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history

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good History

9

BEN LAWLESS

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ALERYK FRICKER

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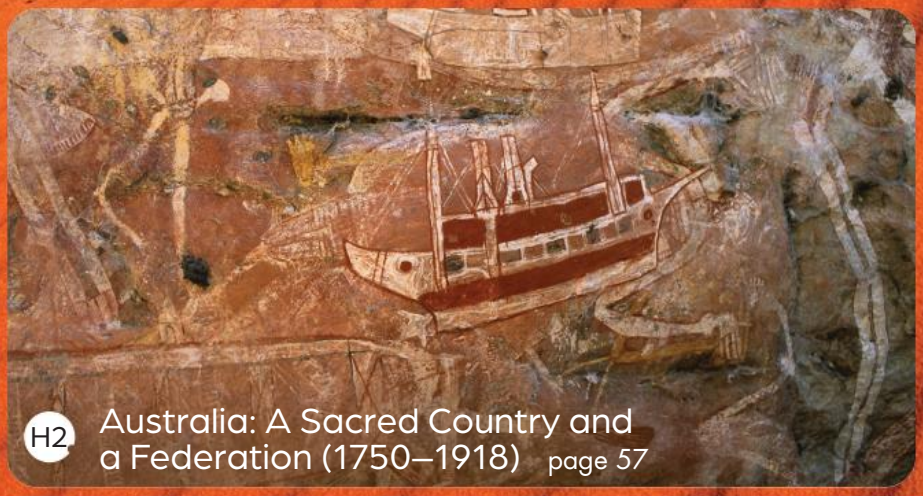
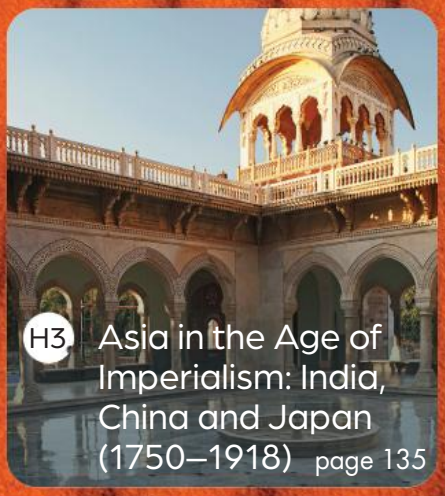
The making of the modern world





The modern world and Australia

History concepts + skills

Good History 9
Victorian Curriculum
1st edition
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Introduction to History

H0

What does a historian do?

Historians study the past to understand the present. By asking questions, conducting research and sharing their discoveries, they expand humanity's knowledge of the past and how it shaped our current world and society.

The study of history

People may think history just means listing information about what happened in the past, but history is not a catalogue of facts to be memorised. History is a process and a way of thinking.

Historians study history, follow its processes and use it to inform their thinking. Historians are also researchers – they conduct research to uncover and understand historical evidence. That research can be something as simple as reading a text, or as complex as unearthing artefacts at an archaeological dig site.

Source 1

Archaeology is a specialised field of historical research that involves recovering and studying artefacts from the past.

Historians perform three main tasks:

1. Ask a research question, such as 'What happened here?', 'How did this event happen?' or 'Who was behind this occurence?'.
2. Examine primary historical sources to uncover relevant evidence.
3. Use the evidence to answer the research question or to tell a story about the past.

Most historians specialise in studying a particular period of history, or the history of a particular field, such as art history. This is because they need to understand a field deeply to ask appropriate research questions, and to know what kind of primary sources to examine. There is so much information to be studied that you wouldn't expect a historian who studied 18th-century India to also be an expert on medieval England.

A historian at work

Doctor Karen Hughes is a professional historian, and an Associate Professor of Indigenous Studies and History at Swinburne University in Melbourne.

Why did you decide to become a historian?

It happened accidently. I was making a documentary film in Arnhem Land, and while researching it I realised that what I had been taught about Aboriginal people and their history was not the truth. I felt I had grown up with a lie.

How did you become a historian?

I did a PhD, then I got my first job teaching and researching Indigenous history at Monash University in Melbourne.

What specific period or field is your focus?

I focus on the 20th century. I like to write about cross-cultural history in Australia and America, mostly between Indigenous and settler-descended peoples. I specialise in researching people's personal stories in order to understand the experiences of larger historical events and their impacts. This is called **microhistory**.

What does your work as a historian involve?

Half of my time is spent teaching Indigenous history at Swinburne University. We do a lot of interesting things, like visiting Aboriginal Elders living on Country, creating podcasts and exploring the layers of history of particular places.

The other half of my job involves researching and writing papers and books, and curating exhibitions. I often have to travel to interview people and record their oral histories, and to search for evidence in archives.

What kinds of research projects are you involved with?

I currently have a scholarship to visit the USA and write about the lives of Aboriginal women who married American servicemen in Australia during World War II. I recently consulted for the Reserve Bank of Australia, researching the Ngarrindjeri scholar, writer and inventor David Unaipon who appears on the new $50 banknote. I'm also working on a museum exhibition with the Ngarrindjeri community of South Australia, displaying rare historical photographs taken by Indigenous photographers from the 1920s to the 1970s.

Source 2

Associate Professor Karen Hughes

What do you love about being a historian?

I love the way it makes me feel connected to the past and the people who lived then. There are amazing moments when I feel like I am time-travelling, and other moments when it's like being a detective, placing all the pieces of a puzzle together through detailed forensic-style research, to reveal something that has never been fully known before.

Learning ladder H0.1

1. What is a research question?
2. Why do historians usually specialise in a particular field?
3. What is microhistory?
4. Think of a field you would choose to research if you were a professional historian. Discuss your choices as a class.

H0.2

How do historical thinking skills support research?

You have learned and developed several historical thinking skills through your history studies so far. These skills are vital when conducting your own historical research and learning about the past.

Conducting historical research

You can only learn so much from a textbook – eventually, you will want to find out more and to do your own historical research. The History How-To chapter discusses the research process in depth on pages 264–65.

First, you should define your research question. This is what you are trying to learn through your research. Your research question can be broad, such as, 'How did the First Nations People of Australia trade resources?', or narrow, 'Who was the most influential VFL coach in history?'.

Research questions take some work to answer – they are rarely so straightforward that you can find the answer quickly and easily. That's why your historical thinking skills are so important! Use them to guide your research efforts, and to make the information you discover meaningful.

Source analysis

Historians analyse two types of sources to answer research questions and build narratives.

Primary sources were created at the time of a historical event, or by someone who had first-hand experience of that event. Examples include books, diaries, photographs, archives, letters, artefacts, buildings and ruins. Primary sources often show the perspectives of the people who experienced an event, and might contain unique information.

Secondary sources were created after the time or event being studied. Examples include textbooks, websites and documentaries. These sources are often part of the narratives created by historians analysing primary sources.

Primary sources aren't always reliable, as they reflect the biases of the people who created them. Secondary sources can also be biased and unreliable; websites, in particular, can be very unreliable. The way to minimise **bias** is to study many different sources.

Finding and analysing appropriate sources is one of the most important skills in historical research.

Continuity and change

History is a story of continuity and change: some things stay the same; others change.

Research can reveal information about how and why something changed, or (depending on your research question) why something was immune to change. Narratives and timelines are useful tools when researching what changed and what stayed the same.

Cause and effect

A common focus of historical research is trying to figure out *why* things happened. There are many different causes of change, such as:

- actors (individuals and groups)
- conditions (e.g. social, political and economic)
- long-term trends
- short-term triggers.

Remember: there is rarely a single cause of an effect. Most causes have even earlier causes, and many effects cause further effects in the future. Your research may lead you to one cause for an effect, but there are likely to be more – don't stop until you've identified all the relevant causes and their web of effects.

Historical significance

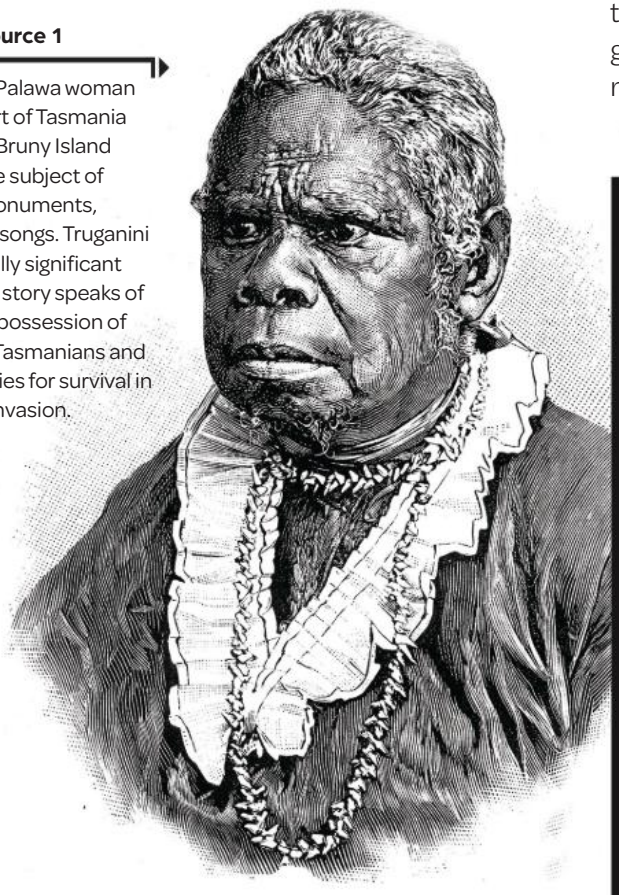
You can use many models to identify historical importance. This textbook uses a model developed by Australian historian Geoffrey Partington. To work out something's historical significance, ask:

1. How important was it to people at the time?
2. How many people were affected?
3. How deeply were people's lives affected?
4. For how long did these effects last?
5. How relevant is it to modern life?

Your research is likely to turn up information about people, places and events, any of which might be relevant. Applying Partington's model, or a similar set of questions, will help you identify which pieces of information are significant to your research.

Source 1

Truganini, a Palawa woman from the part of Tasmania we now call Bruny Island has been the subject of artworks, monuments, stamps and songs. Truganini is a historically significant figure as her story speaks of both the dispossession of Indigenous Tasmanians and their strategies for survival in the face of invasion.



Historical interpretations

The way we understand history is always changing. Individuals in every period of history look at the world around them, and look at their past, and **interpret** that information to make meaning.

When researching history, you will come across many different interpretations of the past, of the people who lived at that time and of the events that occurred around them. Some of these interpretations will contradict other ones, making it hard to know which (if any) are 'true'. Draw on the knowledge and information you have already gathered to decide which interpretations will be meaningful or useful in your research.

Learning ladder H0.2

1. Source analysis: Which is more useful to historical research, a primary or a secondary source?
2. Continuity and change: This year you will study the 18th, 19th and 20th centuries. List three things in modern society that have stayed the same since the 18th century.
3. Cause and effect: Do events always have one single cause, or one specific effect?
4. Historical significance: Name a method you can use to decide what is important in history.
5. Historical interpretations: Why might people from the past interpret events in different ways?

How do I use this book?

Good History has been built to help you thrive as you move through the Level 9 History curriculum and to enable you to demonstrate your progress in every single lesson. This book includes four chapters of Asian, Australian and world history, plus a History How-To skills section. The History How-To section is vital – you should refer to it often.

Climb the Learning ladder

Each chapter begins with a Learning ladder. The Learning ladder is your 'plan of attack' for the skills you will practice in each chapter. It lists the five historical skills you will be learning, and has five levels of progression for each of those skills.

Each skill described in the Learning ladder is of a higher difficulty than the one below it. To be able to achieve the higher-level skills, you need to be able to master the lower ones. Practising activities at all levels will help you to master more involved skills, such as evaluating. This approach is called 'developmental learning' – and it puts you in charge of your own learning progression!

Read the ladder from the bottom to the top. As you progress through the chapter, you will climb up the Learning ladder.

Source 1

The Learning ladder helps you to take charge of your own learning!

learning ladder

	Source analysis	Continuity and change	Cause and effect	Historical significance	Historical interpretations
step 5	I can evaluate a source	I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change	I can evaluate causes and effects	I can evaluate historical significance	I can evaluate historical interpretations
step 4	I can analyse a source	I can analyse patterns of continuity and change	I can analyse causes and effects	I can analyse historical significance	I can analyse historical interpretations
step 3	I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose	I can explain patterns of continuity and change	I can explain causes and effects	I can apply a theory of significance	I can explain historical interpretations
step 2	I can find themes in a source	I can explain why something did or did not change	I can determine causes and effects	I can explain historical significance	I can describe historical interpretations
step 1	I can list specific features of a source	I can describe continuity and change	I can recognise a cause and an effect	I can recognise historical significance	I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

Check your progress

Each chapter is divided into multiple sections, with each section designed to cover one lesson. Sometimes your teacher might decide to spend more or less time on a particular section. A section is either two or four pages long.

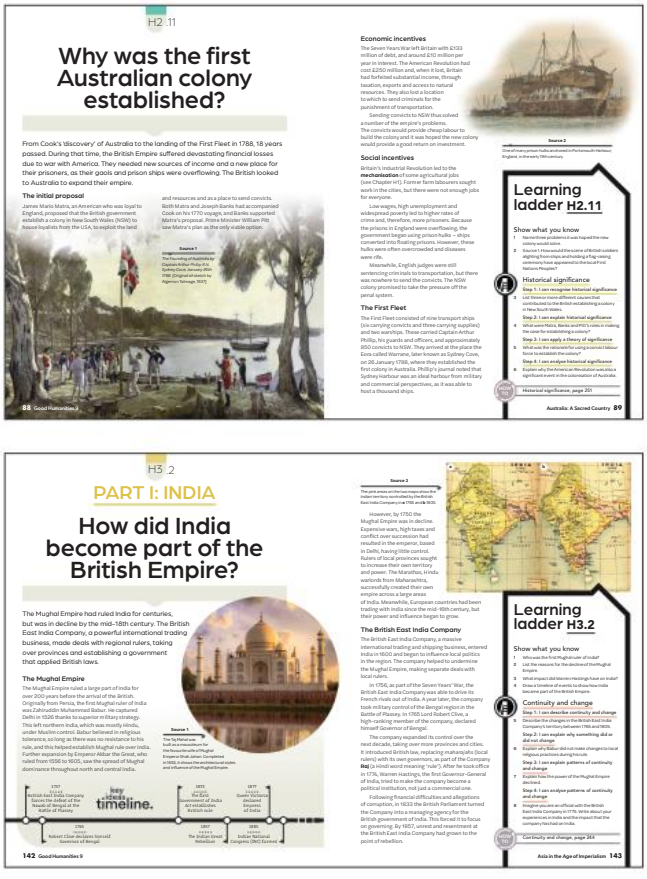
At the end of most sections, you will find a block of questions called 'Learning ladder,' which has two different types of questions or activities:

1 Show what you know

These questions ask you to look back at the content you have read and viewed and to show your understanding of it by listing, describing and explaining.

2 Learning ladder

These activities are linked to the Learning ladder. You can complete one of the questions or several of them. In each chapter, you will complete several activities for each level of the Learning ladder, as well as for each writing and research stage. This will sharpen your historical skills.


H2.11

Why was the first Australian colony established?

Learning ladder H2.11

Show what you know

Historical significance

Historical significance, page 201

H3.2

PART I: INDIA

How did India become part of the British Empire?

Learning ladder H3.2

Show what you know

Continuity and change

Continuity and change, page 264

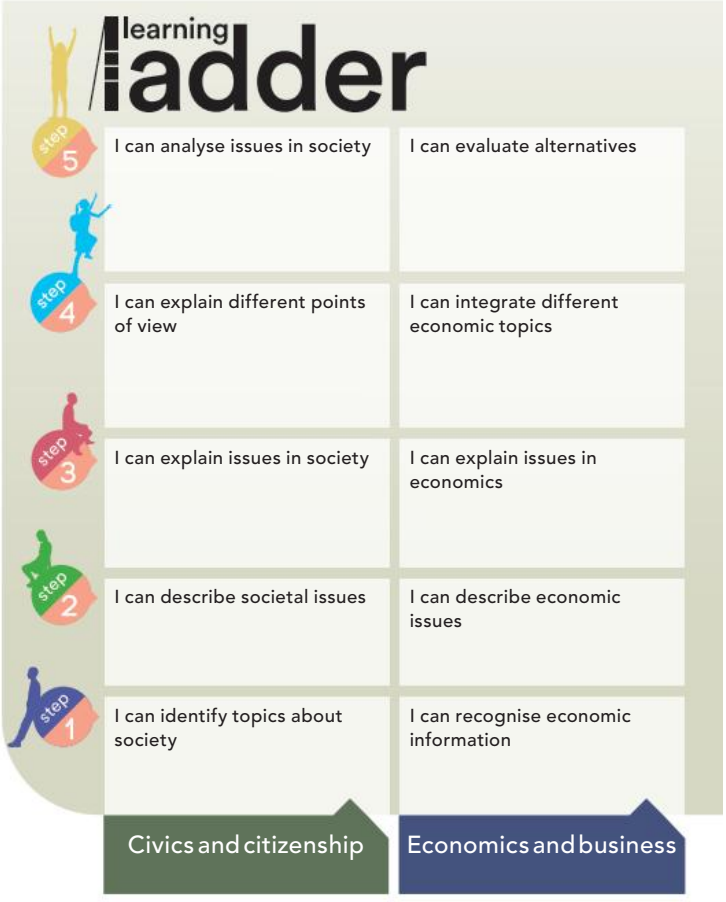
Source 2

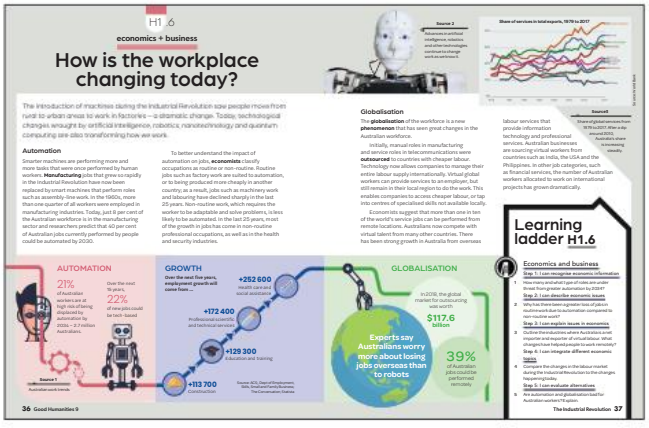
Check your progress regularly. You can attempt one or more of the Learning ladder questions.

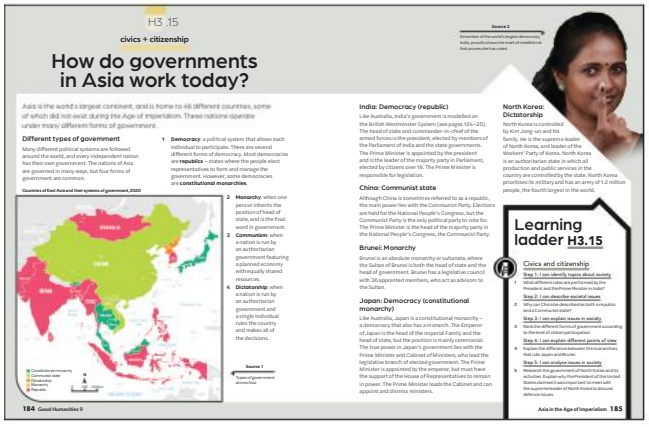
civics+ citizenship **economics+ business**

The study of History can be complemented by the study of Civics and citizenship, and Economics and business. In every chapter of this book, you will discover either a Civics and citizenship lesson or an Economics and business lesson. School is busy and you have a lot to cover, so designing a textbook where the important Civics and citizenship and Economics and business content is placed meaningfully next to relevant History lessons makes good sense, and will help you to connect your learning.

As you work through the Civics and citizenship and Economics and business sections in this book, you will also be working your way up a Learning ladder for these subjects too.





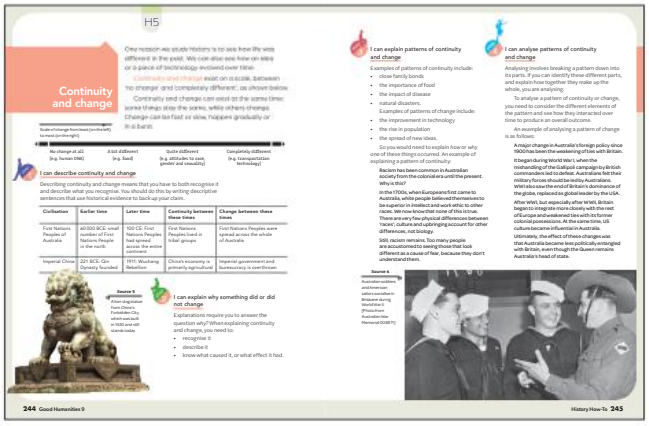


Source 3

Explore Civics and Citizenship, and Economics and Business, alongside your history course.

History How-To

At the end of the book, you will find a skills section called 'History How-To'. This section explains how to perform each skill and the steps needed for writing and research. There are *lots* of worked examples. Refer to the How-To often, especially when answering the Learning ladder questions and completing the review activities.

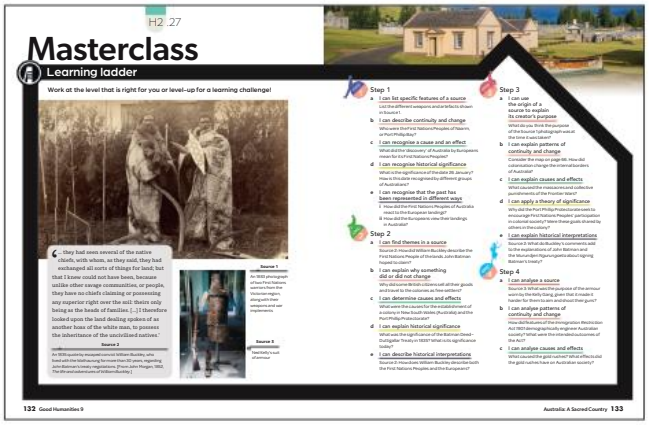


Source 4

The History How-To section is your key to success – refer to it often!

Masterclass

At the end of each chapter is a review section, called the Masterclass. The questions here are organised by the steps on the Learning ladder. You can complete all of the questions *or* your teacher might direct you to complete just some of them, depending on your progress.



Source 5

The Masterclass is your opportunity to show your progress. Take charge of your own learning and see if you can extend yourself.

Capstone

After you complete a chapter, it's time to put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you *know* and what you *think*. In the world of building, a capstone is an element that finishes off an arch, or tops off a building or wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting and creative ways. It will ask you to think critically, to use key concepts and to answer 'big picture' questions. The capstone project is accessible online; scan the QR code to find it quickly.

Source 6

The capstone project brings together the learning and understanding of each chapter. It provides an opportunity to engage in creative and critical thinking.

Learning ladder H0.3

1. What are the different types of questions in this textbook? Describe them in your own words.
2. How can you use the Learning Ladder to monitor your progress in Year 9 History?
3. As a class, discuss the idea of 'monitoring your own progress'. Why is this important?
4. Read through the steps of the History Learning Ladder and consider where you might already be up to for each skill, based on your prior learning.

What factors shaped the modern world?

While the world underwent many changes during the 1000 years of the Medieval Period, it changed far, far more in the following 200–300 years. The period from around the mid-18th century to the early 20th century was a time of staggering change, completely transforming almost every society and culture on Earth – whether the culture welcomed the change or not. The events and advances of this period shaped the world of the 20th century, and we continue to feel their effects today.

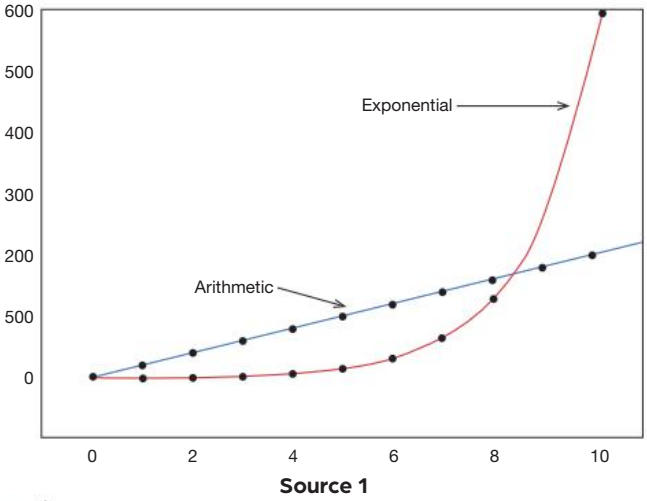
A period of exponential change

In maths, rates of growth and change can be described as **arithmetic** or **exponential**. Arithmetic growth changes at the same rate over time – if you draw it on a graph, it's a gentle, straight diagonal line. Exponential growth gets faster and faster over time, changing more and more – on a graph it is represented by a line that starts flat and then curves up to become extremely steep.

The period between 1750 and 1920 was one of exponential change in almost every aspect of human knowledge, science and society. Someone born in the beginning of this period, after thousands of years of gradual change, could never have imagined what the world would look like at its end.

Social, cultural, economic and political change, technological advances and conflict between powerful nations fuelled a rapid transformation of society, and shaped the world we live in today.

A comparison of arithmetic and exponential change



Source 1

Arithmetical change is steady and consistent, while exponential change starts slowly but speeds up so rapidly it quickly goes 'off the chart'.

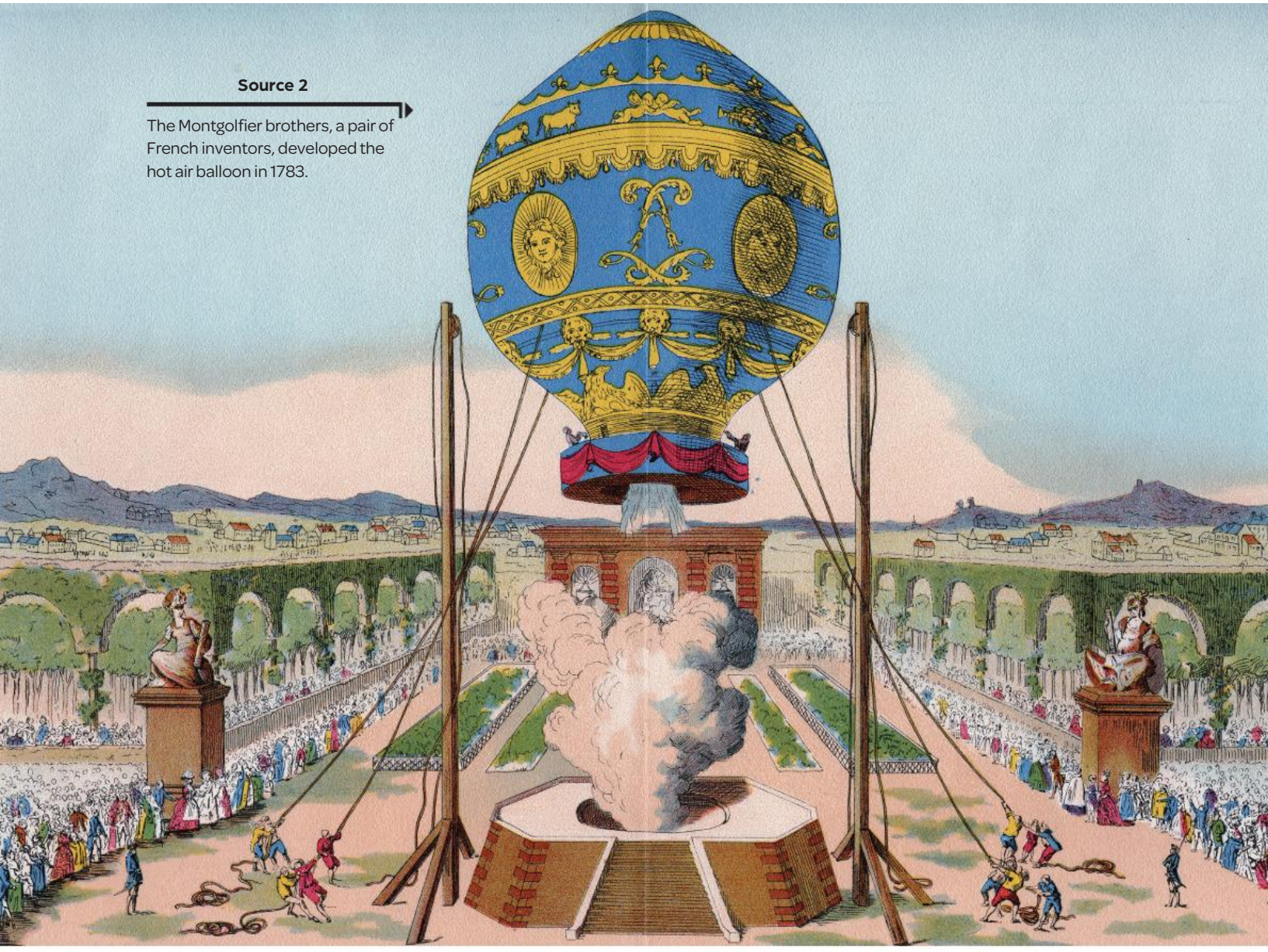
Technology and industrialisation

Perhaps no change is so obvious, dramatic and wide reaching during this period than the changes in technology that followed the invention of the steam engine in 1765. For the first time, humans could generate and direct more energy than could be harnessed from natural sources like horses or the wind. This opened up incredible new possibilities, and inventors around the world created a series of new machines, each more wondrous than the last.

At the start of the 18th century, the sailing ship was the most advanced means of travel, and sending letters by ship was the best way to deliver information over long distances. By 1920, aeroplanes were powerful enough to fly across the Atlantic Ocean, and radio messages could be sent almost instantly around the world.

Source 2

The Montgolfier brothers, a pair of French inventors, developed the hot air balloon in 1783.



These technological advances also changed society. Wealthy nations became **industrialised**, adopting the use of advanced technology. Machines could perform tasks faster, more cheaply and in greater volume than human workers could, which led those wealthy nations to become even wealthier and more powerful. However, the wealth was not shared evenly, with many workers left without jobs. At the same time, less advanced nations became vulnerable.

Source 3

In 1903, 120 years after the first hot air balloon flight, the Wright brothers invented and flew the first aeroplane in the US.

Imperialism and nationalism

By the 18th century, the great empires of Africa and Asia had been overtaken by the rising powers of Europe. England, France, Spain, Germany and other nations used their wealth and technology to spread their power around the globe. This was an age of **imperialism**, as these European (and later American) empires used their more advanced weapons, naval power and technology to seize control of countries in Asia and Africa.

Along with the growth of empires came a growth in **nationalism**. For most of history, people had primarily identified with and been loyal to small political entities – a clan, tribe, village or city–state. Now people increasingly saw themselves as part of a country or nation, with many believing that their nation was superior to all others. This attitude underpinned the expansion of empires, but also motivated subjugated peoples to fight to reclaim their lands.

New nations and ancient peoples

The rise of the nation–state, along with the expansion of empires, meant that many new countries came into existence during this period. Some of these new nations emerged from old empires, gaining their own **sovereignty**, such as Belgium (part of the Netherlands until 1830) or Kuwait (which separated from the Khalidi Emirate in 1752).

Other nations gained their independence through revolution, such as the United States of America, which, after declaring independence in 1776, fought against Britain to ultimately win its independence in 1783. Still other nations were formed when empires invaded and **colonised** new lands – the most obvious for us is Australia, which was claimed by the British in 1770.

Source 4

Britain founded 13 colonies in North America in the early 17th century. In 1776, these colonies came together to declare their independence, and waged war against their British rulers. In 1783, the United States of America became a major new figure in international politics. This Revolutionary War painting shows the surrender of British General John Burgoyne at Saratoga in 1777. [John Trumbull, *The Surrender of General Burgoyne*, 1821]

key ideas timeline.

- 1763 – End of the Seven Years' War between England and France
- 1770 – Captain James Cook lands at Botany Bay in Australia
- 1776 – The American colonies claim independence from Britain
- 1788 – British colony established in Australia
- 1789–1799 – The French Revolution
- 1819 – Founding of Singapore by British East India Company
- 1825 – First public railway in the world opens in Britain

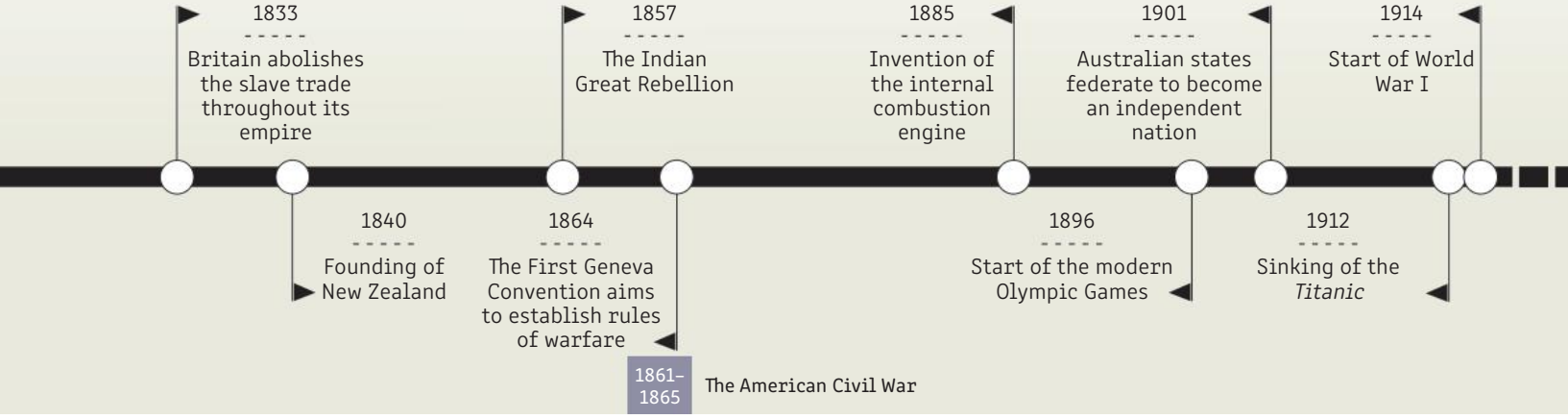
But the new lands claimed by these empires were rarely uninhabited – they were the homes of many different **indigenous** peoples with their own societies and cultures. Thanks to the racism and prejudice of the Europeans, these traditional inhabitants – such as the First Nations Peoples of North America, Australia and New Zealand – were treated as inferior, unimportant or even less than human. Their homes were taken from them, while natural resources were stripped from their lands to meet the needs of European nations. It took many, many years for most of these indigenous societies to reclaim their rights and homelands, and some peoples are still fighting for those rights today.

Global concerns, global conflicts

The expansion of empires, and the need for resources to fuel industrialisation efforts, meant that powerful nations such as Britain, France and the US came into conflict. In previous centuries, wars were a common event between powerful nations, but they occurred somewhat less often during the modern period. Leaders regarded open warfare as too great a drain on resources, and as too difficult to coordinate on the fringes of an empire. When they could, the great nations preferred to use diplomacy, spying or economic bargains to settle conflicts.

But battles and conflicts did not become a thing of the past. Empires used their soldiers and weapons to conquer less advanced nations, and wars were still fought to gain territory or increase power. In 1914, one such war erupted between European states, and expanded rapidly to involve almost every country in Europe, as well as nations all around the world. It lasted for less than five years, but by the end, the political landscape of Europe had permanently changed, and 20 million people had been killed.

Afterwards, people called it 'The War to End All Wars' – but they were wrong. In hindsight, it became known as World War I.



Source 5

In France, gatherings of intellectuals – and their wealthy patrons – were common from the 17th until the mid-19th century. These salons gave rise to political, economic and philosophical theories that are still discussed today. [Lemonnier, *Reading of Voltaire's tragedy of the Orphan of China in the salon of Marie Thérèse Rodet Geoffrin 1755*, painted in 1812]

Intellectual and social change

Industrialisation and warfare were not the only changes sweeping the world at this time. Following the Renaissance and the Scientific Revolution of previous centuries, the 17th and 18th centuries became known as the Age of Reason, or the Age of Enlightenment. Scientists, thinkers, philosophers and academics began to suggest new models of thought, and new ideas about how humanity could live, learn and prosper. Many of these ideas were **humanistic**, and promoted the view that human achievements and discoveries in this world were more important or helpful than religious ideas of a reward in the 'next world'.

In addition to moral and ethical philosophies, there were also practical ideas about politics, society and economics. Many of these were revolutionary ideas that called for the destruction of the old order, and the replacement of ruling families and monarchies with more democratic forms of government. Over the course of the 19th and 20th centuries, many nations let go of their traditional ways, and very structured cultures, to embrace fairer and more open societies.

Learning ladder H0.4

1. What is the difference between arithmetic and exponential change?
2. When was the hot air balloon invented?
3. How did colonisation affect indigenous people who lived in the colonised lands?
4. Why might the political philosophies of the Age of Reason have come into conflict with established religious organisations?
5. When did World War I begin? Why was it not called that at the time?
6. How might the daily life of a British worker in 1750 have been different to that of a British worker in 1910?
7. 'During this time period, women were often disadvantaged and unable to share in the advances of the time.' What evidence have you read or viewed in this section to support or rebut this statement?

H1

The Industrial Revolution in Britain and Australia

WHAT IS A REVOLUTION?

page 18

continuity + change

page 20

WHY DID THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION OCCUR?

economics + business

page 36

HOW IS THE WORKPLACE CHANGING TODAY?

source analysis

page 50

WHY WAS AUSTRALIA RIDING ON THE SHEEP'S BACK?

How can we understand the Industrial Revolution?

The Industrial Revolution spanned from approximately 1760 to 1820, during which new inventions and processes replaced traditional industries and systems. Despite occurring more than two centuries ago, the effects of the Industrial Revolution are still felt today. The changes that occurred during this period significantly altered politics, economics, society and technology.

learning ladder

	Source analysis	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
step 5	**I can evaluate a source** I can present a judgement on the usefulness of a source based on its strengths, weaknesses and limitations. I can determine whether information is missing about the event or person the source refers to.	**I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change** I answer the question 'So what?' about patterns of continuity and change. I weigh up different aspects and debate the importance of continuity or change.	**I can evaluate causes and effects** I answer the question 'So what?' about cause and effect. I weigh up different things and debate the importance of a cause or an effect.
step 4	**I can analyse a source** I can use my own knowledge to determine the reliability of a source and can explain whether it shows a one-sided view.	**I can analyse patterns of continuity and change** I can look deeper into patterns of continuity and change and determine the factors that contribute to them.	**I can analyse causes and effects** I don't just see a cause or an effect as one thing. I can determine the factors that make up causes and effects.
step 3	**I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose** I combine knowledge of when and where a source was created to answer the question, 'Why was it created?'.	**I can explain patterns of continuity and change** I can see beyond individual examples of continuity and change between historical periods and explain broader patterns.	**I can explain causes and effects** I can answer 'How?' or 'Why?' a cause led to an effect in the Industrial Revolution.
step 2	**I can find themes in a source** I look a bit closer at a source and find more than just features. I find themes and patterns in a source.	**I can explain why something did or did not change** I can give a reason for why something changed or why it stayed the same.	**I can determine causes and effects** Applying what I have learnt about the Industrial Revolution, I can describe what the cause or effect of an event was.
step 1	**I can list specific features of a source** I can look at an Industrial Revolution source and list the details I can see in it.	**I can describe continuity and change** I recognise what has stayed the same and what has changed from the Industrial Revolution until now.	**I can recognise a cause and an effect** From a supplied list, I can recognise things that were causes or effects of each other in the Industrial Revolution.

Warm up

Source 1

This rural landscape, painted by John Constable in 1816, depicts the artist's interpretation of rural life in Britain before the Industrial Revolution.
[John Constable, *Wivenhoe Park*, Essex, 1816, oil on canvas (National Gallery of Art)]

I can evaluate historical significance
I answer the question 'So what?' about things that are supposedly important in the history of the Industrial Revolution. I weigh up factors against one another and can cast doubt on how important things are.

I can evaluate historical interpretations
I can weigh up the different historical interpretations that have been formed. I debate and challenge the interpretations that have been presented.

I can analyse historical significance
I can separate out the various factors that make something historically important in the history of the Industrial Revolution.

I can analyse historical interpretations
I can determine the factors that have led to why a historical interpretation has been formed.

I can apply a theory of significance
I know a theory of significance. I use it to rank importance of changes, causes, effects and events in the history of the Industrial Revolution.

I can explain historical interpretations
I can answer 'Why?' or 'How?' there are different interpretations of people and events in the past.

I can explain historical significance
I answer the question 'Why?' about what was important in the Industrial Revolution.

I can describe historical interpretations
I can provide different examples to show how people and events in the past have been interpreted.

I can recognise historical significance
When shown a list of facts about the Industrial Revolution, I can work out which are important.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways
I can identify different views of people and events in the past.

Historical significance

Historical interpretations

Source analysis

1 What does Source 1 suggest about life in Britain at the start of the 19th century?

Continuity and change

2 How do you think the landscape shown in Source 1 changed after the invention of the steam locomotive in 1804?

Cause and effect

3 What effect do you think the introduction of rail transport had on British people in the 19th century?

Historical significance

4 Why was the invention of the steam-powered engine significant?

Historical interpretations

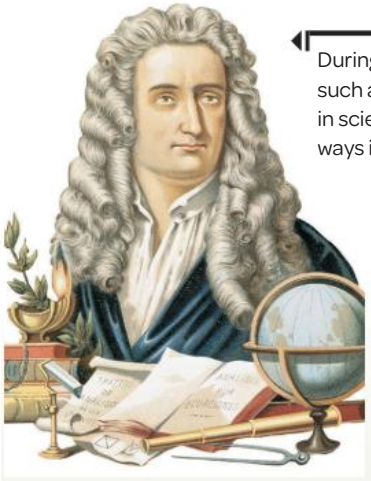
5 The spinning jenny, a machine that greatly sped up weaving production, was invented in 1764. How might the following people describe this invention and its effects on their lives?
   a Its inventor, James Hargreaves
   b A woman who works as a cottage-based spinner.

What is a revolution?

A **revolution** is a radical change in the way something is done that results in major changes and far-reaching consequences. Political revolutions may cause sudden and even violent change to the way a country is governed. Other revolutions may be slower and less obvious, but their effects can be just as dramatic. All revolutions have both intended and unintended consequences, and can create positive and negative changes.

Source 1

In 2011, Egyptian protesters overthrew their government, which had been in power for almost 30 years.



Source 2

During the scientific revolution, visionaries such as Isaac Newton made great advances in science and mathematics, changing the ways in which people viewed the world.

Source 3

Edward Jenner develops smallpox vaccination, 1796

Source 4

The *Communist Manifesto* 1848

key ideas timeline.

1750 – Enclosure of land increases in Britain

1764 – James Hargreaves invents the spinning jenny

1771 – Richard Arkwright opens first factory

4 July 1776 – Declaration of Independence (USA)

1781 – James Watt invents a steam engine to power machines in factories

1796 – Edward Jenner develops smallpox vaccination

1807 – British government bans slave trade

1829 – George Stephenson develops the Rocket steam locomotive

1833 – *Factory Act*

1833 – *Slavery Abolition Act*

1838 – Brunel's SS *Great Western*, the first transatlantic steamship

1848 – The *Communist Manifesto* is published

Source 5

In 2015, same-sex marriage was legalised in Ireland after the world's first national vote on the issue.

Learning ladder H1.1

Show what you know

1 Categorise the events on the timeline according to political, economic, social and technological (PEST) factors.

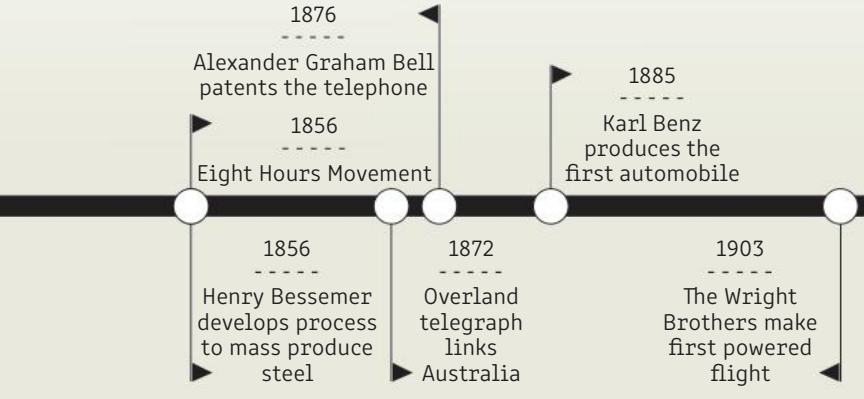
2 In your own words, define what a revolution is.

3 Why do you think revolutions occur?

4 Predict the positive and negative consequences of revolution. Do you think people are always happy with the outcomes of a revolution? Why or why not?

Source 6

Alexander Graham Bell with his telephone



Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 Describe changes to transport technology that occurred between 1750 and 1901.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Explain why the British government ended slavery.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 Explain why social changes occur over time.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 During the Industrial Revolution, technology changed dramatically. Rank the changes outlined on the timeline in order of importance, and justify your choices.

HOW TO
Continuity and change, page 244

Why did the Industrial Revolution occur?

The causes of revolutions are complex and involve many different factors. The Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain before spreading to Europe and the rest of the world, was caused by a combination of political, economic, social and technological (PEST) factors.

Social and economic factors

In the early 19th century, Britain experienced a dramatic population increase. Immigrants from Europe and the rest of the world flocked to cities throughout Britain. By the second half of the 19th century, London's population had more than doubled. **Urbanisation** occurred, whereby an increasing number of people relocated to British cities from the countryside in search of work. This resulted in increased demands on basic resources, such as housing, infrastructure and food. The agricultural and textile industries were therefore the first areas in which **innovation** occurred to meet the growing social needs.

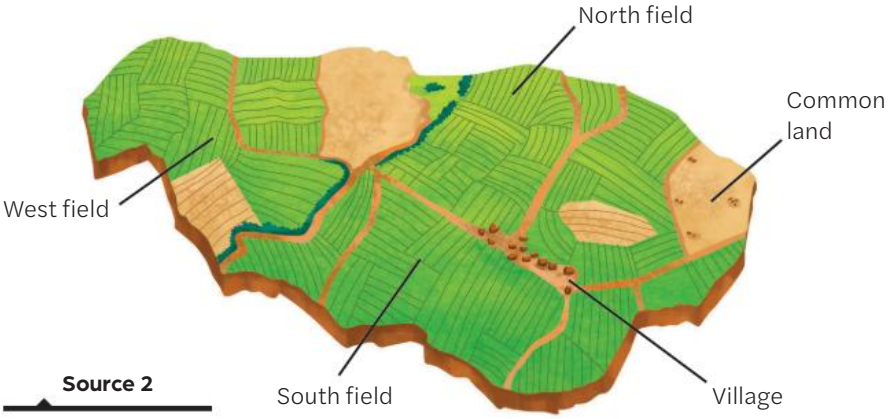
Source 1

How the British population changed between 1750 and 1901

	1750	1901
Population	6 million 	32 million 
Percentage of people living in towns	15% 	85% 
Life expectancy	Between 30 and 40 years for both males and females 	Males: 48 years Females: 52 years 

Technological factors – the agricultural revolution

Britain was also dealing with the effects of an 'agricultural revolution' that reshaped the farming industry. The land in Britain was owned by wealthy landowners or the aristocracy. They rented land to tenant farmers as well as working some of it themselves. Farm labourers worked the land for wages. Food was required to feed the growing population, so farmers had to find innovative and efficient ways of increasing food production. Most farmers in Britain still used the open field system, which had been in use since the medieval period.



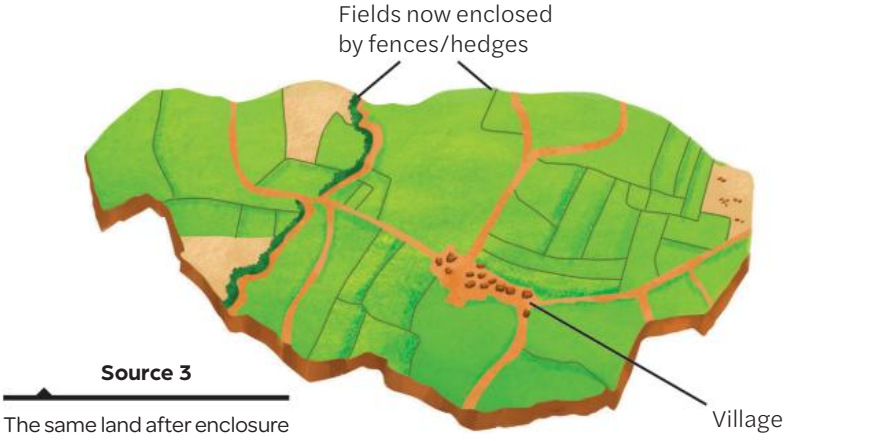
Source 2

The open field system

Under the open field system, farming land around a village was divided into three fields. Each field was divided into strips, and villagers grew their own food on their own strip of land. There was also common land where villagers could graze their animals, collect firewood, and gather fruit and herbs that were growing wild. However, the system was inefficient. Time and land was wasted, with one field always being left fallow (not in use).

From the 1740s, landowners lobbied parliament in favour of **enclosure**. Enclosure divided land into farms surrounded by fences or hedges. Villagers were given plots of land equal to their strips. By 1790, three-quarters of farming land in Britain had been enclosed.

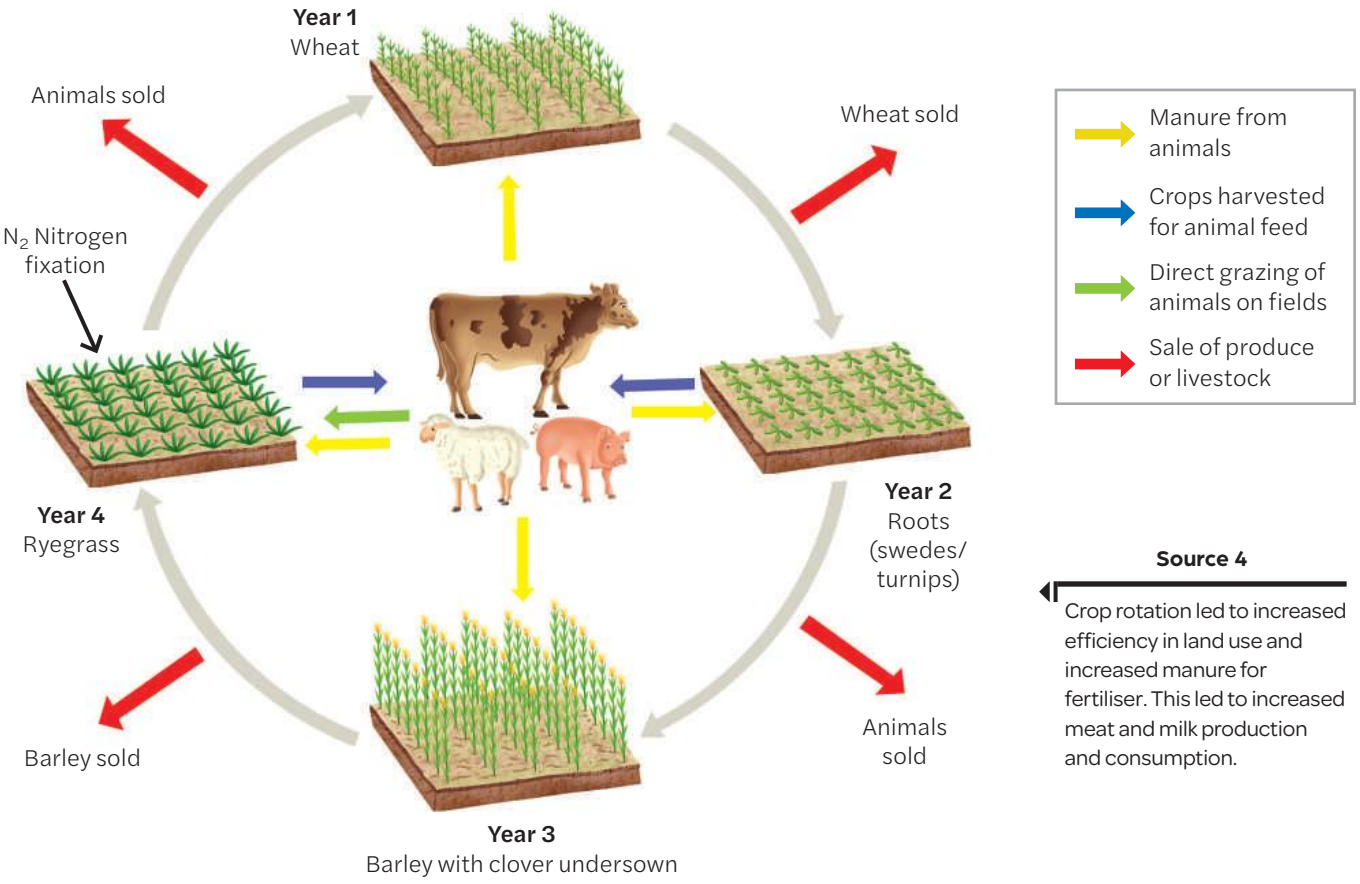
But not everyone benefited. Tenant farmers were evicted. People who did not own their land, or could not prove ownership, lost their land and the right to access common land.



Source 3

The same land after enclosure

Despite the hardship and social unrest caused by enclosure, the ability to farm larger blocks of land resulted in innovation that increased food production. Along with innovation in animal breeding methods to increase meat and wool production, there were also improvements in crop production, such as the Norfolk crop rotation system. Introduced by Lord Charles Townshend (who earned the name Turnip Townshend), the system worked on the premise that four different crops could be grown in a field over four years, so no field was ever left fallow (Source 4). This gave farmers the ability to produce food for the growing population and, as there was winter food for cattle, for people to enjoy fresh meat and milk all year round.



Source 4

Crop rotation led to increased efficiency in land use and increased manure for fertiliser. This led to increased meat and milk production and consumption.

Selective breeding

Experiments in selective breeding aimed to increase meat and wool production. For example, Robert Bakewell focused on selective breeding in sheep and produced a breed called the New Leicestershire, which produced good quality fleece as well as more meat.

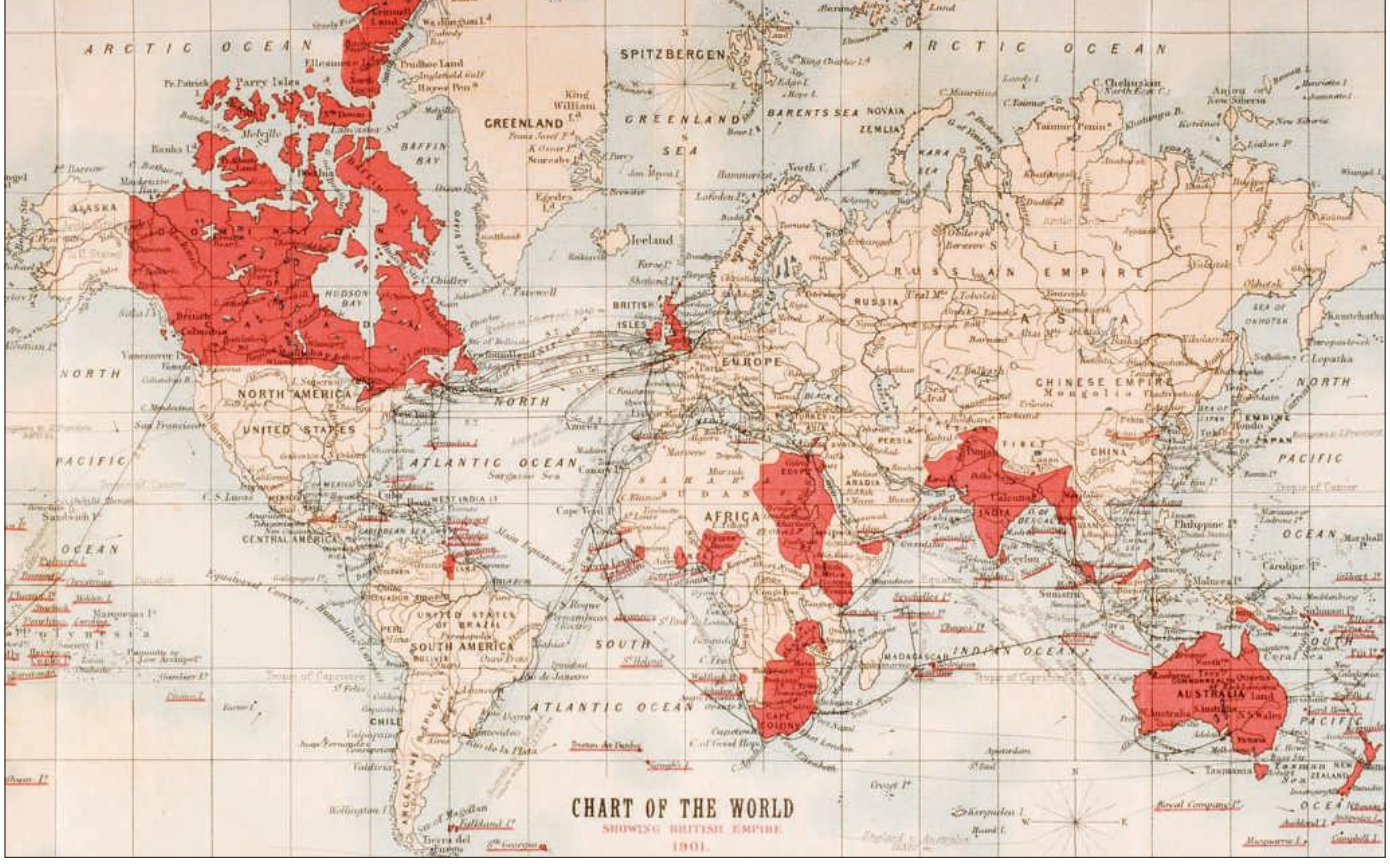
A report to the British parliament by Sir John Sinclair in 1795 stated that the average weight of animals sold at Smithfield Market had more than doubled from 1710 to 1795, as shown in Source 5.

Livestock/ Year	1710	1795
Cattle	370 lb	800 lb
Sheep	28 lb	80 lb

Source 5

Average weight of animals sold (in pounds)

Changes in the agricultural industry meant that fewer labourers were required. Labourers in search of work moved from rural to urban areas, which led to increased urbanisation. The larger urban population gave emerging industrialists a ready-made supply of workers for their newly built factories. Increased food production meant that the growing urban population could be fed, and it also resulted in greater profits for farmers, who could invest this money into other innovations.



Source 6

Britain's large empire (shown here in red) gave it ready access to the resources it needed to power growing industries at home.

Political factors

Britain had a strong and stable government. This gave people the confidence to invest in businesses. Throughout the 1700s, Britain had expanded its empire, including the colonisation of Australia in 1788. Having a vast empire gave Britain access to the raw materials, such as cotton, needed in industry. The British adopted a policy of **mercantilism**, and ensured that its colonies only traded with Britain, thus increasing its wealth and power.

Imperialism is the control of countries or territories by a more powerful nation. The nation then imposes its political, economic and cultural beliefs on the peoples living in its colonies. European countries had begun expanding their empires in the 17th century and, by the late 19th century, Britain's empire covered a quarter of the world's land surface.

Learning ladder H1.2

Show what you know

1 Describe the changes to the environment brought about by enclosure.

2 How did Britain's government encourage investment?

3 Why did agricultural methods need to change?

4 Using Source 5, explain the impact of selective breeding.

5 What **similarities can you see with developments in agriculture today?**

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

6 Describe the changes to farming methods that occurred during the agricultural revolution.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

7 Explain why the changes in agriculture you described in question 6 occurred.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

8 Explain how the British population changed between 1750 and 1901.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

9 What impact did innovation have for people living in Britain during the 18th century?

Continuity and change, page 244

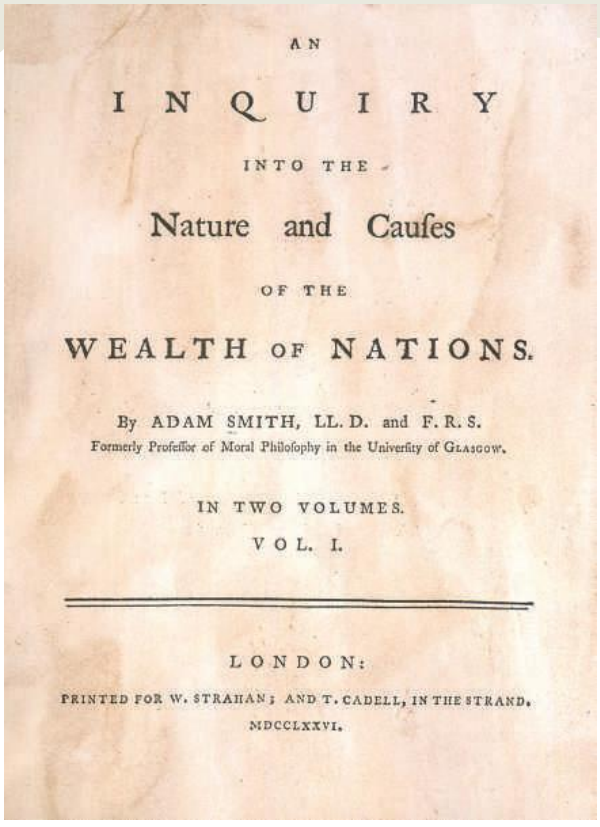
What other factors contributed to the Industrial Revolution?

Changes in the way people thought about economics also contributed to the Industrial Revolution. A new approach to economic management emerged known as *laissez-faire* (a French term meaning 'let do'). This economic theory meant that individuals had more freedom to conduct their business, rather than being dictated to by government policies, such as tariffs and subsidies. Technological changes and innovations in manufacturing and transport resulted in production becoming more efficient and cheaper. This created more affordable goods, which increased demand.

The Enlightenment

The Enlightenment, also known as the Age of Reason, began in the mid-17th century when thinkers began to challenge the traditional teachings of religious authorities. Thinking was based on reason rather than belief, and new scientific theories and principles emerged, put forward by men such as Isaac Newton.

The Enlightenment also challenged the way that countries were governed. Ideas such as John Locke's natural rights (life, liberty and property) and his argument that the purpose of government was to protect these rights had a strong influence on the American and French Revolutions.



AN

INQUIRY

INTO THE

Nature and Cauſes

OF THE

WEALTH OF NATIONS.

By ADAM SMITH, LL. D. and F. R. S.

Formerly Profeſſor of Moral Philoſophy in the Univerſity of GLASGOW.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR W. STRAHAN; AND T. CADELL, IN THE STRAND.

MDCCLXXVI.

Source 1

In 1776, Adam Smith published his ground-breaking book about economics, commonly known as *The Wealth of Nations*.

Advances in economic thinking

Britain had an established banking system that was much more advanced than any other in Europe. The growth of the British Empire, and the increase in trade that came with it, required financial services to support it. The Bank of England (established in 1694) ensured that there was **capital** for investment and protection for trade through insurance. Low interest rates also encouraged individuals to take risks on innovative technologies.

Source 2

This painting from 1768 shows people gathered in wonder around an experiment. [Joseph Wright, *An Experiment on a Bird in the Air Pump*, 1768, Oil on canvas.]

Merchants benefited from the fact there were no internal tariffs in Britain, and this made trading much easier. Britain's large empire meant that there was also an easily accessible international market.

The Enlightenment also gave rise to new ideas about economics, and these new ideas played an important role in the Industrial Revolution. Adam Smith wrote about a *laissez-faire* approach to the economy in his book, *The Wealth of Nations* (1776), in which he argued against the established principle of mercantilism. Smith argued that governments should not control the economy, but instead let the market forces of supply and demand dictate economic activity. This allowed individuals far greater freedom. Without the emergence of capitalism, the Industrial Revolution would not have been possible.

Capitalism

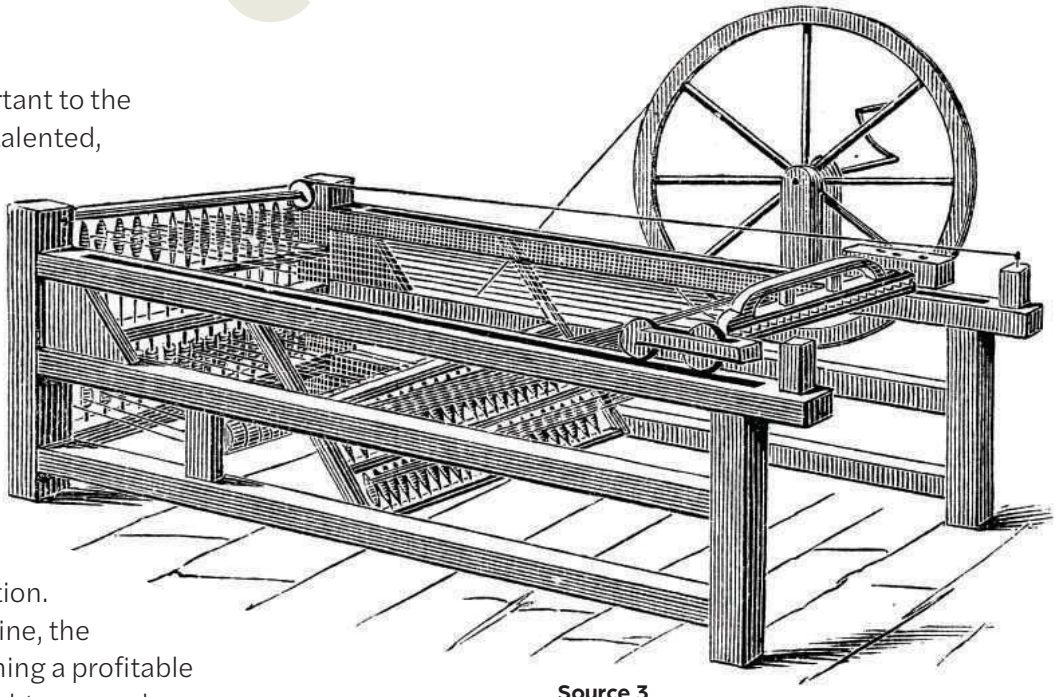
Capitalism is an economic system in which private individuals and companies own property and goods, rather than the government. The companies then compete to make a profit. Technological developments such as the steam engine enabled the factory system to develop. Private entrepreneurs and industrialists took calculated financial risks and invested in new business ventures. This meant that goods could be produced quickly and in large quantities. They were then able to generate greater revenue by exporting their goods across the British Empire, which provided a readily available market.

Britain also had the advantage of possessing the raw materials necessary for industrialisation. Coal was vital because it was the fuel used by the newly developed steam engines. Britain had large coal deposits, unlike other European nations, and this easy access reduced energy costs.

Entrepreneurs

Entrepreneurs were vitally important to the Industrial Revolution. They were talented, ambitious and from the growing middle class. They took calculated risks and invested money in innovative technologies that increased the speed of production. This meant that profits increased as production costs were reduced.

Entrepreneurs also invested in the factories and mines necessary for industrialisation. With the advent of the steam engine, the increased need for coal made mining a profitable business venture. Richard Arkwright, one such entrepreneur, established the first spinning mill in Britain. Both talented and ambitious, Arkwright was able to turn new developments into a successful business.



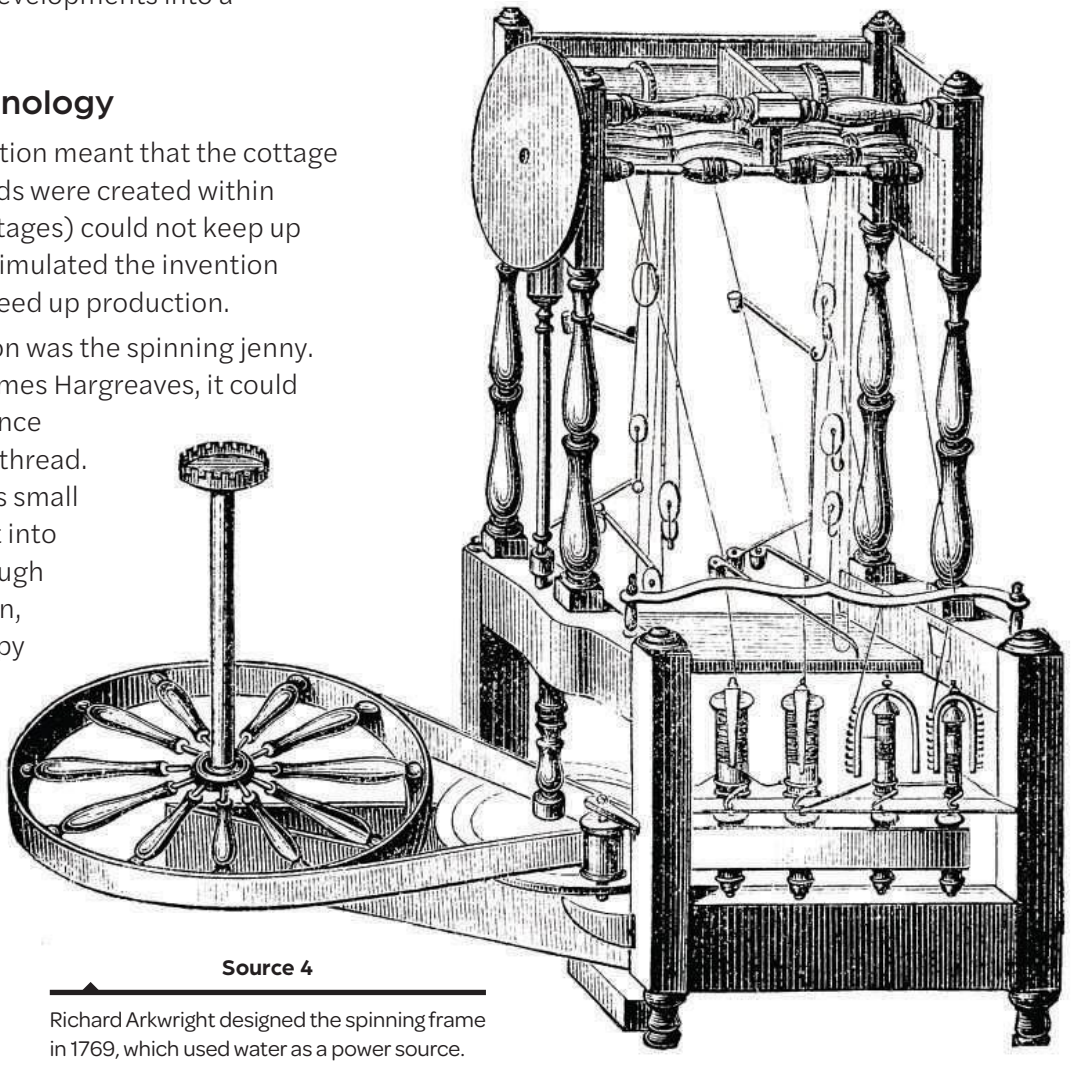
Source 3

Invented by James Hargreaves in 1764, the spinning jenny sped up weaving production.

Advances in technology

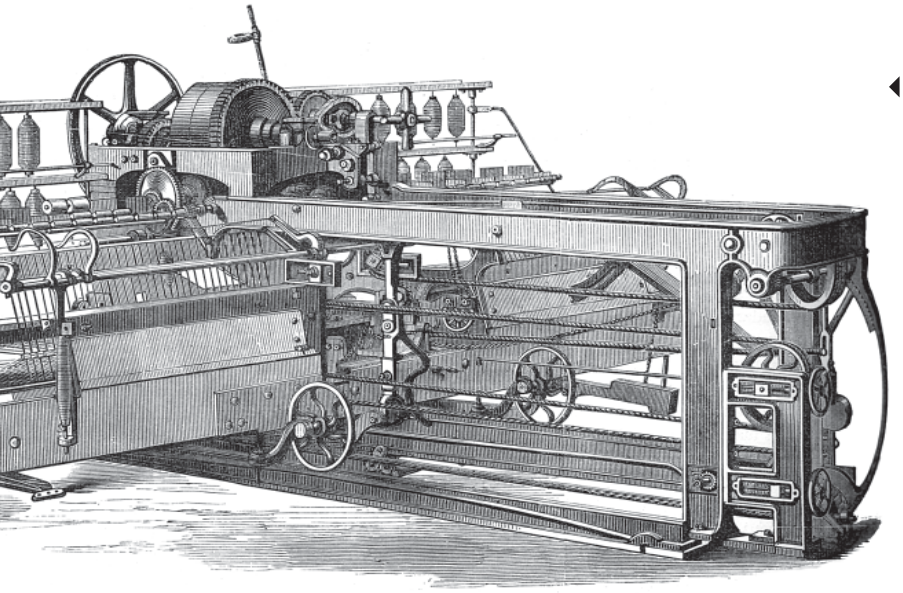
The increase in population meant that the cottage industry (in which goods were created within people's homes or cottages) could not keep up with demand, which stimulated the invention of new machines to speed up production.

One such innovation was the spinning jenny. Invented in 1764 by James Hargreaves, it could spin eight threads at once rather than one single thread. The spinning jenny was small enough that it could fit into people's homes. Although this sped up production, spinners were not happy and Hargreaves' home was attacked by unemployed workers.



Source 4

Richard Arkwright designed the spinning frame in 1769, which used water as a power source.



Source 5

The spinning mule, built by inventor Samuel Crompton in 1779, was used to spin cotton and other fibres in mills across Britain. It capitalised on the previous designs by Hargreaves and Arkwright to produce a better quality of thread in a higher volume.

Later spinning machines were far too big for people's homes, which created the need for factories. Richard Arkwright invented the spinning frame in 1769, which was powered by water and made much stronger thread. Samuel Crompton built on this idea in 1779 to produce thread that was both strong and fine with his spinning mule. By 1786, Edmund Cartwright had developed the power loom, which allowed even quicker cloth production.

Most of these machines could be operated by unskilled workers, with the exception of Crompton's mule. To begin with, machines were powered by water, but following the invention of the steam engine, steam was the dominant power source.

Sources of power

Before the Industrial Revolution, agriculture relied on human and horse power. Wind and water were used in the milling process. The cottage industry had run on human labour alone, so the most important development of the Industrial Revolution was the steam engine.

Early steam engines were developed by Thomas Savery (in 1698) and Thomas Newcomen (in 1712) and used to pump water from mines. In 1763, James Watt improved on their designs by adding a condensing cylinder, which made the steam engine more powerful. However, Watt's initial steam engine could not drive machinery. In 1781, Watt added a flywheel that allowed the engine to drive machinery. Known as the rotary steam engine, this revolutionised factories: they no longer needed to be built next to a strong, fast-flowing water source.

Learning ladder H1.3

Show what you know

1 List the ways that banks influenced the development of the Industrial Revolution.

2 Describe the technological changes that occurred during the Industrial Revolution.

3 Explain what *laissez-faire* means and how it applies to economics and business.

4 How did entrepreneurs contribute to the development of the Industrial Revolution?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

5 Match the cause with its effect.

Britain had no internal trading tariffs.	There was easy access to raw materials.
Bigger machines would not fit in people's homes.	They invested money, which helped industrialisation.
Britain had a large empire.	Goods could be produced more cheaply and more efficiently.
There were many entrepreneurs.	Trading was easy in Britain.
New inventions sped up production.	Factories were built.

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

6 What industrial needs led James Watt to develop the steam engine?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

7 Economic factors were an important cause of the Industrial Revolution. Explain how the *laissez-faire* approach to the economy contributed to this great change.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

8 List at least five of the significant causes of the Industrial Revolution in order of importance. Justify your choices.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

What was the effect of revolutionising transport?

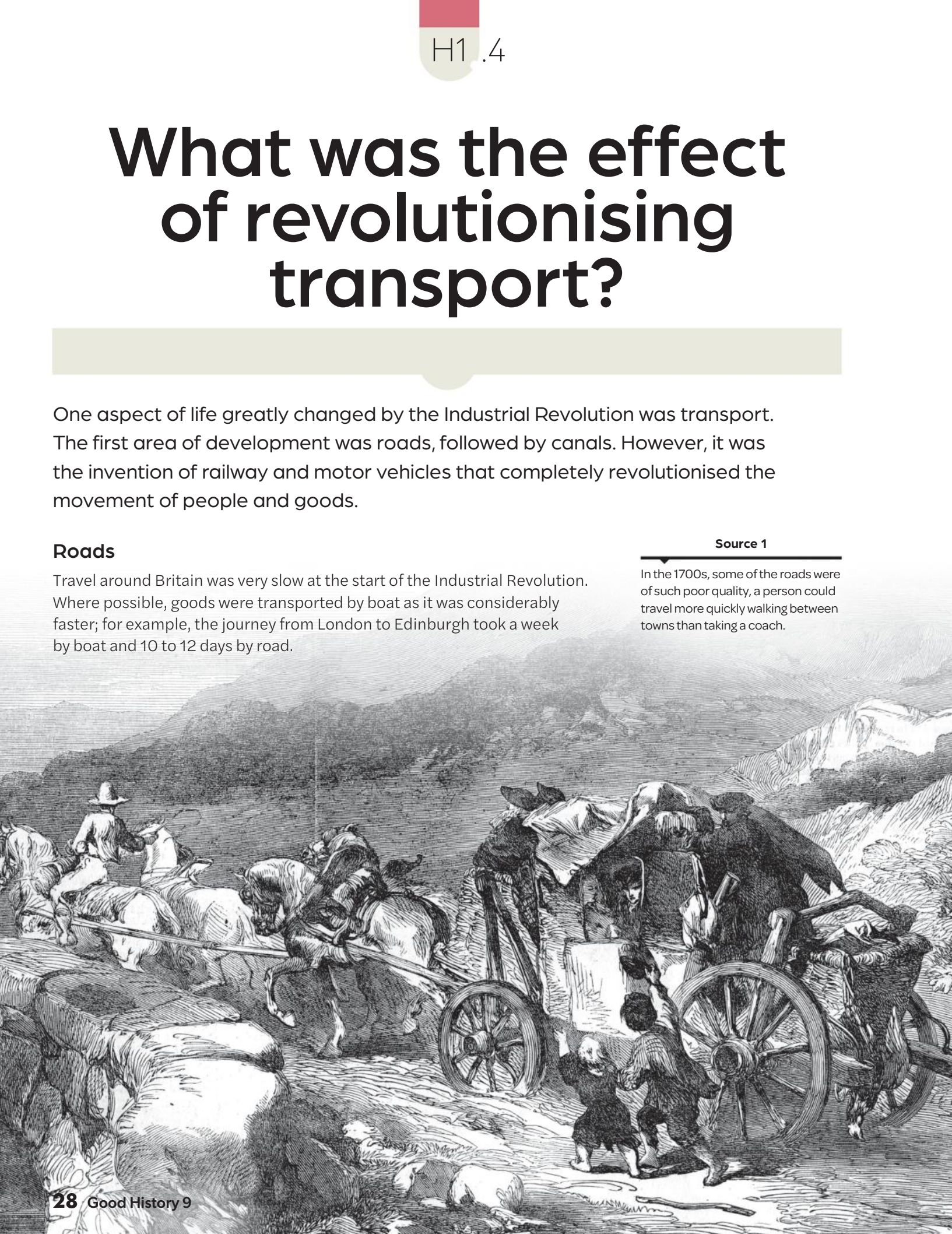
One aspect of life greatly changed by the Industrial Revolution was transport. The first area of development was roads, followed by canals. However, it was the invention of railway and motor vehicles that completely revolutionised the movement of people and goods.

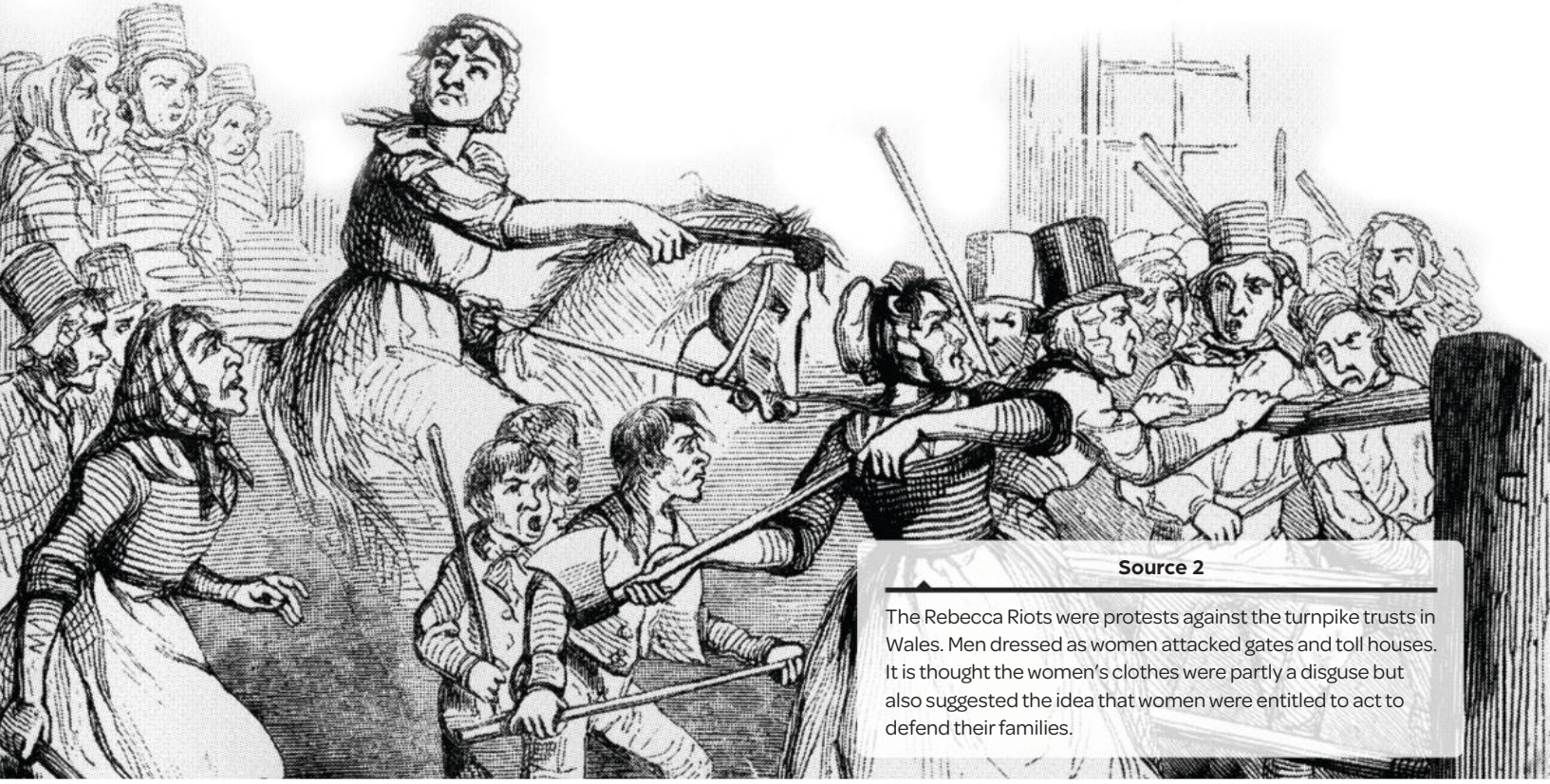
Roads

Travel around Britain was very slow at the start of the Industrial Revolution. Where possible, goods were transported by boat as it was considerably faster; for example, the journey from London to Edinburgh took a week by boat and 10 to 12 days by road.

Source 1

In the 1700s, some of the roads were of such poor quality, a person could travel more quickly walking between towns than taking a coach.

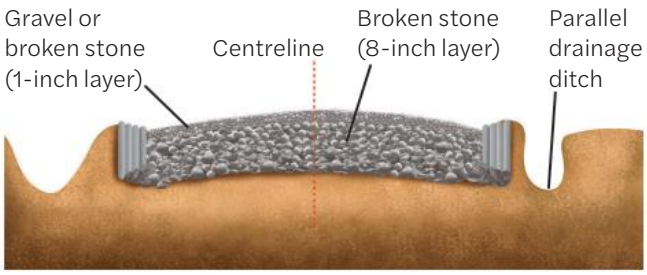




Source 2

The Rebecca Riots were protests against the turnpike trusts in Wales. Men dressed as women attacked gates and toll houses. It is thought the women's clothes were partly a disguse but also suggested the idea that women were entitled to act to defend their families.

To address this problem, the British government set up turnpike trusts. These groups charged local tolls and used the money for road resurfacing and repairs. This greatly increased the speed of travel, and most travellers were pleased with the improvements, especially merchants and manufacturers whose profits increased with quicker road travel. However, some protested against the new tolls. In Wales, a series of protests known as the Rebecca Riots occurred, in which men dressed as women attacked gates and toll houses (see Source 2). In response, the British parliament introduced a law stating that a person could be hanged for destroying turnpikes.

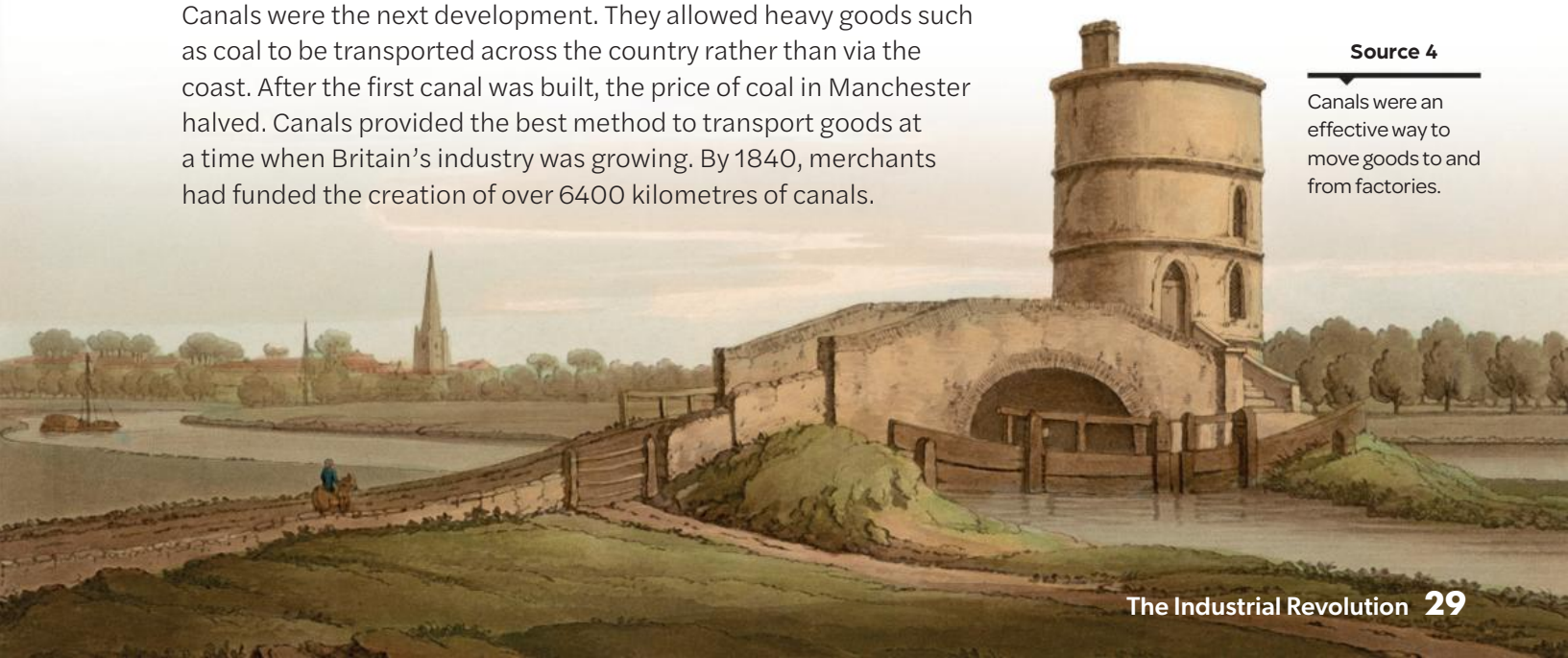


Source 3

John McAdam, a Scottish engineer, developed a system of road building in 1816 that improved the quality of roads. This diagram shows his innovative road design.

Canals

Canals were the next development. They allowed heavy goods such as coal to be transported across the country rather than via the coast. After the first canal was built, the price of coal in Manchester halved. Canals provided the best method to transport goods at a time when Britain's industry was growing. By 1840, merchants had funded the creation of over 6400 kilometres of canals.



Source 4

Canals were an effective way to move goods to and from factories.

Railways

It was the emergence of railways that completely revolutionised transport. The first railway line opened between Stockton and Darlington in 1825. Between 1830 and 1870, 11 200 kilometres of rail track were constructed. Transport became reliable and efficient.

Journey times from London (in hours)

Horse-drawn carriage		Rail
43	Edinburgh	12¼
24	Liverpool	6½
18	Exeter	4¾
11	Birmingham	3
6	Brighton	1¼

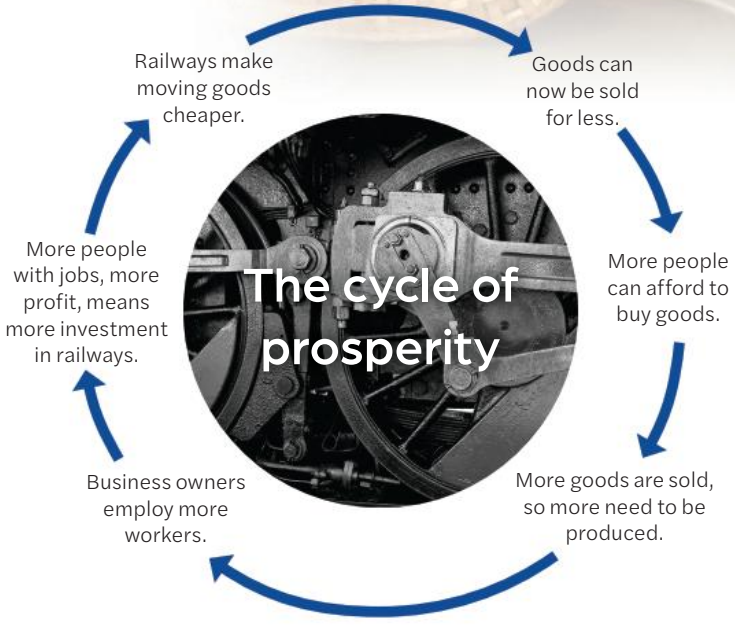
Source 5

The time difference between horse-drawn versus railway transport

The speed of rail transport meant that the British urban population was able to receive meat, fish, milk and vegetables while they were still fresh. This gave rise to the meal of 'fish and chips', which is still popular today.

Rail also had a huge impact on communication. Previously, newspapers were printed on a single sheet and transported by road, but now London newspapers could quickly reach cities around the country. The invention of the cylindrical printing press further increased the size of the newspapers, enabling double-sided printing. Thus, newspapers expanded in size and circulation.

Letters could also be sent and received quickly. This greatly improved communication, resulting in the spread of ideas, which increased people's interest in the issues of the time such as politics and social changes.



Source 6

The invention of rail transport led to goods being moved much more quickly and cheaply, which ultimately resulted in more jobs.

Source 7

Railway transport led to increased communication, as passengers could now read and write as they travelled.

Steamships

Steam engines were also used in ships. Although the amount of coal required for a journey across the Atlantic reduced cargo space, the use of steam was far more reliable and faster than wind-powered sailing ships. The first purpose-built transatlantic steamship was Isambard Kingdom Brunel's SS *Great Western*, which was launched in 1838 and took 15 days to complete the crossing. By 1900, the journey time had been reduced to five or six days.

Internal combustion engine

Initially, steam engines were not practical for smaller vehicles. In 1859, Étienne Lenoir developed the internal combustion engine. Its design formed the basis for all modern cars and engines. By 1885, Karl Benz had produced a petrol-powered car. In 1908, Henry Ford applied the assembly-line process to car manufacturing to produce the Model T Ford. Cars could now be manufactured cheaply and quickly, making them accessible to a wider market, not just the wealthy.

Learning ladder H1.4

Show what you know

1 List the most common travel methods before the Industrial Revolution.

2 What were the Rebecca Riots?

3 Create a mind map to categorise the effects of improved transport using PEST.

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 Which of these was an effect of building canals?

a Travel via canals was slow.

b People could transport heavy goods across the country more quickly than previously.

c The first canal was built in England in 1761.

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 What was the cause of the Rebecca Riots?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 Why did railways improve the diet of people living in urban areas?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 What impact did railways have on people's leisure time?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

How did industrialisation change how people worked?

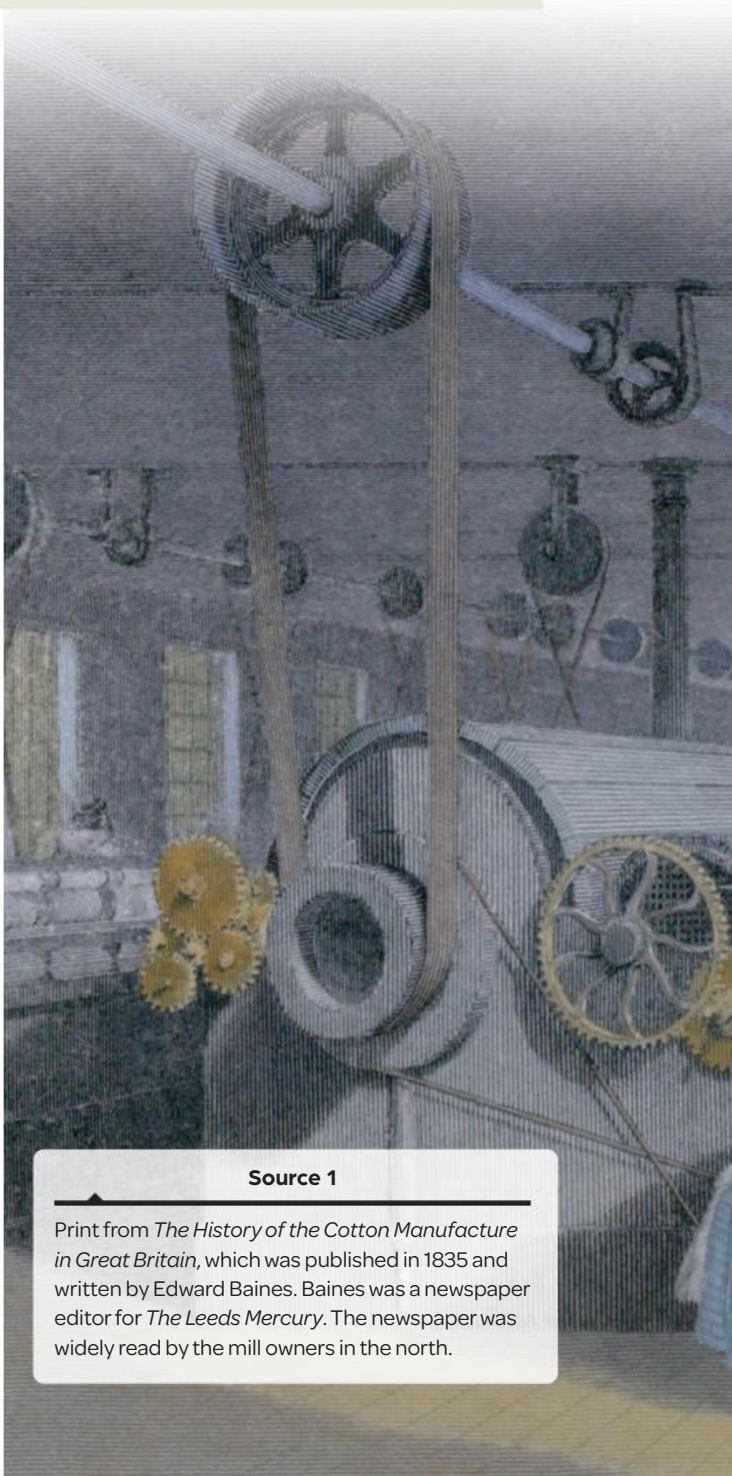
The Industrial Revolution changed people's lives radically. Before the 1740s, people in Britain lived a traditional rural lifestyle, with around 80 per cent of the population living and working in the countryside. Families worked together, and the hours of work revolved around what needed to be done on the farm. After the introduction of enclosure, many people were forced to move to urban areas to work in newly built factories.

Working conditions in factories

Work on farms involved hard physical labour from dawn until dusk. Machines, however, didn't require natural sunlight for work to be completed; nor did they require hard labour, as they were powered by water or steam. This meant that working hours increased. Workers in factories could work between 12 and 16 hours a day.

In order to make as much profit as possible, factory and mine owners paid very low wages. Workers were subject to dangerous working conditions, as machines had no safety guards and there was no government regulation. The dangerous machinery and repetitive nature of the work meant accidents were frequent and the death rate high. Women and children also worked in factories and were a source of cheap labour.

The advent of steam power also created a massive demand for coal. Although workers in mines were better paid than those working in mills, the working conditions were hard and dangerous. Deeper mines increased the risks of cave-ins, floods and explosions from using naked flames as light.



Source 1

Print from *The History of the Cotton Manufacture in Great Britain*, which was published in 1835 and written by Edward Baines. Baines was a newspaper editor for *The Leeds Mercury*. The newspaper was widely read by the mill owners in the north.

Cheap child labour

Factories

Many early mill owners employed children, as they were a very cheap source of labour as well as being small and agile. When threads broke during cloth manufacturing, children could fit underneath the machines to repair the breaks without the machine being turned off, even though this was dangerous.

Many children were 'apprentices' – orphans who were sent to work in the factories by local authorities. They had few rights and little protection.

'I have a belt round my waist, and a chain passing between my legs, and I go on my hands and feet. The road is very steep, and we have to hold by a rope; and when there is no rope, by anything we can catch hold of. The pit is very wet where I work, and the water comes over our clog-tops always, and I have seen it up to my thighs; it rains in at the roof terribly. My clothes are wet through almost all day long. I have drawn till I have bathe skin off me; the belt and chain is worse when we are in the family way.'

Source 2

Testimony from a female coal-mine worker, Betty Harris, aged 37. Extract from *The First Report of Commissioners for Enquiring into the Employment and Conditions of Children in Mines and Manufactories*, 1842.

Mines

In mines, children worked as trappers. Sitting in the dark all day, they opened and closed doors as older children pulling carts filled with coal passed through. Those carrying the coal to the surface often suffered physical deformities and long-term damage to their bodies.

> 'I'm a trapper in the Gawber pit. It does not tire me, but I have to trap without a light and I'm scared. I go at four and sometimes half past three in the morning, and come out at five and half past. I never go to sleep. Sometimes I sing when I've light, but not in the dark; I dare not sing then. I don't like being in the pit.'

Source 3

Testimony from Sarah Gooder, age 8, a young mine worker. Extract from *The First Report of Commissioners for Enquiring into the Employment and Conditions of Children in Mines and Manufactories*, 1842.

Source 4

Children worked in appalling conditions in the mines. The tunnels were often so low that they had to pull the carts in a bent position or on all fours, which later led to numerous health problems.

Child labour reform

Child labour had been common in England prior to the Industrial Revolution — most children had done agricultural or domestic work. However, greater numbers of children were entering the workforce at younger ages and being treated more harshly. Reformers began to demand change.

In 1833, the British government passed the *Factory Act* to improve conditions for children working in factories. The act stipulated that no children under nine years of age were allowed to work in textile factories. Children aged between nine and thirteen were only permitted to work for eight hours per day.

In 1840, Anthony Ashley Cooper, the seventh Earl of Shaftesbury, instigated the Royal Commission of Enquiry into Children's Employment, and a quote from his final report is shown in Source 5. The findings of the report were published in 1842 and included testimony from many child and female labourers (see Sources 2 and 3).

The report shocked society, and writers such as Charles Dickens published texts (such as *Oliver Twist* and *A Christmas Carol*), which protested against the use of child labour and workers' conditions. Legislation restricting the employment of children under the age of 10 in mines was passed in 1842.

'There is, however, one case of peculiar difficulty, viz., that in which all the subterranean roadways, and especially the side passages, are below a certain height, by the Evidence collected under this Commission, it is proved that there are coal mines at present in work in which these passages are so small, that even the youngest Children cannot move along them without crawling on their hands and feet, in which unnatural and constrained posture they drag the loaded carriages after them; and yet, as it is impossible, by any outlay compatible with a profitable return, to render such coal mines, happily not numerous nor of great extent, fit for human beings to work in, they never will be placed in such a condition, and consequently they never can be worked without inflicting great and irreparable injury on the health of the Children.'

Source 5

Thos Tooke, T. Southwood Smith, Leonard Horner, Robert J. Saunders *Children's Employment Commission (Mines)* 1842, vol. XV, pp. 225–259

Learning ladder H1.5

Show what you know

1 List all the dangers people faced working in factories.
2 How many hours a day did factory employees work?
3 Why did factories change working conditions?
4 How might working in factories have changed family life?
5 Who might have been resistant to reforms to working conditions?
6 Compare differences in attitudes to health and safety practices between Industrial Revolution Britain and the present day.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

7 Using Sources 4 and 5, explain the work that children did in mines.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

8 Consider Source 1. Why might this image present a positive perspective of working in textile factories?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

9 What was the purpose of the *Children's Employment Commission (Mines)* report of 1842?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

10 How reliable do you think the image shown in Source 4 is as a source of information about working conditions in mines? Provide evidence to support your answer.

Source analysis, page 240

HOW TO

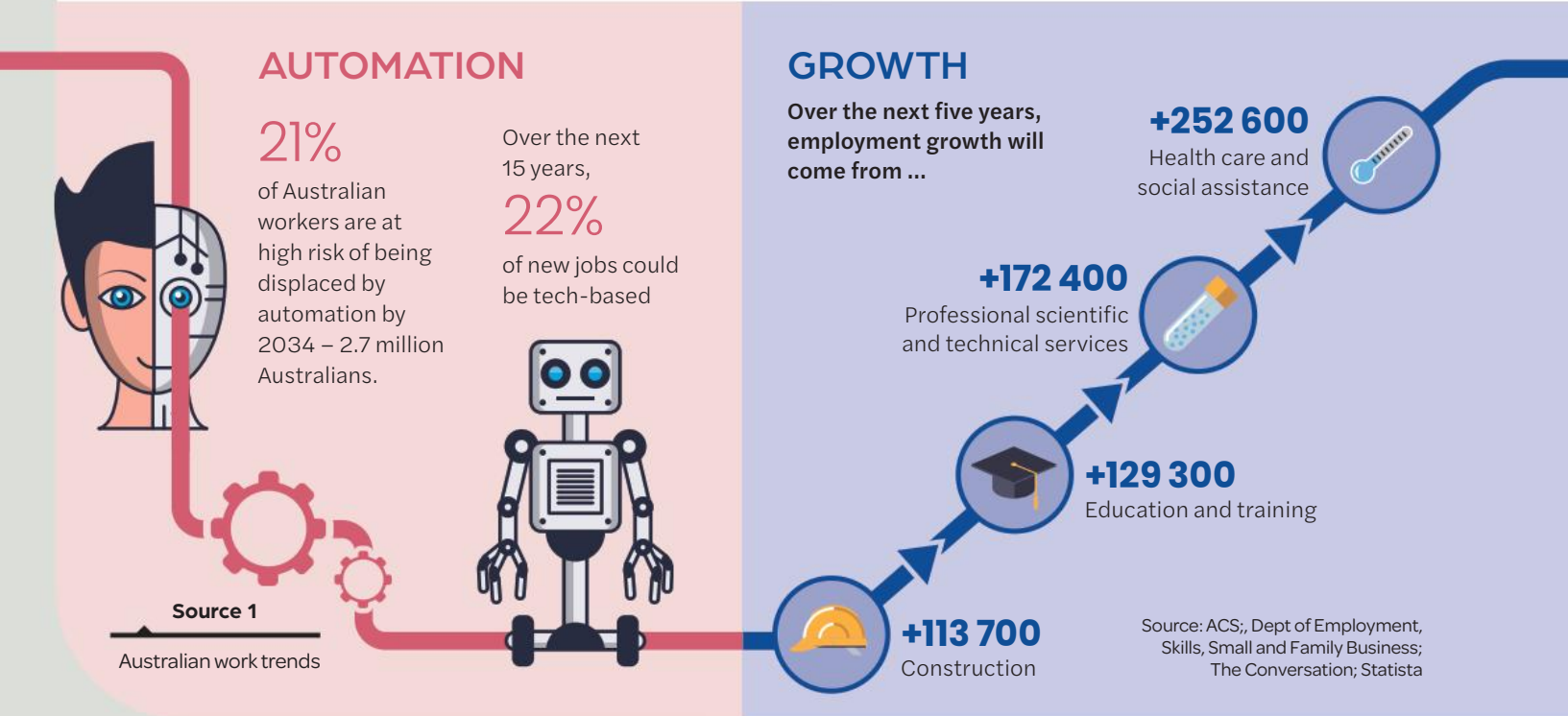
How is the workplace changing today?

The introduction of machines during the Industrial Revolution saw people move from rural to urban areas to work in factories – a dramatic change. Today, technological changes wrought by artificial intelligence, robotics, nanotechnology and quantum computing are also transforming how we work.

Automation

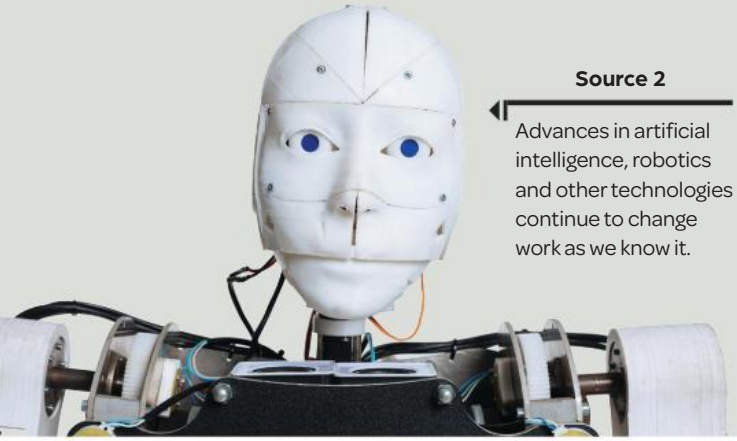
Smarter machines are performing more and more tasks that were once performed by human workers. **Manufacturing** jobs that grew so rapidly in the Industrial Revolution have now been replaced by smart machines that perform roles such as assembly-line work. In the 1960s, more than one quarter of all workers were employed in manufacturing industries. Today, just 8 per cent of the Australian workforce is in the manufacturing sector and researchers predict that 40 per cent of Australian jobs currently performed by people could be automated by 2030.

To better understand the impact of automation on jobs, **economists** classify occupations as routine or non-routine. Routine jobs such as factory work are suited to automation, or to being produced more cheaply in another country; as a result, jobs such as machinery work and labouring have declined sharply in the last 25 years. Non-routine work, which requires the worker to be adaptable and solve problems, is less likely to be automated. In the last 25 years, most of the growth in jobs has come in non-routine professional occupations, as well as in the health and security industries.



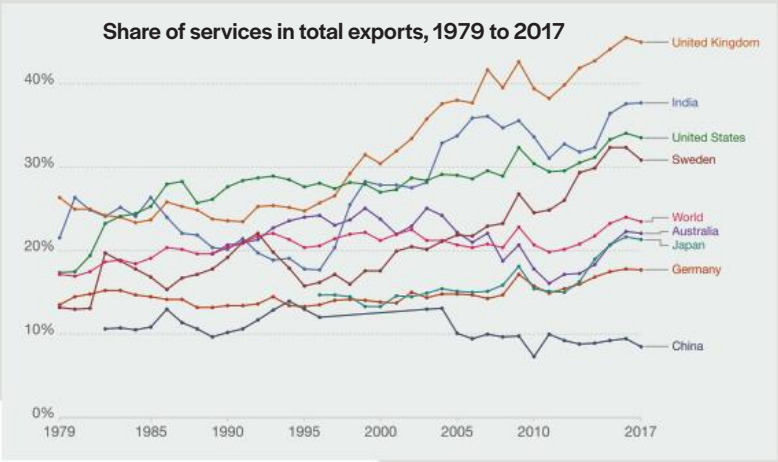
Source 1

Australian work trends



Source 2

Advances in artificial intelligence, robotics and other technologies continue to change work as we know it.



Source: World Bank

Source3

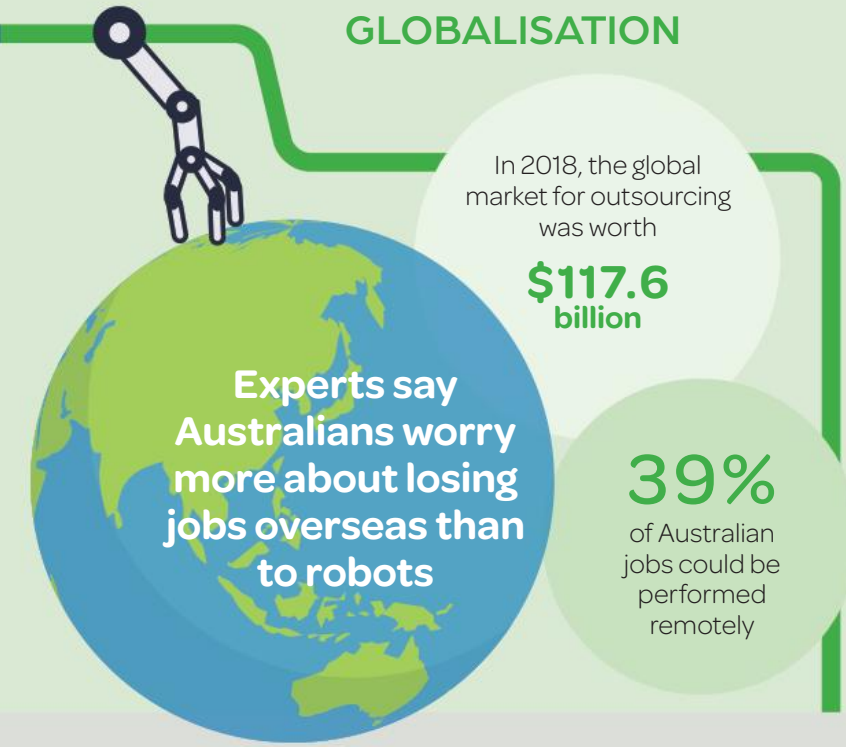
Share of global services from 1979 to 2017. After a dip around 2010, Australia's share is increasing steadily.

Globalisation

The **globalisation** of the workforce is a new **phenomenon** that has seen great changes in the Australian workforce.

Initially, manual roles in manufacturing and service roles in telecommunications were **outsourced** to countries with cheaper labour. Technology now allows companies to manage their entire labour supply internationally. Virtual global workers can provide services to an employer, but still remain in their local region to do the work. This enables companies to access cheaper labour, or tap into centres of specialised skills not available locally.

Economists suggest that more than one in ten of the world's service jobs can be performed from remote locations. Australians now compete with virtual talent from many other countries. There has been strong growth in Australia from overseas labour services that provide information technology and professional services. Australian businesses are sourcing virtual workers from countries such as India, the USA and the Philippines. In other job categories, such as financial services, the number of Australian workers allocated to work on international projects has grown dramatically.



Learning ladder H1.6

Economics and business

Step 1: I can recognise economic information

1 How many and what type of roles are under threat from greater automation by 2034?

Step 2: I can describe economic issues

2 Why has there been a greater loss of jobs in routine work due to automation compared to non-routine work?

Step 3: I can explain issues in economics

3 Outline the industries where Australia is a net importer and exporter of virtual labour. What changes have helped people to work remotely?

Step 4: I can integrate different economic topics

4 Compare the changes in the labour market during the Industrial Revolution to the changes happening today.

Step 5: I can evaluate alternatives

5 Are automation and globalisation bad for Australian workers? Explain.

How did the Industrial Revolution change living conditions?

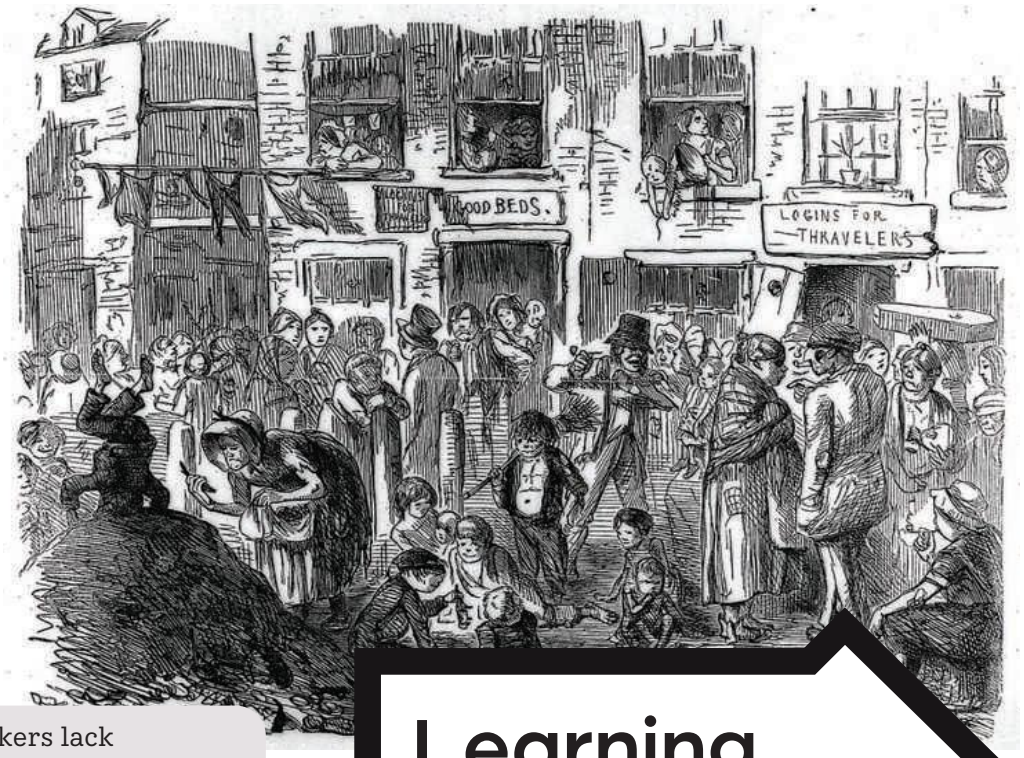
Industrialisation meant that most opportunities for work lay in the cities compared to the country. By 1801, the urban population of England and Wales was 31 per cent of the total population; by 1851, 50 per cent of the population lived in cities, and by 1881 the figure had risen to 68 per cent. Houses were built quickly, cheaply and as close to factories as possible, as most people started work at 6 am and had to walk to work.

In order to make a profit, building companies constructed small, narrow, terraced houses, squeezing in as many dwellings as they could without much thought for their occupants.

The rapid development of towns and cities occurred without adequate government supervision, and no provision was made for sanitation. Houses did not have running water or indoor toilets. **Privies** were shared by many, and the waste was collected in cesspits. The cesspits frequently overflowed and contaminated drinking water supplies. These unsanitary conditions led to epidemics of cholera and typhus.

Source 1

The rapid development of towns without government regulation resulted in crowded living conditions and poor sanitation, which meant that diseases could spread quickly.



Source 2

A contemporary cartoon highlights factory workers' deplorable living conditions, which enabled diseases such as cholera to thrive and spread.

It was not only working conditions that concerned reformers, but also the conditions in which people lived. Flora Tristan, French socialist and women's rights advocate, wrote in her journal in 1842:

'Most of the workers lack clothing, a bed, furniture, a fire, wholesome food, and often even potatoes! They are shut up twelve to fourteen hours a day in mean rooms where they breathe in, along with foul air, cotton, wool, and linen fibers, particles of copper, lead iron, etc., and frequently go from insufficient nourishment to excessive drinking. These unfortunates are also pale, rickety, and sickly; they have thin, feeble bodies with weak arms, wan complexions, and dull eyes; one cannot help thinking that all them must have lung disease. … In English factories there isn't any singing, chatting, or laughter, such as there is in ours. The master does not want his workers distracted for a minute by any reminders of life…'

Source 3

Source: From *Flora Tristan, Utopian Feminist: Her Travel Diaries and Personal Crusade*, Doris Beik (transl), Indiana University Press, 1993. Originally published *Promenades dans Londres*, Flora Tristan, 1840.

Reforms did not come about for another six years, when the British government, in response to a severe cholera epidemic, introduced the *Public Health Act* of 1848. This act was a milestone in public health history, as it forced local governments to take responsibility for drainage, water supplies and paving to improve the health of the population.

Learning ladder H1.7

Show what you know

1 What can you learn from Flora Tristan about the health of workers?

2 Why did building companies build houses near factories? What did this lead to?

3 Using Sources 1 and 2 , explain what living conditions were like.

4 Why did towns and cities develop so rapidly during this period?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 Describe how industrialisation changed where people lived.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Explain why living conditions were not subject to reform until the mid-19th century.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 Explain why living conditions changed during the 19th century. Provide evidence.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 Why did many people move to new locations during the 19th century? Did everyone move? Why or why not?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

Who challenged the status quo?

Just as the Enlightenment brought about a new way of thinking based on reason and science, the Industrial Revolution gave rise to a number of free thinkers. Robert Owen, Friedrich Engels and Mary Wollstonecraft all challenged the social **status quo**, while Charles Darwin's scientific theories, seemingly radical at the time, are today widespread and generally accepted.

Robert Owen

Robert Owen became owner of the New Lanark mills in Scotland in 1799. As an advocate of **socialism**, he believed looking after the welfare of his workers was as important as making a profit for his company.

This contrast in attitude to many factory owners at the time was met with suspicion. Owen was highly critical of child labour and, following his purchase of the New Lanark mills, stopped the employment of children under 10. Instead, he set up a school for them to attend. Physical punishments were banned and the working hours of children over 10 were limited so they could continue their education.

Owen also provided his workers with housing and ensured they had access to doctors. Despite the fears of his partners that this would reduce profits, the New Lanark mills were a commercial success.

However, Owen alienated other factory owners when he began to call for mill profits to be shared with workers. He was also credited with devising the slogan '8 hours work, 8 hours recreation and 8 hours rest' that was adopted by the 8 Hours Movement in Victoria in 1856.

Source 2

In 2013, this street art image of Mary Wollstonecraft appeared on the wall of New Unity Unitarian Church where she worshipped in the 18th century.

Source 1

The New Lanark cotton mills, now a world heritage site

Friedrich Engels

German philosopher Friedrich Engels was a **socialist** and co-authored *The Communist Manifesto* with Karl Marx in 1848. Engels wrote:

> 'Nobody troubles about the poor as they struggle helplessly in the whirlpool of modern industrial life. The working man may be lucky enough to find employment, if by his labour he can enrich some member of the middle classes. But his wages are so low that they hardly keep body and soul together. If he cannot find work, he can steal, unless he is afraid of the police; or he can go hungry and then the police will see to it that he will die of hunger in such a way as not to disturb the equanimity of the middle classes.'

Source 3

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

Mary Wollstonecraft

Mary Wollstonecraft lacked a formal education, so she studied on her own and taught herself instead. She became a major British writer and philosopher, who advocated for equality and education for women. Her publisher, Joseph Johnson, held weekly dinners where she met radical thinkers such as Thomas Paine and William Goodwin, whom she later married.

In her book, *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792), Wollstonecraft argued that men and women should be treated equally, and that if women were afforded the same opportunities and education as men, they could equally contribute to society. This led to the establishment of many women's rights groups across Europe and North America.

Charles Darwin

In 1859, Charles Darwin published *On the Origin of Species*. The English clergy saw the book and Darwin's theory of evolution as a threat to everything that mattered most to British society.

Darwin had just left university in 1831 when he was presented with an opportunity to sail around the world on a scientific expedition. Darwin set sail with the HMS *Beagle* in December 1831. His observations on the Galapagos Islands helped him formulate his ideas regarding evolution. Darwin theorised that different species of plants and animals had evolved to suit their environment to ensure their ongoing survival. He called this 'natural selection'. However, his theory shocked the Church, as it challenged the Christian doctrine that God had created all plants and animals.

Learning ladder H1.8

Show what you know

1 Identify the ways that Robert Owen looked after his workers.

2 Describe Mary Wollstonecraft's beliefs.

3 Summarise Darwin's beliefs on evolution.

4 Did Engels view industrialisation as positive or negative? Provide evidence from this spread.

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 Which was more significant – Engels' *The Condition of the Working Class in England* or Darwin's *On the Origin of Species*?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 Explain why Mary Wollstonecraft was a significant individual.

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 Apply Partington's Theory to explain the significance of Robert Owen and his treatment of workers.

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 Explain why Darwinism was a historically significant idea, giving at least three reasons. Write a paragraph explaining how these reasons make Darwinism important.

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 251

H1.9

What groups fought for social and political change?

The 19th century was a period of social inequality. While wealthy men had power, working class men were prohibited from voting and discouraged from forming trade unions, and women of all classes had very limited rights. These latter groups sought to make themselves heard during the Industrial Revolution, calling for social change.

Source 1

Mary Lee, secretary of the Women's Suffrage League in South Australia

The women's suffrage movement

During the 19th century in Britain and Australia, women had only limited rights. Society dictated that a woman's place was in the home, raising her children and supporting her husband. Once she married, her legal rights were transferred to her husband. Many men believed that women did not have the intellectual capacity to understand politics and that they were too emotional to make important decisions. However, social attitudes began to change slowly.

In many nations, women began campaigning for **suffrage**, or the right to vote. In Britain, when their demands continued to be ignored by the British parliament, some campaigners became more militant and used violent tactics. These women became known as **suffragettes**.

In comparison, Australian **suffragists** used non-violent methods to attract support for their campaigns and were closely linked to the **temperance movement**. The first women's suffrage society was formed in Victoria in 1884, and in 1894 South Australia became the first place in the world to pass legislation allowing women to both vote *and* stand for parliament. British women would have to wait until 1918 for the vote.

Source 2

Inspired by success in countries such as Australia and New Zealand, women in the USA campaigned for suffrage also.

Source 3

The Tolpuddle martyrs

Trade unions

The changes brought about by the agricultural revolution and industrialisation had greatly affected people's lives and caused a great deal of social unrest. In 1799, the British government, fearing the influence of the French Revolution coupled with pressure from employers, banned **trade unions**.

Despite this repression, workers continued to meet illegally to fight for better working conditions, and the laws banning trade unions were repealed in 1824. However, workers still faced a long struggle for better working conditions, and the trade union movement grew throughout the 19th century.

Tolpuddle Martyrs

The fall in farm labourers' wages prompted George Loveless, a ploughman and Wesleyan preacher, to form a 'friendly society' to support the farm workers of Tolpuddle, Dorset. But, fearing that workers who had joined would be sacked, they decided to swear an oath of secrecy. It was this oath that allowed the government to arrest this particular trade union, having passed a law in 1797 prohibiting secret oaths.

In February 1834, six men were sentenced to seven years' transportation to Australia as an 'example to the working-class men'. However, there was such a public outcry against their sentence that they were pardoned in 1836 and given free passage home from Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) in 1837.

Chartists

Chartism was a movement in Britain that demanded electoral reform in order to secure the vote for all working-class men. The Chartists named themselves after the *People's Charter*, an 1838 document that called for an end of the domination of the British political system by wealthy landowners, who were the only men eligible to become members of parliament.

Although the Chartists' petition of 1842 was rejected, they won several small victories: the property qualifications were lowered in 1867, and by 1884 two-thirds of all men could vote. However, a universal suffrage bill for all men was not passed until 1918.

Several key Chartist leaders, such as John Basson Humffray, were transported to Australia. They later became involved in Australian protests against unfair working conditions and demands for political equality, such as the Eureka Rebellion.

'... in the long run Chartism by no means failed ... the principles of the Charter have gradually become parts of the British constitution ... its restricted platform of political reform, though denounced as revolutionary at the time, was afterwards substantially adopted by the British State ... before all the Chartist leaders had passed away, most of the famous Six Points became the law of the land ... the Chartists have substantially won their case. England has become a democracy, as the Chartists wished, and the domination of the middle class ... is at least as much a matter of ancient history as the power of the landed aristocracy.'

Source 4

One interpretation of the impact of the Chartist movement on British politics came from Mark Hovell, from his book, *The Chartist Movement*, 1918.

'The movement's failures lay in the direction of securing legislation, or national approbation for its leaders. Judged by its crop of statutes and statues, Chartism was a failure. Judged by its essential and generally overlooked purpose, Chartism was a success. It achieved, not the Six Points, but a state of mind. This last achievement made possible the renascent trade union movement of the 'fifties, the gradually improving organization of the working classes, the Labour Party, the co-operative movement, and whatever greater triumphs labour will enjoy in the future.'

Source 5

A differing view on the Chartists came from Julius West in *A History of the Chartist Movement*, 1920, Constable & Company Ltd, pp. 294–95.

Source 6

Luddites protested against the use of machinery in favour of skilled workers, and from 1811–1817 gangs targeted and destroyed machines.

Source 7

The Chartists argued for six main points: votes for every man, a secret ballot for voting, payment of members or parliament, equal sizes of electoral districts, an annual election for parliament and the abolition of property qualifications for members of parliament.

Luddites

The Luddites were protesters who objected to the use of machinery in the textile industry, as they reduced the need for skilled spinners and weavers. From 1811 until 1817, gangs of Luddites set about smashing machines. In Yorkshire, they targeted shearing machines.

Severe punishments were introduced, and the British government made it a capital crime to wreck machines. This resulted in fewer riots after 14 Luddites were hanged in 1813 for attacking William Cartwright's mill.

Learning ladder H1.9

Show what you know

1 Identify the demands of the women's suffrage movement.

2 What did the Chartists want?

3 Why was the British government so swift to suppress the Luddites?

4 Research a trade union. How have its aims changed or stayed the same since the Industrial Revolution?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

5 Which political reform group developed in the 1830s?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

6 Consider Source 4. What is Hovell's interpretation of the success of the Chartist movement?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

7 Consider Source 5. Explain why West's interpretation of the Chartist movement differs from Hovell's.

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

8 Was the Chartist movement a failure? Provide evidence to support your response.

HOW TO Historical interpretations, page 255

‘Am I not a man and a brother?’

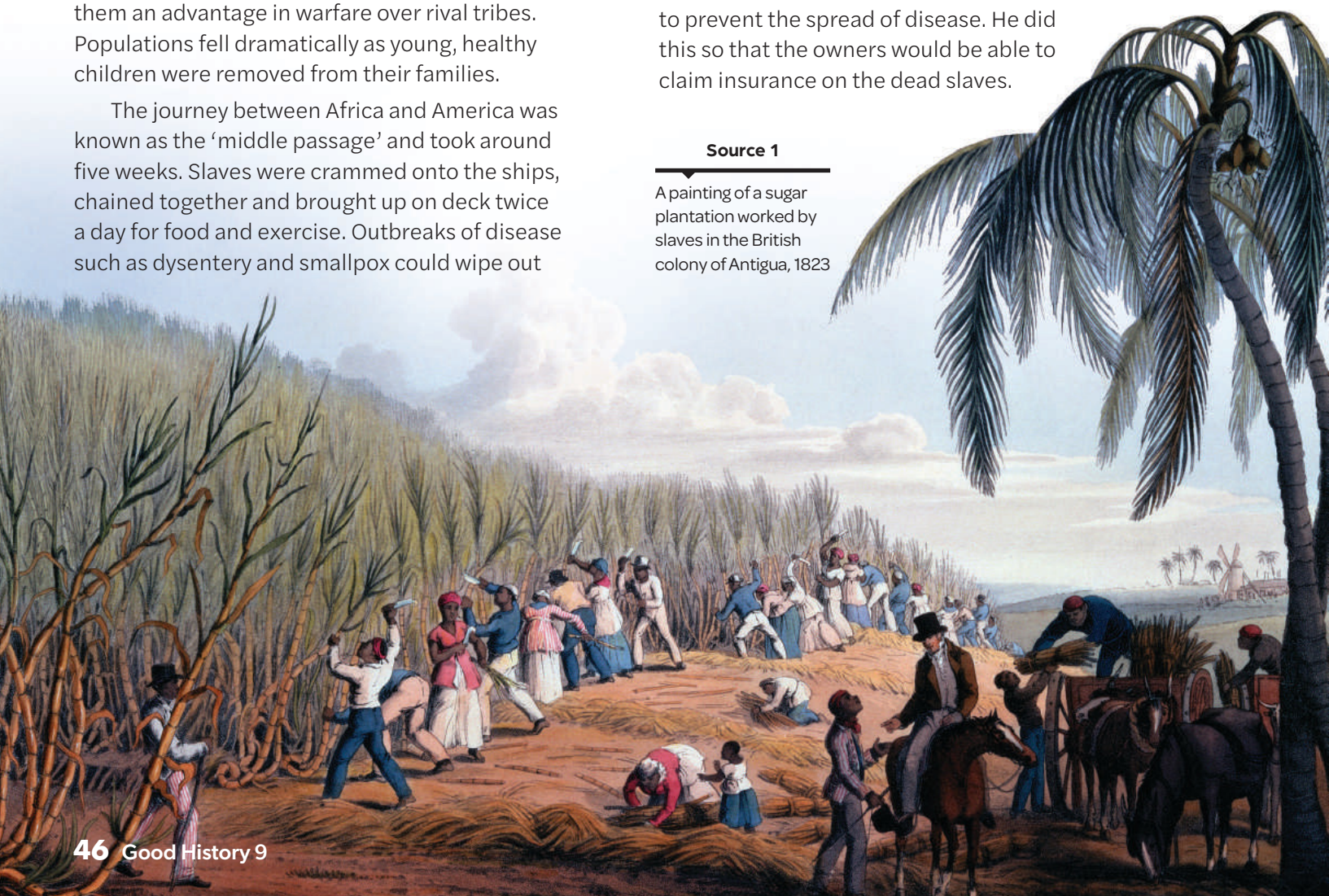
Slavery existed around the world long before the Industrial Revolution. But with the expansion of European empires, particularly in the Americas where cotton, tobacco and sugar were grown, those in power demanded more and more slaves to work the land.

The slave trade

By 1750, a third of the British merchant navy was involved in the slave trade. Goods that were desirable in Africa, such as manufactured goods, guns and gunpowder, were traded to African kings for slaves. Several kingdoms in western Africa grew rich from the slave trade, with British guns giving them an advantage in warfare over rival tribes. Populations fell dramatically as young, healthy children were removed from their families.

The journey between Africa and America was known as the ‘middle passage’ and took around five weeks. Slaves were crammed onto the ships, chained together and brought up on deck twice a day for food and exercise. Outbreaks of disease such as dysentery and smallpox could wipe out a quarter of the slaves before they reached their destination. Malnutrition and scurvy were common because of the poor food they received.

Slaves were considered property and nothing more. In 1782, the captain of the slave ship *Zong* ordered 130 sick slaves to be thrown overboard to prevent the spread of disease. He did this so that the owners would be able to claim insurance on the dead slaves.



Source 1

A painting of a sugar plantation worked by slaves in the British colony of Antigua, 1823

On arrival, the slaves would be inspected and then sold at auction. The best slaves would fetch £60 or more each. Others were sold for merely £1. Any slaves who were too weak or sick to sell were left to die on the waterfront. Once sold, slaves faced a lifetime of misery working from dawn until dusk on the sugar, cotton and tobacco plantations.

The abolition movement

The horrors of the slave trade resulted in a growing abolition movement. In May 1787, the Society for Effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade was formed. Thomas Clarkson, a leading member of the anti-slavery campaign, investigated slavery conditions. He was supported by William Wilberforce, a British MP.

In 1807, the British government banned the sale of slaves throughout its empire; however, slavery itself was not banned until 36 years later.

Source 3

Medallion produced by Josiah Wedgwood in support of the abolition movement. Benjamin Franklin declared that the medallion's effectiveness was 'equal to that of the best written Pamphlet, in procuring favour to those oppressed People'.

'I am sure that the immediate abolition of the slave trade is the first, the principal, the most indispensable act of policy, of duty, and of justice that this country has to take. There are, however, arguments set up to [defend the slave trade]. The slave system, it is supposed, has taken such deep root in Africa that it is absurd to think of it being eradicated. "We are friends," they say, "to humanity. We are second to none of you in our zeal for the good of Africa – but the French will not abolish – the Dutch will not abolish. We wait, therefore, till they join us or set us an example." How, sire, is this enormous evil ever to be eradicated, if every nation waits?'

Source 2

Extract from a speech made by the British Prime Minister, William Pitt, 2 April 1792

Learning ladder H1.10

Show what you know

1 Identify the goods that were traded for slaves.

2 Why did Britain's leaders claim that slavery was necessary to sustain the Empire?

3 Suggest a possible impact of the British Empire banning the sale of slaves in 1807, but not banning slavery itself for another 36 years.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

4 List the reasons Pitt argued to abolish slavery.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

5 Consider Sources 2 and 3. What ideas are similar in both?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

6 Why did Pitt make his speech in April 1792?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

7 How reliable is Pitt's speech in Source 2 regarding views on the slave trade?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

How did the Industrial Revolution affect the environment?

The rapid development that occurred during the Industrial Revolution came at a great cost. Industrialisation had, and continues to have, a devastating environmental impact: it put pressure on natural resources as land was cleared, rivers were dammed and as pollution increased from the burning of fossil fuels (such as coal, oil and natural gas).

Source 1

A 'pea souper': a very thick, yellow, green or black fog that occurred during the 19th and 20th centuries because of air pollution from coal fires. This image depicts the thick fog at Ludgate Circus, London, in the late 19th century.

Deforestation

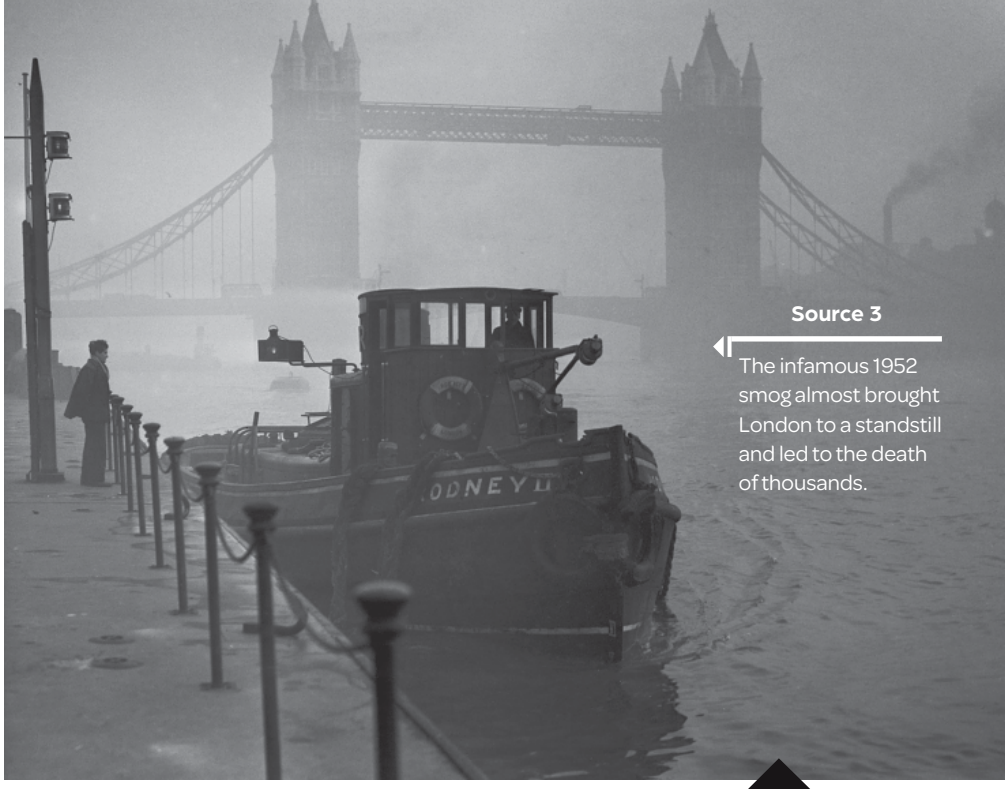
At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, forests were cleared for timber and to increase the land available for farming. But as industrialisation gained momentum, land was cleared for factories and to make way for urban development.

Deforestation still occurs, as economic factors further drive the need for agricultural land. This has extended the impact on the environment because land degradation can lead to problems such as erosion and loss of habitat. These further endanger vulnerable species and increase the risk of natural disasters, such as flooding and landslides.

Air pollution

The invention of steam-driven machines created a demand for coal. The negative impact of this was that the smoke from coal-driven factories created significant air pollution. When the smoke mixed with fog, it created a deadly smog. During the 1800s this led to numerous problems in London, such as traffic accidents and the deaths of animals at markets. It continued to be a problem into the mid-20th century; in 1952, five days of thick smog led to the deaths of thousands of Londoners. Today, countries such as China and India continue to suffer from poor air quality as a result of reliance on fossil fuels for manufacturing.

In the past 60 years, it has become apparent that the Earth's climate is changing. The increased levels of carbon dioxide, produced when fossil fuels are burnt, have resulted in **global warming**. This has led to climatic changes such as warmer temperatures, rising sea levels and melting glaciers, all of which are having a significant impact. However, our increased awareness of the damage being done to the planet has resulted in increased efforts to control emissions.



Source 3

The infamous 1952 smog almost brought London to a standstill and led to the death of thousands.

Water pollution

Not only has the air suffered significant pollution, but water supplies are often affected. During the Industrial Revolution, lack of sanitation led to water supplies becoming polluted, and to dangerous epidemics of diseases such as cholera, typhus and typhoid.

Waste from industries also contaminated water, which has led to further environmental problems. An example of this is the King River in Tasmania, where toxic waste from copper mining (begun in 1880) led to deforestation.

'And what cities! ... smoke hung over them and filth impregnated them, the elementary public services – water supply, sanitation, street-cleaning, open spaces, and so on – could not keep pace with the mass migration of men into the cities, thus producing, especially after 1830, epidemics of cholera, typhoid and an appalling constant toll of the two great groups of 19th century urban killers – air pollution and water pollution or respiratory and intestinal disease.'

Source 2

Extract from E.J. Hobsbawm, *The Pelican Economic History of Britain, Volume 3, Industry and Empire*, Harmondsworth, 1969, p. 86

Learning ladder H1.11

Show what you know

1 Describe the ways that the Industrial Revolution had an impact on the environment.

2 What does Source 2 tell you about epidemics?

3 Think about the different industries you have studied. Create a concept map to show the long-term environmental impacts they have had.

4 How have attitudes towards the environment changed since the Industrial Revolution?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

5 What causes smog?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

6 What has been the effect of deforestation on the environment?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

7 Explain the long-term effects that the Industrial Revolution have had on the environment.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

8 Which environmental impact has been the most significant? Provide evidence to support your answer.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

Why was Australia riding on the sheep's back?

Australia was founded as a penal colony to solve the problem of overcrowded prisons in Britain. Rapid industrialisation and urbanisation had resulted in rising crime rates among poverty-stricken workers, many of whom were new to urban life. The British brought the technology of the Industrial Revolution with them to Australia; within a hundred years, manufacturing had developed to the point of self-sufficiency in New South Wales and Victoria.

Source 1

Ex-convict George Howell and his son George Jr. built Howells' Mill in Parramatta in 1828. The combined wind and water mill was the largest in the area at the time.

Industry in the Australian colony was initially dependent on human and wind power. However, that soon changed as Australia benefited from the rapid technological advances being made in Britain. The first steam engine to be used in Australia powered a flour mill in Sydney in 1813. Reliant at first on British technology, steam engines began to be manufactured in Australia from the 1830s.

Source 2

Slums were common in inner-city suburbs such as Fitzroy and Collingwood.

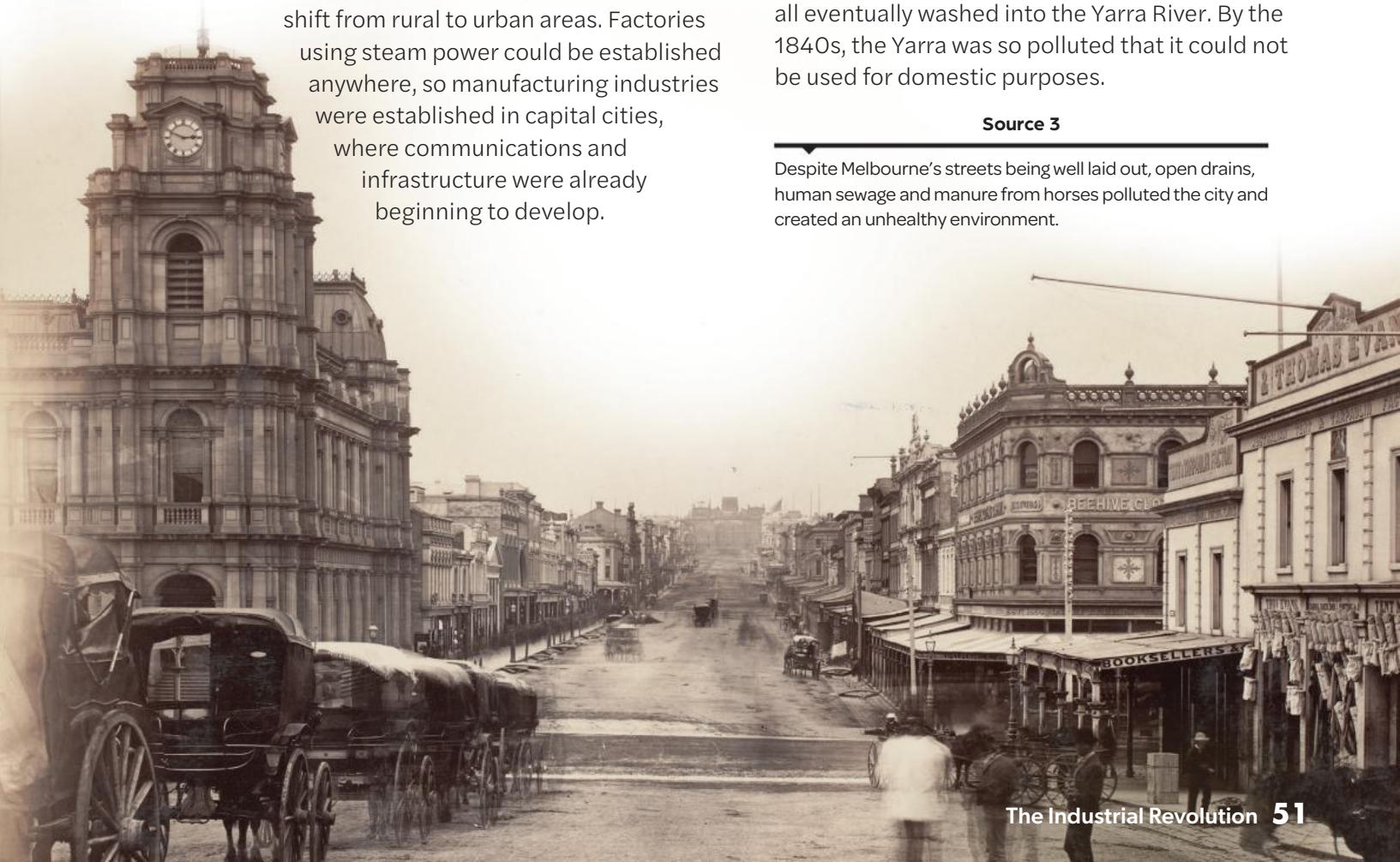
A number of factors encouraged the development of Australian manufacturing: the length of time it took for manufactured goods to reach Australia, machines needing to be adapted to Australian conditions, and a lack of interest from the British government in responding to the colonies' needs forced colonists to develop their own industries to meet local demands.

In contrast to Britain, there was no shift from rural to urban areas. Factories using steam power could be established anywhere, so manufacturing industries were established in capital cities, where communications and infrastructure were already beginning to develop.

Although Melbourne had been laid out in a wide street grid by Robert Hoddle, its rapid growth meant that slums developed next to the factories of inner Melbourne. These houses were squalid and ramshackle, with no running water, toilets or sewers. Waste was thrown onto the streets and flowed into street channels. This, along with the waste from factories and manure from horses (the main mode of transport at the time), was all eventually washed into the Yarra River. By the 1840s, the Yarra was so polluted that it could not be used for domestic purposes.

Source 3

Despite Melbourne's streets being well laid out, open drains, human sewage and manure from horses polluted the city and created an unhealthy environment.



Gold and industry

The discovery of gold brought a flood of prospectors in the mid-19th century. As surface gold dwindled, miners used steam engines to reach gold deeper underground. Those who had profited from the gold rush also began to invest. This aided the development of local industry and manufacturing which, in turn, sustained cities such as Ballarat and Bendigo, which no longer needed to rely on gold to continue to thrive.

The wool industry

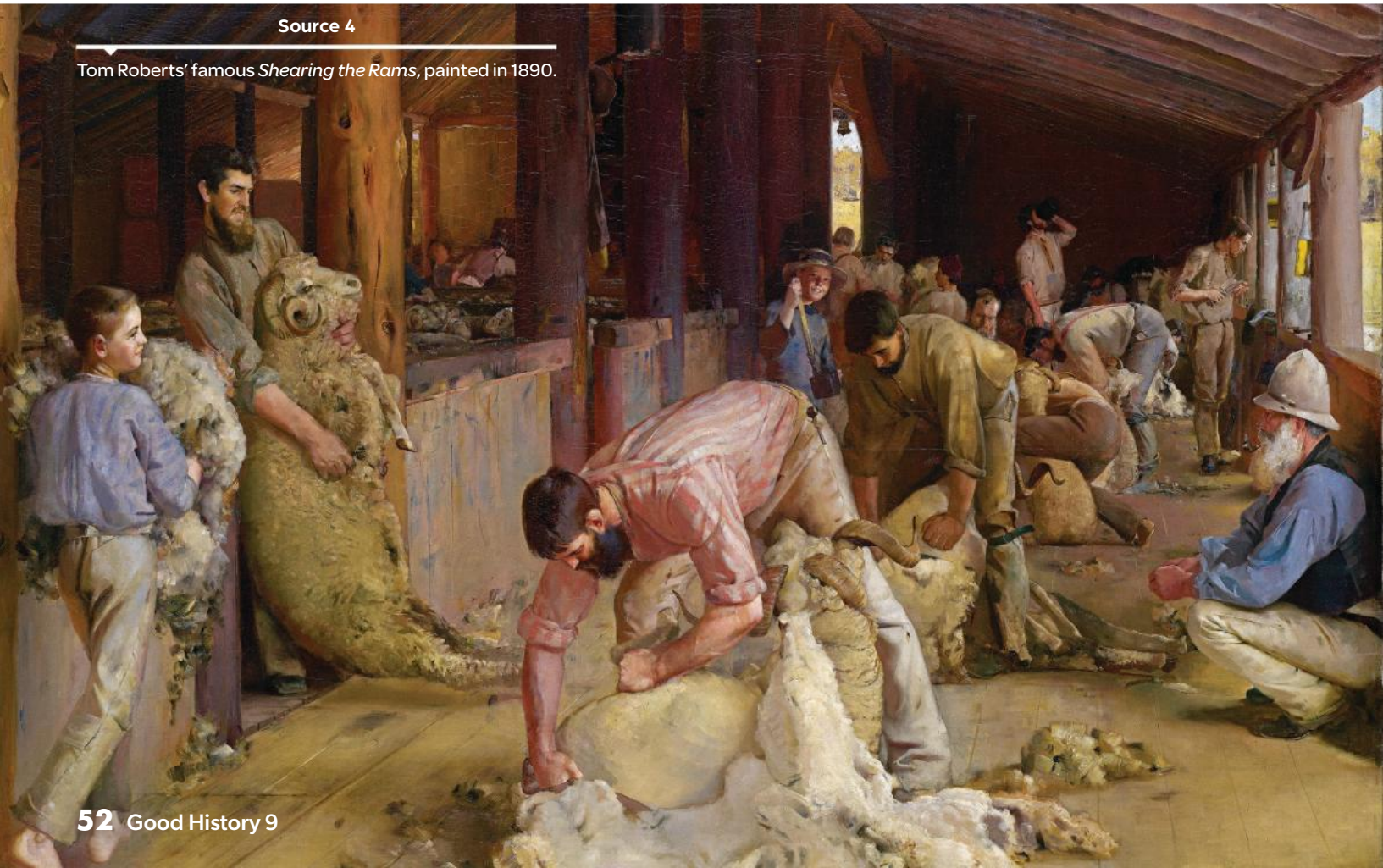
Pastoralist John Macarthur introduced merino sheep to Australia. These sheep, used to the warm climates of Spain, flourished in Australia. By 1815, Australia was exporting 30 tonnes of wool per year. By 1849, this had increased to around 14 800 tonnes. The prosperity brought by wool exports gave rise to the idiom that Australia was 'riding on the sheep's back'.

The gold rush forced sheep farmers to enclose their land, as workers sought their fortunes on the gold fields. Developments in mechanical sheep-shearing meant that, by 1887, it took just a few days to learn how to shear. These mechanical shears were powered first by steam and later by electricity.

Railways in Australia

Victoria was the first colony in Australia to open a railway line. It opened on 12 September 1854, and was a short track linking Flinders Street with Port Melbourne. The development of railways in Australia brought the same benefits to Australia that it had to Britain. Where railways went, towns prospered, and social and economic links developed between rural and urban Australia.

A national rail network was planned from 1855, but this was hampered by the fact that each colony used different gauge systems. This resulted in passengers and freight having to transfer from one train to another at state borders. It was not until 1955 that Australia's mainland interstate track was standardised. Victoria had the most developed rail network and, by 1891, 4670 kilometres of track had been constructed.



Source 4

Tom Roberts' famous *Shearing the Rams*, painted in 1890.

Source 5

Workers pressing wool into bales and stencilling them.

The 8 Hours Movement

The campaign for the eight-hour work day was a movement that started in Victoria in 1856. Stonemasons stopped work and marched to Parliament House, demanding that the work day be limited to eight hours. The government agreed to this without reducing wages.

This step forward in workers' rights, achieved without loss of wages, is the reason that Labour Day is celebrated as a public holiday. However, the concept of an eight-hour work day did not become widespread across the rest of Australia until the 1920s.

Source 6

The Eight Hours Movement Monument in Melbourne. Built in 1903, it was first located in Spring Street near the Parliament buildings before being moved in 1923 to the corner of Russell and Victoria Streets.

Learning ladder H1.12

Show what you know

1 When were steam engines first used in Australia?

2 List the reasons why local manufacturing developed quickly.

3 Describe living conditions in the Melbourne slums in the 1840s.

4 What was the 8 Hours Movement?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

5 List all the sources of power shown in Source 1.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

6 What do Sources 2 and 3 have in common? What is different about them? Explain using references to the sources.

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

7 How reliable is Source 4 as evidence of the importance of the wool industry in Australia? Provide evidence to support your answer.

Step 4: I can analyse a source

8 How useful is Source 2 as evidence of living conditions in Australia during the Industrial Revolution? Provide evidence to support your answer.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

Masterclass

Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!

Source 1

George Pinwell, 'Death's Dispensary', *Fun Magazine III,* August 18,1866

'Richard Arkwright, whose spinning machines revolutionised the manufacture of cotton, was, perhaps even more importantly, a business genius of the first order. The founder of the modern factory system, he was the creator of a new industrial society that transformed England from a nearly self-sufficient country, her economy based on agriculture and domestic manufactures, into the workshop of the world.'

Source 2

Extract from R.S. Fitton, *The Arkwrights: Spinners of Fortune,* 1989

Is this a holy thing to see,
In a rich and fruitful land,
Babes reduced to misery,
Fed with cold and usurous hand?
Is that trembling cry a song?
Can it be a song of joy?
And so many children poor?

It is a land of poverty!
And their sun does never shine.
And their fields are bleak & bare.
And their ways are fill'd with thorns.
It is eternal winter there.

Source 3

An extract from the poem 'Holy Thursday', by William Blake, *Songs of Innocence,* 1789

Step 1

a I can list specific features of a source

Identify all the details you can see in the cartoon in Source 1.

b I can describe continuity and change

How did Britain's agricultural industry change between 1750 and 1850? What aspects of the industry, if any, stayed largely the same?

c I can recognise a cause and an effect

Which of the following effects was mostly likely to have been caused by Britain's population increasing?

- Transportation became faster.
- Production became more efficient.
- Agricultural methods changed to grow/harvest more food.

d I can recognise historical significance

Place the following developments in order from most important to least important.

- Isambard Kingdom Brunel built railways lines, bridges and the first iron ships.
- James Watt's steam engine could power machines in 1781.
- Railways brought fresh foods into towns.
- Samuel Morse developed the telegraph in 1837.
- Karl Benz produced the first automobile.

e I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

Read Source 2. To what does the author attribute the Industrial Revolution?

Step 2

a I can find themes in a source

Read Source 3, 'Holy Thursday' by William Blake. What do you think the themes of the poem are?

b I can explain why something did or did not change

Why did pastoralists in Australia enclose their land?

c I can determine causes and effects

What conditions in factories caused the *Factory Act* to be passed in 1833?

Source 4

A cartoon depicting the slums of Melbourne's underbelly

d I can explain historical significance

Why was the invention of the telegraph significant for Australia?

e I can describe historical interpretations

Consider Source 2. Describe what Fitton concludes was Richard Arkwright's contribution to the Industrial Revolution.

Step 3

a I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

Look at the cartoon in Source 4. Why do you think this source was produced?

b I can explain patterns of continuity and change

Explain how the environment has changed over time because of the Industrial Revolution.

c I can explain causes and effects

Explain why the Chartist movement developed.

d I can apply a theory of significance

Consider James Hargreaves' spinning jenny.

i How important was the jenny to weavers at the time?
ii How deeply were the lives of weavers affected by this innovation?
iii Which different people would have been affected by this invention?
iv How long do you think the the effects of the spinning jenny lasted?
v Do people still use the spinning jenny today?

e I can explain historical interpretations

Consider Source 2. Why does the author think that Richard Arkwright was the creator of a new society?

Masterclass

Step 4

a I can analyse a source

How reliable is William Blake's depiction of British life in Source 3?

b I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

Why did industrialisation initially result in shorter life expectancies? How has this changed over time?

c I can analyse causes and effects

Why did Britain industrialise before other countries? Use historical evidence to support your explanation.

d I can analyse historical significance

What impact did the trade union movement in Britain have upon workers' rights in Australia?

e I can analyse historical interpretations

Source 2: Why does the author believe Arkwright was important to England's development as an industrial nation?

Step 5

a I can evaluate a source

How useful is Source 3 for studying living and working conditions in Industrial England?

b I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

What aspects of life do you think were lost by the coming of the railway age?

c I can evaluate causes and effects

How did new ideas and technological developments cause changes during the 18th and 19th centuries?

d I can evaluate historical significance

Which invention was more significant: the steam engine or the internal combustion engine? Provide evidence to support your answer.

e I can evaluate historical interpretations

In Source 2, the author suggests that Richard Arkwright was the creator of a new industrial society. To what extent do you think this is an accurate interpretation?

Historical writing

1 Structure

Imagine you are given the essay topic, 'What were the social effects of industrialisation in the 18th and 19th centuries?'. Write an essay plan for this topic. Include at least three main paragraphs.

2 Draft

Using the drafting and vocabulary suggestions on page 262, draft a 600–800 word essay (at least 30–40 sentences) responding to the topic.

3 Edit and proofread

Use the editing and proofreading tips on page 263 to help edit and proofread your draft.

Historical research

4 Organise and present information

Imagine you are completing a research project on 'Living conditions in London during the Industrial Revolution'. Write a contents page for this project. There should be an introduction, a conclusion, at least four main sections and many subsections. Number your chapters.

Capstone

How can I understand the Industrial Revolution?

In this chapter, you have learnt a lot about the Industrial Revolution. Now you can put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think.

In the world of building, a capstone is an element that finishes off an arch or tops off a building or wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting, critical and creative ways. You can complete this project yourself, or your teacher can make it a class task or a homework task.

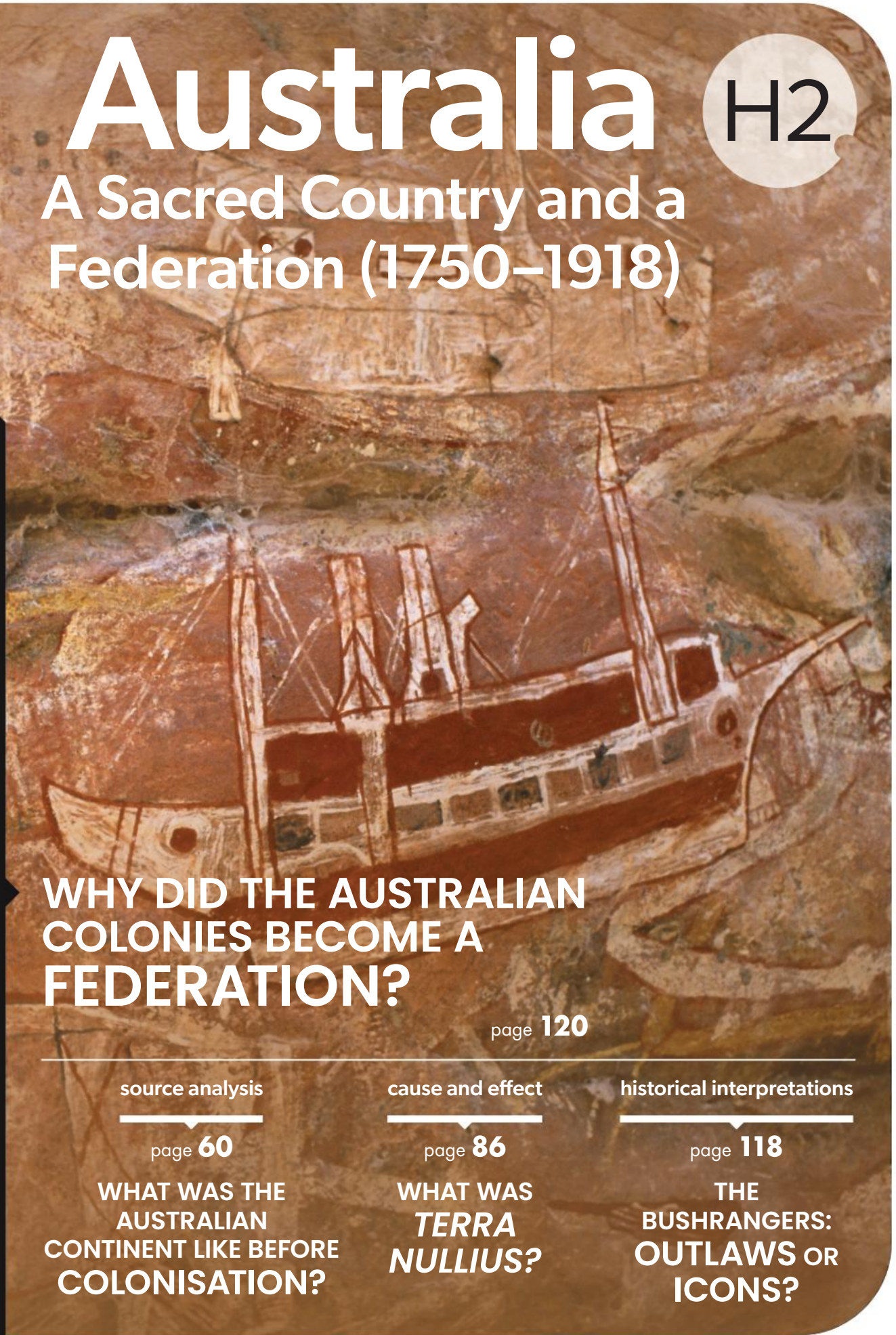
mea.digital/GHV9_H1

Scan this QR code to find the capstone project online.

Australia

H2

A Sacred Country and a Federation (1750–1918)



WHY DID THE AUSTRALIAN COLONIES BECOME A FEDERATION?

page 120

source analysis

page 60

WHAT WAS THE AUSTRALIAN CONTINENT LIKE BEFORE COLONISATION?

cause and effect

page 86

WHAT WAS *TERRA NULLIUS?*

historical interpretations

page 118

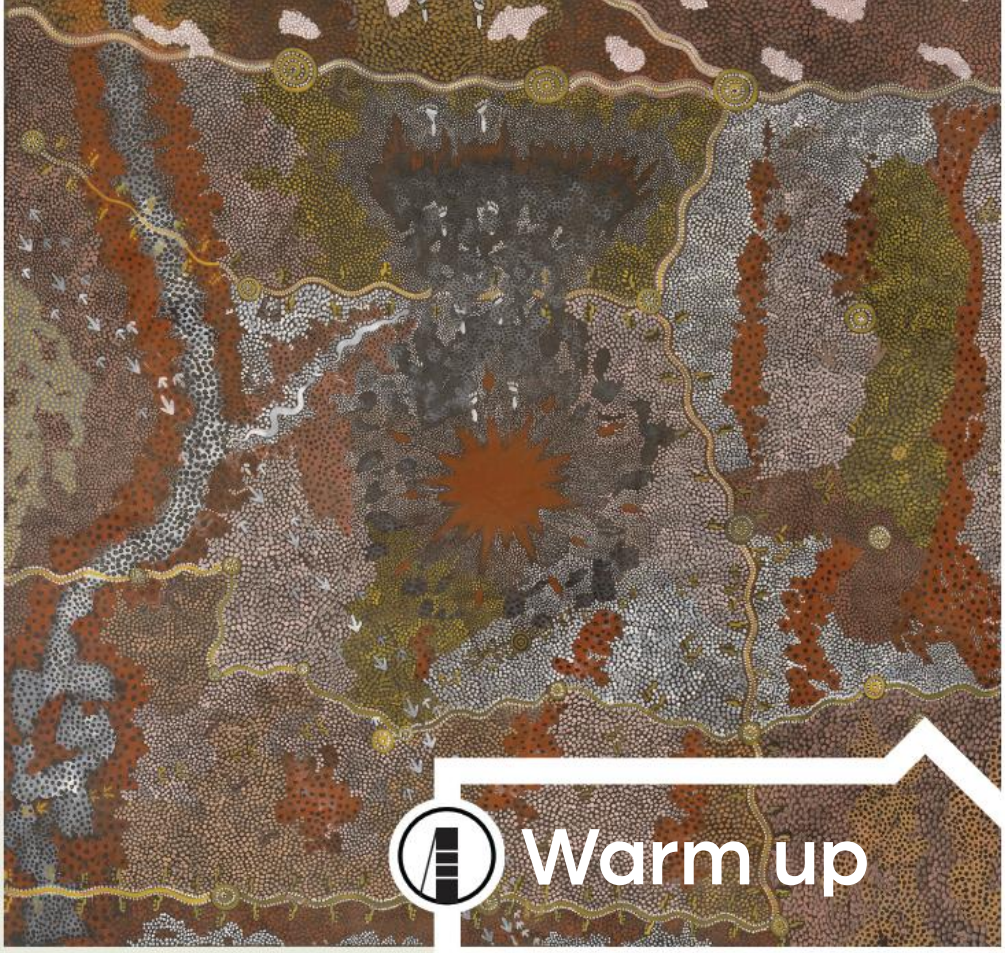
THE BUSHRANGERS: OUTLAWS OR ICONS?

How can we understand Australia?

In 1750 Australia was, as it still is, a sacred place to First Nations Peoples, who thrived in one of the most harsh and dry continents on Earth. Colonisation brought them into contact and conflict with an industrial empire undergoing massive political, economic and technological changes. The society that developed eventually became a federation. However, Australia is still dealing with the ongoing effects of colonisation today.

learning ladder

	Source analysis	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
step 5	**I can evaluate a source** I can present a judgement on the usefulness of a source based on its strengths, weaknesses and limitations. I can determine whether information is missing about the event or person the source refers to.	**I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change** I answer the question 'So what?' about patterns of continuity and change. I weigh up different aspects and debate the importance of continuity or change.	**I can evaluate causes and effects** I answer the question 'So what?' about cause and effect. I weigh up different things and debate the importance of a cause or an effect.
step 4	**I can analyse a source** I can use my own knowledge to determine the reliability of a source and can explain whether it shows a one-sided view.	**I can analyse patterns of continuity and change** I can look deeper into patterns of continuity and change and determine the factors that contribute to them.	**I can analyse causes and effects** I don't just see a cause or an effect as one thing. I can determine the factors that make up causes and effects.
step 3	**I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose** I combine knowledge of when and where a source was created to answer the question, 'Why was it created?'.	**I can explain patterns of continuity and change** I can see beyond individual examples of continuity and change between historical periods and explain broader patterns.	**I can explain causes and effects** I can answer 'How?' or 'Why?' a cause led to an effect in Australia.
step 2	**I can find themes in a source** I look a bit closer at a source and find more than just features. I find themes and patterns in a source.	**I can explain why something did or did not change** I can give a reason for why something changed or why it stayed the same.	**I can determine causes and effects** Applying what I have learned about Australia, I can describe what the cause or effect of an event was.
step 1	**I can list specific features of a source** I can look at an Australian source and list the details I can see in it.	**I can describe continuity and change** I recognise what has stayed the same and what has changed from the colonial period until now.	**I can recognise a cause and an effect** From a supplied list, I can recognise factors that were causes or effects of each other in Australian history.



Source 1

Warlugulong, 1976, by Clifford Possum Tjapaltjarri and Tim Leura Tjapaltjarri. Sacred creation stories have many layers that connect people to sacred sites including history, law, lore, spirituality and culture.

This painting depicts a number of the sacred stories of the Anmatyerr people, including stories about the Creation Spirit Lungkata, the blue-tongue lizard man, creating the first big fire. Another story shown here is that of Lungkata's sons, who broke customary law by not sharing their hunted kangaroo with him and were burned.

Warm up

I can evaluate historical significance
I answer the question 'So what?' about things that are supposedly important in the history of Australia. I weigh up factors against one another and can cast doubt on how important things are.

I can analyse historical significance
I can separate the various factors that make something historically important in the history of Australia.

I can apply a theory of significance
I know a theory of significance. I use it to rank importance of changes, causes, effects and events in the history of Australia.

I can explain historical significance
I answer the question 'Why?' about what was important in Australian history.

I can recognise historical significance
When shown a list of facts about Australian history, I can work out which are important.

I can evaluate historical interpretations
I can weigh up the different historical interpretations that have been formed. I debate and challenge the interpretations that have presented.

I can analyse historical interpretations
I can determine the factors that have led to why a historical interpretation has been formed.

I can explain historical interpretations
I can answer 'Why?' or 'How?' there are different interpretations of people and events in the past.

I can describe historical interpretations
I can provide different examples to show how people and events in the past have been interpreted.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways
I can identify different views of people and events in the past.

Historical significance

Historical interpretations

Source analysis

1 Source 1: What different perspectives does *Warlugulong* present as a historical source?

Continuity and change

2 Source 1: How does the painting, its story and its current context reflect aspects of continuity and change?

Cause and effect

3 Source 1: What was the result of Lungkata's sons' behaviour?

Historical significance

4 Consider a historically significant event in Australia's history. Is this event changing in significance as society's values shift? If so, how and for whom?

Historical interpretations

5 Source 1: What does the event described show about Lungkata? What does it show about his sons' views? What could be the message or teaching within the source and the lore associated with it?

PART I: A SACRED COUNTRY (1750–1770)

What was the Australian continent like before colonisation?

The Australian landscape in 1750 was rugged yet beautiful. Much of the land was arid and unyielding. The country was sacred to the First Nations Peoples of Australia, and they managed it sustainably.

The First Nations Peoples of Australia, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, were highly skilled in dealing with environmental challenges. These included significant droughts, fires and floods.

In recent years, new evidence has shown that First Nations Peoples had semi-permanent residences, economic trade routes, technology, and land-management and food-production methods. Many historians now recognise that 18th-century First Nations Peoples were advanced cultures with considerable populations.

The search for the great southern land

In 150 CE, Ptolemy of Alexandria proposed that there was a hypothetical *terra australis nondum cognita*, a 'great unknown southern land'. The European quest for a mythical 'great southern continent' began in earnest when Captain Luis Váez de Torres sailed the Torres Strait in 1606.

Many European nations searched the Pacific Ocean for the southern continent. Some reached Australia, and attempted to claim or **annex** portions of the land on behalf of their nations. Ultimately, the British colonised the land and displaced its original inhabitants.

Source 1

First Nations Peoples' land management

Source 2

First Nations Peoples' food production included using eel traps to harvest eels.

key ideas timeline.

For more than 65 000 years, First Nations Peoples inhabit the land.

Evidence of First Nations Peoples' history includes:
- semi-permanent residences
- land management
- food-production methods.

1606

Luis Váez de Torres (Spanish) lands on the Islands and Strait that still bear his name

Willem Janszoon (Dutch) lands on the Gulf of Carpentaria

1616

Dirk Hartog (Dutch) lands on the west coast of Australia and leaves an engraved pewter plate

Source 3

The beautiful Australian outback is also subject to extreme weather, making it tough for those who do not know Country.

Language matters

In the past, historians used words such as *settled*, *settlement* and *settler* to describe the British occupation of Australia. These words gloss over the way in which the land was taken from the First Nations Peoples. Modern historians prefer words such as *colonist* and *invader*, which acknowledge violence and **dispossession**.

Historians also use the word **genocide** to describe the experience of First Nations Peoples of Australia. Genocide is defined by the United Nations as any of these five acts directed towards a national, ethnic, racial or religious group:

- killing members of the group
- causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group
- deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction
- imposing measures intended to prevent births
- forcibly transferring children.

Source: Longman & Co.

Source 4

Van Diemen's Land, present-day Tasmania. Created by Sidney Hall in 1828.

1642–1644
Abel Tasman (Dutch) names Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), claiming it as part of Nieuw Holland (New Holland)

1688
William Dampier (British) camps at Karrakatta Bay near Broome

1699
William Dampier (British) lands where Hartog did, renaming it Shark Bay

1770–1771
James Cook (British) lands at Botany Bay. Cook incorrectly declares Australia as *terra nullius*.

Learning ladder H2.1

Show what you know

1 How did the name 'Australia' originate?

2 What words are now used instead of *settled, settlement* or *settler*, and why?

3 Hypothesise why many European nations searched for the 'great southern land'.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

4 Source 3: List the natural features on this image that point to it being both 'rugged and unyielding' and able to sustain life.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

5 Source 1: How would an intimate knowledge of the land enable survival?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

6 Consider the nationalities of explorers on the timeline. Which countries were involved in trying to name, claim and colonise Australia?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

7 Consider the United Nations' definition of 'genocide'. Why is the forcible transfer of children a form of genocide?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

What were the cultures of First Nations Peoples?

Millennia before Europeans set foot on the continent of Australia, the First Nations Peoples had clearly defined political, social and legal structures. Their unique traditions of time, history and sacred stories are the oldest on Earth.

Source 1

This engraved drawing, *New Hollanders*, is the earliest known European image of Australia's First Nations Peoples, the Bardi, in a 1698 edition of the explorer William Dampier's journal.

Political and legal structures

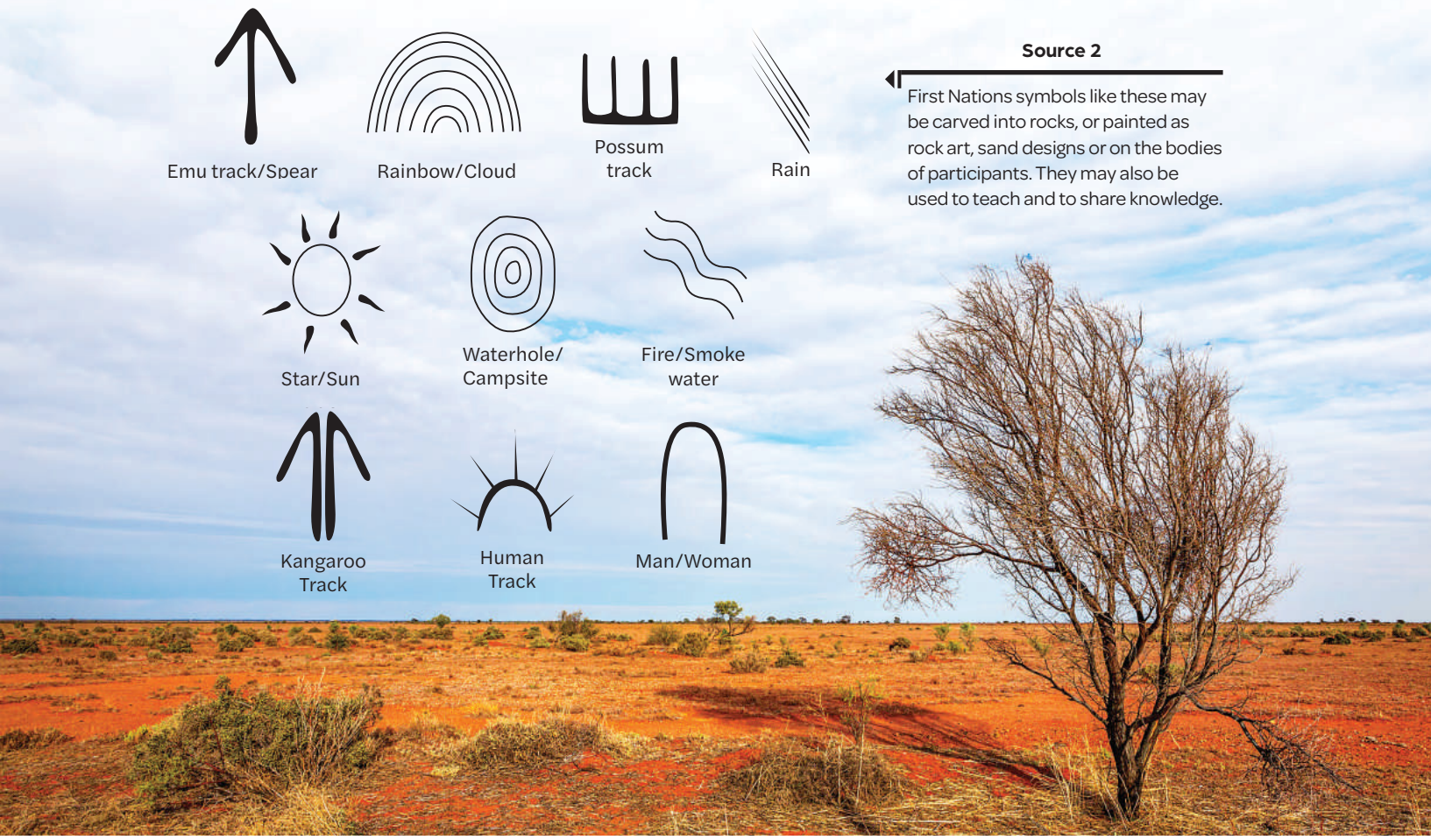
European explorers in the 1770s found the cultures of the First Nations Peoples of Australia to have complex political, social and legal structures. However, the enormous diversity First Nations People – more than 500 at the time of European contact – means that generalisations can oversimplify the complexity these structures.

In addition, some concepts of time, law and social conduct are considered by First Nations Peoples to be sacred. They can only be shared with the initiated, and cannot be described in a textbook.

Australia's pre-colonial population

In the 1930s, English anthropologist A.R. Radcliffe-Browne estimated Australia's First Nations Peoples' population before 1770 to be 300 000. In the 1980s, historian Noel Butlin revised this estimate to 1 000 000 people in total. Both scholars indicate that, after colonisation, the First Nations population dropped by as much as 96 per cent by the 1920s.

This drastic reduction in population followed similar patterns to when the Spanish and Portuguese conquistadors came into contact with the Indigenous peoples of the American continents, bringing with them diseases, massacres and coerced assimilation.



Source 2

First Nations symbols like these may be carved into rocks, or painted as rock art, sand designs or on the bodies of participants. They may also be used to teach and to share knowledge.

Social structures

The nation and clan social structures of the First Nations Peoples of Australia are generally based on a three-part system of kinship, involving **moiety**, **totem** and **skin name**.

- Moiety is a system of dividing the community into groups that reflect environmental, regional, matrilineal (through the mother), patrilineal (through the father) and generational factors. Such generations hark back through time to ancestors and Creation Spirits.
- Totem includes national, clan, family and personal factors. Apart from personal factors, totems are inherited and members are accountable to them.
- Skin name relates to a person's genetic matrilineal or patrilineal lines. Each generation in a community is given a number, which increases over time until reaching a maximum, after which it cycles back to the beginning again.

This elaborate kinship system had laws preventing people with certain totems and skin names from marrying one another, as they were considered siblings. This ensured the continuing genetic health of the community.

Men's and Women's Business

A Council of Elders from respective genders initiate, teach and regulate spiritual and legal matters, called **Men's** and **Women's Business**. Elders still perform this vital community role today, and are called 'Uncles' and 'Aunties'. The Council would also discuss general community business. Heads of Families have significant leadership roles in keeping order within clans and families, negotiating with Elders and other heads in disputes.

Legal structure

Spiritual and legal matters were (and sometimes still are) handled by people of authority, known as Elders or Heads of Family. The system of Aboriginal Customary Law (ACL) is still practised by some of Australia's First Nations Peoples today, and the Koori Courts are a recognised part of the Victorian legal system.

Concepts of time

According to First Nations Peoples, time is circular. History is not fixed but is in flux, and is something that moves across the past, present and future. Furthermore, in First Nations cultures, a re-enactment of an event might be perceived to be the same as the original event. This means that the past can be experienced in the present moment. This circularity can be seen in the narrative structure of sacred lore, and can affect whether events are seen as significant.

Oral history traditions rely on consistency. An initiated person telling a sacred story must tell it the same way every time, or they will be corrected by a group of Elders, who were told the story by their Elders in turn.

Source 3

Dancers performing a traditional story-based dance at the Laura Dance Festival.

For example, a ritual dance of a brolga at a Men's Business corroboree:

- may be learned, after initiation, to perfection
- may link the dancer back to ancestors who performed the same chants and dances
- may link the performer and even the viewer to the ancestral Creation Spirit, who may take the form of a brolga in some sacred stories.

The Mabo decision

In 1992, the High Court of Australia acknowledged that Eddie Mabo (an Ailan Pasin/Torres Strait Islander man) and his people could exercise their traditional land claims under Ailan Pasin laws. The court reviewed evidence from the First Nations People of Mer that they had lived in the islands for thousands of years in established villages and had a defined social and leadership structure.

The key aspect of the Mabo decision was the articulation of the Torres Strait laws of inheritance on the islands. This established a clearly defined understanding of sovereign ownership of the land, acknowledging that First Nations Peoples were and continued to be the owners of their lands.

Learning ladder H2.2

Show what you know

1 In First Nations societies, who is in charge and what are they in charge of?

2 Which kinship systems exist in your culture? What information do they reveal?

3 Consider Sources 2 and 3. How do First Nations Peoples record and perform historical events?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

4 What aspects of the Mabo decision made it such a landmark case?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

5 What are the different ways that oral histories can be explained from both First Nations' and European perspectives?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

6 How does First Nations Peoples' understanding of time differ from the European understanding of time?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

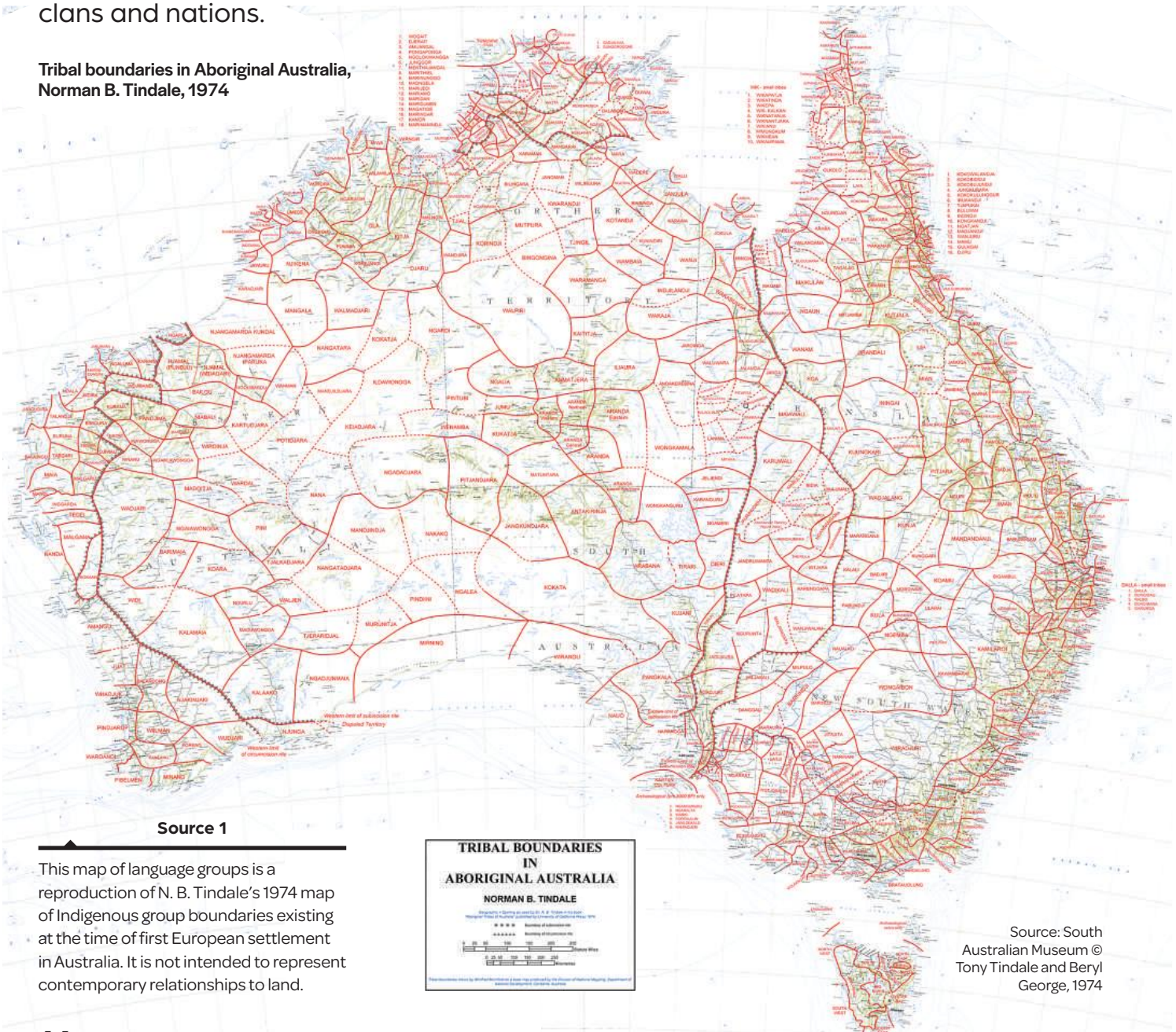
7 What can the size of the First Nations Peoples' population before and after Europeans came to Australia tell us about colonisation?

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

What can language reveal about the First Nations Peoples of Australia?

Language is closely linked to identity, both for individuals and for a nation as a whole. The First Nations Peoples of Australia use language groups to define their clans and nations.

Tribal boundaries in Aboriginal Australia, Norman B. Tindale, 1974



Source 1

This map of language groups is a reproduction of N. B. Tindale's 1974 map of Indigenous group boundaries existing at the time of first European settlement in Australia. It is not intended to represent contemporary relationships to land.

Source: South Australian Museum © Tony Tindale and Beryl George, 1974

Lieutenant William Dawes, an officer in the original British colony of New South Wales, was one of the most learned British colonists regarding the local Aboriginal languages. He learned the Dharuk (sometimes spelled Dharug or Darug) language primarily from Patyegarang, a 15-year-old girl of the Eora nation.

Dawes' *Notebooks on the Aboriginal Language of Sydney (1790–1791)* are some of the first written records of a First Nations language, and represent a genuine attempt by a *berewalgal* (Eora word for the English/European colonists) to understand the 29 clans of the Eora nation of Warrane/Warrang (Port Jackson/Sydney Cove).

Language is one of the living artefacts of the places colonised by the British and other empires. A number of First Nations Peoples' words became part of the new colonial identity and are still used today in Australian English.

A great deal of research has been done on the languages, trade borders and connections between First Nations Peoples. A study from 1988–1994 shows that there is no universal agreement on the borders of the language groups and nations. First Nations Peoples often knew several languages for diplomatic and economic purposes. Knowledge of different tribal languages was important for trade, sacred purposes and the application of Aboriginal Customary Law.

Source 2

Some of William Dawes' translations of Dharuk terms, from his *Notebooks on the Aboriginal Language of Sydney (1790–1791)*

Recorded Dharuk	Dawes' English translations
Be-re-wal-gal	The name given to us by the natives (berewal = a great distance off)
Booroodel, Maugoran	Booroong says these people are unfriendly to us.
Booroowunne	The name of a male stranger
Carreweer	The name of a female stranger
Dje-ra-bar, Je-rab-ber	The Natives frequently called us by the name they give the musket.

Source 3

Several everyday terms originally stemmed from First Nations Peoples' languages.

English	Dharuk today	Meaning
Corroboree	Garriberri	Dancing event
Dingo	Dingu	Dog
Cooee	Guwawi	Call of location
Waratah	Warada	Type of flower

Learning ladder H2.3

Show what you know

1 When did William Dawes create his notebooks about the First Nations languages around Sydney?

2 Source 2: What do the Dharuk words given to the British and European colonists indicate about an Indigenous understanding of the colonists or invaders?

3 Dawes was an engineer of Port Jackson's military defences, and an astronomer. How might knowledge of First Nations Peoples have helped him in these roles?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

4 What do you notice about Source 1? What information does it convey?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

5 Source 1: Why do the sizes of the territories vary and what might this indicate about the sustainability of the land?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

6 Given its features and limitations, what might be the purpose of the map in Source 1? (You may need to do further research into its creation.)

Step 4: I can analyse a source

7 Given the number of nations shown on Source 1, why is it difficult to make generalisations about Australia's First Nations Peoples?

Source analysis, page 240

HOW TO

H2.4

What were the economic structures of the First Nations of Australia?

Some of the First Nations Peoples of Australia operated on the basis that spirituality, lore, laws, Country and people are interconnected. For these communities, it is almost meaningless to apply terms like 'economy'. However, some travelled via trade routes to exchange goods and enact law at gatherings such as corroborees.

Economics involves the production, consumption and transfer of wealth, such as in the exchange of goods and services. The Anangu people of the Northern Territory instead have the concept of 'Tjukurpa', where the land, soil, vegetation, waterways, animals and people are interrelated. Tjukurpa means that no one can own part of the system, making the concept of economics irrelevant.

However, we can apply the concept of economics to Australia's pre-colonial societies if we consider it more broadly. 'Wealth' can be defined as being well fed and fit, sustainably managing food resources and enhancing or increasing food sources. We can also look at how goods, food and materials were exchanged.

Source 1

Bogong moths were one of the seasonal food sources of First Nations Peoples.

Gatherings

Many sacred sites are close to water and have a good supply of food. As such, these places were carefully maintained and used to maximise agricultural production. The seasonal production and migrations of food sources, such as eels and bogong moths, enabled large gatherings of people to occur. Such gatherings often coincided with ceremonies, the trade of goods, marriages and applications of customary law.

Trade and exchange

The exchange of goods is a basic function of economics, and there is evidence that pre-colonial First Nations Peoples traded rare items such as granite chips (to make small tools), ochre (for body and rock art) and preserved foods (such as smoked eel).

A number of trade routes existed across Australia, often crossing tribal borders known as 'songlines'. Trade might occur between individuals, within a clan or at large gatherings.

Willem Janszoon (Dutch, 1604), Jan Carstenzoon (Dutch, 1623) and James Cook (British, 1770–1771) all attempted to trade with local people, but were often met with resistance or evasiveness. When First Nations Peoples at Cape York tried to trade for muskets and other items, the Europeans refused and in some cases attempted to kidnap Indigenous men. Such actions earned Europeans various names meaning 'devils' in different languages and dialects of the Cape.

Health and wellbeing

Colonists observed that the First Nations Peoples of Australia were well fed, fitter and probably healthier than their European counterparts. After just 3 or 4 hours of effort, First Nations People could secure as much food as a European worker over 10–12 hours.

'From what I have said of the Natives of New Holland they may appear to be to some to be the most wretched people upon Earth, but in reality they are far more happier than we Europeans; being wholly unacquainted not only with the superfluous but the necessary Conveniences so much sought after in Europe, they are happy in not knowing the use of them. They live in a Tranquillity which is not disturbed by Inequality of Condition: The Earth and sea of their own accord furnishes them with all things necessary for life, they covet not Magnificent Houses, Household-stuff &c, they live in a warm and fine Climate and enjoy a very wholesome Air, so that they have little need of Clothing and this they seem to be fully sensible of, for many to whom we gave Cloth &c to, left it carelessly upon the Sea beach and in the woods as a thing they had no manner of use for. In short they seem'd to set no Value upon any thing we gave them, nor would they ever part with anything of their own for any one article we could offer them; this in my opinion argues that they think themselves provided with all the necessarys of Life and that they have no superfluities.'

Source 2

Extract from James Cook's Journal of HMS *Endeavour*, 1768–1771. [Text is verbatim and includes grammatical errors]

When Cook tried to trade with the First Nations Peoples, he was unsuccessful. Language barriers prevented him from trading during initial interactions. Later attempts were foiled, as on each occasion the First Nations evaded Cook and his party.

Source 3

Eels being wrapped in leaves and paper bark, ready to be smoked and preserved. Smoked eels were one of the goods traded by First Nations Peoples at gatherings such as corroborees.

Learning ladder H2.4

Show what you know

1 What does 'economics' mean?

2 Why does Cook say the First Nations Peoples of Australia may appear to some to be 'wretched' in Source 2? Do you think this was an accurate description? Why or why not?

3 Hypothesise what the 'Conveniences' might be that Cook refers to in his journals.

4 Why didn't the First Nations Peoples accept the Europeans' gifts or trade with them?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

5 How does a European understanding of economics apply to the First Nations societies of Australia?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

6 Why does Cook describe his own society using negative terms such as 'Inequality of Condition'?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

7 What do Cook's descriptions of the First Nations societies of Australia reveal about his own attitudes and biases?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

8 Why did Cook and other European explorers view the food consumption and health of First Nations Peoples as indicators of wealth, and a determinant of whether land was worthy of colonising?

HOW TO Historical interpretations, page 255

Were the First Nations Peoples the first Australian farmers?

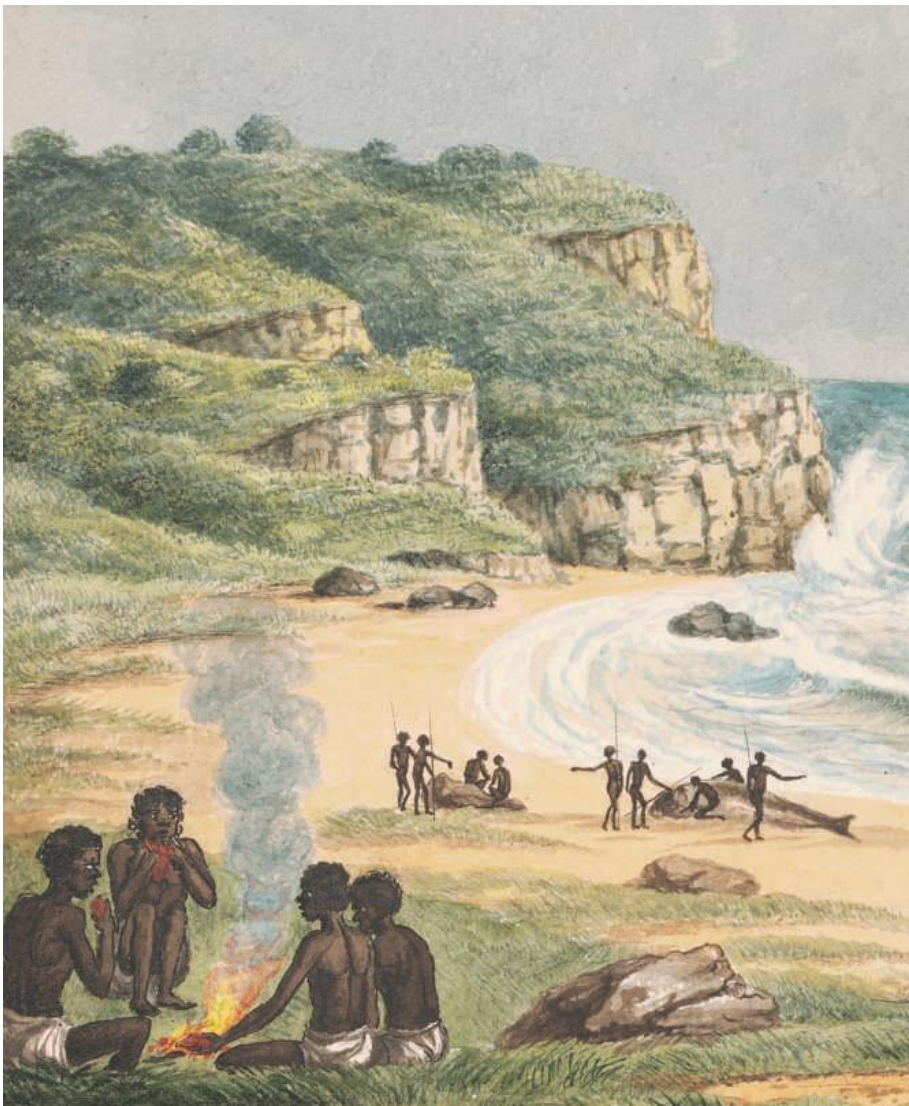
European explorers described the First Nations Peoples of Australia as nomads and hunter-gatherers. This inaccurate description was used to justify the claim that Australia was *terra nullius* – an uninhabited land. In fact, recent analysis of explorers' journals and colonial artworks show that First Nations Peoples had semi-permanent residences, used complex techniques to increase food production and built structures similar to silos to store food.

Seasonal villages and food production

The Wadawurrung people of Victoria lived in groups of hundreds of people – as large as villages in Industrial Revolution England – on a seasonal or semi-permanent basis. These large groups engineered weirs and dams, built grain storage facilities, and planted grain and *murnong* (yam daisy) fields.

The seasonal abundance of certain foods allowed societies to trade food and hold ceremonies, as there was enough food to feed a large number of people. The timing of large gatherings, including cultural and spiritual events, hinged on the abundance of foods such as yams, Bogong moths and eels, which were trapped in weirs and then smoked to preserve them.

Some explorers also noticed structures that resembled silos, which were used to store grain or other food. The archaeological evidence of pulverised grains on grindstones, animal remains and ochre from 32 000 years ago are some of the oldest evidence of baking technology in the world.



Source 1

The fish traps at Brewarrina.

Dating Australia's First Nations sites

The oldest First Nations site to be dated is in the Northern Territory at Madjedbebe, which shows a range of 50 000 to 60 000 years of occupation.

Measurements such as this are often done using radiocarbon dating, which measures radioactive decay of isotopes within an organic item. However, it has a limit of around 50 000 years. To investigate an object's age beyond this limit, a method called optically stimulated luminescence can date the soil around an object to 100 000 years.

These methods can be used together to validate or check each other.

Source 2

Joseph Lycett, *Aboriginal People Cooking and Eating Beached Whales* (1817). This painting shows the food-gathering practices of the Awabakal and Worimi people of Muloobinba (later Newcastle).

Bush tucker

'Bush tucker' is a modern phrase used to describe Australia's native edible plants and (in some cases) animals. One of the rules of collecting bush tucker is not to take all the plants, but to leave some behind so you know exactly where to look for such plants in future seasons. A traditional story may tell the lore of the location and how to collect it. These stories may be painted, told, danced and chanted.

Source 3

Plants such as quandong, desert fig, pencil yam, black wattle and ruby saltbush are still enjoyed as bush tucker.

In the Northern Territory, some rock art serves not just spiritual but also practical purposes, such as showing the location of the nearest water source, or providing a 'menu' of animals to hunt and plants to gather in the area. Some of these rock art menus have been used by archaeologists and environmental scientists to judge how and when habitats changed. The depiction of certain animals, which lived in habitats that no longer exist, show what the place was like in the past.

Dingo or cattle dog?

Debates about the modern dingo often link it to wolves and domesticated dogs. However, *Canis dingo* has recently been identified as a separate species of animal by zoologists analysing historical samples.

Source 4

The thylacine or Tasmanian tiger (below) is believed to have been made extinct on the mainland by the dingo (right), and on Tasmania by humans who hunted it for its distinctive fur.

Dingoes can be trained, and there is evidence from the stories of First Nations Peoples that they assisted in hunting by 'rounding up' prey.

Most likely introduced to Australia around 4000 years ago, dingoes are thought to have preyed upon both thylacines (Tasmanian tigers) and Tasmanian devils, driving them to extinction on the mainland. As dingoes were not introduced to Tasmania, the thylacine survived there until the middle of the 20th century.

Source 5

This 1817 painting by Joseph Lycett, a former bank forger, shows First Nations People using firesticks to flush out animals for hunting.

Firestick farming

Archaeological evidence shows that First Nations Peoples deliberately enhanced the productivity of their land through 'firestick farming', or 'cold burning', which involved burning the undergrowth of forests. This practice is still used by Indigenous rangers to manage Country.

These practices reduced the amount of fuel available for bushfires in the hottest months, preventing catastrophic firestorms. They also created more hunting grounds, flushed out animals to hunt and increased the productivity of the land. Some native plants actually require fire to release their seeds or to sprout, so fires were lit in order to increase their abundance.

Australia is a dry country, but early colonial artists often depicted the landscape as lush and green. For many years, these landscapes were interpreted as representing the artist's romantic longing for home while living in an unfamiliar land. However, historian Bill Gammage challenged these interpretations in 2012. He argued that the painters were accurately depicting the abundant pastures created by successful Indigenous land management, including the use of firestick farming.

Learning ladder H2.5

Show what you know

1 What technologies enhanced the regularity and collection of food for First Nations Peoples?

2 How does firestick farming work, and what dangers did firestick farming prevent?

3 What unique features of the dingo assisted Australia's First Nations Peoples?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

4 What does Source 2 depict the Awabakal and Worimi people doing? What does it show about the environment around Muloobinba (later Newcastle)?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

5 Source 1:. How do the fish and eel traps help the people? Is this hunting, gathering or farming?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

6 Source 2: A beached whale could feed large numbers of people. What other cultural purposes could a gathering such as this serve?

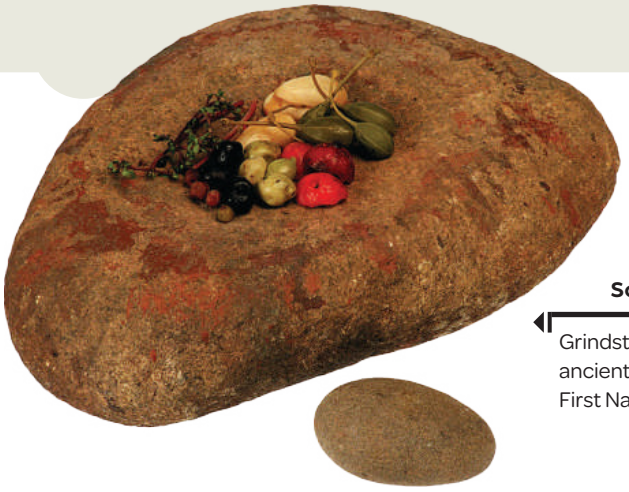
Step 4: I can analyse a source

7 What does Australia look like in the early pastoral image shown in Source 5? What land-management techniques and hunting technologies are being used?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

What technologies did First Nations Peoples develop in Australia?

As well as developing sophisticated farming and food-production methods, First Nations Peoples created stone tools, weapons, navigation techniques and bush medicines.



Source 1

Grindstone used by ancient Australian First Nations Peoples

Stone tools

For tens of thousands of years, First Nations Peoples used countless large and small tool-making traditions. At the time Europeans arrived on the continent, First Nations Peoples were making many different tools from the flakes of hard stones.

Small stones were quarried and traded over long distances, and were 'hafted' (attached as handles) to spears and axe handles using resins (such as heated spinifex resin). This was a careful use of a precious resource; rather than hammering chips from one big stone to make just a few tools, this technique allowed people to make multiple tools from a single stone.

First Nations Peoples also developed an extension for the throwing ends of their spears. The woomera is a device that makes throwing easier when attached to a spear. It catapults spears beyond the distance of mere hand throwing, and greatly increases speed and accuracy.

Source 2

A woomera is a device that extends the arm for throwing a spear. The nodule at the end fitted into the butt of the spear like a 'ball and socket' joint.

Source 3

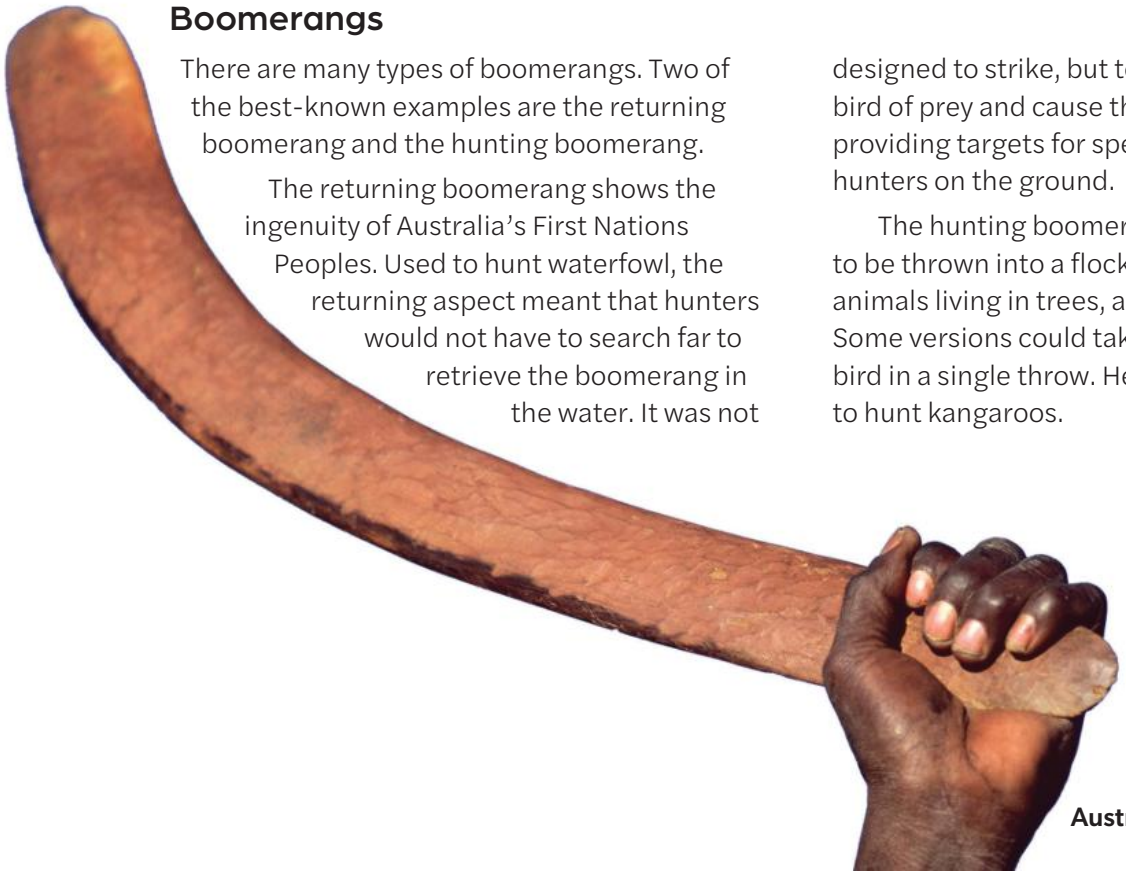
How to use a woomera to throw a spear. The extension of the thrower's arm by the woomera significantly extends the range of the weapon when it is released.

Boomerangs

There are many types of boomerangs. Two of the best-known examples are the returning boomerang and the hunting boomerang.

The returning boomerang shows the ingenuity of Australia's First Nations Peoples. Used to hunt waterfowl, the returning aspect meant that hunters would not have to search far to retrieve the boomerang in the water. It was not designed to strike, but to simulate the flight of a bird of prey and cause the waterfowl to take flight, providing targets for spears and stones for other hunters on the ground.

The hunting boomerang was designed to be thrown into a flock of birds, or at other animals living in trees, and strike them down. Some versions could take down more than one bird in a single throw. Heavier versions were used to hunt kangaroos.



Source 4

The hunting boomerang, which does not return, was designed to be thrown into a flock of birds. The longer end of the boomerang could hit multiple birds, stunning or killing them.

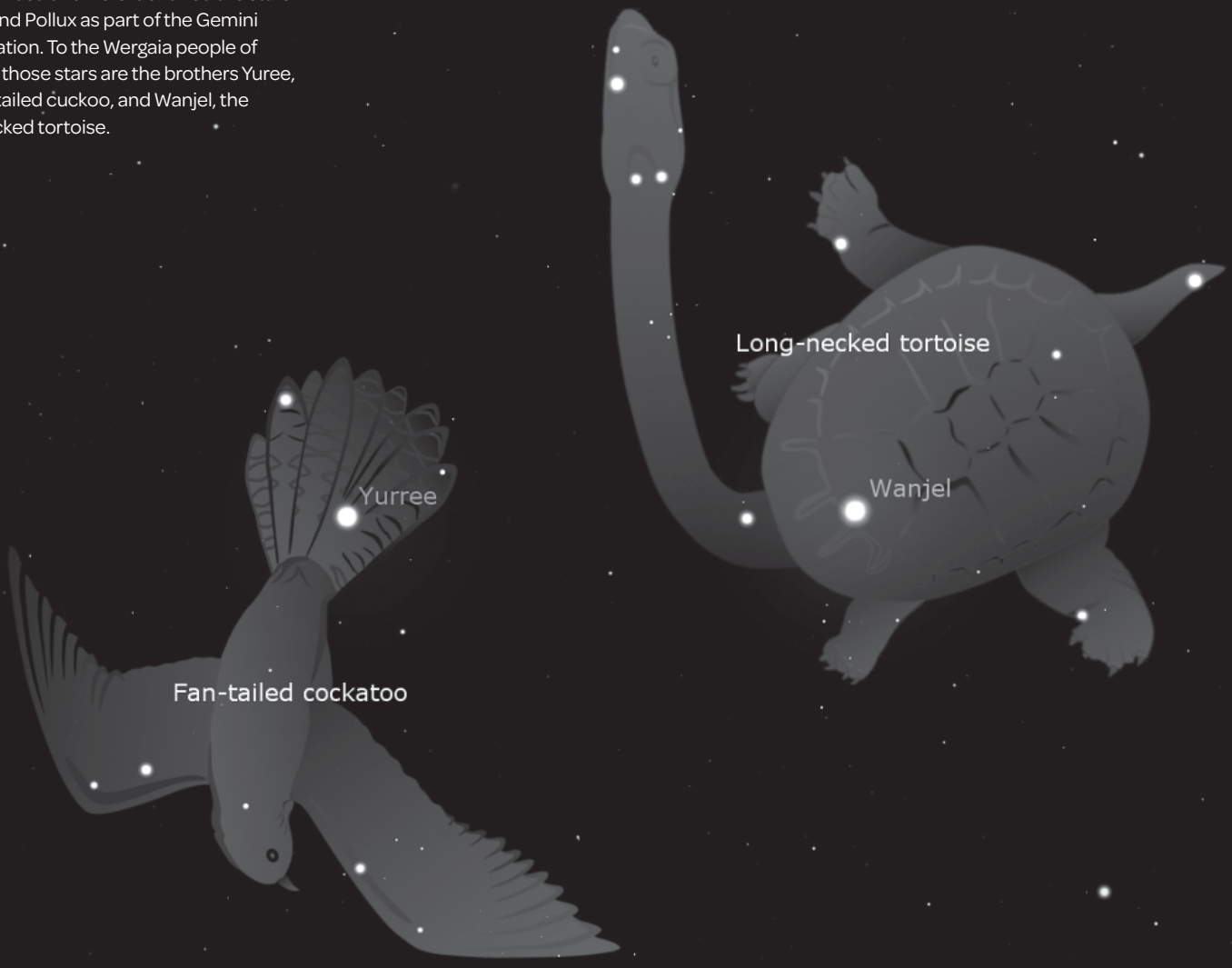
Navigation techniques

For millenia, people have used the positions of the stars to find where they are. Travellers also used the stars to work out the direction they needed to travel, particularly in areas devoid of landmarks, such as deserts and seas.

The First Nations Peoples of Australia used star maps to safely cross the 10 major deserts of Australia when travelling along their trade routes, as well as to pilot boats through the Torres Strait and across the Indonesian archipelago. Songs about constellations safely led people across their sacred country, and each nation, language group and clan may have named certain constellations according to their sacred lore.

Source 5

European astronomers identified the stars Castor and Pollux as part of the Gemini constellation. To the Wergaia people of Victoria, those stars are the brothers Yuree, the fan-tailed cuckoo, and Wanjel, the long-necked tortoise.



Toxic plant harvesting and bush medicine

Macrozamia cycad is a plant with a highly toxic seed and kernel. First Nations Peoples safely removed the toxins from this valuable food source, using methods such as washing the plant over a week in a woven basket or letting mould process the poison. The food yield in carbohydrates, protein and calories was significant and worth the effort taken to harvest it.

First Nations Peoples knew about the toxicity and the medicinal uses of a variety of plants, insects and venoms. For example:

- ant jaws could be used to close skin wounds, acting like stitches or sutures
- tea-tree billabong bathing assisted with skin conditions like psoriasis
- certain plants were made into tinctures, ointments, poultices and drinks.

Modern pharmaceutical companies are now researching many First Nations medicines. First Nations Peoples also knew how to set broken bones, preventing gangrene and potential limb amputation.

Source 6

First Nations Peoples' methods allowed them to safely harvest and eat *macrozamia cycad* while avoiding its poisons.

Learning ladder H2.6

Show what you know

1 What does Source 1 reveal about First Nations Peoples' societies and their technology?

2 What technological innovation was added to the spear? What advantages did this give to the thrower?

3 Describe two types of boomerangs and what they were used for.

4 How would a navigator use Source 5? What would you need to know to do so?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 Describe some medical knowledge that the First Nations Peoples of Australia have shared.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 How and why have European uses and applications of boomerangs changed since colonisation? Research one current use as an example.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 What do stone tool cultures indicate about technology and social changes in response to environmental changes?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 Which First Nations medicines are available at your local pharmacy? What does this suggest about the variety and uses of bush medicine?

Continuity and change, page 244

HOW TO

H2.7

What interactions did First Nations Peoples have with other cultures?

The arrival of the British had a massive and lasting impact on the First Nations Peoples of Australia, but they were far from the first foreigners to visit Australia. Ailan Pasin ('island custom') or Torres Strait Islander peoples, Indonesian traders and other European explorers interacted with the First Nations long before the British did.

Torres Strait Islander peoples

The Torres Strait is the region of ocean between Australia and the large island of Papua New Guinea, around 150 kilometres north of Cape York. There are more than 250 small islands in the Strait, many of which have been inhabited for more than 2000 years.

Far further back in history, when sea levels were lower, an extensive land bridge existed between Cape York, Papua New Guinea and Indonesia, which made it much easier for people and wildlife to move between Australia and the islands. The land bridge submerged over 8000 years ago, because of rising sea levels.

Thanks to the land bridge and the ease of travel between the islands, the Torres Strait Islander peoples have interacted with the First Nations Peoples of northern Australia for thousands of years. These neighbouring cultures learned and borrowed from each other while retaining their own identity, customs and social structures.

Source 1

Many First Nations Peoples and Torres Strait Islander peoples consider themselves to be connected through ties of blood, kinship and history.

Source 2

Rock art at Malarrak, in the Wellington Range, Western Arnhem Land. This rare depiction of a building could be a Makassan smokehouse, used to cure *trepang*.

Indonesians

Fishermen from the Makassar region of Indonesia began visiting the northwestern regions of Australia centuries ago – perhaps in 1750, perhaps earlier. These fishermen were *trepangers*, meaning that they harvested *trepangs*, the aquatic animals also known as sea cucumbers.

The Makassans interacted with the Yolngu people of the region. Evidence suggests that they traded materials such as cloth, metal, rice and canoes with the Yolngu in exchange for the right to gather sea cucumbers from the local waters. These interactions were recorded in Yolngu songs, stories and dances, and some Makassarese words made their way into the Yolngu language. However, recent historical research suggests that these interactions were not always peaceful, and that violent conflicts occurred when Yolngu groups felt they were being exploited.

Contact between the Makassans and Australia's First Nations Peoples continued for hundreds of years, and did not end until the Australian government passed restrictive policies in 1906.

European explorers

Ever since the ancient mathematician Ptolemy of Alexandria proposed a 'great unknown southern land' in 150 CE, Europeans believed that a southern continent lay waiting to be explored. The European search for the great southern continent began in earnest when Captain Luis Váez de Torres sailed the northern Torres Strait in mid-1606.

A few months before Torres, on 26 February 1606, Willem Janszoon accidentally landed on the northern coastline, becoming the first European to visit mainland Australia. The Dutch seafarer and his crew thought they were on a previously uncharted southern part of New Guinea.

Captain Dyrck Hartoochz (Dirk Hartog), another Dutchman, was the second European to land on Australia on 25 October 1616, on an island in what is now called Shark Bay in Western Australia. He left behind a pewter plate, which he engraved with a message about his landing. The plate, which is Australia's oldest evidence of European contact, is currently in the Rijksmuseum in Amsterdam.

It was not until 1644 that the name 'New Holland' was first applied to the northwest coast of Australia by the Dutch explorer Abel Tasman, who claimed it for Holland by having a crewman swim ashore and plant his country's flag. Tasman named the small island he had discovered after his patron – calling it 'Van Diemen's Land'. Later the island was renamed Tasmania after Tasman himself.

Source 3

Captain Willem Janszoon, a Dutch seafarer and the first European to visit Australia

Source 4

The pewter dish placed by Dirk Hartog on what is now called Dirk Hartog Island in Shark Bay. The dish records the Eendracht's visit to the 'South Land' on 25 October 1616.

Early British contact

William Dampier, an explorer and former pirate, became the first Englishman to set foot on Australian soil, camping in the lands of the Bardi nation in north-west Australia in 1688. In his journal, Dampier wrote of the Bardi people: 'They are people of good stature but are very thin and lean, I judge for want of food ... They build their weirs of stone across the bay; they search those weirs for what the sea has left behind'.

However, when his journal was published, these observations were changed by his publisher to, 'The inhabitants of this country are the miserabilist people in the world... brutes', and other derogatory remarks.

Dampier's remarks about the First Nations Peoples of Australia may have influenced later explorers, and set a negative tone for later interactions. They may have also influenced the decision to declare New Holland as *terra nullius* – 'a vacant land'.

How did Australia obtain its name?

Europeans called the land they believed to exist in the southern hemisphere *terra australis nondum cognita*, which is Latin for the 'unknown southern land'. But when Europeans finally reached Australia, they disagreed over what to call it.

Dutch explorers labelled it Nieuw Holland, Nova Hollandicus or Hollandia Nova (New Holland) on the incomplete maps of the time. It was Matthew Flinders who, in 1801–1803, circumnavigated and mapped what he discovered to be an island. In 1804 he gave it the name 'Australia', slightly altering the Latin *australis*, meaning 'southern'.

But Flinders was not alone – he was accompanied by Bungaree, a Kuringgai man who acted as a diplomat and intermediary when the expedition met with coastal communities. Bungaree became the first member of the First Nations People to circumnavigate the continent. Not only that, he was the first person in the world to ever be referred to as 'an Australian' in print.

Source 5

Lieutenant Matthew Flinders called the land 'Australia' after sailing around it.

Learning ladder H2.7

Show what you know

1 What happened to the identity of the land on which the European explorers landed?

2 How did different European nations, kingdoms and empires 'claim' lands that already had people living on them for thousands of years?

3 What is the difference between a 'claim', a 'colony' and a 'settlement'?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

4 Research Ptolemy's theory of a southern continent. What was his hypothesis for its existence?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

5 What does the name 'Australia' mean, and why do you think the name was changed from New Holland to 'Australia'?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

6 What is the significance of Bungaree, a member of the First Nations, being the first person to be called an Australian?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

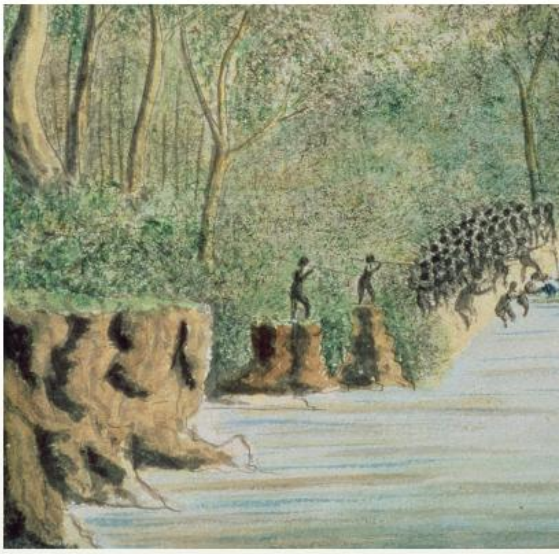
7 Considering that Janszoon, Tasman, Hartog and others explored the region, why did the Dutch not attempt to establish a colony in Australia? Use the information from this chapter and other research to form a hypothesis.

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

PART II: AUSTRALIA'S COLONIAL PERIOD (1770–1901)

How did colonisation change the continent of Australia?

The continent of Australia was forever changed when the first British penal colony disrupted the sacredness of Country. As the British expanded their colonies, they fought with First Nations Peoples to seize the bushlands and goldfields. The early colonial period featured a great deal of conflict, between colonists and First Nations Peoples, as well as between the colonists themselves.



Source 1

William Bradley, *First Interview with the Native Women at Port Jackson New South Wales* (c. 1802)

key ideas timeline.

1788 – Captain Arthur Phillip arrives with First Fleet to establish British Penal Colony at Sydney Cove

1790 – Hawkesbury and Nepean Wars in NSW

1801–03 – Captain Matthew Flinders (British) and Bungaree (Kuringgai) circumnavigate Australia

1810 – First Nations Peoples begin to be forced into missions

1824 – The Black War of Tasmania begins

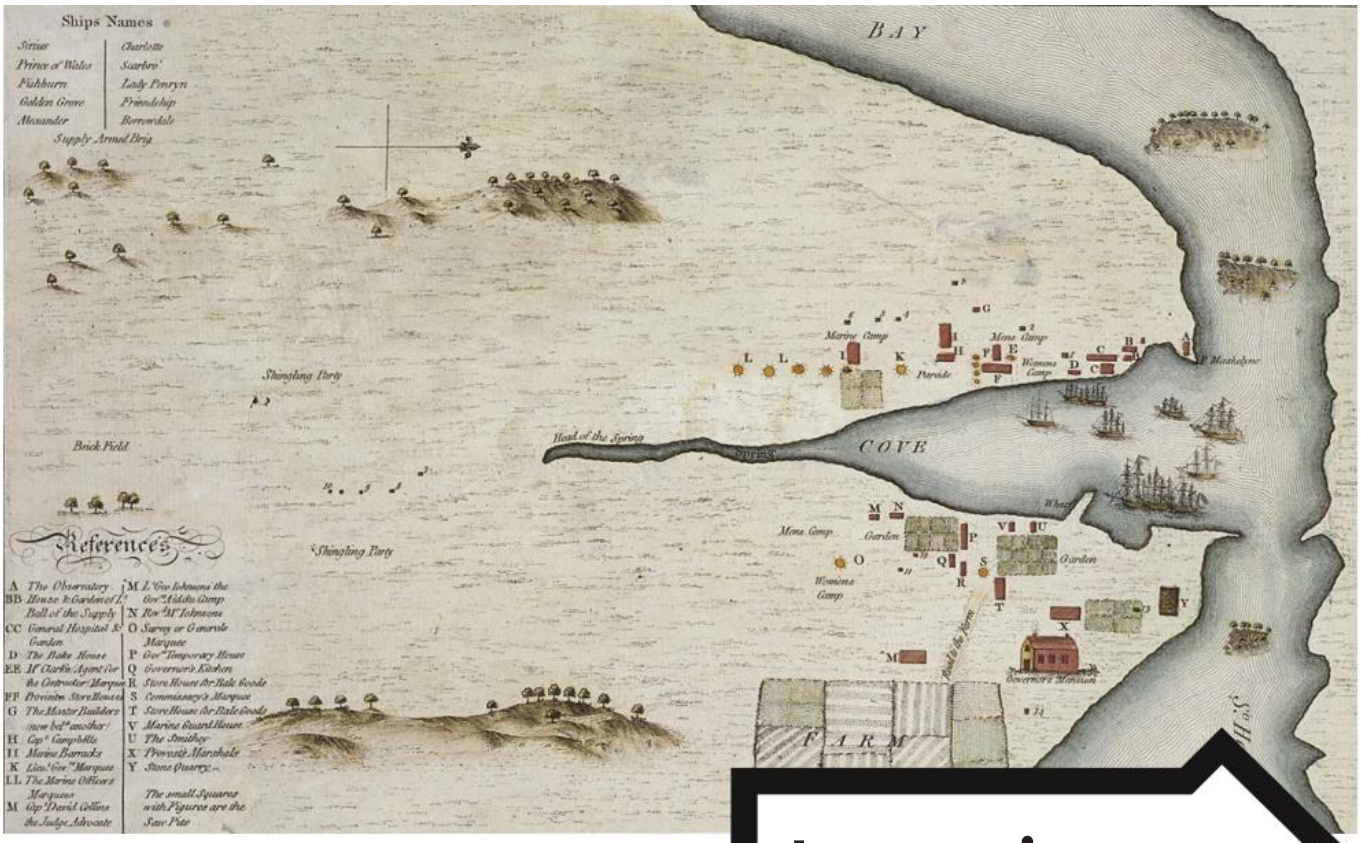
1824 – The British government formally names the great southern land 'Australia'

1835 – Melbourne is established in what is now Port Phillip Bay

1838 – The Myall Creek Massacre occurs in New South Wales

1851 – Port Phillip colony separates from NSW, and is named Victoria. The Australian gold rush begins

1856 – All men, including First Nations Peoples, given the right to vote in South Australia



Source 2

Engraving of the settlement at Port Jackson, Sydney Harbour

1869
The *Aboriginal Protection Act* is passed in Victoria

1863
'Blackbirded' Pacific Islander men and women arrive in Queensland

1872
The *Education Act* makes public education free, secular and compulsory in Victoria

1895
South Australian women, including First Nations Peoples, given right to vote

Learning ladder H2.8

Show what you know

1 When did Victoria become a separate colony from New South Wales?

2 Which colony first allowed the First Nations Peoples of Australia the right to vote?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

3 Source 2: What infrastructure of the Port Jackson settlement can be seen in this engraving?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

4 Source 2: Describe Port Jackson in 1788. What do you notice about the pace of its establishment during the first year?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

5 How could Source 2 have been used militarily by either the colony or a competing nation?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

6 Source 1: Why would an interview require women to be forcefully dragged and held on a boat under threat of muskets? Does the interaction appear peaceful, coercive or violent?

HOW TO
Source analysis, page 240

How did James Cook reach Australia?

Captain James Cook, a British sailor and cartographer, set sail for Tahiti on the HMS *Endeavour* in 1769 with orders to observe the transit of Venus from Tahiti. He also carried with him secret orders to expand the British Empire by discovering and seizing the southern continent – even if he had to do so illegally.

Britain's secret agenda

The British Empire's finances had been severely drained by the Seven Years' War with France (1754–1763) and the American Revolution (1775–1783). Their need for resources and cheap labour made the British keen to claim newly discovered lands, such as Canada, and to find the mythical great southern continent.

James Cook was officially commissioned by the British Royal Society to sail to Tahiti, in order to set up an observatory and observe an astronomical event called the transit of Venus. But before he left, on the 30th of July 1768 the British Admiralty also issued Cook secret instructions to sail to 40 degrees latitude and search for 'New Holland'. He was then to claim both the land and its people.

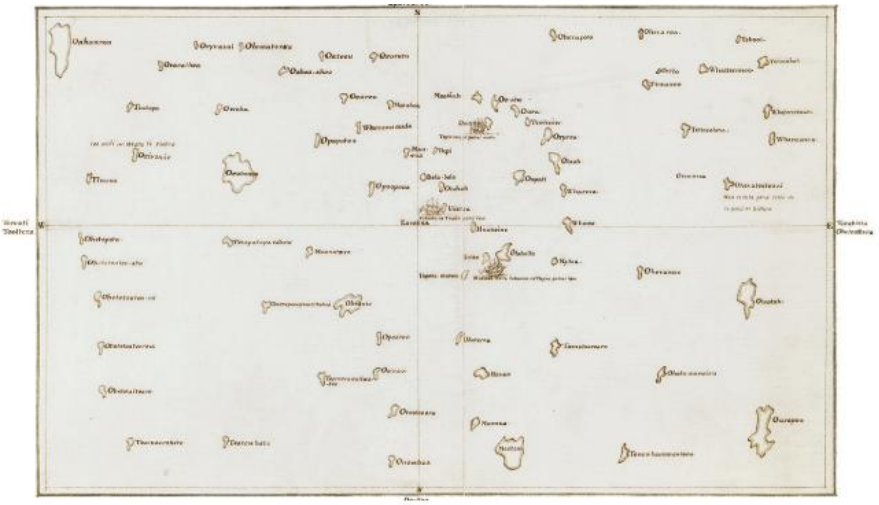
Source 1

Captain Cook's Landing at Botany, A.D. 1770. [Created 1872, artist unknown]

Cook's Pacific travels

Cook arrived in Tahiti, where a Polynesian navigator called Tupaia (from the Ra'iatea or Society Islands) joined him for the next part of the voyage, largely through uncharted territory. Tupaia drew a map of the known islands in the Pacific Ocean (see Source 2). He shared his traditional methods of navigation with Cook.

Using Tupaia's map and his own considerable navigation skills, Cook piloted the *Endeavour* to 40 degrees latitude and then onwards, until he reached Aotearoa (New Zealand) on 6 October 1769. After circumnavigating Aotearoa and realising that it was an island, and not New Holland, Cook left to continue his mission.



Source 2

This map of the Pacific Ocean islands was drawn in 1769 by Tupaia, a noble and high priest of the war god Oro and expert navigator, using traditional Polynesian methods. [Chart of the Society Isles discovered by Captn. Cook, 1769, from Thomas Conder, Alexander Hogg, & George William Anderson (1784)]

HMS *Endeavour* reaches New Holland

Cook made landfall on 29 April 1770 at Botany Bay, New Holland. He received a hostile reception, much like the one he received in Aotearoa – two Gweagal men aimed their spears at the boat and were shot at. Cook raised the British flag, called the land 'New South Wales' and seized it without the consent of the Indigenous inhabitants.

Cook sailed further up the east coast of Australia, but all his attempts to engage the native people were unsuccessful. Even after the *Endeavour* ran aground on the Barrier Reef and had to make a long landing for repairs, Australia's First Nations Peoples eluded Cooks' attempts to make contact.

Source 3

According to Gweagal oral history, this shield was taken from a First Nations man named Cooman during the 1770 encounter at Botany Bay. It is held by the British Museum, and Cooman's descendants are campaigning for its return.

Learning ladder H2.9

Show what you know

1 What was the official reason for Cook's voyage?

2 What were Cook's secret instructions?

3 What benefits did Tupaia provide to Cook's voyage?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 What made Cook realise that Aotearoa (New Zealand) was not the great southern continent?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 Source 1: Why was Tupaia included in the official landing party?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 Why do you think Cook claimed Australia 'without the consent of the natives'?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 What major developments or events led the British government, admiralty and monarch to approve Cook's voyage, during which he 'discovered' Australia? (You may need to conduct further research to answer this.)

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

What was *terra nullius*?

In the 18th century, the British failed to recognise that the First Nations Peoples of Australia were advanced cultures who actively managed the land. The British declared the land *terra nullius*. This declaration was made to remove the legal requirement to negotiate with the inhabitants of the land, and instead allowed the land to be seized with minimal cost to the British.

Two sets of laws

Aboriginal Customary Law (ACL) connects every part of the land: its lore, fauna and flora, Creation Spirits, ancestors, Elders and people, both past and present. Aboriginal people own the land, as it owns them. Councils of male and female Elders governed and regulated spiritual and social matters through Men's and Women's Business, as well as combined community or family business.

This was vastly different from the British system of government, where the **monarch** granted authority to ministers and governors. This same system extended to the colonies; however, during England's colonial expansion, further delineation of the laws was required. British agents were bound to follow the law; in practice, this often meant they looked for ways to stretch or rewrite laws to suit themselves.

Terra nullius

A Latin phrase meaning 'nobody's land', *terra nullius* is the legal term applied to land that is deemed uninhabited, unoccupied or not subject to the sovereignty of any state. The British application of *terra nullius* to Australia in the 18th century was a highly debated topic for two centuries. The Mabo decision finally struck out this application in 1992 and recognised Native Title (see page 65).

The laws surrounding colonisation were analysed in 1765 by Sir William Blackstone, an English judge. He defined the laws for unclaimed land described in Source 2.

Source 1

Joseph Lycett, *View of the Heads at the Entrance to Port Jackson New South Wales* (1824)

'(I) that if an uninhabited country be discovered and planted by English subjects, all the English laws then in being … are immediately there in force …

'But in conquered or ceded countries, that have already laws of their own, the King may indeed alter and change those laws; but, till he does actually change them, the ancient laws of the country remain … Our American plantations are principally of this latter sort, being obtained in the last century either by right of conquest and driving out the natives … or by treaties …'

Source 2

Sir William Blackstone's legal analysis

The British alleged that the lack of land cultivation and structures meant that the continent of Australia was uninhabited. However, this is contradicted by the existence of First Nations Peoples' songlines, which defined the borders of language groups, nations and clan lands, as well as complex laws around land inheritance. Furthermore, European explorers' records describe how First Nations Peoples managed the land for food production, and had silos and semi-permanent villages.

Nevertheless, the British push to claim new land was too strong. Before Cook discovered New Holland, he was secretly instructed:

'You are also with the Consent of the Natives to take Possession of Convenient Situations in the Country in the Name of the King of Great Britain: Or: if you find the Country uninhabited take Possession for his Majesty by setting up Proper Marks and Inscriptions, as first discoverers and possessors.'

Source 3

Secret Instructions to James Cook, contained in the letterbook carried on HMS *Endeavour* (1768)

Consent was never given, but Cook used the principle of *terra nullius* to claim the land anyway.

Conquest or settlement?

The concept of *terra nullius* is first mentioned in colonial sources in an 1819 debate between Supreme Court Judge Barron Field and Governor Lachlan Macquarie, who wanted to tax the colonists.

Field argued that Australia was not 'conquered' but 'freely settled' under *terra nullius*. Although the British Parliament agreed with Field, violent conflicts between colonists and First Nations Peoples contradict any notion of Australia being peacefully 'settled'.

Today, we recognise that the First Nations Peoples of Australia had established cultures and ownership of the land before the first British explorers arrived.

Learning ladder H2.10

Show what you know

1 How does ACL view the connection between the people and the land?

2 How does First Nations Peoples' view of the law and land differ to European land ownership laws?

3 What does *terra nullius* mean?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 How did declaring the land *terra nullius* lead to the colonisation of Australia?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 How did Sir William Blackstone provide the legal justification for the colonisation of other people's land?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 How did the inability of European colonisers to recognise the governing structures of the First Nations Peoples of Australia affect their view of the land?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 How did Judge Field use *terra nullius* to defeat Governor Macquarie?

HOW TO

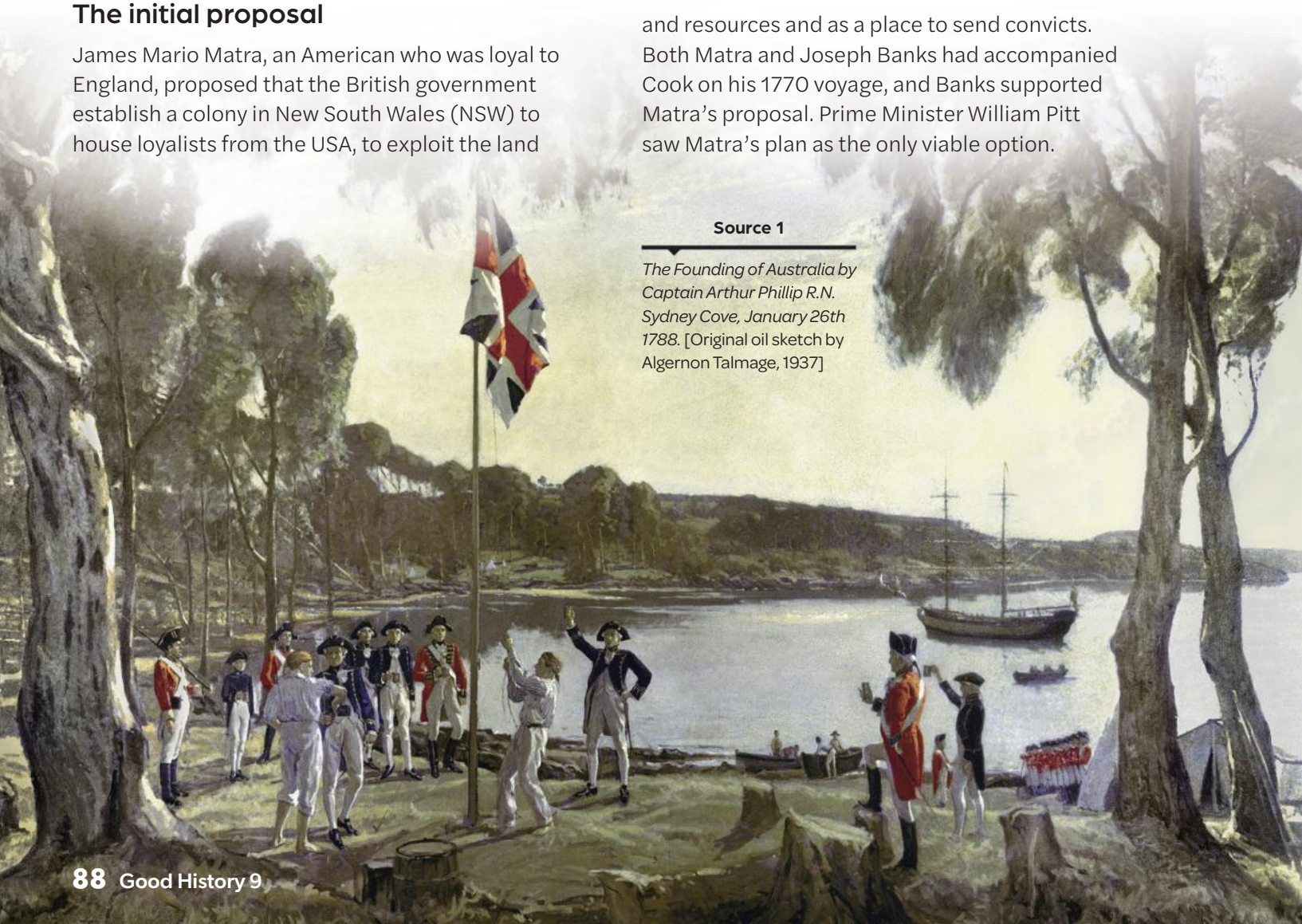
Cause and effect, page 247

Why was the first Australian colony established?

From Cook's 'discovery' of Australia to the landing of the First Fleet in 1788, 18 years passed. During that time, the British Empire suffered devastating financial losses due to war with America. They needed new sources of income and a new place for their prisoners, as their gaols and prison ships were overflowing. The British looked to Australia to expand their empire.

The initial proposal

James Mario Matra, an American who was loyal to England, proposed that the British government establish a colony in New South Wales (NSW) to house loyalists from the USA, to exploit the land and resources and as a place to send convicts. Both Matra and Joseph Banks had accompanied Cook on his 1770 voyage, and Banks supported Matra's proposal. Prime Minister William Pitt saw Matra's plan as the only viable option.



Source 1

The Founding of Australia by Captain Arthur Phillip R.N. Sydney Cove, January 26th 1788. [Original oil sketch by Algernon Talmage, 1937]

Economic incentives

The Seven Years War left Britain with £133 million of debt, and around £10 million per year in interest. The American Revolution had cost £250 million and, when it lost, Britain had forfeited substantial income, through taxation, exports and access to natural resources. They also lost a location to which to send criminals for the punishment of transportation.

Sending convicts to NSW thus solved a number of the empire's problems. The convicts would provide cheap labour to build the colony and it was hoped the new colony would provide a good return on investment.

Social incentives

Britain's Industrial Revolution led to the **mechanisation** of some agricultural jobs (see Chapter H1). Former farm labourers sought work in the cities, but there were not enough jobs for everyone.

Low wages, high unemployment and widespread poverty led to higher rates of crime and, therefore, more prisoners. Because the prisons in England were overflowing, the government began using prison hulks – ships converted into floating prisons. However, these hulks were often overcrowded and diseases were rife.

Meanwhile, English judges were still sentencing criminals to transportation, but there was nowhere to send the convicts. The NSW colony promised to take the pressure off the penal system.

The First Fleet

The First Fleet consisted of nine transport ships (six carrying convicts and three carrying supplies) and two warships. These carried Captain Arthur Phillip, his guards and officers, and approximately 850 convicts to NSW. They arrived at the place the Eora called Warrane, later known as Sydney Cove, on 26 January 1788, where they established the first colony in Australia. Phillip's journal noted that Sydney Harbour was an ideal harbour from military and commercial perspectives, as it was able to host a thousand ships.

Source 2

One of many prison hulks anchored in Portsmouth Harbour, England, in the early 19th century.

Learning ladder H2.11

Show what you know

1 Name three problems it was hoped the new colony would solve.

2 Source 1: How would the scene of British soldiers alighting from ships and holding a flag-raising ceremony have appeared to the local First Nations Peoples?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

3 List three or more different causes that contributed to the British establishing a colony in New South Wales.

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

4 What were Matra, Banks and Pitt's roles in making the case for establishing a colony?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

5 What was the rationale for using a convict labour force to establish the colony?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

6 Explain why the American Revolution was also a significant event in the colonisation of Australia.

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

Who were the convicts?

The convict population consisted of British citizens from across the empire, including Africa, Asia, the Americas and India. The diversity of ethnicities, social classes and varied professions created a labour force suited to establishing a colony.

Convict demographics

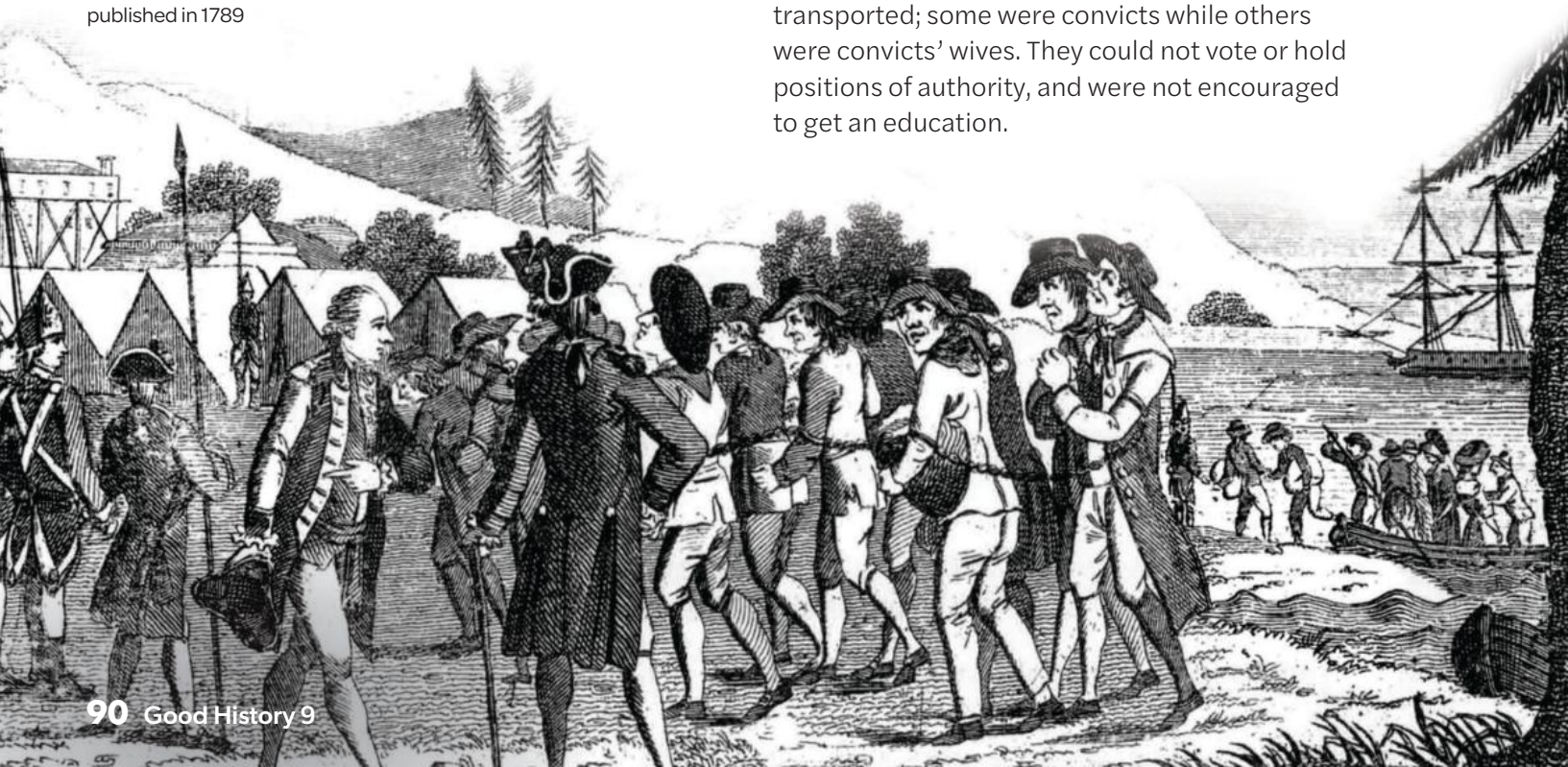
Three-quarters of the convict population were English, with the remainder Irish, Scottish or from the rest of the British Empire. Transportees were mostly men, but there were also some women and children. Approximately 163 500 convicts were sent to Australia from 1788 to 1868.

Crime and punishment

Most convicts were sentenced to crimes related to poverty, such as stealing food and goods, selling stolen goods, highway robbery and 'indecent public displays of affection'. A few convicts were soldiers who had committed military offences.

Source 1

Captain Watkin Tench's 'The Landing of the Convicts at Botany Bay', from his book *A Narrative of the Expedition to Botany Bay*, published in 1789



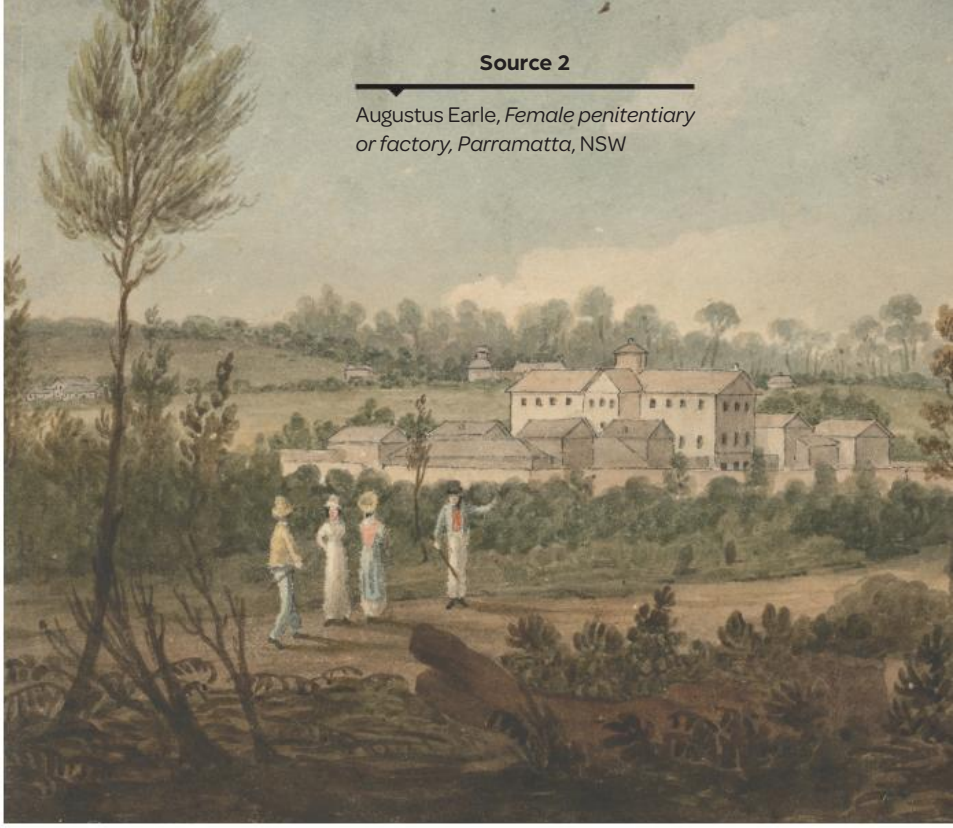
Skilled criminals, who could write important documents or had learned a trade, were put to work. Some were given a 'Ticket of Leave', which let them move relatively freely around the colony, or were pardoned when they finished their sentences.

Some convicts who completed their sentences became freed men and women known as **emancipists**.

Female convicts

British women in the colonial period were treated as second-class citizens, and married women had no legal status as separate entities to their husbands. Women were expected to obey their husbands and to bear children. In contrast, the women of the First Nations of Australia held equal status and power in their communities from the distant past until today.

From 1788–1853, 29 960 women were transported; some were convicts while others were convicts' wives. They could not vote or hold positions of authority, and were not encouraged to get an education.



Source 2

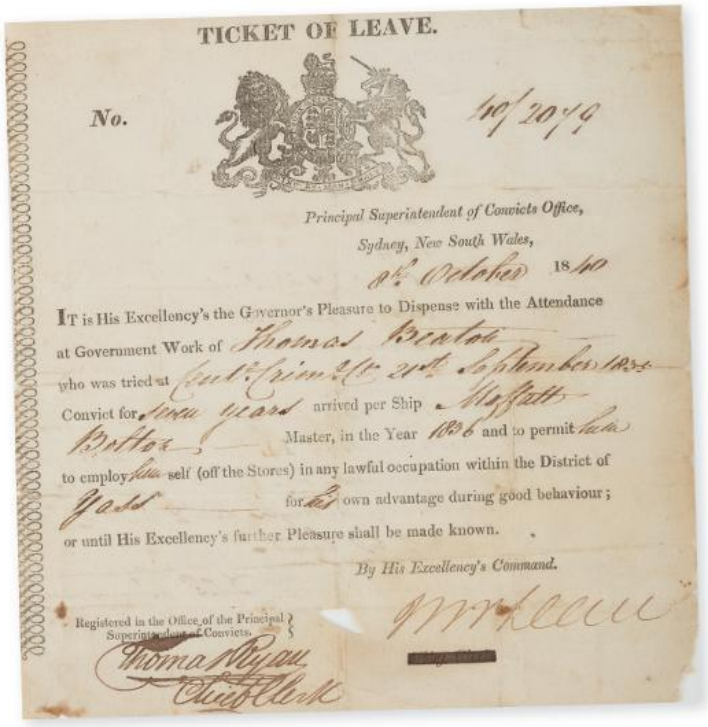
Augustus Earle, *Female penitentiary or factory, Parramatta*, NSW

As legal divorce was only an option for the wealthy, poorer people conducted wife-selling auctions to dissolve their marriages. Many women insisted on this illegitimate means of divorce, as it was placed on public record. Governor Macquarie of New South Wales ended the practice of wife-selling in 1811.

Currency lads and lasses

The 'currency lads and lasses' were the new generation of children born in the colony, known collectively as the 'currency'. This negative label was used to distinguish British-born 'sterling' children from the colony-born children.

'The currency' were apparently fitter, taller and healthier than most children from England. They and their parents embraced the freedom that the colony offered and wanted to leave their convict pasts behind. They even developed their own unique Australian accent within a generation, a fusion of southeast English and Irish accents.



TICKET OF LEAVE.

No. 10/2049

Principal Superintendent of Convicts Office,
Sydney, New South Wales,
8th October 1840

IT is His Excellency's the Governor's Pleasure to Dispense with the Attendance at Government Work of *Thomas Beaton* who was tried at *Cent. Crim. Ct.* on the *20th September* 1834 Convict for *seven years* arrived per Ship *Moffatt* Master, in the Year *1836* and to permit *him* *Bolton* to employ *himself* (off the Stores) in any lawful occupation within the District of *Yass* for *his* own advantage during good behaviour; or until His Excellency's further Pleasure shall be made known.

By His Excellency's Command.

Registered in the Office of the Principal Superintendent of Convicts.

Thomas Murray
Chief Clerk

Source 3

With a Ticket of Leave, you were free to work, marry and move around the colony, while still serving your sentence.

Learning ladder H2.12

Show what you know

1 Create a dot-point summary of the crimes for which people were sent to New South Wales.

2 Why was a Ticket of Leave desirable to convicts?

3 Roughly how old is the unique Australian accent?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

4 Were all convicts treated the same or did some receive special status and privileges?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

5 What was the public view of convict women?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

6 Why were people keen to renounce their convict pasts? Is this true of people with convict heritage today?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

7 Why might a poor woman insist on being sold at a wife-selling-auction?

HOW TO Historical interpretations, page 255

Who were the free settlers?

British colonists who chose to start a new life in New South Wales were known as free settlers. Believing themselves to be superior to convicts and emancipists, they viewed themselves as near the top of the developing colonial social order.

Squatters and exclusives

First arriving in 1793, the free settlers were granted the largest and best landholdings, were elected to government, had links to the military and had connections to people of influence in England. Also known as 'exclusives' and 'squatters', the free settlers tried to create a class system in which they enjoyed a higher status to former convicts.

In addition to receiving large tracts of land seized from the First Nations Peoples of Australia, free settlers could 'squat' (rent and run livestock) on other Crown Land in addition to their own, were supplied with food until they could be self-sufficient, were given seeds and farming implements, and were provided with convicts as free labour.

Source 1

Frederick McCubbin's *The Pioneer* (1904) is one of the most famous depictions of early Australian colonial life. In the background, the development of the colony of NSW is shown through the progression from wagon to cottage to city.

John Macarthur: hero of the fleece

Squatter John Macarthur was a prominent soldier, entrepreneur and politician. He is best known as the pioneer of the Australian wool industry. His high-quality wool won numerous awards and earned him the title, 'the hero of the fleece'. Macarthur wanted to establish the free settlers as the 'landed gentry' of the colony, proposing a government structure like that of Britain's House of Lords.

Macarthur significantly developed the wool industry by introducing more Merino sheep to Australia. High-quality wool exports, along with whaling, sealing and coal industries, established New South Wales' role as a primary resource for nations undergoing industrialisation. The success of agriculturalists such as Macarthur led the colony closer to food and economic security. His house, Elizabeth Farm, still exists to this day as a national trust. This indicates his importance to colonial history.

Caroline Chisholm: free settler and philanthropist

Caroline Chisholm and her husband travelled to NSW in 1838 and found the colony's single women in a deplorable state. Many young girls were homeless, surviving via begging or prostitution. In 1841, Chisholm successfully petitioned Governor George Gipps to provide an old barracks, where she housed, fed and taught women. She also petitioned Gipps to write letters recommending immigrants for farm labour, and even escorted them into regional parts of the colony.

Source 2

Caroline Chisholm (1808–1877) was a free settler and philanthropist who helped colonial women and immigrants, as well as attempting to reform unjust land ownership laws.

Chisholm's attempts to obtain land for immigrants disturbed other free settlers, who harnessed anti-Catholic sentiment against her. She spent 1846–1854 in England, where she presented to the House of Lords on the colony and Irish matters.

In 1854, Chisholm went to Victoria, where she assisted immigrants travelling to the goldfields and advocated for reforms to unlock land for smaller farmers. She was able to challenge the existing 'squattocracy' in her push for a fairer vision of Australian society.

Learning ladder H2.13

Show what you know

1 Why did the free settlers try to deny the emancipists certain rights?

2 What rights did the free settlers have that were denied to the emancipists?

3 Why was colonial Australia described as 'riding on the sheep's back'?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

4 Which important industries were the first to be established in the colony of New South Wales?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

5 Use political, economic, social and technological (PEST) factors to explain the factors that might encourage a person to relocate their family from England to the Australian colonies.

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

6 Why is Macarthur's contribution to agriculture recognised above coal mining, whaling and sealing?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

7 Why was Caroline Chisholm's contribution to colonial society considered to be so important in two phases of colonial expansion?

Historical significance, page 251

HOW TO

How was the colony governed?

New South Wales was governed as a prison as well as a society. Governors were often military men, who were used to enforcing harsh discipline. Soldiers were charged with enforcing the code of the penal colony, the magistrates' harsh judgements and the governors' orders.

The power of the military

Until 1850, British troops came from England to defend the colonies and enforce the law. In theory, one of the troops' duties was to guard New South Wales against external attack, but that never occurred. Their main job was to maintain civil order, often by putting down convict uprisings and protests, and to suppress First Nations Peoples' resistance efforts.

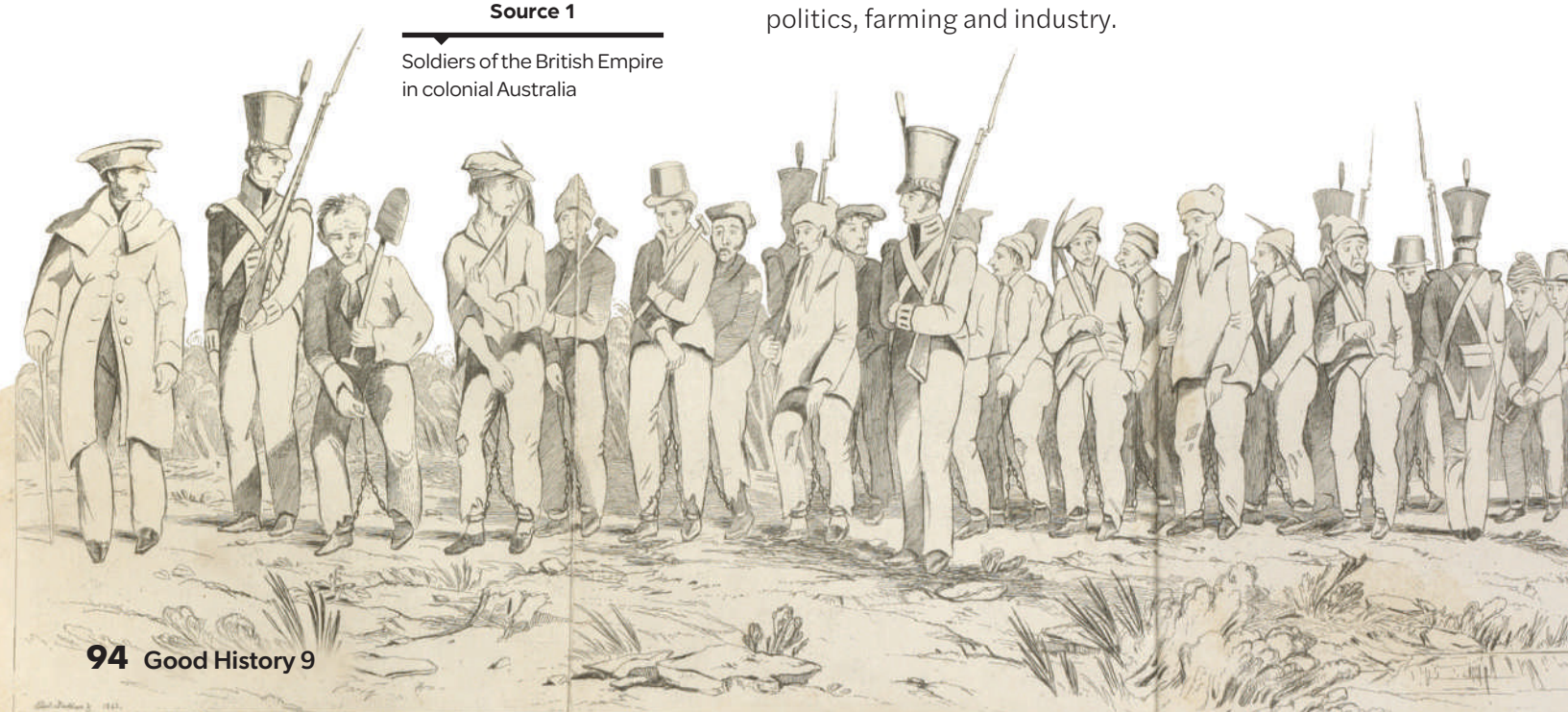
After finishing their tour of duty, some soldiers returned to England, while others stayed in the colony as free settlers. Many of the officers were well educated, and several of the colony's intellectuals, judges and future governors emerged from the New South Wales Corps.

Separated socially from the convicts, and backed up by their weapons and training, the military forces were often corrupt. The soldiers formed an **oligarchy**, seizing control and monopolising the colony. They had first pick of the supplies on any ships, and shamelessly increased the price of goods. They took food from government storage, dismissed magistrates and assumed these positions for themselves. Even the grain that soldiers sold back into government stores fetched a higher price than that of the free settlers and emancipated convicts.

Lieutenant John Macarthur was a soldier before he came a wool pioneer, and he was just as powerful as the governor, in many ways. He had the soldiers and judiciary on his side, owned the choicest land in the colony, and played major roles in colonial politics, farming and industry.

Source 1

Soldiers of the British Empire in colonial Australia



Source 2

This lithograph of the arrest of Governor Bligh was displayed outside Government House during the Rum Rebellion. A propaganda piece, it shows Bligh being dragged from under his bed; in reality, the soldiers searched for hours to find him.

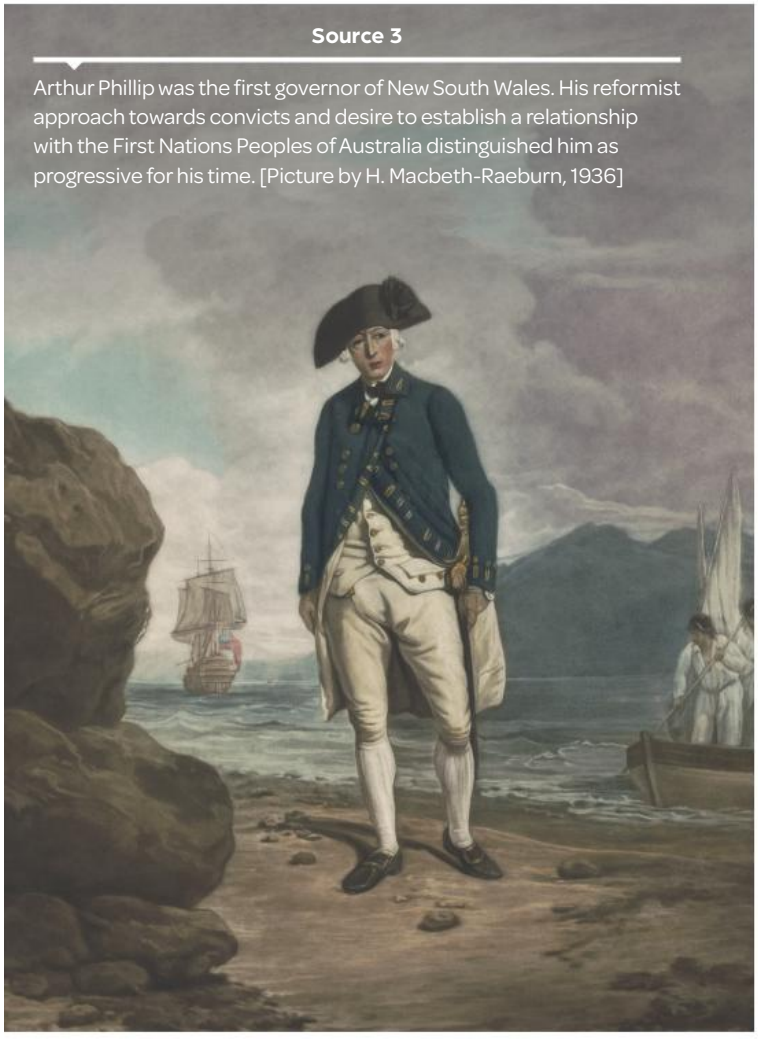
The Rum Rebellion

From the day the First Fleet landed, a system of barter developed in the colony. An alternative 'black market' economy flourished because there was not enough currency and food was strictly rationed. Rum and liquor from overseas was traded as a new currency – one controlled by the military, which came to be known as the 'Rum Corps'.

In 1807, Governor William Bligh became unpopular with soldiers when he prohibited the trade and barter of rum. He also blocked John Macarthur's attempts to import stills (to make his own rum), and opposed Macarthur's land claims. When Bligh later challenged Macarthur over one of Macarthur's ships, it was the last straw. Macarthur and his allies in the military decided to take control of the colony.

In 1808, on 26 January (the colony's foundation day), the New South Wales Corps stormed Government House and placed Bligh under house arrest for two years. Major George Johnston led the Corps, and appointed himself 'Lieutenant-Governor', while Macarthur adopted the role of Colonial Secretary.

When word of the rebellion reached Britain, Johnston was recalled to England and court-martialled, while Bligh was exonerated. As Macarthur would likely have faced charges himself, he joined Johnston to support his defence. The entire New South Wales Corps was recalled, and Macarthur stayed in England until 1817, when he received permission to return to New South Wales on the condition that he stay out of public affairs.



Source 3

Arthur Phillip was the first governor of New South Wales. His reformist approach towards convicts and desire to establish a relationship with the First Nations Peoples of Australia distinguished him as progressive for his time. [Picture by H. Macbeth-Raeburn, 1936]

The colonial governors

In the British Empire, governors were public officials appointed by the monarch (or their cabinet) to oversee colonies and manage their administration. It was a powerful role; governors were the supreme authority in each colony, with the power to implement Britain's laws and oversee all functions of government.

New South Wales was the starting point of colonisation, so its governors were (at first) the governors of the entire continent of Australia. As the new colonies were established, they were assigned their own governors, each as powerful as each other, but all were ultimately answerable to the British government.

By the end of Governor Macquarie's term (1810–1821), New South Wales was the largest and most prosperous colony in Australia. Its exports of coal, wool and other resources had established it as a resource economy. From an original population of around 1000 Europeans in 1788, the colony had grown to 75 000 colonists by 1831. Additionally, many First Nations People lived in the colony at the time.

Early governors of the New South Wales colony

Name	Term of office	Major events
Arthur Phillip	1787–1792	Phillip founded the colony on 26 January 1788. He initially tried to establish good relations with the First Nations Peoples. Later he changed policy, ordering the hunting of Pemulwuy (see page 100).
Francis Grose William Paterson	1792–1794	Lieutenant-Governors Grose and Paterson temporarily took shared control of the colony.
John Hunter	1795–1799	Hunter was an artist, and made more than 100 paintings of plants, animals, fish and scenes around Sydney. He was unpopular with the military, and was recalled to England in 1799.
Philip Gidley King	1800–1806	King oversaw the establishment of new colonies in Van Diemen's Land and sent expeditions to explore the coastline of what is now called Victoria.
William Bligh	1806–1809	Bligh disbanded the oligarchy of soldiers, made liquor illegal as currency and established a 'futures market' promoting small farmers. He was an unpopular figure, and was arrested during the Rum Rebellion of 1808.
Lachlan Macquarie	1810–1821	Macquarie reformed the soldiery and the police, outlawed wife-selling and funded public works. He also escalated conflicts with the First Nations Peoples of Australia.

Representative government

As the numbers of free settlers increased, the lack of a civil (non-military) government became a political issue within New South Wales. The British Parliament responded in 1823 by passing legislation that established a Legislative Council – a civilian body that would advise the governor. The legislation also regulated the courts and judiciary, and any bill put forward by the governor had to be approved by the chief justice to become law.

In 1842, the Council passed the *Constitution Act*, which introduced a level of representative government to the colony. The Legislative Council now consisted of 24 elected members, all wealthy landowners, along with 12 members appointed by the governor. In 1856, New South Wales finally implemented its own bicameral (two-house) parliament. Men gained the right to vote in 1858, while women won the right to vote in 1902.

Source 4

Woollarawarre Bennelong, was a Wangal man abducted by Governor Arthur Phillip. Bennelong was taught how to speak English, and ultimately became an ambassador between the colonists and the local First Nations Peoples. [Print c. 1798, artist unknown]

Source 5

The NSW Parliament House in Sydney was originally built in 1816 as a hospital. It was expanded in 1843 for its new purpose as the meeting place for the colony's Legislative Council.

Learning ladder H2.14

Show what you know

1 How did the New South Wales Corps soldiers amass so much power?

2 What evidence can you find of the soldiers' corruption and privilege?

3 Which major economic industries were established in the early years of the colony?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

4 What was the artist attempting to show in Source 2?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

5 What would the display of Source 2 outside Government House have done to both Bligh and the position of governor?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

6 Were the governors at the top of colonial society? What evidence challenges this interpretation?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

7 What was the Rum Rebellion really about? What does calling it 'the Rum Rebellion' 50 years later indicate about the causes of the rebellion?

HOW TO Historical interpretations, page 255

H2 .15

What were the Frontier Wars?

As the colonies grew, tensions escalated between the colonists and the First Nations Peoples of Australia, resulting in many violent conflicts. The resistance of First Nations Peoples took many forms, such as taking livestock, burning crops, attacking colonists and continuing their society, laws and languages as a surviving resistance. The ongoing conflict between the colonists and the First Nations Peoples is now referred to as the Frontier Wars.

Source 1

This image, titled 'Australian Aborigines – War', appeared in the *Melbourne Post* on 27 May 1867.

Source 2

Governor Arthur Phillip was speared as 'payback' for kidnapping Bennelong and forcing him to live as a prisoner. Phillip prevented his soldiers from retaliating. [Detail from Drawing 23 of the Watling Collection, by the Port Jackson Painter, c. 1790.]

Early conflicts

Governor Arthur Phillip initially tried to establish good relations with the First Nations Peoples of Australia and ordered that they be well-treated, punishing colonists who did not respect his orders. However, this did not prevent conflict, as the colony continued to take resources and steal traditional lands. First Nations Peoples responded to this in various ways, sometimes with violence, sometimes by trying to take back stolen animals and resources.

Conflict escalated in the 1790s and the early 1800s, as soldiers supported the colonists with force. Convicts and colonists raided First Nations Peoples' lands, killing warriors and abducting and sexually assaulting women. First Nations warriors retaliated, killing the perpetrators as 'payback'. They also resisted land claims by spearing colonists and their livestock.

This became a vicious cycle of violence. The colonists retaliated in various ways: shooting people on the spot, and poisoning, torturing and even massacring First Nations Peoples. The colonists did not always separate the innocent from the guilty – some of their victims were those who were easiest to find, rather than the actual perpetrators.

Resistance and violence

Targeted retaliation or 'payback' is a traditional punishment under Aboriginal Customary Law, often carried out by a *Carradhy* or 'clever man'. Much of the resistance from the First Nations Peoples of Australia came from *Carradhy* spearing a specific colonist as payback for heavy crimes. The guns of the time were not as accurate as spears thrown by skilled warriors, so a spearing was often more lethal than a bullet wound.

Other warriors resisted the loss of their land and traditional food supplies, which the colonists were taking for their livestock. When the numbers of native species were reduced, some First Nations Peoples speared the colonists' livestock for food, which resulted in retaliation from the colonists.

The skirmishes between the two groups lasted anywhere from a few months to a decade, and continued from 1788 until the 1930s. This long period of ongoing violence is now referred to by many historians as the Frontier Wars, recognising that the conflict went far beyond a few isolated instances.

Source 3

Pemulwuy was responsible for a number of payback attacks on colonists. He escaped death and incarceration on several occasions, and claimed to have spiritual protection from guns.

Pemulwuy

Pemulwuy was a First Nations *Carradhy* who became famous for his guerrilla warfare against the colonists. Claiming immunity to bullets, he was caught but escaped captivity. He set fire to crops, stole valuable tools and organised resistance forces of Eora men to attack the colonists in multiple raids for over a decade.

In 1790, Pemulwuy used a 'death spear' to kill John McIntyre, Governor Phillip's groundsman, as payback for McIntyre's murder of several First Nations People. In response, Governor Phillip ordered colonial troops to either find Pemulwuy or enact collective punishment on his people.

Pemulwuy continued to lead resistance efforts for more than a decade. In 1795, he was severely wounded by colonial forces, but evaded capture. In 1801, Governor King issued an order to bring Pemulwuy in dead or alive, and he was killed by a British sailor in 1802.

Source 4

'Death spears' had a special blade made from chips of stone set in resin. The bladed head inflicts a long gash and leaves chips inside the wound.

Truganini – Queen, diplomat and bushranger

The Black War (1824–1831), one of the most violent frontier conflicts, was an attempt by colonists in Tasmania to wipe out the Palawa people. Brutal attacks by colonists and whalers, as well as a program of forced resettlement, almost annihilated the Palawa, who had numbered approximately 4000 before colonisation.

Truganini was a Palawa chieftain's daughter from Bruny Island, south of Hobart. By 1830, when she was 18, most of her people had been murdered or abducted. She was then approached by George Augustus Robinson, a preacher who acted as a **conciliator** between the colonists and the Palawa.

Robinson persuaded Truganini and her people to relocate to a mission on Flinders Island, where he insisted they would be safe. Believing Robinson to be sincere, Truganini travelled with him to meet other Palawa and helped convince them to relocate. By 1835, almost all the surviving Palawa – around 200 people – had moved to Flinders Island. But the mission was not the sanctuary Robinson promised – conditions were harsh and the colonists tried to convert the Palawa to Christianity.

Robinson sailed to Melbourne in 1838 to manage the Port Phillip Protectorate (see page 108). Truganini went with him to help negotiate with the Kulin nations, but she no longer trusted Robinson and did little to aid the Protectorate. In fact, she ran away in 1840 to join a gang of bushrangers, which robbed colonists and killed two whalers. They were captured in 1841 and Truginini was sent back to Flinders Island.

Source 5

Truganini aided the resettlement of the Palawa people, ultimately preventing their complete extermination.

She was later relocated to Oyster Cove, near Hobart, with the rest of the surviving Palawa – approximately 50 people. She died there in 1876, outliving all of her husbands.

Once believed an extinct cultural group, the Palawa people have recently enjoyed a revival of their community and even their language. This would never have been possible if Truganini had not protected her people from the Europeans' attempted genocide.

Frontier massacres

Not every Frontier War conflict was a battle; most were massacres in which unarmed people on both sides were killed. If the British military or colonists could not find the specific warriors responsible for an act of resistance, they often punished any group of First Nations Peoples they could find, even if those people had nothing to do with the original attack. These massacres were acts of genocide, as defined by the United Nations – the killing of a group because of their national, ethnic, racial or religious status.

In 1838, the Waterloo, Slaughterhouse and Myall Creek massacres occurred in northern NSW, near Moree. The Myall Creek massacre was particularly grotesque, as the Wererai people were raped, burned alive and decapitated. What was unusual about the massacres of 1838 is that they resulted in prosecution; seven of the 10 accused stockmen were hanged for the murder of an innocent child. Massacres continued after this but the perpetrators used more discreet means of killing, such as poisoned flour, and they were more careful to destroy the evidence (usually by burning the bodies).

Source 6

Commemorative stone at the site of the Myall Creek massacre. Myall Creek was added to the National Heritage List in 2008.

Casualties

The casualty rate from the Frontier Wars is hard to determine because of under-reporting. 'Unpleasant' events were often omitted in official soldier, colonist and police reports of the time. Through remaining documents, such as journals and letters, historians have pieced together some of the violence that occurred, but much is probably still missing.

Conservative estimates put the colonist deaths at between 2500–5000, and the deaths of First Nations Peoples from 20 000–60 000. Some historians estimate that the combined casualties of the Frontier Wars came to nearly 100 000 people.

Learning ladder H2.15

Show what you know

1 Describe the battle occurring in Source 1.

2 Write a short profile on either Pemulwuy or Truganini. How did they protect their people?

3 What is 'collective punishment'? How did the colony retaliate against attacks?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 What caused the Frontier Wars?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 Why do you think Phillips' policy towards First Nations Peoples changed? How did Pemulwuy play a part in his new attitude?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 Why is there limited evidence about First Nations Peoples' history of resistance and massacres in Australia?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 How did the Myall Creek Massacre change the way in which massacres were subsequently conducted, investigated and prosecuted?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

How was the colony of Victoria established?

For over 40 000 years, the First Nations Peoples of Victoria lived in large, semi-permanent groups of over 500 people. The Victorian colonies, first at Sullivan Bay and then at Port Phillip Bay, disrupted these traditional homelands amid the signing of a contentious treaty.

From Naarm to Port Phillip Bay

The region we now call south central Victoria is the traditional home of the Kulin nations, an alliance of the Wurundjeri, Boonwurrung, Wathaurong, Taungurong and Dja Dja Wurrung Peoples. Those living around Melbourne spoke the Woi wurrung language, and what we know as Port Phillip Bay, they called Naarm. Boon Wurrung was spoken along the Mornington Peninsular and Wathaurong was spoken around Geelong.

Source 1

Sullivan Bay was the site of Victoria's first penal colony from 1803–4, which was located in Port Phillip Bay, near what is known today as Sorrento.

Source 2

Rock art from Bunjil's sacred cave in the Grampians

According to the Boonwurrung people, the sea became angry because the people broke the laws of the land, and rose to flood the plains. The people asked the powerful Creation spirit Bunjil (the Sea Eagle) to help, but he only intervened once they promised to return to their traditional way of life. Bunjil then walked into the sea and reversed the flooding, creating the bay called Naarm in the process.

Thousands of years later, in 1802, British explorer John Murray became the first European to sail into the bay. He named it Port King, after Governor Philip Gidley King. Three years later, King renamed it Port Phillip Bay in honour of Captain Arthur Phillip, the First Fleet Captain and colonial governor.

First colonisation attempts

Commercial and political reasons were behind Governor King's push to set up a colony in the newly discovered port, including the desire to:

- establish a seal trade
- use the region's plentiful natural resources
- claim and secure Bass Strait for the British, as King was worried the French could claim it.

The British government approved the establishment of a new colony in 1803, and an expedition of about 400 soldiers and convicts, led by Lieutenant-Governor David Collins, set sail from England. However, Collins was not happy with the site, named Sullivan Bay, because it lacked timber and enough water. He obtained the King's approval to transfer the colony to Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), and eventually settled in a place he named Hobart Town.

By 1836, Van Diemen's Land was independent from NSW, but the new colony was struggling. The farm land was suffering from overuse and there had been food shortages. The colonists shot kangaroos to supplement their diet, which was one of the causes of the 'Black War' with the Palawa. Governor Richard Bourke obtained approval to establish a new colony, and two men – John Batman and John Pascoe Fawkner – led efforts to colonise Port Phillip Bay.

John Batman

John Batman was a farmer and bounty hunter who had attacked the Palawa during Tasmania's Black War. Despite this, Batman was considered progressive for his era, and was willing to employ and negotiate with First Nations Peoples. The need for farmable land spurred Batman to travel to Port Phillip Bay to stake a claim. In 1835, he had lawyers draft a treaty, which was very unusual for the period, and he set sail for the mainland.

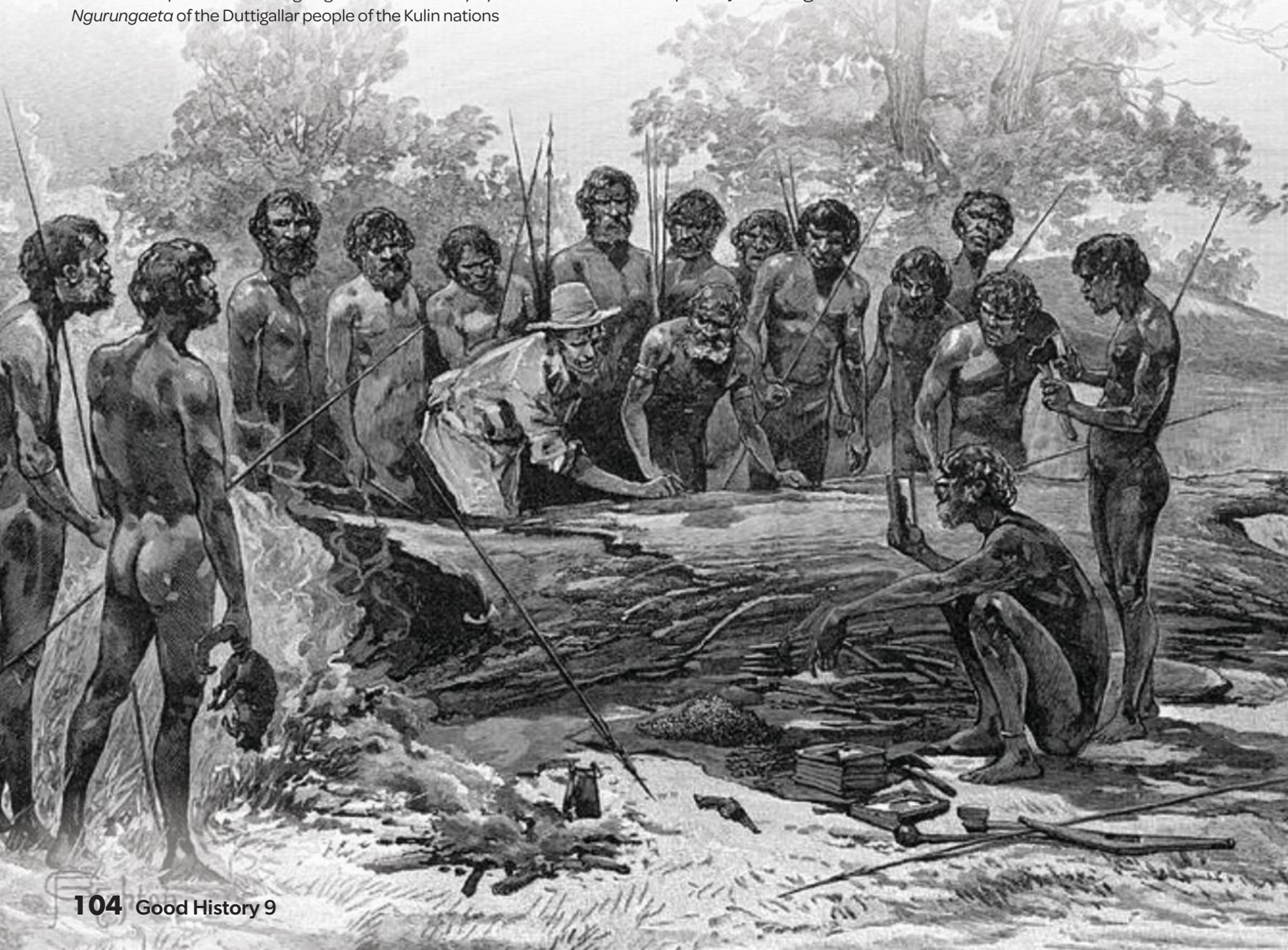
Batman met with a group of *Ngurungaeta* (headmen or leaders) from several tribes of the Kulin nations, including the Duttigallar tribe, whose lands he hoped to claim. He apparently negotiated terms with them, and the treaty was 'signed' with a ritual pouring of sand through hands somewhere near the junction of the Merri Creek and the Yarra River.

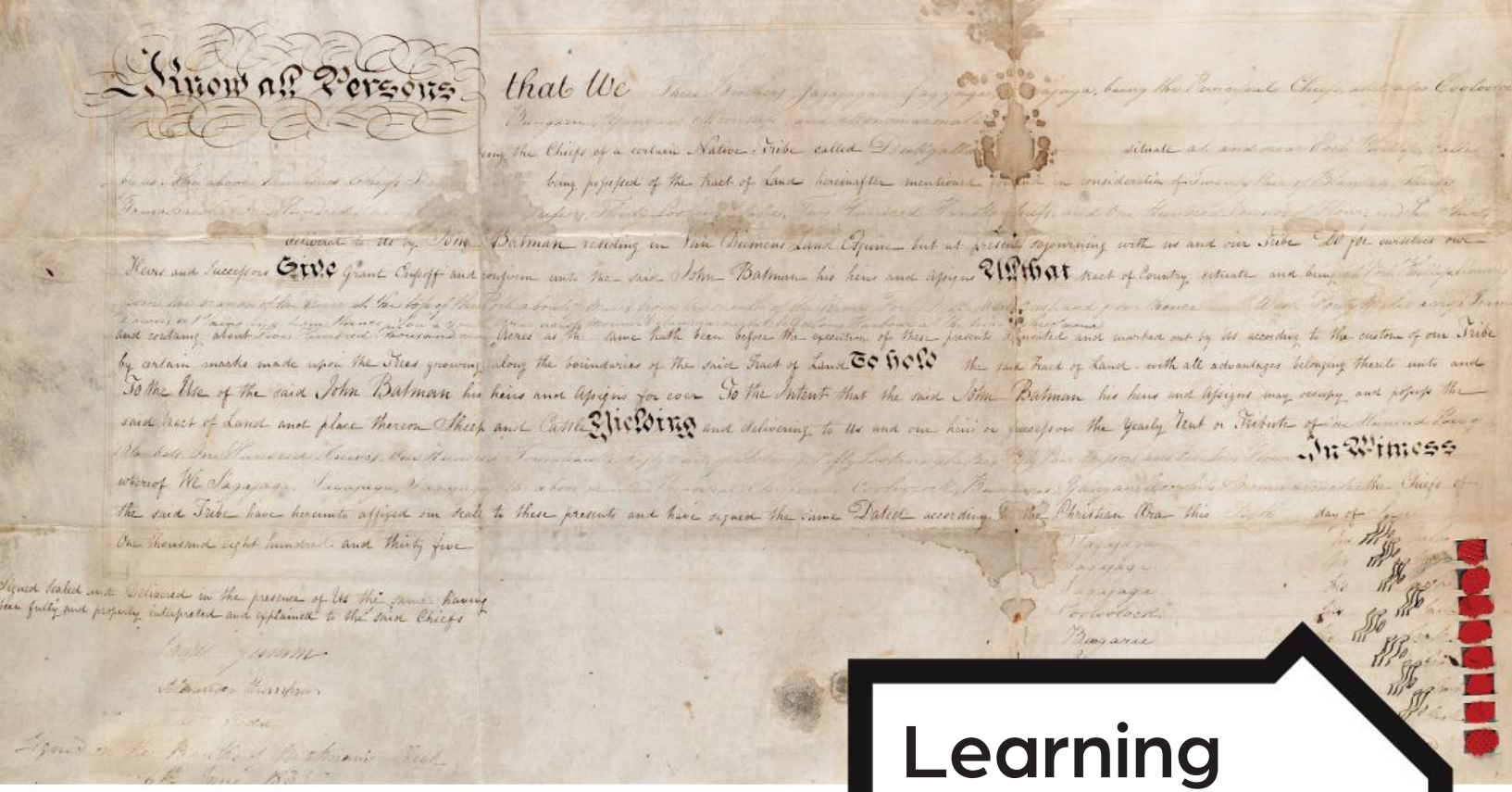
Source 3

An artist's impression of the signing of Batman's treaty by *Ngurungaeta* of the Duttigallar people of the Kulin nations

The treaty was one of the largest claims in all the colonies, for 600 000 acres from the Yarra River to Djilong (Geelong) and beyond. In exchange, Batman gave the *Ngurungaeta* '20 pairs of blankets, 12 tomahawks, 30 knives, 12 pairs of scissors, 10 looking glasses, 50 handkerchiefs, 12 shirts, 4 flannel jackets, 4 suits of clothes and 50 pounds of flour' as stated in the treaty.

Debate continues over the signing of the treaty between Batman and the *Ngurungaeta*. Some historians argue that the Kulin saw the ceremony as a gift, and did not realise the Europeans wanted to claim the land. However, First Nations oral history suggests that the *Ngurungaeta* were well aware of what they were doing, and signed the treaty to limit the spread of the colonists onto their lands. This position argues that the Kulin nation entered a *tanderrum* with the colonists – a ceremonial agreement that allows safe passage and a temporary sharing of land.




Know all Persons that We

Source 4

Reproduction of a transcript of John Batman's treaty with the Kulin Nation *Ngurungaeta*.

Problems with Batman's treaty

The Batman treaty was legally problematic for a number of reasons.

- It did not include representatives of peoples from Djilong, which meant a second treaty with the Wathaurong was needed.
- It did not have the approval of the British Crown, parliament or the governor.
- It did not align with the British legal definition of Australia as a 'settlement', and the declaration of the land as *terra nullius*. A treaty was only required if the land was conquered in battle.

The treaty was therefore declared void, and an act of 'trespass' on vacant Crown land, by NSW Governor Richard Bourke on 26 August 1835.

Batman's treaty acknowledged the prior rights of the First Nations Peoples to Australian land. It even offered to pay them rent. Today, there are requests by First Nations Peoples for their own treaties with the Australian government.

Learning ladder H2.16

Show what you know

1 By whom, how and why was Naarm created?

2 Why did Collins request permission to move the colony from Sullivan Bay?

3 Why was the Batman treaty declared void by the government?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

4 How is the signing of the Batman treaty portrayed in art such as Source 3?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

5 Identify at least two reasons why First Nations Peoples might have accepted a treaty with colonists.

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

6 John Batman believed he had the authority to make a treaty with First Nations Peoples. Was he correct? Explain your answer.

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

7 Research the full text of Batman's 1835 treaty. Suggest at least two ways in which the treaty and its signing were beneficial for First Nations–colonist relations, and at least two ways in which they were harmful.

HOW TO Historical interpretation, page 255

How was Melbourne founded?

Governor Bourke nullified Batman's treaty with the Duttigallar people in 1836, and the new colony came under the control of NSW. Melbourne was set up as the colony's southern outpost by surveying land, dividing it into plots and selling it off.

John Pascoe Fawkner

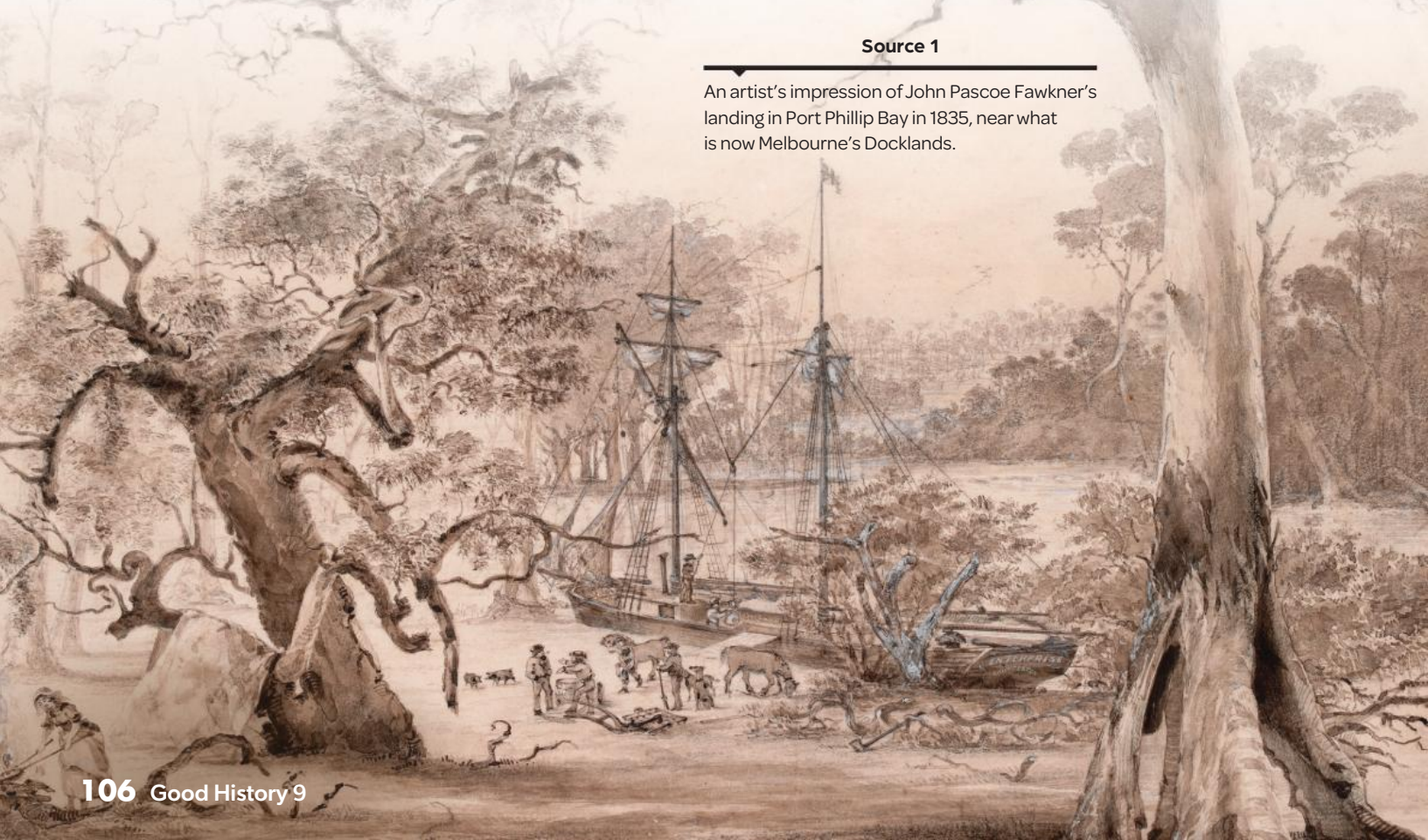
John Pascoe Fawkner was the child of a British convict. He set up in Van Diemen's Land and became an entrepreneur: publishing, baking, transporting, building and selling alcohol without a licence.

In the race to colonise Port Philip Bay, Fawkner formed a syndicate in Launceston to purchase the *Enterprize,* a large coal schooner capable of carrying 55 tons of cargo. On 29 August 1835, they sailed the *Enterprize* up the Yarra before landing and erecting what was to become Melbourne's first building.

Tensions arose when Batman and his followers returned from Van Diemen's Land to discover that Fawkner had already started building. The two men eventually agreed to parcel out land in order to avoid conflict. Fawkner went on to become a major Melbourne businessman and one of the founding members of Victoria's first parliament in 1851.

Source 1

An artist's impression of John Pascoe Fawkner's landing in Port Phillip Bay in 1835, near what is now Melbourne's Docklands.



Source 2

The First Nations Peoples of Victoria are shown overlooking Collins Street, Melbourne, in this 1839 picture.

Establishing Melbourne

Melbourne's streets were laid out in a grid pattern by surveyor Robert Hoddle, who wanted the new city to have an organised structure. However, the city began as a sprawl of tents and huts on the banks of the Yarra River, and it took several years for the 'Hoddle grid' to be completed.

Governor Bourke visited the outpost in March 1837, as Hoddle was surveying, and sanctioned the new town. He also officially named it after the Second Viscount Melbourne – before this the town had several unofficial names, including Bearbrass, Bareport and Batmania. Melbourne was legally incorporated as a 'town' in 1842, and as a city in 1847.

Conflict with First Nations Peoples

As the colonists spread out and began to clear land to graze livestock, the First Nations People lost their hunting grounds, murnong pastures, traditional lands and sacred sites. They speared livestock for food, as well as in retaliation. This not only threatened the squatters' incomes, but meant they ran low on food. This created a culture of fear, as had happened in Van Diemen's Land.

Once again, this led to violence. Many First Nations people were killed in the colonists' extra-judicial reprisals and collective punishments. The conflict was so bad that the British Parliament established the Port Phillip Protectorate in 1838, in response to the violence committed against Victoria's First Nations Peoples.

Learning ladder H2.17

Show what you know

1 Who founded the city of Melbourne – John Batman, John Pascoe Fawkner or Governor Richard Bourke?

2 How was the new colony received by the First Nations Peoples of Victoria?

3 Why did the First Nations Peoples fight the squatters?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

4 What was different about the founding of Melbourne, as opposed to Sydney?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

5 How is the Hoddle grid still present in the urban planning of modern-day Melbourne? Provide evidence to support your answer.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

6 How did Batman's treaty, and the action it involved, represent the desires of First Nations Peoples at the time, and today?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

7 Analyse a map of Melbourne's Docklands. Identify five features of the area that have changed since Fawkner's landing and suggest why they changed.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 244

How did law and order change in Victoria?

Early colonial law focused on controlling convicts and severely punishing acts of rebellion. Slowly, it took on an organised structure with police officers, gaols and even rehabilitation. However, law enforcement also targeted and suppressed First Nations Peoples.

The Port Phillip Protectorate

In 1835, preacher George Augustus Robinson negotiated the surrender of 150–200 Palawa people in Van Diemen's Land. Hoping to achieve a similar surrender in Victoria, Governor George Gipps established reservations, missions and schools, called the Port Phillip Protectorate, and put them under Robinson's control.

The Protectorate's goal was to 'civilise' First Nations Peoples. They were given new names, taught to read and write English and encouraged to elect their own Native Police. In this way, Robinson hoped to replace their traditional cultures with British culture, Christian religion and European notions of work – notions that were exploitative and very different to those of First Nations societies.

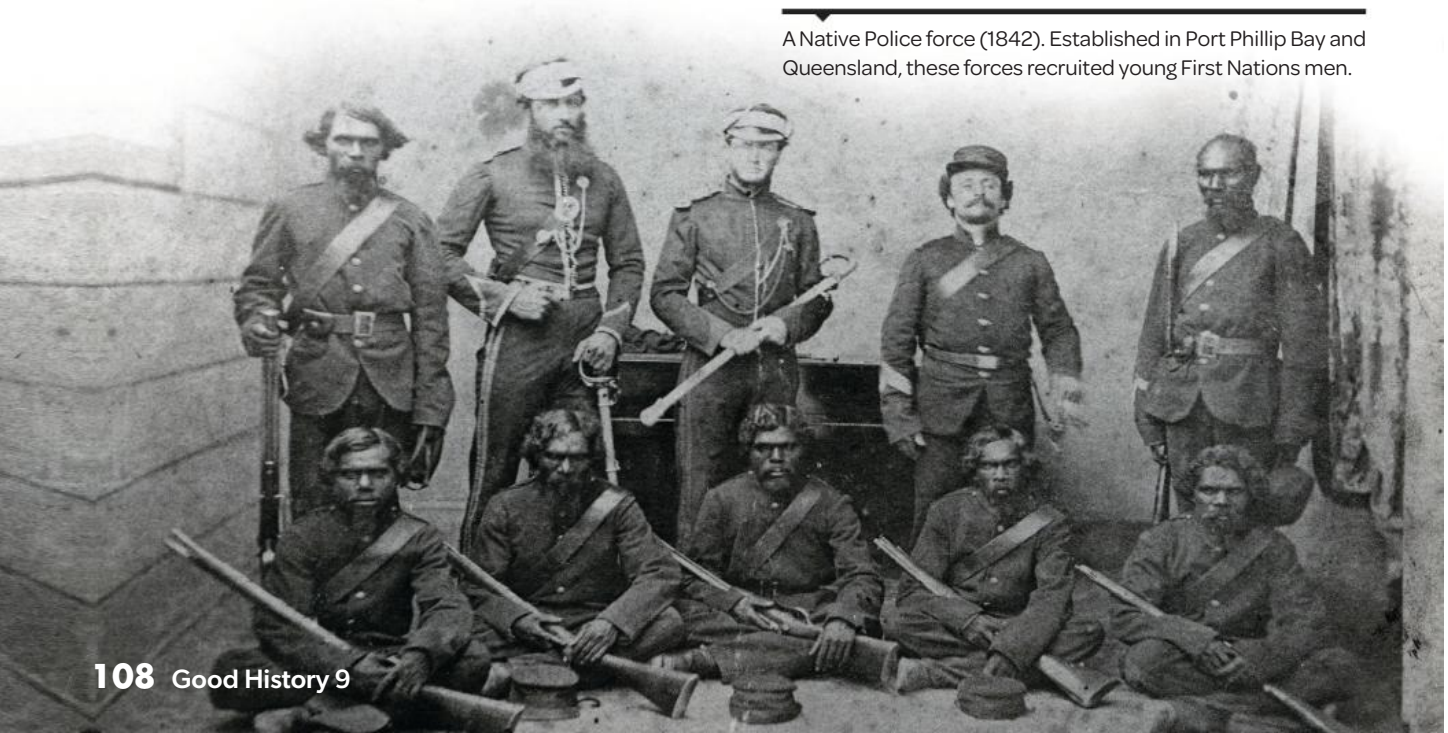
Robinson and his Protectorate failed to achieve any significant progress. After a decade of mediocre management and limited success, the Protectorate was closed down.

The Native Police

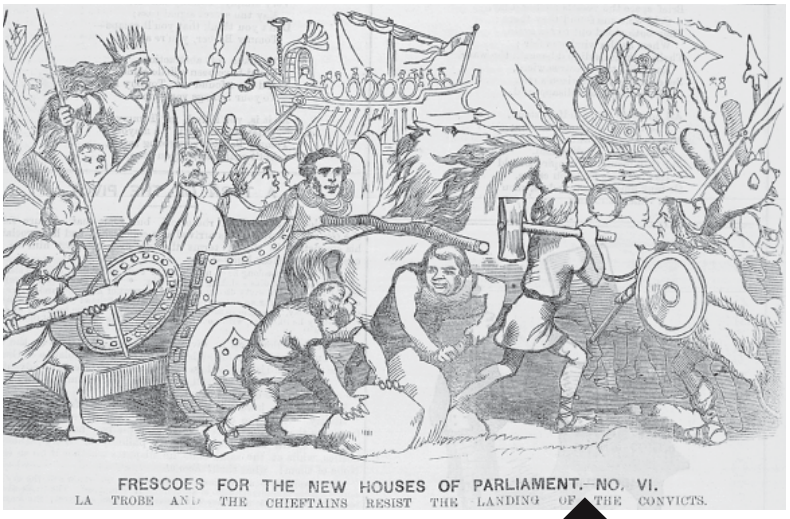
Alexander Maconochie, a Scottish penal reformer, introduced the idea of a Native Police force in 1837. As with the Protectorate, the idea was that the Native Police would be 'civilised' and assimilated into British society. In Victoria, the Native Police were initially stationed in Narre Warren, in what was known as the Police Paddock. Narre Warren was originally called Narre Narre Warren, which means 'special place'; it was also the site of an Aboriginal reserve.

Source 1

A Native Police force (1842). Established in Port Phillip Bay and Queensland, these forces recruited young First Nations men.



Source 2



An illustration showing the attempt to prevent the landing of the convicts, published in *The Argus* on 6 March 1849

Maconochie's attempts to assimilate the First Nations members of the Native Police ultimately failed. The men retained many of their traditional customs and would often abandon their posts in bushlands. Nevertheless, they proved to be a powerful means of defeating the First Nations' guerrilla resistance, as they enabled colonists to avoid becoming recipients of 'payback'.

The Anti-Transportation League

Among the colonists, there was increasing disgust at having to receive convicts from England. Not because they felt transportation was morally wrong, but because they felt convicts took jobs and brought crime into the colony.

In 1849, 10 000 Victorian colonists marched in the streets to stop a shipment of 500 convicts from landing. In 1850–51, the eastern colonies formed the Anti-Transportation League to put an end to transportation. The League's advocacy was successful, and transportation was discontinued in 1851. The last convicts from England arrived in 1853.

Law in a new colony

In the early years of Melbourne, the settlers paid for their own police force, which worked alongside the military to maintain law and order.

When the Port Phillip District officially became the colony of Victoria in 1851, Superintendent Charles Joseph Latrobe became Lieutenant-Governor of Victoria. The Victorian Police was established in January 1853, with a force of 875 men. This police force was given jurisdiction over the entire colony, under the control of the Chief Commissioner of Police.

The new police force also managed the colony's gaols and prisons, which incorporated more of Alexander Maconochie's concepts of reform. Prisoners in Melbourne Gaol could earn privileges, and even their freedom, in exchange for good behaviour. This marked the beginning of a value shift from incarceration to rehabilitation, which is still part of Australia's criminal justice system.

Learning ladder H2.18

Show what you know

1 What was the Port Phillip Protectorate? What were its purposes?

2 Source 1: How are the Native Police being promoted in this image? Analyse the fashions evident in the photograph and who is seated and who is standing.

3 Why did the Anti-Transportation League want to stop convicts being sent to Australia?

4 Why would First Nations People have joined the Native Police?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 Which of Maconochie's reforms have been maintained in the present day?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Why was the structure of Victoria's Native Police copied by other Australian colonies?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 The old Melbourne Gaol stood on a hill overlooking the city. Why was its presence on the horizon both a warning and a deterrent?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 How have Australian legal systems continued to interact with First Nations Peoples and their customary laws and culture? (You may need to conduct further research.)

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

What was life like during the Victorian gold rush?

The discovery of gold in Australia in 1851 caused a huge influx of people to the goldfields. Thousands of miners worked claims, enduring tough conditions in the hopes of striking it rich. Population shifts created a cultural melting pot, Victoria's economy was supercharged, and the lands and food sources of Victoria's First Nations Peoples were devastated.

The gold rush in Victoria

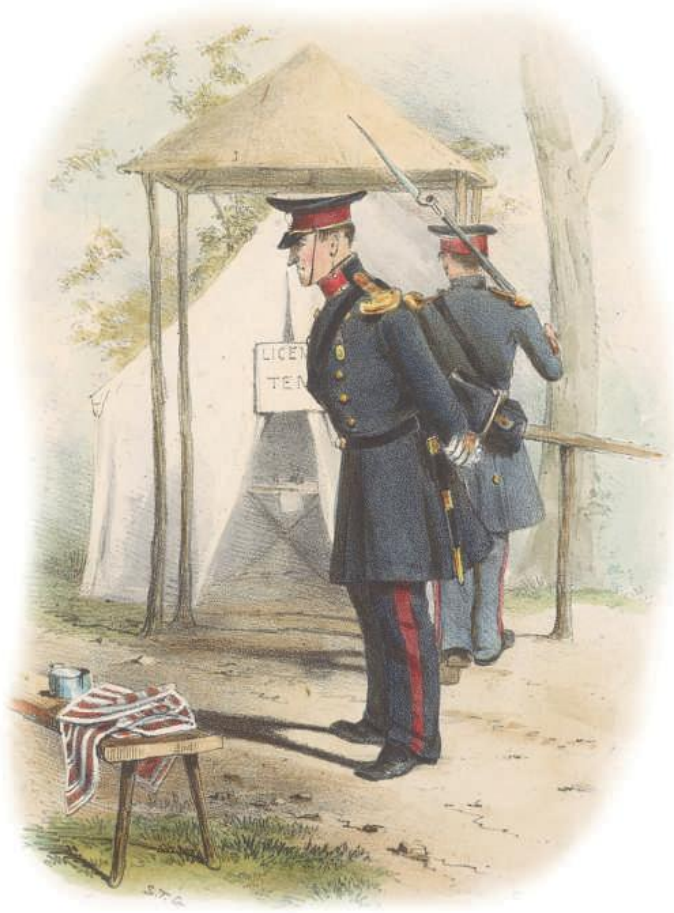
Following finds in NSW in 1851, gold was also discovered in Victoria around Warrandyte, Clunes and Ballarat. Miner James Esmond sent news to the *Geelong Advertiser* that Clunes was rich in gold. The story was published on 22 July and, with that, the Victorian gold rush had begun.

Soon there was a flood of people arriving from Europe, Asia and America, all hoping to cash in. Every month, 10 000–20 000 people arrived in Victoria with no idea of how to mine or how to live in the bush. By 1852, the population of the colony soared to 168 231.

Once again, the colonists' activities profoundly affected the lives of the local First Nations Peoples, the Wathaurong and the Dja Dja Wurrung. Mining desecrated sacred sites, hunting grounds were lost and traditional food sources moved to other areas. Poorly marked tunnels and shafts entombed people during the night. Increased contact with Europeans brought violence, alcoholism and disease. However, mining also brought business opportunities for First Nations Peoples, as their knowledge of the land was of great assistance to people seeking claims.

Source 1

Prospectors in Dargo, in the Gippsland region of Victoria. Prospectors would build huts over their claim, making them easier to watch and protect.



Source 2

Victorian police officers of the 1860s

Traps and diggers

Governors FitzRoy and LaTrobe were dismayed at the exodus of people from the cities and farms to the goldfields, which left Australia's pastoral industries short of labour. To help retain labour, and bring in more revenue, they set a gold-mining licence fee of 30 shillings a month. The governors also recruited an order of police known as 'traps', who wore a distinctive blue uniform, to check that miners carried valid licences and documentation.

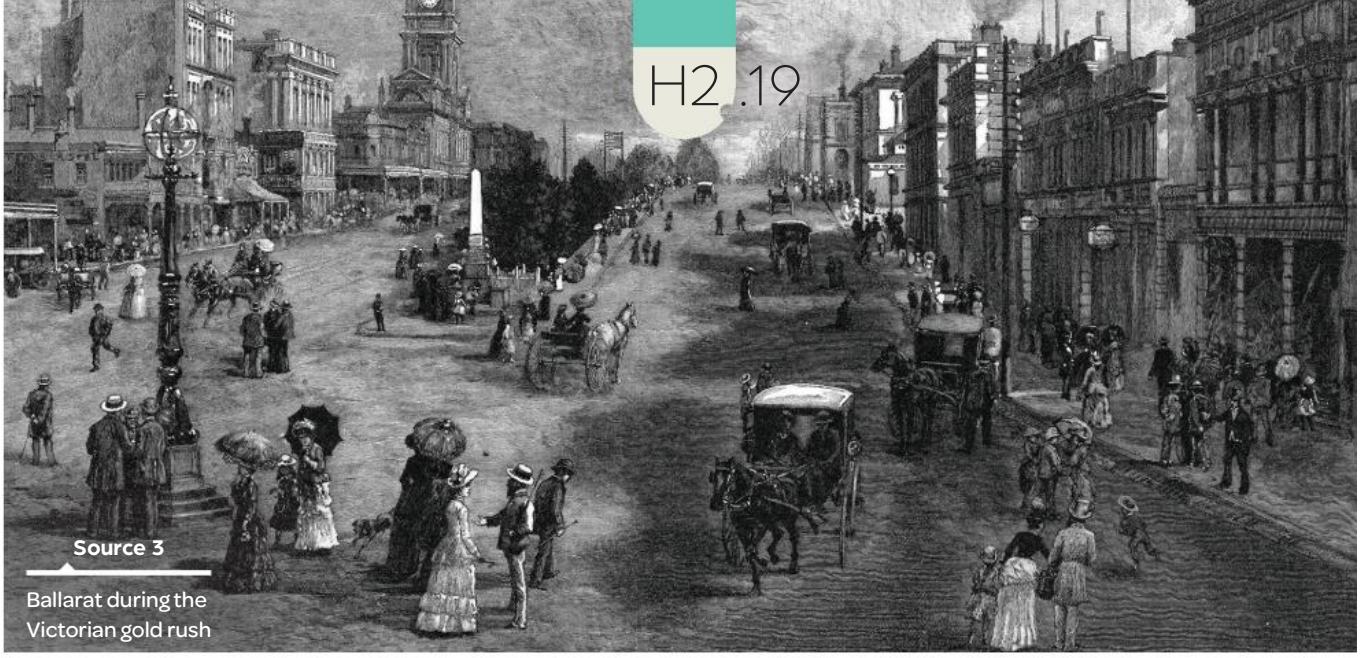
Many of the miners, known as 'diggers', hid their valuable licences to prevent them from becoming damaged by their wet, messy work. However, this meant that when traps went on licence raids, many diggers were fined for not being able to produce their licence on the spot. Traps were allowed to keep half the fines they collected, so they frequently went on 'digger hunts'. The traps were violent during these raids, and miners might be flogged, have their tents burned or be chained to a log for a day or a night without access to food, water or a toilet.

The traps performed other police duties on the goldfields, such as breaking up fights or protecting gold shipments. Some of them were ex-convicts, with a reputation for brutality, which made them ideal for fending off bushrangers while gold was transported from the diggings to the ports.

The hard mining life

Miners endured tough living conditions. By day, they worked in hard, wet and frequently dark conditions, while by night they lived in canvas tents or other very basic accommodation. Mining work offered no guarantee of turning up enough gold to pay the monthly licence fee; so many miners took their chances to mine without one. Miners would dig a claim until any gold ran out, before starting again elsewhere. Unethical prospectors would mine at an angle into another person's claim, or find out about a pending claim and try to 'jump' it first.

To maximise efficiency, industrialised mining companies used steam-powered drilling, crushing and smelting machines. Once these machines were developed, many single or small-operation miners were put out of work. A number of First Nations People also worked on the goldfields. Some became wealthy from guarding transports, from guiding miners through their lands or from their own gold discoveries.



Source 3

Ballarat during the Victorian gold rush

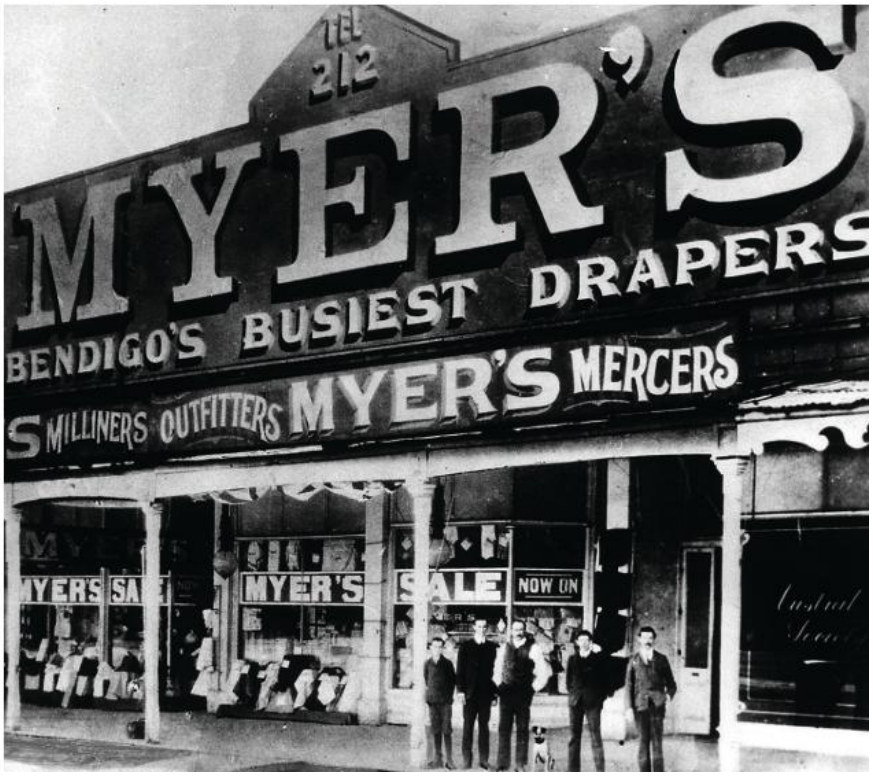
Victoria's economic boom

Gold from the mines earned Victoria a lot of money. In 1852, the gross domestic product of Victoria was £16.1 million, making it the most profitable Australian colony at the time. The government revenues in 1853 were £3.2 million, which enabled the colony to build infrastructure, such as trains, and to become industrialised.

During the decade of the gold rush, mining was the second largest income source for the colonial economy, although this also included coal and other minerals. When mining dried up after a decade, the economy transitioned back to wool and other commodities.

The population boom on the goldfields led to a dramatic rise in food production to feed the miners. Subsidiary industries emerged to serve the miners, such as general stores, carpenters, doctors, dentists, lawyers and wagon makers. Merchants and professionals of all kinds flocked to the goldfields. The large population of Chinese miners brought with them food stalls, professional laundries, 'joss houses' (temples) and opium dens.

In the cities, the wealthy middle classes enjoyed a new innovation from England – department stores that offered shopping as a leisure activity. Australia's first department store was Appleton & Jones, established in Sydney in 1835, which became David Jones in 1838. Melbourne's first department store was the Coles Book Arcade, established in 1873; it included a monkey exhibit, a band, a library and a portrait studio among many other 'departments'.



Source 4

In 1899, the Baevski brothers set up the first Myer's store in Bendigo (they changed their surname to Myer soon after arriving in Australia from Russia). After success in regional Victoria, they bought land in Melbourne and opened an eight-storey store in Bourke Street, called Myer Emporium, in 1914.

Cultural change and ethnic tension

At its foundation, Victoria was chiefly populated by people of British descent, in addition to the resident First Nations Peoples. The population exploded during the gold rush – from roughly 4000 people in 1839 to 12 000 in 1841 and 328 000 by 1861. Victoria's ethnic diversity expanded too; people from Africa, Asia and Europe came to the goldfields and made Victoria their new home.

A large number of Chinese immigrants followed the discovery of gold to Australia, which they named *Xin Jin Shan,* or New Gold Mountain. Some were men looking to provide for their families back in China, and left as soon as they had earned sufficient funds; others stayed in Australia and established families. Arriving in the tens of thousands, Chinese-born immigrants constituted 3.3 per cent of the total colonial Australian population (note that First Nations Peoples were not included in census population counting).

The Chinese immigrants tended to keep to themselves and recreated a Southern Chinese way of life. Their foreign religions, customs, strong work ethic and mining successes attracted hostility from other miners and white settlers. In 1855, the *Chinese Immigration Act* limited the number of Chinese immigrants allowed to enter Victoria; undeterred, Chinese travellers landed in New South Wales and walked to the Victorian goldfields.

Chinese miners were harassed by both officials and other miners. They were required to pay a residency licence, in addition to the standard gold licence, and their claims might be 'jumped' by other miners if their residence papers weren't produced upon request. Acts of violence were common. In 1857, a full-scale riot against the Chinese erupted at Buckland River, with evictions, beatings, mine dispossessions and deaths.

Racist sentiments continued against other people as the gold rush waned. In fact, racism expanded from 1860 as Hindu and Muslim 'Ghan cameleers' connected towns in the Australian interior with camel trains and hawker carts. The men labelled as 'Ghans' were actually from many parts of Hindustan, British India and Afghanistan. They were segregated in fenced areas called 'Ghantowns', which housed some of the earliest mosques in Australia. Racial mixing was a social taboo at the time but a number of Ghan cameleers married both Indigenous and non-Indigenous women.

Tensions between white settlers and other ethnic groups shaped the first Act made by the Australian government – the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901*, which became known as 'the White Australia Policy'.

Source 5

A family of Chinese immigrants in Australia, circa 1891

Learning ladder H2.19

Show what you know

1 Near which three Victorian towns was gold first discovered?

2 How did the traps' policing of licences create hostility?

3 How did the Chinese miners fare on the goldfields?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 Identify two causes and two effects of the Victorian gold rush.

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 How did the gold rush affect the infrastructure of Victoria?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 How did the influx of immigrants during the gold rush create a new set of problems for the colonies?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

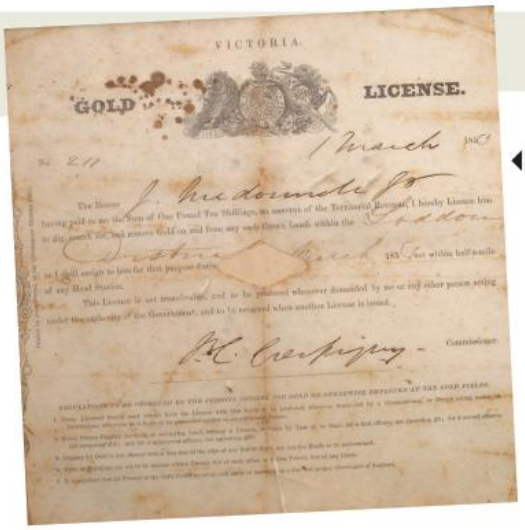
7 How did the Australian gold rush economically disadvantage pastoral and agricultural industries?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 247

What was the Eureka Rebellion?

Miners on the Australian goldfields grew increasingly restless under oppressive licensing fees and what they viewed as a corrupt police and legal system. Tensions finally reached breaking point in Ballarat at the Eureka Stockade in 1854, in a battle that left 22 people dead.


VICTORIA.

GOLD LICENSE.

Source 1

A miner's gold licence from 1853

Goldfield politics

There was considerable political unrest among the diggers on the Australian goldfields. Prospectors were upset at having to pay burdensome licence fees, while Chinese miners were further taxed by residency licences. The police conducted regular 'licence hunts', and were frequently accused of accepting bribes, extorting money and imprisoning people without proper trials. Inspired by English trade unionists and political movements (such as the Chartists, see page 44), Australian miners banded together to form unions.

The miners of Ballarat formed the Ballarat Reform League in response to a number of political issues. John Humffray, the secretary of the League, believed that the miners were not fairly represented in the political system. He and other leaders were largely unsuccessful in their efforts to address key concerns such as the miners' right to vote, the removal of restrictions on land purchases, and the reform of the entire system administering the gold fields. The diggers' growing resistance to the oppressive licensing led to uprisings at Sofala in 1852, at Bendigo in 1853 and – most dramatically – at Ballarat in 1854.

Source 2

J.B. Henderson, 1854, *Battle of the Eureka Stockade*

Murder and arson

James Scobie, a Scottish miner, was killed under suspicious circumstances in Ballarat on 6 October 1854. James Francis Bentley, owner of the Eureka Hotel, was accused of his murder but was quickly acquitted. The miners were outraged, and some accused the magistrate who heard the case of taking bribes. A group of 5000 men and women met to talk over the case, and afterwards a small number of them set the Eureka Hotel on fire before being arrested.

Lieutenant-Governor Charles Hotham dismissed petitions for the arsonists to be released. Sensing the growing unrest, he deployed 150 British Army soldiers to Ballarat to help maintain public order.

The Eureka Stockade

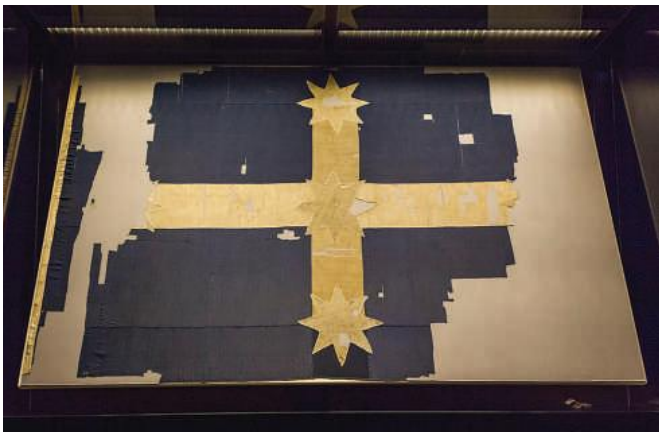
On 31 November 1854, after another police licence hunt, 1500 men and women marched to Bakery Hill in Ballarat and built a **stockade**. They burned mining licences, demanded political change, sang the French Revolutionary Anthem and raised a flag showing the Southern Cross, which was later called the Eureka flag. They remained there guarding the stockade for the next two days, but their numbers dramatically declined to between 120 and 200 rebels.

At 3 am on 3 December, 300 soldiers and police attacked the stockade. The miners withstood ferocious bayoneting, musket and pistol fire for 25 minutes; even those injured continued to be stabbed. The diggers were overwhelmingly defeated, with 22 casualties recorded. Of the 120 survivors, 12 were injured and all were arrested and charged with treason.

Aftermath

Thirteen of the Eureka rebels were tried for treason in February 1855. The colony's newspaper, *The Argus*, covered the trial, reporting that the jury's sympathies were with the miners. All of them were acquitted, and charges against the others were dropped.

Later that same year, a Royal Commission recommended the removal of gold licence fees. They were replaced with an export tax on gold, along with a £1 annual fee for miners to receive some legal rights and limited political/voting rights. Peter Lalor, a leader of the stockade, became an elected representative and has since had an electorate named after him.



Source 3

The remnants of the original Eureka flag, which was cut into pieces and hidden by participants. Years later, it was reassembled and is now on display at the Eureka Centre in Ballarat.

Learning ladder H2.20

Show what you know

1 What does Source 2 reveal about the Eureka Stockade conflict?

2 Why did the soldiers stab people who were injured and no longer fighting?

3 Hypothesise why the Eureka flag (Source 3) was cut up and then hidden.

4 Why were the miners exonerated by the jury?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 How long did the Eureka Stockade conflict actually last?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 How did the miners turn the rebellion and court case into a lasting victory?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 Which government reforms were implemented as a result of the rebellion?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 Why do some unions still fly the Eureka flag today? (You may need to research which particular unions fly the flag.)

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

How is Coranderrk a symbol of success and resistance?

One of the outcomes of the colonisation of Victoria, and the genocide committed against its First Nations Peoples, was a growing discontent among First Nations communities. They wanted to resist government control over their lives, but were willing to work with the colonists to prevent further loss of life and culture.

Coranderrk

Coranderrk was a reserve (settlement), intended as a 'new home' for displaced First Nations People. In 1863, 931 hectares of land were allocated at the junction of the Yarra River and Badger Creek, roughly 65 km northeast of Melbourne. William Barak and Simon Wonga, two Wurundjeri leaders, led their people across the Dandenong Ranges to the site, and built Coranderrk Aboriginal Station.

Coranderrk was initially home to 40 Kulin people, but within 12 years its population had tripled. Its First Nations community combined their traditional knowledge of Country with the new plants, animals and farming techniques introduced by the Europeans. For a time, Coranderrk was the most productive agricultural land in Victoria; it even won an agricultural prize at the Melbourne International Exhibition in 1881. Coranderrk became a popular tourist destination for Victorian colonists, who purchased goods such as woven baskets, boomerangs and possum skin rugs.

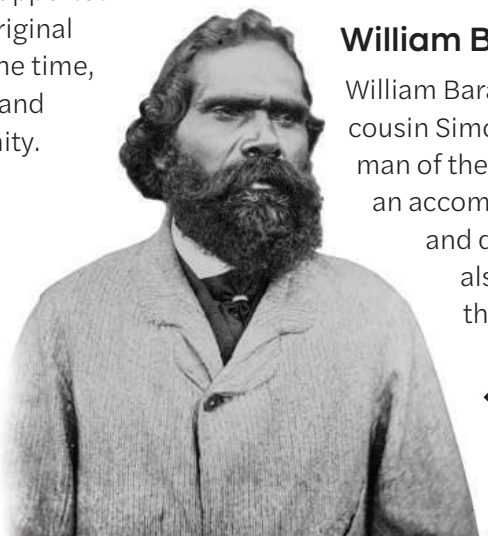
The success of Coranderrk was supported by John Green, the Protector of Aboriginal Peoples in Victoria. Progressive for the time, Green encouraged self-governance and autonomy for Coranderrk's community.

Simon Wonga

Simon Wonga was a Wurundjeri man of the Woi wurrung Clan, born around 1824; as a boy, he witnessed his father Billibellary signing the Batman Treaty. When he was 19, he badly injured his foot, and was taken in by the Assistant Protector of Aborigines for treatment. During his recovery, he tried to learn all he could about the colonists and their ways.

Billibellary died in 1846, making Simon the *Ngurungeata* of his clan. Instead of taking up this role, he continued working for the colonists to learn about their culture. Once Wonga had learned as much as he could, he accepted his role as *Ngurungaeta* and began campaigning for a home for his displaced people. He successfully argued for the establishment of Coranderrk, with the help of some progressive colonists.

Wonga was a central figure within the Coranderrk community. He continued to campaign for his people's rights, often walking to Melbourne to petition for more support. With the help of John Green, he was able to protect the hard-won gains of his people; for a time, the residents at Coranderrk were able to live in peace. Wonga passed away in 1874 and was succeeded as *Ngurungaeta* by William Barak.



Source 1

Simon Wonga

William Barak

William Barak was born in 1824 and, like his cousin Simon Wonga, he was a Wurundjeri man of the Woi wurrung Clan. He became an accomplished negotiator and leader, and during his time at Coranderrk he also recorded First Nations culture through story and art.

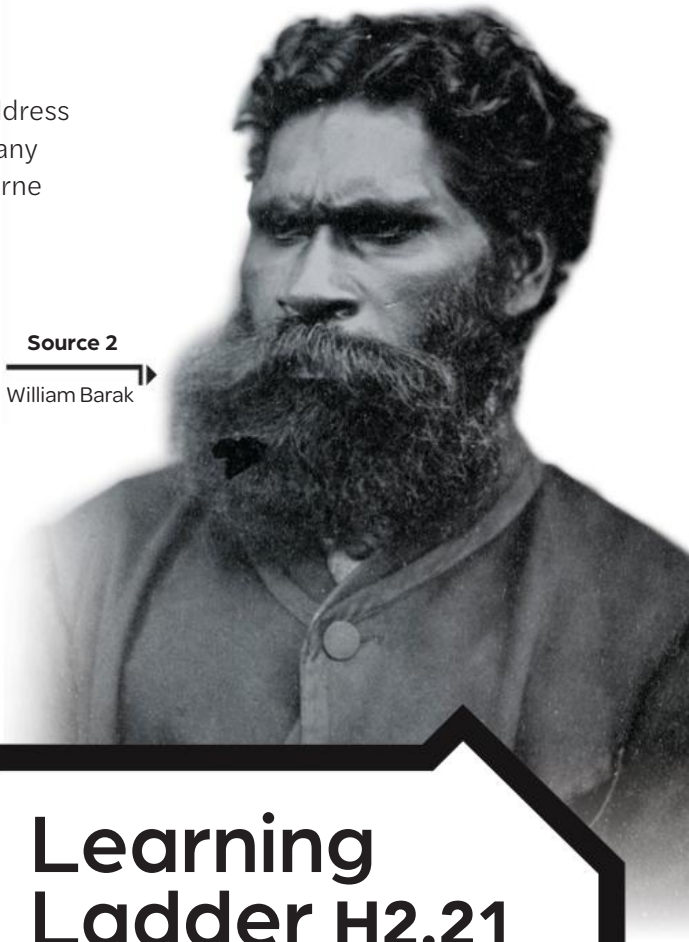
When Barak became the clan leader in 1874, he tried to address the deteriorating living conditions at the reserve. He wrote many letters and petitions and, like his cousin, he walked to Melbourne and back to meet with politicians, including the premier.

Closure and impact

By the 1870s, colonists wanted to take over the land at Coranderrk. They undermined John Green, who resigned in 1874. With Green gone, living conditions at Coranderrk deteriorated; the government cut off food supplies, refused to maintain housing and no longer supplied medicines.

In 1886, the Victorian Government passed the *Aboriginal Protection Law Amendment Act*. This forced all First Nations People aged 15–35 with any European ancestors to vacate government reserves. The Act tore apart Coranderrk's community, and further mismanagement reduced the population to only 31 by 1893. The residents could not overcome the growing pressure from colonial farmers and developers, and Coranderrk officially closed in 1924.

The story of Coranderrk is not one of failure, but of resistance. Its success, and the political achievements of its leaders, laid the foundations for the Victorian First Nations political activism of the 20th century. Barak, the last recognised *Ngurungaeta* of the Wurundjeri people, left a powerful legacy that continues to inspire First Nations leaders today.



Source 2

William Barak

Source 3

William Barak's grave at Coranderrk Cemetery. The cemetery was returned to the Wurundjeri people in 1991.

Learning Ladder H2.21

Show what you know

1 What source of income, other than farming, helped to support Coranderrk?

2 Why did colonial farmers want First Nations Peoples to leave Coranderrk?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

3 Why was it necessary for governments to establish Aboriginal Reserves?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

4 Why was it significant that the Coranderrk community applied their traditional knowledge to European crops and livestock?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

5 Use Partington's theory (see page 251) to explain why William Barak was a significant historical figure.

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

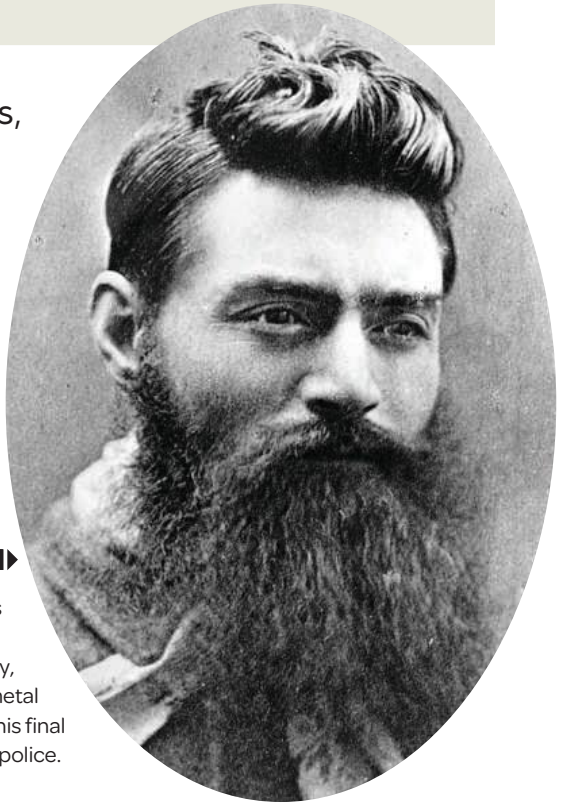
6 What was the significance of the *Aboriginal Protection Law Amendment Act 1886*?

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 251

The bushrangers: Outlaws or icons?

Frequent gold transports proved tempting to criminals, as did naïve travellers using quiet bush tracks. Bushrangers such as Ned Kelly were notorious outlaws in colonial Australia. Some viewed them as brutal criminals, others as brave rebels.



Source 1

Ned Kelly, the most notorious bushranger of the 19th century, wore a suit of metal armour during his final gun battle with police.

Highway robbery

Bushrangers were the highwaymen of Australia, holding up travellers on bush roads and robbing them of their possessions. Some operated in gangs and robbed police transports, banks and even an entire ship on one occasion. However, not all bushrangers fitted this description. Almost any criminal who hid out in bushland was referred to as a 'bushranger'. The term was applied to petty criminals, escaped convicts, First Nations rebels and others.

The Kelly gang

Ned Kelly came from a poor Irish-immigrant family who lived in the regional towns of Wallan, Beveridge Avenel and Greta. He had several run-ins with the police as a teenager over the theft of livestock, and was an accomplice to bushranger Harry Power.

In 1878, after a fight with police, Ned Kelly went on the run and formed the Kelly gang with his brother and two friends. After killing three policemen in an ambush at Stringybark Creek, the gang turned to robbing banks and terrorising towns along the Murray River. In his 1879 manifesto, known as the Jerilderie Letter, Kelly claimed that persecution by the police had forced him into a life of crime, and that small farmers were oppressed by a government controlled by banks and large landholders.

In 28 June 1880, after murdering a suspected informant, the Kelly gang took over the town of Glenrowan. They wanted to derail a train filled with police coming to arrest them, and built suits of metal armour to protect themselves. The gang held the people of Glenrowan hostage while waiting for the train. Because the train was sent from Melbourne rather than Benalla, the expected 12-hour siege turned into a 30-hour ordeal, so the gang released a few people over time. One of those released hostages was Thomas Curnow, who informed the coming train of the ambush. The police attacked the gang at the inn; Kelly and his men were defeated.

Ned Kelly was tried on multiple charges of murder, robbery and other crimes, in a court case that was heavily sensationalised by the media of the time. He was found guilty and hanged on 11 November 1880. His iconic armour and political manifesto made him famous to this day. However, his violent crimes and murders are often forgotten or overlooked.

Jessie Hickman

The heyday for bushrangers was the gold rush era. After the death of Ned Kelly, fewer people turned to robbery in the bush. As well as being one of Australia's very few female bushrangers, Jessie Hickman was one of its last – she robbed farms, stole cattle and evaded police until the late 1920s.

Born in 1890 in central NSW, Hickman joined a travelling circus at the age of eight and became a roughrider (a person who roped cattle and performed stunts on horseback). When the circus closed in 1910, she turned to gambling and theft to support herself. She served two terms in gaol, then began stealing and selling cattle. There are stories of her stealing cattle from the police, escaping from custody while on a moving train and even killing her husband (in self-defence).

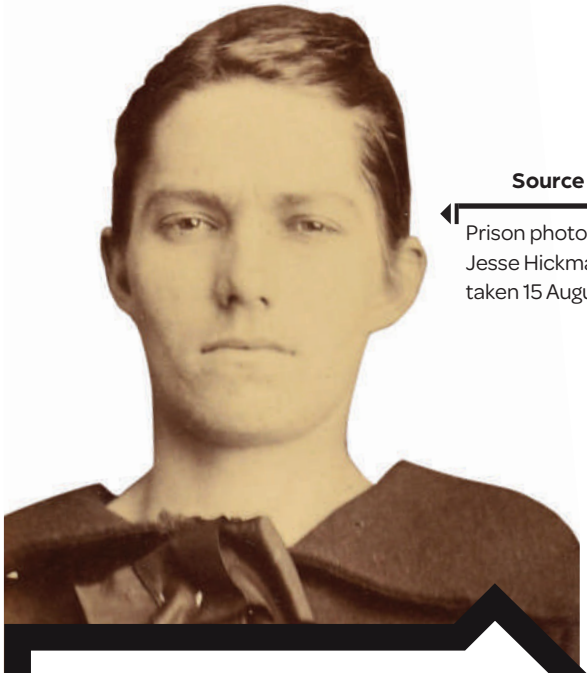
In the 1920s, Hickman relocated to the Wollemi region of the Blue Mountains, where she led a gang of cattle thieves. She was charged with cattle rustling in 1928, but the charges were dropped when the evidence (the cattle) went missing. She eventually left her life of crime to live on a farm, and died of a brain tumour in 1938.

Jimmy Governor

Jimmy Governor was a First Nations man, most likely of the Wunumara people, who lived in the Talbragar region of NSW in the 1890s. A literate man who worked with the police as a tracker, Governor and his family were nevertheless bullied and treated badly by local white settlers, especially once he married a European woman.

After being abused by the wife of a wealthy landowner, Governor and his friend Jacky Underwood killed the landowner and his family on 20 July 1900, then went on the run. Styling themselves as bushrangers, Governor and Underwood (along with some of Governor's brothers), committed more crimes in the area over the next three months, including murders, robberies, burglaries and assaults.

A reward of £1000 was offered for Governor's capture, and 2000 volunteers and police hunted for them. He was captured on 27 October 1900, and was hanged on 18 January 1901. His story has been retold in modern times by creators who sought to understand the abuse and oppression that led to his terrible crimes.



Source 2

Prison photo of Jesse Hickman, taken 15 August 1913

Learning ladder H2.22

Show what you know

1 What were some of the crimes that bushrangers committed?

2 Why were many different criminals, not just highwaymen, referred to as 'bushrangers'?

3 Why has Ned Kelly received so much attention from scholars, filmmakers and tourists?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

4 What people within the colony (if any) might have seen Ned Kelly as a hero?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

5 How were Ned Kelly's actions and his trial portrayed by the media of his day?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

6 Kelly's 'Jerilderie Letter' is an important document in Australian history. Find a copy and read the key sections in pairs or groups. How does Kelly justify his actions? How does he criticise society? Do you believe him?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

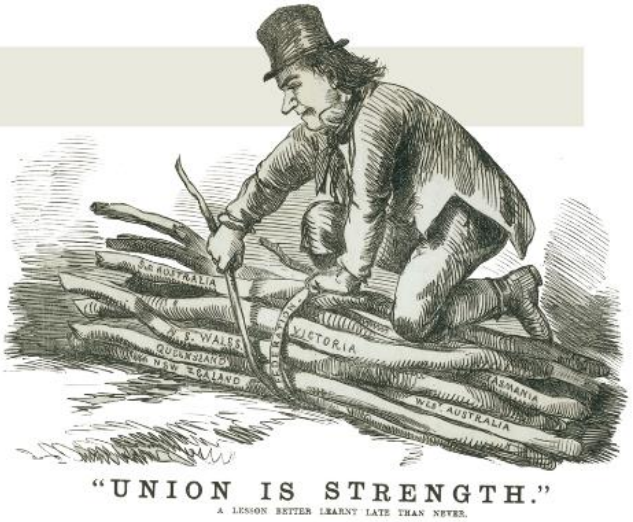
7 Many books, films and TV shows have told the stories of bushrangers, such as *The Chant of Jimmy Blacksmith, Mad Dog Morgan* and *The True History of the Kelly Gang*. To what degree do they depict the truth, or a romanticised version of the past?

HOW TO Historical interpretations, page 255

PART III: FEDERATION (1901–1914 AND BEYOND)

Why did the colonies become a federation?

As an Australian identity began to emerge, issues such as immigration, tariffs, the need for a national army and even different sized rail gauges drove political movements to create a federal government. Legislators such as Henry Parkes argued for a federated Australia, which was realised in 1901 to great celebration.



Source 1

This was possibly the first cartoon supporting an Australian federation. Featured in *Melbourne Punch*, 1860, it shows all of the Australasian colonies (including New Zealand) banding together.

Independent colonies

By 1900 – the dawn of the 20th century – six British colonies existed in Australia: New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia. All were independent, self-governing bodies with their own militias. They were no longer answerable to the Governor-General of New South Wales, but instead reported to the British Parliament. The notion of being 'Australian' – rather than a British colonist – started to be celebrated in popular songs and poetry.

key ideas timeline.

- 1880–1900: Calls for federation begin; conventions are held to debate a new constitution
- 1900: *The Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act* is presented to the British Parliament, passed on 5 July
- 1901: The government passes its first Act, the *The Immigration Restriction Act*
- 1901: The Constitution of Australia begins on 1 January
- 1908: Agreement reached to establish a new capital at Canberra
- 1913: The foundation stone of the Australian Parliament House is laid

1869–1970s the Stolen Generations suffer forced removals from their families

Calls to bring the colonies together as a federation – a single country with a national government – began in 1880, when NSW Premier Henry Parkes proposed a federal council to manage matters that were relevant to all the colonies. The Federal Council of Australasia was formed in 1886, with representatives of all of the mainland colonies except for New South Wales; it also included representatives from Fiji and New Zealand. Henry Parkes and other early legislators, such as Victorian politician Alfred Deakin, continued to promote the idea of federation and a national government.

This 1888 cartoon urges women, symbolising the different colonies, to use federation as a means to deport the Chinese. While acceptable at the time, it is racist and offensive by modern standards.

Support for a new federation

The colonies held conventions throughout the 1890s, which debated the form a national **constitution** might take and how it would be governed. A series of legislators drew from both the British and American government systems to devise a middle path between Westminster and Washington, known as the 'Washminster' system.

Many people who supported federation saw economic benefits from removing inter-colonial trade tariffs, and hoped that measurement and transport would be standardised. For example, every colony used a different track gauge for its railways, so trains could not travel from one colony to another; passengers had to get out and change trains at the border. Military considerations included a perceived need for national armed forces. Federation would help solve these problems.

There were other, less positive arguments for federation. In the 1880s, following the end of the gold rush, there was a rise in anti-Chinese and anti-immigrant sentiment. One of the most persuasive arguments for federation was that a united immigration policy would strengthen all borders against non-white foreigners. First Nations Peoples were not included in the federation debate at all.

The Australian flag

The competition to design the new Australian flag was held by the journal *Review of Reviews*, which offered a £200 prize to the winners. The 32 823 entries gathered over eight months were displayed in the Royal Exhibition Building, and five winners were selected by Prime Minister Sir Edmund Barton and Lady Hopetoun, the governor-general's wife.

The Australian flag bears the Union Jack, the Commonwealth seven-pointed star (which replaced the original six-pointed star) and the Southern Cross on a blue background. The Union Jack represents Australia's British colonial heritage, while the star points represent its seven states and territories. The symbol of the Southern Cross is also sacred to many of Australia's First Nations Peoples. Today the blue flag is one of three internationally recognised Australian flags, along with the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander flags.

Source 3

The Australian flag owes its design to a public competition.

Opposition to federation

Not everyone supported federation. Politicians in NSW and Victoria, who had profited from an earlier start and economic prosperity from the gold rushes, feared losing prestige and were reluctant to share their wealth with their poorer counterparts. Western Australia stalled on offering a referendum, until gold miners in the region threatened a rebellion similar to the Eureka Stockade.

Queensland's government was also reluctant; as a young colony, it feared domination by the more established and wealthier colonies. There was also concern that a national government might prohibit the importation and exploitation of workers from the Pacific Islands, who were central to Queensland's sugar cane industry.

Some figures in the powerful labour movement supported federation, but others were against it. There was concern within the movement that a national government would reinforce the power of banks and wealthy landowners, rather than give power to workers. There was also religious opposition; many pro-federation leaders were Protestants, which meant some Catholic leaders were automatically opposed to federation.

Who could vote?

From 1891 to 1893, it was decided by popular vote that **referenda** would decide the form of the national constitution, and would also be the means by which it could be later changed. The referenda did not include all Australians. Voting was optional, and there were restrictions based on ownership of property; Queensland and Western Australia even restricted Indigenous people who owned property from voting. Women in South Australia and Western Australia had the right to vote, but women in the other colonies did not. Others who were excluded were people on welfare assistance.

Some groups, such as the First Nations Peoples of Australia and the South Sea Islanders, had the right to vote as British subjects, but were denied this right by local governments. (Queensland did not allow First Nations Peoples to vote until 1965.)

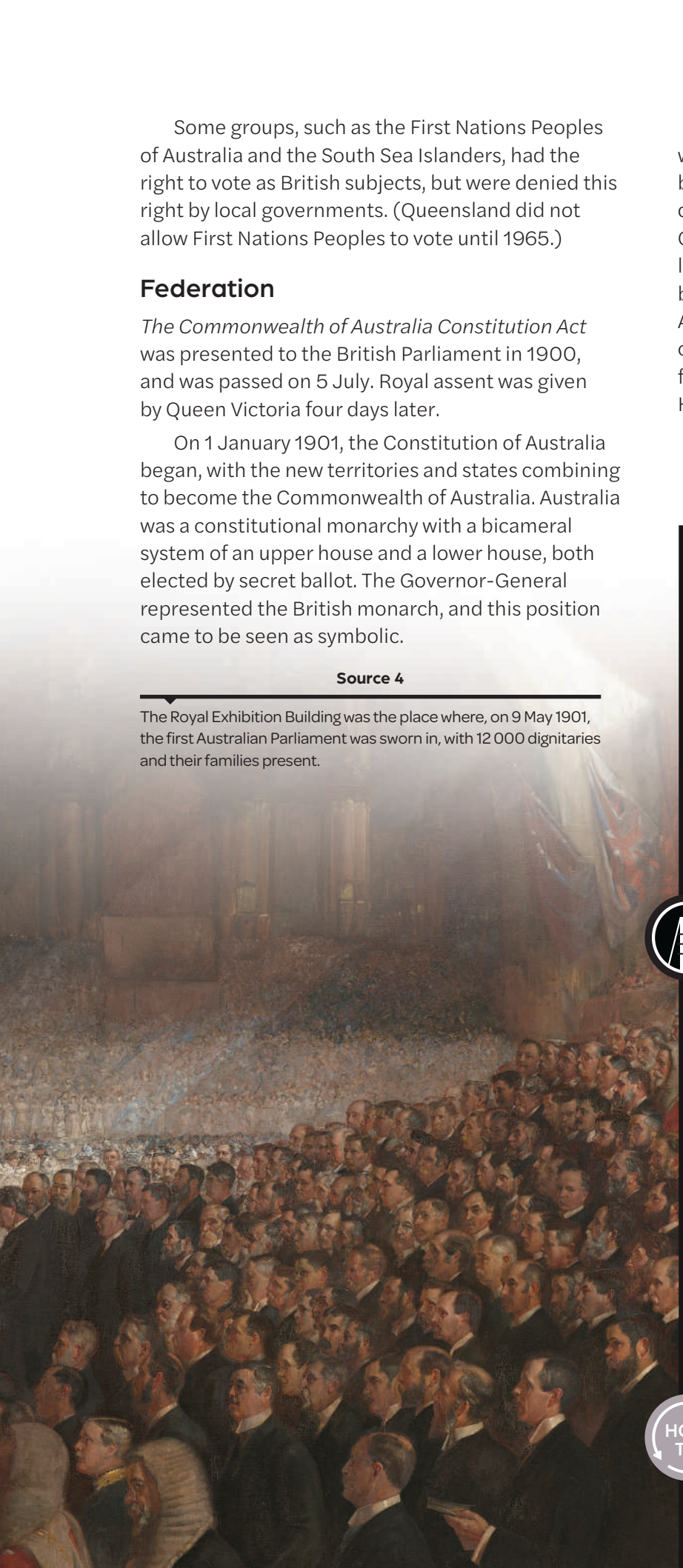
Federation

The Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act was presented to the British Parliament in 1900, and was passed on 5 July. Royal assent was given by Queen Victoria four days later.

On 1 January 1901, the Constitution of Australia began, with the new territories and states combining to become the Commonwealth of Australia. Australia was a constitutional monarchy with a bicameral system of an upper house and a lower house, both elected by secret ballot. The Governor-General represented the British monarch, and this position came to be seen as symbolic.

Source 4

The Royal Exhibition Building was the place where, on 9 May 1901, the first Australian Parliament was sworn in, with 12 000 dignitaries and their families present.



For 27 years, NSW and Victoria debated whether the nation's capital city should be Melbourne or Sydney. In 1908 it was decided that Australia's capital would be Canberra (meaning 'meeting place' in the local Ngunnawal language), and that it would be placed between Sydney and Melbourne. American architect Walter Burley-Griffin won a competition to design the city in 1912, and the first foundation stone of Australia's Parliament House was laid in 1913.

Learning ladder H2.23

Show what you know

1 Consider Source 1. Why is New Zealand included in the cartoon?

2 What city is Australia's national capital?

3 Name some of the significant figures involved in the federation of Australia.

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

4 Which major concerns led to the federation of Australia?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

5 Which parliamentary systems influenced Australia's leading legislators at the time?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

6 How did the British monarchy retain a voice and power in the independent nation of Australia?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

7 What symbol of the British monarchy can be seen in Source 4? How else was Queen Victoria honoured (i.e. what was named after her and her family)?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

civics + citizenship

How does Australia's government work?

On 1 January 1901, the six colonies became states of the Commonwealth of Australia, retaining their separate parliaments and handing over matters concerning the entire nation to a new federal government, which would operate under the guidelines set out in the Constitution.

Westminster system

The Westminster system is England's parliamentary system of government, named after the Palace of Westminster, the seat of the British Parliament. This system was the framework used to establish parliaments in the six Australian colonies before federation, as well as the Australian parliamentary system in 1901.

The Westminster system is a series of procedures for law making. It includes many specific roles, processes and concepts, including:

- a sovereign, or head of state such as a governor or governor-general, who holds the power to sign off on laws passed by parliament
- a head of government, either prime minister (for Australia), premier (for each state) or chief minister (for each territory)
- a parliamentary opposition with an official leader
- an executive branch with the power to administer or implement the law
- a legislative branch with the power to make laws. Legislatures are usually bicameral, involving two houses of parliament. Queensland has Australia's only unicameral government, with an elected Legislative Assembly and governor
- a judicial branch to establish common laws that address gaps or confusion with the statutory laws made by parliament
- parliamentary privilege, which gives Members legal immunity for any statements made in parliament
- an independent civil service that advises government ministers and implements decisions.

Source 1

Australia's parliament

Australia's Constitution

The Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900 was an Act of the Parliament of the United Kingdom. The Act enabled Australia's Constitution – a set of principles that state how power is shared between a federal parliament and six state parliaments.

The Constitution separates the government's powers into different branches. This prevents one group from having power over both the law-making and law-judging systems. The federal government has three branches:

- executive: the Prime Minister, along with senior government ministers and the Governor-General, have the power to administer or implement the law
- legislature: parliament has the power to make the law
- judiciary: the courts have the power to interpret and apply the law.

Source 2

The original Parliament House in Canberra was opened in 1927 and hosted federal parliament until 1988, when it was replaced by the new Parliament House.

Each of Australia's six states and two territories also has a parliament that makes laws on state matters, such as health, education and transport. The powers of state governments are also separated into branches.

Changes to the Constitution can only be made by a referendum, where a majority of Australian voters and a majority of states vote to approve the changes proposed by parliament.

Federal parliament

Australia's federal parliament consists of two houses: the **House of Representatives** and the **Senate**.

The House of Representatives has 151 members, each representing one local area of Australia known as an **electorate**. They are elected for a term of three years. The government is formed by the **political party** with the most members in the House of Representatives, which then holds executive power.

The Senate has 76 members, elected for a term of six years. Half of the **senators** face election every three years. Each of the six states has 12 senators, and the Australian Capital Territory and Northern Territory both have two senators.

Representing electorates

Members of Parliament (MPs) provide a direct link between the people in their electorate and the Parliament. On average, each federal electorate has 100 000 voters.

Each MP has an office in their electorate where they can hear the concerns of the voters. Some groups of voters may try to influence (or lobby) the local member to present their interests about a special issue. In parliament, MPs are expected to represent their voters on matters of interest to their electorate, such as a major road construction or the closure of a local industry.

MPs must represent their electorate well; at the end of their term, they face an election where voters decide whether to vote for them or not.

Learning ladder H2.24

Civics and citizenship

Step 1: I can identify topics about society

1 List three ways in which Australia's government is influenced by the Westminster system.

Step 2: I can describe societal issues

2 Describe how the interests of citizens are represented in government, and how their concerns can be heard.

Step 3: I can explain issues in society

3 Why do you think there is a separation of powers under the Australian Constitution?

Step 4: I can explain different points of view

4 Research and explain the role of the Opposition in Australian government.

Step 5: I can analyse issues in society

5 The USA, Canadian and New Zealand constitutions all recognise Indigenous people, but the Australian Constitution does not. Research what actions are being debated as a way to formally recognise Indigenous Australians.

What was the White Australia Policy?

At the time of federation, British subjects and allies, including citizens of India, the Pacific Islands and Japan, were able to travel anywhere within the empire. However, many Australians regarded non-white immigrants as dangerous interlopers who would steal Australian jobs. The new government acted to restrict immigration along racial lines.

Immigration restrictions

The first Act of Australia's federal parliament demonstrates public sentiment at the time of federation. The country's leaders saw immigration as an issue of paramount importance, and gave long speeches on the benefits of making Australia into a '[white] working man's paradise'.

The Immigration Restriction Act 1901 was part of a package of reforms that became known as the 'White Australia Policy'. This policy mandated a dictation test for any non-British prospective immigrant – a test that was biased and unfair. An immigration officer could select *any* European language at random and ask the applicant to translate it into English. Furthermore, a pass in one language could mean that the applicant just had to re-sit the test in another language, until they ultimately failed. In the first eight years, only 52 people passed this test; after 1909, immigration officers ensured that *nobody* passed.

The Act was very popular, and was in place for nearly 60 years. However, the worst parts of the Act were relaxed after World War II, and the dictation test was abolished in 1958.

Source 1

'The Chinese Invasion, Northern Queensland', *Illustrated Australian News*, 2 July 1877

Blackbirding

Another aspect of the White Australia Policy was its impact on the Pacific Islanders working in Queensland. As Queensland's sugar and cotton industry developed during the 19th century, plantation owners went to islands such as Vanuatu and Melanesia to 'recruit' Islanders for plantation work. Plantation owners duped, kidnapped or coerced the Islanders into boarding their ships – a process known as **blackbirding**. Each Islander was charged an Indenture Bond (a type of contract fee) from their already very low wages.

The 'blackbirded' Islanders endured horrendous conditions, and were treated as slaves. A third of them died from disease, malnutrition and mistreatment; many were buried in unmarked graves. They worked in sweltering heat, were underfed, would often be physically punished and were segregated from the community.

Source 2

South Sea Islander labourers on a Queensland pineapple plantation in the 1890s

The Pacific Islander Labourer Act 1901 was part of the White Australia Policy reforms package. It ordered the mass deportation of around 10 000 Islanders. The money earned by deceased Islanders should have gone to their next of kin, but the government only paid 15 per cent of their earnings. The Pacific Islanders Association unsuccessfully petitioned the Australian government multiple times over their wage dispute from 1902–04.

After the deportations, only 2500 Islanders remained in Queensland; their descendants make up the Australian South Sea Islander community today. On 7 September 2000, Queensland Premier Peter Beattie emotionally read the *Queensland Government Recognition Statement*, which acknowledged the Australian South Sea Islanders as a distinct cultural group and recognised their history of unjust treatment and discrimination.

Source 3

Badge distributed by the Australian Natives' Association to promote a 'White Australia'. This group used 'native' to mean 'Australian-born'; it had nothing to do with the First Nations Peoples of Australia.

Learning ladder H2.25

Show what you know

1 What is the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* better known as? How long was it in place?

2 What was unfair about the dictation test administered to prospective immigrants?

3 What is blackbirding?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

4 Consider Source 1. What does the illustration show about the concerns of 'White Australia'? Describe the details of the image.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

5 How are Chinese miners depicted in Source 1? What features highlight the illustrator's prejudiced attitudes?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

6 Source 3: How did this badge's creators define the term 'natives'? Why do you think they decided on that definition?

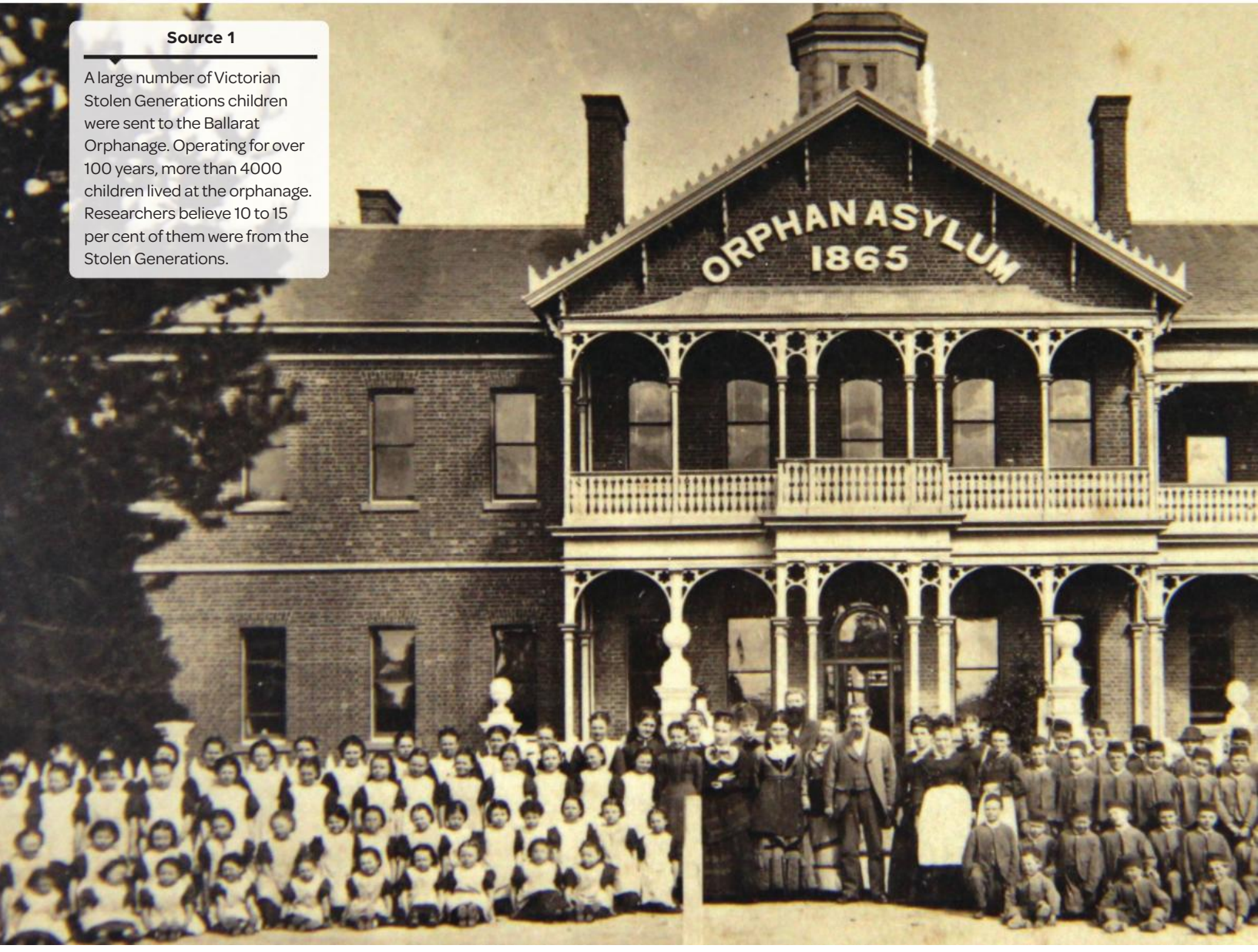
Step 4: I can analyse a source

7 What information does Source 2 provide about the lives of the South Sea Islanders?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

Who were the Stolen Generations?

From federation up until the 1970s, Australian government agencies and church missions forcibly removed many First Nations children in an attempt at assimilating them into 'white society'. These children later became known as the Stolen Generations. The United Nations defines the forcible transfer of children as genocide.



Source 1

A large number of Victorian Stolen Generations children were sent to the Ballarat Orphanage. Operating for over 100 years, more than 4000 children lived at the orphanage. Researchers believe 10 to 15 per cent of them were from the Stolen Generations.

Aboriginal 'protection'

In a continuation of one of Australia's most atrocious periods, the *Victorian Aboriginal Protection Act 1869* (as well as a later Act in 1886) began a nationwide policy of child removal, carried out under various state and territory acts.

The Act focused on removing mixed-race and fair-skinned Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children away from their families, so that they could be brought up in missions and other institutions, fostered out or adopted by white families. Named 'half-castes', 'quarter-castes' or 'octaroons' (terms now understood to be racist and insulting), it was thought that these children would fit into white society easily due to their lighter skin.

Homes Are Sought For These Children

A GROUP OF TINY HALF-CASTE AND QUADROON CHILDREN at the Darwin half-caste home. The Minister for the Interior (Mr Perkins) recently appealed to charitable organisations in Melbourne and Sydney to find homes for the children and rescue them from becoming outcasts.

I like the little girl in centre of group, but if taken by anyone else, any of the others would do, as long as they are a group

Source 2

A note from a potential adoptive parent on an advertisement for foster homes for the children of First Nations Peoples. The advertisement sought homes for these children, in an attempt to 'rescue them from becoming outcasts'.

Underpinning this policy of **assimilation** was the racist belief that First Nations Peoples were incapable of surviving on their own in modern, British Australia. Another motive was to instil a strong work ethic through education and the Christian faith. This was meant to prepare the children for lives of menial labour, as First Nations boys were considered suitable only for manual labour, and girls only for domestic labour.

Broken families

The policy of child removal spread throughout Australia by the early 20th century, and was actively upheld for over six decades. Each state passed similar acts, and appointed Protection Boards and commissioners to oversee the separation of First Nations families. These officials assumed the right to determine a person's Indigeneity.

Children from a very young age were taken from many different family structures. Police raided happy and loving 'mixed' families just as often as they raided encampments on the fringes of white society. During these raids, children endured the trauma of being forcibly removed from their parents, or hiding from the police while their parents lied about their whereabouts. Parents had to witness their children being arrested and taken away by the police.

Decades later, these experiences were retold by First Nations artists, such as in Archie Roach's song 'Took the children away' and Doris Pilkington Garimara's book *Follow the Rabbit Proof Fence*, which was later turned into an award-winning film.

Transgenerational trauma

Once children had been forcibly removed from their families, they were cut off from their culture. They were forbidden from using their traditional names and language; parents who tried to contact their children were charged exorbitant fees for their children's removal and accommodation.

Source 3

Stolen Generations children attending a school at Mornington Island, Queensland, 1950

This process of cultural dislocation had profound ongoing physical, mental and social effects upon entire communities. This is known as **transgenerational trauma** – pain that affects multiple generations. A national report, conducted in 1997, included confidential testimony from a number of Stolen Generations children. John, who was removed from his family as an infant in the 1940s and sent to the Bomaderry Children's Home at Nowra, said:

> 'I was definitely not told that I was Aboriginal. What the Sisters told us was that we had to be white. It was drummed into our heads that we were white. It didn't matter what shade you were. We thought we were white. They said you can't talk to any of them coloured people because you're white.'

Source 4

Extract from *Bringing them Home: The Report of the National Inquiry into the Separation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Children from Their Families*, p. 144.
[Confidential evidence 436, New South Wales, Cultural Heritage of the Stolen Generation]

THREE GENERATIONS
(Reading from Right to Left)

1. Half-blood—(Irish-Australian father; full-blood Aboriginal mother).
2. Quadroon Daughter—(Father Australian born of Scottish parents; Mother No. 1).
3. Octaroon Grandson—(Father Australian of Irish descent; Mother No. 2).

Source 5

Stolen children were classed according to anthropological principles that are now understood to be racist and unscientific. Calipers were used to measure children's skulls and noses. They were also classed according to their skin colour, from lightest- to darkest-skinned.

Source 6

Kevin Rudd's apology to the Stolen Generations in 2008 (left), during which two First Nations women express their sadness (right).

An ongoing legacy

From a modern perspective, it is difficult to appreciate the extent to which 'protection' policies damaged the lives and societies of the First Nations Peoples of Australia. Protection Boards had almost total control over the lives of these people, including their movement, fostering, access to healthcare and education, and later their marriages, wages and travel. For over six decades, children were not only removed from the love and care of their families, but also were wholly denied access to their culture and heritage, as well as often being subjected to abuse and terrible conditions.

This cultural dislocation was catastrophic and caused immeasurable harm to the estimated 50 000–100 000 infants and children who are now known as the Stolen Generations. Many of the social problems facing the First Nations Peoples of Australia, which affect mental health, alcohol and other addictions and high rates of suicide, are directly related to the policy of child removal.

Former Australian Prime Minister Kevin Rudd officially apologised to the Stolen Generations on 13 February 2008. On June 11 that same year, Canadian Prime Minister Stephen Harper apologised for a similar policy enacted from 1870, in which the children of the First Nations Peoples of Canada were forced into Residential Schools.

Learning ladder H2.26

Show what you know

1 What justifications were given for taking First Nations children away from their parents?

2 What did this policy do to families with children who had both First Nations and European parents?

3 Research and compare historical rates of First Nations child removal with rates today. How have they changed? Why are First Nations children still being removed from their families?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

4 Source 5: What do the terms 'half-blood', 'quadroon' and 'octaroon' refer to?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

5 Source 2: What does the 'X' drawn on the child and the accompanying note indicate about which children were most desirable to foster parents?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

6 What does it mean to read Source 5 from right to left? How does it change if read from left to right? What is the implied progression?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

7 Read a transcript of Prime Minister Kevin Rudd's 2008 Apology and view media of Rudd's delivery. How do these sentiments expressed contrast with the understanding and intention of the original laws that permitted this to happen?

HOW TO

Historical interpretations, page 255

Masterclass

Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!

Source 1

An 1883 photograph of two First Nations warriors from the Victorian region, along with their weapons and war implements

> '... they had seen several of the native chiefs, with whom, as they said, they had exchanged all sorts of things for land; but that I knew could not have been, because unlike other savage communities, or people, they have no chiefs claiming or possessing any superior right over the soil: theirs only being as the heads of families. [...] I therefore looked upon the land dealing spoken of as another hoax of the white man, to possess the inheritance of the uncivilised natives.'

Source 2

An 1835 quote by escaped convict William Buckley, who lived with the Wathaurung for more than 30 years, regarding John Batman's treaty negotiations. [From John Morgan, 1852, *The life and adventures of William Buckley*.]

Source 3

Ned Kelly's suit of armour

Step 1

a I can list specific features of a source

List the different weapons and artefacts shown in Source 1.

b I can describe continuity and change

Who were the First Nations Peoples of Naarm, or Port Phillip Bay?

c I can recognise a cause and an effect

What did the 'discovery' of Australia by Europeans mean for its First Nations Peoples?

d I can recognise historical significance

What is the significance of the date 26 January? How is this date recognised by different groups of Australians?

e I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

i How did the First Nations Peoples of Australia react to the European landings?

ii How did the Europeans view their landings in Australia?

Step 2

a I can find themes in a source

Source 2: How did William Buckley describe the First Nations People of the lands John Batman hoped to claim?

b I can explain why something did or did not change

Why did some British citizens sell all their goods and travel to the colonies as free settlers?

c I can determine causes and effects

What were the causes for the establishment of a colony in New South Wales (Australia) and the Port Phillip Protectorate?

d I can explain historical significance

What was the significance of the Batman Deed–Duttigallar Treaty in 1835? What is its significance today?

e I can describe historical interpretations

Source 2: How does William Buckley describe both the First Nations Peoples and the Europeans?

Step 3

a I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

What do you think the purpose of the Source 1 photograph was at the time it was taken?

b I can explain patterns of continuity and change

Consider the map on page 66. How did colonisation change the internal borders of Australia?

c I can explain causes and effects

What caused the massacres and collective punishments of the Frontier Wars?

d I can apply a theory of significance

Why did the Port Phillip Protectorate seek to encourage First Nations Peoples' participation in colonial society? Were these goals shared by others in the colony?

e I can explain historical interpretations

Source 2: What do Buckley's comments add to the explanations of John Batman and the Wurundjeri *Ngurungaeta* about signing Batman's treaty?

Step 4

a I can analyse a source

Source 3: What was the purpose of the armour worn by the Kelly Gang, given that it made it harder for them to aim and shoot their guns?

b I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

How did features of the *Immigration Restriction Act 1901* demographically engineer Australian society? What were the intended outcomes of the Act?

c I can analyse causes and effects

What caused the gold rushes? What effects did the gold rushes have on Australian society?

Masterclass

d I can analyse historical significance

Why do Australia's infamous bushrangers still attract the interests of both historians and the public?

e I can analyse historical interpretations

Why might the stories in modern Australian family histories differ from the contemporary accounts of convict and other colonial women?

Step 5

a I can evaluate a source

Source 3: What necessitated the creation of this armour? Why was a reward of £8000 pounds offered in 1879 for the capture of the Kelly gang?

b I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

Given that Australia was established partly as a penal colony, how did ideas about imprisonment change during the 19th century? Did they change the prison system for worse or for better?

c I can evaluate causes and effects

What were the impacts of the Eureka Stockade on Australia's political system?

d I can evaluate historical significance

What were the contributions of Chinese miners and other non-European groups to Australian society?

e I can evaluate historical interpretations

What did the anti-Chinese riots on the goldfields in NSW and Victoria show about Australian society at the time?

Historical writing

1 Structure

Imagine you are given the essay topic, 'Every argument in favour of federation could be met with equally valid counterarguments'. Write an essay plan for this topic. Include at least three main paragraphs.

2 Draft

Using the drafting and vocabulary suggestions on page 262, draft a 600–800 word essay (at least 30–40 sentences) responding to the topic.

3 Edit and proofread

Use the editing and proofreading tips on page 263, to help edit and proofread your draft.

Historical research

4 Organise and present information

Imagine you are completing a research project on the practice of naming Australian streets, parks, buildings and other places after major colonial figures. Write a contents page for this project. There should be an introduction, a conclusion, at least four main sections and many subsections. Number your chapters.

Capstone

How can I understand pre- and post-colonial Australia?

In this chapter, you have learned a lot about the history of Australia. Now you can put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think.

In the world of building, a capstone is an element that finishes off an arch or tops off a building or wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting, critical and creative ways. You can complete this project yourself, or your teacher can make it a class task or a homework task.

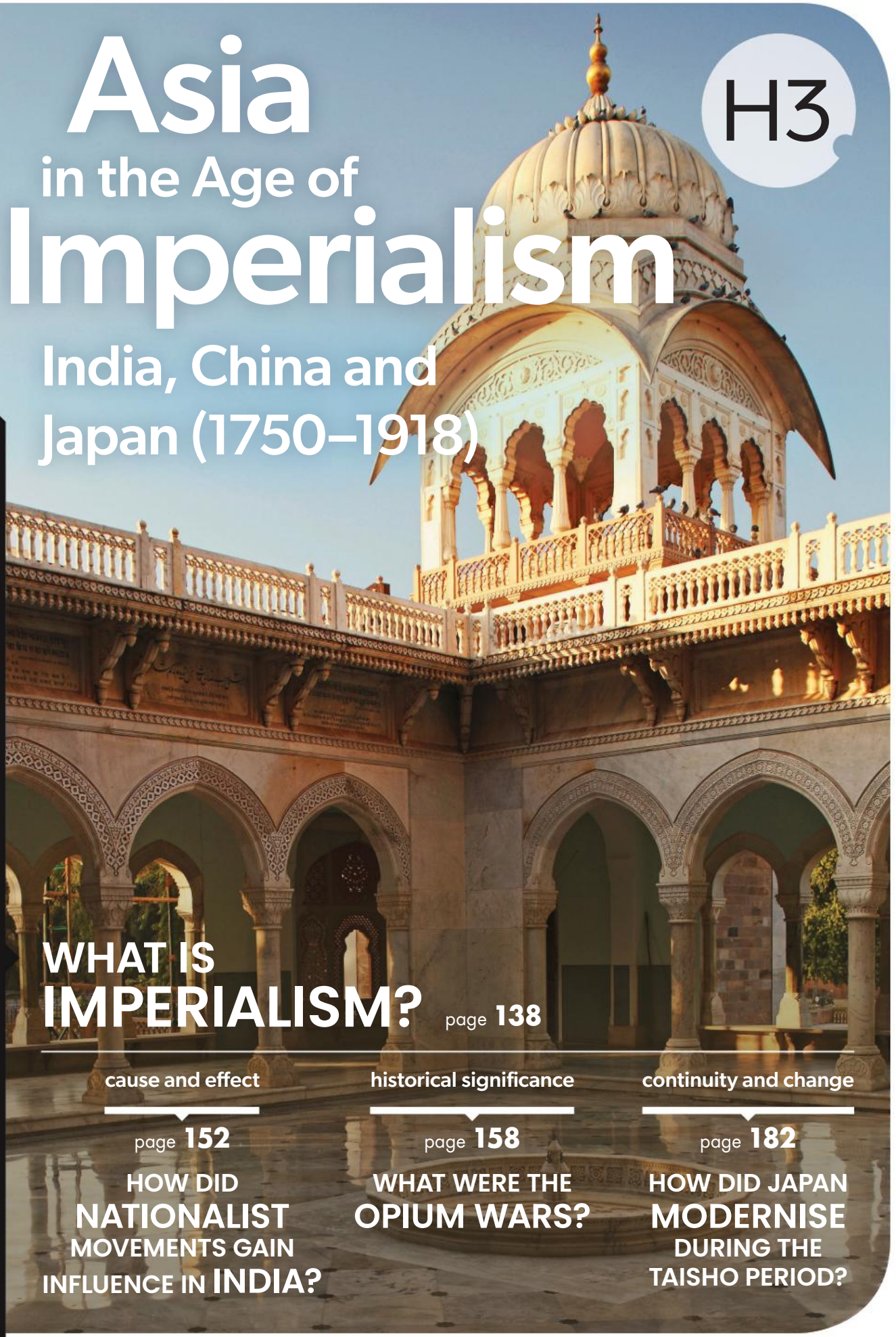
mea.digital/GHV9_H2

Scan this QR code to find the capstone project online.

Asia in the Age of Imperialism

H3

India, China and Japan (1750–1918)



WHAT IS **IMPERIALISM?** page 138

cause and effect

page 152

HOW DID **NATIONALIST** MOVEMENTS GAIN INFLUENCE IN **INDIA?**

historical significance

page 158

WHAT WERE THE **OPIUM WARS?**

continuity and change

page 182

HOW DID JAPAN **MODERNISE** DURING THE TAISHO PERIOD?

How can we understand the Age of Imperialism?

The 18th and 19th centuries have been called the 'Age of Imperialism'. It was a period when powerful Western nations made great efforts to influence, colonise or take control of other countries, especially in Africa and Asia. British and American imperialism caused massive changes to the societies of India, China and Japan, and those changes still have effects today.

learning ladder

	Source analysis	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
step 5	**I can evaluate a source** I can present a judgement on the usefulness of a source based on its strengths, weaknesses and limitations. I can determine whether information is missing about the event or person the source refers to.	**I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change** I answer the question 'So what?' about patterns of continuity and change. I weigh up different aspects and debate the importance of continuity or change.	**I can evaluate causes and effects** I answer the question 'So what?' about cause and effect. I weigh up different things and debate the importance of a cause or an effect.
step 4	**I can analyse a source** I can use my own knowledge to determine the reliability of a source and can explain whether it shows a one-sided view.	**I can analyse patterns of continuity and change** I can look deeper into patterns of continuity and change and determine the factors that contribute to them.	**I can analyse causes and effects** I don't just see a cause or an effect as one thing. I can determine the factors that make up causes and effects.
step 3	**I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose** I combine knowledge of when and where a source was created to answer the question, 'Why was it created?'.	**I can explain patterns of continuity and change** I can see beyond individual examples of continuity and change between historical periods and explain broader patterns.	**I can explain causes and effects** I can answer 'How?' or 'Why?' a cause led to an effect in Asia in the Age of Imperialism.
step 2	**I can find themes in a source** I look a bit closer at a source and find more than just features. I find themes and patterns in a source.	**I can explain why something did or did not change** I can give a reason for why something changed or why it stayed the same.	**I can determine causes and effects** Applying what I have learnt about Asia in the Age of Imperialism, I can describe what the cause or effect of an event was.
step 1	**I can list specific features of a source** I can look at an Age of Imperialism source and list the details I can see in it.	**I can describe continuity and change** I recognise what has stayed the same and what has changed from the Age of Imperialism until now.	**I can recognise a cause and an effect** From a supplied list, I can recognise things that were causes or effects of each other in Asia in the Age of Imperialism.

Source 1

An editorial illustration from 1902. Propaganda images such as these framed Western imperialism as almost a holy duty to spread civilisation around the world.

Warm up

Source analysis

1 Refer to Source 1. How did England view its colonial mission? Who are the 'barbarians' and how are they depicted?

Continuity and change

2 How can the effects of European colonisation in Asia be seen today? Has your family been affected, or have you travelled in parts of Asia that were previously colonised by Europeans?

Cause and effect

3 To what extent was conflict in the Asian region influenced by the Industrial Revolution in Europe?

Historical significance

4 Modern Britain has attempted to address some of its actions from the era of colonial expansion, such as handing back Hong Kong to China. To whom might these acts be significant?

Historical interpretations

5 How was European colonialism viewed in the 19th century? How is it viewed today?

Historical significance

I can evaluate historical significance
I answer the question 'So what?' about things that are supposedly important in the history of Asia in the Age of Imperialism. I weigh up factors against one another and can cast doubt on how important things are.

I can analyse historical significance
I can separate the various factors that make something historically important in the history of Asia in the Age of Imperialism.

I can apply a theory of significance
I know a theory of significance. I use it to rank importance of changes, causes, effects and events in the history of Asia in the Age of Imperialism.

I can explain historical significance
I answer the question 'Why?' about what was important in Asia in the Age of Imperialism.

I can recognise historical significance
When shown a list of facts about Asia in the Age of Imperialism, I can work out which are important.

Historical interpretations

I can evaluate historical interpretations
I can weigh up the different historical interpretations that have been formed. I debate and challenge the interpretations that have been presented.

I can analyse historical interpretations
I can determine the factors that have led to why a historical interpretation has been formed.

I can explain historical interpretations
I can answer 'Why?' or 'How?' there are different interpretations of people and events in the past.

I can describe historical interpretations
I can provide different examples to show how people and events in the past have been interpreted.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways
I can identify different views of people and events in the past.

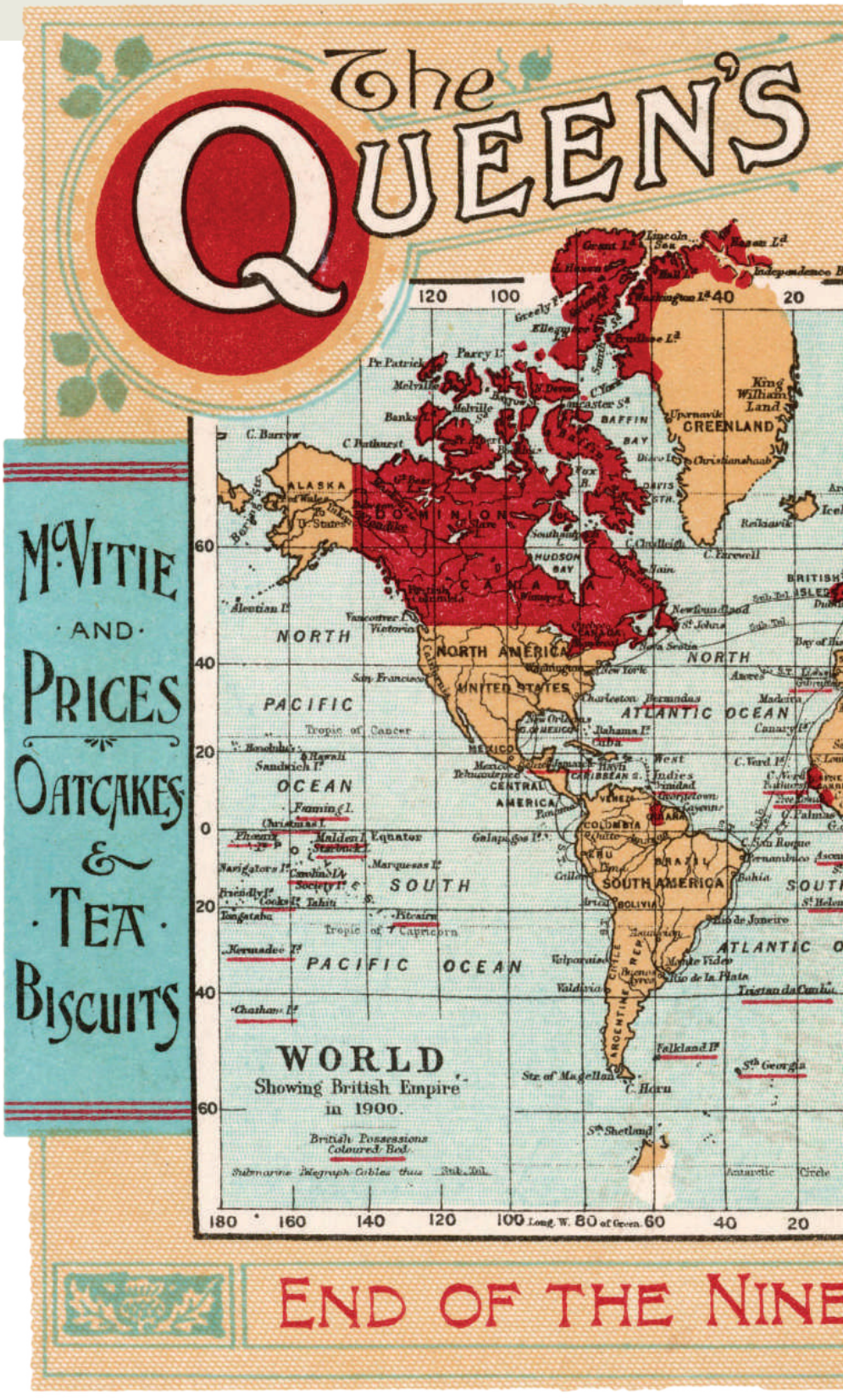
What is imperialism?

Imperialism is a policy of one nation extending its rule over other nations to form an empire. The imperialist nation does this by force or by taking political and economic control.

Throughout most of human history, powerful nations have sought to expand their borders by taking control of other territories, and to gain wealth by exploiting these territories' resources. Many great empires have existed in the past, such as the Roman Empire, the Khmer Empire and the Ottoman Empire. These empires **annexed** other nearby nations or kingdoms, holding great power for a time before falling.

As sailing technology opened up more of the world, European nations such as Spain, Britain and the Netherlands began establishing trade networks with distant countries, particularly in the Asia–Pacific region. The 18th and 19th centuries saw conquering nations turn these trade networks into international empires, so that they could gain more profit and power.

Because of this, this period is sometimes called the 'Age of Imperialism'. It was a period not only of international trade and diplomacy, but also of brutal conflicts. European nations saw the non-European nations in their empires as resources to be exploited, rather than societies in their own right. They used their military and technological advantages to suppress other nations and force their citizens into submission.



Source 1

This map, produced by a Scottish biscuit manufacturer in 1900, shows the extent of the British Empire (shown in red) at the end of the 19th century.

The great empires

The most dominant empire during the Age of Imperialism was the British Empire, which became the largest and most powerful empire in human history. Britain began establishing colonies around the Caribbean and Americas in the 16th century, while building trade networks into Asia. Britain developed an **expansionist** agenda after winning the Seven Years' War, an international conflict that went from 1756 to 1763. From then on, it began using its economic and technological advantages to take over many other countries, especially around Asia and Africa.

The USA also emerged as a major imperialist power during the latter part of the 19th century. After winning its freedom in 1783, the former British colony was **isolationist** and opposed to empire-building. This changed with the Monroe Doctrine, an 1850 policy opposing further European colonisation. In practice, this policy meant that the USA began establishing its own empire, taking over territories such as Hawaii, Cuba and the Philippines. It also meant that the USA tried to undermine European trade in Asia and Africa.

Other nations such as France, Belgium and Russia also established international empires. But after the Age of Imperialism ended in the mid-20th century, the British and American empires proved to be the ones that had the longest and most far-reaching influence over the rest of the world.

Source 2

An 1892 caricature of businessman Cecil Rhodes, a major proponent of British imperialism. Rhodes led British efforts to exploit Africa and help found the colonies that eventually become the nations of Zimbabwe and South Africa.

Imperialism in Asia

Asia is the largest continent in the world, and it became a focus of the European powers during the Age of Imperialism. Countries such as Portugal, France and Britain fought to exploit the region's natural resources and claim the wealth of Asian societies for themselves.

Over the course of the period, several Asian nations became the main targets of British and American imperialism and were permanently reshaped by the actions of these Western powers.

Source 3

Richard Paton, *The Battle of Quiberon Bay, 20 November 1759*, artwork undated

Source 4

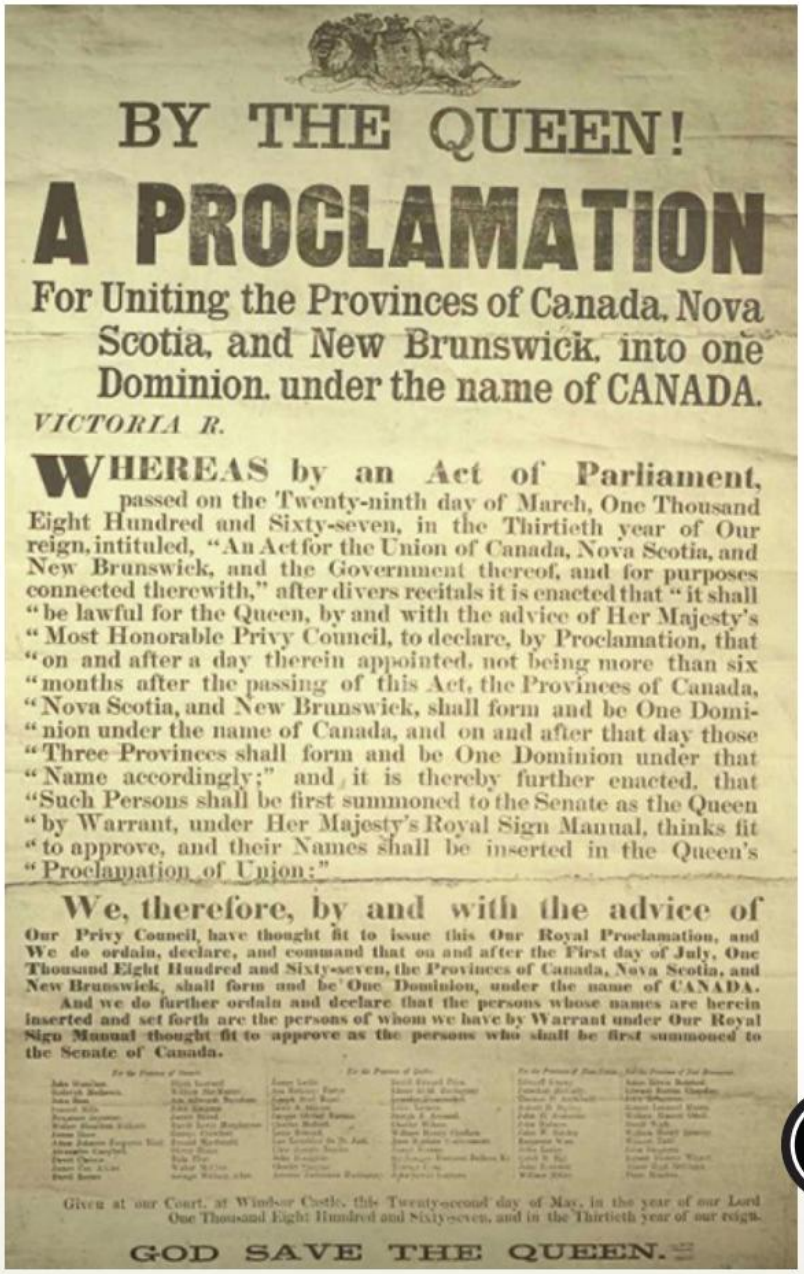
Michael Angelo Hayes, (artist) and James Henry Lynch, (lithographer), *The 18th (Royal Irish) Regiment of Foot at the storming of the fort of Amoy, 26 August 1841* (1840s)

key ideas timeline.

- **1763** – The Seven Years' War concludes, leaving Britain the major power in Europe
- **1783** – American colonies successfully revolt and leave British rule
- **1819** – Singapore founded as an outpost of the British Empire
- **1839** – The Opium Wars occur between China and Britain
- **1842** – Treaty of Nanking cedes Hong Kong to the British
- **1849** – British East India Company annexes Punjab
- **1854** – United States forces Japan to open its borders to trade
- **1863** – France establishes a protectorate over Cambodia
- **1867** – Canada established as self-governing nation ruled by Britain

Source 5

Proclamation of Canadian Federation (1867)



BY THE QUEEN!

A PROCLAMATION

For Uniting the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, into one Dominion, under the name of CANADA.

VICTORIA R.

WHEREAS by an Act of Parliament, passed on the Twenty-ninth day of March, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Sixty-seven, in the Thirtieth year of Our reign, intituled, "An Act for the Union of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the Government thereof, and for purposes connected therewith," after divers recitals it is enacted that "it shall "be lawful for the Queen, by and with the advice of Her Majesty's "Most Honorable Privy Council, to declare, by Proclamation, that "on and after a day therein appointed, not being more than six "months after the passing of this Act, the Provinces of Canada, "Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, shall form and be One Domi- "nion under the name of Canada, and on and after that day those "Three Provinces shall form and be One Dominion under that "Name accordingly;" and it is thereby further enacted, that "Such Persons shall be first summoned to the Senate as the Queen "by Warrant, under Her Majesty's Royal Sign Manual, thinks fit "to approve, and their Names shall be inserted in the Queen's "Proclamation of Union;"

We, therefore, by and with the advice of Our Privy Council, have thought fit to issue this Our Royal Proclamation, and We do ordain, declare, and command that on and after the First day of July, One Thousand Eight Hundred and Sixty-seven, the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, shall form and be One Dominion, under the name of CANADA.

And we do further ordain and declare that the persons whose names are herein inserted and set forth are the persons of whom we have by Warrant under Our Royal Sign Manual thought fit to approve as the persons who shall be first summoned to the Senate of Canada.

Given at our Court, at Windsor Castle, this Twenty-second day of May, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Eight Hundred and Sixty-seven, and in the Thirtieth year of our reign.

GOD SAVE THE QUEEN.

India, China and Japan

In this chapter we will focus on how imperialism affected three nations:

- India was called 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown'. Britain took direct political control over India after a series of wars; its government, called 'the Raj', ruled over the Indian people.
- China was not taken over by foreign nations in the same way as India, but it was forced to sign agreements that caused it to lose significant economic and political **autonomy**. Britain took over Hong Kong where it wielded great social and political influence over Chinese citizens.
- Japan suffered a similar fate after signing an agreement with the USA, which forced it to open its borders to international trade. However, it resisted foreign influence and instead grew its own empire.

Learning ladder H3.1

Show what you know

1 Define the terms 'imperialism' and 'colonialism'.

2 Who were the European colonial powers in the period from 1750 to 1918?

3 Why were European nations so interested in establishing a presence in Asia?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 What did Asian and African countries have that the European and American empires wanted?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 What was the impact of colonisation upon colonised cultures?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 Why did the US policy of opposing European colonisation lead it to establish its own empire?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 Analyse the impact that reliable, long-range sailing technology had upon the ability of European nations to exert power on Asian nations.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

1884 – France makes Vietnam a colony

1885 – King Leopold of Belgium establishes the Congo Free State

1898 – United States annexes Hawaii, Philippines, Guam and Puerto Rico

1898 – Cecil Rhodes establishes Rhodesia in Africa

PART I: INDIA

How did India become part of the British Empire?

The Mughal Empire had ruled India for centuries, but was in decline by the mid-18th century. The British East India Company, a powerful international trading business, made deals with regional rulers, taking over provinces and establishing a government that applied British laws.

Source 1

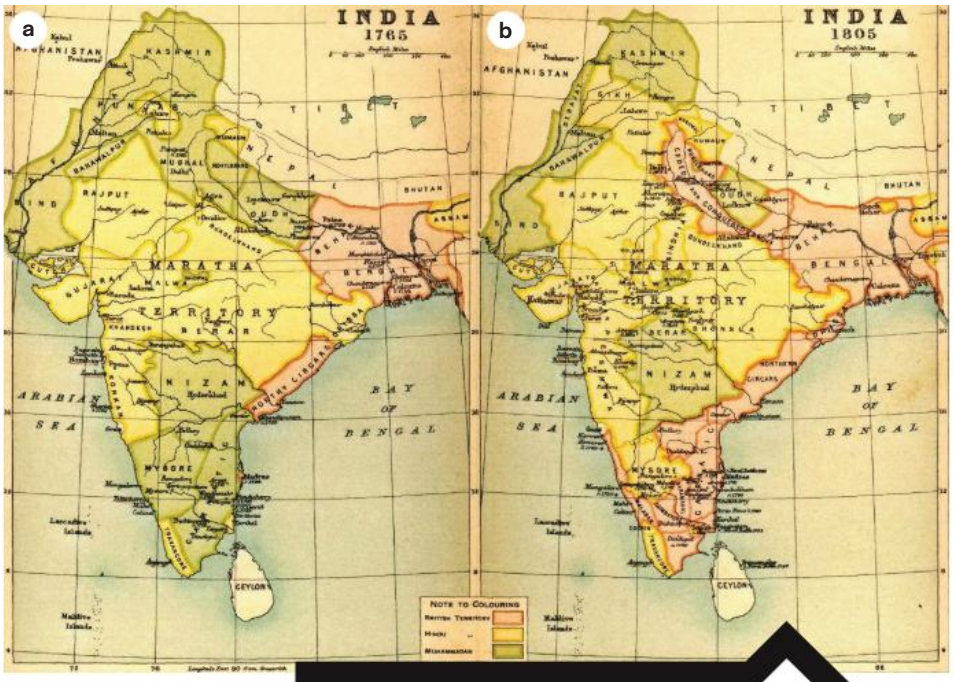
The Taj Mahal was built as a mausoleum for the favourite wife of Mughal Emperor Shah Jahan. Completed in 1653, it shows the architectural styles and influence of the Mughal Empire.

The Mughal Empire

The Mughal Empire ruled a large part of India for over 200 years before the arrival of the British. Originally from Persia, the first Mughal ruler of India was Zahiruddin Muhammad Babur. He captured Delhi in 1526 thanks to superior military strategy. This left northern India, which was mostly Hindu, under Muslim control. Babur believed in religious tolerance, so long as there was no resistance to his rule, and this helped establish Mughal rule over India. Further expansion by Emperor Akbar the Great, who ruled from 1556 to 1605, saw the spread of Mughal dominance throughout north and central India.

key ideas **timeline.**

- 1757 — British East India Company forces the defeat of the Nawab of Bengal at the Battle of Plassey
- 1765 — Robert Clive declares himself Governor of Bengal
- 1833 — The first *Government of India Act* establishes British rule
- 1857 — The Indian Great Rebellion
- 1877 — Queen Victoria declared Empress of India
- 1885 — Indian National Congress (INC) formed



Source 2

The pink areas on the two maps show the Indian territory controlled by the British East India Company in **a** 1765 and **b** 1805.

However, by 1750 the Mughal Empire was in decline. Expensive wars, high taxes and conflict over succession had resulted in the emperor, based in Delhi, having little control. Rulers of local provinces sought to increase their own territory and power. The Marathas, Hindu warlords from Maharashtra, successfully created their own empire across a large areas of India. Meanwhile, European countries had been trading with India since the mid-16th century, but their power and influence began to grow.

The British East India Company

The British East India Company, a massive international trading and shipping business, entered India in 1600 and began to influence local politics in the region. The company helped to undermine the Mughal Empire, making separate deals with local rulers.

In 1756, as part of the Seven Years' War, the British East India Company was able to drive its French rivals out of India. A year later, the company took military control of the Bengal region in the Battle of Plassey. In 1765 Lord Robert Clive, a high-ranking member of the company, declared himself Governor of Bengal.

The company expanded its control over the next decade, taking over more provinces and cities. It introduced British law, replacing *maharajahs* (local rulers) with its own governors, as part of the Company **Raj** (a Hindi word meaning 'rule'). After he took office in 1774, Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General of India, tried to make the company become a political institution, not just a commercial one.

Following financial difficulties and allegations of corruption, in 1833 the British Parliament turned the Company into a managing agency for the British government of India. This forced it to focus on governing. By 1857, unrest and resentment at the British East India Company had grown to the point of rebellion.

Learning ladder H3.2

Show what you know

1 Who was the first Mughal ruler of India?
2 List the reasons for the decline of the Mughal Empire.
3 What impact did Warren Hastings have on India?
4 Draw a timeline of events to show how India became part of the British Empire.

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 Describe the changes in the British East India Company's territory between 1765 and 1805.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Explain why Babur did not make changes to local religious practices during his rule.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 Explain how the power of the Mughal Empire declined.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 Imagine you are an official with the British East India Company in 1775. Write about your experiences in India and the impact that the company has had on India.

HOW TO

Continuity and change, page 244

What impact did British rule have on India?

The presence of British rule had many economic, social and political impacts, both positive and negative. While the British Empire was motivated primarily by economic factors, it was also driven by the belief that the English were the superior race.

Land ownership changes

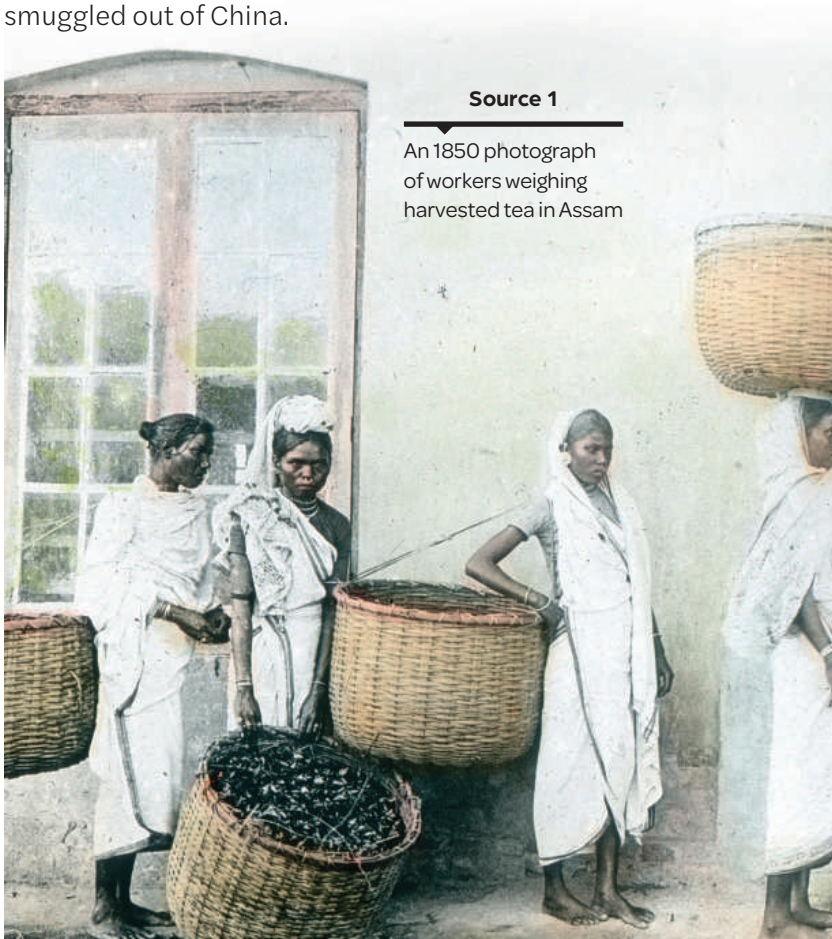
Before British colonisation, the Indian people had the right to use the land under collective ownership, while the ruling ***zamindars*** collected tax from peasant farmers. However, the Company Raj introduced a system of private property in 1793, which gave *zamindars* private property rights. This changed communities, as the rights to land had passed from one generation to the next under the Mughal Empire. Wealthier *zamindars* became powerful as they increased their land holdings, while peasant farmers lost their collective rights to land.

The higher land taxes demanded by the company meant that little improvement was made to land, and many *zamindars* turned to new crops that would generate greater profit. Farmland previously used for food production was instead used for growing cash crops such as cotton, **indigo** and tea. This, coupled with poor weather, caused a series of devastating famines in 1876–77 and 1899–1900.

Agriculture

Opium and tea were two crops that became essential in British India. While Britain bought many goods from China, the Chinese had little demand for British goods. In order to change this trading imbalance, the Company Raj began to sell Indian opium to China. This highly addictive drug was very lucrative, and the company's monopoly on opium contributed to as much as 20 per cent of British India's income.

There was an incredibly high demand for tea in England. Prior to British colonisation, no tea trade existed in India, although wild tea grew in Assam. In 1833, the British East India Company began commercial tea growing in this region; by the early 20th century, Assam had become the largest tea-producing region in the world. Darjeeling in West Bengal also became an important tea-growing area, with Darjeeling tea known as the 'champagne of teas'. Much of the tea grown in this region was actually cultivated from plants smuggled out of China.



Source 1

An 1850 photograph of workers weighing harvested tea in Assam

Destruction of the textile economy

Unlike previous rulers, who had made few changes to the economic structure, the British changed India's traditional trading practices. Many rural economies relied on making and selling **handicrafts**, especially textiles and clothing, for nobles and *maharajahs*. The British East India Company introduced mechanised looms and encouraged *maharajahs* to buy British manufactured textiles. As a result, there was no longer a demand for locally produced, hand-woven cotton garments, and the Indian textile market suffered.

The disruption caused by agricultural changes also altered rural economic patterns, and the introduction of railways disrupted traditional Indian industries. Silk and woollen textile production suffered the same fate as cotton-weaving, as it became cheaper and politically safer to buy British fabrics. Formerly a world-leading exporter of clothes, India became an exporter of raw cotton.

The introduction of import duties and restrictions on Indian goods, along with administration costs, further served to weaken the Indian economy.

Source 2

India's weavers were famed across the world for their light muslins. Production of these hand-made textiles declined following the arrival of the British.

'Britain's rise for 200 years was financed by its depredations in India. In fact, Britain's industrial revolution was actually premised upon the de-industrialisation of India.

'The handloom weavers, for example, famed across the world whose products were exported around the world, Britain came right in. There were actually these weavers making fine muslin as light as woven wear, it was said, and Britain came right in, smashed their thumbs, broke their looms, imposed tariffs and duties on their cloth and products and started, of course, taking their raw material from India and shipping back manufactured cloth flooding the world's markets with what became the products of the dark and satanic mills of the Victoria (sic) in England.'

Source 3

Extract from a 2015 speech by Indian politician Shashi Tharoor, arguing that Britain owed India reparations to make up for 200 years of colonial rule.

Religion

India has been a land of diverse religious beliefs for thousands of years, and is the place where four of the world's major religions – Hinduism, Buddhism, Sikhism and Jainism – were founded. While Hinduism was the dominant religion at the time of British colonisation, many other faiths also thrived in India – particularly Islam, as the Mughals were Muslims.

The British did not bring Christianity to India; missionaries had visited India since the time of the Mughals. In fact, the British East India Company actually banned Christian missionaries from coming to India! The company had a policy of 'religious neutrality', but not for moral or ethical reasons – its leaders simply wanted to avoid religious protests and uprisings. Fearing that an increased Christian presence would cause unrest, they banned missionaries and instead supported Hindu festivals.

Britain's rulers disapproved of this, and by the 1830s the company was forced to stop promoting Hinduism and to let missionaries in. Christianity started to develop a larger presence within India, which, as predicted, contributed to growing unrest within the Hindu community.

The Great Rebellion

The domination of India by the British East India Company resulted in previously independent kingdoms falling under company control. In 1833, the company lost its trade monopoly, which led it to increase the size of its army to protect its interests. The company employed professional Indian soldiers, known as *sepoys*. By 1852, the army of *sepoys* numbered 233 000.

Source 4

An 1859 illustration by George Francklin Anderson of *sepoy* troops during the failed rebellion. The British labelled this uprising 'The Sepoy Mutiny'.

However, the lack of respect given to Indian soldiers, and the British belief that their civilisation was superior, contributed to growing feelings of resentment among the Indian soldiers. In May 1857, the *sepoy* forces started a rebellion.

The immediate cause of the uprising was the introduction of the new Lee Enfield rifle. These rifles were loaded with paper cartridges that contained a bullet and gunpowder, and were sealed with grease to keep the powder dry. In order to load the rifle, the end of the greased cartridge had to be bitten off. While there is little evidence to support the claim, a rumour spread that the grease was made from a mix of pig and cow fat. This caused offence to both Muslim and Hindu *sepoys*.

The longer-term causes of the rebellion were the policies used by the company to increase its power and territory in India, such as the 'doctrine of lapse'. This allowed them to annex land if a Hindu ruler had no natural heir and replace the traditional rulers with their own officials. Hindus were also concerned about the spread of Christianity in India.

The uprising spread across India. Both elites and commoners joined the rebellion, united in their dislike of British rule, as did landlords who had been left impoverished by the company's economic policies. The British government sent troops and, amid atrocities on both sides, eventually defeated the *sepoys* in November 1858.

The British Raj

In June 1858, during the uprising, the British government took over control of India from the company, replacing the Company Raj with the British Raj. This meant that Britain now ruled India directly without the British East India Company's involvement. Some regions remained under the control of native princes, but these 'princely states' were fundamentally vassal states of the Raj.

In November 1858, Queen Victoria made promises to rule India for the good of its people. Indian subjects would be protected under British law and the land rights of native princes would be acknowledged. The Viceroy of India was to be responsible for both British India and Princely India, while the Governor-General ruled over British India.

In order to further strengthen political ties, Benjamin Disraeli, the British Prime Minister, and Lord Lytton, the Viceroy of India, declared Queen Victoria to be Empress of India in January 1877. Britain's ability to control India made it powerful, both economically and politically. Prime Minister Disraeli called India 'the brightest jewel in the crown'.

Learning ladder H3.3

Show what you know

1 How were peasants affected by changes to the agricultural economy?

2 Why was Queen Victoria declared Empress of India in 1877?

3 Describe how land ownership changed under the Company Raj.

4 Why did the *sepoys* rebel in 1857?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 Put these events on a scale from least important to most important:

`Company Raj introduces private property rights`

`Introduction of mechanised looms to the Indian cotton industry`

`Queen Victoria becomes Empress of India`

`The Great Rebellion`

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 Explain the significance of the Company Raj introducing private property rights.

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 Use Partington's theory (page 251) to explain why the introduction of the tea trade to India was significant.

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 What was the significance of the Great Rebellion? Provide evidence to support your answer.

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

What was life like under the British Raj?

British rule in India brought technological and cultural change. Social reforms often conflicted with traditional Indian practices and began to change Indian society. However, some reforms were also supported by Indian citizens.

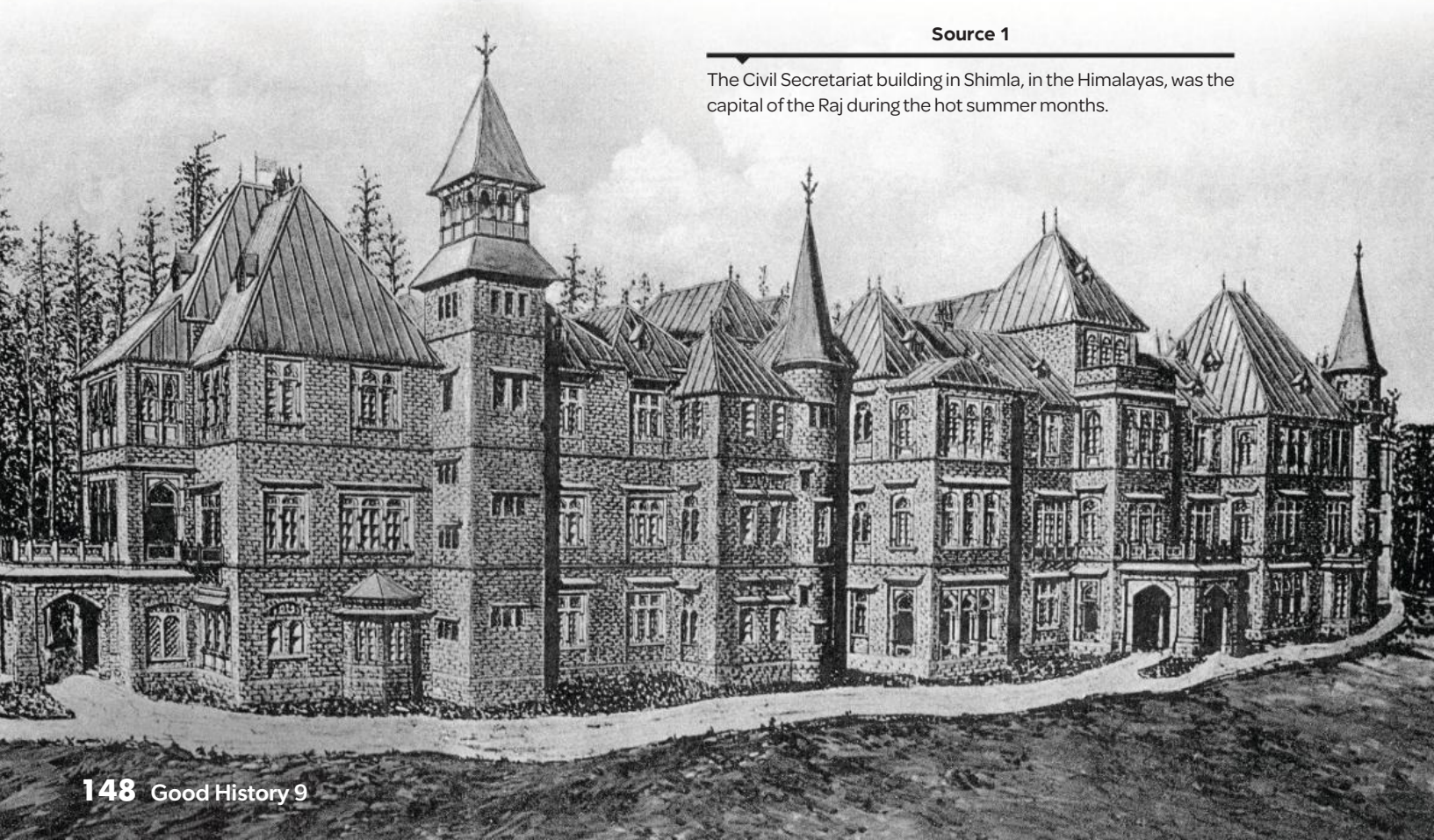
Britons abroad

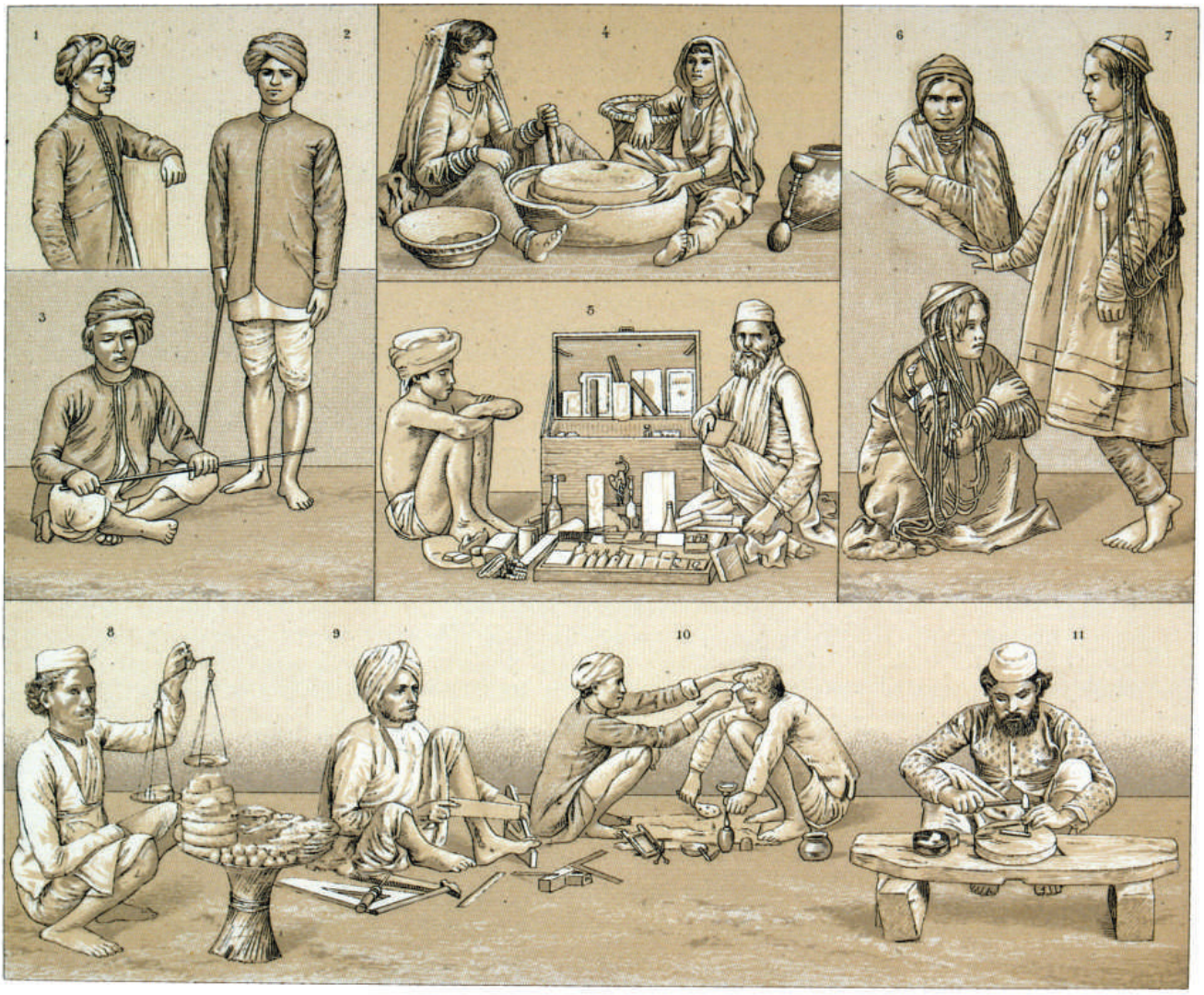
The British population of India was small; there were never more than 100 000 Britons living there at one time. The wealthiest of them – politicians, businessmen and highly educated civil servants – lived lives of luxury on palatial estates with small armies of servants. However, the majority of Britons were workers, soldiers or Raj employees; they lived simpler lives, but still enjoyed a more privileged status than most indigenous Indians.

The British built leisure facilities to make India more enjoyable for them, such as racetracks, private clubs, golf courses and even ski resorts. Hill stations were built in the cooler mountainous areas. Originally built by the British East India Company for civil servants and their families, these served as a retreat from the hot, overcrowded cities. They also reinforced the belief in British superiority; for example, no Indians were allowed on the mall (the main street) in Shimla during the day.

Source 1

The Civil Secretariat building in Shimla, in the Himalayas, was the capital of the Raj during the hot summer months.





Source 2

An 1880 illustration of the clothing styles worn by different Hindu castes

Indians at home

The British held the first census of India in 1871; by 1881, there were estimated to be 255 million people living in the country. The majority lived in rural areas, working on farms held by *zamindars*. Others lived in urban centres, many of them working for British inhabitants or as employees of the Raj.

Exposure to Western ideas did not cause Indians to jettison their culture, as liberal reformers had anticipated. Rather, they reinvented and reinvigorated it, synthesising the differing cultures and creating new approaches. Western ideas and social models were adapted by a people operating within their own powerful traditions.

The legal system

The Raj implemented a system of Anglo–Hindu law, primarily based on British rather than Indian laws. A penal code was introduced in 1861, and other laws followed. One of them, passed in 1872, sanctioned inter-caste and inter-communal marriages. This challenged the **caste** system that existed within India.

The caste system, which divided Indian Hindus into four groups, was seen as contrary to the ideas of liberty and equality that Britain brought to India. Individuals such as reformer Raja Mohan Roy, began to criticise the rigid caste system and social practices such as *sati* (the ritual burning of a widow at her husband's funeral). This practice was banned in 1829.

Other changes to laws, such as the *Hindu Widows Remarriage Act* in 1856, also helped to improve the status of women in Indian society. Female **infanticide** was banned, and attempts were made to prevent child marriage (although this did not happen until the *Sharda Act* of 1926).

However, there was significant inequality within the legal system. Poor people found it difficult to access the law courts, and Europeans received preferential sentences and decisions compared with Indians.

Education

British politician Thomas Macaulay introduced a national system of education to India, something that didn't even exist in Britain at the time. A British supremacist, Macaulay argued that an education that stressed the value of British rule would result in Indians who were more English in their outlook, and that students should be taught in English.

Although schools were established across India, only 5 per cent of the Indian population could read by the end of the 19th century. In 1857 the first universities in India were founded in Bombay, Bengal and Madras. The children of wealthier Indians attended English-speaking universities in the hope that they would be able to enter the British civil service.

Education resulted in a new Indian middle class who, rather than being 'English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect' as Macaulay proposed, began to challenge British rule in India.

New technologies

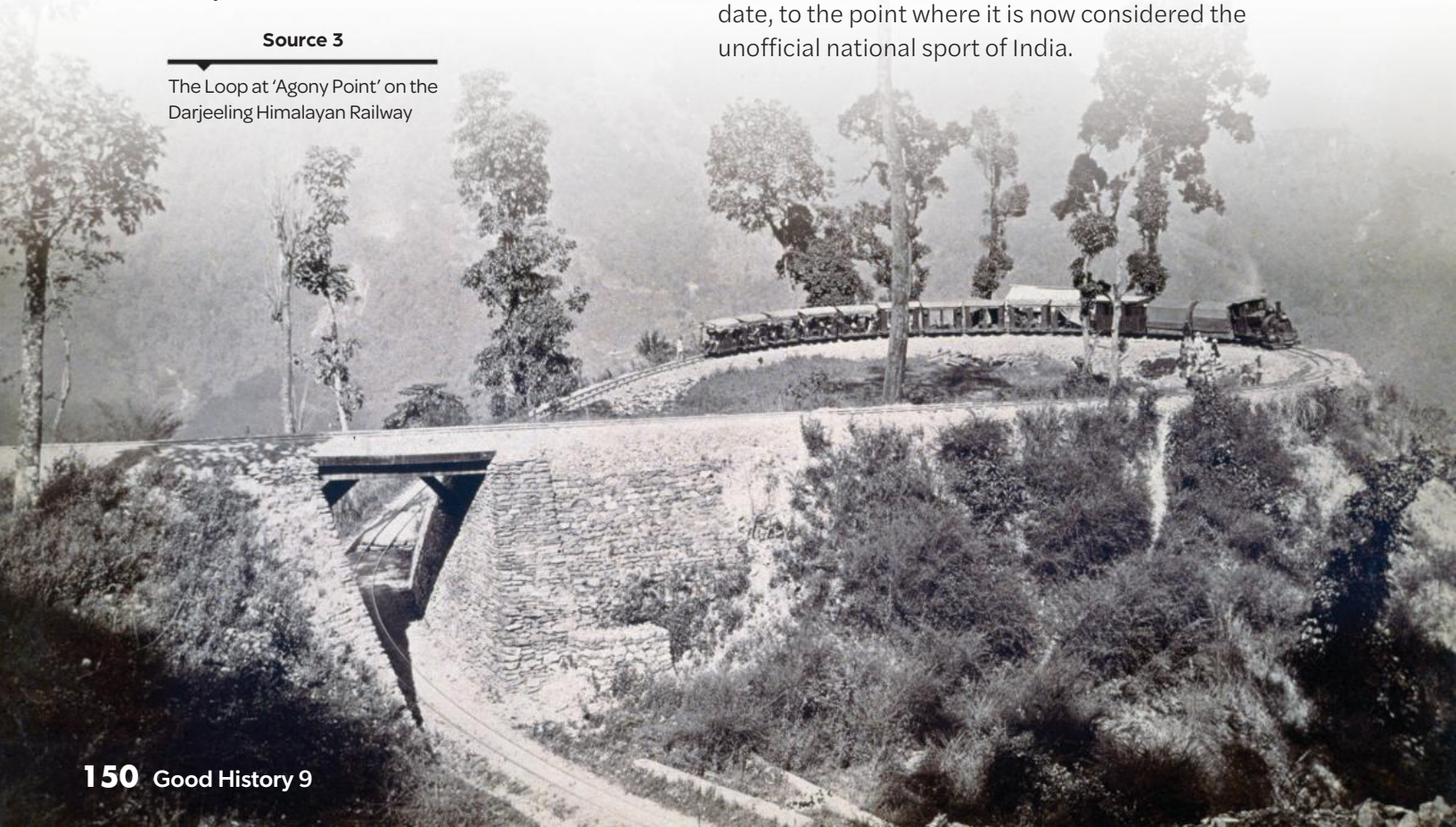
Prompted by the need for faster transportation of cotton, Lord Dalhousie (Governor-General of India from 1848 to 1856) pushed for the development of railways in India. The railways were intended to meet the Raj's economic and administrative needs; travel between cities by Indians was a by-product. The first railway opened in India in 1851, while the first passenger train ran from Bombay to Thane in April 1853 and carried about 400 passengers. Most of the passengers travelled in third class, as only about 10 per cent could afford first- or second-class travel. By 1890, India's largest cities were linked by 9000 miles of rail; by 1904, 28 000 miles of track had been laid.

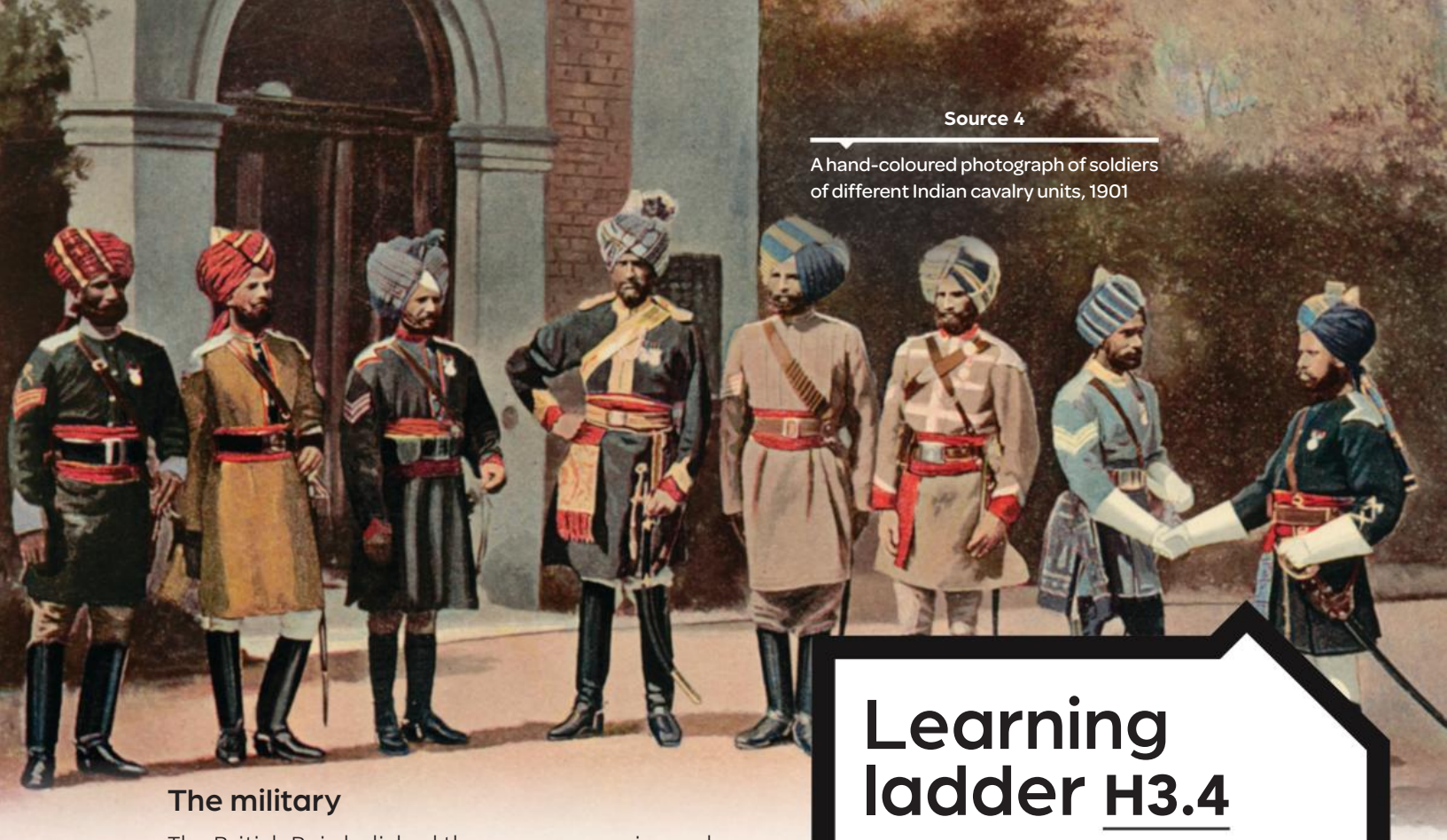
Newspapers and print media were also popular in India at this time. By 1885 there were almost 100 English-language newspapers published within India, with a circulation of nearly 60 000 copies each week. There were also many Indian newspapers and journals, in native languages and with small print runs, circulating thanks to the rail network and an efficient postal system.

The first recorded game of cricket to be played in India was in 1721, when sailors from the British East India Company played in western India. However, it wasn't until 100 years later that the sport became popular in India, as British colonists brought the game with them. The first Indian community to adopt cricket was the Parsi community of Bombay (now Mumbai), who established the Oriental Cricket Club in 1848. Cricket's popularity grew exponentially from that date, to the point where it is now considered the unofficial national sport of India.

Source 3

The Loop at 'Agony Point' on the Darjeeling Himalayan Railway





Source 4

A hand-coloured photograph of soldiers of different Indian cavalry units, 1901

The military

The British Raj abolished the company armies and created a new British Indian Army. *Sepoys* were banned from some divisions and could not become officers. Most regiments consisted of soldiers from a single religious group – Hindus, Sikhs, Christians or Muslims.

During World War I, approximately 1.2 million Indians served in the Indian and British Army – more than the combined numbers of Australians, New Zealanders, Canadians and South Africans. Of these men, around 74 000 were killed during the fighting.

Indian soldiers served across all theatres of war. These included 700 000 *sepoys*, the majority of whom were Muslim; they served in Mesopotamia, fighting against fellow Muslims in defence of the British Empire. Five thousand Indian soldiers lost their lives at Gallipoli. Indian soldiers won numerous medals, including nine Victoria Crosses – the highest accolade that can be won in the British armed forces in the battlefield.

The names of 412 Indian soldiers who have no known graves are inscribed on the Menin Gate in Belgium. However, for those soldiers that survived World War I, their heroism was ignored or denigrated back at home because Indian nationalists felt they had fought in the service of a foreign master.

Learning ladder H3.4

Show what you know

1 Create a concept map to show the changes to India under the British Raj.

2 Why did the British build racecourses and ski resorts in India?

3 How many Indian soldiers fought for the British Empire in World War I?

4 How did changes in infrastructure and technologies enable Indians to challenge British rule?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 Describe the legal changes that occurred in India.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Why did forcing the middle classes to learn English fail to make them 'English in opinions'?

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 To what extent did legal changes affect Indian society?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 What evidence is there that education in India changed under British rule?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

H3.5

How did nationalist movements gain influence in India?

Concepts such as liberty, equality and self-government resonated with Indians who felt oppressed by the policies of the British Empire. Indian identity was promoted by individuals who revived a sense of pride in Indian culture and heritage. Nationalist groups led political and sometimes violent campaigns against British rule.

Communication and unity

The British introduced new communications technologies and platforms to India, such as newspapers, railways and national and international telegraph networks. However, the colonialists of the Raj did not foresee that these new concepts would actually help **nationalist** movements gaining influence across India.

India was (and still is) a vast country, containing many different cultures and languages. The lack of a single common language caused communication issues throughout India's history and, during the Raj, it made it harder for those who opposed British rule to coordinate with allies or connect with supporters. This changed once the British introduced the national education system. Indians who received a Western education now had a means of communicating across the country, not only thanks to new technologies but because they spoke a common language – English.

Similarly, while the British introduced railways and telegraphs for their own convenience, Indian citizens used these technologies to exchange information. This helped to support a growing sense of Indian unity. Across the country, groups formed to discuss political issues and express their unhappiness with British rule.

The Indian Congress Party

The Indian Congress Party was one of the most prominent nationalist groups. In 1885 it established the Indian National Congress (INC) and began lobbying for Indian involvement in government. However, the prevailing British attitude was that Indians were unfit to run their own country.

Indian nationalists promoted the idea of *swaraj*, or self-rule. Individuals such as Dadabhai Naoroji, who became the first Indian member of parliament in 1892, argued that the British ruled in order to further their interests, rather than for the good of Indians.

The early nationalists were highly critical of the economic exploitation that had occurred under the Raj, and sought constitutional changes so that India could be governed by Indians but remain part of the British Empire. They favoured protest and petition as methods of trying to effect change in India. However, following the famine of 1899–1900, the INC adopted more direct methods in their attempts to achieve *swaraj*. Leaders advocated **boycotting** British goods and passive resistance.

Bal Gangadhar Tilak

Bal Gangadhar Tilak was a key independence activist who wanted to spread the idea of nationalism beyond those elite Indians who had received a British education. The British authorities banned protests, so Tilak used Hindu religious festivals such as Ganesh Chaturthi (a celebration of the god Ganesh) as opportunities to promote Indian nationalism to large numbers of people.

Tilak split with the INC in 1907, as he believed that Indians should use whatever means necessary to achieve self-rule, whereas moderates in the party believed in using only non-violent methods. In July 1908, following his public support of two men who had failed in their attempt to assassinate the chief presidency magistrate, Tilak was imprisoned by the British government for **sedition**. British officials realised how Tilak was using festivals to gain influence and labelled him 'the father of Indian unrest' in 1910.

Source 1

A modern-day Ganesh Chaturthi festival. Bal Gangadhar Tilak popularised this and other festivals in the late 19th century as a platform for anti-British protests.

In 1916, Tilak formed a radical party, the All India Home Rule League, in conjunction with British activist Annie Besant and fellow Indian activist G.S. Khaparde. The League promoted Home Rule – the promise of an India governed by Indians, not the British – and had more than 30 000 members by 1917. It promoted the idea of home rule through education and propaganda.

While the Home Rule Movement ultimately failed to reach the masses, it created links between urban and rural areas that were later used by Mahatma Gandhi, whose leadership was able to propel the movement forward.

Source 2

Bal Gangadhar Tilak

Post-war protests

Following the end of World War I, protests in favour of Indian self-rule became more frequent. It was felt that Indian sacrifice during the war should be rewarded. Britain felt differently and, despite high expectations in India, clamped down on protests. In 1919, British Parliament passed the *Rowlatt Act*, a law that gave authorities the power to crack down on what they considered to be **subversive** activities.

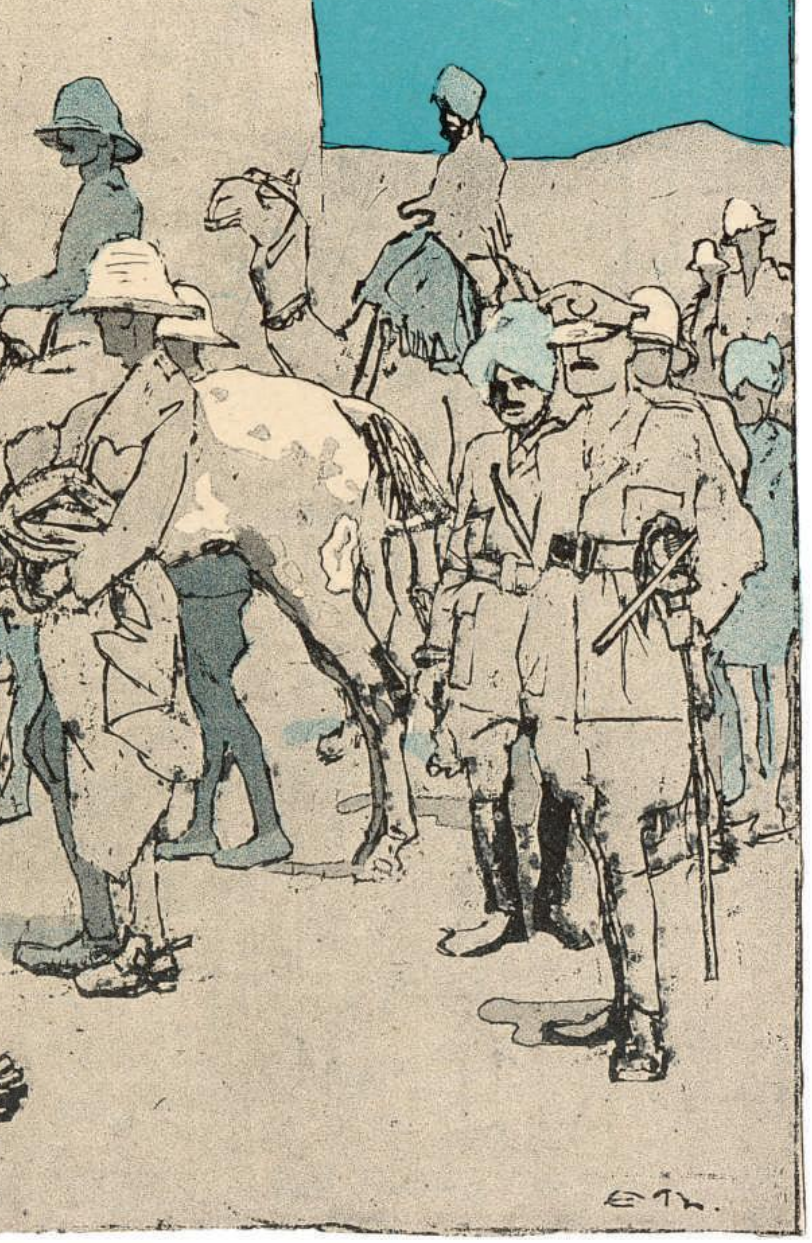
An example of the *Rowlatt Act* in action was the Amritsar Massacre of 1919. A crowd of over 10 000 people had gathered at Jallianwala Bagh for a protest meeting. General Reginald Dyer, commander of the local British Indian Army, ordered his troops to open fire without warning on the peaceful crowd. Over 400 men, women and children were killed and 1200 were wounded.

While some British leaders were horrified by the massacre, others applauded Dyer for taking decisive action. Rather than stifling dissent, the brutality of the killings and lack of remorse from the British only increased the sense of anger and nationalist sentiment in the Indian community.

Mahatma Gandhi

One of the most important figures in the campaign for Indian independence made his political debut during World War I, but would not rise to global prominence for another decade

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was an Indian lawyer living in South Africa, where he became known as a civil rights activist for his work helping Indian **expatriates**. The Indian community in South Africa gave him the **honorific** *Mahatma* (a Sanskrit word meaning 'the great souled one'), which stayed with him throughout his life.



Source 3

A 1920 illustration of the 1919 Amritsar Massacre. General Dyer's troops fired on the Indian protesters for 10 minutes, and only stopped because they ran out of bullets.

Gandhi returned to India in 1915 and became involved in the nationalist movement. While he supported Britain's war effort, and the deployment of Indian soldiers, he was critical of inequality and injustice against Indians living under the Raj. Gandhi promoted a form of civil disobedience called *satyagraha* ('truth force'). This non-violent protest movement involved boycotting British goods and institutions, among other methods.

Gandhi went on to lead the INC in the 1920s and became the most prominent figure in the Indian independence movement, as well as one of the most recognised people in the world.

Source 4

Mahatma Gandhi

Learning ladder H3.5

Show what you know

1 When did the Indian National Congress form?

2 Who was Bal Gangadhar Tilak and how did he encourage nationalism?

3 Which protest methods were most effective in the Indian Home Rule campaign?

4 How did nationalism in India gain momentum and spread across the country?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

5 Which of these actions caused the British to imprison Tilak?

His split with the INC

His use of religious festivals to promote Indian nationalism

His support of a failed assassination attempt

The foundation of the All Indian Home Rule League

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

6 What caused the Amritsar Massacre?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

7 Explain why Indian nationalists wanted political change.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

8 What were the most important factors in the campaign for Indian self-rule?

HOW TO

Cause and effect, page 247

PART II: CHINA

How did foreign powers interact with China?

China developed relationships with countries such as Britain and Russia, but imposed limits and taxes on foreign trade. The Western nations, in particular Britain, destabilised the Qing dynasty and provoked China into wars over opium.

Source 1

A 1758 portrait of Emperor Qianlong by Giuseppe Castiglione, depicting him as a monarch riding into battle – a theme from European painting traditions

China had been governed by successive **dynasties** for thousands of years, ever since the mythical Xia dynasty allegedly claimed power around 2070 BCE. The Qing (pronounced 'Ch'ing' – meaning pure) dynasty took power in 1636, and ruled China until the early 20th century. The Qing promoted Confucian principles in order to organise Chinese society.

Emperor Qianlong

In the middle of the 17th century, China was a vast and powerful nation. Emperor Qianlong ruled over 250 million people in a wealthy empire that included Mongolia, Xinjiang and Tibet. There were also **vassal** kingdoms that paid tribute to the emperor, such as Annam (Vietnam), Cambodia, Japan, Korea and Thailand. Emperor Qianlong, the absolute ruler of this empire, was the richest person in the world.

key ideas timeline.

- 1760 – Britain begins using opium as a trading commodity
- 1796–1804 – White Lotus Rebellion
- 1836 – Qing Court prohibits all imports of opium
- 1839–1842 – First Opium War
- 1842 – Treaty of Nanking cedes Hong Kong to the British
- 1850–1864 – Taiping Rebellion
- 1856–1860 – Second Opium War
- 1861 – Xinyou Palace Coup; start of Dowager Empress Cixi's rulership
- 1895 – China loses First Sino-Japanese War
- 1899–1901 – Boxer Rebellion defeated
- 1911 – Wuchang Rebellion/ Xinhai Revolution
- 1912 – Abdication of Dowager Empress Longyu and Emperor Xuantong
- 1917 – Restoration of Emperor Xuantong for 12 days

As a ruler, Emperor Qianlong was a scholar who tried to embody Confucian values. He loved beautiful objects and artworks, and collected works from throughout China. He also admired the works of European artists and even recruited the Italian artist Giuseppe Castiglione to serve as a painter in his court. However, Qianlong was less friendly towards European diplomats, and implemented business and bureaucratic reforms that favoured China.

Christianity

Reports by explorers inspired Christian missionaries to go out into 'heathen' countries. In 1750, French Catholic missionary Jean Joseph Marie Amiot persuaded Emperor Qianlong to allow Christian missionaries to come to China, effectively opening up the empire to the West.

Initially, foreign missionaries were only allowed in the port cities of Canton (modern-day Guangzhou) and Macau. Over time, their access was extended to Shanghai and other ports. The Christian missions in the port cities introduced Western languages and customs to China, and helped foreign traders deal with Chinese officials.

Trade

As the Chinese emperors feared foreign traders may exploit their country, only the port of Canton was opened to foreign trade in 1684. In 1711, the British East India Company established a trading post in Macau.

Trade was heavily regulated. Foreign traders were effectively locked inside a compound, known as a *hong* or a 'factory', and they could not venture out without a Chinese escort. All foreign traders had to have a Chinese merchant act as their agent, collecting customs duties and taxes. Traders protested at the taxes, shipping tolls (called 'chops') and prices for goods, but persisted in trading, because it was lucrative.

Britain became China's largest foreign trading partner. Tea was incredibly popular in England, and British companies also bought luxuries such as silk and porcelain. However, Chinese markets were uninterested in British goods, and Britain had a huge trade deficit with China. This lasted until British traders developed a new strategy – they promoted illegal opium to the people, then used that demand to spark war.

Source 2

The Western compound in Canton. Each foreign country had a 'factory' in the compound and a Chinese merchant agent responsible for them. [*The Hongs of Canton*, artist unknown, c. 1805]

Learning ladder H3.6

Show what you know

1 Which ports were opened initially to foreign traders?

2 What did the Chinese emperor fear might happen if China allowed trade with European merchants?

3 Source 2: How many different flags and countries are represented at the Western compound?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 What limitations were imposed on Europeans attempting to trade with China?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 What caused the British trade deficit with China?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 How did Britain address the trade deficit?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 Source 1: What skills and knowledge other than religion did missionaries bring to China? Why would the emperor wish to be depicted in the style of Western rulers?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

What were the Opium Wars?

Foreign traders had to pay for Chinese goods in silver, rather than in foreign currency. The lack of desire for Western goods in China resulted in large debts to the Chinese and difficulties in obtaining enough silver to pay them. To counter this imbalance, the British East India Company grew opium in India and smuggled it into China.

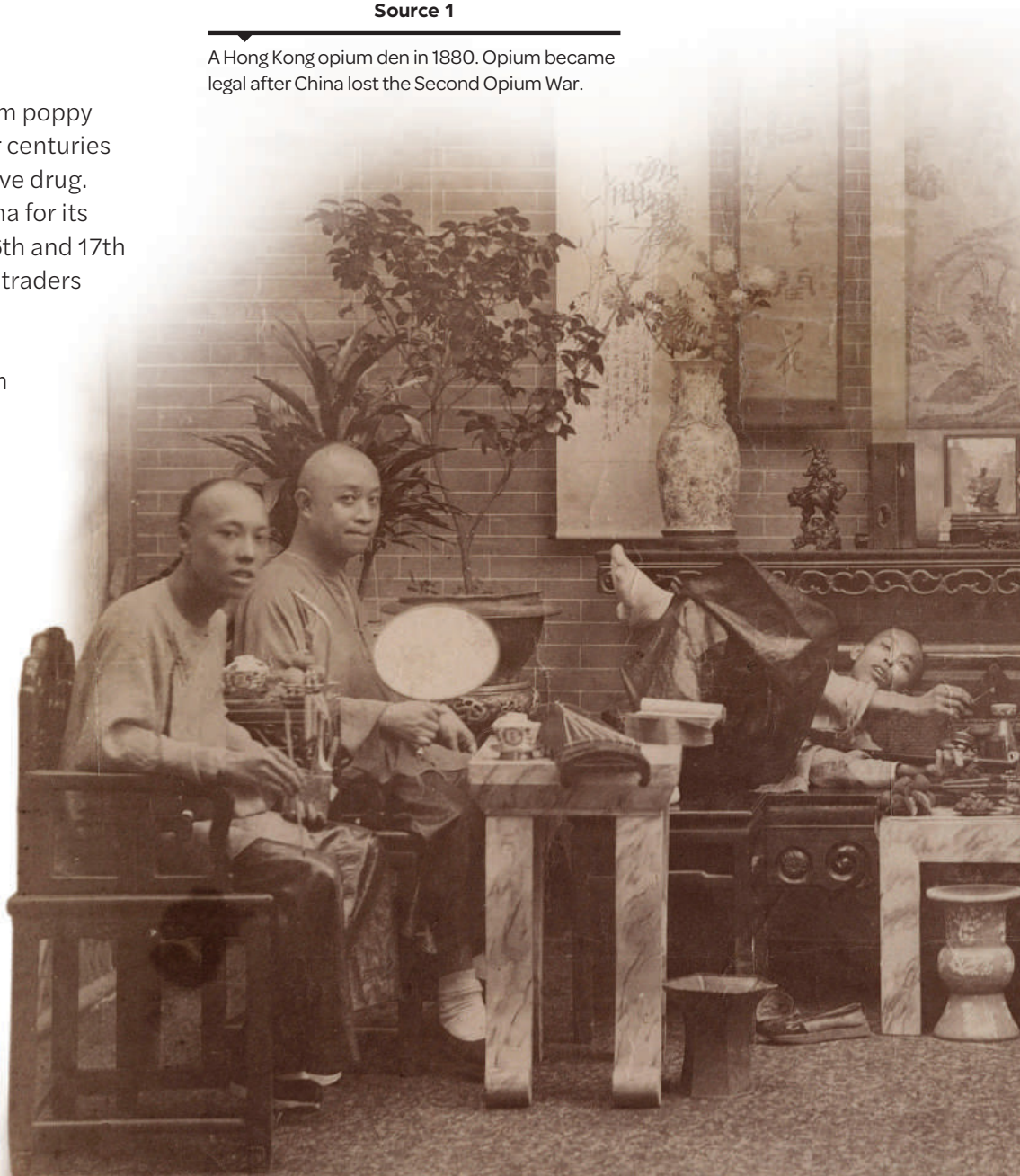
Opium

Opium is a narcotic extracted from poppy plants. While it had been used for centuries as a painkiller, it is also an addictive drug. Opium was already known in China for its medical properties. During the 16th and 17th centuries, Portuguese and Dutch traders combined opium with smokable tobacco and supplied a growing Chinese market. Smokable opium was officially banned in China in 1637, but its use spread despite being illegal.

Opium use was illegal in Britain, but it was legal for the British to sell it to other countries, and Indian smokable opium was a popular trading commodity. The British East India Company developed a monopoly over the opium trade through Bengal. Using 'private traders' to circumvent official bans and edicts, they bribed key officials and smuggled opium into China. With the money from these illicit sales, the company now had enough silver to purchase goods at the official ports.

Source 1

A Hong Kong opium den in 1880. Opium became legal after China lost the Second Opium War.



A huge demand for smokable opium soon grew within China. 'Opium dens', houses where men could stay and smoke opium all day, sprang up in almost every Chinese town and city. The rise of opium addiction caused significant damage to China's society and economy. Earlier emperors had banned its importation and distribution, while Emperor Jiaqing added a ban to smoking opium in 1796, but these edicts had little effect.

The First Opium War (1839–1842)

By 1838, the British were selling almost 1300 tonnes of opium per year to China. The trade was so lucrative that it paid for the British Raj in India. Because of this, the British government was determined that the opium trade must continue.

In China, Special Imperial Commissioner Lin Zexu was appointed by the Emperor to eradicate the opium trade. Lin led the arrests of more than 1500 addicts and the confiscation of tens of millions of pipes. He also wrote a letter to Queen Victoria, which was later published in the London *Times*, urging her to put a stop to the opium trade. The letter never reached her.

In 1839, Lin confiscated 1000 tonnes of opium from British ships in Canton. In response, the British Superintendent of Trade declared the British government **guarantor** of the confiscated opium. This meant that traders could hand over their opium to Chinese officials, confident that they would be compensated by the British government. When Lin destroyed the opium, this gave Britain an excuse to declare war and send naval forces to China.

The war continued until 1842, and was primarily a naval conflict around port cities and major rivers. While the Chinese defending forces vastly outnumbered the invading army, the British Royal Navy's long-range weapons were far superior to the **antiquated** cannons, muskets and martial-arts weapons of the Chinese.

The invaders also had the *Nemesis,* a **paddle steamer** far more advanced than any Chinese boat. Its flat bottom allowed it to traverse rivers, regardless of wind or tide, and its iron armour resisted the Chinese cannons.

After British forces occupied major trading ports, and were poised to capture the city of Jiangning (Nanjing), Chinese commanders admitted defeat.

The defeat led to the signing of the Treaty of Nanking (1842). The Articles of the treaty:

- allowed Consuls appointed by Queen Victoria to collect dues, taxes and tariffs
- opened the cities of Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai to foreigners
- **indemnified** any Chinese people who worked on behalf of foreign traders, meaning they could not be punished for helping the British
- ceded the island of Hong Kong to the British, making it part of their empire; it soon became the centre of British activity in China.

A year later, the Treaty of the Bogue (1843) granted British citizens further rights, such as the right to be tried in British courts if they committed crimes in China. It also granted Britain 'most favoured nation' status for trading with China. These and other treaties with European and Asian countries (such as Japan) became known in Chinese history as the 'unequal treaties'.

The Second Opium War (1856–1860)

In the years after the first Opium War, opium remained illegal in China, but the British East India Company continued to smuggle it into the country and make huge profits. The British Empire grew during this period, and the British government was determined to gain more power within Asia.

In October 1856, Chinese forces in Canton seized a cargo ship called *The Arrow* on suspicion of piracy. *The Arrow* was a Chinese ship, but it had been sold to British traders and flew a British flag. The British demanded the crew be released without charge; when Qing officials didn't comply, a British warship attacked sites on the Pearl River. Locals in Canton set fire to the foreign trade warehouses, which was answered by military force – a second Opium War had begun.

A large number of British forces were deployed in India, so a coalition of British, US and French forces attacked China. Once again, superior technology and experience in modern warfare prevailed. Although they were outnumbered 10 to 1, the Western infantry and naval forces bombed river ports and routed the Chinese army.

Qing officials were forced to sign the Treaty of Tianjin (1858). Under the terms of this treaty:

- more ports were opened for Western use
- trading rights were granted to all Western nations, including the United States and Russia
- the Kowloon Peninsula near Hong Kong was ceded to Britain
- opium was legalised.

The treaty was signed in 1858 but Chinese military resistance continued, which led to retaliation on the part of the Western allies. Western forces advanced through China to Beijing. They stopped short of entering the Forbidden City, but destroyed part of the Summer Palace instead.

Source 2

This 1843 painting by Edward Duncan shows the *Nemesis* (on the right) destroying Chinese junks (ships) during the First Opium War.

At the end of the war, more trading rights and land were ceded to Britain. Traders and Christian missions gained access to the interior of the country, not just the port cities, and the foreigners offered Chinese people opportunities and passage on their boats. The Western powers established foreign **envoys** in Beijing, and China's isolationist policy was effectively finished.

Source 3

An illustration of Qing officials taking down the British flag on *The Arrow*, the trigger for the Second Opium War

Learning ladder H3.7

Show what you know

1 Who initially introduced smokable opium to China?

2 How did the Chinese emperors attempt to address the challenges of smokable opium? Were their attempts successful?

3 How did the British East India Company negate the emperors' measures?

4 Why was the Qing army ill-equipped to repel the foreign armies?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 What aspects of the treaties signed after the Opium Wars made them 'unequal treaties'?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 What did the Chinese government lose with each treaty?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 Briefly outline, in dot-points, the causes of the First and Second Opium Wars. Highlight major and minor causes in different colours.

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 How did their advanced technology enable British forces to prevail over Chinese forces in both wars?

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

How did China change politically in the 19th century?

After the reign of Emperor Qianlong, the power of the Qing dynasty began to wane. In the aftermath of the Opium Wars, China owed massive amounts of money to Britain, France and the USA. The Western powers now had much greater influence over China's economy and infrastructure and could demand political concessions from the country's leaders.

The decline of the Qing dynasty

Emperor Qianlong officially stepped down as emperor in 1796, but in truth he maintained control over China until his death in 1799.

While his reign seemed like one of peace and prosperity, Qianlong had turned a blind eye to extensive corruption in the imperial bureaucracy. During his rule there had also been a period of huge population growth in China, which led to shortages of land, resources and food for almost 300 million peasants.

His son, Emperor Jiaqing, inherited these problems, as did the emperors that followed. While the Qing emperors attempted to address these issues, they had limited levels of success. A number of rebellions and popular uprisings, such as the White Lotus Rebellion (1796–1804) and the Eight Trigrams Uprising (1813), tested the dynasty's ability to control Chinese society. Although these rebellions were suppressed, anti-Qing sentiment began to increase around the country.

Western interference also damaged the power of the Qing dynasty. The opium trade shifted the balance of power and trade, making the British wealthy and the Chinese poorer. Widespread opium addiction damaged the fabric of Chinese society.

Outlawing the drug did little to affect the trade, instead making the imperial government look ineffectual. Ultimately, this culminated in the Opium Wars, which left the Chinese imperial court deeply in debt and greatly reduced in political power.

The Century of Humiliation

The period beginning with the First Opium War has come to be called the 'Century of Humiliation' in some sections of Chinese society. This was a period of continued loss and embarrassment for the Qing dynasty.

A number of significant Chinese losses and setbacks occurred during this time, including:

- defeat in the First Opium War
- the 'unequal treaties' that made massive trade concessions to Britain and other Western countries
- the Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864)
- defeat in the Second Opium War
- defeat in the Sino–French War (1884–1885), in which France took control over the Tonkin region that would later become modern Vietnam
- defeat in the First Sino–Japanese War (1894–1895), in which Japan took control of Korea.

Source 1

This 1898 French political cartoon from *Le Petit Journal*, shows foreign powers (Britain, Germany, Russia, France and Japan) dividing China among themselves. Acceptable at the time, it's extremely offensive by modern standards.

This was also a period in which foreign nations negotiated their own 'spheres of influence' within China, often dealing with regional powerbrokers rather than the Qing bureaucracy. Multiple foreign enclaves were established within China, and these enclaves followed their own laws rather than Chinese law.

Finally, it was also a period of natural disasters, including floods and droughts. A famine in northern China lasted from 1876 to 1879, and between 9 and 13 million people died. The famine also caused great economic distress, which led to further civil unrest.

These events raised difficult questions over whether the Qing dynasty had lost the *Tianming*, or 'Mandate from Heaven'.

Source 2

The signing of the unequal treaties forced China to make massive trade concessions to Western nations.

Reign of the Dowager Empress

While officially only acting as **regent** on behalf of underage male emperors, the true ruler of China in the second half of the 19th century was **Dowager** Empress Cixi, who ran the Qing court from 1861 until her death in 1908.

The woman who became the Dowager Empress was named Yehenara. She entered Emperor Xianfeng's court as one of his **concubines** in 1851, and gave birth to his only son in 1856. When Xianfeng died in 1860, he nominated their five-year-old son as Emperor Tongzhi and eight prince regents to rule until he had come of age. Lady Yehenara orchestrated the Xinyou Palace Coup in 1861, in which all eight regents were killed or forced to commit suicide. Her ally Prince Gong became sole regent, and she assumed the title Dowager Empress Cixi.

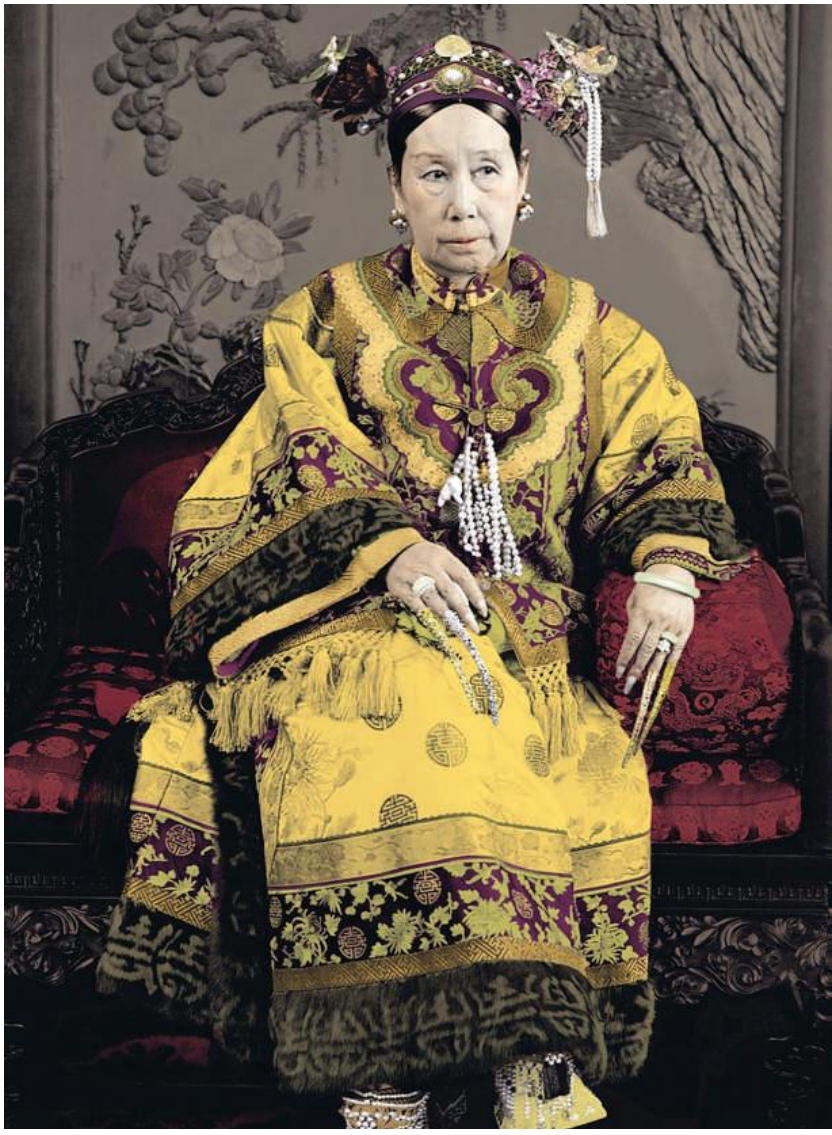
Empress Cixi began to rule 'behind the curtain' as the real decision-maker, with Prince-Regent Gong as her agent in the *Junchichu*, or Grand Council. In 1873, Emperor Tongzhi was put in charge of state affairs, but in name only, and in 1874 he died. Empress Cixi nominated her three-year-old nephew to become heir, Emperor Guangxu, and she continued to rule China until officially retiring in 1889.

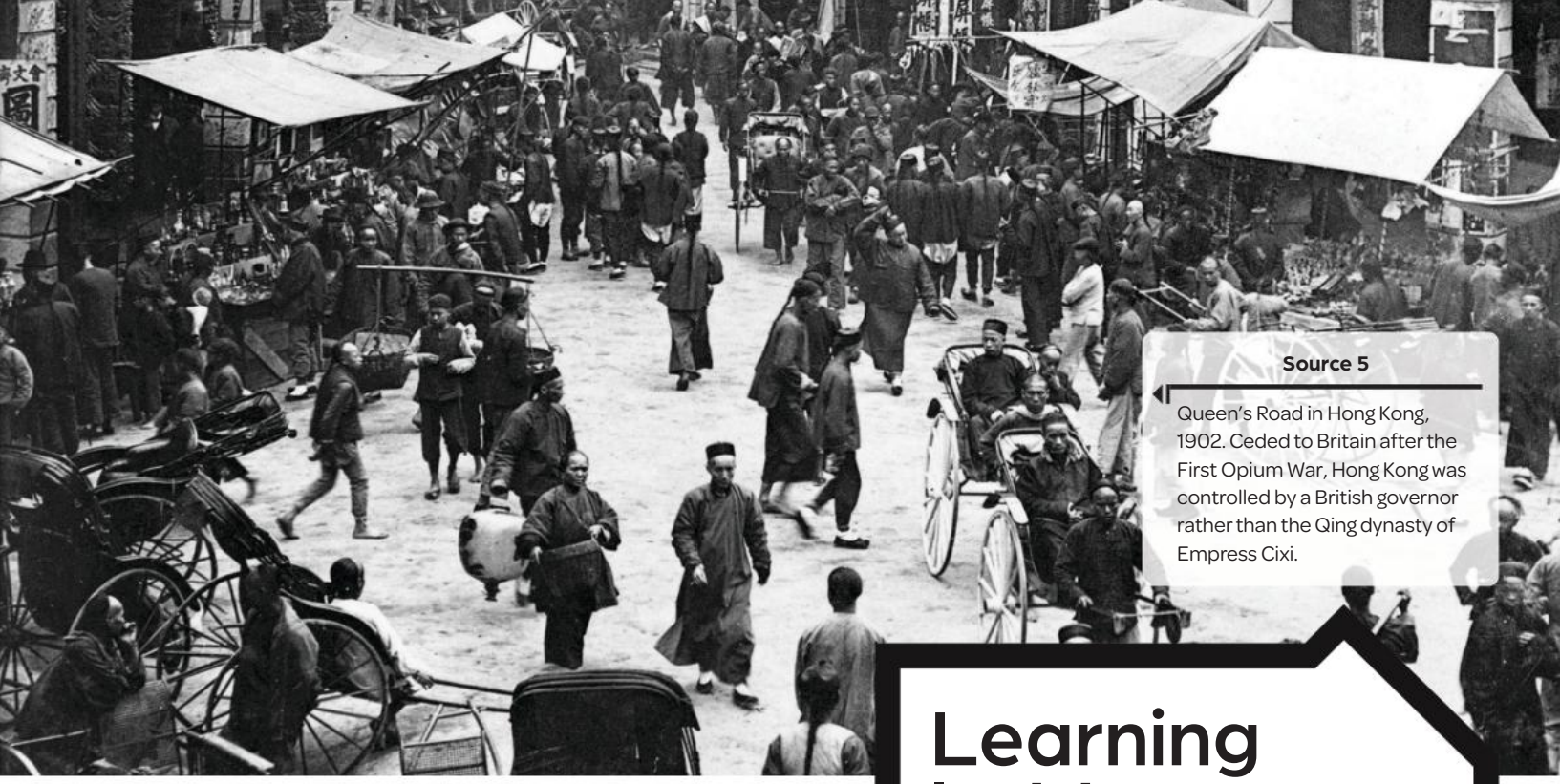
Source 3

Detail from a 1906 painting of Dowager Empress Cixi by Dutch painter Herbert Vos

Source 4

The official portrait of Empress Dowager Cixi, taken by the court photographer in 1895





Source 5

Queen's Road in Hong Kong, 1902. Ceded to Britain after the First Opium War, Hong Kong was controlled by a British governor rather than the Qing dynasty of Empress Cixi.

Her retirement did not last long, however. Emperor Guangxu signed edicts to implement a reform agenda, such as building more railways and forming a national budget. Empress Cixi was not happy with the rapid pace of change. She arrested the emperor within the palace, squashed the reforms and did not allow Guangxu to reign. She took back control over China and remained in power until 1908; she died one day after the death of Emperor Guangxu (under possibly suspicious circumstances).

Known for her conservatism, cultivation of palace intrigues and the murder of a number of people (including one of Emperor Guangxu's favourite concubines), Cixi has often been portrayed as a **despot**. Such over-simplifications obscure her brilliance as a tactician who overcame traditional male power structures. Cixi did advocate for some modernisation, such as developing railways, but not if they ran through sensitive cultural places. She refused to introduce widespread industrialisation at any cost, as it would crush cottage industries such as spinning, but she also removed medieval punishments from the law codes.

She trod a difficult path. Each decision she made was complicated by maintaining a lopsided relationship with foreign powers, multiple internal rebellions and trying to develop the empire from within the Forbidden City. Critiques of her as a sinful poisoner and instigator of palace intrigues overlook the extent of the challenges and crises that she had to overcome.

Learning ladder H3.8

Show what you know

1 Which problems from Emperor Qianlong's reign were inherited by later emperors?

2 How did the Chinese people undermine the emperor and the vast bureaucracy?

3 How did natural disasters add to the problems faced by the Chinese emperors and their administrations?

4 Define 'sphere of influence' and 'enclave'.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

5 Refer to Source 1 and describe what is happening in the cartoon.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

6 Refer to Sources 3 and 4. What does the adoption of photography show about Dowager Empress Cixi's approach to technology and modernisation?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

7 What or who is being made fun of in Source 1? Do the publication details influence your interpretation?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

8 Sources 3 and 4 are both portraits of Dowager Empress Cixi. Which one do you think she would have preferred? Explain your answer.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

How did Chinese technology change during the 19th century?

For most Chinese peasants, life during the tumultuous 19th century wasn't very different to that of their grandparents. China did not industrialise until relatively late, and the technology of daily life changed very little. Things were different in the port cities, where Western inventions and ideas began to dominate society.

Source 1

Bronze coins from the Qing dynasty stamped with the name of Emperor Qianlong

Market towns and trade

The Qing dynasty promoted a primarily agricultural economy, in which small farmers and market gardeners were given incentives to develop land for agricultural use. Emperor Qianlong's reign saw the construction of weirs and canals. These opened up more land to farming, which led to a proliferation of market towns. In these towns, the money that changed hands for goods became the taxes paid to Qing officials, so taxation drove **monetisation** and economic growth.

Markets were initially held in central towns (usually a day's journey away) on certain days of the week. Under the Qing dynasty, sections of towns became permanent markets and merchant classes emerged to sell goods. Trade networks were sufficiently organised for goods to travel freely across provinces. Medicines from the north went south; cotton went from the periphery of the empire to be made into fabric in the centre. A system of banks called the *Piaohao* would take deposits in one location, issue a remittance certificate and allow the redemption of goods in other towns and cities.

One of the fastest ways to modernise a country is to monetise it, which happened during the Qing dynasty. Early Chinese coins were 'cast' by pouring metal into a mould, which meant coins were often smelted by the people to make utensils. Emperor Qianlong devised a plan to make coins out of alloys, which made them more valuable as coins than as raw metals. He also offered incentives for mints to buy back utensils for metal to make coins when metal shortages occurred. Copper coins (called *wen*) had a hole in the centre, so they could be put on strings and tied to a belt. The value of a silver ingot (or *tael*) varied, from 1000 wen (before 1820) to 2000 wen (after 1840).

New crops were introduced from Europe and the United States, such as corn, chilli, pepper, peanuts, potatoes and tomatoes. These allowed farmers to plant beyond their staple crops of rice and other vegetables, and expanded the repertoire of recipes and menus that can still be found today.

Source 2

A full mahjong set could be very expensive. The tiles were crafted from bone, often backed with bamboo, and were often carried in ornate wood or metal cases.

Under the Qing dynasty, the population increased fourfold. The increase in mouths to feed was supported by increasing the amount of fertile land. This was made possible by managing water resources and offering incentives to farmers. Embracing these reforms meant that food production could increase; however, droughts and warfare (which prevented seed planting) still affected food security. Such pressures often led to insurrections and rebellions when people were short of food.

The wealthy and the Westernised

Life was less difficult for the wealthy nobles of the court and for the officials of the Chinese imperial bureaucracy. The Qing dynasty introduced a variety of new noble titles and positions, meaning that the Qing court became larger and busier. These nobles had administrative roles to play in the imperial bureaucracy and had to contribute portions of their wealth to the emperor's coffers. Many nobles developed their own networks of power in regional areas and used these to negotiate deals with Western traders to make more money.

One way nobles passed the time was by playing *mahjong*, a tile-laying game. The exact origins of *mahjong* are unknown; it likely developed from a variety of games, including a card game called *ya pei* and another game called *madiao*. No matter its origin, *mahjong* became a popular pastime among those who could afford a set of playing pieces.

After the Opium Wars, a third way of life developed for some Chinese citizens. The British influence in port cities such as Shanghai, not to mention direct British control in Hong Kong, meant that Western dress, education and culture became much more common. Some Chinese locals were forced to adopt Western ways in order to find work; others chose to adopt those ways in order to gain social advantages. Western styles of dress, such as suits, ties and hats, became common, and some men cut off their plaits and grew their hair in Western styles. Hong Kong in particular became dominated by British culture, with the Chinese locals segregated from their new English rulers. The east portion of Hong Kong was mostly occupied by the British, who built racecourses, mansions and polo fields – and barracks to house large numbers of British soldiers.

Tea and other exports

Tea was so popular as a stimulant and a medicine that it became the national drink of China, and was taxed during the Tang dynasty (618–907 CE). Tea houses existed in every city and town, and were popular places to meet, gossip and socialise for peasants and nobles alike. Unhappily for the Qing dynasty, tea houses were also places where the social classes mixed, providing opportunities for everyone to share their discontent with the current political order.

Tea was also one of China's primary exports, especially to Britain, where it became incredibly popular. The popularity of tea, along with items such as porcelain tea sets, was one of the factors that led to Britain's massive trade deficit with China, which Britain ultimately addressed through the sale of opium and the Opium Wars. The British East India Company also worked to break China's monopoly over tea. One of the company's agents, botanist Robert Fortune, stole tea plants and seedlings during trips to China, bringing them to India's Darjeeling region to develop India's own tea industry.

Chinese artisans had been making porcelain and ceramics for thousands of years using various techniques and materials. Under the Qing dynasty, there was an emphasis on developing more colours, rather than just the blue and white designs popular during the Ming dynasty. Thanks in part to its connection to tea, porcelain became another major Chinese export – to the point where it became known as 'china' in many parts of the British Empire. Many tea services (cups, plates, bowls and tea pots) were decorated, treasured, collected and often handed down by successive generations. China (porcelain) also diversified into figurines, vases, statuettes and other art objects, which also became popular and valuable.

Source 3

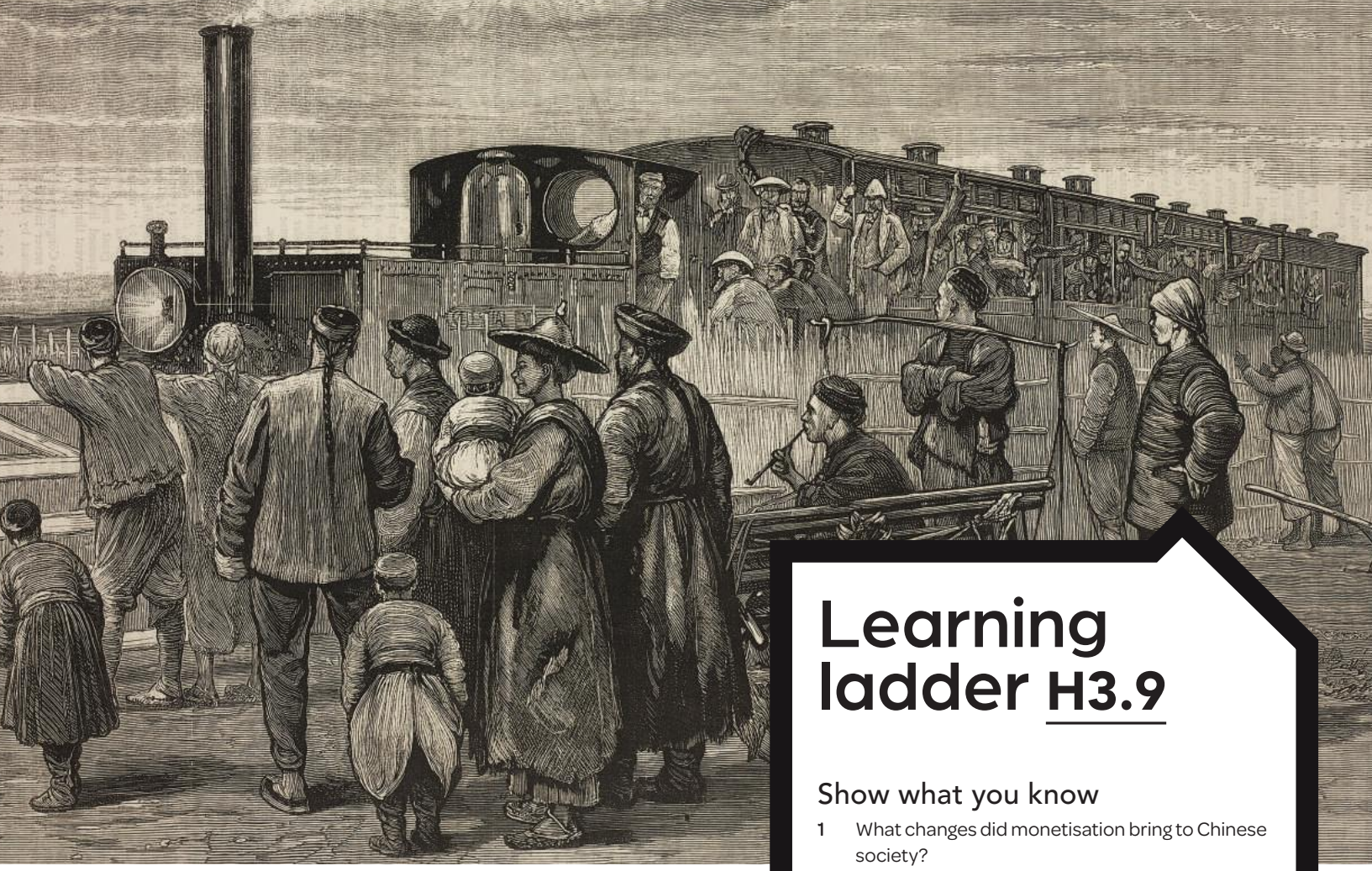
This valuable Dragon jar is from the Ming dynasty and was created c. 1403–1424.

Silk was another luxury export, not just to the British but around the world. For 6000 years, silk had been part of China's export economy; it's what gave the 'Silk Road' trading network its name. Sericulture (silk production) had been a closely guarded secret all that time. Silk was usually sold as fabric, rather than Chinese clothing, so it could be used to create clothing in the styles popular in other countries. Within China, only nobles had been allowed to wear silk. Under Qing rule peasants were also permitted to wear it. Silk was also used for decoration, fishing and making bows.

Industrialisation

The Industrial Revolution that changed Britain, the United States and other nations did not occur in China at the same time. The controls that Emperor Qianlong and his successors placed on foreign traders also prevented many foreign innovations and inventions from entering China. During an audience with foreign ambassadors Qianlong said, 'I set no value on strange objects and ingenious, and have no use for your country's manufactures'. This demonstrated his unwillingness to allow foreign technology into his country.

Resistance to industrialisation also affected the militarisation of the Qing dynasty. The most advanced weapons in China at this time were gunpowder-fired cannons, which had been introduced during the previous Ming dynasty. The Qing emperors did not allow their armies to use guns or rifles, preferring traditional weapons, such as bows and arrows, swords and spears. These weapons failed when they faced the technologically superior munitions of the British during the First Opium War.



Source 4

The grand opening of the Woosung Road, China's first railway line, in 1876. It was dismantled in 1877. [From *The Graphic* magazine, 23 December 1876]

After the Opium Wars, more foreign technology was imported into China, and a desire for industrialisation began to grow. There was a demand not only for foreign weaponry and munitions, but also for steam power, mining equipment and better agricultural technology. The Qing authorities remained reluctant to allow new technology, so Chinese officials and traders often worked around them, dealing directly with foreigners and leaving out the bureaucracy.

Trains are a good example of the slow process of industrialisation in China. The first Chinese railway was built by the British in 1876 and operated near Shanghai, but it was closed and then destroyed by Qing authorities in 1877. Emperor Guangxu wanted to implement reforms and build more railways, but the conservative Dowager Empress Cixi deposed him and cancelled the reforms. By 1894, only around 480 kilometres of railway tracks had been built throughout China – far less than existed in England, a much smaller country.

Learning ladder H3.9

Show what you know

1 What changes did monetisation bring to Chinese society?

2 What were some of the agricultural benefits of trade with foreign empires and nations?

3 How did Britain manage to challenge the Chinese monopoly over tea?

4 How did high-ranking government officials increase their power in regional centres and ports?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

5 Which national game developed during this time?

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

6 What does Emperor Qianlong's public statement about European inventions indicate about his public approach to foreign influence?

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

7 How did Emperor Qianlong's and others' approaches to modernisation affect the militarisation of China and the outcomes of conflicts as a result?

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

8 How did the trade deficit on tea, porcelain and silk affect relations between Western European nations and the Qing Empire?

HOW TO Historical interpretation, page 255

How did rebellions and revolutions change China?

Growing discontent with the rule of the Qing dynasty led to a number of rebellions and uprisings. In order to defeat them, the Qing brutally suppressed their own citizens, which weakened them politically. The 1911 revolution ended the reign of the Qing and the dynastic system, creating an entirely new government.

The White Lotus Rebellion (1796–1804)

The *Bai Lian Jiao* (White Lotus Society) was a **populist** Chinese secret society, based on a mixture of Taoist and Buddhist ideas, with a long history that stretched back to the Song dynasty. Secret societies were fairly common during this period; people from the lower classes, who bore the real hardships of agricultural failures and government corruption, joined such societies in order to vent their discontent.

The White Lotus Society didn't have much support until 1796, when high levels of immigration into Sichuan province from other provinces upset the local populace. Inadequate resources and high taxation angered the locals, who joined the White Lotus Society to express that anger. The people rallied beneath a banner that was openly anti-Qing and called for the return of the Ming dynasty.

Military forces struggled to suppress the growing rebellion. Local nobility had to recruit and pay exorbitant fees to mercenaries and bribe White Lotus members to change sides; the cost of fighting the rebellion ran into 100–200 million *taels* of silver. The mercenaries also required training, as they struggled to counter the White Lotus's **guerrilla** tactics of attacking and then disappearing.

The White Lotus Society members were eventually routed in 1804, after the deaths of around 100 000 rebels. While the rebellion was suppressed, the damage had been done to the Qing dynasty. Poor people had shown their dissent openly to their rulers, which inspired others to do the same.

Source 1

The White Lotus Society. [Handscroll; ink on paper, unidentified artist, c. 1368–1644.]

Source 2

Wu Youru's 1886 painting *Regaining Jinling* from the book, *A scene of the Taiping Rebellion, 1850–1864*.

The Taiping Rebellion (1850–1864)

A change of reign occurred in 1850, from Emperor Daoguang to Emperor Xianfeng; in the same year, a famine and other economic hardships affected the lower levels of society. During this period, a group called the *Bai Shangdi Hui* (God Worshipping Society) instigated a four-year rebellion that led to the occupation of the city of Jiangning and the death of 20–70 million people.

It began with a man named Hong Xiuquan. Fusing Christian ideas with Chinese thought, he convinced a large number of followers that he was either a **messiah** or the emperor of a future dynasty, with a mandate to vanquish the Qing. In 1850, Hong amassed approximately two million followers into military units and began to purchase weapons and supplies. Initial victories were seen as a sign from Heaven, and Hong declared the 'Taiping Heavenly Kingdom' as a new state.

Hong captured the major cities of Wuchan and Anqing but was met by Qing military forces at Beijing. The forces of the *Bai Shangdi Hui* forced Emperor Xianfeng and his troops to retreat during the attack on Tianjing. They then occupied the city of Nanjing in 1853; however, corruption set in among Hong's officials and advisers.

After the Treaty of Tianjin was signed following the Second Opium War, the British helped Emperor Xianfeng to crush the Taiping Rebellion as a show of good faith. The army besieged Nanjing in May 1862, and it fell in July 1864, a few weeks after Hong Xiuquan died of food poisoning.

Source 3

Hong Xiuquan, self-proclaimed 'Brother of Jesus' and leader of the Taiping Rebellion

Source 4

Qing troops escort and protect foreigners at the conclusion of the Boxer Rebellion. [Illustration by Oswaldo Tofani, *Le Petit Journal*, 15 July 1900]

The Boxer Rebellion (1899–1901)

In the north of China, secret societies stirred up nationalist discontent and began training rebellion troops. The largest of these societies was the Society of the Righteous and Harmonious Fists, or *I-ho ch'uan* ('The Boxers'). The Boxers called for a return to the 'traditional source' of Chinese warfare, such as spirituality and martial arts prowess; some even claimed (or truly believed) that they were immune to swords and bullets. Their war cry – 'Support the Qing, death to all foreigners' – united a people fed up with defeat after defeat.

The Boxers began their rebellion with attacks on Christian missionaries in 1899 and the destruction of railways and telegraphs in 1900. These attacks earned the love of the Chinese people but angered Western governments, who implored Emperor Guangxu to suppress the Boxers. Instead, Empress Dowager Cixi actually supported the Boxer campaign because of its popularity.

To protect their diplomatic missions in Beijing from the Boxers, and the Qing army that supported them, the Western powers sent more than 50 000 troops to China. An Eight-Nation Alliance was formed, made up of Austria–Hungary, Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia and the United States of America. (The British forces included Indian *sepoys* and Australian colonial militias.)

On 12 August 1900, Boxers and Qing troops attacked the diplomatic missions; on 14 August, Eight-Nation Alliance forces divided and attacked each gate of Beijing. Over the following months, tens of thousands of Chinese people (mostly civilians) were killed. Empress Cixi changed

course, and ordered the Qing Army to assist the Western forces and arrest the Boxers. However, it was too late and, as the allied forces invaded, she left the Forbidden City in disguise. Meanwhile thieves sacked the city, taking palace antiques by the cartload.

Most of Chinese society had unified to reject the foreigners, and they had lost. The result was another 'unequal treaty': The Boxer Protocol of 1901. Under the terms of the treaty, the Chinese government had to pay 450 million *taels* of silver to the Eight-Nation Alliance countries and participation in anti-foreigner secret societies became a capital offence.

The Xinhai Revolution (1911)

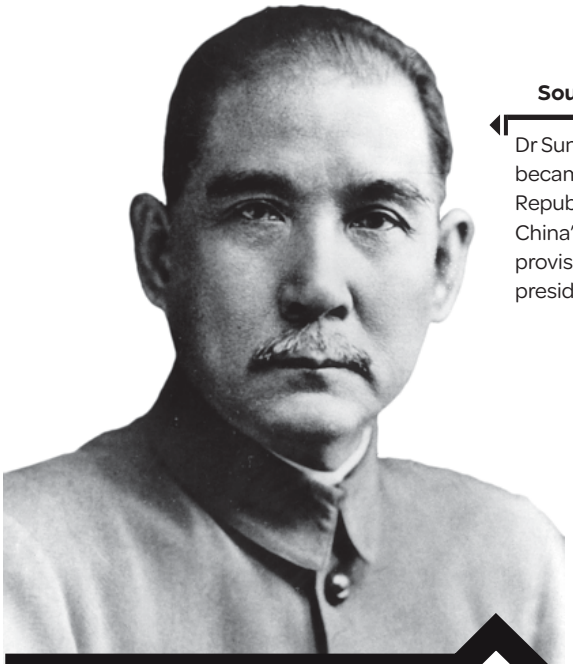
Annoyed at government corruption and the Qing dynasty's inability to prevent invasions, many people in China felt that their country was in decline. A young leader called Sun Yat-sen organised his own revolution in 1895. It was suppressed, but from this experience he learned to use secret society networks across China and formed his own league, the *Tongmenghui*.

When the imperial court ordered the suppression of the Wuchang Rebellion in October 1911, the Qing Army refused to obey. The rebellion grew into a full-blown revolution, named the Xinhai Revolution; the army seized power from the Qing rulers and declared a new Chinese **republic**.

Sun Yat-sen returned from exile to become the first provisional president of the republic. Without armed forces to support him, Sun gave power to General Yuan Shikai, who recommended that the Empress Dowager Longyu, Prince Regent and three-year-old Emperor Xuantong abdicate, which they did on 12 February 1912.

Elections in February 1913 saw the election of the Kuomintang, or Chinese Nationalist Party, which remains active to this day in Taiwan. Extraordinary events saw Yuan Shikai declared as the Hongxian Emperor for 83 days before being removed from office; he died in 1916. Emperor Xuantong was reinstated for 12 days in 1917 by a coup, which was defeated by other Chinese republican forces.

The **abdication** of Emperor Xuantong brought an end to the Qing dynasty, as well as the institution of imperial rule of China, which had lasted for more than two millennia.



Source 5

Dr Sun Yat-sen became the Republic of China's first provisional president.

Learning ladder H3.10

Show what you know

1 How did the Boxers enlist followers?

2 Which institutions did the Xinhai Revolution bring to an end?

3 Name three reasons why the White Lotus Society's support increased after 1776.

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 Source 5: What does Sun Yat-sen's style of dress indicate about his education and ideas?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 What long-term problems led to the White Lotus Rebellion?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 List the factors that inspired the White Lotus Rebellion, Taiping Heavenly Kingdom, Boxer Rebellion and Xinhai Revolution. Explain how each uprising was similar and different in terms of causes.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 In what ways were the Chinese government's responses to the uprisings both adequate and inadequate?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

PART III: JAPAN

Why did the Tokugawa shogunate close Japan's borders?

The Tokugawa shogun, Japan's effective ruler, outlawed travel in and out of Japan in 1635. This prevented foreign ideas and religion from influencing Japanese society, and reduced the power and wealth of the shogun's rivals.

In 1600, Tokugawa Ieyasu became the nation's military leader, or shogun, beginning a dynasty that would last for almost three centuries.

While the emperor was Japan's official ruler, real power lay with the shogun, who oversaw national matters, including trade and defence. For the most part, peace reigned in Japan, although conflict persisted with the indigenous Ainu people of Ezo (modern-day Hokkaido), who clashed with Japanese settler colonies on the south of the island. Provincial lords, known as *daimyo*, retained their own *samurai* and controlled their lands in exchange for tribute and loyalty to the shogun.

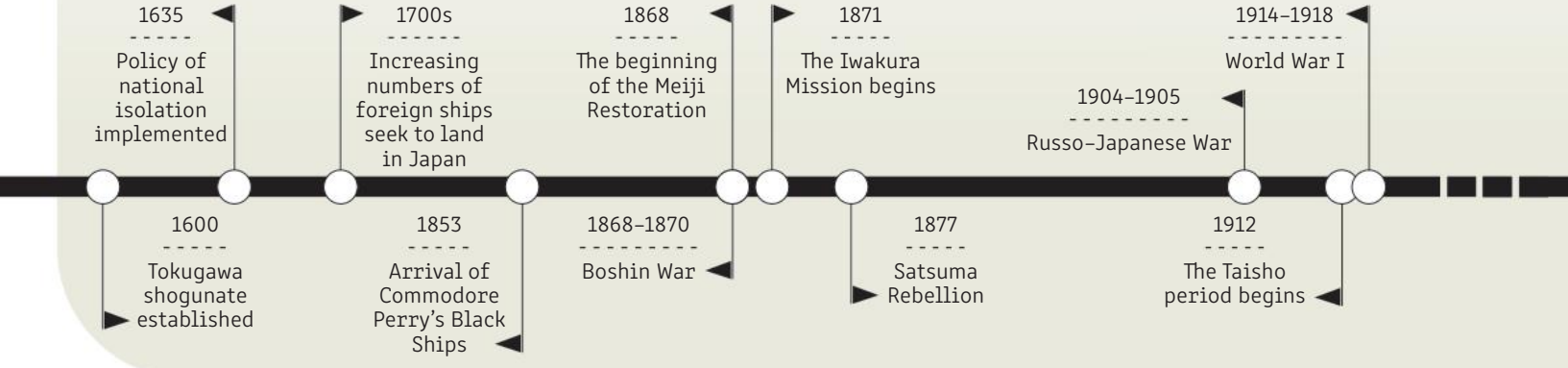
Sakoku

In 1635, the shogunate implanted a policy of *sakoku* ('closed country'), which severely limited Japanese contact and trade with other countries.

Before *sakoku*, international trade and travel were largely unrestricted. Japanese sailors traded throughout Asia, and official envoys visited nations in Asia, South America and Europe. Large numbers of foreign traders lived in Japan, and foreign pirate ships were active in the seas surrounding the island.

Sakoku was a response to growing concern about the threat of these foreign traders and pirates. Christian missionaries were also seen as a danger to Japanese religion and *kokutai*,

key ideas timeline.



Source 1

This map shows Japan's proximity to China (the Qing Empire) and the Korean (Joseon) Peninsula (independent but under the Chinese tributary system).

Source: Matilda Education Australia

the national essence; the Catholic Portuguese and Spanish were seen as especially zealous in this regard.

Under *sakoku*, the shogun officially forbade all foreigners from entering Japan or Japanese waters. Japanese citizens who returned from abroad were to be executed. For more than 200 years, Japan would remain isolated from the rest of the world.

Exceptions to the policy

Two exceptions to the *sakoku* restrictions existed in Nagasaki: a small community of Chinese traders could operate and Dutch traders were allowed on Dejima, an artificial island in Nagasaki harbour, although they could not set foot on Japanese soil.

Controlling trade in this way not only prevented creeping foreign influence, but also stopped regional *daimyo* from growing too wealthy by trading with outsiders. In turn, this restricted their ability to raise large armies and present any kind of threat to the Tokugawa dynasty.

Through official channels Japan maintained *tongsinsa*, or goodwill embassies, which facilitated trade and contact between Joseon Korea and Imperial China, along with the Ryukyu Islands to the south. Silver proved a particularly valuable export, and Chinese goods, developments and technology flowed into Japan in return.

Learning ladder H3.11

Show what you know

1 What was the *sakoku* policy?

2 Suggest why the shogun wanted Japan to remain isolated.

3 Outline the role of the *tongsinsa*.

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 Why was Christianity seen as a threat to national unity in Japan?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 The Dutch were the only Westerners allowed to trade in Japan at this time. Why was this the case?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 What was the effect of *sakoku* on foreign trade in Japan?

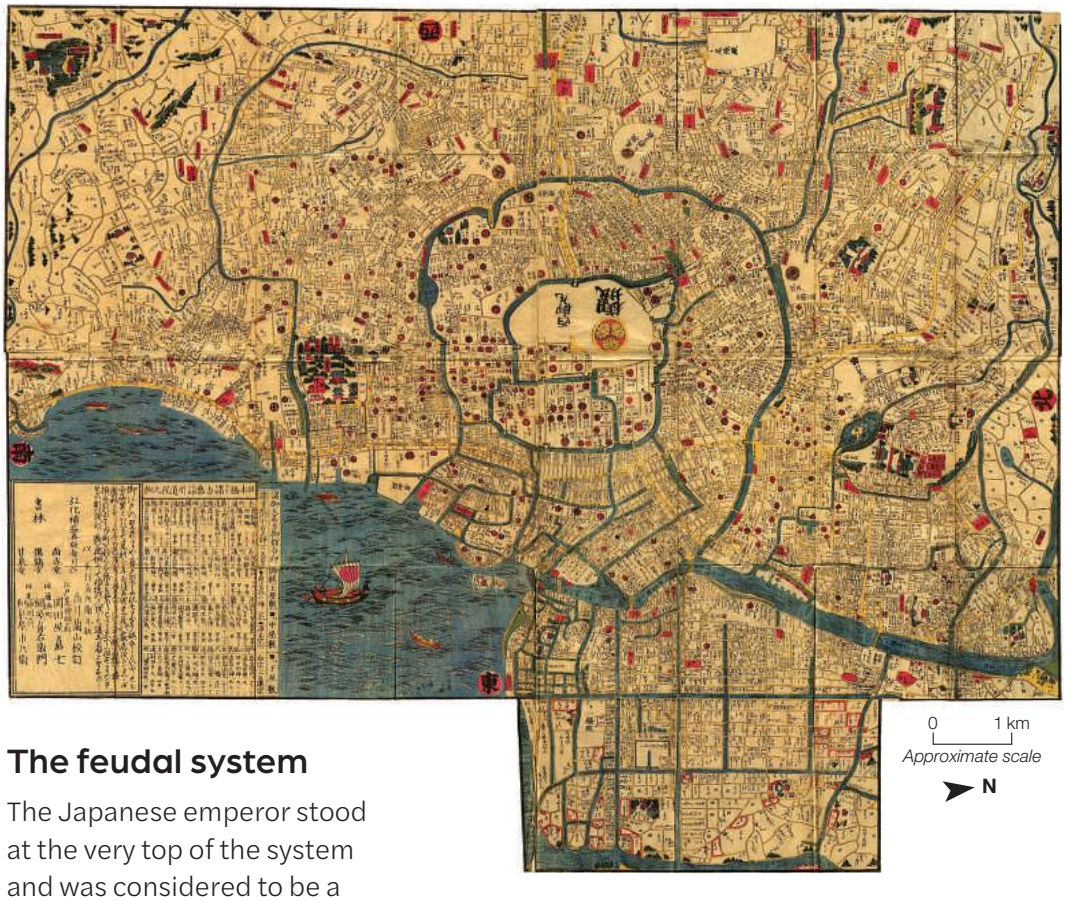
Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 To what extent did *sakoku* also strengthen the shogun's position against the *daimyo*?

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

What was life like during the Tokugawa shogunate?

Japan during the Tokugawa shogunate operated under a feudal system. Everyone belonged to a particular class, with which came specific obligations and expectations. Japan's closed borders prevented foreign influences from changing society.



Source 1

A map of the city of Edo (modern-day Tokyo) from the 1840s. Edo was the seat of the shogun's power and the location of his palace.

The feudal system

The Japanese emperor stood at the very top of the system and was considered to be a descendant of Amaterasu, the sun goddess. During the Tokugawa shogunate, he was considered to be a spiritual head who held little real power or influence. His court was supported by *kuge*: nobles, aristocrats and bureaucrats.

Real power lay with the shogun, the emperor's leading general, who lived in Edo and ran the nation's domestic welfare and foreign affairs. The Tokugawa family held this role for centuries, primarily because of their large wealth and landholdings across key trade routes.

Source 2

A 19th-century depiction of women in the Ooku quarters of Edo Castle. These women included the wives and concubines of current and former shoguns; they were not allowed to have relationships with other men. [Hashimoto Chikanobu, *Ukiyo-e depiction of the Ōoku*, 2 March 1895]

The nation was divided into approximately 250 *han* (domains), each ruled by a local hereditary lord (*daimyo*), who retained a private army and controlled laws and taxes. In order to ensure the *daimyo* could not become wealthy and pose any potential threat, the shogun spied on them and placed controls on their behaviour. He demanded they regularly upgrade roads and seawalls, regularly required them to live in Edo and prohibited alliances between *daimyo*, including those created through marriage.

The samurai were the warriors who made up the army of each *daimyo*. They commanded significant respect and lower classes were expected to show deference to them. They carried swords and lived according to the *bushido* (warrior code). By 1750, Japan had been relatively peaceful for more than a century, and the role of the samurai had become more administrative. Some had fallen on hard times and taken to gambling and other vices.

Everyone else was broadly classified according to the *shinokosho* (the four divisions of society): *shi* (samurai), *no* (farmers/peasants), *ko* (artisans/craftsmen) and *sho* (merchants/traders). Confucian traditions valued the role of farmers, who produced goods essential to society, over that of craftsmen. Merchants were considered of less value, as they generated wealth without producing goods.

Some groups fell outside the feudal system, notably the *eta* (those who worked in 'tainted' industries such as leather-working, undertaking or animal slaughter) and *hinin* (people in indentured labour, ex-convicts, beggars and vagrants). These groups were considered untouchable and discrimination against them was widespread.

The role of women

Life for women in Tokugawa Japan was very different from that of men and depended greatly on their social status. They were expected to adhere to the Confucian tradition of the *Three Obediences*:

- as a maiden daughter
- as a chaste wife
- as a dedicated widow.

Marriages were generally arranged by parents and women held few rights. Female illiteracy was widespread; a woman could not own property and could be killed by her own husband if she were perceived to be lazy or unfaithful. Some were retained in entertainment and service, such as the *Ooku* women of Edo Castle.


富嶽三十六景
神奈川沖
浪裏

Limited change

Through contact with Imperial China, new ideas, developments and technologies entered Japan, although the *sakoku* restrictions meant that the nation remained less open to change. *Rangaku* (Dutch studies) was a notable exception; books and texts obtained from Dutch traders at Dejima introduced new ideas around science, astronomy, medicine, languages and the natural world.

Source 3

The Great Wave off Kanagawa, 1831, by Katsushika Hokusai is one of the most important *ukiyo-e* artworks. *Ukiyo-e* was a genre of Japanese art, mostly paintings and woodblock prints, that emerged from the growing urban culture.

As swampland was filled and marshes drained, Edo grew during this period to become one of the largest cities in the world, although the crowded conditions and widespread use of wood created a risk of fires. Devastating fires proved a regular occurrence throughout the 16th and 17th centuries. As a result, thatched roofs were banned in favour of tiles and fire-prevention laws enacted.

As urban centres grew, lifestyles began to change for many. The rise of *ukiyo* ('floating worlds', or urban culture) saw a growth in new forms of entertainment, art (such as *ukiyo-e*) and business, and a gradual blurring of many of the older social hierarchies.

Learning ladder H3.12

Show what you know

1 What was the *shinokosho*?

2 Why were farmers considered to be more important than merchants?

3 Who were the *hinin* and *eta*? Why might they have suffered discrimination?

4 Explain how the emperor kept the *daimyo* under control.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

5 What is pictured in Source 3? Does this problem still exist in modern times in Japan?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

6 Source 2 portrays a very traditional scene in the Imperial palace. What do the characters in the scene have in common? Suggest why.

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

7 The author of the 1840s Edo map (Source 1) could not have seen the city from above. Why do you think he or she chose to represent it this way?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

8 To what extent do you feel that the lives of women in Tokugawa Japan are accurately reflected in Source 2? Use evidence from the source to support your response.

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

What caused Japan to re-engage with the West?

The arrival of US forces in 1853 marked a significant turning point in Japan's political outlook. It ended the *sakoku* period and began a growing internal push to modernise Japan. The Western powers clamoured to help accelerate this process.

Commodore Perry's Black Ships

By the mid-19th century, the USA was building its own empire of trade and vassal states, and was looking for ways to take power from its European rivals. Japan was seen as a strong potential trading partner within Asia, and the USA had made multiple unsuccessful attempts to establish diplomatic and trading ties with the isolated nation.

In 1853, the US government sent Commodore Matthew Perry, commanding four steam-powered warships, to present a letter from President Filmore to the Japanese Emperor. Perry's fleet of 'black ships' sailed around Japan, intimidating local *daimyos* who had never seen such advanced technology before. Arriving at the shogun's palace in Edo, Perry showed off the fleet's military power, firing cannons and making threats of force before delivering the President's letter to the shogun's aide. When the fleet left, Perry made it clear that the USA demanded Japan re-open its borders, and promised to return in a year's time for their reply.

Shogun Ieyoshi died a few days after Perry left, and his successor was in poor health, so it was left to the court's Council of Elders to decide how to respond to the threat. However, they were paralysed by indecision, unsure how to handle this new threat.

Perry returned in 1854 after only six months, this time with a fleet of 10 steamships and 1600 men. The Elders gave in to almost all of the US demands, and the Convention of Kanagawa was signed. This treaty opened the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate, established a US embassy and gave the USA preferential trading rights. It effectively ended the policy of *sakoku* and forced Japan to open its borders to the rest of the world.

The Meiji Restoration

The capitulation cost the shogunate a great deal of power and respect, and its control over Japanese society slipped. In late 1867, Shogun Yoshinobu was forced to resign, allowing Emperor Meiji to take back political control of the country. For the first time in centuries, Japan's emperor was a ruler rather than a figurehead. The period from 1868 is thus called the Meiji Restoration, and was a period of enormous change.

Japan began to define its own future. The emperor moved the capital city from Kyoto to Edo, which was renamed Tokyo, and the feudal domains ended in favour of a national government. In 1889, a new constitution created the imperial *diet* (parliament), sidelining the emperor and putting decision-making powers into the hands of the *genro*, older oligarchic advisors.

Renewed trade with the West brought modernisation and prosperity. Industrial development and foreign investment brought greater wealth, particularly to the *zaibutsu*, large business conglomerates that dominated industry. Japan's overseas colonies delivered raw materials,

Source 1

Detail from a depiction of Commodore Perry's flagship by Tsukioka Yoshitoshi, 1876. The Japanese were unfamiliar with industrial technology, and Perry's ships were far more powerful than the shogun's military forces.

such as coal and iron. These were particularly valuable for the growing Japanese military, which greatly increased Japan's presence in Manchuria, a region of north-eastern China.

Military expansion

The modernisation of Japan's military was a top priority during the Meiji Restoration. The Sino–Japanese war (1894–1895) resulted in Japan's victory over Qing dynasty China, which established Japan as a regional power and handed them control of Korea and some Chinese territories. The 1905 Eulsa Treaty formalised the Japanese sphere of influence on the Korean Peninsula, depriving it of independence.

Growing ties with the West, such as the Anglo–Japanese Alliance (1902), helped Japan to modernise; they also laid the foundations for acquiring Germany's colonies in the Asia–Pacific at the end of World War I. Growing tension between Japan and Russia over China brought the two nations into conflict. The Russo–Japanese War (1904–1905) was a comprehensive victory for Japan, the first victory by an Asian power over a European power in modern times.

Learning ladder H3.13

Show what you know

1 Identify three ways Japan began to change during the Meiji Restoration.

2 Why did the new government make it a priority to improve the military?

3 What was the outcome of the Russo–Japanese War?

4 Japan became increasingly influential in China and the Korean Peninsula at this time. How do you think people living there felt about this? Why?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 What do you think were the most important changes in Japan at this time? Why?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 Why was the arrival of Commodore Perry's Black Ships significant?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 Why was the Meiji period also known as the 'Meiji Restoration'? What was 'restored'?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 Japan's victory in the Russo–Japanese war changed the way that the world saw Japan. Why?

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

How did Japan modernise during the Taisho period?

The Taisho period began in 1912 and marked significant social change, particularly for women, following the end of World War I in 1918. Sometimes referred to as Japan's 'Jazz Age', a wave of prosperity, liberalism and intellectualism swept through urban centres.

The Meiji period ended with the death of Emperor Meiji. He was succeeded by his son, Prince Yoshihito, who declared his reign would be known as the Taisho ('great righteousness') period. To begin with, however, the Taisho period was one of upheaval and conflict. Japan had three different prime ministers between 1912 and 1913 because of conflicts between the civilian government, the military and the imperial court. Not long after the government stabilised, Japan entered World War I, allying with the United Kingdom against its enemies China and Germany (see Chapter H4).

Social change

In the post-war world, things changed dramatically for Japan, both at home and internationally. The country was granted a permanent seat on the Council of the League of Nations (the precursor to the modern United Nations) and was recognised as a world power.

In Japan's urban centres, a thriving film, music and literary culture rose to prominence, as did consumerism. *Moga* ('modern girl') and *mobo* ('modern boy') trends – heavily influenced by the West – became popular, and challenged traditional roles, fashions and expectations. People started to embrace the idea of the country becoming a democracy.

However, life was different in rural areas: spiralling inflation, rising national debt and increased military spending drove up the price of rice and led to violent clashes in July 1918. The *Kome Sodo* ('Rice Riots')

Source 1

A *moga*, or 'modern girl' – young people in Japan's urban centres were sophisticates heavily influenced by Western culture. [Kobayakawa Kiyoshi, *Tipsy*, 1930, woodcut print]

Source 2

Leaders of the Iwakura Mission to London (1872). The mission group spent two years travelling the world, gaining knowledge that could be used to modernise Japan.

indicated growing discontent, and martial law soon followed. Landless farmers, riots and union activity saw an increased interest in socialism and Marxism.

To quell discontent and prevent the spread of dangerous ideas, the *Peace Preservation Act of 1925* banned anything that could be perceived as dangerous to *kokutai*, or 'the national essence'. Tightening government controls, growing military influence and concern over the liberal direction of urban areas increased national and regional tensions.

Technological change

Before the Meiji period, Japan had been a medieval society. A great industrial revolution began during the 1870s. Railroads, shipping, gas lighting, textile manufacturing and banking reforms were widespread. Japan went from having 26 steamships in 1873 to more than 1500 by 1913; and from 29 kilometres of train tracks in 1872 to more than 11 000 kilometres by 1914.

The incredible speed of industrialisation was primarily due to the government's policy of *o-yatoi gaikokujin* (hired foreigners). Under this Meiji-era policy, up to 3000 foreign experts were brought into Japan to improve education, the sciences, engineering and the military. Japanese students were also sent to Europe and North America to acquire knowledge under an initiative known as the Iwakura Mission. The skills these students brought back shaped the advances of the Taisho period.

Learning ladder H3.14

Show what you know

1 What were *moga* and *mobo*?
2 How was the Taisho period different to the Meiji period?
3 What led to the Rice Riots?
4 What was the Iwakura Mission?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 Think back to the *sakoku* period. Identify three things that had changed by the Taisho period and three that had not.

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Imagine you are an Australian newspaper reporter in the 1920s. Many of your readers still think of Japan as isolated and backwards. Write a brief article explaining how and why Japan has modernised.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 Describe how Japan changed between the Meiji and Taisho periods.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 In 1750, Japan was an isolated nation; by 1918, it considered itself a great power. Rank the factors that contributed to this change.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

civics + citizenship

How do governments in Asia work today?

Asia is the world's largest continent, and is home to 48 different countries, some of which did not exist during the Age of Imperialism. These nations operate under many different forms of government.

Different types of government

Many different political systems are followed around the world, and every independent nation has their own government. The nations of Asia are governed in many ways, but four forms of government are common.

1 **Democracy**: a political system that allows each individual to participate. There are several different forms of democracy. Most democracies are **republics** – states where the people elect representatives to form and manage the government. However, some democracies are **constitutional monarchies**.

Countries of East Asia and their systems of government, 2020

2 **Monarchy**: when one person inherits the position of head of state, and is the final word in government.

3 **Communism**: when a nation is run by an authoritarian government featuring a planned economy with equally shared resources.

4 **Dictatorship**: when a nation is run by an authoritarian government and a single individual rules the country and makes all of the decisions.

Source 1

Types of government across Asia

Source 2

A member of the world's largest democracy, India, proudly shows the mark of indelible ink that proves she has voted.

India: Democracy (republic)

Like Australia, India's government is modelled on the British Westminster System (see pages 124–25). The head of state and commander-in-chief of the armed forces is the president, elected by members of the Parliament of India and the state governments. The Prime Minister is appointed by the president and is the leader of the majority party in Parliament, elected by citizens over 18. The Prime Minister is responsible for legislation.

China: Communist state

Although China is sometimes referred to as a republic, the main power lies with the Communist Party. Elections are held for the National People's Congress, but the Communist Party is the only political party to vote for. The Prime Minister is the head of the majority party in the National People's Congress, the Communist Party.

Brunei: Monarchy

Brunei is an absolute monarchy or sultanate, where the Sultan of Brunei is both the head of state and the head of government. Brunei has a legislative council with 36 appointed members, who act as advisors to the Sultan.

Japan: Democracy (constitutional monarchy)

Like Australia, Japan is a constitutional monarchy – a democracy that also has a monarch. The Emperor of Japan is the head of the Imperial Family and the head of state, but the position is mainly ceremonial. The true power in Japan's government lies with the Prime Minister and Cabinet of Ministers, who lead the legislative branch of elected government. The Prime Minister is appointed by the emperor, but must have the support of the House of Representatives to remain in power. The Prime Minister leads the Cabinet and can appoint and dismiss ministers.

North Korea: Dictatorship

North Korea is controlled by Kim Jong-un and his family. He is the supreme leader of North Korea, and leader of the Workers' Party of Korea. North Korea is an authoritarian state in which all production and public services in the country are controlled by the state. North Korea prioritises its military and has an army of 1.2 million people, the fourth largest in the world.

Learning ladder H3.15

Civics and citizenship

Step 1: I can identify topics about society

1 What different roles are performed by the President and the Prime Minister in India?

Step 2: I can describe societal issues

2 Why can China be described as both a republic and a Communist state?

Step 3: I can explain issues in society

3 Rank the different forms of government according to the level of citizen participation.

Step 4: I can explain different points of view

4 Explain the difference between the monarchies that rule Japan and Brunei.

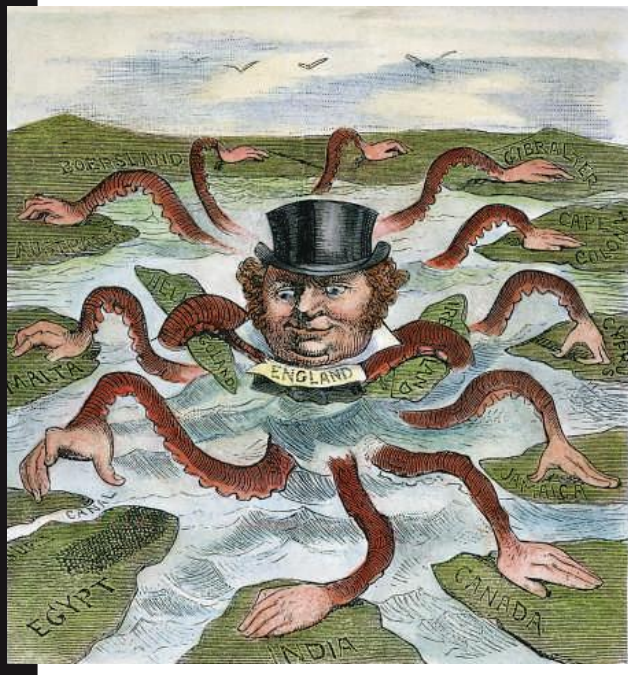
Step 5: I can analyse issues in society

5 Research the government of North Korea and its activities. Explain why the President of the United States claimed it was important to meet with the supreme leader of North Korea to discuss defence issues.

Masterclass

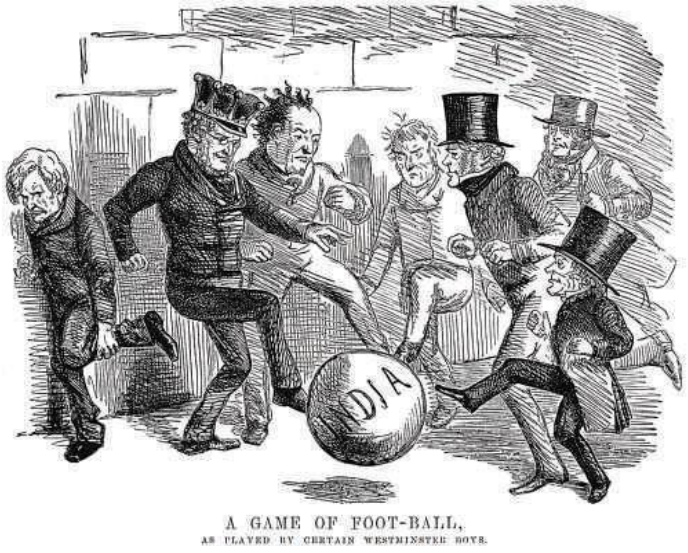
Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!



Source 1

An American cartoon from 1888 showing 'John Bull' (representing England) as an Imperial Octopus with its hands grabbing or interfering in various regions.

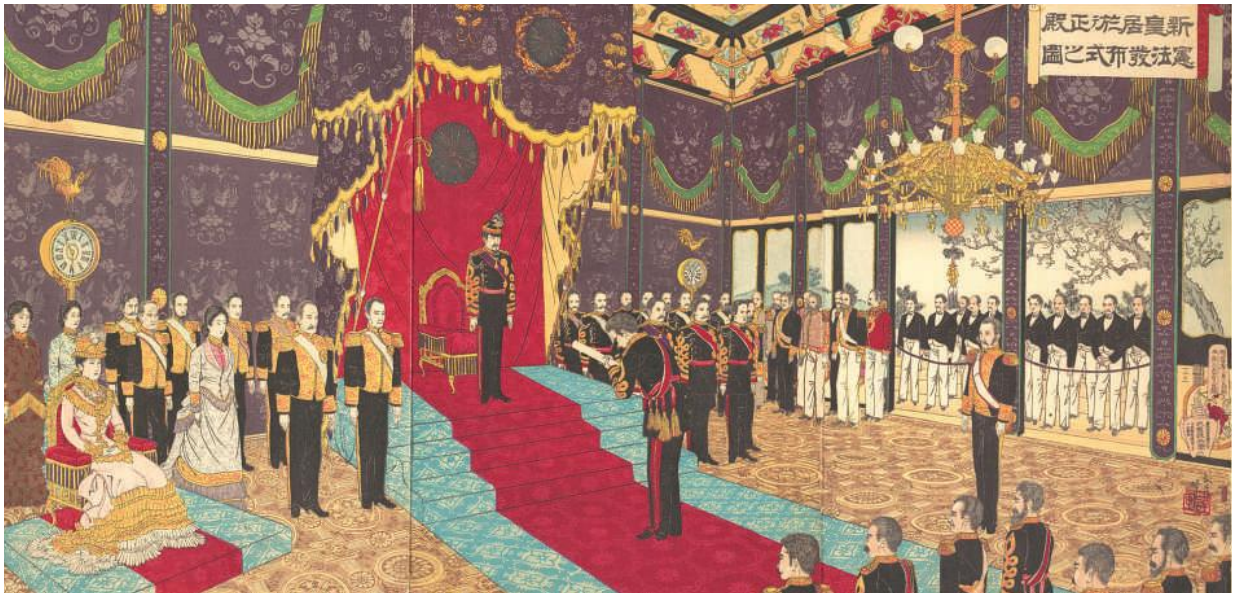


Source 2

A British political cartoon from 1858, satirising the passage of the *India Bill*, which transferred control of India to the English Crown.

Source 3

Adachi (Shōsai) Ginkō, *View of the Issuance of the State Constitution in the State Chamber of the New Imperial Palace*, 2 March 1889 (Meiji 22)



Step 1

a I can list specific features of a source

Source 2: Identify the features of the cartoon and provide a brief outline of the event pictured.

b I can describe continuity and change

Describe two examples of how India changed under British rule, and one example of how it did not.

c I can recognise a cause and an effect

What was the British East India Trading Company? How did its presence affect India?

d I can recognise historical significance

What was the Meiji Restoration?

e I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

Consider Source 1. How might imperialism have been seen by different people?

Step 2

a I can find themes in a source

Which elements or features in Source 3 suggest that Japan was becoming more 'Western'?

b I can explain why something did or did not change

Why did Japan decide to implement a policy of *sakoku*?

c I can determine causes and effects

Why did the British introduce opium to China? What effect did this have?

d I can explain historical significance

What type of government does India have today? Why?

e I can describe historical interpretations

How are the leaders of the British government portrayed in Source 2?

Step 3

a I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

Source 1 was created by an American artist. How might Americans have felt about the British Empire? Suggest why.

b I can explain patterns of continuity and change

What similarities in trade and European imperialism occurred across India, China and Japan?

c I can explain causes and effects

The coming of Perry's Black Ships can be considered a turning point in Japanese history. What changed after their arrival?

d I can apply a theory of significance

Rebellions and revolts triggered enormous change in China. Which of these was the most significant? Why?

e I can explain historical interpretations

Why was the Meiji Constitution presented in Source 3 in a westernised *ukiyo-e* style?

Step 4

a I can analyse a source

To what extent does Source 1 tell the story of British imperialism?

b I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

In what ways did India, China and Japan change as a result of European imperialism?

c I can analyse causes and effects

What events lead to the White Lotus Rebellion in China?

d I can analyse historical significance

Describe why Japan's victory in the Russo–Japanese War was so significant.

e I can analyse historical interpretations

Source 2 shows Britain's leaders treating control of India as sport. To what extent might this reflect attitudes within Britain regarding India?

Masterclass

Step 5

a I can evaluate a source

Source 1 suggests that Britain sought to interfere in the sovereignty of other nations. To what extent would you agree? Why?

b I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

With reference to either China, India or Japan, discuss the following statement: 'While Western imperialism triggered significant changes across Asia, many nations were able to retain their own identity'.

c I can evaluate causes and effects

To what extent do you agree with the statement: 'Imperialism accelerated the modernisation of Asia'? Refer to specific events in your response.

d I can evaluate historical significance

Discuss how the Indian Rebellion of 1857, also known as the Great Rebellion, might be considered a major turning point for the British in India.

e I can evaluate historical interpretations

To what extent do you think Source 1 represents British colonial intentions? What legacies of British rule remain in its former colonies?

Historical writing

1 Structure

Imagine you are given the essay topic, '*Sakoku* was implemented to protect Japan from change, but it actually played a major role in transforming the nation'. Write an essay plan for this topic. Include at least three main paragraphs.

2 Draft

Using the drafting and vocabulary suggestions on page 262, draft a 600–800 word essay (at least 30–40 sentences) responding to the topic.

3 Edit and proofread

Use the editing and proofreading tips on page 263, to help edit and proofread your draft.

Historical research

4 Organise and present information

Imagine you are completing a research project on 'China: Fall of an Empire'. Write a contents page for this project. There should be an introduction, a conclusion, at least four main sections and many subsections. Number your chapters.

Capstone

How can I understand Asia in the Age of Imperialism?

In this chapter, you have learnt a lot about Asia in the Age of Imperialism. Now you can put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think.

In the world of building, a capstone is an element that finishes off an arch or tops off a building or wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting, critical and creative ways. You can complete this project yourself, or your teacher can make it a class task or a homework task.

mea.digital/GHV9_H3

Scan this QR code to find the capstone project online.

Australia at war

H4

World War I

WHY DID WORLD WAR I BECOME A GLOBAL WAR?

page 204

cause and effect

page 200

WHAT WERE THE SHORT-TERM CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I?

source analysis

page 216

WHY DID THE UNITED STATES JOIN THE WAR?

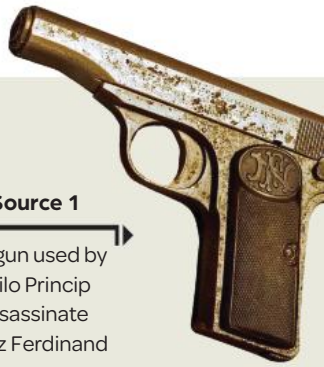
historical interpretations

page 222

HOW DID AUSTRALIAN SOLDIERS SERVE ON THE WESTERN FRONT?

How can we understand World War I?

World War I was a global conflict involving many nations. It changed the course of modern history and touched the lives of millions. Understanding its scale and impact is a broad task – one that begins well before the war itself.



Source 1

The gun used by Gavrilo Princip to assassinate Franz Ferdinand

learning ladder

	Source analysis	Continuity and change	Cause and effect
step 5	**I can evaluate a source** I can present a judgement on the usefulness of a source based on its strengths, weaknesses and limitations. I can determine whether information is missing about the event or person the source refers to.	**I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change** I answer the question 'So what?' about patterns of continuity and change. I weigh up different aspects and debate the importance of continuity or change.	**I can evaluate causes and effects** I answer the question 'So what?' about cause and effect. I weigh up different things and debate the importance of a cause or an effect.
step 4	**I can analyse a source** I can use my own knowledge to determine the reliability of a source and can explain whether it shows a one-sided view.	**I can analyse patterns of continuity and change** I can look deeper into patterns of continuity and change and determine the factors that contribute to them.	**I can analyse causes and effects** I don't just see a cause or an effect as one thing. I can determine the factors that make up causes and effects.
step 3	**I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose** I combine knowledge of when and where a source was created to answer the question, 'Why was it created?'.	**I can explain patterns of continuity and change** I can see beyond individual examples of continuity and change between historical periods and explain broader patterns.	**I can explain causes and effects** I can answer 'How?' or 'Why?' a cause led to an effect in World War I.
step 2	**I can find themes in a source** I look more closely at a source and find more than just features. I find themes and patterns in a source.	**I can explain why something did or did not change** I can give a reason for why something changed or why it stayed the same.	**I can determine causes and effects** Applying what I have learnt about World War I, I can describe what the cause or effect of an event was.
step 1	**I can list specific features of a source** I can look at a World War I source and list the details I can see in it.	**I can describe continuity and change** I recognise what has stayed the same and what has changed from before World War I until now.	**I can recognise a cause and an effect** From a supplied list, I can recognise things that were causes or effects of each other in World War I.

Warm up

Source 2

The assassination of Franz Ferdinand was the 'spark' that ignited the Great War. This image by Achille Beltrame is from Italian newspaper *La Domenica del Corriere*, 12 July 1914.

I can evaluate historical significance
I answer the question 'So what?' about things that are supposedly important in the history of World War I. I weigh up factors against one another and can cast doubt on how important things are.

I can evaluate historical interpretations
I can weigh up the different historical interpretations that have been formed. I debate and challenge the interpretations that have been presented.

I can analyse historical significance
I can separate out the various factors that make something historically important in the history of World War I.

I can analyse historical interpretations
I can determine the factors that have led to why a historical interpretation has been formed.

I can apply a theory of significance
I know a theory of significance. I use it to rank importance of changes, causes, effects and events in the history of World War I.

I can explain historical interpretations
I can answer 'Why?' or 'How?' there are different interpretations of people and events in the past.

I can explain historical significance
I answer the question 'Why?' about what was important in World War I.

I can describe historical interpretations
I can provide different examples to show how people and events in the past have been interpreted.

I can recognise historical significance
When shown a list of facts about World War I, I can work out which are important.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways
I can identify different views of people and events in the past.

Historical significance

Historical interpretations

Source analysis

1 Consider Source 2:
- a Identify clues that suggest a chaotic scene is taking place.
- b Describe the differences between the various people in the image.
- c Where is this image from? What other pieces of information could help us understand its context?

Continuity and change

2 Franz Ferdinand was assassinated in 1914. List 10 things in your life today that did not exist in 1914.

Cause and effect

3 World War I was Australia's first major military involvement. How do you think a political assassination could have led to Australia's participation?

Historical significance

4 The legend of the Anzacs is part of Australian folklore. How are they remembered today? How important is this legend to our nation?

Historical interpretations

5 In what ways do you think World War I is remembered in different countries and communities? Discuss your ideas as a class.

PART I: THE ROAD TO WAR

What was Australia like at the beginning of World War I?

1901 marked the birth of a federated Australia, as the separate colonies came together. A decade later, Australia was a young, confident nation, enriched by the gold rushes of the 19th century. It was also a conservative country that often looked to Britain as the 'mother country' to emulate.

Source 1

The Boer War (1899–1902) was a conflict between Britain and Dutch colonies in South Africa. The Australian colonies sent troops to support the British military.

key ideas timeline.

- 1882 — Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy form the Triple Alliance
- 1901 — Australia becomes a federation
- 1902 — Japan forms an alliance with the United Kingdom
- 1907 — The UK, France and Russia form the Triple Entente
- 28 June 1914 — Franz Ferdinand and his wife Sophie are assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia
- 23–30 July 1914 — Austria–Hungary blames Serbia for the assassination and declares war

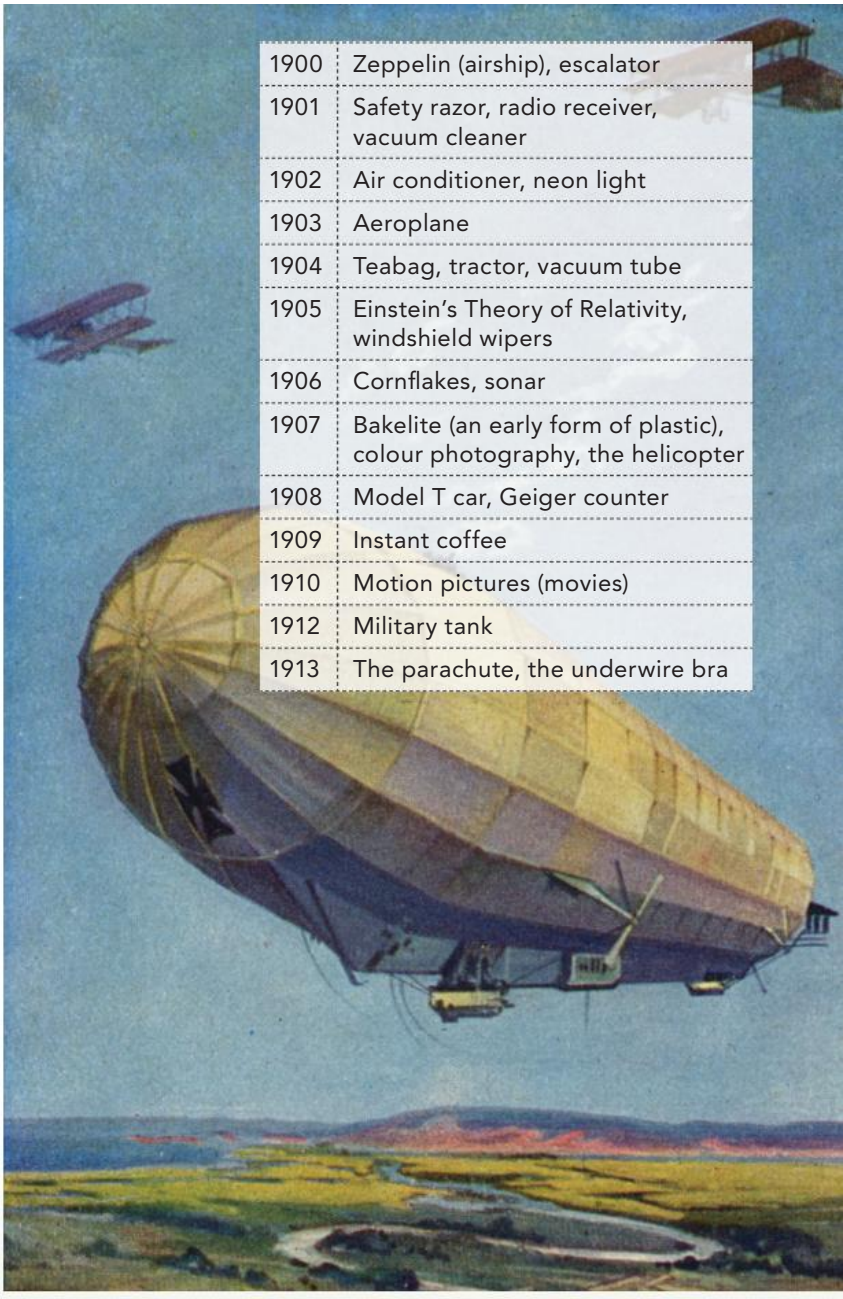
Political position

The Australian Commonwealth began on 1 January 1901, with Edmund Barton as its first elected prime minister. The uniting of the Australian colonies had been born out of hope, but also from a fear of isolation as the last imperial outpost on the fringe of the British Empire. By banding together, the new nation hoped to take control of its own destiny (see page 120).

Although it was an independent nation, Australia was still part of the British Empire, and did not make its own decisions on foreign policy. The economy used British currency until 1910, and the Australian government had strong ties to its British counterpart. The Australian military supported the British Empire in conflicts such as the Boer War in South Africa and the Boxer Rebellion in China. Australian soldiers followed a tradition of military service inherited from the British.

Technology

The period before World War I was one of rapid, extensive industrialisation, with great advances made in science and technology. The world was becoming increasingly interconnected, with communication via radio technology and faster travel via steamship. Telegraph wires criss-crossed the planet and postal services ran two deliveries a day to keep up with the large numbers of letters people sent all over the world.



1900	Zeppelin (airship), escalator
1901	Safety razor, radio receiver, vacuum cleaner
1902	Air conditioner, neon light
1903	Aeroplane
1904	Teabag, tractor, vacuum tube
1905	Einstein's Theory of Relativity, windshield wipers
1906	Cornflakes, sonar
1907	Bakelite (an early form of plastic), colour photography, the helicopter
1908	Model T car, Geiger counter
1909	Instant coffee
1910	Motion pictures (movies)
1912	Military tank
1913	The parachute, the underwire bra

Source 2

Major inventions before World War I

1 August 1914
Germany declares war on Russia in support of its ally Austria–Hungary

3 August 1914
Australia offers a military force of 20 000 to the UK government

3–6 August 1914
- Germany declares war on France and invades Belgium.
- The UK declares war on Germany.
- This means members of the British Empire, such as Australia, are also at war.
- Austria–Hungary declares war on Russia.

12 August 1914
Austria–Hungary invades Serbia; Britain and France declare war on Austria–Hungary

17 August 1914
Russia invades Germany

1 November 1914
The Ottoman Empire attacks Russia, entering the war on the side of the Triple Alliance

Source 3

Melbourne was Australia's cultural and shopping capital in 1914, and boasted electrical lights and trains.

Australia's major cities enjoyed many of these technological advances. Horse-drawn carriages were still the most common modes of transport, but by 1909 cars had become part of the hustle and bustle of traffic. Electric streetlights were first installed in 1894 in Melbourne, and in Sydney in 1904. Rural towns and properties still operated much as they had during the 19th century, although more people could now access the growing national rail network. Australia was still a long way from Europe – it took five to six weeks to travel there by steamship, much longer by sail – but news of international events reached Australia quickly through the telegraph, particularly in urban areas.

Society

The new Australia was something of a 'social laboratory'. Women – except those of Indigenous, Pacific Islander, African or Asian heritage – had gained the right to vote in federal elections and to stand for parliament. A series of laws had enshrined the right for workers to receive a decent minimum wage, collective bargaining rights and fair conditions in the workplace, transforming Australia into a 'working man's paradise'.

Despite these innovations, Australian society was conservative and slow to change. People still looked to Britain as the example of what Australian society should be, and followed British fashion, art and culture. Australian society was also very hostile to non-British people, including some European cultures. The White Australia Policy (see page 126) restricted immigration opportunities for non-British foreigners, while First Nations Peoples still being subjected to racist treatment such as children being separated from their families.

Most people lived with large families in small houses; they worked close to factories or shops and had little to no opportunity for travel or free time. While more middle-class men started to go to university, most Australians only completed a primary school education before entering the workforce.

Source 4

Australian fashions closely followed those popular in Britain.

Source 5

Most of the working classes in the cities lived in cottages close to the ports and factories where they worked. This photograph was taken in Port Melbourne in 1906.

Learning ladder H4.1

Show what you know

1 List five ways daily life in Australia began to change at the start of the 20th century.

2 Why did most Australians still have a strong feeling of loyalty towards Britain even after federation?

3 Which of the inventions listed in Source 2 might have had the greatest impact on day-to-day life at that time? Why?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

4 Review the sources in this section and identify features or elements that can still be found in Australia today.

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

5 Australia in the 19th and 20th centuries held strong links to Britain. What examples can you find in the sources to demonstrate this?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

6 Source 3 shows Swanston Street, Melbourne in 1914. Why do you think this picture might have been widely circulated? What impression does it give of Melbourne at the time?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

7 Identify other elements of Australia at this time that feature in Sources 1–5. How might they connect or relate to to each other?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

H4.2

Which countries dominated Europe?

Australia was a minor nation in 1914, far from the world's cultural, political and military centre – Europe. This was the age of empires; Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary and the Ottoman Empire were autocracies, ruled by royalty. France was a democratic republic, while England and Italy were constitutional monarchies.

Austria-Hungary

The Austro-Hungarian Empire was a multicultural powerhouse. It was home to Austrians, Bosnians, Croatians, Czechs, Germans, Hungarians, Italians, Poles, Romanians, Russians, Serbians, Slovaks, Slovenians, Ukrainians and Jewish people, all of whom had their own languages and distinct cultures. The Empire had a large military, but it lacked the latest technology.

Germany

Germany became a unified country in 1871, with a booming industrial economy in need of raw materials, resources and markets. In 1888, Wilhelm II became Kaiser (Emperor) of Germany. He was determined that Germany would have equal standing among the other European superpowers, and broke off ties with its traditional ally, Russia. Germany had invested heavily in improving its military and navy, which were modern, well equipped and well trained.

Source 1

The empires and dominant nations of Europe in 1914 at the beginning of World War I

Europe in 1914

Source: Matilda Education Australia

France

France was a **democracy** with a large colonial empire, mostly in north-west Africa and south-east Asia. Its army was not at full strength in 1914, and was concentrated along the border with Germany, a long-time enemy. The French army was not modern; it used **conscripts** and generally suffered from low morale.

Britain

Britain was a **constitutional monarchy**, and had been for hundreds of years. 'The sun never set' on the British Empire, as nearly a quarter of the world had been colonised by the British. Large amounts of resources flowed from the colonies to Britain. In 1914, the British Navy was the most advanced in the world. Britain was increasingly concerned about the growing economic, political and naval strength of Germany.

Russia

Russia was ruled by the **autocratic** Tsar Nicholas II. Russia's huge landmass and large population made it a powerful country, but its economy was undeveloped and based on agriculture. Its army was enormous, but it was badly equipped with outdated weapons.

Ottoman Empire

By 1913, the once-mighty Ottoman Empire had lost most of its European territories in the Balkan Wars. It was ruled by the autocratic Sultan Mehmed V. The Ottoman Empire's army had undergone a series of reforms and modernisations, with some help from Germany.

Serbia

Serbia was recovering from the first and second Balkan wars and had tense relations with its neighbour Austria–Hungary. By 1914, Serbia was a strategic political power in the region.

Japan

Through industrialisation and reform, Japan had become an important regional power. The 1905 victory in the Russo–Japanese conflict marked the first time an Asian nation had defeated a European one in modern history and heralded Japan's growing ambitions and capabilities.

China

By the late 19th century, the Qing dynasty had become weak and European powers moved in (see pages 162–65). France, Germany, Russia, England and Japan all controlled areas within China, which prompted a rise in anti-foreigner sentiment.

Learning ladder H4.2

Show what you know

1 Who were the great powers of Europe at the beginning of 1914?

2 China had a long and prosperous history. Why did this begin to change during the 19th century?

3 Why do you think the Austro-Hungarian Empire may have lacked the unity of many of its fellow empires?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

4 In your opinion, which of the listed empires were the largest and most influential?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

5 Why were France and Germany considered historical enemies?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

6 The Japanese defeat of Russia signalled both the power of Japan's navy and Russia's difficulties. Explain how.

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

7 Imagine yourself as a citizen in one of these great empires. What do you observe around you? What is the feeling among everyday citizens? Prepare 3–4 short journal entries about your daily life and share them with the class.

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 251

What were the long-term causes of World War I?

Wars are caused by a combination of long-term, slow moving societal causes, suddenly triggered by short-term events. The long-term factors behind the outbreak of World War I included the key countries' militarism, imperialism and nationalism, as well as their various contemporary alliances.

The short-term event that triggered World War I was the assassination of Franz Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and the subsequent political crisis the shooting caused. The long-term causes are more complex. You can understand these causes – militarism, alliances, nationalism and imperialsim – using the acronym MANIAC.

Militarism

Militarism is the idea that a country should maintain a strong army to defend or promote its national interests. At the turn of the 20th century, the major powers tried to stay ahead of the others by investing in their military and navy.

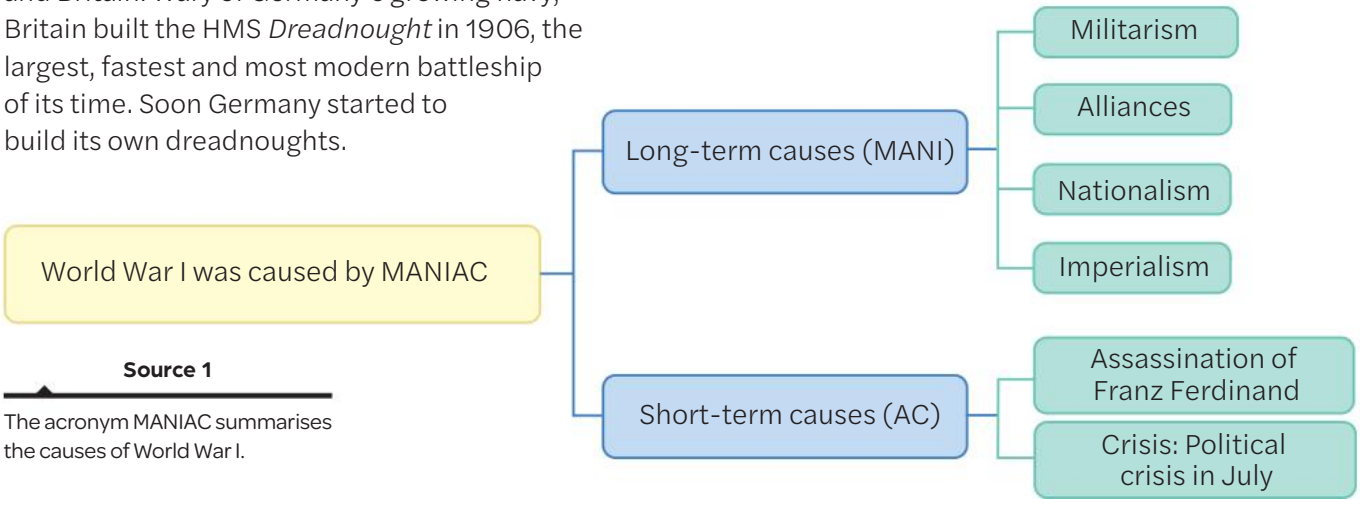
An 'arms race' broke out between Germany and Britain. Wary of Germany's growing navy, Britain built the HMS *Dreadnought* in 1906, the largest, fastest and most modern battleship of its time. Soon Germany started to build its own dreadnoughts.

Alliances

In the years before World War I, European nations formed strategic military agreements (alliances) with each other. The most important of these were the Triple Alliance (known as the Central Powers) and the Triple Entente (known as the Allies or Allied Powers).

The Triple Alliance

The Triple Alliance was an agreement between Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy. These nations promised to support each other if one was attacked. However, when Austria-Hungary declared war in July 1914, Italy claimed to be neutral and did not enter the war.



Source 1

The acronym MANIAC summarises the causes of World War I.

Source 2

Powerful new ships, such as the HMS *Dreadnought*, could easily outgun and outrun older vessels.

The Triple Entente

The word **entente** is French for 'friendly understanding'. In 1904, France and England formed an alliance called 'the Entente Cordiale'. Russia joined the agreement in 1907, and it became the Triple Entente. These agreements brought the countries together and solved arguments about territories in Asia and Africa.

Nationalism

Nationalism is a feeling of extreme loyalty to your nation–state, its people and culture, and involves promoting these interests ahead of other nations. The nation–state was relatively new to Europe. Austria–Hungary had become a nation in 1867, Italy unified in 1870 and Germany unified in 1871. Romania, Bulgaria and Serbia became sovereign nations in the late 1800s when the Ottoman Empire weakened its hold on eastern Europe.

By 1914, many of Europe's young nations were looking for a national identity to bind their peoples together. People were encouraged to be loyal to their own nation, so when war broke out, many men enthusiastically enlisted to support and defend their country.

Imperialism

Imperialism is the expansion of a country's power and influence by colonising other countries, often by force (see Chapters H2 and H3). By 1900, France, Britain and Germany had large overseas empires. The size of their empires was a badge of honour for the major European powers, as well as an important engine to keep their economies going.

Learning ladder H4.3

Show what you know

1 Which nations made up the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente?

2 Use the sources in this section to suggest why the road to war may have been inevitable.

3 Suggest why nationalism might have encouraged young nations, such as Australia, to join the war.

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 Define the term 'arms race'. What problems might such an event create?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 What were considered to be the four main long-term causes of World War I?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 Explain how each of the following factors contributed to the outbreak of war: militarism, alliances, nationalism, imperialism.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 Select one of the four long-term causes. Using a guiding question, create a mind map to determine what factors influenced it. A sample guiding question for militarism could be: *What factors lead to an arms race in Europe?*

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

What were the short-term causes of World War I?

The assassination of the Austro–Hungarian Archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo triggered a political crisis in the Balkans. When Austria–Hungary declared war on Serbia following Ferdinand's assassination, the tensions on the existing chains of alliances escalated, ultimately leading to a global war.

Tensions in the Balkans

The Balkans, a region in south-eastern Europe, had been ruled by different empires for hundreds of years. The most recent power in the area was the Ottoman Empire, but it had started to crumble in the late 1800s. This caused the different nationalities in the Balkans to start declaring independence, often through war. Other empires, such as Russia and the Austro-Hungarian Empire, saw this as an opportunity to exert their influence.

In mid-1914, Serbia was a growing power in the Balkans. It was also dealing with ethnic and political tensions in the territories it annexed during the Balkan Wars.

Source 1

Franz Ferdinand and his family in 1910. Ferdinand and his wife Sophie used their trip to Sarajevo to celebrate their 14th wedding anniversary.

Ethnic diversity of the Balkans region

Source 2

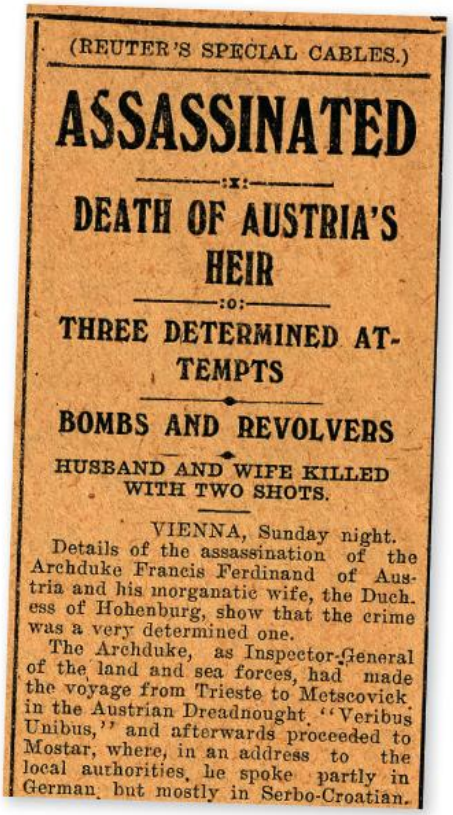
Source: Matilda Education Australia

The Balkans is one of the most ethnically and culturally diverse regions of Europe.

The shot heard around the world

Archduke Franz Ferdinand was the 55-year-old heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne and Inspector-General of the Austro-Hungarian army. In June 1914, he and his wife Sophie went to Bosnia to inspect the army's training and manoeuvres. This small country had recently been claimed by the Austro–Hungarian Empire as part of its empire. Serbian ministers warned the Austrian government that it might be dangerous to visit, but the Austrians did not take the warnings seriously.

On 28 June 1914, in the Bosnian city of Sarajevo, Franz Ferdinand and his wife were shot and killed. The assassin, Gavrilo Princip, was a Bosnian-Serb nationalist and a member of the Black Hand, an organisation that wanted to unite all Serbians into one nation. The assassination – called 'the shot heard round the world' in the newspapers of the day – led to a diplomatic crisis.



(REUTER'S SPECIAL CABLES.)

ASSASSINATED

DEATH OF AUSTRIA'S HEIR

THREE DETERMINED ATTEMPTS

BOMBS AND REVOLVERS

HUSBAND AND WIFE KILLED WITH TWO SHOTS.

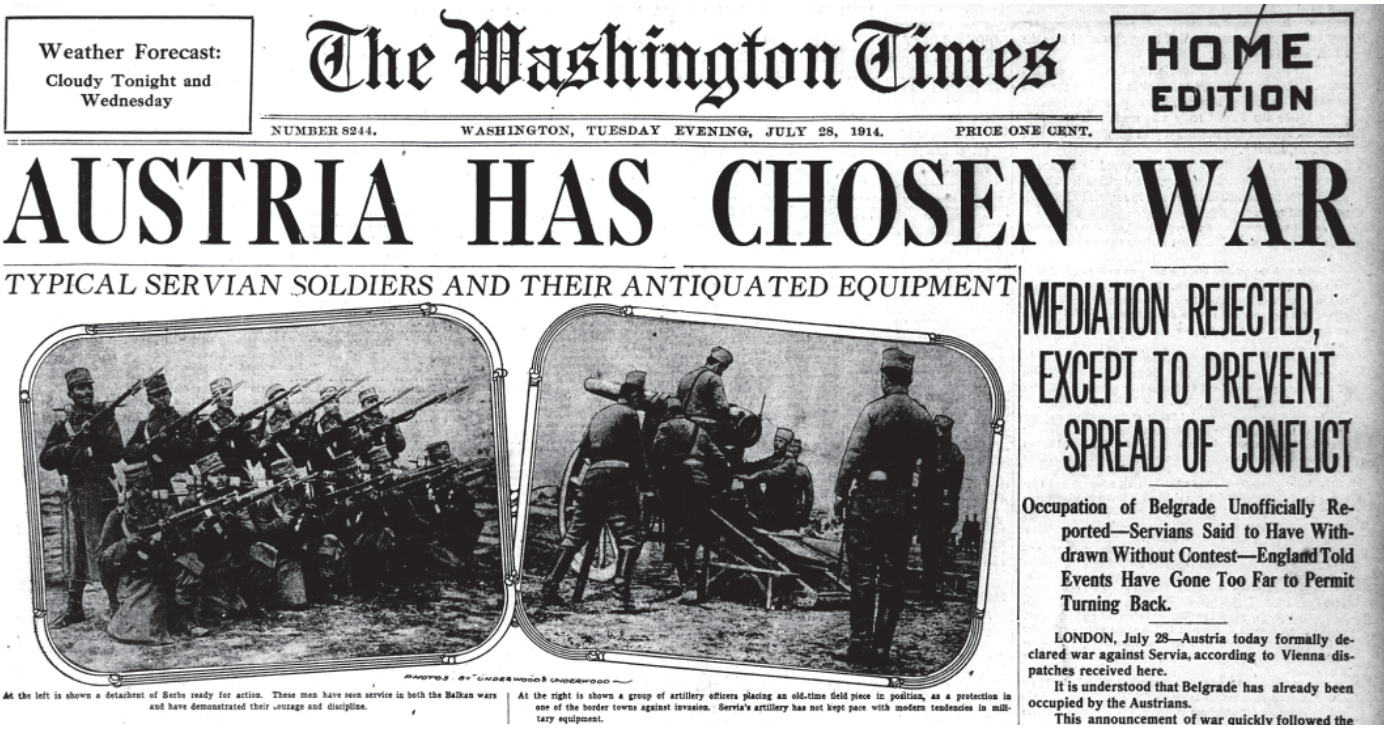
VIENNA, Sunday night.
Details of the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria and his morganatic wife, the Duchess of Hohenburg, show that the crime was a very determined one.
The Archduke, as Inspector-General of the land and sea forces, had made the voyage from Trieste to Metscovick in the Austrian Dreadnought "Veribus Unibus," and afterwards proceeded to Mostar, where, in an address to the local authorities, he spoke partly in German, but mostly in Serbo-Croatian.

Source 3

The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand made headlines around the word, including in Australia. This story appeared in the *Ballarat Evening Echo*, 29 June 1914.

Source 4

Austrian and Serbian forces in conflict during the first days of the invasion of Serbia, near the bridge over the Sava River. [Illustration by Achille Beltrame, from *La Domenica del Corriere*, 9 August 1914]



Weather Forecast:
Cloudy Tonight and Wednesday

The Washington Times

HOME EDITION

NUMBER 8244. WASHINGTON, TUESDAY EVENING, JULY 28, 1914. PRICE ONE CENT.

AUSTRIA HAS CHOSEN WAR

TYPICAL SERVIAN SOLDIERS AND THEIR ANTIQUATED EQUIPMENT

At the left is shown a detachment of Serbs ready for action. These men have seen service in both the Balkan wars and have demonstrated their courage and discipline.

At the right is shown a group of artillery officers placing an old-time field piece in position, as a protection in one of the border towns against invasion. Servia's artillery has not kept pace with modern tendencies in military equipment.

MEDIATION REJECTED, EXCEPT TO PREVENT SPREAD OF CONFLICT

Occupation of Belgrade Unofficially Reported—Servians Said to Have Withdrawn Without Contest—England Told Events Have Gone Too Far to Permit Turning Back.

LONDON, July 28—Austria today formally declared war against Servia, according to Vienna dispatches received here.

It is understood that Belgrade has already been occupied by the Austrians.

This announcement of war quickly followed the

Source 5

Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia when it failed to meet only one of the 10 conditions of the Austro–Hungarian ultimatum.

Crisis

Austria-Hungary blamed Serbia for the assassination and issued a harsh ultimatum – 10 demands that would have politically embarrassed Serbia's rulers and drastically reduced its power in the Balkans. Serbia complied with all but one of the 10 demands – it refused to allow Austro-Hungarian agents to manage the assassination investigation. Because Serbia did not bow to all its demands, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia on 28 July and invaded the country two weeks later.

Austria-Hungary used Serbia's minor refusal as an excuse to declare war and try to expand its power in the Balkans. Austro-Hungarian leaders felt confident because Germany had declared it would support its ally with a 'blank cheque', meaning it would support Austria-Hungary both militarily and politically, without placing limits on the amount of assistance.

The first response to the declaration of war came from Russia, which backed its ally Serbia. As hostilities escalated, more allies entered the battle on both sides. Within four months, all the great powers of Europe were at war.

Learning ladder H4.4

Show what you know

1 In which part of Europe are the Balkans located?

2 At what point did Russia enter the war?

3 Why did Austria–Hungary choose to declare war on Serbia?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 Whose assassination angered the Austro–Hungarian Empire?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 How did the assassination of one man draw so many nations into conflict?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 Using Source 2, suggest why so many nations and empires had an interest in controlling the Balkans.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 Using the information in the text as well as your own knowledge, explain why Australia entered World War I.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

Why did World War I become a global war?

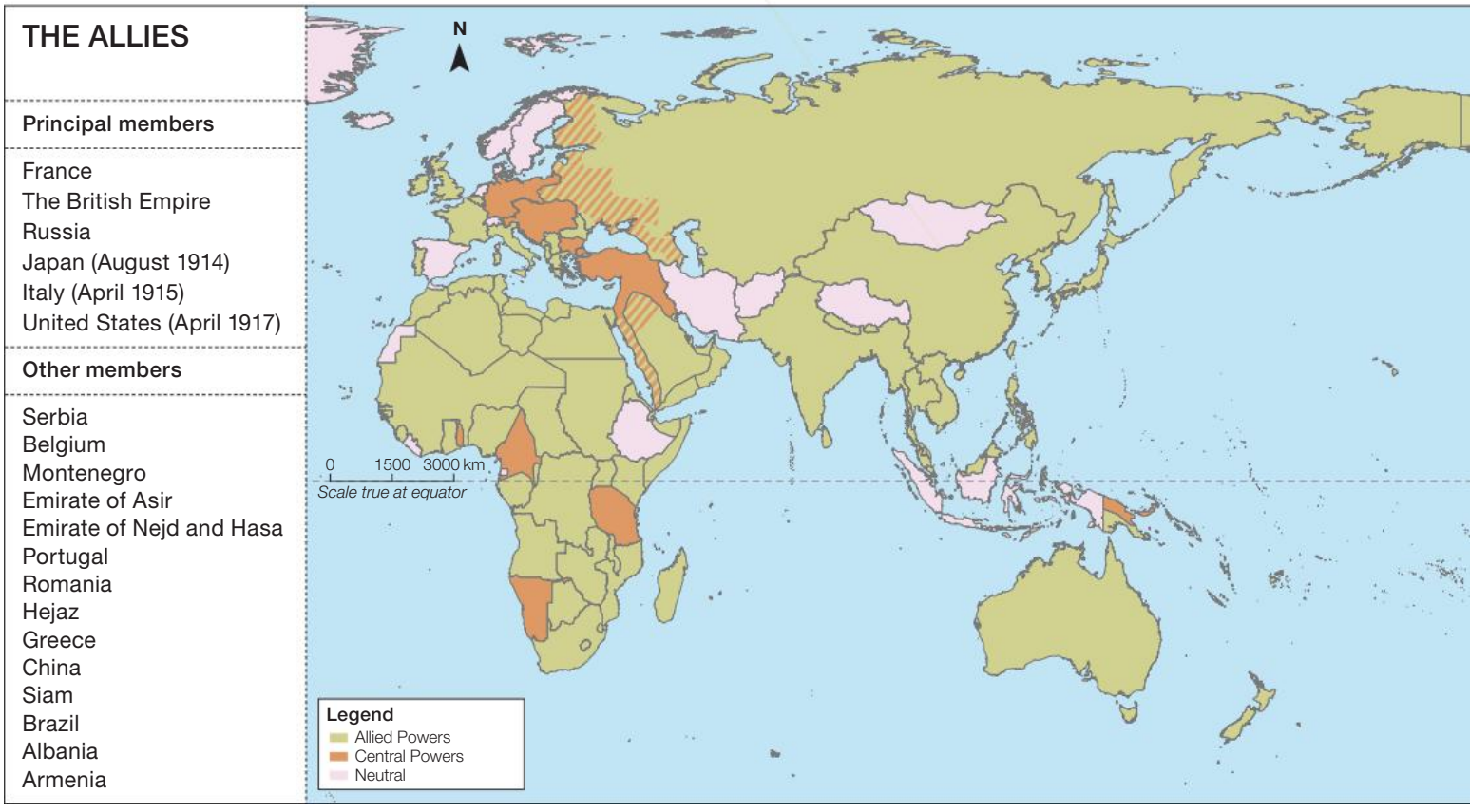
The world was divided into a complex network of alliances long before the assassination of Franz Ferdinand. This meant the dispute soon escalated into a global war, in which Australian soldiers played active combat roles.

A global war

A local European quarrel quickly turned into a global war. The world became divided between the Allies (the Triple Entente, their colonies, territories and independent nations) and the Central Powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary and their allies). Not all countries sent troops, but many provided resources such as coal, oil, iron and food.

Although the war began in Europe, conflicts broke out across the world. Battles were fought in the colonies of the major empires, such as in German East Africa (modern-day Burundi, Rwanda and Tanzania) and Shandong in China. In India, the German navy bombed British oil storage tanks in Madras (modern-day Chennai) , while the coast of Chile was the site of several naval battles.

Countries involved in World War I



Nations in conflict

As the war continued, more nations took sides. The USA didn't join the war until April 1917, but proved to be a key participant on the Allied side. Other nations played smaller roles, only providing resources or information – enough so that, if their side won, they might be rewarded. A few countries had little choice, as they were colonies or 'client states' of more powerful empires that ordered them to become involved.

International armies

Britain deployed units from across its Empire. Soldiers from Canada, New Zealand and Australia were used in active combat. Men from the West Indies were not allowed to fight alongside white troops, and were mainly used in support roles.

More than one million Muslim, Sikh and Hindu soldiers from India and Gurkhas from Nepal volunteered for the British Indian Army.

Source 1

What began as a conflict between European powers soon drew in most of the world.

THE CENTRAL POWERS

Principal members

German
Austria–Hungary
Ottoman Empire
Bulgaria

Other members

Azerbaijan
Belarus
Courland and Semigallia
Crimea
Don
Finland
Georgia
Jabal Shammar
Kuban
Lithuania
Northern Caucasus
Poland
Ukraine

Source: Matilda Education Australia

At the Battle of Gallipoli, about 16 000 troops from the Indian subcontinent fought alongside British, French and Anzac soldiers.

While the British colonial troops consisted of volunteers, the French colonial army included some men who were forced to fight. Soldiers from Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Madagascar and Somalia were conscripted by the French, and they too were mainly used in non-combat roles.

Learning ladder H4.5

Show what you know

1 Why did a European conflict draw in other nations across the world?

2 Other than sending soldiers, how did some nations support the war effort?

3 Suggest the difference between volunteer soldiers and conscripts.

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

4 Compare a modern map of Europe with one from 1914. Which nations have remained the same? Which have changed or disappeared completely?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

5 From your understanding of this section, explain why life in countries outside of Europe was affected by the war.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

6 Some citizens in colonial nations, such as Madagascar, New Zealand and Belarus, volunteered to fight. Suggest why they might have done so.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

7 Research some of the countries that remained uninvolved. What elements do these locations share in common? How might they have been indirectly affected by the war?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

What was Australia's response to the war?

During the early 20th century, Australia's ties to Britain were very strong. When Britain entered the war, Australia also joined by extension. Spurred by propaganda, large numbers of men and women enlisted to fight or support the troops. However, as the war continued, attitudes towards the conflict became much less positive.

Initial response

When Britain declared war on Germany on 4 August 1914, Australia considered itself at war with Germany too. Reactions to the war varied; some people believed that it would be 'over by Christmas', while others were more sceptical and concerned. Most Australians believed that it was right to enter the war and support 'Mother England' in its hour of need.

Australia's combined state armies were small, and by law these Commonwealth Military Forces could not fight outside of Australia. Therefore, when war broke out, the Australian Imperial Force (AIF) was created. This was a volunteer 'expeditionary force', which meant these men could fight overseas. The calls for enlistment started straight away.

'Whatever happens, Australia is part of the Empire right to the full. Remember that when the Empire is at war, so is Australia at war. That being so, you will see how grave is the situation. So far as the defences go here and now in Australia, I want to make it quite clear that all our resources in Australia are in the Empire and for the Empire and for the preservation and security of the Empire.'

Source 1

Extract from Prime Minister Joseph Cook's speech, given in Horsham, Victoria, on 1 August 1914

Australia's population was around 4 million people in 1914, which meant that there were about 820 000 men of fighting age (between 19 and 38). Australia offered 20 000 soldiers to the British government; the offer was accepted immediately.

AUSTRALIA'S OFFER ACCEPTED

TWENTY THOUSAND MEN WANTED

PRIME MINISTER RECEIVES MESSAGE

Official acceptance by the Imperial Government of the offer of the Commonwealth Government to provide a force of 20,000 men was announced by the Prime Minister today.

Mr Cook said that he had received the following message, through the Governor-General, from the Secretary of State for the Colonies:—

"His Majesty's Government gratefully accepts the offer of your Ministers to send a force of 20,000 men to this country."

The Prime Minister added: "We propose to send them at the earliest possible moment." He said that he could not say at this stage what the composition of the force would be.

Source 2

The ties between Britain and Australia remained strong, and Australian troops were sent to support the British abroad, as shown in this clipping from the *Melbourne Herald*, 7 August 1914.

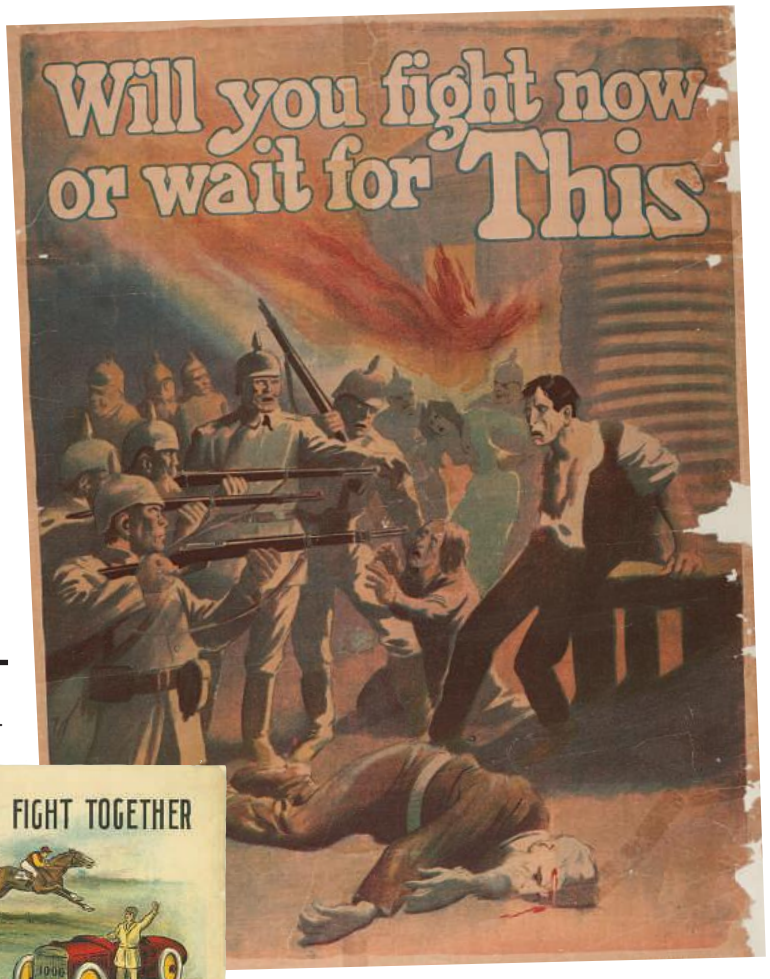
Reasons for enlisting

Thousands of Australian men rushed to enlist for a variety of reasons.

- Many Australians still held strong familial and cultural ties to England, so fighting to protect the 'Mother Country' felt important.
- Australians were proud of their new nation; they wanted to represent their country overseas and show Europeans what Australians could do.
- Australia, a mostly rural nation, was very isolated. Travelling to Europe or the Middle East was an exciting idea for many young men.

Source 3

Sport is often seen as a metaphor for war. Good sportsmen – men of bravery and action – were believed to make good soldiers.



Source 4

Some propaganda posters appealed to a sense of duty and moral obligation. This poster is from 1918.

- There was a lot of social pressure. Army propaganda posters were everywhere and enlistment became the main topic of conversation. Eligible men who didn't enlist might find a white feather in their letterbox, suggesting that they were cowards.
- Football teams, cricket teams and groups from small towns would often all sign up together – keen to share the adventure.

Women signed up as nurses, with more than 2200 serving overseas. They also filled vital roles on the **home front**, doing the work of men who had gone abroad.

Physical requirements

In 1914, about 33 per cent of volunteers were rejected because of age, height and health restrictions. As the war went on, these restrictions were relaxed to take in more men.

Period	Age requirement	Minimum height requirement
August 1914	19–38 years	5 ft 6 in (170 cm)
June 1915	18–45 years	5 ft 2 in (158 cm)
April 1917	18–45 years	5 ft (152 cm)

Source 5

Propaganda came in many forms, such as this handkerchief from 1915, which is printed with patriotic images and poetry.

Use of propaganda

Propaganda is information that is used to influence an audience, often by producing an emotional response. Societies and governments have produced propaganda throughout history, in whatever formats were appropriate for their era.

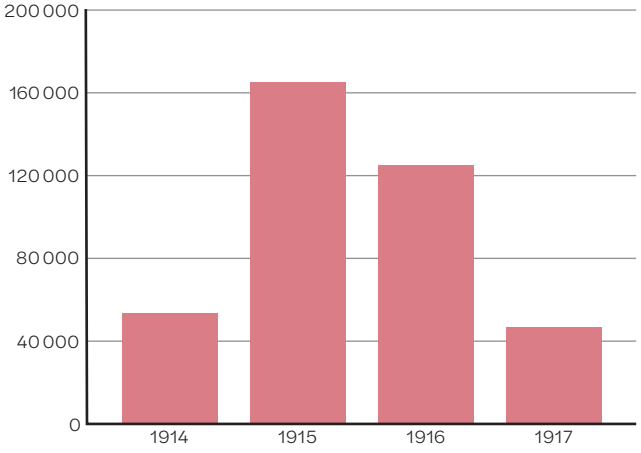
World War I saw a massive increase in the production and variety of propaganda on all sides of the conflict. British and Australian propaganda sent a message that fighting the war against an 'evil' enemy was a moral imperative. Posters, pamphlets, newsreels and official speeches were all used by the Allies as propaganda. By modern standards, many propaganda images and messages of the time are racist and offensive.

The conscription debate

After the initial excitement, the number of recruits declined as the war went on and casualty rates increased. As news filtered back to Australia of the brutal nature of trench warfare, these numbers declined further.

By 1916 there was a shortage of men volunteering to enlist, and the Australian government was not able to provide the troops needed by Britain. Prime Minister Billy Hughes proposed that Australia create an army based on **conscription**, meaning that eligible men would be forced to enter the army for a certain period.

Army enlistments by year, 1914–1917



Source: Data from Australian War Memorial, 1943

Source 6

After an initial rush in 1915, Australia simply could not meet British calls for more troops.

The government had the power to introduce conscription laws, but Hughes needed to demonstrate public support in order to pass legislation in the Senate. Hughes conducted two **plebiscites** during the war to try to bring in conscription. Like the 2017 marriage equality plebiscite, held a century later, these were non-binding national votes. (At the time, they were often incorrectly referred to as referendums.)

The first plebiscite to introduce conscription was held on 28 October 1916. It was narrowly rejected – 51 per cent of Australians voted against conscription. When Hughes was re-elected in 1917, he called for another plebiscite on conscription to solve the problem. On 20 December 1917 the plebiscite was rejected again, this time with a larger majority (54 per cent). The government did not try to implement conscription again during World War I.

The conscription debates were passionate and heated on both sides. Those in favour argued that Australia had a moral duty to support England, and that if the war was lost, Australia might also be invaded by Germany. There were various arguments against conscription; some were against war completely, while others supported the war effort but believed it was wrong to force men to become soldiers. The union movement argued against conscription because jobs would be taken by women or foreigners while men were on the frontlines.

Some arguments were along religious lines. Daniel Mannix, the Catholic Archbishop of Melbourne, declared that he was opposed to conscription. The Protestant majority then accused Australian Irish-Catholics of being anti-war and anti-empire.

Source 7

Propaganda was used by both sides during the conscription plebiscites.

Source: Australian War Memorial ART10140

Learning ladder H4.6

Show what you know

1 Many young Australians wanted to enlist. What were their main motivations?

2 Enlistment requirements became more relaxed as the war progressed. Suggest why.

3 Define the term 'conscription'. Why might it have been necessary?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

4 What kind of features in Sources 3–5 identify them as Australian sources?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

5 What common themes emerged across recruitment posters and other war propaganda?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

6 Propaganda posters were commonly used to encourage enlistment. Suggest two different reasons for why posters were often used.

Step 4: I can analyse a source

7 What view of war and service did the posters provide? How was this different to the reality of war? Why might there be a difference between them?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

PART II: THE COURSE OF THE WAR

What was trench warfare?

Trench warfare was a new fighting technique that was used heavily during World War I. The romantic ideas of sword fighting and cavalry of old armies were gone. The promises of glory and excitement that drew volunteers were replaced by the reality of life in the trenches, where boredom, disease and trauma proved worse than combat itself.

Trench warfare

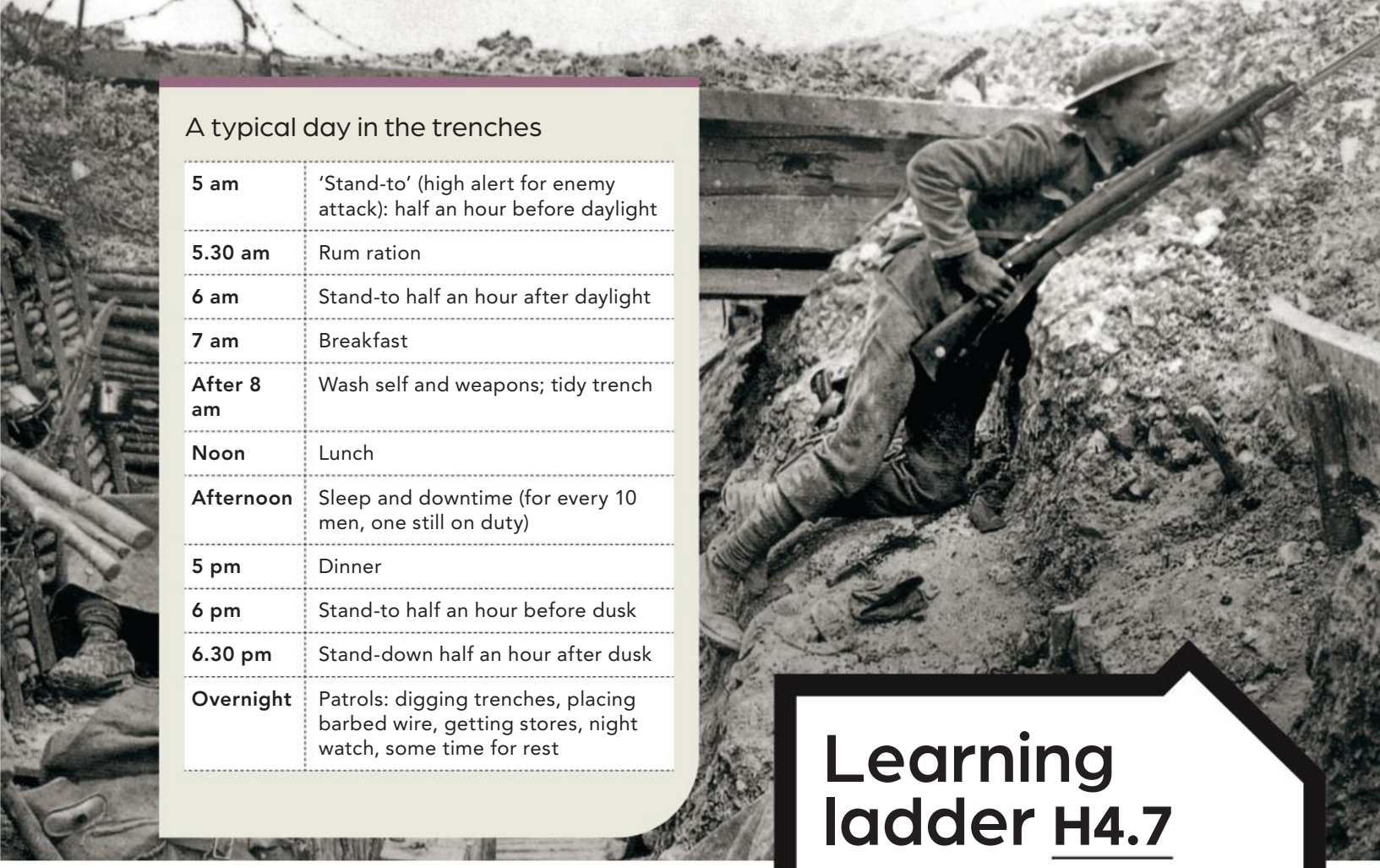
In **trench** warfare, soldiers on the frontlines dug and occupied extensive trenches on the battlefield. Within the trenches, the soldiers were protected against enemy artillery. However, to take territory, the soldiers had to advance out of the trenches, where they could easily be shot.

The Western Front (page 222) was the main region of trench warfare. Both sides created extensive networks of trenches, along with underground tunnels and **foxholes**. These were surrounded by barbed wire, mines, traps and obstacles. The deadly zone between the opposing trenches was called No Man's Land.

Life in the trenches

Life on the frontline was a confusing mix of monotony and sudden action. Raids on the enemy's trenches were conducted at night; during the day, officers kept their soldiers busy with a strict routine of cleaning, training, repairing and building trenches.

key ideas timeline.



A typical day in the trenches

5 am	'Stand-to' (high alert for enemy attack): half an hour before daylight
5.30 am	Rum ration
6 am	Stand-to half an hour after daylight
7 am	Breakfast
After 8 am	Wash self and weapons; tidy trench
Noon	Lunch
Afternoon	Sleep and downtime (for every 10 men, one still on duty)
5 pm	Dinner
6 pm	Stand-to half an hour before dusk
6.30 pm	Stand-down half an hour after dusk
Overnight	Patrols: digging trenches, placing barbed wire, getting stores, night watch, some time for rest

Source 1

A sentry keeps watch in a British Army trench on the Western Front (1916).

Soldiers usually spent about five days per month in frontline trenches – five days of bombardment, knee-deep in freezing water and surrounded by corpses, rats and other vermin. After a short rest period away from the trenches altogether, soldiers would move to the supply and support trenches, and then back to the frontlines for their next stint.

1 July 1916
The Battle of the Somme begins

15 September 1916
The British use tanks on the battlefield for the first time

19 January 1917
The British intercept the Zimmerman Telegram

8 March 1917
The Russian Revolution begins

Learning ladder H4.7

Show what you know

1 Why were soldiers 'stuck' in trenches?

2 What dangers or hazards did soldiers in trenches face?

3 Explain why trench warfare contributed to the high casualty rate on the Western Front.

4 Write a letter home to your parents, describing your life as a soldier in the trenches.

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 Define the term 'trench warfare'.

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 Why was trench warfare so different to previous conflicts?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 Prepare a sign for new arrivals to the trenches. List things they need to do, as well as dangers to watch out for. Which ones are the most important?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 Soldiers in the trenches were constantly 'on edge'. Decades after the war, many still had nightmares and other mental health difficulties. Suggest why.

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

Why was World War I known as the 'machine-age war'?

World War I was the first 'machine-age' war of the modern era. New weapons, such as the machine-gun, came to typify this new kind of warfare. World War I was also the first war fought in the air, as well as on the seas and on land.

War on land

World War I was the first modern war, and nowhere was this more devastatingly clear than in the development of **artillery**, large calibre guns such as howitzers and railway guns, along with other weaponry such as automatic machine guns, mortars and grenades.

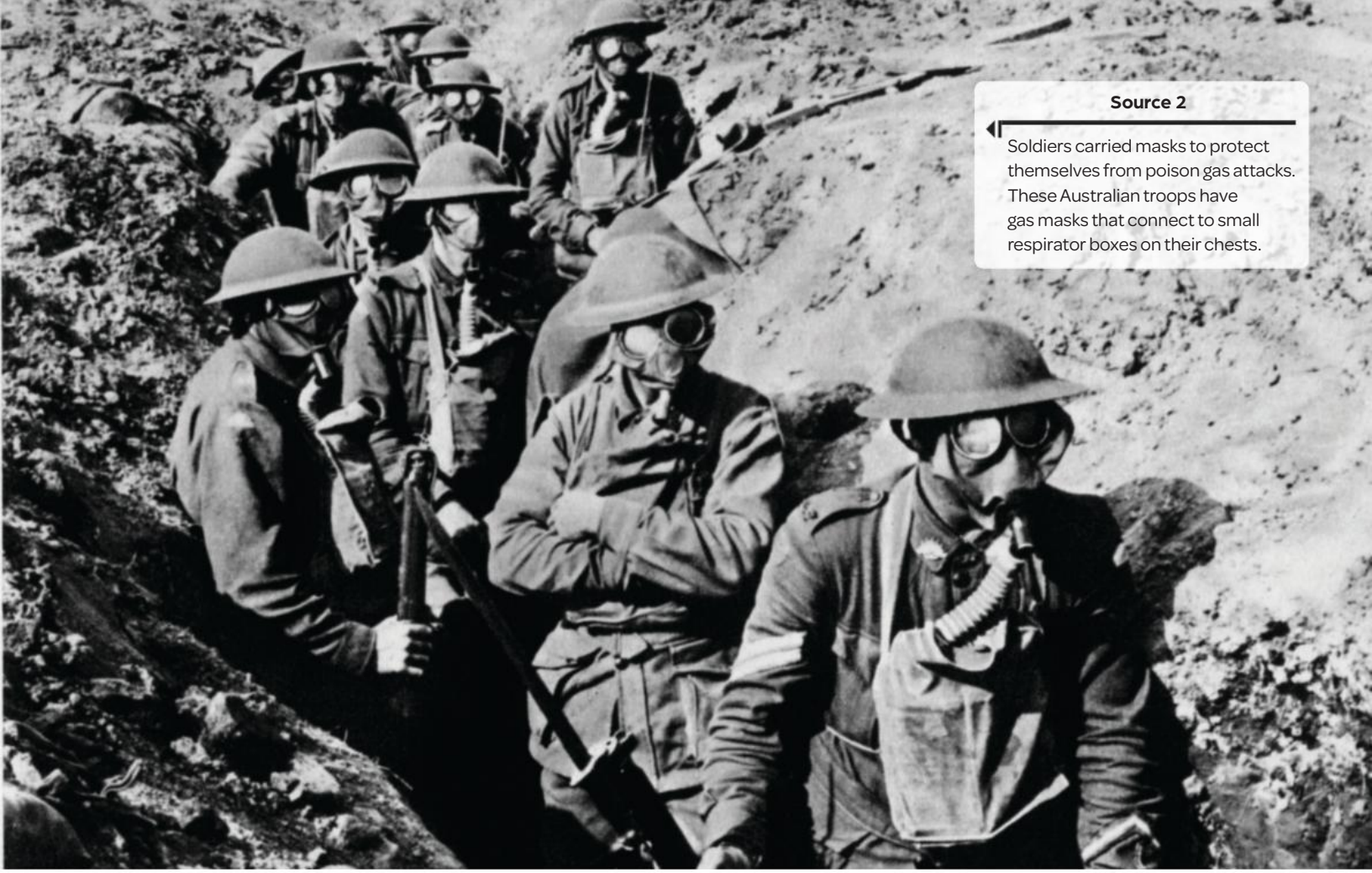
Artillery was the most destructive weapon on the Western Front. Shells were filled with shrapnel – small bits of iron, nails or pellets. Even if a soldier wasn't killed by the impact of a shell, he could be killed or seriously wounded by shrapnel that flew around at incredibly high speeds. On the Western Front, big battles would often start with an enormous artillery barrage.

After the guns fell silent, soldiers would 'go over the top' (get out of the trenches) and advance through the treacherous No Man's Land (the deadly zone between the two opposing trenches). This area was riddled with bomb craters and barbed wire. Early in World War I, millions of kilometres of barbed wire were rolled out in No Man's Land in order to slow advancing troops. Men would get caught in knots of barbed wire, unable to escape while bullets rained down on them.

Tanks also represented a new challenge on the battlefield – heavily armoured, terrifying and capable of causing significant damage. Early tanks were slow and risked getting stuck, particularly in trenches, but they became increasingly deadly as designs improved.

Source 1

Powerful new weapons, such as grenades, were a hallmark of the war.



Source 2

Soldiers carried masks to protect themselves from poison gas attacks. These Australian troops have gas masks that connect to small respirator boxes on their chests.

Other new weapons on the battlefield included flamethrowers and poison gas. Volatile and leaking fuel, flamethrowers were often as dangerous for the person wielding them as they were for the soldiers subjected to the flames. Mustard gas (so-called because of its smell) was fired at enemy lines in special shells. The dangerous vapour flowed through the trenches, burning the eyes and lungs of soldiers who could not escape it. Sometimes the wind would blow the gas back over the soldiers that had just fired the gas shells. Gas killed many soldiers and left survivors with lifelong injuries; its use was banned by many post-war treaties.

Source 3

French 'Saint-Chamond' tanks. Both sides fielded a variety of tank designs over the course of the war.

War in the air

The first aeroplane was invented in 1903 by American brothers Wilbur and Orville Wright. Just over a decade later, the technology of flight had improved to the point where powered aircraft became vehicles of war.

At the start of World War I, planes were only used for reconnaissance. Pilots would fly over enemy territory and sketch or photograph enemy positions. They did not go into battle; German and Allied pilots would greet each other in the air and fly on.

This soon changed. By 1915, planes were faster, could fly for longer and were more agile, which meant they could be used for air combat. Initially, pilots would shoot at each other with pistols, or drop bombs by hand on enemy positions. The invention of the 'interrupter' gear in mid-1915 allowed planes to mount machine guns; pilots could now shoot at planes in front of them without hitting their own propeller.

Skilled pilots often became famous. Manfred von Richthofen, the 'Red Baron', was a hero in Germany and was seen by some Britons as a 'noble enemy'. Films and books made life as a pilot seem romantic and exciting. In reality, planes were unreliable and air battles were deadly. In 1915, the average 'life expectancy' for an Allied pilot was just 11 days.

Planes were not the only air vehicles used in the war. Germany used zeppelins – airships that used hydrogen for lift – to conduct reconnaissance over the sea and for bombing raids on Britain, which killed many civilians.

Source 4

The plane of Manfred von Richthofen, Germany's infamous 'Red Baron', 1918

War at sea

The naval arms race between Britain and Germany led to the development of armoured dreadnoughts and battleships. However, World War I actually involved less naval warfare than the major conflicts of previous centuries. Battleships only came into direct conflict once, during the Battle of Jutland in June 1916, in which 14 British and 11 German ships sank.

As the frontlines of the conflict were on land, ships were primarily used to transport troops and supplies, or to attack enemy transport ships. British ships implemented a naval **blockade**, which stopped all supplies reaching Germany via the North Sea. This had a major impact on the German people; hundreds of thousands died of starvation and disease. The situation was made worse by bad harvests and mismanagement of existing food supplies.

The Germans responded with their newest invention – the submarine. While both sides developed submarines, and Britain had far more than Germany, the German U-boats were faster and more advanced. Germany's policy of 'unrestricted submarine warfare' meant their submarines would attack any ship they suspected of aiding the Allies, including civilian ships.

Source 5

A German U-boat (submarine) and its crew. U-boats armed with torpedos might attack any ship they encountered, whether or not it was a military vessel.

Soldiers and their weapons

Because vehicles and artillery dominated the battlefield, commanders considered individual soldiers to be less important. Armies deployed large numbers of soldiers onto Western Front battlefields, but most were cut down by artillery or machine-gun fire long before they could come into contact with the enemy.

Most soldiers on both sides were armed with bolt-action rifles; these could only fire one shot at a time, but had a magazine of 5–6 rounds. Often these were tipped with **bayonets** for soldiers to use on the rare occasion they came to blows with the enemy. Armour was almost non-existent, apart from metal or leather helmets that might occasionally deflect a bullet.

World War I was also the last time that horse-mounted cavalry played a major role in war. While cavalry units on both sides had some successes early in the war, horses were no match for machine guns or tanks, and they were soon removed from battle.

Source 6

A German Pickelhaube (spiked helmet), which was worn by infantrymen (left); a British 'Type A' helmet, which was worn by field medics (right). Helmets were the only form of protection available to individual soldiers.

Learning ladder H4.8

Show what you know

1 List three different technologies that changed the nature of war.

2 World War I was the first war fought on land, sea and in the air. Explain how.

3 Conduct further research into mustard gas. What were its effects? How did soldiers take precautions?

4 Who was the 'Red Baron'? Why might he have been both feared and admired?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

5 What was 'No Man's Land'? Why was it so deadly?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

6 Outline the positives and negatives of the new technologies emerging at this time.

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

7 Explain how changes in weapons technology led to a sharp increase in fatalities during World War I.

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

8 Select one type of new technology, such as tanks or artillery, used in World War I, and outline how it affected the war.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

H4.9

Why did the United States join the war?

When the war began, President Woodrow Wilson declared that the USA would remain neutral. American opinion began to change when Germany's policy of 'unrestricted submarine warfare' placed American ships in the firing line. The revelation of the Zimmerman Telegram cemented American hostility towards the Central Powers.

Initial neutrality

At the start of the 20th century, the USA was a fast-growing nation with an even faster growing economy. Every year, thousands of Europeans migrated to America in search of new opportunities. America mostly kept itself out of global and European politics, in a policy called **isolationism**. When war broke out, President Woodrow Wilson declared that America would be neutral and 'impartial in thought as well as in action'. Brazil, Chile and Venezuela also announced their neutrality.

Sinking of the *Lusitania*

While the USA preferred to stay out of the war, attitudes started to change when Germany announced its policy of 'unrestricted submarine warfare' and US ships came into the firing line.

A key event was the attack on the British civilian ship RMS *Lusitania*, in May 1915. The Germans suspected the ship was smuggling arms, and sunk it with a torpedo. Of the 1128 people who died, over 100 were American. This event fuelled strong anti-German sentiment that continued to build over the next two years.

"All the News That's Fit to Print."

The New York Times.

THE WEATHER

VOL. LXIV...NO. 20,923. NEW YORK, SATURDAY, MAY 8, 1915.—TWENTY-FOUR PAGES. ONE CENT

LUSITANIA SUNK BY A SUBMARINE, PROBABLY 1,000 DEAD; TWICE TORPEDOED OFF IRISH COAST; SINKS IN 15 MINUTES; AMERICANS ABOARD INCLUDED VANDERBILT AND FROHMAN; WASHINGTON BELIEVES THAT A GRAVE CRISIS IS AT HAND

SHOCKS THE PRESIDENT

Washington Deeply Stirred by Disaster and Fears a Crisis.

BULLETINS AT WHITE HOUSE

Wilson Reads Them Closely, but Is Silent on the Nation's Course.

HINTS OF CONGRESS CALL

Loss of Lusitania Recalls Firm Tone of Our First Warning to Germany.

CAPITAL FULL OF RUMORS

SOME DEAD TAKEN ASHORE

Several Hundred Survivors at Queenstown and Kinsale.

STEWARD TELLS OF DISASTER

ATTACKED IN BROAD DAY

The Lost Cunard Steamship Lusitania

X Where the First Torpedo Struck. XX Where the Second Torpedo Struck.

Canard Office Here Besieged for News; Fate of 1,918 on Lusitania Long in Doubt

Fate of Most of the Well-Known Passengers Still in Doubt —Story of Disaster Long Unconfirmed While

Roosevelt Calls It Piracy; Says That We Must Act.

SYRACUSE, N. Y., May

Meagre List of Saved Received in New York

Those whose rescue was reported to New York by

Loss of the Lusitania Fills London With Horror and Utter Amazement

News Held Back for Hours—Anxious Crowds Wait All Night at Steamship Offices for Word of

Source 1

The sinking of the *Lusitania* was a pivotal moment for the USA. This front page is from *The New York Times*, 8 May 1915.

The Zimmerman Telegram

Another incident that turned the American people against Germany was the discovery of a secret telegram in January 1917. This coded message was sent by German foreign minister Arthur Zimmerman to the German ambassador to Mexico. It promised that if Mexico joined the war on the German side, and Germany won, Mexico would regain Texas, New Mexico and Arizona from the United States.

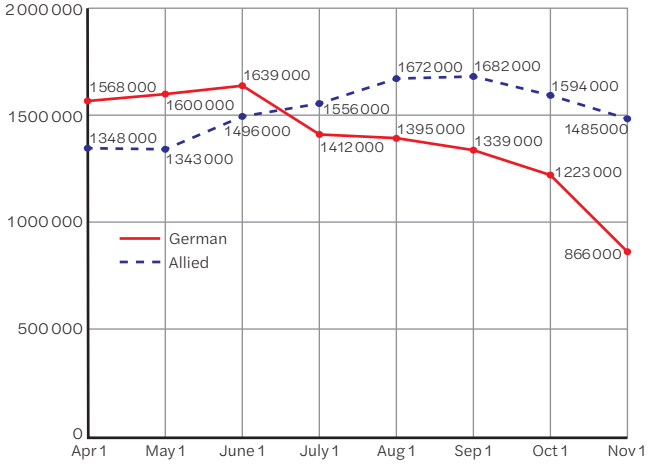
British agents intercepted and decoded the message; they supplied it to the American government, which released it to the media on 28 February 1917. Popular opinion about the war immediately changed, with calls for America to defend itself against German and Mexican aggression.

The USA enters the war

In April 1917, President Woodrow Wilson told Congress that 'the world must be made safe for democracy'. Soon after, the United States declared war on Germany. It took time for the USA to mobilise its army, so it wasn't until June 1917 that 14 000 US troops landed in France to join the combat.

The arrival of well-supplied and fresh American troops was an enormous boost to the morale of the Allied soldiers on the Western Front, with more than 10 000 arriving each day. In total, the USA drafted more than 4 million men. About 50 000 of those would pay with their lives.

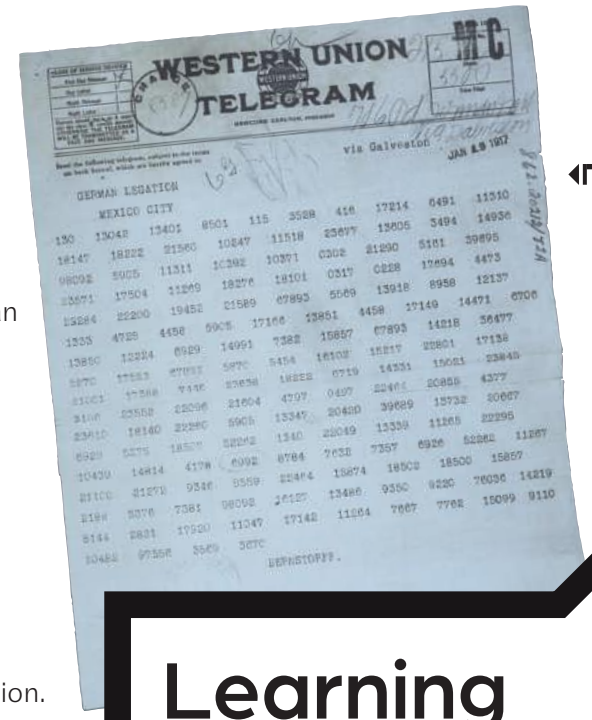
German and Allied riflemen on the Western front April to November 1918



Source 2

As German troop numbers declined, Allied numbers rose, boosted by the United States entering the war. This graph shows the rifle strength of Allied and German armies on the Western Front in 1918.

Source: Leonard P. Ayers, ed. *The war with Germany: a statistical summary*


WESTERN UNION TELEGRAM

via Galveston

JAN 19 1917

GERMAN LEGATION

MEXICO CITY

Source 3

The coded version of the Zimmerman Telegram. It was intercepted and decoded by British intelligence.

Learning ladder H4.9

Show what you know

1 Why was the USA initially determined not to enter the war?

2 What was the sinking of the *Lusitania*? Why did it change public opinion in the United States?

3 How did the Zimmerman Telegram attempt to persuade Mexico to ally with Germany?

4 Public support for isolationism was strong in 1914. Define this term and explain, using evidence, why it was supported within the United States.

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

5 Source 1: Identify the key words/facts listed in the headline. How might these have made readers feel?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

6 What does Source 2 show about the effect of the USA entering the war?

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

7 The coded Zimmerman Telegram (Source 3) was made public after it had been decoded by British intelligence. Suggest why.

Step 4: I can analyse a source

8 Consider how Source 1 and Source 3 might have played a key role in swaying public opinion in the USA. What does this suggest about American society at this time?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

Where did Australian soldiers serve?

As the global conflict escalated, Australian soldiers were drawn into battle in many different settings. With waves of volunteers drawn from across the nation, the Australians were keen to do themselves and their country proud.

Initial deployment

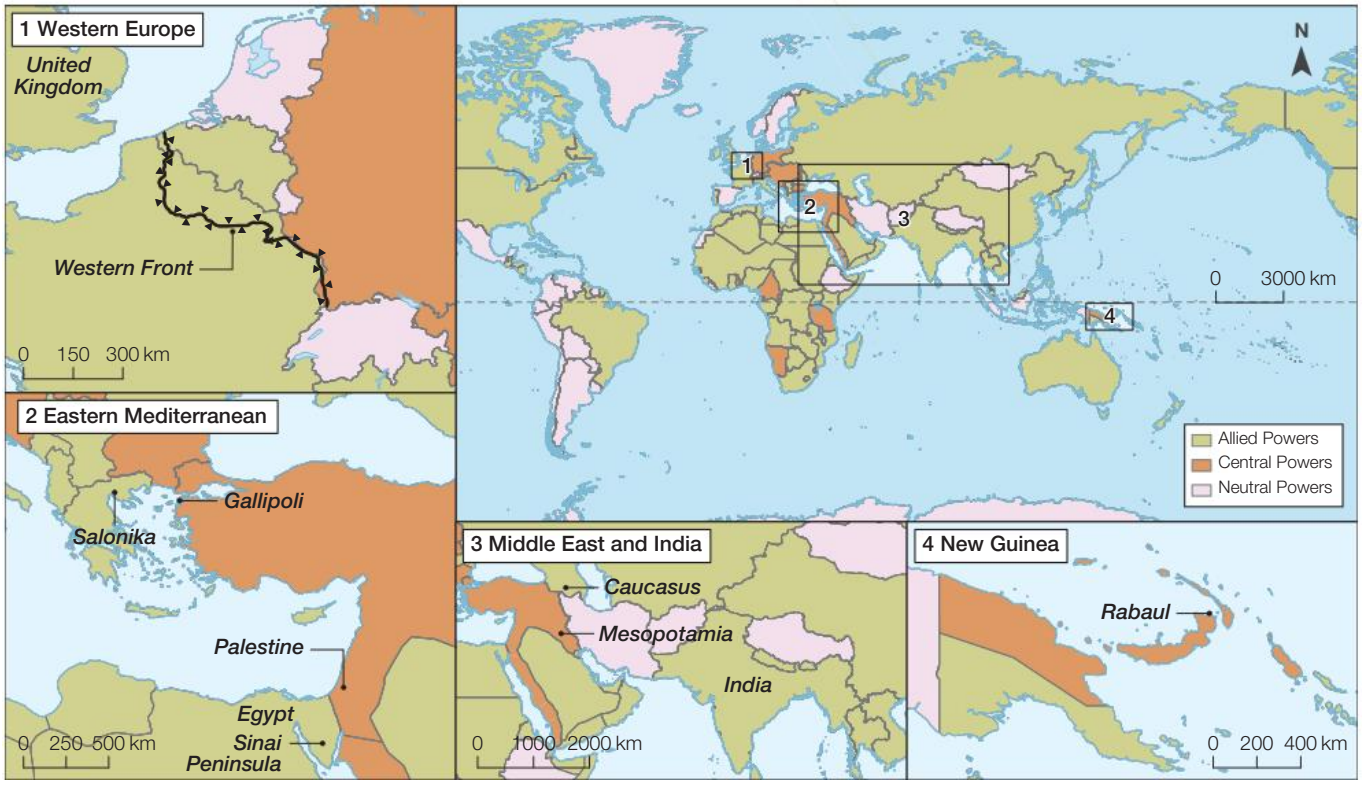
Australia's first active participation in combat actually occurred in Rabaul, a township in what is now Papua New Guinea. From the late 19th century, Germany had built a presence in the South Pacific with colonies in New Guinea, New Britain, the Solomon Islands, Palau, Nauru, Micronesia and the Marshall Islands.

The battle cruiser HMAS *Australia* of the Royal Australian Navy was sent to capture German New Guinea in September 1914. On 11 September, the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force attacked a wireless radio station. Six Australians lost their lives in that attack – the first Australian casualties of the war. By 21 September, all German forces in the colony surrendered. It remained under Australian occupation until the end of the war.

Source 1

Regions where Australian servicemen and women were involved abroad in World War I

Postings of Australian forces in World War I



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2

Australian troops training in Egypt, 1914. Several soldiers smuggled kangaroos into Egypt, where they were mascots and pets to the troops. [Photo from Australian War Memorial C02588]

Formation of the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps

The Australian Imperial Force was a volunteer army. By September 1914, it consisted of 20 000 men, organised into a Light Horse Brigade and a 1st Infantry Division. By the end of the year they were in Egypt, training and getting to know the 10 000 soldiers from New Zealand who had joined them.

Together, these soldiers were known as the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (Anzac). Despite this title, the Corps also included a small number of British and Indian units.

Deployment

By November 1914, the Anzacs had completed their training in Egypt, which had previously been part of the Ottoman Empire but was declared a British protectorate once the war began. From here, they travelled to Gallipoli and then on to the Western Front.

Between 1916 and 1918, the Anzacs also participated in battles within both Egypt and Palestine – a period known as the Sinai and Palestine Campaign – in support of British forces fighting against Turkey. Australian troops also supported the British in the Mesopotamian Campaign. Australian nurses served in Salonika and India, and the Australian Flying Corps flew in both France and the Middle East.

In total, 416 809 Australian men enlisted in World War I, of whom 331 781 served overseas. Of these, 61 720 died during the war and 137 013 were wounded.

Learning ladder H4.10

Show what you know

1 Other than Gallipoli and the Western Front, in which other regions did Australian soldiers serve?

2 Australian troops often fought alongside men of other nations, including New Zealand, India, Nepal and Canada. Suggest why.

3 Why was there a German presence in the South Pacific at the start of the 20th century? What happened to the Germans living there after their surrender?

Cause and effect

Step 1: I can recognise a cause and an effect

4 Why was Egypt a suitable training base for the AIF?

Step 2: I can determine causes and effects

5 Why was Australia's first active participation in the war at Rabaul (in modern-day Papua New Guinea)?

Step 3: I can explain causes and effects

6 Using Source 1, explain why Australians served in the locations indicated. Which opponents did they face?

Step 4: I can analyse causes and effects

7 To what extent was the German surrender in New Guinea likely to have affected morale in Australia? Compare the timing and speed of the campaign to the larger context of the war itself in your response.

HOW TO Cause and effect, page 247

How did Australian soldiers serve at Gallipoli?

Australian soldiers played a key role in the Battle of Gallipoli. In one of the bloodiest battles of World War I, 8700 Australian men died in the fight to control the Dardanelles. Allied forces ultimately withdrew, and the Ottoman army declared victory.

The Gallipoli **peninsula** is a coastal region in Turkey. It runs along a narrow sea passage called 'the Dardanelles', which opens up to the Sea of Marmara, leading ultimately to the Black Sea. This was a key transport route as well as a communications link with Russia.

Source 1

Australian soldiers expected to be sent to Europe, but were instead deployed to Gallipoli. This photograph shows men of the Royal Naval Division and Australians in the same trench. One is using a 'sniperscope' and another a periscope.

When the Ottoman Empire joined the war, it closed the Dardanelles and the Bosporus Strait to ships from Russia, France and the UK. This meant that Russia could not easily receive supplies.To support its ally, the British Navy planned an attack to gain control of this strategic sea passage.

Landing of the Anzacs

After training in Egypt, the Anzac troops were transported to Gallipoli at short notice, landing before dawn on 25 April 1915. Anzac and Indian, British and French troops engaged with the defending Turks. They came under heavy fire from Turkish artillery and struggled to gain ground.

Despite the Turks holding the higher terrain, the Allies managed to establish a foothold; a few square kilometres of cliffs, gullies and beach. Here, they dug in.

A long campaign

The quick, decisive victory envisioned by the Allies did not occur. Fighting dragged on for months, as the Allies sought to gain more territory and the Turks attempted to drive them back.

As the death toll rose, so did the risk of diseases such as typhoid and dysentery; the corpses of soldiers, rotting in the hot sun, attracted swarms of flies. Occasional breaks in fighting allowed both

Source 2

The Dardanelles was a shipping passage of the utmost importance. Whoever controlled Gallipoli would control the Dardanelles.

sides to clear their dead and attend to the wounded soldiers in No Man's Land. Such breaks often followed attacks and counterattacks, such as the massive Turkish push on 18–19 May, in which 42 000 Turks attempted to rush the Allies. More than 10 000 were lost.

Anzac forces played a major role in two key battles.

- The Battle of Lone Pine: the Anzacs created a diversion to distract the Turks, allowing Allied troops to land at Suvla Bay and threaten the high ridges.
- The Battle of the Nek: Australian Light Horse troops attempted to storm a ridge and capture the Turkish positions. An early naval bombardment was meant to disrupt Turkish troops, but too much time elapsed between the bombing and the charge. Turkish troops returned to their trenches and bombarded the Australians with machine-gun fire.

Withdrawal

By November 1915, Allied leaders decided to withdraw and redeploy the remaining soldiers to the Western Front. Under cover of darkness, the Anzacs withdrew without further loss.

The Battle of Gallipoli was lost. Of the approximately 44 250 Allied troops who died during the campaign, 8700 were Australian. Approximately 100 000 Allies were injured. The Ottoman Empire lost approximately 86 700 men, with hundreds of thousands injured. Australia's experience at Gallipoli is seen by many as the nation's 'baptism of fire'.

Learning ladder H4.11

Show what you know

1 Which enemy did Australia face at Gallipoli?

2 Provide three reasons why the British had chosen to attack the Gallipoli peninsula.

3 List five challenges faced by Anzac soldiers at Gallipoli.

4 Conduct research about the experiences of Turkish soldiers at Gallipoli. How were their experiences both similar and different to those of Australians?

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 How is the landing at Gallipoli remembered every year in Australia?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 Was the Gallipoli campaign ultimately a success? Why or why not?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 Why is this event considered to be so important to Australian history and to our national identity?

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 How was the experience of Australian soldiers at Gallipoli different to those from Britain and New Zealand? How does this shape the way the campaign is commemorated in all three countries?

HOW TO Historical significance, page 251

How did Australian soldiers serve on the Western Front?

The Western Front was the most renowned and deadliest battleground of the war. Close to half the Australians who fought there died.

Establishment of the Front

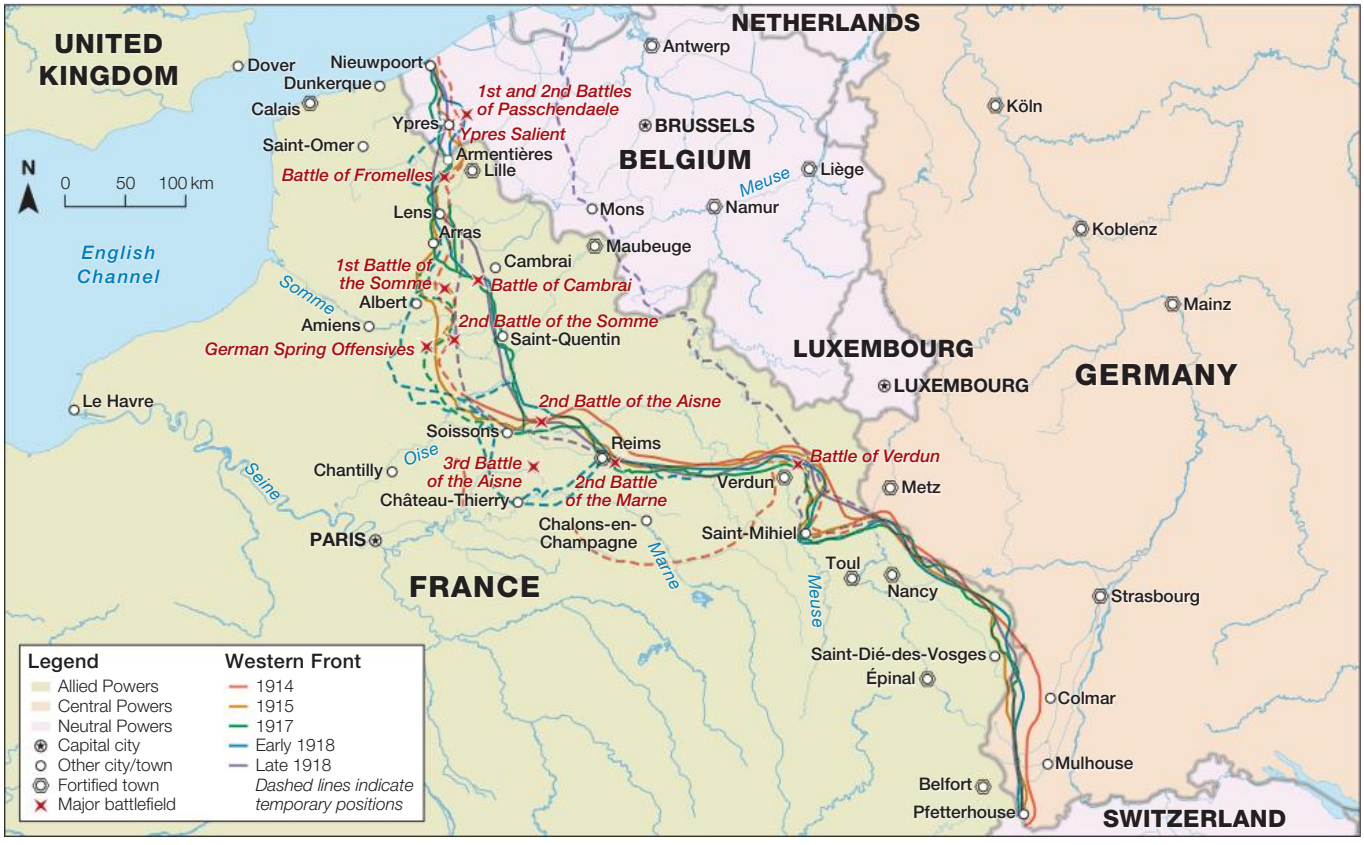
The Western Front was a stretch of land over 600 kilometres long, situated between the North Sea coast in the north of France and the German-Swiss border. Many of the worst and bloodiest battles of World War I were fought along this front.

The Western Front became a battleground early in the war, when Germany invaded Belgium on 3 August 1914. The German plan was to race through Belgium and conquer France within six weeks, and to then focus on fighting the Russians in the east. However, the small Belgian army slowed the advance long enough for the Allies to mobilise and meet the Germans in the north of France. Both sides began to dig in – literally, as they dug defensive trenches – for a long conflict.

Source 1

The Western Front saw Belgium and northern France turned into a series of trenches and devastated battlefields.

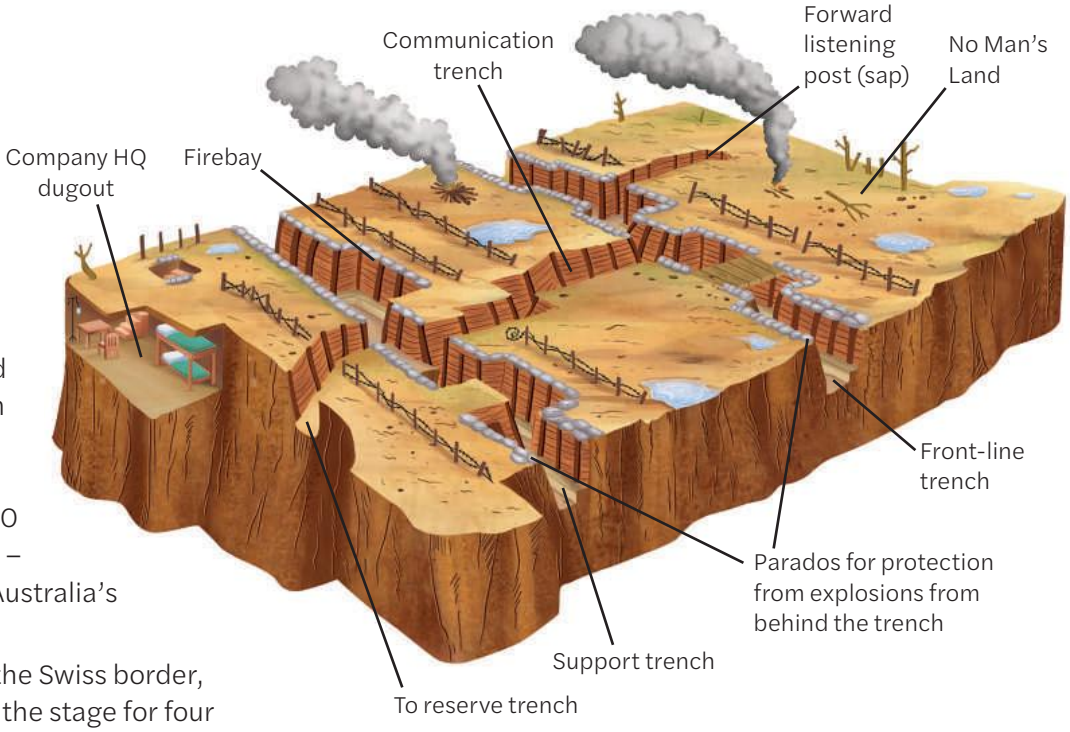
Location of the 1914–1918 Battlefields of the Western Front



Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 2

Trench warfare was a relatively new phenomenon; very little was gained at enormous cost.



Stalemate

Hastily dug defensive trenches quickly developed into a sophisticated system of frontline and supply trenches. The Western Front ended up with 40 000 kilometres of trenches dug – enough to stretch around Australia's coastline 1.3 times.

From the North Sea to the Swiss border, the Western Front became the stage for four years of brutal and bloody battles, often for little gain and at a very high mortality rate.

The Allies had more soldiers on the Front, but the German trenches were better defended and protected, so neither side made much progress. This stalemate would not be broken until 1918, when new offensive weaponry was used in more effective ways, most notably by the Australian general John Monash.

Australians on the Western Front

Australian soldiers were sent to the Western Front in March 1916. They were involved in almost 30 battles, including at the Somme, Fromelles, Pozieres and Villers-Bretonneux. More than 295 000 Australians served on the Front, and around 46 000 soldiers died there. Another 132 000 were wounded.

Learning ladder H4.12

Show what you know

1 In your own words, outline what trench warfare involved.

2 Why were trenches used? Historically, such battles might have been fought on horseback. What changed?

3 Define the term 'stalemate'. Why do you think this happened on the Western Front?

Historical interpretations

Step 1: I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

4 Every Anzac Day is solemnly remembered, yet many veterans never wanted to speak of their experiences on the Western Front. Suggest why.

Step 2: I can describe historical interpretations

5 Military losses, such as those on the Western Front, were seen by some as the ultimate sacrifice, but by others as a senseless waste of young lives. Suggest why.

Step 3: I can explain historical interpretations

6 Casualties on the Western Front were particularly high. Explain how this might have influenced recruitment campaigns back in Australia.

Step 4: I can analyse historical interpretations

7 Today, some argue that the service of Australian soldiers on the Western Front remains central to the Anzac spirit and the birth of the nation. Explain how and why.

Historical interpretations, page 255

HOW TO

What was Australia's First Nations Peoples' experience of war?

When war began, approximately 90 000 First Nations Peoples lived in Australia. Although they did not have equal rights under Australian law until 1967, more than 1000 First Nations men served in World War I. A quarter of them gave their lives in service of a country that did not regard them as equals.

First Nations men enlist

In 1903, the *Defence Act* was passed by the federal parliament: it ruled that First Nations men could not enlist in the defence forces, even though they had served in the Boer War. The white colonial values that had directed immigration policy from 1901 now applied to Australia's armed forces.

In 1917, with demand for soldiers high and enlistment numbers falling, the *Defence Act* was amended. Volunteers from the First Nations could be accepted, provided they had one parent of European descent. Some men had actually enlisted before this, as recruiters often turned a blind eye to policy, particularly in rural and remote areas.

Why did these men volunteer to fight for a country that did not consider them equals? Many probably did so for the same reasons as other volunteers – loyalty to their friends and community, or a sense of duty. Others might have joined for financial reasons: privates were paid six shillings a day, which is more than they would have received working in Australia.

Source 1

An unidentified First Nations soldier from the 20th Battalion [Photo from Australian War Memorial P01703.001]

Source 2

The play *Black Diggers*, from 2014, tells the stories of young First Nations men who volunteered to fight in World War I, and how the survivors were treated when they came home. [*Black Diggers* by Tom Wright (Queensland Theatre Company and Sydney Festival). Photography: Jamie Williams]

First Nations on the front lines

Approximately 1000–1300 First Nations soldiers served in World War I. At least 70 of them saw action at Gallipoli, and 13 lost their lives there. Information about these soldiers is difficult to uncover. Military records often did not record Indigenous status on the records of individual soldiers, describing them instead by their physical features.

Contemporary research suggests that around 100 First Nations men served in the Australian Light Horse Brigade. One Light Horse troop, which consisted of 26 First Nations soldiers, was active in the Sinai–Palestine Campaign.

After the war

When the war ended, many First Nations soldiers returned to their lives as second-class citizens. They were often not invited to join Anzac Day marches, and were prevented from entering Returned Servicemen's League (RSL) facilities. Some First Nations soldiers returned home to find that their children had been taken as part of the Stolen Generations (page 128) or their land seized from reserves to give to non-Indigenous returned servicemen as farm land.

As a minority group in their own homeland, the contribution of these soldiers has gone almost completely unrecognised. It has only been in recent years that their service has been celebrated and their stories told.

Men such as Douglas Grant, Harry Thorpe, Edmund Bilney, brothers Richard, Robert and George Kirby, Richard Martin and Chris Saunders are just some of the brave First Nations Anzacs. Marion Leane Smith, a First Nations woman from NSW, also served in World War I; she served in France in 1917 on an ambulance train, as part of the Canadian nursing division.

Source 3

Next time you see a $50 note, look at the church behind famous First Nations inventor David Unaipon. This church, located in Raukkan, is also a memorial to the 21 Ngarrindjeri Anzacs who signed up and fought on the Western Front.

Learning ladder H4.13

Show what you know

1 How many First Nations people joined the AIF during World War I?

2 Suggest what might have motivated some First Nations People to join the war effort.

3 List some of the challenges faced by First Nations servicemen, both during and after World War I.

4 Write a letter to the editor in 1918, making at least two arguments for the recognition of First Nations servicemen.

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 When did First Nations Peoples gain the right to join the Australian military?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Indigenous Australians were not initially accepted into the Australian military. Explain why this changed as the war progressed.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 Outline how the changes to the *Defence Act* reflected the need for more soldiers.

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 Conduct research to compare the experiences of First Nations soldiers in World War I with those of New Zealand's Maori soldiers. How did their experiences differ?

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

What was life like on the home front?

Australia's participation in the war affected the whole population, both directly and indirectly. There was widespread support in schools, charities and communities for the war effort, while others spoke out against the war. The loyalty of the German–Australian community was often questioned.

Source 1

Women could not join the Australian military until World War II, and could not operate in combat roles until 1990. Most Australian women who served in World War I were nurses.

Roles for women

At the beginning of the 20th century, most women worked in the home or in jobs such as domestic service, cooking, nursing or teaching. When the war broke out, many women wanted to support the war effort, so thousands of women volunteered for local organisations. They sent packages to the frontlines, raised funds to support soldiers, sent food to soldiers and volunteered at hospitals.

The only way women could serve in the army during World War I was to become a nurse, and more than 2200 women signed up with the Australian Army Nursing Service. The nurses had to be 25 years or older, and be unmarried or widowed. Many women lied to get through the recruitment process, so some 21-year-olds signed up, as well as married women. They served on transport and hospital ships, as well as in war zones. During the war, 46 Australian women lost their lives. These included nurses, munition workers, stewardesses and a doctor.

Not all women supported the war. Adela Pankhurst, daughter of famous British suffragette Emmeline Pankhurst, migrated to Australia in 1914. She took up an active role with the Women's Peace Army, a movement against war and conscription, alongside Melbourne suffragette Vida Goldstein. Both were leading proponents of peace and staunch advocates for women's rights.

Source 2

Children made socks and other supplies to send to soldiers on the frontline, part of a united push to support the war effort. [Photo from the Australian War Memorial H11581]

Tasks for children

For children, the war represented a significant change to daily life. Children were engaged in supporting the war effort in many ways, including:

- preparing clothing and other goods to send to soldiers
- taking on more household duties to cover for fathers on the frontlines and mothers at work
- fundraising
- collecting scrap metal for recycling
- undergoing cadet training: military training was compulsory for boys aged 12 and over
- enlisting to fight: some teenage boys lied about their age to join the army.

Schools played a key role in inspiring patriotism in children, through activities such as reading honour rolls of former students who had gone to war and emphasising the virtues of the Allies.

Patriotism

Patriotic rallies were commonplace in Australia during the war. Empire Day (24 May), Allies Day (19 November) and Anzac Day (25 April) were celebrated. The continued union between Britain and Australia was heavily emphasised, and the losses of Australian soldiers were considered to be for 'the greater good'. Propaganda portrayed the German soldiers as savage beasts, and Belgium was held up as an example of the need for Australia to act; one could not simply 'stand-by' while a bushfire raged in the small nation.

Associations such as the Belgian Relief Fund, the Travelling Kitchen Fund and the Blind Heroes Fund collected both donations and support, providing avenues for all Australians to help. War bonds and loans were used to fund the war effort, and 'loan drives' prompted citizens to contribute to each new issue of bonds.

However, not everyone felt patriotic. Some spoke out about the ongoing deaths of Australian men in far-off countries, while pacifists and 'conscientious objectors' rejected the very notion of conflict. Many Irish-Australians felt torn between loyalties, resenting the British for their occupation of Ireland at that time.

Source 3

The Molonglo Internment Camp held more than 150 families of German descent. They attended school, played tennis and interacted well with the local community. In 1919, after the war, they were deported to Europe. [Photo from the Australian War Memorial H17413]

Jobs and money

With manufacturing redirected to support the war effort and a freeze on wage growth in place, the cost of living rose sharply in Australia – it went up by 50 per cent between 1914 and 1918. Inflation increased, along with the price of food and rent; so did taxes, which were used to finance the war.

Growing inequality emerged, leading to serious strikes in 1916 and 1917, particularly involving seamen, miners, dock and transport workers. Strike-breakers – non-union workers employed to ensure production continued – were used to help end the strikes, which in turn led to further discontent.

Persecution of German–Australians

In 1914, Australia had a small German population of about 100 000 people, or 2 per cent of the population. Life changed drastically for these people when war broke out. All Germans were required to report to the local police station weekly, sometimes daily. The police would then fill out a secret report, stating whether this person could be trusted or if they were 'anti-British'.

Internment camps were established in some states, such as Holsworthy Army Barracks in NSW and Langwarrin Camp in Victoria. Many German and Austrian men were put into these camps for the duration of the war; they were joined by others who had been detained in Asia by the British. Some voluntarily went into camps to ensure that their wives and children would receive a government allowance. Women and children were kept at Molonglo in NSW.

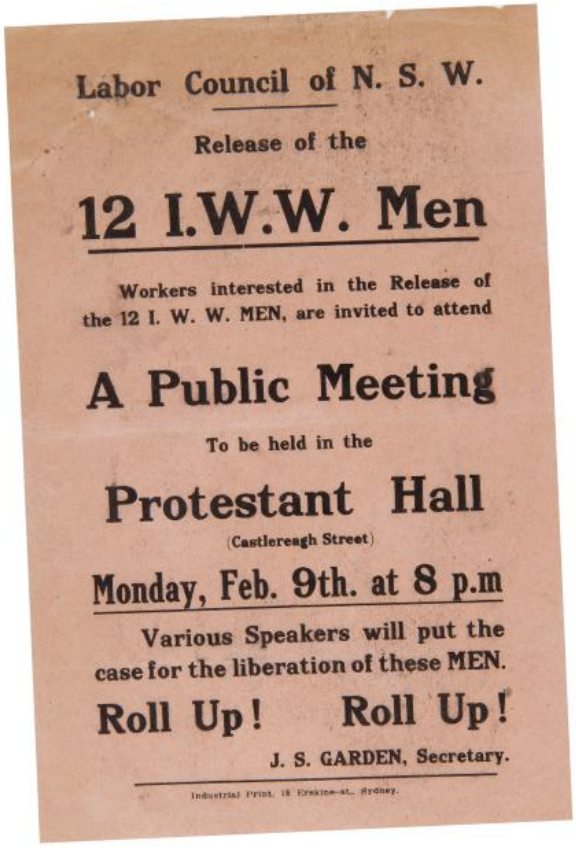
In some towns, German-language schools and churches were closed, German food was renamed and German music was banned. Some Australians with German or Austrian heritage chose to anglicise their names. In addition, 42 place names were changed; for example, Blumberg in South Australia became Birdwood, while German Creek in NSW became Empire Bay.

Suspicions and restrictions

Many people in Australia were on high alert for spies and enemy agents, despite the war being thousands of kilometres away. A significant minority of Australians could trace their roots to continental Europe, particularly Germany. Despite being born in Australia, or having lived in Australia for some time, they attracted suspicion.

Suspicion also fell on trade unions, pacifists, socialists and anti-conscriptionists, who were seen as dangerous to the war effort or critical of the government. Many were investigated and sometimes even prosecuted. Passed in August 1914, the *War Precautions Act* gave the government wide-ranging powers to control all aspects of daily life. It remained in place until 1920, and aimed to:

- prevent acts of espionage
- prevent activity or communication that could jeopardise military operations
- prevent the spread of reports that might cause alarm
- prohibit foreign nationals and naturalised citizens from entering Australia, and allow the deportation of those already present
- prohibit foreign nationals and naturalised citizens from living in certain areas
- control the registration, movements, work and place of residence of foreign nationals and naturalised citizens in Australia
- prevent money or materials being shipped out of Australia without permission.



Labor Council of N. S. W.

Release of the

12 I.W.W. Men

Workers interested in the Release of the 12 I. W. W. MEN, are invited to attend

A Public Meeting

To be held in the

Protestant Hall

(Castlereagh Street)

Monday, Feb. 9th. at 8 p.m

Various Speakers will put the case for the liberation of these MEN.

Roll Up! Roll Up!

J. S. GARDEN, Secretary.

Industrial Print. 18 Erskine-st., Sydney.

Source 4

In 1916, 12 men were arrested in Sydney under the *War Precautions Act*. They were members of the International Workers of the World, a radical labour organisation that was against the war. They were held for four years before being charged, and were finally released in 1920.

Learning ladder H4.14

Show what you know

1 Was all of Australia united behind the war effort? Why or why not?

2 What roles were traditionally undertaken by women in Australia at the beginning of the 20th century?

3 How did children support the war effort?

4 Define the term 'strike-breakers'. Why were they used and why were they despised?

Continuity and change

Step 1: I can describe continuity and change

5 What was the *War Precautions Act*?

Step 2: I can explain why something did or did not change

6 Imagine yourself as a government representative in 1915. Prepare a short article for the school community, explaining why the *War Precautions Act* is necessary.

Step 3: I can explain patterns of continuity and change

7 Provide examples of how daily life in Australia was changed by the *War Precautions Act*. For which groups would change have been the most significant?

Step 4: I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

8 Draw up a table with four columns: children, women, workers and German-Australians. In each column, identify ways in which the war both did and did not change the daily lives of those in that group.

HOW TO Continuity and change, page 244

economics + business

How can I make informed investments?

During World War I, Australians invested in war bonds to help support the war effort. Today there are many different investment options, with a range of risks and possible returns on the investment.

Investing in the war effort

Investing money means putting it into financial ventures such as shares, property or a business venture, with the expectation of making a profit.

During World War I, Australians were encouraged to invest in war **bonds**. By buying bonds, citizens effectively loaned money to the federal government, with the promise of being repaid with interest after the war. The marketing campaigns for war bonds aimed to convince people it was their patriotic duty to direct their personal finances towards the war effort.

Source 1

World War I propaganda poster, calling on civilians to invest in war bonds to help raise money for the war in Europe

Most countries involved in the war, on both sides, developed war loan programs to raise the funds needed to resource their expensive military campaigns. Money raised through bonds is estimated to have covered more than half of the cost of the war in Germany.

Investment and risk

All investments involve the risk of losing money. There's always the chance that an investment won't deliver the outcomes you want; that is, it may fall in value instead of grow. It's impossible to avoid all risks when you invest, but many investments have only a low risk. However, those with a greater potential for profit usually carry a greater risk. As a general rule, the lower the level of risk, the lower the return on investment will be.

Some investments, such as putting your money into bank **savings accounts** and term deposits (where your money is locked away for a set time), are low risk and government guaranteed for up to $250 000. These low-risk options also provide a low return on investment, in the form of interest.

Investment specialists suggest that you will need to take some investment risk to achieve a healthier rate of return over time. Investing in real estate or the share market has the potential to earn higher returns, but it also comes with the potential for higher losses.

Source 2

Stocks (shares in a large business) become more valuable if the business is successful. Changing stock prices are listed and updated on the main board at the Australian Stock Exchange (ASX).

Investment options

Investing your money wisely takes a great deal of thought and research, and many people seek the advice of a financial consultant. Different investment options can also be combined into a managed fund, in which money from individual investors is pooled into a selected portfolio of investments such as shares, property or interest-earning investments.

Interest–earning investments

These investments involve lending money to a financial institution, company or government, and in return receiving payments of interest. Interest is calculated as a percentage rate, which might be a **fixed rate** or a **floating rate** that changes in response to the market.

Interest-earning investments also involve different time periods. Most banks give immediate or at-call access to your funds if you wish to withdraw your money. Others are fixed-term investments that last for a specified time. Term deposits are fixed-term investments; so are bonds.

The share market

Shares (also called stocks or equities) are units of ownership in a company. By investing in shares, you become a part-owner of a company, usually with the hope that it will increase in value. When a company earns a profit, they can pay a proportion of it as a dividend to its shareholders.

Shares offer potential for investors to grow their wealth over time. However, profiting from buying and selling shares requires skill and analysis.

Real estate

Real estate investment involves purchasing a house, apartment, factory or other building with the hope that it will increase in value. The owners can also receive rental payments as an investment return.

Superannuation

Superannuation is a way of saving for retirement. Employers make mandatory contributions to their employees' superannuation funds, and employees can add more as well. The fund's managers use that money to finance large investments, and the profits go back to the employees' savings. Superannuation is often taxed at a lower rate than other investments.

Learning ladder H4.15

Economics and business

Step 1: I can recognise economic information

1 What are you actually doing when you put your money into an interest-earning investment?

Step 2: I can describe economic issues

2 What happens when you become a shareholder? Refer to Source 2 in your response.

Step 3: I can explain issues in economic

3 How is return on investment related to risk?

Step 4: I can integrate different economic topics

4 Consider Source 1. What advantages did investors get when they put their money into war bonds during World War I?

Step 5: I can evaluate alternatives

5 Prepare your own risk analysis of investments in superannuation, real estate, shares and interest-earning investments. Rank the four types of investment according to risk and possible returns.

PART III: WAR'S END

How did World War I end?

The chief events that led to the end of the war played out on the Western Front. The German-initiated *Kaiserschlacht* of early 1918 proved to be the last crucial battle; the Allies defeated Germany, effectively signalling the end of the war.

Changing allies

In 1917, Russia's Tsar Nicholas II was forced to abdicate his throne under pressure from countrywide strikes and protests. In November 1917, Vladimir Lenin and the Communist Party came to power. One of the first acts of the new Communist government was to sign a peace treaty with Germany, allowing Russia to exit the war.

This was a major blow to France and England. It meant that Germany no longer had to fight Russia, and German soldiers could be sent from the Eastern Front to support the troops on the Western Front. The USA had joined the Allies in June 1917, and was sending more troops to the Western Front, but they would not arrive until the spring of 1918.

Source 1

After the 1917 Revolution, Vladimir Lenin and the Communist Party took control of Russia. They withdrew from the war in order to focus on internal Russian issues.

key ideas timeline.

- **6 April 1917** – USA declares war on Germany and US troops join the Allies in June
- **October 1917** – Revolution in Russia: the Communist Party takes over and withdraws from the war
- **March–July 1918** – The Ludendorff Offensive fails
- **11 November 1918** – Germany agrees to an armistice; the allies are victorious
- **1918–1919** – Almost 250 000 Australian troops return home; the 1918 flu pandemic sweeps the globe
- **1919–1920** – A number of treaties signed; the Treaty of Versailles marks the formal end of the war

The Ludendorff Offensive

General Ludendorff, the man in charge of the German army, knew that this was a critical time and planned a massive offensive for the early spring of 1918. This *Kaiserschlacht* ('the Emperor's battle') was meant to break the stalemate on the Western Front.

The Ludendorff Offensive was a gamble, but the odds were with the Germans. Still, they lost. A lack of resources, too much confidence placed on the Germans' ability to mount a strong attack, and tactical wins by the Allies, meant the offensive failed. The Germans had now effectively lost the war.

The armistice

On 1 October 1918, General Ludendorff suggested that an **armistice** was the only way forward. 'The High Command and the German army are finished', he said to his assembled staff officers. He placed the blame on the frontline soldiers, saying 'continually, units have proved themselves so unreliable that they have hurriedly had to be withdrawn from the front'.

Bolstered by the extra American troops, the Allies pushed back the German army. By November 1918, the German military commanders recommended to Kaiser Wilhelm II that an armistice was needed. On the 11 of November, at 11 o'clock in the morning, the armistice began. The news spread quickly across the world. The war was over.

Why did the Central Powers lose WWI?

- The failure of early attack, the Schlieffen plan, meant that Germany got bogged down in a stalemate on the Western Front.
- The Ludendorff Offensive of 1918 did not break the stalemate on the Western Front.
- The German allies were defeated. Bulgaria surrendered in September 1918, while Austria–Hungary devolved by October 1918.
- The British sea blockade of Germany had been effective; the Germans suffered from food shortages, made worse by bad harvests and bad government organisation.
- The policy of unrestricted submarine warfare brought the USA into the war.
- The USA's entry into the war in 1917 came at a crucial time, when the Allies were running low on materials and men.

Entire World Rejoices in Downfall of Autocratic Militarism

THE DAILY TELEGRAM

LONG BEACH, CALIFORNIA, MONDAY AFTERNOON, NOVEMBER 11, 1918

WORLD WAR IS OVER

Beaten Germany Accepts Armistice Terms and Hostilities Cease on All Fronts

MONS TAKEN BY BRITISH AS NEWS REACHES ARMY | ALL CROWNED HEADS OF EMPIRE BUSY ABDICATING

Kaiser, Crown Prince and Hindenburg Seek Refuge in Holland

"IT'S OVER BOYS"

WHEN PEACE CAME

LONDON, Nov. 11.—It is officially announced that the armistice with Germany was signed at 5 a.m. today and that hostilities ceased at 11 a.m. Prime Minister Lloyd George announced that the cessation of hostilities was effective at 11 a.m. on all fronts of Europe.

WASHINGTON, Nov. 11.—It was shortly before 3 o'clock this morning when President Wilson, roused from a deep slumber, walked to the door of his bedroom and received from a white house attendant, the official State department message that the great war had come to an end.

GIVE UP "DIVINE RIGHTS"

GERMANY IS BRANDED NOW AS BEATEN NATION

Hun Acknowledges Superiority of Allies —To America Goes Glory of Turning Tide of War

HOLLAND'S PROBLEM

ARMED IMPERIALISM COMPLETELY ENDED BY ACCEPTED ARMISTICE

President Wilson, in Address to Joint Congress, Outlines the Conditions Accepted by Germany Which Puts Into Discard the Illicit Ambitions of Prussian Autocracy and Starts Peace Which Will Satisfy World Desires.

ALL DRAFTING

Source 2

The end of World War I made headlines around the world.

Learning ladder H4.16

Show what you know

1 Why did Russia withdraw from the war in 1917?

2 What was 'Ludendorff's gamble'? How might its success have changed everything?

3 Define the term 'armistice'.

4 Describe the difference between an armistice and a surrender.

Historical significance

Step 1: I can recognise historical significance

5 What happened at 11 am on 11 November 1918?

Step 2: I can explain historical significance

6 Why was the signing of the armistice such a historic moment?

Step 3: I can apply a theory of significance

7 As a senior advisor in the German military, write a letter to Kaiser Wilhelm II, outlining why an armistice is necessary. Use evidence to support your position.

Step 4: I can analyse historical significance

8 Many communities and nations had little to celebrate at the end of the war. Provide reasons why. To what extent did the end of the war resolve their problems?

HOW TO

Historical significance, page 255

How was peace maintained after the war?

World War I was an unprecedented event. It destroyed more human life and infrastructure than anything ever before. Dealing with the effects of this disaster was almost as big a challenge as fighting the war itself.

The aftermath of war

After four brutal years of slaughter and hardship, the Allies were looking for ways to settle the score. The armistice of 11 November ended the fighting, but loss and damage was widespread, particularly across continental Europe.

European political borders after World War I

Source: Matilda Education Australia

Source 1

The political borders of Europe shifted dramatically in only a decade. Compare this with the map of Europe in 1914 on page 196.

Trench warfare and new weapons technology had left significant environmental destruction, in addition to the huge death tolls, injuries and economic devastation. The empires of central and eastern Europe were broken, with new nations clawing for their own freedom amid widespread social unrest.

Treaties and agreements

To ensure that war would not return, US President Woodrow Wilson created a '14-point plan' to create peace. It was an idealistic document that focused on diplomacy, trade and self-governance to establish a new world order and 'make the world safe for democracy'.

A number of treaties were also signed. These assigned blame and consequences, redrew borders and ordered the Central Powers to provide **restitution** to the Allies. Five treaties were made with the members of the Central Powers:

1. The Treaty of Versailles (1919) – Germany
2. The Treaty of Saint-Germain (1919) – Austria
3. The Treaty of Neuilly (1920) – Bulgaria
4. The Treaty of Trianon (1920) – Hungary
5. The Treaty of Sevres (1920) – the Ottoman Empire

As a result of these treaties, new nations were formed, military capacities were restricted and further alliances forbidden. While they aimed to ensure peace across the continent, they also created discontent and anger in some nations.

Australia after the war

At war's end, more than a quarter of a million Australians needed to be returned to their country. But because of a lack of available ships, some took up to 18 months to get home.

Unfortunately, returning to a 'normal' life was almost impossible. There was widespread unemployment, so many soldiers couldn't find jobs. The government gave pensions to returning soldiers, nurses and war widows. This provided support, but was a massive drain on the Australian economy.

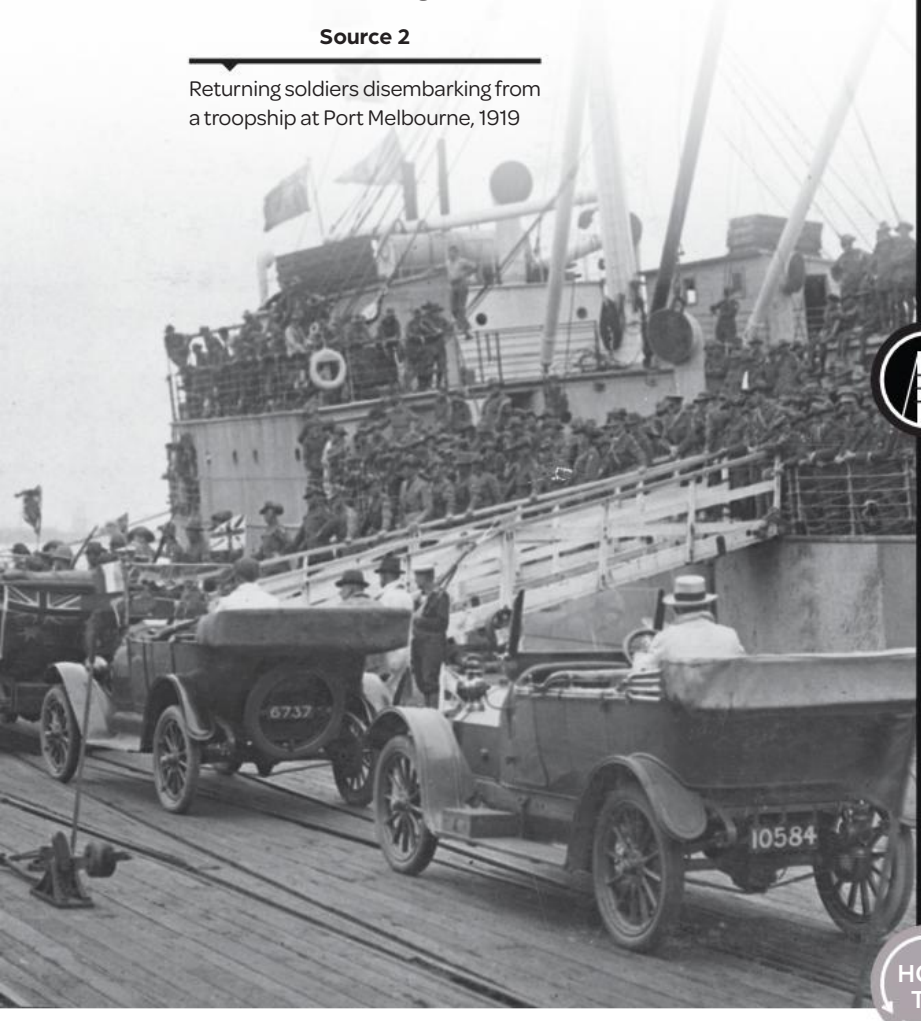
Health was also a major post-war problem. As some soldiers were exposed to the deadly influenza that swept through Europe in 1918–19, they needed to be quarantined upon their return home. Despite this, the disease entered the country and caused almost 12 000 deaths. Politically, though, Australia rose in stature and prominence as a result of its involvement in the war. Other countries now took the young nation much more seriously.

Source 3

The signing of the Treaty of Versailles. Australian Prime Minister Billy Hughes was present at the negotiations, and argued successfully for reparations for Australia. [Joseph Finnemore, *Key to the signing of the Treaty of Peace at Versailles*, 1919]

Source 2

Returning soldiers disembarking from a troopship at Port Melbourne, 1919



Learning ladder H4.17

Show what you know

1 How and why was World War I different from any other conflict before it?

2 What plan did Woodrow Wilson propose?

3 Briefly research the punishments or outcomes for each of the Central Powers. Show your findings in a table.

4 To what extent do you feel that each Central Powers nation was fairly punished?

Source analysis

Step 1: I can list specific features of a source

5 Outline the scene in Source 3. What features or people do you recognise?

Step 2: I can find themes in a source

6 Compare the map of pre-war Europe on page 196 with post-war Europe in Source 1. Create a list of new nations and note those that lost territory.

Step 3: I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

7 Consider Source 3. Why would the presence of the Australian Prime Minister at Versailles be promoted both domestically and internationally?

Step 4: I can analyse a source

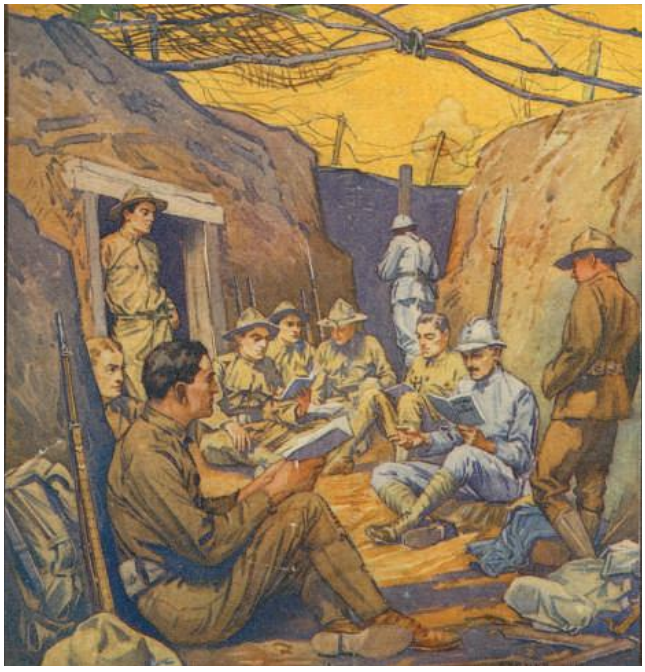
8 Describe the scene in Source 2. How might it differ to soldiers embarking for war years earlier?

HOW TO Source analysis, page 240

Masterclass

Learning ladder

Work at the level that is right for you or level-up for a learning challenge!

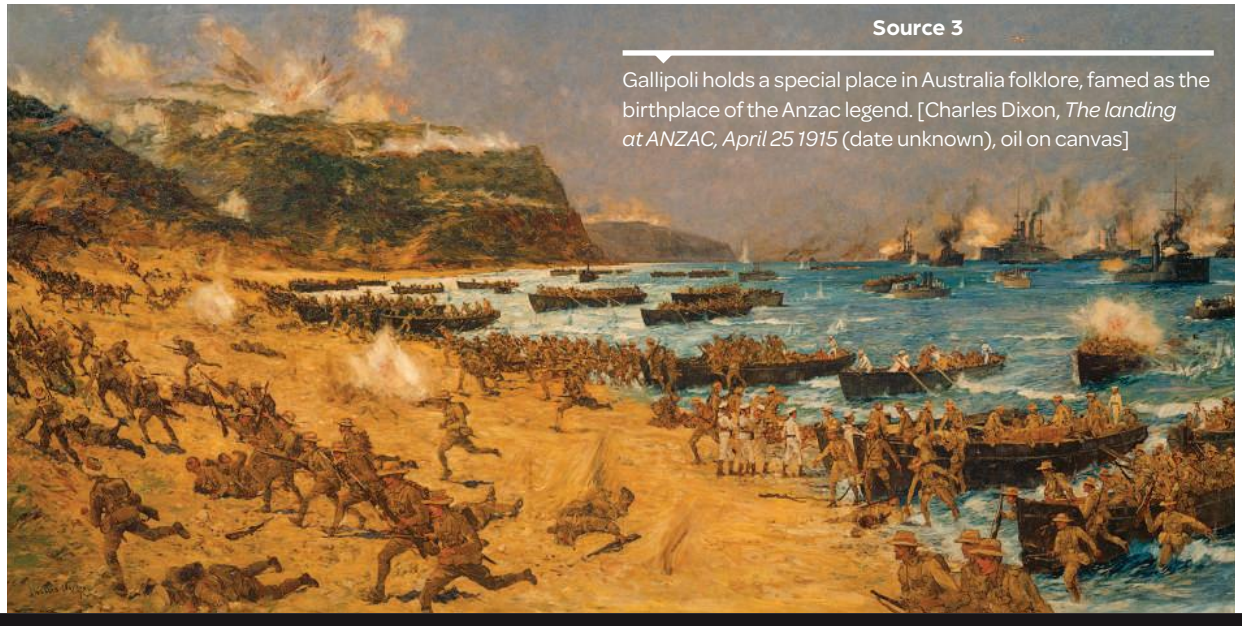


Source 1

Trench warfare was brutal and unforgiving, but long hours of boredom were also commonplace. ['Studying French in the Trenches.' Cover, *The Literary Digest*, October 20, 1917.]

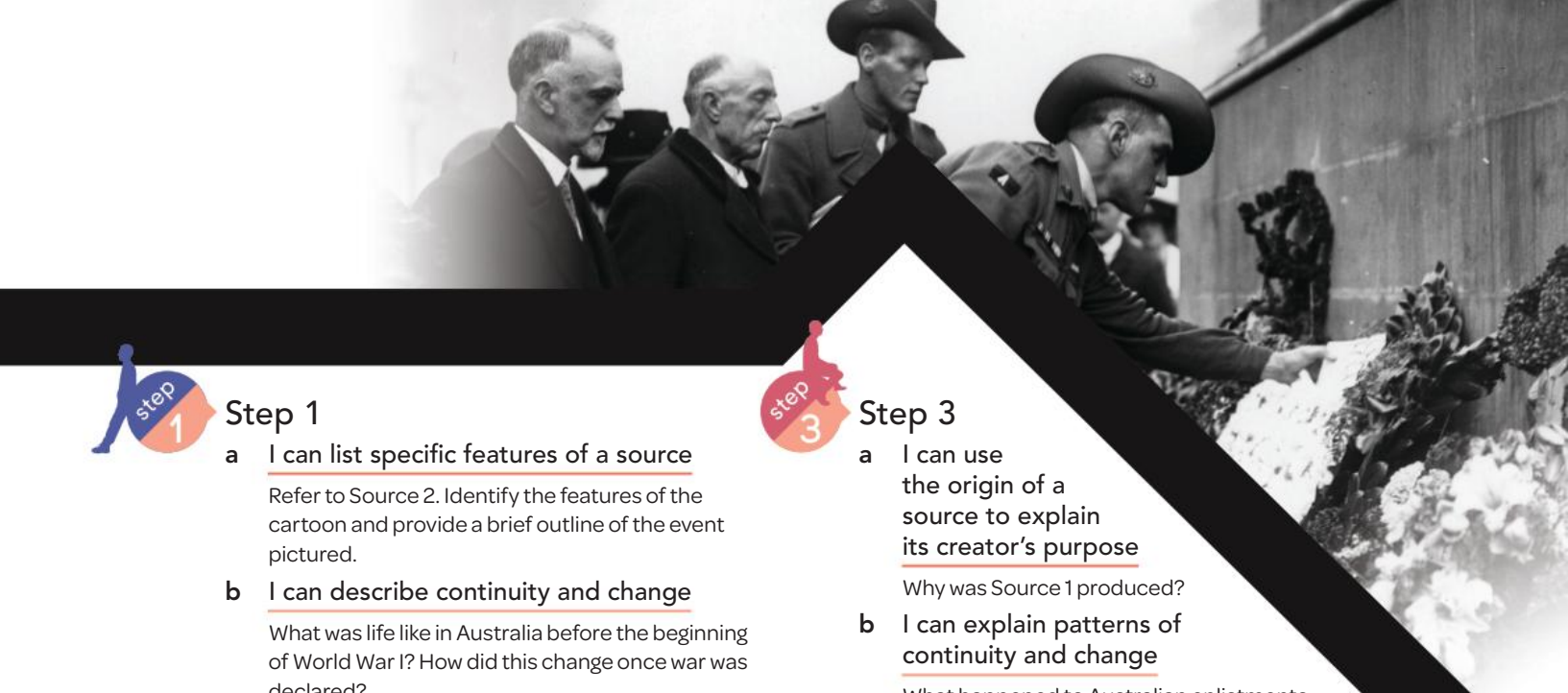
Source 2

'Bravo Belgium!' from *Punch Magazine*, 12 August 1914



Source 3

Gallipoli holds a special place in Australia folklore, famed as the birthplace of the Anzac legend. [Charles Dixon, *The landing at ANZAC, April 25 1915* (date unknown), oil on canvas]



Step 1

a I can list specific features of a source

Refer to Source 2. Identify the features of the cartoon and provide a brief outline of the event pictured.

b I can describe continuity and change

What was life like in Australia before the beginning of World War I? How did this change once war was declared?

c I can recognise a cause and an effect

Why was Archduke Franz Ferdinand assassinated? How did Austria-Hungary respond?

d I can recognise historical significance

World War I was seen as an important moment for the young Australian nation. Why?

e I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

Why might people have had different feelings about the war?

Step 2

a I can find themes in a source

What do you feel are the major themes of Source 3?

b I can explain why something did or did not change

Many young Australians rushed to enlist once war was declared. Explain why.

c I can determine causes and effects

Outline the four long-term causes of World War I.

d I can explain historical significance

Why was the Anzac legend 'born' at Gallipoli?

e I can describe historical interpretations

Describe how the landing at Gallipoli is portrayed in Source 3.

Step 3

a I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

Why was Source 1 produced?

b I can explain patterns of continuity and change

What happened to Australian enlistments as the war progressed? Outline why.

c I can explain causes and effects

Explain the conscription debates. What were the outcomes and why did they develop?

d I can apply a theory of significance

Draft a response to the following statement: 'Technology played a key role in the war.' To what extent do you agree?

e I can explain historical interpretations

Explain why the debate over conscription is considered to be a time of bitter division within Australian society.

Step 4

a I can analyse a source

To what extent is Source 1 an accurate representation of trench warfare?

b I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

In what ways did the borders and nations of Europe change as a result of the war?

c I can analyse causes and effects

What events led to the entry of the USA into World War I?

d I can analyse historical significance

How might World War I be considered a turning point for women in Australian society?

e I can analyse historical interpretations

The way we understand and interpret the past can change over time, such as the debates around Australia Day. Prepare a brief paragraph explaining how this might be possible.

Masterclass

Step 5

a I can evaluate a source

How useful is Source 2 when describing the causes of World War I?

b I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

How did the war change the world? Consider economic, political and social contexts in your response.

c I can evaluate causes and effects

How did trench warfare and new technology make World War I vastly different to any other conflict before it?

d I can evaluate historical significance

Draft a response to the following statement: 'World War I was a defining event for Australia, one that both changed and shaped it.'

e I can evaluate historical interpretations

To what extent does Source 2 support differing interpretations of the causes of World War I?

Historical writing

1 Structure

Imagine you are given the essay topic, 'World War I was a European war. Australia should never have been involved'. Write an essay plan for this topic. Include at least three main paragraphs.

2 Draft

Using the drafting and vocabulary suggestions on page 262, draft a 600–800 word essay (at least 30–40 sentences) responding to the topic.

3 Edit and proofread

Use the editing and proofreading tips on page 263, to help edit and proofread your draft.

Historical research

4 Organise and present information

Imagine you are completing a research project on 'Australian sacrifices in World War I'. Write a contents page for this project. There should be an introduction, a conclusion, at least four main sections and many subsections. Number your chapters.

Capstone

How can I understand World War I?

In this chapter, you have learned a lot about World War I. Now you can put your new knowledge and understanding together for the capstone project to show what you know and what you think.

In the world of building, a capstone is an element that finishes off an arch or tops off a building or wall. That is what the capstone project will offer you, too: a chance to top off and bring together your learning in interesting, critical and creative ways. You can complete this project yourself, or your teacher can make it a class task or a homework task.

mea.digital/GHV9_H4

Scan this QR code to find the capstone project online.

Source: Australian War Memorial E00019

History How-To

H5

History has its own set of skills to help us analyse and understand societies in the past and the key ideas, people and changes that shape the world we live in today. Historical skills are based around interpreting sources of evidence from the past, provoking debate and encouraging investigation.

Source analysis

Source analysis asks us to look at evidence and ask, 'How do we know what we know about the past?' A good source analysis interprets and makes meaning of the source:

- Who created it?
- When was it created?
- What was the author or creator's purpose?
- What is the historical context of the source?

I can list specific features of a source

When you list features of a source, they can be general or specific. For the general features of a source, when you list them, it is like you are providing a summarised version of what you see.

Listing specific, or detailed, features of a source is more like you are writing the long version of what you can see or interpret, describing as much as you can.

General features	Detailed or specific features
The most obvious features	Obvious and minor details
The most important things in the source	Everything in the source, whether or not you think it is 'important'
Using vague words: 'big', 'small', 'very', 'good' …	Using specific words and phrases, such as: 'three times bigger than …', 'small/big when compared to …', 'in the background/ foreground', 'useful for …'

I can find themes in a source

Often, a source contains a theme. The theme can help you uncover more meaning in a source. A theme is something that you might notice after recognising specific features.

Some examples of themes and how they might be shown are listed in this table.

Theme	How this might be shown in a source
Beauty	A statue of a handsome person with a muscular body and symmetrical facial features
Faith	A decoration on a vase showing people offering sacrifices to a god
Good vs bad	A statue of two figures fighting – one that looks like an angel and one that looks like a demon
Hierarchy	An image going from top to bottom, with gods on the top, then people, then animals, then rocks
Humanity vs nature	A building located in a natural place, dominating it; e.g. a temple on a mountain
Technology in society – good or bad	Good: a statue of a smiling person using a new farm implement Bad: a painting of a person using a machine to work looking unhappy
War or conflict	A decoration on a building depicting a large-scale battle

Source 1

A 19th-century woodcut of the smokestacks of steel factories in 1800s Sheffield. What themes do we see here?

If you think there is an underlying theme, after looking at all the details in a source, always give evidence *from the source* to back up your answer.

Not all sources have themes. If the source is a piece of technology, like a train, it might not have a 'theme' like the woodcut shown in Source 1. However, you could still comment on the type of society that produced it. For example, what materials did they use? Why did they need trains? When did they build railways?

step 3

I can use the origin of a source to explain its creator's purpose

Here are three ways you could explain a creator's purpose. You could:

1. use *who* created it to explain *why* it was made
2. use *when* it was created to explain *why* it was made
3. use both when it was created *and* who created it to explain why it was made.

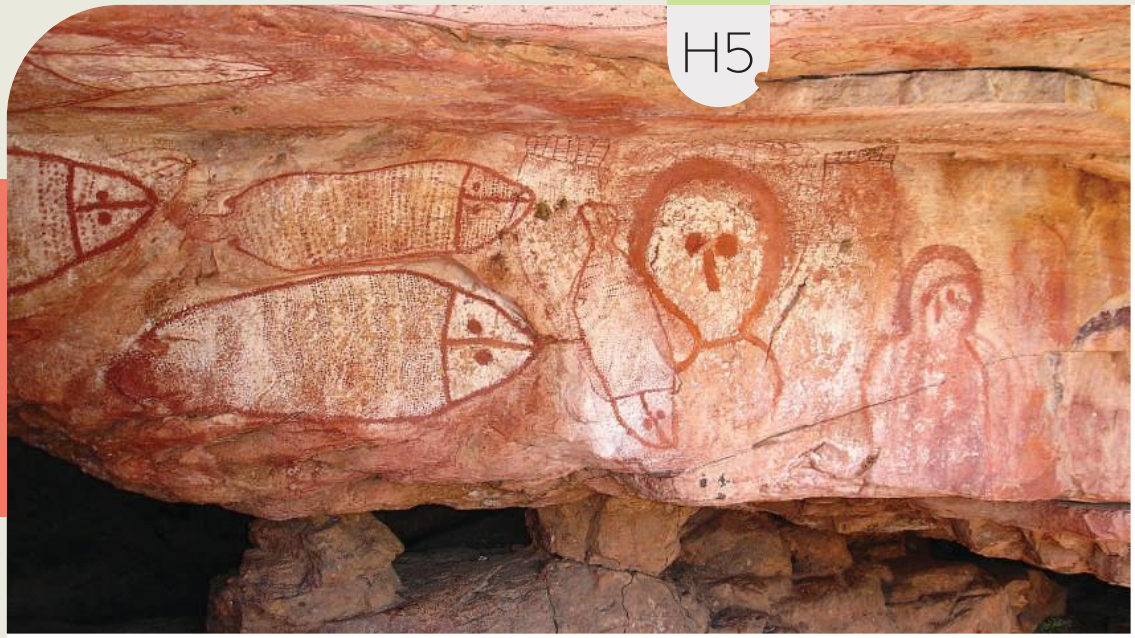
The third explanation is the best. Here are some questions to ask of the source:

- What do you know about who created the source?
  - How old were they?
  - What gender were they?
  - What job did they do?
  - What position did they have in society? For example, were they powerful or powerless?
  - What beliefs did they have?
- What was going on at the time the source was made?
  - Were there any important events taking place?
  - What was going on politically?
  - What biases might people have had?
  - What was normal behaviour in society?
- Why was it produced?

The purpose of a source refers to what the source was originally made for. Don't get confused and think about what *we*, as historians, might use it for. Sources aren't usually created to leave records for historians.

Try to get into the head of the creator *at the time they were making the object*. For example, were they trying to:

- influence people?
- sell something?
- tell their version of events?
- make art? If so, who would enjoy it?
- make something practical, such as a tool?



Source 2

Rock art in the Northern Kimberley region, in the Gwion Gwion style, depicting a fishing hunt. [Raft Point Gallery, Kimberly region, Western Australia.]

The table below provides two examples of using the origin of a source to explain its purpose, using *The Communist Manifesto* and rock art by the First Nations Peoples of Australia.

Source	Origin: Who created the source	Origin: When the source was created	Why you think the source was created (its purpose)	Using the origin of the source to explain its purpose
Rock art	The Gwion Gwion people of the Northern Kimberley region	Between 20 000 and 50 000 BCE	To depict a fish hunt	The Gwion Gwion people were some of the most ancient First Nations Peoples of Australia. They used their art to show the hunting technologies they invented and the natural world around them.
The Communist Manifesto	Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels	1848 CE	To communicate the political theory of communism	Marx and Engels were German philosophers who were involved in the socialism movement. They wrote *The Communist Manifesto* to communicate their ideas about society, politics and economics.

step 4

I can analyse a source

Analysing involves breaking down something into its parts. If you can identify these different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing. If you can explain rules or theories that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

To analyse a source, consider the different elements of the source and see how they work together, and whether they produce an overall effect. We can break this into three parts:

1. Notice various elements of the source
2. Explain them
3. Show how they relate to each other, influence each other or are linked in some way to produce an overall effect.

As an example, we can analyse Source 3.

Source 3

A 1917 poster produced during the WWI conscription debate

1 There is a kangaroo, text and an army in silhouette.

2 **a** The kangaroo, a national symbol of Australia, is included to awaken nationalistic spirit.

b The text refers to Britain, which was still seen as the 'mother country'. The text also refers to a 'promise', making viewers feel they are obligated to help.

c The army in silhouette could be Australian soldiers on campaign in Europe.

3 The various elements all combine in an attempt to persuade the viewer, a citizen of Australia, to vote 'yes' in the upcoming plebiscite to implement conscription. Various persuasive techniques are used: appeals to nationalism, appeals to sense of duty, fear (the red foreboding colour) and even a direct command (note the lack of question mark at the end of the statement).

step 5

I can evaluate a source

Evaluation is a higher-order thinking skill. Evaluation can involve:

- assessing whether a statement or belief is true, such as 'does this image really show that working conditions during the Industrial Revolution were awful?'
- comparing different ideas, such as 'which source is a better example of pre-colonial First Nations life – rock art or shell middens?'
- judging between different things, such as 'were long- or short-term causes more important in causing the outbreak of World War I?'
- making a judgement about the value of something by asking, 'So what?'. Was a source a good or bad thing, or perhaps partially both? A historian may include both positives and negatives to form a balanced view.

An evaluation could involve one or more of these things.

Here is how Source 4 could be evaluated:

Some might ask whether this building represents the domination of the Indian people by the British. In it, we see both Indian and British architectural styles combined. On this reading, the building represents a successful merging of the two cultures.

On the other hand, the fact that this monument was built at all suggests domination. It is a major building in the Indian capital, built just to celebrate a short visit by the far-off monarch of Britain, an 'absentee landlord'. Indian nationalists might consider it negative, as it is a monument to the foreign power that ruled India for so many years.

A more measured approach might state that this gateway is a symbol of the modernity that the British influence brought to India, while still in some way respecting India's traditional culture.

This evaluation combined two of the possible elements of an evaluation: assessing whether a statement or belief is true, and making a judgement about the value of something.

Source 4

'The Gateway of India' in Mumbai, built by the British in 1924 to commemorate the 1911 royal visit

Continuity and change

One reason we study history is to see how life was different in the past. We can also see how an idea or a piece of technology evolved over time.

Continuity and change exist on a scale, between 'no change' and 'completely different', as shown below.

Continuity and change can exist at the same time: some things stay the same, while others change. Change can be fast or slow, happen gradually or in a burst.

Scale of change from least (on the left) to most (on the right)

No change at all (e.g. human DNA)	A bit different (e.g. food)	Quite different (e.g. attitudes to race, gender and sexuality)	Completely different (e.g. transportation technology)

I can describe continuity and change

Describing continuity and change means that you have to both recognise it and describe what you recognise. You should do this by writing descriptive sentences that use historical evidence to back up your claim.

Civilisation	Earlier time	Later time	Continuity between these times	Change between these times
First Nations Peoples of Australia	60 000 BCE: small number of First Nations People in the north	100 CE: First Nations Peoples had spread across the entire continent	First Nations Peoples lived in tribal groups	First Nations Peoples were spread across the whole of Australia
Imperial China	221 BCE: Qin Dynasty founded	1911: Wuchang Rebellion	China's economy is primarily agricultural	Imperial government and bureaucracy is overthrown

Source 5

A lion-dog statue from China's Forbidden City, which was built in 1420 and still stands today

I can explain why something did or did not change

Explanations require you to answer the question *why?* When explaining continuity and change, you need to:

- recognise it
- describe it
- know what caused it, or what effect it had.

step 3 I can explain patterns of continuity and change

Examples of patterns of continuity include:

- close family bonds
- the importance of food
- the impact of disease
- natural disasters.

Examples of patterns of change include:

- the improvement in technology
- the rise in population
- the spread of new ideas.

So you would need to explain *how* or *why* one of these things occurred. An example of explaining a pattern of continuity:

> **Racism has been common in Australian society from the colonial era until the present. Why is this?**
>
> **In the 1700s, when Europeans first came to Australia, white people believed themselves to be superior in intellect and work ethic to other races. We now know that none of this is true. There are very few physical differences between 'races'; culture and upbringing account for other differences, not biology.**
>
> **Still, racism remains. Too many people are accustomed to seeing those that look different as a cause of fear, because they don't understand them.**

step 4 I can analyse patterns of continuity and change

Analysing involves breaking a pattern down into its parts. If you can identify these different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing.

To analyse a pattern of continuity or change, you need to consider the different elements of the pattern and see how they interacted over time to produce an overall outcome.

An example of analysing a pattern of change is as follows:

> **A major change in Australia's foreign policy since 1900 has been the weakening of ties with Britain.**
>
> **It began during World War I, when the mishandling of the Gallipoli campaign by British commanders led to defeat. Australians felt their military forces should be led by Australians. WWI also saw the end of Britain's dominance of the globe, replaced as global leader by the USA.**
>
> **After WWI, but especially after WWII, Britain began to integrate more closely with the rest of Europe and weakened ties with its former colonial possessions. At the same time, US culture became influential in Australia.**
>
> **Ultimately, the effect of these changes was that Australia became less politically entangled with Britain, even though the Queen remains Australia's head of state.**

Source 6

Australian soldiers and American sailors socialise in Brisbane during World War II. [Photo from Australian War Memorial 008871]

step 5

I can evaluate patterns of continuity and change

Evaluation is a higher-order thinking skill. It involves remembering what you have learned and being able to use that information to make sense of something or make a judgement.

Evaluation can involve:

- assessing whether a theory or belief is true; for example, 'Is it true that all empires rise and fall?'
- comparing different ideas; for example, 'Which is a better job: working as a farmer or working as a miner?'
- judging between different things; for example, 'Some people think British rule was positive for the Indian people, while others think it was negative: who is right?'
- asking 'So what?'; for example, 'Was it a good or bad thing? Or was it both good and bad?'. A historian might include both positive and negative aspects to form a balanced view, as shown in this table. (See the key in the next column for an explanation of the colours.)

Each balanced view in the table contains four elements:

1. A statement about whether the situation was a continuity or a change.
2. A statement showing the positive aspect of it.
3. A statement showing the negative aspect of it.
4. A statement summarising the balance.

There is no 'right' answer when evaluating. Having a balanced view is not always the best answer, either. For example, it would be impossible to argue for the benefits of Hitler's policy to exterminate specific groups of people. However, some answers are better or worse than others. Better answers:

- use more historical evidence as examples in their evaluation
- use more logical reasoning – they show directly how beneficial the patterns of change were.

Situation	Positive thing	Negative thing	Balanced view
Continuity: The Japanese policy of *sakoku* forbade foreigners from entering the country	The policy protected the Japanese from foreign pirates and preserved their culture	Japanese technology was less advanced than that of industrialised nations	The policy of *sakoku* kept Japanese society isolated for more than 200 years. Foreign pirates were prevented from entering Japanese waters, and Japanese culture did not become diluted by Western ideas or religions. However, because it was not part of the Industrial Revolution, Japanese technology was quickly outmatched by that of Western nations. Ultimately, *sakoku* weakened Japan and left it vulnerable to the political and military manoeuvring of the United States and other nations.
Change: The restrictions on race in Australia's *Defence Act* were amended in 1917	Some First Nations men were able to earn a living as soldiers	First Nations veterans of WWI were treated badly at home	Because of the demands of WWI, the Australian government amended the 1903 *Defence Act* to allow some First Nations men to enlist. These soldiers earned better wages than they could at home, and were treated with respect. However, many died in battle, and the survivors were not given the same aid and benefits as white veterans. Overall, though, this was a positive step towards First Nations People becoming citizens and having the same rights as all other Australians.

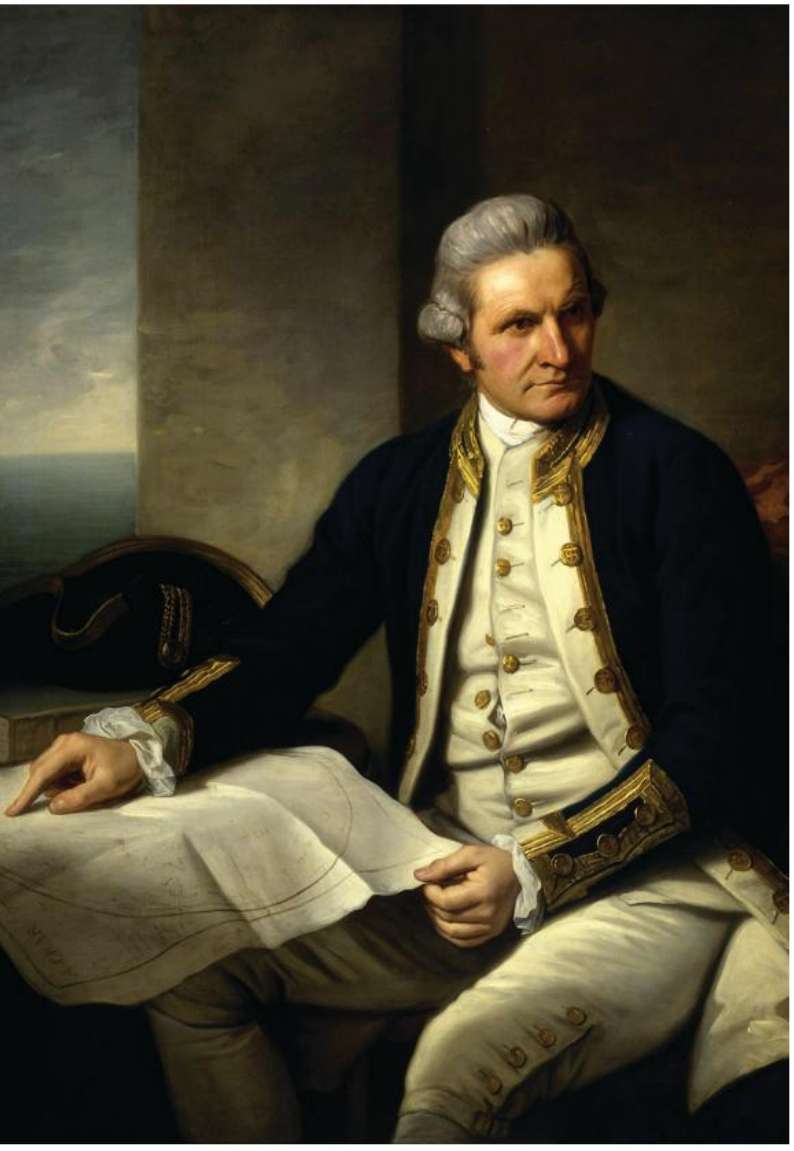
Cause and effect

Cause and effect is visible every day. For example, when we open the fridge, the light comes on; when we wave our hand, the bus stops for us.

There are short-term and long-term causes. The short-term cause of the fridge light coming on is opening the door. The long-term cause is because we are hungry. Equally, there are short-term and long-term effects. After I wave my hand, the short-term effect is that the bus stops. The long-term effect is that I arrive at school on time.

Source 7

Nathaniel Dance-Holland, *Captain James Cook* (1775–1776), oil on canvas



Cause and effect requires understanding which events are linked and why. When we say things are linked by cause and effect, we say they have a *causal link*. This means that one thing *caused* the other.

Most things that happen have multiple causes and effects – some of which are more important than others. Two main types of causes are:

- historical actors: the individuals or groups involved; for example, Queen Victoria, Franz Ferdinand or Emperor Qianlong
- historical conditions: social, political, economic, cultural and environmental factors; for example, the invention of the steam engine or European political alliances in 1914.

However, just because one event happens after another, it doesn't always mean that the first event caused the second. For example, when a rooster crows in the morning, we don't think it makes the sun rise. You also need to be able to tell an acceptable story about why something caused its effect.

Events in history are not inevitable. When we study cause and effect, it can seem like things were always going to work out in a certain way. Yet, change a few conditions and things could have happened differently. If James Cook had not joined the Royal Navy in 1755, would Australia have been colonised in 1788? It is easy, with hindsight, to think our cause and effect explanations are perfect. But we need to be cautious when we make claims about cause and effect, as many events are unpredictable.

I can recognise a cause and an effect

Recognising cause and effect means correctly choosing from a list of possibilities. For example, which of these is most likely to be a cause of the Eureka Rebellion of 1854, when a group of gold miners erected a stockade in Ballarat to protest against the police?

A Gold license fees were abolished in 1855.

B The goldfields police extorted money from miners and did not protect them.

C The New South Wales government banned alcohol on the diggings.

D The Victorian economy thrived during the gold rush.

E The *Chinese Immigration Act* limited the number of Chinese immigrants allowed to enter Victoria.

The only one of these options that is linked to the conflict is B. Option A refers to a time *after* the Eureka Rebellion, so it can't be the cause. Option C refers to New South Wales, not Victoria, so it is not relevant. Option D and Option E just tell us facts that wouldn't necessarily lead to conflict.

For events to be causally linked:

- one event must come before the other
- you must be able to tell a believable story about why one event caused the other
- if possible, you should have some historical evidence that one event caused the other.

There is not necessarily a right or wrong answer, but there are better or worse answers. Better answers use more historical evidence, and have reasoning that is more logical.

I can determine causes and effects

Determining cause and effect means deciding what the cause or effect of something might be. Knowledge of the period will help with this.

Examples of historical causes include:

- conditions:
  - social
  - cultural
  - political
  - environmental
  - economic.
- actors:
  - individuals
  - groups.

If you suspect that two things are linked, see if one of the above items is the cause.

Type of cause	Example cause	Example effect
Social conditions	Industrialisation reduced the number of weaving jobs	The Luddites smashed looms and machines
Political conditions	Britain lost its American colony	Britain began a new program of establishing foreign colonies
Economic conditions	Famine in Northern China caused economic hardship	Chinese peasants rose up against the Qing dynasty
Cultural conditions	Japan's social hierarchy was set in stone	The feudal system remained in Japan for many centuries
Environmental conditions	Central Australia suffered a centuries-long megadrought	The First Nations Peoples invented sophisticated farming and hunting techniques
Individual actor	Gavrilo Princip wanted Bosnia to be part of Serbia	He assassinated Archduke Franz Ferdinand
Group actor	Britons imported the sport of cricket into India	Cricket became the most popular sport in India

step 3 I can explain causes and effects

Explaining cause and effect involves stating *how* or *why* a cause led to an effect.

Cause	Effect	*Explaining how* the cause led to the effect
The steam-powered train was invented	British people became more interested in politics and current events	The invention of steam-powered trains meant that goods and materials could now be moved faster and more cheaply around the country. This included newspapers, which were printed in London; they became larger and were circulated to rural towns and cities. This greatly improved communication, resulting in the spread of ideas, and people became more interested in politics.
Commodore Perry visited Japan in 1853 demanding trade	Japan opened up to the world and Westernised	Before 1853, Japan isolated itself from the world. When Commodore Perry from the USA came into Tokyo Bay with huge warships and demanded Japan trade with them, it forced Japan to open up to the rest of the world. The Japanese realised how less developed than other civilisations they were and began a modernisation program known as the Meiji Restoration.

step 4 I can analyse causes and effects

Analysing means the ability to break down something into its parts. If you can identify these different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing. If you can explain the rules or theories that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

The first step is being able to break something down into its parts. For example, what caused Britain to establish a colony in Australia?

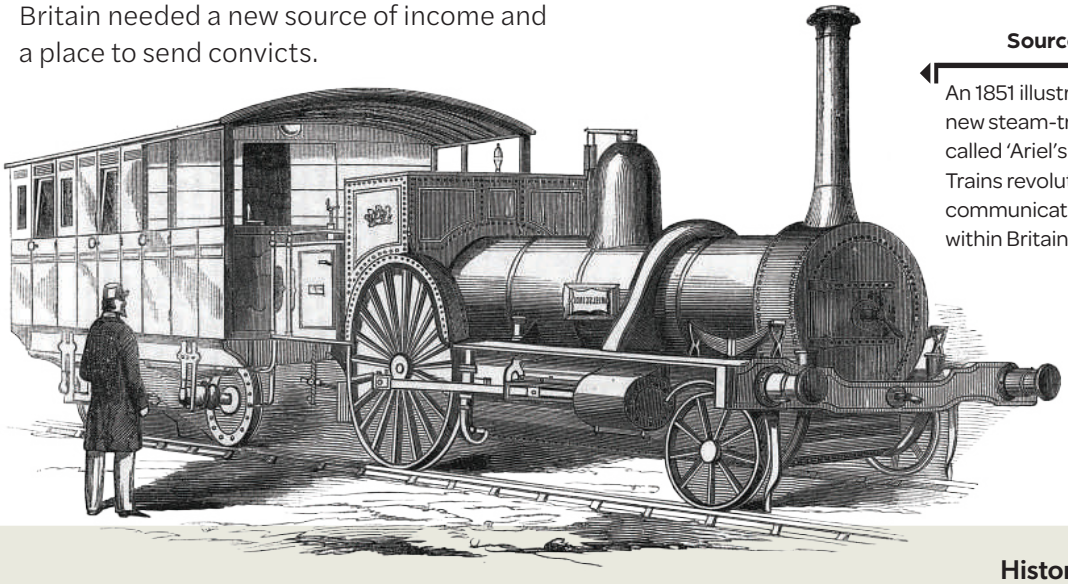
We can break the cause into four parts:

1. Britain had colonies in America.
2. Britain suffered from high crime and unemployment rates.
3. The American colonies rebelled and became independent.
4. Britain needed a new source of income and a place to send convicts.

Breaking down the cause is the first part of the analysis. Now we can try to explain how these combined causes would have led to the colonisation of Australia. For example:

> **The British Empire relied upon its American colonies as a source of income from trade, including the slave trade. At the same time, Britain was facing internal disruption from the Industrial Revolution, which led to many people becoming unemployed and some of those people turning to crime. When the American colonies rebelled and won the Revolutionary War, Britain lost both a key income source and a place to send its criminals and troublemakers.**

Here we have linked Causes 1, 2 and 3 together.



Source 8

An 1851 illustration of a new steam-train design called 'Ariel's Girdle'. Trains revolutionised communication within Britain.

Another way to analyse cause and effect is to look at how strong the causal link is. Causes can have different strengths.

Small causal link — Large causal link

Gradual, minor, almost no part, short-lived, partly, partial, to some extent, small extent

Radical, powerfully, significant, important, to a great extent, considerable, main, crucial

Once you have decided how strong a cause was, here are some words you can use to describe it.

- If something had only a minor effect you could say:

  Only a small number of Australia's First Nations Peoples were affected by trade with Indonesian Makassars, and only to a limited extent.

- If something had a major effect you could say:

  All of Australia's First Nations Peoples were affected by European colonisation, which had a radical effect on all Indigenous groups.

step 5

I can evaluate causes and effects

Evaluation is a higher-order thinking skill. Evaluation can involve:

- assessing whether a theory or belief is true or not; for example, some historians think Britain's control over India was ultimately good for the Indian people. Is this true?
- comparing different ideas; for example, which is a more important effect of the colonisation of Australia by the British: the destruction of First Nations culture or the creation of the nation of Australia?
- judging between different things; for example, some people think Japan would have Westernised eventually anyway, others think the Americans were vital in opening up Japan to the world. Who is right?
- asking, 'So what?'. Were the causes or effects good or bad, or perhaps a bit of both? A historian may include both positives and negatives to form a balanced view.

Source 9

A McDonald's restaurant in Tokyo. Japan has embraced many Western brands and concepts. Would this have happened even if the USA had not forced Japan to open its borders?

Historical significance

How do we decide what is important to learn about from the past? How do we decide which events or time periods have historical significance?

We can use a model or theory to help us decide. A useful model is Geoffrey Partington's model of significance.

Partington's model states that you can determine historical significance by asking the following questions:

1. Importance: How important was it to people living at the time?
2. Depth: How deeply were people's lives affected?
3. Number: How many people were affected?
4. Time: For how long were they affected?
5. Relevance: How relevant is it to the present?

The tables below show some examples using Partington's model of significance.

Australia's conscription plebiscites	
Importance	They were very important, as conscription would have affected every family.
Depth	People were not affected deeply, because both plebiscites failed.
Number	More than 2 million people voted in each plebiscite; the population was around 4 million people at the time.
Time	The first plebiscite was in 1916 and the second in 1917.
Relevance	They are not very relevant to today.

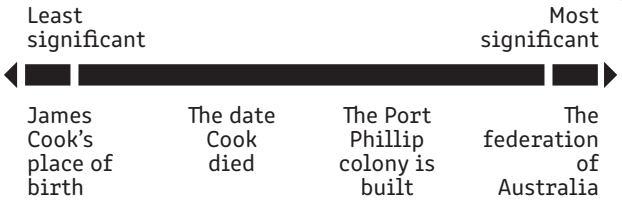
Rise of *ukiyo-e* as an urban art form in Japan	
Importance	As most citizens lived in rural areas, it was not important to many people.
Depth	It was deep for the artists and citizens who found meaning in this art.
Number	Several million people lived in Japan's cities.
Time	The artform was in use from the 17th to the 19th century.
Relevance	It is quite relevant: *ukiyo-e* is an influential art form around the world.

step 1 I can recognise historical significance

Recognising historical significance means looking at a list of events or developments and deciding how important they are. (Significant means important; something worth noting.)

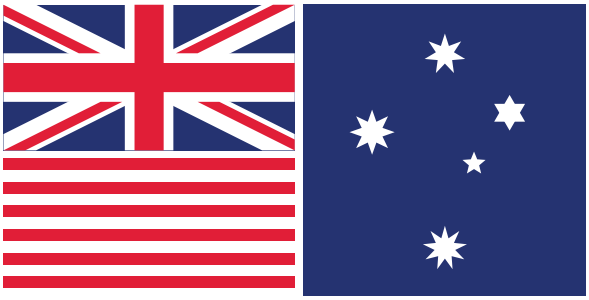
You should have some way of determining significance. You might ask: Was it important back then? Were people deeply affected? Did it affect a lot of people for a long time? Is it still relevant to modern times? The more you answer 'Yes' to these questions, the more significant the event was.

Historical significance is not a black and white issue, as it can be shown on a significance scale like the one below:



Source 10

More than 30 000 flag designs, such as this one, were considered in 1901. Only one of them was adopted as the Australian flag, and the rest are largely forgotten.



step 2 I can explain historical significance

Explaining historical significance means asking *how* or *why* something is important.

Here are some examples of significant and less significant events, based on Partington's model.

	More significant	Less significant
Importance	Federation was very important to Australia in 1901. All citizens were affected by it, as it united the different colonies together into a single self-governing nation.	The entries in the competition to select Australia's flag were not very important because there were so many of them, and only one of them became our flag.
Depth	The end of the *sakoku* policy was very significant as it affected everyone in Japan and many people in other countries.	The change in fashions that came with the Meiji Restoration, while important, was less significant, as clothing styles don't affect people as deeply as other aspects of life.
Number	The colonisation of Australia by Europeans is significant because it affected all First Nations Peoples at the time – between 300 000 and a million people.	The trading between Indonesian fishers and First Nations Australians is less significant, as it affected a much smaller number of people.
Time	The Industrial Revolution is very significant because it revolutionised technology and caused changes that still affect us 300 years later.	The invention of drones can't be considered historically significant yet because they have only been around for a few years.
Relevance	The 'Unequal Treaties' that reduced China's influence in Asia are still significant today, because China has gone to great efforts since then to regain its power and influence.	Traditional Chinese clothing is not that important today, because few people dress like that in modern China or elsewhere.

Good explanations of historical significance will discuss more than one of these elements.

Partington's model of significance is just an aid to your thinking. There are other things that could explain whether a historical event was significant. For example, a person might be important if they changed other people's ideas, or provided a good or bad example of how to live. An event might be important if it reveals underlying themes or patterns in history.

step 3

I can apply a theory of significance

Applying Partington's theory would mean looking at a set of events and ranking them against his categories. When applying his theory, use phrases such as those in the table below:

Importance	Issue A was more significant than Issue B because it was more important to people *at the time*.
Depth	Issue A is more important in history, because it affected people more *deeply* at the time than Issue B did.
Number	Issue A deserves the status of historical importance more than Issue B. Put simply, it affected more people.
Time	Issue B has been shown to be less important historically than Issue A, because it didn't last as long.
Relevance	Issue A is a more significant event than Issue B because it is still relevant to the present. It helps us to understand the modern world, whereas Issue B doesn't help as much.

step 4

I can analyse historical significance

Analysing means the ability to break down something into its parts. If you can identify these different parts, and explain how together they make up the whole, you are analysing. If you can explain the rules or theories that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

In the next paragraph, we will analyse the significance of the Opium Wars. Our breakdown of the topic provides us with three main points, not just one, and we can make a claim as to how each contributes to significance.

Key:

Main point

Claim

Evidence backing up claim

Summary statement

The Opium Wars of 1839–42 and 1856–60 were historically significant for several reasons. First, China was forced to allow foreign traders into the country, and to grant foreign powers rights to control their own enclaves. This ended China's cultural and political isolation. Secondly, the Wars showed that the technology of the industrialised nations was much more powerful and dangerous than Chinese technology. This provided an incentive for China to modernise and to import Western inventions and concepts. Finally, the Opium Wars left the Imperial court deeply in debt and greatly reduced in political power. This led to more populist uprisings and finally the Wuchang Rebellion. Therefore, the Opium Wars are significant because they ended isolation, pushed China to modernise and contributed to the end of the Chinese Empire.

Source 11

The key world leaders that signed the Treaty of Versailles after World War I – British Prime Minister Lloyd George, Italian Premier Vittorio Orlando, French Premier Georges Clemenceau and US President Woodrow Wilson – were all historically significant people.

Source 12

Signing of the Treaty of Nanking, at the end of the First Opium War. [John Platt, *Signing and Sealing of the Treaty of Nanking* (1846), coloured engraving.]

step 5

I can evaluate historical significance

Evaluating can mean asking, 'So what?'.
In terms of evaluating historical significance, evaluating could include:

- questioning Partington's model of significance:
  - Perhaps the model suggests that Event A is more important than Event B, but you don't agree. Evaluating would involve you explaining why you think the model of significance doesn't give the right result in this instance.
  - Maybe you think some of the questions about significance are more important than others are. Perhaps you think that relevance to today is more important than how significant it was to people at the time.
- making a judgement call about the worth of important events:
  - Were these events 'good' or 'bad' in some way? When making an evaluation like this, make sure you define what 'good' or 'bad' means in this context.

Questioning the model of significance	Some historians think the number of people directly affected is crucial when determining historical significance, but this doesn't consider the long-term effects of events. Perhaps only 50 000 First Nations Peoples were directly affected by 'Aboriginal protection' policies in the early 20th century. However, the trauma and pain caused by these policies indirectly affected all First Nations Peoples, and contributed to transgenerational trauma that still continues today. Models of significance need to consider the ongoing effects of actions, not just the number of people affected at the time.
Judging the worth of an important event	How important was the Battle of Gallipoli in 1915? Some military historians might consider this battle to be only a minor event, much less significant to the outcome of World War I than the conflicts on the Western Front. However, many Australians see this battle as extremely important, a tragic 'baptism of fire' that helped establish Australian identity and that needs to be remembered. Whether an event is 'important' may be influenced by who is considering it and their own personal context.

Historical interpretations

The way we understand history is always changing. People take sources about the past and make meaning out of them, creating 'history' as opposed to 'facts'. *Interpreting* means to explain the meaning of information; different people will look at the same facts and interpret them differently. Studying historical interpretations is called **historiography**.

So why do people have different views? Some possible reasons include:

- they might have different political or economic views, such as favouring communism or capitalism
- as time passes, society changes, so people's view of the past changes too. For instance, overt racism is unacceptable now but was much more common 100 years ago
- new information may have been found
- historians might have different biases or emphases.

There are often debates between historians about the historiography of different events from the past.

I can recognise that the past has been represented in different ways

Recognising that the past has been represented in different ways involves understanding the difference between:

- historical facts (things that we know from evidence have actually happened)
- history (when we study and interpret these facts).

Different people interpret the same facts in different ways. When a sports team wins, their fans may think the game demonstrated their team's great skill. The losing team's fans might think the game featured incorrect refereeing, bad luck and unhelpful weather. When fans describe the game to others later, they will 'represent' it in different ways – the same facts, but different interpretations.

For example, one view of the Industrial Revolution is that it dramatically improved human wellbeing. Factories made vital products, so more people could afford clothing and bedding. Another is that the Industrial Revolution made human life worse. Work became more boring, as factory labour meant doing the same thing every day, and people were crowded into unhygienic cities to find work. The same facts about the Industrial Revolution have been represented in different ways: one positive, one negative.

Source 13

Were the textile factories of the Industrial Revolution a positive or a negative thing?

step 2

I can describe historical interpretations

Describing historical interpretations is difficult because you have to recognise and then describe them, not just notice them.

Once you have recognised one or more historical interpretations, you must then write descriptive sentences. Description involves writing at length, not just listing things or using dot points. It is also a good idea to use evidence from the interpretation to support your description.

For example, during World War I, the Anzacs fought at Gallipoli. There are different historical interpretations of this military campaign. Some thought it showed Australian soldiers to be brave and noble, yet down-to-earth. Others had a different view:

> '... I now write of the Dardanelles expedition ... It is undoubtedly one of the most terrible chapters in our history ...
>
> 'Some of the finest forces on the peninsula were used in this bloody battle [on August 21] ... They and other troops were dashed against the Turkish lines, and broken. They never had a chance of holding their positions when for one brief hour they pierced the Turks' first line; and the slaughter of fine youths was appalling ... to fling them without the element of surprise, against such trenches as the Turks make, was murder ...
>
> '... for the general staff, and I fear Hamilton, officers and men have nothing but contempt. They express it fearlessly ... What I want to say to you now very seriously is that the continuous and ghastly bungling over the Dardanelles enterprise was to be expected from such a General Staff as the British Army possesses, so far as I have seen it.'

Source 14

Extract from 1915 Gallipoli letter from Keith Arthur Murdoch to Prime Minister Andrew Fisher

Here is how this historical interpretation could be described:

> **Keith Murdoch's interpretation of the Anzac campaign was negative. He points out that the commanders who ordered the attack made an error, suggesting that they committed 'murder'. Murdoch also believes that this incident led Australian soldiers to have less respect for their commanding officers, having 'nothing but contempt' instead.**

step 3

I can explain historical interpretations

Explanations require you to answer the questions 'Why?' or 'How?'. When explaining historical interpretations, you need to do one or more of these things:

- explain *why* what someone has written is a way of looking at historical facts, not just them listing those facts
- explain *why* a person interprets history in that way by referring to their political views, upbringing, biases or the new evidence they have access to
- explain *how* a person has interpreted historical facts.

Consider colonialism, which is the practice of taking over and controlling other lands. Britain was a major colonial power for many centuries. Some interpret this history as positive and some as negative. Source 15 contains one interpretation of colonialism, written in response to statements that Britain's influence was positive.

'Such responses demonstrate a profound ignorance about British imperial and colonial history, particularly about the impact of empire on not only the colonised but also the colonisers as well. But it is a state of denial about empire [...] To say that empire had "good bits" is to deny what empire entailed – namely the conquest, subjugation and exploitation of millions of people.

'It is to erase the tremendous structural and symbolic violence that empire unleashed. To praise Britain's role in abolishing the slave trade is only possible if we deny the various forms of economic, political, social and cultural violence that enabled the perpetuation of such a trade – in Britain and its empire – as well as the ongoing legacies of such forms of violence. To view empire as having "good" and "bad" bits also entails viewing the past in simplistic terms. And to claim students should only study the "good bits" of the past also begs the question: whose "good bits", exactly?'

Source 15

Extract from 2018 article, 'British Empire is still being whitewashed by the school curriculum' by historian Deana Heath

This historical interpretation could be explained like this:

> Historian Deana Heath is critical of British Imperialism and how it is taught in schools. She believes that a lot of history education only teaches the positive things about the British Empire, and not the negative things.
>
> In fact, she thinks splitting the Empire's actions into 'good' and 'bad' is too simplistic, because they must be seen together. For example, without the suppression of India's population, the modernisation of India would not have been possible.
>
> She writes like this because she is looking back into the past with a different ideology – that of equality and human rights – which was not as strong when the British Empire was at its peak.

I can analyse historical interpretations

Analysing is breaking something into its parts and explaining how they are linked or make up the whole. If you can explain the rules that show how these parts are organised, you are analysing.

When analysing historical interpretations, you could break down:

- the different reasons the writer decided to interpret the facts in that way
- the different parts or aspects of the interpretation
- a combination of the two.

The first step is always to break the interpretation down into its parts.

For example, in Australian history, some see the European colonists as 'settlers' and others see them as 'invaders'. We see this in the different ways of thinking about Australia Day. Some people call it 'Invasion Day' because it celebrates the day Europeans arrived and took land and resources from the First Nations Peoples. Here is one interpretation of Australian history.

'In this speech, Rudd turned his attention from history to the History Wars. He told us that he has no sympathy at all for those who have "refused to confront some hard truths about our past, as if our forebears were all men and women of absolute nobility, without spot or blemish". [...] he told us that he also has no sympathy for those who think we should only celebrate "renegades", "reformers" and "revolutionaries", while "neglecting" or even "deriding" the "explorers", "pioneers" and "entrepreneurs".'

Source 16

Analysis from 'The History Wars', Robert Manne, *The Monthly*, November 2009

Here is how you could analyse this historical interpretation:

> **In this text, the author argues that Kevin Rudd believes Australians need to accept the negative aspects of our history. Rudd is a left-wing politician, which means he is likely to be critical of traditional or conservative understandings of history. He is also well educated, and has learned about the violent events that happened in Australia's past. Rudd was also the politician who gave 'The National Apology to the Stolen Generations'; in this speech, he called for action to be taken to repair the damage caused. These three things together show why Rudd interpreted history and spoke the way he did.**

Source 17

The British Empire established India's railway network, but also denied Indians their right to self-government. Bharatpur station, Rajasthan, India.

step 5 I can evaluate historical interpretations

Evaluation is a higher order thinking skill. Evaluation can include:

- assessing whether a theory or belief is true or not. Some historians think the Industrial Revolution could only have happened in Great Britain. Is this true?
- comparing different ideas. Which was the more significant factor in the abolition of slavery – the changing values of everyday people or the actions of a few passionate abolitionists?
- judging between different things. Some historians think Australia's contribution in World War I didn't have much impact, while others think Australia's support was vital. Who is right?
- asking 'So what?'. Were the causes or effects good or bad, or perhaps both? A historian may include both positives and negatives to form a balanced view.

Situation	Positive thing	Negative thing	Balanced view
British Imperialism in India	The British built railways and introduced a common language.	The British took India's natural resources and didn't let Indians rule themselves.	The British rule in India had benefits and disadvantages. On the one hand, the British introduced democracy, a common language and built thousands of kilometres of railway tracks. On the other hand, they also ruled over the Indians, denying them independence, and took many of their natural resources to enrich the British Empire.
Japan's modernisation after being confronted by US warships	Japan was able to copy technology from the West and modernise very quickly.	Japan's independence was challenged and some of its culture was lost as it copied the West.	When Japan modernised during the Meiji Restoration, parts of Japanese culture were lost as the country sought to imitate the West. However, the country benefitted from being able to copy Western technology and institutions, which allowed it to modernise much faster than other countries.

Historical writing

I can identify the writing purpose

If you are given a writing task, it will usually involve certain 'task words', such as *analyse, argue* and *compare.* These task words are explained below.

- *analyse*: look at the features of something, showing the relationships between the parts, how they're related and why they're important
- *argue*: make a case for or against something
- *compare*: discuss two things, emphasising what is the same and what is different between them
- *contrast*: discuss two things, emphasising what is different between them
- *describe*: write a detailed description of something, showing what something looks like, what it is for and how it works. Don't judge.
- *discuss*: write about something, talking about the arguments for and against and issue. Provide a balanced description, but make a judgement at the end.
- *evaluate*: make a judgment about something, but back it up with lots of evidence.
- *explain*: answer the question 'Why?' about something. Go into detail about the reasons for it, causes of it and effects of it.
- *justify*: provide reasons why a decision was or should be made, or why a conclusion was reached.
- *summarise*: briefly state the main points. Leave out the details.

After you know your purpose, figure out:

- *what kind of information you need to gather.* This relates to Stage 2 of the history-writing process: gathering information. Gather the right kind of information – but avoid gathering lots of irrelevant material.
- *how that information should be organised.* You will eventually need to write up any information you have gathered. How you do that – and what structure your writing takes – should be determined by the purpose of the writing.

Here is an example history-writing question, and how it can be tackled: 'Discuss how important Bal Gangadhar Tilak was in the political campaign for Indian independence.'

This is a 'discuss' type question, so it is asking us to write about the topic, discussing arguments for and against it. You should discuss both sides but also make a judgement.

Information needed to answer the question:

- details about the Tilak's political activities (but *not* details about every aspect of his life)
- details about the campaign for Indian independence. Gather information about the history of the campaign, especially the period before or during World War I.

How should that information be organised? A graphic organiser like the one below is a great way to structure your note-taking.

	General information	Evidence Tilak was important in the campaign	Evidence Tilak was not that important in the campaign
Tilak's political activities	○ ○ ○	○ ○ ○	○ ○ ○
The campaign for Indian independence	○ ○ ○	○ ○ ○	○ ○ ○

step 2 I can gather information

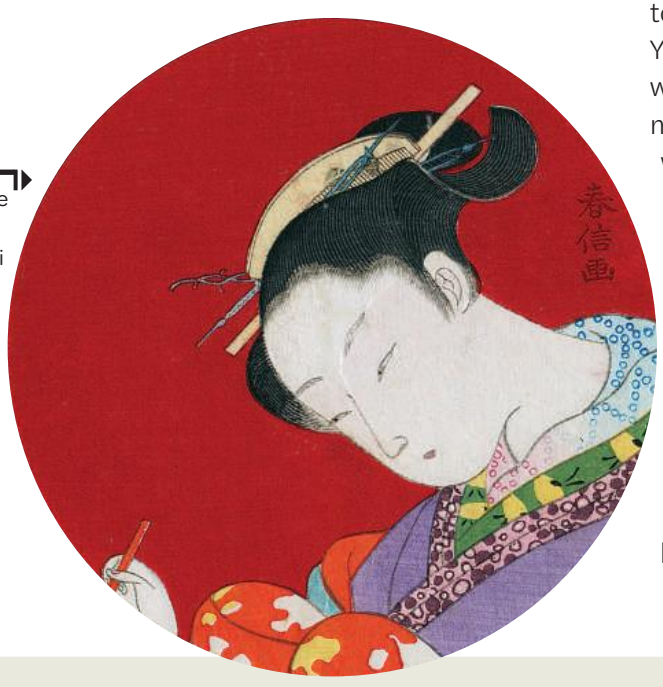
Good history writing involves providing lots of evidence. The more *relevant* information you use, the better. Relevant means the information is closely connected to what is being studied.

Gathering information will involve taking notes from historical sources. Academic historians look at many primary and secondary sources. For most school projects, you are likely to rely on secondary sources. Secondary sources provide a wide range of easily accessible information for young people. Textbooks and reference books are easy to obtain, relatively cheap, easy to read and contain pictures, facts, explanations and examples.

Follow these steps when taking notes for your history writing:

1. Purpose: *why* am I taking notes?
2. Organise: use a graphic organiser or codes
3. Skim-read the source. This is so:
   – you can look for topics, headings and so on
   – you *don't* have to read the entire source.
4. Find the *most* important information *for your purpose*:
   – rewrite it in your own words
   – write as briefly as possible
   – include keywords, and definitions of any words you don't know.

Source 18



A 1920s Japanese woodcut of a woman by Suzuki Harunobu, printed as a postcard, showing the art styles of the Taisho Period

step 3 I can organise information

Two ways to organise your information are to use a graphic organiser or use codes.

A graphic organiser is best for:

- when you know in advance the kind of information you will be taking notes about
- when the question you are answering has obvious parts to it that you can divide information into; for example, for and against.

Using codes is a process that involves:

- taking notes
- reading through your notes several times and seeing what patterns, themes or categories emerge
- making up a code for each pattern, theme or category; for example, 'W' for *war*; 'I' for *individual*; 'WWI' for *World War I*
- going through your notes and writing the code beside each point
- rewriting your notes in the code categories (This is much easier if you have taken notes electronically, because you can change their order without having to rewrite them.)
- using your notes in their coded categories to form the basis of your essay structure.

With either of these methods, don't forget to ask yourself which notes you should *not* use. You will always take notes that you thought were important but later realise don't actually matter. Get rid of them. Remember: the final written piece is what is most important, not your notes. Don't worry that you spent time writing those notes in the first place, because only your final piece of writing matters. Next time, try to take fewer irrelevant notes.

Here is an example of the process, with all the steps from note-taking to organising your notes.

Essay question: 'Did the Taisho Period bring stability and prosperity to Japan?'

1 Original notes

- Japan had three different Prime Ministers in 1912–1913 due to political infighting.
- Japan entered WWI as an ally of Britain against its enemies China and Germany.
- After WWI, Japan gained respect as a world power and annexed territories in the Pacific.
- Artistic, political and cultural movements thrived in urban centres.
- Women gained more rights and social status.
- Debts and food prices skyrocketed in rural areas.
- The *Kome Sodo* Rice Riots of 1918 led to martial law.
- The *Peace Preservation Act* of 1925 banned anything dangerous to 'the national essence'.
- Rapid industrialisation – Japan went from 29 km of train tracks in 1872 to more than 11 000 km by 1914.
- The policy of *o-yatoi gaikokujin* brought in foreign experts.

3 Notes not needed:

- Japan entered WWI as an ally of Britain against its enemies China and Germany.
- Rapid industrialisation – Japan went from 29 km of train tracks in 1872 to more than 11 000 km by 1914.

4 You could then put your notes into paragraphs:

- Taisho Period brought stability and prosperity: social change in cities, greater involvement in world affairs
- Taisho Period did not bring stability and prosperity: riots and food shortages in rural areas, increased government control

2 Put into a graphic organiser, the notes look like this:

	Taisho Period brought stability and prosperity	Taisho Period did not bring stability and prosperity
Social change	Artistic, political and cultural movements thrived in urban centres. Women gained more rights and social status.	Debts and food prices skyrocketed in rural areas. The Kome Sodo Rice Riots of 1918 led to martial law.
Political actions	After WWI, Japan gained respect as a world power and annexed territories in the Pacific. The policy of *o-yatoi gaikokujin* brought in foreign experts.	Japan had three different Prime Ministers in 1912–1913 due to political infighting. The Peace Preservation Act of 1925 banned anything dangerous to 'the national essence'.

step 4

I can structure a piece of writing

History essays should have an introduction, several body paragraphs and a conclusion.

When you are starting out writing essays, a paragraph structure that is easy to learn is **TEEL**. TEEL is an acronym for:

- Topic sentence
- Evidence
- Explanation
- Link.

These words are explained below. Every paragraph should have TEEL.

Introduction

The introduction should:

- show you understand what the question is asking
- say your overall response to the question
- introduce the main points.

Paragraphs using TEEL

Paragraphs using TEEL should include:

- Topic sentence: one sentence that summarises the whole paragraph
- Evidence: use *specific* examples, not general examples
- Explanation: how evidence supports your claim
- Link: at the end of the whole paragraph, link the main point in the paragraph back to the main question.

Conclusion

In your conclusion, make sure to:

- summarise your main points
- restate your response to the question.

I can write a draft

Drafting tips

- Focus on answering the question; don't just write everything you know about the subject.
- Don't worry about making mistakes when drafting – you will fix this later.
- Don't worry too much about punctuation, grammar or spelling when drafting.
- Start with the paragraphs. Draft the introduction and conclusion last.
- If you can, use a computer, as it makes it easier to edit and proofread your work later.
- Write the first draft quickly. Then edit and proofread slowly.

Sentence starters

Here are some sentence starters for introductions:

- This essay will discuss ...
- This essay will focus on ...
- The issue being focused on is ...

Other words you could use in sentence starters in place of *focused* are:

- described
- analysed
- evaluated
- explained
- explored
- justified
- outlined.

For conclusions, some starters include:

- In conclusion, ...
- In summary, ...
- It has been shown/demonstrated that ...
- Therefore/Thus/Hence, ...
- To summarise, ...

For comparing within your answer (when things are the same):

- By comparison, ...
- In the same way, ...
- Likewise, ...
- Similarly, ...

For comparing (when things are different):

- However, ...
- In contrast, ...
- On the other hand, ...
- Then again, ...

For adding more:

- Additionally, ...
- Also, ...
- First, ... Second, ... Third, ... Finally, ...
- Furthermore, ...
- In addition, ...
- Moreover, ...

For giving examples:

- For example, ...
- For instance, ...
- An illustration of this is ...
- As an example, ...
- ... such as ...

For showing effects:

- As a result, ...
- For this reason ...
- It can be seen that ...
- The evidence suggests ...
- The result of this is that ...
- These factors contribute to ...

Different ways to say 'caused':

- resulted in
- created
- lead to
- determined
- is attributed to
- meant that
- is dependent on
- forced
- made.

I can edit and proofread

The point of writing is to communicate – using words to pass ideas from you to another person. So, keep your writing clear and simple.

Editing means checking for meaning, to make sure your text answers the question and meets the task requirements. For example, does your writing need a bibliography? Does it need labelled pictures? Proofreading means checking the grammar, spelling and punctuation of your work. Always edit first, then proofread.

Editing tips

- Always use headings, unless told otherwise.
- Delete any words, sentences or paragraphs that do not help the piece of writing overall.
- Check what you have written against the requirements of the task. Ask yourself:
  - does my writing answer the question asked?
  - is it clear that I have done the full task?
  - is there an assessment schedule or rubric my writing will be marked against? Mark yourself against these criteria. Is there time to improve at least one aspect of what you have written?
- What is your worst paragraph? Why? What would it take to make it your best paragraph?

Proofreading tips

Proofreading is going back over your finished work and looking for errors.

- Don't try to fix every problem at once. Pick one thing to correct each time you proofread. For example, first look at spelling, then look at punctuation, then look at confused words, then look at making your vocabulary more interesting.
- Read your work aloud. Even better, record it, then play it back to yourself a bit later.
- Ask someone else to read your work aloud.
- Read sentences backwards to check for mistakes. This will help you pick up more errors.
- If you know you are a bad speller, don't trust your instincts. Check words you are unsure about in the dictionary.
- Spellcheckers are not perfect. A word can be spelled correctly but still be the wrong word, so don't rely on a spellchecker!
- Read a printed copy of your work, rather than reading on screen.

Common errors

Following is a list of common errors:

- only use apostrophes for shortening words and ownership, not for plurals
- write short sentences, preferably less than 25 words
- only use capital letters at the start of sentences and for proper nouns
- confusing 'your' and 'you're'
- confusing 'there', 'their' and 'they're'
- writing informally: don't use 'I' (unless told to), '&', 'etc.', 'e.g.', 'i.e.', 'wanna', 'heaps', 'stuff'
- could of / would of / should of are incorrect; replace with could have / would have / should have
- confusing 'to', 'too' and two'
- confusing 'much/many': much = for an item that can't be counted (e.g. water), many = individual item that can be counted
- then = something happening after something else; than = comparing
- subject–verb agreement. If the subject is a plural, the verb must be too, for example 'towels *are* in the closet'
- be careful about starting a sentence with 'and', 'but' or 'because'
- a full sentence should have a subject (doer), verb (action) and an object (the thing the verb is happening to)
- use the same tense (future, present, past) in the whole text
- avoid using boring words: very, good, bad, amazing, interesting, crazy, mad, extremely
- avoid 'passive' sentences. Instead of 'The warships were commanded by Commodore Perry', write 'Commodore Perry commanded the warships'.

Historical research

I can define the problem

To define the subject you will research, get some background information and build up a list of keywords.

Start by reading a simple Wikipedia page about your subject.

Get keywords for your topic. Think of different ways of saying your topic, or google 'synonyms for ...' and insert your search term.

I can decide what information to find and where to find it

What type of evidence do you want?

Include these kinds of words in your search:

- facts, examples, definitions, quotes, artefacts, images, data, statistics
- primary and secondary sources
- databases, links, archives, collections, references, research, museums, journals, graphs, tables, letters.

Where is your evidence?

There are many different types of websites to look at: scholarly works, databases, archives, reference sources and information pages.

How credible is the evidence?

Ask yourself the following questions:

- Is the content *relevant*? Is it useful for my purpose? Does it contain links to other relevant sources? Is it at an appropriate reading level?
- Is the source *reliable*? What type of source is it? (Published or official sources are better.) Who is the author? (Experts are better.) When was it published? (Newer is usually better.) In what way is the source biased?
- Is the source *true*? Is it backed up by other sources? Does it *sound* right? Does it fit in with other things you know?
- Does the source state where its information comes from? This means it is more likely to be credible (able to be believed).

I can find information

Online search strategies

Following are some search strategies:

- After you type in a search term, scan through the first page of results. If they are not relevant, change your search.
- Start with a wide search, then get more specific.
- Learn *from* your search. Change what you are searching for based on what you learn after you start searching.
- Be ready to stop a search if it is taking you in the wrong direction.

Tips for searching with Google

- Every word matters
- The order of the words matters
- Capitalisation doesn't matter
- Punctuation doesn't matter
- Specific search terms are better

- Use these capitalised terms to narrow your search: AND, OR, NOT.
- A search with 'filetype:' will find specific files. For example, 'Meiji Restoration filetype:ppt' will find PowerPoint files about the Meiji Restoration.
- A search with 'site:' will find things *within* a website. For example: 'World War One site: britishmuseum.org' will find WWI-related material from the British Museum website.
- Use Google's subject tabs to search by category, such as images, news and maps.
- Use a hyphen to exclude words and narrow your search. For example, adding a hyphen to the search 'Danish -pastry' will find information about Danish people and culture but exclude the term pastry, to avoid finding information on Danish pastries.
- Search for a range of numbers using two full stops between speech marks: '..' For example:
  - '2001..2004' searches between 2001 and 2004
  - '..2004' searches before 2004.
  - '2004..' searches after 2004.
- An asterisk acts as a wildcard. So, for example, 'teen*' will return results with any of the words *teen, teens, teenager* in them.
- Use exact phrase searching by putting speech marks around a search to find exact text.

step 4

I can extract information

This note-taking stage is the same as Step 2 in the Historical writing section. Read that section on page 260.

step 5

I can organise and present information

This stage is very similar to Step 3 in the Historical writing section. Read that section on page 260.

Research will be presented in a number of different ways, and will usually include some history writing. History writing is generally presented as text with perhaps some supporting pictures.

You should also edit and proofread your research, just as you do with your writing. Read Step 6 from the Historical writing section on page 263.

step 6

I can evaluate information

You can improve every time you conduct research by asking yourself these questions after you finish:

- What worked? What didn't work?
- How could I work smarter next time?
- Can I apply what I've learnt to other situations?
- How could I have improved:
  - the project?
  - the way I worked on my project?
  - the way I managed my time?

Glossary

abdicate/abdication to formally give up a position of power

annex the act of one state claiming sovereignty over another state's territory

antiquated old-fashioned or outdated

arithmetic change/growth change or growth that occurs at a constant rate over a set period of time; for example, 1, 2, 3, 4 ...

armistice an agreement to lay down arms and stop fighting

artillery large weapons capable of launching heavy munitions much further than traditional guns

assimilation replacing the language and culture of a non-dominant social group with those of the dominant social group

autocratic a type of government rule in which power is held by one person

autonomy self-government

bias to show preference for or prejudice towards something

bayonet a bladed weapon, generally a knife or sword, attached to the end of a rifle, allowing it to be used as a spear in close combat

blackbirding the process where Pacific Islanders were duped, kidnapped or coerced into boarding ships for Australia, only to end up working on the sugar and cotton plantations of Queensland for extremely low wages

blockade sealing off an area or region to prevent the flow of people and goods

bond a loan taken out by a company, where investors buy the bonds; in exchange for the **capital**, the company pays an annual interest rate on the bond

boycott to intentionally abstain from an activity, from using or buying a product, or from interacting with a person, group, state or country usually for moral, social or political reasons

capital wealth in the form of money or other assets that is available for investing

capitalism a political and economic system in which private individuals and companies own property and goods, rather than the government; the companies or individuals then compete to make a profit

caste a class structure that is determined by birth

colonise to settle in, and take control of, an area away from one's home territory

communism when a nation is run by an authoritarian government featuring a planned economy with equally shared resources

conciliator a person who mediates or negotiates between two groups in a dispute

concubine in 19th-century China, a woman who lived in the imperial palace whose job was to keep the emperor entertained; it was considered an honour to be an emperor's concubine

conscription a system where eligible people (usually young men) are forced to enter the army for a certain period

conscripts people who are conscripted into a military force

constitution the basic laws and principles of a nation or state

constitutional monarchy a democracy that also has a monarch; the monarch's role is mainly ceremonial, while true power lies with the government

democracy a political system that allows each individual to participate; most democracies are republics – states where the people elect representatives to form and manage the government

despot a ruler who wields absolute power

dictatorship when a nation is run by an authoritarian government where a single individual rules the country and makes all of the decisions

dispossession the act of depriving someone of land, property or other possessions

dowager a woman who holds a title or property from her deceased husband, especially the widow of a king or emperor

dynasties systems of rule where one family maintains power over many years by handing on the throne to an heir, usually the oldest son

economist a person who studies how we produce and consume products and how wealth is established and distributed

electorate a geographically defined area represented by a single member of parliament

emancipist a former convict who had completed their sentence or been granted a pardon

enclosure where land was divided into farms surrounded by fences or hedges

entente a French term meaning 'friendly understanding'

entrepreneur a person with the ability to organise the factors of production and transform them into a business

envoy a messenger or representative

expansionist a policy of territorial expansion (the act of becoming larger)

expatriate a person who lives outside their country of birth

exponential change/growth change or growth that occurs more and more rapidly over a set period of time; for example, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32 ...

fixed rate the interest rate on a loan, where the rate does not increase or decrease during the fixed rate period of the loan

floating rate the interest rate on a loan, where the interest rate increases or decreases over the life of the loan according to market conditions; also known as a variable rate

foxhole a hole in the ground used by soldiers to provide cover from gunfire

genocide the deliberate killing of a large group of people because of their nationality or ethnic group. The United Nations defines five acts that are committed with intent to destroy the whole or a part of a national, ethnic, racial or religious group including killing, causing physical or mental harm, preventing births or transferring children.

globalisation when businesses and other organisations interact and integrate with businesses, organisations and people worldwide

global warming the unnatural rise in Earth's temperature linked to the increase of fossil fuel use since the Industrial Revolution

guarantor a financial term describing a person who promises to pay another borrower's debt if the borrower defaults on the loan (cannot keep up with loan repayments)

guerrilla a member of a small group taking part in impromptu fighting, typically against a larger more-organised force

handicrafts objects made by hand

historian a person who specialises in the study of history by using evidence to answer questions about the past

historiography the study of the methods of history and historical interpretations

home front the civilian population and daily activities of a nation whose armed forces are fighting overseas

honorific a title or word used to show respect

House of Representatives the lower house of the bicameral Australian Parliament; it is made up of 151 democratically elected members who act on behalf of their electorate to pass new laws or make amendments to existing laws

humanistic describing a system of thought with primary importance attached to human rather than religious matters

imperialism the policy or ideology of extending a country's power and influence, usually through colonisation or military force

indemnified compensated or cleared of blame

indigo a shrub with red or purple flowers, used as a source of indigo dye

industrialise to introduce industry to an area; to use machinery to do things previously done by hand

indigenous the original or earliest known inhabitants of an area in contrast to groups that have colonised more recently; also known as First Peoples, First Nations Peoples or aboriginal peoples

infanticide the killing of an infant

innovation the creation, development and implementation of a unique idea, product, process or service

isolationism a policy of not engaging in the affairs of other nations

manufacturing the making of products for use or sale using labour and/or machinery

mechanisation the use of machines to replace, wholly or in part, the work of humans and/or animals

member of parliament (MP) a member of the House or Representatives in the Australian Parliament, who acts on behalf of their electorate

Men's Business when a council of male Australian First Nations Elders comes together to initiate, teach and regulate spiritual and legal matters

mercantilism a system of profitable trading based on the idea that increasing exports would increase a nation's power

merchant a person or company involved in wholesale trade

messiah the holy saviour of a cause or people

microhistory a genre of history centred on small and focused research, such as interviewing an individual to gain a perspective on the big picture

militarism the idea that a country should maintain a strong army to defend or promote its national interests

millennium, millennia (plural) a period of one thousand years

moiety a system of kinship used by First Nations Peoples of Australia to divide the community into groups that reflect environmental, regional, matrilineal (through the mother), patrilineal (through the father) and generational factors

monarch a sovereign head of state; usually a king, queen or emperor

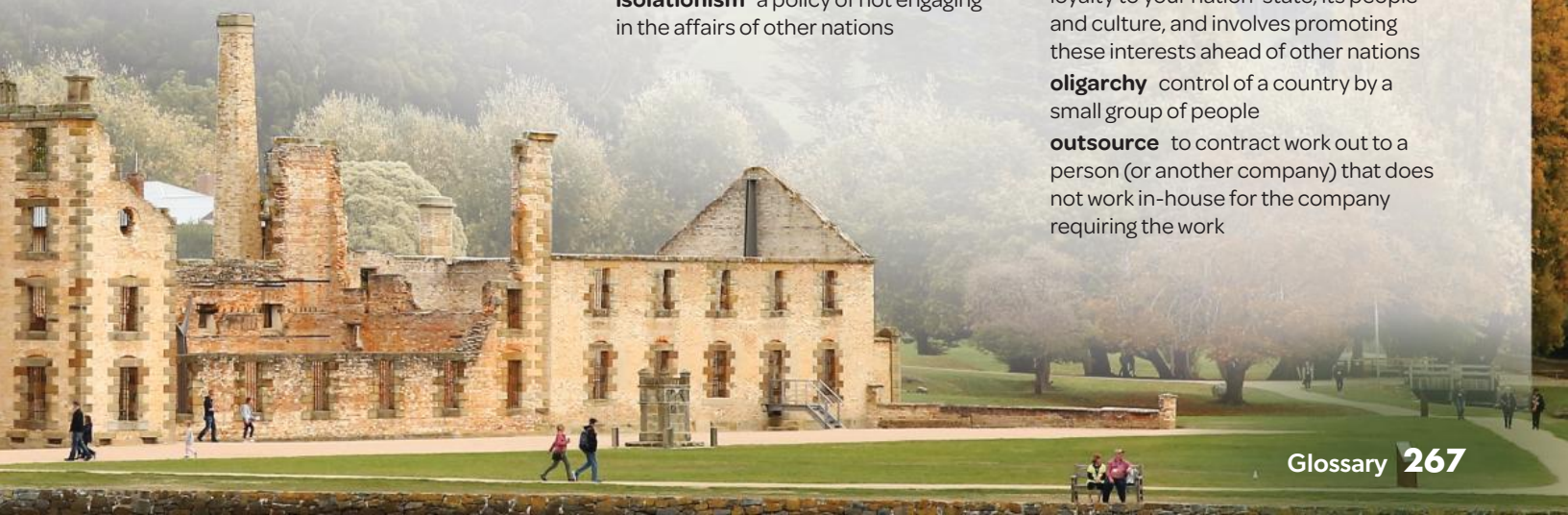
monarchy where one person inherits the position of head of state, and is the final word in government; a constitutional monarchy

monetisation earning revenue from something; e.g. a product or a service

nationalism/nationalist extreme loyalty to your nation-state, its people and culture, and involves promoting these interests ahead of other nations

oligarchy control of a country by a small group of people

outsource to contract work out to a person (or another company) that does not work in-house for the company requiring the work



paddle steamer a boat powered by a steam engine that turns large paddle wheels

peninsula a coastal landform projecting out into a large body of water, such as a sea or an ocean

phenomenon something that is observed to exist or happen

plebiscite a non-binding vote on a proposed law, generally used to gauge public opinion

political party an organisation that represents a particular group of people or a set of ideas, values or philosophies

populist/populism a political stance that emphasises the (morally good) 'people' against the (morally corrupt) 'elite'

primary source a source that was created or existed at the time under study, such as a book, a letter, an artefact or a building

privy a toilet located outside a house

Raj a Hindi word meaning 'rule' or 'government'; used to describe the British government in India

referendum, referenda (plural) a vote by the electorate on a specific political question posed by the government

regent a person appointed to temporarily administer a state because the monarch is currently too young

republic a state or region ruled or governed by the people or their elected representatives, independent of a monarch

restitution the return or replacement of something lost or stolen

revolution a radical change to an established system or process

savings account a personal bank account where money is deposited, sometimes with a limit on the number of withdrawals

secondary source a source created after the time under study, such as a textbook, website or documentary

sedition speaking out or inciting protest against a government or monarch

Senate the upper house of the bicameral Australian Parliament; it is made up of 76 democratically elected members who represent the views of their constituents, debate and vote on bills and scrutinise the work of the government

senator a member of the Australian Senate, elected to represent a state or territory

skin name a system of kinship used by First Nations Peoples of Australia that relates to a person's genetic matrilineal or patrilineal lines

socialism a political and economic system in which communities control businesses and industry for the benefit of their members

socialist someone who advocates for or believes in socialism

sovereignty the authority of a state or nation to govern itself independently of other nations

status quo a Latin phrase meaning 'the existing state of affairs'; usually relates to politics

stockade a defensive barrier or fence

subversive something that is intended to reverse the principals, morals or norms of a current system or system of thought

suffrage the right to vote in political elections

suffragette women who participated in direct or even violent protest to demand voting rights

suffragists women who advocated for the right to vote rather than engaging in direct protest

republic states where the people elect representatives to form and manage the government

temperance movement a social movement that promoted moderation in, and often complete abstinence from, the consumption of alcohol

totem a system of kinship used by First Nations Peoples of Australia that includes national, clan, family and personal factors

trade union an organisation that protects and promotes the rights of a specific group of workers

transgenerational trauma psychological pain that affects multiple generations

trench a narrow excavation that is generally deeper than it is wide; during World War I, multiple trenches were often connected in zigzag patterns and were used extensively to provide cover and shelter from gunfire

urbanisation a process where an increasing number of people relocate to cities from the countryside in search of work

vassal a person who or kingdom that has a mutual obligation to a lord or monarch, often including military service in return for privileges such as holding of land

Women's Business when a council of female Australian First Nations Elders comes together to initiate, teach and regulate spiritual and legal matters

zamindar in pre-colonial India, a landowner or landlord, who leased his land to tenant farmers and collected tax revenue

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