger? Explain your answer.
7. **HS6** Evaluate whether the Chinese miners suffered significant and persistent hostility on the goldfields. In what ways were they treated differently by the government and by other miners? How many people were affected?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.12 SkillBuilder: Determining historical significance

online only

Evaluating significance: the Chinese on the goldfields

One way of developing a deeper understanding of the past is to think about the significance of particular events, individuals, groups or ideas. This is not an easy thing to do. Measuring the importance of any aspect of history requires making a judgement about what was important at the time or what is still important today. There are various criteria we can use to evaluate the historical significance of any event, individual, group or idea.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

5.13 The ideal of 'White Australia'

5.13.1 Defending Australia — the crimson thread of kinship

Towards the end of the nineteenth century many Australians believed that Australia would benefit from having a population composed of a single race, mainly people of British origin. The idea of 'White Australia' was openly discussed and supported by all political parties. White Australia is one of the most controversial topics in Australian history. Most think of this idea as a shameful and regrettable part of our history. There are also historians who, looking at the full extent of the historical circumstances, note that it was an expression of a desire to protect workers' wages and conditions and create a society that was united and harmonious, misguided though the policy may have been. While both may be true at the same time, it is certainly worth examining the ways in which Australians thought and the efforts they made to create a new society, 'free from the ills of the old world'. It was clear that politicians at the time sought to create a 'better Britain', while still maintaining a close relationship with Britain.

After the gold rush, colonial governments encouraged and assisted a smaller but steady stream of British migrants to come to Australia. This helped to preserve what was referred to as the 'crimson thread of kinship', the close cultural and sentimental ties between Britain and Australia. These familial bonds were important but Australians also looked to Britain for security and defence.

SOURCE 1 Edmund Barton speaking in support of sending troops to aid Britain in the Sudan, reported in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 21 February 1885. Barton was later to be Australia's first prime minister.

... I want to know whether we want to consider ourselves English or not? ... If her quarrels are not to be ours, when are our quarrels to be hers? [Cheers.] When the time of trouble comes and we do not stand shoulder to shoulder with our fellow subjects of Great Britain can we expect them to do so for us? ... we will rally round the old flag, and we will recollect that the cause of the Empire is our own. [Cheers.]

Defence fears

Most white Australians felt isolated and fearful of invasion. Believing that Australia could rely on the British Navy for protection, they clung to Britain and to the empire. Colonial governments and population were alarmed when France **annexed** New Caledonia in 1853. From the 1860s to the 1880s sensational stories of possible Russian invasion appeared in the colonial press. In 1883 Queensland hoped to stop German expansion in the south-west Pacific by annexing New Guinea. Britain opposed this move because of Queensland's dreadful record in dealing with native peoples. But in 1884 Britain took possession of eastern New Guinea shortly before Germany seized northern New Guinea.

Fighting the empire's wars

Each Australian colony developed its own defence forces, but Australians also generally believed that if they fought for Britain, then Britain would come to Australia's aid if need be. Australians took part in the wars of the British Empire during the Sudan Campaign in North Africa in 1885. When New South Wales sent 734 troops to this conflict, many people saw it as a chance to prove loyalty to Britain. Much the same reasoning saw Australian colonial forces involved in Britain's wars in South Africa and China at the end of the century.

SOURCE 2 *The departure of the Australian contingent for the Sudan*, painted by Arthur Collingridge in 1885. It has been estimated that two-thirds of Sydney's population gathered to farewell the Sudan Contingent.

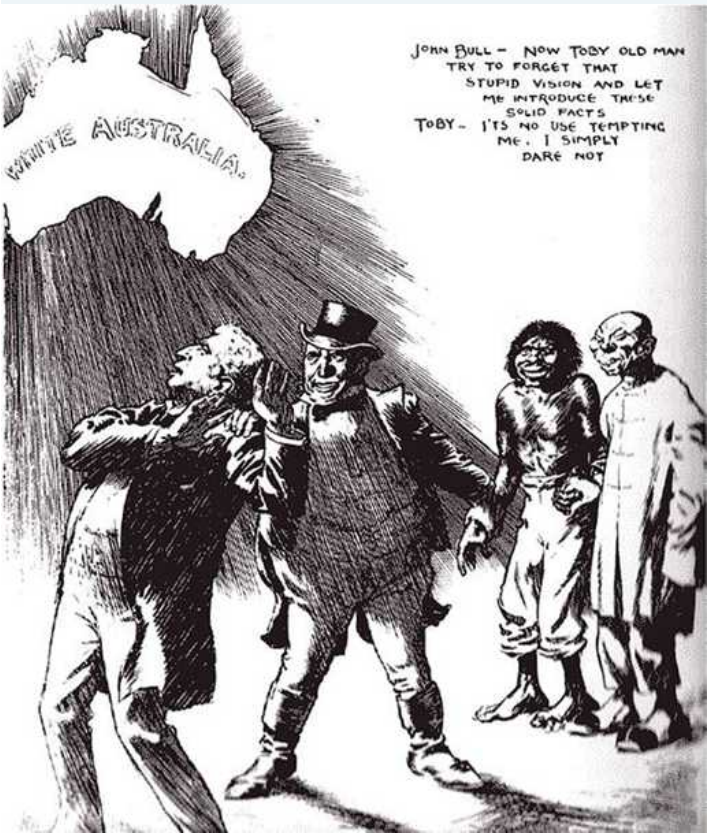
Source: AWM ART16593

5.13.2 'Purifying' Australia

Many Australians thought of Britain as the 'mother country', even though they had never been there. However, this did not mean that they agreed with all of the policies of the empire. The White Australia policy brought about conflict with the British government and its multiracial empire. Britain favoured a much freer movement of goods and people, something that was completely opposed to the restrictive racial policies of the Australian states. Increasingly, colonial governments became determined to exclude non-European migrants. In 1888 the colonial leaders united in an appeal to Britain to stop Chinese immigration to Australia.

After Australia federated in 1901, the new federal government was concerned that a racial policy would be disallowed by Britain. It got around Britain's opposition by introducing a 'dictation test' for migrants, making it appear that migrants would be selected on education level rather than race. Migrants who failed to write down 50 words exactly as dictated to them by an official could be refused entry to Australia.

SOURCE 3 'John Bull' pressures the Australian Prime Minister Edmund Barton to accept non-white migrants. 'John Bull' represents England.



Pacific Islanders in Queensland

Between 1863 and 1904 about 50 000 Pacific Islanders came to northern Australia to work on sugar plantations, one of colonial Queensland's most important industries. In the early years many Islanders were tricked or kidnapped from their homes, in a process called 'blackbirding', which was strictly illegal and amounted to little more than slavery. Estimates vary, but about 10 to 15 per cent of Islanders were captured in this way. Most came from the island of Vanuatu (then called the New Hebrides) or the Solomon Islands, but all were referred to as 'Kanakas'. As the labour trade became more established, many of the mostly male Islanders were drawn by the promise of European goods and a freer lifestyle. However, in Queensland they were ruthlessly exploited by plantation owners as cheap labour, and they suffered poor living conditions and an incredibly high death rate from European diseases. About 30 per cent of the Islanders who came to Australia died from disease. After federation, it was the Australian government's desire to return all Islanders to their homes, though by 1904 many had been in Australia for many years, had Australian-born children and knew little of their homelands. In the end thousands were deported, though many were allowed to stay on humanitarian grounds. Those who were allowed to remain in Australia were refused the right to work and were treated like second-class citizens. Nevertheless, by 1938 there were 1100 descendants of South Sea Islanders still working in the Queensland sugar industry.

SOURCE 4 A group of male and female Pacific Islander farm workers on a sugar plantation at Cairns in 1890 (State Library of Queensland)

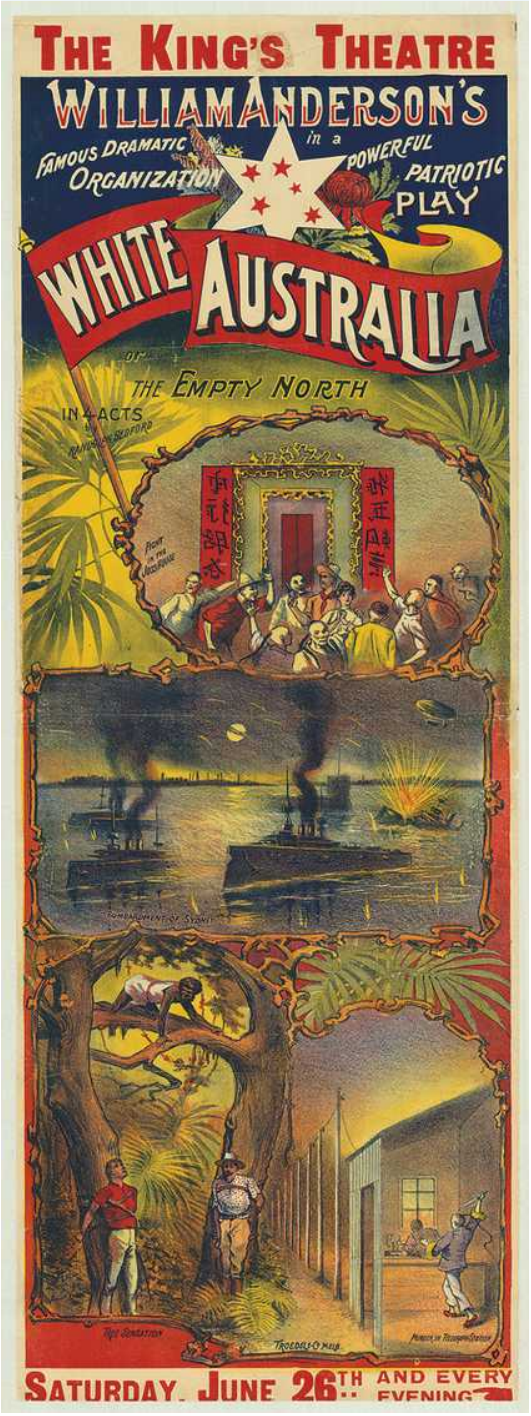
5.13.3 Promoting White Australia

It is hard to believe that such open racism was not only accepted but also promoted in Australian society. This fact begins to make more sense if we look more closely at national and international politics of the time, when many national groups around the world defined themselves by race and similar laws were passed in many other nations. The following sources illustrate some of the thinking at this time and the variety of ways it was expressed.

SOURCE 5 A poster advertising the playing of a 'National Policy Song'. Some of the words are printed inside the map and include, 'Sunny South of old Britannia's sons, Australia the white man's land, Defended by the white man's guns, Australia! Australia!'

SOURCE 6 Australians were able to support the White Australia policy by buying goods produced by white workers, such as the pineapples shown here. This gave everyone the chance to support higher wages for white workers.

SOURCE 7 The White Australia policy was also an expression of fear of Australia's incapacity to defend a vast coastline. This fear was put in dramatic form in the play shown in this advertisement.



DISCUSS

What would a nation consisting of one race have looked like in comparison to our own multicultural nation of today? Use the sources in this subtopic to develop some ideas, find out what other countries thought of the White Australia policy throughout the twentieth century, then share your findings and ideas in a class discussion.

[Using Historical Sources as Evidence]

5.13 ACTIVITY

With a partner, identify three attitudes to race that have been expressed in this subtopic. Explain whether you think these attitudes are still present in Australian society today. Support your answer with some current examples and try to explain why attitudes may have changed or remained the same. Share your views with the class.

Identifying continuity and change

5.13 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.13 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is the meaning of the expression 'crimson thread of kinship'? Explain why it is important.
2. **HS1** Name the European powers that took over the following Pacific regions in the late nineteenth century: New Caledonia; eastern New Guinea; northern New Guinea.
3. **HS1** How did Australians feel about fighting for the British Empire?
4. **HS1** What was the 'dictation test' and why was it introduced?
5. **HS1** Describe the ways that Islanders were 'recruited' to work in Queensland.
6. **HS1** What was the Islanders' death rate from disease?

5.13 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Consider **SOURCES 5–7**. Which of these sources expresses a political concern? Which are concerned with the economy? Which sources express a social concern?
2. **HS3** Identify the hopes and fears that are expressed in each of **SOURCES 5, 6** and **7**.
3. **HS3** Based on the sources in this subtopic, explain whether you think Australia was an optimistic or pessimistic country in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Refer to at least five sources in your answer.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 5–7** again. How reliable are these sources in helping us gain an understanding of Australians' attitudes to other races?
5. **HS6** Was the desire for a White Australia simply a product of blind hatred towards other races, or was it a product of other social issues it attempted to redress? Outline your views on this issue.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.14 Thinking Big research project: Colonisation and conflict exhibition

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SCENARIO

As a museum curator you will be responsible for creating an exhibition dedicated to the record of colonisation and contact in Australia from 1750 to 1918. You will need to select artefacts that can provide museum patrons with a glimpse of 1750 Australia as it was for the First Australians, and that convey the story of the events and experiences that unfolded from that point.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Colonisation and conflict exhibition (pro-0184)

5.15 Review

online only

5.15.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

5.15.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31703)
Crossword (doc-31704)

Interactivity Australia (1750–1918): Colonisation and conflict crossword (int-7639)

KEY TERMS

annex to take possession of a territory
Bill a proposal to change the law by Act of Parliament
convict a person imprisoned for a crime
incontrovertible certain, undeniable
kinship relationships between members of an extended family
pastoral lease land that is leased for the purpose of grazing sheep or cattle
penal colony a settlement for convicts
remuneration pay or reward such as wages
tucker traditional Australian slang term for food
vices immoral habits
virtues admirable moral qualities, goodness

5.12 SkillBuilder: Determining historical significance

5.12.1 Tell me

One way of developing a deeper understanding of the past is to think about the significance of particular events, individuals, groups or ideas. This is not an easy thing to do. Measuring the importance of any aspect of history requires making a judgement about what was important at the time or what is still important today. There are several criteria we can use to evaluate the historical significance of any event, individual, group or idea:

- **Was it remarkable?** Was it different or new? Did people comment on it at the time? Was it important for them?
- **Has it been remembered?** Have others written or spoken about it since? What has been emphasised? What aspects may have been left out?
- **Did it result in change?** What were the consequences, either in the short term or the long term? Were these consequences important or profound? How many people were affected? In what ways were their lives changed? For how long were the consequences felt?
- **What does it reveal?** What does it tell us about the time and its people? What does it tell us about those who have written about it? What does it tell us about ourselves? How does it compare with other aspects of the same period?
- **How is it relevant?** Is it important for us today? Does this aspect of the past resonate with our own experiences? Does it help explain the present in some way or help us in guiding our future?

When thinking about an aspect of the past we do not need to apply all of the questions to everything. However, we can try them out and see how they might apply. It is also important to know that people disagree about what is important or significant about the past. It's one of the things that makes history an interesting subject to study.

5.12.2 Show me

The Chinese on the goldfields: helpless victims of racism?

In subtopic 5.11 we explored the Chinese presence on the goldfields, the hostility and prejudice they faced and how they reacted to such racism. We can understand the complex nature of this issue a little more if we look at the historical significance of the Chinese presence.

Was the Chinese presence remarkable?

There is no doubt that the Chinese were a large and visible group on the Victorian goldfields.

- The numbers of Chinese in Victoria increased significantly from a few thousand in 1854 to nearly 30 000 later in the decade, when the Chinese accounted for one in every ten Victorians.
- More than 12 000 Chinese arrived in Australia in 1856; most headed for Victoria.
- More importantly, on certain goldfields they were very prominent; in December 1857 the Chinese made up 27 per cent of the adult male population at Bendigo.
- By 1861 there were nearly 40 000 Chinese in Australia, making up 3.3 per cent of the entire Australian population.

It is also clear that the Chinese were a distinct national group who were different in language, dress, customs and religion from the majority of the European miners. They suffered prejudice and hostility. The image in **SOURCE 1** expresses this fear and intolerance.

Has it been remembered?

Despite the fact that Chinese miners were hardworking and peaceful, some European miners resented their different appearance and customs and were anxious about their competition in finding gold. Rumours, fear and intolerance, as well as declining income for miners, led to a series of riots and protests.

SOURCE 1 *Melbourne Punch Almanack*, January 1857. Rare Books Collection, State Library of Victoria

A Flood of Celestial Light pouring in upon the Diggings.

The image in **SOURCE 2** is from the National Museum of Australia. It emphasises the violence of the European responses and the apparent helplessness of the Chinese.

SOURCE 2 The Australian goldfields were dangerous places for the Chinese. Here, Chinese miners are fleeing from European rioters who are attacking them with spades and picks.

There are several textbooks and websites that contain violent images and descriptions similar to those in **SOURCE 2**, and it would be worthwhile to compare them. How many emphasise violence and hostility? Do they include other sorts of interactions? It is certainly true that the violence has been well remembered in our history and this makes it worthy of further study.

Did it result in change?

Anti-Chinese feeling on the goldfields resulted in two racist laws in Victoria that discriminated against the Chinese.

An Act to Make Provision for Certain Immigrants was passed in 1855. This imposed limitations on the numbers of Chinese people each ship could carry to Victoria, and a £10 fee for every Chinese person to pay on arrival.

To avoid paying the tax, ships began unloading people in South Australia. As a response, the Victorian government then proposed another law '*to control the flood of Chinese immigration setting in to this Colony and effectually prevent the Gold Fields of Australia Felix from becoming the property of the Emperor of China and the Mongolian and Tartar Hordes of Asia*'.

This law initially proposed a £1 per month 'residence tax', in addition to another £1 per year 'protection fee' as well as the £1 per year 'miner's right' that all miners paid. In addition, the residence licence could only be paid if they proved that they had paid the initial £10 poll tax. To make matters worse, any person could arrest any Chinese person without a residence licence at any time.

This resulted in *An Act to Regulate the Residence of the Chinese Population of Victoria* in 1857. Chinese protests against the Bill brought some concessions. The residence tax was reduced to £1 every two months and the imprisonment clause was dropped, but the law still remained as a significant and unfair law against a targeted race.

Going further: working like a historian

One of the longer-term changes worth considering would be whether these laws contributed to the development of other restrictive and racist laws in Australia, especially the White Australia policy of the next century.

What does it reveal?

There are several things suggested by the sources above. Firstly, the Chinese presence sparked racially based fear and anxiety amongst the Europeans. This resulted in violence on the goldfields as well as government action to regulate the numbers of migrants from China and control their movements in Victoria.

However, the Chinese community protested very strongly against these laws and managed to win concessions. It would also be worth considering other sources that suggest other forms of relations on the goldfields.

There are other possible implications that you could discuss, such as the obvious possibility that friendly relationships existed and that many Europeans accepted the Chinese presence. The ideas of prejudice, racism and intolerance are still relevant today. Consider this question: can we learn anything from our study of this topic that might influence our own ideas and values?

5.12.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

5.12 ACTIVITIES

The Chinese on the goldfields: helpless victims of racism?

Step 1

Examine the following sources and identify what each tells us about the Chinese presence in Australia. For each source, answer the questions below.

- Does the source suggest that the Chinese were passive victims of European racism?
- Does the source indicate that Europeans were consistently hostile?
- Does the source show the Chinese as a distinctively different group, keeping to themselves?
- What does the source suggest about the place of the Chinese community in Victoria during the gold rushes?
- What does the source say about European and Chinese relations?

You may wish to organise your findings into a table with a column for each source and a row for each question, or you might devise a graphic organiser.

SOURCE 3 *Portrait of a Chinese Gentleman*, courtesy of Dennis O'Hoy Golden Dragon Museum Showing Face Exhibition

SOURCE 4 Lovejoy, V., *The Things that Unite: Inquests into Chinese deaths on the Bendigo Goldfields 1854–65*, http://prov.vic.gov.au/publications/provenance/provenance2007/things-that-unite

... the things that united these first-generation gold seekers were greater than the things that divided them. The Chinese worked alongside Europeans and in similar ways on the Bendigo field. They used the same tools, experienced the same dangers, the same frustrations and the same successes. Their lives and aspirations were not so very different. Whether they were English, German, American, Maori or Chinese, all miners dreamed of making their fortunes, all were migrants living in a harsh environment far from their homelands, and all relied on networks of friends and family to support them.

There is no doubt that the Chinese preferred to live and work together, as did different groups of Europeans, and that working relationships across the groups were as uncommon as personal relationships. Yet the inquest records reveal a shared humanity that saw Europeans readily respond to Chinese in distress, whether by accident, illness or poverty. In emphasising the prejudice against the Chinese, it is easy to lose sight of these everyday individual connections that tell a different story.

SOURCE 5 John Alloo's Chinese restaurant, Main Road, Ballarat, 1853 by S.T. Gill

SOURCE 6 Kyi, Anna, 'The most determined and sustained diggers' resistance campaign'. This article argues that the Chinese community in Victoria was successful in fighting against government legislation and excessive taxation and that many Europeans on the goldfields supported them. http://prov.vic.gov.au/publications/provenance/provenance2009/diggers-resistance-campaign

Besides demonstrating that the Chinese were capable of and willing to adopt Western forms of constitutional protest, the petitions are also examples of Chinese agency, evidence that the Chinese chose not to be passive victims. They provide valuable insights into the grounds upon which the Chinese defended their rights, and themselves, as well as understandings of the impact that anti-Chinese legislation was having on their lives ... the Victorian Government repeatedly amended anti-Chinese legislation and eventually removed these laws in response to Chinese evasion of taxes.

SOURCE 7 The first Melbourne Chinese Australian Rules Football Team in 1899, St Vincent's Hospital Charity Game. Photograph: Newspapers Collection, State Library of Victoria

Step 2

Compare your conclusions from these five sources with the information and the sources from the Show me section.

You may wish to add the sources in the Show me section to your table.

Explain in what way these new sources give different points of view.

Step 3

Go back to our original question. Based on all of the sources and information in this section, what conclusions can you draw about the historical significance of this aspect of Victoria's history? In what ways do the sources provide different ways of looking at the consequences of the Chinese presence in Australia at this time?

Step 4

Ask yourself the following questions again. You should come up with more complex answers than the ones suggested in the Show me section.

- **Was it remarkable?** Was it different or new? Did people comment on it at the time? Was it important for them?
- **Has it been remembered?** Have others written or spoken about it since? What has been emphasised? What aspects may have been left out?
- **Did it result in change?** What were the consequences, either in the short term or long term? Were these consequences important or profound? How many people were affected? In what ways were their lives changed? For how long were the consequences felt?
- **What does it reveal?** What does it tell us about the time and its people? What does it tell us about those who have written about it? What does it tell us about ourselves? How does it compare with other aspects of the same period?
- **How is it relevant?** Is it important for us today? Does this aspect of the past resonate with our own experiences? Does it help explain the present in some way or help us in guiding our future?

5.14 Thinking Big research project: Colonisation and conflict exhibition

Scenario

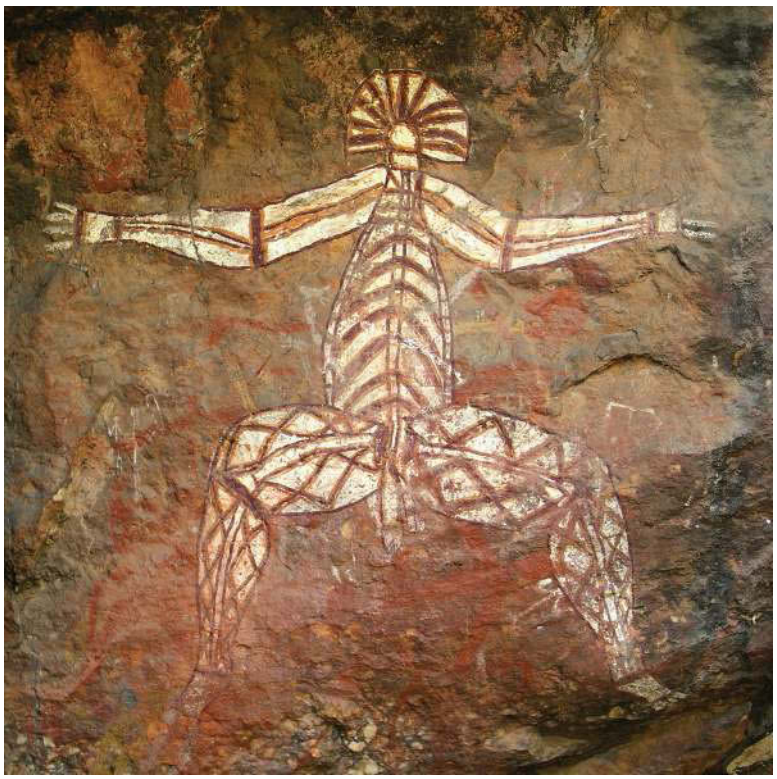
The need to keep a permanent record of our history of colonisation and conflict is of importance to both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal Australians. Understanding our shared past and heritage is the key to true reconciliation. The history of colonisation and conflict is many stories, viewed through many eyes. It is a history of survival and loss, celebration and shame, wisdom and ignorance, courage and humour. It is not a history that can be told in a conventional chronological manner, because it is not about a series of events or the achievements of powerful people. It is a record of culture, the connections between country and people, and the consequences of dispossession and colonisation.

Task

Your task is to take on the role of a museum curator. A curator is responsible for the assembly, cataloguing, management and display of a cultural, artistic and historical exhibit in a gallery or museum. Your job will be to curate an exhibition that is a record of colonisation and contact in Australia from 1750 to 1918.

Your museum record begins in 1750, before the meeting of the two vastly different civilisations. You will need to consider how you will gather the evidence of Australia's cultural history before European settlement. Archaeologists have evidence that Australia has been home to Aboriginal people for at least 60 000 years. The history and beliefs of these people were not written onto clay tablets or scrolls of papyrus. The archaeological record is incomplete, but it has been gathered from occupation sites such as camps, quarries, shell middens and fish traps, burial areas, and ceremonial and sacred sites. The National Museum of Australia preserves and displays collections of artefacts representing the culture and history of

Aboriginal Australia from pre-European settlement. As curator, your task will be to select the artefacts that can provide museum patrons with a glimpse of 1750 Australia as it was for the First Australians.



You will also need to carefully consider the sources of evidence you will use to tell the story of the first contacts between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal peoples, and the colonisation and conflict that followed. You have already learned from studying this topic that nearly all the primary sources documenting these events have been produced by the colonisers. You have also been made aware of the gaps in the evidence because many shameful events went unrecorded and unpunished.

The history of colonisation and conflict in Australia is made up of many stories. Official reports, diaries, letters and newspaper articles provide valuable insights into attitudes and events of the time. Visual records, such as European artwork from the eighteenth to mid nineteenth century and photographic evidence from the mid nineteenth century onwards, are also valuable sources of evidence. The rich history of Australia from an Aboriginal perspective is often best expressed and understood through the spoken narratives that have been passed on through the generations. Oral accounts are a powerful tradition in Aboriginal communities, with three forms: history, legend and myth. The Museum of Victoria has established a record-keeping system dedicated to preserving the Aboriginal oral memory.

The careful selection of objects and oral accounts can bring the story of the past to life in a way that words on a page often fail to do. They can present history in a fresh way and from a different perspective, providing physical evidence of the colonisation and conflict that shaped modern Australia.

Process

- Begin by forming small groups to plan, share research and discuss concepts to develop a clear understanding of Australia's history of colonisation and conflict between 1750 and 1918.
- Open the ProjectsPLUS application in the Resources for this topic. Click on the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group to allow you to work collaboratively. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Each group member should select a period, location or theme to research as their focus area of the museum collection.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the research forum if you wish. This is where the creation of your museum exhibition begins.
- Start your research by revisiting the content in this topic. Pay attention to the subtopic headings, as they will provide a useful research guide and be helpful in organising your chosen museum exhibition sources. You can begin with pre-European culture and then move on to the arrival of the colonisers, the conquest of the land and subsequent Aboriginal resistance, war and dispossession.

- Locate other sources of information and images to add depth to your knowledge of this topic. You can find a great wealth of archival and primary source archaeological material by accessing online collections such as those held by the National Library of Australia, the National Museum of Australia, and the State Library of Victoria. The weblinks in the ProjectsPLUS **Media centre** will get you started.
- To create a unified museum collection, you will need to view, share and comment on other group members' research and source selections. Be sure to keep clear records of all your resource details and locations.
- Decide what headings you will use to organise your chosen objects and accounts, how they will be grouped and what you are hoping to communicate through your display of archaeological and historical material. Remember the importance of the narrative, or explanation, that you will write to accompany each exhibit in your collection. The words you use to describe and explain should provide a context for your chosen objects and stimulate interest and understanding of our history of colonisation and conflict.
- When you have gathered all your exhibit elements, as a group devise a short introductory speech to explain your goal as a team of curators in putting this exhibition together.
- Present your introductory speech and completed museum exhibition to other groups in your class. Be sure to highlight objects that you consider to be of particular importance in communicating the story of colonisation and conflict.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Colonisation and conflict exhibition (pro-0184)

5.15 Review

5.15.1 Key knowledge summary

5.2 Examining the evidence

- Colonisers have produced most of the written sources, which means the European perspective of race relations is the one that dominates.
- One of the challenges for historians is to discover the many Aboriginal perspectives that might exist but are more difficult to find.
- An alternative is to look again at the records that do exist and try to understand what they suggest about what Aboriginal people might have thought or valued.
- This is still one of the areas of Australian history open to further research and understanding.

5.3 Two civilisations meet

- The First Fleet arrived in 1788, with Governor Phillip intent on taking possession of the east coast of Australia, in the mistaken belief that it was available and free for the taking.
- Phillip planned to give the Aboriginal peoples the 'gift' of European civilisation, but the newly arrived Europeans were ignorant of Aboriginal society, its values and customs.
- Almost immediately there was resistance and conflict; however, it was the impact of European diseases that caused the worst death toll.
- Violent resistance from Aboriginal peoples was punished severely by troops and police. The frontier became a place of fear and anxiety.

5.4 Resistance

- Individual Aboriginal leaders emerged to defend their country.
- Pemulwuy and Yagan are two of these celebrated and respected warriors, though there were many more.
- As European settlements grew, resistance was crushed and Aboriginal communities faced starvation and dispossession.
- Often what remained of Aboriginal communities moved towards the towns to exist on the towns' charity.

5.5 Tragedy in Van Diemen's Land

- Tasmania was the scene of perhaps the most sustained conflict in the 1820s. Leaders of both sides waged war for six years.
- The colonial government drove Aborigines away from settled areas and Aborigines terrorised settlers on their isolated homesteads, spearing their stock and robbing their houses.
- Settlers and police hunted Aboriginal groups before George Augustus Robinson negotiated a peace that involved moving many of the Tasmanian Aborigines to Flinders Island.
- There has been disagreement among historians about the extent of the war and the numbers of casualties on each side.

5.6 1835: Conquest — the great land rush to Port Phillip

- In 1835 a group of Tasmanian businessmen, looking to expand their wealth and property, explored the northern area of Port Phillip Bay and founded an illegal settlement.
- One of them, John Batman, negotiated a treaty with some of the leaders of the Kulin nation in exchange for a 'purchase' of land.
- The NSW governor Richard Bourke declared the treaty invalid and asserted that all land belonged to the Crown.
- Anyone looking to buy land would have to negotiate with the government.
- However, the governor did approve the occupation of Port Phillip, which he named Melbourne. This set off a massive land rush across Australia.

- In 1851, the area became the Colony of Victoria with a population of 77 000 people and more than five million sheep. The enormous number of sheep caused the transformation of the natural environment and the world of the Aboriginal peoples.

5.7 Violence on the frontier

- As Europeans occupied more and more land, driving their flocks and herds across Australia, they encountered widespread violent resistance from Aboriginal peoples defending their traditional lands.
- This resistance was usually met with massive reprisal from either police and troops or groups of individual colonists.
- Significant and documented massacres occurred at Waterloo Creek and Myall Creek in New South Wales, and Warrigal Creek in Victoria. Much of the violence was unrecorded.

5.8 Reserves, missions and responses

- Colonial governments often attempted to 'protect' Aboriginal peoples and 'civilise' them.
- Schools, missions and reserves were established, but with little understanding of Aboriginal peoples, insufficient resources and an attitude of the superiority of British culture, they were often unsuccessful.
- Many younger Aboriginal males were drawn to the power, status and authority offered by the Native Police Forces.
- Responses to European society varied amongst Aboriginal peoples.
- Some willingly entered the European world; others negotiated their way through both worlds.

5.9 A long, forgotten war

- While most people in Australia lived in the major cities, towards the end of the nineteenth century the frontier war between Europeans and Aboriginal peoples continued in the northern half of Australia.
- The 1880s were possibly the most violent decade, as modern weapons and an acceptance of the violence produced a terrible toll.
- Across the Kimberley, in northern Queensland and in the Northern Territory there were many conflicts.
- Colonial governments attempted to force Aboriginal people onto reserves and began removing children from their families, arguing that Aboriginal society was dying out and that they needed to be taught European culture to secure their future.
- After federation in 1901, Aboriginal peoples' right to vote was taken away from them during the following two decades.

5.10 The Torres Strait Islanders

- European society and economy spread across the Torres Strait Islands.
- Soon after a pearl rush in 1870, the London Missionary Society followed, introducing Christianity to the Torres Strait Islanders.
- Islanders adapted Christianity to incorporate local ritual and belief and saw it as a fulfilment of existing religious beliefs.
- After the Queensland government claimed ownership of the islands in 1879, it set out to regulate and control the lives of the Islanders.
- This made them subject to the same discrimination and prejudice that had been imposed on Queensland's Aboriginal peoples.

5.11 A celestial presence: the Chinese in Australia

- Soon after gold was discovered in Victoria in 1851, thousands of Chinese migrants arrived to join in the pursuit for riches.
- As a large, distinctive national group, the Chinese faced discrimination and prejudice.
- The Victorian government imposed extra taxes and sought to regulate the lives of the Chinese migrants through a protectorate system.
- Significant race riots directed at the Chinese occurred at Buckland River in 1857 and at Lambing Flat in 1861.
- Many Chinese also suffered a great deal on a personal level. Regardless, many remained after the gold rushes to become important members of their communities.

5.13 The ideal of 'White Australia'

- In the late nineteenth century, there was continued discussion of what it meant to be Australian.
- The idea of a 'White Australia' became commonly accepted. It was based on traditional pride in being British, but also on the fear of the rush of migrants from Asia.
- Australians enthusiastically supported Britain in various empire wars.
- There was also concern about non-European elements of Australian society, particularly the presence of Pacific Islanders in northern Queensland.
- As Australia became a nation at Federation in 1901, one of the priorities became the removal of non-white people from Australian society.

A timeline of contact and conflict to 1901

BCE

68 000
Aboriginal people arrive in Australia (current estimates).

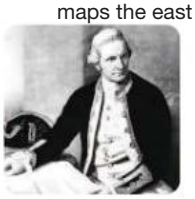
13 000
Land bridges between mainland Australia and Tasmania are flooded.

BCE

CE

1606
Dutchman Willem Janszoon makes the first documented European landing on the Australian coast.

1770
After more than 50 European ships make contact with the Australian mainland, James Cook maps the east coast and claims it for Britain.



1788
The British colony of New South Wales is established.

1790–1802
Pemulwuy leads Aboriginal resistance in the Sydney area.

1804
Aboriginal Tasmanians are killed at Risdon Cove.

1816
Macquarie sends the military to crush resistance by the Darug people.

1814
Governor Macquarie organises the first annual Aboriginal conference at Parramatta, near Sydney.

1824
The 'Black War' begins in Tasmania. Aboriginal resistance is crushed on the Bathurst Plains in New South Wales.

1835
Businessmen from Tasmania establish an illegal camp at the northern end of Port Phillip Bay.

1838
The Myall Creek massacre takes place in New South Wales.

1837
A report of the British Parliament criticises Australian colonial policies towards Aboriginal peoples.

1851
Gold is discovered in the newly named Colony of Victoria.

1855
Victorian government introduces heavier taxation for Chinese migrants.

1867–68
An Aboriginal cricket team tours England.

1881
Victoria and New South Wales restrict Chinese immigration.

1884
The Kalkadoon people make their last stand in Queensland.

1901
The Commonwealth Parliament passes the Immigration Restriction Act.

CE

5.15.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

5.15 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

What happened when a civilisation attempted to colonise a country that was already inhabited?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question, outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31703)
Crossword (doc-31704)

Interactivity Australia (1750–1918): Colonisation and conflict crossword (int-7639)

KEY TERMS

annex to take possession of a territory
Bill a proposal to change the law by Act of Parliament
convict a person imprisoned for a crime
incontrovertible certain, undeniable
kinship relationships between members of an extended family
pastoral lease land that is leased for the purpose of grazing sheep or cattle
penal colony a settlement for convicts
remuneration pay or reward such as wages
tucker traditional Australian slang term for food
vices immoral habits
virtues admirable moral qualities, goodness

6 Australia (1750–1918): From colonies to nationhood

6.1 Overview

Bushrangers, gold diggers and federation. How did a far-flung convict colony become a thriving nation?

6.1.1 Links with our times

Since 1901 our laws have been made by Australian Commonwealth and state parliaments, but our head of state is the British monarch. To understand this constitutional monarchy and its somewhat overlapping government systems, you need to know how the six British colonies that existed prior to federation united and what kind of nation they wanted to create.

Looking at Australia in the late 1800s helps us to understand our society today. This period saw the growth of a strong labour movement, the emergence of political parties, women's struggle for political rights, and a growing sense of national identity and development of 'Australian values'. Today, there is ongoing debate about what constitutes these 'Australian values' and just what it means to be Australian in our ever-evolving society.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson From colonies to nationhood: Australia (1750–1918) (eles-2396)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

6.1 Overview
6.2 Examining the evidence
6.3 Towards democracy: Eureka and political rights
6.4 Whose Australia? Free selectors vs squatters
6.5 An Australian legend
6.6 Marvellous Melbourne: a city giant
6.7 Working in cities and towns
6.8 Trade unions and political parties
6.9 Nationalism and Australian identity
6.10 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing cartoons online only
6.11 Voting rights for women
6.12 Federation
6.13 The early Commonwealth
6.14 **Thinking Big research project:** The Federation Game online only
6.15 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of Australia, 1851–1913

1851
Gold is discovered in Victoria, sparking one of the world's great gold rushes.

1854
Thirty diggers are killed at the Eureka Stockade.

1856
The principle of 'one man, one vote' is instituted in the parliaments of Victoria, New South Wales and South Australia.

1860–61
The first free selection Acts are passed in Victoria and New South Wales.

1877
An Australian cricket team defeats the English team by 45 runs in the first test match to be played internationally, giving rise to test cricket.

1880
The bushranger Ned Kelly is hanged in Melbourne.

1883
Premiers agree to the setting up of a federal council to work out a federal constitution.

1891
The Federal Convention in Sydney proposes a constitution. Joseph Cook and other Labor members of Parliament are elected in New South Wales.

1890
The Great Strikes of the 1890s begin and continue to 1894.

1892
Gold is discovered at Coolgardie in Western Australia.

1894
South Australia leads the way in granting women's voting rights.

1898
The First Constitution Bill Referendum is held.

1899
Australian colonies send troops to the Boer War.

1901
Commonwealth inauguration marks the birth of the nation.
The Commonwealth Parliament opens in Melbourne and passes the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*.

1907
The basic wage is established.

1913
The foundation stone of Canberra, the new national capital, is laid.

6.2 Examining the evidence

6.2.1 How do we know about late colonial and early twentieth-century Australia?

In this topic we will investigate living and working conditions in Australia in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. We will also explore the ideas, events and conditions that led to the creation of the Australian nation, and the main characteristics of the nation before the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

Official sources

Just before the gold rush of the 1850s, each of the Australian colonies got a responsible government. This meant they had parliaments that were accountable to the electors. From 1901 Australia has had a national parliament, whose official name is the Commonwealth Parliament, along with the six state parliaments that replaced the colonial parliaments. The records of debates held and laws passed in these parliaments tell us a lot about the issues that concerned Australians in that period.

Mass media and personal records

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries there were many more newspapers than there are today, even though we now have a much bigger population. This was because newspapers and magazines were the only form of mass media before the invention of radio, television and the internet. Libraries in Australia hold many issues of these old newspapers and some of them can now be read online. We can also learn a lot about this age through letters and diaries. Memoirs of people who lived at that time still exist.

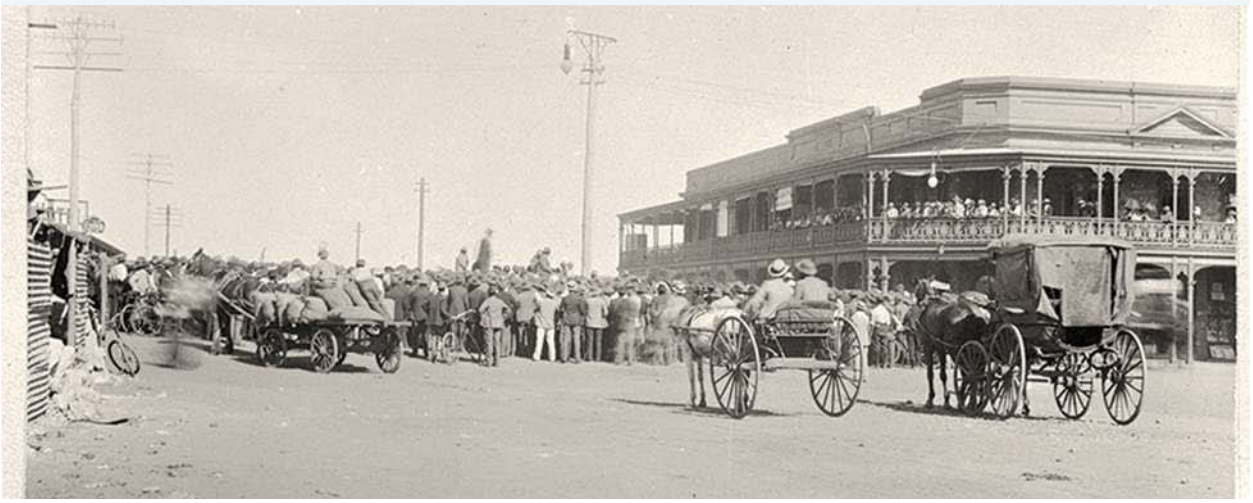
Visual sources

There are many visual sources for this age. Artists have left a valuable record in their paintings and drawings. Cartoons and sketches were widely used in newspapers and magazines. Cartoons especially say a lot about popular attitudes and opinions.

SOURCE 1 A family in front of their house at Walloon, near Ipswich in Queensland, in 1885

This was the first period of history for which we have photographic evidence. The first photographs in Australia were taken in 1841. They were called daguerrotypes. The images were printed on a silvered plate, and only still objects could be photographed because this method of taking pictures needed an exposure time of 20 minutes in full sun. From the 1850s a new method called wet plate photography gradually replaced daguerrotypes. Wet plate photography did not need such long exposure times and enabled copies to be made from the originals. Taking pictures became even simpler with the development of dry plate photography from the late 1870s. Throughout the latter half of the nineteenth century, photographers were capturing images of gold rush scenes, colonial towns, buildings, ships, trains, parades, protest demonstrations, and people at work and play.

SOURCE 2 A protest meeting of alluvial miners in Kalgoorlie, Western Australia, on 12 March 1898



SOURCE 3 Soldiers of the Victorian Scottish Regiment No. 22 parading through Melbourne in 1899 on their way to the Boer War in South Africa

6.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is meant by *responsible government*?
2. **HS1** Why are the records of debates and laws passed in parliament useful to historians?
3. **HS1** What was the mass media of the late nineteenth century?
4. **HS1** What do cartoons reveal about the past?
5. **HS1** What records has dry plate photography left us?

6.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Identify what **SOURCE 1** suggests about Australian families, their housing and their clothing.
2. **HS3** Identify what **SOURCE 2** indicates about the miners' protest at Kalgoorlie.
3. **HS3** Explain what **SOURCE 3** suggests about Australians' attitudes to sending troops overseas to fight for the British Empire.
4. **HS3** Using all three sources in this subtopic, write a paragraph about Australian life and the values of average Australians during this time. Use specific examples from all three images.
5. **HS3** With reference to the sources in this subtopic, write a paragraph explaining the importance of photography to the development of social history, as an alternative to political or economic history.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.3 Towards democracy: Eureka and political rights

6.3.1 A golden avalanche

The Eureka rebellion of 1854 is often seen as a milestone in the struggle for democratic rights and a more equal society. It was partly a conflict over what kind of society Australia should be and what rights each individual should have in the society. The rebellion took place during the gold rushes of the 1850s. The gold rushes marked a turning point in Australia's history, prompting a massive scramble of people from overseas to the Australian goldfields. The population trebled in the first decade of the rushes and wealth from gold raised living standards. These developments also accelerated the demands for more democratic rights and influenced the political life of the colonies for the next 50 years. Australia came to be seen as a land of opportunity, but the rushes also had other consequences, including political protests, environmental damage and social upheaval. These consequences had the greatest impact in Victoria.

A quiet provincial town

After the first Europeans established a camp on the Yarra River in 1835, Melbourne experienced rapid expansion, growing to a substantial provincial town with a population of 23 000 by 1850. As the port for the pastoral industry, Melbourne was an essential link to the outside world. Robert Hoddle's grid plan for the streets of Melbourne had been well established, and small suburban villages ringed the city. Rates of pay were good for labourers, clubs for the wealthy were founded, and the main churches were built (although only one in eight people attended regularly). This is in contrast to the many hotels (one hotel for every 33 adult males), providing ample amounts of spirits that worried the more 'sober' residents. The presence of large numbers of ex-convicts and an alarming crime rate also concerned some Melburnians, though perhaps the filth in the streets and the irregular water supply were greater problems. Overall, most residents of Melbourne in 1851 enjoyed a settled, simple and relatively secure life and they marvelled at the progress they had achieved. Little did they suspect the upheaval they were about to experience.

SOURCE 1 *Melbourne from the south bank of the Yarra, 1840*, painted by Eleanor (Nellie) McGlinn, c. 1875, oil on canvas

Early chaos

The discovery of gold near Ballarat in July 1851 created great excitement in all of the Australian colonies. By the end of the year, 20 000 diggers were hard at work on the fields. In some suburbs of Melbourne there was hardly a man left. In 1852 the flow continued from other colonies (half the male population from Tasmania and South Australia had migrated) and a further 33 000 had arrived from the United Kingdom by the end of the year. Between 1852 and 1854, Melbourne received an average of 259 migrants every day; by the end of 1854, migrants from these years made up 86 per cent of Victoria's population of 284 000.

SOURCE 2 The discovery of gold sparked huge increases in Victoria's population.

Such a population increase caused a crisis, as the Victorian government struggled to provide essential housing and services. The government established a tent city in South Melbourne to help with accommodation, but it was an unhealthy, crowded place. Women and children camped on the wharves while their husbands tried their luck on the diggings. Pubs and theatres were full of noisy successful diggers as they spent their newfound wealth on entertainment, enormous amounts of alcohol and lavish weddings. Because gold-digging favoured those used to hard labour, it seemed to many that society was turned on its head as the uneducated flaunted their success and gave little respect to their 'superiors'.

SOURCE 3 *Diary of a Working Clergyman in Australia and Tasmania kept during the years* 1850–1853 by Reverend J.D. Mereweather

This colony was the most desirable of all which the Crown possesses. How changed now! No more tranquillity and good fellowship between the grades of society. All is confusion, selfishness, license and subversion of all respect for worth, talent and education. Brawn and muscle are now the aristocracy, and insolently bear their newly assumed honours. In fact, we have here the French Revolution without the guillotine. When I arrived in Melbourne, I found the street full of dirty, disorderly mob of people, many of them tipsy, who seemed to take delight in setting the laws of decent behaviour at defiance.

SOURCE 4 *Canvas Town, South Melbourne about 1852*. Melbourne is in the background.

6.3.2 Educated and ambitious

The great majority of gold rush immigrants were British and Irish, like the convicts and migrants who had come to Australia before the 1850s. But the new migrants also included people from many other countries, including the Chinese who you learned about in topic 5. The British, Irish and European gold rush migrants included many who had been involved in movements for workers' rights and political reform in their own countries. Despite some concerns about changes to society, they brought many positives. Some gold migrants were more educated and more skilled than the rest of the colonial workforce and consequently they had higher expectations of their rights and responsibilities in this new society. However, not all migrants were happy with what they found in Victoria. Many were unsuccessful. The gold rush experience was diverse and uneven.

SOURCE 5 A visitor's description of what was happening on the goldfields by the mid 1850s, from W. Howitt, *Land, Labour and Gold or Two Years in Victoria*, published in 1855

... hundreds have already gone back [from the diggings] again, cursing those who sent such one-sided statements of the goldfields ...

Growing discontent

Life on the goldfields was hard, and for every digger who found riches there were many more whose backbreaking work yielded very little. From 1851 the New South Wales and Victorian governments passed laws to make anyone digging for gold buy a licence for 30 **shillings** a month. This fee had to be paid in advance and gave a digger the right to work only a small area. Many diggers did not buy licences because they could not afford them, so the gold commissioners sent troopers to catch them.

Licence hunts and protests

Diggers caught without licences were fined and had their huts and equipment destroyed. Some were sent to jail. Following angry protests, in 1853 New South Wales reduced the fee to 10 shillings a month. Victoria reduced it to one pound (20 shillings), but this was still too high because diggers' incomes were getting smaller as less surface gold was found. At Ballarat in Victoria miners had to dig to a depth of more than 30 metres. This required greater expense and kept miners in the same place for longer, making tax collection easier to police. Miners disliked not only paying the licence fee but also the fact that it taxed both successful and unsuccessful diggers at the same rate. When caught without a licence respectable miners were often treated like criminals and they resented the harsh manner of many of the police. When Victoria's governor, Lieutenant-Governor Sir Charles Hotham, ordered licence hunts twice a week in September 1854, digger anger in Ballarat became explosive.

on Resources

Digital doc Map of the main goldfields of Australia's south-east (doc-31705)

6.3.3 The gathering storm

Even an unrelated incident could have provoked a riot. On 6 October 1854 a digger was bashed to death at the Eureka Hotel in Ballarat. When charges against the hotel's owner, James Bentley, were dropped, many miners concluded that this was because Bentley had done favours for the police. On 17 October around 4000 furious diggers protested against 'police corruption'. They rioted and burned the hotel to the ground. It seemed that the Ballarat diggers and the local police were on a collision course.

The Ballarat Reform League

On 11 November, at a further protest meeting at Bakery Hill, the diggers formed the Ballarat Reform League. Their demands included:

- abolition of licence fees
- **parliamentary representation** through voting rights for adult men
- payment for members of parliament
- abolition of property requirements for members of parliament.

These last two demands were made so men who were not rich could afford to serve in parliament.

Digger resentment increased further when news came that on 27 November Governor Hotham had refused to release the men arrested over the hotel burning and instead had ordered more troops to be sent to Ballarat. By 30 November Bentley was no longer the issue, but feelings were running high when Commissioner Rede ordered another licence hunt.

On 30 November, 12 000 diggers gathered at Eureka, where many burned their licences in protest. They appointed an Irishman, Peter Lalor, as their leader. They created a new flag, the 'Eureka Flag', with stars on a white cross against a blue background, and swore a solemn oath to stand together. They built a **stockade** at Eureka and began collecting weapons.

SOURCE 6 *Swearing allegiance to the 'Southern Cross'* by C.A. Doudiet

SOURCE 7 Raffaello Carboni, a digger's leader, describes events on 30 November 1854.

What's up? A licence hunt ... What's to be done? Peter Lalor was on the stump, his rifle in his hand, calling on volunteers to 'fall in' into ranks as fast as they rushed to Bakery-hill, from all quarters with arms in their hands, just fetched from their tents. I went up to Lalor, and the moment he saw me, he took me by the hand saying, I want you, Signore: tell those gentlemen, pointing to old acquaintances of ours, who were foreigners; that, if they cannot provide themselves with fire-arms, let them each procure a piece of steel, five or six inches long, attached to a pole, and that will pierce the tyrants' hearts ...

The 'SOUTHERN CROSS' was hoisted up the flag-staff ... There is no flag in Europe half so beautiful as the 'Southern Cross' of the Ballarat miners ...

Some five hundred armed diggers advanced ... the captains of each division making the military salute to Lalor, who ... exclaimed in a firm measured tone: — 'WE SWEAR BY THE SOUTHERN CROSS TO STAND TRULY BY EACH OTHER, AND FIGHT TO DEFEND OUR RIGHTS AND LIBERTIES.'

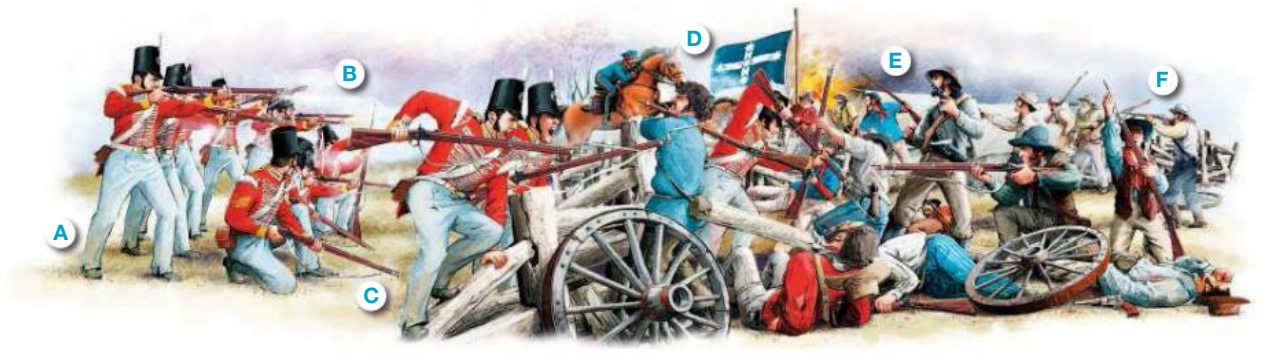
6.3.4 The battle at the Eureka Stockade

Before dawn on 3 December there were just 150 diggers in the Eureka Stockade when a force of 270 well-armed soldiers and police attacked. The fierce battle lasted only 20 minutes and the diggers were defeated. At least 27 diggers and six troopers were killed, though recent estimates are as high as 60 diggers, including one woman who was killed while she was pleading for the life of her husband.

DID YOU KNOW?

In *The Eureka Stockade*, first published in 1855, Raffaello Carboni, an Italian revolutionary, provided a first-hand account of the Eureka rebellion. As a fluent speaker of English, Italian, French, Spanish and German, Carboni became such a prominent leader of the diggers that he was tried for treason after the rebellion was crushed.

SOURCE 8 Anger and resentment finally exploded on 3 December 1854 in an unexpected dawn attack by troopers on the diggers barricaded in the Eureka Stockade.



- **A** At the 30 November meeting, all present swore allegiance to the Southern Cross flag. Holding a rifle in one hand, and pointing towards the flag with his other, Peter Lalor said: 'We swear by the Southern Cross to stand truly by each other and fight to defend our rights and liberties.' His men removed their hats and replied 'Amen'.
- **B** Hundreds of angry miners gathered at the stockade after the meeting of 30 November. But the resistance was not well coordinated — by the evening of Saturday 2 December, only about 150 men remained. Even these men might have left had the troops not attacked.
- **C** The Eureka Stockade was built by diggers as a fortification against trooper attack.
- **D** About 27 diggers were killed in the dawn raid, and 30 wounded. Only six troopers were killed. The troopers were heavily armed with guns and bayonets; the diggers had only limited weapons.
- **E** Diggers on the Ballarat goldfields included Germans, Americans, Italians and Canadians, as well as people from England, Ireland and France. The involvement of non-English diggers in this struggle was resented by some.
- **F** Peter Lalor and another ringleader, George Black, escaped after the attack.

The outcome of Eureka

The diggers lost the battle at Eureka but they achieved many of their aims. Juries did not convict the 13 ringleaders who were tried for treason, finding instead that they had acted in self-defence. In 1855 the gold licence was replaced by a 'miner's right' costing just one pound a year and giving its holder the right to vote. Peter Lalor eventually became a member of the Victorian Parliament; his grandson, Joseph Lalor, was killed at the landing at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915, fighting for the British Empire.

The enquiry into the goldfields also recommended changes favourable to the miners' demands. Moves were made to restrict Chinese immigration with extra taxation, half of the goldfields police were sacked and regulation of goldmining was left to mining wardens and locally elected courts of mines. Over time many have debated the significance of the Eureka Stockade. In 1897 the US author Mark Twain called it 'the finest thing in Australasian history'.

6.3.5 Melbourne: 'the wonder of the world'

By the end of the 1850s the wealth produced by the feverish work of thousands of miners had transformed the city of Melbourne. Some observers compared Melbourne with London or Paris, one claimed that the city had a 'superior radiance' to San Francisco, while another declared Melbourne was 'the overtopping wonder of the world'. Grand extravagant buildings, fashionable suburbs and a busy, 'go-ahead' atmosphere gave the impression that Melbourne was destined to be one of the great cities of the world. The population had increased to 127 000 and businesses and manufacturing had grown to meet the local demand. The presence of different European groups gave Melbourne a cosmopolitan feel. A free public library, a university, a museum, several theatres and an extensive parliament house, along with a new water supply from Yan Yean, showed that Melbourne was a leader of culture as well as business in Australia.

Victoria was also transformed. Its population of nearly 540 000 was spread throughout the state. The gold rush migrants were generally young, energetic and determined to make the most of their new lives on the other side of the world. Large towns like Geelong, Ballarat, Bendigo and Castlemaine had permanent populations and a variety of businesses, clubs and institutions. Bendigo and Ballarat would be Australia's largest inland towns for nearly a century. Local councils sought to build permanent communities with high standards of living, flourishing cultural lives and attractive facilities. Nevertheless, this development had a number of consequences. The Aboriginal communities continued to suffer as much of the population headed inland. Some work opportunities as paid pastoral workers arose for Aboriginal people, and many of them continued to gather around Melbourne. Mining was also destructive of the environment; whole forests were cut down, streams and creeks were clogged and polluted, and clay heaps that were piled high around the goldfields made the landscape look like the surface of the moon.

SOURCE 9 Recognised as one of the most significant nineteenth-century buildings in Australia, the Old Treasury Building at the top of Collins Street was built between 1857 and 1862 and is testament to Melbourne's cultural boom during that time.

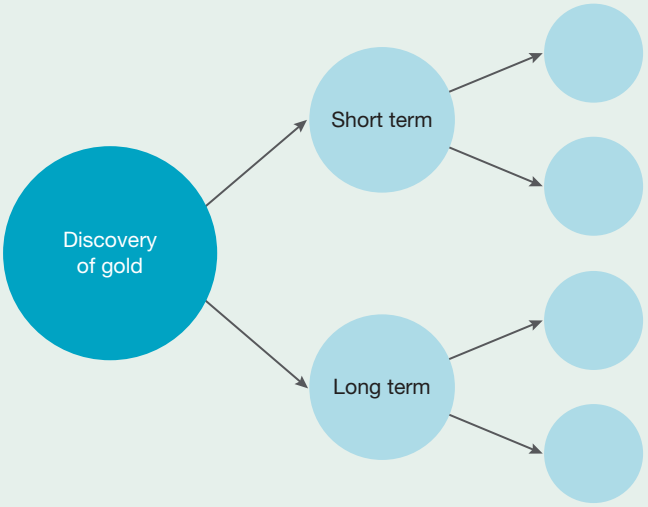
SOURCE 10 Deserted diggings, Spring Creek

6.3 ACTIVITIES

1. What did other people think about the changes brought by the gold rushes? Using the internet, see if you can find some written and visual sources that provide evidence of the impact of the gold rushes on Melbourne and Victoria. Write a brief comment for each source that identifies what it reveals about changes at this time and comment on whether the source is useful or reliable in helping us understand the period. Some ideas for places to start your search:
   - Museum Victoria
   - SBS
   - State Library of Victoria

   Using historical sources as evidence
2. Draw up a 'consequences chart' like the one shown to set out the changes brought by the gold rushes. Write 'Discovery of gold' in the large circle, then 'significant' and 'minor' in the next two. Then set out the various changes in the next group of circles. Draw up as many as you like or even change the headings. You could use 'short term' and 'long term' or 'intentional' and 'unintentional' instead of 'significant' and 'minor'. After listing as many consequences as you can, consider whether there were any aspects of Victorian society after the discovery of gold that were similar to the society that had been established before the gold rushes.

   Identifying continuity and change



3. Evaluate the importance of the Eureka Stockade in Australian history. Find out what other people have said about it, how it has featured in films and articles and how it has been commemorated. Then give your own opinion on whether Australian schoolchildren should learn about Eureka.

Determining historical significance

6.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why might the residents of Melbourne have been proud of their achievements by 1851?
2. **HS1** Make a list of the population figures given in this subtopic for Victoria and Melbourne.
3. **HS1** Identify the ways that the gold migrants were different to the rest of the colonial workforce in Victoria.
4. **HS1** Explain why the miners disliked the gold licence system.
5. **HS1** What made Ballarat different to other goldfields?
6. **HS1** What were the demands of the Ballarat Reform League?
7. **HS1** Identify the two immediate factors that spurred the miners to erect a stockade.
8. **HS1** Who started the attack on the Eureka Stockade on 3 December 1854?
9. **HS1** How many people were killed or wounded?
10. **HS1** Identify the consequences of the Eureka Stockade. Who do you think were the victors? Explain your answer.
11. **HS1** What were the longer term consequences of the gold rushes? Make a list, dividing them into positive and negative.

6.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What impression of Melbourne does **SOURCE 1** create? Identify the specific elements of the image that lead to this impression.
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 4**. What problems might newly arrived migrants experience in this environment?
3. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 1** and **4**, explain how Melbourne had changed by 1852.
4. **HS3** Identify the concerns about changes to society expressed in **SOURCE 3**. Do you think the source is a reliable or accurate representation of the changes brought by gold? Discuss this question in class. Think about who produced it and what his purpose might have been.
5. **HS3** What do **SOURCES 6** and **7** suggest about the character of the miners and their demands?
6. **HS3** Describe the Treasury Building as it is shown in **SOURCE 9**. What does this building suggest about the consequences of the gold rush? What does **SOURCE 10** suggest?

7. **HS3** How useful are photographs as historical evidence? Consider how well **SOURCES 9** and **10** represent Australian life and values. What other evidence might you need to improve your understanding of life in Australia in the nineteenth century?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.4 Whose Australia? Free selectors vs squatters

6.4.1 Conflict over land

After the clash between the diggers and the Victorian authorities at the Eureka Stockade, the next conflict between social classes in colonial Australia was over land. It was a conflict with roots that went back to earlier times when wealthy free settlers (squatters) had been granted big parcels of land and convict labour to work it, while poor immigrants and ex-convicts received small land grants on which most were unable to make a living. By the time of the gold rushes, squatters controlled most of the land and used it for **grazing**.

The gold rushes hugely increased the colonial population. As alluvial gold ran out, thousands of people, including ex-diggers, demanded that wealthy squatters be made to give up some of the land they leased. This would free up land so other people could become small farmers. Although laws were made for this purpose in each colony, Australia did not become a land of small farmers.

Free selection

Many ordinary people hated the inequalities that existed between rich and poor in Britain and Europe. Australia seemed to offer them the chance to gain independence as small farmers. In the 1850s a popular movement developed calling for 'free selection'. The first free selection Act was passed in the Victorian Parliament in 1860. In New South Wales free selection Acts were passed in 1861 and similar laws were made in the other colonies.

The ambitions of ordinary people to own land were expressed in a popular song of the time by Charles Thatcher, who was well known on the Victorian goldfields.

SOURCE 1 Charles Thatcher, *The Colonial Minstrel*

Hurrah for Australia the golden,
Where men of all nations now toil,
To none will we e'er be beholden
Whilst we've strength to turn up the soil;

There's no poverty here to distress us,
'Tis the country of true liberty,
No proud lords can ever oppress us,
For here we're untrammelled and free.

Then hurrah for Australia etc ...

Oh, government hear our petition,
Find work for the strong willing hand,
Our dearest and greatest ambition
Is to settle and cultivate land:
Australia's thousands are crying
For a home in the vast wilderness,
Whilst millions of acres are lying
In their primitive uselessness.

Then hurrah for Australia etc ...

Upset squatterdom's domination,
Give every poor man a home,
Encourage our great population,
And like wanderers no more we'll roam.

These free selection laws allowed anyone to select land whether or not it was leased by a squatter. For example, in New South Wales a person could select from 40 to 320 acres (16 to 129 hectares) of land and buy it on time payment at one pound an acre. Free selectors could occupy the land they had selected after paying a quarter of its price, and they could lease three times as much land adjoining their selections. The only land they could not select was land on which squatters had made improvements.

SOURCE 2 *Free selectors pegging out*, an engraving by Samuel Calvert, c. 1873

SOURCE 3 *Selector's hut, Gippsland*, an albumen silver photograph by Nicholas Caire, c. 1886, National Gallery of Australia, Canberra

6.4.2 Results of the free selection Acts

In each Australian colony, squatters gained more from these laws than did the people whom the laws were designed to assist. Why did this happen? The squatters found many ways of defeating the aims of the laws. One method was called **peacocking**, which made the rest of the area useless to selectors. Another method was to use **dummies** who later sold land they selected back to the squatters.

SOURCE 4 From John Sadleir, *Recollections of a Victorian Police Officer*, George Robertson & Company, Melbourne, 1913, pp. 114–15

It was also in the early 'sixties that the quiet of Hamilton was disturbed ... The first Duffy Land Act, providing for free selection of Crown Lands, had just come into force, and the momentous question of parceling out the fertile lands of the Western District had to be faced. It was an anxious time for the existing occupiers — the squatters ... There was another crowd, too, but of persons quite unknown in the neighbourhood, and who appeared to be acting under some sort of leadership ... It seemed ... as if the strangers held possession, and the squatters were shut out while being stripped of all they possessed.

But there were wheels within wheels ... Communication passed between the squatters and the leaders of the strange crowd ... with the result that the squatters continued in undisturbed possession of their holdings, while not a single stranger was known to settle in the district at this time ... The first Duffy Land Act was a failure.

The result was that Australia did not become a land of small independent farmers. Large landowners continued to control most of the country. Many selectors who stayed on the land lived in poverty. In many places soils were too poor, rainfall too unreliable and the selections too small. Women often had to run these small properties while the men went away for much of the year to work for squatters as drovers or shearers.

SOURCE 5 *The Free Selector's daughter*, an etching by Lionel Lindsay, 1935, National Gallery of Australia, Canberra
© National Library of Australia

6.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain why there was a popular demand for land during the 1850s and 1860s.
2. **HS1** What was the aim of the selection Acts?
3. **HS1** What was 'peacocking'?
4. **HS1** Who or what were 'dummies'?
5. **HS1** Why did the selection Acts fail?

6.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** According to Thatcher's song in **SOURCE 1**, what will be the benefits of free selection?
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) What are these men doing?
   (b) Why is it possible they might not be genuine free selectors?
3. **HS3** What do **SOURCES 3** and **4** suggest about the behaviour of squatters in response to the selection Acts?
4. **HS3** Identify what **SOURCES 3** and **5** show about the hardships faced by free selectors.
5. **HS4** Explain whether the selection Acts brought significant change to Australian society.
6. **HS6** Identify what the free settlers vs squatters issue suggests about Australian society at this time. Consider how selectors might have felt about the strategies employed by the squatters.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.5 An Australian legend

6.5.1 The Kelly legend

A nation under the British Crown was not the dream of everyone who came to Australia during the nineteenth century. Ireland was Britain's oldest colony and about one-third of all convicts sent to Australia were Irish. Many had been transported for small crimes they committed just to survive the grinding poverty in which they lived. Others had been sentenced for rebelling against British rule. Many free Irish immigrants were also fleeing poverty, especially during the terrible famine of the 1840s. Such people made up large numbers of the free selectors of north-eastern Victoria, and many of them sympathised with Australia's most famous outlaw bushranger during what came to be called the 'Kelly outbreak'.

Australians complimenting someone's courage used to say that person was 'as game as Ned Kelly'. Kelly has been the subject of a play, a ballet, songs, poems and novels. Artist Sydney Nolan portrayed the Kelly legend in a series of paintings. Both Mick Jagger and Heath Ledger played his part in movies. Why did an outlaw win such a place in Australian folklore? The historian Geoffrey Serle declared that Kelly represented 'the last protest of the mighty bush'. Kelly has also been compared to Robin Hood. Recently a Melbourne journalist, Martin Flanagan, wrote that Kelly was 'like a bushfire on the horizon casting its red glow into the night'. Whatever you think about Kelly there is no doubt that many people think he is an important figure in our history.

SOURCE 1 A portrait of Ned Kelly taken the day before he was hanged

Early years

Edward 'Ned' Kelly (born 1855) was the first son of John Kelly, an ex-convict from Ireland, and Ellen Kelly, whose family, the Quinns, had come from Ireland as poor assisted migrants. Ned grew up in north-eastern Victoria in a time of conflict between struggling selectors and squatters. The selectors viewed corrupt police as the squatters' allies. In 1865 John Kelly was jailed for possessing a stolen cowhide. When he died in 1866, the family moved to a small selection near Greta, where they lived in poverty.

In 1869 and 1870 Ned faced three charges of robbery; all were dismissed through lack of evidence. But in late 1870, aged just 15, he received six months' hard labour in Beechworth jail for assault and three years for horse stealing. Three years after his release, Ned joined his stepfather in horse and cattle stealing. In 1878, arrest warrants were issued for Ned and his youngest brother, Dan.

The turning point

On 5 April 1878 Constable Alexander Fitzpatrick visited the Kelly house. According to Fitzpatrick, he arrested Dan, but Ellen Kelly assaulted him with a shovel and Ned fired a shot at him. Ned's version of events was very different (see **SOURCE 2**). Warrants were issued for the arrest of Ned and Dan for attempted murder. Ellen was sentenced to three years in prison, and this enraged Ned and Dan. They hid out in the Wombat Ranges but offered to give themselves up in exchange for their mother's freedom.

Police parties were sent out to hunt for the Kellys. Constables Scanlan, Lonigan and McIntyre and Sergeant Kennedy arrived at Stringybark Creek in the Wombat Ranges in October 1878. When Ned attempted to capture and disarm them, three police were killed. Only McIntyre escaped alive.

Outlaws

The Kellys were declared outlaws who could be shot on sight. In December the gang, now consisting of Ned, Dan and their friends Steve Hart and Joe Byrne, robbed a bank at Euroa without firing a shot. In February 1879 they raided Jerilderie, locking the police in their own cell and robbing the hotel and bank. During these operations the gang entertained their prisoners and Ned spent much time telling people how injustice had caused him to become an outlaw.

SOURCE 2 Part of an 8300-word statement (known as the *Jerilderie Letter*) handed over by Ned Kelly during the hold-up at Jerilderie in 1879

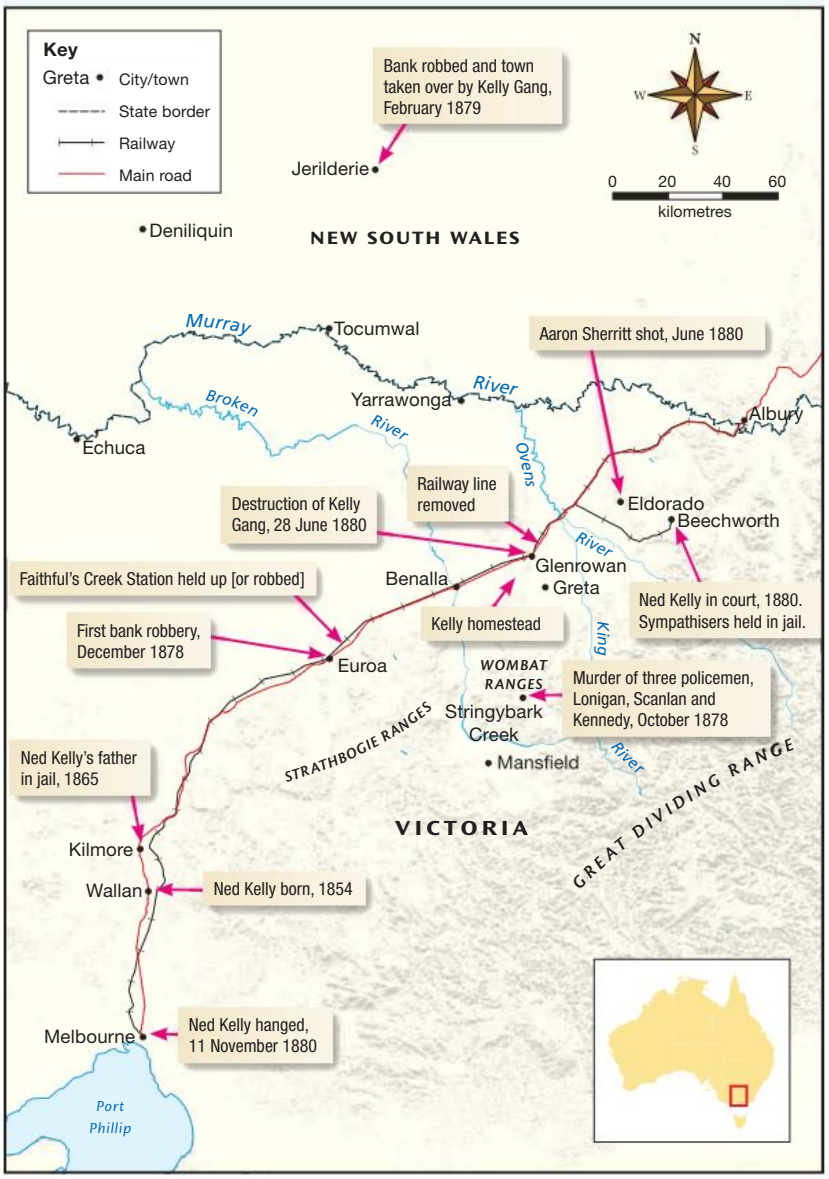
... there was never such a thing as justice in the English laws but any amount of injustice to be had ...
If a poor man happened to leave his horse or a ... calf outside his paddocks they would be **impounded**.
I have known over 60 head of horses impounded in one day ... all belonging to poor farmers ...
The trooper [Fitzpatrick] pulled out his revolver and said he would blow her [Ellen Kelly's] brains out if she interfered in the arrest [of Dan Kelly] ... The trooper ... invented some scheme to say that he got shot which any man can see is false ... the Police got credit and praise for arresting the mother of 12 children one an infant on her breast ... I heard nothing of this ... I being over 400 miles from Greta when I heard I was outlawed ...

... they must remember those men [Kennedy, Scanlan, Lonigan and McIntyre] came into the bush with the intention of scattering pieces of me and my brother all over the bush and yet they know ... I have been wronged ...

I am a widow's son outlawed and my orders must be obeyed.

Edward Kelly

SOURCE 3 Kelly country



Source: Spatial Vision

6.5.2 The final showdown

Police imprisoned many Kelly sympathisers and announced that they would be barred from obtaining selections. The result was increased support for the outlaws. From June 1880, the gang made suits of armour from ploughs and supplied firearms to their supporters. They planned to lure the police to travel by train from their headquarters at Benalla to Beechworth. This would take them through Glenrowan, where there were many Kelly sympathisers. The plan was to derail the train, capture the police and demand Ellen's freedom in exchange for theirs.

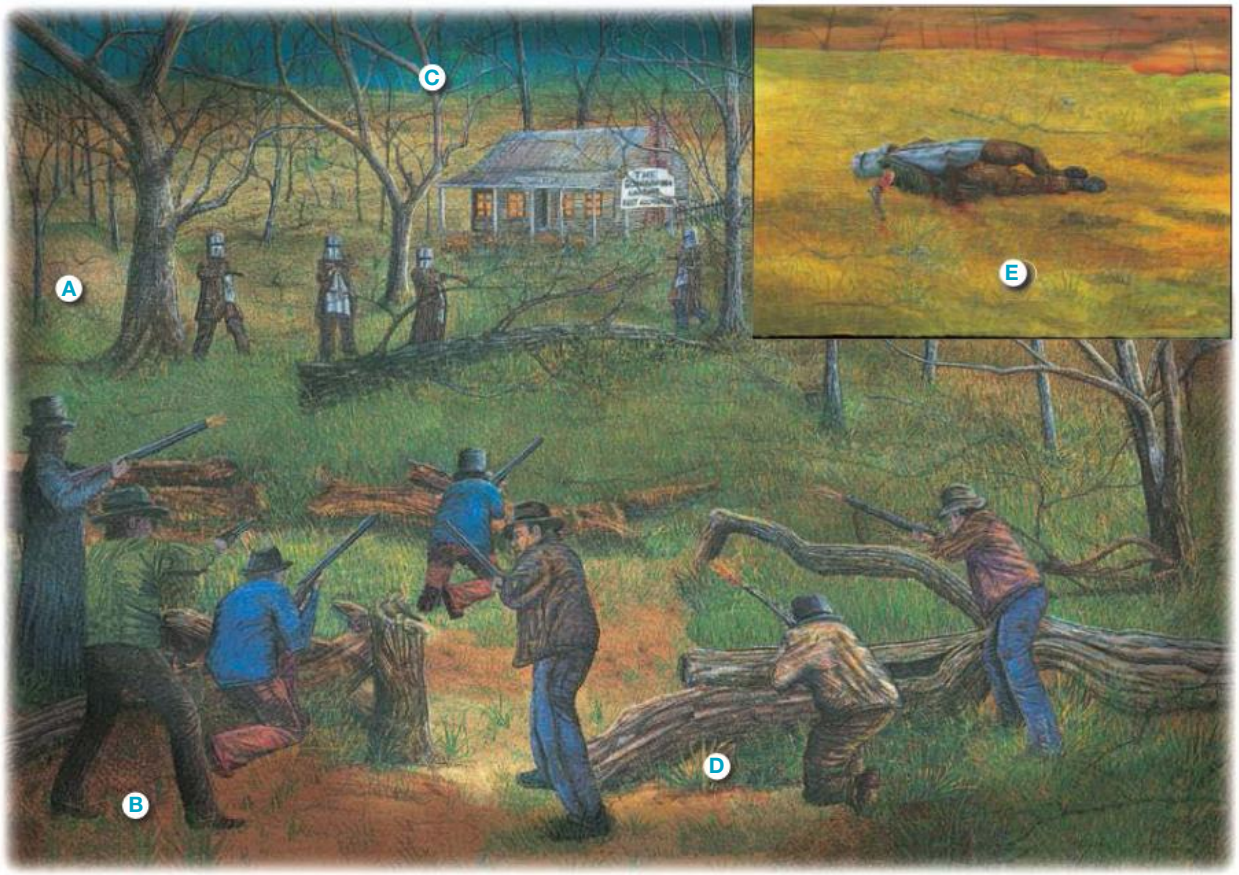
On the evening of Saturday, 26 June, to set the police on the track to Beechworth, Joe Byrne shot and killed his old friend Aaron Sherritt, a police informer. Meanwhile Ned and Steve forced railway workers

to remove a section of track almost 800 metres north of Glenrowan railway station. Joined by Dan and Joe, they took over the Glenrowan Inn and waited for the train.

Ned made two fatal mistakes. When Thomas Curnow, a schoolteacher, asked permission to take his sick wife home, Ned agreed. Shortly after two o'clock on Monday morning Curnow stopped the train that was carrying ten police and several Aboriginal trackers. Ned had also assumed that the police would not suspect an attempt to derail the train. But some distance ahead of the engine pulling the police carriages there was another engine. Had it been derailed, the second engine would have stopped safely. The gang could have retreated into the hills. Instead they chose to stay and fight (see **SOURCE 4**).

With Ned's capture, the police allowed civilians to leave the hotel. Left inside were Dan, Steve and a badly injured Martin Cherry, who died later of his wounds. Shooting continued until 3 pm, when police set fire to the hotel. Dan and Steve chose to commit suicide rather than be taken alive.

SOURCE 4 The siege at Glenrowan



A Glenrowan railway station was about 100 metres in front of the hotel. The train was meant to be derailed 800 metres up the line.

B Around 3 am, the outlaws, in heavy armour, first exchanged shots with the police at the railway station. Ned and Joe were wounded.

C The gang fell back to the hotel. During the 12-hour siege, 35 men, women and children lay on the hotel floor as police bullets crashed through the thin walls.

D Police fired on the hotel and the railway station. They were reinforced thoughout the night. Their fire killed a 13-year-old boy, and other people were wounded, including some who tried to flee. At 5 am, Joe Byrne was fatally wounded.

E Ned collapsed from loss of blood as he walked, firing, through police lines. Determined to save Dan and Steve, he staggered back through the heavy dawn mist and a continuous hail of bullets, firing at the police. He was captured after being brought down by a shotgun blast to his unprotected legs.

Trial and execution

Ned's trial for the murder of Constable Lonigan commenced in Melbourne on 28 October. He was found guilty and sentenced to death by Justice Redmond Barry. No sympathisers had joined the fight at Glenrowan, but more than 30 000 people signed a petition to save Ned from hanging and thousands attended a protest the night before his execution. At 25 years of age, as he stood on the gallows at 10 am on 11 November 1880, Ned's last words are reported to have been 'Ah well, I suppose it has come to this.'

DID YOU KNOW?

Following Ned Kelly's execution, fearing fresh outbreaks among Kelly sympathisers, police reinforced stations throughout north-eastern Victoria. A royal commission investigated police handling of the Kelly outbreak. It resulted in several officers being dismissed or reduced in rank.

6.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain why there were so many Irish people in Australia.
2. **HS1** What did selectors think of the police?
3. **HS1** Identify how Ned Kelly had been in trouble with the law before April 1878.
4. **HS1** What did it mean to be called an outlaw?
5. **HS1** What went wrong with Kelly's plan at Glenrowan?

6.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain what **SOURCE 1** suggests about Kelly's character.
2. **HS3** What does Ned say about Fitzpatrick's visit to his home in **SOURCE 2**?
3. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**, identify Kelly's attitudes to poor selectors, police and wealthy squatters. Explain why Kelly would have been popular amongst the rural poor of Victoria.
4. **HS5** What were the causes of the Kelly outbreak? Organise them into categories of short or long term, intended or unintended, significant or minor.
5. **HS6** Is the life and death of Ned Kelly an important part of Australia's history? Consider why Kelly's life is remarkable and why so many people have been drawn to this story.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.6 Marvellous Melbourne: a city giant

6.6.1 Showing off: modern and grand buildings

In the major cities of the Australian colonies a world was emerging that was very different from the world of selectors, squatters and country towns. After the gold rushes of the 1850s much of Victoria's population gradually drifted towards Melbourne. By 1881 Melbourne's population had grown to 268 000. The prosperity of the city drew more people from country Victoria and overseas, and Melbourne's population pushed to nearly 500 000 by 1891, when 41 per cent of Victorians lived in the city and its suburbs. The growth of Melbourne was often held up as a wonderful example of progress and prosperity. When the English journalist George Augustus Sala described Melbourne as 'marvellous' in 1885 it seemed that the city had reached its destiny as the greatest city of Australia.

By the 1880s Melbourne's skyline featured elegantly decorated domes and spires. Many major buildings, as well as private homes in Melbourne's affluent suburbs, were extravagantly fashioned with wrought-iron lacework that symbolised the city's wealth. Even today, Melbourne has more decorative wrought iron than any other city in the world.

SOURCE 1 A sketch of Melbourne in 1880. Despite its solid appearance here, much of the city would be rebuilt in the 1880s as the population continued to grow and new technology enabled taller buildings.

The invention of the hydraulic lift enabled buildings to rise above the usual four or five storeys; only New York and Chicago had buildings as high as Melbourne's. In 1887, 11 kilometres of pipes carried pressurised water around Melbourne to power hydraulic lifts. Melbourne was the fourth city in the world to have such a system.

Perhaps one of the greatest examples of the wealth and prosperity of Melbourne was the Royal Exhibition Building. This building was completed in 1880 and hosted the Melbourne International Exhibition in that year, where exhibits and inventions from all over the world were displayed. The exhibition ran for eight months and attracted more than a million people.

SOURCE 2 The Royal Exhibition Building

SOURCE 3 The Federal Coffee Palace, Collins Street. Seven storeys high with an ornate domed tower, this was a 'temperance hotel' that provided accommodation but did not sell alcohol. It was a grand building and a huge advertisement for the value of sober living; it was demolished in 1973.

6.6.2 Showing off: busy, fashionable and sophisticated

The richness of the city was also displayed in the affluence of individual citizens and their tastes in clothing and entertainment. Retailing precincts were established around Swanston and Elizabeth streets. Fashionable residents became famous for parading their attire in a social promenade called 'doing the block' around Collins Street. Wealthier Melbourne ladies had access to the silks and satins of Europe while the men donned immaculate suits. Other parts of the city catered for specific businesses and professions. Legal practices were located around the main courts at the west end of Bourke Street while doctors went to the 'Paris' end of Collins Street. Wharves and merchants stood by the river. Many of these precincts still stand today. To bring everyone to the city, Melbourne also built a cable tram network and an extensive railway system to the growing suburbs. In addition to these established patterns of work and life there were major annual events like the Melbourne Cup at which Melburnians could show off their status and style. Some images of Melbourne at the time are shown in **SOURCES 4, 5** and **6**.

SOURCE 4 *Allegro con brio: Bourke Street West*, by Tom Roberts, painted around 1886. The Italian phrase in the title is a musical direction meaning 'quickly, with brilliance' and the painting was intended to capture the energy and excitement of 'Marvellous Melbourne'.

SOURCE 5 *Doing the block, Great Collins St*, painted by S.T. Gill, 1880. The novelist Fergus Hume compared this scene to social life in London: even the dogs are socialising.

DID YOU KNOW?

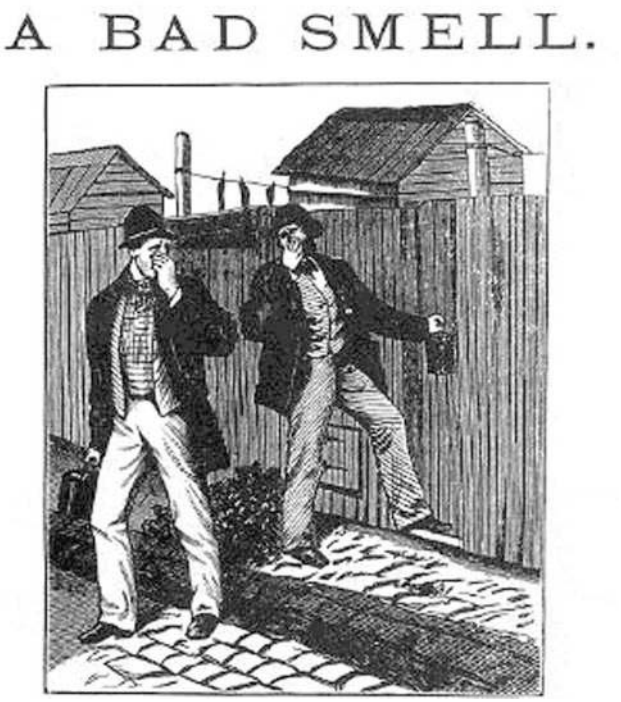
One of Melbourne's premier sporting events, the Melbourne Cup, was first held in 1861. Today the Melbourne Cup Carnival is enjoyed as much for its party atmosphere as for the race itself. Visitors from interstate and around the world flock to Flemington to 'have a flutter', picnic on the lawn and parade their outfits, both fashionable and outrageous. Nothing much has changed since 1888, when over 100 000 people spread out their food and beverages underneath the gum trees to watch the race.

SOURCE 6 An artist's impression of the Melbourne Cup, 1888

6.6.3 A darker side to the city

As you may have realised, not everything about life in Melbourne was wonderful. Gangs of young men, called larrikins, roamed the streets. Prostitution and crime also flourished and they, too, had their own areas of the city. For many working-class men and women life was still a struggle of low pay and hard manual labour, hand-me-down clothes and cramped living conditions. There were also some serious health and hygiene issues. By the 1880s overcrowded inner-city housing in areas like Little Lonsdale Street and some low-lying suburbs like Collingwood and Richmond experienced outbreaks of diseases like typhoid, tuberculosis and diphtheria. The death rate amongst babies and young children was higher than London's for most of the 1880s. Household and human waste were often dumped in the Yarra River; overflowing **cesspits** and open sewers in city streets caused one Sydney writer to name the city 'Marvellous Smellbourne' because of the city's overwhelming odour of human excrement. It wasn't until 1897 that the city finally had an operating and efficient sewer system.

SOURCE 7 'A Bad Smell', *Australian Health Society*, 1880. Two workmen are forced to hold their noses in disgust at the smell of the laneways outside their homes.



6.6 ACTIVITIES

1. What do you think would make a city 'marvellous' to live in? Make a list of your top six qualities of a marvellous city and compare it with a classmate's. Discuss with your class. Can you agree on what a marvellous city might be like? **[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]**
2. Compile a scrapbook of other sources and accounts about Melbourne in the 1880s and comment on their value in helping understand life in Melbourne. **Using historical sources as evidence**
3. Research the lives of the poorer people of Melbourne in the 1880s. Draw up a graphic organiser to represent different features of the lives of Melbourne's poor. **Using historical sources as evidence**

6.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What was Melbourne's approximate population in 1891?
2. **HS1** What percentage of Victoria's population lived in Melbourne and its suburbs in 1891?
3. **HS1** Why did Melbourne's population continue to grow in the 1800s?
4. **HS1** In what ways did the people of Melbourne display their success and prosperity?
5. **HS1** What problems did Melbourne's residents face in the 1880s?
6. **HS1** Explain why Melbourne was jokingly called 'Smellbourne'.

6.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 1–3**. What evidence is there that Melbourne was modern and prosperous in the 1880s?
2. **HS3** How do **SOURCES 4–6** provide evidence of Melbourne's progress and prosperity? List specific elements of each source as evidence.
3. **HS3** How reliable do you think the sources in this subtopic are as evidence of Melbourne's progress? Explain the limitations of each source.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 7**. How does this source contradict the idea of Marvellous Mebourne depicted in **SOURCES 1–6**?
5. **HS4** Create a table that lists the differences and similarities of life in Melbourne now compared to the 1880s. Rank them in order of importance and compare your table with those of other members of your class.
6. **HS6** Does 1880s Melbourne deserve to be known as a city of progress and prosperity? Explain your view.
7. **HS6** As historians, what can we learn from studying Melbourne in the 1880s?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.7 Working in cities and towns

6.7.1 An unequal society

After the 1850s many people who had tried their luck on the goldfields drifted to towns and cities to look for work. As a result, commerce, industry and investment grew, and the public service sector expanded. Developments in transport, technology and communication also contributed to changing work patterns.

Many nineteenth-century factories, mills and shops in the colonies were little more than 'sweatshops'. Dressed in heavy, multi-layered clothing (then the fashion), workers of both sexes sometimes worked 10 to 16 hours per day, six days a week, in temperatures that could reach the high 30s. Many had to walk long distances to get home.

Employers had all the power, sometimes refusing to implement government directions to improve conditions. Employees were often afraid to object or to report employers for non-compliance, for fear of losing their jobs. Neither did they enjoy the entitlements workers enjoy today, such as sick leave. Most could expect to work until they were 65. It was not much of a life for many people in the working class.

Even children worked under these harsh conditions, sometimes 50 to 60 hours per week. Because they were smaller, they could often do tasks adults could not. In addition, employers had to pay them only a fraction of an adult wage. In 1911, 46 169 children between the ages of 10 and 14 were in the workforce.

Social divisions

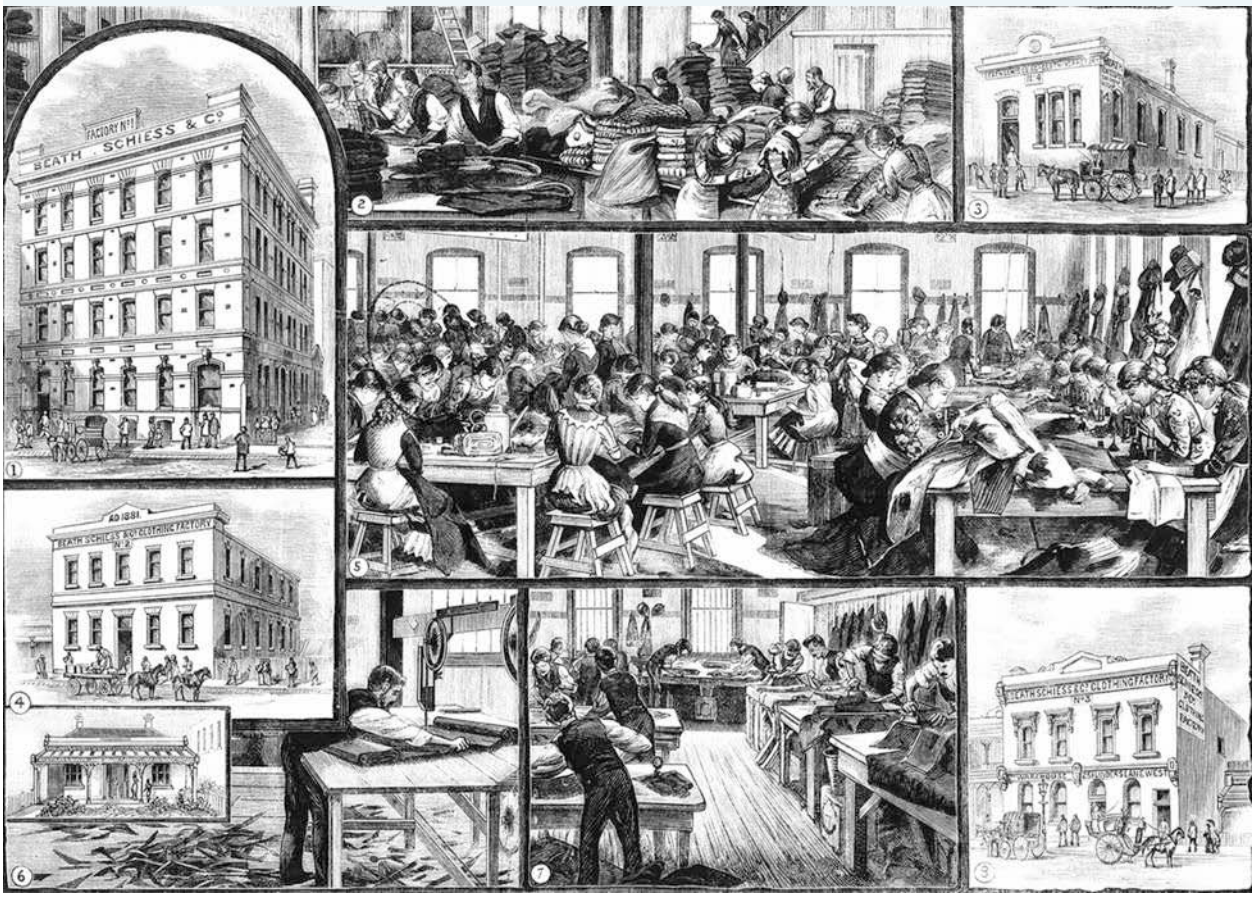
By the 1880s, apart from wealthy landowners and pastoralists, bankers and merchants were among the highest earners in the colonies. They established businesses close to the wharves to take advantage of the growing import and investment sectors. These businesses provided employment for accountants, clerks and shopkeepers.

Professionals such as doctors and lawyers also earned high wages. Most came from wealthy families and had been educated at private schools and universities in the colonies and overseas.

High-wage earners tended to build spacious homes in leafy suburbs away from the grime and pollution of the inner-city areas. Domestic servants were employed to maintain these homes and the wealthy families who lived there.

Until the 1880s most domestic servants were poor Irish immigrant girls working to help support their families. Many men and women preferred factory work, though, because it often paid better and it gave workers some independence. This preference led to a shortage of domestic workers in the 1880s. As the shortage grew, domestic workers were able to push for higher wages, more free time and better working conditions.

SOURCE 1 An 1882 wood engraving depicting scenes at Beath, Schiess & Co's Victorian clothing factories



6.7.2 New technologies

By the 1880s new technologies meant the growth of new types of jobs. The expansion of manufacturing resulted in an increase in the number of engineers, who helped to develop machinery for factories. In many trades (for example, boot making), mechanised processes replaced manual labour.

SOURCE 2 Inside the workshop of John Faul, Ironmonger at Bendigo in 1890

The typewriter created new office jobs. Up to the 1880s, typists were mainly men, although the number of female typists increased after this. New methods of copying and **bookkeeping** were also changing officework.

Telegraph and telephone services became more common in the 1880s. The number of telegraph stations in the central business district of Melbourne doubled between 1880 and 1890. By 1890, there were almost 2000 telephone subscribers. New forms of communication required workers to develop new skills.

One of the most influential developments in the late nineteenth century was electricity. For some, however, electric lights just meant longer working hours.

SOURCE 3 Most servant girls endured demanding, and often harsh, working conditions. *'"Missus" — From Sarah Jane's point of view' in* The Bulletin, *23 June 1883*

She is wanted at 6 am, or before, and keeps busy all day till bed time at 10 or 11 pm. 'No followers allowed', not even a brother or sister, lest they should eat or drink something, or take something home. The poor girl cannot sit with the 'family' — she is 'only a servant', and therefore has only the kitchen to sit in if she has any leisure. If there are any grown-up sons, she is liable to instant dismissal if one of them is seen speaking to her, and the daughters order her about as if she were a convict.

6.7 ACTIVITY

Locate some other sources and accounts of working conditions in Australian cities in the 1880s and 1890s. Do they support or contest the impression created by **SOURCES 1–3**? **Using historical sources as evidence**

6.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What social change occurred after the 1850s?
2. **HS1** How hard were workers' lives in the nineteenth century? Explain.
3. **HS1** Apart from landowners and pastoralists, who else were among the highest earning classes?
4. **HS1** Why was factory work often preferred over domestic service?
5. **HS1** What new technologies were introduced in the late nineteenth century?

6.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. Describe what the engraving tells us about factory work for men and women. Use as many of the panels in the image as you can.
2. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 1** and **2**, explain what made workers' lives difficult.
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3**. According to the writer, why is domestic service difficult work? Try to give several reasons in your own words.
4. **HS5** Why would workers accept poor pay and conditions? Based on what you have learned in this subtopic, explain your point of view.
5. **HS5** What impact on the workplace did the development of new technologies have?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.8 Trade unions and political parties

6.8.1 Australian trade unions develop

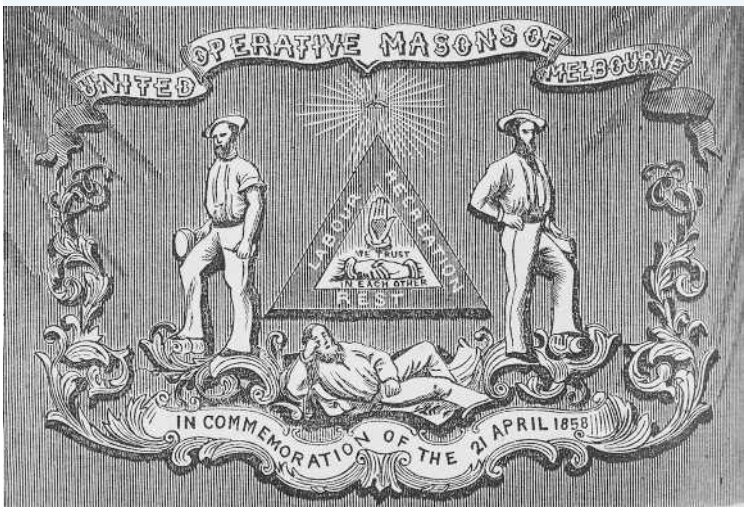
Many people in nations across the world promote the idea that there are characteristics that make their people distinctive. In the late nineteenth century many Australians seemed to accept that the most important part of the Australian identity — the most typical Australian characteristic — was 'mateship', which was demonstrated by ordinary people standing by each other in the struggle to overcome tough conditions and injustice, particularly in rural areas. For those who thought this way, the development of trade unionism was a continuation of a tradition that went back to early convict days and was part of the 'pioneering spirit' of Australia's white history. It also seemed to be reinforced by the rebels at Eureka and Ned Kelly.

Trade unionism has been a very important influence on Australian life. Trade unions are formed by employees within an occupation or industry to bargain with employers for improved wages and conditions. They also try to ensure that any previously gained social improvements are kept. Australia inherited its trade union traditions from Britain, and for much of the twentieth century Australia had one of the highest levels of trade union membership in the world.

The first Australian trade unions were formed in the 1840s. They were temporarily disrupted by the gold rushes but were soon reorganised. By the 1850s many trade unions had been formed, strengthened by the ambitions of many gold rush migrants. This growth brought about the establishment of the Melbourne Trades Hall Committee, a central organisation of **affiliated unions**. Its first meeting in 1859 was held in Lygon Street in Melbourne at the site where the Victorian Trades Hall Council building now stands.

One of the first great victories of the Australian union movement was the winning of the eight-hour workday on 21 April 1856 by the Stonemasons Union. The eight-hour day was confined to the building trades and not extended to most workers until the next century but it continued to be celebrated with an annual procession. It was well attended. In 1879 the Victorian government declared it a public holiday and in 1934 it was renamed 'Labour Day'.

SOURCE 1 A banner for the United Operative Masons of Melbourne, commemorating this union's achievement of the eight-hour working day



6.8.2 Tactics and policies

Unions used strikes and pickets to win their objectives. The first full-scale union picket was staged during the Bootmakers' Union strike in 1884. Unions also held strikes to protest against businesses employing Chinese workers, who were paid at much lower rates than Europeans. At its first meeting, in Sydney in 1879, the Inter-Colonial Trade Union Congress (later the **Australian Council of Trade Unions** or **ACTU**) unanimously opposed Chinese immigration.

SOURCE 2 Trade unionists with their banner in Broken Hill, NSW, around 1911

Exploitation of women

Women were exploited even more than men. They experienced harsh working conditions, long hours and lower rates of pay. The first colonial women's trade union was the Melbourne Tailoresses' Union. Founded in 1882, it campaigned against wage cuts for already poorly paid female workers in the clothing industry. Its campaign led to a parliamentary inquiry into **sweated labour**, and the establishment of boards to ensure that standards were in place for wages, working hours and conditions.

Factions and political parties

Workers could have improved their conditions by electing representatives to fight for their rights in the colonial parliaments. At first, however, factions and pressure groups dominated colonial politics. The main groups were the protectionists and the free traders. Both represented the interests of businesspeople. The issue of free trade versus protection of local industries (by charging duties on imports) deeply divided the colonies. In New South Wales there was strong support for free trade while Victoria supported protection.

Political parties began to emerge in the late 1880s as the protectionists and free traders became more organised. The most significant step in the development of political parties, however, was the birth of the labour parties. Since its inception, the Australian Labor Party (ALP) has had links with the trade union movement. Formed in 1891, it is the oldest political party in Australia, and one of the oldest labour parties in the world.

6.8.3 The great strikes of the 1890s

Trade unions achieved many of their goals up until the end of the 1880s. However, when a severe economic depression began in 1890, employer organisations fought back. Employers said they were fighting for 'freedom of contract'— the right to hire workers who were not union members and to pay them less than the wages that had been won by the unions.

The result was a series of great strikes between 1890 and 1894. The 1890 maritime strike affected all the eastern colonies and involved wharf labourers, seamen, ships' officers, transport workers and shearers. The 1891 shearers' strike saw armed clashes between shearers on the one hand and strike-breakers, the army and police on the other at Barcaldine in Queensland. The strike ended after four months; thirteen of its leaders were arrested and sentenced to three years of hard labour. These strikes were followed by the Broken Hill miners' strike in 1892 and a further strike of shearers and other bush workers in 1893–94.

SOURCE 4 This news report describes what happened when unionists attempted to stop strike-breakers working at Port Adelaide during the 1890 maritime strike. It was published in *The Advertiser* (Adelaide), 29 October 1890.

About 6 a. m. a large body of unionists had assembled on the wharfs, but nothing serious occurred until about 8 o'clock, when some non-unionists were returning from work along Maclaren wharf and proceeding to the labour bureau for breakfast. They were surrounded by a body of unionists, who commenced to hoot, jeer, and illtreat them. One of the men being rather roughly handled drew a revolver, which he pointed at the unionists, but happily did not fire. The police arriving on the spot arrested three of the unionists and took the weapon away from the non-unionist, but the owner [of the revolver] was not apprehended ...

SOURCE 5 Townsville Mounted Infantry in Hughenden, Queensland, during the 1891 shearers' strike

SOURCE 3 A portrait of shearers as 'unionist prisoners'. This photograph was taken at Barcaldine, Queensland, in November 1893 to mark the gaoling of 13 shearer union leaders.

SOURCE 6 Wives of unionist miners attacking strike-breakers with sticks and broom handles during the reopening of the Broken Hill mines in 1892

Electing workers' representatives

The strikes failed because the employers were able to find strike-breakers to carry out much of the work and could use the law against the strikers. The failure of the strikes, the support the employers had from governments and the gaoling of union leaders made unionists realise they needed new tactics. They decided to get workers' representatives into parliament to change the laws. Labour parties were set up in each colony. Unionists believed that labour party candidates elected to parliament would defend the interests of the workers who put them there.

6.8.4 Forming the ALP

Australia's first labour government — indeed the first labour government in the world — was elected in Queensland in 1899. It lasted only seven days. A **minority government** had been formed, with Anderson Dawson as the state's first labour premier. It ended a week later when motions enabling it to continue to govern were defeated.

In their formative years, the colonial labour parties were influenced by the trade unions, but were not restricted to only trade union interests. The parties also wanted the support of farmers, small business and non-union employees, including 'white collar workers'. The influence of the trade unions on policy, however, remained high.

The Australian Labour Party entered federal politics at federation, following the first Commonwealth elections in 1901. It comprised 16 members who had been elected to the first sitting of the House of Representatives and eight Senators. It was not until 1908 that the spelling of the party's name was changed to 'Labor'. The American English spelling recognised that many of the ideas of the US 'labor' movement were dominant internationally and influenced the early tactics of the ALP.

DISCUSS

Are the interests of employers and employees today similar to those of the 1890s? Should workers be able to go on strike for better pay and conditions? **[Ethical Capability]**

6.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why are trade unions formed?
2. **HS1** Identify the economic reason that unions opposed Chinese immigration.
3. **HS1** Whose interests did free traders and protectionists represent?
4. **HS1** How did employers try to lower wages in the 1890s? Explain why they might have done this.
5. **HS5** Identify the results of the strikes of the 1890s. Explain why they failed.
6. **HS6** Identify three significant things about the formation of the ALP and its early history.

6.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. Identify the labels on the three sides of the central triangle.
2. **HS3** Explain what **SOURCE 1** suggests about the importance of the eight-hour working day.
3. **HS3** Describe the appearance of the unionists in **SOURCE 2**. Why might they be dressed this way?
4. **HS3** The slogan on the banner in **SOURCE 2** reads, 'To assist but not to injure'. Explain why the union might have chosen this slogan.
5. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 3** suggest about the attitudes of the shearers in the photograph? Explain why you think this photo was taken.
6. **HS3** Identify from **SOURCE 4** why unionists felt the government was on the side of the employers.

7. **HS3** Compare **SOURCES 5** and **6**. Explain how they present very different views of the conflicts between workers and employers in the 1890s.
8. **HS5** Identify the causes of the strikes of the 1890s and rank them in order of importance.
9. **HS5** Did the results of the strikes of the 1890s represent a step forward for Australian workers? Explain.
10. **HS6** Evaluate the importance of the formation of the ALP and explain whether you think the ALP still supports Australian workers.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.9 Nationalism and Australian identity

6.9.1 Radical and nationalist

Ideas of national identity and national types became popular in Europe, Canada and the United States in the 1800s, shaping and reshaping maps, alliances and culture.

By the late nineteenth century two very different kinds of nationalism existed in Australia. A majority of Australians were what historians have called 'imperial loyalists'. They thought of themselves as Australian Britons and felt deep loyalty to Britain and the British Empire. A different kind of sentiment was felt by Australians whom historians have called 'radical nationalists'. These people believed that Australia should be independent from Britain and should create a society that was fairer and more **egalitarian** than Britain's.

Radical nationalists saw the typical Australian as a bush worker, like the gold rush diggers and the unionist shearers and drovers. He was seen as independent, opposed to class distinctions and English snobbishness, and loyal to his mates. Women usually had very little part in this image. Many Australian short stories, poems and artworks of the 1880s and 1890s depict such 'typical Australians'.

SOURCE 1 Extract from Banjo Paterson's 1889 poem *Clancy of the Overflow*.
This section provides a rather romantic image of droving in contrast to the 'foulness' of city life.

In my wild erratic fancy visions come to me of Clancy
Gone a-droving 'down the Cooper' where the Western drovers go;
As the stock are slowly stringing, Clancy rides behind them singing,
For the drover's life has pleasures that the townsfolk never know.
And the bush hath friends to meet him, and their kindly voices greet him
In the murmur of the breezes and the river on its bars,
And he sees the vision splendid of the sunlit plains extended,
And at night the wond'rous glory of the everlasting stars.
I am sitting in my dingy little office, where a stingy
Ray of sunlight struggles feebly down between the houses tall,
And the foetid air and gritty of the dusty, dirty city
Through the open window floating, spreads its foulness over all.

6.9.2 White and male

Racism was part of both kinds of Australian nationalism. Imperial loyalists believed that Britain had the right to rule over other races they believed were inferior to the British. Radical nationalists wanted to create a workers' paradise in Australia, but they thought this dream could be achieved only by keeping out non-Europeans, who they believed did not share their values and whose cheap labour would be used to destroy the gains won by Australian workers. They also considered non-Europeans insufficiently educated or intelligent to share in an Australian democracy.

SOURCE 2 *The golden fleece*, painted by Tom Roberts in 1894. You can compare this image to Roberts' more famous work, *Shearing the rams*.

Art and literature

Even before stories and poems about the bush were published, there were traditions of storytelling and singing among rural itinerant workers. These had developed from old convict ballads and Irish songs. Writers such as Andrew 'Banjo' Paterson drew on these traditions to create ballads about the bush and its heroic characters. Paterson's works include *Waltzing Matilda, Clancy of the Overflow* and *The Man from Snowy River*.

Henry Lawson (see **SOURCE 3**) also wrote about people living in the bush. His mother, Louisa, was an early Australian campaigner for women's rights, and her strong influence is seen in some of the female characters that feature in Lawson's stories. *The Drover's Wife* (see **SOURCE 4**) depicts a brave and resilient woman protecting her children while her husband is away for long periods.

SOURCE 3 Henry Lawson

SOURCE 4 Extract from *The Drover's Wife* by Henry Lawson

She is not a coward, but recent events have shaken her nerves. A little son of her brother-in-law was lately bitten by a snake, and died. Besides she has not heard from her husband for six months, and is anxious about him ...

... She is used to being left alone. She once lived like this for eighteen months. As a girl she built the usual castles in the air, but all her girlish hopes and aspirations have along been dead. She finds all the excitement and recreation she needs in the Young Ladies' Journal, and Heaven help her! takes a pleasure in the fashion plates ...

... One of the children died while she was here alone. She rode nineteen miles for assistance, carrying the dead child.

However, much of the art and writing of the period celebrates hard physical labour and masculine endeavour. Women were often associated with more passive, domestic roles. This is another reason why *The Drover's Wife* is such an extraordinary story.

Many of the works of art also told dramatic stories about the trials and hardships of rural living, though not all of these works portrayed this life as one of heroic struggle.

Paterson and Lawson both contributed to a literary journal called *The Bulletin*. It promoted political ideas such as **republicanism** and white superiority. Its slogan was 'Australia for Australians' until 1908, when it was changed to 'Australia for the White Man'.

SOURCE 5 Tom Roberts' *A break away!* Painted in 1891, this picture shows a lone figure desperately trying to avert disaster as his herd of thirsty sheep rushes for the water.

SOURCE 6 Written by Henry Lawson, published in *The Bulletin* in 1887, *A Song of the Republic* is Lawson's first published poem.

A song of the Republic
Sons of the South, awake! arise!
Sons of the South, and do.
Banish from under your bonny skies
Those old-world errors and wrongs and lies.
Making a hell in a paradise
That belongs to your sons and you.
Sons of the South, make choice between
(Sons of the South, choose true),
The Land of Morn and the Land of E'en,
The Old Dead Tree and the Young Tree Green,
The Land that belongs to the lord and the Queen,
And the Land that belongs to you.
...
Sons of the South, aroused at last!
Sons of the South are few!
But your ranks grow longer and deeper fast,
And ye shall swell to an army vast,
And free from the wrongs of the North and Past
The land that belongs to you.

DISCUSS

Before studying this subtopic, how would you have described a typical Australian? How has learning about the development of Australian identity changed your ideas about being Australian?

[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]

6.9 ACTIVITIES

1. Locate some other works of art, stories and poems from this period and compare how they present the Australian characters. Identify the qualities that they share as well as ones that seem different.

   Using historical sources as evidence
2. Locate and read Henry Lawson's poem, *The Fire at Ross Farm*. Is this poem a better expression of national character than *A Song of the Republic*? Write a paragraph outlining your view.

   Using historical sources as evidence

6.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the two different types of nationalism that existed in Australia by the late nineteenth century.
2. **HS1** What are the qualities of the typical bush worker as seen in the radical, nationalist tradition?
3. **HS1** Suggest reasons why women played only a small part in the creation of the image of the 'typical Australian'.
4. **HS1** Name two writers who wrote about Australian bush characters.
5. **HS1** Explain why *The Drover's Wife* is an extraordinary story.

6.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** In **SOURCE 1**, identify the 'pleasures' of the drover's life.
2. **HS3** Describe how the work of shearing is presented in **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS3** Identify what **SOURCE 4** suggests about the qualities of bush women.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 6**. What is the main point of Lawson's poem?
5. **HS3** Using all of the sources in this subtopic, describe the vision of national character they express. Try to include contradictory elements if you can.
6. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 6**. Explain what Lawson might have meant by 'old-world errors and wrongs and lies' and the sort of future he predicted for Australia as a republic.
7. **HS6** Evaluate the importance of the bush worker as a representative of the Australian character. Is it possible for any one idea to express a 'national type'? Outline your view.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

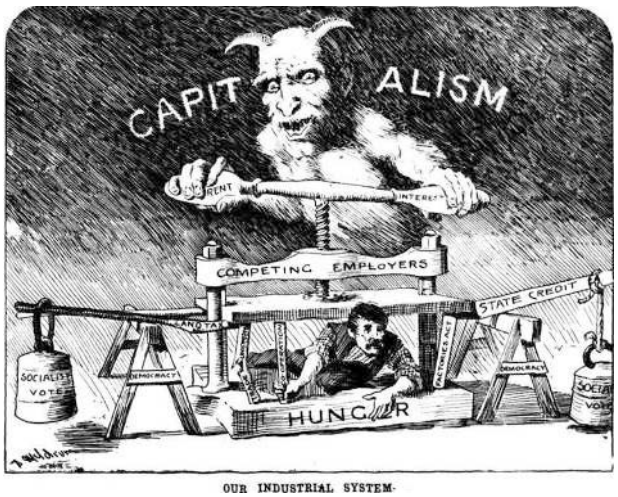
6.10 SkillBuilder: Analysing cartoons

online only

Using historical sources as evidence: analysing cartoons

Historical sources help us understand the way people in the past thought and felt about their lives. The way we evaluate these sources shapes our understanding of the past.

Artworks, photographs and illustrations all give insight into the values, attitudes and beliefs of people in the past. Political cartoons can be powerful evidence of the ways that people thought and felt about their lives.



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- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

6.11 Voting rights for women

6.11.1 Women in the workforce

During the nineteenth century there was great social inequality between the sexes. Most rewarding jobs were closed to women, who usually had to give up their jobs when they married. Women were expected to devote their lives to their family, yet they had little power within marriage. Many people came to see that women's **suffrage** was needed as a first step towards overcoming such inequalities.

In the paid workforce, women were paid much less than men even for the same work. In the clothing trade, women worked up to 90 hours a week. Female domestic servants received very small wages, board and leftover food for working 14-hour days with only occasional weekends off. A skilled tradesman earned five times as much but even his wage was barely enough for rent, food and other essentials for a family.

Nevertheless, as one century closed and another dawned, women's participation in paid work began to change rapidly. By 1913 women accounted for nearly a quarter of all manufacturing employees and were enjoying better wages and more independence than those in domestic service. Administrative work, especially in using the new typewriters, became increasingly common. But pay rates continued to be low and, while a few jobs such as fruit picking would give equal pay for equal work, most women would receive only one-third of the wages of their male counterparts.

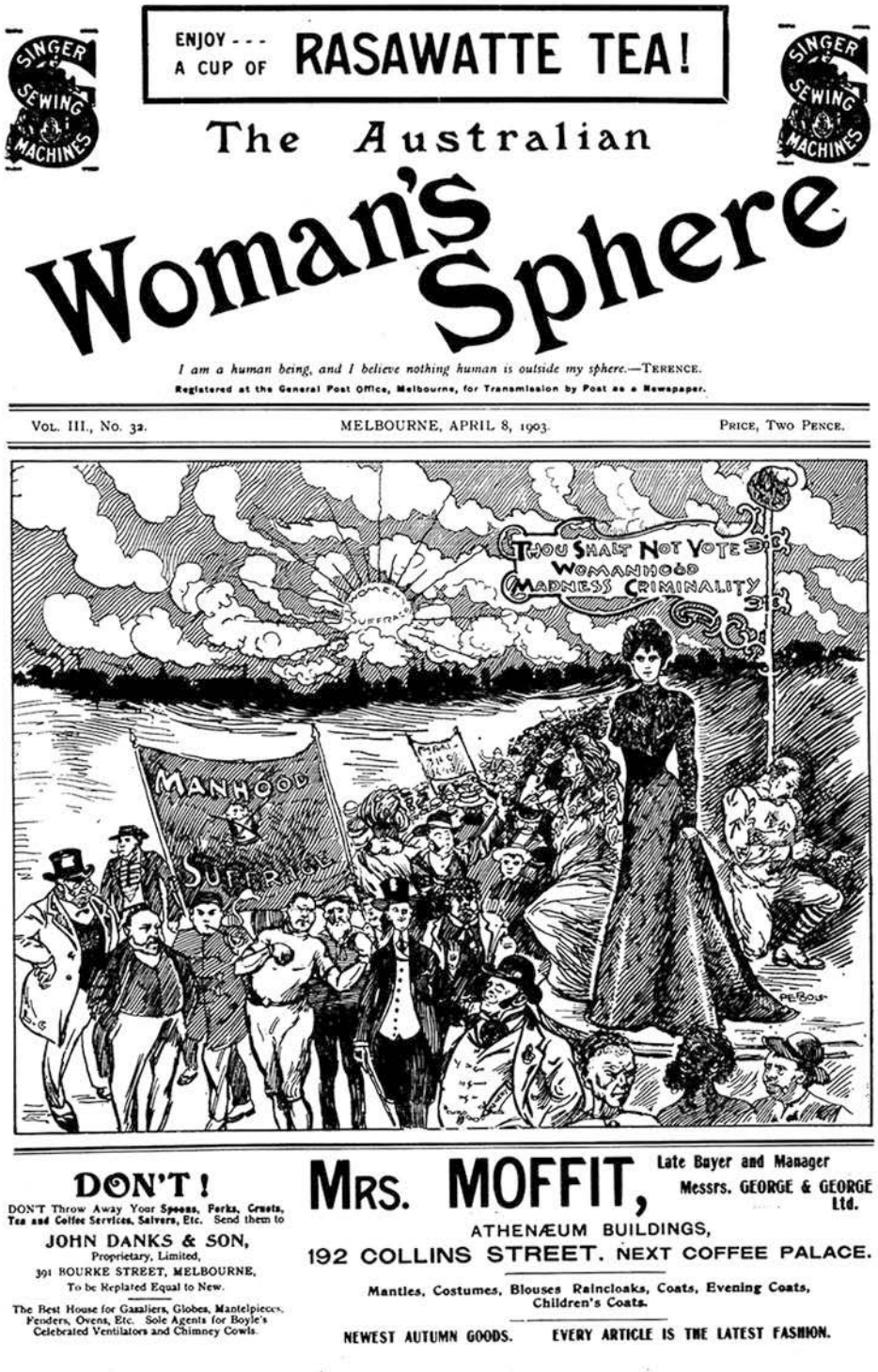
Fighting for women's political rights

Laws on marriage, divorce, property and custody of children all favoured men. Change could come only through political action. In the late nineteenth century women formed organisations in each Australian colony to campaign for the right to vote. Many hoped that women's votes would force governments to make better laws to protect the rights of women and children.

They believed their vote would bring about improved working conditions, equal pay, better education for girls and more opportunities in the professions. Women also thought that being entitled to vote would provide them with greater power within the home, protecting vulnerable women against violent abuse, giving them property and custody rights and raising the age of consent. A number of women's groups campaigning for votes for women were also demanding restrictions on the consumption of alcohol (these

were known as 'Temperance' unions), believing a more sober society would be a safer one. The Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) was one such group, and was sometimes ridiculed in the media as the 'Water, Coffee, Tea Union'.

SOURCE 1 The front cover of *The Woman's Sphere*, 8 April 1903. A procession of men march past under the banner of manhood suffrage, a glass of beer and golf clubs. They include a boxer, men of all classes and even non-European and indigenous males. The noble Vida Goldstein, representing womanhood, is chained to the pole of 'thou shalt not vote', along with 'madness' and 'criminality'. The rising sun of 'women's suffrage' is in the background. One of the males in the foreground is a brewery owner.



Although Victorian women had been granted the right to vote in federal elections in 1902, they had to continue their campaign. State lawmakers were still the most significant level of government at this time and were responsible for the areas that concerned women the most.

In New South Wales in 1888 Louisa Lawson (the mother of Henry Lawson) founded a newspaper called *The Dawn* to make people aware of women's issues. In 1889 she founded the Dawn Club to campaign for women's suffrage. In 1891 women's suffrage societies presented the Victorian Parliament with a petition with more than 30 000 signatures supporting votes for women. Vida Goldstein was an equally important campaigner for women's rights. She was born in 1869 in Melbourne, where she worked for slum clearance, prison reform and votes for women. In 1899 she became president of the Women's Suffrage League.

In 1894 South Australian women gained the vote. New Zealand women had led the way, gaining voting rights in 1893. Women won the vote in Western Australia in 1899, federal government elections and New South Wales in 1902, Tasmania in 1903, Queensland in 1905 and Victoria in 1908.

6.11.2 Slow progress

Only South Australia and the Commonwealth had given women the right to stand for election to Parliament as well as to vote. The right of women to stand for election to Parliament was won in New South Wales in 1918, Western Australia in 1920, Tasmania in 1921 and Victoria in 1923. In 1921, with her election to the lower house of Western Australia, Edith Cowan became Australia's first female member of Parliament.

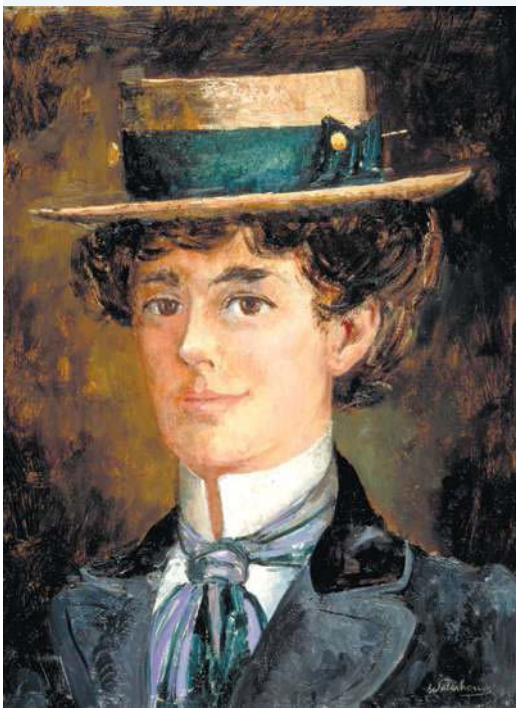
Vida Goldstein fights on

Vida Goldstein (see **SOURCE 2**) ran two magazines for women's rights: *The Woman's Sphere* (1900–05) and *The Woman Voter* (1909–19). She stood for election to the Senate on five occasions without success. However, she received many votes from men and women, and her election campaigns increased awareness of the unfair way women were treated. In 1903, she was guest speaker at a women's meeting in the United States and, from 1911 to 1913, she helped the British women's suffrage movement. In Britain the vote was not extended to all adult women until 1928.

During World War I, Vida championed pacifism as well as feminism. She founded the Women's Peace Army in 1915 and was involved in a number of charitable works supporting vulnerable women. In 1919, she represented Australia at the Women's Peace Conference in Zurich. She was away from Australia for three years. Vida described herself as a democrat working for the complete equality of women with men and decent standards of living for all.

Voting rights for women were opposed by a number of male politicians who argued that women were not sufficiently educated or intelligent to vote and that their vote would be too easily influenced by their husbands, employers or unscrupulous politicians. They also expressed the idea that women who were interested in politics would neglect their families, have fewer children and that the divorce rate would go up.

SOURCE 2 A portrait of Vida Goldstein, painted in 1944 by Phyl Waterhouse

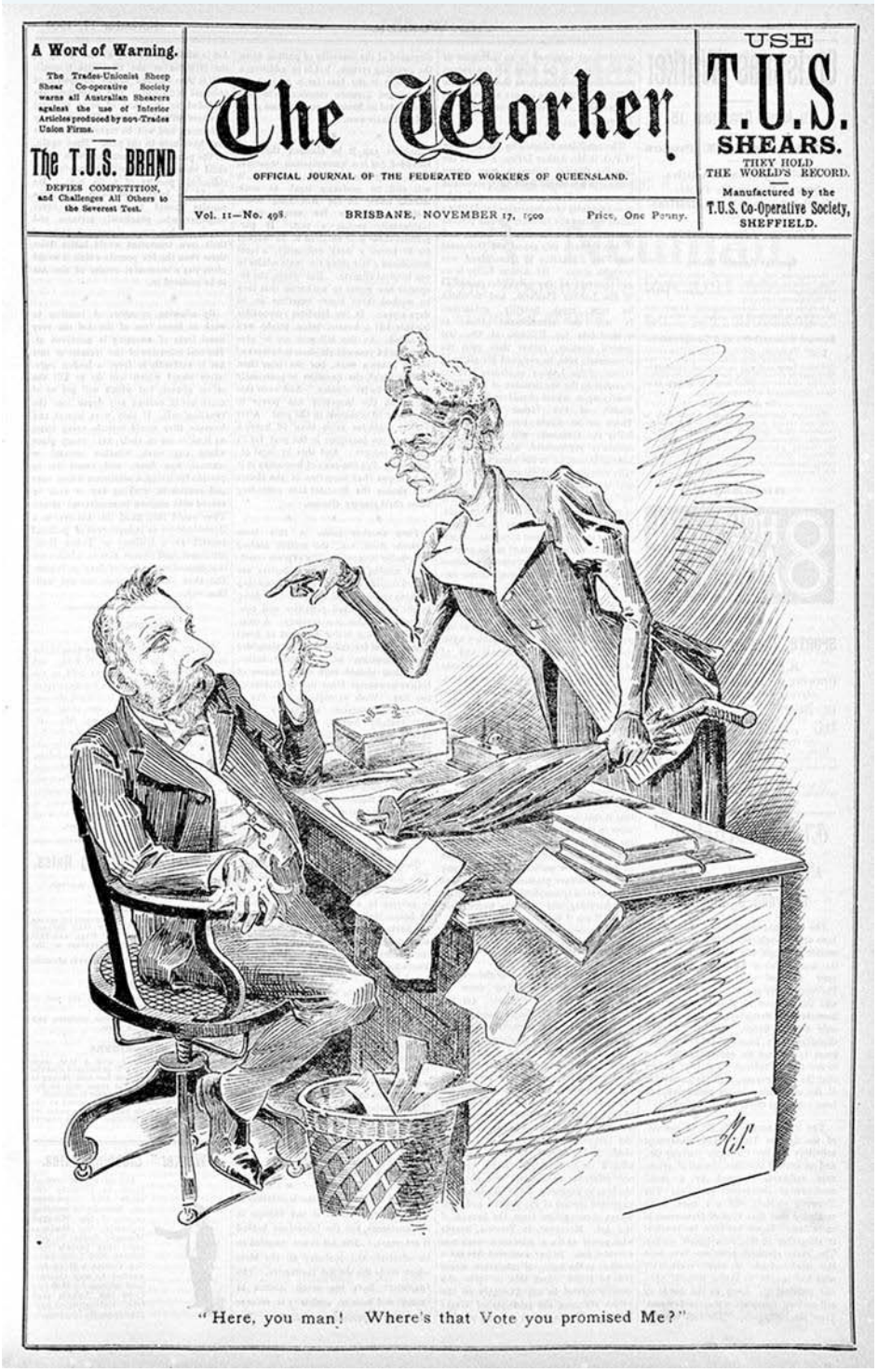


DID YOU KNOW?

Vida Goldstein supported trade unions and **socialism**. During World War I, she campaigned for peace despite losing many supporters. She died in 1949. An electorate in Melbourne is now named after her.

Some newspapers and publications portrayed women who campaigned for voting rights as ugly, unmarried and aggressive, suggesting in a rather obvious way that they were not really 'feminine'. Others portrayed women as too innocent or naive to use their vote responsibly or simply ridiculed the idea.

SOURCE 3 *Here, you man! Where's that vote you promised me?* This cartoon was published in *The Worker*, a Queensland trade union newspaper, on 17 November 1900. The woman probably represents Emma Miller, a prominent Queensland feminist of the time, while the man she is intimidating is the unsympathetic Robert Philp, the Queensland premier.



A Word of Warning.

The Trades-Unionist Sheep Shear Co-operative Society warns all Australian Shearers against the use of Inferior Articles produced by non-Trades Union Firms.

The T.U.S. BRAND

DEFIES COMPETITION, and Challenges All Others to the Severest Test.

The Worker

OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE FEDERATED WORKERS OF QUEENSLAND.

Vol. II—No. 498. BRISBANE, NOVEMBER 17, 1900 Price, One Penny.

USE T.U.S. SHEARS.

THEY HOLD THE WORLD'S RECORD.

Manufactured by the T.U.S. Co-Operative Society, SHEFFIELD.

"Here, you man! Where's that Vote you promised Me?"

SOURCE 4 The Queensland premier, Robert Philp, was one of the opponents of votes for women. Here he is being portrayed as a butcher of democracy, published in *The Worker*, 11 August 1900.

SOURCE 5 The Victorian woman: 'We demand our votes. We will have 'em.' The Conservative Party: 'I assure you they're very unbecoming, ma'am. Just look at Miss South Australia there!'
'A question of propriety', *The Critic*, 26 August 1899

6.11 ACTIVITY

Find some modern sources on women's wages and political representation in Australia. Has Vida Goldstein's vision of 'complete equality of women with men' been achieved? **Identifying continuity and change**

6.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Outline the social inequalities that existed between the sexes during the nineteenth century.
2. **HS1** Apart from women fruit pickers, who received equal pay, what proportion of men's pay did women generally receive in the early twentieth century?
3. **HS1** Identify the reasons that women campaigned for the right to vote.
4. **HS2** Create a timeline showing in which year each of the Australian states granted women the right to vote.
5. **HS1** Identify the ways that Vida Goldstein worked to improve Australian society.
6. **HS1** Explain why some people opposed giving women the vote.

6.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe the message of **SOURCE 1**. Is it convincing?
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 3, 4** and **5**. Explain how the campaign for women's votes has been represented in these cartoons.
3. **HS3** Identify what **SOURCES 3, 4** and **5** reveal about attitudes at the time. Explain how each source might help us understand the debate over women's suffrage.
4. **HS3** Describe the ways in which Queensland premier, Robert Philp, is depicted in **SOURCES 3** and **4**.
5. **HS6** Outline Vida Goldstein's contribution to the female suffrage movement. How significant was her role in achieving women's right to vote in Australia? Explain your view.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.12 Federation

6.12.1 Why federate?

By 1880, the six British colonies were getting closer to merging as one nation. For the next 20 years, the issue of **federation** dominated political discussion between the colonies until, on 1 January 1901, the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed.

Between 1855 and 1860 all colonies except Western Australia had their own governments. They governed independently of each other. For instance, laws concerning trade and **tariffs**, postal services, railway line widths, internal telegraph systems and defence forces differed from colony to colony.

These differences caused many frustrations, especially for those conducting business. Mindful of this, politicians began debating the pros and cons of having a government for the whole country that had some common functions and laws, while allowing certain powers to remain with the colonies.

The reasons for federation are quite complex and certain factors were important at different stages of the process. Historians disagree about what was really important in moving Australia towards nationhood. Some argue the process is still going.

National defence

By the 1880s, three security issues worried the colonial governments in Australia:

1. The French had been interested in the country from the 1770s, and had a colonial presence in New Caledonia. This was close enough to the Australian east coast for French warships to create problems if relations between Britain and France ever worsened.
2. Germany had established colonial outposts in Northern New Guinea and Samoa, posing a potential threat to colonial sea routes.
3. Russia's Pacific Fleet especially was a potential threat after the **Crimean War**. Fortifications had been built to protect many Australian ports and harbours.

A unified defence force seemed to offer advantages, though most Australians (and the governments) looked to Britain to defend Australia in time of danger.

Immigration concerns

There was continued concern about the possibility of a large number of non-Europeans coming into the country. The experience of the gold rushes had made many wary of the Chinese. When South Sea Islanders were brought into Queensland, many colonists feared this meant they would lose jobs or have reduced wages. This unrest allowed politicians to argue for a national policy controlling immigration. Different groups promoted the idea of a white Australia for different reasons. The newly formed labour parties were particularly strong in their opposition to non-European migration, fearing that anyone willing to work for lower wages (or anyone able to be easily exploited by employers) would drive down wages for all working Australians.

Vision of unity

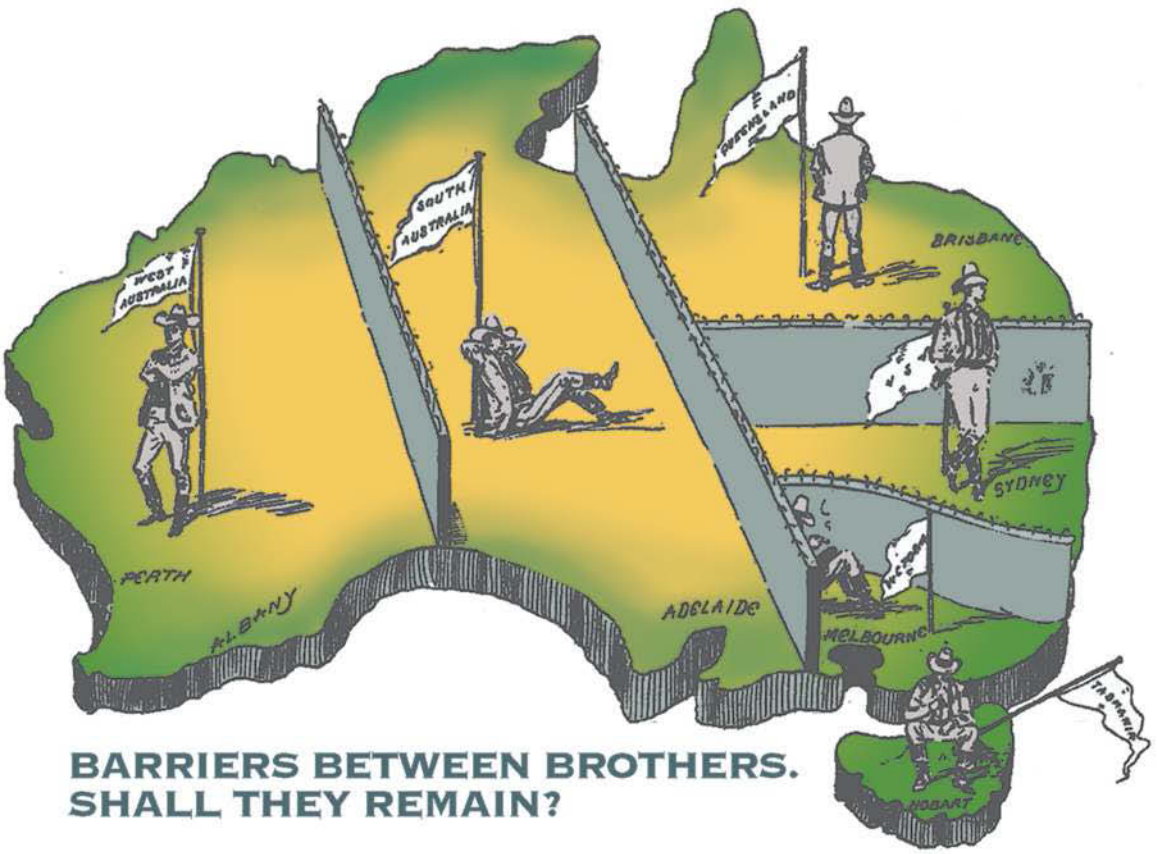
Some Australians believed that federation was a national destiny. One of the leaders of the movement was the young lawyer Alfred Deakin. It was his view that each Australian was an 'independent Australian Briton' and that federation represented 'the highest development of the possibilities of self-government.' Without unity, he argued, 'we find ourselves hampered in commerce, restricted in influence, weakened in prestige'. Another leader was the ambitious and talented Isaac Isaacs from Victoria who claimed that he looked forward to the day when he could say, because of federation, 'I am an Australian'. The impending new century promised a new age of improvement, modernity, and optimism. Australian nationhood was influenced by those ideals.

Other benefits

There were also practical concerns, many of them offering economic benefits. The width of railway lines differed between colonies. This meant people had to change trains and goods had to be transferred from one train to another at the borders. It was also argued that a common railway gauge would be vital in any military crisis. Custom duties at state borders were also inconvenient, time consuming and costly. The 1890s depression had been particularly severe in some states (like Victoria) and many believed that a united economy would be stronger.

As the population grew, the demand for reliable, coordinated postal and telegraph services strengthened. Only a national government could guarantee this.

SOURCE 1 This 1891 newspaper cartoon (with colour added) summed up the way many people saw the colonies at the time. The 'stone walls' were more than just custom duties, though. There were many other factors separating the colonies.



6.12.2 Countdown to federation

A: Federal Council meets

1886

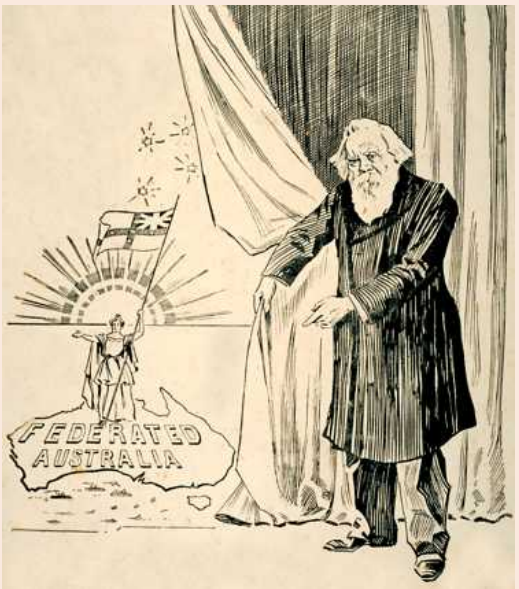
- The Federal Council of Australasia was set up, and a meeting attended by delegates from all six colonies, and from New Zealand and Fiji.
- The main purpose of the meeting was to agree to ask Britain to guarantee it would defend the colonies if they were ever threatened.

B: Henry Parkes talks to Tenterfield locals

1889

- Sir Henry Parkes (1815–1896), an outspoken and controversial politician, was a prominent supporter of federation.
- He was premier of New South Wales five times.
- In August 1889, en route to Sydney from Brisbane by train, he stopped in Tenterfield. He spoke to a hall full of locals at a function, challenging them (and all colonists) to think 'national'.

' ... I do see very clearly that there may come a time and that time not very remote, when the Australian colonies may be brought more into the position of one great and united people. We should have an outline of Empire, such as we could never hope for as isolated colonies, and our place would be admitted in the rank of nations.'



C: A national constitution drafted

1891

- By the 1890s, it was increasingly apparent to politicians and businessmen that colonists shared a common language and values. A national identity was emerging.
- The Australasian Convention was held, attended by leading politicians from the six colonies and from New Zealand. The purpose was to draft a national constitution.
- The draft for a constitution proposed a federal government and state governments, free trade between the colonies and a national defence force. However, due to the 1890s depression and strikes, the federation issue was put aside.

D: The Corowa conference

1893

- Economic issues were the focus at this conference of politicians and businessmen.
- The issue discussed most fiercely was the import/export tariffs each colony imposed. People and goods on trains were searched at borders, as a change of train was required, to ensure no smuggling was taking place and that appropriate customs duties were paid.
- Delegate Quick from Victoria proposed that colonial governments ask their voters to elect representatives for a Federal Constitutional Convention.

E: Federal constitutional convention

1897–98

- From this convention (attended by representatives from colonies chosen by the people), a draft constitution was taken back to the five colonial governments. The draft plan saw a two-house federal Parliament with an upper house of review that would represent states equally and protect rights.
- Delegates re-assembled in Sydney in September (and again in January 1898 in Melbourne) to consider amendments from the colonial parliaments. Free trade between states, and the national management of immigration and defence were key issues.
- On 16 March 1898, the convention agreed on a draft constitution to be put to the voters of all colonies. (Western Australian and Queensland parliaments were still to agree at this point.)

F: The referendum

April 1899 to July 1900

- Votes were cast. After some re-votes and a delayed vote in Western Australia, the referendum was completed by July 1900. The majority of voters gave their support for a national government, the Commonwealth of Australia, to be set up in line with the terms laid out in the draft constitution. The results of the vote in each colony are shown in the following table.
- State (formerly colonial) constitutions were recognised in the proposed federal constitution; however, federal laws would overrule any state law where there was a common issue.

The referendum result:

- A majority of votes were cast for federation but only 61 per cent of those who had the right to vote took part. So, in fact, less than half the colony's voters actually voted for federation. This demonstrates that many Australians were confused or uncertain about its meaning.

Referendum vote on the Commonwealth Bill, 1899–1900

Name of colony	Date	Yes	No	Total
New South Wales	20.6.1899	107 420	82 741	190 161
Victoria	27.7.1899	152 653	9805	162 458
Tasmania	—	13 437	791	14 228
South Australia	29.4.1899	65 990	17 053	83 043
Northern Territory	6.5.1899			
Queensland	2.10.1899	38 488	30 996	69 484
Western Australia	31.7.1900	44 800	19 691	64 491
Total		422 788	161 077	583 865

G: Australia becomes a nation

1900

- A group of delegates (one notable politician from each colony) travelled to London to have the draft constitution passed by the British Parliament. The British State Secretary responsible for colonies wanted to make amendments but the delegates stood firm.
- The Australian Constitution was passed by the British Parliament, with the British monarch, Queen Victoria, giving it royal assent on 9 July 1900. It set out the rules and principles for governing Australia and outlined the powers of the federal Parliament and some powers of state parliaments.

SOURCE 2 The badge of the Australian Federation League of New South Wales between 1898 and 1901

H: Federation

1901

- The Governor-General, representing Queen Victoria, swore in Sir Edmund Barton and eight chosen ministers on 1 January 1901. (They would act as a caretaker government until the first national elections could be held in March 1901.)
- After this swearing in, the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed by Sir Edmund Barton in Centennial Park, Sydney.
- All over Australia on 1 January 1901 there were celebrations. Public buildings were decorated and special arches built over city thoroughfares. There were parties, dances and sports meetings. In the evening, the action continued with fireworks displays.
- The Commonwealth of Australia now existed. However, it was still a **British Dominion**. Australia's allegiance to the British monarch was indicated by the role of the Governor-General, who represented the monarch.

SOURCE 3 Queen Victoria's royal assent for the creation of the Commonwealth of Australia in September 1900

Commonwealth of Australia Gazette.

PUBLISHED BY AUTHORITY.

No. 1.] TUESDAY, 1 JANUARY. [1901.

By the QUEEN.

A PROCLAMATION.

VICTORIA R.

WHEREAS by an Act of Parliament passed in the Sixty-third and Sixty-fourth Years of Our Reign intituled, "An Act to constitute the Commonwealth of *Australia*," it is enacted that it shall be lawful for the Queen, with the advice of the Privy Council, to declare by Proclamation, that, on and after a day therein appointed, not being later than One Year after the passing of this Act, the people of *New South Wales*, *Victoria*, *South Australia*, *Queensland*, and *Tasmania*, and also, if Her Majesty is satisfied that the people of *Western Australia* have agreed thereto, of *Western Australia*, shall be united in a Federal Commonwealth under the name of the Commonwealth of Australia.

And whereas We are satisfied that the people of *Western Australia* have agreed thereto accordingly.

We, therefore, by and with the advice of Our Privy Council, have thought fit to issue this Our Royal Proclamation, and We do hereby declare that on and after the First day of *January* One thousand nine hundred and one the people of *New South Wales*, *Victoria*, *South Australia*, *Queensland*, *Tasmania*, and *Western Australia* shall be united in a Federal Commonwealth under the name of the Commonwealth of *Australia*.

Given at Our Court at *Balmoral*, this Seventeenth day of *September*, in the Year of our Lord One thousand nine hundred, and in the Sixty-fourth Year of Our Reign.

GOD SAVE THE QUEEN!

6.12.3 Since 1901

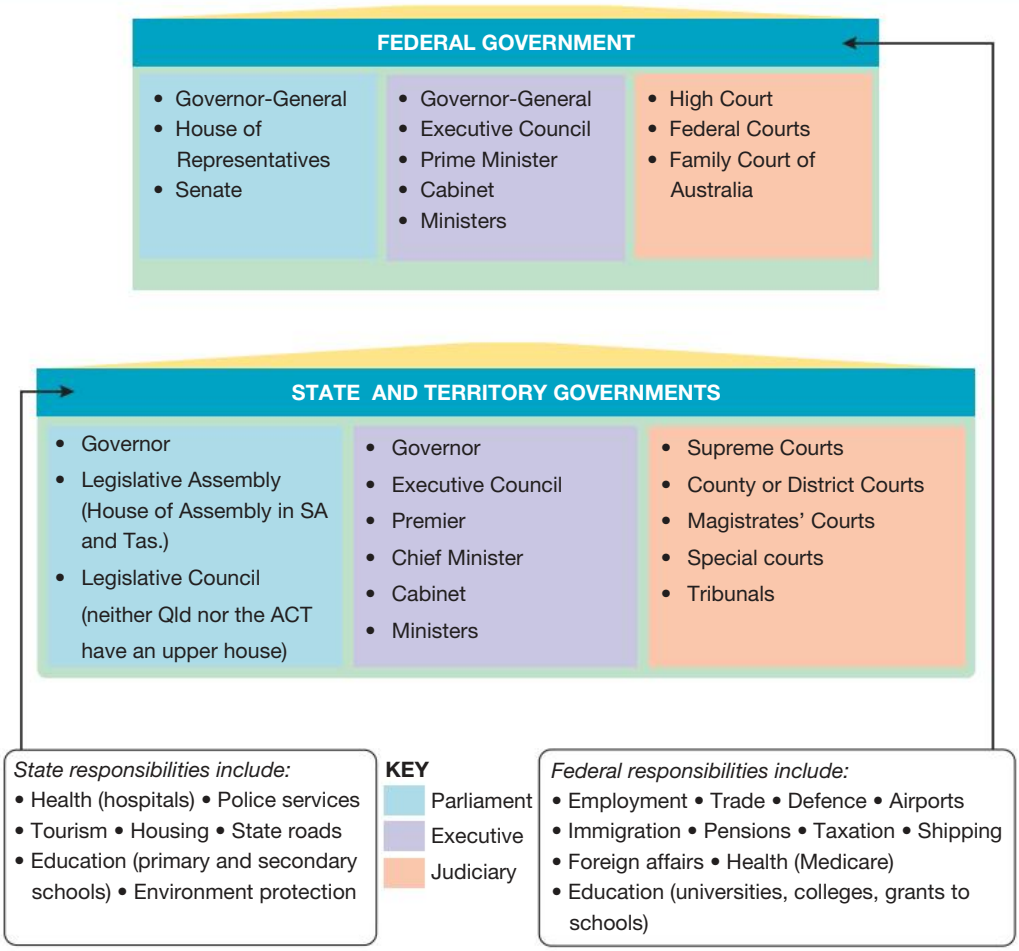
Australia ceased being a British Dominion in 1941, and the last legal ties were severed with Britain in 1986. But Australia still has the British monarch's representative, the Governor-General, giving royal assent (approval) to all federal laws.

The Australian Constitution can be changed only by a referendum and then only if the majority of voters *and* the majority of states vote for the proposed change to the Constitution.

One of the important challenges for Australians in the future is whether our country will become a republic, with possibly a new constitution, flag and bill of rights.

SOURCE 4 The opening of the first Commonwealth Parliament at the Exhibition Building, Melbourne, 9 May 1901

SOURCE 5 Federal government and state governments in Australia today, as described under the Constitution



DISCUSS

What aspects of our history should we be proud of? What parts of our history should we regret? If you were the Australian prime minister, what would be your priorities for our nation?

[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]

6.12 ACTIVITIES

1. In pairs or small groups, compile a scrapbook of sources about how Australians celebrated the achievement of federation. For each source, identify what it reveals about Australians' attitudes and values and explain why you have chosen it. Then answer the question, 'What does the celebration of federation tell us about Australia in 1901?' Use the sources in your answer. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. Locate some other sources and accounts related to federation. How important were ideals of unity and progress? Use evidence to support your point of view. **Analysing cause and effect**

6.12 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.12 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Make a list of the reasons for the move to federation.
2. **HS1** Explain why so few people voted in the final referendum. Why did it still pass?
3. **HS1** Who authorised the Australian Constitution?
4. **HS1** What does the Constitution actually do?
5. **HS1** Identify three important responsibilities of state governments.
6. **HS1** Identify three important responsibilities of the federal government.

6.12 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain whether **SOURCE 1** is supportive or critical of the federation movement.
2. **HS6** Explain the significance of Henry Parkes in the movement for federation.
3. **HS2** Create a timeline to visually represent the stages in the countdown to federation.
4. **HS6** Summarise the key concerns that led to support for federation. Which of these do you think would have held most weight at the time? Explain your view.
5. **HS6** Examine the 'Countdown to federation' and identify three of the most important events in the move towards federation. Write two or three sentences for each event that explain why you chose it.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.13 The early Commonwealth

6.13.1 Working-class living conditions

The naming of the Australian nation as a 'Commonwealth' was initially controversial. Many Australians did not understand what it really meant but the writers of the Constitution certainly did. It evoked the ideal of working for the common good. All citizens and their governments would be committed to the pursuit of a kinder, fairer and safer Australia. It would be a nation free of racial or religious conflict; it would be a nation that resolved disputes between workers and their employers fairly and justly; it would be an innovative and optimistic nation. These ideals can be seen in the actions of the early Commonwealth.

One of the highest priorities for the new nation was improving the living and working conditions of most Australians. In 1901 Australia's population of less than 4 million was mostly concentrated in New South Wales and Victoria. Thirty-six per cent of the New South Wales population lived in Sydney and forty-one per cent of Victoria's population lived in Melbourne. In working-class inner-city suburbs many people lived

in rows of cramped slums near factories. Semi-skilled and unskilled workers rarely earned enough to buy houses, so most paid rent all their lives for cramped dwellings that were overcrowded and unhealthy. In contrast, wealthier suburbs had large houses with spacious grounds. There was an equally wide disparity in living standards in the bush. People talked about Australia as a 'working man's paradise' but for many the harsh realities of their lives were a long way from the Garden of Eden.

SOURCE 1 From Irene Moores, 'Rabbit-O, Bottle-O, Pennies from Heaven: Hugo Street, 1909', *Sydney Morning Herald*, 23 January 1982

Forty cramped terraces ranged on each side ... their balconies overhanging the absurdly narrow footpaths ... Each day began with the sloshing of the houses' sills with buckets of water. This cleansed away the sooty factory outfall ... A good meal could be made with the addition of waste vegetables — outsize cabbage leaves and such, salvaged from the markets and brought home in billy-carts ...

The shopkeepers adjusted to the sale of commodities in the smallest amounts. Deftly-folded paper cones held the [small] weightings of sugar, salt, flour, rice, sago and the quarter-pound package of tea, butter, cheese and cold meats comprising one meal at a time ...

At the end of the day a sickly street lamp lit the stage for each night's unpredictable drama. Invariably, arranged fights took place in the lanes.

Despite such inequalities, skilled workers enjoyed better pay and conditions than workers in Britain, Europe or America. Many less skilled employees worked long hours for low pay but Australia led the world in working conditions, industrial relations and social welfare.

SOURCE 2 Slum housing in Gloucester Street, Sydney, in 1900

6.13.2 A safer, kinder and fairer Australia?

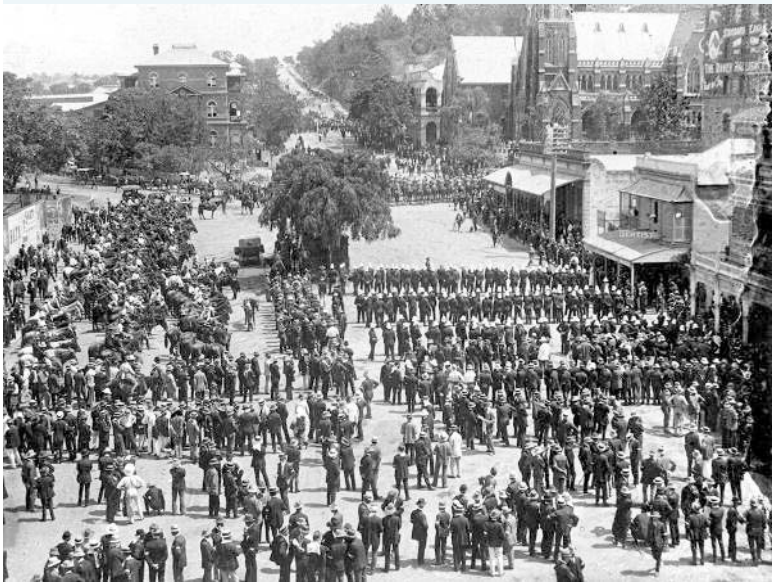
Reforms were possible because this was a time of economic growth. Australia was a big exporter of primary products such as wheat, wool and frozen meat. Manufacturing was a small part of the economy except in Victoria and New South Wales, where the factory workforce grew from 132 000 to 239 000 between 1901 and 1913. This contributed to the growth of cities. But Australian manufacturing could not compete with cheaper imported goods and depended on government tariffs for protection against foreign competition.

After federation, a series of different governments tried to bring about industrial and welfare reforms. Such reforms included:

- the creation of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration in 1904 to solve disputes between workers and employers
- the establishment in 1907 of the principle of a basic wage or minimum wage, to which any male worker should be entitled (see Did you know? box). Australian wages were based on this principle for the next 60 years.
- the introduction of Commonwealth old-age and invalid pensions in 1908
- the payment of compensation for federal government employees injured at work (from 1912)
- the *Maternity Allowances Act 1912*, or 'Baby Bonus', which provided a payment roughly equal to two weeks' pay to a mother on the birth of her child to make sure she could afford proper medical attention.

Despite the reforms, workers still suffered disadvantages and there were many industrial disputes. Rising prices resulted in several big strikes. In some cases the unions won their demands, but the experiences of these years left many workers disillusioned.

SOURCE 3 Protesting workers in Albert Square, Brisbane, during the 1912 general strike. The strike lasted 18 days. It began when the Tramways Company refused to permit workers to wear their union badges.



DID YOU KNOW?

The idea of the basic wage came about in 1907 when Justice Higgins of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration had to determine whether H.V. McKay's Sunshine Harvester Company was paying a fair wage and was therefore entitled to be protected by tariffs. Higgins decided that a fair minimum wage would provide for 'the normal needs of the average employee regarded as a human being living in a civilised community'. Higgins determined that this meant a wage of 7 shillings a day for an unskilled male worker. A skilled worker had to be paid more, while women were condemned to receive less than half the male wage for the same work.

Political parties and reforms

The ALP was one of the main influences behind the various industrial and welfare reforms. The two non-Labor parties were the Protectionists and the Free Traders (who changed their name to Anti-Socialists in 1906). Australia's first two prime ministers, Edmund Barton and Andrew Deakin, were Protectionists. These two parties differed over the issue of free trade versus protection. Until 1908 the Protectionists supported the ALP to achieve social reforms and Labor supported the Protectionists when they wanted to increase tariffs on imported goods. Both Labor and the Protectionists linked protection of Australian manufacturing employers to protection of Australian workers.

This cooperation ended in 1909 when the Anti-Socialists combined with the Protectionists to form the Liberal Party. The new party opposed further social reform. Reforms carried out between 1910 and 1913 were the work of a federal Labor government.

SOURCE 4 From Albert Metin, a Frenchman who visited Australia at the turn of the century

The Australian workman has become a Gentleman ... He changes out of his working clothes at the end of the day, he lodges well, he behaves like a member of decent society. If he has to go to a meeting he will be freshly shaved, neatly dressed and conscious of his appearance ... Many keen Labour men say grace at every meal ... Everyone can read and libraries are plentiful ... Cricket, football, sports of all kinds have their exponents ... I was in Melbourne and Sydney at the time of one test [cricket] series and the crowds waiting for the results were nearly as large as those waiting for the result of a federation referendum which was being decided at the same moment.

6.13.3 Lifestyles and leisure

There were enormous differences between the early 1900s and the way we live today. Most working-class people had little time or money for recreation, and there were few labour-saving devices for housework. The main recreation of many men was drinking in hotels. More respectable forms of entertainment included family picnics, short train and ferry trips, dancing, sing-songs around the piano and sporting events, especially cricket and football.

One recreational pursuit that became increasingly popular in the new century was going to the beach. As nineteenth-century Australians looked towards the bush and its characters for inspiration, the 'modern' citizen turned to the sand and the surf. While 'surf-bathing' was initially seen as a loutish or vulgar pastime, in the early 1900s the beach became the place where city dwellers might be endowed with life, health and vigour. In 1907 one Sydney paper described bathers at Bondi Beach as 'decidedly handsome, Roman centurions'. The beach also represented a democratic recreation, free and open to all; a kind of sandy egalitarianism.

SOURCE 5 Surf bathing at Manly beach, Sydney, c. 1905

Some technological changes were also starting to affect Australians' lives. People with enough money could send telegrams, have gas lights in their homes, travel by steamship and even ride in motor cars. Air travel was only just beginning, with experiments conducted in 1903. The film industry was also in its infancy but the world's first feature film, *The Story of the Kelly Gang*, was made in Australia in 1906. Another popular pursuit had begun.

6.13.4 Federal laws and white Australia

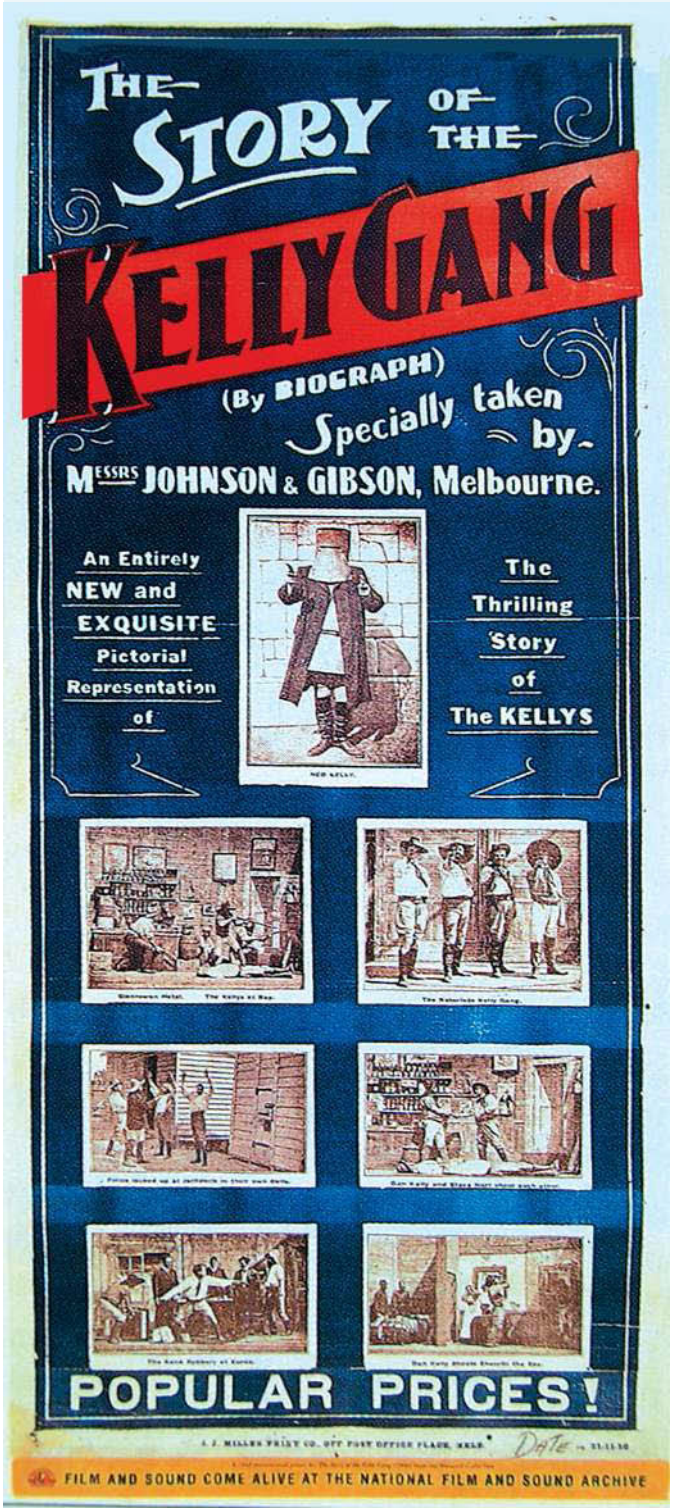
One of the first laws passed by the federal government was the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*. It was designed to prevent non-European migrants from coming to Australia. Under this law, anyone that the government wanted to keep out could be given a dictation test in any language. No matter how many languages an intending migrant knew, officials could always give the test in another language the person did not know. Non-Europeans continued to be admitted to Australia but the Act gave the government important powers to restrict numbers or refuse individuals.

The *Pacific Island Labourers Act* was also passed in 1901. It allowed the Commonwealth Government to **deport** Pacific Islanders. Only those who had lived in Australia since 1879 and those born in Australia were allowed to stay. About 10 000 Islanders were living in Australia in 1901. At the end of 1909 only 1654 had been granted permission to remain, though the actual number still in Australia was nearly 2500.

Fear of Asia

Most Australians feared Asia's vast population and closeness to Australia. Australia's small numbers and isolation from its British 'motherland' fuelled these fears. World events such as the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–05 added to these fears. During this conflict Japan defeated Russia. To many white Australians this defeat of a white nation by Asians was unthinkable, even though Japan was Britain's ally. Some wondered whether Britain could be trusted, but they also felt they needed Britain's protection.

SOURCE 6 A 1910 poster for the world's first feature film, *The Story of the Kelly Gang*



6.13 ACTIVITY

Using all the sources in this subtopic, examine the extent to which Australian society was changing at this time. In small groups, find several different sources or accounts from the period. Come together as a whole class and discuss your findings. Comment on whether they contest or corroborate your point of view.

Identifying continuity and change

6.13 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.13 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is the meaning of the term *Commonwealth*?
2. **HS1** What made reforms possible?
3. **HS1** How was 'protection' meant to help Australian manufacturing?
4. **HS1** Explain how Australians benefited from the federal government's early reforms.
5. **HS1** Describe how leisure activities were changing for Australians in the 1900s.
6. **HS1** Identify the powers of the Immigration Restriction Act 1901 and the Pacific Island Labourers Act 1901.
7. **HS1** Explain why Japan's victory over Russia was significant for Australians.

6.13 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Identify three details from **SOURCE 1** that could be used to demonstrate the hardships experienced by some Australians.
2. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCE 2** supports **SOURCE 1**.
3. **HS3** In **SOURCE 4**, identify what it is about the Australian workman that seems to surprise Albert Metin.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 5** and **6**. Identify at least one element in each source that reveals that more Australians were able to enjoy an increasing number of leisure activities in the early 1900s.
5. **HS5** Evaluate the extent to which the new Commonwealth Government was responsible for any changes to Australian society. Try to identify other factors that caused change.
6. **HS6** Was Australia really a 'working man's paradise' by 1914? Give reasons to support your point of view.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.14 Thinking Big research project: The Federation Game

online only

SCENARIO

After a decade of robust campaigning and many compromises, on 1 January 1901 the six British colonies in Australia became a Federation. You will develop a game to celebrate the great achievement of federation and the birth of Australia. Your game should be designed to help you remember the key events, personalities, issues and challenges of the journey to federation.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: The Federation Game (pro-0185)

6.15 Review

online only

6.15.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

6.15.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31706)
Crossword (doc-31707)

Interactivity Australia (1750–1918): From colonies to nationhood crossword (int-7640)

KEY TERMS

affiliated unions unions linked with other unions through a wider umbrella organisation
Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) the peak union organisation in Australia
bookkeeping keeping records of financial accounts
British Dominion a self-governing territory belonging to the British Empire
cesspits pits into which householders with no toilets could empty their waste, which was later collected by workers known as nightmen
Crimean War war fought between Britain and its allies and Russia, 1853–56
deport to forcibly remove someone from a country
dummies people secretly acting for squatters, who selected land and later sold it to the squatters
egalitarian believing in equality
federation movement of colonies to form a nation
grazing pasture to feed cows and sheep
impound to confiscate
minority government a government that has fewer than half the seats in a lower house of parliament
parliamentary representation the representation of people's views and interests in parliament through elected delegates
peacocking buying up land around creeks and rivers to make the rest of the area useless to selectors
republicanism the belief that a country should be a republic (where the country has an elected or appointed head of state), not a monarchy (where the head of state is a king or queen)
shilling a unit of Australian currency until decimal currency was introduced. There were 12 pence to a shilling and 20 shillings to a pound.
socialism a political system in which the government controls the economy to ensure greater equality
stockade a fortified enclosure
suffrage the right to vote
sweated labour workers exploited by being made to work for long hours and with low pay
tariff a duty charged on imports
telegraph device for sending messages over long distances

6.10 SkillBuilder: Analysing cartoons

6.10.1 Tell me

Historical sources help us understand the way people in the past thought and felt about their lives. The way we evaluate these sources shapes our understanding of the past.

Analysing cartoons as evidence

Artworks, photographs and illustrations all tell us useful things about the values, attitudes and beliefs of people in the past. Political cartoons can be powerful evidence of how people thought and felt about their lives. In the nineteenth century, most cartoons were ink drawings created for newspapers or magazines to provide humorous or critical comment on current events and issues. (Some of the best cartoons were able to both amuse and inform.) *The Bulletin* often used cartoons to promote ideas about republicanism, White Australia, the 'bush ethos', nationalism and trade unionism. Some of the strongest political cartoons appeared in trade union newspapers such as *The Sydney Worker* or the Victorian *Champion*.

Interrogating the source

Care should be taken when analysing any historical source. You should always be prepared to ask questions about them. In relation to primary sources like political cartoons, these questions might be:

- How many people read the publications?
- What were the specific events at the time?
- How typical were these viewpoints of the period?

Remember, it is reasonable to assume that not all readers of a publication would have agreed with the opinions expressed in every image, and that there would be a range of views or perspectives on any one issue.

While cartoons can be very useful sources of evidence, it is important to recognise that they use caricatures of individuals or groups (exaggerating certain characteristics). They also make fun of political figures or draw certain types of people in heroic or critical ways. The cartoons that follow show these techniques.

How to analyse and evaluate a historical source

Step 1

Scan the source for information:

- Who produced it?
- What type of source is it?
- When and where was it created?
- What subject does it discuss?
- What point of view does it put forward?
- How is this point of view conveyed? (Think about the images, text, the use of caricature or stereotypes.)
- What is its purpose and intended audience? (Who was it aimed at? What was it trying to say/what point was it making?)

This **initial analysis** is very important and is an excellent starting point for becoming familiar with the process of analysing political cartoons.

Going further: working like a historian

To analyse a cartoon in more detail you can look at the context, draw conclusions about the source, and think about its value as a historical source. The following steps take you through this more complex analysis.

Step 2

Provide some **context**. This involves looking much more closely at who produced the source, when and where it was made and why it was created.

- What was happening at that time and what are the circumstances that led to the creation of this viewpoint?
- What else do you need to find out about that time period to fully appreciate the value of the source?

Step 3

Begin **drawing conclusions about the source**. This involves thinking about what it suggests about the people, events or issues of the time.

- What does it reveal about the period?
- Can you define the particular perspective the source is presenting?
- What are the source's strengths and weaknesses as evidence?
- Are there any ideas, images or terms that need further exploration?
- Which perspectives are not included?
- Whose views have been left out?

Step 4

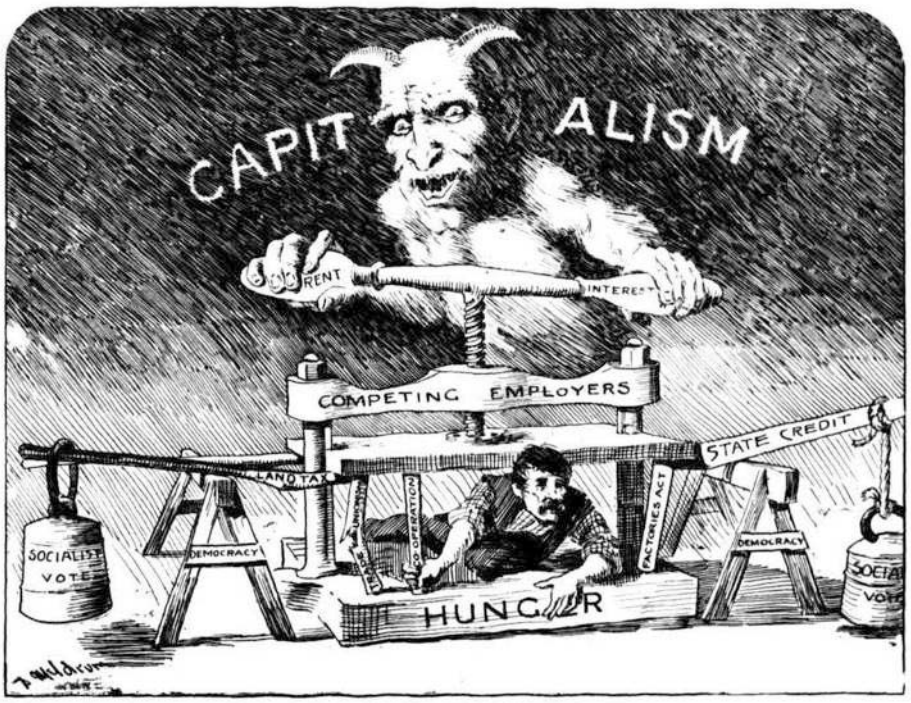
Determine the source's value as evidence. You could start by asking yourself how typical it might be.

- Compare the source with other material from the period, looking for areas of agreement (corroboration) or disagreement (contest). Try to establish the reasons for any similarities or differences.
- Ask yourself how you would use the source as evidence to answer a question about the period.
- What gaps in information have you found?
- What sort of further research is required?

6.10.2 Show me

This process is explored in relation to the **SOURCE 1** cartoon.

SOURCE 1 Ambrose Dyson, 'Our Industrial System', *Champion*, 14 September 1895. Courtesy State Library of Victoria.



OUR INDUSTRIAL SYSTEM.

Step 1

Find out about the past: conduct the **initial analysis**.

- *When and where was it created?*
  This was drawn by Ambrose Dyson and published in *Champion* on 14 September 1895.
- *What subject does it discuss?*
  It is concerned with relations between workers and employers.
- *What point of view does it put forward?*
  It suggests that workers are helpless victims of the strength and greed of competing employers.
- *How is this point of view conveyed? (Think about images, text, caricature or stereotypes.)*
  This is conveyed by the size of the devilish figure of 'capitalism', squeezing the worker flat to the board of 'hunger' with rents and interest rates. The worker's only protection is the weight of the 'socialist vote' and the levers of 'land tax' and 'state credit'.
- *What is its purpose and audience? (Who is it aimed at? What point is it making?)*
  Dyson is essentially saying that 'our industrial system' is unfair and unjust. The cartoon would have been published not only to gain sympathy for workers but also to inspire support for the labour movement and unionism.

Going further: working like a historian

Step 2

Determine context.

- *What was happening at that time and what are the circumstances that led to the creation of this viewpoint?*
  The publication *Champion* was a working-class socialist publication based in Melbourne. Ambrose Dyson was only 19 years old when he drew this cartoon. The power of this cartoon, however, lies in its timing: 1895. This marks the end of the period of major strikes that were a disaster for workers and unions. Working with colonial governments, employers' associations humiliated unions. Troops and police were used in confrontations with workers, non-union 'scab' labour was employed, union membership fell and after four years of economic recession more than a third of all workers in Australian cities were unemployed.
  The sense of helpless workers being crushed by capitalism is clearly expressed. The cartoon's purpose is possibly to create sympathy for workers while criticising the heartless evil of the 'industrial system' that favours the evil of 'capitalism'.

Step 3

Draw conclusions.

- *Can you define the particular perspective the source is presenting?*
  This cartoon is obviously a fairly extreme, bitter image of despair, published in a radical workers' newspaper.
- *What are the source's strengths and weaknesses as evidence?*
  Its strength lies in its depiction of the helplessness and vulnerability of many workers at the time who faced hunger, unemployment and poverty. Its depiction of 'capitalism' as the devil is both a strength and a weakness: it is a strong and memorable image of the ruthless behaviour of employers during the strikes, but its weakness is that it did not reflect the fact that many employers were sympathetic to the workers they employed and did their best to keep on as many as possible.
- *Are there any ideas, images or terms that need further exploration?*
  With so many workers unemployed at the time, it is possible that such sentiments were widespread, but more research is needed to confirm this.
- *Which perspectives are not included? Whose views have been left out?*
  Positive views of the humanity of employers have been omitted; it is a pessimistic view of the place of the worker in society.

Step 4

Determine value.

- *Compare the source with other material from the period, look for areas of agreement (corroboration) or disagreement (contest) and try to establish the reasons for any similarities or differences. Ask yourself how you would use the source as evidence to answer a question about the period.*

  This is obviously one example of working-class despair and pessimism after the great strikes of the 1890s and four years of a severe depression. Its value lies in its expression of the helplessness of workers and the way in which it blames the evil of capitalist employers for their hardships.
- *What gaps in information have you found?*

  We don't know if the attitudes of this cartoon were typical of the decade or limited to 1895.
- *What sort of further research is required?*

  Such an image could be tested by looking at other images of bosses and workers at the time, as well as by considering working-class wages and conditions. You could also consider images produced before the strikes, as well as those made after the formation and early success of the Australian Labor Party.

6.10.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

6.10 ACTIVITIES

1. Using the questions in the Tell me section, and following the example from the analysis of **SOURCE 1**, complete the tasks below for **SOURCES 2** and **3**. Complete step 1, and then if you are completing a more detailed analysis continue to steps 2, 3 and 4.

   Step 1

   Make an initial analysis of each based on the information provided.

   Going further: working like a historian

   Step 2

   Context: find out what you can about who produced it, what was happening at the time and why it was created.

   Step 3

   Draw some conclusions about what the image suggests and whose perspective it is putting forward. What does it reveal or suggest about the period?

   Step 4

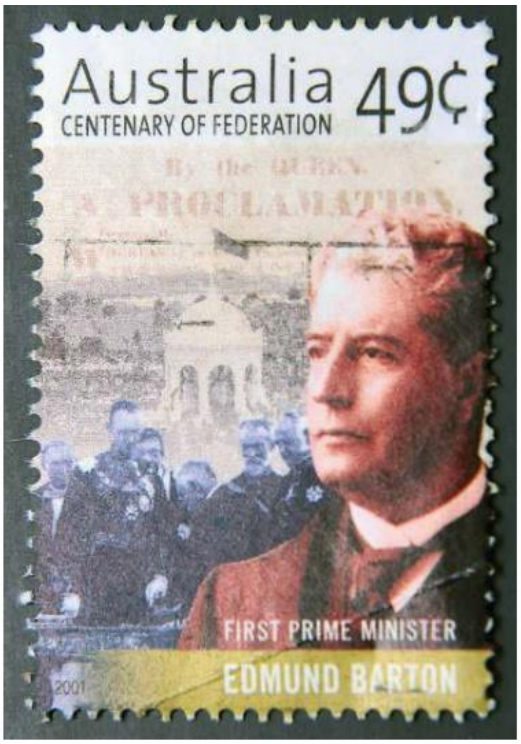
   Determine its value as evidence: how does it compare with the other sources, including **SOURCE 1**? What are the differences and similarities in the way it presents employers, workers and their relationships? How is it useful as evidence?
2. Based on what you have learned in this SkillBuilder, apply your skill in analysing cartoons to answer the following questions.
   (a) What do these images suggest about relations between employers and workers?
   (b) What conclusions can you draw about how workers thought of themselves?
   (c) How do these cartoons add to our understanding of the results of the strikes of the 1890s?
   (d) How might employers have felt when these cartoons were published? Do you think that cartoons like this are effective in putting forward ideas?

SOURCE 2 Livingstone Hopkins, 'The Labour Crisis', *Bulletin*, 16 August 1890. Courtesy Monash University **Library** Rare Books. This cartoon was on the cover of the *Bulletin* in the month the strikes began. 'Capital: "See here, my man, one of us must either go back or else lie down and let the other walk over him. Now which of us shall it be?" (And that is now the question.)'

SOURCE 3 Lionel Lindsay, 'The Forge', *Tocsin*, 21 October 1897. Courtesy State Library of Victoria. The optimism and strength of the worker has returned. Increasing union membership and the formation and success of the Labour Party has had an influence. Nevertheless, there would have been very few blacksmiths still in operation in 1897.

6.14 Thinking Big research project: The Federation Game

Scenario



On 1 January 1901, the six British colonies in Australia became a federation. Edmund Barton was sworn in as the new nation's first prime minister. Australia's first Federal Parliament met on 9 May 1901 to begin the task of drafting the laws for the new nation. Federation was a victory over the many political, economic and social differences that had increasingly divided the colonies from the time of the first European settlement. Federation was finally achieved after a decade of robust campaigning, countless public meetings and many compromises.

There were many issues standing in the way of unity and nationhood. Strong loyalties to specific colonies meant that many people identified as either Tasmanians, New South Welshmen or Queenslanders rather than as Australians. In referendums held in 1898 and 1899 the public was asked to vote 'Yes' or 'No' to a proposed Australian constitution. In the 1898 referendum less than half the eligible voters bothered to even participate, showing a total lack of interest in the process of nation building. The question of free trade or 'protection' divided New South Wales and Victoria; New South Wales politicians believed Sydney should be the nation's new capital while those in Victoria thought it should be Melbourne; the other colonies believed it should be neither of those cities. Even the railway networks between Victoria and New South Wales were divided by the different gauges of the railway tracks.

Despite the many sources of opposition to federation, at the beginning of the new century Australia succeeded in becoming the only nation on Earth to occupy a whole continent. Ahead lay the great task of building a new nation, beginning with the creation of symbols to represent Australia; a flag, a coat of arms, a currency, postage stamps and a national capital.

Task

Your task is to develop a game to celebrate the great achievement of federation and the birth of Australia. Your game should be designed to help you remember the key events, personalities, issues and challenges of the journey to federation.

You will need to decide what format you will use to create your Federation Game. You may choose a card game based on questions and answers. To help you gather design ideas, find out the rules of games such as Snap, Bingo or Concentration, and how they could be adapted to a test of federation knowledge. You could design your pack of cards to have matching pairs based on dates matching events, personalities matching faces, issues and questions matching answers. Alternatively, you may design your Federation Game using the model of a board game such as Trivial Pursuit or Snakes and Ladders. The snakes and ladders could become question card opportunities, with a correct answer sending a player up a ladder, and an incorrect response sending a player down a snake. The important thing is to create an interesting and engaging game that will test players' knowledge of the history of the federation.

Process

- Open the ProjectsPLUS application in the Resources for this topic. Click on the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group with a partner to allow you to work collaboratively. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- With your partner you will conduct your research of the factual details and develop the design of your game. Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the research forum if you wish. This is where the creation of your Federation Game begins!
- Start your research by revisiting the content in this topic to ensure you are familiar with the key events, personalities and issues of this period in Australia's history.

- Locate other sources of information and images to add depth to your knowledge of this topic. Research the most significant events and obstacles to federation, and the order in which they occurred. Construct a timeline from your research so that you have a clear chronology of events, then add information about the inspirational and influential personalities who had a major role in shaping the birth of our new nation.
- Add your research notes chronologically and under headings in the relevant topic pages in the Research forum. You can view, share and comment on your partner's research findings. Be sure to enter the source details for any additional information you find online or through other sources. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered, if you wish.
- Research a range of game ideas to establish how you can most creatively develop an engaging and fun way of remembering federation facts and ideas. You could create your game with cardboard cards and a playing board, or you may choose to construct your game digitally. The choice is yours. Remember to create a 'How to play' instruction sheet to accompany your game.
- When complete, present your game to other members of your class. You may like to conduct a 'games day' to provide an opportunity for everyone to enjoy learning more about this pivotal period in Australia's history.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: The Federation Game (pro-0185)

6.15 Review

6.15.1 Key knowledge summary

6.2 Examining the evidence

- In the late nineteenth century, newspapers were the only form of mass media; they now provide historians with valuable sources.
- Other useful sources include paintings, drawings, cartoons and sketches.
- Cartoons can reveal a lot about popular attitudes and opinions.
- Photography provides a new and different source of evidence in this period.

6.3 Towards democracy: Eureka and political rights

- In 1851, gold was discovered in New South Wales and Victoria.
- The Victorian gold rushes were extensive and hundreds of thousands of hopeful migrants came to Australia.
- The population in Victoria increased seven times and its economy grew significantly, transforming it into one of the most famous places in the world.
- The Victorian government imposed a heavy licence fee on every miner. It was hugely unpopular and caused immediate protest.
- There were three years of clashes over the licence fee and its collection by police, culminating in a rebellion at Ballarat.
- Miners erected a stockade at Eureka and swore allegiance to a new flag: the Southern Cross.
- After three days of tension, troops and police attacked the stockade, killing at least 27 miners. Six troops also died.
- As a result, the licence fee was abolished and replaced with a 'miner's right' and an export duty on gold.

6.4 Whose Australia? Free selectors vs squatters

- Selection Acts were introduced to give ordinary people access to land and independence.
- The Acts failed as squatters used their wealth and education to work around the system.
- This condemned many small landholders to lives of poverty on unproductive small plots of land.

6.5 An Australian legend

- The Kellys were one of the many families struggling to survive on a selection in rural Victoria.
- Ned Kelly became Australia's last and most famous outlaw, enjoying popular support.
- When Kelly killed three policemen at Stringybark Creek, he triggered a police hunt across Victoria and New South Wales that lasted nearly two years.
- A final confrontation at Glenrowan saw Kelly captured and the three other members of his gang killed, two of them teenagers.
- Kelly was sentenced to hang on 11 November 1880.

6.6 Marvellous Melbourne: a city giant

- Many people from rural communities drifted to major cities to improve their lives.
- Many went to Melbourne, whose growth and splendour made the city world famous.
- Sustained economic growth of the 1890s and the substantial increase in population brought significant development and business to the bustling and energetic city.
- Wealthy residents paraded their success and status on city streets and much of Melbourne was rebuilt in a grand and decorative style.
- However, petty crime, the lack of proper sewerage, and high rates of disease made city living hazardous for some.

6.7 Working in cities and towns

- Life was still very difficult for many ordinary city workers.
- Factories were cramped and often uncomfortable or dangerous, working hours were long, and large numbers of children were employed, for very low wages.

- There was little security for the elderly or the sick.
- Those who worked as servants of the wealthier classes were particularly vulnerable, though a shortage of domestic workers in the 1880s improved their bargaining power.
- New technologies brought some changes in working patterns at this time, with more mechanised processes and new clerical and administration jobs.
- The introduction of electricity and telephones seemed to herald a new age of living and working.

6.8 Trade unions and political parties

- Trade unions were an increasingly important part of the Australian economy in the nineteenth century.
- The eight-hour day was won by Melbourne's building trades in 1856 and extended to many other workers over the next 35 years.
- A severe depression in the 1890s resulted in a series of great strikes in several of Australia's major industries.
- Employers wished to hire non-union labour, to limit the unions' power.
- The unions fought to retain hard-won improvements to wages and conditions.
- The shearers' strike in Queensland in 1891 saw pastoralists try to cut wages, destroy unionism and employ cheaper, often Chinese, labour.
- Pastoralists were supported by government troops and police who stood against unionists with machine guns.
- Many unionists were arrested.
- The Australian Labour Party was formed to represent workers' interests in parliaments across Australia.

6.9 Nationalism and Australian identity

- With the ideas of national identity and character being discussed in Europe, Australians also became increasingly interested in the 'Australian character' and what being 'Australian' might mean.
- Popular expressions in art and literature emphasised the qualities of the bush worker, struggling heroically against the hardships of the Australian landscape.
- Henry Lawson and A.B. (Banjo) Paterson became two of the more famous writers. They had their poems and stories published in the radical magazine *The Bulletin*.
- Australian painters reinforced similar ideas in their impressions of the Australian landscape and became known as the *Heidelberg School*, named after one of their artist camps near Melbourne.
- Such an endeavour was very exclusive, however, as women, Aboriginal peoples, non-European migrants and city residents were largely ignored in these representations.

6.11 Voting rights for women

- There was discussion about the type of nation Australia might be, as well as how democratic Australia should be.
- Women's groups across Australia campaigned for political representation, including the right to vote and the right to stand for election.
- Their broader aims included a variety of social, economic and political reforms that would make society kinder, fairer and safer for all.
- Women won the vote in South Australia in 1894, Western Australia in 1899, federal elections and New South Wales in 1902, Tasmania in 1903, Queensland in 1905 and Victoria in 1908.

6.12 Federation

- The road to becoming a nation through federation was a difficult one.
- Initially it was motivated by concerns about defence and non-European immigration.
- The discussion about the shape of an Australian federation became more widespread.
- As the majority of Australia's population was now native-born, with shared language, culture and British heritage, it seemed that a unity of states was inevitable.

- Alfred Deakin and Isaac Isaacs were prominent leaders with a vision of Australia as a modern nation.
- Practical and economic benefits were also important as a result of the severe depression of the 1890s.
- After a series of conferences, conventions and referendums in every state, the Australian Constitution was written and sent to Britain for approval.
- A British Act of Parliament was passed, Queen Victoria gave her royal assent, and the Commonwealth of Australia was born.

6.13 The early Commonwealth

- The new Commonwealth Government set about introducing a number of important reforms to improve the lives of all Australians. These included: mechanisms to resolve industrial disputes, a minimum wage, pensions for the old, injured or sick, and a maternity allowance.
- The idea of a 'working man's paradise' was popular but there were still many who endured poor living conditions and low wages.
- Australians began to enjoy an increasing range of leisure and recreational pursuits.
- One of the first laws passed by the federal government was the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*. It aimed to prevent non-European migrants from coming to Australia.
- A reliance on Great Britain for defence was still seen as an essential part of Australia's security.

A timeline of Australia, 1851–1913

1851
Gold is discovered in Victoria, sparking one of the world's great gold rushes.

1854
Thirty diggers are killed at the Eureka Stockade.

1856
The principle of 'one man, one vote' is instituted in the parliaments of Victoria, New South Wales and South Australia.

1860–61
The first free selection Acts are passed in Victoria and New South Wales.

1877
An Australian cricket team defeats the English team by 45 runs in the first test match to be played internationally, giving rise to test cricket.

1880
The bushranger Ned Kelly is hanged in Melbourne.

1883
Premiers agree to the setting up of a federal council to work out a federal constitution.

1891
The Federal Convention in Sydney proposes a constitution. Joseph Cook and other Labor members of Parliament are elected in New South Wales.

1890
The Great Strikes of the 1890s begin and continue to 1894.

1892
Gold is discovered at Coolgardie in Western Australia.

1894
South Australia leads the way in granting women's voting rights.

1898
The First Constitution Bill Referendum is held.

1899
Australian colonies send troops to the Boer War.

1901
Commonwealth inauguration marks the birth of the nation.
The Commonwealth Parliament opens in Melbourne and passes the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*.

1907
The basic wage is established.

1913
The foundation stone of Canberra, the new national capital, is laid.

6.15.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

6.15 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

Bushrangers, gold diggers and federation. How did a far-flung convict colony become a thriving nation?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question, outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31707)
Crossword (doc-31706)

Interactivity Australia (1750–1918): From colonies to nationhood crossword (int-7640)

KEY TERMS

affiliated unions unions linked with other unions through a wider umbrella organisation
Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) the peak union organisation in Australia
bookkeeping keeping records of financial accounts
British Dominion a self-governing territory belonging to the British Empire
besspits pits into which householders with no toilets could empty their waste, which was later collected by workers known as nightmen
Crimean War war fought between Britain and its allies and Russia, 1853–56
deport to forcibly remove someone from a country
dummies people secretly acting for squatters, who selected land and later sold it to the squatters
egalitarian believing in equality
federation movement of colonies to form a nation
grazing pasture to feed cows and sheep
impound to confiscate
minority government a government that has fewer than half the seats in a lower house of parliament
parliamentary representation the representation of people's views and interests in parliament through elected delegates
peacocking buying up land around creeks and rivers to make the rest of the area useless to selectors
republicanism the belief that a country should be a republic (where the country has an elected or appointed head of state), not a monarchy (where the head of state is a king or queen)
shilling a unit of Australian currency until decimal currency was introduced. There were 12 pence to a shilling and 20 shillings to a pound.
socialism a political system in which the government controls the economy to ensure greater equality
stockade a fortified enclosure
suffrage the right to vote
sweated labour workers exploited by being made to work for long hours and with low pay
tariff a duty charged on imports
telegraph device for sending messages over long distances

7 China (1750–1918)

7.1 Overview

How did foreign influence transform China from isolated monarchy to modern republic?

7.1.1 Links with our times

In 2012, relations between China and Japan were strained when both countries laid claim to the Senkaku Islands, a small island group in the East China Sea. The tensions remained political and did not result in any military conflict, but it was certainly not the first time that the region had been the site of tension. The episode served as a reminder of the sometimes volatile relations that China has experienced with its regional neighbour and the often complicated dealings it has had with foreign powers for hundreds of years.

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

The period of Qing rule coincided with Europe's expansion of trade and acquisition of colonies. As the Qing dynasty attempted to restrict foreign access, conflict with foreign countries became inevitable.

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LEARNING SEQUENCE

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A timeline of key events in China, 1750–1918

CE

1790

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

1800

1810

Early 1800s
Despite an import ban on opium,the British smuggle large amounts of it into China. Much of the population becomes addicted.

1820

1830

1839
The First Opium War begins.

1840

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

1847–52
Natural disasters strike China, placing great strain on the government.

1850

1850
The Taiping Rebellion begins.

1856
The Second Opium War (Arrow War) begins.

1860

1860
The Second Opium War (Arrow War) ends.

1861
The new Empress Dowager Cixi comes to power.

1864
The Taiping Rebellion is finally subdued.

1870

1880

1890

1894–5
Sino-Japanese War

1898
The Hundred Days' Reform attempts to modernise China.

1900

1899–1901
Boxer Rebellion

1908
The Dowager Empress Cixi dies.

1910

1911
Revolutions erupt across much of China.

1912
Pu Yi, the last Chinese emperor, abdicates.

1920

CE

7.2 Examining the evidence

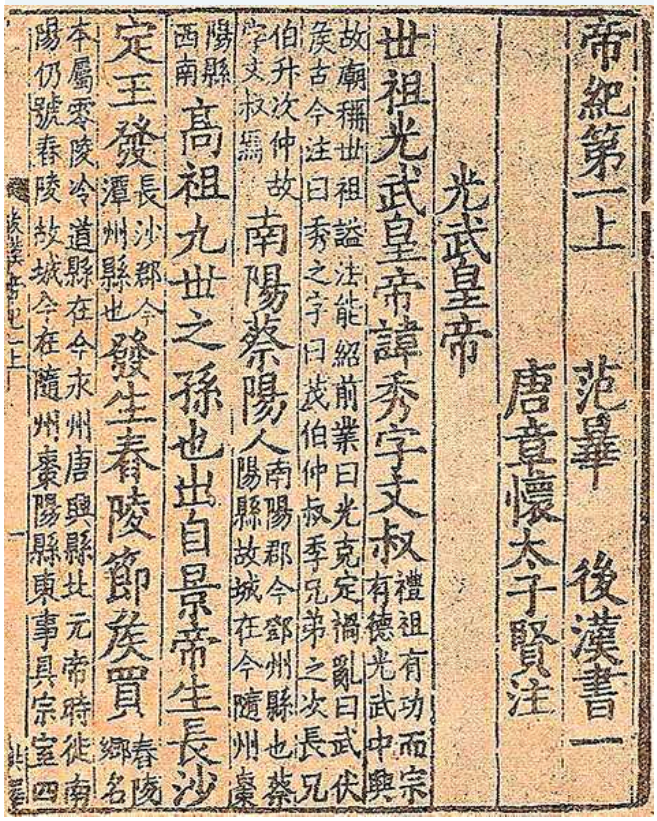
7.2.1 How do we know about China (1750–1918)?

After China started to open up to foreign influence, traders engaged in commercial activity with foreigners, and international diplomats negotiated treaties with other countries. As a result, this period is richly documented in both primary and secondary sources. The many written sources give us the opportunity to study many aspects of Chinese society during this vibrant age. The development of photography during the nineteenth century also provided a new medium through which to study many of the key events.

Chinese sources

Traditional Chinese society placed great importance on the study of history, in the belief that knowledge of the past influenced present behaviour. As a result, historians of China are able to draw on a diverse range of sources. Foremost of these are the dynastic histories, written by educated scholars to record the events of preceding dynasties. Many different scholars worked on the histories, so they provide a range of perspectives of the same event. The Chinese belief in the **mandate of heaven** imposed a limitation on the dynastic histories, however. A dynasty, ruling family or lineage collapsed, it was believed, because the gods were displeased with the emperor. So the histories sometimes examined the various reasons for the downfall of the previous dynasty. This provided the current emperor with a kind of moral compass, a guide to follow to avoid the fate of earlier emperors. Despite this limitation, the dynastic histories are very valuable documents.

SOURCE 1 This image shows a page from the *Han Dynastic History*, a classical Chinese history text completed in 111 CE.



帝紀第一上

范曄 後漢書一

唐章懷太子賢注

光武皇帝

世祖光武皇帝諱秀字文叔禮祖有功而宗故廟稱世祖諡法能紹前業曰光克定禍亂曰武伏矣古今注曰秀之字曰茂伯仲叔季兄弟之次長兄伯升次仲故字文叔焉

南陽蔡陽人南陽郡今鄧州縣也蔡陽縣故城在今隨州棗陽縣東南

高祖九世之孫也出自景帝生長沙定王發長沙郡今潭州縣也發生春陵節侯買春陵鄉名本屬零陵今道縣在今永州唐興縣北元帝時徙南陽仍號春陵故城今在隨州棗陽縣東事具宗室四

SOURCE 2 This painting from 1742 shows a romanticised view of China that was common in Europe in the eighteenth century. Compare it with the portrayal of China in **SOURCE 3** in subtopic 7.4.

‘Foreign’ sources

Information about China spread to the world beyond its borders mostly by way of Western visitors, who tended to see in China a reflection of more familiar European empires. The emperor was seen as a king who ruled over a nation of loyal subjects. The writings of Jesuit missionaries such as Francis Xavier in the sixteenth century were important in influencing the attitude of foreigners towards China. But as relations between China and the West deteriorated in the nineteenth century, the portrayal of the Chinese became less favourable. The view of the emperor changed from that of a noble king to that of a power-hungry **despot**. Despite these changing views, there are still many documents from the time that are useful to historians. These include letters, diary entries and copies of the treaties that were signed.

SOURCE 3 A picture paints a thousand words. This photograph of Canton Harbour in the mid nineteenth century is more evocative than most written descriptions could be.

Photographs

The invention of photography in the nineteenth century provided a completely new medium through which to interpret historical events. It gives an opportunity to observe, almost unfiltered, the events being studied. The Second Opium War was one of the first wars to be recorded photographically. Much can be learned from photographs that other sources cannot reveal. Even everyday scenes take on a new dimension when seen in a photograph. A common error, however, is to assume that photographs are necessarily reliable historical sources because they show real events. It is important to keep in mind that behind every camera there is a photographer with his or her own intentions and perspectives.

SOURCE 4 This photograph shows the aftermath of a battle in 1860 during the Second Opium War. Before photography, scenes like this could only be imagined by most people.

7.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. Why did traditional Chinese society place great importance on the study of history?
2. What were 'dynastic histories'? How could they be useful to the emperors who studied them?
3. How did Western visitors initially view Chinese culture?
4. How did the Western view of China change over time?
5. How did photography change the way history was recorded and studied?

7.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Identify three reasons why the dynastic histories, like that shown in **SOURCE 1**, are useful to historians.
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1** and explain what the limitations are of this kind of source.
3. **HS3** Describe the attitude towards China as it appears in **SOURCE 2**.
4. **HS3** Why is it important to remember that behind every photograph there is a photographer?
5. **HS3** In what ways could photographs like those shown in **SOURCES 3** and **4** be unreliable?
6. **HS3** It is often said that photographs do not lie. Is this actually true? Discuss in groups and write a paragraph to explain your thoughts.

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7.3 Qing China

7.3.1 Isolation

Until the seventeenth century, China was largely unknown to the European world. There had been sporadic trade with other countries and regions, and Chinese explorers had undertaken voyages throughout the region, but outside China little was known of Chinese beliefs, cities and society. Within its borders, however, China was a diverse country with a very large population and a complex culture. One reason that China remained isolated was its geographic location (see **SOURCE 1**). To the east lay the vast Pacific Ocean; to the south lay mountain ranges and dense jungles; in the north was the desolate Gobi Desert; and to the west towered the mountains of the Tibetan Plateau — the 'roof of the world'.

SOURCE 1 This map shows the geographical extent of the Qing Dynasty.

Source: Spatial Vision

In addition, the territorial extent of the Qing dynasty's rule played an important part. Its borders stretched further than at any other time in China's history. Its vast size gave it access to a wide variety of natural resources and arable land. It did not need to look elsewhere for materials or goods because it could support its growing population on its own. Its unique location and self-sufficiency allowed Chinese culture to develop in isolation from outside pressures and influences, and also helped nurture a feeling of superiority to foreigners.

Naming the emperor

The naming of monarchs in China can be difficult to follow because the monarchs went by several names. They had their personal name, their 'era' name, and even another name that was used after their death. Their personal name was never used after they became the monarch, and was in many cases forbidden to be used at all. The name given to the new monarch was known as the 'era name' and was intended to reflect the political situation of the time. This is why an emperor would be referred to as, for example, the 'Guangxu emperor' or simply 'Guangxu', but not 'emperor Guangxu' — the name reflects the era of their reign, not the individual. Needless to say, the chosen era name was one that would portray a positive image of the reign regardless of the actual situation. For example, later in this topic you will see reference to the 'Xianfeng emperor'. The name 'Xianfeng' means 'universal prosperity', but as you will discover, this was certainly not the case when he inherited the throne in 1850.

SOURCE 2 This illustration shows the Kangxi emperor, the fourth emperor of the Qing dynasty. It is from a silk scroll that today hangs in the Palace Museum, Beijing.

Confucianism

At the core of China's traditional beliefs was Confucianism. The philosopher Confucius (551–479 BCE) came from a noble but poor family. His father died when he was young and Confucius struggled to acquire an education. As he grew older he developed strong beliefs about society. He taught that the family was the basic building block of society and that it was the duty of the ruler to behave like a father to his people. He believed that each person should adopt and live by certain moral values. People should respect and obey their parents, and rulers should be chosen because of their wisdom, rather than their wealth. Confucius taught the 'five virtues': humanity, honesty, knowledge, integrity and manners. With its focus on harmonious relationships, Confucianism disdained military pursuits and war, believing they were not needed when Confucian values were in balance.

Over time, Confucian values took hold in China, supplanting Daoism as the main belief system by the second century BCE. Confucian beliefs dominated Chinese society from the second century CE and were incorporated into the way both the family and the state were run. With such a rigid philosophical system in place, rebellion or discontent seemed unimaginable, yet there were many rebellions, uprisings and dynastic changes over the centuries.

SOURCE 3 The flag of the Qing dynasty

7.3.2 Government, art and economy

Government

In traditional Chinese society the emperor ruled with the 'mandate of heaven'. This meant his rule was legitimate as long as the gods judged his actions to be in harmony with the natural order of the universe. He had to rule with fairness and wisdom or risk a loss of his mandate. Famine caused by crop failure due to flood or drought might indicate a loss of mandate, justifying the emperor's overthrow.

Helping the emperor maintain power were the Grand Council, made up of the nobility and high-ranking bureaucrats, and the six Boards of Civil Office that controlled various aspects of daily life — revenue, punishment, war, work, ceremonies and civil affairs. Holders of these offices were selected through a rigorous examination process to ensure the most talented candidates were chosen. Specific knowledge of the area they were assigned to was not always deemed to be necessary. There was no foreign office because foreigners were considered barbarians with whom contact should be restricted.

In 1644 the last imperial dynasty to rule China, the Qing (also known as the Manchu) dynasty, came to power. Under the Qing the country was divided into 18 provinces, each ruled by a governor. The provinces, in turn, were divided into districts. At district level a district magistrate governed a group of local neighbourhoods, each made up of roughly one thousand homes. It was expected that households would report local crimes, as a whole neighbourhood could be severely punished if such crimes were not reported. Similarly, an entire village could be held responsible for the lawlessness of a few. This climate of fear helped to dissuade would-be rebels.

The artful Qing

During the reign of the Qing dynasty, art, architecture and literature became more diverse than under previous dynasties. New materials such as glass and enamel were now used in artworks, but at the same time many craftsmen turned to very old themes and shapes for their art. Painters of the time learned new techniques that Jesuits had developed in Europe during the Renaissance. The technique of perspective and the use of oil-based paints became common during the Qing dynasty.

Economy

In 1750 China's economy was strong. There had been a period of conflict after the overthrow of the previous Ming dynasty, but as the Qing gained power over all of China, peace was restored. The era of peace, combined with the introduction of a range of new foreign food crops, allowed the population to grow. The export of silk, tea and manufactured goods to Europe gave rise to a time of general prosperity. Although trade with foreign powers was regarded with suspicion, within China people were encouraged to participate in local markets. Until the mid-nineteenth century, the Qing economy could be described as active and growing. But this was to change dramatically.

7.3 ACTIVITY

Using an atlas, identify and list the modern-day countries whose territories formed part of Qing China.

Identifying continuity and change

7.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** List four geographical features that influenced the isolation of China.
2. **HS1** In what way was China self-sufficient?
3. **HS1** Explain the basic idea of Confucianism in your own words.
4. **HS2** What belief system did Confucianism replace by the second century BCE?
5. **HS1** In your own words, describe the mandate of heaven.

6. **HS1** Why might a famine or flood make an emperor nervous?
7. **HS1** How did the method of punishment help the Qing government keep control over the people?

7.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**. Using the scale, estimate the east–west and north–south geographic extent of Qing China.
2. **HS3** Describe the challenges that you think would face the ruler of such a vast empire.
3. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 3**. Explain why you think a dragon was chosen for the flag of the Qing dynasty.
4. **HS4** From the information in this subtopic, what impression do you get about the nature of change in imperial China? Describe the challenges that could be faced after the arrival of people of different nations.
5. **HS1** Summarise the structure of the Qing government in a simple diagram. How does this help to indicate how much power the emperor held?

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7.4 Living under the emperor

7.4.1 Women in traditional China

You have already learned many things about China under the Qing dynasty. For example, it was strongly influenced by Confucianism; the emperor ruled with the 'mandate of heaven'; and the country was divided into provinces and districts. But what did this actually mean for the men, women and children who lived their lives under the emperor?

Confucianism holds that the family is the basic building block of society. Subsequently, women held a largely domestic role in traditional Chinese society and were considered inferior and **subordinate** to men. Such was the status of women in China that in popular traditional literature a female character might even say that in a previous life she was a man but had been reborn a woman to punish her for sins committed in that life. The ideal life of a woman in China was seen in terms of the 'three subordinations'; firstly to her father when growing up, secondly to her husband and lastly to her eldest son after her husband's death.

Marriage in China was less a union between a man and a woman, and more like a union between two families. Therefore, it was organised by the parents of those being married. Their domestic role meant that women were never the head of the household in China; however, a woman's important role in the house was seen as compensation for her exclusion from public affairs.

The subservient status of women in traditional Chinese society was also reflected in the practice of foot binding. Its origins remain unclear but it is thought that the practice was begun to imitate the appearance of a favourite **concubine** of a ninth-century emperor. In any case, foot binding spread from the upper classes and was widely practised across China.

DID YOU KNOW?

Foot binding was a painful process, generally commenced when a girl was only five or six years of age. The toes on both feet would be broken (except for the big toes) and then bound flat against the soles of the feet to make a triangular shape. The feet would be forced into small, specially shaped 'lotus shoes'. Over time, as the heel and sole were crushed together, the feet bindings would be made tighter and the shoes smaller. The process took several years to complete, and feet became permanently misshapen.

In spite of these disadvantages some women made their mark on traditional China. Among these women were scholars and poets, but also leaders. The Dowager Empress Cixi ruled China when her very young son inherited the throne in 1861. She eventually ruled on her own until 1908.

Throughout the tumultuous times of the nineteenth century, the demand for women's rights became a powerful factor for unrest. Large numbers of women fought during the Taiping Rebellion in the 1850s (see subtopic 7.6), and at the turn of the twentieth century the Boxer Rebellion (see subtopic 7.8) saw groups of women called the Red Lanterns support the cause of the Boxers. At times, the women even fought. A song from the time celebrated their involvement in the rebellion with the line 'The Red Lanterns and the Boxers are brothers and sisters in revolt; with one heart they fight the foreign officials'.

SOURCE 1 A bride on her way to her wedding in the early twentieth century. The basket was used to obscure the bride's face in the same way that a veil is used in Western weddings. It was customary that the bride's face would not be seen until she was in her new husband's home.

SOURCE 2 A 1911 photograph of a woman reveals the effects of years of foot binding.

7.4.2 Men in traditional China — the four occupations

Social organisation in imperial China was similar in some ways to Europe's feudal system. All classes were subservient to the emperor. The hierarchical class structure categorised the population into the 'four occupations'. In order of importance, these were:

Shi — aristocrats, philosophers and government administrators

Nong — farmers; considered important because they grew the food that fed the nation

Gong — artists and craftsmen; also valued because they produced goods essential to society

Shang — merchants; placed at the lowest recognised level because they did not produce anything but rather profited from others' work.

Prior to the mid-nineteenth century, the four occupations would be almost exclusively occupied by men.

SOURCE 3 Chinese peasants of the Qing dynasty. This print dates from around 1830.

The ‘four occupations’ did not formally recognise many groups in society. Rather, they were an idealisation of the social hierarchy and male dominance of the day. The four occupations reflected those who ruled, those who produced, those who created, and those who traded. Some of the many occupations not included are soldiers, priests and other religious clergy, and domestic servants.

7.4.3 Children

In China, sons were much more highly valued by their family than daughters. This was because when they married, a son would stay in the family and contribute to its success, but a daughter would not. During times of hardship or famine, a boy’s health and wellbeing would be put ahead of that of a girl. Subsequently, many more girls died during harsh times than boys.

At a young age children were schooled in the Confucian virtues of humanity, honesty, knowledge, integrity and manners. Upon reaching about five years of age, peasant boys began helping in the fields and girls began taking part in household chores. For those of higher social standing education continued, although learning was strictly in line with Confucian ideals.

SOURCE 4 A mid-nineteenth-century photograph of a Chinese man with his children

7.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS4** How was marriage in traditional China different from how we would view it today?
2. **HS1** What were the ‘three subordinations’?
3. **HS1** Why were male children preferred to female children in traditional China?
4. **HS1** Explain the impact that favouring the wellbeing of boys over girls would have on Chinese society.
5. **HS1** How did upbringing differ for peasant-class boys and those of higher social standing?

7.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCES 1** and **2** reflect the social standing of women in traditional China.
2. **HS3** In what way are these images limited as a historical source?
3. **HS3** Which of the ‘four occupations’ can you identify in **SOURCE 3**?
4. **HS3** Compare the clothes of the peasants shown in **SOURCE 3** with those of the Kangxi emperor in subtopic 7.3 **SOURCE 2**. What information does this provide about traditional Chinese society?
5. **HS3** Describe the features in **SOURCE 4** that might help to indicate the family’s social class.
6. **HS3** Explain how photographs like those in **SOURCES 1**, **2** and **4** provide information to historians in a way that paintings or written sources cannot.
7. **HS4** Discuss the extent to which Confucianism encouraged change in China.
8. **HS6** Evaluate the significance of Confucianism in the everyday lives of citizens in Qing China.

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7.5 Arrival of the foreigners

7.5.1 Early contact

Foreign influence and interference, beginning in the eighteenth century, had an enduring effect on China. It played a major part in the eventual downfall of the dynastic system and helped bring about the beginning of a new era in Chinese history. It also brought great suffering to a large part of the population, especially through forced trade and the rebellions that arose against foreign influence.

The combination of China's self-sufficiency and the central role played by the rigid ideals of Confucianism generated a feeling of disdain towards foreigners. The Qing dynasty believed that China was at the centre of the world and that foreigners could offer nothing of value. The military system was structured to ensure China was protected from foreign interference. Central to this structure were the 'Banner Armies', so named because the different units were identifiable by differently coloured banners. Developed by the previous Manchu dynasty, the Banner Armies defended the empire against foreign intervention and helped the emperor crush internal rebellion.

SOURCE 1 An archer from one of the emperor's Banner Armies

The Ming dynasty, which preceded the Qing, was equally scornful of foreigners. Until the sixteenth century the only foreigners to venture to China were merchant adventurers who followed the famous **Marco Polo**, or missionaries hoping to spread Christianity. Small in number, they were regarded as posing no threat; indeed, they were usually looked on merely as curiosities. But in 1514 an interesting convergence occurred. The Portuguese, who had discovered the sea route to the Spice Islands of the East Indies, were regularly trading in South-East Asia for the valuable spices found there. At the same time Chinese merchants were travelling south through the same region to trade silk, porcelain and other items and often used the same harbours as the Portuguese. Impressed with what they saw, and keen to establish trading ties with the Chinese, the enterprising Portuguese followed the **junks** back to China.

Initially their approaches were rebuffed, but as relations improved the Portuguese were permitted to establish a trading post south of the city of Guangzhou (Canton) that came to be known as Macao. This system of opening a limited number of ports to foreign trade became known as the Canton System. Foreigners continued to be regarded as barbarians, but the Portuguese were tolerated largely because they were prepared to pay tribute to the emperor through the giving of gifts or other valuables. The emperor saw this as an acknowledgement of their inferiority.

SOURCE 2 A sixteenth-century Chinese junk looked similar to this.

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7.5.2 Increasing European influence

Once the Portuguese had established trading posts in China, other rival European powers wanted to do the same. The Spanish, Dutch and British also wanted to trade in silk, porcelain, tea and other goods, but their efforts were generally seen by the Chinese as little more than a nuisance. By the late 1700s the British had established themselves as the key foreign trader in China. Their base in India, as well as the popularity of tea in Britain, meant they had both the market and the ships needed to maintain busy trade routes.

The Chinese had traditionally severely restricted and regulated foreign trade and travel in China. The British, determined to expand operations in China, resented these rules. For example, foreign trade was restricted to the city of Guangzhou between October and May. Merchants were also forced to pay various taxes and tariffs that appeared to change without notice and often seemed excessive.

In an effort to force a diplomatic breakthrough, in 1792 the British sent an ambassador, Sir George Macartney, to Beijing (see **SOURCE 3**). The mission was ultimately unsuccessful. Initially this was explained by Macartney's insulting refusal to **kowtow** in the presence of the emperor. A broader explanation points to the incompatibility between the world views held by the British and the Chinese.

SOURCE 3 A caricature of Lord Macartney's visit to China in 1792, published in Britain the same year. The emperor is portrayed as cunning while Macartney, it is suggested, maintains his composure.

The Chinese were an inward-looking nation, content with minimal trade, while the British were determined to expand and establish British traditions around the world. Subsequently the emperor sent a letter to England's George III in which he pointed out that China already had everything it needed and saw no value in or use for the items Britain wanted to trade (see **SOURCE 4**). The Chinese saw Macartney's failed mission as further proof of their superiority to foreigners. For the British, it merely signalled a small delay in their plans.

SOURCE 4 From the letter Emperor Qian Long of China sent to George III in 1793

As your Ambassador can see for himself, we possess all things. I set no value on objects strange or ingenious, and have no use for your country's manufactures.

SOURCE 5 An excerpt from Lord Macartney's journal of his mission to China

... such exquisite workmanship, and in such profusion, that our presents must shrink from the comparison and hide their diminished heads.

7.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How did Confucianism influence Chinese attitudes to foreigners?
2. **HS1** What were the Banner Armies and what was their role?
3. **HS1** Describe how luck played a role in the 1514 contact between Portuguese and Chinese traders.
4. **HS1** Why were Portuguese traders tolerated by the Chinese emperor?
5. **HS1** How did Britain come to play a major trading role in China?
6. **HS1** Why did George Macartney's mission to China fail?

7.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 3**. Why do you think the British artist has portrayed the Chinese emperor in this way?
2. **HS3** Compare and contrast **SOURCE 3** with the image portrayed in **SOURCE 2** in subtopic 7.2.
3. **HS3** What might explain the change in British attitudes towards China?
4. **HS3** Compare and contrast **SOURCES 4** and **5** in their attitudes towards Chinese products.
5. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 4** and **5**. Why would a historian accept these sources as reliable?
6. **HS5** Identify and explain one intended and one unintended effect of foreign contact with China.

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7.6 Expansion, trade, conflict

7.6.1 Tension boils over in the First Opium War

When the Chinese began to trade with the British they enjoyed a 'trade surplus', meaning that the value of their exports to Britain was greater than the value of the goods being imported. Effectively this meant China was making a profit. Eager to balance the trade, the British began importing opium into China. In China opium had been a rarely used, expensive recreational and medicinal drug, but the increase in availability due to the British trade made it cheaper and more widespread.

In the early 1800s the British increased their trade and, despite an import ban on opium, they began to smuggle large amounts of it into China. Corruption was widespread and Chinese officials were easily bribed, making the trade easy. As much of the population became addicted, the illicit trade grew.

The social and economic impact of the opium trade forced the emperor to act. He appointed a politician named Lin Zexu to the role of Imperial Commissioner to deal with the illegal opium trade. Lin approached the matter with both a diplomatic and a forceful approach. He wrote an open letter to Queen Victoria in which he emotionally urged her to acknowledge the damage the opium trade was inflicting and to end it (see **SOURCE 1**).

SOURCE 1 Lin Zexu wrote the following open letter to Queen Victoria. It was published in newspapers in China. In it he refers to the British merchants who illegally trade opium as 'barbarians' and outlines a range of reasons why the trade should cease. Queen Victoria did not see the letter until after the First Opium War had begun.

Dear Your Royal Highness Queen Victoria,

... You have traded in China for two hundred years, and as a result, your country has become wealthy. But after this long period of trade, there appear both good persons and bad. There are those who smuggle opium to seduce the Chinese people and cause the spread of the poison to all provinces. Such persons who only care to profit themselves, and disregard their harm to others, are not tolerated by Chinese law and are hated. His Majesty the Emperor, upon hearing of this, is in a towering rage. He has especially sent me to come to [Guangzhou] ... to investigate and settle this matter.

The law [in China] calls for the death penalty for people who sell opium or smoke opium. Those barbarians who through the years have been selling opium, then the deep harm they have caused, and the great profit they have made, should justify their execution according to law. Fortunately we have received a specially extended favor from His Majesty the Emperor, who considers that for those who voluntarily surrender there are still some circumstances to pardon their crime, and so for the time being he has magnanimously excused them from punishment. But as for those who again violate the opium prohibition, it is difficult for the law to pardon them repeatedly.

The wealth of China is used to profit the barbarians. That is to say, the great profit made by barbarians is all taken from the rightful share of China. By what right do they then in return use the poisonous drug to injure the Chinese people? Even though the barbarians may not necessarily intend to do us harm, but in wanting profit, they have no regard for injuring others. Let us ask, where is your conscience? I have heard that the smoking of opium is very strictly forbidden by your country; that is because the harm caused by opium is clearly understood. Since it is not permitted in your own country, then even less should you let it be passed on to harm other countries.

Is there a single article from China which has done any harm to foreign countries? Take tea, for example; the foreign countries cannot get along for a single day without them. Moreover the textiles of foreign countries cannot be woven unless they obtain Chinese silk. If China cuts off these beneficial exports, what profit can the barbarians expect to make? There is also ginger, cinnamon, and so forth, and articles for use, beginning with silk, satin, chinaware, which foreign countries want from China. On the other hand, articles coming from the outside to China can only be used as toys. We can take them or get along without them. Since they are not needed by China, what difficulty would there be if we closed our frontier and stopped the trade?

Anyone who dares again attempt to plant and manufacture opium should be severely punished. This will really be a great, benevolent government policy that will get rid of evil. For this, Heaven must support you and the spirits must bring you good fortune, prolonging your old age and extending your descendants. All will depend on this act.

Now we have set up regulations governing the Chinese people. He who sells opium shall receive the death penalty and he who smokes it also the death penalty. Now consider this: if the barbarians do not bring opium, then how can the Chinese people resell it, and how can they smoke it? The fact is that the wicked barbarians beguile the Chinese people into a death trap.

The Emperor cannot bear to execute people without having first tried to reform them by instruction. Therefore he enacts these fixed regulations. The barbarian merchants of your country, if they wish to do business for a prolonged period, are required to obey our statutes respectfully and to cut off permanently the source of opium.

May you check your wicked people before they come to China, in order to guarantee the peace of your nation, to show further the sincerity of your politeness and submissiveness, and to let the two countries enjoy together the blessings of peace! After receiving this dispatch will you immediately give us a prompt reply regarding the details and circumstances of your stopping the opium traffic.

Yours sincerely, Lin Zexu, Commissioner of the Celestial Empire (China)

Around the same time, though, when Lin arrived in Guangzhou, he quickly had hundreds of opium dealers arrested and tens of thousands of opium pipes confiscated. When he could not persuade foreign companies to hand over their opium stockpiles, he had the warehouses in Guangzhou besieged to force their compliance. When they eventually surrendered the opium, it was destroyed, further increasing tensions between China and Britain. Despite this apparent success for the Chinese, tensions with the British remained high. When a Chinese man named Lin Weixi was killed in Kowloon by a British sailor and the culprit could not be found, the Chinese demanded that someone — anyone — should be handed over to the authorities for punishment. This was not unusual in China, where the community was held responsible for its lawbreakers, but to the British it was unthinkable, and they refused. The men were tried by the British under British law and fined for unruly behaviour. Unsatisfied, Lin confronted the British with a fleet of war junks and prevented the sale of food to the British, once again effectively besieging them in the harbour until the culprits were handed over. The British again refused and shots were exchanged, signalling the start of the First Opium War.

Militarily, the Chinese were outclassed technologically by the British forces. Their ships were inferior to the British navy's, and China's soldiers were only a part-time force armed mainly with bows and arrows and knives, whereas the standing British army was made up of well-trained troops armed with modern muskets. The war ended in 1842 with the signing of the infamous Treaty of Nanjing. Under the terms of the treaty the Chinese were forced to open a number of ports to British trading ships, Hong Kong was ceded to the British (it remained a British colony until 1997), and China was forced to pay several million silver dollars to the British as compensation for the opium destroyed at the beginning of the war and for the cost of the war to the British. The treaty was the first of a number of what the Chinese called unequal treaties because the British, for their part, faced no obligations under the terms.

SOURCE 1 A print of a naval battle during the First Opium War, at Anson's Bay, 7 January 1841. On the left is the British East India Company steam ship *Nemesis*. The longboats are also British, while the ships in the background are Chinese war junks.

7.6.2 More conflicts and rebellion

The Sino-Japanese War

Importantly, it was not only European powers that were looking to expand their influence into Qing China. Later in the nineteenth century, Japan, too, had ambitions of territorial expansion. They fought with China over control of Korea in 1894 and 1895. The Meiji Restoration period after 1868 had seen Japan become an industrialised state as new technology was introduced from the West. As a result Japan extended its influence in the region and the Korean Peninsula, a longstanding area of conflict between Japan and China, was once again fought over in the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–95.

Japan was victorious and the war ended with the signing of the Treaty of Shimonoseki. The treaty gave Japan considerable rights over the area of Korea, but in addition Japan was also ceded the island of Taiwan as well as large regions of Manchuria in northern China. Almost more important than China's loss of territory was its loss of prestige. The end of the war resulted in Japan playing a more significant role as a foreign power in China and altered the political balance of power in the region. This would have further consequences during World War I.

The Taiping Rebellion

Historians still debate whether the First Opium War was a direct cause of the Taiping Rebellion. The Qing dynasty already faced a number of problems, including internal social conflict, economic stagnation and a population growth rate that was putting a heavy strain on resources. The country also suffered a major drought in 1847 and disastrous floods in 1849 and 1852. All these problems, compounded by their humiliating defeat at the hands of the British in the First Opium War, were simply too much for the Chinese government to deal with.

The Taiping Rebellion began in 1850 and spread over most of southern China before finally being suppressed in 1864. It was led by Hong Xiuquan who, after religious visions experienced during an illness, was inspired to preach a new form of Christianity in China. The aim of the rebels was to overthrow the Qing dynasty and replace it with a new kingdom in which all land belonged to the state and women were given a more equal status with men. It is estimated that some 20 million people died over the course of the rebellion, making it one of the deadliest conflicts in human history.

While the rebellion raged, the Second Opium War broke out with Britain, this time allied with France. Also called the Arrow War, it began when Chinese authorities boarded a ship called the *Arrow* and arrested the crew under suspicion of piracy. Unable to manage the crisis of the Taiping Rebellion at the same time as this new conflict, China was forced to sign another humiliating treaty. Over the two decades of the 1840s and 1850s China signed no fewer than six separate treaties with France, Britain, Russia and the United States, each one forcing more concessions to the foreigners (see **SOURCE 4**). In an effort to protect their new gains, the British and French sided with the Qing against the Taiping rebels, supplying weapons and soldiers. Although this helped crush the rebellion, it also further cemented in the minds of many Chinese an image of Qing weakness and submission to foreign influence.

SOURCE 2 This nineteenth-century French political cartoon shows China being carved up by foreign powers — from left to right, Britain, Germany, Russia, France and Japan. The Qing emperor is protesting in the background.

SOURCE 1 Some of the unequal treaties imposed on China by foreign powers in the nineteenth century

Year	Treaty of	Imposed by
1842	Nanjing	Britain
1844	Wangxia	USA
1844	Whampoa	France
1858	Tianjin	Britain, France
1858	Aigun	Russia
1859	Beijing	Britain, France

A new empress

In 1861 the Xianfeng emperor died. Because his five-year old son was too young to rule on his own, a group of regents (people appointed to rule in the place of the monarch if they are too young or incapacitated) was formed to take over his duties. Soon, though, the young emperor's mother, Cixi, eliminated the other members of the group and established herself as the new ruler of China — the Empress Dowager (see **SOURCE 5**). In 1889 she nominated the new Guangxu emperor to take over power when she retired from her role as dowager empress. However in reality he never ruled in his own right, and was always under Cixi's influence.

During the time of Cixi, although without her backing, there arose some hopes for reforms of the more rigid aspects of dynastic rule. The scholar Kang Yuwei planned and implemented a series of reforms with the help of the Guangxu emperor. In 1898 the 'Hundred Days' Reform' (discussed in subtopic 7.7) was intended to introduce radical decrees that would help modernise China, but the powerful and conservative Cixi, who still effectively ruled, rescinded almost all the reforms. She had the emperor arrested and many of the reformers executed. Her absolute rule was once again established over China, yet the problems she faced did not go away.

SOURCE 3 The Empress Dowager Cixi ruled China from 1861 to 1908

SOURCE 6 From the Guangxu emperor's Reform Decree of 1898

I shall never feel that my duty as Sovereign is fulfilled until I have raised them all [the Chinese people] to a condition of peaceful prosperity. Moreover, do not the foreign Powers surround our Empire, committing frequent acts of aggression? Unless we learn and adopt the sources of their strength, our plight cannot be remedied.

7.6 ACTIVITIES

1. Work in small groups to compare the position and power of China in relation to Japan, Russia and England in 1900. Compare the form of government, type of economy and relationships with other nations. You could draw up a table like the one shown to organise your initial research.

Country	Form of government	Type of economy	Relationship with other nations
China			
Japan			
Russia			
England			

When you have filled in your information into the table as a group, individually prepare a report that describes the changing nature of China's position in relation to the other countries.

Identifying continuity and change

2. Conduct some research into one of the 'unequal treaties'. What were some of the terms? To what extent is the term 'unequal' accurate?

Using historical sources as evidence

7.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** In your own words, summarise the causes of the First Opium War.
2. **HS1** What were the terms of the Treaty of Nanjing?
3. **HS1** Why did the Chinese use the term *unequal treaties*?
4. **HS2** Draw a timeline that summarises the causes of the Taiping Rebellion. Separate them into what you would consider long-term and short-term causes.
5. **HS1** Why did the death of the Xianfeng emperor cause political instability?

7.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Summarise the reforms that are called for in the Guangxu emperor's Reform Decree in **SOURCE 6**.
2. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCES 3** and **6** help reinforce each other's message.
3. **HS3** Outline the reasons why Lin Zexu, in **SOURCE 1**, wants the opium trade to stop.
4. **HS3** In **SOURCE 1**, Lin Zexu addresses the letter specifically to Queen Victoria. How closely connected to the trade do you think she would have been?
5. **HS3** Write a response to the letter from, or on behalf of, Queen Victoria. In it you should outline your understanding of the trade as well as your thoughts on whether or not it should, or could, be stopped.
6. **HS6** Using the information you have gathered so far in this topic, respond to the following question in an extended response: 'Why were British and Chinese world views incompatible in the eighteenth century?'
7. **HS5** Compare and contrast the causes and effects of the Opium Wars and the Taiping Rebellion.
8. **HS5** What would be your response to the statement that the rigid system of government and power in China helped lead to tension with foreign powers? Use specific evidence to support your ideas.

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7.7 Economic and social effects

7.7.1 Economic effects

The impacts of foreigners on Chinese society since their first arrival in the sixteenth century varied widely. Missionaries spread the ideas of Christianity to many parts of the land; the trade of Western goods introduced new ideas; but perhaps no foreign import had a greater social impact than the addictive drug opium.

The signing of the Treaty of Nanjing in 1842 may have ended the Opium War, but it did not end the opium trade. In fact, the trade increased because trade with the British was forced upon China — opium meant business, and business was booming. In return for the opium that the British imported to China, tea and silk were exported back to Britain. In the years from 1843 to 1855 the export of tea increased from 7000 tons to 42 000 tons. In the same period, silk exports rose from 2000 bales in 1843 to 56 000 bales in 1855.

On the surface, this may seem like a positive aspect of the trade. Certainly, tea- and silk-producing regions close to the trading ports did expand and benefit from the trade. But a closer look will reveal that these benefits were short term. As demand for these two commodities, known in economic terms as 'cash crops', increased, production shifted away from food crops and so less food was being produced. This shortage of food crops pushed prices up and so the poor, who could not trade with the foreigners, simply became poorer.

The trade in silk had a further long-term effect. China's textile industry had a very long history — as far back as 3000 BCE. It had undergone a variety of developments over the centuries, but ironically it was the high quality of local textiles that caused the industry to decline. In addition to bringing in opium, Western countries also introduced cheaper, machine-produced textiles with which to trade. This caused a decrease in the demand for locally made goods and crippled the local textile industry. Many areas in China reported an increase in crime as rising poverty took hold.

Even China's traditional trade routes were suffering. Under the Canton System, foreign goods arrived at port and were then transported through inland waterways and coastal roads. As a result, many people had come to rely on the passing traffic for their livelihoods, either by selling food or offering other services. The opening of other trading ports meant goods were now transported from one port to another by sea, so those people who relied on inland traffic for their income suffered.

SOURCE 1 The sap of the opium poppy flower is harvested and refined to produce the drug.

7.7.2 Social effects

As the trade in opium continued, a drug that had been used medicinally in China for centuries soon became a drug of dependency for a large proportion of the population. As the quantity of opium coming into China increased, the product became cheaper. It was soon available not just to the wealthy but to a wide cross-section of society. At the turn of the nineteenth century, about 2500 tons of opium were being imported into China annually. By the middle of the century, that figure had increased almost tenfold to 23 000 tons. It is estimated that at the height of opium usage in China, almost all men used it and about a quarter of the entire male population was addicted.

Access to opium and the high unemployment caused by the economic situation in China were a devastating combination. Opium dens like the one in **SOURCE 2** became popular, especially with unemployed men who did not have to work during the day. Patrons reclined and smoked opium through long pipes. Some dens were highly ornate and richly furnished; others were simple rooms. The décor reflected the social standing of those who used the rooms. The profusion of opium dens indicates just how widespread the use of the drug was. The effects of long-term use of opium are described in **SOURCE 3**. Despite attempts to ban the drug and threats of harsh punishments for selling it, as illustrated in **SOURCES 5** and **6**, trade and use of opium continued.

Eventually some British politicians recognised the responsibility they had for the disastrous situation in China. Some sixty years after the end of the Opium War, Lord Justice Fry of the British Court of Appeal expressed his views, seen in **SOURCE 4**. However, by then the damage had been done.

SOURCE 2 An opium den in Canton, China, c. 1900

SOURCE 3 A British observer's remarks on the effects of opium, from 1847

Those who begin its use at twenty may expect to die at thirty years of age; the countenance becomes pallid, the eyes assume a wild brightness, the memory fails, the gait totters, mental exertion and moral courage sink ... atrophy reduces the victim to a ghastly spectacle, who has ceased to live before he has ceased to exist.

SOURCE 4 Lord Justice Fry's comment regarding Britain's moral responsibility for the situation in China, from around 1908

We English, by the policies we have pursued, are morally responsible for every acre of land in China which is withdrawn from the cultivation of grain and devoted to that of the poppy; so that the fact of the growth of the drug in China ought only to increase our sense of responsibility.

SOURCE 5 Edict following the ban on opium in 1839

Let the buyers and smokers of opium be punished with one hundred blows, and condemned to wear the wooden collar for two months. Then, let them declare the seller's name, that he may be seized and punished.

SOURCE 3 An 1804 engraving of a wooden punishment collar as described in **SOURCE 5**. The writing indicates the crime for which the prisoner is being punished.

DISCUSS

The opium trade was highly lucrative for the British in the 19th century, but its impact on China was significant.

1. Do you think all the positive and negative consequences were considered by the British as the trade progressed?
2. How much do you think governments in the modern world have an obligation to try to reach a balance of positive outcomes for both sides?
3. Think about what might happen today if a trade agreement between Australia and another nation had positive outcomes for one side but negative outcomes for the other. How might each country react in that situation?

[Ethical Capability]

7.7.3 Expanding contacts

Foreign ideas

The Jesuit missionaries of the sixteenth century brought with them not only Christianity but also European ideas and technology, particularly in the fields of astronomy and science. They shared their European views with the Chinese and returned to Europe with tales of China's wonders. Yet their numbers were small and any ideas or new technology they conveyed tended to remain within the emperor's inner circle rather than circulated throughout the country.

Some missionaries, however, came to be trusted within the emperor's court and played an important role in early Chinese and European relations. Matteo Ricci and Adam Schall von Bell were two early examples. They learned the language and translated classical Western texts into Chinese, which helped to spread the ideas of European scholars such as Galileo. Particularly in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Jesuit missionaries promoted what was the first example of cultural exchange between China and the West.

As the inflow of foreigners in China increased in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the spread of Western ideas also began to increase. During this time, Chinese citizens began to travel abroad and brought home with them new ideas in the fields of science, technology and social reform. The nineteenth century had seen such unrest in China that more and more people were beginning to question their traditional beliefs. The Qing dynasty appeared to be losing the mandate of heaven.

In 1898, many of these ideas were brought together and promoted in what became known as the Hundred Days' Reform. The reformers, led by Emperor Guangxu, decided that for China to become strong again a range of changes were needed. They thought that reforms must be accompanied by fundamental changes to institutions and ideology. The ideas included the modernisation of the education system, the restructure and strengthening of the military and the modernisation of China's industrial capability.

The Hundred Days' Reform failed when conservative opponents, supported by Empress Cixi, removed Guangxu from power. The conservatives did not oppose the modernisation of China; rather, they feared that the intended reforms would only increase foreign influence.

The Chinese Diaspora

During the nineteenth century a large number of Chinese decided, or were forced, to emigrate due to different factors. These people became known as the Chinese Diaspora. Famines in the southern coastal provinces of Fujian and Guangdong, combined with the effects of the Opium Wars and the Taiping Rebellion, disrupted agricultural and economic activity in many areas, putting further strains on Chinese resources. Around the same time slavery was being abolished in many parts of the world, creating labour shortages. In North America, Chinese migrants replaced African slaves as the major source of labour. The large-scale emigration alarmed the Qing but there was little they could do about it; the unequal treaties forced the government to allow emigration to colonial regions.

SOURCE 4 This photograph from the early twentieth century shows two Chinese labourers at work in the Australian outback.

While many Chinese migrated to other Asian countries in search of work, a great number travelled further afield — to the United States, Canada, Australia and Europe. In 1849 gold was discovered in California, and when merchants brought news of the find to China a wave of migration to 'Gold Mountain' occurred. The Australian gold rushes of the 1850s provoked similar migrations and 'New Gold Mountain', as the Australian goldfields became known, saw the beginning of a long period of Chinese migration to Australia.

Across the world Chinese emigrants established what has become the most visible result of the Chinese Diaspora — the 'Chinatown'. Chinatown is the generic name given to that area of a city outside China in which Chinese businesses and restaurants predominate. There are about twenty Chinatowns in Australia, and many of them are thriving areas used as a focal point for traditional celebrations such as Chinese New Year. **SOURCE 8** shows Melbourne's Chinatown.

SOURCE 5 Chinatown in Melbourne. This community was originally established in the 1850s during the gold rushes.

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- Australia and Asia > **The Chinese diaspora**

7.7 ACTIVITY

a. Construct a visual diagram that summarises the causes of the Chinese Diaspora. Include both 'push factors' (reasons to leave China) and 'pull factors' (reasons to migrate to a particular country).

b. On a world map, label the countries and regions, with the dates if possible, to which Chinese migrants primarily travelled.

Analysing cause and effect

7.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What were 'cash crops'?
2. **HS1** What was the Canton System?
3. **HS1** How did the change in trade routes impact society?
4. **HS1** Draw a flow chart to explain the sequence of economic impacts of the opium trade.
5. **HS1** How did the British change the way opium was used in China?
6. **HS1** Why do you think the British and Chinese traders ignored the 1839 ban on opium?
7. **HS1** What sorts of changes was the Hundred Days' Reform movement hoping to achieve?
8. **HS1** What were the objections of the opponents of the movement?
9. **HS1** What is 'diaspora'?

7.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Why would the Qing government be concerned by the image in **SOURCE 2**?
2. **HS3** Summarise the detrimental effects of opium as expressed in **SOURCE 3**.
3. **HS3** How does the attitude in **SOURCE 4** differ from most British attitudes towards the opium trade?
4. **HS3** Explain what **SOURCE 7** suggests about the extent and scale of the Chinese Diaspora.
5. **HS3** What do **SOURCES 5** and **6** illustrate about the Qing government's attitudes towards opium?
6. **HS3** Which negative effects of opium use outlined in **SOURCE 3** might be identifiable in **SOURCE 2**?

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7.8 Resistance in China

7.8.1 The Boxer Rebellion

Confucianism helped generate a view in China that foreigners were little more than barbarians. It was believed that there was little that could be gained from contact with the outside world. Many people and organisations in China actively sought to get rid of foreigners once and for all.

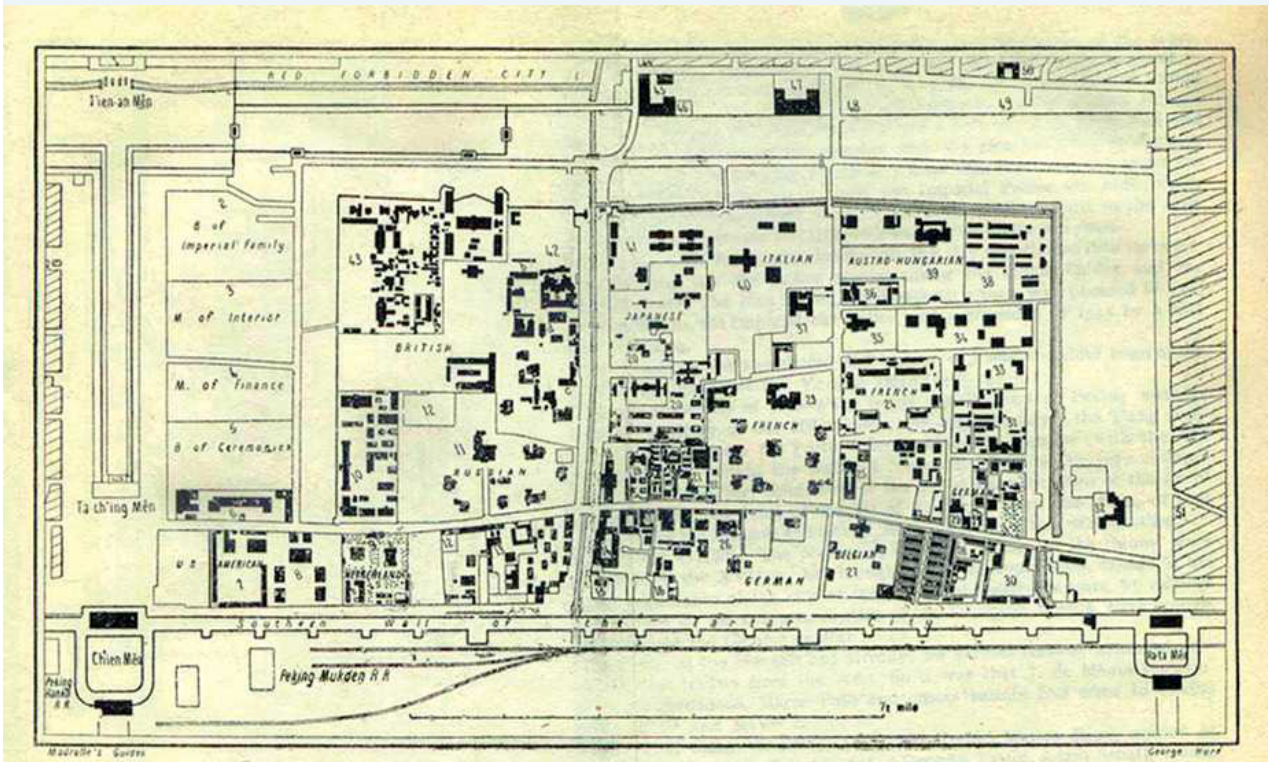
The Society of Righteous and Harmonious Fists, known as the Boxers, was a secret society that called for a return to traditional values and the expulsion of foreigners. They were anti-foreign and anti-Christian and resented the **gunboat diplomacy** used against China. Embracing **Daoist** and Buddhist ideas, the Boxers believed that through a combination of martial arts training and **spirit possession** they would be impervious to guns and cannon. Special women's groups such as the Red Lanterns and the Cooking Pot Lanterns helped feed the fighters. The Boxers also won over provincial officials to their program of helping the Qing expel foreigners.

In 1899 the Boxers began to attack Christian missionaries in protest of their increasing numbers and their interference with traditional Chinese life. A common sentiment in China was that missionaries were yet another attempt by foreign powers to divide and colonise China. The European 'extraterritoriality clause' meant that Europeans in China were exempt from most Chinese laws and were considered under the jurisdiction of their own countries' laws, thereby heightening the sense of helplessness towards the foreigners felt by many Chinese.

SOURCE 1 A Boxer fighter from around 1900 with a spear and flag

The Boxers also targeted telegraph lines and 'iron centipedes' (railway tracks). In the face of such lawlessness the Qing government had to act, but it faced a dilemma. The foreign powers demanded that Cixi suppress the uprising but, while she publicly condemned the Boxers, secretly the Dowager Empress supported their cause. In June 1900 the Boxers arrived in Beijing (then known as Peking), laying siege to the foreign **legations**. An attack by the foreign Western powers and Japan on the Taku Forts in north-eastern China forced Cixi's hand. Unable to oppose the Boxers for fear of losing further Chinese support, on 21 June she formally declared war on the foreign powers.

SOURCE 2 This map from 1912 shows that the foreign legations were concentrated in a small area in Peking (as they had been in 1900), providing focus points for anti-foreign sentiment during the Boxer Rebellion.



PEKING. — LEGATION QUARTER

1. Tzû-chin Ch'eng.
2. Tsung-jên Fu.
3. Li-pu.
4. Tu-chih-pu (formerly Hu-pu).
5. Li-pu.
6. French Hospital (St-Michel).
7. U. S. American Guard.
8. U. S. American Legation.
9. Netherlands Legation and Guard ..... a. Minister. b. Guard.
10. Russian Guard.
11. Russian Legation.
12. Russo-asiatic Bank.
13. Banque de l'Indo-Chine.
14. Hôtel des Wagons-lits.
15. German Post Office.
16. Russian Post Office.
17. Hongkong and Shanghai B. C.
18. Yokohama Specie Bank.
19. Spanish Legation.
20. Japanese Guard.
21. Japanese Legation.
22. French Post Office.
23. French Legation.
24. French Guard.
25. French Catholique Church (St-Michel).
26. German Legation.
27. Belgian Legation.
28. German Guard.
29. Deutsch-Asiatische Bank.
30. Stores.
31. German Lazaret.
32. Hopkins Memorial Hospital.
33. Electric Station.
34. Imperial Maritime Customs, Residences and Head Offices.
35. Peking Club.
36. Imperial Post of China, Secretary's Office.
37. Inspectorate General of Imperial Maritime Customs.
38. Austro-Hungarian Guard.
39. Austro-Hungarian Legation.
40. Italian Legation.
41. Italian Guard.
42. British Legation a. Minister. b. 1st Secretary. c. 2nd Secretary. d. Church.
43. British Guard.
44. Portuguese Legation.
45. Chinese Post Office.
46. Hôtel de Pekin.
47. Peking Han-k'ou R. R., Head Office.
48. International Banking Corporation.
49. Mexican Legation.
50. Telegraph Office.
51. Hôtel du Nord.

The Eight Nation Alliance of foreign powers comprised Japan, Russia, Great Britain, France, the United States, Germany, Italy and Austria-Hungary. The Australian colonies, not yet federated into the Commonwealth, offered support to the British, and troops from Victoria and New South Wales were formed into naval brigades.

Australia's first contingents, mainly men from Victoria and New South Wales, sailed for China on 8 August 1900. Troops from the Eight Nation Alliance were already fighting in China and, by the time the Australians arrived, most of the major fighting was over. They were then engaged in 'mopping up' operations or simply guarding prisoners. Six Australians died in the Boxer Rebellion, but none were the result of enemy action — all were from sickness and injury.

SOURCE 3 Officers of the Australian Naval Brigade serving in China during the Boxer Rebellion

One of the most significant episodes of the uprising was the siege of the legations. This was the area of Beijing in which the foreign powers had their diplomatic legations or embassies. The siege of the foreign legations in Beijing lasted 55 days. By the time they were relieved on 14 August 1900, 66 foreigners and many more Christians had been killed across China. Cixi fled Beijing but returned when peace terms were arranged.

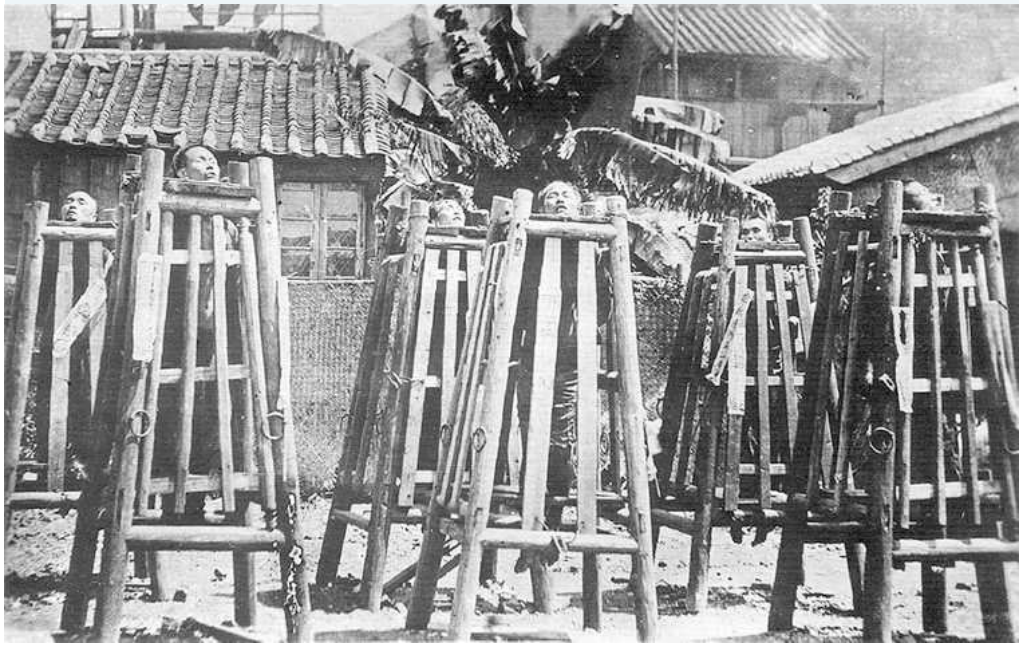
Yet again superior foreign military forces had quickly defeated China. Yet again a punishing peace treaty was forced on China, resulting in more reparation payments and the further deployment of foreign troops in China. And, yet again, the Qing government's weakness against foreign powers had been demonstrated. Cixi finally realised that reform offered the only hope for the survival of the Qing and of China. Most of the reforms that had previously been resisted by Cixi over the previous years were now initiated.

Technically, the Boxer Rebellion was actually not a rebellion at all. The term 'Rebellion' suggests the Boxers wanted to overthrow the dynasty, but this was never their intention. In fact, the Empress Dowager Cixi had some sympathy for the rebels: she too wanted an end to foreign influence in China. She chose to describe it as a rebellion to give the impression that she opposed it, in the hope of reducing the harshness of the peace terms imposed by the foreign powers.

SOURCE 4 The aims of the Boxers as expressed in a rhyme in 1900

No talented people are in sight;
There is nothing but filth and garbage,
Rascals who undermine the Empire,
Leaving its doors wide open.
But we have divine power at our disposal
To arouse our people and arm them,
To save the realm and to protect it from decay.
Our pleasure is to see the Son of Heaven unharmed.
Let the officials perish,
But the people remain invincible.
Bring your own provisions;
Fall in to remove the scourge of the country.

SOURCE 5 This photograph from around 1900 shows the public execution of captured Boxer rebel fighters.



SOURCE 6 Sentiments expressed by Prince Kung of the Imperial Qing Court around 1900 about the foreign presence in China

Take away your opium and your missionaries, and you will be welcome! ... Do away with your extraterritoriality clause and missionaries may settle anywhere and everywhere; but retain it and we must do our best to confine you and our troubles to the treaty ports.

7.8.2 Reform and revolution

Major educational changes were among the reforms introduced by the Qing government under the terms of the Boxer Protocol. Modernisation of the curriculum began and for the first time Western subjects were introduced. While this might have helped placate some of the people, for example those who promoted the Hundred Days' Reform, it had some negative effects for the government. The new curriculum introduced beliefs and values that conflicted with traditional Confucian beliefs. Those who went through the new system tended to be more critical of the dynasty and were hungry for further change. In losing control of the education system, the Qing lost a key area of popular support.

In 1908 work began on a constitution in which the emperor would retain control over the armed forces, foreign policy and the judicial system but would extend the administrative powers of provincial and local leaders. The military was also decentralised, making it more efficient to run, and was also equipped with Western weapons and trained in Western tactics.

Despite, or perhaps because of, these reforms, the Qing dynasty was doomed. The reforms were intended to modernise China and restore faith in the government. They were only partially successful. While they did manage to modernise China, they also provided a degree of freedom for its people that was never known before. With this freedom came a demand for further change and, eventually, a demand for the Qing government to be removed from power altogether. A new sense of nationalism was evolving and people began to dream of a new, independent China free from foreign interference.

Revolution

Over the course of the nineteenth century the Chinese people had witnessed the Qing dynasty's powerlessness to stop foreign encroachment into China. The violent upheavals of the Opium Wars, the Taiping Rebellion and the Boxer Rebellion repeatedly demonstrated the weakness of the Qing and the dynasty's inability to resolve pressures both from within and from outside China. Many Chinese came to believe that revolution, rather than reform, was the only way to save the country. This belief would be violently expressed in 1911.

Before her death in 1908, the Empress Dowager had nominated the three-year-old Pu Yi to be the next emperor. Pu Yi's father, Prince Jun, was himself not considered worthy of rule but would act as regent until Pu Yi was old enough to rule on his own. However, one man in particular had no time for a new emperor. His name was Sun Yixian and he would become a key figure in modern China.

Sun wanted to transform China into a republic and had already tried to overthrow the Qing in 1895. After this attempted coup failed he fled into exile but, in 1911, he saw a new opportunity, and this time he was more successful. Dissatisfaction with the Qing government's apparent weaknesses in the face of internal problems and foreign intervention had boiled over into open rebellion in many provinces. The imperial army refused to oppose the rebels unless the government granted the long-awaited constitution. When it refused to do so, the downfall of the Qing became only a matter of time. Without the army on its side there was no hope for the dynasty.

Sun Yixian was confirmed as president designate on 1 January 1912; only weeks later, on 12 February, Pu Yi abdicated. However, Sun had a rival — General Yuan Shikai — with very different goals for the new China. Many areas of the country were still under the control of local warlords. Despite being provisional president, Sun did not have the military power to bring order to strife-torn China. That power rested with Yuan, so to avoid civil war Sun Yixian stepped down on 10 March.

The declaration of a republic in China ended 267 years of Qing rule and some 2000 years of the imperial system. But this fundamental political change still did not bring peace to China.

7.8 ACTIVITY

Draw and label a timeline showing the key events in China from 1900 to 1912. **Sequencing chronology**

7.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did Cixi secretly support the Boxers?
2. **HS1** Explain why control of education was so important in maintaining the Qing dynasty.
3. **HS1** What were the key changes of the proposed 1908 constitution?
4. **HS1** Why did the requested reforms help to bring an end to the Qing dynasty?
5. **HS1** How did Sun Yixian and Yuan Shikai differ in their ambitions for China?

7.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 4** and answer the following:
   (a) Who were the 'scourge of the country'?
   (b) What is this document asking Chinese people to do?
2. **HS3** Explain what **SOURCE 5** suggests to you about the nature of the fighting during the Boxer Rebellion.
3. **HS3** Selecting key words from **SOURCE 6** as evidence, describe the main concerns held by Prince Kung about the foreign presence.
4. **HS3** What are the values and limitations of **SOURCE 4** as a historical source?
5. **HS4** Do you think it could be said that the reforms introduced by the Qing government actually helped bring about its downfall? Discuss your opinions as a class and use evidence from this topic to help you write a paragraph response.
6. **HS6** How significant was the role of education in maintaining Qing rule over China and its people?

7.9 Continuity and change

7.9.1 A new emperor?

The China that emerged from the nineteenth century was barely recognisable compared with that of a century earlier. There is no doubt that this time period was a time of great change for many countries, but for China in particular, the consequences of the events of the nineteenth century would affect it well into the next century.

Early in 1912, after the revolution that ended the Qing dynasty, a new style of government was created under the rule of General Yuan Shikai (see **SOURCE 1**). But after coming to power it seemed that his true ambitions became clear. He had avoided civil war when Sun Yixian (see **SOURCE 2**) had stepped down from power, but China now found itself with two opposing political parties — Sun Yixian's Guomindang (GMD) or Nationalist Party, and the Jinbudang or Progressive Party. Both were formed in 1912. When Yuan organised the murder of a GMD leader in 1913, Sun launched a 'Second Revolution' to remove Yuan from the presidency. Yuan responded by declaring the GMD illegal and suspending Parliament. He also began to talk about making himself emperor.

Had China gone through so much turmoil to end the old imperial system only to have it replaced with a new one? Yuan put the question to the vote, but only those who were specially selected were allowed to cast a ballot. Unsurprisingly, the vote was unanimously in favour of the new empire, so Yuan crowned himself emperor in December 1915. In defiance of the vote, eight provinces declared independence and nationwide protests ensued. It seemed that China had had enough of monarchy. In March 1916 Yuan finally accepted that his imperial dream was out of reach and announced a return to republican government. He died in June that same year, leaving China once again in political turmoil. For millions of peasants, however, life continued as usual, with cycles of famine, drought, floods and unjust taxes.

SOURCE 1 Yuan Shikai, first president of the Republic of China

SOURCE 2 Sun Yixian, founder and first leader of the Guomindang

What changed?

Politically, China had changed a great deal by the early twentieth century. The centuries-old imperial system had come to an end and the country had a new president in Sun Yixian. The upheavals of the previous century saw many areas of the country still in turmoil. But for much of the population, particularly the poorer classes, it is doubtful whether anything had actually changed for the better.

SOURCE 3 Chinese peasants, 1920

SOURCE 4 Peasants, late nineteenth century

SOURCE 5 Present-day photo of a Chinese farmer tending the fields

SOURCE 6 Present-day photo of Chinese farmers tending their fields

7.9.2 China and World War I

In 1914 the new Chinese republic, only three years old, found itself an ally of the British and French in World War I. The move away from monarchy was seen as a positive step by the West and China was certainly keen to improve its standing on the world stage. While officially neutral until declaring war on Germany in 1917, from the start of the war China sent more than 100 000 volunteer labourers to the Western Front to help dig trenches, work in factories or engage in other support work. But China gained little by being an ally of the British and French.

At the end of the war, when the Treaty of Versailles was forced upon Germany, the decision was made to confiscate all of Germany's overseas colonies. Some of these were in China and had been leased to Germany by the Qing government. However, these colonies were not returned to China but instead handed over to Japan. In 1915 Japan had taken advantage of its position as an ally of Great Britain and the United States to make a list of 'Twenty-One Demands' on China. These included territorial gains and would see Japan become a more powerful country in the region. Britain and the United States offered little opposition and the Japanese succeeded in most of their demands. Anti-foreign sentiment once again became common and in 1919 a massive protest was held against the government's perceived failure to protect Chinese interests following World War I. The subsequent renewal of anti-foreign sentiment in China created conditions that would play a role in the creation of the Chinese Communist Party in 1921.

7.9.3 Positive outcomes?

Over the course of the nineteenth century the Chinese people had witnessed the Qing dynasty's powerlessness to stop foreign encroachment into China. The violent upheavals of the Opium Wars, the Taiping Rebellion and the Boxer Rebellion repeatedly demonstrated the weakness of the Qing, and the dynasty's inability to resolve pressures both from within and from outside China.

Making any value judgement about positive or negative effects of particular events is difficult when studying history. Inevitably those judgements are highly subjective and will be different depending on the source or the historian. However, few historians disagree that during the nineteenth century there were not many positive effects of foreign influence on China. They highlight the Opium Wars, the Taiping Rebellion and the unfair treaties as evidence. However, most historians also agree that there were some advantages in the long term for China. The exposure of Qing weakness and the continued oppression from both their own government and that of the foreigners made the Chinese people fight for change. People realised that the emperor did not necessarily enjoy the 'mandate of heaven' and, for better or worse, many came to believe that revolution, rather than reform, was the only way to save the country.

7.9 ACTIVITIES

1. Gather a selection of newspaper or magazine articles that address China in some way. This could be to do with trade, culture or sport. Think about how China is represented in the different articles. Summarise your thoughts using the following questions:
   (a) What are the similarities and differences between the different articles and the way China is presented?
   (b) As you would do for a historical source, outline the values and limitations of each article. Consider who wrote the articles, what their focus is, and how this can influence their tone. For example, an article in the arts section of a newspaper writing about a visiting Chinese pianist would most likely have a different tone to an editorial which addresses the treatment of political dissidents in China.
   (c) What do your answers to the above questions highlight about the nature of international relations and the way they are portrayed in the media? **Determining historical significance**
2. Draw a timeline that includes the key events in China between 1912 and 1919. Consider the causes and effects of the events and discuss any similarities or differences. Can you identify any broad differences in the types of causes before and after the fall of the Qing dynasty? **Analysing cause and effect**

7.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What was Sun Yixian's 'Second Revolution'?
2. **HS1** Why did Yuan Shikai renounce his title of emperor?
3. **HS4** How much did life actually change for the average peasant in China?
4. **HS1** Why did the new Chinese republic declare war on Germany in 1917?
5. **HS1** What did China get out of the Treaty of Versailles at the end of World War I?
6. **HS5** Describe reasons for the rise in the level of anti-foreign sentiment in China after World War I.

7.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCES 3–6** and record the changes that you can see in the photographs.
2. **HS3** Explain the values and limitations of the four sources from the question above.
3. **HS4** Discuss the extent to which you think change has occurred for peasants in China over the time period studied in this topic. What about changes to the current day? Do you have enough information to make any conclusions? If not, what other information would be useful?
4. **HS1** Why are judgements about history highly subjective?
5. **HS5** What were some positive and negative outcomes for China, on which most historians agree?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

7.10 SkillBuilder: Analysing cause and effect

online only

Analysing the causes and effects of the fall of the Qing dynasty

When studying history it is important to remember that events don't 'just happen'. Many factors combine to bring about historical events. Being able to analyse cause and effect is an important historical skill.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

7.11 Thinking Big research project: Key events visual summary

online only

SCENARIO

The period 1750 to 1918 saw a series of key events take place in China that changed the nation dramatically. You will undertake an analysis of these major events and create a visual summary to identify where they occurred and how and why they were so significant in China's history.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Key events visual summary (pro-0186)

7.12 Review

online only

7.12.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

7.12.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31708)
Crossword (doc-31709)

Interactivity China (1750–1918) crossword (int-7641)

KEY TERMS

concubine a woman who lives with a man she is not married to and has a lower social rank than his wife
Daoist ancient Chinese philosophical/religious tradition emphasising simple living in harmony and balance with the universe
despot a ruler with almost unlimited power who uses it unfairly or cruelly
gunboat diplomacy a coercive form of diplomacy in which a country threatens the use of military force to achieve its objectives
junk Chinese sailing ship
kowtow to kneel and touch the forehead to the ground in deep respect for an emperor
legation a foreign country's diplomatic office, similar to an embassy
mandate of heaven the idea that heaven blessed the rule of a just emperor but could rescind that blessing if the emperor ruled unjustly
Marco Polo merchant from Venice who travelled through Asia in the thirteenth century; generally credited with introducing Europeans to China and Central Asia
spirit possession an alleged supernatural event in which a spirit or god takes control of the human body, creating changes in behaviour
subordinate having a lower or less important position

7.10 SkillBuilder: Analysing cause and effect

When studying history it is important to remember that events don't 'just happen'. Many factors combine to bring about historical events. Being able to analyse cause and effect is an important historical skill.

7.10.1 Tell me

What is 'cause and effect'?

Cause and effect underlies all history and historical events. Every event occurs for a variety of reasons and leaves behind it a range of effects. This is equally true for both the smallest and the largest events. But the causes are not always easily identified and the effects are not always obvious either. In fact, debate about the causes and effects of historical events is one of the most contentious areas of the study of history about which historians do not always agree.

Why is it important to analyse cause and effect?

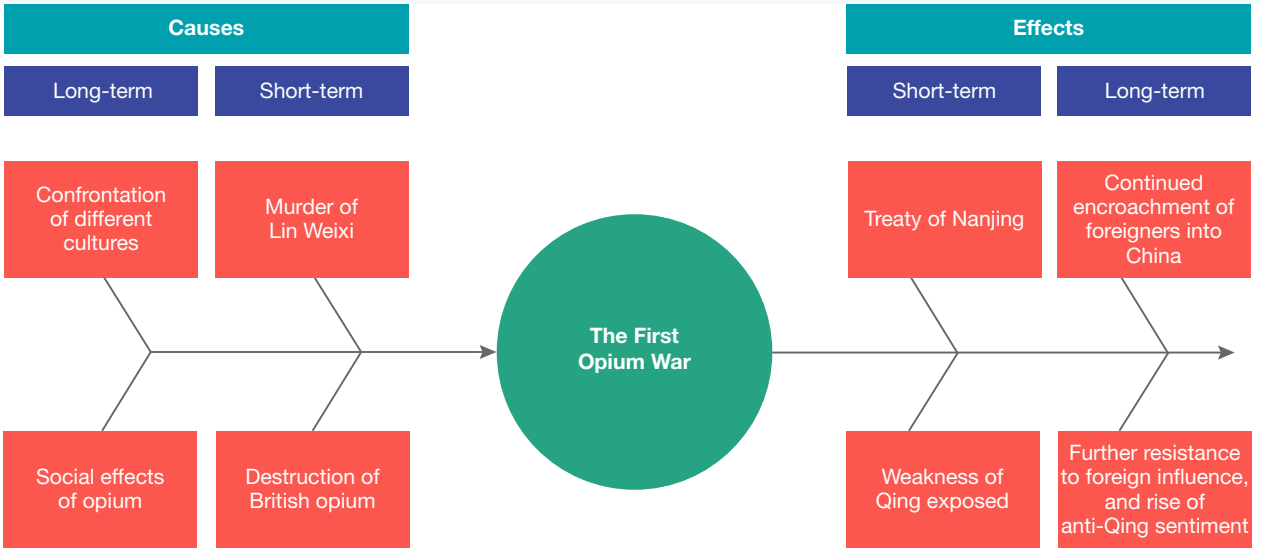
Analysing cause and effect helps us evaluate the importance of different events within historical periods. For example, we might come to the conclusion that one particular event was more significant to a period of change than another. This could be something like the importance of World War I in world history compared to that of World War II, or it could be about the significance of a particular invention (for example, the printing press or the telephone).

7.10.2 Show me

How to analyse cause and effect

1. To begin thinking about the causes of an event, start by asking the question, 'Why did this event happen?' This can be a deceptive question because the answer is usually more complex than it might appear at first. Brainstorm and write down all the reasons you can think of. Try to classify them into long-term causes and short-term triggers.
2. Next, for effects, ask, 'What happened because of it?' Once again, brainstorm and then write down all the things you can think of, trying to separate the short-term or immediate effects from the long-term effects. For both causes and effects you will probably notice that the immediate or short-term factors are easier to identify than those of the longer term.
3. Now organise the results in a way that makes them easier to analyse. One of the most effective ways to analyse cause and effect in history is to use a graphic organiser such as that shown in **SOURCE 1**. As you can see, there is room in the centre for you to indicate the event you are analysing, and there is room on each side to list a number of different causes and effects, both long and short term.
4. Once you have set out your initial thoughts, you can start to evaluate the significance of the event you are studying. Consider these questions:
   - How different was the situation after the event from before it?
   - Was the event I am analysing a key factor of change in the historical period I am studying?
   - How many people were affected by the event?
   - Did the differences that this event brought about remain in place for a long time, or did the situation return to how it was beforehand?
   - Which of the effects were intended, and which were unintended? Did the event result in change that was expected? This requires some careful thinking because it might depend on whose perspective you are viewing the effects from.

SOURCE 1 An effective way to identify and analyse cause and effect



An example of analysing cause and effect

The example here uses the First Opium War to outline how to analyse cause and effect.

1. *Why did the First Opium War happen?* After brainstorming some ideas, long-term causes were the confrontation between British and Chinese cultures, and the social effects of the opium trade in China. Short-term triggers that set off the First Opium War were the destruction of British opium stocks by the Chinese authorities and the murder of Lin Weixi.
2. *What happened because of the First Opium War?* Immediate effects were the signing of the Treaty of Nanjing and the exposing of Qing government weaknesses. Long-term effects were increased encroachment into China by foreign powers and further popular resistance to foreigners and to the Qing government.

SOURCE 2 The signature page of the Treaty of Nanjing

SOURCE 3 The Guangxu emperor, who initiated the Hundred Days' Reform

3. The causes and effects have been put into the diagram, making it easier to identify and categorise them. Of course there may be more branches, depending on the historical event being analysed.

4. By analysing the diagram and considering both the causes and effects of the First Opium War, it becomes clear that it was a significant event in nineteenth-century China. In the long term, it played an important role in the changes that China experienced in the nineteenth century.
   a. *How many people were affected by the event?* The Opium War directly affected the thousands of people who fought in it. Indirectly, it could be argued that millions of people were affected. It exposed the weakness of the Qing dynasty and led to further anti-Qing sentiment. It also further expanded foreign influence in China through the signing of the Treaty of Nanjing, and this would have affected many people in different ways.
   b. *Did the differences that this event brought about remain in place for a long time, or did the situation return to how it was beforehand?* The differences remained in place and set in motion events that would change China permanently. The Treaty of Nanjing increased foreign influence which would eventually lead to further tensions and uprisings within China, ultimately helping to bring about the end of the Qing Dynasty.
   c. *Which of the effects were intended, and which were unintended? Did the event result in change that was expected?* For the Western powers, some of the effects of the Opium War were intended. They fought the war with the aim of increasing their influence and power over China through forced trade, and the Treaty of Nanjing gave them exactly that. However, the level of anti-Qing sentiment that arose may have been unexpected, given that some of these tensions were eventually directed at the foreign powers in the Arrow War and Boxer Rebellion.

SOURCE 4 Opium being destroyed in China

7.10.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

7.10 ACTIVITIES

1. (a) Now that you have seen an example of how to analyse cause and effect, create a chart similar to the diagram in **SOURCE 1** to identify the causes and effects of the Boxer Rebellion.
   (b) Pair up with a classmate to compare your charts. What differences are there in your causes and effects?
   (c) Explain your differences to each other and consider if your chart needs to be amended.
2. Rank the causes from more important to less important. Explain why you ordered them the way you did.
3. Repeat the process in part 2 for the effects you have identified.
4. Separate the effects into two groups — intended and unintended. Explain why you assigned them that way.

7.11 Thinking Big research project: Key events visual summary

Scenario

The period 1750 to 1918 saw a series of key events take place in China that changed the nation dramatically. Such events included:

- Lord Macartney's visit to China (1792)
- the First Opium War (1839–1842)
- the Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864)
- the Second Opium War (1856–1860)
- the Sino-Japanese War (1894–95)
- the Hundred Days' Reform (1898)
- the Boxer Rebellion (1899–1901)
- the downfall of the Qing dynasty (1911)
- World War I (1914–1918).

Is it possible to determine which of these were the most significant and why?

SOURCE 1 This image shows Hong Kong as an early settlement. It was ceded to the British after the First Opium War and remained a British colony until 1997. How significant does this fact make the First Opium War?

Task

Undertake an analysis of these major events and choose the four that you believe were most significant, then create a visual summary to identify where they occurred and how and why they were so significant in China's history.

Your final product should be a map of China indicating the location of your chosen events, with annotations outlining the significance of each. Follow the steps in the **Process** section to complete this task.

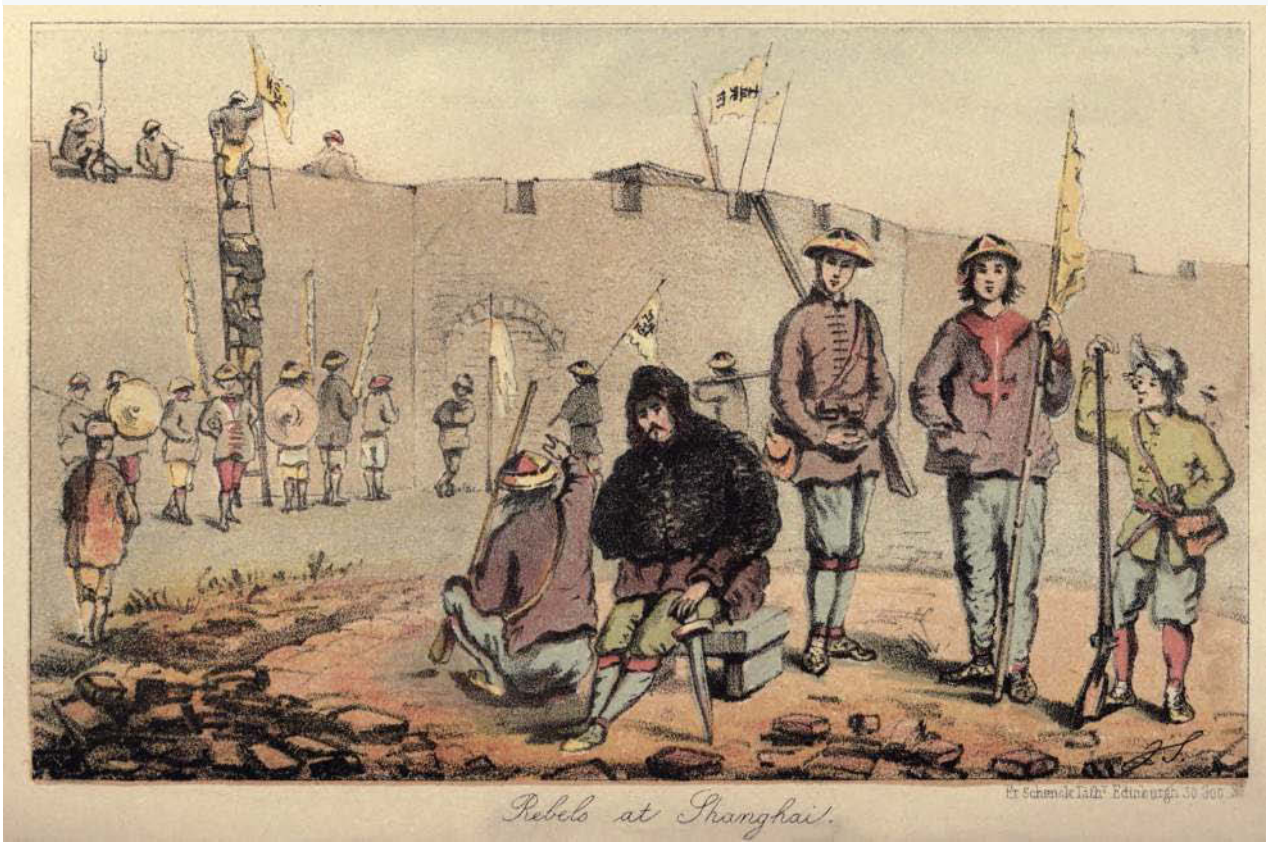
SOURCE 2 An opium den in Canton, China, c. 1900

Process

- Open the ProjectsPLUS application in the Resources for this topic. Click on the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group. For this task you should work with a partner, which will allow you to swap ideas and share responsibility for the project. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics (the events from the **Scenario** section) loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric and some weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research. Remember to record details of your sources so you can create a bibliography to submit with your completed visual summary. Add your research notes and source details to the relevant topic pages in the Research forum. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered, if you wish.
- Refer back to the text and the work you have done throughout this topic and think about why these events were significant for China during this period. To measure the significance, think about the following factors:
  - What *change* resulted from the event?
  - How were people affected by it?

    - How many people were affected by it?
    - How long lasting were the changes or *consequences*?
- Once you have discussed and analysed the degree of change brought about by the events, you will be able to rank the events in order from *more significant* to *less significant*. Of course, this is your *perspective* of the events and others may think differently.
- Select the four events that you believe were the most significant.
    - Using a blank map of China, or the world if required, indicate the main location of each event so you can provide some geographic reference.
    - For each event, add a text box to your map that includes a dot-point summary of what occurred, and a paragraph clearly detailing *why* you have included the event — i.e., you should explain the measures of significance of each.
- Check your map thoroughly, ensuring that you have used correct spelling and grammar. Once you are happy with your work, submit your completed visual summary and bibliography to your teacher for assessment.

SOURCE 3 Taiping rebels at Shanghai, China, 1853–54



on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Key events visual summary (pro-0186)

7.12 Review

7.12.1 Key knowledge summary

7.2 Examining the evidence

- Traditional Chinese Confucian society placed great importance on knowledge and study.
- Chinese royal historians recorded the events of the royal families in what were known as the 'dynastic histories'.
- Modern historians must evaluate these sources carefully because they would often portray the represented dynasty in a very positive way, even though that was not always the case.
- The development of photography provided an entirely new medium through which to interpret historical events. However, like any other source, photography must be viewed with a critical eye.

7.3 Qing China

- Prior to the seventeenth century, China was largely isolated from and unknown to the European world.
- The key influencing philosophy of Confucianism formed the basis of Chinese culture, law, and society for centuries, resulting in an inward-looking traditional system of government.
- The emperor had ultimate power and ruled by what was known as the 'mandate of heaven'.
- If heaven turned against the emperor through bad harvests or failure in warfare, then the emperor was seen to have lost the mandate. This often resulted in the overthrow of the emperor and the rise of a different ruling family or 'dynasty'.

7.4 Living under the emperor

- Life in traditional China was governed closely by Confucianism, which resulted in a social structure not unlike the feudal system in Europe.
- The family was seen as the basic building block of society, so its structure remained very rigid.
- All members of the family were expected to know their place; women were subordinate to men.
- Socially, the 'four occupations' classified the population into a hierarchy, though in reality not all occupations were reflected in these four.
- Political challenges in the late nineteenth century began to defy social norms. As a result, twentieth-century Chinese society saw dramatic changes to many rules and customs previously held for centuries.

7.5 Arrival of the foreigners

- The first Europeans to make contact with China were traders, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.
- They were not regarded as a threat to the Chinese, who felt that there was little that foreigners could offer them.
- However, more European powers began to seek trade. The Chinese attempted to limit the trade to specified cities under what became known as the 'Canton System'.
- This ultimately led to conflict with the foreign powers, in particular the British, when the British attempts to increase trade were rebuffed.
- Traditional Chinese weapons were no match for Western technology and China's repeated defeats at the hands of the foreign powers led to a range of 'unequal treaties' being signed and an increased sense of bitterness and resentment towards foreign influence in China.

7.6 Expansion, trade, conflict

- The mid to late nineteenth century saw great change in China, brought about largely by foreign influence.
- Pleas from Lin Zexu directly to Queen Victoria had little effect on foreign trade and influence.
- China's defeat in the Opium Wars, fought against a coalition of foreign powers, led to internal resentment towards the weak Qing dynasty.
- The resultant Taiping Rebellion and Boxer Rebellion saw Chinese anger directed both at the foreign powers and at the Qing dynasty itself.

- The emergence of Japan as a major world power presented a new threat for China.
- The monarchy found itself under threat from home and abroad, and attempts at reform to modernise and strengthen the country were resisted by then Empress Dowager Cixi.

7.7 Economic and social effects

- In addition to the political changes influenced by foreign powers, the economic and social effects also began to be felt more widely.
- The shift in agriculture from food crops to silk and tea to meet the British demand resulted in a fall in food production.
- This shortage drove prices up, making it difficult for poorer people to afford basic staple products.
- Socially, British imports of opium had a significant impact.
- More opium coming into China resulted in greater quantities of the drug being available more cheaply than ever before.
- Its use became widespread and at one point an estimated one-quarter of the adult male population was addicted.
- Foreign ideas also started to spread in China.
- Reformers called for modernisation of the country, but this was resisted because of the fear of ever-increasing foreign influence.
- The Qing dynasty was trying desperately to hang on to traditional power in a modernising world.

7.8 Resistance in China

- The Boxer Rebellion is the most well known of the violent reactions to foreign influence.
- The Boxers called for the expulsion of foreigners from China and a return to traditional values.
- The Empress Dowager Cixi was in a difficult position because secretly she agreed with the Boxers, but publicly denounced the uprising in the hope of reducing the harsh treatment imposed by the foreign powers after the uprising was crushed.
- Cixi's death in 1908 resulted in a power struggle between Sun Yixian and Yuan Shikai, which ultimately led to the declaration of China as a republic in 1911 and the end of the 300-year-old Qing dynasty.

7.9 Continuity and change

- Politically, the China that emerged in the first part of the twentieth century was drastically different to the China of the nineteenth century.
- It had become a republic with a president as head of state, rather than a monarchy with an all-powerful emperor.
- However, the new government faced challenges of its own.
- Japan's 'Twenty-One Demands' of 1915 was yet another humiliating imposition on China that once again saw foreign influence creating tensions both within China and with the international community.

A timeline of key events in China, 1750–1918

CE

1790

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

1800

1810

Early 1800s
Despite an import ban on opium,the British smuggle large amounts of it into China. Much of the population becomes addicted.

1820

1830

1839
The First Opium War begins.

1840

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

1847–52
Natural disasters strike China, placing great strain on the government.

1850

1850
The Taiping Rebellion begins.

1856
The Second Opium War (Arrow War) begins.

1860

1860
The Second Opium War (Arrow War) ends.

1861
The new Empress Dowager Cixi comes to power.

1864
The Taiping Rebellion is finally subdued.

1870

1880

1890

1894–5
Sino-Japanese War

1898
The Hundred Days' Reform attempts to modernise China.

1900

1899–1901
Boxer Rebellion

1908
The Dowager Empress Cixi dies.

1910

1911
Revolutions erupt across much of China.

1912
Pu Yi, the last Chinese emperor, abdicates.

1920

CE

7.12.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

7.12 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

How did foreign influence transform China from isolated monarchy to modern republic?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question, outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31708)
Crossword (doc-31709)

Interactivity China (1750–1918) crossword (int-7641)

KEY TERMS

concubine a woman who lives with a man she is not married to and has a lower social rank than his wife
Daoist ancient Chinese philosophical/religious tradition emphasising simple living in harmony and balance with the universe
despot a ruler with almost unlimited power who uses it unfairly or cruelly
gunboat diplomacy a coercive form of diplomacy in which a country threatens the use of military force to achieve its objectives
junk Chinese sailing ship
kowtow to kneel and touch the forehead to the ground in deep respect for an emperor
legation a foreign country's diplomatic office, similar to an embassy
mandate of heaven the idea that heaven blessed the rule of a just emperor but could rescind that blessing if the emperor ruled unjustly
Marco Polo merchant from Venice who travelled through Asia in the thirteenth century; generally credited with introducing Europeans to China and Central Asia
spirit possession an alleged supernatural event in which a spirit or god takes control of the human body, creating changes in behaviour
subordinate having a lower or less important position

8 World War I (1914–1918)

8.1 Overview

Millions fought and died in the Great War. Was there more to it than just winners and losers?

8.1.1 Links with our times

The years 2014–2018 marked the centenary of World War I, an anniversary of enormous significance for Australia and for much of the world. For Australians, this was a reminder of the terrible losses suffered by our nation a century ago. The Australian War Memorial plays a vital role in the remembrance of war. Inscribed in bronze on the memorial's Roll of Honour are the names of more than 102 000 Australians who have died in wars since 1885. Tragically, 62 000 of those names are from just one war: World War I.

World War I was a turning point in Australia's history; learning about it helps us to understand much about our country. It was also a turning point for the world, resulting in death and destruction on a massive scale, the rise of communism, and later of fascism, and the fall of empires. Wars have terrible consequences but they do not simply happen. They can be investigated and understood. If we learn from the past, it might help us to put an end to war in the future.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson World War I (1914–1918) (eles-2398)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

8.1 Overview
8.2 Examining the evidence
8.3 What caused the Great War?
8.4 The world at war
8.5 Australians in the Great War
8.6 Gallipoli
8.7 Gallipoli: the historical debate
8.8 Trench warfare
8.9 The Western Front
8.10 The home front
8.11 The conscription issue
8.12 The Eastern Front: collapse and revolution
8.13 Peace and commemoration
8.14 The war's impact on Australia's international relations
8.15 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing photos online only
8.16 **Thinking Big research project:** Western Front battlefields guide online only
8.17 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of World War I

CE

1880

1882
Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy form the Triple Alliance.

1907
Britain, France and Russia form the Triple Entente.

1910

1914
28 July: Austria–Hungary declares war on Serbia.

1–3 August: Germany declares war on Russia and France, and invades Belgium.

4 August: Britain declares war on Germany.

5–10 September: French and British armies halt the Germans in Belgium and France.

15 September: Trench warfare begins in Western Europe.

1916
March–June: The AIF joins the fight against Germany on the Western Front.

The Australian Light Horse remains in Egypt to fight Turkish forces.

1 July: The British and French launch a big offensive in the Somme Valley on the Western Front.

28 October: The first referendum on conscription is held in Australia.

1915

1915
25 April: The Anzacs land at Gallipoli.

December: The Allies withdraw from Gallipoli.

1917
6 April: The USA enters the war.

31 July: The third battle of Ypres (Passchendaele) is launched by the Germans in Belgium.

7 November: Revolution in Russia leads to Russian withdrawal from the war.

20 December: The second conscription referendum is lost in Australia.

1918
21 March: The last German offensive on the Western Front is launched.

18 July: Australian forces lead the first successful large Allied attack in France.

The Armistice, signed on 11 November, ends the fighting.

1920

CE

8.2 Examining the evidence

8.2.1 How do we know about World War I?

Because of its global scale and impact, there is an enormous range of sources of evidence about World War I. Australia's population during the war years was under 5 million, yet around 60 000 Australians died in active service. As a result, Australia has among the world's most extensive collections of sources from the war.

DID YOU KNOW?

World War I (the First World War), at the time called 'the Great War', was sometimes described as 'the war to end all wars'. However, in the century since World War I there has hardly been a time when war was not taking place somewhere in the world. Increasingly the main victims have come to be civilians. As many as 231 million people died in wars and other conflicts during the twentieth century. Since the beginning of this century, many more have died.

Written sources

Thousands of books and articles have been written about World War I over the many years since it ended. There are also vast quantities of written primary sources. These include campaign maps, soldiers' military records, letters, diaries, memoirs and propaganda for and against conscription for the war. Many of these sources can now be read on the Australian War Memorial website (see **SOURCES 2** and **3**).

Visual sources

Several countries, including France, Belgium and Britain, have great museums dedicated to World War I. Yet none of these surpasses the outstanding collections of the Australian War Memorial. Its holdings include many thousands of photographs and artworks, weapons, equipment and dioramas depicting specific battles. Many documentary films and several excellent websites are dedicated to the subject.

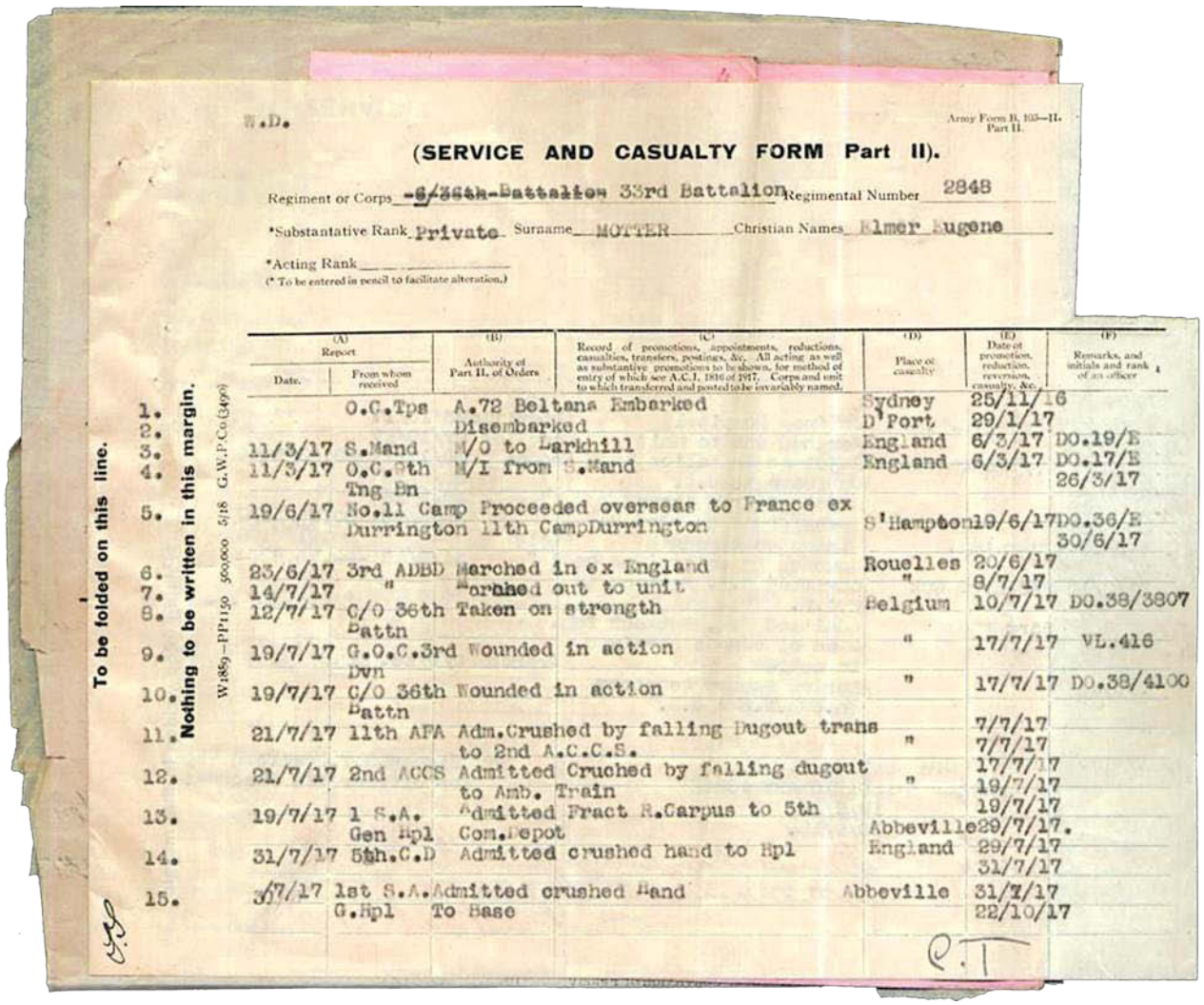
SOURCES 1–4 will give you an idea of the variety of evidence that we have for this conflict.

SOURCE 1 Australian 2nd Division monument near the town of Peronne in the Somme Valley, northern France

SOURCE 2 Part of Second Lieutenant C.C.D. St Pinnock's account of the aftermath of fatal charges against Turkish lines by soldiers of the Australian Light Horse at Gallipoli, Turkey, on 7 August 1915. Pinnock himself was killed in action just one year later.

... you can imagine what it was like. Really too awful to write about. All your pals that had been with you for months and months blown and shot out of all recognition. There was no chance whatever of us gaining our point, but the roll call after was the saddest, just fancy only 47 answered their names out of close on 550 men. When I heard what the result was I simply cried like a child.

SOURCE 3 Part of the World War I military service record of Private Elmer Motter of the 33rd Australian Battalion



W.D.

Army Form B. 103—II. Part II.

(SERVICE AND CASUALTY FORM Part II).

Regiment or Corps ~~6/36th Battalion~~ 33rd Battalion Regimental Number 2848

*Substantive Rank Private Surname MOTTER Christian Names Elmer Eugene

*Acting Rank

(* To be entered in pencil to facilitate alteration.)

	(A) Report: Date.	(A) Report: From whom received	(B) Authority of Part II. of Orders	(C) Record of promotions, appointments, reductions, casualties, transfers, postings, &c. All acting as well as substantive promotions to be shown, for method of entry of which see A.C.I. 1816 of 1917. Corps and unit to which transferred and posted to be invariably named.	(D) Place of casualty	(E) Date of promotion, reduction, reversion, casualty, &c.	(F) Remarks, and initials and rank of an officer
1.		O.C.Tps		A.72 Beltana Embarked	Sydney	25/11/16	
2.				Disembarked	D'Port	29/1/17	
3.	11/3/17	S.Mand		M/O to Larkhill	England	6/3/17	DO.19/E
4.	11/3/17	O.C.9th Tng Bn		M/I from S.Mand	England	6/3/17	DO.17/E 26/3/17
5.	19/6/17	No.11 Camp Durrington		Proceeded overseas to France ex 11th CampDurrington	S'Hampton	19/6/17	DO.36/E 30/6/17
6.	23/6/17	3rd ADBD		Marched in ex England	Rouelles	20/6/17	
7.	14/7/17	"		Marched out to unit	"	8/7/17	
8.	12/7/17	C/O 36th Battn		Taken on strength	Belgium	10/7/17	DO.38/3807
9.	19/7/17	G.O.C.3rd Dvn		Wounded in action	"	17/7/17	VL.416
10.	19/7/17	C/O 36th Battn		Wounded in action	"	17/7/17	DO.38/4100
11.	21/7/17	11th AFA		Adm.Crushed by falling Dugout trans to 2nd A.C.C.S.	"	7/7/17 7/7/17	
12.	21/7/17	2nd ACCS		Admitted Crushed by falling dugout to Amb. Train	"	17/7/17 19/7/17 19/7/17	
13.	19/7/17	1 S.A. Gen Hpl		Admitted Fract R.Carpus to 5th Con.Depot	Abbeville	29/7/17.	
14.	31/7/17	5th.C.D		Admitted crushed hand to Hpl	England	29/7/17 31/7/17	
15.	3?/7/17	1st S.A. G.Hpl		Admitted crushed Hand To Base	Abbeville	31/7/17 22/10/17	

To be folded on this line.

Nothing to be written in this margin.

W1859—PP1150 500,000 5/18 G.W.P.Co.(3499)

R.T

SOURCE 4 A detail from a diorama in the Australian War Memorial, depicting conditions under which Australians fought on the Western Front during World War I

8.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Give five examples of types of primary sources that are available for studies of World War I.
2. **HS1** Name four countries that have museums dedicated to World War I.
3. **HS1** What two other names were used to describe World War I?
4. **HS1** Why would both of those names be considered inappropriate today?
5. **HS1** Where on the internet can you find many written primary sources for World War I?

8.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**. The image shows a place where Australians fought in World War I.
   (a) What does the monument suggest about the French people's attitude to Australian soldiers?
   (b) Suggest why the street in the source has been named *Avenue des Australiens* (Avenue of Australians).
2. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) Identify when and where the event described in this source occurred.
   (b) Identify what percentage of the 550 men survived to answer their names after the attack.
3. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 3**. Elmer Motter died of wounds in France on 2 September 1918.
   (a) Identify how long he was in action before he was first wounded.
   (b) What incident occurred that led to Private Motter being admitted to the ambulance train?
4. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 4** and explain what you can tell from its details about conditions under which Australians fought during World War I.
5. **HS3** Describe what each of the sources in this subtopic tells us about the experience of Australian soldiers in World War I.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.3 What caused the Great War?

8.3.1 Long-term causes of the war

The immediate trigger of World War I was the assassination of the heir to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire on 28 June 1914. Five weeks later the great powers of Europe, along with the countries of their empires and some other small nations, were at war. When the war began, most people thought that it would be over within a few months. Instead it raged for four years, causing great destruction and unimaginable suffering. Such conflicts rarely have one simple cause. To understand how and why the Great War happened we need to look well beyond the event that triggered the fighting.

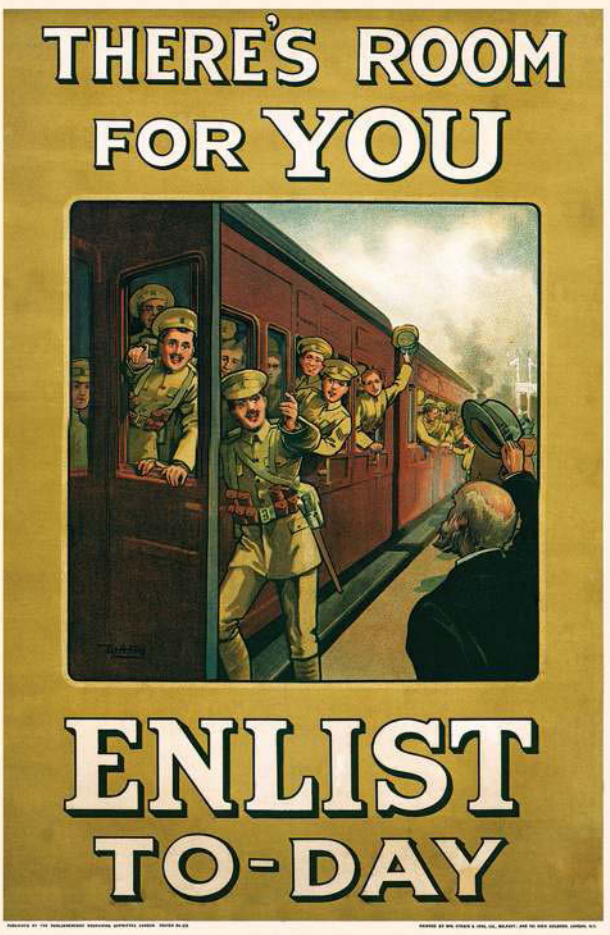
Glorifying war

Today we know that war is terrible, cruel and destructive, and that it often has unforeseen consequences. However, most people did not understand this in early 1914. At school and in popular books, newspapers and magazines, war was often presented as a heroic adventure. Most people thought of wars as short, exciting, noble and glorious. At the same time, there was an arms race in Europe. Between 1870 and 1914 the great powers increased their military spending by 300 per cent and all the continental European powers adopted **conscription**. Some historians have described Europe in 1914 as a powder keg waiting for a spark to ignite an explosion.

Growing tensions

Imperialism and **nationalism** had caused international tensions and conflicts long before 1914. Fear and suspicion of their rivals drove nations to seek security through alliances with others. Leaders came to believe that their countries would be safer if they could rely on others to come to their aid if ever they were threatened. But such alliances could also drag countries into conflicts.

SOURCE 1 *There's Room for You* by W.A. Fry, 1915. Posters such as this one from Britain emphasised the adventure of war.



Germany's alliances

From the early 1870s Germany sought an alliance with Austria–Hungary and Russia. This was because the German states had taken two provinces — Alsace and Lorraine — from France during war in 1870, and Germany feared that France would want revenge. But such an alliance could not last because Austria–Hungary and Russia had competing interests. In 1879 Germany created the Dual Alliance, under which Germany and Austria–Hungary agreed that each would help the other if either was attacked by Russia. This accord became the Triple Alliance when Italy joined in 1882. At the same time, Germany attempted to remain friendly with Britain and to mend relations with Russia.

France finds allies

From 1888 Germany's foreign policy took a new direction. When Germany failed to renew a treaty with Russia in 1890, France

found an ally in Russia. In the 1894 Franco-Russian Alliance, each agreed to help the other if attacked by Germany. The new German ruler, Kaiser Wilhelm II, wanted to create a colonial empire and took steps to build up the German navy. This raised concerns in Britain, whose own empire depended on the Royal Navy's absolute superiority over any rival (see **SOURCES 3** and **4**). Alarmed by Germany's move, Britain signed the Entente Cordiale with France in 1904. When Britain and Russia settled their differences in 1907, Britain, France and Russia linked up in the Triple Entente.

SOURCE 2 European alliances at the beginning of 1914

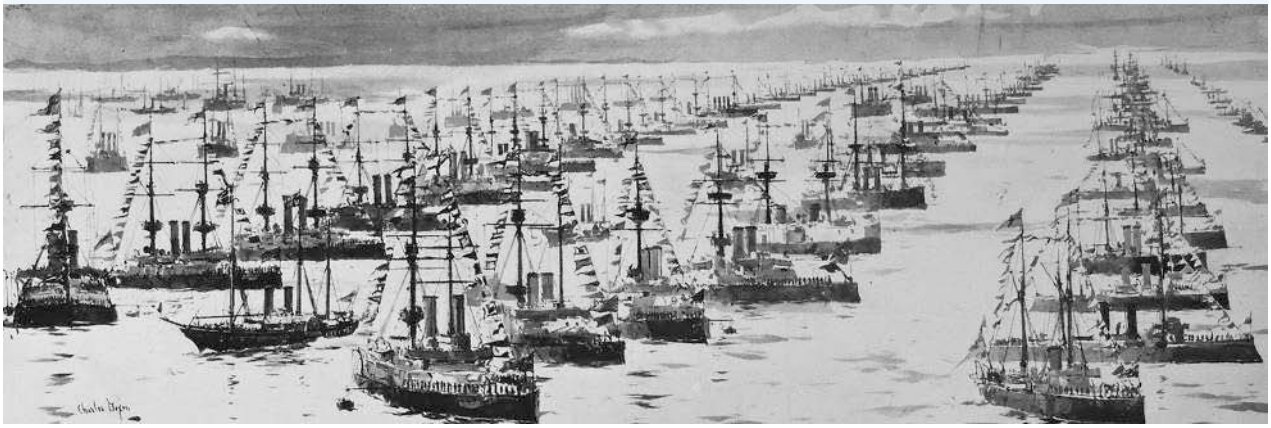
Source: Spatial Vision

Conflicting French and German interests in North Africa and conflicting Russian and Austrian interests in the Balkans led to increased tensions. However, it was in the Balkans that these tensions would erupt into war.

SOURCE 3 From a statement in 1914 by Sir Edward Grey, Britain's foreign minister from 1905 to 1916

The cause of anxiety now in public opinion here as regards Germany arises entirely from the question of the German naval expenditure ... if she had a fleet bigger than the British fleet, obviously she could not only defeat us at sea, but could be in London in a very short time with her army.

SOURCE 4 The (British) Royal Navy's 1st and 2nd Battle Squadrons at sea in 1912. It was British policy to maintain a navy that was large enough and strong enough to defeat the navies of any two potential enemies.



Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- World War One > **Europe on the eve of war**

8.3.2 The short-term triggers of the war

The Balkans powder keg

Nationalism was an especially strong force in Europe's Balkan peninsula, where several national groups had won their independence from the Turkish Ottoman Empire since the 1820s. This current alarmed the military leaders of Austria–Hungary, who feared that the Austro-Hungarian Empire could also be infected by national minorities seeking independence. The main problem was tension between Austria and Serbia, the most powerful of the independent Balkan nations.

Serbia was a **Slavic** nation. Serbian nationalists wanted other Slavic peoples within the Austro-Hungarian Empire to unite with it in a South Slav kingdom. Many Serbs were furious when, in 1908, Austria annexed two Turkish Balkan provinces, Bosnia and Herzegovina, where Serbs made up much of the population. By 1914 Serbia saw Austria as the main obstacle to its expansion. For its part, Austria viewed Serbia as a danger to its empire's continued existence. Austria–Hungary was much more powerful than Serbia, but Serbia had the backing of Russia, which portrayed itself as the champion of fellow Orthodox Christian Slavs (see **SOURCE 5**).

Countdown to war

On 28 June 1914, during an official visit to the Bosnian town of Sarajevo, the heir to the Austrian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his wife, the Duchess Sophie, were fatally shot. Their killer was Gavrilo Princip, a 19-year-old Bosnian Serb. Princip and his fellow assassins belonged to an extreme Serbian nationalist group, Young Bosnia. Its aim was to see Bosnia united with Serbia. They were armed and assisted by Danilo Ilić, a member of the Black Hand, a secret society directed by the head of Serbian military intelligence.

DID YOU KNOW?

The assassins did not know that Archduke Franz Ferdinand was strongly opposed to any war against Serbia and wanted political reform in the Austro-Hungarian Empire with more rights for its subjects.

SOURCE 5 The Balkans and the Austro-Hungarian Empire at the end of 1913

Source: Spatial Vision

SOURCE 6 This illustration appeared in a French magazine shortly after the assassination. The caption read: 'The assassination of the Archduke, Austrian heir, and the Duchess, his wife, in Sarajevo'.

SOURCE 7 From a letter written in 1918 by the youngest of the assassins, 17-year-old Vaso Čubrilović, to his sisters. Because he was under 20, Čubrilović was spared the death penalty but sentenced to 16 years' imprisonment.

I shall write as much as I remember about the assassination. I first thought about it in October 1913 in Tuzla, incensed by the fights we had with our teachers, the mistreatment of Serbian students, and the general situation in Bosnia. I thought I'd rather kill the one person who'd really harmed our people than fight in another war for Serbia. All I'd achieve in a war is to kill a couple of innocent soldiers, while these gentlemen who were responsible for it never come anywhere near the war itself ...

Ilić ... told me that there would be three others, apart from us three, and that Serbian officers were supplying the weapons. I asked if the Serbian government knew about it. He said no ...

Events soon spiralled out of control. Austria now had an excuse to crush Serbia but needed to be sure of Germany's backing. Germany gave Austria a guarantee of military support and, on 23 July, Austria presented Serbia with an **ultimatum**. Austria knew that Serbia could never accept all the terms of the ultimatum, especially its demand that Austrian troops be allowed to track down Serb terrorists inside Serbia.

War begins

Serbia accepted many of the demands and offered to discuss others, but Austria proceeded to declare war on 28 July. Russia began to mobilise its forces to support Serbia on 30 July, so Germany declared war on Russia on 1 August. After France declared it would stand by its Russian ally, on 3 August Germany declared war on France. As you can see from **SOURCE 8**, Russia, Germany, France, Belgium, Britain and their empires were drawn rapidly into a world war.

SOURCE 8 The steps by which countries were drawn into World War I

8.3 ACTIVITIES

1. Historians use arguments to interpret and explain the past, including how events caused changes and other events. However, we have to be careful to ensure that we avoid **reasoning errors**.

As you might know, an **argument** is a group of sentences arranged so that the sentence called the *conclusion* follows from the other sentences, called the *premises.*

A **logical argument** is one in which the conclusion *does* follow from the premises.

A **fallacy** is an argument in which the conclusion *does not* follow from the premises. It is an argument based on reasoning errors.

A common reasoning error is to assume that because one event came before another event or change, or because it was occurring around the same time, the first event must be a cause of the second event. We call this a **cause-and-effect fallacy** or **false-cause fallacy**. It goes like this: if X happens and Y occurs, you can conclude that X causes Y. An example could be the following argument:

Premise 1: Between 1870 and 1914 the great powers increased military spending by 300 per cent.

Premise 2: The continental powers of Europe adopted conscription before World War I.

Conclusion: Therefore increased military spending and conscription caused World War I.

This argument might seem reasonable until you consider what you get if you use the same kind of reasoning for a different argument. For example:

Premise 1: In 1910, the rulers of Germany, Austria–Hungary, Russia and France attended the funeral of England's King Edward VII.

Premise 2: World War I involved Germany and Austria–Hungary on one side against Britain, France and Russia on the other side

Conclusion: Therefore attending the funeral of Edward VII caused World War I.

The reasoning error with both arguments is assuming that the first event or events **caused** the second event without demonstrating any causal link between the two events. In the first example, developments that could have contributed to the likelihood of war are used as premises but all other possible causes are ignored. In the second, no direct link is shown between the events.

Your task

(a) Work in small groups to develop **two arguments** to explain the outbreak of World War I. As you have learned, several developments contributed to World War I. They include long-term factors such as the arms race, alliances, imperialism, nationalism and glorification of war, and short-term triggers involving Serbia and Austria. In your first argument, use the same reasoning errors as in the above examples. In the second, your task is to present a logical argument.

(b) After the discussion, complete the table shown to outline both arguments decided upon by your group.

Erroneous argument	Logical argument

(c) Briefly describe how studying this subtopic has helped you to identify reasoning errors.

[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]

2. With a partner, evaluate the significance of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand as the trigger for World War I, using the following questions as a guide. You can use a graphic organiser such as a mind map to organise your thinking and frame your responses if you wish.

(a) Is it likely that Austria–Hungary would have gone to war without German backing?

(b) What were the terms of the guarantee of military support that Germany gave to Austria–Hungary? (This guarantee is often referred to as the 'blank cheque'. You will need to use the internet to explore this issue.)

(c) What were Germany's motives for encouraging Austro-Hungarian aggression?

(d) Does the involvement of Serbian officers in the assassination plot prove that the Serbian government was involved?

(e) If the Serbian government really was involved, would it have accepted most of the Austrian ultimatum?

(f) As Serbia did accept most of the terms of the ultimatum, why did Austria still declare war?

(g) Is it likely that, had the assassination not occurred, other tensions would still have triggered the war?

Determining historical significance

8.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify three long-term causes of World War I.
2. **HS1** Explain Germany's motive for wanting alliances.
3. **HS1** Identify reasons why nationalism in the Balkans alarmed the leaders of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.
4. **HS1** What did Serbian nationalists want?
5. **HS1** Explain why a potential war between Serbia and Austria was likely to involve other nations.

8.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**, identify the members of the two rival European alliances.
2. **HS3** Refer to **SOURCES 3** and **4**.
   (a) Why was Britain fearful of steps taken by Germany's Kaiser Wilhelm II to expand the German navy?
   (b) Explain how this development led Britain into an alliance with France and then with Russia.
3. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCE 5** can assist us in understanding why Austria–Hungary wanted a war with Serbia.
4. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 6** and **7** as your primary-source evidence, write a brief account of the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand and the plot leading to it.
5. **HS3** Analyse the perspective of Vaso Čubrilović in **SOURCE 7**.
   (a) Decribe Čubrilović's motives.
   (b) Explain why he would have thought his actions were justified.
   (c) How was his perspective different from that of the leaders of Austria–Hungary?
6. **HS5** Using what you have discovered about short- and long-term causes, refer to **SOURCE 8** to describe the steps by which a local conflict quickly became a world war.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.4 The world at war

8.4.1 The main battlefronts

World War I was fought between two groups of countries — the Allies and the Central Powers. At first the Allies consisted of the British, French and Russian empires along with Serbia and Belgium. The Central Powers were Germany, the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Bulgaria and the Turkish Ottoman Empire. Partly because Britain, France, Germany and Turkey had empires outside Europe, what began as a European war became a global war. It was fought on many fronts: on land, on and under the sea and in the air.

In return for promises of territory, Italy withdrew from the Triple Alliance and joined the Allies in May 1915. As the war progressed, other countries joined the Allies. Among them were Greece, Portugal, Romania, Japan, China, Brazil and the small countries of Central America, although many of them expressed their support without joining the fighting. The United States of America joined the Allies in 1917.

The Western Front

Germany's strategy was based on the fact that it had an enemy to the west (France) and a bigger enemy to the east (Russia), and that it would be impossible to defeat both at the same time. Count Alfred von Schlieffen had developed Germany's basic plan in 1905. Under the Schlieffen Plan, during the six weeks the Germans believed Russia would need to mobilise its army, Germany would launch a quick attack to defeat France. The victorious German forces could then be moved by rail to the east to fight Russia.

Attacking France through neutral Belgium in August 1914 would avoid the much slower task of a direct invasion across the heavily fortified French–German border. The plan failed largely because of strong Belgian resistance, something Germany had not expected. Belgian resistance delayed Germany's advance and helped French and British forces to halt the Germans in northern France in September 1914.

Both sides dug trenches to reduce their losses from enemy artillery and machine-gun fire. Over the next four years, millions of lives were lost in huge offensives aimed at breaking the **deadlock** that resulted from trench warfare.

SOURCE 1 How the Schlieffen Plan was meant to work

Source: Spatial Vision

The Eastern Front

On the Eastern Front, Russian forces had some early successes but they were poorly led and equipped, and the Germans soon gained the advantage. Around 2 million Russian soldiers were killed, wounded or taken prisoner during the war. Despite some victories against Austro-Hungarian forces, Russia's military was collapsing by early 1917 and the Revolution of November 1917 ended Russia's involvement in the war (see subtopic 8.12).

8.4.2 Other theatres of war

The war at sea

Germany's naval build-up had been a major reason for Britain's decision to become an ally of France and Russia. Both Britain and Germany believed that navies could determine the outcome of war. However, in 1914 the German fleet was trapped in its ports, so the British navy's main role was maintaining a **blockade** to prevent Germany from importing war materials. Germany retaliated by sending out U-boats to sink allied shipping. In January 1917 **U-boats** began to attack ships of neutral countries trading with the Allies. This led to the United States joining the Allies in April 1917.

Other European fronts

When Italy joined the Allies a new front was opened along its mountainous frontier with Austria. Fighting continued there throughout the war. In 1916 Austrian and German troops overran Romania soon after it

joined the Allies. After Russian forces captured Armenia from Turkey in 1915, Turkish soldiers rounded up hundreds of thousands of Armenians living within Turkish territory. They were sent on a death march and massacred. In the same year, the Allies failed in their attempt to invade Turkey via the Gallipoli Peninsula (see subtopic 8.6).

SOURCE 2 Major battlefields of World War I

Source: Spatial Vision

War in the colonies

With most of its navy bottled up in port, Germany was unable to defend its colonies. In 1914 South Africa took German South-west Africa, Australia took German New Guinea, and Japan seized Germany's Pacific islands colonies and territory in China. Turkey's Middle Eastern colonies became a theatre of war from 1915, when Britain encouraged Arab leaders to revolt against the Turks with promises of independent kingdoms. These promises were later dishonoured. Germany, in turn, created colonial problems for Britain by shipping arms to Irish rebels, who staged an unsuccessful revolt against British rule in Ireland in 1916.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- World War One > **World War I**

8.4 ACTIVITY

Use the internet to research the massacre of Armenians in 1915 and explain why this issue is still controversial.

Using historical sources as evidence

8.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** At the beginning of the war, who were the Allies and who were the Central Powers?
2. **HS1** Which of these two groups were joined by other countries as the war progressed?
3. **HS1** How did the Allies arrange for Italy to change sides?
4. **HS1** Why was Germany able to achieve victories on the Eastern Front?
5. **HS1** Explain the effect of Britain's naval blockade on Germany's ability to import war materials and to defend its colonies.
6. **HS1** What were the effects of Germany's retaliation against the blockade?

8.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. In a paragraph, explain:
   (a) why Germany needed to defeat France quickly
   (b) how the Schlieffen Plan was meant to achieve this
   (c) why the attack on France had to be made through neutral Belgium.
2. **HS3** With reference to **SOURCE 1**, explain why Germany's Schlieffen Plan failed.
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 2**. Identify the locations of:
   (a) the Western Front and the Eastern Front
   (b) other theatres of war in Europe and the Middle East.
4. **HS5** Identify three developments that could be regarded as turning points in the war during 1914 and 1915.
5. **HS6** Explain the significance of the war's turning points in giving advantages to the Allies. Consider what effect each turning point had on the Allies.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.5 Australians in the Great War

8.5.1 Australia's response to the outbreak of war

Why were many Australians willing to fight in World War I, and where did they serve? You have already learned about how World War I began and the main developments that shaped the course of the war. Now we will try to understand why Australians took part and the ways in which they contributed.

When Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August 1914, Australia was part of the British Empire and therefore was also at war. The Australian Labor Party leader, Andrew Fisher, expressed a popular view when he pledged that Australia would back Britain 'to the last man and the last shilling'. Australia was the only combatant that did not impose conscription, so individual Australians still had the choice of whether or not they would fight. But enthusiastic volunteers from all over the country rushed to **enlist**.

Why did they do this? Soldiers' letters and diaries reveal that some went for personal reasons such as to escape unemployment, to travel or to seek adventure. Many imagined war as exciting and thought that this one would be over in weeks. But most joined believing that Britain's cause was right. They had been brought up to believe that men should be willing to die for their country and the empire, and that Australia needed to prove to Britain that Australians were heroic and worthy of being regarded as true Britons.

SOURCE 1 Private A.J. McSparrow, in a letter dated 18 March 1915. Private McSparrow died of wounds in August 1916.

I have [enlisted] ... and I don't regret it in the very least. I believe it is every young fellow's duty ... besides every paper one lifts it has something to say about young fellows being so slow in coming forward ... we are the sort of men who should go.

SOURCE 2 Corporal R.E. Antill, in a letter to his parents dated 23 April 1915. Corporal Antill was killed in action in July 1917. ('4/-' means four shillings.)

... things were so [economically] bad in Melbourne ... and they are a jolly site worse now ... every day that passes 4/- goes down to me and this war is bound to last a good while yet ... if I am killed you will get what is due to me just the same, as it goes to the next of kin.

8.5.2 Where did they fight?

Australia quickly recruited a volunteer army it called the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). By September 1914, 20 000 soldiers had been selected and organised into the 1st Infantry Division and a Light Horse (mounted) Brigade. By December they were training in Egypt. There the AIF was joined by 10 000 New Zealand troops to form the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC).

Australians took part in several theatres of the war on land, at sea and in the air.

SOURCE 3 Where Australians fought in World War I

Where Australians fought in World War I

Gallipoli

In 1915 Australians played a major role in the Allies' failed attempt to invade Turkey through an attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula (see subtopic 8.6).

War at sea

In Australia's first action in the war, the small Royal Australian Navy (RAN) sent its only battle cruiser *Australia* with the Australian Naval and Military Force to capture German New Guinea in September 1914. The RAN also escorted convoys of transport ships carrying troops to the war. It drove the Germans out of the Pacific. It also served in the Atlantic and Indian oceans, the Mediterranean and the North Sea.

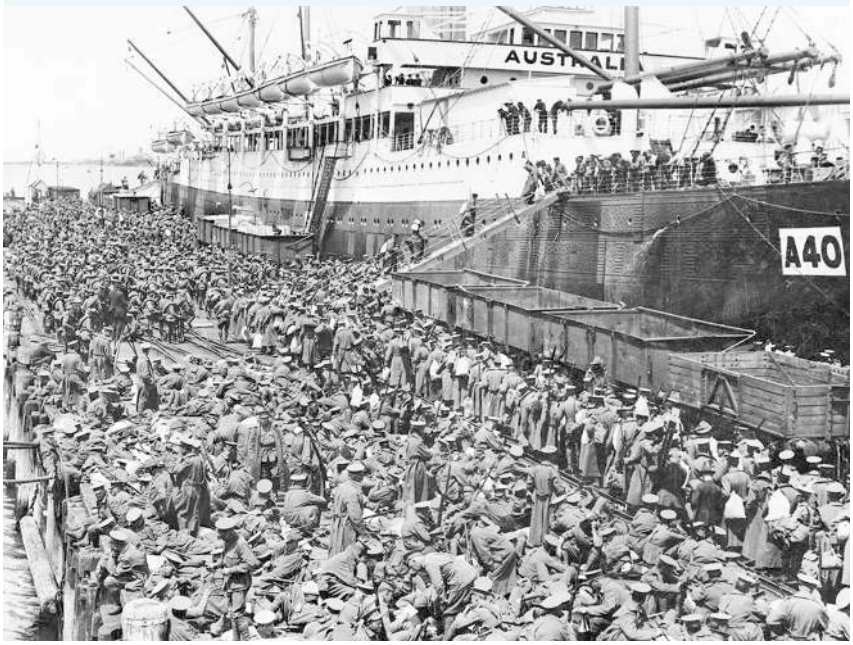
The Western Front

By September 1914 French and British forces had halted the German advance on the fields of northern France and Belgium. Between 1916 and 1918, all five Australian Divisions took part in the terrible fighting on the Western Front (see subtopic 8.9).

The Middle East

The Australian Flying Corps, the Australia Light Horse and Australians in the Imperial Camel Corps played a big role in battles against Turkish forces in Egypt and Palestine between 1916 and 1918.

SOURCE 4 Troops embarking at Port Melbourne in 1915



AWM H19500

DID YOU KNOW?

The light cruiser *Sydney* sank the German raider *Emden* near the Cocos-Keeling group of islands in the Indian Ocean on 9 November 1914. This was considered a great feat because the *Emden* had already sunk 25 Allied steamers and two warships and raided Allied bases in the Pacific.

SOURCE 5 *Emden beached and done for, 9 November 1914*, painted by Arthur Burgess in 1920

Burgess, Arthur
Emden beached and done for, 9 November 1914 (1920)
Oil on canvas, 168.5 × 254.5 cm
Australian War Memorial ART00191

8.5 ACTIVITIES

1. Working in small groups, use the website of the Australian War Memorial to find out more about the incident shown in **SOURCE 5**. Use this information to create a newspaper headline and the kind of news article that might have told of the incident in 1914. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. Australians had fought for the British Empire in previous conflicts, so why was their involvement in World War I of much greater historical significance? Discuss in small groups. **Determining historical significance**

8.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain what Andrew Fisher meant when he said that Australia would back Britain 'to the last man and the last shilling'.
2. **HS1** What indicates that Fisher's view was a popular one?
3. **HS1** In what way was enlistment in Australia different to that in other combatant countries?
4. **HS1** Explain the meanings of AIF and ANZAC.
5. **HS1** Refer to **SOURCE 3**. Make a list of places where Australians fought during World War I and when they fought there.

8.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Compare and contrast **SOURCES 1** and **2**.
   (a) Identify Private McSparrow's motives for enlisting in **SOURCE 1**.
   (b) Identify Corporal Antill's motives for enlisting in **SOURCE 2**.
   (c) Explain how these sources represent different perspectives.
   (d) Form a hypothesis about motives for enlisting that could be supported by evidence from these two sources.
2. **HS3** Write an imaginary conversation between two of the men in **SOURCE 4** in which they discuss the beliefs and feelings that led them to sign up for the war, and what they expect war to be like.
3. **HS5** Identify beliefs about the British Empire that encouraged Australians to enlist for World War I.
4. **HS5** Create a concept map to show how those beliefs and other values contributed to enlistment.
5. **HS6** Australians had fought for the British Empire in previous conflicts, so why was their involvement in World War I of much greater historical significance?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.6 Gallipoli

8.6.1 Why Gallipoli?

Between 25 April and 18 December 1915 thousands of young Australian and New Zealand soldiers died on the beaches and cliffs and in the gullies of Turkey's Gallipoli Peninsula during Australia's first land campaign of World War I. Although the expedition was a failure, the courage and endurance of these men created the Anzac legend.

The soldiers of the AIF had expected to sail to England to complete their training and then be shipped off to the Western Front in France and Belgium, where most British troops were fighting the Germans. Instead the Anzacs were trained in Egypt to form a crucial part of a campaign against Germany's ally Turkey.

The strategy for an Allied attack on Gallipoli was based on the idea of Winston Churchill, who, as First Lord of the Admiralty, controlled Britain's Royal Navy. Churchill thought that an attack on Turkey would shorten the war because:

- Turkey could be defeated and Austria–Hungary would be threatened
- Greece, Bulgaria and Romania would be persuaded join the Allies
- supplies could be shipped through the Dardanelles (a narrow strait between the Aegean Sea and the Black Sea) to Russian troops, who were fighting Germany on the Eastern Front.

The first aim was to capture the Dardanelles (see **SOURCE 1**), opening the heavily fortified strait to Allied shipping. A landing of British, French, Anzac and other British Empire troops was planned after a failed naval attack. The Allied forces were to land on the Gallipoli Peninsula.

SOURCE 1 The Gallipoli Peninsula

Source: Spatial Vision

8.6.2 The landing at Gallipoli

The first landing of soldiers on the beaches of Gallipoli took place on the morning of 25 April 1915. British and French troops landed around Cape Helles. Australians and New Zealanders landed before dawn north of Gaba Tepe. The Anzacs had to reach the shore in landing craft and claw their way up steep cliffs under Turkish fire. Throughout the first day there was confusion and ferocious fighting, much of it hand-to-hand. The battle ebbed and flowed and at last the Turks, fighting courageously, won back control of the high ridges that had been reached by scattered groups of Anzacs. As night fell, the Anzacs found themselves holding only a few square kilometres of beach, cliffs and gullies, and they were ordered to dig in.

Through the night the Turks launched waves of fierce counterattacks. Both sides suffered heavy losses but the Anzac lines held. Strategically, the landing had failed, because the Turks still held the high positions. For the Anzacs it was a triumph of courage over inexperience, but they paid a high price. At least 2300 died that day.

SOURCE 2 *Anzac, the landing 1915*, by George Lambert. Completed between 1920 and 1922, the painting shows men of the 3rd Brigade struggling under fire up the slopes of Ari Burnu shortly after 4.30 am on 25 April 1915.

Lambert, George
Anzac, the landing 1915 (1920–1922)
Oil on canvas, 190.5 × 350.5 cm
Australian War Memorial ART02873

SOURCE 3 From the diary of Sergeant W.E. Turnley, who took part in the initial landing at Anzac Cove

There are a couple of lights flashing about — they must have seen us ... Crack! Swish! Ping! At last ... the suspense is over! ... some get ashore safely, some are hit slightly, others are drowned in only a couple of feet of water because in the excitement nobody notices their plight. [One] fellow remains in the boat after all the others have disembarked ... he ... looks at us dazedly, leaning forward on his rifle ... the soldier falls forward into the bottom of the boat, dead.

SOURCE 4 From a description of the landing by British general Sir Ian Hamilton, commander of the 80 000 Allied troops at Gallipoli

Like lightning they leapt ashore ... so vigorous was the onslaught that the Turks made no attempt to withstand it and fled from ridge to ridge pursued by Australian infantry.

DID YOU KNOW?

In the days after the landing, Private John Simpson (Kirkpatrick), stretcher-bearer of the 3rd Australian Field Ambulance, calmly led his donkey up and down the gully from the front line to the beach, evacuating many wounded men, until he was killed on 19 May. Statues of Simpson and his donkey are located near the Shrine of Remembrance in Melbourne and at the Australian War Memorial in Canberra.

8.6.3 The long and tragic months on Gallipoli

The Gallipoli campaign was not to be the quick, glorious victory Australians had expected. It was a long, agonising ordeal in which the death toll mounted on both sides. During the first week the fighting hardly stopped. By early May most Anzac officers and about half the men in each battalion had been killed or wounded. Despite such casualties, many wounded men who had been evacuated were anxious to return to the front.

SOURCE 5 The Australian 22nd Battalion, newly arrived from Egypt, going into the line at the southern part of Lone Pine, Gallipoli Peninsula

AWM A00847

The Turkish counterattack

On the night of 18–19 May the Anzacs withstood a massive counterattack as 42 000 Turks were ordered to drive them from their positions and back into the sea. In courageous but suicidal charges, the Turks lost 10 000 men, half of whom lay dead or wounded in **no man's land**. Around midday a truce was arranged so both sides could bury their dead before the battle resumed.

Life on Gallipoli

These were weeks of tragic waste, terror and extraordinary courage. With the Turks occupying much of the high ground above them, none of the Anzacs were ever free from danger. Yet they were forced to adapt to life on Gallipoli. Soldiers made grenades from jam tins filled with explosives, nails, stones and shrapnel. Some men learned to catch Turkish grenades and throw them back before they detonated. Mass bayonet charges were frequent but were doomed because, once in open ground, the men were cut down by machine-gun fire. Increasingly they turned to the tactic of mining under enemy trenches and blowing them up from below.

The heat of summer and the many rotting corpses in no man's land brought such incessant swarms of flies that soldiers wrote of their mouths filling with flies when they tried to eat a biscuit with jam. With the flies came diseases such as typhoid and dysentery.

Despite the fact that both sides often killed men rather than take prisoners, the Anzacs and the Turks came to respect each other's courage. The Australians affectionately called their adversaries 'Jacko', 'Abdul' or 'Johnnie Turk'. In between the bombs and bullets, gifts, jokes and greetings were exchanged.

Lone Pine

In August, operations aimed at breaking the deadlock and seizing the high ground began. Australian troops had the task of diverting Turkish forces while another force of Anzac, British and Indian troops landed at Suvla Bay and advanced to capture the high ridges. The Lone Pine diversion was among the most savage battles of the Gallipoli campaign. The Australians charged the Turkish positions and more than 2300 were killed or wounded in four days and nights of hand-to-hand fighting. The Turks lost about 6000 men. New Zealand troops also suffered very heavy casualties in the August operations. As part of the main offensive, they had the task of clearing the foothills to the left of Anzac Cove and taking the high ridges at Chunuk Bair. They succeeded in holding Chunuk Bair for just a few hours on 8–9 August before the Turks won it back.

The Nek

On 7 August, in another attack whose aim was to divert the Turks, troops of the Australian Light Horse were ordered to make bayonet charges up a narrow strip of open ground called the Nek. The attacks proceeded even though the plan to capture the ridges had failed. The naval bombardment of the Turkish trenches stopped several minutes too soon. This allowed the Turks to return to their firing positions. Four successive lines of Light Horsemen, each of about 150 men, charged from their trenches towards the Turkish lines. Cut down by machine-gun fire, nearly all fell dead or wounded within a few metres of their own trenches. Their bravery was extraordinary but their deaths achieved nothing.

8.6.4 Withdrawal from Gallipoli

After seven months, the British command finally accepted that victory would not be possible. Ironically, the best-managed part of the entire campaign proved to be the withdrawal of all Allied soldiers during December. The soldiers and war materials were evacuated secretly at night. Throughout the operation every effort was made to convince the Turks that nothing out of the ordinary was going on. Cricket matches were played on the beach, and empty crates were brought ashore each day. When the Turks charged down from the hills on 20 December they found that the enemy had vanished.

SOURCE 6 During the evacuation, the Allied troops needed to make the Turks think they were still in their trenches. One trick was to rig rifles to fire automatically. Once enough water had dripped from the top tin into the bottom tin, its weight pulled the trigger.

AWM G01291

DID YOU KNOW?

When they abandoned Gallipoli, the Anzacs left behind 7591 Australian and 2431 New Zealand dead. Many thousands of other British Empire soldiers and French and Turkish troops also died during the campaign.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.

- World War One > **The Gallipoli campaign**

8.6 ACTIVITIES

1. Visit the Australian War Memorial website and find at least three more photographs of events of the Gallipoli campaign. Use them to present a data show on Gallipoli. Explain why you chose each photograph and what each tells us about soldiers' experiences. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. In pairs or small groups, evaluate the significance of the Gallipoli campaign for Australia. In your evaluation, consider:
   (a) how important it was to people living at the time
   (b) how many people were affected directly and indirectly
   (c) whose lives were changed and how they were changed
   (d) how long-lasting the consequences were
   (e) what has been the legacy of Gallipoli
   (f) why Gallipoli was considered a triumph as well as a tragedy. **Determining historical significance**

8.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What was Winston Churchill's role during World War I?
2. **HS1** Identify the strategic advantages that Churchill thought would be gained by capturing the Dardanelles.
3. **HS1** Identify the locations of the landings on the Gallipoli Peninsula and describe how the Anzacs reached the shore on the morning of 25 April 1915. You can refer back to **SOURCE 1** to find these locations.
4. **HS1** What was the strategic situation by the day after the landing at Gallipoli?
5. **HS1** Describe the scale of Anzac casualties in the first week of the Gallipoli campaign and the scale of Turkish casualties on 18–19 May.
6. **HS1** Make a list of some of the hardships faced by the Anzacs during the campaign and ways in which the Anzacs adapted and coped with such hardships.
7. **HS1** Describe the purposes and consequences of the attacks at Lone Pine and the Nek in August.
8. **HS1** How long did it take the British command to accept that victory at Gallipoli was impossible?
9. **HS1** Explain how the Allies kept the withdrawal secret from the Turks and why it is ironic that the withdrawal was the best managed part of the campaign.

8.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**. Note that the Black Sea lies to the north of the Sea of Marmara.
   (a) Identify where Turkish mines were located in the Dardanelles.
   (b) Four Allied ships struck mines on 18 March 1915. Was it ever likely that they would get past such a minefield?
   (c) Explain why it might have been assumed that landing troops on the Gallipoli Peninsula might have more success than ships trying to get through the Dardanelles.
2. **HS3** Describe the details visible in **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS3** **SOURCE 2** was painted by an official Australian war artist.
   (a) Would that fact guarantee its accuracy?
   (b) What kinds of sources could be used to corroborate it and evaluate its accuracy?

4. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 5** and identify reasons why it would have been very difficult for these men to attack the Turkish trenches at Lone Pine.
5. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 6** and describe how this device worked and why it was used.
6. **HS3** Compare and contrast **SOURCES 3** and **4**.
   (a) Describe the difference in their perspectives.
   (b) Explain which source you would consider to be more reliable and give reasons for your choice.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.7 Gallipoli: the historical debate

8.7.1 What is a historical debate and why has the Anzac landing been debated?

One of the most important concepts in history is contestability. It means that interpretations of the past are open to debate. Sometimes this is because of a lack of evidence or the discovery of new evidence. It can also be because historians bring different perspectives to an investigation. Very often one interpretation of an event comes to be popularly accepted as the truth, and is thought to be the only possible interpretation. But then it is challenged and a new debate begins.

SOURCE 1 *The beach at Anzac*, painted by war artist Frank Crozier in 1919. This source shows the terrain at Ari Burnu, where the Anzacs landed and established their hold on a small piece of the Gallipoli Peninsula.

Crozier, Frank
The beach at Anzac (1919)
Oil on canvas, 123.4 × 184.6 cm
Australian War Memorial ART02161

A long-accepted interpretation

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

Challenging the accepted interpretation

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

How to understand the historical debate

To understand this debate or any historical debate, we need to recognise how a new interpretation can challenge an earlier argument. To do this we:

- identify the main argument of the earlier interpretation
- identify the main argument of the later interpretation and how it differs from the earlier interpretation
- analyse the detailed evidence used to support the argument of the later interpretation.

SOURCE 2 From Denis Winter, 'The Anzac landing: the great gamble?' in *Journal of the Australian War Memorial*, April 1984, pp. 15, 18

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

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

AWM 02161

SOURCE 3 From Chris Roberts, 'The Landing at Anzac: a reassessment', in *Journal of the Australian War Memorial*, April 1993, pp. 27–29

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

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

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

DISCUSS

In small groups, discuss why there will probably be ongoing historical debate on the issue of the Anzac landing at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915. **[Creative and Critical Thinking Capability]**

8.7 EXERCISES

8.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Use the words provided to fill the gaps and complete the following paragraph about historical debate.

only possible	discovery	perspectives	contestability	new
challenged	interpretations	the truth	debate	lack

One of the most important concepts in history is _____. It means that _____ of the past are open to debate. Sometimes this is because of a _____ of evidence or the _____ of _____ evidence. It cans also be because historians bring different _____ to an investigation. Very often one interpretation of an event comes to be popularly accepted as _____, and is thought to be the _____ interpretation. But then it is _____ and a new _____ begins.

2. **HS1** Where, according to Charles Bean, were the Anzacs meant to have landed?
3. **HS1** Why, according to Bean, were they landed in the wrong place?
4. **HS1** What, according to Bean's long-accepted interpretation of the Gallipoli landing, was the consequence of landing 'too far northward'?
5. **HS1** Describe the steps in understanding a historical debate.

8.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 1** as your evidence, state what you think are the advantages and disadvantages for the Anzacs of landing at Ari Burnu instead of at Gaba Tepe.
2. **HS3** In **SOURCE 2**, Denis Winter argues that Bean's interpretation is wrong because the Anzacs were landed where they were intended to be landed, at Ari Burnu. Explain what evidence Winter gives to support his interpretation.
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3**. Identify Roberts' main argument and the evidence used to support his interpretation.
4. **HS3** Identify the significant differences between the interpretations of Winter and Roberts.
5. **HS3** Write a paragraph outlining your interpretation of the Gallipoli landing, based on the evidence presented in the sources in this subtopic.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

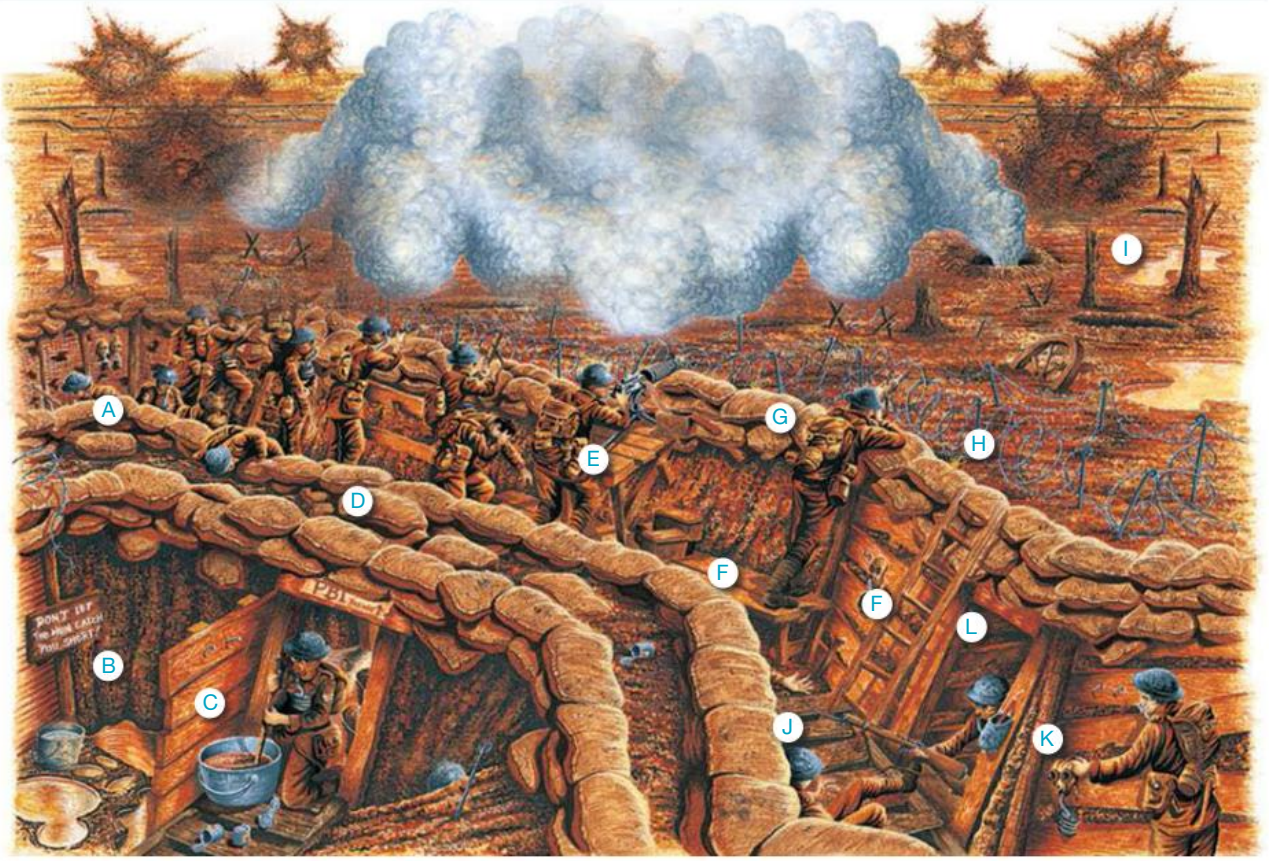
8.8 Trench warfare

8.8.1 The trenches of the Western Front

The main fighting of World War I took place in and around the trenches of the Western Front. By 1915 these stretched over 500 kilometres, from the Belgian coast through to the Swiss Alps, and were home to millions of troops. Trench warfare produced no winners; rather, it was a defensive tactic that led to continual **stalemate**. Over four years the armies of both sides lived and died in them. When the fighting was at its heaviest, tens of thousands of men could be killed or wounded in a single day.

Most battlefield trenches contained many defensive structures. The most commonly used arrangement was the three-line trench system. This allowed front-line trenches for firing at the enemy, support trenches where troops could be rested, and reserve trenches to hold reinforcements and supplies. Communication trenches linked all three trench lines, allowing for easier movement of troops and information. Some German trenches extended up to ten metres underground.

SOURCE 1 Modern artist's interpretation of a typical trench system



A Trenches were generally designed in a zigzag pattern; this helped to protect the trench against enemy attack. Each bend could be defended separately if necessary and explosions could be contained.

B Trench toilets were called latrines. They were usually pits 1.5 metres deep, dug at the end of a short gangway. Each company had two sanitary personnel whose job it was to keep the latrines in good condition. Officers gave out sanitary duty as a punishment for breaking army regulations.

C The British army employed 300 000 field workers to cook and supply the food for the troops. However, in many instances there was not enough food for the workers to cook. Rations were regularly cut and of a poor standard. The bulk of the diet in the trenches was bully beef (canned corned beef), bread and biscuits.

D Sandbags filled with earth were used to shore up the edges of the trenches; they also helped to absorb bullets and shell fragments. The men packing and then stacking the filled bags worked in pairs and were expected to move 60 bags an hour.

E Machine guns were one of the most deadly weapons. They were able to fire 400–500 bullets every minute.

F Fire steps and scaling ladders were needed to enable the troops to go 'over the top' of the trenches. Going 'over the top' refers to the orders given to troops to leave the trenches and head out into no man's land in an attempt to attack the enemy trenches.

G Each soldier was issued with a kit containing nearly 30 kilograms of equipment. This included a rifle, two grenades, 220 rounds of ammunition, a steel helmet, wire cutters, field dressing, entrenching tool (a spade), a heavy coat, two sandbags, rolled ground sheet, water bottle, haversack, mess tin, towel, shaving kit, extra socks and preserved food rations. The weight made it very difficult to move quickly, and many men chose to share gear to minimise their load.

H Barbed wire was used extensively throughout the trench system. While it helped to protect the trenches, it made it very difficult to attack the opposing trench. In the dark of night, soldiers were sent out to cut sections of wire to make it easier for the attacking soldiers in morning raids. Minor cuts and grazes caused by the barbed wire often became infected in the unsanitary conditions of the trenches.

I No man's land was the space between the two opposing trenches; it was protected by rows of barbed wire. It could be anywhere from 50 metres to one kilometre wide.

J Duckboards were wooden planks placed across the bottom of trenches and other areas of muddy ground. They enabled soldiers to stand out of the mud. The trench system was constantly waterlogged, particularly during the winter months. Duckboards were the only way of protecting the men from contracting the dreaded **trench foot** and from sinking deep into the mud.

K The use of mustard gas and other chemical weapons meant that all soldiers needed to have gas masks near at hand. Until all troops could be issued with masks, many soldiers used urine-soaked material to help keep out the deadly gas. Mustard gas was almost odourless and took 12 hours to take effect. It was so powerful that small amounts, added to high-explosive shells, were effective. Once in the soil, mustard gas remained active for several weeks.

L Long, cold, wet winters and hot, dry summers would have made life in the trenches horrendous. Snow, rain and freezing temperatures drastically slowed combat during the winter months. Lack of fresh water, scorching sun with limited coverage, and the stench of dead bodies and rubbish would have made the hotter months unbearable.

8.8 ACTIVITIES

1. In small groups, use the internet to research the effects of mustard gas and other chemical weapons used during World War I. Discuss these effects and the ethics of the use of such weapons. **[Ethical Capability]**
2. Working in small groups, and referring to **SOURCE 1** (a secondary source), construct a trench diorama. Elect a group spokesperson to talk about one aspect of your model (e.g. its advantages or disadvantages). **Using historical sources as evidence**

8.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the features of the three-line trench system and the purpose of each element.
2. **HS1** Outline the experience of soldiers in relation to food and meals in the trenches.
3. **HS1** Why did many soldiers choose to share their gear with a fellow soldier?
4. **HS1** What was no-man's land?
5. **HS1** Suggest why the trench system was ultimately unsuccessful as a military tactic.

8.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**. Outline the features of trench systems that made attacks upon them so deadly.
2. **HS3** Imagine you are a soldier who has been blinded in the trenches. Describe what you would hear, smell and feel.
3. **HS3** Create a concept map to represent the hazards and hardships of trench warfare.
4. **HS3** Explain why duckboards were a necessary feature of trenches.
5. **HS3** Until they were given gas masks, how did soldiers like those depicted in **SOURCE 1** try to protect themselves from mustard gas?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.9 The Western Front

8.9.1 From Gallipoli to Fromelles and Pozières

After Gallipoli, the Anzacs returned to Egypt to be joined by fresh troops. The Light Horse remained in the Middle East along with Australians serving in the Imperial Camel Corps and the Australian Flying Corps. For the remainder of the war, these soldiers took part in desert warfare against Turkish forces. Most Australian troops left for France in 1916, where for three years they experienced the horrors and savagery of the war on the Western Front.

On 1 July 1916, the First Battle of the Somme began. The British and French attack on the Somme was intended to draw German troops away from their massive attack on French positions at Verdun. On that first day of the Somme offensive, the British army suffered the worst day in its history with 57 470 casualties (troops killed or wounded).

The Australian 5th Division suffered over 5000 casualties on 19 July in a **feint** at Fromelles, north of the Somme, which was meant to divert German reserve troops. On the Somme, the AIF suffered almost 23 000 casualties taking and holding the town of Pozières in a battle that began on 23 July. For seven weeks Australian soldiers were blown apart or buried alive as they fought to hold the captured town under a German **artillery** bombardment that pounded Pozières into a wasteland of rubble.

When the Battle of the Somme ended as the autumn rains filled the trenches, neither side had been able to break the stalemate. Nothing had been gained, but Germany had lost 450 000 men, France 200 000 and Britain 420 000.

SOURCE 1 Major W.G.M. Claridge, writing from hospital after the Battle of Pozières, quoted in Bill Gammage, *The Broken Years*, 1975, p. 164

... God knows what we went through, was Hell itself. We just had to grit our teeth and go ahead and do our job. I am not going to tell a lie and say I wasn't afraid because I was and who wouldn't be with Death grinning at you from all round and hellish 5.9 shells shrieking through the air and shrapnel dealing death all round. I don't know how I stood it for so long without breaking.

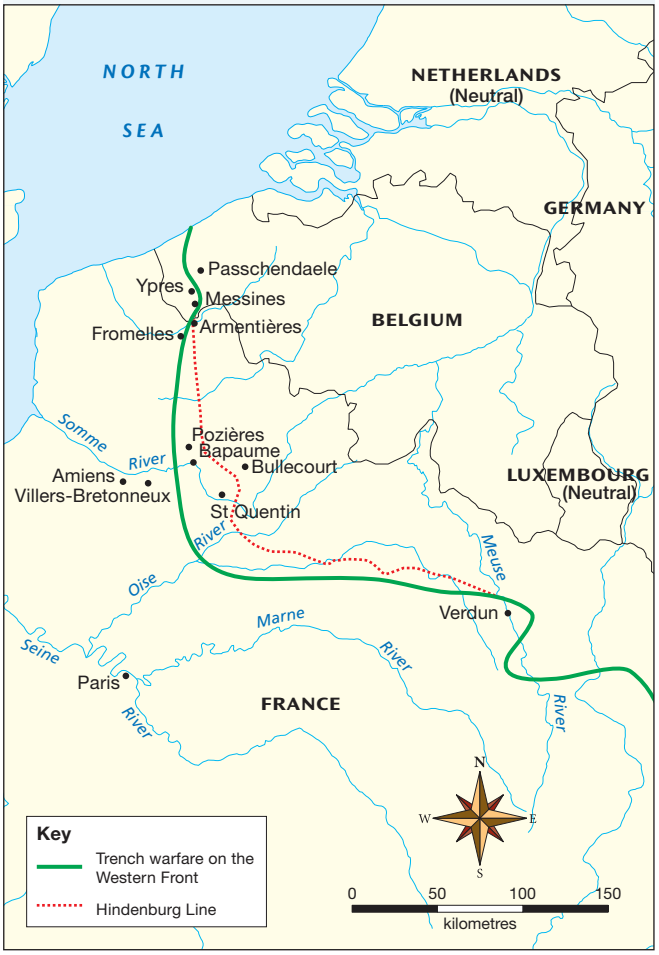
8.9.2 From Bullecourt to the Armistice

Bullecourt and Ypres

The spring offensive of 1917 followed the coldest winter in 40 years. In April the United States of America joined the war on the Allied side, although it would be many months before its troops would be ready to play a role. The Germans had pulled back to the strongly fortified **Hindenburg line** and most soldiers on both sides were war-weary with little enthusiasm left for fighting.

In April, Australians were sent to attack the German trenches near Bullecourt but the tanks that were meant to spearhead the attack broke down. The Australians were then struck by a misdirected British artillery barrage as well as German counterattacks, and the attacking force suffered 80 per cent casualties. Despite this, in May the Australians captured and held Bullecourt. In Belgium in September and October, the AIF suffered 38 000 casualties in the terrible Third Battle of Ypres, in which each side lost about half a million men.

SOURCE 2 Trench warfare on the Western Front



Source: © Robert Darlington. Map redrawn by Spatial Vision.

Victory in 1918

In 1918 the end of fighting on the Eastern Front (see subtopic 8.12) enabled Germany to move many more troops to the Western Front. In March, the Germans threw everything they had into a last offensive aimed at gaining victory before US troops could arrive in sufficient numbers to make a German victory impossible. Australians played a key role in turning back this offensive through their fierce resistance at the French village of Villers-Bretonneux. Then, in July, Australians made the first large Allied attack of 1918. The AIF fought its last battles in October and when the fighting was ended with the Armistice of 11 November 1918 it was recognised that they had achieved more than any other British Empire troops and had suffered more casualties in proportion to their numbers.

The human cost

Of the 417 000 men who enlisted in the AIF, about 324 000 served overseas and approximately 295 000 on the Western Front. Nearly 65 per cent became casualties and around 60 000 Australians died on active service. It was a terrible sacrifice for the nation.

SOURCE 3 This painting depicts an attack, during the Third Battle of Ypres, in which Australian troops were trying to capture a German pillbox, a fortified concrete blockhouse with machine guns firing from loopholes. Pillboxes could be taken only by infantry attacking closely behind their own artillery barrage.

Leist, Fred
Australian infantry attack in Polygon Wood (1919)
Oil on canvas, 122.5 × 245 cm
Australian War Memorial ART02927

8.9 ACTIVITY

Visit the website of the Australian War Memorial. Use its resources to prepare a brief description of the role of the Australian soldiers who remained in the Middle East from 1916 to 1918. **Using historical sources as evidence**

8.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify the aim of the First Battle of the Somme.
2. **HS1** What were the consequences for the British army of their offensive on 1 July 1916?
3. **HS1** Describe the aim and the result of the Australian attack at Fromelles.
4. **HS1** How many casualties did the AIF suffer at Pozières and why were they so high?
5. **HS1** Describe the overall consequences of the Battle of the Somme for both sides.
6. **HS1** Describe what went wrong during the Australian attack at Bullecourt.
7. **HS1** What casualties did Australian troops suffer in the Third Battle of Ypres?
8. **HS1** Why did the Germans try one last big offensive from March 1918?
9. **HS1** When was the armistice that ended the fighting?

8.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 1** using the following questions.
   (a) Who wrote this source, where was he when he wrote it and around when would it have been written?
   (b) Why and for whom might the source have been written?
   (c) How does the writer describe the Battle of Pozières?
   (d) What details does he give to support that description?
   (e) What aspects of this source would enable a historian to assess its reliability?

2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**, identify the purpose of the Allied offensives at Bullecourt and Ypres.
3. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 3**. Imagine you are one of the survivors of this attack on a German pillbox. Write a letter to your family, describing the conditions, dangers and difficulties of such fighting and your own feelings during the attack.
4. **HS5** Using what you have learned about individual battles from 1916 to 1918, explain why Australians suffered such heavy casualties on the Western Front.
5. **HS5** Drawing on developments you have explored so far in this topic, identify the turning points that led to the Allied victory in 1918.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.10 The home front

8.10.1 The war divides Australia

During the first years of fighting most Australians believed that the war was just and was worth the sacrifice that was being made. Australians proudly hailed the achievements of the Anzacs as proof of their country's standing among nations. However, as the conflict dragged on, and demanded ever greater sacrifices, Australian society became increasingly divided.

Growing government controls

The Commonwealth Government gained new powers to manage Australia's war effort. The war was expensive, in both money and lives, and from 1915 a federal income tax and other taxes were introduced to help pay the interest on growing war debts. The government also took away many democratic rights. The War Precautions Act of 1915 and other Acts of Parliament allowed the government to restrict freedom of speech, freedom of association and freedom of the press. It became a crime to say anything that might discourage people from enlisting or to show disloyalty to the British Empire.

According to the government, **censorship** was needed to keep morale high and to keep information from the enemy. However, it was also used to silence people who criticised the war. Tom Barker was sentenced to 12 months in prison for publishing a cartoon that the government considered might harm recruiting. Barker was the editor of *Direct Action*, the newspaper of a revolutionary group called the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW). The IWW argued that the war was wrong because the workers' only real enemies were the wealthy capitalists who profited from the conflict.

SOURCE 1 'The Greater Patriot', by Claude Marquet, in *The Worker*, 1916

Growing opposition

Most Australians believed wartime **propaganda** that portrayed German soldiers as monsters who raped nuns, murdered civilians and impaled babies on bayonets. Through newspapers and public meetings, people were continually told that the war was a simple struggle between good and evil, between British civilisation and German barbarism.

At first, opponents of the war were a tiny minority. **Pacifists** opposed it, as did some Irish Australians who resented British rule in Ireland. Some socialists saw it as a clash between capitalist empires for the right to exploit the workers of the world. Gradually opposition to the war became more widespread. Increased inequality played a part. While prices rose by almost 50 per cent, wages were frozen. At the same time, big profits were made by owners of woollen mills and others who supplied war materials. Growing inequality caused serious strikes in 1916 and a general strike in 1917 involving waterside workers, seamen, transport workers and miners. The use of strikebreakers to defeat the strikes caused great bitterness and deepened divisions.

Patriotic rallies and funds

Many people, possibly a majority, continued to support the war. At patriotic gatherings such as Empire Day, Allies Day and Anzac Day rallies, speakers encouraged Australians to stay loyal to Britain, to hate Germany and to make still greater sacrifices. Governments, churches and citizens organised and supported patriotic funds to help the war effort. They included the National Belgian Relief Fund, the Travelling Kitchen Fund and the Blind Heroes Fund. Local 'win-the-war' leagues donated food and labour to help soldiers' families.

The children's war effort

Schools and community organisations involved children in patriotic activities including raising money and making clothes and equipment for war victims and troops. In particular, schools were used to inspire patriotism in children. At the age of 12, schoolboys became junior cadets. Girls made clothes for the troops and war victims. Children grew vegetables for soldiers' families, read stories of heroes of the British and Australian forces and recited loyalty pledges. School rolls of honour listed the names of former pupils and teachers who had gone to the war. Children were taught that all Allied countries were good while the Central Powers were evil.

SOURCE 2 Students at Woy Woy Public School during a patriotic pageant in 1916 gather around a roll of honour erected by residents of the district.

8.10.2 Recruiting campaigns

In 1914 there were many more volunteers than the army could accommodate. But as the casualty lists grew, fewer men volunteered than were needed. As Britain requested ever more Australian troops, recruiting campaigns were used to encourage or shame men into enlisting. In some of these campaigns, people marched long distances, calling on others to join them and to enlist. By mid 1916 the campaigns were failing to attract the numbers the government wanted. In 1918 recruiting officers even visited schools in order to urge children to encourage their family members to enlist.

SOURCE 3 From 'Instructions for the Guidance of Enlisting Officers at Approved Military Recruiting Depots', Brisbane, April 1916

Aboriginals, **half-castes**, or men with Asiatic blood are not to be enlisted. This applies to all coloured men.

SOURCE 4 From 'Instructions to Enlisting and Recruiting Officers', December 1916

Half-castes may be enlisted when, in the opinion of the District Commandant, they are suitable ... As a guide in this matter it is to be borne in mind that these men will be required to live with white men and share their accommodation, and their selection is to be judged from this standpoint ...

SOURCE 5 Produced by the State Parliamentary Recruiting Committee in Victoria, this was the first recruiting poster used in Australia.

Hannan, Jim
An appeal from the Dardanelles: Will they never come? (1915)
Offset lithograph on paper, 225 × 200 cm
Australian War Memorial ARTV07583

SOURCE 6 Australian artist Norman Lindsay produced this poster for the Australian government in 1918.

Lindsay, Norman
God bless dear Daddy (1918)
Chromolithograph on paper, 46.8 × 38.4 cm
Australian War Memorial ART00040

The racial barrier to recruiting

When World War I broke out, Indigenous Australians were an oppressed minority whose numbers over the previous century had been reduced by possibly 75 per cent through massacres, disease and dispossession. They had no reason to feel any loyalty to Australia or to the British Empire. The Australian government

required recruits for the AIF to be 'substantially of European origin or descent'. Despite this, many Indigenous Australians enlisted. Recent estimates put the total at around 1000 but the actual figure may have been higher. We have no evidence for their motives for enlisting because such information was neither sought nor recorded.

8.10.3 Women and the war effort

Some 3000 Australian women travelled overseas with the Australian Army Nursing Service. They served in all theatres of the war and on transport and hospital ships. These nurses worked under extreme conditions tending the wounded after battles. Several nurses were wounded and 13 were killed. However, the Australian government refused to allow women to serve in any direct roles in the armed forces. As the men went off to war, many women entered the paid workforce. Thousands more helped with recruiting campaigns, fundraising and charity work. A few women were able to replace enlisted men in fields such as banking, bookkeeping and typing. For many women, this was not enough. Recognising that the government and military were hostile to the idea of women taking on 'men's roles', women applied for clerical and cooking jobs in the military. However, they were not accepted and this greatly disappointed many who were aware of how different the situation was in Britain. There, women were employed as munitions workers, drivers, and in factories and on farms. Some British women actually gained military roles as drivers and radio operators when the Women's Army Auxiliary Corps was founded in Britain in 1917.

Voluntary work

Thousands of women helped troops by providing extra clothing, tobacco, medicines and other comforts that the army failed to provide. They also made clothes for Allied refugees. Many other women cared for returning invalids through the Red Cross, including in the Australian Red Cross Voluntary Aid Detachment (see **SOURCE 7**). They met returning hospital ships and provided kitchens and rest homes. The Red Cross raised 12 million pounds during the war to pay for this work.

SOURCE 7 Four women members of the Australian Red Cross packing comforts to be sent to servicemen overseas

Women for and against the war

Some of the war's fiercest supporters were women. They helped in recruiting campaigns, issuing posters and pamphlets and speaking at rallies. Some women shamed men into enlisting by handing out white feathers — a symbol of cowardice — to those who had not volunteered. The Australian Women's National League campaigned for conscription. Women were also among the war's strongest critics. Vida Goldstein was among those who formed peace organisations and campaigned against conscription.

The greatest contribution of women, however, would hardly ever be spoken of. It was the lifelong care thousands gave to their fathers, husbands, sons and brothers who returned with terrible physical, emotional and mental wounds from the horrors of war.

SOURCE 8 The arrival of the first Australian wounded from Gallipoli at the Third London General Hospital, by George Coates, 1915

8.10 ACTIVITIES

1. Use the internet to locate a World War I propaganda poster portraying German soldiers as monsters.
   (a) Describe the poster.
   (b) Analyse the poster to explain how it achieves that effect.
   (c) Explain the purpose of such posters. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. In small groups, using the sources and other information in this subtopic, discuss and compile a summary of things that remained the same and those that had changed in Australia during World War I in:
   (a) attitudes to the war
   (b) racial attitudes
   (c) roles of women. **Identifying continuity and change**

8.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How did most Australians regard the war during the first two years of the conflict?
2. **HS1** What democratic rights did the Australian government restrict during the war?
3. **HS1** Describe how Australians of German descent were treated.
4. **HS1** Outline the reasons for growing opposition to the war.
5. **HS1** Why were recruiting campaigns needed by 1915?
6. **HS1** Around how many Indigenous Australians enlisted to fight in World War I?
7. **HS1** Approximately how many Australian women served overseas as nurses during World War I?
8. **HS1** Describe other ways in which Australian women contributed to the war effort.

8.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 1** using the following questions.
   (a) Who created this cartoon and when was it created?
   (b) *The Worker* was a trade union newspaper. In the context of growing inequality and the 1916 strikes, what position would you expect a trade union newspaper to take?
   (c) Identify the social groups that are represented by the two figures in the cartoon.
   (d) Explain the message of the cartoon.
   (e) Which groups of Australians were most likely to have agreed with this message?
2. **HS3** Explain how schoolchildren in **SOURCE 2** are contributing to the war effort and why governments would have involved children in such activities.
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 3** and **4**.
   (a) Use evidence from these sources to describe discrimination against Indigenous and Asian men wishing to enlist for World War I.
   (b) Explain to what extent this policy was changed between April and December 1916 and the probable reasons for this change.
4. **HS3** Look carefully at **SOURCES 5** and **6**. Analyse each of these posters, identifying:
   (a) the aim of the propaganda
   (b) the beliefs and emotions to which it appeals
   (c) the probable effectiveness of the propaganda at the time.
5. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 8**. The nurses depicted in this artwork were members of the Australian Army Nursing Service. Use the details, your knowledge and imagination to describe what they would have thought about their work and the suffering of their patients.
6. **HS5** Explain how the war contributed to social conflict in Australia.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.11 The conscription issue

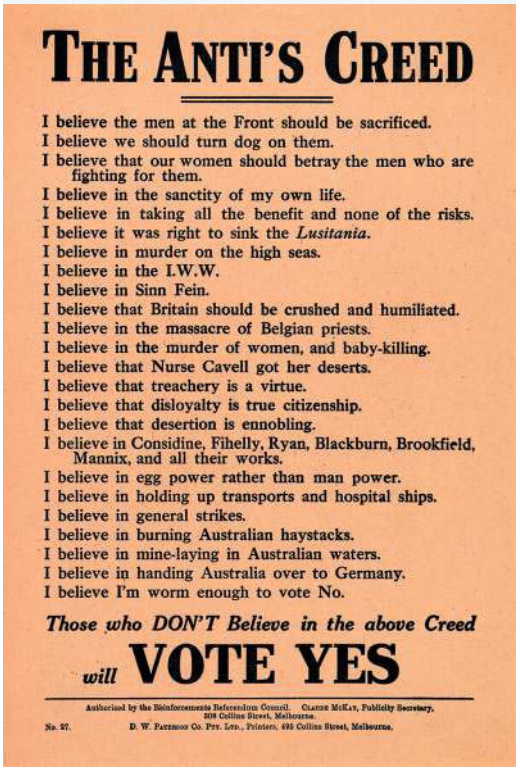
8.11.1 Support for conscription

Of all the armies fighting in World War I, only the AIF was formed entirely from volunteers. But by mid 1916 recruiting campaigns were no longer convincing enough men to enlist. When Labor prime minister William Morris ('Billy') Hughes decided that Australia should follow Britain's example by introducing conscription, divisions in Australian society became very bitter. The Australian Labor Party (ALP) was against conscription, but Hughes went against party policy and tried to win public support for conscription through two bitterly fought **referendum** campaigns in 1916 and 1917.

A divisive issue

Conscription was among the most divisive issues in Australia's history. Divisions between social classes and between those holding different religious and political beliefs became more intense. Supporters of conscription argued that Britain was in peril and many Australians were already fighting and dying, so others who had not stepped forward should be forced to do their duty. They called those who had not volunteered traitors and cowards or accused them of being supporters of **Sinn Fein** or the IWW, or even of Germany.

SOURCE 1 *The Anti's Creed*, a leaflet supporting conscription in the 1917 referendum



THE ANTI'S CREED

I believe the men at the Front should be sacrificed.
I believe we should turn dog on them.
I believe that our women should betray the men who are fighting for them.
I believe in the sanctity of my own life.
I believe in taking all the benefit and none of the risks.
I believe it was right to sink the *Lusitania*.
I believe in murder on the high seas.
I believe in the I.W.W.
I believe in Sinn Fein.
I believe that Britain should be crushed and humiliated.
I believe in the massacre of Belgian priests.
I believe in the murder of women, and baby-killing.
I believe that Nurse Cavell got her deserts.
I believe that treachery is a virtue.
I believe that disloyalty is true citizenship.
I believe that desertion is ennobling.
I believe in Considine, Fihelly, Ryan, Blackburn, Brookfield, Mannix, and all their works.
I believe in egg power rather than man power.
I believe in holding up transports and hospital ships.
I believe in general strikes.
I believe in burning Australian haystacks.
I believe in mine-laying in Australian waters.
I believe in handing Australia over to Germany.
I believe I'm worm enough to vote No.

Those who DON'T Believe in the above Creed will VOTE YES

Authorised by the Reinforcements Referendum Council. CLAUDE McKAY, Publicity Secretary, 358 Collins Street, Melbourne.
No. 27. D. W. PATTERSON CO. PTY. LTD., Printers, 492 Collins Street, Melbourne.

AWM RC00317

SOURCE 2 Conscription — for and against

Conscription supporters	Conscription opponents
• Representatives of every political party except the Labor Party • Business organisations • Major newspapers such as *The Argus, The Age* and *The Bulletin* • Protestant churches • Some returned soldiers	• Trade unions • Most of the Labor Party • The Catholic Church (Melbourne's Archbishop, Daniel Mannix, led the fight against conscription) — Britain had suppressed the Irish uprising of Easter 1916 and executed its leaders; most Australian Catholics were of Irish descent and many resented Britain's treatment of Ireland • The Women's Peace Army • Most working-class people • Some returned soldiers
Pro-conscription arguments	**Anti-conscription arguments**
• It was Australia's duty to support Great Britain. • Conscription meant 'equality of sacrifice'. • Voluntary recruitment had failed. • Australia had a good reputation that had to be protected. • Other Allied countries, such as Great Britain, New Zealand and Canada, had already introduced conscription.	• No person had the right to send another to be killed or wounded. • There would not be enough hands to farm if men were conscripted. • The working class would unfairly bear the burden of the fight. • Too many Australian men had already died or been wounded. • Conscription would harm and divide Australia.

8.11.2 Opposing conscription

Opponents argued that there should there be no conscription of working men when there was no conscription of the wealth of the privileged classes. Many feared that conscription would be used by employers to destroy rights won by Australian workers. In May 1916, conscription was used in Germany to destroy German workers' rights when striking munitions workers were conscripted and sent to the battlefront. Australian unions believed that conscription could be used for the same purpose here. They described supporters of conscription as destroyers of democracy, murderers and war profiteers. Most Australian Catholics were of Irish descent, and many became bitterly resentful when Britain executed several Irish rebel leaders after crushing the Irish uprising of Easter 1916. Melbourne's Catholic Archbishop, Daniel Mannix, quickly became the most outspoken leader of the anti-conscription movement.

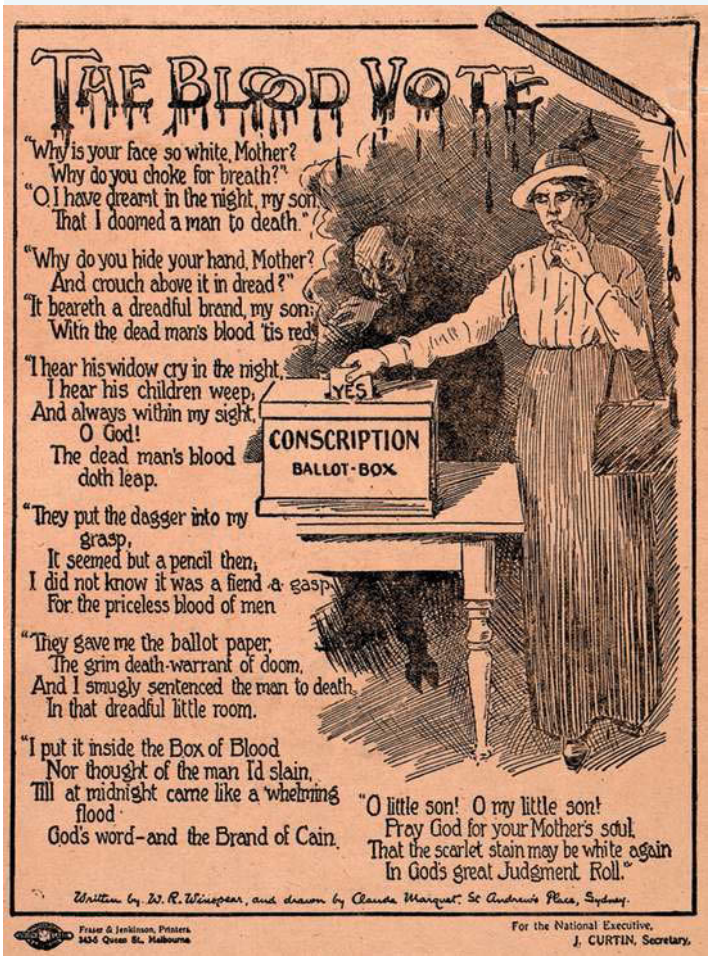
DID YOU KNOW?

Billy Hughes' supporters, including many AIF soldiers, called him the 'Little Digger'. From November 1916 the labour movement, on the other hand, called him 'the Rat' and 'Judas' (in the Bible, Judas was said to have betrayed Christ).

SOURCE 3 From speeches by Archbishop Daniel Mannix, reported in the *Advocate*: (1) 3 February 1917 and (2) 8 December 1917

1. The war was like most wars — just an ordinary trade war ... Even now, people were arranging how the vanquished nations — when they are vanquished — are to be crippled in their future trade.
2. [In] the daily papers of Australia ... there is no opening in their columns for those who want the answer on December 20 to be an emphatic NO ... [The] papers give plenty of space to any sort of silly twaddle on the other side ... The wealthy classes would be very glad to send the last man, but they have no notion of sending the last shilling, nor even the first ... the burden in the end will be borne by the toiling masses in Australia.

SOURCE 4 *The Blood Vote*, an anti-conscription leaflet



AWM RC00337

The people decide

Conscription was defeated in the referendum of October 1916 (1 087 557 Australians voted in favour of conscription but 1 160 033 voted against it). 'Patriots' blamed Catholics and Australian Germans and demanded that Mannix be deported. The Labor Party was split. Hughes and his supporters left the party in November 1916, before it could expel them, and merged with the Liberal Party to form the Nationalist Party. Led by Hughes, the Nationalists won the federal election of May 1917. However, at a second referendum of December 1917, conscription was again defeated, this time by 1 181 747 against to 1 015 159 in favour.

8.11 ACTIVITIES

1. Working in small groups, use **SOURCES 1** and **4** as models to design a 'Yes' or 'No' poster or leaflet for either of the conscription referendums. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. Conduct research to investigate the contribution of Vida Goldstein to the anti-war movement. (See subtopic 6.11 for some introductory information.) **Determining historical significance**
3. Daniel Mannix was regarded by many Australians as a villain and by many others as a hero for his role in the defeat of conscription. Conduct research to produce an assessment of his role in the struggle against conscription and evaluate his historical significance, using sources to support your argument. **Determining historical significance**

8.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What was unique about Australia's army in World War I?
2. **HS1** Why did Australian Prime Minister 'Billy' Hughes decide in mid 1916 that Australia should introduce conscription?
3. **HS1** What reasons did Australian workers have for opposing conscription?
4. **HS1** Explain why many Australian Irish Catholics would have opposed conscription.
5. **HS1** What were the results of the two referendums on conscription in 1916 and 1917?
6. **HS1** Describe the impact of the conscription referendums on the Labor Party.
7. **HS1** What event prompted Melbourne's Archbishop Daniel Mannix to become the most outspoken opponent of conscription?

8.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 1**.
   The Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) campaigned against war and the exploitation of workers. Sinn Fein was a movement fighting for Irish independence from British rule. Nurse Cavell was shot by the Germans as a British spy. Explain why a pro-conscription leaflet would refer to these people.
2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**:
   (a) list the main supporters of conscription
   (b) outline the main arguments for conscription
   (c) list the main groups opposed to conscription
   (d) outline the main arguments against conscription.
3. **HS3** What arguments did Mannix make against conscription in **SOURCE 3**?
4. **HS3** Analyse the technique used in **SOURCE 4** to argue against conscription.
5. **HS3** Compare **SOURCES 1** and **4**. Who do you think is the intended audience of each source? Which do you think would be more effective in influencing voters? Outline your view.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.12 The Eastern Front: collapse and revolution

8.12.1 Tsarist Russia collapses

By 1917 the war weariness, social divisions and disillusionment that led to a general strike and bitter opposition to conscription in Australia were also being experienced in other combatant nations.

Between April and June there were mutinies in the French army involving 27 000 men. Forty-nine mutineers were executed. In Germany in 1916 there had been huge strikes. The government broke them by conscripting strikers, but even bigger strikes took place in 1917. In Britain half a million people had joined anti-war organisations by 1917. Nowhere, however, was war weariness more widespread than in Russia. What happened there would change the world.

At the beginning of World War I the Russian army was referred to as 'the Russian Steamroller', because it was so big that many people thought it could defeat the Germans and Austrians through sheer weight of numbers. However, most Russian soldiers were conscripted peasants who were poorly trained and so poorly equipped that some did not even have boots or guns. Some Russian officers refused to lead their troops into battle, fearing that they would be shot by their own men.

When Russia entered the war it was ruled by Tsar Nicholas II, who held enormous power. Russia was ruled in the interests of its aristocratic landowners and wealthy industrialists, and there was great discontent among the peasants and workers who made up more than 90 per cent of the population. At first, many Russians supported the war, but they suffered heavy losses against the Germans in 1914–15. In 1916 they launched attacks to prevent the Germans shifting troops to the Western Front. By 1917, after a series of crippling defeats, Russian soldiers and sailors were becoming mutinous, while at home starving workers were demanding bread and peasants were demanding land.

SOURCE 1 A description of support for the war in Russia in August 1914, from R.H. Bruce Lockhart, *Memoirs of a British Agent*, 1932

I recall the enthusiasm of those early days ... those moving scenes at the station; the troops, grey with dust and closely packed in cattle trucks; the vast crowd on the platform to wish them God-speed ... Revolution was not even a distant probability.

SOURCE 2 From a letter sent home by a Russian general in 1915

In recent battles a third of the men had no rifles. These poor devils had to wait patiently until their comrades fell before their eyes and they could pick up weapons.

SOURCE 3 From P.I. Lyashchenko, *Economic and Social Consequences of the War*, 1949

... by 1916 the country began to experience a critical food shortage ... By directing all industrial production into war channels, the government policy deprived the villages of their supplies of goods ...

Revolution

Revolution broke out in March 1917 in the Russian capital, Petrograd (now St Petersburg) after soldiers refused orders to shoot striking workers. When he lost the support of his generals, the Tsar **abdicated** in favour of his brother Michael. But Michael refused to be Tsar and instead handed power to a provisional government, formed by members of the **Duma**. The Provisional Government kept Russia in the war, but its

authority was weakened by the rise of an alternative centre of power — the Petrograd **Soviet**. This council was made up of elected delegates from soviets of workers, soldiers, sailors and peasants from throughout Russia.

The Provisional Government lacked support from any part of Russian society. The old ruling classes wanted to restore the rule of the Tsar. Peasants wanted the aristocrats' land to be redistributed to them. Many soldiers, sailors and workers wanted Russia to withdraw from the war. The government could hold power only so long as the Petrograd Soviet gave it support.

SOURCE 4 The Tsar's Winter Palace in St Petersburg has hundreds of luxurious rooms and is thousands of times bigger than the homes of Russian workers and peasants in 1917. The royal family also had other magnificent palaces.

SOURCE 5 Looking towards the ceiling from the grand staircase at the Winter Palace

8.12.2 The second revolution

Russia's small but disciplined Bolshevik Party was led by Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, known as Lenin. The party's ideology was based on Marxism, the revolutionary socialist set of ideas developed by Karl Marx in the nineteenth century. Lenin was a Marxist but he departed from Marx's belief that socialist revolution could take place only in advanced capitalist societies in which industrial workers were the majority. Lenin came to believe that in Russia, an overwhelmingly agricultural country, a socialist revolution could be achieved through an alliance of workers and peasants.

Lenin, and his associate Leon Trotsky, believed that socialist revolution could succeed in backward Russia but only if it received support from socialist revolutions in the more advanced industrial countries. They thought a revolution in Russia would trigger similar revolutions in those countries. In April 1917 Lenin put these views to the other Bolsheviks. At first they totally opposed him. However, he soon won majority support and the Bolsheviks prepared to seize power.

SOURCE 6 A Bolshevik painting depicting Lenin organising revolutionary workers, sailors and soldiers. The red armbands show that they are Bolsheviks. Red came to symbolise revolution.

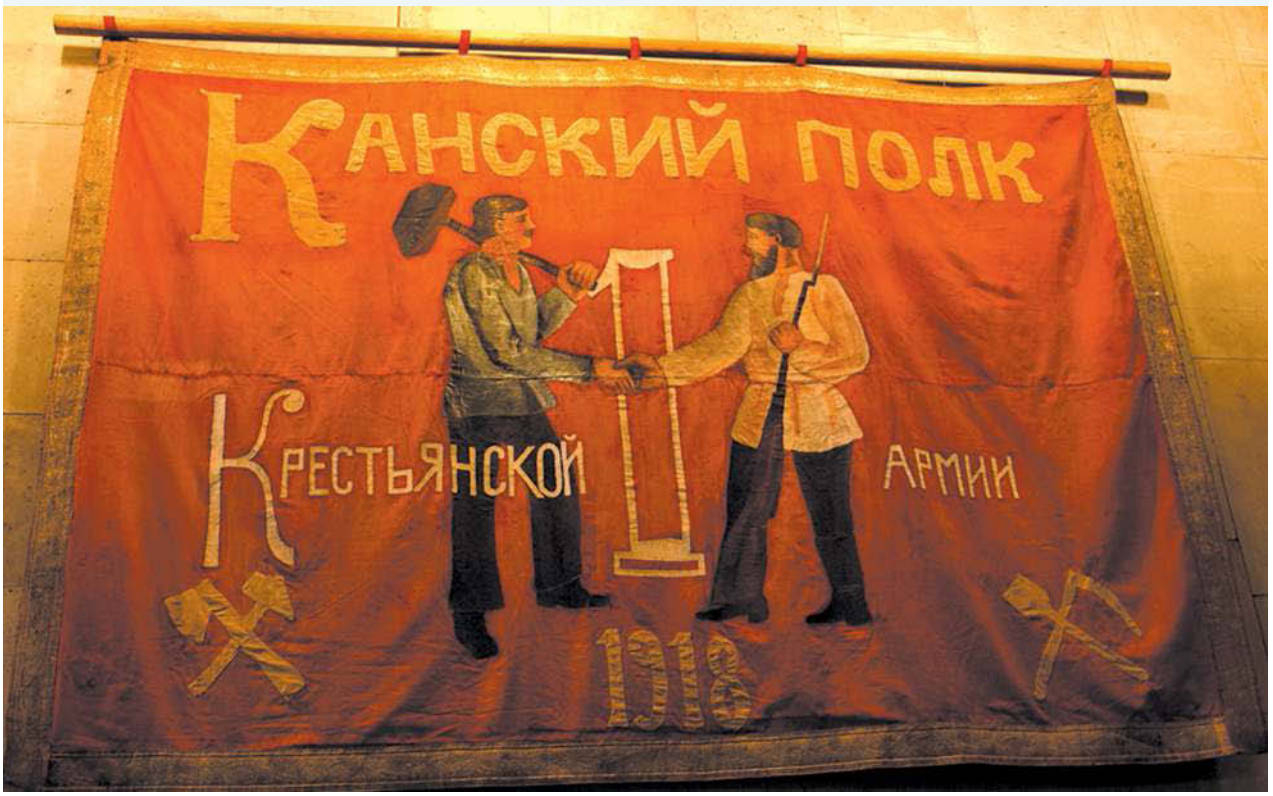
The Bolsheviks seize power

To gain popular support, the Bolsheviks adopted the slogans 'Peace, Bread and Land' and 'All Power to the Soviets' while they worked to build up their influence in the Petrograd Soviet. The Provisional Government tried unsuccessfully to suppress the Bolsheviks. But when the right-wing General Kornilov attempted to seize power in August 1917, it was the Bolsheviks who sabotaged his transport and persuaded his troops to desert. This earned them widespread support. The Bolsheviks had saved the Provisional Government, but now they set out to destroy it.

Trotsky had been elected Chairman of the Petrograd Soviet's Military Revolutionary Committee. Once the Bolsheviks had a majority of delegates in the Soviet, he planned the seizure of power. In November

1917, on Trotsky's orders, the Red Guards of Petrograd workers, soldiers of the Petrograd garrison and sailors of the Kronstadt naval base stormed the Provisional Government's headquarters in the Tsar's Winter Palace. They seized power in the name of the Soviet. The new communist government promised to create a state ruled by workers and peasants.

SOURCE 7 This Bolshevik banner of 1918 represents the alliance of workers and peasants. In the right-hand corner, the hammer represents industrial workers while the sickle represents peasants.



DID YOU KNOW?

Many Marxists and other socialists in Russia and in other countries opposed Lenin's views, which came to be called Marxism–Leninism. They predicted, correctly, that such a revolution could not create democracy and socialism but would lead instead to oppressive dictatorship.

Although the Bolsheviks failed to live up to their ideals, they would inspire many discontented workers in other lands. Significantly, their victory ended Russia's involvement in the war. In March 1918 the Bolshevik government signed a separate peace that enabled Germany to direct all its resources to the Western Front.

8.12 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.12 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why was the Russian army weak despite its size?
2. **HS1** Describe the reasons for widespread discontent among workers, peasants and soldiers.
3. **HS1** Who was the leader of the Bolsheviks?
4. **HS1** How did the Bolsheviks' leader's ideas about socialist revolution differ from the ideas of Karl Marx?
5. **HS1** What were the two key symbols on the Bolshevik banner and what did they represent?

8.12 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCES 1–5** and explain how these sources provide evidence for the growing opposition of Russian troops, workers and peasants to the Tsarist regime that led to the Tsar's abdication and the formation of the Provisional Government in March 1917.
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCES 6** and **7**. Explain how these sources provide evidence that the Bolsheviks wanted the second revolution to be seen as an uprising of Russia's workers, peasants, soldiers and sailors rather than a seizure of power by a small party of dedicated revolutionaries.
3. **HS5** Most historians agree that the Bolshevik Revolution could not have succeeded without the conditions created in Russia by World War I. Explain why you agree or disagree with this view.
4. **HS6** For what reasons could the Bolshevik Revolution be regarded as a major turning point in World War I?
5. **HS2** Make a timeline of events from 1915 to 1918 to show how Russia's involvement in World War I led to a communist revolution.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.13 Peace and commemoration

8.13.1 Repatriation and memorials

War's full consequences are rarely foreseen. The Armistice of 11 November 1918 ended the fighting in World War I, but nothing could ever be quite the same again. The survivors of the great armies that had killed and maimed each other for four years with bullets, bayonets, grenades, artillery and gas emerged from their trenches to a world in ruins. The German, Austro-Hungarian, Turkish and Russian empires had been shattered. Revolutions and civil wars broke out in the defeated empires, and even the victor nations and colonies experienced widespread social unrest. In Australia, as we have seen, the war had brought deep divisions and there was scarcely a family that had not lost a brother, son, father or uncle on the battlefields.

SOURCE 1 Crowds fill Melbourne's streets on Armistice Day, 11 November 1918.

Repatriation

In 1918, 260 000 Australians had to be **repatriated**. Some had been fighting for four years and few people at home understood how deeply the experience had affected them. A shortage of shipping meant some soldiers had to wait more than 18 months to get home. The returning troops brought with them the 'Spanish' influenza, a deadly **pandemic** that swept the world in 1918–19. It caused almost 12 000 deaths in Australia, and many men had to be quarantined before being reunited with their families. Australians agreed that the nation should try to repay returned servicemen for their sacrifices. Some were provided with training in skilled trades while others were settled on the land with the help of low-interest loans. However, these measures could not help all ex-servicemen to readjust after four years of the horrors of war.

SOURCE 2 Australian artillery units parade past Buckingham Palace (London) on Anzac Day, 25 April 1919.

SOURCE 3 Bronze statue of Simpson and his donkey at the Australian War Memorial, Canberra

Memorials

Australians were determined that their soldiers' sacrifices would not be forgotten. Across the nation, local committees built memorials in towns, cities and suburbs to display the names of the fallen. In the lands in which Australians fell, memorials and vast war cemeteries were established. Most are in northern France and Belgium, where they are maintained with great care by the Commonwealth War Graves Commission.

SOURCE 4 French children at Villers-Bretonneux, in the Somme Valley, tend graves of Australians killed on the Western Front.

AWM E05925

on Resources

Interactivity One man visits the Somme (int-6666)

8.13.2 Anzac Day and the Anzac legend

In 1914, many Australians had seen World War I as a chance to prove that they deserved a place in Britain's great military tradition. The mateship, bravery and achievements of the Anzacs during the Gallipoli campaign were seen to represent Australian ideals and give Australia the legendary identity it sought.

SOURCE 5 Message from King George V to the Australian government, in *The Age*, May 1915

I heartily congratulate you upon the splendid conduct and bravery displayed by the Australian troops in the operations at the Dardanelles, who have indeed proved themselves worthy sons of the Empire.

SOURCE 6 From C.E.W. Bean, *The Story of Anzac*, 1941

What motive sustained them? ... It lay in the mettle of the men themselves ... life was very dear, but life was not worth living unless they could be true to their idea of Australian Manhood.

Anzac Day was first observed in 1916 to commemorate the landings at Gallipoli and the legend they created. Many people considered that Australia had only really become a nation at Gallipoli on 25 April 1915. Each year, Anzac Day has continued to be commemorated across Australia and New Zealand. For many people, it became Australia's unofficial national day. Traditionally it has been observed through dawn services, marches of veterans and gatherings of wartime comrades. It has also been observed in schools and churches.

At first the message of Anzac Day was similar to that of Empire Day — pride in their British heritage, loyalty to the empire, hatred of Germany, the need for greater sacrifice, and pride that Australia had earned an honourable place in the British military tradition. From 1920 Anzac Day became a public holiday.

What was the meaning of the Anzac legend, and has it changed over time? The legend was based on real characteristics of Anzac troops at Gallipoli and throughout the war. Many risked their lives for their mates. Some were decorated for bravery while others died unrecognised. Qualities like courage and mateship were not uniquely Australian — they were undoubtedly shared by many other soldiers. However, what the Anzacs did was remarkable. They made up less than 10 per cent of British Empire forces but on the Western Front no military force achieved more in proportion to their numbers. Anzac troops believed that they had proven themselves equal to or even better than the British.

Did the Anzac legend change Australian nationalism?

Did the Anzac legend strengthen or weaken the spirit of national independence? In Australia of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, radical nationalists saw Britain as the home of social inequalities. They wanted a fairer and more equal Australia that was independent of Britain. The military historian Bill Gammage has argued that the Anzac legend weakened the influence of radical nationalism because the Anzacs had fought and died for Britain, proving the strength of Australia's ties with the 'Old Country'.

SOURCE 7 From Bill Gammage, *The Broken Years*, 1975, p. 278

But the Anzac tradition also introduced a deep division into Australian life ... roughly half those eligible had joined the AIF during the war ... A great rift had opened, a rift between those who had fought in the war and those who had not.

In significant ways, this was disastrous. Before the war radical nationalists had led the drive for a social paradise in Australia, but ultimately they were least at ease with the Imperial and martial implications of the Anzac tradition, and during the war they divided over the proper conduct of Australia's war effort ...

For their part the conservatives, who before 1914 had exerted a **tenuous** influence on Australian politics and society, were united and given purpose by the war ... Naturally enough that dedication and the motives behind it appealed to the men in the trenches ...

In short, that general majority which in 1914 had sought to create a social paradise in Australia was both split and made leaderless by the war, and by 1918 no longer existed, while the conservatives had joined with those who had fought in the war to take firm possession of the spirit of Anzac ...

So the Anzac legend fitted in well with the views of Australian conservatives who wanted Australia to stay loyal to the British monarchy and the empire. Conservatives dominated celebrations of Anzac Day in the 1920s and 1930s. To them, it was a celebration of loyalty to the empire as much as an expression of national pride. To many who had fought in the war, Anzac Day was a reminder of their sacrifice and a chance to be reunited with the only people who could really understand what they had suffered. World War II and subsequent conflicts would bring new generations into the Anzac tradition. However, Anzac Day would continue to reflect divisions in Australia as much as it expressed national pride. Some Australians resented what they saw as its use by conservatives to glorify war.

Perhaps today the meaning we give to Anzac Day can be shared by all Australians — pride in the courage and endurance of the Anzacs, sorrow for the terrible losses suffered by their generation and determination that such tragic waste of human lives should never be repeated.

SOURCE 8 Some of the war graves at the Australian National Memorial at Villers-Bretonneux in France

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- World War One > **Consequences of World War I**

8.13 ACTIVITIES

1. Look back at subtopic 8.6 and conduct further research to explain why Private Simpson (depicted in **SOURCE 3** in section 8.13.1) was considered to be worthy of an individual memorial.
   Determining historical significance
2. (a) Explain what you believe to be the meaning of Anzac Day in modern Australia, based on:
      i. what you have learned about how the Anzac legend changed Australian nationalism and divided Australians
      ii. your own experiences of Anzac Day commemorations.
   (b) Share your thoughts with a partner. What were the similarities and differences between your view and your partner's view of the meaning of Anzac Day? **Determining historical significance**

8.13 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.13 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did many Australian troops face a long wait after the Armistice before they were repatriated?
2. **HS1** Describe the effect of the 'Spanish' influenza pandemic on Australia.
3. **HS1** Why would many World War I soldiers have found it difficult to settle back into civilian life?
4. **HS1** Describe measures that were adopted in Australia to assist ex-servicemen and to ensure that their sacrifices were not forgotten.
5. **HS1** What were the Anzacs thought to have given Australia?
6. **HS1** Describe the message of Anzac Day in its first years.

8.13 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe what you think would have been the mood of the crowd in **SOURCE 1** and the emotions that would have been felt by those who had lost close friends and family members.
2. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 2**. Explain why these Australian soldiers were in London so long after the war's end and how they might have felt about their situation.
3. **HS3** Study **SOURCES 5** and **6**.
   (a) According to **SOURCE 5**, what had the Australian troops proved?
   (b) Why might not all Australians have shared the same feelings about this message?
   (c) What motives did Australia's official war historian, C.E.W. Bean, identify to account for Anzac heroism?
4. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 7**. According to Gammage:
   (a) Why did the Anzac tradition introduce 'a deep division into Australian life'?
   (b) Who were 'least at ease with the Imperial and martial implications of the Anzac tradition' (that is, with the idea that it was noble to fight for the British monarch and empire)?
   (c) How did the Anzac tradition strengthen the influence of conservatives in Australia?
5. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCES 4** and **8** can be used as evidence of an ongoing commitment to commemorate the sacrifices of Australians in World War I.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.14 The war's impact on Australia's international relations

8.14.1 Australia, Britain and the United States

The Great War was not the first occasion on which Australians had fought for the British Empire. They had also fought in the Sudan Campaign in 1885, the Boer War in 1899–1902 and the suppression of the Boxer Rebellion in China in 1900. Australians had fought for Britain largely because they feared being invaded and felt that fighting for the empire would assure the British that Australia was worth defending. As you have discovered in this topic, most Australians had responded to the outbreak of World War I with unswerving loyalty to the British Empire, believing that Britain's cause was a just one. After Gallipoli, the Anzacs were believed to have given Australia the identity it sought within the British military tradition. So, after the enormous sacrifices made in the Great War, would Australia seek to broaden its international relations?

The chances of lasting peace would be strongly influenced by the terms of treaties negotiated at the Paris Peace Conference in 1919. At this conference, Australia was represented by Prime Minister W.M. 'Billy' Hughes. Australia was a dominion of the British Empire so it did not have an independent foreign policy. Nor did it seek independence. However, after the Armistice ended hostilities on 11 November 1918, Hughes and the other dominion leaders demanded the right to be represented at the conference. This demand was accepted and the representatives of the dominions, as part of the British Empire delegation, became delegates to the conference. There they were recognised as the representatives of separate nations.

What would Australia's position be at the conference? Australia had fought as part of the British Empire but her troops had been kept distinct from the British Army and their performance had been a source of national pride. Over 60 000 Australians had died. Tens of thousands were permanently disabled and many ended their lives in hospitals as a result of mustard gas and other horrors. So, although Hughes had acted during the war as a British imperialist, at the peace conference he also adopted the role of an Australian nationalist, willing to fight for what he saw as Australia's interests even if this brought him into conflict with Britain and the other great powers.

SOURCE 1 From the diary of Corporal D. Morgan, 2nd Bn., on Armistice Day, 11/11/1918

The very flower of our manhood have paid the greatest price, not willingly, for not one of them but longed to live, return home and forget, yes just forget the horrors of the past. Most of us enlisted for ... Patriotism or Love of Adventure but not one ... had the slightest conception of the terrible price required ... Please God ... the sacrifices have not been in vain.

Hughes clashes with the USA

Hughes quickly found himself aligned with those who demanded the harshest terms against the defeated powers. He was concerned with three main issues: reparations, German New Guinea and the White Australia Policy. On the reparations issue Hughes shared the view of the French government that Germany should be made to pay for the full cost of the war, and this brought him into conflict with the US President, Woodrow Wilson.

The peace conference produced the Treaty of Versailles (1919) with Germany, the Treaty of Neuilly (1919) with Bulgaria, the Treaty of St Germain (1920) with Austria, the Treaty of Trianon (1920) with Hungary and the Treaty of Sevres (1920) with Turkey. Under the treaties, all of the defeated powers lost territory. Germany lost land on its frontiers and all of its colonies. The Austro-Hungarian Empire disappeared, leaving the small states of Austria and Hungary without the nationalities they had ruled over. Bulgaria lost some lands to Greece and Yugoslavia while Turkey lost all its Middle Eastern provinces. Germany, along with its allies, had to accept responsibility for all losses suffered by the Allies. Germany was forced to agree that, over time, it would pay 6.6 billion pounds in reparations (compensation) for these losses. It also had to agree to give up its navy and most of its merchant ships, limit its army to 100 000 men, and provide free coal and livestock to France and Belgium.

The US president wanted a much less vengeful treaty that would strengthen democracy in Germany and create conditions for lasting peace. Kaiser Wilhelm II had abdicated following a revolution in Germany in November 1918, and by the time the treaty was signed Germany had become a democratic republic. But the overwhelming desire of France and, to a lesser extent, Britain was to weaken Germany and make her pay. Australia's leaders shared that desire.

The aggressive independence shown by Hughes at the conference did not mean any move towards independence from the British Empire. From 1923, the dominions gained the right to make their own foreign policies. But while Canada, South Africa and Ireland took up this independence, Australia remained content to follow British foreign policy.

8.14.2 Australia and the Asia–Pacific region

Hughes also clashed with the idealistic Woodrow Wilson on the issue of German New Guinea and with Japan on the issue of racial equality. To understand these disagreements, we need to look back at attitudes to Asia and the Pacific that took shape in Australia during the late nineteenth century.

The widely held belief in a white Australia was based on shared ideas of white superiority, fears of being engulfed by Asian nations to Australia's north, and fears that Asian and Pacific migration posed a threat to Australian living standards. The White Australia Policy had been expressed in two of the first laws passed by the new Commonwealth Government in 1901. These were the Immigration Restriction Act, which was used to prevent non-white migrants from coming to Australia, and the Pacific Island Labourers Act, under which most Pacific Islanders in Australia were deported.

Australia clashes with the US president

US President Woodrow Wilson believed that former German colonies should not become spoils for the victors of war. Instead they should become **League of Nations** mandates, administered by countries that were on the winning side, but supervised by the League in accordance with humanitarian principles.

In contrast, Hughes' view was that New Guinea and the Pacific Islands should be controlled by Britain or Australia to prevent any foreign power gaining a foothold in the region. Following pressure from Queensland, Britain had made Papua a possession of the British Empire in 1888 and the Australian government administered it from 1910. Hughes wanted the same arrangement for the former German New Guinea. Hughes' concerns were based on fears for Australia's security and were linked to the White Australia Policy. Hughes did not want New Guinea to be at risk at falling into the hands of any power that might permit the entry of Asian immigrants. He wanted the right to annex New Guinea but had to settle for a compromise. The territory became a League of Nations 'class C' mandate. This meant that in theory the League had some overall supervising authority but in practice Australia had virtually complete control of its administration, including the right to prevent Asian immigration.

Australia clashes with Japan

Hughes also successfully opposed Japan's demands for a racial equality clause in the Covenant of the League of Nations. He believed that the principle of racial equality would amount to a threat to Australia's right to maintain the White Australia Policy. The majority of delegates voted for Japan's proposal, but it was overruled on the grounds that a major change to the Covenant required a unanimous vote.

Thus, when Hughes returned to Australia, he could claim success on all three issues. Australia had, for the first time in history, played a significant role in world affairs in her own right. Significantly, Australia's stance on all three issues had been a reactionary one that was quite out of harmony with the idealistic hopes Wilson held for the League of Nations.

SOURCE 2 *Too busy to listen*, a cartoon published in *Aussie* magazine in November 1920

8.14 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.14 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain how Australia was able to represent itself at the Paris Peace Conference even though it was not an independent nation.
2. **HS1** At the peace conference, on what issue did Australia agree strongly with France and Britain but clash with the United States?
3. **HS1** What powers did Australia decline that it could have taken up from the 1920s?
4. **HS1** Describe the differences between Hughes and Wilson over the former German New Guinea.
5. **HS1** On what issue did Australia clash with Japan?

8.14 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) What conclusions can be drawn from this source about the legacies of World War I for Australia?
   (b) How do these legacies help us to understand why Australia's perceived interests were pursued so strongly at the Paris Peace Conference?
2. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 2** using the following questions.
   (a) Who or what is represented by the figure in the top left of the cartoon?
   (b) What conflicts within Australian society are represented by the other figures?
   (c) What is the message of the cartoon and how is it related to the White Australia Policy?
   (d) How does the cartoon support the position taken by Hughes on the issues of racial equality and the Asia–Pacific region?
3. **HS4** Identify ways in which Australia's conduct at the Paris Peace Conference represented:
   (a) a change in its level of independence in international relations
   (b) a continuation of past policies.
4. **HS4** Explain how Australia's stance at the Peace Conference on racial equality, Asia and the Pacific represented a continuation of policies based on racial discrimination. Use the following structure to organise your answer.
   (a) Explain the ideas behind the White Australia Policy.
   (b) Describe the aims and effects of the Immigration Restriction Act and the Pacific Island Labourers Act.
   (c) Explain why Australia wanted British or Australian control of the Pacific Islands, especially the former German New Guinea.
   (d) Explain why Australia opposed Japan's demand for a racial equality clause in the Covenant of the League of Nations.
   (e) Conclude with a general statement about continuity in Australia's foreign policy position on racial equality, Asia and the Pacific.
5. **HS6** Explain why Australia's stance on the terms of the Peace Conference was significant for the chances of lasting peace.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.15 SkillBuilder: Analysing photos

online only

Analysing World War I photographs

Photographs can be very useful primary sources. Analysing a photograph is therefore a very important skill when studying the history of periods in which photography existed. During World War I, many tens of thousands of photographs were taken by official war photographers and ordinary soldiers.

Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

8.16 Thinking Big research project: Western Front battlefields guide

online only

SCENARIO

Increasing numbers of people are travelling to sites in northern France and Belgium where so many Australians were killed or maimed during World War I. You have been chosen to help prepare a battlefields guide to some of these sites.

Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Western Front battlefields guide (pro-0187)

8.17 Review

online only

8.17.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

8.17.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31710)
Crossword (doc-31711)

Interactivity World War I (1914–1918) crossword (int-7642)

KEY TERMS

abdicate to step down from the throne or from other high office
artillery large-calibre guns
blockade sealing off an area so that nothing can get in or out
censorship restriction or control of what people can say, hear, see or read
conscription compulsory enlistment of citizens to serve in the armed forces
deadlock a stalemate in which neither side can gain an advantage
Duma the Russian parliament
enlist to join voluntarily, usually the military
feint a dummy attack meant to deceive the enemy into moving troops from where the main attack will take place
half-caste of mixed race (a term widely used in the mid 1900s, but now considered offensive)
Hindenburg line a heavily fortified (German) position on the Western Front
imperialism the policy of an empire by which it gains land by conquest and rules other countries, or dominates them as colonies
League of Nations the world body set up at the Paris Peace Conference to solve disputes between nations peacefully
nationalism feeling of loyalty to a nation
no man's land unoccupied ground between the front lines of opposing armies
pacifist person who holds a religious or other conscientious belief that it is immoral to take part in war
pandemic disease epidemic affecting many different countries
propaganda distortion of the truth to persuade people to support an action or point of view
referendum ballot in which voters decide on a political question. Where there is no change to the Australian Constitution involved, this is called an advisory referendum or plebiscite.
repatriated returned to home country
Sinn Fein organisation formed in Ireland in 1905 to campaign for Irish independence from Britain. The name was also used by the pro-independence party after the failed 1916 uprising.
Slavic belonging to the Slavs (a language group including Russians, Serbs and other Central and Eastern European peoples)
Soviet a council representing workers, peasants, soldiers and sailors
stalemate (from chess) a situation in which neither side can gain a winning advantage
tenuous weak, thin
trench foot a painful, swollen condition caused by feet remaining wet for too long; if gangrene set in, the feet had to be amputated
U-boats German submarines
ultimatum a final set of demands or terms backed by a threat

8.15 SkillBuilder: Analysing photos

8.15.1 Tell me

What are our main World War I photographs?

Many tens of thousands of photographs were taken during World War I, even though soldiers could be court-martialled for taking photographs in battlefront areas. A large number of photographs was taken for military reasons or to create a visual record of the war. Many of the best photographs were taken by official war photographers like Australia's Frank Hurley. The Australian government wanted to have official war photographers so that Australia's role in the war could be fully recorded. Hurley became the first official photographer to the AIF in 1917 and was given the rank of honorary captain.

Why is it important to analyse and corroborate photographic sources?

Photographs can be very useful primary sources. Analysing a photograph is therefore a very important skill when studying the history of periods in which photography existed. You might think that a photograph is always an accurate record of what happened, rather than somebody's impression of it. But that is not necessarily true. Often when you take a photograph, you compose a picture, choosing the angle from which you want to shoot, what you will have in it, what part of a scene you will leave out and whether it will be taken close up or from a distance. Later you might edit it on your computer, altering such aspects as light, contrast and colour saturation, and cropping the photo to cut unwanted parts.

Modern digital photography had not been invented until long after World War I, but even with the cameras that existed at the time, skilful photographers could edit pictures in ways that changed their meaning. During World War I, to avoid blurring, cameras needed people to stay still for much longer times than are required with modern cameras. For that reason, action photos were sometimes posed. For dramatic effects and to show more than one kind of action in one image, Hurley and other skilled photographers also made composite pictures by combining two or more negatives. For such reasons we sometimes have to be careful with their photographs to recognise features that have been altered to make them useful for propaganda or to simply make them more exciting.

8.15.2 Show me

When you study a historical photograph you need to think carefully about the clues it provides and try to evaluate its accuracy, usefulness and reliability. You need to ask questions such as:

1. *The photographer.* Who took the photograph (if known) and what is the source (if stated)?
2. *Location.* Where is the location and when was the photograph taken?
3. *Editing.* Has the photograph been posed or has the photographer simply recorded a scene? Can you tell whether the photograph has been cropped and, if so, has this changed its meaning at all? Has the photograph been changed by adding or removing any details or by combining negatives to make composite images?
4. *Composition.* Is the photograph taken from close up or from a distance, or from a particular angle, and does this affect the viewer's reaction to it?
5. *Subject.* What is the main subject of the image? What background and minor details are shown? What extra information do the minor details add?
6. *Motive.* Why was the photograph taken (if known)?
7. *Usefulness.* For what aspect of the topic does the photograph provide useful evidence?
8. *Accuracy and reliability.* Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can you tell?

SOURCE 1 is an example of a World War I photograph to which the above questions are applicable. To evaluate the photograph's accuracy and reliability, you could compare it with many other images. A good image for comparison is **SOURCE 2**, which may well be a posed photograph.

SOURCE 1 Australian soldiers pass along the Menin Road beyond Ypres, Belgium, on 14 September 1917 during the Ypres battles. The photograph was taken by Frank Hurley, an official Australian war photographer. It is held in the collections of the Australian War Memorial.

SOURCE 2 An Australian soldier runs across the road through Chateau Wood in the Menin Road area, in the Ypres sector, Belgium, on 5 November 1917. The photograph was taken by Frank Hurley, an official Australian war photographer. It is held in the collections of the Australian War Memorial.

Questions about SOURCE 1	Answers
1. Who took the photograph (if known)? What is the source (if stated)?	The photographer was Frank Hurley, an official Australian war photographer. The photograph belongs to the Australian War Memorial.
2. Where is the location? When was the photograph taken?	The photograph was taken near Ypres. It was taken on 14 September 1917, which places it at the time of the Third Battle of Ypres.
3. Has the photograph been posed or has the photographer simply recorded a scene? Has the photograph been cropped and, if so, has this changed its meaning at all? Has the photograph been changed by adding or removing any details or by combining negatives to make composite images?	There is no evidence that the photograph has been posed, although it is possible that Hurley might have asked the soldiers to stand still for a moment to avoid blurring. (In contrast, **SOURCE 2** is very likely to have been posed, as it is improbable that a lone soldier would have been crossing the road just when Hurley was ready to take a photograph.) There is no evidence that **SOURCE 1** has been cropped, although it is equally possible that it could have been cropped. Nor is there evidence of any other tampering with the image, although there could easily have been tampering.
4. Is the photograph taken from close up or from a distance, and does this affect the viewer's reaction to it?	The photograph has been taken close up to the dead horses, so that we react first to the scene in the foreground, and that our eyes then move to the soldiers on the road moving into the distance. This photographer has a good sense of composition.
5. What is the main subject? What background and minor details are shown? What extra information do the minor details add?	The subject is the destructive power of the war and the experiences of Australian soldiers at the time of the Third Battle of Ypres. The bloated bodies of dead horses in the foreground are no more important than the soldiers marching away from them in the background, possibly to share their fate. The flatness of the land on both sides of the road provides evidence of the type of landscape in which many battles were fought on the Western Front. The bare trees and debris along the road contribute to an image of devastation.
6. Why was the photograph taken (if known)?	As the photograph was taken by an official war photographer, it was undoubtedly taken for historical reasons, to document the conditions experienced during the fighting around Ypres.
7. For what aspect of World War I does the photograph provide useful evidence?	It provides useful evidence for the effect of the war on the landscape, animals and men.
8. Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can you tell?	The evidence in this photograph is accurate and reliable. We could tell this by comparing similar photographs and written records of the fighting at Ypres in 1917. **SOURCE 2**, which was taken almost two months later in the same general area, can be used to support its accuracy and reliability as it shows similar devastation and provides evidence of the added effects of rain.

8.15.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

8.15 ACTIVITIES

1. Use the questions in the example in the Show me section and repeated below to analyse **SOURCE 3.** You can use **SOURCE 4** as evidence for the accuracy and reliability of **SOURCE 3.**
   (a) Who took the photograph? What is the source?
   (b) Where is the location? When was the photograph taken?
   (c) Has the photograph been posed or has the photographer simply recorded a scene? Has the photograph been cropped and, if so, has this changed its meaning at all? Has the photograph been changed by adding or removing any details or by combining negatives to make composite images?

(d) Is the photograph taken from close up or from a distance, and does this affect the viewer's reaction to it?
(e) What is the main subject? What background and minor details are shown? What extra information do the minor details add?
(f) Why was the photograph taken?
(g) For what aspect of World War I does the photograph provide useful evidence?
(h) Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can you tell?

SOURCE 3 Two soldiers of the Australian 5th Division crossing a frozen trench by a duckboard bridge at Bernafay Terminus on the Western Front in January 1917. The image was taken by an unknown official war photographer. It is held in the collections of the Australian War Memorial.

SOURCE 4 An Australian officer plodding through the frozen mud in a trench near Gueudecourt, in France, during the winter of 1916–1917. The image was taken by an unknown official war photographer. It is held in the collections of the Australian War Memorial.

2. Based on what you have learned in this SkillBuilder, apply your skills in analysing photographs to answer the following questions.
   (a) Give two reasons why photographs were taken on the battlefronts during World War I.
   (b) In what ways could photographs be altered to change their meaning?
   (c) Who was Frank Hurley and what did he do as Australia's first official war photographer?
   (d) Why would Hurley's photographs be more questionable for reliability than photographs taken by ordinary soldiers?
   (e) What general conclusions about conditions on the Western Front can you draw from the four photographs used in this SkillBuilder?

8.16 Thinking Big research project: Western Front battlefields guide

Scenario

Following the events held from 2014 to 2018 to mark the centenary of World War I, many Australians have become more aware that the battles on the Western Front cost far more Australian lives and had a much greater impact on the course of the war than the Gallipoli campaign. Increasing numbers of people are travelling to sites in northern France and Belgium where so many Australians were killed or wounded during World War I. You have been chosen to help prepare a battlefields guide to some of these sites.

SOURCE 1 Australian war graves at Pozières British War Cemetery, France

Task

You are to research and write guidebook articles for each of the three sites below. You will need to provide information to explain the role of Australians in the battles at each site, the aims and results of each battle, the casualties suffered and at least one contemporary photograph to show the conditions experienced at the time of the battle. The three battle sites are:

1. **Pozières** and nearby **Mouquet Farm, France**, where Australians fought from July to September 1916
2. **Hill 60,** near **Ypres, Belgium**, where Australians fought in November 1916
3. **Villers-Bretonneux, France**, where Australians fought in April 1918 and which has significant links with Victoria.

Process

- Open the ProjectsPLUS application in the Resources for this topic. Click on the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group. Working in groups of three will enable you to share responsibility for the project. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Start by revisiting subtopics 8.9 and 8.15, then navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric and some helpful weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research.

SOURCE 2 Australian cemetery at the Villers-Bretonneux Military Cemetery, France

- As you conduct your research, remember to record details of your sources so you can create a bibliography to submit with your guidebook. Add your research notes and source details to the relevant topic pages in the Research forum. You can view, share and comment on other group members' research findings, and you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered, if you wish.
- Once you have completed your research, write up your guidebook entries. Write clearly and concisely so that each article is no more than 300 words in length. You can also use images to make your articles more compelling.
- Review your work thoroughly, checking for correct spelling and grammar. When you are happy with your work, submit your guidebook articles and bibliography to your teacher for assessment.

Resources

ProjectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Western Front battlefields guide (pro-0187)

8.17 Review

8.17.1 Key knowledge summary

8.2 Examining the evidence

- Australia has the world's most extensive collection of sources for the war.
- These include a vast number of written sources and visual sources.
- Britain, France and Belgium also have extensive collections.

8.3 What caused the Great War?

- Long-term causes include imperialism, nationalism, the glorification of war and development of rival alliances.
- The short-term trigger was the conflict between Austria–Hungary and Serbia, especially following the assassination of the Austrian Archduke Franz Ferdinand.

8.4 The world at war

- The war was fought between the Allies and the Central Powers, but the Allies quickly gained support from several other countries.
- The Germans failed in their plan to quickly defeat France in the west in order to then move east and defeat Russia.
- The war was fought on several fronts but the main fighting was in Europe on the Western and Eastern fronts.

8.5 Australians in the Great War

- Most Australians greeted the outbreak of war with enthusiasm.
- Volunteers rushed to enlist in the AIF. Loyalty to Britain was a motive for many of them.
- The AIF was combined with New Zealand troops to form the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC).
- The main theatres of war for Australian troops were Gallipoli, the Western Front and the Middle East.

8.6 Gallipoli

- The attack at Gallipoli was intended to defeat Turkey.
- The Anzacs landed successfully on 25 April 1915 but were unable to hold the high ridges, which were essential for success.
- Both sides suffered heavy losses.
- In August 1915, operations to break the deadlock were unsuccessful.
- A successful withdrawal ended the Gallipoli campaign in December 1915.

8.7 Gallipoli: the historical debate

- The long-accepted interpretation of the reason for high casualties suffered by the Anzacs during the landing and, to an extent, the failure of the entire campaign was that the troops were landed in the wrong place.
- This interpretation has been challenged in more recent times.

8.8 Trench warfare

- Trench warfare led to an almost continual stalemate.
- Trenches were complex systems in which soldiers on both sides lived and died.
- Attempts to attack enemy trenches produced enormous casualties.

8.9 The Western Front

- Anzac troops joined the fighting on the Western Front in 1916.
- They suffered high casualties in battles, including Fromelles and Pozières during the Somme offensive.
- Australian soldiers played a prominent role at Bullecourt and Ypres in 1917.
- They also played a key role in stopping the German offensive in March–April 1918 and in the first big Allied attack in July 1918.

8.10 The home front

- The war increasingly divided Australians on the home front, especially as it caused increased inequality.
- Patriotic rallies encouraged continued support for the war, patriotic funds were organised to aid the war effort and schools were used to instil patriotism.
- Except for nurses, women were denied any direct role in the armed services. Many other women contributed through voluntary work.
- Women were also among the war's leading critics.
- Recruiting campaigns failed to raise the numbers of new recruits that the government wanted. Despite this the government discriminated against Indigenous Australians in recruiting.

8.11 The conscription issue

- Australia was the only combatant nation that had a fully volunteer military.
- Prime Minister Hughes split the Labor Party when he tried to introduce conscription.
- The conscription issue was bitterly divisive.
- Referendums in 1916 and 1917 failed to win majority support for conscription.

8.12 The Eastern Front: collapse and revolution

- War weariness in Russia led to the revolution of March 1917 and the abdication of Tsar Nicholas II.
- A second revolution in November 1917 saw the Bolsheviks seize power.
- The Bolshevik Revolution ended Russia's involvement in the war, leading to a separate peace treaty in March 1918 that freed German forces for a last offensive on the Western Front.

8.13 Peace and commemoration

- After the Armistice ended fighting on 11 November 1918, lack of shipping caused long delays in repatriating Anzac troops.
- Australians were determined that their soldiers' sacrifices would be remembered, so memorials were built across the nation.
- Anzac Day became a national day of remembrance.
- The Anzac legend changed Australian nationalism and the meaning of the legend has changed over time.

8.14 The war's impact on Australia's international relations

- Australia attended the Paris Peace Conference in its own right, not just as part of the British Empire delegation.
- Prime Minister Hughes was concerned with three issues at the conference. He wanted harsh reparations imposed on the defeated powers, Australian or British control of the former German New Guinea and the right to maintain the racist White Australia Policy.
- Hughes gained all of his objectives at the conference but he clashed with both the United States and Japan on these issues.
- Despite the independence shown at the peace conference, Australia did not seek independence from Britain in foreign relations.

A timeline of World War I

CE

1880

1882
Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy form the Triple Alliance.

1907
Britain, France and Russia form the Triple Entente.

1910

1914
28 July: Austria–Hungary declares war on Serbia.

1–3 August: Germany declares war on Russia and France, and invades Belgium.

4 August: Britain declares war on Germany.

5–10 September: French and British armies halt the Germans in Belgium and France.

15 September: Trench warfare begins in Western Europe.

1916
March–June: The AIF joins the fight against Germany on the Western Front.

The Australian Light Horse remains in Egypt to fight Turkish forces.

1 July: The British and French launch a big offensive in the Somme Valley on the Western Front.

28 October: The first referendum on conscription is held in Australia.

1915

1915
25 April: The Anzacs land at Gallipoli.

December: The Allies withdraw from Gallipoli.

1917
6 April: The USA enters the war.

31 July: The third battle of Ypres (Passchendaele) is launched by the Germans in Belgium.

7 November: Revolution in Russia leads to Russian withdrawal from the war.

20 December: The second conscription referendum is lost in Australia.

1918
21 March: The last German offensive on the Western Front is launched.

18 July: Australian forces lead the first successful large Allied attack in France.

The Armistice, signed on 11 November, ends the fighting.

1920

CE

8.17.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

8.17 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

Millions fought and died in the Great War. Was there more to it than just winners and losers?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question, outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31710)
Crossword (doc-31711)

Interactivity World War I (1914–1918) crossword (int-7642)

KEY TERMS

abdicate to step down from the throne or from other high office
artillery large-calibre guns
blockade sealing off an area so that nothing can get in or out
censorship restriction or control of what people can say, hear, see or read
conscription compulsory enlistment of citizens to serve in the armed forces
deadlock a stalemate in which neither side can gain an advantage
Duma the Russian parliament
enlist to join voluntarily, usually the military
feint a dummy attack meant to deceive the enemy into moving troops from where the main attack will take place
half-caste of mixed race (a term widely used in the mid 1900s, but now considered offensive)
Hindenburg line a heavily fortified (German) position on the Western Front
imperialism the policy of an empire by which it gains land by conquest and rules other countries, or dominates them as colonies
League of Nations the world body set up at the Paris Peace Conference to solve disputes between nations peacefully
nationalism feeling of loyalty to a nation
no man's land unoccupied ground between the front lines of opposing armies
pacifist person who holds a religious or other conscientious belief that it is immoral to take part in war
pandemic disease epidemic affecting many different countries
propaganda distortion of the truth to persuade people to support an action or point of view
referendum ballot in which voters decide on a political question. Where there is no change to the Australian Constitution involved, this is called an advisory referendum or plebiscite.
repatriated returned to home country
Sinn Fein organisation formed in Ireland in 1905 to campaign for Irish independence from Britain. The name was also used by the pro-independence party after the failed 1916 uprising.
Slavic belonging to the Slavs (a language group including Russians, Serbs and other Central and Eastern European peoples)
Soviet a council representing workers, peasants, soldiers and sailors
stalemate (from chess) a situation in which neither side can gain a winning advantage
tenuous weak, thin
trench foot a painful, swollen condition caused by feet remaining wet for too long; if gangrene set in, the feet would have to be amputated
U-boats German submarines
ultimatum a final set of demands or terms backed by a threat

GLOSSARY

abdicate to step down from the throne or from other high office
abolition the end of legal acceptance of slavery
affiliated unions unions linked with other unions through a wider umbrella organisation
animal husbandry breeding and caring for livestock, usually in a farm environment
annex to take possession of a territory
artefact an object made or changed by humans
artillery large-calibre guns
Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) the peak union organisation in Australia
bell pit a traditional form of coalmining in which a shaft is dug down to a seam of coal and then excavated outwards, with the coal raised to the surface using a winch and buckets
biased account narrative or description in which a writer presents only one side of an issue in an attempt to convince the reader
biased one-sided or prejudiced, seeing something from just one point of view
Bill a proposal to change the law by Act of Parliament
Black Death a deadly disease that ravaged Europe, killing between a quarter and a half of the population in the second half of the fourteenth century. It continued to occur periodically over the next 300 years.
blast furnace a type of furnace into which air is forced to raise the temperature sufficiently to carry out the smelting of iron ore
blockade sealing off an area so that nothing can get in or out
bookkeeping keeping records of financial accounts
bourgeoisie capitalist middle classes; the owners of the means of production, distribution and exchange — factories, shipping, banks and other businesses
British Dominion a self-governing territory belonging to the British Empire
carding the process of untangling and straightening raw wool or cotton fibres
cause and effect the concept that every historical event will have a cause, and every event or action is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences
censorship restriction or control of what people can say, hear, see or read
cesspits pits into which householders with no toilets could empty their waste, which was later collected by workers known as nightmen
charter a written grant from a sovereign, providing certain rights or privileges to the holder
cholera a bacterial disease of the intestines, causing vomiting and diarrhoea. It is transmitted through contaminated water and can lead to death through dehydration.
chronology a record of past events in order of time, from ancient Greek *chronos* (time) and *logos* (to work out)
coke a type of fuel produced by using heat to remove impurities such as coal gas and tar from coal
colony an area of land settled by people from another country. This can involve military conquest if the original inhabitants resist that settlement.
commute to change a penalty to one less severe
concubine a woman who lives with a man she is not married to and has a lower social rank than his wife
conscription compulsory enlistment of citizens to serve in the armed forces
contestability when particular interpretations of the past are open to debate
continuity and change the concept that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant
convict a person imprisoned for a crime
cottage industry small-scale manufacturing in which raw materials are processed in workers' homes
Crimean War war fought between Britain and its allies and Russia, 1853–56
Daoist ancient Chinese philosophical/religious tradition emphasising simple living in harmony and balance with the universe

deadlock a stalemate in which neither side can gain an advantage
deport to forcibly remove someone from a country
despot a ruler with almost unlimited power who uses it unfairly or cruelly
Duma the Russian parliament
dummies people secretly acting for squatters, who selected land and later sold it to the squatters
egalitarian believing in equality
egalitarianism equality of all people
empathy the ability to understand and share another person's thoughts and feelings
empire a number of different countries or colonies controlled by the government of one country
enclosure consolidation of open fields and common land into single farms owned by one farmer, and fenced off from neighbouring farms
enlist to join voluntarily, usually the military
entrepreneur a person who organises a business venture, and assumes the financial risks associated with it, in the hope of making a profit
entrepreneurship the act of being an entrepreneur
evidence information that indicates whether something has really happened
fallow land left unplanted
famine a severe shortage of food, leading to starvation, usually due to crop failures over a sustained period of time
federation movement of colonies to form a nation
feint a dummy attack meant to deceive the enemy into moving troops from where the main attack will take place
goldsmith a craftsman who works with gold and other precious metals
grazing pasture to feed cows and sheep
gunboat diplomacy a coercive form of diplomacy in which a country threatens the use of military force to achieve its objectives
half-caste of mixed race (a term widely used in the mid 1900s, but now considered offensive)
Hindenburg line a heavily fortified (German) position on the Western Front
hulk the body of an old ship that serves as a prison rather than a sailing vessel
hypothesis (plural: hypotheses) a theory or possible explanation
impartial observations comments that recognise all sides and opinions relating to an issue or event, leaving it to the reader to form his or her own judgment
imperialism the policy of an empire by which it gains land by conquest and rules other countries, or dominates them as colonies
impound to confiscate
incontrovertible certain, undeniable
indoor relief the provision of assistance to the inmates of a workhouse
industrialisation the process by which a country transforms itself from mainly agricultural production to the manufacturing of goods in factories and similar premises
infant mortality rate a means of measuring the percentage of babies who fail to survive their first birthday
intercontinental involving or occurring between two or more continents
junk Chinese sailing ship
kinship relationships between members of an extended family
kowtow to kneel and touch the forehead to the ground in deep respect for an emperor
League of Nations the world body set up at the Paris Peace Conference to solve disputes between nations peacefully
legation a foreign country's diplomatic office, similar to an embassy
Luddites a group of protesters who expressed their opposition to industrialisation by smashing factory machines
malefactor a person who does bad or illegal things

mandate of heaven the idea that heaven blessed the rule of a just emperor but could rescind that blessing if the emperor ruled unjustly
Marco Polo merchant from Venice who travelled through Asia in the thirteenth century; generally credited with introducing Europeans to China and Central Asia
maritime power having strong naval forces
minority government a government that has fewer than half the seats in a lower house of parliament
Napoleonic Wars a series of wars between the French Empire, led by Napoleon Bonaparte, and a number of other European nations between 1803 and 1815
nationalism feeling of loyalty to a nation
naturalist a term once used to describe a scientist who studies plants and animals. Today such a person would be called a biologist.
New Spain Spanish territories in the New World, including much of North America
no man's land unoccupied ground between the front lines of opposing armies
outdoor relief the provision of assistance to the poor while allowing them to remain in their own homes
pacifist person who holds a religious or other conscientious belief that it is immoral to take part in war
pandemic disease epidemic affecting many different countries
parish an area of local government centred on the local church, which fulfilled some of the functions that local municipal councils perform in society today
parliamentary representation the representation of people's views and interests in parliament through elected delegates
pastoral lease land that is leased for the purpose of grazing sheep or cattle
patent a legally enforceable right to make or sell an invention, usually granted by government, to protect an inventor's idea from being copied
pauper a very poor person
peacocking buying up land around creeks and rivers to make the rest of the area useless to selectors
penal colony a settlement for convicts
perspective point of view or attitude
picking oakum unpicking short lengths of rope coated in tar. Oakum would be rammed between the planks on wooden ships to make them watertight.
pig iron the initial product resulting from the smelting of iron ore in a blast furnace
primary sources objects and documents that were created or written in the period of time that they relate to
proletariat the working class, especially industrial wage earners
propaganda distortion of the truth to persuade people to support an action or point of view
referendum ballot in which voters decide on a political question. Where there is no change to the Australian Constitution involved, this is called an advisory referendum or plebiscite.
remuneration pay or reward such as wages
repatriated returned to home country
repeal withdrawal of a law or set of laws by Parliament
republicanism the belief that a country should be a republic (where the country has an elected or appointed head of state), not a monarchy (where the head of state is a king or queen)
rickets a softening of the bones, leading to deformity of the limbs, caused by a deficiency of calcium and vitamin D
Roaring Forties strong winds of the southern ocean that blow in an easterly direction. Called the 'Roaring Forties' because they are found around the latitude of 40 degrees south of the equator.
royal commission a special public inquiry set up by government to investigate a particular issue and to make recommendations for changes in the law
rural population people living in the countryside, rather than in towns or cities
scurvy a disease caused by poor diet, especially a deficiency of vitamin C
secondary sources reconstructions of the past written or created after the period that they relate to

shilling a unit of Australian currency until decimal currency was introduced. There were 12 pence to a shilling and 20 shillings to a pound.
significance the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past; for example, events, developments, movements and historical sites
Sinn Fein organisation formed in Ireland in 1905 to campaign for Irish independence from Britain. The name was also used by the pro-independence party after the failed 1916 uprising.
Slavic belonging to the Slavs (a language group including Russians, Serbs and other Central and Eastern European peoples)
socialism a political system in which the government controls the economy to ensure greater equality
Soviet a council representing workers, peasants, soldiers and sailors
spinning the twisting of carded fibres into lengths of continuous thread or yarn
spirit possession an alleged supernatural event in which a spirit or god takes control of the human body, creating changes in behaviour
stalemate (from chess) a situation in which neither side can gain a winning advantage
standard of living how well off a country or community is, often measured by the level of wealth per head of population
stockade a fortified enclosure
strike attempt by employees to put pressure on their employer by refusing to work
subordinate having a lower or less important position
subsistence farming farming that provides only enough to satisfy the basic needs of the farmer or community
suffrage the right to vote
sweated labour workers exploited by being made to work for long hours and with low pay
tariff a duty charged on imports
telegraph device for sending messages over long distances
tenuous weak, thin
timeline a diagrammatic tool representing a period of time, on which events are placed in chronological order
trading post a store or settlement established by a foreign trader or trading company to obtain local products in exchange for supplies, clothing, other goods or cash
transportation a sentence of banishment from England for certain crimes, to be served in an overseas colony
treadwheel a punishment device, also called the 'everlasting staircase', comprising a large, iron-framed, hollow cylinder with wooden steps. As the device rotated slaves were forced to keep stepping forward.
trench foot a painful, swollen condition caused by feet remaining wet for too long; if gangrene set in, the feet had to be amputated
trustee an individual or group appointed to manage property on behalf of another person or organisation
tucker traditional Australian slang term for food
turnpike trusts organisations established by parliament with the power to collect tolls on particular roads, and use the money to pay for maintenance of those roads
turnpike a type of toll road
typhus a fatal disease spread through the bites of lice and fleas
U-boats German submarines
ultimatum a final set of demands or terms backed by a threat
urban population people living in cities or large towns
vices immoral habits
virtues admirable moral qualities, goodness
warp the fixed vertical threads used in the weaving process
weft the horizontal movable thread that is woven through the warp to create cloth
workhouse an institution built to house the poor

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