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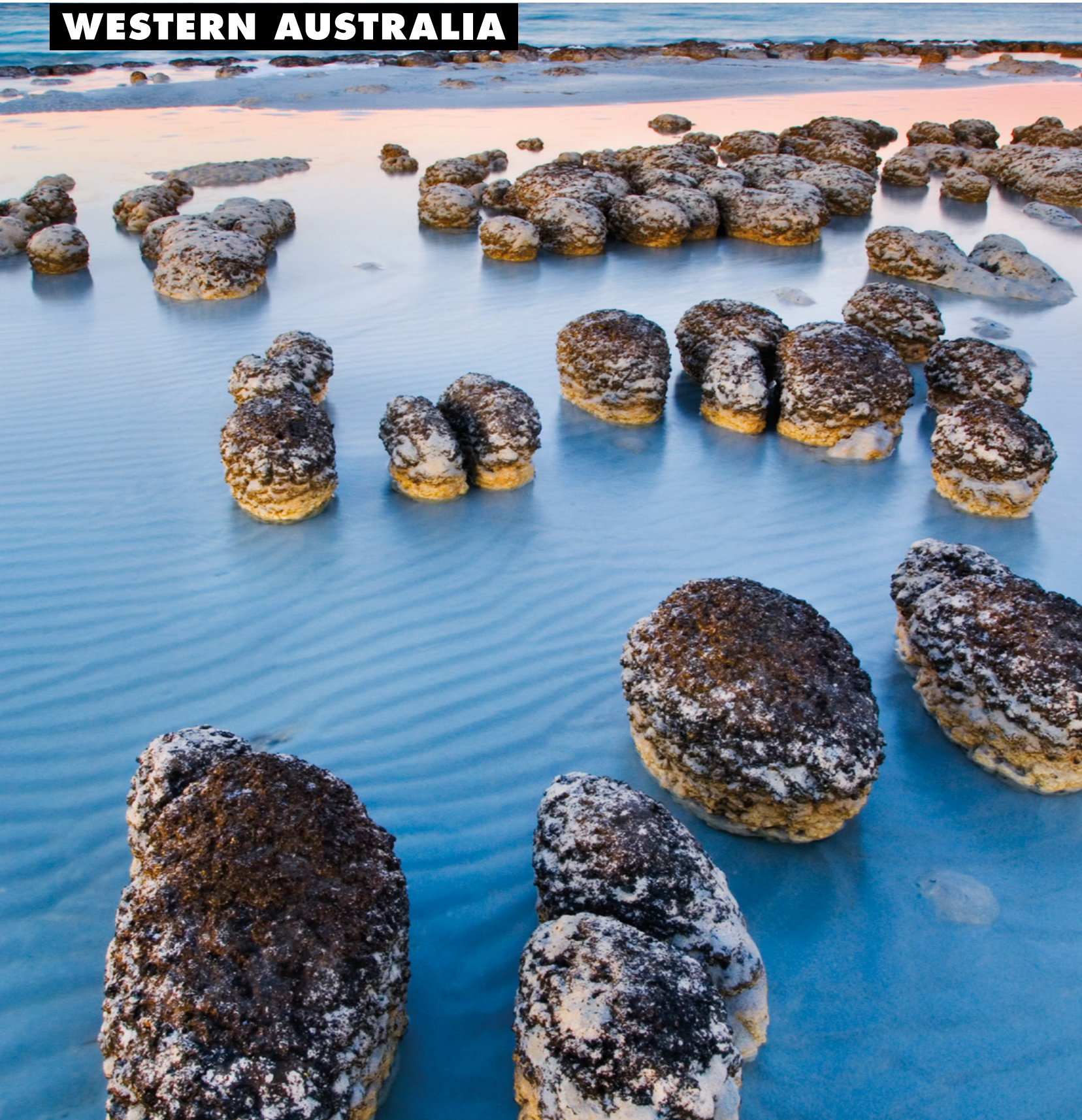
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES 9

WESTERN AUSTRALIA



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WESTERN AUSTRALIA

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HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES 9

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

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How to use this book

The Student Book is divided into the four subject strands.

CIVICS AND CITIZENSHIP

CHAPTER 1

Our democratic rights

Australia's system of **government** is a federal parliamentary democracy operating under a **constitutional monarchy**. The former means that all Australian citizens over the age of 18 are able to participate actively in some parts of government: we vote for candidates from the political parties we believe will best represent us. The latter means that our head of state is Elizabeth II, the Queen of the United Kingdom; her representative in Australia is the governor-general.

As active citizens in the 21st century, we are encouraged to play a part in political processes by voting, debating, discussing, questioning and sharing our opinions and ideas. Political parties campaign for our vote at election time, and are increasingly using new forms of technology, such as social media, to target voters and present information. Social media has transformed the world of politics in many ways and has had an impact on both the way people vote and the ways in which we communicate with each other.

Image 1.1.1 Three protesters in Sydney in 2010 are taking an active role in the political process by challenging the federal government's policy on the detention of children of asylum seekers.

ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS

CHAPTER 3

Australia and the global economy

Australia depends on the global economy in many ways. We sell or export a wide range of items and services, including minerals, live animals, cereals, tourism and education to other countries and purchase products, such as mobile phones, which are not manufactured in Australia. Being this involved in the global economy brings us benefits—we are able to purchase a greater variety of items than are available locally—but it also brings the risk that we can be affected by changes in the global environment.

Image 3.1.1 Australia may be large in land area but, in terms of resources, we are deeply dependent on the rest of the world.

GEOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 5

Biomes and food security

The vegetation of the earth's major ecosystems, or biomes, is vital for the survival of other species on earth, as plants are the basis of all food chains. Our wellbeing depends on having access to affordable food. But a complex combination of unreliable harvests, competition for agricultural lands from biofuels, higher energy prices, the surging demand for food in China and India, and distortions in world trade, are driving food prices up worldwide. Some countries are facing an increasingly dire situation, while even consumers in wealthy nations are being forced to make adjustments to their food budgets.

In this chapter we study the global distribution of biomes and how they have been altered by humans to produce food, industrial materials and fibres, and the environmental effects of these alterations. We also investigate the factors that contribute to our ability to access adequate food supplies, and the challenges of effectively feeding our growing world population in a sustainable and equitable way.

Image 5.1.1 The vegetation of the earth's biomes is vital for our survival.

HISTORY

CHAPTER 7

Overview: Making of the modern world

The important scientific discoveries in the 18th century laid the foundation for the **Industrial Revolution**, which began in England and lasted until the start of the 20th century. During the Industrial Revolution mass manufacturing began. This meant that items could now be mass-produced by people paid to perform simple but repetitive tasks. By the 19th century, huge factories had been established across Europe, and new towns and cities had grown. Technological improvements in shipping transport and weaponry led to expansion of European empires throughout the world. The establishment of European colonies in North America and Australia soon led to the beginning of a mass movement of people. This included business ventures, religious groups, slaves, convicts, army officers and free settlers looking for new opportunities in the New World.

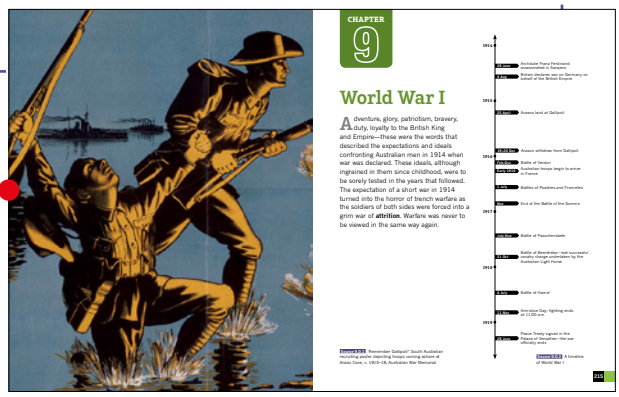
Image 7.1.1 In the 18th century the world moved towards a new 'modern' era.

Image 7.1.2 Timeline of the making of the modern world

Each chapter is divided into unit spreads of between two and four pages. The features in each chapter are outlined below.

Chapter opener

Each chapter opens with an engaging image and an introduction related to the chapter content, providing a basis for inquiry into the topic. History chapter openers also feature a timeline showing the key dates of the period covered in the chapter.



CHAPTER 9

World War I

Adventure, glory, patriotism, bravery, duty, loyalty to the British King and Empire—these were the words that described the expectations and ideals confronting Australian men in 1914 when war was declared. These ideals, although ingrained in them since childhood, were to be sorely tested in the years that followed. The expectation of a short war in 1914 turned into the horror of trench warfare as the soldiers of both sides were forced into a grim war of **attrition**. Warfare was never to be viewed in the same way again.

Image 9.1.1 Remember Gallipoli! South Australian recruiting poster depicting troops coming ashore at Anzac Cove, c. 1915–18, Australian War Memorial

Image 9.1.2 A timeline of World War I

Unit content

Content in each unit covers one or more 'Knowledge and understanding' content descriptions in the Humanities and Social Sciences syllabus. The core text is supported by primary and secondary written and visual sources. Engaging facts in 'Did you know?' features will stimulate further interest and provide additional information.

UNIT 6.15

Sport

Sport and Australian life

Hosting international events

Sydney Olympics

Colonial links and international migration

International participation

TNCs and international branding

Extreme sports

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

Applying and analysing

Evaluating and creating

Image 6.15.1 The Matildas, Australia's national women's soccer team

Image 6.15.2 Freestyle Moto X final at the X Games XI

Activities

Each unit closes with questions based on the core text and sources. The questions are categorised under Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, moving from lower order to higher order questions. The activities help build content knowledge and skills capabilities.

Inquiry tasks and glossary

Each chapter closes with a set of inquiry tasks based on the chapter content to consolidate learning. The scaffolded tasks provide students with the opportunity to develop critical thinking and apply the 'Humanities and Social Sciences skills' as outlined in the Western Australian syllabus. The varied tasks are designed to appeal to different learning preferences, some of which may incorporate further research, as well as pair and group work. The glossary defines terms used within the chapter to assist with text comprehension.

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CHAPTER 1

Our democratic rights

Australia's system of **government** is a federal parliamentary democracy operating under a **constitutional monarchy**. The former means that all Australian citizens over the age of 18 are able to participate actively in some parts of government; we vote for candidates from the political parties we believe will best represent us. The latter means that our head of state is Elizabeth II, the Queen of the United Kingdom; her representative in Australia is the governor-general.

As active citizens in the 21st century, we are encouraged to play a part in political processes by voting, debating, discussing, questioning and sharing our opinions and ideas. Political parties campaign for our vote at election time, and are increasingly using new forms of technology, such as social media, to target voters and present information. Social media has transformed the world of politics in many ways and has had an impact on both the way people vote and the ways in which we communicate with each other.

Source 1.0.1 These protesters in Sydney in 2016 are taking an active role in the political process by challenging the federal government's policy on the detention of children of asylum seekers.

Political parties

Political parties

A political party is an organisation formed by people with similar political views and beliefs. The primary objective of a political party is to gain seats in **Parliament**, where its political views can influence government decision-making. This is done by putting forward candidates to stand for Parliament in an **electorate** during an election. Ultimately, a political party wants to win enough parliamentary seats to gain control of Parliament and form the ruling government.

Political parties are the foundation of the Australian parliamentary system and play a crucial role in helping to shape public policy. Political parties are represented by members at federal, state and territory levels.

Australia's government and **opposition** are primarily made up of members of political parties who have been elected to Parliament. Elected candidates need to represent the interests both of the party and of their electorate. An electorate is made up of people who live in a defined area. These people are called constituents. Constituents are represented by one Member of Parliament (MP) who may or may not live in that electorate. Their representative, or MP, needs to keep abreast of the issues that affect society, and that affect their constituents in particular, in order to best represent their interests and concerns.

In Australia, if a political party's candidates are to be eligible to stand for election, the party must be registered with the Australian Electoral Commission, which is in charge of organising, conducting and supervising elections and referendums. In order to be registered, the party must have a written **constitution** that outlines the party's aims, and must have at least one of the following:

- one member in a parliament at any level of government in Australia (federal, state or territory)
- 500 eligible voting members in the party.

Role of political parties

Political parties contribute to the debate and discussion that assist in the formation of our laws. Each political party holds views that guide its policy-making. Political parties provide organisational support and develop policies, and in the past have successfully recruited many members who attended party meetings, assisted with fundraising, worked on campaigns and handed out how-to-vote cards at booths on election day. Joining a political party provided members of the community with ways of being involved in policy development and candidate selection, and these members provided a guide to community opinions. In recent years this has changed significantly as party membership has steadily declined. Australian Bureau of Statistics figures from 2006 show that only 1.3 per cent of the adult population belonged to a political party.

When Parliament is in session, political parties that hold seats in Parliament convene party meetings at which they examine and explore current and future policies, and work through community issues, to establish their policy position. Political parties can have a great deal of influence and be very powerful when their members group together and vote the same way on issues debated in Parliament.

Political parties and elections

In Australia, it is compulsory for every citizen aged 18 or over to vote in federal, state and local government elections. At election time, each party must decide which candidates to put forth for possible election. This process is known as preselection, and it means that members of the public do not have a say in which candidates will stand for election; they must choose who to vote for from those candidates presented to them by the political parties on election day. This can be problematic when voters support a particular party but are not happy with the selected candidate for their electorate. Some seats are considered 'safe'; this means that, during election time, the seat is expected to be held, with a significant majority vote, by the same party that currently holds it.

Members of political parties help prepare and present election campaigns that aim to convince the public to vote for their particular party. Campaign strategies are developed to decide what sort of publicity will be used to target voters (for example, television and radio advertisements, direct mail-outs, events and visits in electorates). Each party also develops and then presents its party platforms, which set out the key values and issues that the

Source 1.1.1 Campaign boards from the various political parties, displayed at a by-election in Western Australia in 2015

party believes are of most concern to the population and will be most appealing to voters. By presenting their platforms, parties hope to gain the votes of people who are concerned about the selected issues and hold the same views. Another important task during election campaigns is the organisation of campaign funding.

Two-party system

Australia has a two-party system of government, as we only really have two main political parties: the Liberal Party of Australia and the Australian Labor Party. After an election, one of these parties—the one with the most members voted into the House of Representatives (the Lower House)—forms the government. The other main party becomes the Opposition. In the case of the Liberal Party, it usually forms a **coalition** with the National Party of Australia, a minor party, both when in government and in opposition. There are other minor parties, such as the Greens, and also **independents**, who fill some of the seats in both the House of Representatives and the Senate but never have enough of their members voted in to form a government or opposition.

Left and right

Political parties are sometimes referred to as being left-wing or right-wing. Their ideologies or core beliefs about the ways that society should be run help to define where they sit on the political spectrum.

Left-wing policies are traditionally defined by a strong belief that society is best served by a government with a prominent presence and a focus on social equality. Right-wing ideologies focus on self-preservation and the right of individuals to increase their personal wealth through personal endeavour, and the need for businesses to operate without government interference. The Labor Party is often referred to as being centre-left, therefore tending towards the left, while the Liberal Party is known as being centre-right and tending towards the right. However, over time both parties have developed policies that reflect both left- and right-wing ideologies.

Party building

Larger political parties often develop youth wings, such as the Young Liberal Movement of Australia and Australian Young Labor. These offshoots help the political parties stay connected to the next generation of voters. They also assist in the development of young people who have an interest in establishing political careers in the future.

Hung parliaments

On rare occasions, an election can result in a **hung parliament**. This can happen when neither party succeeds in winning a majority of the seats in the House of Representatives. Consequently, no party is able to pass laws without gaining support from other parties (either through the formation of a coalition or by negotiation with other parties) or independent members of parliament. Nationally, the most recent example of a hung parliament resulted from the 2010 federal election. After neither party won the required number of seats, Labor Party leader Julia Gillard was appointed caretaker prime minister until the official government could be determined. Ultimately, three independents and one Greens member gave their support to the Labor Party, meaning that the party attained the required majority of seats and thus was able to form a government.

Australian Labor Party

The Australian Labor Party is the oldest registered political party in Australia. It was formed in the 1890s by trade unions seeking political representation for workers who experienced poor working conditions. In recent times, however, the party has not maintained as strong a connection with the trade union movement as it once did. The core beliefs of the Australian Labor Party include:

- fair distribution of wealth and income
- fair and safe working conditions
- equality for all in society
- the importance of community services.

Liberal Party of Australia

The Liberal Party of Australia was established in 1944 by Sir Robert Menzies, with the aim of protecting the interests of private individuals and small business owners. Traditionally, the Liberal Party has also been supported by individuals from large corporations

Source 1.1.2 Prime Minister Malcolm Turnbull (Liberal Party) and Opposition Leader Bill Shorten (Labor Party) at a National Day of Unity function at Parliament House in 2015

and the wealthier members of society. Historically, when the Liberal Party has been successful in forming a government, it has usually been in coalition with another party, most often the National Party of Australia. The core beliefs of the Liberal Party of Australia include:

- encouragement of independent profit-making
- promotion of economic growth
- less government intervention and more individual choice in private businesses.

Other significant parties

National Party of Australia

The National Party, formerly called the National Country Party, was formed in 1920 and usually develops a partnership (or coalition) with another party in order to form a government or opposition. The National Party is particularly concerned with protecting and promoting the interests of rural and regional communities. Like the Liberal Party, the National Party endorses private enterprise.

Australian Greens

The Australian Greens were formed in 1992, 20 years after the formation of Australia's first green party in Tasmania in 1972 under the name United Tasmania Group. The Greens encourage global citizenship, with a focus on environmental sustainability. The increase in awareness of environmental issues has resulted in the Greens having a more significant presence in Parliament.

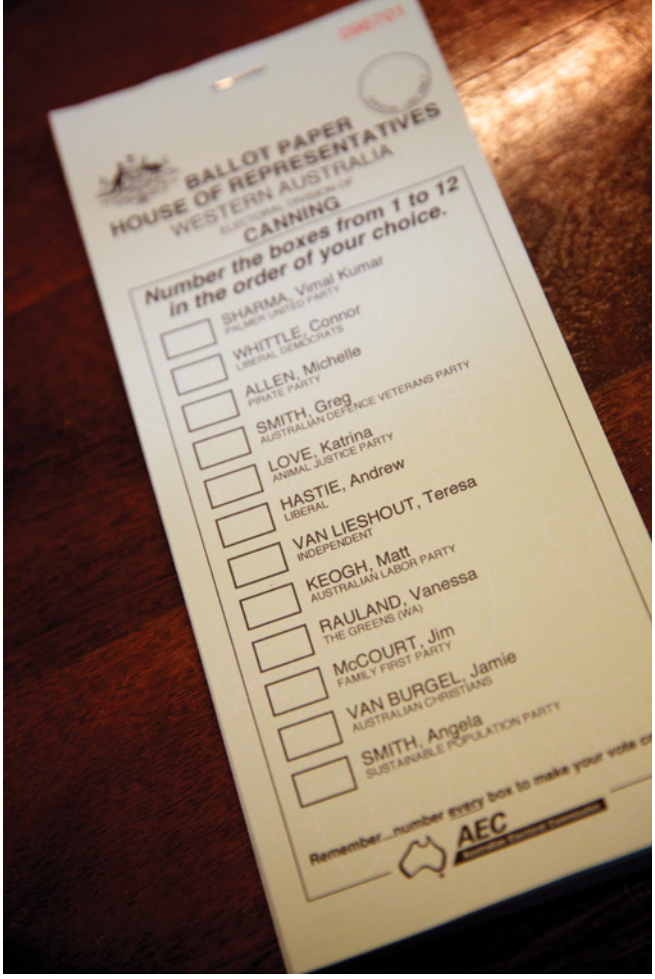
Source 1.1.3 The logos of **a** the Liberal Party, **b** the Australian Labor Party, **c** the National Party of Australia and **d** the Australian Greens

Minor parties

In recent times, support for the major political parties has begun to weaken slowly. As a consequence, there has been an increase in the number of smaller parties registered in Australia. They help to provide discussion on electoral issues; however, they do not often have many members elected to Parliament. Some of these parties are known as single-issue parties as they are generally focused on one area of concern. For example, the Arts Party aims to gain more awareness and support for the creative arts in Australia.

Independents

Independent candidates do not belong to any political party. They may have left one of the established political parties due to dissatisfaction with how the party is operating or because they feel the party is not promoting issues that they consider highly important. Historically, independents have been more successful at gaining election to state parliaments rather than Federal Parliament. However, while few independents win seats in Federal Parliament, they can still have significant influence. Because of the type of voting system used to elect representatives to the Senate (a **proportional voting system**), independent members and smaller parties can often hold the balance of power. This means that the government relies on their vote in order to get new laws passed in Parliament.



Source 1.1.4 A blank ballot paper, displaying candidates' names and their political parties, used during a federal by-election in Western Australia

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'political party'.
2. Rewrite the primary objective of political parties.
3. Describe the relationship between the terms 'electorate', 'constituents' and 'representative'.
4. Explain how political parties allow people to participate in a democracy.

Applying and analysing

5. Identify the advantages and disadvantages of pre-selection.
6. Construct an overview of the major differences between right-wing and left-wing political parties.

Evaluating and creating

7. Examine the history of hung parliaments in Australia. Conclude how effective they are at governing the country.

UNIT 1.2

Forming government

Government in Australia

A government is a group of people with the power to rule a country or state. The structure of government in Australia is based on the democratic parliamentary system used in Great Britain, known as the Westminster system. Australia has a federal parliamentary democracy whereby the political party (or a coalition of parties) with the greatest number of elected representatives forms the government of the nation. The leader of the winning party at an election becomes the prime minister.

Before this federal system was adopted in 1901, Australia was composed of six separate British colonies, each with its own government. However, there was a growing belief that the colonies would benefit from becoming one nation and having a centralised government. **Federation** of the six colonies occurred on 1 January 1901, six months after the *Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act 1900* was signed by the colonies. Consequently, the first Commonwealth Parliament was formed and the colonies became states. The two territories, the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory, were both established 10 years after Federation.

After Federation, Australia's relationship with the monarch of Great Britain remained that of a constitutional monarchy: the monarch has a ceremonial role but the laws are made by the elected government. Where formerly the British monarch had been the head of each colony, with Federation the monarch became the head of the nation of Australia.

The federal government

The Australian Federal Parliament consists of the British monarch, who is represented by the governor-general, and the two Houses of Parliament—the House of Representatives and the Senate.

The primary role of the Australian Government is to make laws to help our society function effectively. The government's duties include:

- formulating programs that help distribute resources to different sectors of society, such as schools, hospitals and environmental organisations
- developing political and trade relationships with other nations
- maintaining our nation's defence forces and developing policies to secure our borders
- collecting taxes and other charges to pay for various services provided.

The House of Representatives

The House of Representatives is also known as the Lower House of Parliament. It has 150 members, who represent the 150 electorates around Australia. Members are elected for three-year terms. The states with larger populations contain more electorates and therefore have more representatives sitting in Parliament. Each elected representative must represent the views and values of their party as well as represent the interests of the constituents in their electorates. The political party that gains the majority of members in the Lower House at an election forms the government.

Source 1.2.1 One of the roles of the federal government is to develop political and trade relationships with other countries. On 8 July 2014, His Excellency Mr Shinzo Abe, Prime Minister of Japan, visited Parliament House.

Source 1.2.2 Debate in the House of Representatives in February 2016. Members of the government are seated to the right.

Role of the majority political party

The party that controls a majority of seats in the House of Representatives forms the government. The leader of that party becomes Prime Minister of Australia. Some of the more senior and experienced members are allocated areas of responsibility by the prime minister. In the 45th Parliament, for example, Julie Bishop is Minister for Foreign Affairs and Simon Birmingham is Minister for Education and Training. The role of ministers is to introduce **bills** and to answer questions about their areas of responsibility, or **portfolio**.

Members who are not given a portfolio are called backbenchers. Backbenchers participate in debates and vote on bills, taking the party position. In rare cases members may be granted a conscience vote. They are then free to vote as they choose and do not necessarily vote according to party policy. Backbenchers represent their constituents, raising issues that affect their electorates.

Role of the minority political party

The party that gains the second-largest number of members in the House of Representatives forms the Opposition. The party in opposition organises its members in a similar way to the party in government. The party's leader takes the role of Leader of the Opposition. Senior and experienced members are selected by the leader to be responsible for portfolios that closely match those of government ministers. These members of parliament are called shadow ministers. They carefully examine what the minister for that portfolio is doing and present the Opposition's policies in that area of responsibility. In the 45th Parliament, for example, the Shadow Minister for Foreign Affairs is Senator Penny Wong and the Shadow Minister for Education is Tanya Plibersek. Other elected party members are backbenchers. Their role is the same as that of government backbenchers.

Role of other members

Candidates from minor political parties and independents may also gain seats as members of the House of Representatives. They are collectively referred to as the crossbench. They play the same role as backbenchers from the main political parties. They participate in debates on bills and can introduce their own bills suggesting new laws they think are important. They represent the interests of their constituents.

Crossbenchers assume more prominent roles when an election results in a minority government or a hung parliament. In both cases, neither of the major parties holds a majority of seats in the House of Representatives. In a minority government , the numbers of seats held by the government and the opposition are so close that the government has difficulty getting bills passed. The way independent and minor-party members vote on bills can determine whether bills pass or are rejected.

In a hung parliament, the government and the opposition each hold the same number of seats. Minor-party members and independents hold the balance of power. The major parties negotiate with minor-party members and independents to win their support, to be able to claim a majority and thus form a government. In the 2010 hung parliament, the Australian Labor Party gained the support of the sole Australian Greens member and three independents, allowing it to form a minority government.

Political party	Number of members
Australian Labor Party	72
Liberal–National Coalition	72
Crossbench (independents and minor parties): independents (5), Australian Greens (1)	6
Total	150

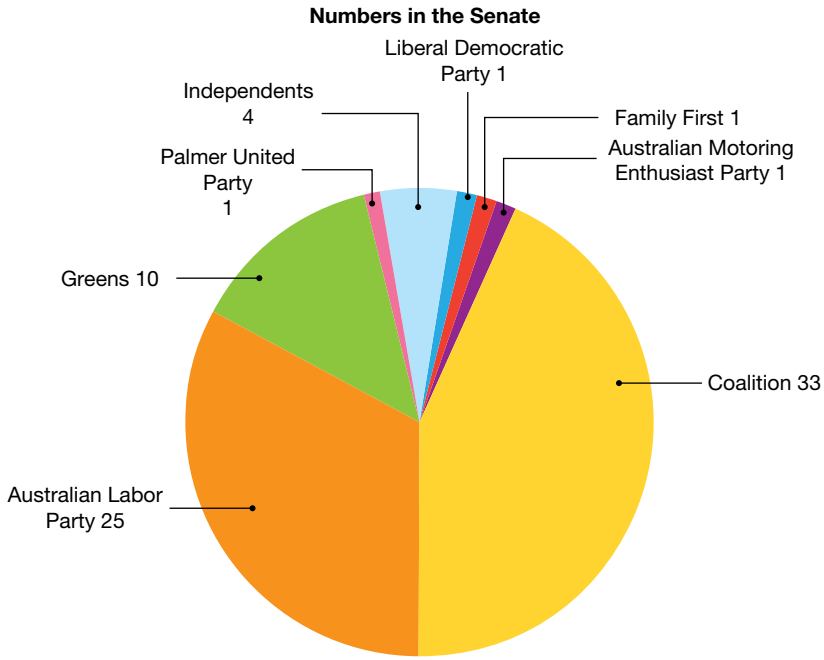
Source 1.2.3 The composition of the House of Representatives after the 2010 election that resulted in a hung parliament

The Senate

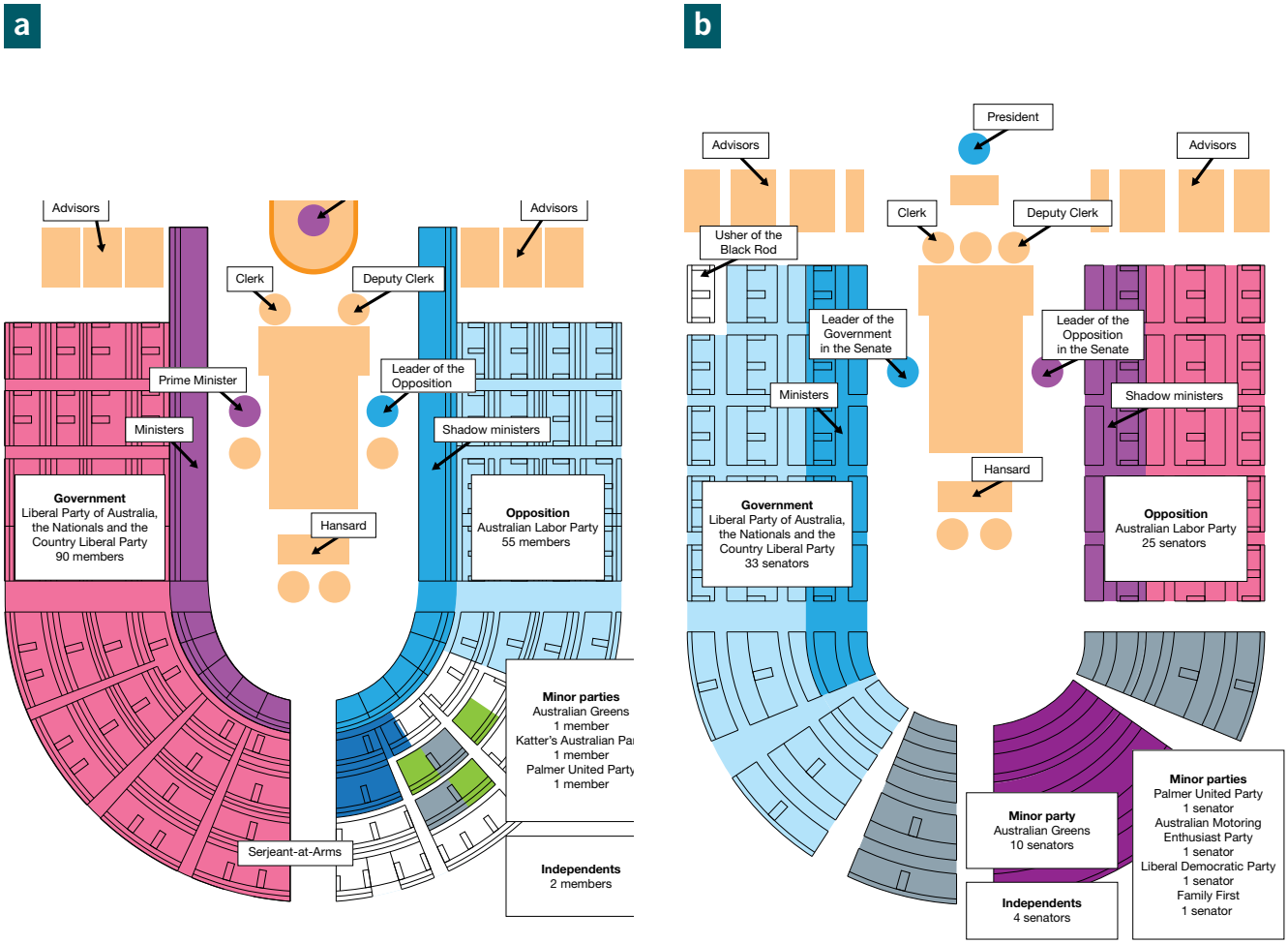
The Senate is composed of 12 senators from each state and two senators from each territory, giving a total of 76 members of the Senate. This results in equal representation among the states. The Senate is known as the Upper House because any bill introduced into Parliament must be approved by the Senate before it can become law. Unlike members of the House of Representatives, senators are elected for two terms, usually a total of six years.

Political parties

Most of those candidates who gain seats in the Senate are voted in as representatives of a political party. Minor parties and independents also gain seats and form the crossbench. The Senate is arranged in a similar way to the House of Representatives, with a Leader of the Government and a Leader of the Opposition in the Senate, ministers with portfolios and shadow ministers, government and opposition backbenchers and crossbenchers. Debates and votes on bills from the House of Representatives typically follow political party policy. Crossbench senators often hold the balance of power.



Source 1.2.4 This chart shows the numbers of senators who held office before the dissolution of the Senate on 9 May 2016.



Source 1.2.5 **a** The 44th Parliament in the House of Representatives after the December 2013 election. The House of Representatives contains 150 seats. Seventy-six are needed for a majority. **b** The composition of the Australian Senate after the election in 2013. The Senate contains 76 members. A majority can be achieved with fewer than 39 party members, as independents and minor parties can gain significant numbers of seats.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 On what system is Australia's parliamentary democracy based?

2 Record the important details of the process of Federation in Australia.

3 Name the three components of Australia's Federal Parliament.

4 Illustrate the role of the Australian Government by creating a mind map that demonstrates its law-making powers and its duties.

Applying and analysing

5 Compare and contrast the Senate and the House of Representatives in terms of their composition and size.

6 Decide which is more important: the Senate or the House of Representatives. Present an analysis based on the role(s) played by each chamber.

Evaluating and creating

7 Elaborate on the current composition of Australia's Federal Parliament with reference to the numbers of representatives from major and minor parties, different genders, and Indigenous and ethnic groups. How effectively does Australia's Federal Parliament mirror its population?

UNIT 1.3

Political persuasion

Influencing voters

Once an election has been called, politicians and political parties launch their election campaigns. They must try to convince the voting public to support them at election time. Persuading people to either maintain their loyalty to a particular party or change their preference to a new party is not an easy task, particularly when campaigns generally only run for approximately six weeks. There are also newly registered voters, including new citizens, whom each party will seek to influence. Parties undertake an intense period of campaigning in order to attract voters. Political parties rely on a number of different methods to influence the way people vote.

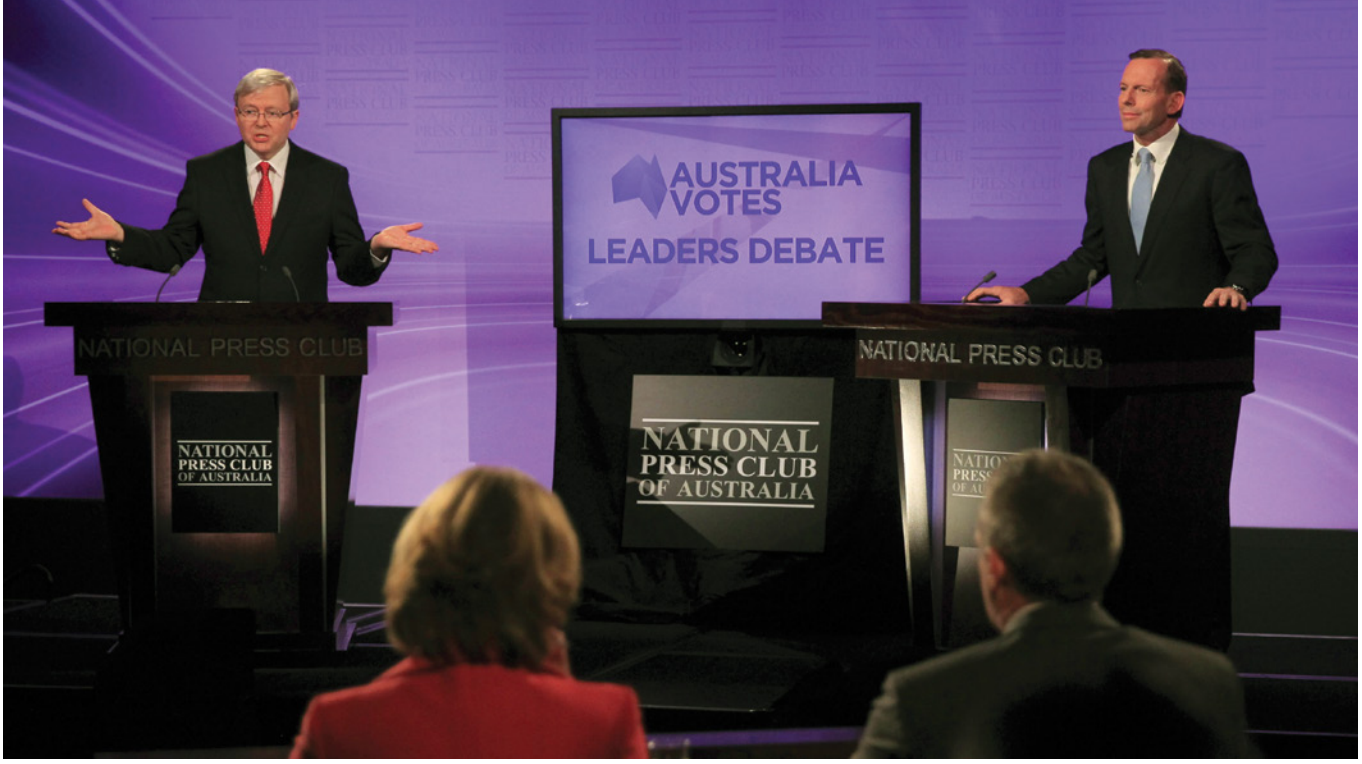
In this technology-driven era, politicians have access to a wide range of tools and methods to assist in influencing voters' choice at election time. They use the media in all forms: television, newspapers, radio and the internet. Increasingly, social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter are being used to connect and engage with voters, particularly younger ones. However, traditional methods of persuasion are also consistently used and these include such things as opinion polls, public debate, doorknocking and interest groups.

The importance of persuading the public

Many factors can influence voter behaviour. Things such as family views or traditional ties, religion, social status and cultural background may all influence an individual's voting preferences. However, political parties cannot simply rely on the fact that a voter will continue to vote for a particular party.

Voters can change their preferences at any time and may be swayed by a number of factors. These could include: specific party policies which they do not agree with; the candidates who are put forth in their electorate; or whether political parties have been addressing the issues which voters feel strongly about. Until the votes are cast, an individual's choice is never certain. Sometimes, a party may win an election because of the number of people who were dissatisfied with the other party, rather than because a majority of voters actively supported the winners.

Source 1.3.1
Then Leader of the Opposition, Tony Abbott, speaking at a federal campaign rally as part of his election campaign in 2013



Source 1.3.2 Australia's then Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd (left), and then Leader of the Opposition, Tony Abbott (right), participate in a debate at the National Press Club in Canberra during the lead-up to the federal election in 2013.

Swing voting

Swing voters also play an important role in the outcome of an election. Swing voters are those who do not feel particular loyalty to any political party. Because their preferences are unknown and unpredictable, they can have a significant impact on the outcome of an election. Persuading these voters to vote in a certain way is therefore of critical importance for political parties.

Methods of persuasion

Political parties use a combination of the following methods of persuasion, taking into account the audience they are appealing to and the messages they are trying to get across.

Print, television and radio advertising

Political parties use the media to present an overview of their policies and to explain to audiences why a vote for them is the right choice at election time. Music, slogans (phrases designed to represent what the party stands for) and imagery are used in paid advertisements to help convince voters. Often, party advertising criticises the policies of opposing parties in an attempt to highlight their weaknesses. Advertising can be a very costly form of persuasion; however, it usually attracts a large audience and can therefore be very worthwhile.

As well, political parties and politicians often benefit from coverage in the media without paying for it. During an election campaign, politicians will often go out on the 'campaign trail'. They visit places such as schools, hospitals and workplaces in an attempt to connect with the general public and demonstrate their interest in issues that affect voters. The media will often cover such visits, and in this way political parties gain publicity and attention for their campaign and their policies.

Public debates

A public debate allows politicians to question each other on their policies and political platforms, while also allowing the public to examine where their potential political representatives stand on the issues that concern them. It is an important principle of democracy that people be allowed to express their ideas and opinions openly, without fear of punishment, and a public debate allows important discussions to be had about aspects of society such as healthcare, education and the budget. These debates are often televised so that they can reach a larger audience, and there is usually an adjudicator—someone who runs the debate and puts questions to the candidates. Voter opinion can be significantly influenced by public debates, especially if a participant is unable to answer a question on their policies effectively or is able to make their opponent look underprepared or uninformed. How the media then covers the debate through their news stories, analyses, editorials, images, cartoons and opinion pieces can also influence voters' choices.

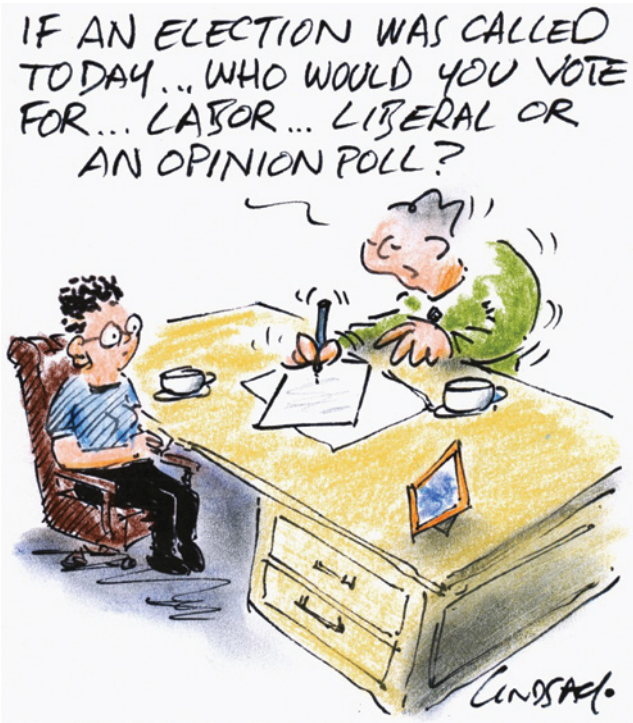
Did you know?

Political debates on Australian television now include what is known as 'the worm', a computerised graphic that reflects, in real time, how viewers feel about the candidates in the debate and which candidate they prefer, as each one answers questions and explains their party's policies.

Opinion polls

Opinion polls use responses from a sample of the public to try to predict how all voters will vote at election time. They usually demonstrate what percentage of the vote each party has (based on the sample group of people who have participated in the poll). They also show which party (on a two-party preferred basis) is likely to win the election. Opinion polls can influence how candidates are viewed and, in turn, can then influence policy decisions that politicians make.

Opinions polls that appear in the media are often conducted by independent organisations such as Roy Morgan Research and Newspoll. Political parties may also conduct their own opinion polls and other research to further investigate public opinion, especially when the results of published polls are not favourable to them or are said to be very close.



Source 1.3.3 A political cartoon demonstrating the impact opinion polls can have at election time

Opinion polls can have such an important impact on voter opinion that they are said to have influenced the departure of politicians from leadership roles. Former Labor leaders Kim Beazley and Simon Crean, for example, both lost challenges to their leadership after poor opinion polls.

Interest groups

Interest groups, or lobby groups, are groups that work to represent the interests of organisations or businesses in our society. They lobby, or petition, the government or particular politicians in order to seek support for certain issues or promote their own agendas. Examples of interest groups include environmental groups such as the Australian Conservation Foundation and business groups like the Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry. They can have an influence on voters at election time by raising awareness about important issues that affect society and by demonstrating whether the political parties are responding to people's concerns about these issues. For example, in previous elections, environmental interest group Greenpeace has campaigned for a reduction in greenhouse gas emissions. Voters for whom this is an issue of concern may then vote for the candidate who promises to take action on this question.

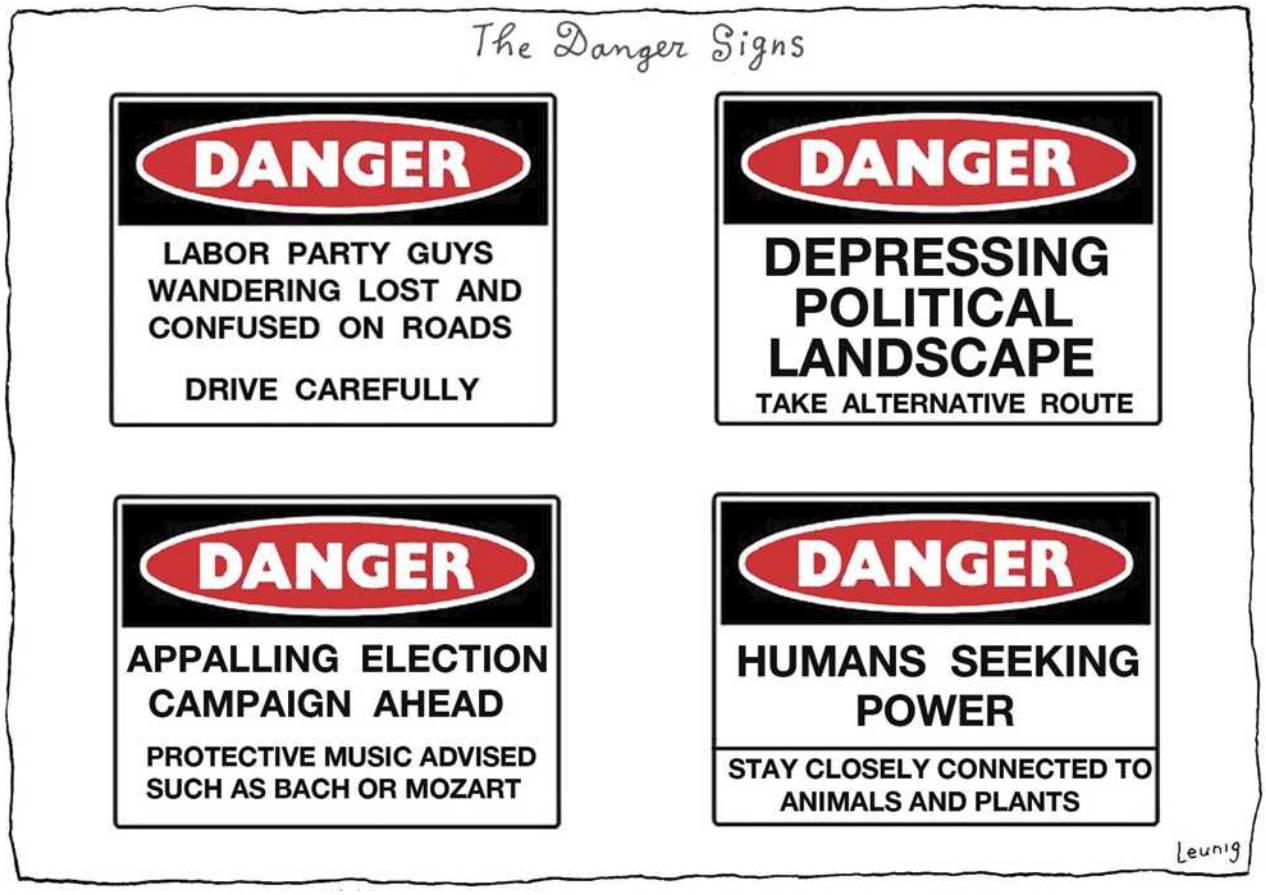
The power of the media

The media plays a very important role during the election process. Aside from the use political parties make of the media for advertising purposes, television, radio, newspapers and the internet present information that assists voters to make their choices on election day. The ways in which the media can influence voters at election time include:

- presenting news stories on government and opposition policies
- presenting opinion pieces on candidates
- analysing the policies and platforms of the candidates, providing commentary and criticism where necessary
- presenting interviews with political candidates, providing them with a platform to present their policies to the public
- providing different perspectives on political candidates through methods such as political cartoons
- acting as a watchdog by exposing any unethical or illegal behaviour by politicians.

Media bias

Despite the fact that many forms of media, such as newspapers, claim to be politically neutral and to present information that is impartial—that is, not favouring either side and independent of any influence—this may not always be the case. Many argue that media bias, or favouritism towards one political party or another, can be seen in everything from a newspaper headline and the accompanying image to the types of questions posed to a political candidate or the amount of air time they are given on a news broadcast.



Source 1.3.4 A political cartoon by Michael Leunig, warning readers about former Prime Minister Julia Gillard's upcoming visits to marginal seats in 2013

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Show how politicians try to influence different types of voters during an election campaign.
2. Give examples of the types of media that politicians use.
3. Identify some factors that may influence a voter's preferences.
4. Define the term 'swing voter'.
5. Describe one method of persuasion that politicians use.

Applying and analysing

6. Develop a set of questions that you would ask a politician if you could interview them in the lead-up to an election.
7. Analyse the latest state or federal opinion polls. What do they tell us about our politicians?

Evaluating and creating

8. Select one news outlet (television station, newspaper or website) and determine whether any bias can be detected in the way it reports political affairs. Provide evidence to support your answer.

UNIT 1.4

Politics and social media

A changing political landscape

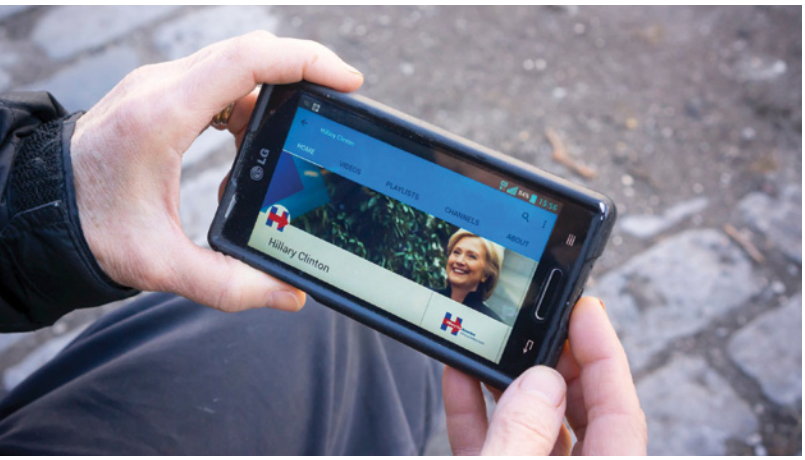
Today, technology is everywhere. It has penetrated all aspects of our lives, from how we do our shopping to how we communicate with one another. One of the fastest growing and most popular areas of technology is social media.

Social media is the variety of digital platforms that allow people to create and then share information online to a global network. Social media is interactive, allowing participants to ask and answer questions, share videos and photos, and communicate with people all over the world in real time. Examples of social media platforms include Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and YouTube.

Increasingly, people's time and attention is being directed towards social media. People get a lot of information about what is going on around the world through this channel, and this can influence or shape their understanding of issues and events that occur. Understanding this, the world of politics is starting to use social media in order to be able to engage with and influence 21st-century citizens.

Uses of social media in politics

Particularly in the lead-up to elections, political parties, individual candidates and citizens are able to use social media to communicate with each other about important issues. There are many different ways in which social media can be used to influence people's understanding of issues and to engage in debate and discussion about relevant concerns.



Source 1.4.1 Hillary Clinton used YouTube to announce her run for the presidency of the United States in 2016.

Political debates

Typically, there are only two candidates involved in a political debate. However, with the use of social media applications such as Twitter (which allows users to write short statements and attach images), independents and other candidates from smaller parties, as well as other members of the main political parties, are also able to provide the public with their views and provide rebuttals of the policies presented in a debate. This widens the scope of the debate, providing voters with a variety of different perspectives. People watching the debate on television are also able to view commentaries on social media and read blog articles about it, not to mention participate in the debate themselves.

Personal social media accounts

Politicians who have personal social media accounts, such as Facebook pages or Twitter accounts, may have a closer connection with voters. Social media can make communication between a politician and a voter quicker and more direct. Citizens can actively participate in debate and direct discussion with candidates, effectively bypassing the role of the media and the candidates' offices as the providers of information. Social media accounts also help to personalise politicians in the voters' eyes. They can make candidates seem more down-to-earth and more like everyone else.

Social media tools

Different features of social media applications allow politicians to give more exposure to certain issues and policies, potentially reaching a much larger and even new audiences. A hashtag is a tag or label relating to a key term or idea that can be attached to an item and that allows social media users to find related items easily. Politicians can use hashtags to promote or draw attention to important announcements, policies or attacks against other politicians.

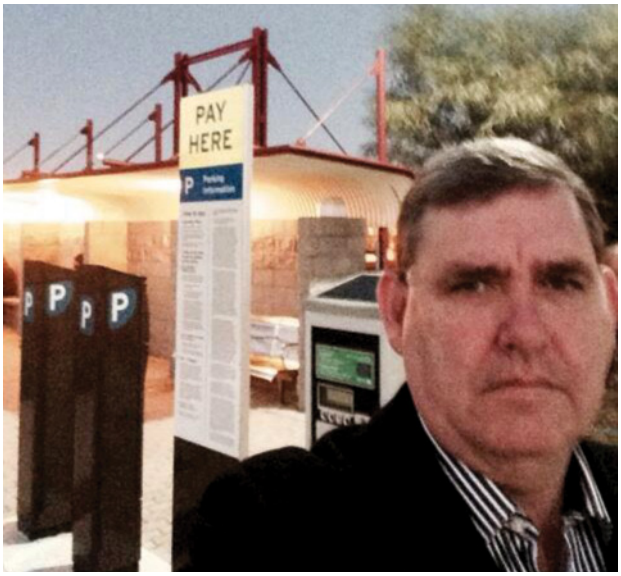
When people read a post on a social media platform such as Facebook, they are able to both 'like' the post and share it on their own Facebook account or with other friends. Social media posts can often be much

quicker to create than other campaign tools such as media advertising, and politicians are therefore able to use them to target voters more efficiently.

Apart from sharing or liking posts, people are also able to provide their own thoughts and opinions on the information politicians provide. And when family, friends and peers read these thoughts and opinions, it can, in turn, have an impact on their beliefs and perspectives, and possibly even their vote.

Advantages and disadvantages

Using social media accounts can have negative consequences for politicians, too. In 2014, a Victorian Liberal Party candidate was forced to step down after it was revealed he had made inappropriate comments on Twitter. Social media can provide voters with more personal insights into candidates and their lives, but this may not always influence their vote in a positive way.



Source 1.4.2 Western Australian Labor politician Ken Travers uses Twitter to post a 'selfie' image that shares his disappointment over the state government's new $2 parking tax.

Advantages	Disadvantages
Allows for more engagement and understanding of issues by younger voters.	Doesn't necessarily deepen understanding of political issues as social media sources are not necessarily reputable or accurate.
Allows greater personal interaction between politicians and voters.	Voters may get 'information overload' and feel overwhelmed from viewing too many different sources of social media.
Gives candidates many different channels to get their messages across.	Due to the open nature of social media, bullying and discrimination often occur as people are able to 'hide' behind their screens.
Encourages voters to be more actively involved in politics.	Allows anyone to have an influence on voters' beliefs, perspectives and voting behaviour.
Allows voters access to up-to-the-minute information on political issues.	
Can challenge the bias and remove the censorship presented by traditional media outlets.	
Can allow politicians to easily determine how voters are feeling about a particular issue or policy.	

Source 1.4.3 The advantages and disadvantages of using social media in politics

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Interpret the meaning of the term 'digital platform'.
2. Cite examples of digital platforms that are used by politicians.
3. Explain why politicians are using social media more frequently.
4. Show how social media applications lend themselves to political debate.
5. List three advantages that a politician can gain with a personal social media account.

Applying and analysing

6. Discover examples of the positive and negative use of social media by politicians.
7. Apply your knowledge of social media to compile a list of 10 dos and don'ts for politicians when it comes to using digital platforms.

Evaluating and creating

8. Hashtags are a clever social media tool. Develop a list of hashtags that you think could be used to generate interest and discussion for important social issues.

Inquiry tasks

Voting for a political party

Imagine you are a member of either the Australian Labor Party or the Liberal Party of Australia. Write a persuasive letter to be sent out to voters during an election campaign, encouraging them to vote for your party. Before writing your letter, research the current key issues or platforms of your chosen political party, the programs or policies your party leader has already supported or implemented and the future direction of your party.

Structure your letter to include an introduction, a body and a conclusion.

- ***Introduction*** (1–2 paragraphs)—Introduce yourself, the purpose of the letter and your political party, including a brief history of the party and the core beliefs and values of your party.
- ***Body*** (3 paragraphs)—In three separate paragraphs, provide three different reasons members of the public should vote for your party.
- ***Conclusion*** (1 paragraph)—Summarise your main arguments and tie them up in a general concluding statement about why the public should vote for your party at election time.

Remember to use persuasive techniques and language in your letter, including facts and statistics, emotive language, rhetorical questions and alliteration.

A new prime minister

Imagine you were a newspaper journalist at the time that Julia Gillard became prime minister, in 2010. Working in pairs, write a newspaper article covering the historic events that led to her taking that role.

Source 1.5.1 A huge campaign poster used during the 2013 federal election campaign

Remember to include the five 'Ws' in your article:

- **Who** was involved?
- **What** happened?
- **When** did it happen?
- **Where** did it happen?
- **Why** did it happen?

Your article should include a relevant image and a related caption. You should also include real quotes from Julia Gillard or other politicians in your article. Remember to explain the term 'hung parliament' and the importance of independent and minority party members of parliament when a hung parliament occurs.

The power of persuasion

In groups of four, choose two different political advertisements (print, internet, television or radio) used during an Australian election campaign. Draw up a table using the format described below, in which you analyse each advertisement.

- Column 1: List all persuasive techniques used in the advertisement. Depending on the type of advertisement, techniques may include images, music, slogans, word choice, colour and font.
- Column 2: Explain how each technique persuades.
- Column 3: Determine and describe the likely target audience for each advertisement.

After completing your analysis of the two advertisements with a partner, write your own paragraph explaining which of the two advertisements you found more persuasive, and why.

Debating social media

Form groups of six and prepare a debate on one of the following topics:

- Social media has no place in the world of politics.
- In today's society, social media is needed to run an effective political campaign.
- All politicians should have social media accounts.

Remember that three members of the group will form the affirmative team and three members will form the negative team. The members of each team will have to prepare appropriate speeches depending on whether they are the first, second or third speaker for the team. Carry out your debate in class, with your teacher or another student as the adjudicator.

GLOSSARY

bills documents that describe a proposed law or change to a law

coalition a temporary alliance of people, factions or parties; in politics, refers to parties that cooperate to form a government.

constitution a written set of principles according to which an organisation or a nation is governed

constitutional monarchy a system of government in which the head of state is a monarch whose power is limited by a constitution

electorate a defined area that is represented by a Member of Parliament, and its residents

Federation the process that occurred in 1901 whereby Australia's independent colonies came together to form a single nation called the Commonwealth of Australia

government a body of people who have the authority to control or govern a community, state or country

hung parliament a situation in which no single political party (or coalition) holds an absolute majority of seats in the House of Representatives

independents political candidates who do not belong to any political party

opposition the main party, or coalition of parties, that has the second-largest number of members elected to the House of Representatives

parliament an assembly of the democratically elected representatives of a people; in Australia, the legislative branch of the government, which consists of three elements: the British monarch, the Senate and the House of Representatives

proportional voting system the system according to which groups of candidates and independent candidates are elected to the parliament in proportion to the number of votes they receive

swing voters voters who do not feel particular loyalty to any political party and may change the party they vote for from one election to another

CHAPTER 2

Australia's court system

The Australian Constitution's 'separation of powers' grants Australia's judiciary and court system the power to interpret and apply the laws created by Parliament. When necessary, the judiciary is able to create new laws and establish precedents.

Australia's court system strives to provide a structure that is fair, accessible, efficient and non-discriminatory for those who use it. Different features such as the court hierarchy at both state and federal levels, the appeals system and the use of a jury aim to achieve justice for all. At times, however, there are factors that make true justice difficult to achieve.

Source 2.0.1 Supreme Court of Western Australia, Perth

UNIT 2.1

The court system

Laws and the courts

All societies must have laws to function properly. Without them, we would live in chaos. Laws are rules which everyone must follow every day in order to keep people safe and maintain social order. Our laws in Australia are made by our federal and state parliaments, but it is the courts that apply these laws, putting them into practice.

There are two different types of laws: **criminal laws** and **civil laws**. Criminal laws relate to protecting our society from crimes such as murder, theft and assault. Civil laws involve arguments between people—for example, disputes over property or unpaid fines.

Australia's legal system

Our legal system was formed when Federation occurred in 1901. The six self-governing colonies were joined together under one government by the document called the Constitution, which also formed the foundation of our legal system by establishing our courts.

The legal system used in Australia is called an adversary system of law. This means that two opposing sides (or adversaries) in a dispute or case have control of their case by presenting their own arguments and evidence and examining witnesses when necessary. The final decision is then left up to a judge or magistrate, or a jury. The judge or jury is supposed to remain neutral throughout the trial process. This means that they cannot have any biases or prejudices towards the people involved in the case and must make a decision based only on the evidence presented. Another feature of the adversary system of law is that each party should have legal personnel who have equal ability and expertise in court so that each party is fairly represented and supported.

Source 2.1.1 The first ever sitting of the High Court in October 1903

Australia's court system

Courts are places that have the power to deliver judgement (usually by judges or juries) on criminal and civil cases, according to the rule of law. There are many different types of courts, each one dealing with specific types of cases. Some courts are able to hear both civil and criminal cases while others focus on only one or the other type.

There are two main types of courts in Australia: state and territory courts, which have been established by each state or territory, and federal courts, which have been established under **Commonwealth** laws. The structures of all the state and territory courts in Australia differ slightly from one state or territory to another as the different **jurisdictions** have their own laws and therefore their own unique court systems.

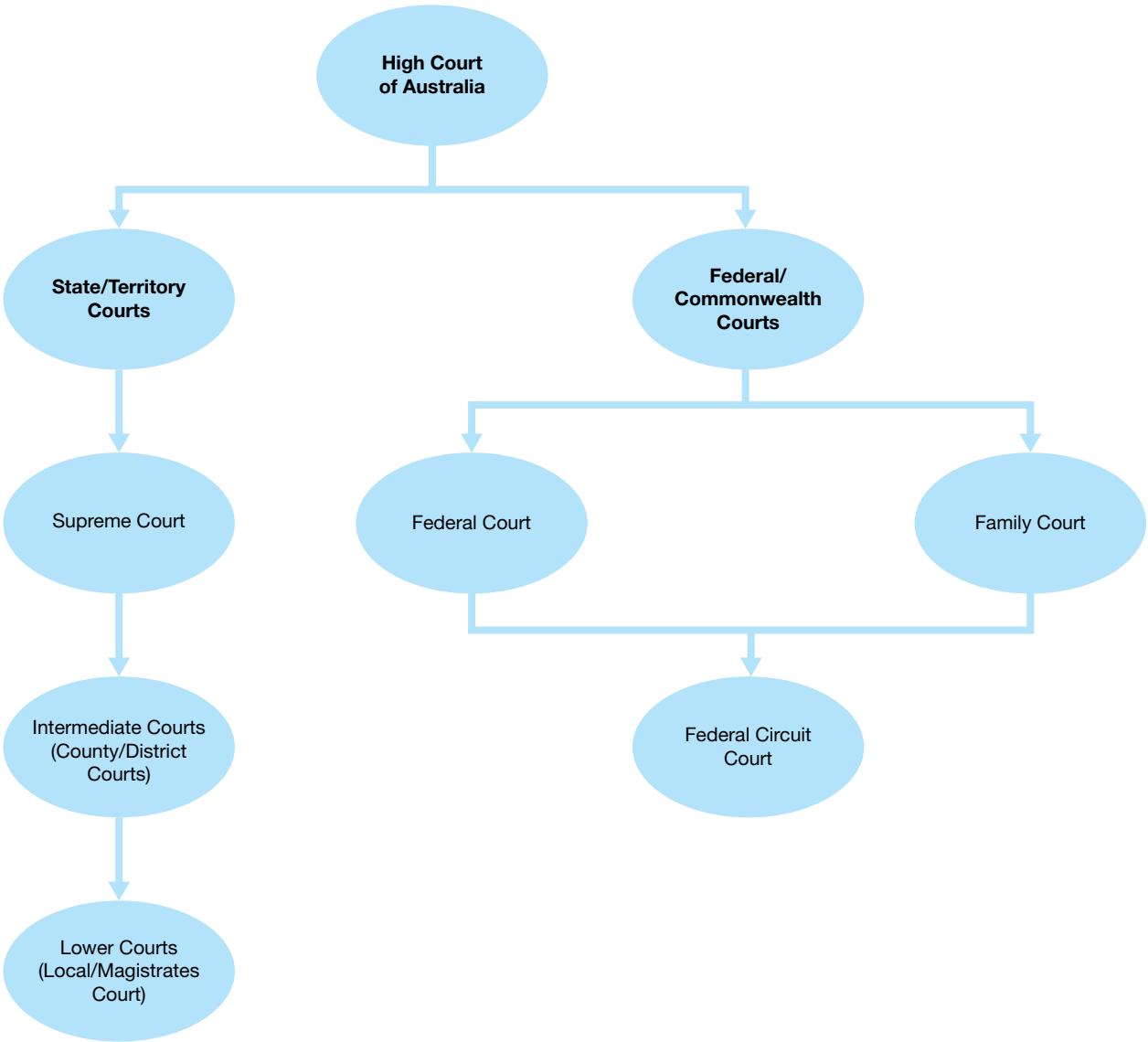
The hierarchy of federal courts

The courts in Australia are structured according to a **hierarchy**, or in levels of importance, meaning that some courts have more authority than others. Generally, the higher up a court is in the hierarchy, the more serious the cases that it hears will be. The hierarchy also means that if an individual (or group) is not satisfied with the outcome of a case, they are then able to appeal to a higher court to reconsider the matter. If the appeal is approved, the case can be retried and an alternative judgement may be reached. This means that most courts have appellate jurisdiction, which allows them to take cases on appeal from lower courts. All courts also have original jurisdiction, which means that they are able to hear a case for the first time.

High Court of Australia

This court is the highest court in Australia and is the last court of appeal (meaning it can hear appeals from all other courts in Australia). Its most important role is to interpret the Constitution and decide whether laws passed act in agreement with the Constitution, and to interpret and apply the law of Australia. It hears cases where there is a dispute about the meaning of a particular part of the Constitution. Seven judges sit on the High Court and they are selected by the federal government.

One of the most important cases that has come before the High Court of Australia is the Mabo case. In 1982, Eddie Mabo, a member of the Indigenous Meriam people of Murray Island in the Torres Strait, presented a case in the High Court to claim traditional land rights over Murray Island and the other surrounding islands and reefs. Before this, the land had been recognised as **terra nullius**, or land belonging to no one. The case was heard over 10 years, after which the High Court came to the decision (with a majority of six judges to one) that native title rights to the land did exist, recognising that the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples had been slowly dispossessed of their land since European settlement began and as the colonies grew. The High Court's decision effectively returned ownership of the land to the Meriam people. The government's *Native Title Act 1993* came in response to the judgement made by the High Court.



Source 2.1.2 The federal and state court hierarchy

Federal Court of Australia

The main function of the Federal Court is to hear criminal and civil cases related to Commonwealth law. Examples include cases relating to immigration or taxation. This court is also able to hear cases relating to constitutional questions.

Family Court of Australia

This is a specialist court that hears cases relating to families, such as child custody arrangements or divorce proceedings. The Family Court tends to deal with more difficult cases relating to family disputes; simpler cases go to the Federal Circuit Court of Australia.

Federal Circuit Court of Australia

This court is a relatively new court in the system, having only been formed in 1999. It deals with some of the simpler family law cases as well as other civil cases such as **copyright** disputes and **bankruptcy** cases.

The hierarchy of state and territory courts

Although the states and territories do not have identical courts in each of their court systems, there is a general hierarchy that applies to most of the states and territories.

Supreme Court

This court deals with the most serious criminal cases, such as murder. It also deals with the more difficult civil cases, especially those involving significant amounts of money. The Supreme Court also has another division, called the Court of Appeal, which hears appeals from both the Supreme Court and all the courts below it in the hierarchy.

County Court or District Court

The County Court (in Victoria) or District Court (in New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia) is also able to deal with serious and complex criminal cases, such as armed robbery, but cannot hear cases involving murder or **manslaughter**. It deals with medium-level civil cases and is able to hear appeals from the Magistrates Court.

Magistrates Court

This is the lowest court in the hierarchy. It makes rulings on minor criminal cases, especially those that can be judged without the need for a jury, such as theft from someone's property. It also hears civil cases involving amounts of money up to $100 000.

Coroner's Court

The Coroner's Court exists separately to the rest of the court structure. Its role is to investigate unexplained deaths and incidents such as fire.

Did you know?

Western Australia is the only state or territory in Australia to have a state-based Family Court.

Other features of Australia's court system

Separation of powers

One of the most important features of our court system is based on the separation of powers outlined in the Constitution. This means that our judiciary (judges and other court officials) act independently (from the Parliament and the **executive government**) in interpreting and applying the law. While the government in power appoints federal judicial officers, it does not interfere with court processes and decisions.

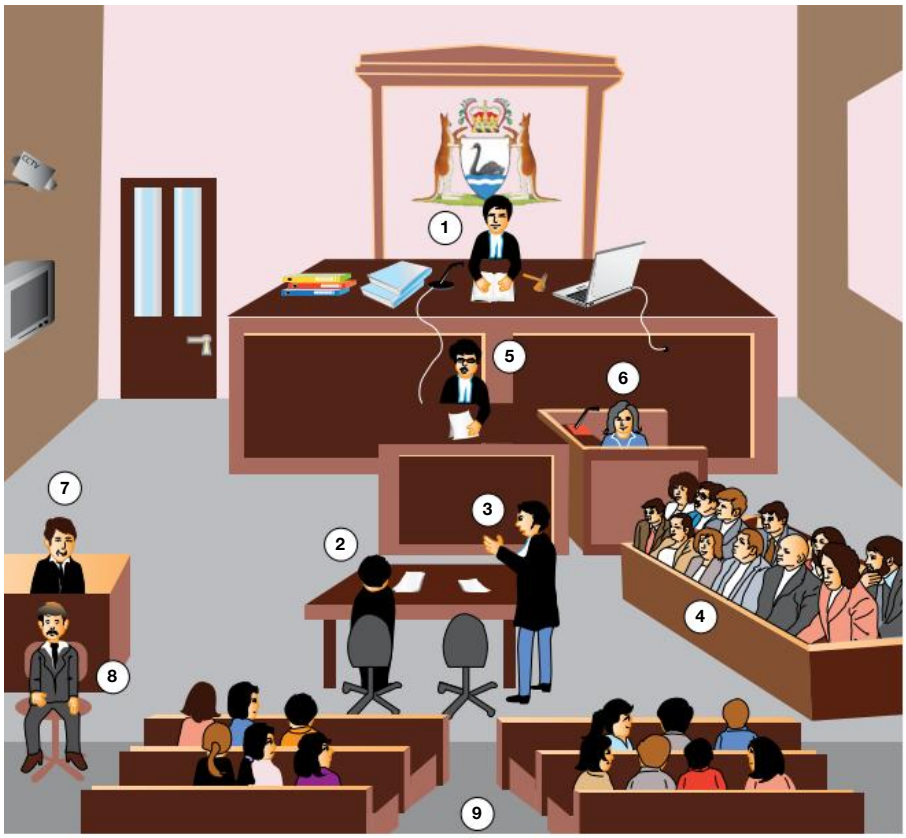
Judge and jury

Court cases, whether civil or criminal, are presided over by a judge or magistrate—and sometimes a jury, too—depending on the case.

The role of a judge is to make rulings in court based on the evidence that is presented to him or her. The judge must also make sure that the trial follows the proper legal processes and explain any difficult points of law that may arise.

In criminal cases, while it is a jury that decides on a person's guilt or innocence, it is the judge who decides on the punishment.

A jury is a group of citizens, aged over 18 and registered on the electoral roll, who are chosen randomly from the roll and are used in serious criminal trials and some civil trials. Their role is to agree upon a guilty or innocent **verdict** based on the evidence presented to them during the trial. Juries also decide how much money (known as damages) is awarded in civil trials. Jury duty is compulsory if you are selected, unless you qualify to be excused for a specific reason such as being pregnant or because you work as a legal professional.



1. Judge
2. Defence counsel
3. Prosecutor
4. Members of the jury
5. Judge's associate
6. Witness
7. The accused person
8. Police/Security officer
9. Members of the public, family/support members of the accused

Source 2.1.3 The personnel in a courtroom for a criminal case

The prosecutor

A prosecutor is a legal practitioner whose role it is to prepare and present the case against the accused individual in a criminal trial; their aim is to convince the jury of the person's guilt. In a civil trial, the individual (or group) who has put forth the lawsuit, known as the **plaintiff**, is represented by a solicitor or a barrister. They present a case for their client and seek compensation, usually in the form of money.

The defence

In both criminal and civil trials, the accused individual (or group) is represented by a defence counsel. The defence counsel prepares and presents its client's case against the charges or claims. In a criminal case, if the accused pleads guilty, the defence counsel aims to get the minimum punishment possible.

Other courtroom roles

Other members of the courtroom may include:

- ***witnesses***—Provide evidence in a trial
- ***judge's associate***—The judge's personal assistant
- ***police officers***—May also provide evidence as well as security in the presence of a prisoner
- ***registrar***—Ensures court processes run smoothly.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 State why laws are a necessary part of life.
2 Explain the difference between criminal law and civil law.
3 Define the meaning of the term 'adversarial system of law'.
4 Infer why judges and juries are an important part of the legal system.
5 Identify two reasons for the existence of a hierarchy of courts.

Applying and analysing

6 Discover the names of the current Justices of Australia's High Court.
7 Dissect the findings of the Mabo case to find out why it is described as a landmark case in Australian legal history.

Evaluating and creating

8 Justify the use of a court hierarchy in Western Australia by examining the nature of the cases that are currently before the courts.

Work of the courts

Courts' procedures

In order to carry out their role of resolving disputes and making judgements, courts need to listen to all the evidence presented in the case, decide on the relevant law and apply it to the case, and then come to a decision.

Statute law

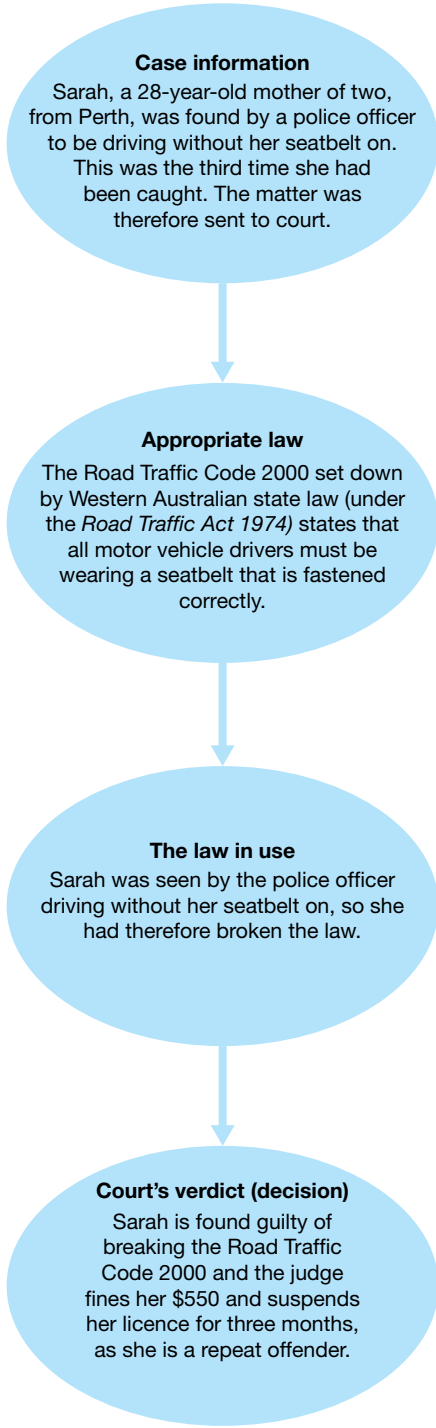
The main starting place for courts when deciding on the appropriate law to apply is to look at the **statute law**. Statute law is the law made by state and federal parliaments. The courts must work on interpreting the appropriate statute law, defining the sometimes difficult language in the law in order to make it understandable. When courts interpret the law, they must think about what Parliament was aiming to achieve when the law was created. Courts are able to use a variety of different tools to assist them when interpreting the law, including dictionaries and Hansard (the official records of parliamentary debates).

Common law

Courts also have a very important role in the law-making process. Sometimes courts are faced with cases where there is no existing law that is appropriate to apply. In these cases, judges must create new laws, known as common laws.

In creating these new laws, **precedents** are set. A precedent is a law or rule that other courts must use when deciding on cases with similar circumstances or facts. It is usually the courts higher up in the court hierarchy that create these precedents as they tend to deal with more complicated and serious cases; however, all courts are able to set precedents.

In the court hierarchy, whichever court sets the precedent, all the lower courts in the hierarchy must then follow it. This is known as a **binding precedent** as all inferior courts are bound to follow it. For example, if the High Court sets a precedent, every other court in Australia must follow it as the High Court is the highest court in the hierarchy. Alternatively, if a court lower in the hierarchy sets a precedent, courts higher up in the hierarchy are able to overrule the precedent and make their own decisions. They do not have to follow precedents set



Source 2.2.1 The way that the courts resolve a case

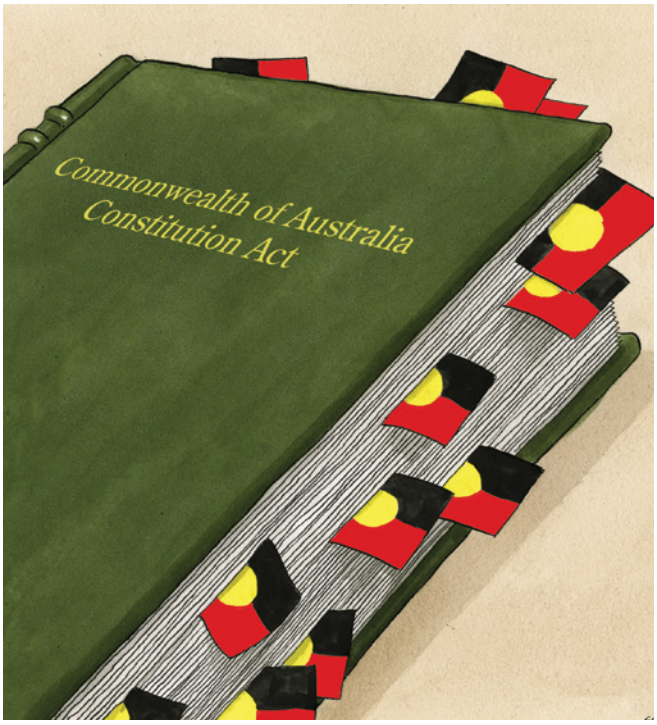
by the lower courts. Precedents help to make trials run more fairly and efficiently as the same legal principles are applied in cases that are the same or similar.

When following a precedent previously set, it is important and helpful for courts to look at exactly how and why the particular court that set the precedent came to reach its decision. This is known as the **ratio decidendi**, and it assists courts in understanding the reasoning behind the judgement, which in turn helps them apply it to their own cases when it is appropriate.

Another way in which the courts create law is by applying their own interpretation to existing statute laws. These court interpretations also create precedents and become part of common law.

Statute law versus common law

In Australia, parliamentary or statute law is considered the most superior and powerful. If there is a conflict between a law made by Parliament and a common law, or if the courts create a precedent that Parliament is not satisfied with, then the existing parliamentary law prevails over the common law. Alternatively, Parliament is also able to create a new law that would effectively 'cancel out' the precedent set by the court.



Source 2.2.3 Over the course of our history, both Parliament and judges have needed to interpret and amend the Constitution in relation to the changing rights of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.

Statute law	Common law (case law)
Made by parliament	Decided by courts
Bound by the Constitution	Bound by precedent and legislation
Applies to the whole community	Applies only to the parties involved
Covers broad areas	Covers issues and facts specifically connected to the individual case
Parliament is the highest authority	Court decisions can be overridden by parliament or higher courts
Parliament can delegate legislation to state and local governments	Courts cannot delegate their powers
Parliament passes laws that affect the future	Courts make decisions to address cases that have already occurred. These decisions can sometimes affect future decisions.

Source 2.2.2 The differences between statute law and common law

How courts resolve cases

Criminal trials

In criminal trials, once a jury has been selected, the alleged crime or offence is presented to the court and the accused must enter a plea of 'guilty' or 'not guilty'.

The prosecution then gives what is called the opening address, which presents an overview of the case and the main evidence that will demonstrate why the accused should be found guilty.

The defence, representing the accused, is then able to provide a response to the opening address.

Witnesses are called by the prosecution and the defence to provide evidence, which is information presented to the court to help support the alleged or supposed facts of the case. Witnesses can be thoroughly questioned and cross-examined (questioned by the opposing legal team) in order to explore the evidence presented and possibly find any weaknesses or mistakes in the witnesses' statements.

Apart from witness statements, other evidence may be submitted—for example, a gun said to be involved in the crime, or forensic evidence such as fingerprints.

Both the prosecution and the defence provide a summary of their cases.

If the accused has pleaded 'not guilty', then the jury retires to discuss and decide on a decision or verdict.

If the accused is found guilty, the judge then decides on the appropriate punishment. If the jury delivers a 'not guilty' verdict, then the accused is released and is free to leave.

Civil trials

Civil trials run in a very similar manner to criminal trials; however, a jury is not usually used in a civil trial. The party taking the action to court is known as the plaintiff and the party being accused of a wrongdoing is known as the **defendant**. Both parties and their legal representatives give opening addresses, present evidence and can call witnesses. Even once a trial has begun, parties are able to reach an out-of-court settlement. This means that they come to an agreement about the outcome, whether it be correcting faulty work, replacing faulty goods, compensation or damages requested. At the end of a civil trial, if an out-of-court settlement has not been reached, the judge presents his or her verdict. If the plaintiff wins, the judge then decides what remedy (usually in the form of money) will be awarded to the plaintiff.

Source 2.2.4 Foreign objects, such as these seeds, which were found on the accused, can be used as evidence in a murder trial.

Source 2.2.5 A view of a Victorian courtroom during a civil case against a power supplier whose faulty equipment was claimed to have started one of the Black Saturday bushfires in 2009

Rules of evidence

In both criminal and civil trials, all parties must ensure that they follow the strict rules of evidence and court procedures. It is the judge's job to make sure these rules and procedures are followed. The rules of evidence include that the information provided must be factual and not just somebody's opinion, and that all evidence presented by police needs to be gained legally. A judge may order that someone be removed from the court if they are disrupting proceedings or acting in a manner that might put others at risk. The judges can also, if it is proved that someone has given false evidence, have them charged with perjury (lying to the court).

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Find the meaning of the term 'statute law'.
2. Describe what courts must do when working with statute law.
3. Show why there is a need for a system of common law.
4. Relate the importance of precedents in the common law system.
5. Demonstrate how precedent affects higher and lower courts within the hierarchy.

Applying and analysing

6. Identify examples of times when statute law has prevailed over common law in Australia.
7. Differentiate between the processes used in criminal and civil trials.

Evaluating and creating

8. Evaluate the rules of evidence that are applied in the Australian legal system. Do they promote or obstruct justice? Give reasons to support your answer.

Principles of justice

The key principles of Australia's justice system include equality before the law, an independent judiciary and the right of appeal.

Access to justice

Australia's courts have established many principles in order to maintain a court system that ensures fairness and protection for all participants. Our legal system exists to assist our society to function effectively and harmoniously, and it is therefore important that all members of society have trust in the system and an understanding that they can rely on it if and when necessary.

Source 2.3.1 It is important that legal representation can be accessed by all. For example, Legal Aid WA has lawyers working as part of the Youth Law Team in the Criminal Law division. These lawyers specialise in providing legal assistance to young people.

Source 2.3.2 The scales held by this statue of Lady Justice, the Roman goddess of Justice, symbolise the importance of equality and balance in the justice system.

Equal access to justice

Being able to access our legal system is one of the most important foundations of achieving justice. It is our government's responsibility to ensure that our courts are properly funded in order to operate effectively. The court hierarchy that exists in both state and federal courts means that each court has expertise in certain areas and can focus only on cases that are relevant and appropriate to it.

It is the job of the police to inform people of their rights when the need arises (such as when they have been arrested for a crime) and many organisations exist that can provide information to any citizen requiring it, explaining legal processes and procedures and what people can do if they require assistance.

As part of our adversary system of law, parties in court are able to choose legal representation in order to assist them in presenting their case; however, not everyone who comes before the court is able to afford independent lawyers. Organisations such as Legal Aid provide free legal advice and information, in addition to lower-cost and, where relevant, free (or pro bono) legal representation, so that everyone is able to have representation in court. For people with mental health issues, there is a Mental Health Legal Service, which offers the same services.

Equality before the law

Another basic human right in our justice system is the right to be equal before the law. This means that every individual, regardless of such factors as gender, religion, race or age, is looked upon equally before the law and that the same laws of justice are applied to all. Additionally, everyone has a right to be provided safety by the law and protection from discrimination. Everyone appearing in court charged with an offence is therefore presumed innocent until proved otherwise.

All people who work in our judicial system must take an oath to 'administer the law without fear, favour, affection or ill will.' They need to have an understanding of different cultures, values and backgrounds and to

adapt or modify legal processes (such as the giving of evidence) to allow for these differences.

This right to equality before the law extends beyond our own legal system. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (which is a global document) states that 'All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law.'

Independent judiciary

Our judiciary has the ultimate responsibility of helping to maintain law and order and protect our rights and freedoms. In order to receive fair, impartial (or neutral) and consistent or reliable delivery of justice, the judiciary (which includes courts, judges, magistrates and adjudicators) must be independent.

This independence is maintained through the separation of powers set out by the Constitution. The judiciary is given the power to 'manage' the law, and this is separate from the Parliament's power to create the laws. The Constitution states that the Federal Parliament does not have judicial power, meaning that it is not allowed to decide or have influence on the results of cases.

Source 2.3.3 New South Wales Supreme Court Judge, Justice George Palmer, with some of the legal resources in his library

Source 2.3.4 An open courtroom during a civil trial

Source 2.3.5 Northern Territory traditional landowners arrive at the High Court for an appeal made against an earlier court decision on fishing rights.

The independence of the judiciary is further maintained by the fact that, once judges are appointed to their role (by the government), they hold that position until they reach retirement age (unless there is evidence of misconduct or incapacity, such as illness, on their part). They are also appointed based on their skill and expertise, and not on their political preferences. Once appointed to a judicial position, judges must not participate in any aspect of political life.

ROLE OF JUDICIARY IN MAINTAINING JUSTICE

Members of our judiciary need to act without any favouritism or bias towards any of the parties in the courtroom. It is critical that they perform their role in a balanced and neutral manner. Furthermore, a member of the judiciary may not be a part of a case if they personally know any of the parties involved; and if a party feels that they have been discriminated against in court by the judiciary, they have the right to appeal. If a judge thinks they might have a bias in a case, or if someone else—for example, the defence team—feels that they have, the judge can recuse (excuse) him- or herself from presiding over the case (in other words, step down) or be asked to do so.

Most court cases in Australia feature open courts, meaning that members of the public are able to come and watch the legal proceedings. This is another way to ensure that the judiciary is conducting fair trials, free from influence or prejudice. It makes the judiciary answerable to the public for their actions.

Right of appeal

Another aspect of our legal system that helps to maintain our principles of justice is a person's right to appeal against the court's decision in a case. This can occur in both criminal and civil cases. The structure of the court hierarchy means that, if an individual is not satisfied with the result of their case, in certain circumstances they are able to appeal to a higher court in the hierarchy. They may then have their case heard again and the original judgement may be overturned or changed.

In criminal cases, appeals may be made against the conviction or against the sentence (punishment) given, and both the accused and the prosecution can appeal. There have been cases where the prosecution has appealed against what they consider an unfairly light sentence. In civil cases, the plaintiff and the defendant have the right to appeal, either against the amount of damages given, or on a point of law (the way the law is interpreted and applied) that occurred during the trial.

This ability to appeal means that individuals are assured that the court system will treat them fairly, address their concerns and provide the appropriate outcome.

Principles of justice in criminal trials

There are certain principles of justice that aim to protect human rights when individuals are faced with criminal proceedings. Criminal cases can often be very complex and of a very serious nature, so these principles aim to ensure that the accused in a criminal justice case is safeguarded against any possible abuse of their rights.

PRESUMPTION OF INNOCENCE

Even when an individual is charged with a crime, no matter how severe the crime is, they are considered innocent until proven guilty and should be treated that way. Although they present their case in court, the accused does not need to prove their innocence. It is the role of the prosecution to prove they are guilty. This is called the **burden of proof**. The prosecution must provide enough evidence at trial to demonstrate that the accused is guilty of the crime beyond a **reasonable doubt**. This means that the judge or jury must be convinced, as far as logically possible, that the accused committed the crime. If they have any uncertainty about it, then they cannot come to the conclusion that the accused is guilty and their verdict must be 'not guilty'.

OTHER RIGHTS IN CRIMINAL CASES

Some of the other rights possessed by individuals in criminal cases that help to maintain the principles of justice are:

- to have a lawyer present before facing any questioning
- to remain silent, both during questioning by police and during the trial, if they believe answering any questions might incriminate them in some way
- to have their case come before a court without unreasonable delay
- for their legal representatives to be able to cross-examine the witnesses provided by the prosecution
- not to be tried again for the same or a similar crime if they have already been convicted or found not guilty.
- not to be charged for the same crime again if they have already been convicted or found not guilty.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Name three principles of justice that are applied in Australia.
2. Estimate the importance of the Australian legal system.
3. Illustrate one way in which equal access to justice is achieved in Australia.
4. Rewrite what is meant by the idea of equality before the law.
5. Summarise the methods used to ensure that the judiciary remains independent.

Applying and analysing

6. Find some examples of cases that have recently been appealed in Western Australia. Identify the basis on which the appeals were made.

Evaluating and creating

7. Evaluate a recent High Court appeal. What decision was made in this case, and how does this case demonstrate the effectiveness of the court hierarchy?

UNIT 2.4

Challenges to justice

Justice for all

Although our courts strive to provide a system that is just and accessible for everyone, sometimes they are unable to do this. There are factors, both within and outside the court system, that sometimes make justice difficult or impossible to achieve.

The jury system

There are disadvantages to the jury system that can have an effect on the fairness of a trial. Juries are supposed to represent a cross-section of the community. Thus they should contain individuals of different ages, occupations, religions, races, gender and backgrounds. However, this may not always be the case. People can be excused from jury duty if, for example, they live far away from the court, or are pregnant or are over a certain age. Some people are not allowed on a jury—for example, anyone in the legal profession or with a recent criminal conviction. Both parties in a case are allowed to challenge and reject a certain number of jury members. All of these factors can result in a jury that is not a true representation of the community. As well, jurors may hold personal prejudices that are never revealed.

The adversarial system

The adversarial approach places two parties in opposition to each other, each trying to win the case. Critics argue that it is not a truth-seeking system and is unjust. Retired Justice Russell Fox spent 11 years researching the law in Australia. He stated that lawyers can pollute the truth by actions such as blaming the victim, misrepresentation and false arguments. Justice Fox also said that some rules act to conceal significant evidence from jurors. He concluded that, as a result, more than 50 per cent of offenders escape punishment. As well, the role of the judge in the adversarial system is mostly to clarify information and points of law, and therefore the significant courtroom experience and knowledge that judges have is not fully drawn upon.

Source 2.4.1 A jury box at the Supreme Court. The jury system does not always ensure that justice is delivered.

Actual access to justice

The cost of pursuing justice can be very high. Consequently, many people choose not to do so. As only the very rich can afford the best legal representation and only the very poor can access free Legal Aid, the majority of Australians struggle to afford legal representation. Highly paid lawyers are often skilled at using arguments that sound correct but are actually false, and this gives the defendant a better chance of obtaining a verdict of not guilty. Legal Aid, on the other hand, has to apply very stringent **means tests** and restrictions on the services it provides, so many people confront the legal system without any legal representation. People paying for the best legal services can have as much time as needed to discuss their case and the approach to the trial. Those represented by Legal Aid, by contrast, are likely only to meet their representative at trial, and the representative may have had only a few hours to familiarise themselves with the case. Therefore the prospect of a fair trial and a just outcome may be at risk.

Court system complexity

People often are not aware that, rather than go through the court system, their problems could be solved using other methods, such as **mediation**. Many find the legal system so confusing and complex that they do not seek or find the assistance they require and that they legally are entitled to.

Bribery

Bribery is the practice of offering or giving another person money or other goods, in exchange for which that person does something corruptly that benefits the person offering the bribe. Bribes have been offered, for example, to police, in exchange for information or to get them to remove evidence from a case; to members of the legal profession, to gain representation; and to judges, in order to influence the outcome of a case or the severity of a sentence. Bribes are sometimes also given to witnesses to persuade them not to provide information or to change the information that they do provide.

Coercion of witnesses

Witnesses play a very important role in legal proceedings, providing new information in a case and helping to clarify what has happened. Coercion of a witness occurs when another party tries to force the witness (usually with physical force or threats towards them or their family) to lie in court, to withhold information or to refuse to testify. Coercion is often very successful as witnesses can become very scared about what might happen to them or their loved ones.

Tampering with evidence

Sometimes, people (including police) change, hide or destroy evidence. They also make up evidence. This is called tampering with evidence. Bribery, coercion of witnesses and evidence tampering can all be hard to detect. Clearly, however, such actions can have an impact on any investigation, interfere with the course of justice and influence the outcome of a case.

Trial by media

Many cases receive extensive coverage in print and digital media, and now through social media, in the lead-up to a trial. Sections of the media will sometimes portray someone as guilty or innocent before the trial has even started. This acts against the principle of presumption of innocence and conflicts with the idea of a fair trial for all. It is difficult for jury members to remain impartial towards someone when the media is providing negative—or overly positive—information about them. They may develop a negative view of the defendant, or develop sympathy for them, which may influence their thoughts during the trial.

Court delays

Having a court system that is fair, efficient and effective relies on cases being brought before the courts and resolved as quickly as possible. This reduces both the cost and the stress of appearing in court. However, delays can occur for a number of reasons.

Source 2.4.2 Former television star Robert Hughes believed he was unable to get a fair trial in Australia on charges of indecent assault because the media portrayed him as guilty before the trial even started.

In both criminal and civil cases, pre-trial procedures can delay the start of a case. Police investigations in criminal cases can be very lengthy, and in a civil case the discovery process (in which the opposing parties look over each other's information and documents) can take months or even years. In addition, courts are receiving increasing numbers of cases without additional resources, so that cases often remain on a 'waiting list' while the courts try to get through the work.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Cite some indicators of diversity within a jury.
2. Give two reasons why people might be excused from jury duty.
3. List two examples of people who are not allowed to serve on juries.
4. Infer what is meant by the term 'personal prejudices'.
5. Explain how a juror's personal prejudices may negatively affect the outcome of a trial.

Applying and analysing

6. Distil, as a list of dot points, the factors that can affect people's access to justice in the Australian legal system.

Evaluating and creating

7. Consider the opinions expressed by Justice Russell Fox. Do you agree or disagree with his assessment of the Australian legal system?

Inquiry tasks

Our jury system

Some argue that Australia's jury system is outdated and unfair and should be phased out. Prepare a PMI (plus, minus, interesting) chart that identifies all of the advantages, disadvantages and interesting points of the jury system. After you have completed the chart, write an essay on the following topic: 'The jury system should be abolished from Australia's court system. Discuss.'

Structure your essay to include an introduction, a body and a conclusion.

- ***Introduction***—Briefly define the topic. In this case, that means briefly explaining the jury system and its place in Australia's court system. Then introduce your point of view on the discussion topic (whether or not the jury system should be abolished) and briefly introduce your arguments.
- ***Body***—Include three body paragraphs. Each paragraph should contain one argument, supported by evidence or reasoning, that supports your point of view.
- ***Conclusion***—Summarise your arguments and restate your point of view.

A court case

In groups, create a picture storybook (print or digital) for an upper primary school audience that explains what happens when someone breaks the law and then faces trial in court. Ensure your story has a well-developed plot. Plots usually contain:

- an orientation, which introduces the characters, setting, etc.
- a problem or complication
- a resolution to the problem.

Remember to include all of the steps involved in a trial and all the key roles within the courtroom.

The court hierarchy system

Imagine our court hierarchy system did not exist. Prepare a mind map that demonstrates all of the potential consequences if this were the case. For each consequence, consider any follow-on consequences. For example, if there were no court hierarchy system, there might not be judges and lawyers with expertise in particular areas of the law, such as family law. Following on, if these experts did not exist, judgement rulings and prosecution and defence might be less informed.

Achieving justice

Look back at Unit 2.4, 'Challenges to justice'. Rank each of the nine challenges identified from 1 to 9, with '1' being the challenge that you feel should be of most concern in Australia's court system today and '9' being the one of least concern. For each of the challenges, suggest one possible solution our court system could adopt to ease these challenges and improve justice.

Source 2.5.1 The High Court of Australia, located in Canberra, is the highest court in our court hierarchy.

GLOSSARY

bankruptcy the condition of being unable to repay one's debts

binding precedent a principle established in a previous legal case that a court or other tribunal must follow when deciding subsequent cases with similar issues or facts

burden of proof the obligation on the plaintiff in a legal case to prove that what he or she claims is true

civil law law that applies to ordinary private matters, where the maximum punishment does not include prison

Commonwealth the Commonwealth of Australia, which is Australia's official title

copyright an exclusive legal right to publish and distribute a work

criminal law law imposing punishment for illegal actions

defendant the person or organisation in a court case whose behaviour is at issue and who will be proven guilty or not guilty

executive government those members of the government who control policy and government departments; also known as the cabinet

hierarchy a system that reflects order of importance

jurisdiction the territory controlled by a government

manslaughter an unlawful killing that is not judged to be murder, often because it was unintentional

means test a test of a person's income and assets to determine whether they fall below a certain level and thus make the person eligible for a service or benefit

mediation a discussion and negotiation process that seeks to resolve disputes without involving the courts

plaintiff a person who makes a legal complaint against someone else in court

precedent a principle established in a previous legal case that a court or other tribunal must take into account when deciding subsequent cases with similar issues or facts

ratio decidendi the reason or rule of law on which a judicial decision is based

reasonable doubt a standard of proof, used in criminal trials, according to which the prosecutor must prove as far as logically possible that the accused committed the crime

statute law law made by state and federal parliaments, also known as legislation

terra nullius a Latin term meaning 'land belonging to no one'; in international law, territory that nobody owns so that the first nation to discover it is entitled to claim possession

verdict a decision as to whether the accused person in a legal case is guilty or not guilty

INDIAN OCEAN
AUSTRALIA

CHAPTER 3

Australia and the global economy

Australia depends on the global economy in many ways. We sell or export a wide range of items and services, including minerals, live animals, cereals, tourism and education to other countries and purchase products, such as mobile phones, which are not manufactured in Australia. Being this involved in the global economy brings us benefits—we are able to purchase a greater variety of items than are available locally—but it also brings the risk that we can be affected by changes in the global environment.

Source 3.0.1 Australia may be large in land area but, in terms of economies, we are deeply dependent on the rest of the world.

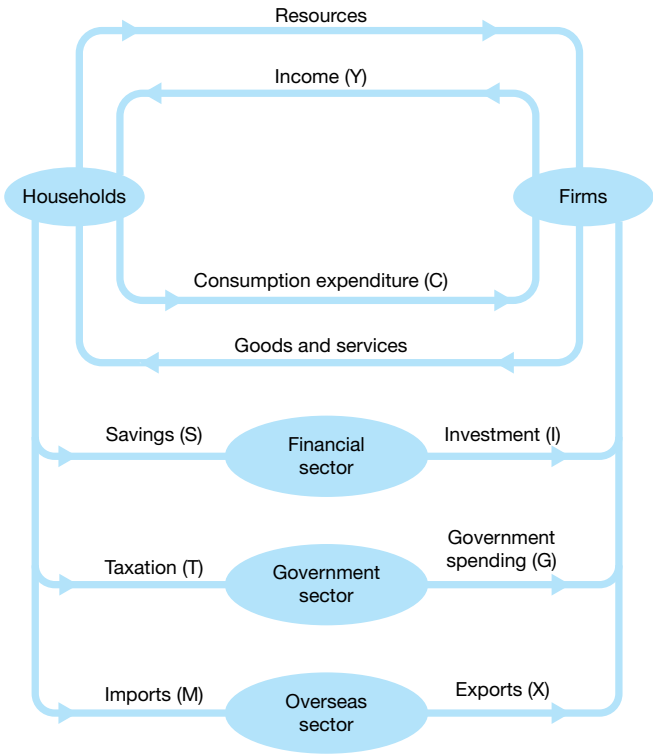
Key participants in the Australian economy

Economic activity and the circular flow of income

The term 'economic activity' refers to the process of producing and consuming goods and services. This involves the participation of a number of groups, including:

- households
- firms
- the financial sector
- the government
- the rest of the world.

The **circular flow of income** can be seen in a diagram that represents the relationships between these groups. It demonstrates that each group specialises in particular types of economic activity and then trades with the other sectors to satisfy as many needs and wants as possible.



Source 3.1.1 The circular flow diagram demonstrates the relationships between the participants in an economy.

Household sector

The **household sector** includes all the **consumers** in the economy. Consumers are the people who buy and use goods and services in order to satisfy their needs and wants; every single person is a consumer some of the time. The circular flow diagram assumes that households also own all the resources that firms use to produce goods and services. In the real world, however, firms can own resources such as land and machinery. By making a simplifying assumption such as this, economists are able to design models that focus on the key relationships in the economy.

These resources, also known as 'factors of production', are often placed in the four following categories.

- ***Land***—all the gifts of nature, including water, trees and minerals
- ***Labour***—the human effort used in the production process, such as the effort and skill of a bricklayer or a brain surgeon
- ***Capital***—the human-made items used in the production process, such as tools and machinery
- ***Enterprise***—the ability to combine the other three categories of resources in a meaningful way, such as through the strategic decisions made by a business manager.

In the circular flow model, households sell their resources to firms, and in exchange they are paid income. Households then spend this income to purchase the goods and services that firms provide.

Many consumers are, therefore, also workers: they provide labour to firms, are paid an income and then spend that income on various goods and services.

Firms sector

The **firms sector** includes all business organisations. They purchase resources from households and then use those resources to produce goods and services to sell to households. To keep the model simple, it is assumed that firms want to make as much profit as possible; they will, therefore, only produce those items that households want to purchase.

Source 3.1.2 Economists consider all the gifts of nature, including animals such as this crayfish, to be 'land'.

Economists often use the term '**private sector**' to indicate all those firms that are not part of the government. The term '**public sector**' refers to firms that are owned by the government, such as the Water Corporation in Perth.

Interdependence of households and firms

Households and firms are interdependent: each relies on the other to achieve their goals. Their relationship is based on two key markets known as the **factor market** and the **product market**. In the factor market, resources (factors of production) are sold to the firms in exchange for income. In the product market, goods and services produced by firms are sold to households in exchange for consumer spending.

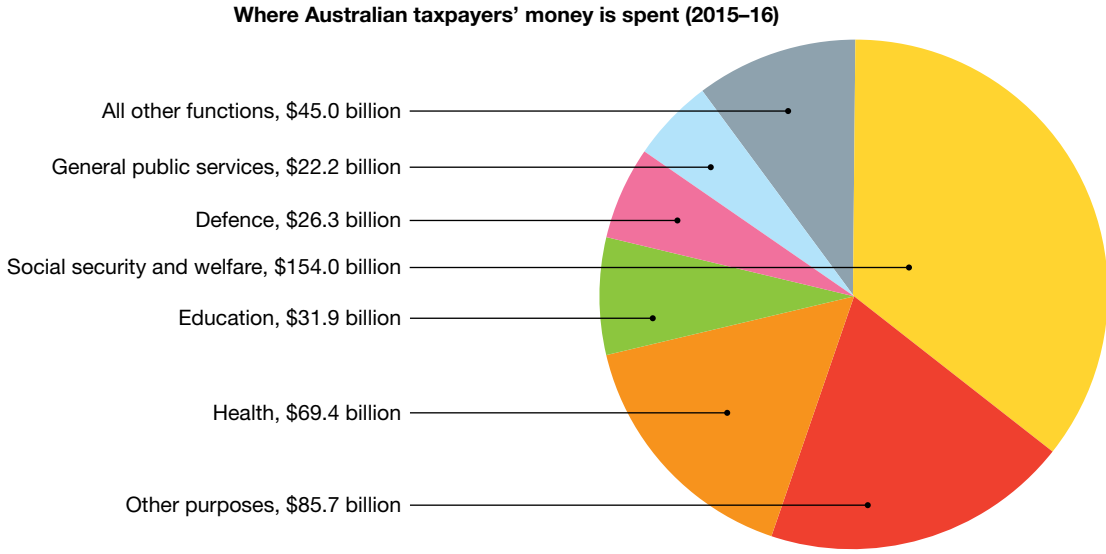
Financial sector

The financial sector includes all the organisations that accept deposits of money from households, then repackage those funds and make them available for loans to firms. Examples of financial organisations include banks and insurance companies. The financial sector receives savings from households and then provides this money to firms for **investment**—the process by which firms borrow money to finance their purchases of capital goods such as machinery.

Savings are often referred to as a 'leakage' because they reduce households' ability to purchase goods and services, and therefore cause the level of economic activity to fall. Investment is called an 'injection' because it adds to the amount of money circulating in the economy and causes economic activity to rise.

Government sector

The government sector includes the economic activities of all three levels of government in Australia. They receive taxation payments from households and then use these funds to pay for a range of government spending, including social security, defence and the public health system. Taxation is considered to be a leakage as it reduces the amount of money households can spend on goods and services and therefore lowers the level of economic activity. Government spending is an injection into the circular flow as it raises the demand for goods and services, causing economic activity to rise.



Source 3.1.3 The largest area of spending by the Australian Government in 2015–16 was social security, which includes unemployment benefits and the age pension.

The level of government spending in any particular year does not entirely depend on the amount of money governments receive from taxation. All levels of government are able to save some of their revenue (so government spending is less than taxation). Many choose to do this when the economy is running very well and private firms are keeping economic activity at a high level. Alternatively, governments can borrow money to allow the level of government spending to be higher than taxation. They may do this if they want to boost the level of activity by increasing injections.

Governments are involved in providing a range of goods and services. These include public goods such as the defence force and national parks; the private sector does not produce these items as they offer little or no potential for profit.

Although it is not clearly shown in the circular flow diagram, the government is responsible for managing aspects of the economy beyond simply setting levels of taxation and government spending. The government is involved in regulating the activities of firms, including making sure that any particular firm does not gain an unfair advantage by using deceptive advertising or trying to manipulate prices.

Overseas sector

The final sector in the circular flow diagram represents the rest of the world. Many items produced in Australia are sold to people overseas (**exports**), while people in Australia often purchase things made in other countries (**imports**).

Imports

Imports are classified as a leakage from the circular flow: while the overseas-made items may be coming into Australia, money leaves Australia in order to pay for them. For example, when an Australian consumer buys clothes from an online store in the United States, the money to pay for those items flows out of Australia's economy and into the US.

Exports

Exports are an injection into the circular flow as they represent flows of money into Australia. If an Australian mining company sells iron ore to a Chinese steel mill, the iron ore leaves Australia but the payment for the product comes in, helping to boost Australia's level of economic activity.

Other imports and exports

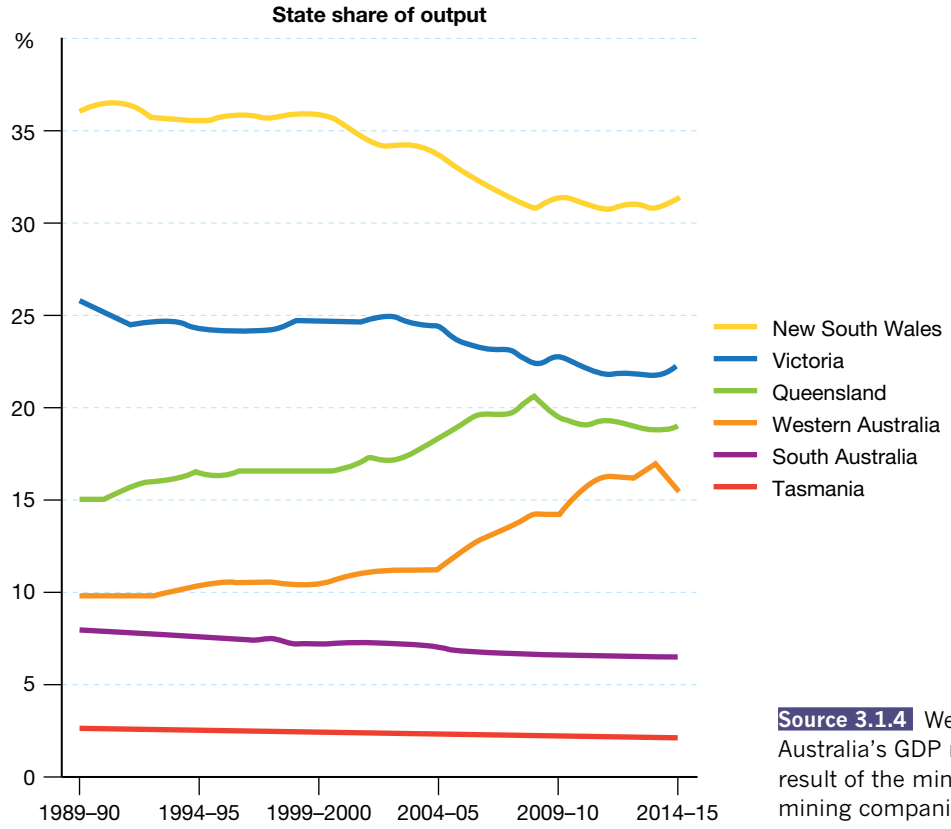
International tourism and education are also included in the flows of imports and exports. As with flows of goods, tourism and education are classified as exports or imports depending upon the direction in which the money is flowing. If an Australian family travels to Indonesia for a holiday, this is an import for Australia as money is flowing out of Australia and into Indonesia. Alternatively, if a Malaysian family sends their children to boarding schools in Australia, this is recorded as an export for Australia as payment for the education flows from Malaysia to Australia.

The Australian economy as a whole

Economists use the concept of **gross domestic product (GDP)** to measure the size of the Australian economy. This is the value of all final goods and services produced in the economy in a year. In 2014–15, Australia's GDP was around $1.6 trillion.

Of the states and territories, New South Wales is the largest contributor to Australia's GDP.

Western Australia's share rose rapidly between 2004 and 2014 as mining companies significantly increased their levels of investment to satisfy demand from China for minerals, particularly iron ore. WA's contribution to the national GDP is now falling as the mining companies reduce investment spending in response to falling minerals prices.



Source: ABS

Source 3.1.4 Western Australia's contribution to Australia's GDP rose between 2004 and 2014 as a result of the mining boom. It is now falling again as mining companies reduce their levels of investment.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'economic activity'.
2. List the groups that participate in the economy.
3. Describe what is shown by the circular flow of income.
4. Explain the assumptions that the circular flow model makes about households.
5. Outline the assumptions the circular flow model makes in relation to firms.

Applying and analysing

6. Examine the interdependence of households and firms.
7. Differentiate between the financial sector and the government sector with reference to examples.

Evaluating and creating

8. Assess the size of the Australian economy by finding the latest gross domestic product figures. Estimate the importance of Western Australia's contribution to this total.

Australia's trade relationships with other countries

Exports and imports

Australia is often described as having an **open economy** because it participates in trade with other countries. Trade is very important for Australia's prosperity: in 2014–15, the value of all of the nation's trade was $660 billion.

This trade involves both exports and imports. From Australia's perspective, an export is a good or service made in Australia but sold to residents of another country. This results in money flowing into the Australian economy. For example, if a person in the United States buys a pair of Australian-made sheepskin boots, the boots are described as exports from Australia to the US as money flows from the US to Australia to pay for them.

An import is a good or service made in another country that is sold to Australian residents. This results in money flowing out of the Australian economy. If someone in Australia buys clothing online from a Chinese firm, the clothes are imported to Australia from China. The payment for those clothes flows from Australia to China.

Direction of trade

The term 'direction of trade' refers to the countries Australia trades with. Asia is very important in Australia's trade relationships: four of our top five export markets and import sources are in Asia. China is now Australia's top trading partner by a significant margin.

Source 3.2.1 The average Australian home uses many imported goods from a number of countries.

Export rank	Country	% of exports
1	China	28.3
2	Japan	14.6
3	United States	6.5
4	Republic of Korea	6.4
5	India	4.0

Import rank	Country	% of imports
1	China	17.4
2	United States	12.9
3	Japan	6.2
4	Singapore	4.8
5	Republic of Korea	4.2

Source 3.2.2 Asian countries are very important in Australia's trade relationships, as shown in this data from 2014–15.

Changes in the direction of trade

During the 20th century, Australia's direction of trade changed considerably. Until the 1960s, the vast majority of Australia's trade was with the United Kingdom, mainland Europe and the United States. This reflected patterns of economic development at the time, but also Australia's cultural and historical links with the English-speaking powers.

From 1958, many European nations joined the European Economic Community with the aim of fostering trade and other links between countries in Europe. As the European nations, eventually including the United Kingdom, drew closer together, it became more difficult for Australian firms to export to their traditional markets. At the same time, Japan was starting to emerge as a significant market for Australian products. This began a transition from a European focus to an Asian focus in Australia's direction of trade. This change has been driven by the **complementarity** between Australia and the Asian region: we can sell many of the items Asian consumers and firms demand, and they can sell us many of the items Australian consumers and firms are looking for.

IMPORTANCE OF CHINA AND INDIA

China's rapid growth and development, beginning in the 1980s, led to increased demand for Australia's exports. China's output of relatively cheap consumer goods led Australian firms and consumers to import increasing amounts. In late 2007, China overtook Japan to become Australia's largest trading partner.

The next significant shift in Australia's direction of trade is likely to be related to the growth of India's economy. The United Nations has predicted that India will overtake China as the world's most populous nation in 2022. At the same time, incomes in India are also rising, leading to increasing demand for many of Australia's exports. As a result, India's importance in Australia's trade relationships is likely to rise over the next few years.

Composition of trade

The **composition of trade** is the combination of goods and services that we export and import. In recent years natural resources, including iron ore and coal, have been among Australia's key exports, supported by a vibrant services industry, including education and tourism. On the imports side, Australia tends to purchase overseas travel, oil products and high-tech items as these are not readily available or produced here.

Changes in the composition of trade

Australia's composition of trade has changed considerably over the nation's history. From the 1870s until the 1960s, wool was our main export as farmers expanded operations in the large areas of land suited to raising sheep, and international prices remained strong. It was often said that Australia 'rode on the sheep's back', implying that Australia's prosperity was based on sheep farming.

Rank	Export	% of exports
1	Iron ore	17
2	Coal	12
3	Education	6
4	Natural gas	5
5	Personal travel (excl. education)	5

Rank	Import	% of imports
1	Personal travel (excl. education)	7
2	Passenger motor vehicles	5
3	Refined petroleum	5
4	Crude petroleum	4
5	Telecommunications equipment	3

Source 3.2.3 Natural resources rank highly in Australia's exports, while tourism and manufactured goods are significant imports.

Source 3.2.4 Exports of liquefied natural gas (LNG) are an important source of income from Australia. Their significance is likely to rise as projects such as the Gorgon development off Western Australia reach full production.

In the 1960s, wool prices fell as new synthetic fabrics such as nylon became more widely used. While agricultural products including wool, wheat and beef are still important exports for Australia today, they have been overtaken by minerals and services. There is great demand for minerals—most notably iron ore, coal and natural gas—from the growing nations of the Asian region. Australia has some of the largest and highest-quality deposits of these items in the world and is able to mine them relatively cheaply. As a result, these items feature heavily in Australia's list of top exports.

On the imports side, Australia needs to purchase those items that are not available locally. These include many manufactured goods, such as cars: while Australia is capable of making many of these items, it is often cheaper to buy them from other countries where they can be made at a lower cost.

TRADE IN SERVICES

Services have also risen in importance in Australia's trade profile. As travel costs fell throughout the 20th century, it became cheaper and easier to fly to and from Australia. As a result, tourism has grown in importance. Education is also an important trade item: students from overseas come to Australia to study, creating an export for Australia as money flows from other countries into Australia. There are also large numbers of Australians who choose to study overseas, creating an import for Australia.

Australia's interdependence with Asia

Two countries, or regions, are said to be interdependent if they rely on each other. Australia's trade relationships highlight our interdependence with Asia and are based on the complementarity of the two regions. However, the links between Australia and Asia extend beyond transfers of goods and services.

Migration

Migration refers to the movement of people to a new country as they seek employment, better living conditions or other benefits. This is a key linkage between Australia and Asia. In early 2015, the Australian Bureau of Statistics announced that 28 per cent of people living in Australia were born overseas. While the United Kingdom and New Zealand were the most common countries of birth for migrants, over 3 per cent of the Australian population had been born in either China or India.

Source 3.2.5 Twenty-eight per cent of people living in Australia were born overseas.

Cultural exchanges

As people move more freely from one country to another, they carry with them key aspects of their culture. These then become integrated into the new country's society.

There are many organisations that promote cultural exchanges between nations. For example, the Confucius Institute, based in China, aims to promote language and cultural understanding, offering a range of courses in Australia and other countries to people in educational and corporate institutions who are interested in China and its language and culture. This helps spread intercultural understanding, while also providing opportunities for schools and businesses to develop international partnerships.

Another example of cultural exchange enriching Australian life is the introduction of new foods. It is now relatively easy, particularly in larger cities, to purchase the ingredients needed for many different Asian cuisines. Similarly, the range of takeaway food has expanded from burgers and pizzas to include Chinese, Thai, Indian and numerous other options.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. State the meaning of the term 'open economy'.
2. Distinguish between exports and imports.
3. Identify Australia's three most important trading partners.
4. Describe the changes in Australia's direction of trade since the 1960s.
5. Illustrate the importance of China to Australia's economy.

Applying and analysing

6. Compare two examples of Australia's international export of services by writing a paragraph about each.
7. Make use of the idea of economic interdependence to dissect the economy of the United States. Which countries does the US rely on as important trading partners and what products are exchanged between them?

Evaluating and creating

8. Develop an argument about an area in which Australia could strengthen its economic performance in relation to trade.

Australia and tourism

Australia's tourism industry

In 2014–15, there were 6.6 million international visitors to Australia, who spent around $33.4 billion while staying 236 million nights in Australia. Over the same period, many Australians took holidays within the country, spending a total of $55.4 billion. To put these figures into context, the tourism industry in Australia accounts for about 2.7 per cent of our GDP and directly employs 534 000 people. In other words, the tourism industry is a very important contributor to the Australian economy.

Reasons for international travel

There are three broad reasons why people travel to other countries for short periods before returning home. They are:

- leisure
- business
- education.

Leisure travel is the practice of taking holidays, often as breaks from work. Business travel includes travelling to conferences, for meetings with business partners, customers or suppliers, or to conduct research. Finally, education-related travel includes high school, university and postgraduate students travelling to other countries to study specific courses at recognised institutions. China is a very significant source of demand for Australian tourism: over one quarter of all education-related visitors to Australia in 2014–15 came from China.

Demand for tourism in Australia

International demand for holidays in Australia has grown strongly in recent years. The Asian region has been the greatest contributor to this. Asia's proximity to Australia, the rapid growth and development of China and India in particular, and the appeal of Australian experiences have helped drive the growth in this industry. Tourism Australia is the national group representing the tourism industry. Tourism Australia is very active in developing campaigns to promote Australian tourism to the rest of the world, such as the 'There's nothing like Australia' promotion that ran in early 2016, and the iconic 'Throw another shrimp on the barbie' campaign in the late 1980s.

Factors affecting the demand for tourism in Australia

Event tourism

Following the success of the Sydney Olympics in 2000, Australia has hosted many major events that draw visitors from around the world. The Cricket World Cup and the Asian Football Cup, hosted by Australia in 2015, and the Catholic World Youth Day in Sydney in 2008 are all examples of events that have contributed to increased demand for tourism. Official events also lead to higher tourism: the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) held in Perth in 2011 and the G20 Summit held in Brisbane in 2014 created new opportunities for promoting Australia as a tourism destination.

Source 3.3.1 The Sydney Olympics created many opportunities for promoting tourism in Australia, including footage of key attractions during TV coverage of major events.

The Australian dollar

The value of the Australian dollar is also a key determinant of the level of demand for tourism in Australia. When the Australian dollar rises in value, it is more expensive for people in other countries to purchase Australian currency, adding to the costs of a holiday in Australia. The fall of the value of the Australian dollar from the high levels reached in 2013 made it cheaper for overseas visitors to come here. It also made it more expensive for Australians to travel overseas, raising the demand from Australian households for holidays within the country.

Economic impact of tourism to Australia

There are around 267 000 tourism businesses in Australia, 95 per cent of which are small businesses. Tourism businesses are not only hotels and tour operators. Museums, galleries, restaurants, specialist shops and currency exchanges are all examples of businesses directly related to the tourist trade.

Labour and skill shortages are a major problem for the Australian tourism industry. Most tourism businesses operate seven days a week and require highly skilled employees, such as people with specific knowledge about a particular area and the ability to speak at least one language other than English fluently. According to Tourism Research Australia, there were 38 000 unfilled vacancies in the tourism industry at the end of 2015. This number is likely to rise as the lower value of the Australian dollar and ongoing marketing campaigns lead to even higher demand for tourism.

Tourism ventures in Australia are as varied as the tourists who visit them. Some are focused on experiencing Australia's natural attractions, while others are based on history, local food, the built environment or any combination of these. Two very popular but very different tourism businesses located in Western Australia are the El Questro Wilderness Park and the National Anzac Centre.

Source 3.3.2 Galleries and restaurants are important businesses in the tourism industry.

Case study: El Questro Wilderness Park

El Questro Wilderness Park is one of Western Australia's most successful tourism businesses. Occupying over 400 000 hectares in the Kimberley region, it offers a variety of wilderness experiences that have been highly popular with both local and international visitors. After mixed success as a cattle station, the first tourism venture at the property opened in 1992. Today, it is owned and operated by Delaware North Parks and Resorts, an international hospitality management company.

El Questro offers activities based on the theme of Australian wilderness experiences, such as tours of the local river systems, gorges and other scenery, as well as 4WD tours and hikes. Accommodation options range from camping to luxury suites. El Questro targets those tourists who want to experience outback Australia with a degree of comfort and style.

Case study: National Anzac Centre, Albany

The National Anzac Centre in Albany opened in 2014 to coincide with the centenary of the departure from Albany of the first Australian and New Zealand convoy bound for World War I. It offers a tourism experience based on history, tracing the stories of the original Anzacs.

Many tourism ventures benefit from various degrees of assistance from state and federal governments. The National Anzac Centre is unusual in the degree to which its development was supported: the construction and fit-out of the museum was fully paid for by the federal and Western Australian governments. However, all the ongoing costs of the museum must be fully covered by charging entrance fees.

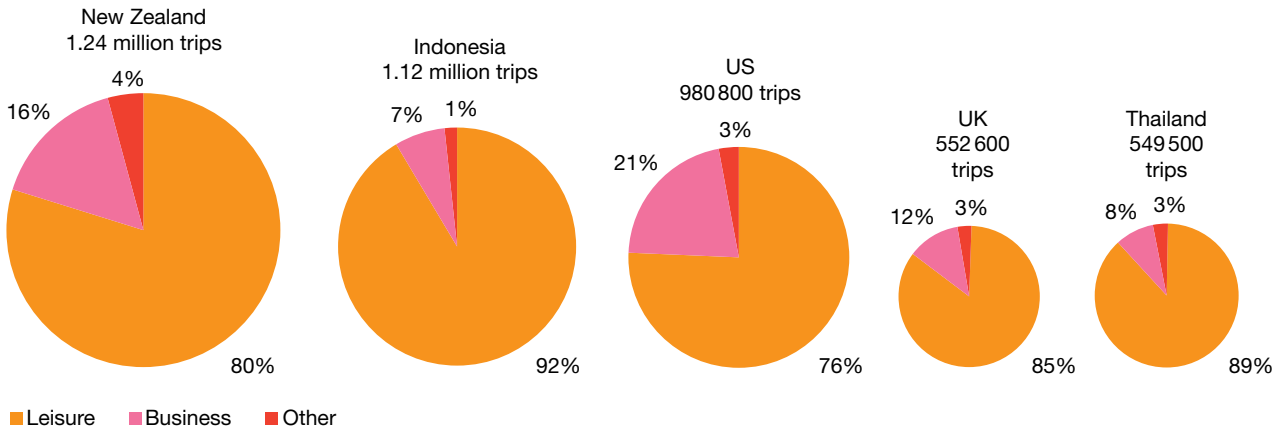
Tourism ventures in a particular area will often work together to promote their town or region. The National Anzac Centre is an example of this, as it is located within the broader Albany Heritage Park, which contains several other attractions.

Tourism from Australia to other countries

Whether flying to Bali for a long weekend or going to Europe for weeks at a time, Australians are significant consumers of overseas travel. Distance and cost appear to be major factors influencing Australians' choice of destination: New Zealand is the most popular destination for Australian travellers, followed by Indonesia (which includes the island of Bali). Travelling for leisure is far more common than travelling for business purposes. However, over one fifth of Australians travelling to the United States declared that they were going for business reasons, reflecting the close business relationships between the two countries.

Source 3.3.3 Branco's Lookout is one of the attractions within the El Questro Wilderness Park.

Source 3.3.4 The National Anzac Centre in Albany is an example of a recently opened tourism venture focusing on history.



Source 3.3.5 New Zealand and Indonesia are the most popular destinations for Australians travelling overseas, with holidays far outweighing business as the reason for travel.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Cite one example of the value of tourism to the Australian economy.
2. Name the three main reasons why people travel to other countries.
3. Outline the trend for inbound tourism to Australia.
4. Summarise how the value of the Australian dollar can impact tourism to Australia.
5. Rewrite the description of El Questro Wilderness Park to emphasise what it offers to tourists.

Applying and analysing

6. Analyse visitor numbers to help you conclude whether the establishment of Albany's National Anzac Centre has had a positive impact on tourism to this region.

Evaluating and creating

7. Research departure information to determine the most popular overseas destinations for Australian tourists. Which of these destinations would be your top three holiday recommendations, and why?

Global connections

Australia's relationship to the global economy

In 2014, the total value of items produced in the entire world was about $US 77 trillion. Australia was responsible for around one per cent of this, and therefore is often said to have a 'small' economy. It is also described as an 'open' economy as Australian households and firms engage in trade with the rest of the world. However, because Australia's economy is such a small proportion of the world economy, any change in the rest of the world can have a significant impact on the level of economic activity in Australia.

Australia relies on the global economy in many ways. We need to sell our exports to households and firms in other countries, but also need to be able to purchase those goods and services that are not produced domestically. **Transnational corporations (TNCs)** greatly facilitate the movement of goods and services between countries, and they can have significant influences on the pattern of economic development.

Transnational corporations

Transnational corporations, also known as multinational corporations, are firms with operations in more than one country. Ford, Ikea and Aldi are all examples of TNCs. Transnational firms are a very important part of the global economy as they help customers gain access to cheaper products than might otherwise be possible, increase employment opportunities and promote economic development.

Economies of scale

A firm achieves **economies of scale** when it is able to reduce its costs by increasing the level of production. For example, a car manufacturer needs to invest in many expensive machines in order to produce cars. As more and more cars are made using those machines until the factory reaches its capacity, the cost per car keeps falling as the cost of the machines is spread over the increasing output.

The size of transnational corporations allows them to achieve economies of scale and to produce their output at lower cost than smaller companies. With lower costs of production as a result of the scale of their operations, TNCs are able to sell their output at lower prices than their competitors. Thus households have the choice of buying the cheaper product from a TNC and having more money left over to spend on other goods and services.

Economic development

Transnational corporations also have a role to play in promoting the development of many economies. They have the financial resources and expertise to set up operations in whichever country is the best fit for the company's needs. In many cases, this involves setting up factories in less-developed countries, such as Vietnam and Thailand, where labour costs are lower than in places such as Australia, Europe and the United States. These factories provide new employment opportunities for the local residents, but may also lead to substantial benefits for the wider local economy as supporting facilities and firms develop

中国工商银行

INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL BANK OF CHINA

Source 3.4.1 In 2015, the world's largest company was the Industrial and Commercial Bank of China, with assets of around US$4 trillion and operations in 41 countries.

around the factory—for example, the development of better roads and electricity networks, and shops to sell food and other items to employees.

Supply chains

Transnational corporations will often produce components of their final product in different countries before bringing them together for final assembly. For example, the technology company Intel produces parts of its products in such diverse countries as Israel, Ireland and the United States before assembling the final product in China, Vietnam and elsewhere. This means that individual facilities can focus on producing just a part of the final product, allowing the company to produce each component wherever it is cheapest to do so.

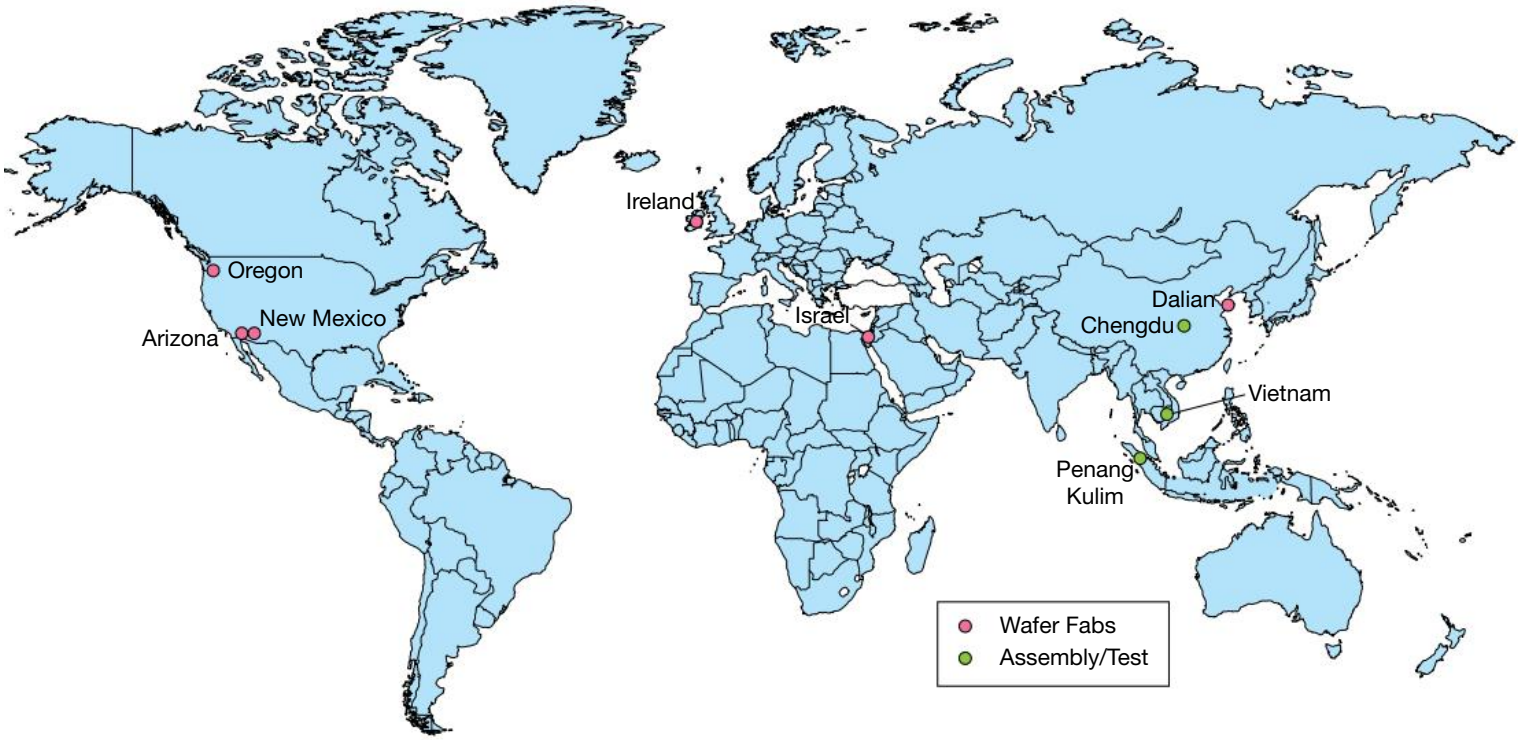
Governments and TNCs

Governments will sometimes introduce policies designed to attract transnational corporations. These might include incentives such as lower tax rates, or guarantees that required infrastructure such as harbour facilities will be constructed in a way that suits a TNC's requirements. A government may choose to do this to increase its country's chances of benefiting from the employment and development that TNCs bring.

Impact that TNCs have on Australia

The operations of transnational corporations affect the Australian economy in many ways. They provide goods and services that Australian households and firms demand, offer employment opportunities and pay tax on their Australian earnings to the Australian Government. Australia is also home to several TNCs, including Woolworths, which has operations in Australia and New Zealand, and the National Australia Bank, which has operations in Australia, New Zealand, Asia, the United Kingdom and the United States.

In 2014, Ford and Holden announced plans to close their production facilities in Australia. These decisions were largely based on the fact that operating costs were higher at their Australian plants than in many other parts of the world. This will lead to significant job losses in Australia, imposing a significant cost on workers while the transnational corporations benefit from shifting their operations to lower-cost environments. This demonstrates that, while TNCs can bring significant benefits while they are operating in a particular country, there is also the potential for great costs to local companies as the TNCs continue to seek economies of scale and lower costs.



Source 3.4.2 Intel's production facilities, referred to in this map as 'Fabs', are spread all over the world, and the final items are assembled in China, Vietnam or Malaysia.

Global events and the Australian economy

Being a country with a small, open economy, Australia can be heavily affected by global events. The levels of economic activity, employment and even prices in Australia can change when international conditions change. Two major events that had wide-ranging effects on the Australian economy were World War I and the global financial crisis.

World War I and the Australian economy

World War I had devastating human costs that affected Australia and the world. It also had far-reaching effects on the Australian economy. Trade agreements that had previously existed with Austria–Hungary and Germany were cancelled, and new opportunities arose for Australian firms. For example, the steel industry expanded rapidly as guns, ships and other equipment were needed in unprecedented quantities. The wool industry also grew, as the British Government purchased every bale of wool produced in Australia (and also New Zealand) from 1916 to 1920 in order to provide clothing for the troops.

As international trade was disrupted by the war, Australia needed to start producing many items that had previously been imported. By the end of the war, more than 400 products were being made in Australia that had not been made here before the war broke out. In addition, with so many men serving as soldiers, Australia's economy and society were transformed by the need for women to join the workforce.

The effects of World War I on the Australian economy were not all positive. Shortages of some items drove prices up, leading to a series of major strikes. Those who had built up savings before the war were potentially able to benefit from the federal government's war loans programme, meaning that some households became wealthier as a result of the war while others suffered greatly.

The global financial crisis and the Australian economy

The global financial crisis (GFC) of 2007–08 was followed by a period of the lowest worldwide economic activity since the Great Depression of the 1930s. This was caused by significant financial instability in the United States, which then spread

Source 3.4.3 The Newcastle steelworks expanded significantly during World War I.

around the world as US consumers and firms cut back on the amount they were importing from other countries.

Australia demonstrated remarkable resilience through the GFC, largely because of its strong relationship with China. The Chinese Government put a number of policies in place to support the Chinese economy even as the US economy faltered. This meant that demand for Australia's exports, in particular iron ore and coal, grew strongly once the initial shock of the US situation had passed. A period of uneven activity in the Australian economy followed as firms and industries that traded industrial goods with China grew while other sectors, such as tourism, struggled.

Source 3.4.4 Australia's iron ore and coal industries grew strongly through the global financial crisis, supported by strong demand from China.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'transnational corporation'.
2. List the countries involved in producing Intel's products.
3. Name the two companies that in 2014 announced plans to close their production facilities in Australia.
4. Identify the product generated in Australia that the British Government purchased every item of during World War I.

Applying and analysing

5. Summarise how economies of scale work.
6. Examine the impact that TNCs have on Australia.

Evaluating and creating

7. Evaluate Australia's relationship to the global economy.
8. Assess the impact of the global financial crisis on the Australian economy.

Inquiry tasks

Buy Australian?

In Australia, we have access to a wide variety of products made in countries around the world. However, some people believe we should only purchase goods made in Australia. In groups, prepare a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) chart that analyses what would happen if we only bought goods made in Australia and never purchased goods from overseas. Your SWOT chart should consider:

- ***strengths***—What are the advantages of purchasing only Australian-made goods?
- ***weaknesses***—What are the disadvantages of purchasing only Australian-made goods?
- ***opportunities***—What opportunities does purchasing only Australian-made goods provide for our country and its economy?
- ***threats***—What threats or dangers does our country and its economy face if we only buy goods made in Australia?

Source 3.5.1 Australian-made wine is a popular product in China. In 2015, Chinese interest in Australian wine contributed to the first annual increase in exports that Australia experienced in the last eight years.

Our relationship with Asia

Much of Australia's external trade occurs with countries in the Asian region. Complete an extended discussion that explores why Australia has such a close trade relationship with Asia. Use the following structure in your extended discussion.

- ***Introduction***—Introduce the topic of Australia's close trade relationship with Asia. Provide a short history of the relationship and give an overview of the relationship today.
- ***Body***—Use three paragraphs to provide three different reasons for the close and important trade connection Australia has with Asian countries.
- ***Conclusion***—Summarise your key ideas and perhaps suggest how the relationship might develop further in the future.
- ***Bibliography***—List the resources you used to complete your extended discussion.

Tourism to Australia

Imagine you are working for Tourism Australia. Prepare a digital presentation for the 'Destination Australia' conference explaining the positive impact that tourism has on Australia's economy. Your audience will be made up of owners of both big and small businesses, government officials and overseas visitors. Use specific examples of tourist destinations in Australia (both natural and built) in order to help demonstrate how all the different sectors of our economy (such as households, firms and the government) benefit from tourism. You might also create information pamphlets to be handed out at the end of the presentation.

The impact of transnational companies

Complete a line debate with the class using the following topic: 'The operations of transnational companies only have positive effects on the Australian economy.'

In order to complete a line debate, all students need to stand along an imaginary line depending on how you feel about the topic. At one end of the line are those who strongly agree, the middle is neutral and at the other end are those who strongly disagree. You need to be able to provide reasons and real-life examples for your chosen position in the line.

GLOSSARY

circular flow of income an economic model showing how money flows through the economy—to workers in the form of wages, and back to businesses in exchange for products

complementarity a situation in which two or more different things or factors each improve the other's performance

composition of trade the combination of goods and services that we export and import

consumer a person or group that is the final user of goods or services

economies of scale savings in cost that are achieved by increasing the level of production

exports goods and services sent to another country for sale

factor market a market in which resources (factors of production) are sold to firms in exchange for income

firms sector the part of the economy made up of all business organisations

gross domestic product (GDP) the total value of all goods and services produced in a country in a period of time

household sector the part of the economy made up of all the consumers

imports goods and services that are brought into a country from another

investment putting money, effort, time etc. into something to make a profit; the process by which firms borrow money to finance their purchases of capital goods such as machinery

open economy an economy that trades with other countries

private sector the part of the economy containing all for-profit firms that are not owned or operated by the government

product market a market in which final goods and services are sold

public sector the part of the economy that provides government services and includes firms that are owned by the government

transnational corporation (TNC) a corporation that is registered and operates in more than one country at a time

CHAPTER 4

Consumers and risk

Managing finances, whether for an individual, a family or a business, carries the potential for considerable rewards but also for significant risks. Consumers need to be aware of the risks that may be involved when borrowing money, while firms must be ready to deal with risks arising from local, national or international competitors. The key is to find a way to balance these risks and rewards.

Source 4.0.1 Before taking the plunge, this bungee jumper needed to assess the risks and rewards of this experience. Similarly, as households and firms need to assess the risks and rewards of their financial decisions.

Managing risks and rewards

Australia's financial landscape

The financial sector in Australia is highly sophisticated and has become a major player in financial decisions throughout the Asian region. Australian consumers can access banks, credit unions, insurance companies and many other types of financial institutions. In addition, Australian financial institutions offer assistance to firms that are planning to lease equipment; this can range from portable cement mixers to aircraft. Australia also has a very large funds-management sector, allowing individuals and firms to deposit money in **managed funds** with the hope of earning a future income.

One of the most intricate areas of the financial sector is hedge funds. These firms develop, sell and manage a range of sophisticated financial products that allow individuals and firms to manage the risk associated with particular events. Other financial institutions assist firms with processing payments and managing their investments.

Regulation of Australia's financial sector

Having safe, reliable financial institutions is essential for a country's economic stability. If banks and other financial institutions were to manage their affairs badly, the deposits of thousands of households and firms could be lost. This could lead to chaos as people desperately attempted to get their money back. Events of this kind are very rare in Australia as the federal government regulates the activities of financial sector institutions through the Reserve Bank of Australia (RBA) and the Australian Prudential Regulation Authority (APRA).

There are rules governing every aspect of a financial institution's operations, from the way financial products are advertised to the amount of money the institution can invest in particularly risky projects. These rules are designed to manage the risks associated with financial decisions while still allowing financial institutions to facilitate the operations of other firms.

Major financial institutions in Australia

Australia's financial system is dominated by the four major banks: Commonwealth Bank, Westpac, National Australia Bank and the ANZ. There are several smaller banks, although some of these are owned by the 'big four': for example, BankWest is owned by the Commonwealth Bank. In the insurance market, some of the largest firms are the Insurance Australia Group (which owns SGIO), QBE, Allianz and Suncorp, whose brands include AAMI, Just Car and Bingle.

International links

In 2014–15, Australia exported financial services worth more than $3.5 billion. This was an increase of 25 per cent on the figure for the previous year, demonstrating the growing importance of financial services in Australia's trade links. A significant contributor to this growth was the changes in international trade rules that made it easier for Australian financial institutions to export their services to key markets, including South Korea and Japan. This practice is likely to continue to grow as expanding Chinese and Indian firms seek the convenience and expertise of Australia's well-established and sophisticated financial institutions.

Year	Value of financial services exports
2012–13	$2326 million
2013–14	$2828 million
2014–15	$3545 million

Source 4.1.1 The value of Australia's exports of financial services grew by about 25 per cent in 2014–15.

The role of banks

Banks are a key component of the financial sector and are essential to modern economic activity. They are often described as 'intermediaries', meaning that they are 'go-betweens', facilitating transactions between two parties—households and firms. Banks have three major functions.

- Individuals can deposit their savings in banks and then earn interest on their money. Interest is a payment that the bank makes to the depositor to encourage them to place their money with the bank; the higher the amount of money placed in an account, the higher the interest payments. Without banks, people would have to bear the risks of storing money, often at home, and would not be able to earn interest.

- Banks allow electronic transfers and payments to occur, making it far easier and safer to make purchases and receive payment.
- Banks make loans to individuals and firms, allowing them to purchase items now and pay for them later.

Without banks, anyone who wanted to borrow money would need to find somebody who was willing to lend to them. Everyone would need to be an expert in storing, borrowing and lending money and the risks associated with those decisions. Banks can develop great expertise in these matters and are therefore able to provide advice and assistance to households and firms.

Investments

Investment is the process of purchasing goods or services in the hope of making a profit. There are many different types of investment, including:

- managed funds
- shares
- property
- international investments
- other complex investments.

Most investments involve the work of financial institutions, either through borrowing money to pay for the investment or in the ongoing management of the project. Investors need to find a balance between the risks involved in a particular project and the returns that can be earned.

Managed funds

When an individual places money in a managed fund, their money is combined with the contributions of all the other investors in the fund. An investment manager is then responsible for buying and selling investments such as shares and assets on the members' behalf. This has the advantage of giving the investor access to a highly diversified portfolio without necessarily needing to contribute a very large sum of money. Most managed funds pay an income on a regular basis; the amount received by each investor is based on the proportion of the total fund they contributed and the value of the underlying assets.

Source 4.1.2 Usually, the higher the risk associated with an investment, the higher its potential rewards. Many investors aim to find projects that offer relatively low risks and high rewards, such as diversified or varied portfolios of shares and property.

For some people, a disadvantage of managed funds is that the investment decisions are made by the fund manager, so individual contributors do not have control over the specific assets purchased.

Shares

When an investor purchases shares, they become one of the owners of the business that issued the shares. The company may pay part of its profits to shareholders as **dividends**, providing owners with another form of income.

The prices of shares can increase or decrease very rapidly and therefore shares should generally be viewed as a long-term investment. It can be very difficult to predict how the value of a share, or the size of its dividend stream, will change over time. To manage the risks involved in buying shares, investors should try to diversify their share purchases by holding shares in several different firms and industries. If one firm or industry is experiencing difficulties and its share price is declining, it is hoped that this will be offset by a rising share price in another firm or industry.

Property

Investing in property normally takes the form of buying a house or unit and then renting it out. Property prices are usually less volatile than share prices, making this a very attractive form of investment. However, it is certainly not risk-free: property prices can decline, particularly when the general level of economic activity declines. As a result, property should be viewed as a long-term investment and, ideally, should be one part of a diversified investment portfolio.

Renting out an investment property also carries risks. If there is no tenant, the owner is not earning rent and therefore has to pay all the costs associated with the property out of their own money. Also, tenants may damage the property, leaving the owner to pay substantial repair costs.

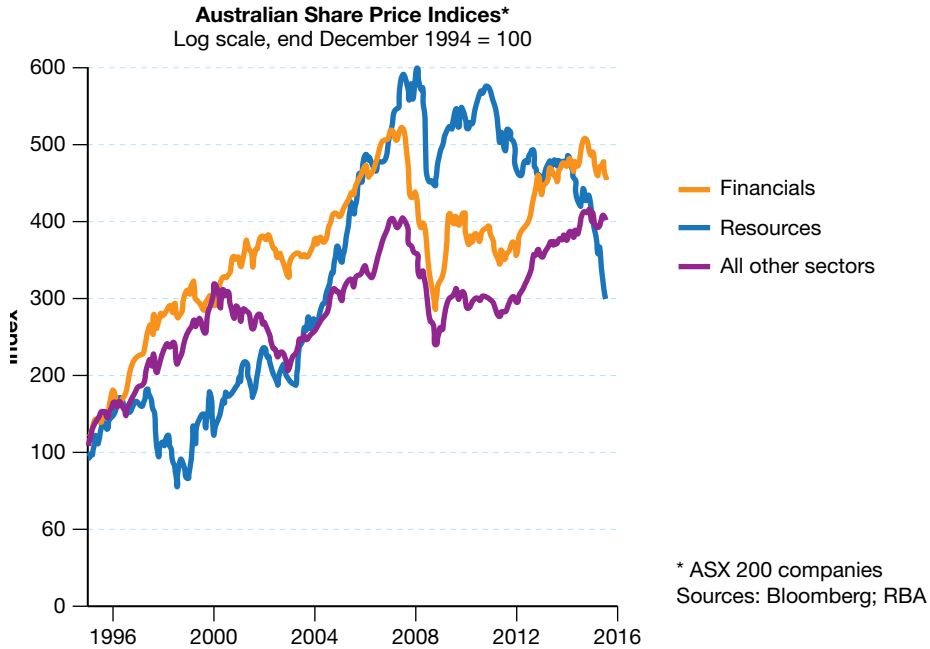
International investments

Australians can purchase many different international investments. We can buy shares in overseas companies, property in other countries or other countries' currencies with the aim of making a profit. There are many additional issues that Australians must be aware of when making investments of this type, including the risks of doing business in other countries and the taxation of any profits that the investor makes. As these are highly complex decisions, most investors will need specialist advice and should do extensive research before making investment choices.

Other complex investments

There are many other, highly complex investment products available. These include futures and

Source 4.1.3 In the short term, share prices can change considerably. Shares in different industries may be moving in different directions: for example, from 2012 to 2015, share prices in the resource industry were falling while those in the financial industry were rising. This emphasises the need for diversification.



options, which allow the investor to buy or sell assets at a set price on a specific date. These products are considered highly risky and can be difficult for even very experienced investors to understand. As with any financial decision, potential investors in these products should ensure they are willing to bear the significant losses that can occur, rather than simply focusing on the potential for profit.

Source 4.1.4 It is possible to invest in foreign currencies with the aim of making a profit. However, it is very difficult to predict currency movements and, therefore, most households view these investments as extremely risky.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. List the types of financial institutions that Australian consumers can access.
2. State the meaning of the term 'hedge fund'.
3. Briefly outline why having safe and reliable financial institutions is important.
4. Name two financial regulators within the Australian economy.
5. Demonstrate what is meant by the term 'big four banks'.

Applying and analysing

6. Make use of the information in the unit to show that banks are more than just places to keep your money.
7. Compare and contrast the level of risk and reward that is associated with different types of investment.

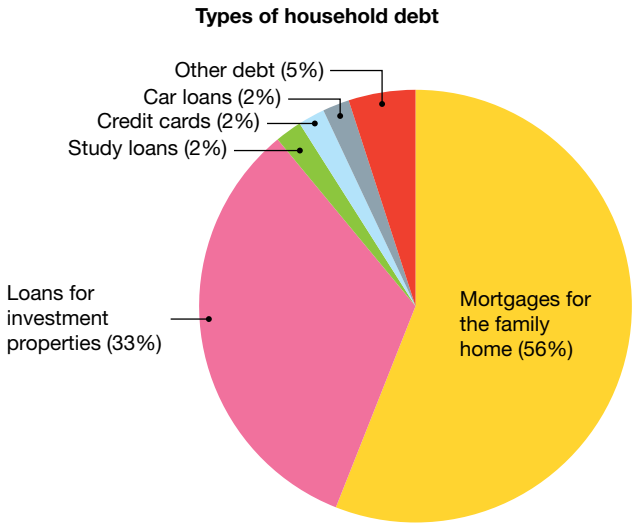
Evaluating and creating

8. The many types of investment include futures and options. Find out what these two types involve and decide whether you would recommend them to a first-time investor.

Managing debt

Sources of debt

An individual is said to be in **debt** if they owe money to another person or business. Common sources of debt include mortgages, car loans, student loans and credit cards. A study released in December 2015 concluded that the average Australian household had debt of nearly $250 000. Given that the average household income is about $1000 per week, this debt represents a substantial burden that would take many years to repay.



Source 4.2.1 Mortgages and loans to purchase investment properties are the largest sources of household debt in Australia.

Risks associated with debt

When householders take out a loan, they sign legal documents agreeing to repay the loan within a particular time. They also agree to pay interest on the money they owe. If the borrower's income falls, it may be more difficult for them to repay their debts and so they may need to make difficult decisions about cutting back on other spending. Even if the borrower's income does not change, the interest rate on the loan could rise and make it more difficult for them to repay the loan. Potential borrowers, therefore, need to carefully consider whether they have a sufficient safety margin in their finances to be able to manage their debts if circumstances turn against them.

In the worst-case scenario, if a borrower is unable to pay at least the interest on their loans, the financial institution that loaned the money may take legal action to seize some of the borrower's assets. Aside from the stress and anxiety this may cause for the borrower, it can also have a lasting effect by making it more difficult for them to take out new loans in the future.

Good debt and bad debt

Good debt

Under some circumstances, borrowing money can be a sensible decision. Essentially, whether a loan represents 'good' or 'bad' debt depends on how the borrowed money is used. If the money is used in ways that will help the household make its repayments in the future, debt can be positive. For example, many households assume when they take on a mortgage that the value of their home will increase over the period of the mortgage, raising the household's wealth and making it easier to afford repayments.

Using the federal government's Higher Education Loan Programme (HELP) to pay for post-secondary education can be another good debt as it is assumed that completing higher education will increase the student's ability to earn income in the future, making it easier to pay back the loan.

Bad debt

Bad debt arises from loans used to pay for current spending that will not help generate additional income in the future. For example, borrowing money to go on an overseas holiday allows the household to enjoy the holiday but does not leave any lasting benefit that will help repay the loan. Financial institutions often charge higher interest rates for loans of this type as they are not linked to long-term assets that can be sold if necessary to help the borrower repay the money.

Managing debt

One of the key principles of managing debt is that the borrower should understand exactly how much money the household owes and the repayments that are required. Due to the way interest is calculated, making small repayments frequently will usually be more effective in reducing the total amount owed

Source 4.2.2 While it may seem very easy to borrow money to pay for a holiday on a tropical island such as this one in Thailand, this would be considered bad debt.

than making larger repayments less often. In many cases, making even small additional repayments above the minimum required amount can make a significant difference to the total amount of interest paid over the life of the loan.

When a household has multiple debts it may be appropriate to prioritise the repayment of one loan, while paying just the minimum amount required on other debts. For example, the borrower might choose to focus on first repaying the debt with the highest interest rate. Alternatively, it may be possible to roll several different debts into one loan. While there are fees associated with doing this, it can help simplify the borrower's finances and reduce the possibility of missing a repayment.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'debt'.
2. Cite an example of the average debt level in Australia.
3. Rephrase the meaning of the word 'interest' as it applies to debt.
4. Illustrate the worst-case scenario for someone who is in debt and cannot meet their repayments.

Applying and analysing

5. Examine the difference between good debt and bad debt.

Evaluating and creating

6. Appraise the advice that is available in the marketplace to help consumers manage debt. Test the theory that some of this advice will end up costing consumers more in the longer term.

Scams and identity theft

The cost of scams

A **scam** is a dishonest scheme for obtaining money or other assets. In 2015, Australian residents reported losses of nearly $85 million from scams. Of the reported scams, nearly 70 per cent operated over the phone or by email, but scams can also be delivered through the mail, by text messaging, social networking or any other form of communication.

Some of the most common types of scams are:

- false promise of unexpected money
- false promise of unexpected winnings
- attempts to gain your personal information.

Unexpected money

A common scam is a message saying that the recipient can claim a large inheritance from a distant relative. This money is difficult to access, often because it is in another country. The target is asked to pay an amount to the scammers to cover the costs of recovering their 'inheritance'. There are many variants of this, including scams that ask the target to help an apparently worthy individual access their money in another country. These are called 'Nigerian' scams because the first wave of these schemes came from Nigeria. Today, these schemes can originate in any part of the world.

Unexpected winnings

These scams ask the target to pay a fee to claim their prize from a competition that they never entered. A related scam takes the form of fake scratchie cards that require the so-called winner to pay a fee in order to collect their prize. The 'prizes' in these scams may be in the form of money, holidays or luxury items.

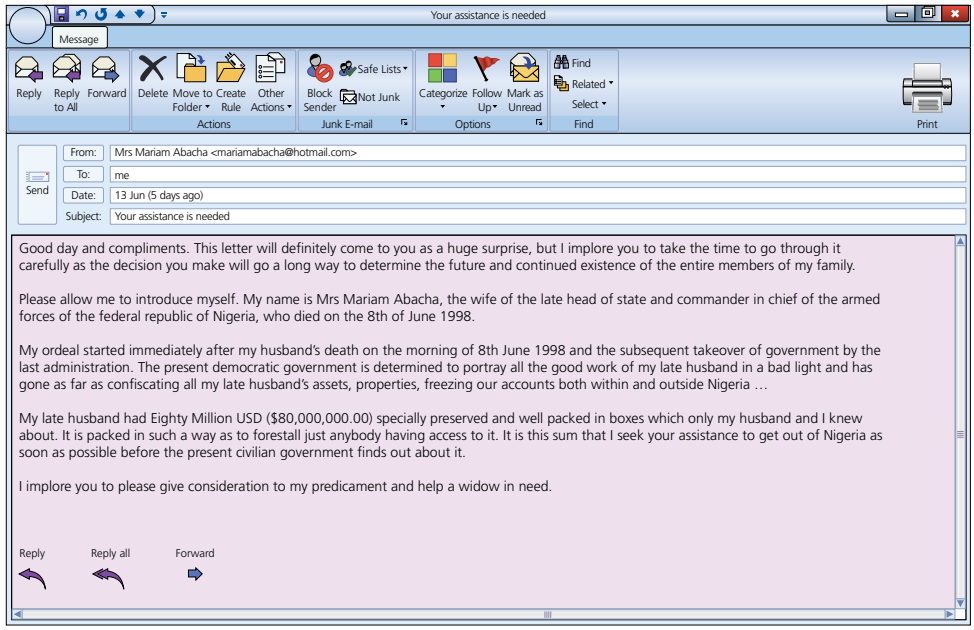
Attempts to gain personal information

Some scams try to obtain the target's personal information in order to engage in **identity theft**. Identity theft is the practice of using another person's identity to steal money or obtain other benefits. **Phishing** scams are attempts to trick the target into disclosing information such as passwords or credit card or bank account details. For example, the target may receive a message pretending to be from a bank and asking them to 'confirm' their account details.

Alternatively, scammers can use hacking techniques to gain access to information by exploiting security weaknesses on computers, networks or mobile phones. This does not involve installing new software; instead, hackers work through weaknesses in existing programs. This is different to **malware**, which is software that the scammer installs on the target's computer in order to access files or monitor what the computer is used for. Malware is often distributed via email attachments or by encouraging consumers to click on online banner advertisements that offer prizes or other rewards.

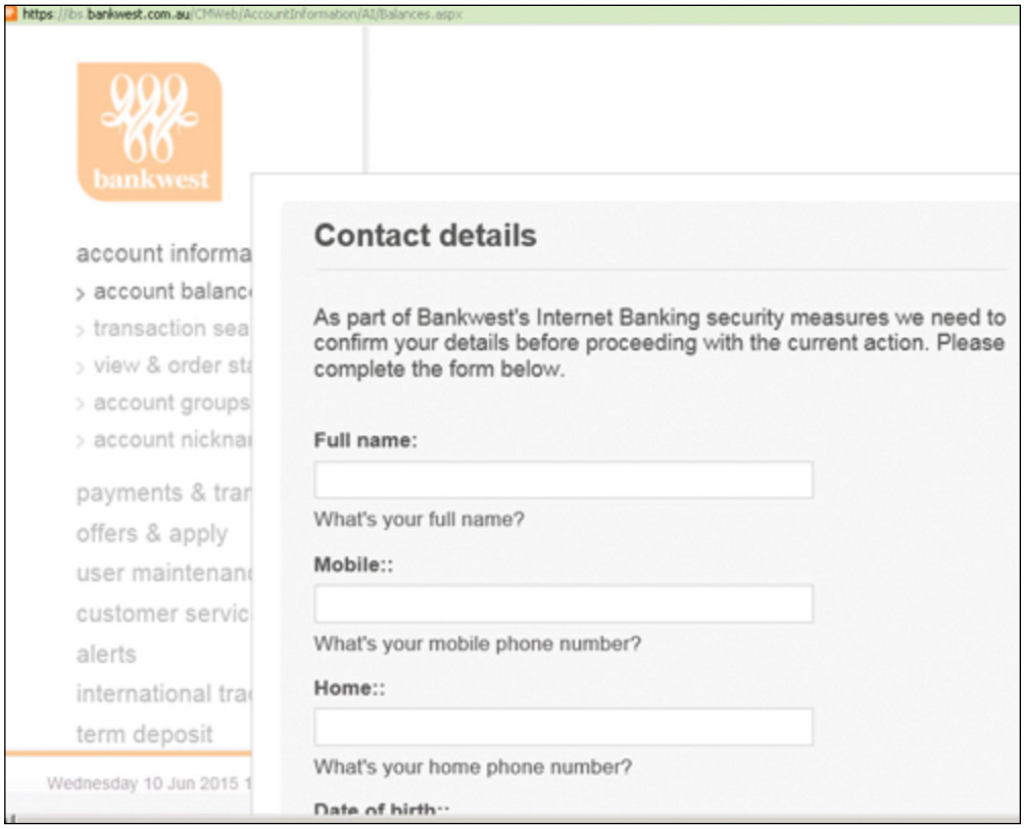
Protecting yourself

The Australian Competition and Consumer Commission recommends a number of strategies to reduce the risk of becoming a target of scams or identify theft.



Source 4.3.1 A scam email asking the recipient to contribute to a 'worthy' cause.

- Never give your personal details, including your credit card or bank account details, or copies of personal documents to somebody you do not trust. Even when you trust the recipient, this information should never be sent by email.
- Avoid sending money to strangers.
- Take care with phone numbers starting with 190. These are charged at a high rate and so calls can soon become very expensive.
- Always read all the terms and conditions of any document before signing it, and ask questions to clarify any doubts you may have.
- Seek advice from an independent lawyer, accountant or financial planner before entering into new legal or financial arrangements.
- Do a quick online search using key phrases from the initial message; this may help identify scams.
- Ensure you have up-to-date virus and malware protection on all computers.
- Never respond to a scam; do not open any odd email attachments or click on any links in suspicious emails.
- Above all, bear in mind the saying that 'if it looks too good to be true, it probably is.'



Source 4.3.2 In early 2016, BankWest became aware that a number of customers encountered unusual pop-up windows like this one when attempting to log in to online banking. This was the result of malware distributed as an email attachment.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Identify the meaning of the term 'scam'.
2 Show what scams cost Australian consumers in monetary terms.
3 Give examples of the common types of scams.
4 Describe the way that one common scam usually operates.

Applying and analysing

5 Develop a fact sheet that explains how consumers can protect themselves against becoming a target of scams or identity theft.

Evaluating and creating

6 Evaluate the work of the Australian Competition and Consumer Commission by investigating the role it plays in regulating aspects of the Australian economy.

Competition and innovation

Competitive advantage

A **competitive advantage** is anything that places a particular firm in a better position than its competitors. If a firm does not have some kind of competitive advantage, or does not clearly communicate its advantage, there is no reason for potential customers to purchase its products. In addition, the firm needs to continually seek new ways to enhance its existing advantages and create new ones; otherwise, it runs the risk that it will be overtaken by other, more innovative businesses.

There are two major sources of competitive advantage: leading the industry by reducing costs, and product differentiation.

Source 4.4.1 At this petrol station in Germany, the 'V-Power' premium unleaded petrol is being sold at a higher price than the standard product. By offering what is perceived to be a higher quality product, the company aims to achieve a competitive advantage.

Cost leadership

A firm that is a **cost leader** is able to provide a product at a lower price than its competitors. To do this, the firm needs to continually work on increasing the efficiency of its operation. This may involve negotiating with suppliers to keep input costs down or investing in new machinery that will speed up the production process. Employee wages and salaries are often a significant part of the overall cost structure of a business, so they will tend to be a key focus of measures to reduce costs: pay rises may be tied to workers' productivity, for example, or employees may be provided with non-cash benefits such as the use of a company car for personal purposes.

Product differentiation

A firm has achieved clear product differentiation if consumers consider its product to be different to those produced by its competitors. This might involve having a very strong brand, better customer service, faster delivery or a higher quality offering. A considerable advantage of product differentiation is that it may allow the firm to charge a higher price than its competitors, on the grounds that customers are receiving a better item. For example, premium unleaded petrol sells at a higher price than standard unleaded because the premium product is supposed to provide additional benefits, including improved engine performance.

Firms can also differentiate their product by focusing closely on one section of the overall market—perhaps on a small niche that is not fully served by other firms. This might involve customer service that is specially geared towards the needs of a certain community, or a slightly different product offering. Bendigo Bank is using this strategy very successfully by helping local communities set up 'community banks' when the major banks no longer have branches in that area.

Source 4.4.2 Bendigo Bank's competitive advantage lies in providing banking services to towns where the other banks have closed their branches.

Marketing techniques

Developing a competitive advantage does not have to involve changes to the firm's product or managerial approach. With careful marketing, it is possible to create a new competitive advantage without undertaking potentially expensive alterations to the company's operations.

BLENDED MARKETING

Currently, many firms adopt **blended marketing** techniques to help gain a competitive advantage. This term refers to the combination of online and offline approaches into a single, seamless marketing presence. The aim is to gain the benefits of each marketing medium, such as newspapers, billboards, radio, online banner advertisements and YouTube videos, while presenting a consistent message that reinforces consumers' impressions of the firm. The McDonald's fast-food chain's 'Create your taste' campaign is an example of blended marketing, using all forms of media to project the same 'how very un-McDonald's' message, and challenging consumers to reexamine their perceptions (and misconceptions) of the company.

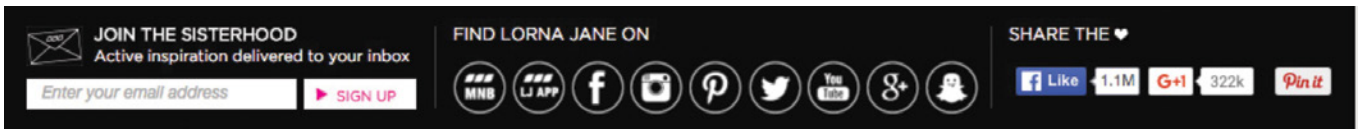
TARGETED ONLINE MARKETING

Another marketing technique being used by some companies is targeted online marketing, using services such as Google's AdSense. The aim is to present advertisements that align with the potential customer's interests. This gives firms an opportunity to create a competitive advantage by keeping consumers aware of their product offering so that their product appears to be a logical choice when the consumer is actually ready to make a purchase.

USE OF SOCIAL MEDIA

Social media has become a critical element of many firms' marketing strategies. Having a strong, appealing and up-to-date presence on Facebook, Instagram and YouTube can help a firm reach potential customers who might not encounter marketing from more traditional channels. One example of an Australian firm making very effective use of social media is Lorna Jane, a sportswear company.

Source 4.4.3 Lorna Jane's marketing strategy includes extensive use of social media, reinforced by campaigns on email, Facebook and Instagram, as well as text messages to members' mobile phones.



Source 4.4.4 Social media and digital marketing have become key elements of marketing strategies in recent years.

Other sources of competitive advantage

Strategic alliances and takeovers can be useful, although sometimes very costly, sources of competitive advantage. If a furniture company wants to start offering home delivery for online purchases, it may be more cost-effective to create a partnership with an existing delivery firm than to develop this capability in-house. Alternatively, a firm could take over a competitor to bring multiple brands under one parent company.

New technology is generating new opportunities for creating and analysing large amounts of data. Firms that invest in collecting data about all aspects of their operations, including their customers, have the potential to gain new insights into how their business is performing. Having ready access to detailed, timely market data can help a firm identify shifts in the market. This knowledge can allow the firm to alter its operations in ways that take advantage of the new climate—ideally, before its competitors have even realised that the environment has changed.

Finally, companies that export their products to other countries can gain a significant competitive advantage by participating in group campaigns such as Tourism Australia's 'There's nothing like Australia' promotion. This portrays Australian products and experiences as unique. These campaigns can have the further benefit of aligning the firm with other, complementary companies and may perhaps create opportunities for future strategic alliances.

Innovation

Most, if not all, competitive advantages tend to be fairly short-lived. Once a firm has adopted a particular strategy and is benefiting from it, the firm's competitors will soon start copying, or even improving on, that strategy, eroding the benefits received by the first firm. For example, the first cafes that offered free wi-fi to customers enjoyed a brief competitive advantage, but wi-fi has now become a common feature. To keep finding new sources of competitive advantage, a firm needs to be innovative.

Innovations may emerge in any part of a business's operations. They could take the form of ideas for a new product, better ways to produce existing products, new ways to structure staff rosters or new processes for dealing with customer complaints. However, it is important to distinguish between innovation and imitation: a firm that simply imitates others is highly unlikely to receive competitive advantage from doing so.

Source 4.4.5 In recognition of the importance of continual innovation, the federal government launched the National Innovation and Science Agenda in 2015. The aim is to encourage innovation, which will help Australian workers and companies ensure they maintain a competitive advantage in a globalised world.

Fostering innovation

Firms can take various steps to foster innovation. Investing in research and development can help provide a pipeline of future sources of competitive advantage, although it can also be highly expensive. The managerial culture of a firm can also play a role in promoting, or stifling, innovation: if managers are open to ideas and suggestions from employees, and if they recognise and reward innovation and increased productivity, they are more likely to actually experience innovation than a firm with a more closed culture.

Innovation involves taking risks: not all apparently great ideas will translate into real advantage in a highly competitive market. Governments can play a role in helping firms manage the risks and returns of investing in innovation by, for example, making money that is spent on research and development tax-deductible. Having clear laws regarding intellectual property is also helpful as firms are more likely to pursue a possible innovation if they will be able to gain exclusive benefits from it for a period of time.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Rewrite the definition of 'competitive advantage'.
2. Outline what it means to be a cost leader.
3. Describe the steps that firms might take to gain cost leadership.
4. Define what makes clear product differentiation.
5. Explain why most innovations are short-lived.

Applying and analysing

6. Analyse one company's efforts in the area of blended marketing. Predict whether or not this will prove to be a competitive advantage for the firm.

Evaluating and creating

7. Experiment with the concept of innovation by redesigning one product in a way that will gain a competitive edge.

The changing nature of work

Changes to employees' roles

The traditional aim of working for the same company in a 9-to-5 job for many years, perhaps decades—or even one's entire working life—now applies to few, if any, employees in Australia. At the same time, many firms are paying increasing attention to the wellbeing and job satisfaction of their employees in an attempt to retain valuable workers for as long as possible.

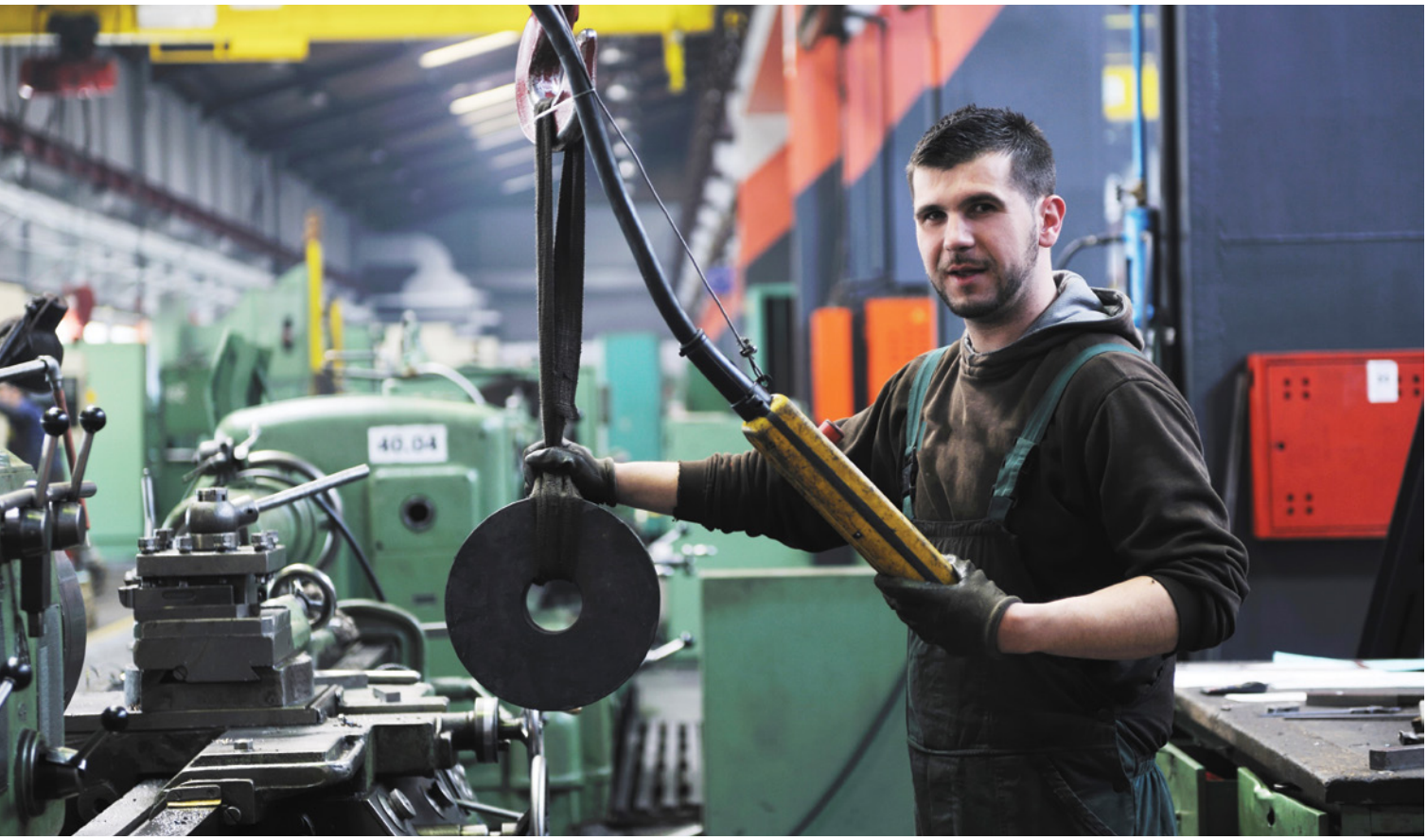
As a result, some of the biggest changes taking place in the work environment include:

- changes to the timing and location of the work 'day'
- the introduction of **job-sharing**
- increased emphasis on employee wellbeing
- the removal of a fixed retirement age
- the introduction of pay incentives for some workers.

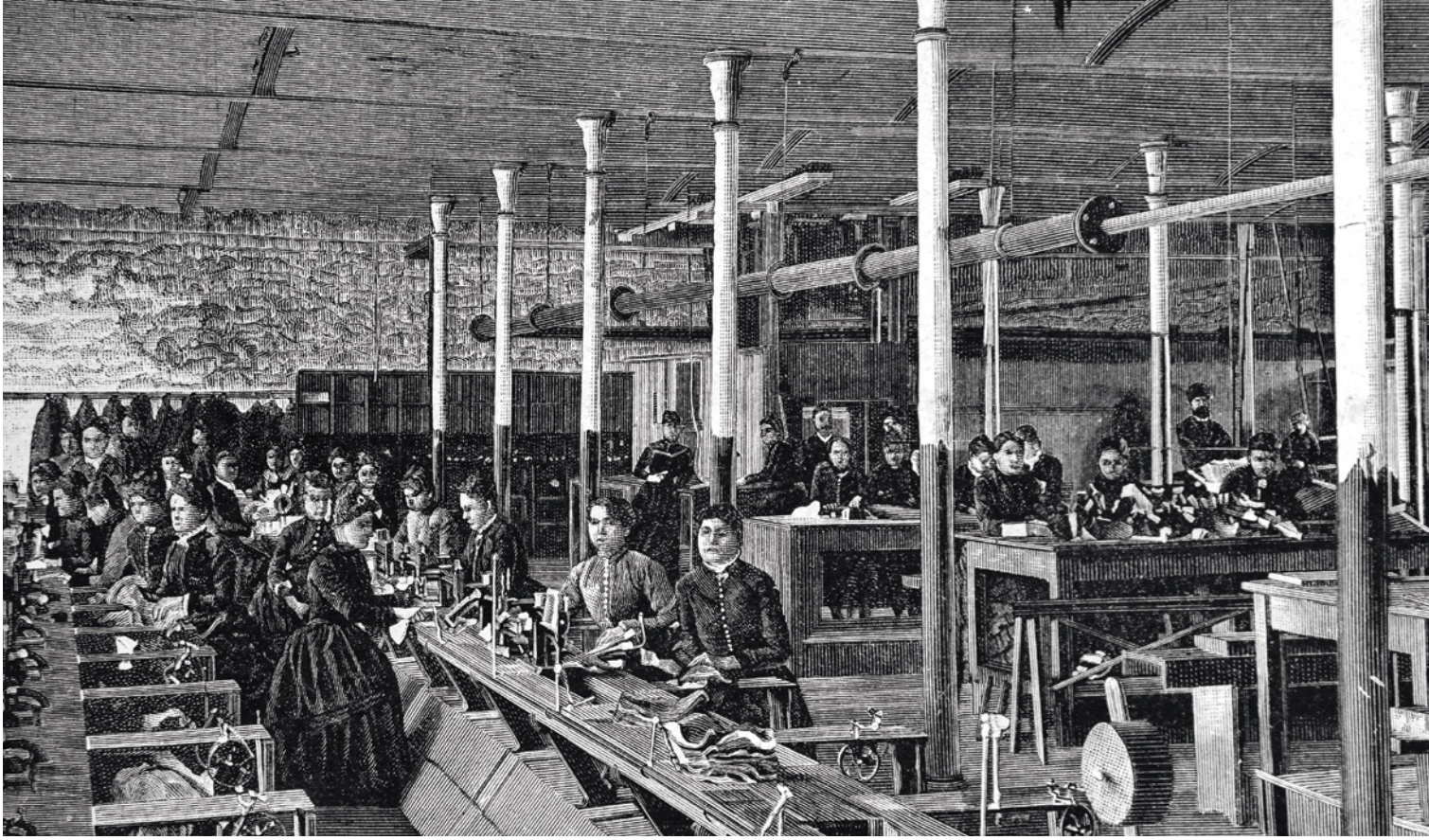
Timing and location of the work 'day'

According to data collected by the Australian Bureau of Statistics in 2014, about 40 per cent of workers now have some say in determining their start and finish times. One cause of this is the **casualisation** of the work environment: a greater proportion of workers have casual or short-term work arrangements, so they can renegotiate issues such as work times more frequently than those on long-term or permanent contracts.

The potential for flexibility in work arrangements is also growing as the Australian economy shifts further away from manufacturing industries, which require employees to be at a factory or warehouse at specific times in order for production to occur. Service industries such as hospitality and computer programming offer much greater potential for negotiation about when, and sometimes where, an employee will work.



Source 4.5.1 Workers in manufacturing industries usually have less flexibility in their work arrangements than those in service industries. If a factory worker does not arrive on time for their shift, the whole production process may slow down.



Source 4.5.2 This engraving of a scene in a shoe factory was published in Russia in 1888. Early factories tended to focus on production without spending time and money on issues such as employee wellbeing.

Technological developments such as mobile and cloud computing have also contributed to changes in the way people work. Working from home or while travelling is now practical in some industries, for at least some of the time. For example, financial advisers and mortgage brokers can travel to meet clients while still remaining in contact with their managers. Offering flexibility in the timing and location of work can help a firm become a more attractive workplace and may therefore help managers hire individuals with particularly highly sought-after skills.

Job-sharing

Job-sharing is now becoming a possibility in a growing number of industries. This allows two, or sometimes more, people to each work part-time hours, which add up to one full-time position. For example, one person may work for two days per week and the other for three days. While an arrangement of this type may not suit all positions, it can be a useful way to retain staff during periods where they require extra flexibility. Some examples of those for whom job-sharing is becoming more frequent are teachers, pharmacists and mechanics.

Increased emphasis on employee wellbeing

Employees in early factories were often expected to perform repetitive tasks, and little or no consideration was given to issues such as job satisfaction or employee wellbeing. In today's workplaces, employers are required to provide facilities that minimise the risks of injury. These include safety shields around dangerous machinery, and telephone headsets for employees who are required to make large numbers of phone calls.

In an effort to retain valuable workers at a time when it can be very easy for an employee to move from one job to another, many firms now go beyond the requirements of basic health and safety. They are paying increasing attention to the overall wellbeing of their workers. This is also associated with shifts in management theory, which now emphasises the role that employee satisfaction and happiness can play in a firm's overall success.

Measures designed to foster employee wellbeing may include provide standing desks to employees who request them, or paying part of the cost of gym memberships and yoga classes. Less costly options for firms can include open days when employees' family members are welcome to visit the workplace, or structuring the work day and office environment to make it easier for workers to collaborate—or even just to have lunch together.

Removal of a fixed retirement age

Having a fixed retirement age is also now a thing of the past for most workers. For many people, the key points to consider when planning their retirement are their willingness and ability to continue working and their financial situation. Some workers focus on the age at which they will be able to access the **age pension**, a government payment that provides a basic income for retirees who are unable to support themselves fully through savings and investments accumulated over their working life.

As life expectancy rises, more people are choosing to postpone their retirement. However, it is increasingly common to opt for a gradual transition into retirement, whereby the employee gradually reduces the number of hours they work, often over a period of several years. As the average age of the population rises, the government has started increasing the age at which people can access the age pension: it rises from 65 to 65.5 years in July 2017, and then in several stages to 67 in July 2023. It seems likely that it will rise further as the population continues to age.

Age pension

The age pension was introduced in Australia in 1908, to be paid to men over 65 (and later to women over 60) who could not support themselves. At that time, life expectancy was 55 years for men and 59 years for women. Today, life expectancy has risen to 80 years for men and 84 years for women, but many people are eligible for the age pension before they turn 70.

Pay incentives

In some industries, workers can now qualify for extra pay if they meet certain criteria. In the mining industry, it is common for workers to receive a bonus payment at the end of the year if the company has met predetermined production and safety targets. This is designed to encourage workers to feel they have a direct connection to the overall company goals, and a responsibility to work with their peers to ensure everyone receives the bonus.

In some cases, workers can receive one-off bonuses if they develop new ideas to improve the firm's operations or if they make a particularly notable contribution. Examples might include bonuses for workers who find ways to reduce wastage in manufacturing processes, or for employees who bring valuable new clients to the firm.

Source 4.5.3 Mining is a very dangerous industry. To help ensure that workers comply with safety requirements, such as those shown here, they can be paid bonuses if they meet or exceed targets in areas such as the number and type of injuries and safety incidents.

Changes in government policy

There have been many changes in the way Australians work since the courts decided in 1907 that all workers were entitled to a minimum wage. Until 1966, the Australian Public Service did not even employ married women: a single woman working in a government department had to 'retire' if she married. Today, firms are required to provide benefits such as sick leave, parental leave and long service leave to ongoing employees.

Conditions of employment are overseen by the Fair Work Commission. It was established in its current form in 2012, although there have been similar bodies in Australia since 1904. The Commission is responsible for ensuring that all workers in Australia receive at least the minimum wages and conditions that it has established. This means that workers are supported by these safeguards when they are negotiating pay, conditions and other issues with their employer. When the federal government alters its policy—for example, in relation to the circumstances in which a worker can lose their job—the Fair Work Commission is responsible for ensuring that these changes are reflected in all employment agreements in Australia.

Source 4.5.4 Employers at the Reinvent Your Career expo in Melbourne aim to attract prospective employees to their booths.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Infer what is meant by the term '9-to-5 job'.
2. List three of the biggest changes taking place in work environments.
3. Outline why the potential for flexibility in work arrangements has increased.
4. Describe how employees benefit from job-sharing.
5. Identify those occupations where job-sharing is common.

Applying and analysing

6. Identify the relationship between changes that a firm can make to help improve the wellbeing of its employees and the overall success of that firm.
7. Survey a range of adults to discover ways in which their workplaces have changed in the last five years.

Evaluating and creating

8. Retirement is a big step. Propose a set of criteria that employees could use to help them judge the right time to retire.

Inquiry tasks

Investments

Imagine you are a financial adviser. Financial advisers offer advice on how people should invest their money.

a Prepare a table summarising the benefits and risks of each of the following types of investment:

- **i** bank accounts
- **ii** managed funds
- **iii** shares
- **iv** property and international investments.

b Based on the benefits and risks, which type, or types, of investment would best suit the following clients, and why?

- **i** a married couple in their early 30s who both have full-time jobs and no children
- **ii** a 25-year-old schoolteacher, who works full-time and lives at home with his/her parents
- **iii** a retired couple in their late 60s who own their own house and a rental property
- **iv** a middle-aged business person who earns $120 000 a year and lives alone
- **v** a family of four with one parent working full-time and the other part-time.

Financial advice

Create an information brochure, web page or instructional piece that advises people on how to reduce personal debt and increase their ability to save money. Your target audience is young families. You may consider providing advice on the following areas:

- household expenses such as a mortgage, food, cars and utilities
- education
- healthcare
- investment.

Include in your brochure a checklist that families can use to help them stay on track financially. Create your brochure in digital format and include images.

Source 4.6.1 Buying a home can be considered to be a very good investment; however, it can also result in considerable household debt for the home owner.

Game of life

Create a board game or a computer game that takes players on a journey through life, focusing on the economic highs and lows that people experience, and the main ideas of financial management that you have learnt about in this chapter. You might, for example, create a Snakes and Ladders–style game, in which players go up the ladder when they experience a positive financial turn and down when they face a negative financial turn. Alternatively, you might consider creating a trivia-style game.

Marketplace competition

Develop your own rubric to assess whether a current product is demonstrating innovation and a competitive advantage in the marketplace. Consider such factors as:

- the marketing of the product
- similarities and differences between it and other products in the market
- whether the product fills a gap in the market
- any other innovations to gain a competitive advantage that the firm producing the product has adopted.

Once you have completed an assessment of the product, provide at least three recommendations to the firm to further improve its product and its competitive advantage in the marketplace.

Work environment

Find two Western Australian firms that are focused on building positive relationships with their employees in order to meet the changing nature of the workplace. Use a Venn diagram to compare the two companies and show the similarities and differences between them in terms of employee relations. Consider the following when researching your companies:

- working hours
- parental leave conditions
- use of technology
- physical and mental health and wellbeing of employees
- retirement/superannuation packages
- bonuses
- any other innovations the firms have adopted to enhance working conditions for employees.

GLOSSARY

age pension a government payment that provides a basic income for retirees who are unable to fully support themselves

blended marketing a combination of online and offline marketing approaches

casualisation the changing of a permanent workforce to a casual, temporary workforce

competitive advantage anything that places a firm in a better position than its competitors

cost leader a firm that can provide a product at a lower price than its competitors

debt money owed to another person or business

dividends profits paid by a company to its shareholders

identity theft using another person's identity to steal money or obtain other benefits

interest a payment that a bank makes to a depositor to encourage them to place their money with it; a payment on top of the loan amount that a borrower must make to a lender

job-sharing the situation in which two or more people work part-time hours, which add to one full-time position

malware software that a scammer installs on another person's computer in order to access files or monitor what the computer is used for

managed fund a type of fund that contains contributions from a number of investors and in which an investment manager is responsible for buying and selling investments

phishing scams aimed at tricking someone into disclosing information such as passwords or credit card or bank account details

scam a dishonest scheme for obtaining money or other assets

CHAPTER 5

Biomes and food security

The vegetation of the earth's major ecosystems, or biomes, is vital for the survival of other species on earth, as plants are the basis of all food chains. Our wellbeing depends on having access to affordable food. But a complex combination of unreliable harvests, competition for agricultural lands from biofuels, higher energy prices, the surging demand for food in China and India, and distortions in world trade, are driving food prices up worldwide. Some countries are facing an increasingly dire situation, while even consumers in wealthy nations are being forced to make adjustments to their food budgets.

In this chapter we study the global distribution of biomes and how they have been altered by humans to produce food, industrial materials and fibres, and the environmental effects of these alterations, We also investigate the factors that contribute to our ability to access adequate food supplies, and the challenges of effectively feeding our growing world population in a sustainable and equitable way.

Source 5.0.1 The vegetation of the earth's biomes is vital for our survival.

The world's major biomes

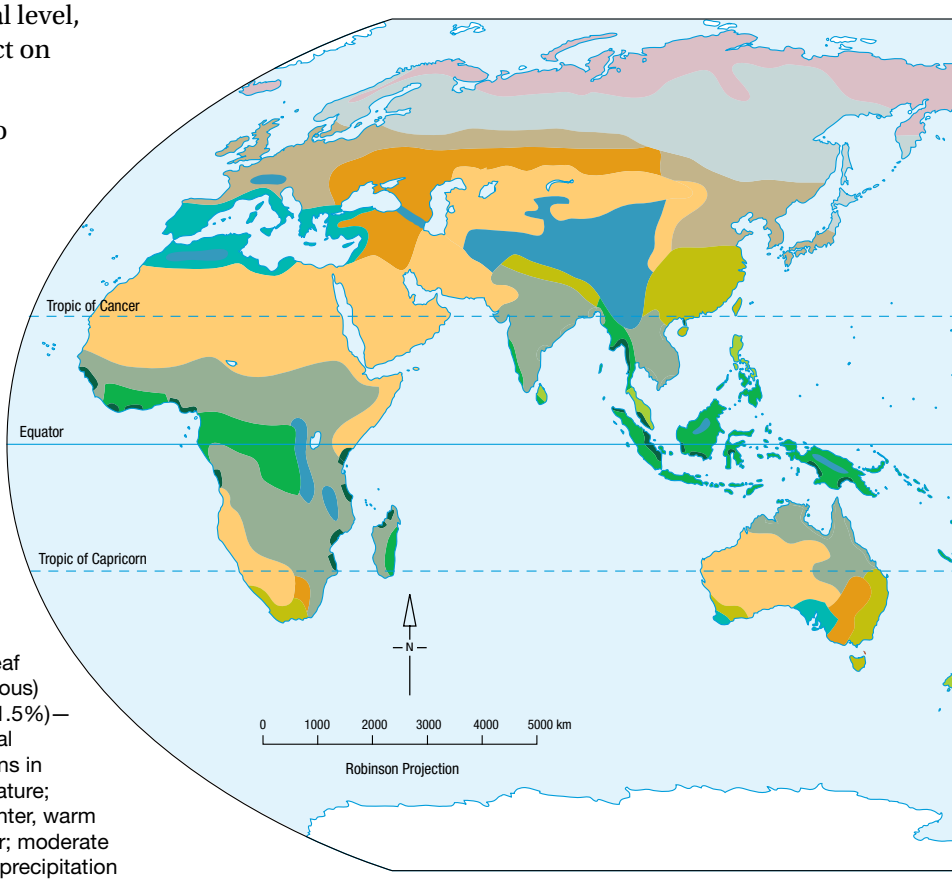
Biomes

There are many factors that affect the types of **biomes** found across the earth's surface. These factors operate on both local and global scales. The type of ecosystem at the bottom of a steep-sided valley is usually different from the ecosystem at the top due to factors such as shade, wind and moisture. At the global level, climate factors have the most significant impact on the distribution of biomes.

The many biomes that exist can be divided into two groups: aquatic and terrestrial.

Aquatic biomes are water-based. They include open oceans, river estuaries (the part of a river influenced by the sea) and coastal wetlands.

Terrestrial biomes are land-based. The earth's major terrestrial biomes are usually named after the type of vegetation that dominates the area. The type of vegetation, in turn, depends mainly on climate. Boundaries between biomes appear abrupt on a map; on the ground, there is a gradual transition of plants and animals between biomes.



Broadleaf (deciduous) forest (1.5%)—seasonal variations in temperature; cold winter, warm summer; moderate to high precipitation

Deserts (21%)—very dry, low humidity, both hot and cold; large daily range in temperatures

Mediterranean shrubland (1%)—wet winter, dry summer

Tundra (5%)—long severe winter, short cool summer

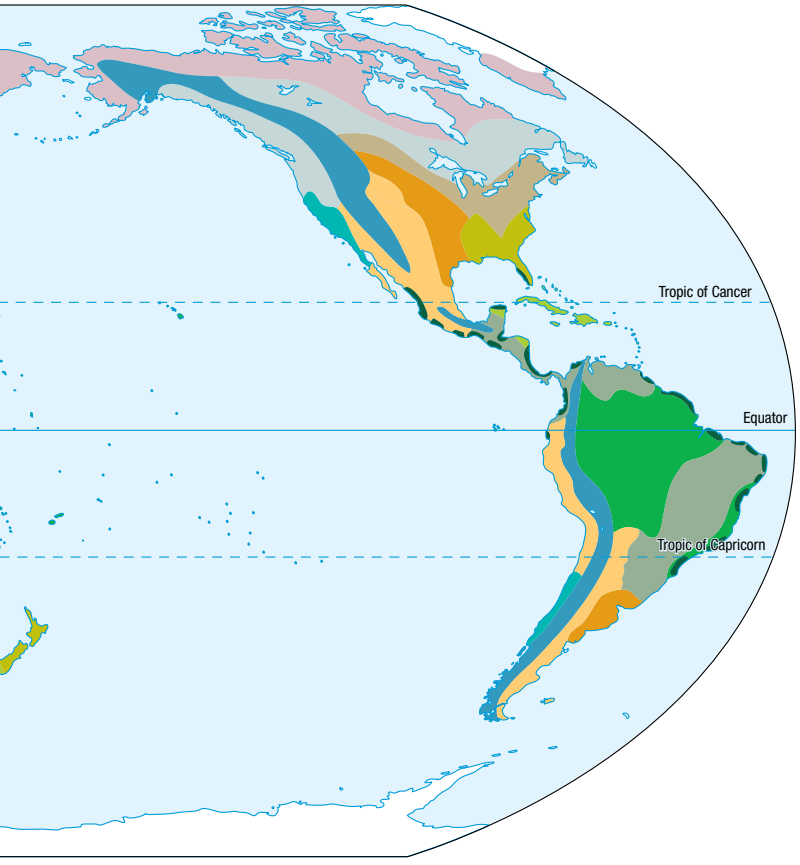
Mountains (alpine) (11%)—temperatures decrease with elevation

Tropical rainforest (2%)—warm to hot temperatures throughout the year; high rainfall

Tropical savanna (24%)—distinct wet and dry seasons; high temperatures in summer

Temperate grassland (9%)—warm to hot summer, cold winter; relatively low rainfall

Broadleaf (evergreen) forest (9%)—cool wet winter and dry mild summer



Coniferous (taiga/boral) forest (14%)—long cold winter, short cool summer

Mangroves (<1%)—variable rainfall, temperate climates

Source 5.1.1 The earth's major terrestrial (land-based) biomes

Polar (11%)—very cold, low precipitation

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Distinguish between aquatic and terrestrial biomes.
2 After what characteristic are most terrestrial biomes named?
3 Identify an important factor that determines the type of biome that exists in an area.

Applying and analysing

4 Study Source 5.1.1. With the aid of an atlas, write a report describing the distribution of the earth's major terrestrial biomes.

Australia's major biomes

Diverse biomes

Australia has a diverse selection of highly valued aquatic and terrestrial biomes. Australia is one of the earth's seven continental landmasses.

Spanning almost 33 degrees of latitude, Australia's climate ranges from the hot, wet tropical far north, to a cool temperate (with snow) south. Australia is the driest inhabited continent in the world. The Lake Eyre region in South Australia averages only 100 millimetres of rainfall a year. Tully, in northern Queensland, has an annual average of 4204 millimetres. The responses to so many different climate regimes across such a vast continent underpin the diversity found in Australia's terrestrial biomes.

a Rainforest in Queensland

Rainforests are only found in isolated pockets on the well-watered eastern side of the Great Dividing Range where annual rainfall exceeds 1200 to 1500 millimetres. Tropical rainforests are found in the hot climate of northern Queensland, but as the temperatures decrease towards the south, subtropical rainforests take over. In the cooler states of Victoria and Tasmania, cool temperate rainforests are found. Rainforests are characterised by a closed canopy of tree crowns and a large diversity of species of plants, animals and insects.

b Forest in Southern Australia

Sclerophyll forests are dominated by eucalypt trees, which have hard, leathery leaves that are able to survive in the poor, phosphate-deficient soils of Australia. Wet sclerophyll forests have tall eucalypt trees sheltering an understorey of moisture-loving shrubs. They generally occupy moist gullies on the shaded southern side of highland areas and the wetter eastern coast. Dry sclerophyll forests have smaller trees that are well spaced, allowing the sun to reach the understorey, where hardy plants such as banksias and grevilleas thrive. Such forests burn fiercely, but then regenerate.

c Eucalypt woodlands near Horsham, Victoria

The eucalypt woodlands have fewer and shorter trees scattered among grasses and shrubs. In the semi-arid fringes, the mallee tree survives droughts and fires because it has a large lignotuber that is protected underground. The temperate grasslands have no trees but are dominated by extensive perennial grass tussocks such as kangaroo grass.

d The Kimberley, Western Australia

Large, generally flat areas covered by extensive grasslands (such as Mitchell grass) with a few low, scattered trees are found across northern Australia. The climate has distinct wet and dry seasons, with fires common in the dry season. Marsupials are the dominant animals of the savanna.

e Uluru–Kata Tjuta National Park

Two-thirds of Australia is desert or semi-desert (receiving less than 250 millimetres or between 250 and 300 millimetres of annual rainfall, respectively). Some desert surfaces are covered with sand or stones. Others have tussock and hummock grasslands containing spinifex grasses, with acacias and low shrubs such as saltbush. Animals such as the bilby and reptiles such as goannas survive by burrowing underground to avoid the extreme heat.

f Snowy Mountains, Kosciuszko National Park, New South Wales

Mountains of sufficient height are a distinct and unique biome. The highest parts of the Snowy Mountains in southern New South Wales are too cold for trees to grow. The alpine area only occupies 100 square kilometres around Mount Kosciuszko. The alpine area is a mosaic of heathland, alpine grasses, herbfields and bogs, interspersed by protruding rocks. Highly specialised plant and animal communities are adapted to the extreme cold, such as the marsh marigold, which flowers under the snow, giving it enough time to spread seed in the brief summer.

Source 5.2.1 Australia's biomes

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 List the reasons why Australia has such diverse aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems.

Applying and analysing

2 Study Source 5.2.1, then create a three-column table. Label the columns with the following headings and fill in the table:
- Photograph letter (according to the source)
- Type of biome (select from the source)
- Dominant features (include information about climate where available).

Evaluating and creating

3 Using your table from activity 2:
- **a** Individually rank the photographs, from the environment that appeals to you the most to the environment that appeals to you the least.
- **b** List the criteria you used.
- **c** In groups of four, compare your individual rankings and criteria. Then as a group, rank the photographs. What criteria did the group use?
- **d** Share your group's rankings with the rest of the class. How much agreement was there?

Biomes and food security

Food for humans

The vegetation of biomes is vital for the survival of other species on earth, as plants are the basis of all food chains. They capture the sun's energy and through photosynthesis convert it into compounds that keep organisms alive and serve as food for others. Biomes sustain life, and humans, like other species, depend upon them for food.

Humans are omnivores, as they eat both plant and animal products. This has enabled them to live in many very different environments, many of which are very harsh.

Some humans are able to survive the extreme aridity of deserts and others live in the icy lands of the Arctic. They could not do this if they were unable to obtain sufficient food. The availability of food often determines the number of people that a region can support. The fertile river valleys of South-East Asia support some of the highest rural population densities in the world, as the rich alluvial soil is capable of producing up to three rice crops a year.

Staple foods

A staple food is one that is eaten regularly by a community or society as the main part of their diet. It may be eaten at every meal. Staple foods vary from place to place, but typically they are easily grown in that region and so are readily available and usually quite cheap. Staple foods include rice in the Asian region, wheat in Europe, cassava and potato in South America and maize (corn) in Central America. Staples are well adapted to the biophysical environment of their source regions. Farmers rely on staple crops, as they are more resilient and therefore reduce the risk of crop failure and a resulting food shortage.

Grains

Most staple foods are cereal grains, such as wheat, barley, maize, rice, rye, oats and triticale. Their seeds are harvested to provide grain foods that can be stored for a long period of time without spoiling. Such crops are **annuals** and their seeds must be replanted each year. Cereals are the main food for most people in the world. Rice, maize and wheat are the staples of over four billion people and, in particular, rice feeds almost half of humanity.

Rice is usually cooked and eaten as a whole grain. Most other cereals are refined, or milled or ground into a finer substance. Flour from wheat and maize is used to make bread and pasta. Maize, barley, oats and millet are often boiled for porridge or baked as flat cakes. Other staple foods include starchy root vegetables such as cassava, potatoes, yams and taro. Over one billion people in developing countries depend

Cassava

The main staple foods in the average African diet are (in terms of energy intake) cereals (46%), roots and tubers (20%) and animal products (7%).

Bread and grains

In Western Europe, the main staples in the average diet are (in terms of energy intake) animal products (33%), cereals (26%) and roots and tubers (4%).

Source 5.3.1 The main staple foods for people in Africa (left) and Western Europe (right)

on roots and tubers as their staple food. Such foods are especially important in Sub-Saharan Africa. Although they provide carbohydrates, they are poor in protein and nutrients.

As people drift to cities, they tend to replace roots and tubers in their diet with cereals. With increasing affluence, diets become more varied, and more meat and dairy products are consumed. One billion of the world's poorest people, however, still rely on roots and tubers.

Traditional food crops gaining popularity

Cassava is grown in tropical and sub-tropical areas for its large, starchy, tuberous root. It contains cyanide, and is poisonous unless it is cooked or grated and left in the open. Cassava is grown globally, as it survives well in poor soils and can withstand drought. It has become one of the most important staples in developing countries.

Quinoa is becoming increasingly popular, notably in wealthy countries, because of its high nutrient content. It is rich in essential amino acids such as lysine, as well as iron and calcium. Quinoa is grown for its edible seeds and with improved processing it is now also made into bread.

Biomes and food production

The productivity of biomes, in terms of the amount of food that can be gained from them, varies greatly.

Deserts

The extreme aridity of deserts limits land use. Nomadic pastoralists such as the Tuareg and the Bedouin of the Sahara survive in this inhospitable environment by moving around to find new pastures for their stock.

Source 5.3.2 Temperate grasslands, Australia. Temperate grasslands are a very productive biome because their soils are so fertile.

Tundra

The extreme cold and permafrost (a permanently frozen layer in the soil) result in a very harsh environment that supports only nomadic reindeer herders such as the Nenets, who live in northern Russia.

Tropical savanna

The dry season restricts the amount of vegetation that can grow here, so the land is really only suitable for grazing, and very large areas are needed to support stock. Cattle properties in the tropical north of Australia are thousands of square kilometres in size.

Tropical rainforests

The impoverished soils are the biggest limitation for food production in rainforests, as soils rely on decaying material from the forest above to maintain nutrient levels. Heavy rainfall leaches nutrients from the soil and also causes erosion if the vegetation is removed.

Temperate grasslands

As they lie over some of the richest soils in the world, temperate grasslands have been heavily used for food production. They have been ploughed and planted with cereal crops such as wheat in the Canadian prairies and Australia, as well as pastures for beef cattle.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Explain why the vegetation in biomes is so important to life on earth.
2. Describe a staple food.
3. Describe how the diet of people changes as they shift from rural to urban areas.

Applying and analysing

4. Research what the main crops are, and what the predominant type of biome is, where the food is produced in each of the following regions: Chinese–Japanese; Indochinese; Australian; Hindustani; Central Asian; Near Eastern; Mediterranean; African region; European–Siberian; South American; Central American and Mexican; North American.
   - **a** Present your information in a table.
   - **b** Identify some patterns of food production that you see from this information.

Evaluating and creating

5. Working in groups of five, write a short newspaper article about the issue of feeding the growing urban population of the world. (Hint: consider how the types of food eaten change.)

Humans alter biomes

Why humans alter biomes

The first civilisations emerged when adequate food was produced to support them. Food production has continued to be of fundamental importance and as the world's population has grown, more and more land has been needed for this purpose. As the world has industrialised and modernised, even greater demands have been placed on the natural environment to provide the fibres, fuels and all the raw materials needed. Many of the world's biomes have been affected by human activities in the competition for resources.

How humans alter biomes

The imprint of humans has spread across the earth's surface as natural habitats have been lost to agriculture, mines, dams, transport routes, canals, cleared tracts for power transmission lines and settlements. Such features of the built environment stand out as evidence of the impact of humans. Humans alter their environment to make it more suitable to their purposes. This is done in a number of ways.

Vegetation clearance

Land clearing, primarily for agriculture, is probably the most widespread cause of damage to biomes. The biome most affected has been the temperate grasslands, which have been either removed or modified on every inhabited continent of the world. The absence of trees, flat terrain and the deep, rich soil made them attractive for farmland as well as for urban settlements.

Source 5.4.1 Mountainous areas are farmed using terraces. Terracing is common in China, the Philippines and Bali.

In 2013, the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) reported that the temperate grasslands are one of the world's great biomes—but they have mostly disappeared. Indigenous temperate grasslands are now, according to the IUCN, the most altered biome on the planet. The temperate grasslands biome occupies 9 million square kilometres or 8 per cent of the earth's land surface. Of this 8 per cent, only 5 per cent is currently protected within the global system of protected areas. Indigenous temperate grasslands are now the earth's most endangered biome.

Source 5.4.2 Examples of human control of biomes

Type of control	Examples
Chemical control	• Poisoning unwanted organisms, whether plant, animal, insect, fungus or bacteria • Stimulating growth by adding nutrients and fertilisers
Habitat control	• Ploughing or other modifications to soil, earth or rock, such as terracing steep slopes to create small flat sections for farming • Introduction or exclusion of fire • Habitat deconstruction (such as deforestation, swamp draining and filling), leading to local or global extinctions
Biological control	• Introduction of predator or parasite specific to unwanted species, such as cactoblastis on Australian prickly pear • Introduction of species to niche, such as marram grass for sand dune stabilisation in south-eastern Australia
Genetic control	• Regular importing of strains of organisms with special characteristics (usually high yield) • Control of plant or animal breeding within the system, such as use of selective breeding, selective hybridisation • Scientific interventions to bring about genetic changes that act as a means of controlling, and perhaps eliminating, unwanted species
Water-cycle control	• Supply or removal of water by any means such as irrigation, construction of dams, sinking bores • Weather modification

Source: P. Chapman and S. Codrington, *Understanding our Earth*, Pitman, Carlton, 1985

Source 5.4.3 How people have influenced biomes

Biome	Percentage of the world's land	Effect of people on the biome
Equatorial and tropical rainforest	8	The effect depends on the type of use: • timber-cutting: large effect over large areas • clearing for farming: large effect as forest is totally removed.
Temperate forest	7	Many of the world's temperate forests have been cleared and the land used for crop growing. People have had a major effect on this biome.
Coniferous (or boreal) forest	14	People have changed some areas more than others. In Canada and the eastern part of Russia, some forests have not been used. In the United States and Norway, they are used for grazing and herding. In western areas of Russia, the effect of people is greater as the forests have been cleared for crop growing.
Savanna (grassland)	24	The major effects of people have been: • deliberate burns have been used to clear trees and encourage grasses • areas of overgrazing, where high stock numbers cause erosion • grasslands ploughed for crops, leading to danger of erosion.
Temperature grassland	7	Most of these grasslands have been cleared and ploughed for crop growing. Areas of grassland have been improved, or replanted with better grasses, for livestock grazing.
Mediterranean	1	Most vegetation has been cleared and soil ploughed for tree crops and other crops: some grazing.
Hot desert	21	Areas in Africa and Asia are used for nomadic herding. In the United States, Australia and South America, they are used for ranching (cattle/sheep). Very fragile biome. Although stock numbers are low, many areas are overgrazed and erosion is a problem.
Tundra	5	People have had very little effect, although tourism can destroy the vegetation.
Polar	11	People have had little direct impact on ice caps, but fishing of krill and other marine life is having an effect on aquatic biomes.
Cities and industrial areas	2	Major impact, as people change the nature of the ecosystem. Pollution of air and water is having a major impact on all the world's biomes.

Source: P. Chapman and S. Codrington, *Understanding our Earth*, Pitman, Carlton, 1985

Globally, about 80 per cent of the original forest cover has also been cleared, fragmented, degraded or turned into plantations for commercial crops. About half of this area has been completely cleared and the loss of habitat of a biome rich in biodiversity has resulted in the demise of many species. Early casualties were the rainforests that covered the Ivory Coast of West Africa. The same trend of deforestation continues in South America and South-East Asia.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Explain why humans have had more of an impact on biomes than any other species.
2. Identify the features that stand out as evidence of the impact of humans on biomes.
3. Describe how the forest biome has been affected by humans.
4. Name the greatest cause of damage to biomes.
5. Identify three countries in which terracing is common.

Applying and analysing

6. Study Source 5.4.3. Create a pie graph that shows how the different biomes make up the world's land.

Evaluating and creating

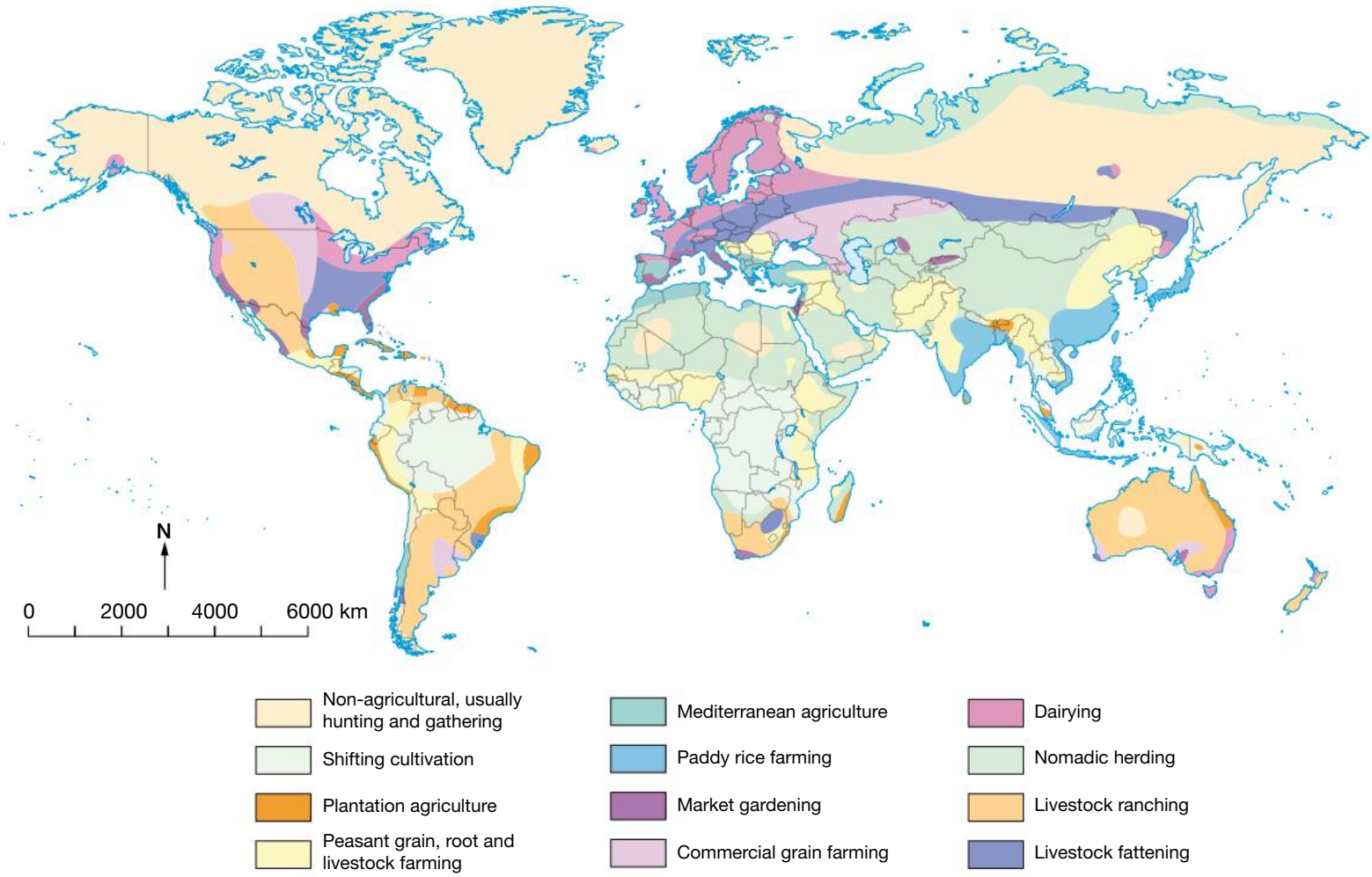
7. Study Source 5.4.2. Rank each control from having the most negative impact to the least. Justify your ranking.

Global patterns of agriculture

Development of agriculture

Humans are believed to have been on earth for somewhere between 90 000 and 195 000 years. For most of that time they survived by hunting and gathering. Eventually, however, they learnt how to grow and breed plants and animals that could nourish them, and traditional forms of farming developed. People were then able to settle in one place, secure in the knowledge that they would have enough to eat. By the 17th century, **commercial agriculture** emerged in Europe, and profit became the motive for production of food and fibre crops. This spread to the colonies as plantations became established.

As population levels rose, more food was needed and, increasingly, the earth's surface became transformed by agriculture. Over time, distinct global patterns of agriculture have emerged. These reflect regional variations in the biophysical environment and human interactions with it.



Source 5.5.1 Agricultural regions of the world

Type of agriculture	Where it is practised	How it is practised
Shifting cultivation	Tropical lowlands and hills in the Americas, Africa and South-East Asia	Essentially a land rotation system. Small patches of rainforest are cleared and when the vegetation has dried, it is burnt (hence known as 'slash-and-burn' agriculture). Farmers use digging sticks to plant a variety of crops (taller plants protecting lower, more fragile ones from the tropical downpours). No fertiliser applied and little tending of plants until harvest. Same clearing only used for four to five years until soils lose fertility. Plot is abandoned for 10 to 20 years.
Plantation agriculture	Tropical and subtropical regions of the Americas and South-East Asia. Today the greatest concentration is in the American tropics.	A huge landholding devoted to specialised, large-scale production. Used to rely on large amounts of labour (most workers living on the plantation), but now many are mechanised. Started in colonial times as Europeans sought spices, tobacco, cotton and rubber. Today coffee, tea, sugar cane and bananas are the main crops.
Peasant grain, root and livestock farming	Colder, drier Asiatic farming regions, river valleys of the Middle East, parts of Europe and Africa, mountain highlands of Latin America and New Guinea	Based on grains such as wheat, barley, maize and millet. Some cash crops such as flax, hemp, coffee and tobacco are grown. Livestock such as cattle, sheep and pigs raised for milk, meat and wool. Llamas and alpacas raised in South America.
Mediterranean agriculture	Regions bordering the Mediterranean Sea and in Chile	Based on grains such as wheat, barley, maize and millet. A few areas still practise the traditional system of wheat and barley production, with sheep and goat herding on rocky slopes. Drought-resistant vine and tree crops grown: grapes, olives and figs. Irrigation has led to expansion of citrus fruits.
Paddy rice farming	Humid tropical and subtropical parts of Asia, monsoon coasts of India, hills of south-eastern China, warmer parts of Japan	Tiny, mud-dyked, flooded rice fields, many perched on terraced hillsides. Draft animals such as water buffalo used to plough the fields. Mechanised in Japan. Small sprouts carefully transplanted by hand from seedbeds to paddy fields. Large amounts of organic fertiliser used (more recently, chemical). Double and triple cropping on same parcels of land (two to three crops a year).
Market gardening	Located on fertile land in developed countries, usually close to large cities	Specialises in intensively cultivated non-tropical fruits, vegetables and vines such as grapes (no livestock). All produce sold.
Commercial grain farming	Wheat belts stretching through Australia, North America's Great Plains region, the steppes of Ukraine and the pampas of Argentina	Market-oriented type of agriculture. Farmers grow wheat or, less frequently, rice or corn. Large properties in excess of 400 hectares Agribusiness involvement—huge corporations. Highly mechanised. Uses agrichemicals such as fertilisers, pesticides and herbicides, as well as hybrid seeds.

Source 5.5.2 Types of agriculture (crops)

Source 5.5.3 Shifting cultivation, Suriname. The area of rainforest cleared for cultivation can be seen.

Type of agriculture	Where it is practised	How it is practised
Dairying	Large dairy belts in the United States from New England to the upper Midwest, Western and northern Europe, south-eastern Australia and northern New Zealand	Generally found close to markets—large cities. Farmers use pastures and fodder crops (such as hay). New Zealand produces butter and cheese, as it is a long way from markets. Large feedlot systems on the fringes of large cities common in the United States.
Nomadic herding	The deserts, steppes and savannas of Africa, Arabia and the interior of Eurasia	Graze cattle, sheep, goats and camels. Continually move stock in search of feed. Some migrate to mountains in summer. Practice only survives in remote areas and may soon completely vanish.
Livestock ranching	Interior of North America, Brazil and northern Australia	Ranchers run stock on huge properties on vast grasslands. Cattle sold for meat or exported live.
Livestock fattening	Corn belt of the mid-western United States, Europe, Australia, Brazil and South Africa	Farmers grow fodder crops and raise/fatten cattle and pigs for sale. Maize and soybeans used as feed in the United States; oats and potatoes in Europe. Feedlots have become common in the United States and Australia.

Source 5.5.4 Types of agriculture (animals)

Traditional agriculture

Despite the global dominance of commercial agriculture today, some forms of **traditional agriculture** continue. Across developing countries, traditional agriculture is practised by 2.7 billion people on roughly three-quarters of the world's cultivated land. There are two main types of traditional agriculture:

- traditional subsistence agriculture—usually found in difficult environments such as tropical rainforests where it is practised by shifting cultivators, or in the tundra and the desert fringes, where the nomadic herders roam. People live off the land, relying on their own labour to produce enough food for their families. The area covered by this form of land use is becoming smaller with deforestation in the tropics, and many nomadic herders are abandoning their traditional life.
- traditional intensive agriculture—in the more fertile areas of South-East Asia, paddy rice farming has been practised for thousands of years. This labour-intensive form of agriculture produces high-yield crops and in good seasons there may be enough produce to sell.

Commercial agriculture

Since the 1960s, there has been a staggering increase in agricultural production as a result of technological advances. This has occurred in what is known as industrial or commercial agriculture, or the large-scale production of single crops (monocultures) or livestock in the more favourable temperate environments of developed countries. Industrial agriculture is now responsible for the production of 80 per cent of the world's food. Investments in machinery, fossil fuels, agrichemicals and irrigation water have raised yields and made profits.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the term 'agriculture'.
2 Describe the development of agriculture.
3 Explain how industrial agriculture dominates food production today, given that it occupies only a small percentage of cultivated land.

Applying and analysing

4 Compare traditional subsistence agriculture and traditional intensive agriculture.
5 Study Source 5.5.1, then answer the following questions.
   a Identify the main agricultural regions of Australia and New Zealand.
   b What two types of agriculture dominate South-East Asia?
   c What continent has the greatest variety of agriculture in a small area?

Crop yields: Environmental factors

Crops

Most of the crops we rely on have quite specific environmental requirements for growth and performance. Increasingly though, other influences, which of course include humans, are affecting the actual yields realised. This is especially important when global food security may be put at risk.

Constraints within the biophysical environment

Aerial environment

Crops extend their stalks and leaves up into the atmosphere, taking in carbon dioxide and oxygen, and trapping solar energy. Temperature and precipitation are both very important and determine the types of crops that can be grown within a region. Most crops have a certain temperature and precipitation regime within which they grow well.

Soil environment

The type and condition of soils can place significant restrictions on the productivity of crops. The nutrient level, water-holding capability and structure of soils are natural variables that either support or hinder growth. Fertile soils provide crops with all they need, but infertile soils impose limitations on growth and development.

Topography

The shape of the land surface can also restrict land use, and is often related to soil type. Slope generally determines if the land can be cultivated safely. The most arable land suitable for unrestricted agricultural use is usually found on flat valley bottoms or plains, where soils are deep and fertile. Typically, such areas are used to produce high-yielding crops. Steep slopes and ridge tops are unsuitable for cultivation as they have thin, stony soils and are an erosion hazard if the land is disturbed. Terracing is one method people have developed to turn steeply sloping land into crop-supporting land.

Inputs from the human environment

Historically, the major increases in crop yields have taken place as humans have intervened to overcome the physical limitations on crop production.

Technology

Technology has been particularly important in generating the growth in the output of food and it has brought about an intensification of agriculture. Conventional crop-breeding techniques have led to genetic engineering. New strains of crops have been developed that give high yields. Large inputs of agrochemicals and irrigation have been used to maintain these yields.

Economics and culture

While the feasibility of growing a crop in a particular area is determined by the suitability of the biophysical environment, the actual choice of a crop type is based on economic and cultural factors.

Source 5.6.1 The fertile Canterbury Plains of New Zealand

Source 5.6.2 Cultivation of marginal land in Sub-Saharan Africa. Crop yields are very low in a difficult biophysical environment and the land can become unproductive if it is overexploited.

The choice between crops being grown for commercial purposes depends on the perceived profit to be made. This is dependent on price stability, which will determine the return on production; the cost of inputs such as agrochemicals, machinery, storage and transport; and distance to the market.

In some developing nations, culture exerts a strong influence over agriculture. Rules of inheritance and gender inequality are the core determinants of access to the land for farming, and women are generally disadvantaged.

Human impacts

The push for higher yields in resource-intensive agriculture has resulted in environmental degradation in some areas. Erosion, the contamination of soil and water by agrochemicals, and the depletion of surface and groundwater supplies have resulted from unsustainable land practices and must be addressed. Population pressure and overexploitation of the land in poor nations also limits improvements in agricultural production. In their desperation to feed their families, people overuse marginal land—and the damage can be irreversible.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Outline the constraints that the biophysical environment places on crop production.
2. Describe the importance of technology in raising crop yields.
3. Identify the pressures people put on the land that then affect crop productivity.

Applying and analysing

4. Study Source 5.6.1 and draw an annotated photo sketch. Highlight the relationship between topography and land use in the region.
5. Study Source 5.6.2. Brainstorm and list the circumstances under which people might be forced to exploit the land even when they know that what they do is unsustainable.

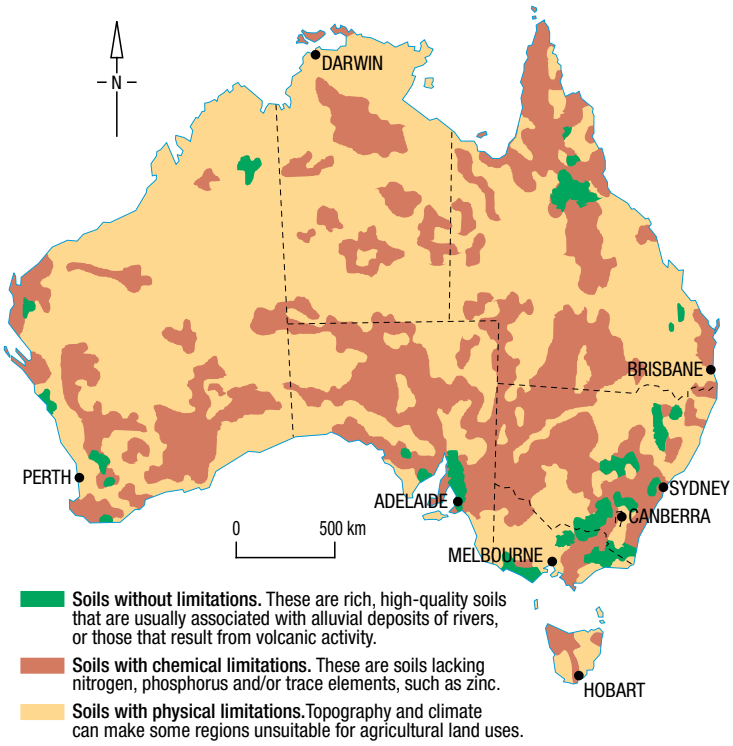
Australia's soils

Australia's ancient soils

Australia is often described as an ancient land because it has been stable over a very long period of geological time. This means that the surface of the continent has been exposed to the processes of weathering and erosion for millions of years. As a result, the continent has one of the world's flattest and most ancient landscapes, with soils that are among the world's oldest and least fertile.

Australia's soils are comparatively infertile because deep chemical weathering and the leaching of the continent's ancient rocks have resulted in the loss of many minerals. When the rocks break down into sediment, the soils that result tend to lack the nutrients needed to support agriculture.

Volcanic activity, which produces new volcanic rock, from which rich volcanic soils are formed, has been largely absent from the Australian continent. The volcanic activity that did occur millions of years ago was mainly concentrated along the eastern edge of the continent. Here it poured out basalt, which formed the basis of the rich basaltic soils found in areas along the length of the Great Dividing Range. The absence of large-scale tectonic mountain-building meant that there was little erosion rapid enough to expose and transform bedrock into sediment.



Source 5.7.1 Australian soils: only 6 per cent of Australia's soils are suitable for agricultural industries.

Unlike Europe and North America, which have quite fertile soils, Australia was not covered by an ice sheet during the Pleistocene Ice Age (that is, 1.8 million to 11 700 years ago). Moving ice sheets grind up unweathered rock, transforming it into fertile soil. Ice sheets last covered Australia more than 300 million years ago.

Impacts of European settlement

European settlers found the soils of Australia difficult to manage. Their knowledge of agriculture had been gained in temperate lands with deep, productive soils and predictable weather patterns. Their farming practices, which had proved highly effective in Europe, were applied in Australia. The result was the widespread degradation of the land.

Many Australians are just beginning to realise that the degradation of their life-supporting resources of soil and water has reached a crisis point. Government authorities and community-based groups, such as Landcare and Greening Australia, are tackling the problem of land degradation through the promotion of sustainable land-use practices.

Agricultural potential of Australian soils

The potential of the land to support agriculture depends on the soil type and associated properties, especially its fertility and water-holding capacity. Areas of land with poor soils in the agricultural zone of Australia are generally left uncleared. Agriculture in Australia is supported by a great range of soils.

The arid and semi-arid expanses of the continent have ancient, very weathered and infertile soils lacking not only nutrients but also organic material and soil moisture. At best this land in northern Australia and the drier western margins of New South Wales and Queensland can only support extensive cattle grazing, as the land cannot carry much stock.

Source 5.7.2 The heavily eroded landscape west of Charters Towers, Queensland

Other soils are younger, deeper and more fertile, especially the alluvial soils found in river valleys, particularly along the east coast. They are used for more intensive forms of agriculture, such as growing vegetables and fodder crops for haymaking, and dairying. The rich, red volcanic soils are also very productive. In Queensland they support the growth of peanut crops, as well as sugar cane and tropical fruits.

The red-brown soils (which have a sandy loam topsoil over a clay subsoil) and black cracking clay soils support the wheat-growing regions of Australia, where summer crops such as sorghum, sunflowers and soybeans are also grown. Such soils are also irrigated to grow cotton and rice. The valuable grazing lands of the tablelands that produce fine wool are mainly on red soils that are predominantly sandy and porous.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Explain why Australia's soils are described as being ancient.
2. List the factors that contributed to the infertility of Australia's soils.
3. Explain the impact European settlement had on Australian soils.
4. Outline what is now being done to address the impact that Europeans had on the land.
5. Identify the properties of soil that are needed to support agriculture.
6. Describe the range of soils that support agriculture in Australia.

Applying and analysing

7. Study Figure 5.7.1. Describe the distribution of Australia's high-quality soils (soils without limitations).

Evaluating and creating

8. Select one of the following organisations involved in improving soils: Landcare or Greening Australia.
   - **a** Investigate the organisation and include the following information in an oral report:
     - when the organisation was established and the main aim of the organisation
     - where in Australia the organisation works
     - with whom the organisation works
     - the type of work the organisation does.
   - **b** Evaluate the work of the organisation.

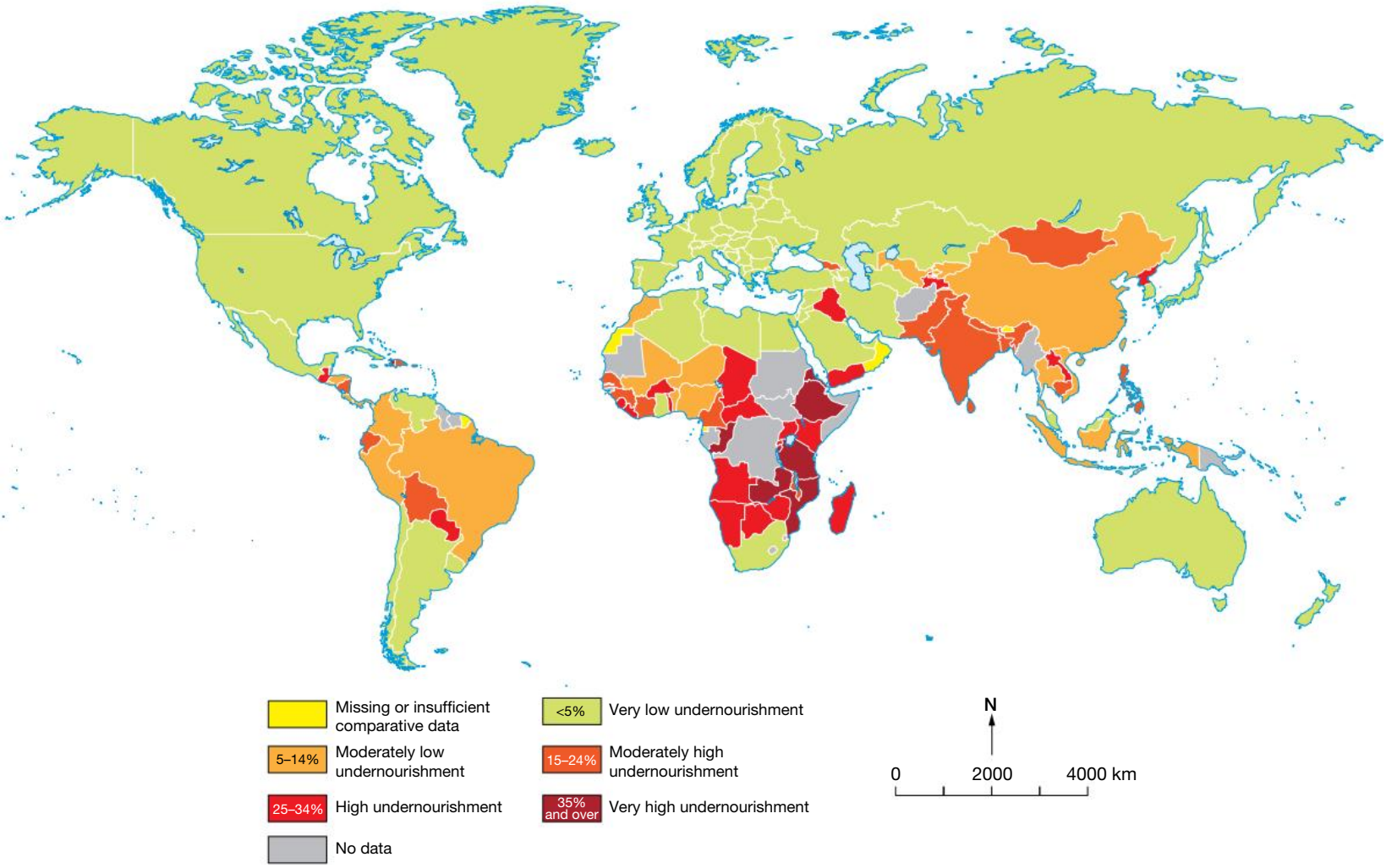
Threats to global food security

Food security

The United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) notes that food security is achieved when all people at all times have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to meet dietary needs and food preferences for a healthy and active life.

Enough food is currently produced to adequately feed all of the world's people, yet one billion are undernourished. It is the desperately poor who are going hungry because they lack the means to acquire even the bare minimum of food. The desperately poor usually spend up to 80 per cent of their household budgets on food.

The prospect of global food shortages, famine and conflict over food is looming. Population growth, rising incomes and changing consumption patterns are all driving up the demand for food. At the same time, food production is increasingly being constrained by the loss of arable land, shortages of fresh water, environmental degradation and climate change.



Source 5.8.1 World Hunger Map, 2012, showing the proportion of the global population who are undernourished

Rank	Country	Percentage of total population of country
	Global	13
1	Burundi	73
2	Comoros	70
3	Eritrea	65
4	Zambia	47
5	Haiti	45
6	Ethiopia	40
7	Mozambique	39
7	Sudan	39
7	Tanzania	39
8	Timor Leste	38
9	Congo	37
10	Uganda	35

Source 5.8.2 Countries containing the highest percentage of undernourished people as a percentage of their total population in 2010–12

Food shortages

When food shortages occur, it is the poor who suffer the most. This was evident when the prices for staple grains soared in 2008 as people and governments panicked because the global stockpile had shrunk. Public unrest and riots spread across the developing world and 1.5 billion people were put at risk by the food crisis. Violent food riots broke out in some 30 countries throughout the world in 2007–08, including India, Peru, Morocco, Egypt, Haiti and Bangladesh.

While the situation has eased, there are grave concerns that more food shortages are inevitable. This would cause instability and major disruptions in many countries and there could well be a humanitarian catastrophe across some of the world's poorest regions. When food shortages resulted in famines in the 1960s, the Green Revolution delivered the big surge in food production needed to lift crop yields. This has now largely fizzled out. The issue of food security has become more complex. There are now multiple threats that tend to amplify each other and compound the problem.

Source 5.8.3 Food riots in Haiti, 2008

Increasing demand for food

A combination of population growth and higher consumer expectations means that the global requirement for food by 2050 will be 70 to 100 per cent greater than it is today.

Population growth

While the rate of growth in human numbers is slowing, about 100 million people are still being added to the world's population each year. This upward trend is expected to result in the global population reaching 9.1 billion in 2050. Every year there are simply more mouths to feed.

Changing consumption patterns

As people move out of poverty, they improve their diets by eating different foods, particularly those that are rich in protein, such as meat, milk and eggs. Livestock are being fed vast quantities of corn, wheat, soybeans and barley, which are no longer then available as grain foods for people. As these grains are converted into meat, they lose as much as 95 per cent of their kilojoule value.

Limitations on food production

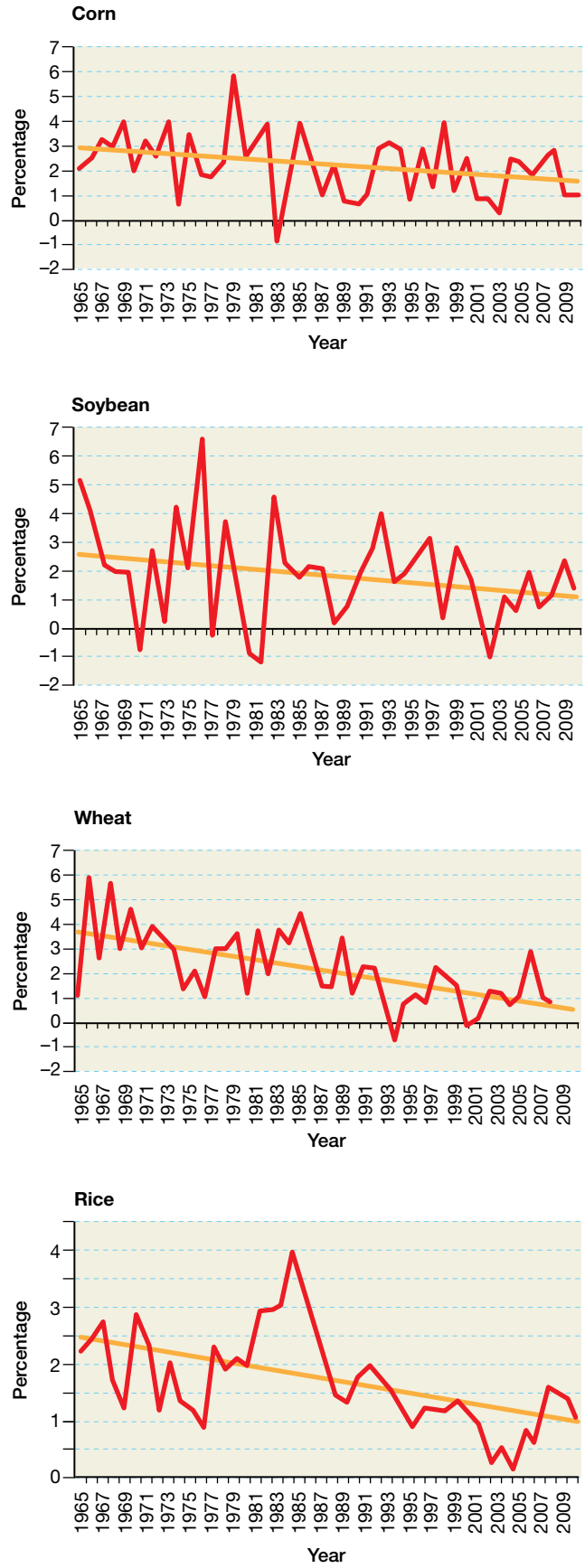
Population and demand for food are together rising at about 2 per cent a year, whereas food output is now increasing at only about 1 per cent a year. There are a number of potential threats that could prevent food production from rising as much as will be needed to achieve global food security.

Crop yields

Although total yields for grain crops continue to increase on a global basis, there has been a disturbing slide in the yield advances being made. This has been detected in many of the major cereal crops, including corn, wheat and rice. Where yields were once rising by 5–10 per cent each year with the sharing of the skills and technologies of the Green Revolution, the increases have now dwindled to only 1 per cent a year.

Shortages of fresh water

Water is crucial to food production and some of the most intensive food emergencies have been associated with severe water shortages. The increasing overuse of both surface and groundwater supplies, and declining water quality, are threatening the availability of fresh water. Dwindling supplies will affect agriculture and put at risk the world's food supply.



Source 5.8.4 Global crop yield change, 1965–2009

Competing uses of the land

As large amounts of cereal grains are being used to feed livestock and to produce **biofuels**, land is diverted away from food production. Similarly, arable land is being lost as cities expand outwards.

Globalisation

Food has become a commodity. The profit motive now dominates global food production, and huge agribusinesses have taken control of all aspects of food production. The physical resource base that supports agriculture is being put at risk by this industrial agriculture. Farmers are getting lower returns for their produce, as they are locked into supplying the big corporations. International trade in food products has also soared and many poorer countries are disadvantaged by trade restrictions.

Climate change

Climate change will add to the existing and substantial pressures on global food security. Higher temperatures, shifting rainfall patterns and more frequent extreme weather events may change the environment that crops and animals have to grow in.

THE MELTING CHOCOLATE INDUSTRY

More than half of the world's chocolate comes from cocoa produced by smallholders in Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana. Research undertaken by the Centre for Tropical Agriculture predicted a 1°C temperature rise by 2030, increasing to 2.3°C by 2050. Such an increase could be catastrophic for this heat-sensitive crop. A rise in temperature of this extent is enough to inhibit the growth of cocoa pods. This would send yields crashing, depleting supplies of cocoa and causing prices to soar.

Source 5.8.5 Cocoa production, Ghana

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'food security'.
2. Describe what happened in 2008 when food shortages occurred.
3. Explain why the demand for food is increasing.
4. Outline the threats to food production.

Applying and analysing

5. Study Source 5.8.2 and construct a column graph showing the percentage of undernourished people for the countries represented.
6. Study Source 5.8.4 then answer the following questions.
   - **a** What two crops have had the most notable deceleration in crop yield improvements?
   - **b** What crop has experienced the most volatile changes in crop yield improvements?

Evaluating and creating

7. Working in pairs, consider the following statement and then share your thoughts with the rest of the class:
   'Poverty pushes population growth, but its elimination impairs food availability.'
8. To what extent do you agree with the following statement?
   'Improvements in technology will ensure global food security in the future.'
   Discuss.

Population growth and food production

Feeding a growing population

The growth of the human population has been accompanied and supported by substantial increases in crop and animal production. The extraordinary spike in food prices in 2008, however, raised people's awareness of a number of long-term trends that had been at work for decades and which threaten global food security. Securing future global food supplies will depend on our capacity to address these issues.

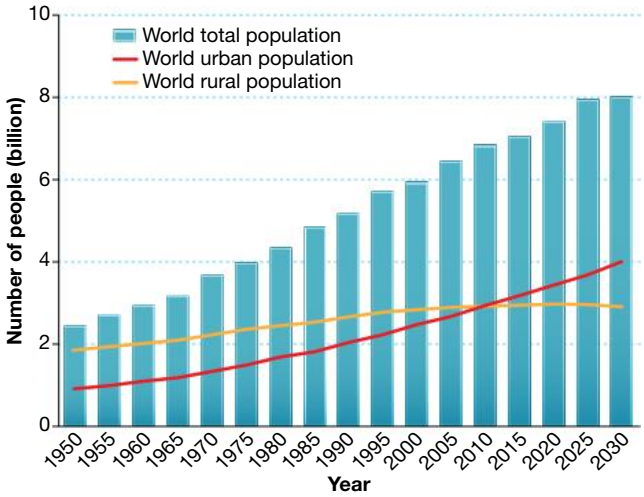
While the rate of population growth has slowed, the number of people on earth is projected to continue to increase for most of this century and this will affect food availability.

Annual increases in population

Adding even more people to the planet and satisfying all their needs may well be at the expense of valuable agricultural land and involve the use of huge amounts of water and energy, both of which are needed for the production of food. By 2050, agriculture will need to produce another one billion tonnes of cereals and 200 million tonnes of livestock products each year to feed everyone.

Population growth alone will push up the price of grain. Coupled with climate change, the trends are disturbing for the countries that grow the world's three most important food crops—wheat, corn and rice.

Source 5.9.1 The urban and rural populations of the world, 1950–2030



Source: World Vision, *Get Connected*, 2009

Increasing urbanisation

The majority of the world's population now live in urban areas. In Latin America, Asia and Africa, the urban population will have doubled between 2000 and 2025. Ninety-five per cent of future population growth will occur in the urban areas of developing countries.

So the movement of people from rural areas to towns and cities is a trend set to continue. As rural dwellers, many families grew their own food, but as urban dwellers they must rely on buying food grown elsewhere.

Trends in food production

With the number of malnourished people increasing in the world, future agricultural production is going to have to rise faster than the rate of population growth if global food security is to be assured. The potential for expanding food supplies may well be affected by some emerging trends.

Environmental degradation

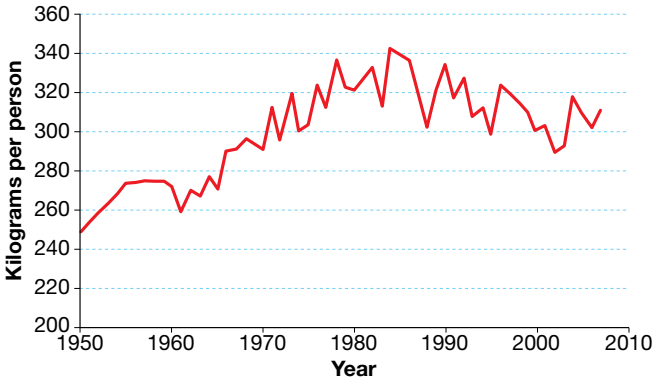
Land and water resources, and the ways in which they are used, are crucial to the challenge of achieving global food security. The resource base that supports food production has been put at risk by the rapid intensification of agriculture through mechanisation, irrigation and the application of agrochemicals. Land degradation and declining water quality and quantity have become issues of real concern, especially when agricultural productivity needs to be increased but is actually falling in many areas.

The need to address the adverse environmental impacts of agriculture and restore the functioning of the natural ecosystems that support crop and livestock production is increasingly recognised. The idea that agriculture must be sustainable to meet human needs in the future is becoming widely accepted.

Trends in crop yields

The gains in global grain production per capita that resulted from higher yields from the Green Revolution started in the 1960s, plateaued during the 1980s, and have since been in decline. As a consequence, the global grain reserve has shrunk, and in 2008 this triggered high prices and food riots. The slide in crop yield advances has continued and this does not bode well for future grain reserves.

Source 5.9.2 Per capita world grain production, 1950–2007



Source: F. Magdof and B. Tokar, 'Agriculture and food in crisis', *Monthly Review Press*, New York, 2010

Diversion of crops to other uses

Both traditional and newly emerging demands for agricultural produce are putting pressure on already scarce resources. By 2050, the global demand for food and fibre crops is anticipated to grow by 70 per cent. Increasingly, however, crops may be used for biofuels and other industrial purposes rather than food.

The rush to produce biofuels has been driven by the desire of governments in Europe and the United States of America to reduce their dependence on foreign oil. They have subsidised programs to grow corn to produce ethanol and soybeans for biodiesel. The competition for land and water resources that has arisen between crops for food and for biofuels has resulted in scarcities and higher prices for food.

This represents a shift in land use away from food production to **agro-energy**. It poses a risk to global food security as farmers seek higher monetary returns by using their land to grow the crops to make biofuels rather than to provide food. New arable land is also being used to supply this rapidly expanding industry. The grain that is used to produce biofuels in the United States could feed 350 million people.

Inside the meat lab: The future of food

The Dutch Government is funding food-innovation research into the production of artificial meat. Behind such research is a recognition that nine billion people cannot go on eating food, especially meat, produced in the traditional way. The planet just cannot sustain it.

While consumers may be reluctant to eat artificial meat, ethical reasons could speed up its approval.

Source 5.9.3 Dish of the day: breeding and mutating food species may be the only convincing plan anyone has for feeding the world.

Taking stem cells from a pig, rather than killing millions of pigs in abattoirs, may be more acceptable. Furthermore, it would take only 1–2 per cent of the land and water resources that pasture or grain-fed production of meat takes.

Shortage of arable land

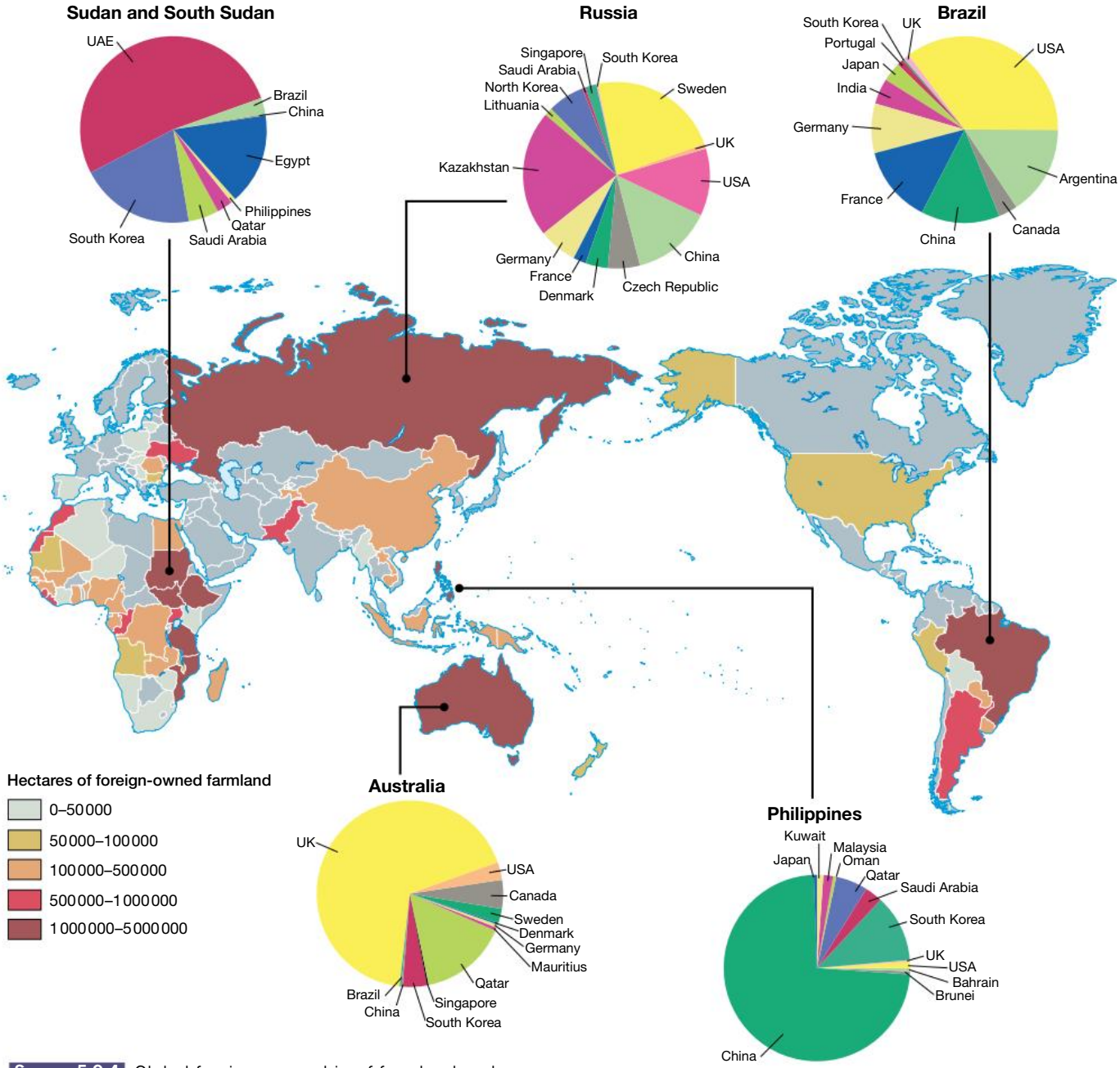
With most of the suitable agricultural land already in production, there are growing concerns about having enough arable land available to secure food supplies.

The international scramble for land

A further pointer to approaching global land scarcity is the rate at which certain countries are now buying up land in others. China has proposed foreign land acquisition as a strategy, similar to its acquisition of global energy resources. China has land in Algeria and Zimbabwe. Saudi Arabia has purchased land in Ethiopia and is in negotiations with other Arab nations to purchase over 400 000 hectares of farmland in Pakistan.

Control of food production

Corporations, intent on maximising profits, are increasingly controlling all aspects of food production, from seeds and fertilisers to processing and distribution. The global trade in food commodities is now dominated by a few large companies. Small producers in developing countries face many trade barriers, such as tariffs imposed by the developed countries. The developing countries do not really get a fair return for their produce.



Source 5.9.4 Global foreign ownership of farmland and foreign land ownership for selected countries. Nations are buying farms across the world to ensure access to biofuels and fibre production, and food security.

Source: Grain Org is original source of data.
Grain Org gathers data by monitoring online sources about land deals.

Waste of food

An unacceptable amount of food is thrown away. This often happens in households, where the food simply spoils before it can be used. Australians waste more than $5 billion worth of food each year. The corporatisation of agriculture also generates a lot of waste, particularly with fresh produce. Fruits and vegetables, for example, are rejected if they do not meet the exacting requirements of retailers, such as freedom from blemishes. Food is commonly discarded after its 'use-by date' is reached.

Source 5.9.5 As much as half of all the food produced in the world—equivalent to two billion tonnes—ends up as waste every year.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Describe the pressure that population growth will put on global food security.
2. Explain how environmental degradation may affect future food supplies.
3. Describe how new demands for agricultural produce are affecting food production.

Applying and analysing

4. Create a PMI (plus, minus, interesting) chart about the following statement: 'Artificial food must become acceptable if the human population is to adequately feed itself in the future.'
5. Study Source 5.9.4.
   - **a** With the aid of an atlas, list the countries with the highest levels of foreign-owned farmland.
   - **b** Compare foreign ownership in Australia, the Philippines, Brazil, Russia, Sudan and South Sudan.
   - **c** Can you suggest reasons for this pattern?

Evaluating and creating

6. Investigate the foreign acquisition of agricultural land in Australia. Present your findings in a feature newspaper article.

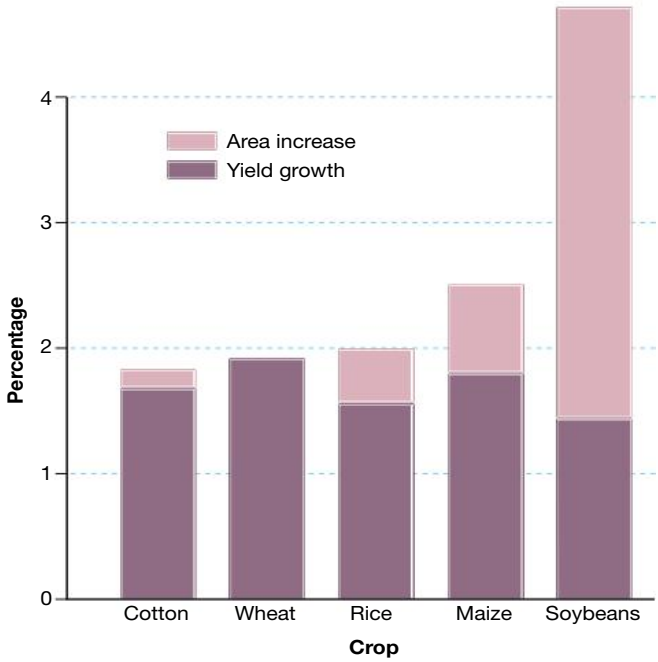
Expanding food production

Meeting the needs of a growing population

In the period following World War II (1939–45) the world's population began to grow rapidly. There were fears that the world might run short of food but this did not happen.

In the 1940s, US scientist Norman Borlaug began research into improved agricultural techniques that would allow expanded food production. By the 1960s, Borlaug's research was being put into place around the world in what became known as the 'Green Revolution'.

The Green Revolution had a significant impact on production of the world's major crops throughout the second half of the 20th century.



Source 5.10.1 Impact of the Green Revolution on global crop production in the second half of the 20th century

Today the world's population is well over seven billion. Estimates based on statistics from the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization are that about 925 million people are malnourished—meaning that they do not receive enough food. The developed world, on the other hand, is facing a problem of obesity. While the population of the developing world continues to increase, there is a need to expand global food production.

Expanding food production

In the 21st century, the potential to expand food production is likely to come from four main factors:

- enhanced technologies—especially genetically modified (GM) crops and irrigation techniques
- improvements in the efficiency of growing meat
- decreasing food wastage
- dietary changes—especially reducing intake of animal-based food products, particularly meat and dairy.

GM CROPS

Genetically modified food is one of the most debated issues in agriculture. Many scientists believe that it holds the answer to improving food production. Modifying the genes of plants can increase production by reducing crop losses to pests and natural events, such as drought. However, many people fear the environmental consequences and unintended health effects of such modifications.

MEAT

Meat is an increasingly important source of protein for much of the world's population. However, meat is a fairly inefficient source of food production, as it requires considerable inputs in the form of land, water and energy. Improving the efficiency of these inputs will enable an increase in meat production. For example, some agricultural scientists believe that by more intensively using aquaculture (fish farming), we can eat more fish protein, which tends to grow more efficiently than traditional meat sources such as cattle and pigs. A more radical proposal put forward by some groups is to promote a vegetarian diet, or at least one that contains less meat and other animal-based products.

REDUCED WASTE

In 2013, a study conducting by the British Institution of Mechanical Engineers found that almost half of all the food produced in the world is wasted. A study in New South Wales found that, on average, families throw away more than $1000 worth of food each year. Reducing the amount of wasted food is a simple but highly effective strategy for ensuring the world has enough food. Education programs designed to help consumers preserve and conserve food are being developed in many countries. There is also pressure

Source 5.10.2 Intensive farming, as practised in these fish farms, offers possibilities for increasing protein production.

on food producers to reconsider their labelling regimes. Many people argue that producers place unnecessarily short 'best before' dates on food in order to promote more sales by having consumers and retailers throw away the food more quickly than is necessary. In many countries, charitable organisations collect food from retailers and distribute it to communities in need rather than allow it to be thrown away.

CHANGING DIETS

Meat and dairy production uses resources such as water and fodder. Fields are being used to grow grains to feed animals; these fields could be used to grow crops for people to eat. There are also negative environmental outcomes from animal farming, such as the methane (a greenhouse gas) produced by cattle, which accounts for about 20 per cent of the world's methane.

Source 5.10.3 This tomato mountain on the Spanish island of Tenerife was created after the price of tomatoes fell below the cost of exporting them.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain why increasing food production is so important.
2 Describe the Green Revolution.
3 Describe the strategies proposed for meat production.
4 Outline the extent of food wastage.
5 Describe the strategies proposed to reduce food wastage.

Applying and analysing

6 Copy and complete the following table.

Strategy	Advantages	Disadvantages
Grow GM crops		
Adopt a vegetarian diet		
Reduce consumption		
Reduce waste		

7 Study Source 5.10.1, then describe the relationship between increased yields and land used for production of cotton, wheat, rice, maize and soybeans as a result of the Green Revolution.

Sustainable agriculture

Importance of sustainable agriculture

Sustainability is central to the future of food production because it has as its aim meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet theirs. This involves farmers understanding the ecological processes that support their production of crops and livestock, and working with nature rather than against it.

Sustainable agriculture involves growing crops and raising livestock in ways that mimic and support natural ecological processes. Sustainable farming practices use organic fertilisers and biological pest controls, as well as minimising disturbance of the land surface, water use and the reliance on non-renewable fossil fuel energy.

The future of agriculture and the ability of the world's food system to provide food security for a growing population are closely linked to the improved stewardship of natural resources. Major reforms and investments are needed in all regions to cope with the increasing scarcity and degradation of land, water and biodiversity, rising incomes, climate change and energy demands. There is a need to harness agriculture's environmental services, to protect watersheds and biodiversity, and to ensure food production uses sustainable technologies.

More sustainable production

The world faces some serious long-term challenges to food production. These come from limits to the resources that support it, including land and water, as well as energy. The onset of climate change adds even more uncertainty. What is clear is that a strong natural resource base is crucial to the planet's capacity to produce food. This productive capacity must be maintained in order to provide the food security necessary for future generations.

ENVIRONMENTAL COSTS OF INDUSTRIAL AGRICULTURE

The main environmental impacts of industrial agriculture come from the conversion of **natural systems** to agricultural production systems. Modern industrialised agriculture is considered unsustainable because it violates a number of important principles. These principles are considered fundamental to ensuring the future wellbeing of humans.

- It relies heavily on the use of fossil fuels to power farm machinery and for transport and food processing. Many of the agrochemicals that are used are petroleum-based. This adds greenhouse gases to the atmosphere, which is driving climate change.
- It reduces biodiversity, as natural habitats are cleared for farming. **Agrobiodiversity** is also being lost, which will limit the potential strains of crops that may be needed in the future, especially as climate change affects agriculture.
- As crops are harvested and removed for consumption elsewhere, the cycling of plant nutrients back to the topsoil is halted. This results in the need to use artificial fertilisers to support continued cropping.

Sustainability experts agree that future food supplies can only be assured if there is a determined shift to more low-input agricultural systems over the next few decades. Compared with high-input industrial farming, low-input agriculture uses less energy per unit of yield and has lower carbon dioxide emissions. It also lifts topsoil fertility, can often be more profitable for the farmers and is especially helpful to poor farmers trying to feed themselves.

Sustainable farming practices

Sustainable agriculture is an approach to managing farming practices that will protect and enhance the resource base of the biophysical environment, thereby enabling continued productivity. This generally occurs through small-scale, diversified farming systems that imitate nature and therefore need fewer inputs from outside the farm. It involves:

- minimal soil disturbance
- permanent ground cover
- a variety of crop/pasture species, grown in rotation and/or association, to retain soil fertility and guard against pests and weeds.

Sustainable agriculture encompasses a wide range of techniques, including organic, free-range (increasingly popular in egg production), low-input and biodynamic farming.

ORGANIC FARMING

Organic farming emphasises a holistic farm management approach. Crop rotations and animals play an important role in the production system. This approach to farming involves growing crops without any synthetic pesticides, synthetic fertilisers or genetically modified seeds. Livestock are raised without any feed additives or synthetic growth promoters.

Source 5.11.1 More sustainable low-input agriculture is based mainly on mimicking and working with nature.

More	• high-yield polycultures • organic fertilisers • biological pest control	• integrated pest management • efficient irrigation • perennial crops	• crop rotations • water-efficient crops • soil conservation	• subsidies for sustainable farming

Less	• soil erosion • soil salinisation • water pollution	• aquifer degradation • overgrazing • overfishing	• loss of biodiversity and agro-biodiversity • fossil fuel use	• greenhouse gas emissions • subsidies for unsustainable farming

Source: G. Tyler Miller and C.E. Spoolman, *Living in the Environment*, 2012

Source 5.11.2 Benefits of organic farming

Organic farming	• improves soil fertility • reduces soil erosion • retains more water in soil during drought years	• uses about 30 per cent less energy per unit of yield • lowers CO_2 emissions	• reduces water pollution by recycling livestock wastes • eliminates pollution from pesticides	• increases biodiversity above and below ground • benefits wildlife such as birds and bats

Source: G. Tyler Miller and C.E. Spoolman, *Living in the Environment*, Brooks/Cole, 2012

The fertility of the soil is enhanced with manure, compost or nitrogen-fixing legumes that replenish the soil in crop rotations. Harmful pests are kept at bay by planting crops that repel harmful bugs or that attract good bugs, which then eat harmful bugs.

For example, ladybirds help farmers protect crops by consuming plant-eating insects such as aphids. On organic farms, planting systems can place suitable habitat for ladybirds on the edges of paddocks. The ladybirds have been known to travel over 80 metres into adjacent crops to feed on insects. Field tests have demonstrated the benefit of strip harvesting a crop rather than clear-cutting an entire field. Strip harvesting leaves part of the plant behind, which the ladybirds can then feed on. This allows the ladybirds to survive.

Source 5.11.3 Ladybirds are a good insect to have within a crop. As soon as ladybirds hatch, they begin to feed, taking out 5000 aphids in their brief three to six weeks of life.

Source 5.11.4 Fennel is planted alongside other crops to ward off insects and rodents that are deterred by its smell.

How to feed a hungry world sustainably

The real challenge in coming decades will be how to expand agricultural output on existing agricultural land. The critics of industrial agriculture insist on a return to low-input, small-scale agriculture, but to do so would most likely lead to mass starvation. The reality is that both types of agricultural production are needed in order to feed the world through the expected mid-century peak in food demand.

High-input agriculture will be necessary to grow far bigger volumes of food for huge urban-based populations. Low-input agriculture will not be able to achieve the higher yields in staple grain crops that will be needed. However, there are one billion subsistence farmers in developing countries who could improve their output using organic farming. A 2008 study by the United Nations Environment Programme surveyed 114 small-scale farms in 24 African countries and found that yields more than doubled when organic farming practices were used.

The way forward may be a sustainable intensification of agriculture that makes more effective use of land and water resources without causing them any harm. This will require agricultural research into crop varieties that provide higher yields using fewer inputs such as water and fertiliser. Innovations used in precision agriculture are a move in the right direction to address adverse environmental impacts.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the term 'sustainable agriculture'.
2. Outline the main principles that modern industrialised agriculture violates.
3. Describe the approach of organic farming.

Applying and analysing

4. Create a PMI chart about organic agriculture.

Evaluating and creating

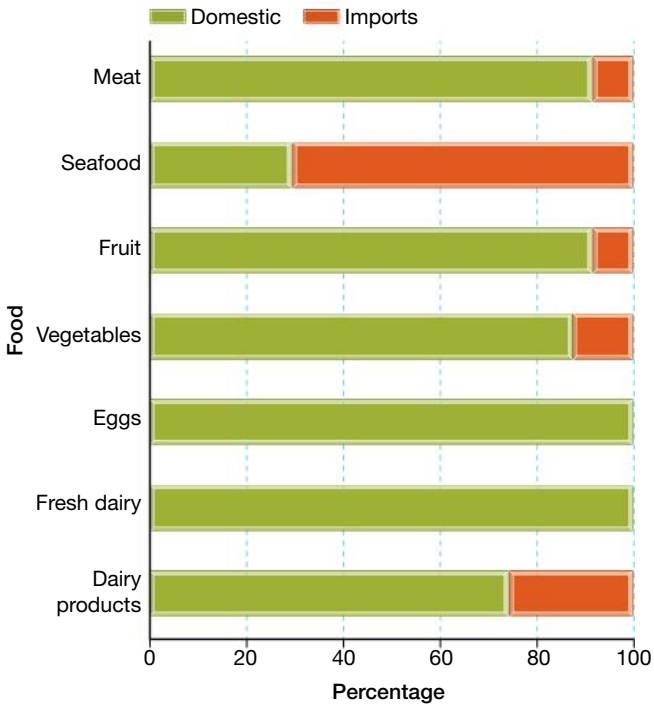
5. Insectary plants are those that attract insects such as ladybirds. Investigate the role of insectary crops. Prepare an annotated visual display of a selection of such crops.
6. Investigate one of the following types of sustainable agriculture: free-range, low-input or biodynamic farming. Prepare a feature article for a rural publication to inform farmers about the benefits of this type of agriculture.

Australia and global food

Australia's food supply

Food production in Australia makes an important contribution to international food supplies. Our open and export-oriented economy ensures that our food producers are competitive in the global market. Our agricultural land currently feeds 60 million people globally. It is in our interests to improve global food security, as it is fundamental to political and social stability, especially in our region.

Australia is in the fortunate position of having an abundant and diverse food supply and the capacity to maintain this for decades. As an affluent country, we can also afford to import additional food as desired.



Source 5.12.1 The sources of various food types as a proportion of the total volumes consumed in Australia

Australia has a long history of producing food on a commercial scale and does so on the driest inhabited continent on earth, where fertile soils are limited and the weather is variable. Despite these limitations, Australia is an efficient food producer and produces a surplus. Over 90 per cent of all the fresh produce (milk, meat, eggs, fruit and vegetables) Australians eat is produced within the country.

Producing food in Australia

The total gross value of farm and fisheries production (excluding non-food production such as timber, wool, cotton, fibres and pearls) in 2012–13 was $42.8 billion. The major components were grains and oilseeds ($14.1 billion), meat ($13.2 billion), fruit and vegetables ($7.7 billion), milk ($4.2 billion), seafood ($2.1 billion) and other food ($1.5 billion).

Importing food

While Australia has ample food supplies, it is not entirely self-sufficient. No country is able to achieve full food security at all times. There are risks associated with food production and there are times when a natural disaster or a crop failure necessitates that food be imported. Imports are also necessary to provide consumers with produce that is out of season and to maintain the level of supply to the processed food industry.

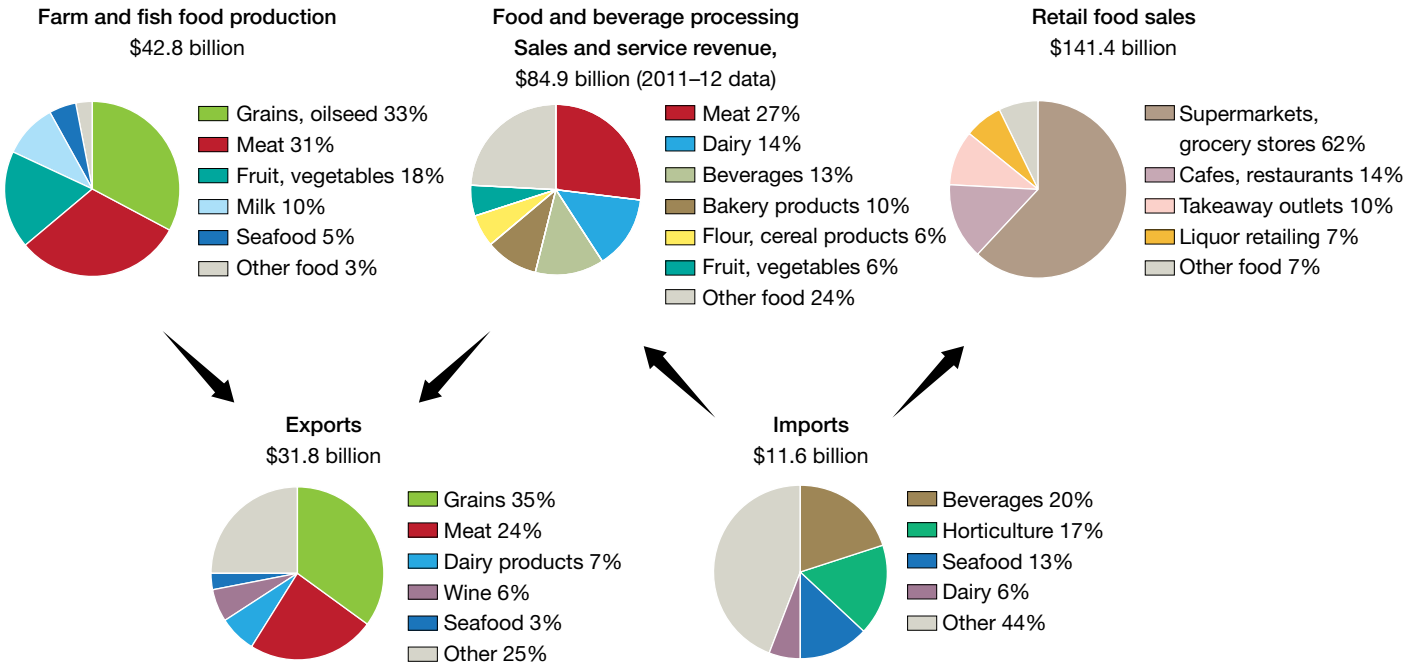
Food consumption patterns in Australia have also changed, reflecting the growing cultural diversity of the population. Supermarkets and specialty stores carry a variety of international fresh and processed food products. The surge of interest in food following the growing popularity of reality cooking shows has also contributed to more diverse tastes that often extend to ingredients that are sourced overseas.

THE CHANGING CHERRY SCENE IN SUPERMARKETS

Cherries are picked in Australia over a period of 100 days in spring and early summer, which used to be the only time Australians could enjoy fresh cherries. The official start of the stone fruit season is traditionally marked with an auction of the first box of cherries at the Sydney markets, which in 2013 raised $50 000 for charity. Nowadays, cherries can also be bought in the fruit section of a supermarket all year round, as they are shipped in from the United States in a near-frozen state.

Australia's trade advantages

Australia is well placed to be a major player in the global trade in food, especially as we possess a number of significant advantages over our competitors.



Source 5.12.2 Value chain for food in Australia, 2012–13

Climatic diversity

As Australia extends so far from the tropical north to the cooler, temperate latitudes of the south, there is a great variety of climates across the continent. This enables a diverse range of produce to be grown, from bananas in northern Queensland to apples in Tasmania.

Locational advantages

As most of the lucrative international markets for food are in the Northern Hemisphere, Australia is in the fortunate position of having a counter-seasonal advantage: our seasons are the opposite of theirs. This enables Australia to provide produce that is out of season in the Northern Hemisphere countries.

Australia is also in a favourable geographic location to take advantage of the likely surge in demand for food in the fastest-growing economies of the world. The rise of an Asian middle class has been accompanied by a change in food consumption patterns in Asia towards high-value products such as meats, seafood, vegetable oils and dairy products. Food and beverages, especially wine, have become symbols of wealth and status.

Seizing new market opportunities

A growing world population—and changing consumption patterns in Asia—will provide new opportunities for Australia's export food industry. The value of the world's food demand is expected to rise by 77 per cent by 2050 (in real terms). Most of this growth will occur in Asia, where demand is expected to double. This gives our food sector strong prospects over the long term, given our proximity to Asia and strengths in key growth commodities such as beef, wheat, dairy products, sheep meat and sugar. Growth opportunities will not be limited to food commodities; strong growth in the demand for processed food is also expected.

The Chinese Government is encouraging people to drink wine instead of spirits, as wine is considered a better health option and does not rely on processing precious grains and cereals that are needed to feed the growing population. Consequently, China offers enormous potential for Australian wine producers.

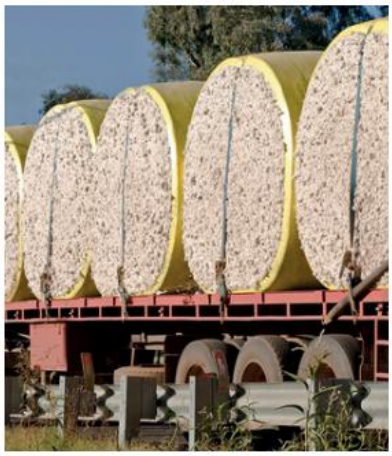
Australia's role in global food security

Australia may contribute less than 3 per cent of global food trade, but we are one of the net food-exporting countries in the world and have the capability to substantially increase food production in the future. The key to ensuring global food may well be innovation and this is where Australia is at the forefront. We now rank among the best in the world for research and development. Australia has also built strong partnerships with developing countries within our region in delivering technological advancements and supporting their implementation.

Chickpeas, dark red kidney beans borlotti beans and cannellini beans
Australia, New Zealand, Italy, Spain

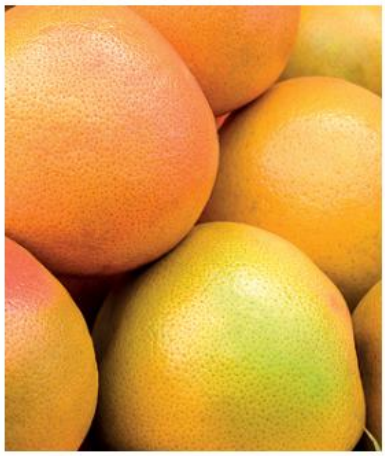
Chia
Australia, North America, Middle East, Europe

Cotton
Queensland, China, India



Sandalwood oil
Australia, Asia

Red grapefruit
Australia, Europe, Japan and China



Mangoes
Australia, Middle East, Europe, New Zealand

Pumpkins and melons
Perth, Adelaide, Melbourne, Sydney, Darwin, Brisbane

Hybrid seeds
Forage sorghum—Australia, Kimberley region, Middle East, Asia, New Zealand

Grain sorghum—Australia

Maize—Kimberley region, Northern Territory, Asia, New Zealand

Millet—Australia

Sunflower—Australia

Source 5.12.3 Main exports of the Ord River region and their destinations

Source 5.12.4 Australia's key agricultural export destinations

Exporting food

As Australia produces much more than it consumes, a significant proportion of the food it produces is exported. These exports contribute to the global food supply and can help those countries that have food security problems. In recent years, between 28 and 42 per cent of wheat shipments have been sent to countries in which more than 10 per cent of the population is undernourished. The Ord River Valley in northern Western Australia produces a wide variety of produce. Most of it is exported to South-East Asia, due to its close proximity.

Most Australian producers seek markets that will return the highest value for their produce. Traditionally, these markets have been within the wealthy developed economies. Increasingly, however, there are substantial opportunities emerging in the rapidly developing economies of Asia.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain why Australia is in a fortunate position when it comes to securing a food supply for the nation.
2 Describe Australia's food trade advantages.
3 Australia produces a food surplus, but it must also rely on imports. Explain.
4 Outline Australia's role in global food security.

Applying and analysing

5 Study Source 5.12.1, then answer the following questions.
   a Which products are entirely sourced from domestic production?
   b Which imported products does Australia most heavily rely on?
   c What percentage of meat is sourced from domestic producers?
   d What percentage of dairy products is imported?
6 Study Source 5.12.2, then do the following tasks.
   a Calculate the $ value of meat processing in Australia.
   b At what stage of the food supply chain is the most value added?
   c Calculate the $ value of seafood imports and exports in Australia.
7 Study Source 5.12.4, then answer the following questions.
   a What percentage of Australia's food exports goes to the United States?
   b What percentage of Australia's exports goes to Asia?
8 Conduct a survey of your local supermarket and prepare a report outlining the countries from which the following foods are sourced:
   a seafood (fish and prawns)
   b fresh fruit
   c frozen vegetables.
   Analyse the results to identify key trends.

Evaluating and creating

9 Prepare menus for the following themes and indicate where the food for the ingredients would be sourced:
   a a reflection of the local region or state
   b an adventure in multicultural cuisine.

Inquiry tasks

Unjust global food production

Because food is a traded commodity, any shortage in supply will trigger higher prices. Most of those living in developed nations can afford to pay the higher prices. However, they may not escape the effects of a food crisis as it might cause civil unrest and conflict in neighbouring countries and even destabilise governments. In the case of the poor, food shortages in a developing country may well mean starvation and death for themselves and their families. A number of trends evident in global food production are quite unjust and make the lives of the poor especially hard.

a Study Source 5.13.1.

b Working in groups, discuss the point of view the cartoonist is seeking to communicate. Share your group's findings with the rest of the class.

c Having developed an understanding of the issues involved, conduct a class role-play showing the different perspectives on agricultural land use in a poor country.

What's going on in my fruit shop?

Conduct an investigation into the supply of organic food in your local area. Visit a fruit and vegetable shop or a supermarket and conduct a survey that addresses the following:

- the amount and type of organic food in the shop
- where the food comes from
- the price of produce to consumers
- the form of delivery to the shop or supermarket
- how far the produce has travelled
- the variety of organic products compared with non-organic.

Note the presence of any labels or stamps to prove that produce has been grown in an organic manner.

Share your results in class.

Source 5.13.1 What point of view is the cartoonist seeking to express?

What is genetically modified food?

Work in pairs to research genetically modified (GM) food on the internet. One student researches the positive aspects of the issue, while the other student researches the negative aspects of the issue.

Gather the most salient points on your side of the issue. Once you have both gathered evidence, try to convince each other of the merits or the dangers inherent in the GM process.

As a class, debate the topic: 'Genetically modified food means that fewer people will starve in future.'

New food product advertising campaign

Australian producers operate within a global food market in which they must compete with producers from other countries. There has been a shift to a diverse range of products to meet the needs of a growing world population and changing consumption patterns in Asia.

In pairs, pick a new Australian food product (such as a bush food) that could be sold abroad, and create a marketing and advertising campaign for it. You can select from a range of foods including fruits, nuts, vegetables, spices and processed foods.

The campaign can include one or more of the following formats:

- poster
- short multimedia presentation
- social media plan
- short video.

GLOSSARY

agrobiodiversity the biological diversity of food crops and farmed animals resulting from natural processes and farming practices over millennia

agro-energy the production of renewable energy through agriculture

annual a plant that completes its life cycle in one year; this means it goes from seed to seed and then dies off, during the course of one year

aquatic biome a water-based community of plants and animals

biofuel a fuel extracted from renewable sources such as plant crops

biome a large geographic area defined by characteristic climate and plant communities, and generally found in bands of latitude around the planet

commercial agriculture the use of energy, water and chemicals to produce food and other agricultural products for sale

natural systems cropping systems based on processes found in nature

shifting cultivation a farming system that involves moving from site to site as soil fertility declines due to leaching

sustainable agriculture environmentally friendly farming methods that preserve an ecological balance by avoiding depletion of natural resources

terrestrial biome a land-based community of plants and animals

traditional agriculture subsistence and intensive forms of agriculture (such as intensive rice cultivation) practised in many developing countries

CHAPTER 6

Geographies of interconnections

We are all products of our surroundings. The place where we live, together with all the things that make up the local environment, help to shape us as individuals. We are also part of a social network of people that links us to other places.

The environment around us therefore shapes our 'personal geography'—the way in which we view and make sense of the world around us.

As we get older, our personal geography widens and deepens. We see more places and learn more about the world around us and, for a while at least, the places where we grew up lose their attraction. Young adults may move away from home to find new experiences. Many, however, will return later in life to recapture some of their childhood memories.

Source 6.0.1 The Castellers de la Vila de Gracia demount a human tower, Barcelona, Spain, 2013.

Perception and use of places

Place perception

The use of **places** is largely determined by how people perceive them. Many things affect **perception**, and these differ from person to person. The same place may be perceived (and used) differently from one person to the next.

Place perception refers to our awareness of places and the particular opinions we have about them. It is our feelings and interpretations about the characteristics of a place that help develop place perception. Place perception influences the decisions we make about a location.

However, our feelings are not always well reasoned; sometimes they are irrational and result in perceptions that are not based on reality. One example of this is the decisions people make about living in areas affected by natural hazards such as earthquakes, volcanic activity and tropical cyclones. Our perception of a place as attractive or desirable is very separate from our understanding of its hazard potential.

The perception of place is a very individual thing. People can perceive the same place very differently. For some, ordinary places can have a special meaning. The family vacation destination visited each year will be seen as very special to that family, even years after they have stopped going there. Outsiders will view your local neighbourhood very differently than you do. This is because the neighbourhood is a place with signs and symbols that provide personal meaning and significance.

Developing a perception

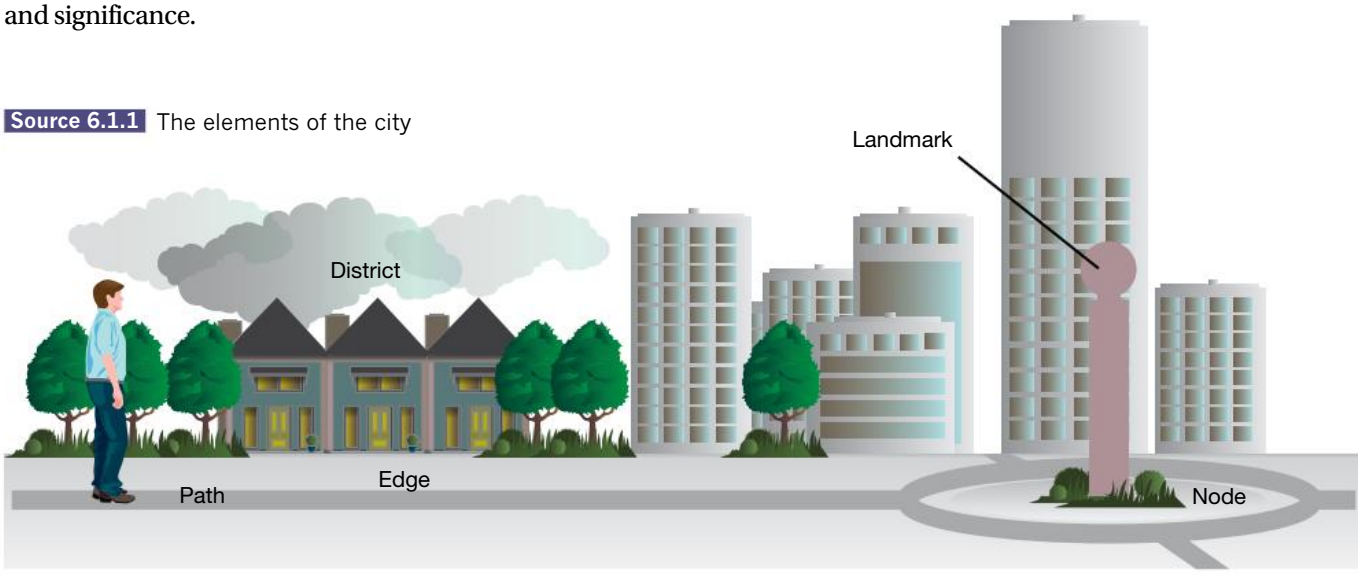
The perception of place is developed by direct and indirect experiences. In these experiences, people develop an understanding of their surroundings through 'filters'. These filters include personal or group characteristics such as race, gender, age, religious beliefs and the time in which they live. For example, the perception and use of a park will most likely be different for a five-year-old boy and a 68-year-old woman.

When people think about the places they perceive, they organise various parts of them into elements. These elements include paths, edges, districts, landmarks and nodes (focus points for finding your way, such as town squares and intersections). These elements help people orient and navigate within a place. They may also segregate or alienate people.

Familiarity of places

It is easier to get oriented and to navigate in places that we understand well and can easily read. The more familiar people are with a location, the more they will use it. This familiarity contributes to shaping particular aspects of people's behaviour. For example, the elements of shopping centres can influence which one we choose to visit. Research about where people travel to shop reveals that

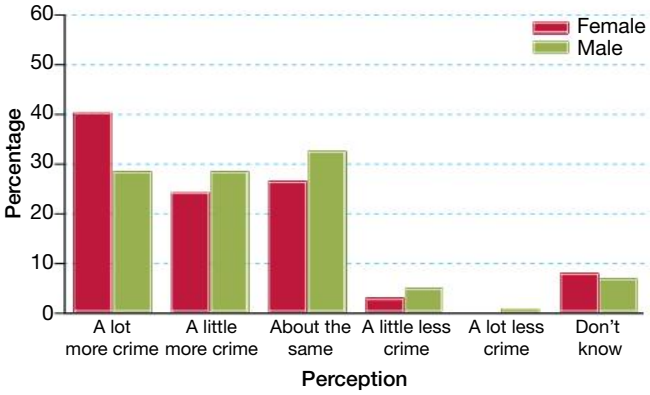
Source 6.1.1 The elements of the city



Source 6.1.2 People choose where to shop based on a number of factors, including their familiarity with the place and their perception of the features it offers.

their perception of the shopping district influences their choice. The chosen shopping centre may not necessarily be the closest, but it may be the one with, for example, the easiest parking or the best pedestrian circulation.

Source 6.1.3 Australians' perceptions of crime trends



Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2010

Gender difference

When perceiving the dangers of places, there are quite a lot of differences in perceptions between women and men. Even though men are more likely to experience actual violence, many studies have shown that women's fear of violence is likely to be far greater.

A recent study of tourists in London found that the perception of danger was greater among women than men. One reason that such studies are important for geographers is that the perception of danger influences behaviour and the use of leisure spaces. In countries where the roles of men and women are very distinct, women are less mobile than men. In these cases, women perceive the accessibility of one place from another to be very important.

Source 6.1.4 Support for users of public transport in Sydney who have impaired vision

Perception and use of place

Disabled people

People with a mobility-related disability are those who have very limited use of their legs. They may use walking aids or wheelchairs to move within places. Their perception of place will partly be influenced by how well these places accommodate their particular needs. For example, is there wheelchair-accessible parking? Are there wheelchair access ramps? Does the place have steep or unpaved terrain?

People who have a vision impairment can perceive varying degrees of light. Perception, however, is more than just visual. Those with a vision impairment are able to use other senses, such as touch, sound and smell, to get a sense of their surroundings. So confident are many vision-impaired people with the perception of their surroundings that they are able to play sport, skateboard and mountain bike. In 2001, Erik Weihenmayer became the first blind person to reach the summit of Mount Everest.

Place conditions are not always ideal for people with a vision impairment to navigate and use safely. Public transport poses particular difficulties. People with vision impairment may not know when to get off the bus or whether or not their bus has arrived at the bus stop. Fears and difficulties in moving about places limit independent travel. This makes people with a vision impairment more likely to be homebound and isolated.

To enable people with vision impairment to access public transport, governments are upgrading train stations and light rail stops. The average cost of upgrades completed so far has ranged from $500 000 to $1 million. The works involve laying tactile tracks, as well as installing lifts and raising platforms for those with disabilities that restrict mobility.

Source 6.1.5 Tactile tracks can help people with a vision impairment to use public transport.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 State what is meant by the term 'place perception'.
2 Outline how we arrive at our perceptions of place.
3 Outline the factors that shape the perception of place held of people with limited mobility.

Applying and analysing

4 Study Source 6.1.1. Explain the concepts of path, edge, district, landmark and node. What role do they fulfill?
5 Study Source 6.1.3. Why do you think men and women differ in their perception of crime trends?

Evaluating and creating

6 Identify a location near your school that could be considered to be a:
   a path **b** edge
   c district **d** landmark
   e node.
7 Study Sources 6.1.4 and 6.1.5.
   a Why is it important to consider how people with a vision impairment use public places?
   b Describe the difficulties faced by people with a vision impairment when using public transport.
   c How might the use of public transport be affected by the perception of public transport by people with disabilities?
8 To what extent should wilderness places be modified to cater for use by people with a mobility disability? Justify your answer.

Place making

Place making and perception

How we perceive a place affects how we modify it. The modification of the place supports and reinforces our perceptions. A simple example could be the way people arrange elements in their garden. The design and placement of objects such as outdoor furniture reflects ownership of **space** and personal preference. Some communities modify places to reflect preferences.

People create places in response to the opportunities and constraints of their environment. In some cases this can be almost unconscious and incidental, while at other times it may be conscious and purposeful. The social and physical construction of places is known as **place making**. Place making may also imply or result in the exclusion of other people, as in a gated community, for example. This is because one aspect of place making is to reinforce who we are in contrast with other people. Consequently, place making often expresses **territoriality**.

Territoriality

The term 'territoriality' refers to the persistent attachment of individuals or groups to a specific location. The location provides security and a physical expression of identity. For example, the school playground has zones where certain groups go during break times. There is a sense of ownership of these small places. The ownership is often recognised, but not because there are signs or because anyone in the group has purchased the space, as you would a house. The recognition comes about because of regular use.

Place and outsiders

Territoriality as a way of making places leads to exclusion. There is a distinction between the inhabitants and the outsiders. The inhabitants, known as the insiders, may be identifiable by common vocabulary, dress, gestures and humour.

Source 6.2.1 A gated residential community, California

Source 6.2.2 Contested space: conflict over territory in Northern Ireland

The outsiders are people who visit on rare occasions or not at all. As the insiders shape the place to reflect what they perceive the place should be like, they also increase the feelings of separation between them and outsiders.

Place marketing

Many places market themselves by deliberately manipulating culture and features in order to appeal to potential visitors. These visitors might include wealthy tourists and organisers of business conferences. They are lured by a manipulation of tradition, lifestyles and cultures. Two examples are Darling Harbour, in Sydney, and South Bank, in Brisbane.

Taken to an extreme, such marketing can result in local identity and historical character being replaced with a fabricated landscape of inauthentic settings. Examples are the Wild West in the fake cowboy town of Old Tucson, Arizona, and Alpine Village, a Bavarian village created in California in 1968.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain how place making can result in territoriality.
2 List expressions of territoriality in your neighbourhood. What groups are involved?
3 Describe your experience of feeling like an 'outsider'.
4 List places in which you consider yourself to be an 'insider'.

Applying and analysing

5 Study Source 6.2.1. Identify the aspects of this place that reveal territoriality.
6 Draw a map of your school, marking areas of different groups' perceived territory. Indicate how you know this is their territory.
7 Discuss the various perceptions of the place shown in Source 6.2.2.
8 How is graffiti an illustration of place making and a challenge to ownership?

Evaluating and creating

9 Do you think it is appropriate to create places that are not authentic, such as a fake cowboy town? Give reasons for your answer.

Media and perception of place

Geographical issues

The media plays an important role in shaping our perceptions of places. By highlighting some places and neglecting others, it increases our knowledge of places the media considers to be of interest at the expense of those it chooses not to focus on.

The media also shapes perceptions about geographical issues. The media highlights some issues and ignores others. When using the media as a source of information about the world, we need to take be aware of its 'agenda-setting' role. We also need to understand that the manner in which information is presented often reflects the particular perspective or point of view of the 'author' or media organisation. The same can be said of material on the internet.

Shaping perceptions of places

It is important to recognise that our own culture, of which the media forms part, and our life experiences, shape the way we perceive places. Perceptions are the basis for understanding a place's location, extent, characteristics and importance. Throughout our lives, culture and experience shape our worldviews, which, in turn, influence our perceptions of places and regions.

Travel brochure photography

One role of the photographic image is to entice people to travel to distant places. Visual images, especially those in travel brochures and on travel-related websites, attract the attention and imagination of potential visitors. The images used in tourism advertising typically idealise and portray as exotic the people and culture of a particular place, while downplaying or even erasing any evidence of poverty or other forms of 'unpleasantness'—environmental degradation, crime, child exploitation, civil unrest, and so on.

The images used promote a sense of 'otherness'—the quality of being distinct or different from what is otherwise experienced or known. Elements of the physical and cultural environments are promoted as being unique. These images are carefully selected and framed, and on occasions edited, to construct an intended meaning. The increasingly complex nature of images selected for tourism brochures reflects the need to satisfy the diverse needs and interests of potential tourists.

Source 6.3.1 Travel brochures emphasise the exotic while avoiding any evidence of poverty or other forms of 'unpleasantness'.

Source 6.3.2 The media tends to draw on the most graphic images to support its stories.

Source 6.3.3 Images of this type are commonly used in posters and brochures promoting African tourism.

Role of the media

Today, the media (including the internet) is an important source of information about what is going on in the world. But media organisations seem more interested in some places and events than others. It is widely understood that the material presented by the media organisations is selective. Gatekeepers (editors and journalists) and some financial limitations and economic pressures mean that the media (with few exceptions) must survive as viable commercial organisations. These factors play a vital role when decisions are made to select, emphasise, interpret and, in some cases, manipulate coverage of places and events.

The media's agenda-setting role means that some places and issues are promoted while others are neglected and ignored. It also means that the media will have an impact on public opinion. People will be more likely to know about those places and issues that are highlighted by the media. They will know little about other places.

Television and print media

The type of media is also important. Newspapers and magazines provide greater opportunity for the in-depth treatment of issues and places, with photographs playing only a supporting role. Television news reports, however, are often built around the visual image, with the commentary playing a supporting role. The more graphic the visual images, the more likely the story will be to make the evening news. The media's focus on Africa, for example, is often centred on the suffering of the continent's people. This contrasts with the images promoting African tourism. It is often these visual images that we use to construct our perceptions of places.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Outline how the media shapes our perceptions of places.
2 Explain what is meant by the term 'agenda setting'.
3 State what is meant by the media's 'gatekeeping' role. Who are the gatekeepers?
4 Distinguish between television and print media in the ways they influence our perception of places.
5 Explain what is meant by the term 'otherness' in terms of travel brochure photography.

Applying and analysing

6 Think about the following places: Africa, Europe, the United States, Bangladesh, Afghanistan, Uzbekistan.
   a Working in groups, brainstorm all the words or impressions that come to mind when you think of each place.
   b Compare your list of words or impressions of each place.
      - How do they differ?
      - Are there any similarities?
      - Is there greater knowledge of some places compared with others? Why might that be so?
   c From where did you gain your knowledge of each place?

Places and identity

Special places

All of us have places that are special and have helped shape the person we are. The following questions will help you to clarify your thinking about your relationship to place and identity.

- Where is your favourite place?
- What draws you to that place?
- Are there particular memories about the place?
- How would you spend a perfect day there?

Identifying with place

Aspects of identity are often linked to place. This is referred to as **place identity**. Place identity includes those landscape-related factors that help determine an individual's personal identity and **sense of place**. It comes about through a complex process involving conscious and unconscious ideas, feelings, values, goals, preferences, skills and behavioural tendencies relevant to a specific environment.

Local

One way in which identity is connected to a particular place is by a feeling of belonging to that place, or having a sense of place. In this place you feel comfortable, or at home. How you define yourself is influenced by certain qualities of that place. This sense of belonging can occur at a range of scales. It may, for example, occur at a local scale. Sport is one activity that promotes a sense of belonging. Many Australian Rules football fans, for example, develop an almost tribal loyalty to their local footy team.

Regional

It is also possible to identify a sense of belonging at a regional scale. In Rugby League, for example, the annual State of Origin series divides supporters into Blues (New South Wales) and Maroons (Queensland). Such state-based rivalries have been common throughout Australian history across a range of political, social and economic issues. The Australian Commonwealth, a federation of states, only came about after our political leaders were able to put aside their parochial, state-based interests.

National

At a national scale, Australians will unite against the foreign competitor whether it is in netball, cricket, tennis, swimming or soccer.

NATIONAL IDENTITY

National identity is shaped by the way in which people view themselves and the way others see them. The national identity of a country is largely defined by legends and landscapes—by stories of the past, heroic deeds and enduring traditions. It might also be defined by homelands, with their sacred sites, landforms and unique scenery more generally.

Identifying against place

The idea that identity and place are connected because people feel they belong to a place is not the only connection between identity and place. People not only live in places and identify with them, they are sometimes alienated by them. Sometimes people establish an identity by contrasting the place that is 'home' with a place that is 'away'. For example, knowledge of the unique characteristics of Asian landscapes and cultures acts as a point of difference against which the uniqueness of Australia can be judged and appreciated.

Not identifying

Often we first become aware of our own sense of place and identity when we travel to unfamiliar places and begin to realise that our surroundings are different and that we do not feel 'at home' there. The landscape is different; the weather may be different; houses and towns are different; people are not the same; even things such as sounds and smells are not those which we are familiar with. In some instances, the strength of identity associated with one place, for example 'home', might be so strong that it is difficult for people to feel concerned for another place and its people.

Source 6.4.1 Sport is one of those activities that promote a sense of belonging and place identity.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain what is meant by the term 'place identity'.
2 Define the term 'national identity'.
3 Explain how other places can contribute to the development of place identity.

Applying and analysing

4 Think of a place that is special to you.
   a Where is your favourite place?
   b What draws you to that place?
   c Are there particular memories about the place?
   d How would you spend a perfect day there?
5 **a** Write a description of the place with which you identify most strongly.
   b How many of these places make reference to landscape? Share your description with others in your class.
6 Outline an example of place identity that has local, regional and national scales.

Evaluating and creating

7 Construct a mental map of Australia, which includes the features that you think give Australia its distinctive identity. You might include landscape features, buildings, particular colours, names or people.

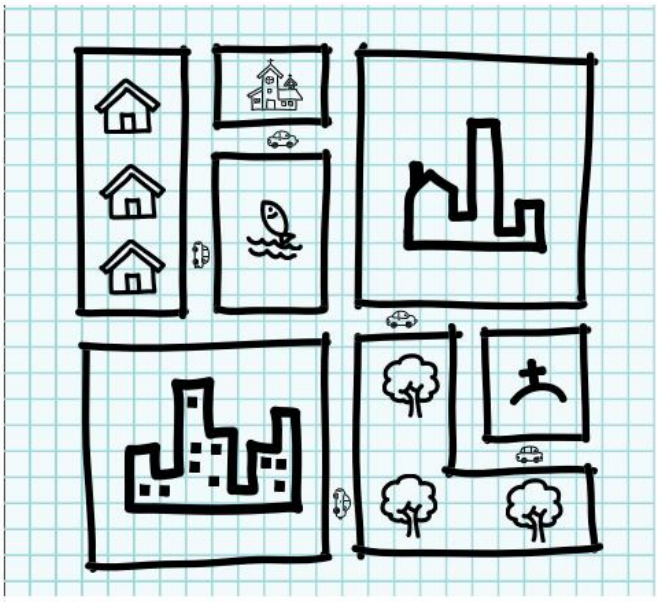
Geoskills: Mental maps

Drawing mental maps

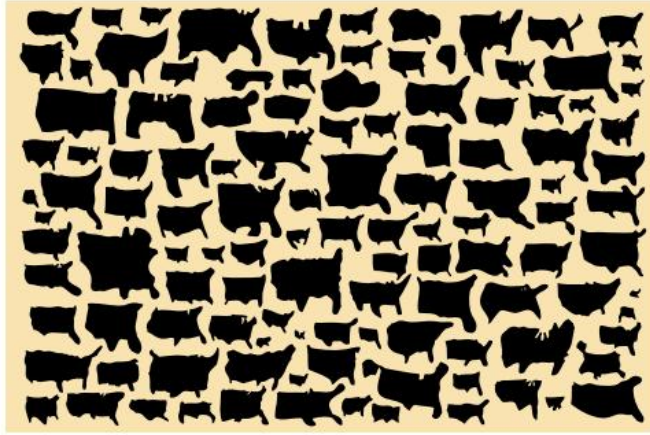
A person's awareness or perception of the world around them is known as their **mental map**. It is the mental representation of the person's known world—their 'personal geography'.

If you were asked to draw a sketch map of the town or suburb where you live, it is very likely that the area which you are most familiar with would be drawn in much greater detail than the rest of the town or suburb. It is also likely that the relative size of the area you are familiar with would be greater. Places you know well—your school, the local shopping centre and your favourite recreational facilities—are likely to feature more prominently than those you are only vaguely familiar with.

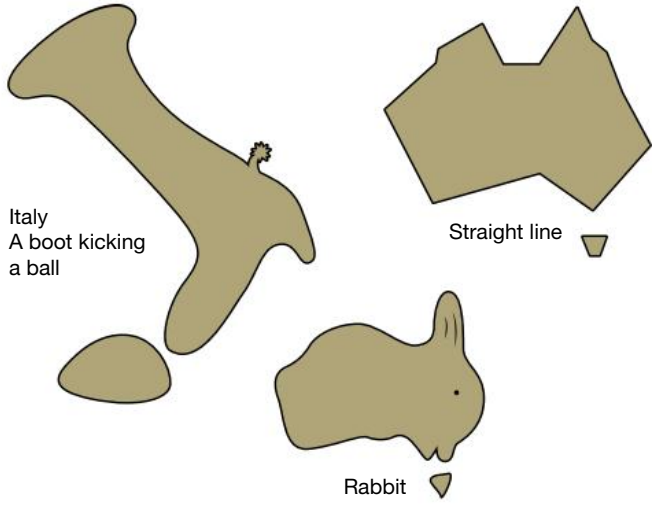
People often draw simple maps to show someone the way to get to a place—for example, how to find their place of residence. Because such maps are drawn from memory, your ideas and your understanding of places, they give a good indication of what you think about a place, and how detailed your knowledge of particular features is. The signs and symbols you use to create your map reveal the elements of places that you perceive as being important.



Source 6.5.1 A mental map



Source 6.5.2 Mental maps of the United States, as drawn by children

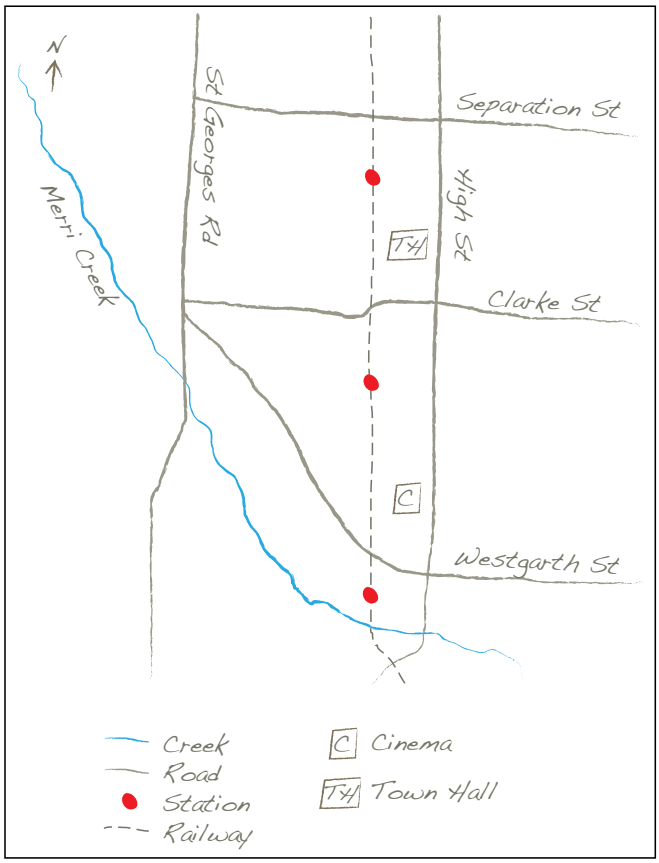


Source 6.5.3 Mental maps of Australia and Italy. Giving the maps identifiable shapes makes it easier to remember them.

Drawing a map of your neighbourhood

Before drawing a map of your neighbourhood, you would need to make some decisions.

1 What places would you choose as the limits and boundaries of your neighbourhood?
2 Which roads and streets would you include?
3 Which features of your neighbourhood are most important to you, and should be included?
4 What reference points would you include so that the map will be meaningful to someone else?



Source 6.5.4 A local neighbourhood—Northcote, Victoria

YOUR NEIGHBOURHOOD

If you compare your map of your neighbourhood to those of other students who live in the same area, you will see all kinds of similarities and differences. These may tell you a lot about how all the map-drawers view their local neighbourhood.

Drawing a map of your state

For most people, drawing a map of their state or territory from memory is a difficult task. Most people would be able to locate borders and a few features such as the capital city, the sea/ocean and major mountain ranges, but including more details could be a challenge. The details one person knows will be different from the details that another person knows.

Drawing a map of your country

The shape of Australia is well known and easily recognised, but for most people it is hard to draw freehand. The features that people would include in a mental map of Australia will differ, as will the details they choose to include—from size, to capital cities, to landscapes. The features people include will be the features they think are important.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain what a mental map is and what it reveals about your 'personal geography'.

Applying and analysing

2 a Draw a mental map of your 'place'. Include as much of your neighbourhood as you want to. Show the features that you think are important.
  b Compare your mental map with the maps of others who live in the same neighbourhood. What are the main differences?
  c What do these differences tell you about the interests, activities, families, length of residence and age of the map-drawers?

3 a Draw a mental map of your state. Include towns, regions and features that you know.
  b Compare your map with a map from an atlas. Describe the differences.
  c Write down some of the reasons why you included some places on your map and not others.

4 Draw a mental map of Australia. Include state boundaries, state capitals and places known to you.

5 Draw a mental map to give directions to a friend on how to get to a sportsground or shopping centre. Include only the information that they will need to get there. When it is finished, compare it to the map in a street directory or online, and comment on the differences.

6 Draw a mental map of a shopping centre you visit regularly. Can you remember the location of the shops that you do not use often? What does this tell you about your skills of observation and your visual memory?

Describing your local place

Describing your personal environment

Think about the area where you live and how you would describe it. You could include the following in a description about your local area: the main visual features, the main sounds you hear, the smells that are most common and the particular textures that you often touch.

Imagine that you want to give an impression of your personal environment to a friend living overseas. There are many ways in which you could do this, for example:

- drawing a sketch map
- taking a digital photograph
- writing a description
- recording sounds you hear
- sending a link to a story
- suggesting a song.

Your biophysical environment

Geographers divide elements of the environment into biophysical and human-made features. The physical features are those that are natural and existed before humans arrived in the area. They include the relief (hills, plains, valleys, rocks), rivers, lakes and beaches, climate and weather, the natural vegetation and the native animals. Many elements of your physical environment can be seen around you, but some are invisible. For example, the dryness or wetness (humidity) of the atmosphere may give a place a certain character, but it is an invisible feature.

Source 6.6.1 Some of Australia's diverse biophysical and human environments

Human or constructed environment

The elements of the human (or constructed) environment are those features that have been built or changed by humans. They include houses, roads, schools, offices, factories, power lines and dams. The human environment also includes non-visible features such as the culture of the inhabitants, their wealth and their education level.

Interactions between environments

There are places where the biophysical environment has a major influence on the human or constructed environment. For example, the biophysical environment of Bondi Beach, St Kilda, Glenelg, Cottesloe, Fanny Bay or the Gold Coast has a major influence on the buildings in those locations, the activities of people residing in or visiting the locations, and the age groups and some characteristics of these people. Other places in Australia that have a human environment highly influenced by the biophysical environment are mining towns, for example Tom Price, Mount Isa and Kalgoorlie; and ports, for example Newcastle, Gladstone and Port Hedland.

There are other places, however, where the human elements of the environment are much more important, and can even overwhelm the original biophysical landscape. Try to imagine Sydney Harbour without the Bridge, the ferries, the houses lining the shores and the clusters of multistorey buildings. Look at any photograph of a suburban street and try to envisage what the physical landscape was like before rows of houses were built there. Look at a photograph of an industrial area such as at Wollongong, Geelong or Whyalla and try to see beyond the industrial buildings to a biophysical landscape that is now very well hidden.

Putting your perceptions together

When you have thought about the biophysical and human environment of your local area, think again about your feelings about different places within it. There may be places you now perceive in a different way, because they have particular purposes for some people. There may be other areas for which you see potential uses.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 List the ways in which you can describe your personal environment. Can you add to the list?

2 Describe how the biophysical environment impacts upon the human or constructed environment.

Applying and analysing

3 Study the photographs in Source 6.6.1 then do the following tasks.
   - **a** Write down your first reaction to each photograph as favourable or unfavourable.
   - **b** Which places seem to be dominated by the biophysical environment, and which ones by the human environment?
   - **c** Make a list of features you can see in each photograph.

4 Study the photographs in Source 6.6.1. Either draw a line diagram of the features of each photograph, labelling the main features, or scan each photograph and use the computer to add labels to each main feature of the photograph. Look for examples of features listed in the text, and add descriptive adjectives as well as names of features. Identify features as either biophysical or human.

5 Your personal environment may contain any of the following features: houses, blocks of flats, shopping centres, petrol stations, hotels, rivers, parks, highways, trees, farms, factories, office blocks, hills, beaches, lakes. Select those that your environment contains and give some details of them.

6 Make a list of the good and bad features of your local environment. Which of these features could be altered? Can you have any influence on this?

Evaluating and creating

7 Draw a sound map of the area around your school. Start with a mental map and sketch the area of the school and the surrounding roads. Then draw arrows and labels on the map to show where sounds such as traffic noise, industrial noise, aircraft noise and other sounds come from. Below the map write comments about your reactions to these sounds in your personal environment.

Staying connected via transport

Transport innovations

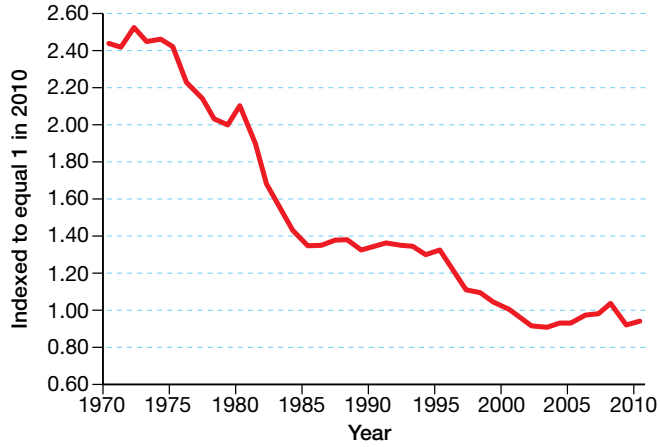
Technological and scientific advances in transportation have produced numerous improvements in transport systems. These improvements have enhanced the connections between people and places and led to an explosive growth in service-based industries such as international tourism and education. Transport improvements have also enabled the rapid expansion of world trade.

The most significant transport innovations have been:

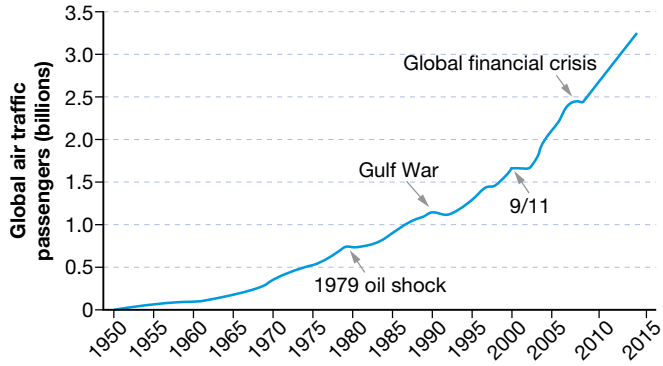
- the development of high-capacity aircraft such as the Boeing 747 and the Airbus A380. An A380, which costs US$390 million, is capable of carrying up to 853 people a distance of 15 400 kilometres at 900 kilometres per hour without refuelling. High-capacity aircraft have played an important role in reducing the cost of air travel over the last 40 years. As a result, more people can afford to travel. Both world trade and airline passenger loads have grown much faster than world GDP.
- the advances in railway technology, especially the introduction of high-speed trains. These trains use specialised rolling stock and dedicated tracks to achieve speeds well in excess of the speed of traditional trains. Japan, China, France, Germany, Italy, Turkey, South Korea and Spain all have high-speed trains that are capable of speeds of up to 400 kilometres per hour. The Shanghai Maglev Train is a high-speed magnetic levitation train that runs 30 kilometres from Shanghai to the Pudong International Airport. The train reaches a speed of 431 kilometres per hour.
- the development of megaships—vast seagoing vessels capable of transporting people, raw materials and manufactured goods at relatively high speeds over long distances and for a low per unit cost. Large bulk carriers, oil tankers and container ships travel the seas, linking sites of production and consumption.
  Cruise ships are an important part of the rapidly growing global tourism industry. In 2014, the world's fleet of 296 cruise ships carried over 30 million passengers, generating revenues of US$33.8 billion.

As a result of the innovations in transport, people have been able to take advantage of:

- decreased (real) travel costs
- increased capacity (passenger loads)
- improvements in safety and reliability
- increased travel and transport speeds
- greater comfort and convenience
- increased fuel efficiency
- declining environmental impacts, especially in the form of air pollution and noise emissions
- low-cost, same-day, next-day and just-in-time deliveries.



Source 6.7.1 Real price of air travel, 1970–2012



Source 6.7.2 Global air passenger traffic trends, 1950–2014

Source 6.7.3 *Allure of the Seas* is bigger than the largest aircraft carriers operated by the US Navy.

Allure of the Seas

The world's largest cruise ship is Royal Caribbean's *Allure of the Seas*. The ship weighs in at 225 282 gross tonnes and has a displacement of 100 000 tonnes. It is the length of three and a half football fields (360 metres) and is capable of accommodating 5400 passengers and 2400 crew members

The future

Continuing research and development in materials and processes, and in computers and telecommunications, will result in ever greater efficiencies in the movement of people, goods and information. At the same time, technological changes may alter travel patterns, travel behaviour and travel choices in ways that are not completely understood at present. These developments might include:

- intelligent transportation systems (ITS) that result in smarter vehicles, highways and traffic monitoring
- new alternative fuels and vehicles for ground transportation
- new aircraft technologies, high-speed railways and megaships
- further developments in mobile phones and the internet, especially in terms of their potential to transform the travel experience.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Outline the results of improvements in transport technologies.
2. Outline the technological developments in aircraft, railway technology and shipping.
3. Identify likely future technological advances in transport technology.

Applying and analysing

4. Study Source 6.7.1. Describe the trend in the real cost of travel.
5. Study Source 6.7.2. Describe the effect that the world events shown on the graph had on airline passenger numbers. Give reasons why this might be so.

Evaluating and creating

6. Select one of the forms of travel examined in this unit. Using the internet, investigate recent developments and likely future developments, and the impact of these advances on interconnectivity.

Staying connected via ICTs

Changing communication

Advances in information and communication technologies (ICTs) have transformed the ways in which people interact. The technologies that many of us now take for granted have created new ways of connecting with our family and friends, and transformed the ways in which we work and shop. New online communities have emerged, defying the limitations once imposed by distance.

We once communicated with our family and friends using handwritten letters. In some cases it took weeks, even months, for the letters to reach their destination. From the mid-1850s until recently, urgent correspondence was transmitted electronically, and then hand-delivered, as a telegram—quite an expensive option. These messages could be sent long distance, initially using cables and, from the late 1880s, by wireless telegraphy. Australia Post shut down Australia's telegram service in March 2011.

Mobile phones

The first mobile phone call in public was made in New York on 3 April 1973. The first mobile call in Australia was made less than 10 years later in August 1981. In 2014, there were 91.4 mobile phone subscriptions per 100 people in the developing world. In the developed world there were 122.7 subscriptions per 100 people, meaning every fourth or fifth person, on average, has two phones. By the middle of 2015 there were 21 million mobile phone subscribers in Australia.

The internet

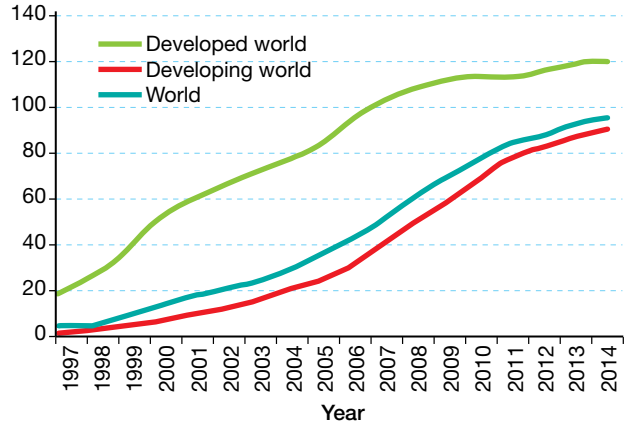
The internet began life in a US Government Defence research lab in California in the late 1960s. The first connections were made between universities in 1969. In Australia, Melbourne and Wollongong universities exchanged files using computers via dial-up. The emergence of the internet as we know it today began in the 1990s. Since then, internet growth has risen dramatically around the world.

Social media

Today, people keep in touch using a range of fixed and mobile devices. The latter include smartphones, laptops and tablets. These devices, and their associated software, make possible the use of email, text messaging, blogs, wikis, Skype, YouTube, Facebook, Twitter and photo sharing on sites such a Flickr and Instagram. These form what is often referred to as **social media**. Broadly speaking, social media is any means by which people create and exchange information and ideas.

The use of social media has encouraged the emergence of **virtual communities** and networks. A virtual community is any group of individuals who interact through social media. It might, for example, be a group of friends who use technology to keep up to date with what everyone is doing. It might also be a group of individuals with a common professional interest who use email distribution lists to communicate and share information. Alternatively, it might be a network of activists pursuing interests or goals that cross geographical and political boundaries.

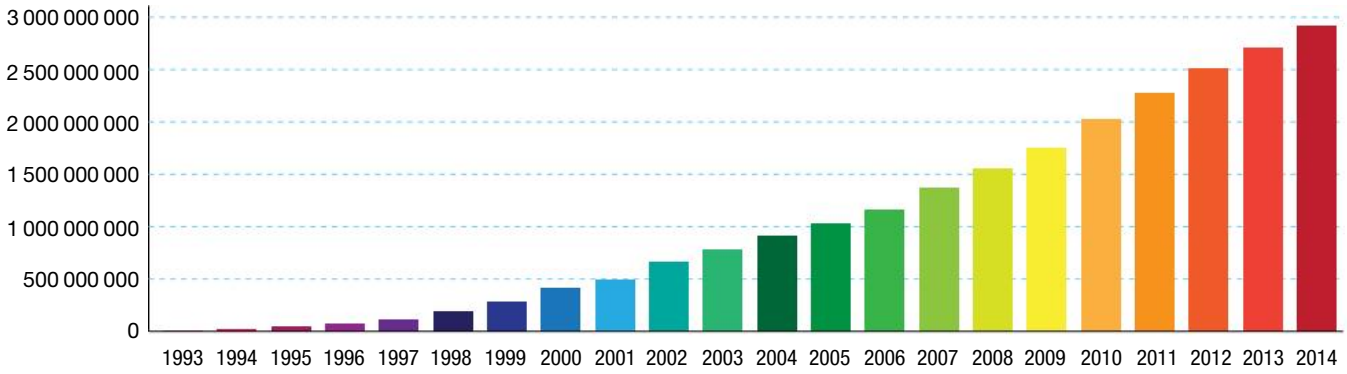
People's use of social media is growing rapidly. In Australia, 80.1 per cent of the population have access to the internet and by late 2012 there were 11 680 640 Facebook subscribers (53.1 per cent of the total population).



Source 6.8.1 Mobile phone subscriptions per 100 inhabitants, 1997–2014

Did you know?

The typical smartphone user spends an average of 12 minutes a day on phone calls. They spend more time playing games (14 minutes), listening to music (16 minutes), using social media (17 minutes) and browsing online (25 minutes). The most common use of all mobiles is to check the time.



Source 6.8.2 Number of internet users in the world, 1993– 2014

Facebook facts, 2014

- Monthly active Facebook users now total nearly 1393 million.
- Fifty-seven per cent of Facebook users are female.
- An average Facebook user has 130 friends.
- Twenty-three per cent of Facebook's users check their account five or more times daily.
- Over 350 million photos are uploaded to Facebook every day.

Twitter facts, 2014

- Since the introduction of Twitter, there has been a total of 300 billion tweets.
- There is an average of 500 million tweets posted per day.
- Twenty-three per cent of all internet users are using Twitter.
- Fifty per cent of Twitter users are using the social network on a mobile device.

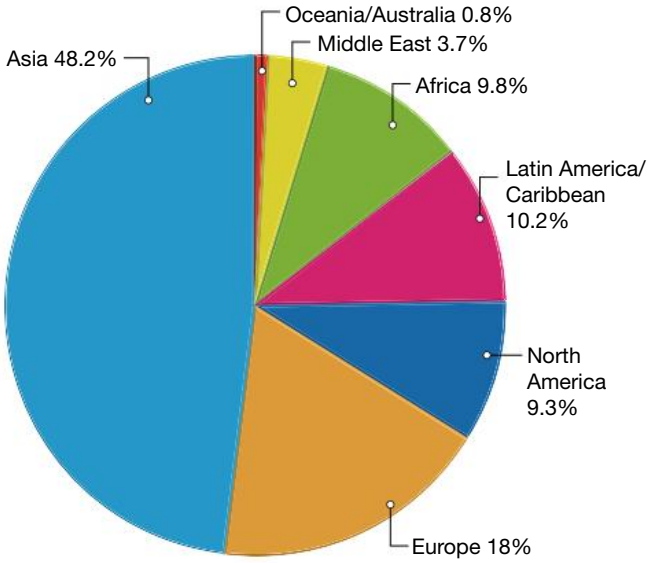
Instagram facts, 2014

- By March 2014, Instagram had 200 million users.
- Nearly 20 billion photos have been shared on Instagram since its beginning.
- More than 60 million photos are uploaded to Instagram every day.

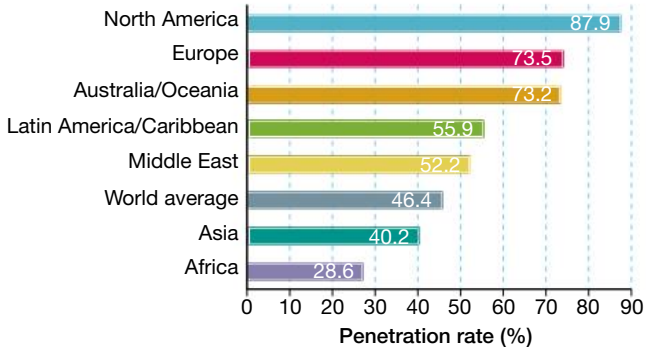
Effects of social media

People spend more time on social networks than on any other category of online sites—roughly 20 per cent of their total time online via personal computer, and about 30 per cent of their total time online via mobile devices. Facebook is the most-visited social network site.

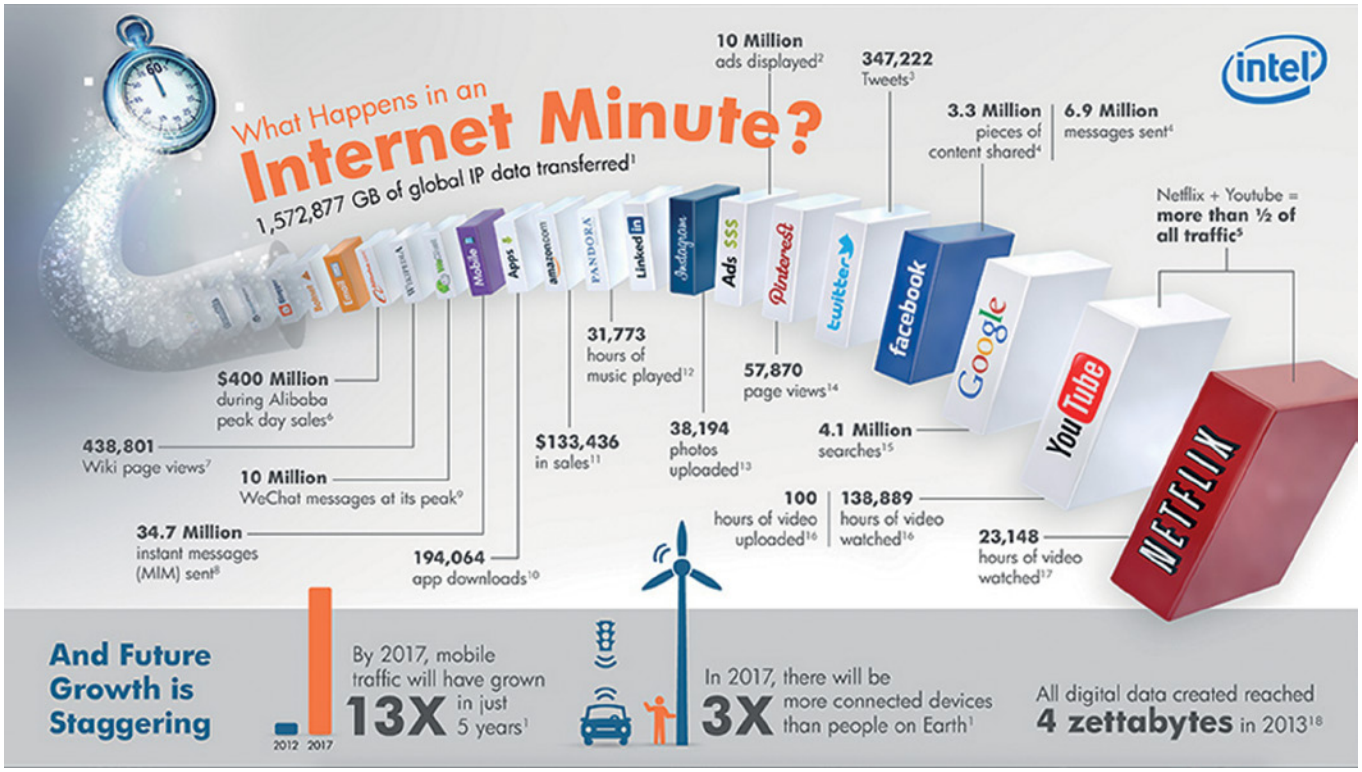
Most people regard social media as a positive addition to their lives. Unfortunately, however, there appears to be a link between social media use and cyber-bullying. Online sexual predatory behaviours are also a problem, as is the decline in face-to-face social interaction.



Source 6.8.3 Distribution of the world's internet users by region, 2015



Source 6.8.4 Percentage of population accessing the internet by region, 2015



Source 6.8.5 A snapshot from 2016 of internet use and its remarkable rate of growth

New technologies, new industries, new jobs

ICTs are also transforming the ways that people work and interact in workplaces. At one level they are changing the ways in which existing jobs are done. At another, whole new industries and new forms of employment have come into being. More flexible workplace arrangements are replacing the 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. office day. Work can now be performed in multiple locations (including the home and on public transport) and is no longer restricted to set hours.

New forms of economic activity have developed to take advantage of the potential of the internet and social media. The information media industry is a rapidly growing area of employment. Web-based publishing and broadcasting are now challenging the 'old' media—newspapers, magazines and television—and becoming the main means by which people access information. These 'new media' also provide forums in which people can comment on the events and issues being reported and discussed.

Such developments are not limited to the world's developed economies. In Africa, mobile phones are the continent's fastest-growing technology. There are now an estimated 650 million mobile phone subscribers in Sub-Saharan Africa alone. The World Bank credits the mobile phone industry with creating more than five million jobs in 2014.

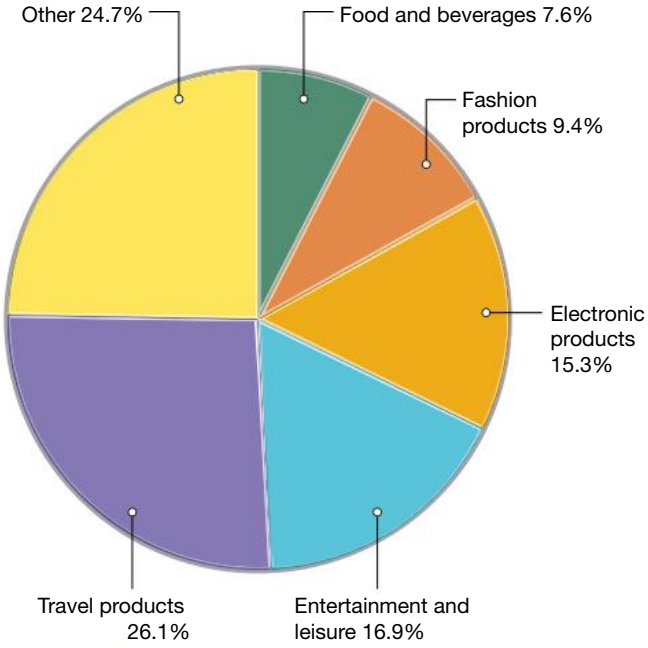
New ways of buying

Online retailing is a form of **e-commerce**. It allows consumers to directly buy goods or services from sellers using the internet. In Australia, online purchases reached $10.76 billion, or 4.5 per cent of traditional retail spending, in 2015. At the end of 2015, online retailing was growing at a rate of 14.4 per cent per annum, compared with traditional retail sales growth of just 3.1 per cent. Travel products were the most popular category of goods bought online. In the United States, online retailing now accounts for about 8 per cent of all retail sales. In the case of clothing, online sales now account for 13 per cent of all transactions.

The key attraction of online retailing is convenience. Online stores are available 24 hours a day, and many consumers have internet access at home, at work and while mobile. In contrast, visiting a conventional retail outlet takes time, involves travel and must take place during trading hours. Comparing prices is also

easier online and, because online retailers do not have the expenses of traditional 'bricks and mortar' retailers (for example, the cost of maintaining multiple outlets in high-rent shopping centres), they can often sell goods and services at very competitive prices. Consumers are also able to access goods and services internationally. As a result, one-third of the top retail sites accessed by Australians are based outside the country.

The growth of online retailing has led to a rapid expansion in the international logistics industry. Transporting people's purchases to their homes is a massive undertaking and has created thousands of new jobs.



Source 6.8.6 Online shopping expenditure by category, Australia

Car ownership and driving

There has been a significant drop in the number of young people who own and drive cars. In the United States of America, the percentage of 18-years-olds with a driver's licence plunged from 80 per cent in 1983 to 61 per cent in 2010. In addition, the distance driven per person is below the historic peak by almost 9 per cent.

In Australia, too, there has been a marked decrease in the proportion of under-35-year-olds holding a driver's licence. In 1998, 84 per cent of 25-year-olds held a licence. Since 2000–01, that figure has dropped from 77 per cent to 66 per cent in 2015.

The decline in car use appears to be part of a structural shift that is largely a result of changing demographics, especially the rise of so-called 'millennials'—today's teenagers and twenty-somethings. Millennials are not driving cars in anything like the numbers that previous generations did. The reasons for this trend are complex but are thought to include the preference of the young for inner-city living, which is less car-dependent. Young people are also more likely to use public transport. The preference for the latter can be explained, at least in part, by the opportunity that public transport travel provides for engagement with social media—something that driving does not accommodate. Catch a train or bus these days and you will see people cruising the internet on their smartphones and tablets, working on their laptops or reading on their e-readers, all the while listening to music

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Outline how personal communication has changed since the mid-1980s.
2 Define the terms 'social media' and 'virtual community'.
3 Outline the impact of the new technologies on the nature of work.
4 The ways people access information is changing. Explain how.
5 Explain why young people in Australia and the United States are driving less.

Applying and analysing

6 Study Source 6.8.1. Using data from the graph, describe the growth in mobile phone use since 1997.
7 Study Source 6.8.2. Using data from the graph, describe the growth in the number of internet users since 1993.
8 Study Source 6.8.5.
   a Write down what you do in an internet minute.
   b Compare an internet minute to your internet minute. Describe any similarities or differences.
9 Study Figure 6.8.6. Identify the three largest categories of online expenditure.

Trade: Connecting people and places

Thinking about our links

Think about all the places in the world that you have links with. You might start with family or friends, places you have visited or that you would like to visit, and places that particularly interest you. When you have done this, think about some possible connections from the list below of places:

- where your clothes are made
- where your electronic gadgets are designed and made
- from where you have ordered online goods or services
- that provide services your family uses (banks, airlines, internet provider)
- that make films and television shows that you watch.

These connections are all part of **globalisation**, a process in which goods and services and the influences that accompany them become similar throughout the world.

Origins of clothing

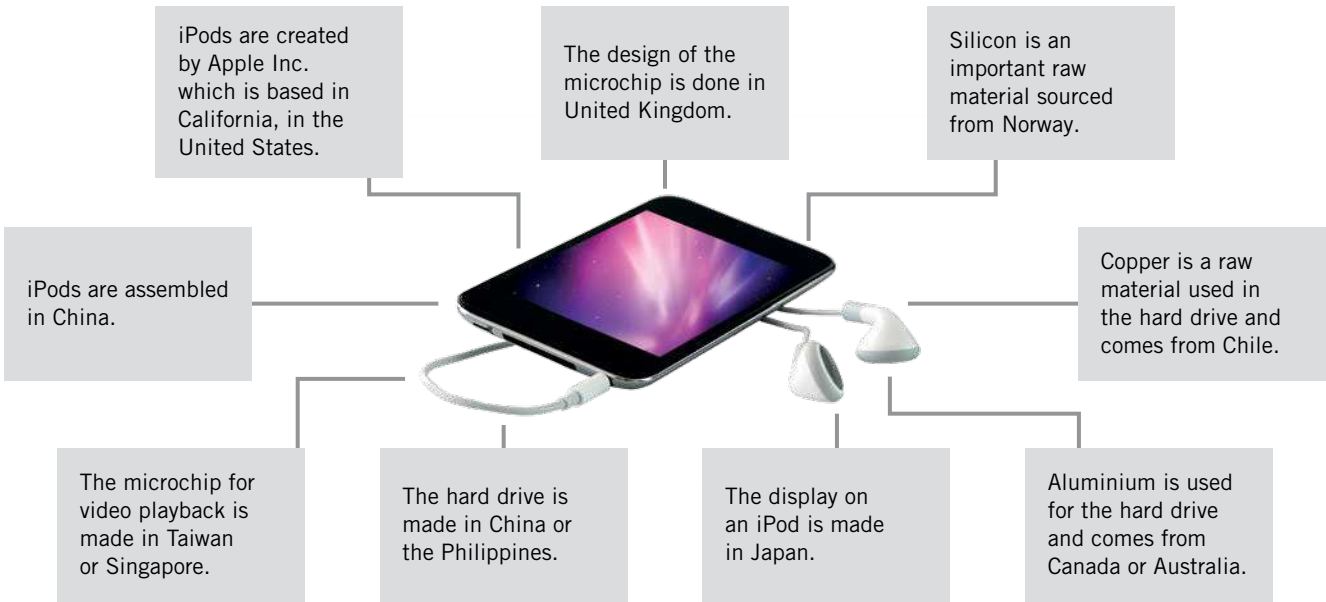
The chances are good that your clothes were designed in the United States, Europe and Australia, but were made in an Asian country. This is now a very common pattern. Clothing companies might have their head offices and administration in one country, their design offices in another, and the actual manufacturers of the clothing in a number of other countries. They need to have their designers near the latest trends, but they want to use cheap labour and processing to produce the clothing.

Origins of digital devices

Many teenagers and adults own a digital device such as an iPod. Look at the list of components and processes involved in the making of an iPod in Source 6.9.1. This information is current at the time of publication, but the source of raw materials and the sites of manufacturing keep changing as costs and profitability change. Global companies are constantly assessing their costs and profits, and are prepared to shift their contracts to different suppliers in different countries if that improves their costs.

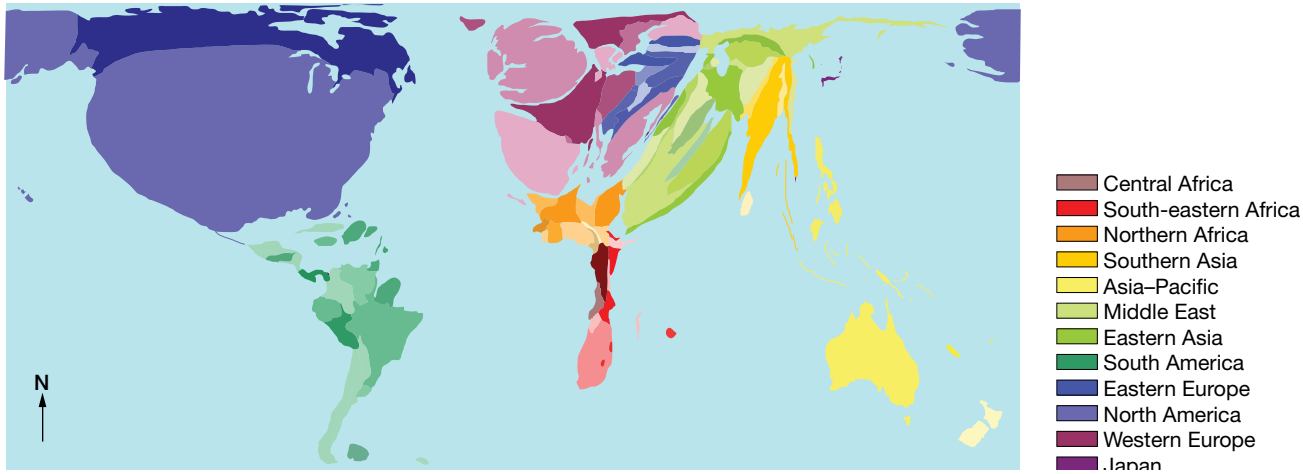
Global electronics trade

The patterns of trade suggested in the iPod example are further illustrated in Sources 6.9.2 and 6.9.3, which show the regions with the greatest exports and the greatest imports of electronic goods.



Source 6.9.1 The design and production of an iPod is a worldwide collaboration.

Source 6.9.2 Worldmapper of electronic exports



Source 6.9.3 Worldmapper of electronic imports

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Study Source 6.9.1.
   - **a** List the metals that are used in the production of an iPod.
   - **b** Name the countries that are involved in the production of an iPod.

2 Outline the clothing production process.

Applying and analysing

3 Study Sources 6.9.2 and 6.9.3.
   - **a** Name the regions with the largest levels of exports of electronic goods.
   - **b** Name the regions with the largest levels of imports.
   - **c** Describe the pattern that this shows.

4 **a** List the places that you are connected with through the origins of your:
   - clothing
   - goods, such as smartphone, tablet etc.
   - favourite music or shows.

   b Look through the list of the countries and places throughout the world which you have any connection with. Which connections have come about recently through globalisation?

Evaluating and creating

5 Assess the influences globalisation has on your life.

6 Do you think that globalisation is good or bad, and inevitable or changeable? Give reasons for your opinion.

Real space versus virtual space

Personal and social spaces

Think about the reasons why you, your family and your friends move around your personal and **social space**. Possible reasons might include going to school or work, shopping, visiting friends, visiting cinemas or sportsgrounds, going to play sport, taking the dog for a walk or going to the doctor.

Virtual space

Increasingly, a number of our day-to-day activities can be done in **virtual space**. For example, shopping can be done online; friends can be contacted by phone, email or text messaging; and even aspects of work and schooling can be done at home online. This is a 21st-century development and it is changing some of the habits and patterns of people's movements and use of space. Virtual space is now taken for granted by people in countries such as Australia. It means that people have much wider access to people with similar interests, and much greater access to a variety of goods, information and activities. Virtual space is changing the way many people live their lives.

Shopping and entertainment online

Before the internet, shopping and most entertainment required travel to shops, cinemas and entertainment centres. Now, much of this is available in different ways through a home computer and a large screen. The percentage of shopping that is done online is increasing because of the greater range of goods, the ease of ordering at a computer, and the convenience of home delivery.

Working at home online

An increasing number of people are using online connections to work completely or partly from home. Occupations such as writing, editing and design are now possible to do at home while still maintaining contact with other people.

Education online

Education at tertiary level is already well developed online. Many tertiary students study courses based at universities in other states, or even other countries. Course notes are available online and students can submit assignments and contact their teachers online. Online learning will expand in the future. You will soon be able to watch, listen to and interact with lectures in 'real time'.

Medical applications

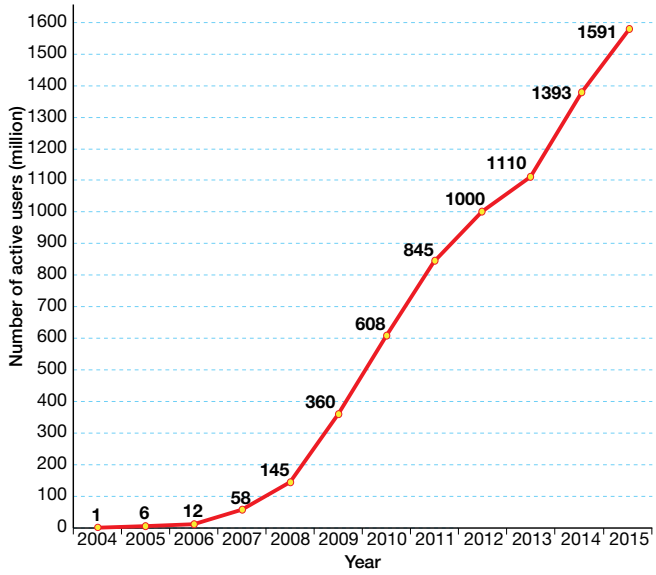
Medical diagnosis is already being developed online, so that people in remote areas have access to doctors at their fingertips. As Australia's National Broadband Network expands, more people will have access to fast downloading and communications, and more business will be done using the internet.

Virtual space inequality

For people who have low income and few assets, the new technologies are still of limited benefit. Once rent is paid and food has been purchased, it is difficult to pay the phone bills and broadband access. There is also the isolation experienced by the aged, who sometimes find the technology difficult to master.

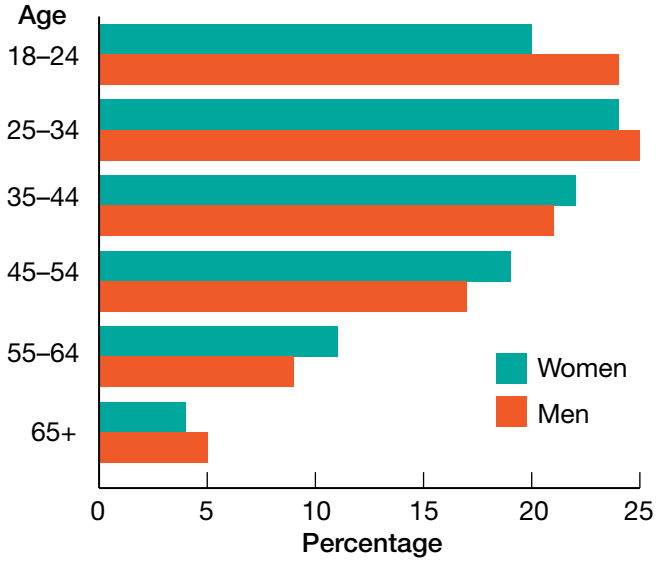
Facebook

Facebook was introduced in 2004. It was originally just a network for students attending Boston's universities. However, it quickly expanded to include other students and then to the general public. Facebook now has well over one billion users.



Source 6.10.1 The number of Facebook users, 2004–15

Source 6.10.2 World distribution of Facebook users. Paul Butler from Facebook created this map in 2010. Using the data from approximately 10 million Facebook users, he tabulated the number of friend connections between cities, and the latitude and longitude of each friend. The more connections between two places, the lighter the line is; the fewer connections, the darker the line.



Source 6.10.3 Facebook users by age group and gender, 2014

Facebook is the largest and probably the most successful of many social media sites on the World Wide Web. The significance of Facebook is that it creates a new and much wider virtual space.

Facebook is part of a much larger social change, linked to the use of mobile phones and emails to exchange social information instantly and often. People have quickly become used to posting photographs of themselves and their activities in virtual space, where they can be seen by their friends. People can issue invitations, arrange events, send greetings and keep up to date socially.

Facebook in some ways makes the world seem smaller, with its instant access to friends, wherever they are. However, the map of Facebook links shows that the people throughout the world are not evenly engaged in Facebook activities. The main links are clearly in the wealthier countries.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Distinguish between 'real space' and 'virtual space'.
2 Identify the activities that can take place in virtual space.

Applying and analysing

3 a Make a list of the ways in which new technology has changed how you and your family and friends do things.
  b Has it led to you moving around less, or has it just changed the spaces in which you move? Explain.
  c Which places do you think will remain as favourite visiting places in real space, and not be replaced by virtual space?
4 Create a PMI (plus, minus, interesting) chart about the disadvantages and risks of the increasing reliance on virtual space.
5 Study Source 6.10.1. During which period did Facebook use grow most rapidly?
6 Study Source 6.10.2. Describe the patterns of Facebook connections shown in the map of the world.
7 Study Source 6.10.3.
  a Name the age group most likely to use Facebook in 2014.
  b In 2014, were females or males more likely to use Facebook? Explain.

Impact of people on places

Geographic features of places

The way that people's cultures contribute to the development of a sense of place and the processes that produce the differences between places are at the heart of human geography. Other related factors, such as economics and wealth, history, technology, population and population movements, also play a role in shaping place.

If you think about the features of a place that make it distinctive, you might come up with a list that includes:

- its physical landscape
- its location in relation to the coast, mountains and rivers
- the impacts of industry or agriculture
- the types of buildings and settlements
- the appearance of the houses, streetscapes, transport and services
- invisible features, such as language, religion, culture and wealth.

People influencing places

Aspects of human behaviour that influence places are:

- culture
- economics and wealth
- history
- technology
- population density
- population movements.

Culture

Culture is a complex mixture of people's origins and heritage, their language, religion, customs and ways of life. It has an important influence on the appearance of a place through styles of housing, ways of using outdoor space, community buildings, and the different values placed on parts of the physical landscape. Places that have been strongly influenced by one culture over a long period often have very distinctive and recognisable landscapes.

It is important to recognise that no culture is static. Ideas, technologies, commodities and products, and people move from one place to another. When cultures come into contact through migration, trade or the latest telecommunications devices, they influence each other. In some cases a culture can be overwhelmed by another. In most instances, people adopt, adapt or reject the cultural influences they come in contact with.

Cultures have evolved in response to contact for thousands of years. But the pace of change has accelerated. In the past, the influences of distant cultures came slowly, delayed by long journeys. Today, because of the reach and speed of communication technologies, the expansion of world trade and the affordability of long-distance travel, cultural influences can spread across the planet as fast as the click of a mouse.

Economics and wealth

The level of wealth in a community is an important indicator of the extent to which people can transform places. In affluent societies there is more of a materialistic culture; large homes, sophisticated transport options and large-scale commercial, recreational and entertainment facilities dominate the landscape. Poor communities can afford to build only basic housing, use traditional farming techniques and undertake small-scale manufacturing.

History

The history of any place has an important impact on its sense of place. Some places are still dominated by structures and street patterns built centuries ago. Towns dominated by castles or by narrow medieval streets develop part of their character from this history. Some places are well known for particular historic events such as battles or revolutions. This affects the ways that both the current inhabitants and visitors/tourists perceive the place.

Other places have their character dominated by their newness. Many places in Australia have similar cultural and economic influences to places in Britain, but look very different because settlement was more recent.

Technology

Technology as a factor is closely related to levels of wealth, but it should be looked at separately because there is not a perfect correlation between technology and wealth as influences on places. The use of high technology might not even be obvious as a visual characteristic of a place, but it might still be present in the structure of buildings, the communication network, the power sources, the use of water, and the

Source 6.11.1 **a** Siem Reap ricefields, Cambodia **b** Dubai city, United Arab Emirates **c** French village

connections with the rest of the world. For example, Munich in Germany has its sophisticated fibre-optic telecommunications network buried out of sight below its cobbled streets.

Population density

Population density has a major impact on places. The contrasts between rural and urban landscapes, multi-storey and single-storey housing, and areas with parks and those without parks are just some of the clearly visible contrasts. Population densities range from 100 000 people in one square kilometre in parts of some Indian cities to zero in large areas of the world.

Population movements

Movements by people from place to place can be either long-term or short-term. Long-term movements include migrations to new places. Such migrations have had major influences on the places receiving them, through the addition of different cultures, different languages, different skills and different age groups of people. Short-term population movements include daily commuting to work, and the movements of tourists to visit and see places. Each of these has influences on a place.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 List the features of places that contribute to their distinctiveness.
2 Identify the characteristics of people that influence places.
3 Explain how culture, history, economics and wealth, and technology can have quite different influences on places.

Applying and analysing

4 Name some places that have been changed by specific impacts of people, and describe the particular impacts on each place.
5 Study Source 6.11.1.
   a Identify as many differences as you can between the places shown.
   b List the human behaviours that have influenced each of these places.

Evaluating and creating

6 Reorder the list of factors that influence places into the order of importance you think these factors have.

Cultural diffusion and adaptation

Elements of culture

Culture can be defined as the sum total of ways of living built up by a group of human beings and transmitted from one generation to another. A cultural group is made up of people of similar heritage who identify with others in the group through sharing the same language, the same ancestry, and often the same religion. People often celebrate their cultural group through their food, music and dance.

Our culture is made up of the following elements:

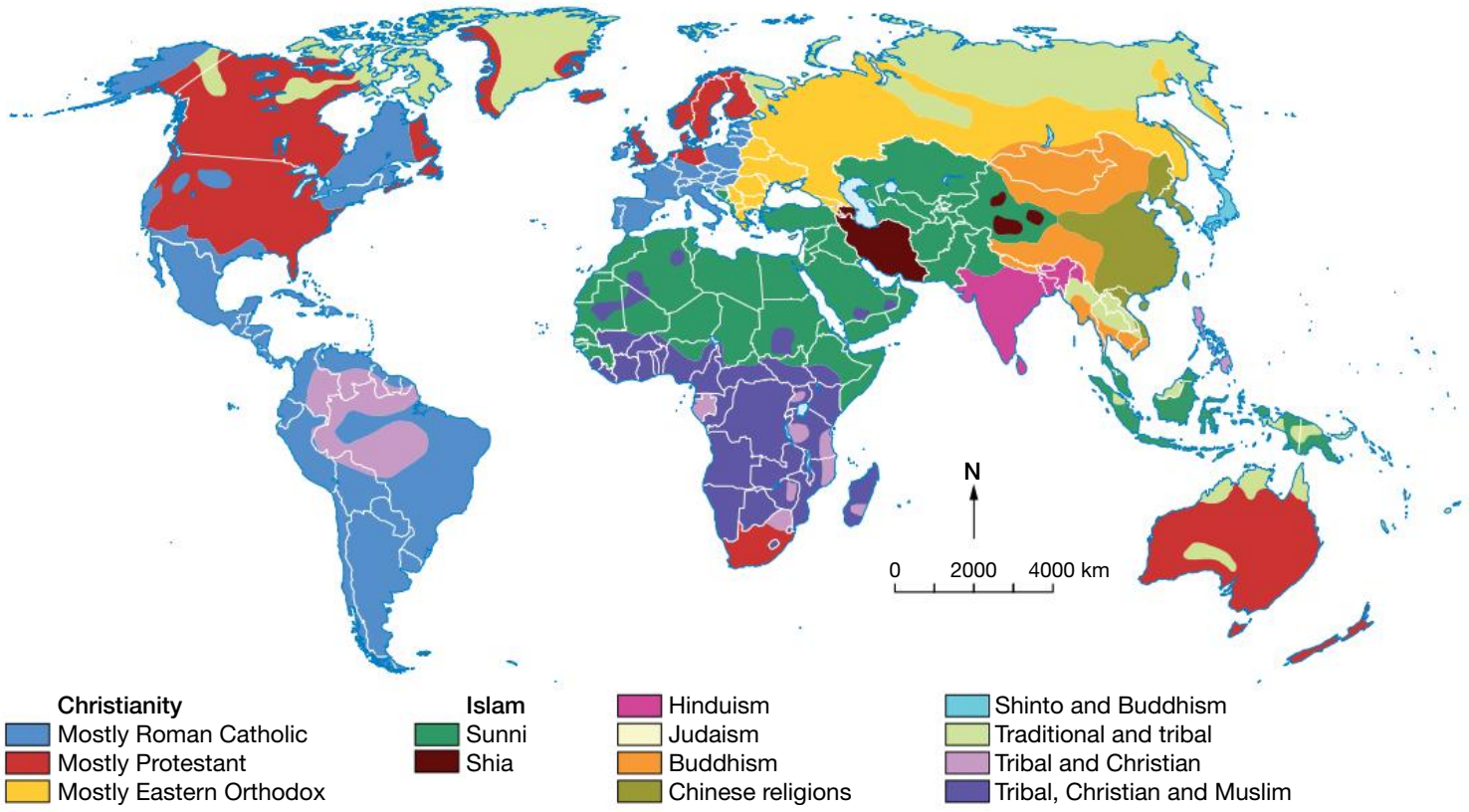
- language
- religion, or religious background
- political system and ideas
- ethnic background
- forms of social organisation
- customs and traditions
- arts and literature
- economic systems.

Together these elements spell out the main features of our culture. However, every person in our society will have a slightly different mix of these characteristics, even though they share the same general culture.

Human geographers are interested in how these aspects of culture differ across the world and how they contribute to a place's uniqueness, its sense of place. They investigate why places are similar, and the ways in which they are different. They want to know where particular elements of culture originated and where they have spread to. Above all, geographers are interested in the ways people adopt, adapt or resist the cultural forces or cultural groups that they come in contact with.

Cultural spread

The spread of cultural characteristics is called **cultural diffusion.** This cultural diffusion can be fast or slow.



Source 6.12.1 Distribution of world religions

Perth	Go for ...
Subiaco	Moroccan
Mount Lawley	Indonesian
Northbridge	Vietnamese
East Victoria Park	Szechuan
Perth CBD	Korean
Fremantle	Nepalese
Hillarys	African
Joondalup	Pakistani

Source 6.12.2 Diverse cuisines found in Perth suburbs, 2015

Religion and political geography

Religion is closely linked to other aspects of culture, such as language and ethnic groups. In many countries it is also closely linked to government. For example, the Queen (or King) of England is still the head of the Church of England (Anglican Church). Throughout history, the Pope (head of the Roman Catholic Church) has been a very powerful political figure. In present-day politics it is common to talk about the 'Islamic world', meaning the area of Asia and Africa where most of the population practise the Islamic (or Muslim) religion.

Global effects of the slave trade

In the 17th, 18th and 19th centuries there was a highly organised system of buying slaves in Africa and taking them to North, South and Central America. There they were traded and used by landowners, particularly on large plantations. The result of this long-running movement of so many people against their will was that between 9 and 12 million Africans arrived in the Americas, and their descendants now make up a large proportion of the US population.

The African–American culture is very strong today in the United States. It is evident in religion, foods, speech patterns, music, particular sports and many other aspects of culture.

Even though slavery was abolished in the middle of the 19th century, prejudice against black Americans remained strong for over 100 years, and profoundly influenced politics and work.

Source 6.12.3 The African–American culture is very strong today in New Orleans in the United States.

Food

People of every cultural and ethnic group have particular foods that they have traditionally eaten. In Europe and North America, wheat and corn are the major grains. In Asia, the main grain is rice. In Africa, corn, millet and sorghum are major grains in different cultural areas.

Roast beef, tofu, falafels, curries, pasta, biltong, hummus are all foods that have originated in particular cultures, often related to particular ethnic groups. As the ethnic groups have spread across the world, they have taken their foods with them. Initially, they consumed those foods only in their own homes, but soon restaurants were set up and the foods became known and liked by others. Over time, many of them have become staple foods of other cultures.

Source 6.12.4 In an ethnic restaurant in Perth. The streetscapes of Australian cities illustrate the cultural diffusion of foods from different cultures.

Sport

Sport is now a global phenomenon. Yet there are still local sports only played in one region, while other sports are confined to particular groups of countries. Many sports, however, have spread from their country of origin and are now played and watched by millions of people. Soccer, football, tennis, golf and basketball are played in many countries. The matches played by the top players are televised across the world and followed closely by millions of interested fans.

Like all aspects of culture, sports spread initially with colonisation and migration; as a result, some sports have a global spread, while others are still localised. People moving to new continents and countries take their sports with them. The opportunities given by television and other media have popularised many sports. Sponsorship by large companies has increased prize money and earnings, and this has meant that many sports have developed from mostly an amateur pastime into a full-time professional occupation.

Australian sporting culture

For many Australians, cultural identity is strongly connected to sport. Playing or following sport is a way of sharing an interest, connecting with like-minded people, and gaining a sense of belonging.

Cricket

Cricket is the best example of a sport spread via colonisation. It is very popular in countries that were once British colonies, but is hardly played at all in most other countries.

Source 6.12.5 An international cricket match between India and Australia, two former British colonies

Movies, television and the internet

Movies and television can sometimes have the effect of teaching people more about their culture and allowing them to identify with it. At other times they can have the directly opposite effect—that of overwhelming a local culture. For example, because so many films and television shows originate in the United States, Australians are exposed to a lot of US language, beliefs and ideas, which in turn influence and have a significant impact on local popular culture. In Australia, movies produced in the United States are consistently the most successful commercially.

The internet has different cultural influences from movies or television. This is because it operates throughout the world in a large number of languages. It also allows individuals anywhere to communicate with each other through social networks. It has been said that it makes knowledge available to more people, and it has even been held responsible for allowing democratic protests to be more successfully organised.

Source 6.12.6 Top 10 grossing films in Australia

Rank	Title	Release date	Box office ($)	Country of origin
1	*Avatar*	2009	115 600 481	USA
2	*Star Wars: The Force Awakens*	2015	93 821 857	USA
3	*Titanic*	1997	57 650 984	USA
4	*The Avengers*	2012	53 250 000	USA
5	*Jurassic World*	2015	52 938 244	USA
6	*Harry Potter and the Deathly Hallows: Part 2*	2011	52 611 276	UK
7	*Shrek 2*	2004	50 388 327	USA
8	*The Lord of the Rings: The Return of the King*	2003	49 370 354	USA/New Zealand
9	*Skyfall*	2012	48 333 519	UK
10	*Crocodile Dundee*	1986	47 707 045	Australia

Source: Screen Australia

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms 'culture' and 'cultural group'. In what ways do people celebrate their culture?
2. Outline how human geographers are interested in culture.
3. State what the term 'cultural diffusion' means.

Applying and analysing

4. Construct a mind map featuring the elements of culture listed.
5. Name some sports you think of as closely related to Australian culture. Answer the same question about the US, Chinese and Brazilian cultures.
6. List the country of origin of the television programs you have watched in the last 24 hours. What proportion of these came from the United States?
7. Make a list of the foods that you have eaten in the last week. How many of them have originated in other countries?
8. Investigate the number and diversity of restaurants in your local area.
9. Identify and then make a list of the main countries that play these sports: cricket, rugby, skiing, baseball, golf and ice hockey. Investigate the origins of each of these sports.
10. Identify the national cultures most strongly related to the following kinds of music: tango, country and western, grand opera, hip hop, jazz, gospel music.

Travel: Expanding personal geographies

Personal geographies

A personal geography is:

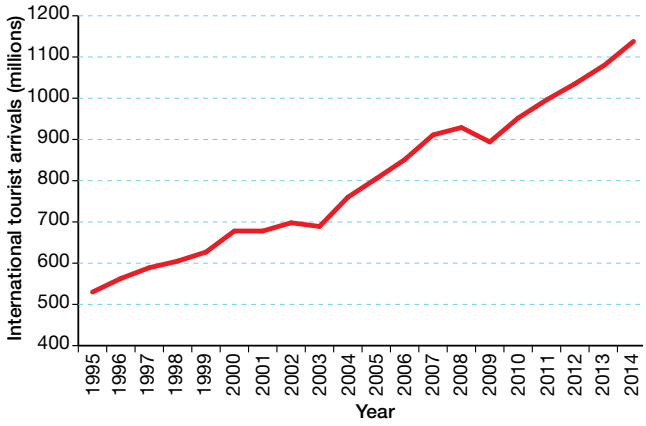
- the idea that the environment (biophysical and constructed) shapes the individual
- the relationship between a person and their environment
- how a person views and sees the world.

This personal geography can be expanded by travel to other countries, cultures and environments. These experiences of travel to different places can change people's views, opinions or interests.

World tourism

Tourism is one of the world's largest service-based industries. In 2012, for the first time in history, more than one billion people (almost one in seven of the world's population) travelled internationally. This is a massive increase on the 25 million people who did so in the years immediately after World War II. Tourism also has a major impact on the character of places. In some popular tourist destinations, tourism is the dominant form of economic activity and is central to their sense of place or character.

While tourism as an industry is a relatively recent development, it is one of the main sources of income for many countries and regions. Mass tourism relies on many people having a combination of leisure time and money to spend on non-basic items. Millions of people in wealthy countries have now travelled widely to other parts of the world. They have visited places that their ancestors could only dream of.



Source 6.13.1 International inbound tourism, 1995–2014

Source: World Tourism Organization

Most visited places

Source 6.13.2 shows the 10 countries that attracted the largest numbers of tourists in 2014. Source 6.13.3 shows the 10 countries whose inhabitants spent the most on international tourist visits.

Source 6.13.2 The world's top tourist destinations, 2014

Rank	Country	International tourist arrivals (million)
1	France	83.7
2	USA	74.8
3	Spain	65.0
4	China	55.6
5	Italy	48.6
6	Turkey	39.8
7	Germany	33.3
8	UK	32.6
9	Russia	29.8
10	Mexico	29.1
-	Australia	7.1

Source: World Tourism Organization

Source 6.13.3 Ten biggest spenders on international tourism, 2014

Rank	Country	Amount spent on international tourism ($ billion)
1	China	164.9
2	USA	110.8
3	Germany	92.2
4	UK	57.6
5	Russia	50.4
6	France	47.8
7	Canada	33.8
8	Italy	28.8
9	Australia	26.3
10	Brazil	11.7

Source: World Tourism Organization

Most visited attractions

Tourism statistics do not differentiate between local and international visitors so it is difficult to know where tourists go within the countries they visit.

Source 6.13.4 Three top tourist destinations in the United States: **a** Times Square, New York City; **b** Disneyland, California; **c** Niagara Falls, New York

Source 6.13.5 The world's most visited attractions, 2014

Rank	Attraction	Number of visitors (millions)
1	Grand Bazaar, Istanbul	91.3
2	Zócalo, Mexico City	85.0
3	Times Square, New York City	50.0
4 (tie)	Central Park, New York, and City Union Station, Washington, D.C.	40.0
6	Las Vegas Strip	30.5
7 (tie)	Sensoji Temple, Tokyo, and Meiji Jingu Shrine, Tokyo	30.0
9	Niagara Falls, New York and Ontario	22.0
10	Grand Central Terminal, New York City	21.6
11	Basilica of Our Lady of Guadalupe, Mexico City	20.0
12	Disney World's Magic Kingdom, Florida	18.6
13	Faneuil Hall Marketplace, Boston	18.0
14	Tokyo Disneyland	17.2
15	Disneyland Park, California	16.2
16	Forbidden City, Beijing	15.3
17	Golden Gate National Recreation Area, San Francisco	14.3
18	Tokyo DisneySea	14.1
19	Notre Dame Cathedral, Paris	14.0
20	Golden Gate Park, San Francisco	13.0

Travel and Leisure magazine, 2014

Did you know?

According to the City of Niagara Falls, approximately 170 000 cubic metres of water pours over the top of Canada's Horseshoe Falls every minute—enough to fill one million bathtubs to the brim in 60 seconds.

Source 6.13.6 Cruising is a form of package tourism.

Modes of travel

The early tourists (before the 20th century) were similar to explorers. They had to organise their own transport, and were subject to the hazards of poor roads, slow horse-drawn vehicles and uncomfortable seagoing vessels. Tourists today can choose from a wide range of transport alternatives, and can expect that all will be relatively fast and comfortable.

The most common forms of transport for tourists are cars (for local and national tourism), jet airliners (for longer distances and international tourism), cruise ships (for ocean and river journeys) and trains (for 'special experience' journeys and travel within Europe).

For the majority of tourists who travel by air, the experience is like being 'teleported' by a magic carpet. It is unlikely that this method of transport helps tourists to expand their personal geographies. On a trip from Australia to Europe they may pass over India, Afghanistan, Russia, Pakistan and a dozen other countries, but at an altitude of 12 000 metres they may as well be in outer space. Nor would tourists aboard cruise ships expand their personal geographies. Tourists may see glimpses of other places on one-day excursions at ports, but for much of the time they are in a luxurious version of their own home environment.

Package tours

Cruise ship travel is an example of what the tourist industry calls a 'package tour'. Package tours are planned well before they take place. The costs of travel, accommodation, meals and entertainment are all paid for before departure. Travel companies, rather than individual travellers, put these packages together. This makes them cheaper, but it means that travellers do not have to do much thinking about their itinerary, the places they visit, or the people who live there.

Issues of tourism

The growth of tourism raises environmental, economic and social issues. The 'honeypot effect', whereby a few popular destinations attract the bulk of the tourism revenues while other places miss out, can also concentrate the negative impacts of tourism.

Environmental issues

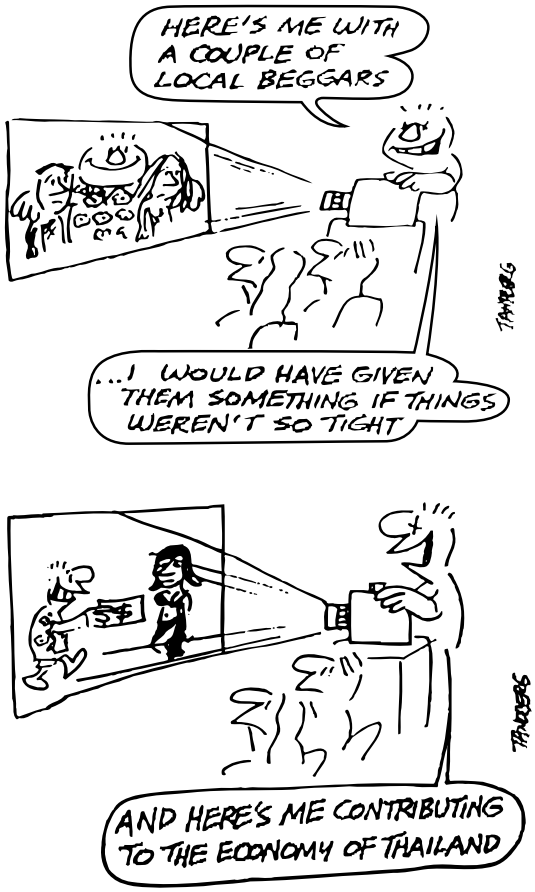
Heavy transport on popular routes can damage roads and produce high levels of pollution. Wasteful tourists can overuse water supplies, and food for tourist consumption may take priority over food for locals.

Economic issues

Tourism brings money into the places tourists visit. Often, however, only a small amount of what is spent goes to local people. Much of it goes to airlines and hotel companies based in other countries.

Social issues

The effects of large numbers of tourists can have negative impacts on the culture and way of life of a people. Longstanding customs can be altered to suit tourists, and locals can become dependent on the money that tourists spend. Scarce resources may also be used to finance tourist infrastructure and developments instead of education and healthcare.



Source 6.13.7 Impacts of tourism

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Describe the term 'personal geography' in your own words.
2 Outline the scale and impacts of the global tourism industry.
3 Explain what is mean by a 'package tour'.
4 Explain in your own words what is meant by the 'honeypot effect' and give examples of tourist destinations that would fit this description.
5 Outline some of the tourism-related issues that might be of interest to geographers

Applying and analysing

6 List the main modes of travel. Which are more likely to expand a person's personal geography?
7 Study Source 6.13.2. With the aid of an atlas describe the location of the top 10 tourist destinations.
8 Study Source 6.13.3.
   a Find out the population of each country and divide the expenditure by the number of people.
   b Rank the countries from the highest to lowest amount of money spent per person.
   c Has the ranking changed? Explain.
9 Study Source 6.13.5. For each place, suggest one or more reasons why it is visited by so many tourists.
10 Study Source 6.13.7. Working in pairs, discuss the tourism-related issues addressed in each cartoon. List the issues you discussed.

Evaluating and creating

11 Use some of the facts, statistics and suggestions in this unit to write a few paragraphs with the title 'How much do modern tourists expand their personal geographies?'

Australia's tourism industry

Tourism

Tourism Australia defines tourism as 'travel away from your normal place of work and residence … for business and pleasure'. The World Tourism Organization defines it as 'the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purposes'. Domestic tourism is travel within a person's own country.

Economic importance

On average, Australia's domestic and international tourists consume more than $113 billion in goods and services each year and the industry accounts for 2.7 per cent of Australia's gross domestic product (GDP). A further 4 per cent of our GDP is indirect revenue from tourism—the flow of benefits, including increased output and employment, that result from tourists consuming goods and services. Tourism is one of Australia's largest service export industries. Tourism is also an important source of employment in Australia. Approximately half a million people are directly employed in tourism-related industries. This represents 4.7 per cent of the workforce.

Inbound tourism

Australia receives, on average, approximately 7.4 million visitors a year. It is predicted that by 2020 there will be 8.4 million visitors per year. The reasons for visiting Australia are varied. Approximately 46 per cent of all visitors in 2011 came here on holidays, 28 per cent were visiting friends and relatives, 11 per cent were on business trips and 6 per cent visited for educational purposes. There has also been an increase in the number of backpackers visiting Australia. This market has become an important source of revenue for the Australian tourism industry.

Traditionally, New Zealand, Europe and North America have been the main sources of inbound tourists in Australia, but there now is a growing number of visitors from South-East Asia. The top source countries for visitor arrivals in 2015 were, in descending order, New Zealand, China, the United Kingdom, the United States and Singapore.

Source 6.14.1 Inbound travel to Australia, top 10 markets, 2015

Country	Total inbound economic value, 2015 ($ billion)	Arrivals, 2015 ('000)
China	5.3	930
United Kingdom	3.6	560
United States	2.6	1186
New Zealand	2.4	529
Japan	1.4	300
South Korea	1.1	200
Singapore	1.1	339
Malaysia	1.0	296
Germany	1.0	166
India	0.7	207
Total inbound	**30.0**	**5874**

Source: ABS

Did you know?

The 'Come and say g'day' or 'Throw another shrimp on the barbie' 1984 TV advertising campaign featuring Paul Hogan and created by the then Australian Tourism Commission was so successful that Australia moved up from number 78 to number 1–2 on the 'Dream vacation list' for Americans in just over three months.

Tourist destinations

Australia's five largest tourism regions are Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Gold Coast and Perth. Together, these regions make up about 47 per cent of total tourism expenditure. Some regions in Australia are highly dependent on the income generated by tourism. These regions are Central Northern Territory (Alice Springs and Uluru), Phillip Island, the Whitsundays, the Snowy Mountains and the west coast of Tasmania. These tourist regions receive only about 3 per cent of Australia's total tourism expenditure.

Source 6.14.2 Perth's Cottesloe Beach is one of the city's most popular spots to visit.

Outbound tourism

More Australians travel overseas today than ever before. Rising standards of living, changing lifestyle expectations and reductions in the real cost of travel have made this possible. The top destinations for Australian residents departing for short-term travel in 2011 were New Zealand, Indonesia (including Bali), the United States, Thailand and the United Kingdom.

Source 6.14.3 Outbound tourists' top 10 destinations, 2014–15

Country	Departures ('000)	Proportion of total (%)
New Zealand	1237.5	13.4
Indonesia (incl. Bali)	1118.7	12.1
United States	980.8	10.6
United Kingdom	552.6	6.0
Thailand	549.5	6.0
China	413.2	4.5
Singapore	361.7	3.9
Fiji	335.5	3.6
India	280.7	3.0
Japan	268.3	2.9
Total	**9221.5**	

Source: ABS

Source 6.14.5 Backpacking is popular among young people wanting to engage in the adventure of international travel on a limited budget.

Backpackers

One of the fastest-growing components of Australia's tourism industry is the backpacker market. Australia is consistently ranked by backpackers as one of the world's top destinations. Each year, Australia is visited by more than 500 000 backpackers, who spend a significant amount of money in the local economy—on average, more than twice as much as other tourists. In the year to 30 June 2013, for example, each backpacker spent an average of $5759 on food, drink, accommodation and education fees during their stay in Australia. Their average expenditure per night was $69.

The Australian Government provides a 'working holiday visa' for young people aged between 18 and 30 from selected places, including the United Kingdom, Canada, Republic of Ireland, most western and northern European countries, Japan and South Korea. New Zealand citizens do not require a visa to work in Australia.

Backpacking is a unique form of travel that focuses on freedom and exploration. Most backpackers do not make specific plans before they reach Australia. They generally prefer to start with very general travel ideas and make more detailed arrangements when they arrive in the country. These travellers use word of mouth and the internet as sources of information. Of all the backpackers who visited Australia in 2011, 76 per cent visited New South Wales, 57 per cent visited Queensland and 45 per cent visited Victoria.

Source 6.14.4 Backpacker visitors by country of residence (year ended 30 June 2013)

Country of residence	Visitors ('000)
United Kingdom	101
Germany	62
United States	40
France	37
Korea	30
New Zealand	30
Japan	29
Scandinavia	28
Taiwan	22
Canada	19
Italy	16
China	15
Malaysia	15
Hong Kong	15
Netherlands	14
Switzerland	14
Singapore	13
Other	79
Total	579

Source: Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism, International Visitor Survey, June 2013

More than 70 per cent of backpackers visiting Australia are under the age of 30. These backpackers tend to spend more time in Australia than those aged over 30. The average length of stay for a backpacker is 70 nights. This is more than twice as long as the average length of stay for all visitors.

Source 6.14.6 International backpackers, average duration of stay and expenditure by country (year ended 30 June 2013)

Country of residence	Average duration of stay (days)	Average expenditure all items ($)
New Zealand	24	2288
Japan	102	6155
Hong Kong	82	5424
Singapore	24	3313
Malaysia	26	3417
Indonesia	39	2315
Taiwan	176	8571
Thailand	90	6555
Korea	141	8331
China	75	8328
India	118	11148
Other Asia	92	10487
United States	54	4769
Canada	69	5439
United Kingdom	85	5837
Germany	83	4809
Scandinavia	65	4783
France	103	6174
Italy	129	7098
Netherlands	65	5009
Switzerland	53	6073
Other Europe	100	7523
Other countries	68	5507

Source: Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism, International Visitor Survey, June 2013

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the term 'tourism'.
2 Outline the importance of tourism to the Australian economy.
3 Identify the main reasons why tourists visit Australia.
4 Explain the meaning of the term 'outbound tourism'. Where do Australians visit when they travel abroad?
5 Outline the importance of the backpacker market to the Australian tourism industry. Provide statistics to support your answer.

Applying and analysing

6 Study Source 6.14.1. Locate these countries on a map of the world. Develop a key to indicate the contribution of each country to inbound tourism in Australia.
7 Select the most effective way to graph the information in Source 6.14.3. Construct the graph. Using the information in your graph, write a report describing the destinations of outbound travellers.
8 Study Source 6.14.4. Name the continent from which the majority of backpackers came.
9 Study Source 6.14.6. Calculate the average expenditure per day for the following countries: New Zealand, Indonesia, China, India, the United States, the United Kingdom and Germany.
10 Study Sources 6.14.4 and 6.14.6. Write a report outlining the nature of the backpacker component of the Australian tourism sector.
11 Update the statistical information provided in this unit by accessing the following websites:
- Australia Bureau of Statistics
- Tourism Australia
- Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism
- Australian Tourism Export Council
- Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (see the 'Australia in Brief' section).

Present your research as a series of graphs.

Evaluating and creating

12 Working in small groups, develop an advertising campaign to promote Australian tourism in our key source markets. Your campaign could include a jingle, a video, a dramatisation or poster. Present your advertising campaign to the class.

Sport

Sport and Australian life

Sport is an important part of the Australian culture and lifestyle. According to the legendary Australian cricketer Sir Donald Bradman, 'Sport is embedded in the fabric of Australian life.' Data collected through the census indicates that one in three Australians aged 15 years and over participates in sports and recreational activities two or more times a week. Australia has a long history of involvement in sport on an international scale. Our passion for sport connects us with the rest of the world in a number of important ways.

Colonial links and international migration

The types of sports played in Australia have changed as our links with other countries have changed. Colonisation and international migration have influenced the types of sports played in Australia. Many popular Australian sports (such as cricket, rugby league, rugby union and tennis) originated in the United Kingdom and spread to Britain's colonies, including Australia, as a result of migration. Events such as the Olympics have also introduced new sports to Australia.

Source 6.15.1 The Matildas, Australia's national women's soccer team

Hosting international events

Australia has world-class sporting facilities and an excellent reputation for the successful hosting of international sporting events. The largest event was the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. Other important sporting competitions hosted by Australia include the Commonwealth Games, Rugby World Cup, Australian Open (golf and tennis), Australian Formula 1 Grand Prix, Cricket World Cup, World Short Course Swimming Titles and Rip Curl Pro Surfing Titles at Bells Beach.

Sydney Olympics

In September 2000, athletes from 200 countries converged upon Sydney to compete in over 300 events. The Games also served as a magnet for domestic and international tourism, attracting more than 110 000 international visitors over the 17 days of competition. In total, more than 5.5 million people attended Sydney Olympic Park across the Olympic and Paralympic Games. The Sydney Olympics exposed Australians to a diversity of global cultures as well as giving many people from overseas the opportunity to experience Australian culture.

By the end of the Games, Australia had won a record 58 medals (including 16 gold), as well as 149 medals (including 63 gold) at the Paralympic Games. Our athletes won gold in archery, athletics, beach volleyball, cycling, equestrian, hockey, sailing, shooting, swimming, taekwondo and water polo.

International participation

Australia actively promotes sporting cooperation and knowledge/resource sharing between countries. The International Section of the Australian Sports Commission operates a number of community sports development programs in the Pacific, southern Africa and the Caribbean. These programs provide foreign athletes and sporting organisations with access to Australian sporting services, facilities and expertise.

Despite Australia's relatively small population, it consistently produces world champion teams and elite athletes in a number of sports. Our athletes and teams travel widely to compete in international sporting competitions, such as the Davis Cup, the Tour de France, the US PGA Golf Tour and the Association of Surfing Professionals tour.

TNCs and international branding

The growth of transnational corporations (TNCs) and the international branding and marketing of sport has had a significant impact on the types of sports played in Australia. American sports, such as baseball and basketball, have become increasingly popular in Australia as a result of the marketing efforts of global media corporations and TNCs in the textiles, clothing and sportswear industries. The branded stars of the US NBA (National Basketball Association) are everywhere. Their faces are found in television and magazine advertisements for sportswear companies (such as Nike and Reebok), on billboards, on breakfast cereal packaging and in Hollywood movies. Australian teenagers are not only playing these sports but also collecting branded clothing and accessories in the colours and logos of their favourite American baseball, basketball and football teams.

Source 6.15.2 Freestyle Moto X final at the X Games XII

Extreme sports

A recent trend on the Australian sporting scene has been the increase in popularity of extreme sports. 'Extreme sports' is a term used to describe a broad range of non-traditional adrenaline-based activities. Examples of these sports are wakeboarding, kite surfing, aerial freestyle BMX, snowboarding, downhill skateboard racing, whitewater rafting, mountain biking, motocross, waterskiing and mountain boarding. Some extreme sport events are the X Games in the United States and the Planet X summer and winter games in Australia. The growing popularity of these sports is reflected in the International Olympic Committee's decision to include BMX racing at the 2008 Beijing Games.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Explain how colonisation and international migration have influenced the types of sports played in Australia. Provide examples to support your response.
2. Outline how the Australian Sports Commission promotes increased cooperation and resource sharing between countries.
3. Explain how the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games demonstrated Australia's sporting links with the rest of the world.

Applying and analysing

4. Explain how the growth of transnational corporations and international sports marketing has influenced the range of sports played in Australia.
5. Undertake research to find out which international sporting events Australia has hosted, as well as those we have participated in overseas, in the past 12 months. Present this information in a table. Undertake research to find out about the origins of each of these competitions.
6. Select an Australian sport that is of interest to you. Undertake research to find out more about the origins of this sport. Include the following information in your response.
   - When and where was this sport first played?
   - When and how was the sport introduced to Australia?
   - How have the rules been adapted to suit an Australian context?

Evaluating and creating

7. In small groups, evaluate the importance of sport to Australia's culture. Record your responses and share your group's findings with the rest of the class.

Sporting events and places

Hosting a major event

The hosting of major sporting events is sought after by cities and countries because of the international attention such events attract. Authorities hope that the international coverage of the event and the increase in the number of visitors will have a range of economic benefits. Authorities hope that these benefits will enhance the prestige of the city or country.

Car races

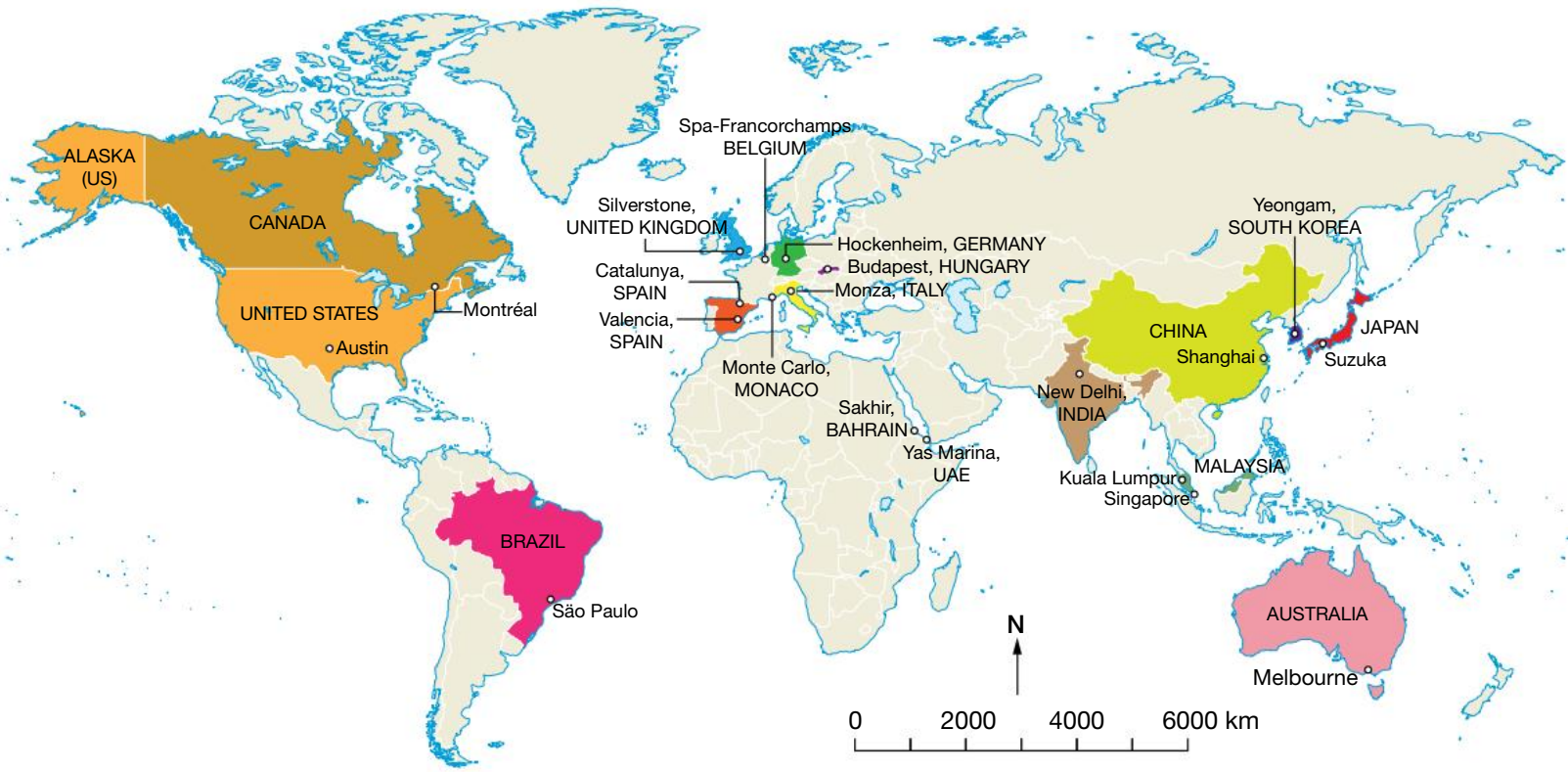
On a world scale, the Formula 1 Grand Prix races are the biggest of the many types of car races. It is estimated that each of the 17 races attracts 200 000 spectators, with a combined annual total exceeding three million. Many millions more watch on television.

There is always competition among countries and cities to host these events, even though they can be costly to stage, disrupt the routines of citizens and cause congestion, especially if they are street circuits. The host cities hope to gain from the money spent by the fans, the race teams and their support crew.

Other car races, although they do not involve as much money, can still have major impact on cities, which compete to host them. Bathurst, for example, attracts thousands of people every October for its saloon car racing at the Bathurst 1000. Adelaide, when it lost the Australian Grand Prix to Melbourne, was successful in a bid to host a weekend of saloon car racing every March. Community response to the race has been very divided, because the race is through city streets and creates congestion. The Gold Coast 600 is also divisive because it is held on the streets of Surfers Paradise.

Cycle races

The most prestigious cycle race on a world scale is the Tour de France—a series of 21 race stages held over three weeks in many different regions of France. It has a huge following. Large support teams, tens of thousands of spectators and a large media contingent follow the race as it progresses through France. Millions watch on television. The Tour de France finishes on the Avenue des Champs-Elysées, Paris. The Giro d'Italia and the Tour of Britain are similar but less prestigious events.



Source 6.16.1 Locations of Formula 1 races, 2013

Source 6.16.2 The Tour de France

Australia has copied the European cycling race format with the Tour Down Under, which has been held every January since 1999 in the area around Adelaide. For this event, country towns and suburbs of Adelaide seek to host starts, finishes or special events, hoping to attract visitors, money and prestige to their area.

Olympic Games

The world's best-known sporting event is the summer Olympic Games, held every four years. The right to host this event is awarded to the city that has submitted the best bid. The city then has seven years to prepare for the Games. Because the Olympics feature so many sporting events, a range of venues need to be built. Other major aspects of the undertaking include the coordination of sporting organisations and the building of the infrastructure needed to support large numbers of spectators.

Source 6.16.3 Tokyo's planned National Olympic Stadium, designed by Kengo Kuma, will be the main venue for the 2020 Olympic Games.

Until the 1980s, the Olympics were often run at a loss because of the huge costs involved in staging them. Since 1996, however, sponsorship deals have reduced the financial risk to the host city. The number of cities bidding to host the Olympics has risen in recent years.

Cities in recent years have used the Olympics to revive rundown urban areas. The site of the Olympics in 2012 was a rundown area of London's East End. The games revitalised the area. New train stations, huge shopping centres and new housing estates were built, in addition to the stadium, swimming centre and other sporting facilities.

The cities and nations hosting the Olympics hope to gain short- and long-term benefits from them. Both Beijing (2008) and Rio de Janeiro (2016) wanted to show that they were world cities. All cities hope to attract more tourists in both the short term and long term. Yet for three years after the Sydney Olympic Games (2000) tourist numbers actually fell. Fewer tourists visited Beijing over the whole of 2008 than in non-Olympic years, and tourist numbers in Athens dropped by 10 per cent when it hosted the Olympics in 2004, possibly due to fears of overcrowding.

Source 6.16.4 Key economic benefits and costs of the Olympic Games

	Benefits	Costs
Pre-Games phase	Tourism Construction activity	Investment expenditure Preparatory operational costs (including bid costs) Lost benefits from displaced projects
Games phase	Tourism Stadiums and infrastructure Olympics jobs Revenues from Games (tickets, TV rights, sponsorship, etc.)	Operational expenditure associated with Games Congestion Lost benefits from displaced projects
Post-Games phase	Tourism Stadiums and infrastructure Human capital Urban regeneration (renewal) Enhanced international reputation	Maintenance of stadiums and infrastructure Lost benefits from displaced projects

Source: PricewaterhouseCoopers, European Economic Outlook, June 2004

The overall economic effects of hosting the Olympics are difficult to determine. Cities hosting recent Games have aimed to break even on basic costs, and make profits from visitors spending money on non-Olympics-related purchases. The Sydney Olympics in 2000 added one per cent to Australia's GDP, a fairly modest boost. Sydney clothing shops, cafes and restaurants did well, but retail sales declined sharply in the months after the Olympics. There have been long-term benefits in terms of urban renewal and better environmental quality, however. Sydney had a policy of 'greening' the Games, which led to better waste disposal and lower energy use. Both Athens and Beijing tried to improve the quality of their air, and London tried to make its Olympics carbon neutral by offsetting the production of carbon. There are costs and benefits of hosting the Olympic Games.

World championships and cups

There are world and regional championships in almost every sport, hosted by different cities in rotation. Some of these are relatively small, but others have a large economic and social impact. The largest of these is the soccer World Cup. This is held every four years, and is hosted by a different country each time. The matches are spread over a number of cities in the country, but this means that they each need a world-class stadium. The cost of preparing for this event is huge. The amount of money involved also opens the way for corruption. In recent years, senior figures in world soccer have been suspended and faced charges of criminal misuse of funds in the process of awarding hosting rights.

Brazil

Brazil spent $14 billion on the World Cup in 2014, and recovered only an estimated one-tenth of this.

Brazil did, however, gain a set of high-quality stadiums, upgraded airports and better transport systems, and was the focus of the world's attention.

In the lead-up to the World Cup there were riots in the streets. Many people were angry at the money Brazil's government was spending on sports stadiums and facilities while infrastructure and services deteriorated elsewhere. The catalyst for the riots was increases in public transport fares.

Source 6.16.5 Riots and demonstrations in Rio de Janeiro against the cost of staging the 2014 Soccer World Cup and the 2016 Summer Olympic Games

Golf in Japan

The game of golf in Japan is an example of how one sport can influence a whole country and the wider world. Golf is one of the most popular sports in Japan, but because of the facilities needed to play the game it is very expensive. The number of golf courses has risen from 72 in 1956 to over 2500 today. Golf courses occupy a lot of land, and Japan is a small country, of which only one-quarter is flat enough for settlement and industry. As a result, golf courses have had to be built in mountainous areas.

Building golf courses in the mountains has led to environmental problems. Forests containing valuable timber have been cut down. Rainfall then runs off fairways and greens into rivers, causing flooding. Tonnes of pesticides and herbicides are used on the golf courses, and these are washed into waterways. The scarcity of land and other problems associated with constructing golf courses have led to Japanese companies building courses in other Asian countries. As a result, golf-related tourism has become an important feature of Japanese leisure time.

Source 6.16.6 Due to land shortages, many Japanese golf courses are constructed in mountainous areas.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain why major sporting events are so keenly sought after by cities.

2 Outline why playing golf in Japan is very expensive.

Applying and analysing

3 Research how a city or country is preparing for the next Olympic Games (summer or winter), or the next World Cup in soccer, cricket or rugby.
Find out the following information:
- building preparations
- transport and accommodation
- special features they are promoting
- opposition and criticism to the sporting event.

Evaluating and creating

4 Prepare a case for or against the following proposition:
'Hosting the Olympic Games is worth more to a city than monetary profit or loss.'

5 Think about the effects that an important sporting event would have on your town or city.
- **a** Suggest some events that would fit the size of your town or city, and then suggest preparations that would have to be made.
- **b** Which people would be affected the most?
- **c** What benefits would you consider to be most valuable to your town or city?

Inquiry tasks

Global futures

Working in groups, consider each of the following questions. One student should act as a recorder.

1 a What are your predictions for the future uses of the internet? Expand on each of the following areas with your own ideas:
   - playing games
   - accessing information
   - social networking
   - getting a job
   - buying goods
   - getting medical information.

   b Divide your ideas into those that you consider to be desirable/good and those that you consider to be undesirable/bad.

2 a What are your predictions for the future of world transport? Expand on each of the following areas with your own ideas:
   - air transport
   - private cars
   - urban transport—buses/trams/light rail.

   b Divide your ideas into those that you consider to be desirable/good and those that you consider to be undesirable/bad.

3 a What are your predictions for the future of large sporting events? Expand on each of the following with your own ideas:
   - Olympic Games—Where? What size? Which sports? What costs?
   - World Cups
   - Championship series, for example, Grand Prix.

   b Divide your ideas into those that you consider to be desirable/good and those that you consider to be undesirable/bad.

4 Compare your responses for Questions 1–7 with other groups in the class. What common themes emerge? What differences are there between the groups?

5 Use the knowledge gained from this activity to debate the topic: 'On balance the future is something to look forward to.'

Places to visit, find out about and investigate

Many people have compiled lists of 'Seven wonders of the world' in response to the original list of Seven Wonders of the World from ancient times. Only one structure from the original list is still standing—the Great Pyramid of Giza.

Source 6.17.1 The Great Pyramid of Giza is the only one of the original Seven Wonders of the World still standing.

Create your own list of 'Seven wonders of the modern world'. For each place, include:

- a map showing the location
- information about the destination
- images from the destination
- reasons why you think it is a 'modern wonder'.

Your places may be either natural or human-made.

Technology uptake

Kenya is a less developed country where many people survive on less than $2 a day. Yet 93 per cent of Kenyans are mobile phone users and 73 per cent use the mobile money service M-PESA (M for mobile and PESA, Swahili for money) instead of using a bank account.

Investigate the use of technology in other less developed countries, such as those in South-East Asia or South America. For example, research internet or mobile phone usage (you can use an atlas to find details about telecommunications). What are some of the differences between the uptake of technology in more developed and less developed countries?

Is elite sport global?

Forty per cent of all the nations in the world have never won a gold medal at any Olympic Games. Working in pairs, your task is to explore the notion that 'hosting elite sport is open to all nations'. To do this, you and your partner should conduct research in order to create a table that shows the year, city and host nation of each Olympic Games (summer and winter) since 1896. Your table should also include information about hemisphere, GDP per capita (using modern and not historical values) and the official language of the host country.

Once your table is finished, consider these questions.

- How many nations in the world today have a GDP per capita lower than the lowest host nation GDP?
- Which areas in the world are under-represented?
- Is there evidence of cultural dominance in the most common languages spoken among Olympic host nations?

GLOSSARY

cultural diffusion the spread of cultural characteristics from one place to another

e-commerce purchases and other business and private transactions that are conducted online using the internet

globalisation the merging of local economies and cultures into a single, more uniform worldwide economy and culture

mental map a representation of what people know about the locations and characteristics of places at a variety of scales

perception the identification and interpretation of sensory information in order to represent and understand the environment

place specific areas of the earth's surface that have been given meanings, or which have been shaped by people

place identity the linking of aspects of identity with place

place making the social and physical construction of places

place perception people's awareness of places and the particular opinions they have about them

sense of place the characteristics that make a place special or unique, as well as those that contribute a sense of human attachment and belonging

social media communication technologies through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages and other forms of content (e.g. videos)

social space a physical or virtual space, such as a skate park or online social media, or other gathering place where people meet and interact with others

space the three-dimensional realm or expanse in which all material objects are located and all events occur

territoriality the attachment of individuals or groups to a specific location

virtual community a community of people sharing common interests, ideas and feelings over the internet or using other collaborative techniques

virtual space an artificial space, created by a computer or other form of technology, in which people can interact while at a distance

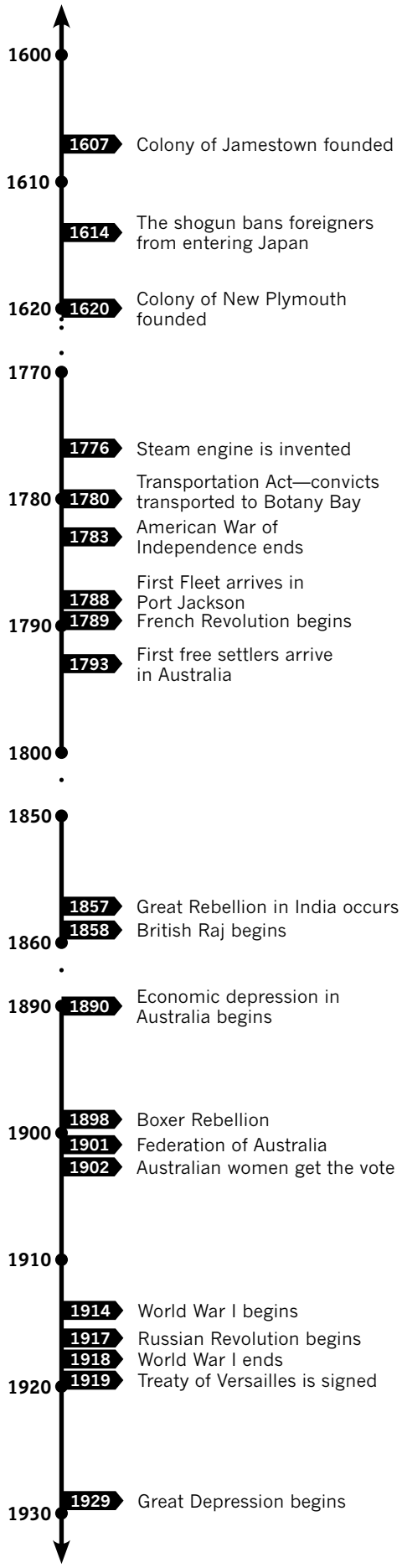
POLAIRE
ARCTIQUE
AMERIQUE SEPTENTRIONALE
LABRADOR
CANADA
ÉTATS-UNIS
LOUISIANE
OCÉAN ATLANTIQUE OCCIDENTAL
TROPIQUE DU CANCER
BARBARIE
SHARA OU DÉSERT DE BARBARIE
AFRIQUE
EQUATEUR
AMERIQUE MÉRIDIONALE
TROPIQUE DU CAPRICORNE
PACIFIQUE
Départ de Brest 2 Août 1785
1 Juillet 1786
1 Sept. 1786
1 Nov. 1786
1 Juin 1786
1 Oct. 1786
1 Mai 1786
1 Avril 1786
1 Mars 1786
1 Janv. 1786
1 Fevr. 1786
LA BOUSSOLE
CHARGÉ PAR LE ROY LOUIS XVI, EN 1785, D'UNE EXPLORATION DU PACIFIQUE,
CETTE EXPÉDITION FIT NAUFRAGE EN 1788 SUR LES ROCHERS DE VANIKORO.

CHAPTER 7

Overview: Making of the modern world

Important scientific discoveries in the 18th century laid the foundation for the **Industrial Revolution**, which began in England and lasted until the start of the 20th century. During the Industrial Revolution mass manufacturing began. This meant that items could now be mass-produced by people paid to perform simple but repetitive tasks. By the 19th century, huge factories had been established across Europe, and new towns and cities had grown. Technological improvements in shipping transport and weaponry led to expansion of European empires throughout the world. The establishment of European colonies in North America and Australia soon led to the beginning of a mass movement of people. This included business venturers, religious groups, slaves, convicts, army officers and free settlers looking for new opportunities in the New World.

Source 7.0.1 In the 18th century, the world moved towards a new 'modern' era.



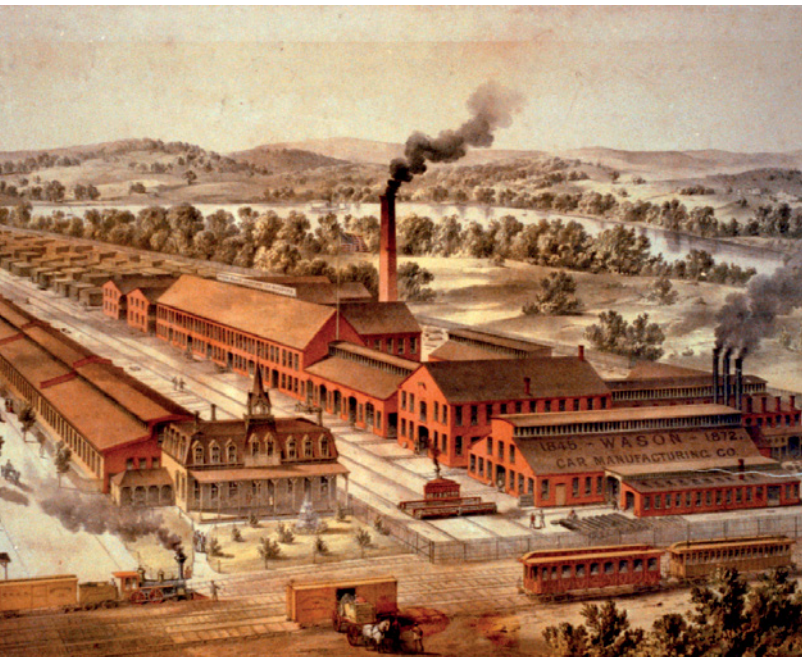
Source 7.0.2 Timeline of the making of the modern world

UNIT 7.1

The Industrial Revolution

Origins of the Industrial Revolution

The Enlightenment of the 18th century inspired advances in science and technology. Important discoveries included electricity in 1752 and the **spinning jenny** in 1764. The invention of the spinning jenny by James Hargreaves meant that one worker in a cotton mill could operate several spools of cotton at once rather than just one. This was one of the earliest examples of **mass production**, which would become a major feature of the Industrial Revolution. New technologies led to the emergence of the first factories, which were huge cotton mills supplied with raw cotton from Britain's North American and Caribbean colonies. By the start of the 19th century these cotton mills were powered by steam engines. Invented by James Watt in 1776, the steam engine was a symbol of the Industrial Revolution. Overall, this period saw European society evolve from an agricultural economy to one dominated by the manufacture of goods.



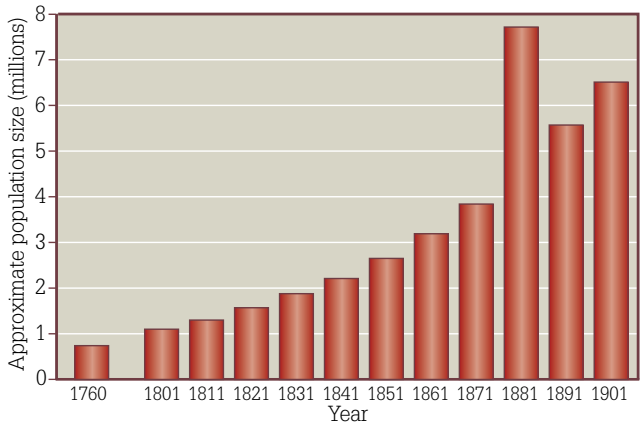
Source 7.1.1 A 19th-century factory, 1872, Library of Congress

Living and working conditions

Growth of cities

During the Industrial Revolution people from rural areas flocked to the cities in search of factory work. This mass movement of people is called **rural–urban migration**. Factory work was hard but it guaranteed a regular income. With the decline of traditional cottage industries due to competition from big factories, many rural workers ended up as unskilled labourers in English cities such as Liverpool, Leeds and Manchester.

The fastest growing city during the Industrial Age was London. By the 19th century it was the world's largest city. Overcrowded and unhygienic, the city became home to an enormous working class who received wages that were barely enough to survive on.



Source 7.1.2 Population growth of London during the Industrial Revolution

Living conditions

People were forced to live in crammed **tenement** blocks close to the factories where they worked. These were often damp, poorly ventilated and freezing in winter. Privacy was virtually impossible, as several families occupied just one house. Very few toilets and a lack of sewerage created an unhygienic living environment, which bred diseases such as typhus and cholera.

Source 7.1.3 'The Poor of Whitechapel', an etching showing the slums of London during the Industrial Revolution

Did you know?

During the Industrial Revolution girls in Britain worked as harriers in coalmines. It was the harrier's job to carry the coal to the surface. They did this by pulling a cart, using a chain secured around their waist. This did permanent damage to a girl's pelvic bone and led to difficulties in childbirth, which often resulted in death for both the mother and infant.

Working conditions

Factory conditions were dangerous and the working day could be 12 to 14 hours long. Rules about the safe use of machinery were non-existent, resulting in high rates of injury and death. It was not uncommon for factories to employ children as young as seven or eight to perform tasks requiring small hands and nimble fingers.

With the growth in the number of steam engines in Britain, the demand for coal also grew. Coalmines could be as deep as 2 kilometres underground. With little more than a pick and a candle, miners could spend up to 12 hours a day **hewing** coal. Children as young as five were often used to open and close mineshaft doors.

Source 7.1.4 Boy coalminers, 1911, Library of Congress

Source 7.1.5 Australian workers grading wool, pre-1890s

Impacts on Australia

Convict transportation

London's overpopulation, high unemployment and poor living conditions meant that crime was a regular occurrence. The most common crime was theft and the most common items stolen were basic foodstuffs such as bread. With prisons already overcrowded, the British Parliament introduced laws allowing for the transportation of convicts to the American colonies. This lasted until 1776, when American colonists declared their independence from British rule. With the introduction of a new Transportation Act in 1780, other destinations were opened, among them Botany Bay, Australia. In 1788, a fleet carrying 759 convicts was sent there to establish a **penal colony** on the other side of the world.

Growth of a working class

In Australia, a labour shortage during the period of the **'long boom'** from 1850 to 1890 resulted in relatively high wages and good working conditions, as there were more workers required than were available. Skilled workers were paid especially well and formed trade unions to protect their wages and conditions. Fearing that cheap foreign workers might be used to replace them, Australian workers were at the forefront of calls for a ban on non-White immigration.

During the 'long boom' Australia earned the reputation as a 'working man's paradise', since Australian workers worked fewer hours, were paid more and lived longer than those in Britain. In 1890, however, an **economic depression** began, leading to business closures and rising unemployment. The failure of a series of 'Great Strikes' at this time showed that strike action alone was not enough to protect higher wages and better conditions. In response to the failure of strike action, workers began to form trade unions.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Where and when did the Industrial Revolution begin?
2 Name two important technological discoveries that contributed to the Industrial Revolution.
3 Define the term 'rural–urban migration'.

Applying and analysing

4 Explain the long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution on Australia.

Evaluating and creating

5 Create a concept map showing the positive and negative consequences of the Industrial Revolution.

Source 7.1.6 Trade union commemorative certificate, State Library of New South Wales

SYDNEY
EIGHT.
HOURS.
AND
ADVANCE AUSTRALIA
Labor Demonstration Committee,
Certificate of Honour
Presented to
WICKER, PITHCANE
& BAMBOO WORKERS UNION
In Commemoration and Appreciation of their Splendid Achievement in obtaining FIRST PLACE among the UNIONS of less than 500 Members, who comprised the FOURTH SECTION of LIFT COMPETITION at Sydney Trades Hall 1924.
John H. Mostyn President
Arthur W. Yager Secretary
Jan. 23rd. 1925.
LABOR
REST
RECREATION
ESTAB. 1855.

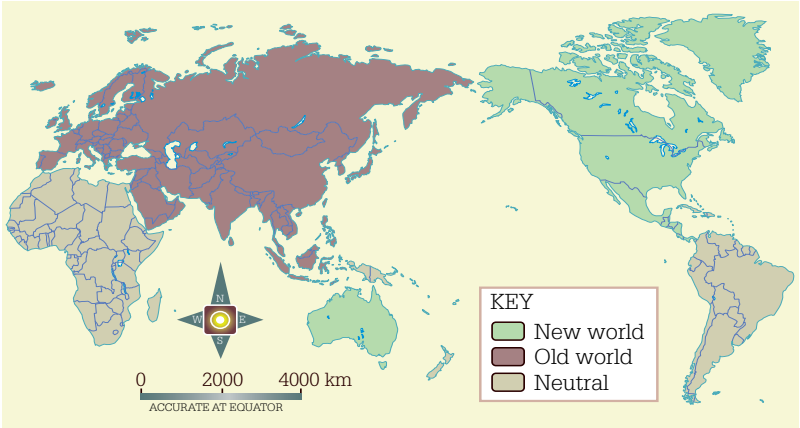
UNIT 7.2

Movement of peoples

Discovery of the New World

With the discovery of the Americas by Italian explorer Christopher Columbus in 1492, a 'New World' was revealed to Europeans. There was nothing new, however, about the world that had been inhabited by other peoples for thousands of years prior to the arrival of Europeans. Tribal groups in North and South America, and in Australia, are therefore sometimes referred to as the First Nations of those continents.

James Cook's exploration of the east coast of Australia in 1770 extended the reach of the British Empire well into the Southern Hemisphere. In 1788, a British penal settlement at Sydney Cove became part of the emerging New World.



Source 7.2.1 'Old' and 'New' Worlds in the 18th century

Voluntary migration

First American colonies

The first English colony on the east coast of North America was established at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607. It began as a business venture by King James I of England, under the direction of the Virginia Company of London. The first English settlers of North America were investors in the company, all keen to make their fortune.

In 1620, a second English colony was established further north at New Plymouth. This was settled by a group of Puritans, a Christian sect who wanted to establish a new society where they could freely express their religious beliefs. One of their leaders, John Winthrop, declared that their settlement would be a 'city upon a hill', which would set an example to the rest of the world.

Free settlers to Australia

The first free settlers to Australia arrived in Sydney on board the *Bellona* on 16 January 1793. They were

Source 7.2.2
Puritans leaving for the New World

five single men and two families wealthy enough to afford the long voyage from England. Early free settlers were given free land grants of 30 acres (12 hectares) for single men, with an extra 20 acres (8 hectares) if they were married and 10 more acres (4 hectares) if they had children. Free convict labour was also provided to help clear and cultivate their new land.

The westward spread of settlement beyond the Blue Mountains led to better quality farmland becoming available. As a result more and more free settlers from England began arriving after the 1820s. To help pay for the long sea voyage, the British Government introduced the Assisted Passage Scheme to help new settlers with some of the costs.

Involuntary movement

Slaves

The transatlantic slave trade was a three-way, or triangular, trade that relied on the capture of African slaves. These slaves were then transported in overcrowded hulks to the Caribbean colonies, and later to North America, where they were sold to plantation owners. On the plantations, slaves harvested products that were in turn exported to Europe, creating a triangular movement of people and goods.

Although the number of slaves captured and transported from Africa will never be known, it is estimated that a total of between 9 and 12 million were sent to the Americas. By 1860, the population of slaves and ex-slaves in North America alone was 2 136 763, or 14.4 per cent of the total population.

Convicts

On board 11 ships of the First Fleet were 1332 people, 736 of whom were convicts, 23 of whom died before the ships arrived in Sydney Cove on 18 January 1788. Approximately 60 per cent of convicts on the First Fleet had been sentenced for stealing food. Many escaped being hanged and were sentenced to seven years transportation instead. Many others had less than seven years of their sentence left to serve but were transported regardless. The youngest convict on board the First Fleet was nine-year-old orphan John Hudson, who had been transported for theft.

The voyage of the Second Fleet was a disaster compared to the First Fleet: 258 of the estimated 1250 convicts died during the voyage. The arrival of the last ship in the Second Fleet on 28 June 1790 also meant that the struggling settlement in New South Wales had an extra 759 mouths to feed.

Source 7.2.3 Recruits from the New Hebrides bound for Queensland, 1895, National Library of Australia

Blackbirding

Although slavery was formally abolished throughout the British Empire in 1833, the practice of **blackbirding** continued in Australia for several decades. Blackbirding was human trafficking of indentured labourers from the South Pacific Islands through deception or even kidnapping. Between 1863 and 1904, it is estimated that about 60 000 South Pacific Islanders were brought to Australia to work on the sugarcane fields. Many of these workers returned to their islands when their three-year contract expired. By 1901 there were only 10 000 people of South Pacific Island origin living in Queensland.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What does the term 'New World' refer to?
2. Where and when were the first New World colonies established?
3. Outline the reasons why different people first went to North America.

Applying and analysing

4. Why is the term 'New World' problematic?

Evaluating and creating

5. a Create a timeline titled 'Movement of peoples' giving dates and events that show voluntary and involuntary migration.
   b Conduct some research on the internet to annotate at least three significant events on your timeline. Justify your choice of events.

UNIT 7.3

European imperialism

Imperialism and colonisation

The 17th century saw the beginning of the Age of Imperialism, during which European powers extended their control over many other parts of the world. Imperialism is the expansion of territory by powerful nations, often achieved through invasion and **colonisation**. Colonisation is a direct form of imperialism—ownership of an area is taken away from indigenous people and claimed by others.

'Divide and conquer'

The growth of European empires could not have occurred without the crushing of indigenous resistance. To avoid large-scale opposition to their rule, the British adopted a strategy known as 'divide and conquer'. This relied on exploiting existing rivalries between different native groups and allowed the British to deal with each group separately. One group was often favoured above the others and received privileges, money and weapons for their loyalty to the British Empire.

Source 7.3.1 Transporting goods from a British tea ship, London dockyards, *Illustrated London News*, 8 December 1877

Reasons for European imperialism

Trade and wealth

By taking over new territories with vast untouched lands, Europeans hoped to acquire raw materials such as silver and gold. By the 19th century, imperialism had become big business for European powers. India, known as the 'jewel in the crown' of the British Empire, was administered for 100 years by a large business enterprise called the British East India Company. Its main items of trade were tea, cotton, silk, indigo colour dye, opium, porcelain and potassium nitrate (needed for gunpowder). The Portuguese, Dutch and French had similar business monopolies that also carried the name 'East India Company'.

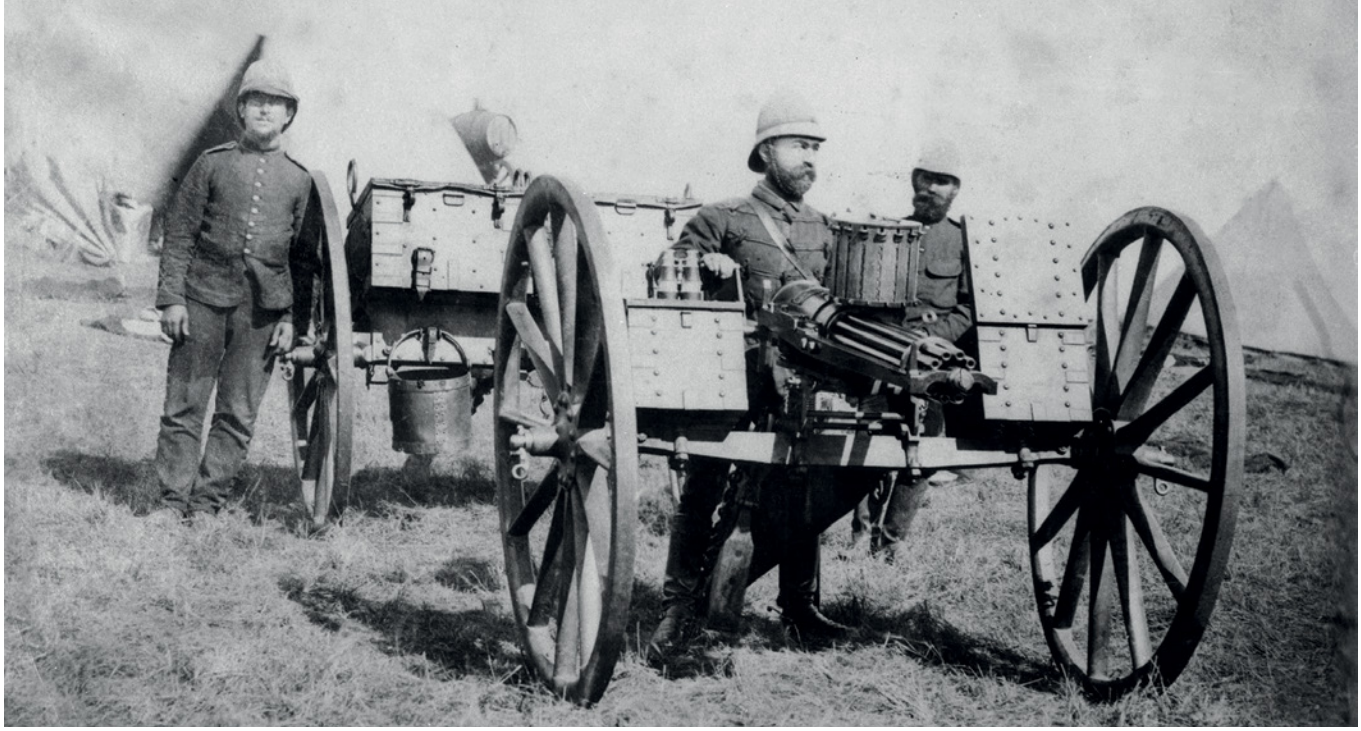
Technological superiority

Before 1750, most European powers fought wars among themselves rather than against countries outside Europe. With the exception of the Spanish and the Portuguese, it was not until the 18th century that Europeans began conquering other peoples. Europeans had better naval technology and had also developed superior weaponry such as the Gatling gun, a rapid-fire weapon. Inventions such as the Gatling gun gave rise to a saying in Britain that 'the spear is no match for the gun'.

The development of steam-powered battleships also provided Europeans with faster transport, tighter manoeuvrability and more accurate fire at sea. These were often used as part of a strategy known as 'gunboat diplomacy'. State-of-the-art warships capable of hitting a target several kilometres away easily intimidated local rulers into giving in to European demands.

Spreading God's message

In the 18th and 19th centuries, the Christian Church supported the growth of European empires since it provided new opportunities to convert 'heathens' to



Source 7.3.2 Gatling gun used by British troops during the Zulu War, 1879

the Christian faith. With the establishment of new colonies, Christian **missionaries** were never far behind the first European settlers.

While some indigenous people converted to Christianity, others fought to protect their traditional customs and beliefs. Christian missionaries were among the first Europeans to call for an end to the slave trade.

Source 7.3.3 A Catholic missionary preaching to Native Americans, artist unknown, 17th century, Philadelphia, United States, David David Gallery

A 'civilising duty'

Many Europeans felt that it was their duty to help civilise 'backward' parts of the world. This belief was referred to at the time as the 'White man's burden'. In some parts of the world this led to the establishment of schools and hospitals to improve the living standards of colonised people. However, many non-Europeans were taught to reject traditional customs and beliefs that did not fit with the values of the Victorian era. An example of this was the widespread insistence that indigenous people wear European-style clothes to cover their bodies.

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

Source 7.3.4 Excerpt from Rudyard Kipling's poem 'The White Man's Burden', 1899

Imperial rivalry

A large empire was a source of great national pride. Each European power was determined that it should not be left behind in the race to build an empire. Spain and Portugal had attempted to divide the non-Christian world between themselves in 1494. In 1870, imperial rivalry led to the 'scramble for Africa', in which the entire African continent was divided between the European powers. Similar **spheres of influence** were also agreed on in Asia.

Source 7.3.5 A German and a French official decide on the border between the French and German Congo, *Le Petit Journal*, 1913.

Asian responses to European imperialism

China's Canton system

In 1757, to stop the spread of foreign influence in China, the emperor restricted all foreign ships to just one port in the south, Canton. Each trading nation was permitted one factory in Canton, and all European merchants and sailors were forced to remain there while on shore. To avoid contact between Europeans and Chinese, all business dealings had to be conducted through one of 13 Hong merchants. If they broke these rules, European traders were subjected to severe punishments.

Japan's 'closed country' policy

Beginning in 1614, Japan closed its doors to all foreigners for over 250 years. This 'closed country' policy also banned Japanese citizens from building boats capable of sailing in the open seas. So that the Japanese rulers could keep informed about events in Europe, a few Dutch merchants were allowed to live on a small island in Nagasaki. As foreign interference in nearby China grew during the 19th century, the Japanese shogun, or military ruler, grew even more determined to keep Westerners out of Japan.

The Great Rebellion in India

For a period of 100 years, from 1757 to 1858, the British East India Company controlled much of India. A major reason for its strength was its army of over 200 000 sepoys (Indian soldiers). These were mainly Hindu and Muslim men who had joined the Company's army after it had established control throughout India. In 1857, a group of sepoys mutinied against their British commanders, setting fire to their barracks and ransacking nearby towns. The rebellion quickly spread and within weeks the towns of Delhi, Cawnpore and Lucknow had fallen to the rebels. At Cawnpore, all 400 English people, including women and children, were killed.

The Boxer Rebellion in China

In 1898, Chinese peasant anger against foreign influence boiled over into open rebellion against the ruling dynasty. This was led by a group of martial artists known as the 'Righteous and Harmonious Fists', whom the British named 'Boxers'. Most of the Boxers' anger was focused on foreign missionaries, whom they blamed for their poverty and hunger. As their numbers grew, the Boxers went from village to village, killing Christians and

Source 7.3.6 An incident during the Indian Mutiny, 1857, National Army Museum, London, United Kingdom

destroying churches. They rallied support with the chant 'Destroy what is foreign.' Railway tracks and telegraph lines were ripped apart, as these had often been built on peasant land. By 1899, the Boxers had begun attacking the foreign embassies in the capital, Peking. They were eventually defeated in 1900, by an eight-nation army made up of European and Japanese soldiers.

Modernisation in Japan

In Japan in 1868, 17-year-old Emperor Mutsuhito took the title of Meiji, meaning 'enlightened rule.' During his 44-year reign, Mutsuhito looked to the West for new ideas and technologies that would help modernise Japan. Japanese students were encouraged to travel abroad, and foreign engineers, scientists and doctors were brought into Japan. Railways and steamships were built and cities grew rapidly as more and more factories were established. By the beginning of the 20th century, Japan had become a modern industrial economy capable of exerting its own influence within Asia.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Describe the events that took place in the Age of Imperialism.
2. List the European powers that had 'East India' companies.
3. Outline the reasons for European imperialism.
4. State one negative and one positive response by Asians towards European imperialism.

Applying and analysing

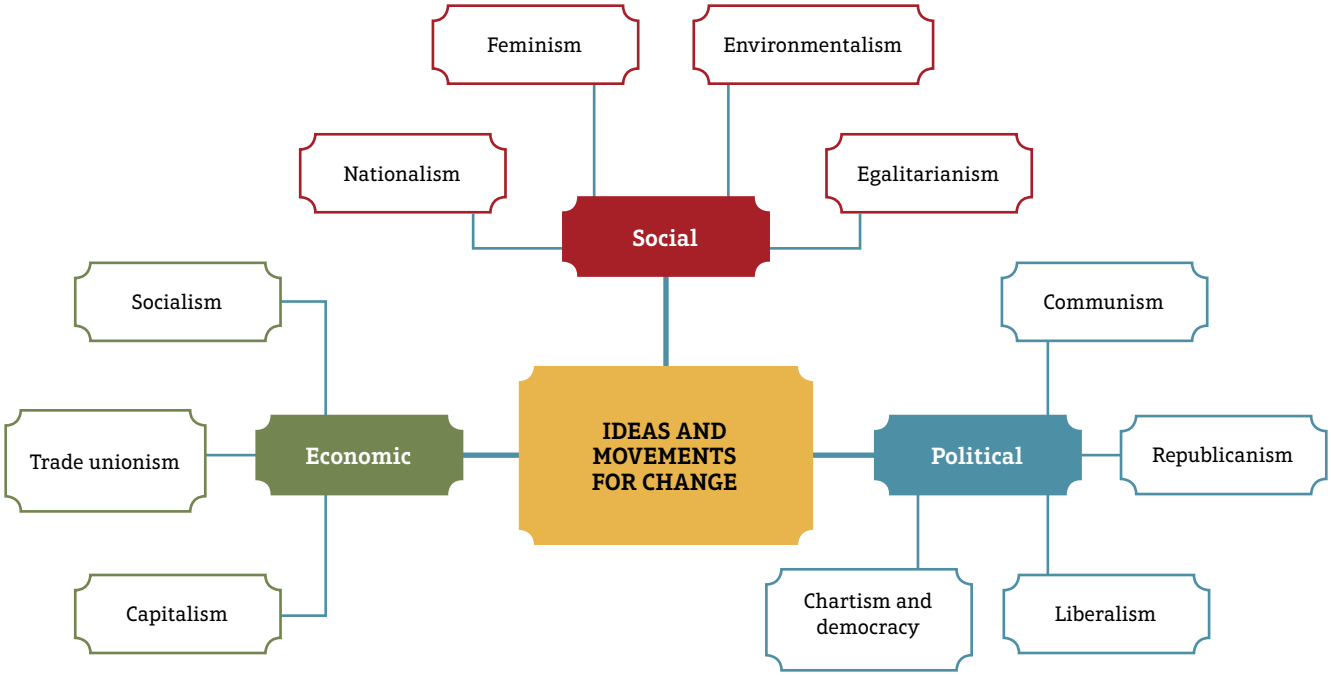
5. Distinguish between the concepts of imperialism and colonisation.
6. Find out why the Japanese introduced a 'closed country' policy in 1614.
7. Explain how and why Japanese attitudes towards Westerners changed over time.

Evaluating and creating

8. Rank the reasons for European imperialism in order from most to least important. Discuss your rank order with a partner and be prepared to justify it.

UNIT 7.4

Economic, social and political ideas



Source 7.4.1 Mind map showing ideas and movements for change

Republicanism

A republic is a form of government in which the head of state is a citizen of the nation rather than a monarch. While republicanism dates back to ancient Rome, it was during the Enlightenment that the idea became popular in Europe and North America.

The first republic to be established in the modern era was the American Republic. This occurred in 1783 with their victory against the British. The Declaration of Independence announced America's separation from Britain and introduced a system of 'rule by the people'.

Liberalism

Liberalism was a movement that sought to protect and improve the rights of individuals. Liberalism, like republicanism, emerged from the 'rights of man' philosophy that inspired the American and French revolutions in 1776 and 1789. This was the view that human beings are born into a state of perfect freedom, or liberty. Liberals believed that governments existed to protect people's basic civil liberties, rather than restrict them. Liberals therefore wanted a small role for government and believed that it should not stand in the way of individuals who wanted to improve their lives.

> ***In competition, individual ambition serves the common good.***

Source 7.4.2 Adam Smith, *The Wealth of Nations*, 1776

Capitalism

Capitalism is an economic system based on competition between sellers. Capitalists are individuals who invest their money into new business ventures in order to make a profit. The Scientific Age had given rise to new inventions, such as the steam engine, but it was the growing class of capitalists in Britain who used these tools to establish the factory system. This meant that goods could be manufactured in large quantities and in a relatively short time.

Socialism

At its most basic level, socialism is about redistributing wealth from the rich to the poor. During the Industrial Revolution, as capitalists grew extremely wealthy from the factory system, the growing urban working class had barely enough to survive. Socialists believed that the profits created by workers ought to be given to the workers. By the middle of the 19th century, two strands of socialism had emerged in Britain—revolutionary socialism, or communism, and democratic socialism, otherwise known as Fabianism.

Chartism and democracy

Named after the six-point People's Charter of 1838, the Chartist Movement called for the introduction of electoral reforms to make Britain more democratic. These included the right of all men to vote (suffrage), the secret ballot, pay for parliamentarians, electorates that were equal in size and annual elections. By the early 1900s, Chartism in Britain had failed; it was far more successful in Australia. In the aftermath of the Eureka Rebellion, important democratic reforms such as full male suffrage, the secret ballot and pay for parliamentarians were introduced. These reforms earned Australia a reputation throughout the world as a 'laboratory for democracy'.

Source 7.4.3 The Fabian Window shows the founders of the Fabian Society building a better world.

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is the belief in a 'fair go' for all. It is thought to be an especially Australian value. Some historians have attributed this belief to Australia's convict origins and the pioneering spirit needed to survive the harsh Australian environment.

Australian egalitarianism has not always been shown to everyone. Among the first laws passed by the first Australian Federal Parliament in 1901 was one restricting the entry of non-Whites into Australia. Although the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902* gave women the right to vote, the same law excluded Indigenous Australians from voting in federal elections.

Nationalism

Nationalism is the belief that people of a similar race, culture or ideals ought to belong to the same nation-state. Nationalism was one of the most influential ideas of the 19th century and resulted in the establishment of new nations—such as Australia in 1901—growing empires, national rivalries and movements of resistance against foreign rule.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Identify the idea that best matches the following statements.
   - **a** 'The bigger the government, the fewer the rights.'
   - **b** 'We want a "fair go" for all.'
   - **c** 'Abolish the monarchy.'
   - **d** 'Take from the rich and give to the poor.'
   - **e** 'There's a fortune to be made if you have the right idea.'
   - **f** 'I am, you are, we are Australian.'

Applying and analysing

2 Analyse the similarities and differences between the ideas and movements mentioned in this unit.

Evaluating and creating

3 Invent a new 'ism' based on a set of ideas, beliefs, attitudes or values, which you see emerging in your school or community.

4 In your view, what are the 'isms' that represent the era in which you now live?

Inquiry tasks

Mapping

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

Oral presentation

Take on the persona of a historical character and prepare a speech explaining how your life has changed due to one of the significant events or issues mentioned in this chapter. Ensure that your views, feelings and reactions are as accurate as possible by conducting research into the effects of the event or issue on real historical people.

Source 7.5.1 Postcard celebrating the British Empire

The new world

Compare and contrast two New World settlements. Do this by examining the following features:

- date of settlement
- location of settlement
- size of the original settlement
- reasons for settlement
- names of indigenous groups
- relations with indigenous people
- main problems for the settlers.

Digital portfolio

Create a digital portfolio of primary sources that answers the question: 'How was the modern world made?' Ensure that you provide a range of pictures of primary sources that show different experiences of the modern era. Examples could include a clipper ship, modern weapons or a factory machine. Also provide a caption for each source that identifies what it is, author and date. Write a brief paragraph explaining why you chose the source and what it represents about the making of the modern world.

GLOSSARY

blackbirding the act or practice of kidnapping South Pacific Islanders and sending them to Australia to work on plantations

colonisation the process of establishing a colony in a country or area

economic depression a period of sustained and severe economic downturn, characterised by business failure and high unemployment

hewing chopping or cutting with an axe or a pick

Industrial Revolution a long period of rapid economic growth beginning in the 18th century that transformed the economies of Europe from agricultural to industrial

'long boom' the period of economic prosperity in Australia in the late 1800s

mass production the process of using machines to make large quantities of goods

missionaries religious believers on a mission to spread their faith, usually to people of other faiths

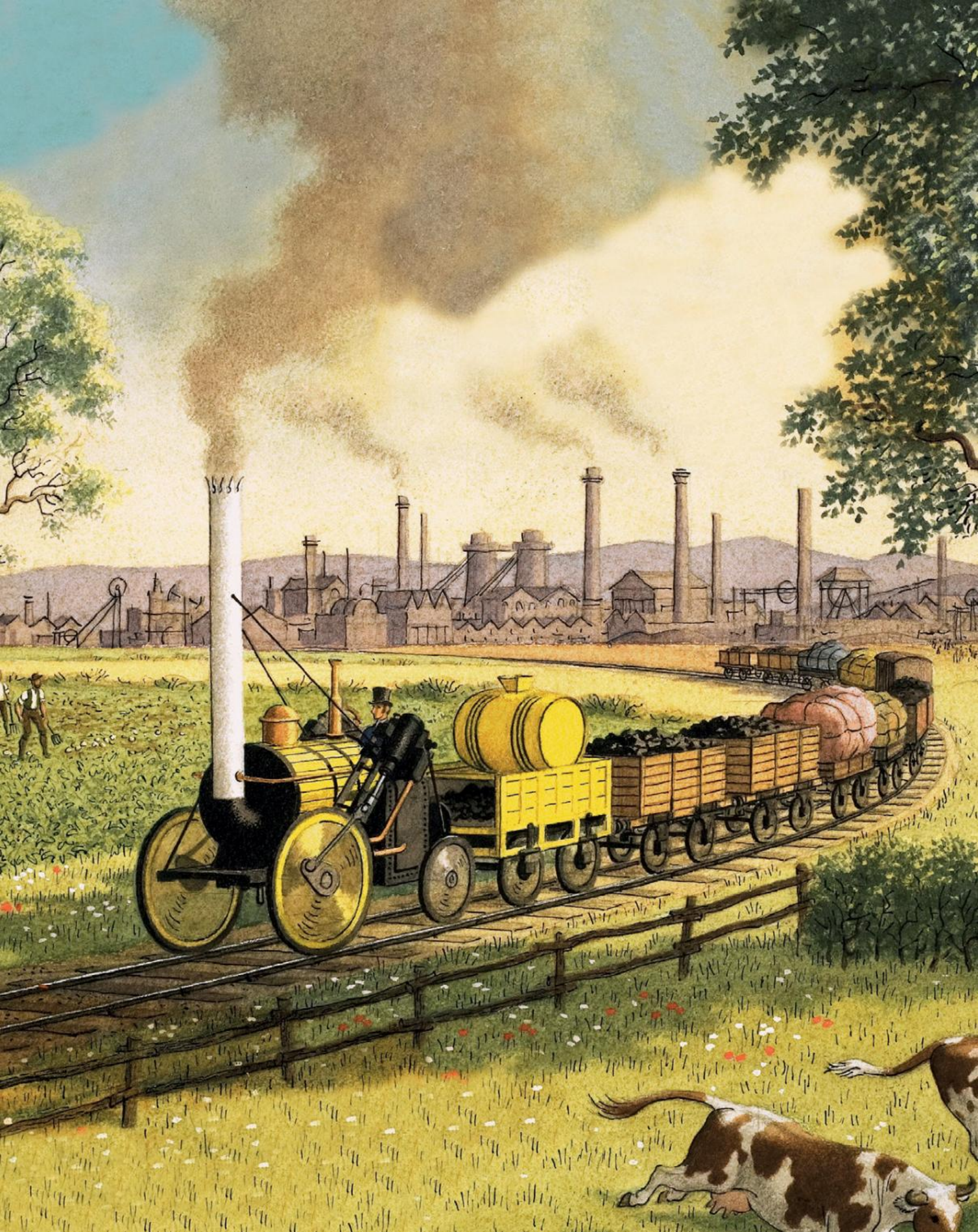
penal colony a settlement established for the purposes of housing prisoners

sphere of influence a part of the world where a certain foreign power is recognised by others as being in control

rural–urban migration movement of people from the countryside to the city

spinning jenny a cotton-spinning frame that could operate several spools at once

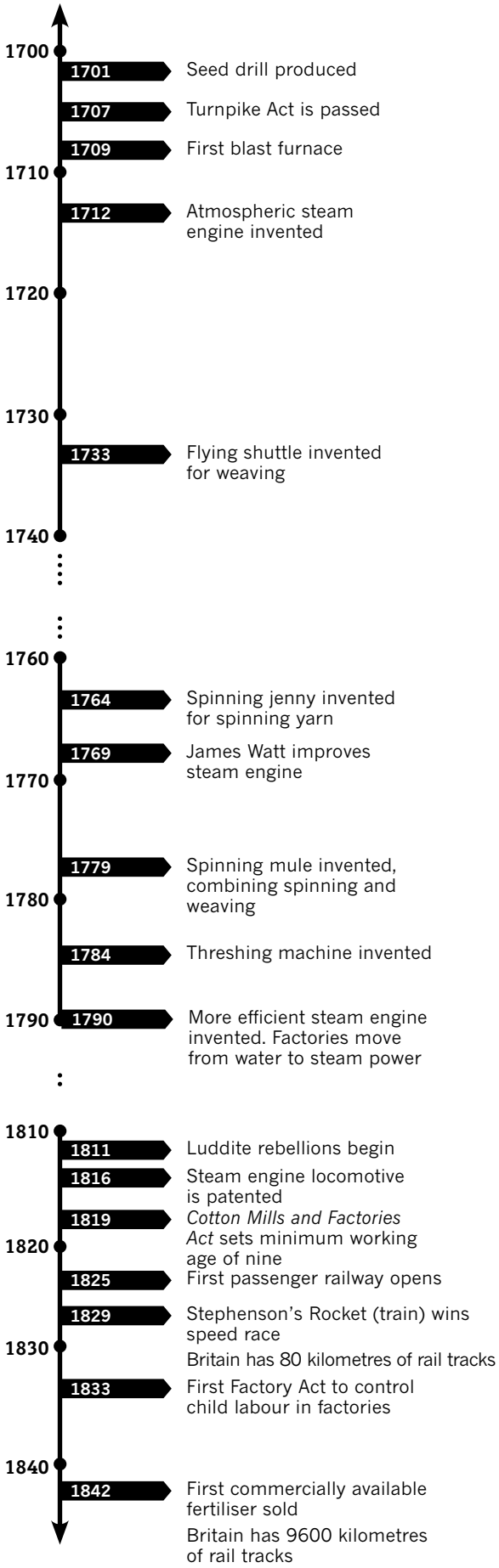
tenement a room or a set of rooms in a house or a block of flats



CHAPTER 8

The Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain in about 1760, saw a number of factors—population growth, increasing world trade, innovations in technology and new business practices—combine to cause an explosion in industrial output and massive upheaval in people's lives. The Industrial Revolution was the start of the modern world of expanding economies and mass consumption.



Source 8.0.1 The new steam trains made transportation of goods much easier.

Source 8.0.2 Timeline of the Industrial Revolution

UNIT 8.1

The agricultural revolution in Britain

A growing business

There was a direct relationship between agricultural changes and the Industrial Revolution. New ideas and technologies enabled farmers to produce more food. More food allowed the population to grow. A growing population meant more workers to fill factories, and more consumers for the goods those factories produced. In turn, more factories produced more machines, which helped farmers grow more food, which led to an even higher population.

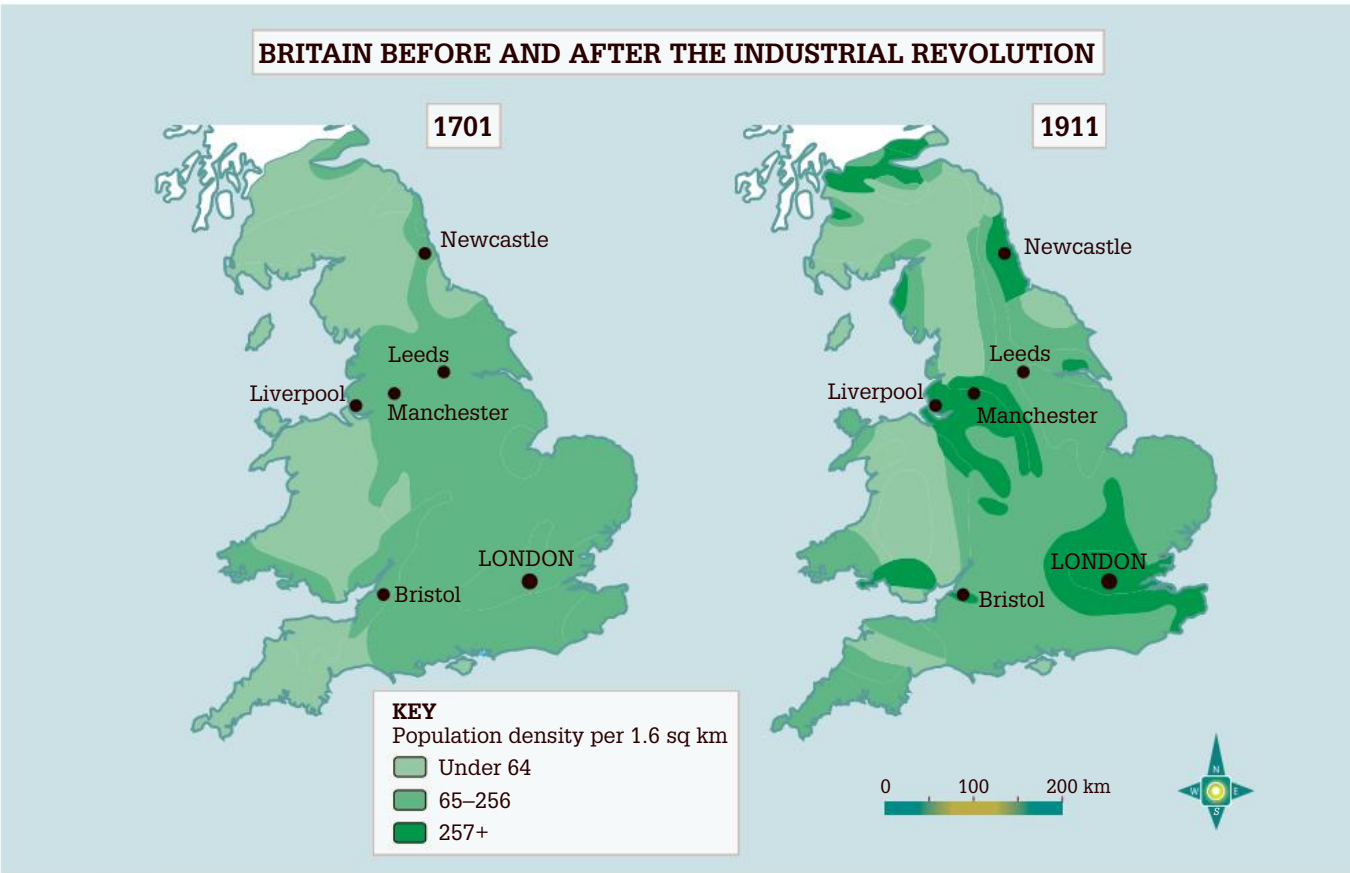
There is agreement that an important factor in displacing people from the land and providing cheap factory labour was the **enclosure** system. As scattered strips of land were consolidated into larger and more efficient individual farms, many tenant farmers were evicted. The other factor promoting change was a series of technological breakthroughs in agriculture that improved crop yields.

Agricultural inventions

The seed drill

Before the 18th century, seed planting in Europe meant scattering seeds by hand along shallow trenches in the soil, called furrows. This was quite wasteful because many seeds did not end up at the required depth, or were too spaced out or too crowded, with the result that only about one in five grew into a harvestable plant.

The answer was a seed drill, a tube-like device that poked into the ground to the ideal depth and then released a seed. Simple seed drills had been in use since 3000 BCE, but it was not until 1701 that the English inventor Jethro Tull produced a refined version of this old idea, and seed sowing in Britain was transformed.



Source 8.1.1 The impact of the Industrial Revolution on population density in England and Wales

Source 8.1.2 Plough invented by Jethro Tull, *Diderot Encyclopedie*, Paris 1751–80

Tull's horse-drawn device cut furrows, deposited seeds through hollow tubes and then smoothed the soil over with a harrow attached to its rear. This not only made sowing much faster, but it also assisted with weeding. This is because weeds growing next to crops planted in neat rows can be easily and efficiently dug up with a hoe without damaging the plants.

Fertiliser use

During the 17th century scientists came to understand how fertiliser helped plants grow. This led to the invention of more effective synthetic fertilisers, which combined naturally occurring substances such as sodium nitrate, phosphate and potash. English agricultural scientist John Lawes developed a phosphate-rich substance, which he called 'superphosphate'. Superphosphate became the first commercially available fertiliser in the world in 1842.

The threshing machine

Invented in 1784, Meikle's first threshing machine was about the size of a piano, and cereal stalks had to be fed into it by hand. The design was gradually improved. The invention of the combine harvester meant the machine could travel between the cereal crops, cutting stalks and separating grain at the same time.

THE SWING RIOTS

The threshing machine's impact was so great that it is credited with causing the 'Swing Riots' of the 1830s. Whereas hundreds of workers used to be needed to thresh, automation reduced that number to a handful. Vast unemployment resulted, and some of those unemployed formed into gangs who roamed the countryside and destroyed more than 100 threshing machines. Authorities responded by hanging nine rioters (hence the name 'Swing Riots') and transporting 450 to Australia.

A turning point

Historians estimate that in 1720, a typical British farm yielded 19 bushels of wheat per acre (a bushel of wheat weighs just over 27 kilograms and an acre is about 0.4 hectares), and that by 1850 this had risen to 30 bushels. Increases in yield were essential to support a population that grew from nearly nine million in 1800 to nearly 17 million in 1851.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. In what way did the enclosure of common land contribute to the Industrial Revolution?
2. What is superphosphate, and why was it important to the agricultural revolution in Britain?

Applying and analysing

3. Use a graphic organiser of your choice to identify the changes over time in Britain as a result of the agricultural revolution.
4. Study Source 8.1.1 and describe the changes in population density.

Evaluating and creating

5. Conduct some research into the Swing Riots of the 1830s. Working as a group, prepare two paragraphs presenting an opinion about the riots. One paragraph should present the viewpoint of farmer landowners. The other paragraph should present the opinion of the rioters.

UNIT 8.2

The beginning of the Industrial Revolution

King coal

For thousands of years wood provided the energy needed for Britain's homes and workshops. But by the 1700s forests were shrinking, meaning wood had to be carried even further to where it was needed. Coal, which produces three times as much energy as wood when burned, had been used as a fuel by humans since prehistory. But it was not widely used because it was hard to dig out of the ground.

Among the materials that are dug because they are useful.

Source 8.2.1 Ancient Greek scientist Theophrastus describing coal

Horse versus steam

By the early 1700s, horse-powered pumps were draining groundwater from mine shafts up to about 30 metres deep, but beyond that the inflow of groundwater was too much for pumps to handle. The first commercially viable **steam engine**, invented by Thomas Newcomen in 1712, did the work of several horses and could pump water from hundreds of metres underground, which meant the output of coalmines rapidly increased. The engine enabled coal to be mined from much deeper underground, providing a plentiful and cheap energy source.

In Britain coal was plentiful and close to the sea, where it could be moved to cities by boat (then the most efficient form of transport). By 1790, Scottish inventor James Watt's steam engine had replaced the older Newcomen engine. Due to an apparently inexhaustible supply of cheap energy, Britain was ready to lead the world into the Industrial Age.

Power from ideas

The century leading up to the Industrial Revolution was known as the Age of Reason, or the Enlightenment. During that time many vital scientific discoveries were made. For example, Isaac Newton found out how gravity worked and Robert Boyle identified the physical properties of air and gas. But more than just individual discoveries, this period produced the idea of progress. The Enlightenment was a time when society started to question religious explanations for the world and increasingly believed that the world was controlled by human will and reason.

Source 8.2.2 The atmospheric steam engine, invented by Thomas Newcomen in 1712

Freedom to make money

At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, Britain was a more liberal and democratic society than most of Europe. The British were relatively free to think and do what they wanted compared to people in countries still dominated by dictatorial monarchs or conservative churches. This extended to the freedom to become an entrepreneur, which is to set up a business with the aim of becoming rich.

Two men who took advantage of this situation were Matthew Boulton, who owned an engineering works in Birmingham, and a self-taught Scottish scientist named James Watt. Together they formed Boulton & Watt, which built increasingly efficient steam engines. Initially, Boulton & Watt supplied the coal-mining industry. But as other entrepreneurs saw the opportunities this new power-source presented, steam power spread into industries such as **distilling**, flour making, paper manufacturing, and cotton and iron mills, massively increasing the output of each.

Power from the people

These new industries needed a cheap labour force, and Britain had a surplus of workers due to the trend towards the enclosure of formerly common land. In late medieval times, farming peasants had cultivated small strips of land that they owned, and shared large areas of common land with other farmers for activities such as grazing. But from the 1500s, in a drive for efficiency, this system was replaced. Common land was fenced off by rich landowners and worked for their personal benefit. Many farming peasants could not survive on the land they owned and were forced to find new sources of income. Many left their farms to find jobs in the new industries.

Enclosure, for better or worse

Some historians have argued that the enclosure process, which was supported by Acts of Parliament, was little more than ongoing theft from villagers by wealthy landowners. Others have argued that Parliament's enclosure acts had little impact due to the fact there had been land enclosure happening for centuries before. The trend towards individual ownership of land was inevitable because it was more productive. Enclosure produced a large number of former farmers, who converged on the cities and the emerging factories seeking work.

'But I do not think that this necessity of stealing arises only from hence; there is another cause of it, more peculiar to England.' 'What is that?' said the Cardinal: 'The increase of pasture,' said I, 'by which your sheep, which are naturally mild, and easily kept in order, may be said now to devour men and unpeople, not only villages, but towns; for wherever it is found that the sheep of any soil yield a softer and richer wool than ordinary, there the nobility and gentry, and even those holy men, the abbots not contented with the old rents which their farms yielded, nor thinking it enough that they, living at their ease, do no good to the public, resolve to do it hurt instead of good. They stop the course of agriculture, destroying houses and towns, reserving only the churches, and enclose grounds that they may lodge their sheep in them.'

Source 8.2.3 Sir Thomas More describes the early impact of land enclosure in *Utopia*, published in 1516.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. In a paragraph, identify two reasons why coal was not used as a major energy source until the Industrial Revolution.
2. Summarise why entrepreneurs were important to the Industrial Revolution.

Evaluating and creating

3. In an extended paragraph, appraise the following statement: 'Ideas were as important as technology in bringing about the Industrial Revolution.'
4. **a** Demonstrate how the enclosure of land created a cheap labour force.
   b The benefits of land enclosure outweighed the negatives. Do you agree? Explain your answer.

The British Empire and raw materials

Source 8.3.1 An 1850 map celebrating the British Empire—marked in pink—and its diverse peoples

Sea strength

During the Industrial Revolution, Britain's growing empire fed industry with materials and new markets. In return, industry gave the Empire the technologies it required to navigate, exploit and conquer a large portion of the world. The result was the largest **free trade** area in the world, serviced by a commercial shipping fleet that grew from 3300 vessels in 1702 to 9400 in 1776.

This commercial shipping fleet brought goods and foods flooding into Britain, and fed the further growth of industry and the British population—from six million people in 1760 to nine million people in 1801. In turn, increasing economic dependence on imports and exports between Britain and its colonies necessitated the building of an ever more powerful navy to protect Britain's colonial possessions and the shipping lanes to and from them.

Source 8.3.2 Slaves cut ripe sugar cane in the British colony of Antigua in the West Indies, in a painting by William Clark, 1823.

Sugar rush

In 1640, British settlers on the Caribbean island of Barbados, having failed in their attempts to grow cotton or tobacco, found sugar cane springing up in its place. Sugar cane was required to make sugar and only grew in the tropics, so a huge enterprise developed to feed Europe's insatiable appetite for sweetened foods. The labour needed to grow such large amounts of cane soon outstripped the available population. In response to the labour shortage, unscrupulous traders started shipping in slaves from Africa—in total, about six million over 100 years. The result, along with death and misery for the slaves, was a British **monopoly** on sugar that lasted a century.

Source 8.3.3 A monument by artist Clara Sornas in the former slave market in Stonetown, Zanzibar, Africa. Here African prisoners were sold to slave traders from Britain and other nations.

Source 8.3.4 In a cartoon from 1798, Napoleon Bonaparte wrestles with a British sailor, a 'Jack Tar', for world domination.

Britain and France at war

During the Napoleonic Wars (1803–15) the British Royal Navy blocked French trade with the Caribbean, and France's sugar supplies ran low. In response, French ruler Napoleon Bonaparte poured resources into a new method of making sugar, using sugar beet, which could grow in Europe. This eventually led to a sugar beet industry that produced sugar more cheaply. As a result, by 1850 the price of sugar had fallen so low in Europe that ordinary people could afford it for the first time.

A worldwide marketplace

By 1815, Britain had the most powerful empire in the world. The Royal Navy protected trade routes that enriched Britain and generated taxes, which in turn helped pay for an even bigger navy. Imports included sugar from the West Indies, tobacco from North America, spices from India and tea from China. Merchants were able to invest in this trade with minimal government interference, producing three main effects:

- spectacular economic growth
- fortunes for lucky investors
- slavery and human suffering.

Consequences

In Britain, children and adults of the Industrial Revolution worked in factories for very low wages that left them living in malnutrition and squalor. The even less fortunate slaves died in droves in the United States and the Caribbean harvesting sugar and tobacco, which was carried back to Britain for massive profits.

The violent history of tea

An imbalance of trade

By 1800, the British were importing nearly 6 million tonnes of tea a year from China, but paying heavily for it because the Chinese wanted silver rather than goods in exchange. Pottery, woollen apparel and scientific instruments were offered for trade but declined by Emperor Qian Long. Over a period of 50 years, Britain paid 27 million pounds sterling to the Chinese, and sold just 9 million pounds sterling of British products back to the Chinese. The British needed to find a product the Chinese wanted and reverse the trade imbalance.

> ***We possess all things and of the highest quality [and] I set no value on strange and useless objects.***

Source 8.3.5 Emperor Qian Long in a letter to King George III

The British solution

The solution was to import the addictive drug opium, which was harvested from poppies, and export it to China. The British had a ready supply of opium from the recently conquered Indian Bengal. There were willing British businessmen ready to be part of the opium trade, such as William Jardine and James Matheson, who set up a trading company named Jardine, Matheson & Co. in 1832.

Emperor Yongzheng had banned the sale and smoking of opium in China in 1729 but demand for the drug remained. Jardine and Matheson, as well as other British traders, set out to exploit that demand. British authorities did nothing to stop British entrepreneurs in the opium trade, because taxes on the traders' profits raised millions of pounds for the British treasury. The Chinese Government was not happy with this arrangement. In 1839, Emperor Daoguang declared a war on drugs and had his soldiers raid warehouses operated by British traders, confiscating approximately 20 000 chests of opium.

First Opium War

The British entrepreneurs were outraged when they learned that their opium had been seized. In response, William Jardine sailed to London and lobbied the then Foreign Secretary, Lord Palmerston, who saw China's actions as a threat to Britain's balance of payments. The Royal Navy was mobilised to aid the opium traders, arriving at the Pearl River Delta in

Source 8.3.6 The *Nemesis* destroying Chinese junks, painted by Edward Duncan, 1843

June 1840 with a fleet of 16 warships. Opposing them was a far larger Chinese fleet, but the British were equipped with a new ship made of iron, the *Nemesis*, which could fire exploding rockets up to 2 kilometres. The Chinese with their sailing junks and traditional cannons were wiped out. The battle and subsequent bombardments are estimated to have cost 25 000 Chinese lives at the expense of 69 British sailors lost.

Unequal treaty

In 1842, the Chinese signed a treaty with Britain in which they opened five ports to foreign trade, paid compensation to the opium traders for money lost during the war, and gave the port of Hong Kong to Britain for the following 155 years. It was a humiliation that China has not forgotten.

> ***Textbooks from elementary school, to middle school to high school, to university highlight the wrong doings of the so-called imperialists. We have become part of what they call the Patriotic Education Programme, to educate Chinese youths like me so that we remember what you have done to us.***

Source 8.3.7 Dr Zheng Yangwen, University of Manchester, talking about Chinese youth being educated about the impact of Britain's imperialism on China

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why did Britain require an increasingly powerful navy in the late 18th and early 19th centuries?
2. Using information from this unit, list three characteristics that support the claim that Britain's was the most powerful empire in the world by 1815.
3. Who were William Jardine and James Matheson?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Source 8.3.1. How is the relationship between the British and the populations they colonised or enslaved represented? Are these representations accurate and fair? Discuss.
5. Construct a storyboard that illustrates the sequence of events leading to war with the Chinese over opium.
6. Explain your understanding of the way Britain conducted itself in China during this time. What is your opinion of the fact that the Chinese still place emphasis on this period in their history?

Inventions of the industrial age

Spinning wheels and shuttle looms

At the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, cloth had been produced in almost the same way for hundreds of years. Small groups of people in their homes or in workshops used spinning wheels and looms to produce cloth. Spinning wheels created thread from cotton fibre or wool. The thread was then stretched over a loom, and a shuttle (a pencil-like piece of wood) was used to weave the thread into cloth by hand. This process was labour-intensive and time-consuming.

The flying shuttle

In 1733, John Kay **patented** the flying shuttle. The flying shuttle was a loom that had a shuttle tugged along grooves by a cord. The shuttle shot back and forth in a fraction of the time it took to move it by hand. This meant that cloth could be woven much faster, and could be wider because the operator was not restricted by the width of their arms.

The spinning jenny

In 1764, James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny. This was a spinning wheel with eight smaller wheels instead of one, allowing the operator to spin eight threads at once.

The first factory

Richard Arkwright installed a water frame, a spinning machine powered by a water wheel, in a cotton mill in Cromford in 1771. He then added weavers and their machines and created the world's first factory. Arkwright's cotton mill was also the first to introduce a continuous process. This term refers to raw materials such as cotton or wool arriving at the factory and, after a series of operations, being turned into a product.

Metallurgy

Due to the widespread availability of coal, there were breakthroughs in metallurgy. Abraham Darby built the first blast furnace in Shropshire in 1709. This furnace produced coke, a concentrated form of coal. Coke enabled Darby to heat metals to higher temperatures than ever achieved before, and at a lower cost than by burning charcoal. This enabled him to produce a 'pig iron' that was then refined to make wrought iron and cast iron. This iron was used for pots and pans, steam engines and the famous Iron Bridge over the River Severn.

Source 8.4.1 Workers using Crompton's **spinning mule** at a cotton mill in the 1830s, in an engraving by J. Tingle

Source 8.4.2 The world's first iron bridge, built over the River Severn in 1775–79, *View of the Iron Bridge over the River Severn near Coalbrookdale, Shropshire*, Samuel Ireland, c. 1795

Steam

A steam-powered device was first described by the ancient Greek mathematician, Hero of Alexandria, in the first century CE. But the first practical application of the idea had to wait until 1698, when Thomas Savery marketed a steam pump, which was used in water works and mines. Unfortunately, its power output was poor.

In 1712, Thomas Newcomen produced the world's first commercially successful steam pump. It was safer and more powerful than Savery's, working at around five horsepower, and could pump water out of coalmines hundreds of metres deep, thus providing the Industrial Revolution with its main power source.

Watt's improvements

In 1778, Scottish engineer James Watt perfected a new engine design that was five times more efficient and used about 75 per cent less coal than Newcomen's steam pump. Watt went into partnership with ironworks owner Matthew Boulton to build and sell their new machine. Their partnership lasted 25 years and made both men rich, in part because of clever marketing. The machines, which were over 7 metres tall and had to be housed in a building, could be paid off in instalments over three years using money mine owners saved on the cost of coal.

The locomotive

Various people had the idea of using steam to power rail or road vehicles, but the size and weight of engines had made this impractical. In 1804, British inventor and mining engineer Richard Trevithick invented a locomotive that was built at an ironworks in South Wales and used on the world's first railway line. The first passenger railway opened in 1825, using a locomotive designed by George Stephenson. In 1829, Stephenson built his famous 'Rocket' locomotive, and in 1830 the Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Why was the blast furnace a significant invention of the industrial age? Write a short paragraph answer giving at least two reasons.
2. Create a timeline that includes the different milestones in the development of steam pumps. Start with Savery's steam pump.

Applying and analysing

3. Create an annotated visual display showing the key development in textile production during the Industrial Revolution. Use main headings and subheadings to organise your ideas.
4. Construct a Y-chart that explores what the inventions of the industrial age would have sounded like, looked like and felt like. Make sure you cover all the inventions described in this unit, as well as inventions selected from other units in this chapter.

UNIT 8.5

Rise of the middle class

Progressive Britain

Although 18th-century Britain may seem harsh and unequal, it was progressive compared to other nations at the time. In Britain, there was the comparatively equal application of the law. It was considered most newsworthy when, in 1760, Lord Ferrers was hanged for murdering his servant.

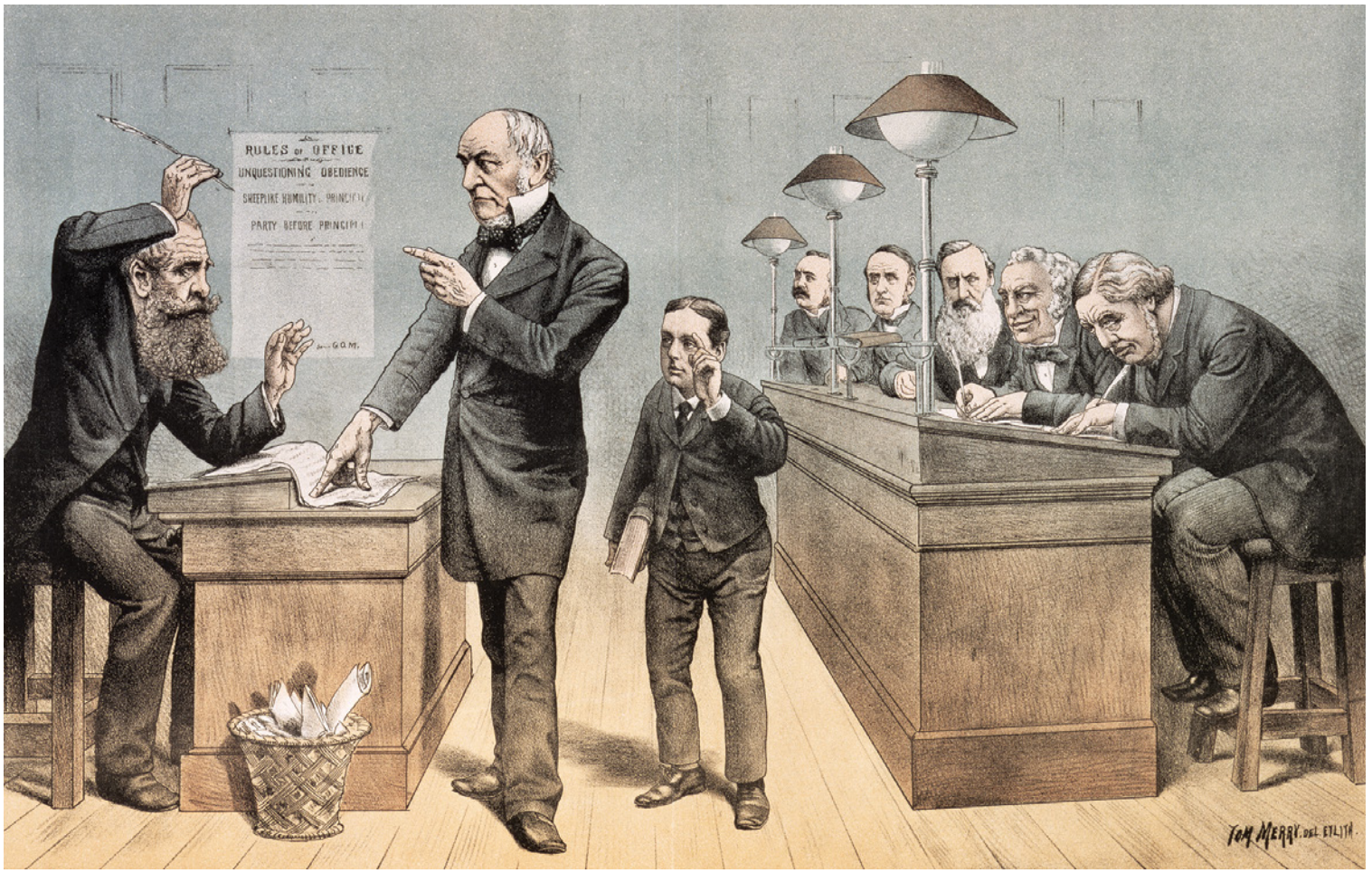
> ***... astonished to discover that the tolls on the new turnpikes were paid regardless of rank and without remission for noblemen.***

Source 8.5.1 Pierre-Jean Grosley, *Londres*, 1770, translated by Thomas Nugent and published in 1772 under the title *A Tour to London; Or New Observations on England and its Inhabitants, by M. Grosley*

A class in the middle

The rise of a middle class of people is one important development associated with the Industrial Revolution. A middle class is a group between the titled upper classes and mega-rich (who often used their wealth to buy titles and become part of the upper class), and the lower classes who were desperately poor. This middle class included shopkeepers, craftspeople, doctors, clerks and lawyers. What they had in common was marketable skills that won them a higher income than the lowest workers. Unlike the very rich or holders of inherited fortunes, however, they were dependent on others to buy their services so they could maintain their positions.

Source 8.5.2 Clerks, members of Britain's 'middling class', Tom Merry, 1 May 1886



A nation of shopkeepers

The rise of the middle class in Britain affected the character of the nation. Because the middle class had to work for a living, they contributed new ideas to the debates on the issues of the time. The positions they took in these debates were often influenced by commercial interests. It is this outlook that Napoleon ridiculed when he allegedly described the English as 'a nation of shopkeepers'.

Law and order

Crime wave

Some of the factors that produced Britain's Industrial Revolution also led to the First Fleet setting sail for Botany Bay in 1787. The enclosure of common lands, which drove families off their farms and into cities, not only created workers to fill the factories, but also a number of people driven to crime by desperation. Before1749, there was no official police force and authorities merely posted rewards for criminals. The hope was that acquaintances would report them. In this environment, fear of crime became widespread.

Harsh penalties, prison hulks and riots

The government's only available response was to increase penalties, so that relatively minor theft could be punished by transportation or death. The application of the death penalty for minor crimes was not very effective, however, because juries would not convict and judges would not condemn in any but the clearest cases. So convicts piled up in stinking prison hulks, which were the de-masted remains of once-proud warships, tethered up in harbours and left to rot. Not only was this an expensive and unsightly solution; it also created fear among the middle and upper classes, who were worried about a possible uprising by the desperate prisoners. This fear was fuelled by stories, common at the time, of factory workers rioting over feelings of dislocation and inequality. There were more than 100 riots over food prices in 30 British counties between 1756 and 1757, as well as violent industrial disputes. In one case, weavers near Bristol attacked a fellow weaver for 'working under price', dunked him in a river and beat him so severely he lost an eye.

Dear wife it dose not troble me to much Being Confined hear as Being parted from you and my dear Child Dear wife we are among a deal a differnd Soarts of peple But If I live to Serve my time oute as I trust In god I Shall you may depend upon it I Shall Returne to Ingland and then I hope we Shall Spend the Remander of our Days in this world in love and happyness togater.

Source 8.5.3 Thomas Holden, who was sentenced to seven years' transportation for taking an illegal oath to fight for workers' rights, writing to his wife from the ship that would take him to Australia

Did you know?

One benefit of the scientific fervour of the time was that nutrition was better understood. By the time the First Fleet sailed in 1787, scurvy—a disease resulting from lack of vitamin C, which causes delirium, bleeding gums and other symptoms—had almost been eliminated, and the shipboard diet had improved to the extent that, in general, when the 'human cargo' of the First Fleet arrived in Sydney in 1788, they were in better shape than when they left England.

Source 8.5.4 A case of scurvy recorded by Henry Walsh Mahon from his time aboard the convict ship *Barrosa*, 1841, The National Archives, United Kingdom

Industrialisation in Australia

By the early 19th century, and under British rule, the young colony of New South Wales began to industrialise. In 1812, the colony's first **turnpike** or toll road was opened between Sydney and Parramatta, and in 1813 the first steam mill was established on Darling Harbour.

Traders from near and far

In 1813, the monopoly on trade to and from Australia, which had been held by the British East India Company, was abolished. Vessels belonging to many different companies and nations began trading through Australian ports, among them whaling ships from the United States. From 1842, after the first Opium War forced the Chinese to open up some of their ports to Western trade, shipping to Australia grew again, as clippers started making round-the-world trips between Europe, the United States, Australia and China.

The clipper

Clippers were sailing ships, sometimes with iron hulls, that dominated the carrying of cargo and passengers between Australia and the rest of the world for most of the 19th century. In 1854, the clipper *Red Jacket* set records by sailing from New York to Melbourne in 67 days, and then back to Liverpool in 73 days. In contrast, the fastest vessel of the First Fleet took 250 days to travel from Portsmouth to Sydney Cove, a roughly comparable distance.

A hybrid economy

Australia's economy remained overwhelmingly **pastoral** throughout the 19th century, and nearly half the wool used in British mills by 1850 came from Australia. The technological and industrial infrastructure needed to transport, process and ship the products produced by Australia's farms and stations continued to grow.

From the 1850s, mining also started to become an important industry. Coal had been dug up around Newcastle since the colony's early days, but output had been small. Coal production in Australia increased after the gold rush in California began in 1849. Newcastle's was the closest coal to the United States' west coast.

Source 8.5.5 A bustling Circular Quay in Sydney in the 1880s, Australian National Maritime Museum

Source 8.5.6 *Sheep Station Point, River Turon*, by W. L. Walton, depicts the goldfields of New South Wales in 1853, National Library of Australia.

A golden future

By the time of the Industrial Revolution's commonly agreed end, around 1850, Australia was well on the way to becoming an urbanised and industrialised society. But rather than slowing down, population and infrastructure building exploded from 1851, with the start of the Victorian and New South Wales gold rushes.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Identify an aspect of British society that led visitors to conclude that Britain was a progressive society.
2. Sketch a social pyramid that represents Britain's class structure at the time of the Industrial Revolution. Annotate your pyramid with key facts about the different groups.
3. How did the authorities respond to the increasing fear of crime? What were the short- and long-term consequences of their policies?

Applying and analysing

4. In an extended paragraph, describe the outlook and mentality of the up-and-coming middle classes and explain how this affected the course of Britain's development.
5. Study Source 8.5.5. Describe the scene observed in Sydney.

Evaluating and creating

6. In a short essay, evaluate the role of the Industrial Revolution in the settlement and transformation of Australia.

UNIT 8.6

The Industrial Revolution and movement of people

Source 8.6.1 Hogarth's illustration displaying England's addiction to alcohol, particularly beer, 1751

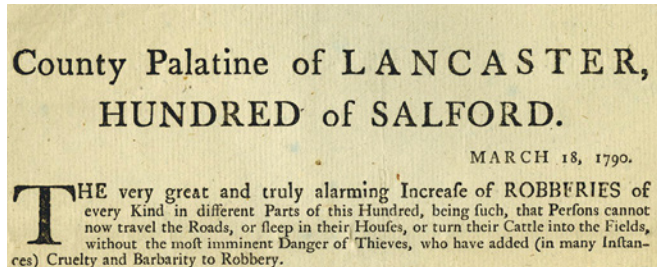
Growth of Britain's towns

The Industrial Revolution brought significant changes to Britain's economy and society. With the development of machines and steam power, goods were produced more quickly and cheaply in factories, and in large quantities. Poor people from rural districts flocked to the towns to work, which led to the development of housing suburbs, areas in close proximity to factories that housed working men and women. Between 1760 and 1815, London's population is estimated to have grown from 750 000 people to 1.4 million; making London the largest city in the world at that time.

Due to the fast construction and limited government regulation concerning building requirements, houses were built very close together and poorly constructed. These developed areas became slums due to overcrowding, disease, excessive consumption of alcohol and malnutrition. In 1788, an estimated one million people lived below the **'breadline'**.

Increased crime in Britain

During the medieval period, most people lived in a village under the jurisdiction of the nobility who owned their land and made every decision. As people moved to cities, they became anonymous. With limited accountability and desperate living conditions, crime became a means of survival, resulting in overcrowded prisons. Crime rates increased dramatically in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. Between 1800 and 1827, 2243 men and 95 women were hanged in Britain. The average number of executions per year was 80; in 1801, however, 219 people were hanged. The major crime was against property: theft, burglary and highway robbery.



County Palatine of LANCASTER,
HUNDRED of SALFORD.

MARCH 18, 1790.

THE very great and truly alarming Increase of ROBBERIES of every Kind in different Parts of this Hundred, being such, that Persons cannot now travel the Roads, or sleep in their Houses, or turn their Cattle into the Fields, without the most imminent Danger of Thieves, who have added (in many Instances) Cruelty and Barbarity to Robbery.

Source 8.6.2 Newspaper article, 18 March 1790

Did you know?

Prisoners in Britain were held in old ships called hulks. A hulk could be up to 65 metres long, the same size as six buses, and could hold up to 300 convicts. Between 1776 and 1795, nearly 2000 out of almost 6000 convicts held on hulks died, the majority from diseases such as typhoid and cholera.

It is discovered that a child, when 10 years old, can learn to make a stocking in a few weeks, & that he can be taught the art perfectly by paying a master 1s per week for 2 years, the child receiving, in the meantime, all his earnings, except that 1s.

...

Parents have no longer any control over their children but, on the contrary, are dependant upon, & governed by, them. Boys and girls leave the homes

...

of their fathers, Thò of the same trade, & work & lodge with others in the same village, whenever it is more agreeable to them to do so than to remain under the parentage roof the consequence of which is that, partly to keep them out of greater mischief, & partly to retain some benefit from their labour parents allow their children, while at home, to please themselves in everything.

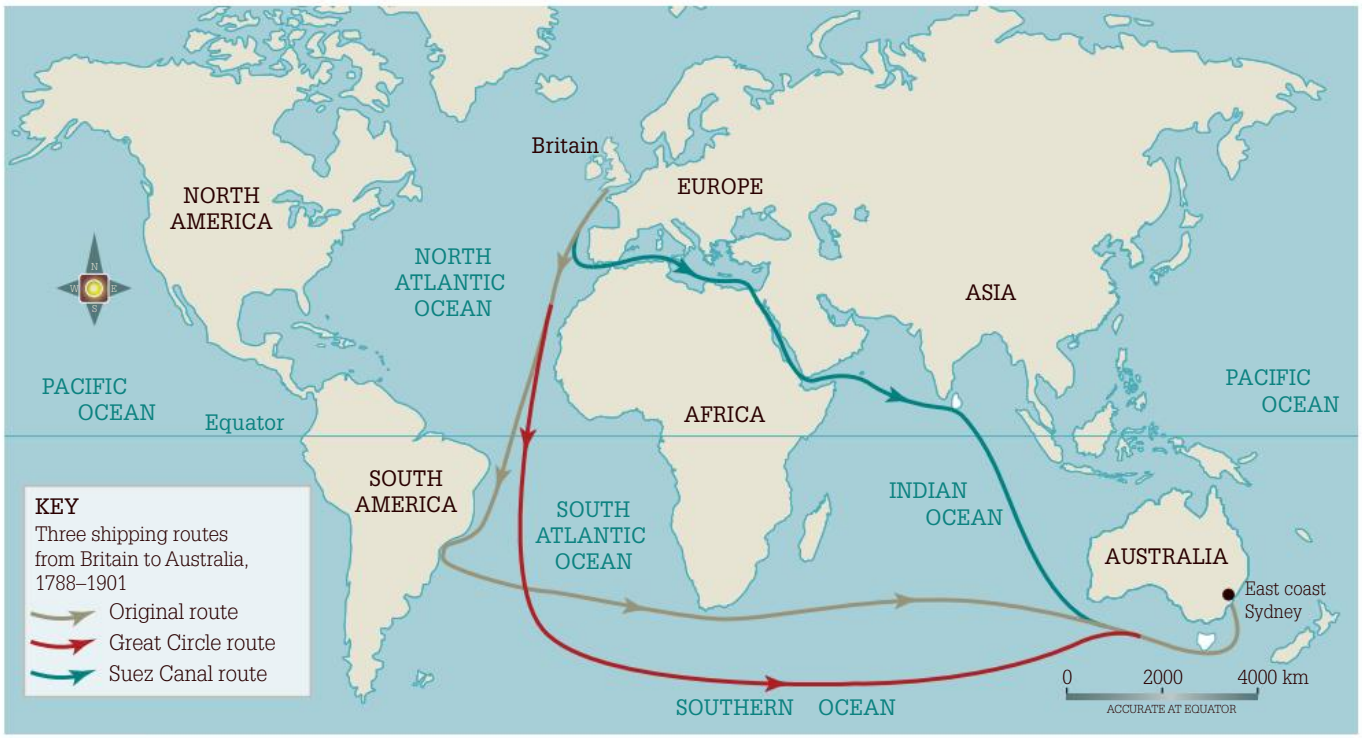
Source 8.6.3 Extract from a letter written to Sir Robert Peel, c. 1829, describing the stocking-making industry that was flourishing in Leicestershire, which discusses the effect of child labour on children's behaviour

Sending convicts to Australia

The Industrial Revolution was in full force when Britain lost its American colony as a result of the War of Independence in 1776, forcing the government to look for an alternative penal settlement. The practice of keeping prisoners in hulks on the River Thames was at best a short-term solution and was losing support. The prison hulks were decrepit, and sickness and death were rife. On 24 March 1786, action was finally taken following a prison riot on a hulk at Plymouth. Home Secretary Lord Sydney ordered arrangements to be made to establish a colony in Australia. The country was chosen as the new penal colony because of its distance from Britain and the opportunities it provided to secure flax and timber, and trade routes with China. Between 1788 and 1868, approximately 160 000 people were sent as convicts to Australia.

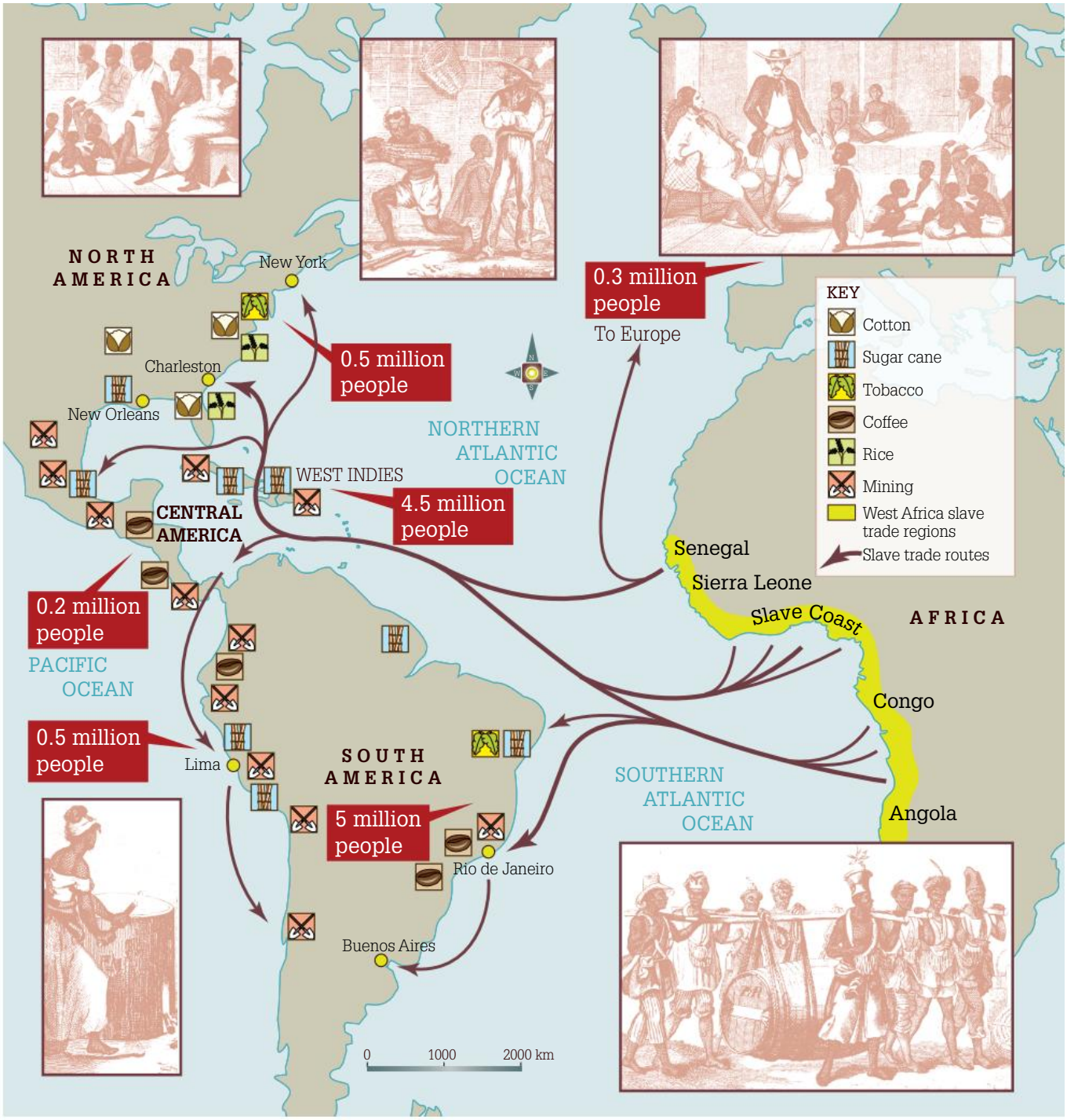
Emigration to Australia

A benefit of the Industrial Revolution was improvements in transportation, with the building of better roads, new railways and faster ships. This influenced the movement of people by improving the ease, safety and time it took to move from town to town, and from country to country.



Source 8.6.4 Movement of convicts and free settlers from Britain to Australia, 1788–1901

Few free people emigrated to Australia in the early days of colonisation. Free settlers often had to fund their own transport, which resulted in only a few wealthy and government or military families making the journey. By 1820, Australia was looking more enticing as farmers began to flourish and more land became available inland for sheep grazing. **Emigration** increased significantly in the 1850s as a result of the discovery of gold, sparking a wider movement of people from many different countries. The Irish Potato Famine of 1845–52 also saw greater numbers of British people emigrating worldwide, with 1.75 million coming to Australia over the next 50 years.



Source 8.6.5 Movement of slaves out of Africa, 1650–1860

Movement of convicts and free settlers to Australia

The First Fleet's journey took eight months; sailing down the coast of Africa and across to South America before visiting Cape Town and heading to New South Wales. The Great Circle route was adopted in the 1850s. People rushed to the goldfields, risking wild seas and using the strong winds of the 'Roaring Forties' to reduce travel time. By 1901, with the invention of the steamship and the construction of the Suez Canal in 1869, ship travel between Australia and Britain had been reduced to just 30 days. Bales of wool could be sent back quickly to Britain as the wool industry became highly successful in Australia.

Movement of slaves to the Americas

The slave trade was a very profitable business, driven by profit-hungry proprietors who used free labour on plantations in the production of sugar, tobacco and cotton. Ships sailed from Europe to West Africa with manufactured goods that were traded for slaves. Slaves were delivered to the Americas before ships returned to Europe with commodities produced on the slave plantations, such as cotton and sugar. The movement of these people resulted in tragedy: loss of identity, loss of culture and alienation from the basic rights of humanity.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 What benefit did machines and steam power have on the production of goods in Britain during this time?
2 Why did crime rates dramatically increase during the Industrial Revolution?
3 In your own words, explain how the Industrial Revolution influenced the decision to send convicts to Australia.
4 Examine Source 8.6.4.
   a Describe the difference between the original route and the Great Circle Route. Why did travel routes change?
   b Identify two benefits from using the Suez Canal.
5 Examine Source 8.6.5.
   a List two cities in the United States that received slaves from Africa.
   b What commodities were grown in or around those cities?
   c From which countries did the cities of Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro receive slaves?
   d What was another name given to the West Coast of Africa?

Applying and analysing

6 Use Figure 8.6.2 to answer the following questions.
   a Identify two facts from the source and provide a reason why they are significant to the topic of study.
   b What is the main concern being expressed?
   c How would you describe the general feeling of the public, as expressed in this source?
7 The Industrial Revolution is widely understood to have increased rates of crime in Britain. What other factors may have contributed?
8 Examine Source 8.6.5. Why do you think the slave trade is referred to as a triangular trade?
9 Using Sources 8.6.4 and 8.6.5, explain what these sources tell you about the movement of people during the period 1750–1901.

Evaluating and creating

10 List three reasons convicts were sent to Australia. Propose an alternative solution for each. Ideally, all three solutions should complement each other.

UNIT 8.7

Working conditions

Working families

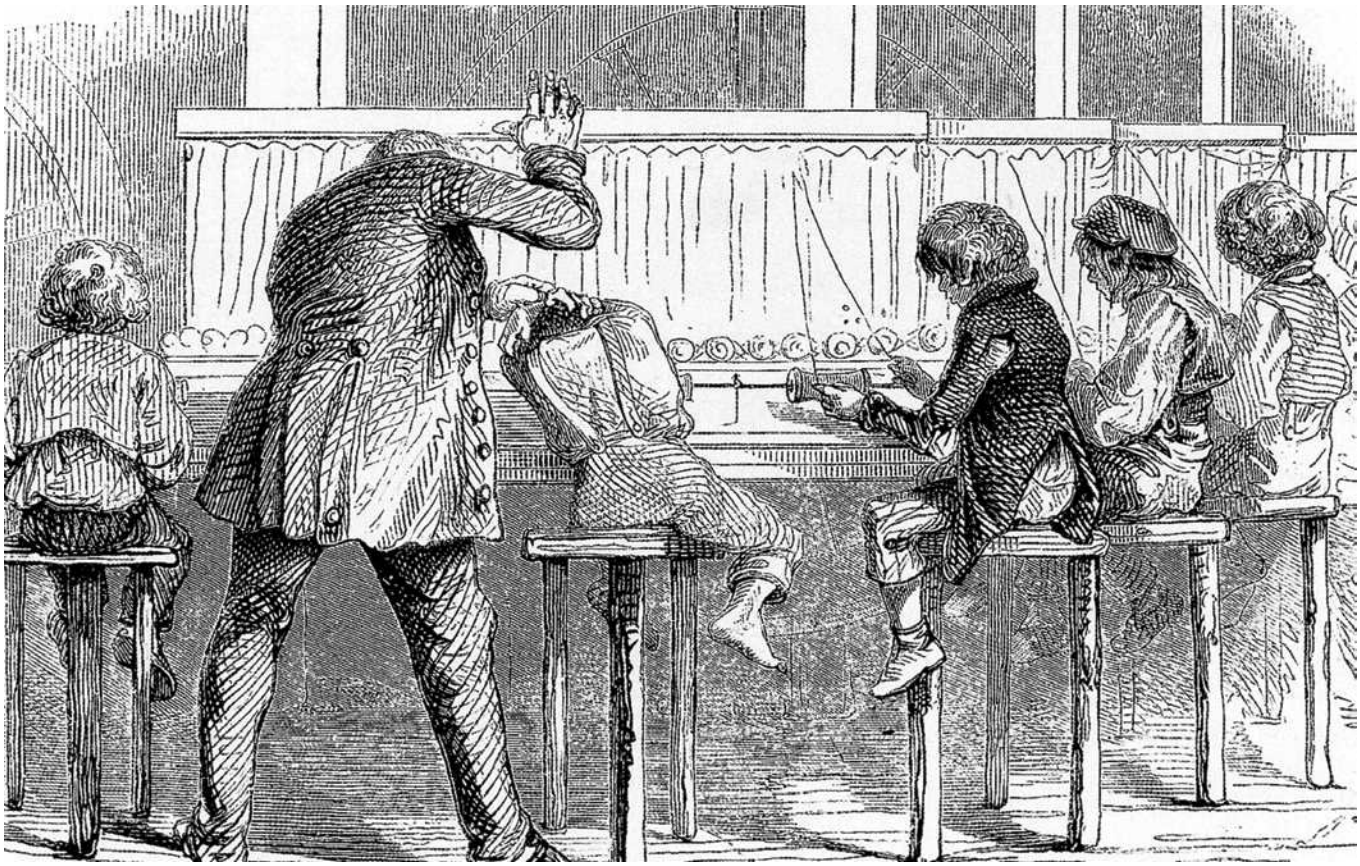
Before the Industrial Revolution, most families lived in rural villages, farming small plots of land or plying trades such as carpentry or blacksmithing. Their children learned the skills they would need by watching and helping their parents in their work. But because of a number of factors, many farming families were forced off their land, while factories, mines and mills sprang up offering desperately needed work.

Starting as young as five years of age (although the average was around 10), children would work alongside their mothers in coal, lead and tin mines, breaking, sorting and washing ore and transporting it to the surface. The women and children were paid less than the men who did the digging. Overall wages were so low that families needed the combined wages of husband, wife and children just to survive.

Did you know?

In the books of the famous British academic and author J.R.R. Tolkien, the hobbits' Shire is intended as a celebration of English life before industrialisation. The character Saruman represents technology and modernity. When he starts ripping up trees and replacing them with mining pits and smoky forges, Saruman turns away from the 'good' side.

Source 8.7.1 Children working on bobbins (spindles or cylinders around which yarn or thread is wound) in London, from an engraving in an 1848 issue of the French magazine *Les Musée des Familles* (Museum of Families)



Source 8.7.2 A 'trapper' in a 19th-century Lancashire coal mine, from the *Cyclopaedia of Useful Arts and Manufactures* by Charles Tomlinson. A trapper was a child who would crouch in a mine tunnel and open trapdoors to allow coal carts to pass through.

Child labour

Children worked 12 to 16 hours each day. It was reported that some five-year-olds were taken away from their homes by mill-owners who lodged them in crowded sheds near the factory gates and kept them at work for as long as they could stay awake.

The life of a chimney sweep

Work was very dangerous, especially for chimney sweeps. The parents of these boys had to pay their employer to take them on as apprentices, but so many of the boys died that laws were passed to ensure that employers did not receive their final instalments until after the boys had finished their apprenticeships. The final payment was considered to be an incentive for employers to keep their sweeps alive.

Still, many died—most commonly from cancer of the scrotum (caused by coal dust collecting in the folds of their skin), burning and suffocation. It was also common for boys to get stuck in chimneys, despite their employer's policy of feeding them as little as possible to keep them thin.

Physical deformities

Many children suffered lifelong injuries due to their working conditions. Long hours standing up and repetitive work crippled bodies. Also, most machinery in cotton mills did not have safety guards. A child might lose a hand crushed by a machine or their hair could become caught and their scalp be ripped off. In some cases, poor working conditions or a lack of safety guards could result in the death of a child worker.

Up to twelve or thirteen years of age, the bones are so soft that they will bend in any direction. The foot is formed of an arch of bones of a wedge-like shape. These arches have to sustain the whole weight of the body. I am now frequently in the habit of seeing cases in which this arch has given way. Long continued standing has also a very injurious effect upon the ankles. But the principal effects which I have seen produced in this way have been upon the knees. By long continued standing the knees become so weak that they turn inwards, producing that deformity which is called knock-knees and I have sometimes seen it so striking, that the individual has actually lost twelve inches of his height by it.

Source 8.7.3 Dr Samuel Smith gave evidence to the 1832 parliamentary committee into child labour. The committee was chaired by Michael Sadler, who had earlier attempted to introduce a Bill regulating mill working conditions.

Slow pace of change

The Combination Acts

The British Government did nothing to make workers' lives better. Instead they passed the Combination Acts of 1799 and 1800, which banned workers from forming unions, known as trade unions. Offenders could be punished by three months in prison. While there was some opposition to the introduction of the acts, it would be about another 20 years before improvements to labour conditions for some workers would be legislated.

> ***The master is 'naturally tempted by his Situation to be proud and over-bearing, to consider his People as the Scum of the Earth, whom he has a right to squeeze whenever he can; because they ought to be kept low, and not to rise up in Competition with their Superiors'. While workers were led to think 'it no crime to get as much Wages, and to do as little for it as they possibly can, to lie and cheat, and do any other bad Thing; provided it is only against their Master, whom they look upon as their common Enemy'.***

Source 8.7.4 Measures like the Combination Acts were criticised by the Welsh economist, political writer and churchman Reverend Josiah Tucker from the viewpoint of both worker and employer.

Regulation for women and children

Eventually, the British Parliament passed laws to regulate child labour, starting with the *Cotton Mills and Factories Act* of 1819, which set the minimum working age at nine years and the maximum working hours at 12 per day. But these restrictions were easily evaded because there were no inspectors to see that they were enforced. In 1883, the Regulation of Child Labour Law was changed to create paid factory inspectors, and in 1847 the Ten Hours Bill limited working hours for women and children to 10 hours per day.

Dangers of the job for adult men

> ***Some I have seen with red eyes and green hair; the eyes affected by the fires to which they are exposed, and the hair turned green by the brass works.***

Source 8.7.5 Writer Robert Southey observed workers in a metal foundry in Birmingham.

It would be a lot longer before men's hours and conditions improved. Coalminers worked such long hours in increasingly deep pits that, rather than go home and clean up before sleeping, some slept as well as worked underground. Some men fell ill with the fatal black lung disease (pneumoconiosis), caused by coal dust irritating their lungs. Miners risked sudden death each day from explosions or the collapse of pit props. (Often pit props were a luxury, and coal was piled up in columns to stop roofs from caving in.)

Machines under attack

Many workers resented the fact that machines were transforming their lives. Cloth workers and knitters were skilled tradesmen who took pride in their work and jealously guarded the traditional privileges of belonging to their own guilds to which their expertise entitled them. In the 1750s, spinners attacked machines known as jennies; in the 1770s, hosiers smashed Arkwright's stocking frames; and in 1776, a mob of armed rioters destroyed machinery and set fire to a factory.

After the passing of the Combination Acts, opposition became more organised and what became known as Luddism erupted.

WHEREAS,

Several EVIL-MINDED PERSONS have assembled together in a riotous Manner, and DESTROYED a NUMBER of

FRAMES,

In different Parts of the Country:

THIS IS

TO GIVE NOTICE,

That any Person who will give Information of any Person or Persons thus wickedly

BREAKING THE FRAMES,

Shall, upon CONVICTION, receive

50 GUINEAS

REWARD.

And any Person who was actively engaged in RIOTING, who will impeach his Accomplices, shall, upon CONVICTION, receive the same Reward, and every Effort made to procure his Pardon.

☞ Information to be given to Messrs. COLDHAM and ENFIELD.

Nottingham, March 26, 1811.

Source 8.7.6 Reward poster issued to encourage people to inform against Luddites in Nottinghamshire

The strange story of Ned Ludd

The man who would become the most celebrated and demonised character in England in the first decade of the 1800s is said to have been a simple fellow living in the village of Anstey, near Leicester. According to an article in *The Nottingham Review* of 20 December 1811—for which there is no independent verification—Ludd was either being 'whipped for idleness' or 'taunted by local youths' when he smashed two knitting frames in a 'fit of passion'. News of the incident, said to have happened around 1799, spread until it became common in the district to joke, whenever machinery was damaged: 'Ned Ludd did it'.

By 1811, opposition to poor wages and working conditions exploded in a series of attacks by groups of rioters in armed parties, who were directed by commanders whom the newspapers regularly called 'General Ludd'.

The name 'General Ludd' started appearing at the bottom of pamphlets, in letters threatening factory owners and in songs. Unsurprisingly, 'the dread name Ludd' was mentioned with fear at the dinner tables of the rich, while working men believed that to disobey an order given on its authority was to risk immediate death. Even nannies telling bedtime stories would keep children in line by declaring that otherwise 'Ned Ludd will get you!'

Luddites—good or bad?

Luddites did not smash all labour-saving machinery. A newspaper reported in 1811 that the rioters only smashed four out of six weaving machines; the two that were not smashed were owned by businesses that had not lowered wages. At a time when trade unionism was outlawed, historian E.J. Hobsbawm said machine breaking could be seen as a way workers could demand better wages and conditions. Some Luddites resorted to murder. In April 1812, businessman William Horsfal, who had previously successfully fought off an attack on his mill, was shot near the town of Huddersfield.

As soon as he fell after being wounded, the inhuman populace surrounding him reproached him with having been the oppressor of the poor—they did not offer assistance—nor did any one attempt to pursue or secure the assassins who were seen to retire to an adjoining wood.

Source 8.7.7 A report on the murder of William Horsfal, *Leeds Mercury*, April 1812

These men were willing to dig, but the spade was in other hands; they were not ashamed to beg, but there was none to relieve them. Their own means of subsistence were cut off; all other employments pre-occupied; and their excesses, however to be deplored and condemned, can hardly be the subject of surprise.

Source 8.7.8 Among the most reasonable responses at the time came from the now famous poet Lord Byron delivering his maiden speech to the British Parliament on 27 February 1812.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Identify four dangers associated with working as a chimney sweep.
2. What was the purpose of the Combination Acts and how did ordinary workers respond?
3. Who was Ned Ludd? Was he General Ludd? Explain.

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Source 8.7.6. In what ways does the design and wording of this poster encourage people to inform against Luddites in Nottinghamshire? Identify and discuss at least three ways.
5. Today, the term 'Luddite' has a negative connotation, meaning a person who fears technology and wants things to stay the same. Is this true to the spirit of Luddism? Express your view in an extended paragraph.

Evaluating and creating

6. Construct a cartoon strip or storyboard of five or six frames to illustrate child labour during the Industrial Revolution. Make sure you cover both the physical and emotional/psychological aspects of children's lives.

UNIT 8.8

Short-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Building roads

The state of the roads

Before the Industrial Revolution the roads of early Georgian England were considered a national disgrace. The poor state of the roads was clearly an obstacle to growing commerce. For example, the 5-kilometre long road between central London and one of its suburbs, Kensington, was reckoned to be impassable due to the amount of mud.

> *'... deep Ruts full of water with hard dry Ridges [in winter, roads were full of mud] 'which rises, spues and squeezes into the Ditches.'*

Source 8.8.1 From *England and the English in the Eighteenth Century: Chapters in the Social History of the Times*, 1891, William Connor Sydney

Source 8.8.2 The Welsh rebelled against paying turnpike tolls during the so-called Rebecca Riots of 1839–43. John Leech, published 1843

Did you know?

When the King of Spain visited England in 1703, a 60-kilometre journey through the countryside took him and his retinue 40 hours, during which they did not get out of their coaches except when they overturned or got stuck in the mud.

The Turnpike Act

A major factor in the transformation of Britain's roads was the Turnpike Act of 1707. The Turnpike Act enabled residents to maintain roads running through their districts by erecting gates made of metal bars or 'pikes' and charging strangers who travelled through them. But improvement was gradual. Some travellers complained that they were charged on roads that had not been properly repaired. However, by 1770 the turnpikes offered a genuinely national network of relatively efficient transport. In the 1720s the major provincial cities of Manchester, York and Exeter were over three days' journey from London, but by 1780 they could be reached in 24 hours, making it easier for goods and people to travel between cities. This resulted in an expansion of trade.

Hunger and malnutrition

For centuries, chronic hunger and malnutrition were the norm for average people. Until 1750, life expectancy in Britain was about 35 years, mainly due to malnutrition. At the same time, the better-fed citizens of the American colonies were much taller and had a life expectancy of 45 to 50 years.

Source 8.8.3 A representation of the poor of Whitechapel, displaced by the Industrial Revolution, Gustave Doré, 1872

G. Doré

The Malthusian Trap

It took the British scholar Reverend Thomas Malthus to identify the pattern that had limited the growth of nations for centuries, which became known as the Malthusian Trap. As soon as a nation produced a surplus of food, the population would grow until it used up the available supply. Then, as soon as a bad crop or some other disaster occurred, people would starve and the population would decline.

Breaking free

During the course of the Industrial Revolution, Britain broke out of the Malthusian Trap. Better transport by road and canal enabled farm produce to be carried to markets in greater amounts and more cheaply. And famine was reduced because localised crop failures were alleviated by food transported in from further afield. The advent of the railways, in the 1830s, increased the efficiency of transport still further, to the extent that in highly developed nations today—for the time being at least—famine is a thing of the past.

Growing inequality

An unintended outcome of people's ability to travel with greater ease was that they saw more of the nation they lived in, and heard from others who travelled, which made worrying comparisons of rich and poor even more obvious.

'God's own appointment'

For centuries, inequality between classes of people had been accepted as—in the words of one clergyman—'God's own appointment'. Each group in society had their place and it was God's will. It was the role of poor people to be physical labourers and to work in the farms, mines and factories.

Such attitudes became less accepted as the Industrial Revolution saw the gap between rich and poor grow increasingly wide. Successful entrepreneurs were making fortunes and the middle classes could barter their skills for decent salaries. Many farmers, however, were left starving as a result of land enclosures, and craftspeople suffered too, when they were made **redundant** by machines.

Poverty

Many people who were not living in poverty believed the problems of the poor were not caused by lack of a proper income but by laziness, vice, drunkenness, gambling and excessive sexual indulgence. And it

Source 8.8.4 This cartoon suggests that death would be preferable for an ill or aged worker, compared to the workhouses of the Industrial Revolution. Cartoon, John Leech, *Punch*, London, February 1845

followed from this belief that workers should not be paid more because, as the Scottish physician George Fordyce wrote, they would merely spend it drinking. According to Fordyce, workers who had spare money would spend it on alcohol, while the women did not behave like 'proper ladies'. The views of Fordyce and others like him were challenged by many, including the campaigning cleric John Wesley.

> ***... that in a town's backstreets he found poor folk half starved with cold and hunger, but not one of them unemployed who was able to crawl about the room. So wickedly, so devilishly false is that common objection: They are poor because they are idle.***

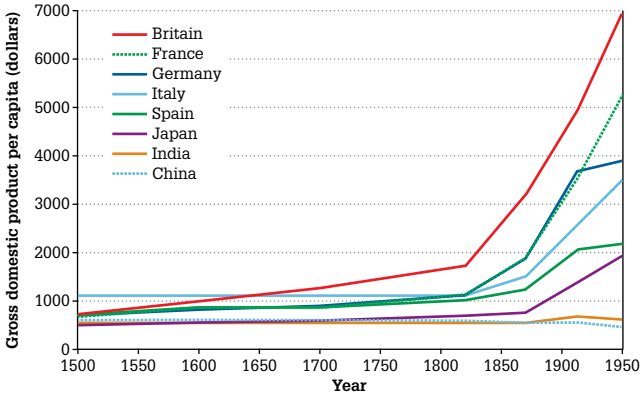
Source 8.8.5 John Wesley writing in 1753

Economic growth

Today, when highly developed economies grow at about 2 per cent per year, and the powerhouse economies of India and China at more than 5 per cent per year, it might be surprising to learn that Britain's economy grew by only 0.5 per cent per year or less during the Industrial Revolution.

What seems like a low growth figure, however, must be compared with what went before it. According to the University of California economist Gregory Clark, before 1760 the average rate of economic growth was very close to zero. For example, he estimates economic growth between 1000 and 1500 at about 0.02 per cent per year, and economic growth between 1500 and 1750 at about 0.045 per cent per year.

An annual growth rate in Britain of under 0.5 per cent between 1760 and 1860 therefore meant wages, allowing for inflation, rose by 55 per cent. While this may not be a large pay rise, it was an increase significant enough to mark the period of the Industrial Revolution as a unique time for the world economy.



Source 8.8.6 This graph shows the gross domestic product per capita of Britain and some European and Asian nations between 1500 and 1950.

Source 8.8.7 Trade unionists in modern Britain display traditional union banners during a demonstration, London, 1992.

Trade unions

When entrepreneurs such as Richard Arkwright brought textile-making machines together in a single building and made employees work together for specified shifts, they did it to increase efficiency and make more money. But this had an unintended outcome. Employees were able to organise themselves to improve their working conditions more easily than when they worked in their own homes. Employees realised that if all or most of them stopped working at the same time—what is known as a strike—they could stop a factory from operating.

Unions of workers, known as trade unions, were formed. These were organisations whose membership consisted of workers and union leaders, united to protect and promote their common interests. Being a member of a trade union allowed members to negotiate with employers with one powerful voice. Many employers were forced to pay their workers more. Trade unions are still working to protect workers' rights today.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Explain the Malthusian Trap.

Applying and analysing

2 Examine Source 8.8.2. How did the Welsh view the turnpikes? Answer in an extended paragraph, with direct reference to the source.

3 Construct a PMI (plus, minus, interesting) to contrast the attitudes to the poor and towards poverty. Write down positive attitudes, negative attitudes and other interesting information.

4 Examine Source 8.8.6.
   - **a** What evidence does it provide that Britain led the Industrial Revolution?
   - **b** What evidence does it provide about the impact of the Industrial Revolution worldwide?

Evaluating and creating

5 Examine Source 8.8.4. What does the illustrator include in this representation to help us to understand the plight of this worker? Identify four things and interpret their significance. Discuss the intended purpose of this cartoon (considering the publication in which it appeared) and comment on its effectiveness.

UNIT 8.9

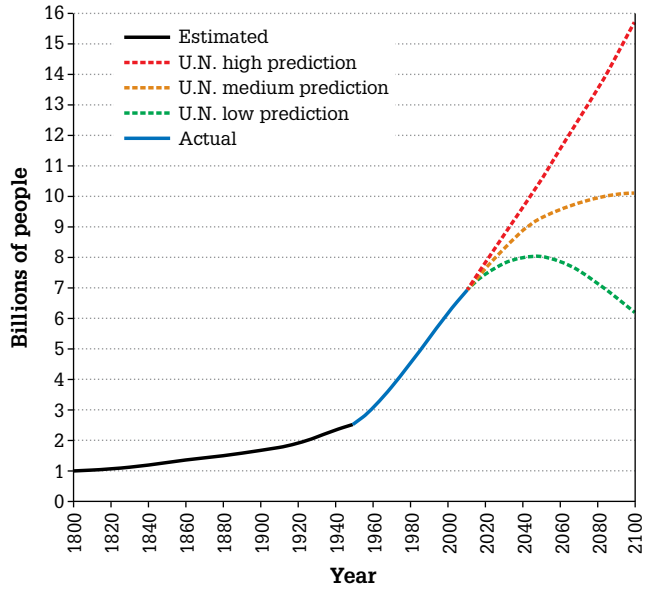
Long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Population growth

Perhaps the most dramatic and lasting change caused by the Industrial Revolution was the explosion in the global population. Our species evolved some 200 000 years ago. By 0 CE, historians estimate that the worldwide human population was about 150 to 200 million people, rising to about 300 million by 1000.

During the next seven or eight centuries, population growth was around 0.1 per cent per year. By the mid-18th century the world's population is estimated to have been between 700 and 800 million people, about six and a half million of whom lived in Britain.

By 1851, census figures show the British population had risen to 27 533 755—nearly a five-fold increase in 100 years. As more nations adopted the medical and industrial innovations of the industrial age, the world's population grew from about 1.3 billion in 1850 to today's figure of just over seven billion. The numbers are expected to continue to rise until at least 2040.



Source 8.9.1 World population and projected population from 1800 to 2100 based on United Nations' projections and US Census Bureau historical estimates

Source 8.9.2 Steel industry workers at the coke furnaces of Pennsylvania, United States, in the 1880s. Images such as this echo the horror of the Industrial Revolution evoked by 19th-century authors and poets.

The worst of times

As the world's population grew and work became more industrialised, cities expanded, resulting in crowding, poverty and disease. From the 1830s, these changes were the subject of lively public debate.

The view that tends to dominate today is the negative one, due to the continuing popularity of the works of Charles Dickens, Romantic poets such as William Blake, who wrote of Britain's 'dark satanic mills', and Mary Shelley, who wrote her 1818 novel *Frankenstein* as a warning about the dangers of the Scientific and Industrial Age.

Birth of socialism

The inequality between people produced by the Industrial Revolution was a major force in the creation of socialism, a political ideology that opposes a free market society and instead believes that wealth should be allocated according to people's needs. One of socialism's founders was Friedrich Engels, whose father sent him to Manchester in 1842 to work at a family-owned cotton mill. The 22-year-old Engels observed the lives of the city's workers and published *The Condition of the Working Class in England* in 1845. The book was highly critical of workers' living conditions. Engels argued that the quality of life and material wellbeing of rural workers was much better before the introduction of machinery and their move to towns to work in factories.

In 1848, Engels and Karl Marx published *The Communist Manifesto*, which united socialist political parties around the world in the belief that the free market economic system, as exemplified by Britain's Industrial Revolution, oppressed ordinary workers and was bound to collapse. *The Communist Manifesto* went on to influence the politician and political theorist Vladimir Lenin, who led the 1917 Bolshevik Revolution in Russia.

The best of times

Some people, including historian Emma Griffin of the University of East Anglia, look beyond the image of 19th-century cities as depressing places—dark, crowded and full of disease, where people died young. Griffin claims it is easy to forget that rural life at the time could be stifling: people lived in close proximity to their extended family, and their employer knew everything they did during and after work. Cities offered not only work opportunities but cultural experiences.

When rural people arrived in the expanding cities, their journals and letters often express isolation and loneliness, says historian Lawrence Goldman of the University of Oxford. But this feeling lessened as city dwellers developed new forms of community beyond the traditional family and village, such as trade unions, friendly societies and the Methodist churches, which boomed in the early 1800s. Not everybody moved to—or stayed in—cities out of desperation. Large cities such as Manchester were exciting places where there was much happening.

The second Industrial Revolution

The second Industrial Revolution was a continuation of the first. It saw the industrial and economic processes pioneered by Britain spread to Western Europe, the United States and Japan. Its culmination came in the early 20th century when the Ford Motor Company used an assembly line to produce its Model T car.

The assembly line

The inspiration for the Ford Motor Company's ground-breaking assembly line came from a 'disassembly line' at a Chicago meat-processing plant. Animals were slaughtered and their carcasses were carried on a powered conveyor belt past a line of workers. A visiting Ford employee noticed that by repeatedly carrying out one cutting action, workers performed faster and did a more precise job. Taken together, the work of all the workers produced a fully butchered carcass.

It did not take a lot of imagination to see that by reversing this process a hugely complex item such as a car could be built faster by relatively low-skilled workers. The first step was the use of machine tools, machines that mass-produced interchangeable parts for other machines. This meant that if one part broke it could be fixed or replaced using spare parts. It took years to perfect the process, but by 1913 Ford was producing cars about eight times faster than it had in 1908 (in 1.33 hours when an assembly line was used compared with 12.5 hours without one).

Paint it black

The assembly line was so efficient that it produced an unforeseen problem—paint did not dry fast enough. Faced with a bottleneck in manufacturing, Ford opted to paint all the Model Ts 'Japan black', the paint that dried the fastest. This led company owner Henry Ford to joke that customers could get the Model T in any colour they liked 'as long as it's black'.

Source 8.9.3 Workers at Ford's Michigan assembly line in 1913

The impact of mass production

Mass production meant that craftspeople were replaced by workers carrying out simple and often mind-numbing, repetitive tasks. The upside was that goods were produced cheaply and in vast numbers, leading to more jobs and cheaper goods. The cost of a Model T, for example, dropped from $825 in 1908 to $575 in 1912, allowing more Americans to own cars. This transformed society in many ways. One way was that, because workers could commute more easily from where they lived to where they worked, vast residential suburbs outside crowded inner cities began to be built.

Did you know?

One of the first attempts to implement a mechanised assembly line was in 1797, when businessman Eli Whitney won a contract from the US Government to make 10 000 muskets (a type of gun). Previously, craftspeople had made each gun separately, producing its parts by hand using files, saws and suchlike. As a result, each gun was unique, and if it broke another skilled person was needed to make a replacement part to fit that particular gun.

Consumerism

The simple machines of the early Industrial Revolution planted the seeds of consumerism, which dominates life in economically developed countries today. A consumer society is one in which the purchase of material goods is encouraged. Success is measured in terms of growth in the gross domestic product (GDP) and a recession (in which the GDP fails to grow) is bad news. Most people who live in more economically developed countries have jobs that pay enough to eat well, and to buy fashionable shoes and clothing, cars, mobile phones and other electronic equipment.

Need for speed

Thanks to the radio, telephone, television and the internet, it is easy to think that communication consists of words or digital data sent along wires or in waves to anywhere in the world in a fraction of a second. But in the 1700s, information only travelled as fast as a person could travel in a day. For thousands of years, the maximum speed was that of a horse.

This changed during the Industrial Revolution in response to the demand for freer and more efficient trade, leading to networks of turnpike roads,

Source 8.9.4 A print advertisement announcing the new 1950 Frigidaire refrigerator

canals and, eventually, railways. One unintended consequence was that rural folk who used to travel only a handful of miles beyond their village in their lifetime saw more of the world and were exposed to new ideas.

Industrial society's need for speed led to the invention of the electric telegraph in the 1840s, and the internet in the 1990s. But as in the 1700s, there are unintended consequences of unrestricted communication. For example, the internet has expanded our relationships, but has produced cyber-bullying and websites promoting terrorism.

Environmental costs

One downside to industrialisation and consumerism has been environmental pollution. In the period from 1700 to 1800, environmental pollution was mainly limited to regions where mills churned out coal smoke. Problems could also be reduced at the local level by the introduction of cleaner technologies. But worldwide, the level of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, produced by burning coal and other fossil fuels, has risen dramatically since the Industrial Revolution, and the majority of scientists believe this to be a significant contributor to global warming.

Some people believe that part of the solution is for people to dramatically reduce their energy consumption, even if this means fewer luxuries, or having to pay more for energy. Means of reducing energy consumption include carbon taxes or emissions trading schemes, which make it more expensive to buy the most polluting forms of energy. Others argue that government intervention to force people to use less energy will merely hurt the poorest members of society and do no good as developing nations will carry on industrialising.

Some people see a solution in the entrepreneurial innovation that produced the Industrial Revolution in the first place. As fossil fuels become harder to extract and more expensive, it will become increasingly profitable for business people to develop and market alternative energy sources such as solar, wind and wave power.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Define the second Industrial Revolution.
2 In your own words, outline the views of historians Griffin and Goldman on the Industrial Revolution.

Applying and analysing

3 Examine Source 8.9.4. Based on how the 1950 Frigidaire is represented visually and in written text, who might be persuaded to buy this product and for what reasons? Share your thoughts in an extended paragraph.

Evaluating and creating

4 Construct a T-Chart that contrasts the evidence presented in this chapter about whether the Industrial Revolution led to the 'best of times' or the 'worst of times'. Review the evidence and express your own opinion in an extended paragraph.
5 Imagine that you were asked to write a feature newspaper article in 1930 about Ford's Model T. Write this article in a way that covers a range of perspectives—for example, Henry Ford's, and those of an assembly-line worker and a person who had just bought a car.

Inquiry tasks

Cause and effect

Design an annotated visual display (AVD) identifying the main causes and effects of the Industrial Revolution in Britain. Make sure you include both short- and long-term effects. Use headings, subheadings and colour to structure your AVD and enhance its readability. Present your information in a range of ways, including art, photography, tables of statistics, graphs/charts and your own sketches.

Annotated map

Create a large annotated map detailing the spread of the Industrial Revolution beyond Britain. At a minimum, represent timeframes (for example, earlier and later spread and impact), and the movements of people (for example, slaves, convicts, merchants, settlers), raw materials and products (for example, cotton, opium). You may wish to use tracing paper to 'layer' your map.

Art and the Industrial Revolution

Complete a research report on how art is used to represent the Industrial Revolution. Select a minimum of four primary sources for your analysis, perhaps including Source 8.10.1. In the body section of your report, include an analysis of each artwork.

Source 8.10.1 'Miss Kennedy Distributing Clothing at Kilrush', from *The Illustrated London News*, 22 December 1849

For each artwork, answer the following questions.

a When and where was the source produced?

b Who is the author?

c What do you see—that is, what are the literal features?

d What are the key messages the artist is trying to convey? What particular elements in the artwork convey this and how?

e What aspects of the Industrial Revolution are reflected in this representation?

f In the conclusion of your report, respond to the following question: 'Based on your knowledge and understanding of the Industrial Revolution, how well do these artworks represent the period of time in which they were created?'

Read all about it!

Create the front page for a London daily newspaper from around 1812. Include a range of news and human-interest stories about, for example, increases in industrial output, labour conditions and the government's response. You might like also to include stories of General Ludd. To attract the reader's attention, lay your front page out with short paragraphs, text in columns, catchy titles and one or more illustrations, maps or graphs. Complete a plan first, and show it to a peer or teacher for feedback.

Perspectives diary

Create a series of six diary entries from the perspective of either a poor or a middle-class person who lived in Britain during the Industrial Revolution. In each diary entry, make sure to include:

- a date and place
- an account of events as they happened
- observations about change over time
- opinions and feelings about what you have experienced 'in character'.

Complete a plan first, and show it to a peer or teacher for feedback.

GLOSSARY

breadline a level of income that is just enough to sustain life

distil to produce a pure or concentrated liquid by a process of boiling and condensing

emigration permanent departure from one country to live in another

enclosure system a process lasting from the 1500s to the 1800s of enclosing formerly common lands and creating large, privately owned farms

free trade trade between countries that is not hindered in any way

monopoly when a business or government has exclusive control over a product or service

pastoral relating to rural areas where animals are raised

patent to obtain the copyright to a product

redundant a person, product or service that is no longer required

spinning mule an invention that combined a spinning jenny and a water frame

steam engine an engine that is powered by the use of boiling water to produce steam under pressure

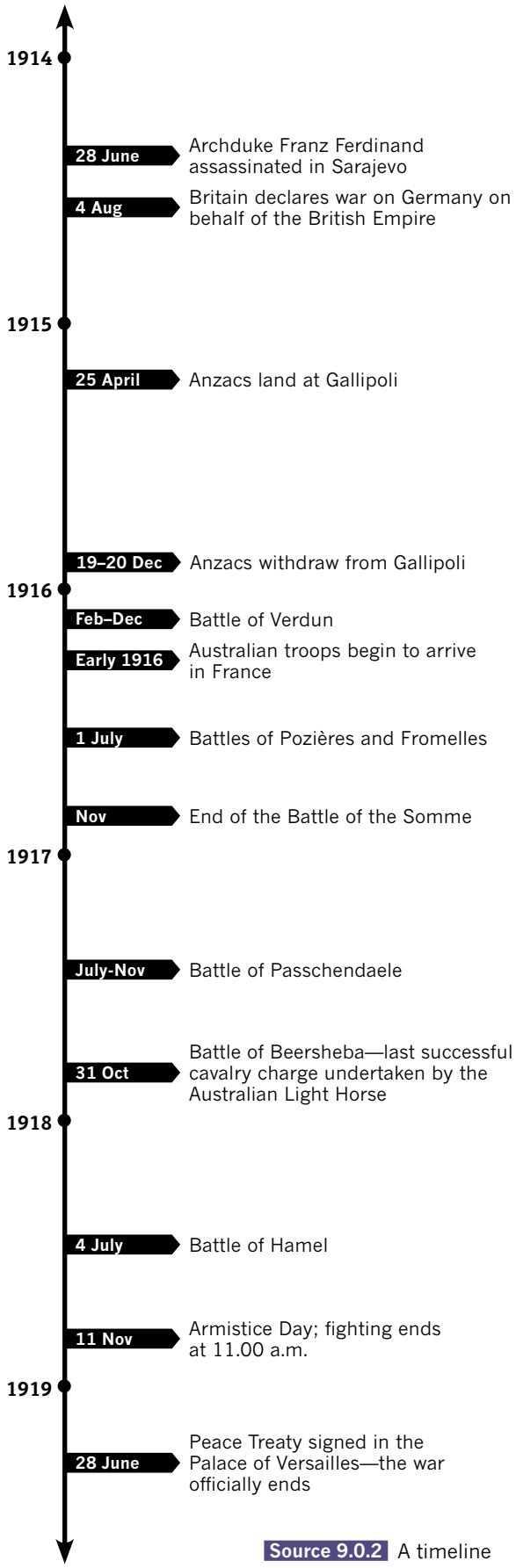
turnpike gates erected on roads by local residents that travellers had to pay to pass through, thus providing funds for road maintenance

CHAPTER 9

World War I

Adventure, glory, patriotism, bravery, duty, loyalty to the British King and Empire—these were the words that described the expectations and ideals confronting Australian men in 1914 when war was declared. These ideals, although ingrained in them since childhood, were to be sorely tested in the years that followed. The expectation of a short war in 1914 turned into the horror of trench warfare as the soldiers of both sides were forced into a grim war of **attrition**. Warfare was never to be viewed in the same way again.

Source 9.0.1 'Remember Gallipoli!' South Australian recruiting poster depicting troops coming ashore at Anzac Cove, c. 1915–18, Australian War Memorial



Source 9.0.2 A timeline of World War I

UNIT 9.1

Causes of World War I

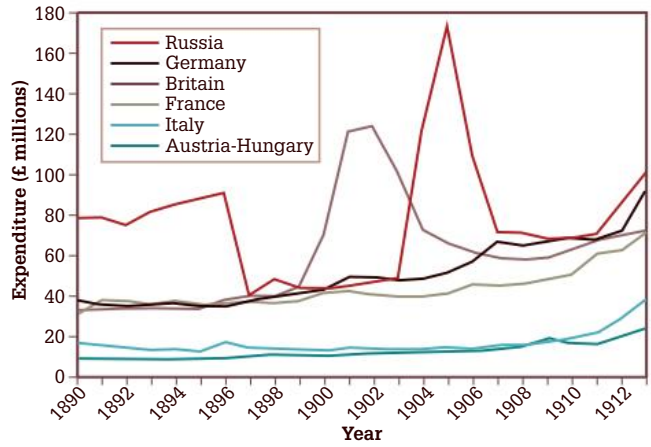
The alliance system

In 1882, a defensive **alliance** was formed by Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy. This alliance came to be known as the Triple Alliance. Germany sought new allies as it feared that France would attack Germany in retaliation for France's defeat by Germany in the Franco-Prussian War of 1871. Twelve years later, in 1894, France sought its own ally and formed the Dual Entente with Russia.

During the 1800s, Britain was more interested in empire building in Africa and Asia than in European affairs. However, by the beginning of 1900, Britain began to engage more with Europe, and in 1904 signed a treaty with France called the Entente Cordiale. In 1907, a new alliance between France, Britain and Russia was signed creating the Triple Entente.

The arms race

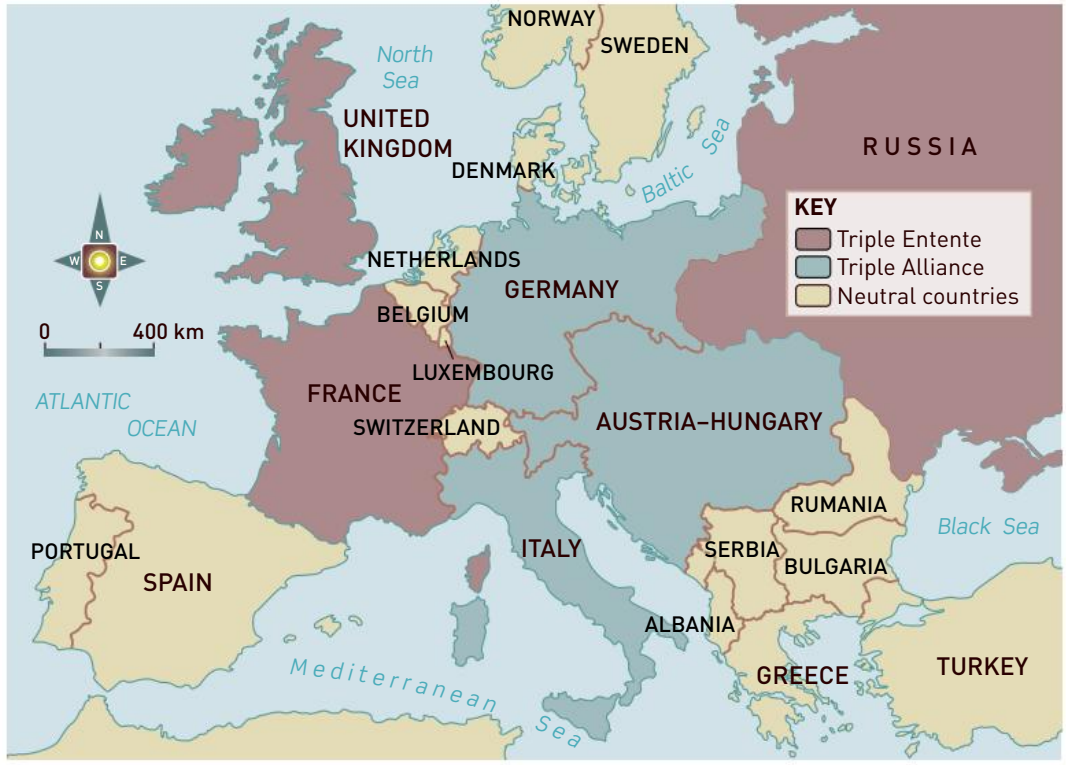
A major consequence of the alliance system was an increasing demand for more money to be spent on armaments (now called the arms race). Across Europe, different countries increased their spending on military development.



Source 9.1.2 Arms race expenditure

International tensions

The nations of Europe became increasingly distrustful of each other in the early years of the 20th century. France and Britain argued over colonial borders, especially in Africa. Germany wanted to expand its influence by developing its own colonies and challenged the right of France to exert influence over non-European peoples in Morocco. In 1905 and



Source 9.1.1 Alliances in Europe, June 1914

1911, there were two incidents involving Germany and France over Morocco. On both occasions, Germany was forced to back down by Britain and France.

In Europe, Russia was concerned about Austria–Hungary's intentions in the Balkans. This area had been under the control of the Ottoman Turks for over 400 years. As the Ottoman Empire began to unravel, Austria–Hungary annexed the Balkan states of Bosnia and Herzegovina. This move annoyed other European nations and Serbia, which had wanted to expand its influence in these states. There were wars in the Balkans in 1912 and 1913. This led to a conference in London attended by the great European powers, with the aim of preventing more war. Tensions in Europe, however, were still growing in 1914 when the heir to the Austro–Hungarian throne made a visit to Sarajevo in Bosnia.

The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand

The final step to war was the **assassination** of Archduke Franz Ferdinand, who was the heir to the throne of Austria–Hungary. On 28 June 1914, the Archduke and his wife made a visit to Sarajevo. After surviving an attempted assassination, they were attacked again on their way to the hospital to visit those injured in the first attempt. The attacker was Gavrilo Princip, a member of a Serbian organisation called the Black Hand. This second attack was successful and both the Archduke and his wife were killed.

After the assassination, the Austrian government demanded a greater role in Serbian affairs. Germany backed its neighbour Austria in its stance against Serbia, and Russia backed Serbia. The alliances between the various countries were invoked and the world moved to world war within six weeks.

5 July Germany gives support to Austria–Hungary, called the 'blank cheque'

23 July Austria sends a list of demands to Serbia, including one to allow Austrian officials to enter Serbia

25 July Serbia replies accepting all the demands except the one to allow officials into the country

26 July Austria–Hungary begins shelling the Serbian capital, Belgrade

30 July Russia mobilises its army; Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany sends a telegram to Tsar Nicholas of Russia asking him to stop the mobilisation

1 August Germany declares war on Russia; Germany announces its own mobilisation; France orders the mobilisation of its army in support of Russia

2 August Germany sends troops towards Belgium, a neutral country, as German troops need to pass through Belgium to reach France and win the war quickly

3 August Britain honours a treaty it signed in 1838 to protect Belgium and sends an ultimatum to Germany—leave Belgium or we will declare war

4 July Germany refuses to comply with Britain's ultimatum; Britain declares war on Germany on behalf of the British Empire; as part of the British Empire, Australia is now also at war

Source 9.1.3 Events leading to war

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 What were the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente?

2 What single event triggered World War I?

Applying and analysing

3 Examine Source 9.1.2. Which of the two alliances does it suggest was most prepared for war in 1912?

4 Use a concept map, or graphic organiser of your choice, to outline the international tensions that developed in the period before 1914.

5 In a small group, conduct further research on the internet to annotate each of the events outlined in Source 9.1.3 with at least one further significant fact.

UNIT 9.2

Enlisting in the army

Initial enthusiasm for the war

In August 1914, when news reached Australia that Britain had declared war, Australia was in the middle of an election campaign. Both the Australian Prime Minister Joseph Cook and Labor Leader of the Opposition, Andrew Fisher declared support for the British Empire.

During the election campaign, Fisher delivered his famous the line that Australia would support Britain 'to the last man and the last shilling'. The Labor Party won the election and Andrew Fisher became prime minister.

With both political sides publicly backing the war, it is unsurprising that the majority of the Australian population at the time also gave its support. Many young men rushed to enlist, fearing the war would be over before they had a chance to join the fight at the front.

Source 9.2.1 A recruitment poster, 1915, Australian War Memorial

Enlisting

Initially there were so many men wanting to enlist that the Australian Army could set very high standards and be quite selective. As a result there were men who missed out because they did not meet the army's height or fitness requirements. These restrictions were changed as the war unfolded and more men were needed.

Young men under 18 needed their parents' permission to enlist. Many under this age did join, however, both with and without permission. In 1914, the upper age limit was 38 although there were men who claimed to be younger in order to join up.

Reasons for enlisting

Australian men, young and middle-aged, enlisted for a variety of reasons. Some of these reasons changed as the war progressed.

Early reasons for enlisting

PATRIOTISM

Many Australians had been raised to be loyal to their king and country. These men believed it was their patriotic duty to support the 'Mother Country', Britain, and to fight for the Empire.

ADVENTURE

Many lived rather boring lives involving daily work on a property or in a mundane city job. Enlisting offered the opportunity to travel to France and have a great adventure.

PEER PRESSURE

Peer pressure also played its part. Many men joined with their mates as they felt that to do anything else was to let down their friends down. Women also made it clear that they preferred a man in uniform, and so many men enlisted out of concern that women would no longer be interested in them if they did not.

Later reasons for enlistment

COMMITMENT

After initial enthusiasm started to wear off and the first high **casualty** rates from Gallipoli were made public, the number of those enlisting began to fall. Some men still joined because they felt a commitment to those who had already died. There were a number

of instances of a younger brother joining up after the death of an older brother, believing that they needed to finish the job for their sibling.

PROPOGANDA

Schools were also involved in war **propaganda**. Many boys' schools, both public and private, encouraged school leavers to enlist once they finished school. There was competition among different schools in an area to see which one had the highest percentage of young men enlisted. Even 'old boys' groups encouraged their members to enlist.

The government also became involved, conducting strong propaganda campaigns with posters published in newspapers across the country. These posters played on the emotions—patriotism, mateship, family, sportsmanship and hatred of the enemy.

THE WHITE FEATHER

Women played their part by publicly shaming men who looked fit and healthy enough to enlist. They did this by handing men a white feather, which signified that they regarded the recipient as a coward. While many men were shamed into enlisting, there were others who would not be pressured into fighting a war they did not believe in. There were also men who were unable to enlist as their job in Australia was seen as too important to let them go and fight.

> ***I didn't know of anybody who sent one or whose sons got them but I know that it was very evident that some of the women whose brothers or sons or husbands went to the war if there was any young men living nearby they would send them white feathers. It was very cruel, very cruel to do that.***

Source 9.2.2 Anita Ryall, *Australians at War*, oral stories

Source 9.2.3 A propaganda poster, 1917, Australian War Memorial

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. What was the impact on Australian society of both the major political parties expressing their support for Australia's entry into the war?
2. How did schools assist the enlistment process?
3. What did the white feather represent?

Applying and analysing

4. Examine Sources 9.2.1 and 9.2.3 and explain how someone seeing each poster might be convinced to enlist. In your answer consider the content of each poster as well as the emotions to which it is appealing.

Evaluating and creating

5. Rank the reasons why men enlisted from the most to least important. Justify your ranking.
6. Create your own poster to encourage someone to enlist. Focus on one or more emotional appeals.

Places Australians fought

Source 9.3.1 Theatres of World War I where Australian soldiers fought

Early Australian campaigns: 1914–15

In October 1914, Australia began its first military action of the war in New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago (off the coast of New Guinea) where the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force drove the German military out. Australia's next engagement was a naval one that resulted in HMAS *Sydney* attacking and disarming a German ship, the SMS *Emden*. These two events were seen at the time as being triumphs against the might of Germany, and they provided an important boost in morale for Australian troops.

Australia's next engagement, and perhaps its best known, was the landing at Gallipoli in April 1915. The last Anzac departed the cove on 20 December 1915; British troops did not leave until 8 January 1916.

After Gallipoli, Australian forces were divided across two main battle areas. The Australian Light Horse continued to fight against the Turks in Palestine while the **infantry** units went to France to fight the Germans.

Australia in the Middle East: 1916–18

After their withdrawal from Gallipoli, the Australian Light Horse returned to Egypt for more training. They were to fight the rest of the war as mounted infantry. The Light Horse would ride to battle and then dismount and fight as infantry troops.

In 1916, Australia was fighting to defend the Suez Canal against the Ottoman Turks. The Suez Canal was an essential waterway linking Europe to the Indian Ocean, and losing control of the canal would have

made the supply route to Britain much longer. Having secured the Suez Canal, Australian troops were then involved in reconquering the Sinai Peninsula. From Sinai, Australian forces were able to fight through the Turks and push their way into Palestine. This was a campaign fought, not in the trenches, but in dry, hot areas that had little vegetation and few settlements.

The most notable Australian military achievement in the Middle East was the Battle of Beersheba, on 31 October 1917, during which the Australian Light Horse charged the Turkish guns, securing the wells as the town fell. After taking Beersheba, the Australian Light Horse, with the rest of the British force, moved to Jerusalem and took the city on 9 December 1917. Throughout 1918 they continued to move through the Ottoman Empire, occupying Lebanon and Syria. Finally, on 30 October 1918, Turkey surrendered.

Australians on the Western Front: 1916–18

After their departure from Gallipoli, the infantry was reorganised and moved. In France, Australian troops fought against the German Empire in trenches stretching from the North Sea to the Swiss border. Most of the ensuing battles between 1916 and 1917 followed a typical pattern of initial **bombardment**, followed by waves of infantry that were sent across an area called 'no-man's land' towards the enemy.

The first troops had arrived in March 1916 and by the middle of the year they were involved in the Battle of the Somme. This was a major battle, which saw many hundreds of thousands of casualties on both sides, and lasted from July to November. However, at the end of the battle both sides found their positions relatively unchanged. With the trench lines in Europe barely moving, Australia forces were in a **stalemate**. In 1917, the British Army, of which Australian troops formed a small but valued contingent, continued to attack German lines. The major offensive occurred at Passchendaele, near Ypres, in the second half of the year.

For the Allies, 1918 started badly. After the Russian surrender, Germany was able to free up a large number of troops from the Eastern Front and send them west. This was Germany's last offensive move as they had a limited window of opportunity before US forces arrived, bringing millions of fresh troops backed by the strong US economy. The Germans were initially successful but by the middle of the year the Allies were gaining the advantage. Australian troops played their part in battles such as Hamel. The allied offensive officially began on 8 August—the 'Black Day' for the German Army, according to the German commander, Paul von Ludendorff. In it, Australians took part in conflicts around Amiens, Mont St Quentin and Peronne. On 11 November 1918 the war ended. Australia had played its part in the success of the Allies.

RAN and Australian Flying Corps

The Royal Australian Navy played its part throughout the war, transporting troops and supplies. World War I also saw warfare in the air for the first time, and Australia responded by establishing the Australian Flying Corps. The men in this unit served in both the Middle East and France as observers to support the ground troops.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. State the location of Australia's first military action of World War I.
2. Explain what happened to the Australian Army after the Gallipoli campaign.

Applying and analysing

3. With reference to Source 9.3.1 describe the extent and location of Australia's involvement in World War I.

Evaluating and creating

4. Use Source 9.3.1 (trace, photocopy or scan) to enable you to create an annotated version of a map that depicts and informs about the various campaigns involving Australian soldiers. Use the information in this unit and further research on the internet to help you.

UNIT 9.4

The nature of warfare in World War I

The changing nature of war

World War I is often referred to as the first modern war. This is because in World War I the style of warfare changed, from the traditional clash of infantry with hand-to-hand combat, and cavalry charges, to battles fought with more technologically advanced weaponry such as aeroplanes, tanks and heavy **artillery**—all of which were capable of slaughtering large numbers of the enemy at one time.

The changes to weaponry were fuelled partly by the second Industrial Revolution of the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Weapons were more sophisticated than ever before, in terms of both range and accuracy, and battles were fought on many fronts—on land, in the air, on and under the sea, and from the trenches. As a result, more than eight million soldiers were killed in action and many millions more were wounded.

Weapon	Description
Aeroplane	First use in warfare. At the start of the war, used only for observation purposes; by the end of the war, used to drop bombs on the enemy and for aerial battles.
Artillery	Large or heavy guns that could inflict a lot of damage to an enemy position. Some of the larger guns had a range of nearly 130 km.
Barbed wire	Initially not a weapon, but quickly became one as millions of kilometres were laid by both sides of the conflict along the 654 km length of the trenches; in front of some trenches the barbed wire could be as wide as 30 or 40 metres. Wounded soldiers on both sides would often become trapped and be left there to die as no one dared expose themselves to fire in order to rescue them.
Chemical warfare (gas)	First use in warfare. Initially, the German Army used chlorine gas to poison the enemy in the trenches; later, the far more dangerous mustard gas was also developed by the Germans and came to be used by both sides. Mustard gas forms large blisters and burns on the skin and in the lungs of its victims. However, effectiveness of gas as a weapon was negated by the development of gas masks.
Dreadnought	Steam turbine–powered battleship equipped with only big guns.
Flamethrower	A weapon that produces a long, controlled stream of fire. Used by the German Army to flush the enemy out of their trenches.
Grenade	A small bomb that can be thrown by hand. Used extensively by both sides throughout the war as it allowed soldiers to toss a bomb at an enemy from a sheltered position.
Machine gun	Lighter, more mobile versions of the machine gun were developed for use in WWI.
Rifle	Standard weapon issue for all soldiers on both sides.
Submarine	Used by the German Navy for surprise attacks on enemy ships and Allied passenger ships, the most famous instance being the sinking of the British passenger liner *Lusitania* in May 1915.
Tank	First use in warfare. The first tanks were unwieldy and difficult to manoeuvre and were used in attempts to cross no-man's-land. By the end of the war, improvements had been made to the design and so they become more effective weapons.
Trench mortar	A battle weapon developed by the British; used in the front line of the trenches; very effective as one mortar could kill up to 25 men at a time.
Zeppelin	First use in warfare; a rigid airship used to bomb the enemy from a high altitude.

Source 9.4.1 Weapons of World War I

Source 9.4.2 American troops riding to battle in tanks, Forest of Argonne, France, 26 September 1918

Source 9.4.3 Wounded Canadian soldiers, victims of a mustard gas attack, Canadian War Museum

Trench warfare

The trenches were long holes in the ground reinforced with timber and sandbags, with wooden floors called duckboards. The aim was to provide some protection from enemy fire. The trenches in which Australians fought were fairly basic. As the war continued, however, improvements were added that made life somewhat more comfortable.

The trench system

The trench system that crisscrossed northern France and Belgium consisted of a series of trench lines:

- the front-line trenches from which attacks were launched and which spearheaded the defences
- the support lines, which were designed to hold the soldiers during bombardments and also from which reinforcements and supplies could be taken up to the front lines
- the reserve line, where the troops waited until called up to the front lines closer to the battle.

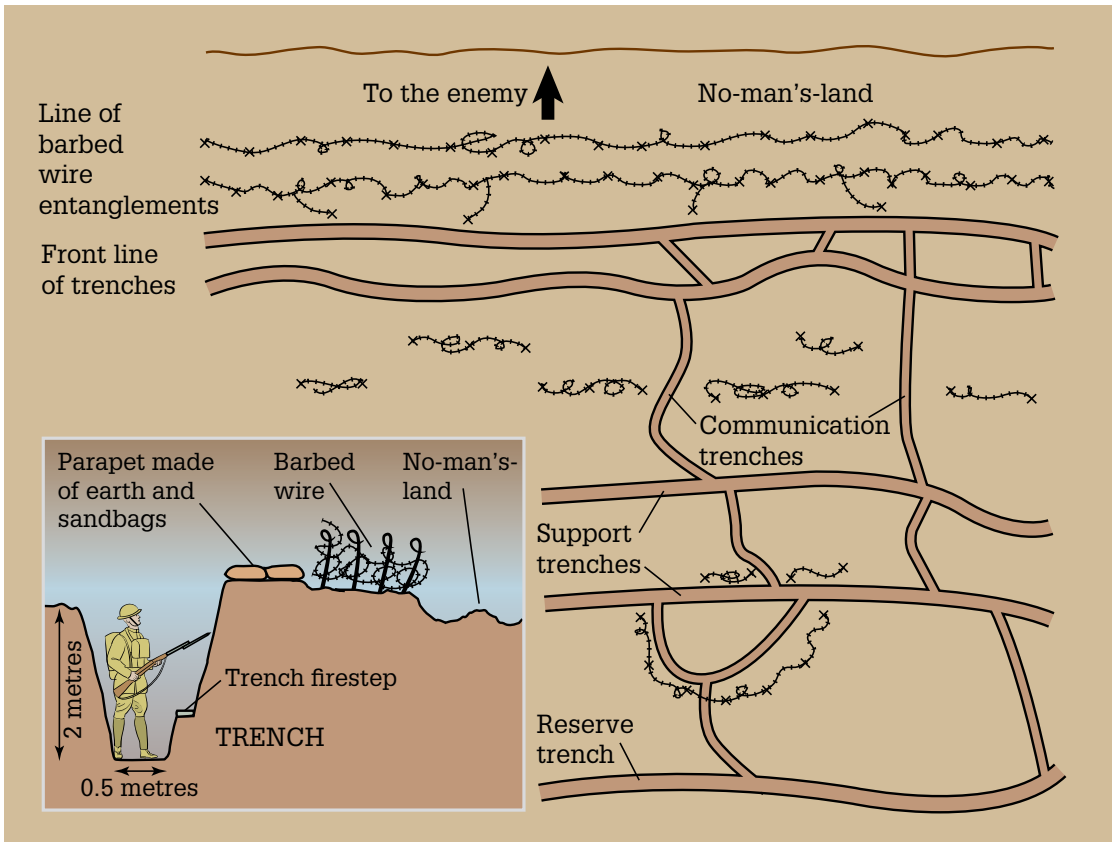
These lines were joined together by communication trenches. These theoretically allowed the men to move safely between the three lines of trenches.

Once a major offensive was launched, the trenches tended to become confusing places and often failed to offer any real protection for the men. Between the Allied and Central Powers' systems of trenches was the area called no-man's-land, so called because neither side controlled the area. No-man's-land was not safe for anyone.

Barbed wire was strung in front of the trenches to act as an additional line of defence. While attacking the enemy, it was not uncommon for soldiers to become tangled in the barbed wire and die there as their comrades were unable to reach them and cut them down.

Life in the trenches

Living in the trenches involved a basic routine—sleeping, eating or simply waiting around for something to happen. Boredom was a major problem, as was disease. Food and water were often in short supply, depending on the ability of the support personnel to move supplies up to the front. Hot meals were supplied whenever possible but often troops ate tinned food such as bully beef. Fresh water was not always available and usually had to be rationed.



Source 9.4.4 A model trench

The trenches offered limited shelter from the elements. However, as the war developed, dugouts were built for the men to shelter in when sleeping and for the officers to use for planning.

In the trenches it was common for the men to suffer from diseases such as dysentery due to poor diet and sanitation. Another common disease was trench foot, which was caused by standing in mud or water for too long. The foot literally rotted and when the boots were removed, part of the foot would come away as well.

Men in the trenches also suffered **shell shock**, which was caused by the constant noise of the shelling and falling bombs. At first sufferers of shell shock were regarded as cowards, but by the end of the war the affliction was recognised as a consequence of time spent in the trenches.

Source 9.4.5 Men of the 53rd Battalion, AIF, in the front line minutes before the attack at Fromelles, France, 19 July 1916, Australian War Memorial

Weapon	Number of casualties	Percentage of total
High-velocity bullets from rifles and machine guns	48 309	33.9
Shell fragments and shrapnel pellets	72 513	50.9
Bombs and grenades	2 714	1.9
Gas	16 822	11.8
Shell shock	1 624	1.1
Total	142 378	100.0

Source 9.4.6 Australian casualties caused by various forms of weaponry between April 1916 and March 1918

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 List two ways in which the style of warfare in World War I differed from earlier wars.

2 How did 'no-man's-land' come to get its name?

Applying and analysing

3 Describe life in the trenches, covering aspects such as reasons for the trench system, disease, food and water.

4 Study Source 9.4.6. Which weapon was responsible for the most Australian casualties in World War I?

Evaluating and creating

5 Use Sources 9.4.1 to 9.4.6 and further research on the internet to create an audio-visual display on the weaponry of World War I and its impact on warfare.

UNIT 9.5

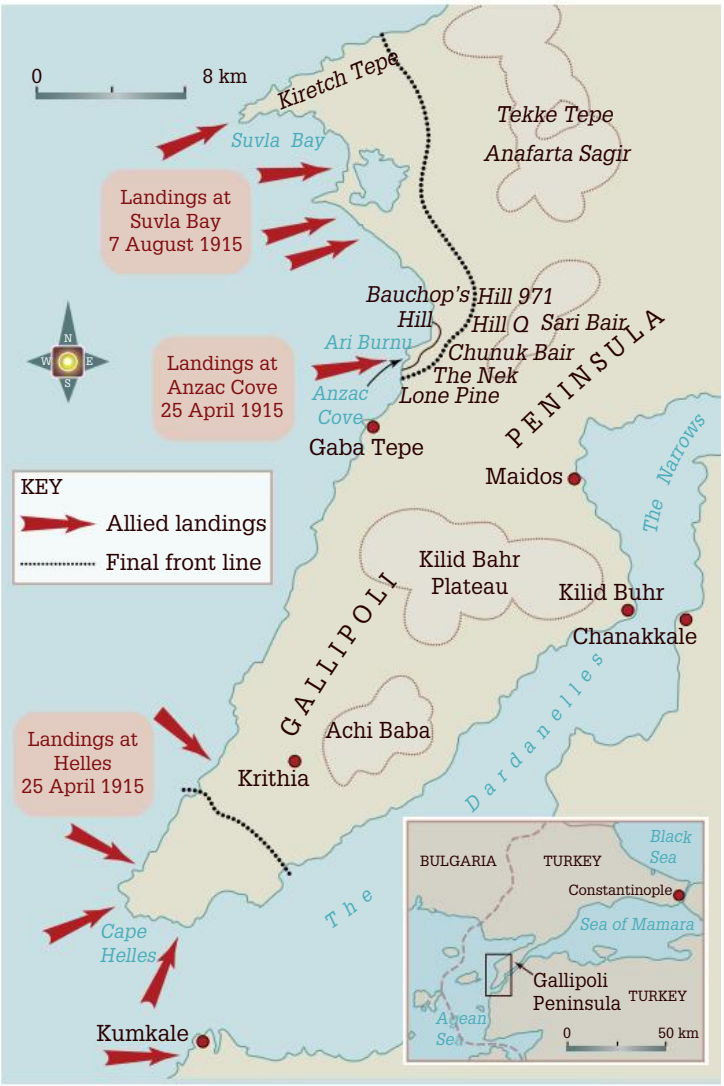
The Gallipoli campaign

Aim of the campaign

By December 1914, the war in Europe was at a stalemate. The British devised a plan to attack Turkey, believing Germany would send troops from the Western Front to assist the Turks.

Britain's plan was to:

- force battleships through the Dardenelles, which would allow the Allies to capture Constantinople
- then open the supply routes to Russia
- bombard the peninsula from battleships, making it easier for Allied troops to land.



Source 9.5.1 Gallipoli Peninsula

The plan failed because:

- the naval bombardment failed to remove the Turks, who were able to damage a number of Allied ships by laying mines
- the Allied bombardment stopped early so the Turks were able to retreat back into their trenches
- a number of craft were damaged or destroyed during the landings
- the Anzac troops were supposed to land at Gaba Tepe but landed further north, on the wrong beach.

Landing at Gallipoli

At dawn on 25 April 1915, 16 000 Anzac troops landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula. They were immediately faced with steep cliffs rather than a soft beach. At the top of the cliffs the Turks were waiting and were able to fire on the invading forces as they arrived on shore.

During the first day the Anzacs managed to force their way ashore to advance about 900 metres. More than 600 men were killed and another 2000 injured. By the end of April, 27 000 troops had landed and trench warfare was established.

Lone Pine and the Nek

As summer unfolded, the decision was made to launch two new offensives. The first was at Lone Pine, where the Australians were to distract the Turks from the British landings at Suvla Bay, on the Gallipoli Peninsula. Australian forces surprised the Turks by attacking from tunnels dug between the two trench lines and then removing the logs that had been covering the Turkish trenches.

On 7 August, the 3rd Light Horse Brigade launched a series of four extraordinary attacks in an area known as the Nek. They had only to attack over a distance of about 30 metres but the Turks were so well positioned in their trenches that the Australians were simply massacred by machine-gun fire. It was initially reported that the Brigade had successfully reached the Turkish trenches so more troops were ordered to advance in what soon became a suicidal mission. The charge of the 3rd Light Horse Brigade is one of Australia's most famous and tragic battles; over 230 men died in 45 minutes.

Source 9.5.2 Landing at Anzac Cove, 1915

Conditions at Gallipoli

... diarrhoea, dysentery and paratyphoid attacked thousands. Only the serious cases were evacuated ... The rest struggled on even fainting at their posts, but indomitably eager. Their uniform was like no other in the war ... Half naked, they dug, they tunnelled, carried food, water and ammunition up the dusty tracks, swept their trenches free of refuse, or patiently searched their clothes for the vermin that nightly attacked them

Source 9.5.3 C.E.W. Bean, *The Story of Anzac* (Official History of Australia in World War I 1914–1918, Vol II), Australian War Memorial, 1941

The Anzacs were known as 'diggers' because they spent so much time digging trenches as protection from the Turkish machine guns. The men used sandbags as these could absorb some of the force of the shells. The Anzacs lived in the trenches for the rest of the year. Conditions were hard; heat and flies meant diseases such as dysentery were common.

Withdrawal

By December it was clear that the Gallipoli campaign was a failure and the decision was made to withdraw. This was no light undertaking. The troops were ordered to keep silent at night as they began their evacuation so that the Turks would not realise that they were leaving. Over the two nights of the carefully planned and executed operation, the troops were successfully removed with only two casualties.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 Why did the British plan an offensive at Gallipoli?

Applying and analysing

2 Refer to Sources 9.5.1 and 9.5.2. Explain how the location and terrain of the peninsula made the Gallipoli mission difficult.

3 Refer to Source 9.5.3. What difficulties did the soldiers experience?

Evaluating and creating

4 With a partner, discuss this statement: 'The Gallipoli campaign was *not* a total failure.' Write a short paragraph outlining your conclusions.

UNIT 9.6

The Western Front, 1916

Fighting in France

After leaving Gallipoli, Australian infantry units were transferred to France to join the fighting there. The Australian Army was reorganised into five divisions and over the next two years, for the most part, they fought directly under British command. During this time they experienced the horrors of trench warfare and took part in battles such as Verdun and the Somme.

The Somme

The Somme is a river in northern France, close to the border with Belgium. The region surrounding the river is also known as the Somme and was the location of a series of battles during World War I.

October 1914 Battle of Ypres (first)

April 1915 Battle of Ypres (second)

May 1915 Battle of Festubert

February to August 1916 Battle of Verdun

July to November 1916 Battle of the Somme

July 1916 Battle of Fromelles (the Somme)

July to September 1916 Battle of Pozières (the Somme)

July 1917 Battle of Ypres (third)

July 1918 Battle of Hamel

August 1918 Battle of Amiens

Source 9.6.1 Key battles of the Somme campaign, 1914–18

The Battle of the Somme

1 July 1916 has been remembered as the worst day in the history of the British Army. This was the first day of the Battle of the Somme, and casualties numbered over 58 000. Nearly a third of the casualties died. Before the battle was over, 1.1 million men had become casualties with 300 000 of those casualties killed in action. The Australian casualties were about 32 000 for the five months of battle.

The battle had been planned as a joint French and British offensive while the Russians launched their own assault in the east. The idea was that the Germans would be forced into a defensive position in two major battles. The plan was quite simple: launch a massive bombardment to weaken the German trenches and force them out of their defences, allowing the French and British soldiers to walk across no-man's-land and take the territory. However, the Germans launched their own offensive against the French at Verdun, forcing the British to take on the bulk of the fighting on the Somme.

The French and British plan failed because the German trenches could withstand heavy bombardment. The French and British artillery also stopped early enough to allow the German soldiers to prepare for their advance. As the Allied troops left the trenches, they were killed by the German machine gunners.

The battle settled into another stalemate that continued until November 1916.

Fromelles, 19–20 July 1916

Fromelles was the first battle in which Australian forces saw action in France. It was at a great cost. Like many other battles on the Western Front, the plan was to begin with an artillery bombardment before launching the infantry across no-man's-land to the German lines. Despite the initial capture of about 1000 metres of territory, the battle was not a success. Although the Australians managed to damage a section of German lines during the initial bombardment, the lines were not destroyed. As a result, the Australians were cut to ribbons as they advanced. Fromelles was one of the worst 24-hour periods in Australia's military history, with over 5000 casualties.

Pozières, 23 July – 3 September 1916

The small town of Pozières was an important German defensive position. Australians fought here alongside British forces and again sustained many casualties. Their strategy was a typical plan of attack—artillery bombardment followed by an infantry advance. This time the artillery bombardment destroyed the town and used gas to attack the German trenches.

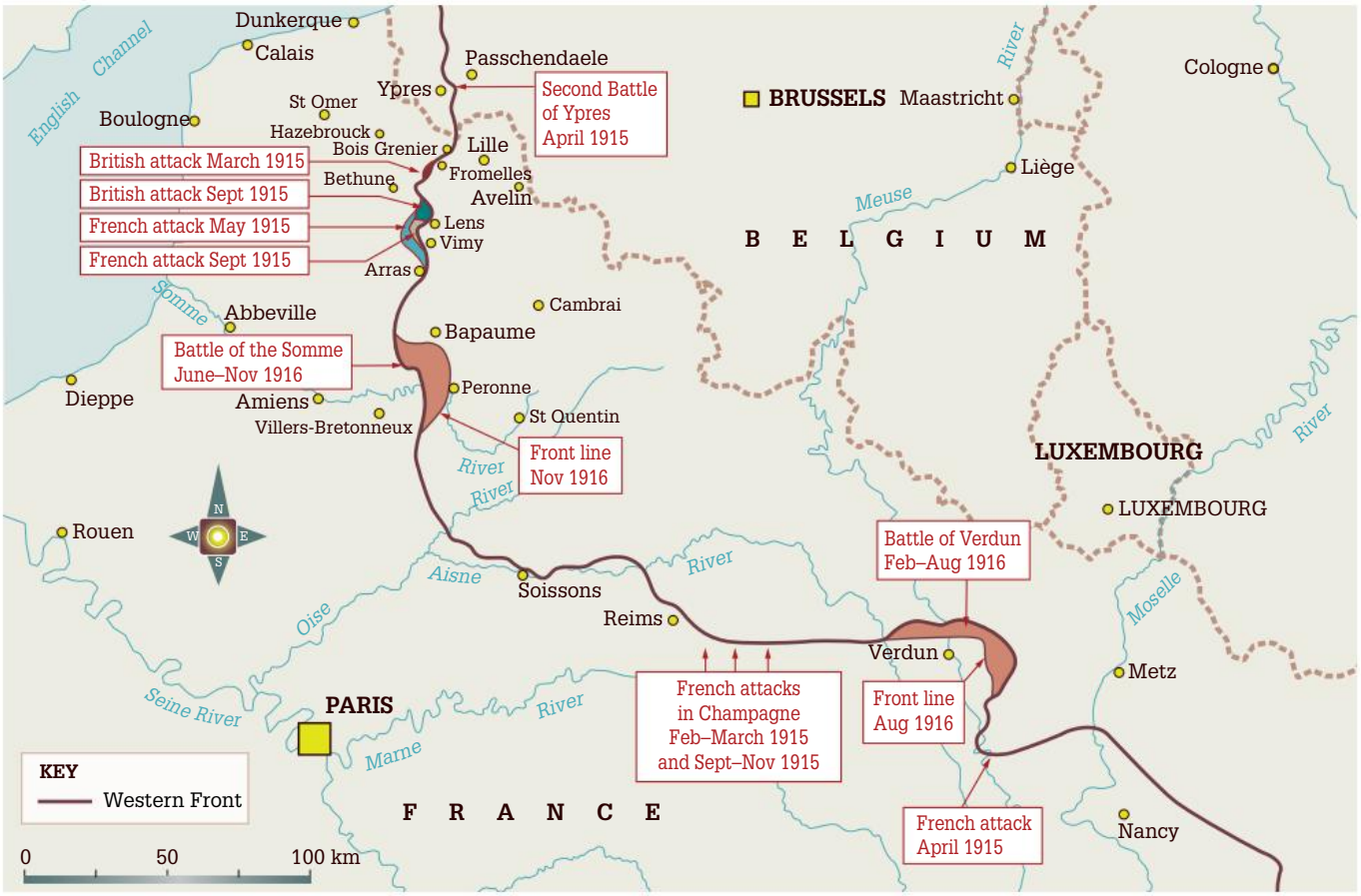
After the bombardment, the Australians launched themselves from no-man's-land, where they had been positioned during the battle. The idea was to surprise the Germans with how quickly they could move up to the trenches.

Within 24 hours the Allies had taken Pozières. In retaliation, the Germans started to bombard the town, which was interpreted by the Australians as being a prelude to a much larger attack. Australian forces responded by asking the British to increase their bombardment. The consequence of this increased offensive was that the Australians suffered over 5000 casualties during the battle.

The Germans launched further attempts to retake the town and the Australians responded with their own attacks, trying to push the Germans out of range of the town. Finally, by early August, Australian troops could see green fields beyond the mud and destruction of Pozières. They had taken and held the town, successfully stopping the Germans' attempted takeover.

Some crack German regiments were employed, but the Anzacs went for their men, and put in terrible bayonet work. After a fierce contest the Australians and New Zealanders obtained the upper hand … It was the most horrible night any soldiers ever experienced. By daybreak on Monday we had a firm footing in the village. 'The fighting at Pozières' continued the London officer, 'has proved that the Anzacs would face a wall of iron and go through it'.

Source 9.6.3 The Battle of Pozières as reported in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 28 July 1916



Source 9.6.2 Major offensives on the Western Front, 1915–16

The textbook battle: Hamel

Preparation

The Battle of Hamel, France, in 1918 was the first time that an Australian Corps was commanded by an Australian general. The general in charge was John Monash. Before the battle began, Monash insisted on telling everyone involved the objectives of the campaign. This ensured that they all knew their roles in achieving the objective. Monash was meticulous in his preparations. Supplies were placed in appropriate positions and he arranged for them to be delivered either by air support or by tanks.

> ***The true role of infantry was not to expend itself upon heroic physical effort, not to wither away under merciless machine-gun fire, not to impale itself on hostile bayonets, but on the contrary, to advance under the maximum possible protection of the maximum possible array of mechanical resources, in the form of guns, machine-guns, tanks, mortars and aeroplanes; to advance with as little impediment as possible; to be relieved as far as possible of the obligation to fight their way forward.***

Source 9.6.4 Lt General Sir John Monash comments on tactics.

Source 9.6.5 Artist's impression of the Battle of Hamel, University of Newcastle

Monash prepared by:

- training troops to work with the tanks
- colour-coding tank and infantry units so that it was easier to keep the organisation together during the smoke and confusion of battle
- banning troops from moving into position during daylight hours as this would have alerted the Germans to the coming advance
- using planes to cover the noise of the moving tanks
- ordering high explosive and smoke bombs to be dropped regularly on the town at around 3.00 a.m. every morning to condition the Germans to expect air attacks at this time. Australian troops were then able to move up quite close to the lines before the Germans realised it was a real infantry attack.

Battle

The Australians were able to begin the attack with the element of surprise on 4 July 1918. At 3.00 a.m. the artillery barrage began. The artillery and the creeping barrage did their job by damaging the enemy positions, especially their artillery batteries and supply lines. A creeping barrage involved the artillery adjusting the distance the shells landed in front of the troops. By adjusting these shells to stay approximately 75 metres in front of the advancing line, the artillery provided the troops with cover.

The troops worked in conjunction with the artillery and tanks to advance to the German lines. They were aided by the smoke and dust created by the artillery.

Within 93 minutes of the attack beginning, the Australian and American troops who were part of the offensive had achieved all their objectives, which included capturing the town and taking many Germans prisoner. Planes were used in the battle for reconnaissance. This helped in moving troops quickly from one place to another as the pilots had identical maps to those being carried by the commanders on the ground. The pilots could plot where the troops of both sides were and then the map could be parachuted to the ground commanders. Communication in this battle was a matter of minutes, rather than the hours it had taken in the early years of the war. Fighting continued for the next two days while the Allies consolidated their gains from the first 93 minutes of the attack.

Source 9.6.6 US and Australian soldiers in Pear Trench, Le Hamel, 4 July 1918, Australian War Memorial. The ruined village of Hamel is in the background.

Results

Eight hundred Australians and 170 Americans were killed in action; more were injured. About 1400 Germans were captured and approximately 2000 were killed.

The war continued until November and the style of Allied attacks was altered to follow Monash's blueprint.

> ***On the 5th April 1918, when the enemy delivered a very heavy attack against the position occupied by the Battalion near Hébuterne he went through the enemy's intense barrages with communications for Battalion Headquarters. He showed a total disregard for his own safety and seemed obsessed solely with the idea of getting his dispatches through. He is recommended for distinction.***

Source 9.6.7 From the Military Medal citation for Private Arthur R. Eastburn, 16th Battalion, who was killed in action near Hamel, 24 June 1918, aged 23

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 **a** What was the aim of the Battle of the Somme?
  b Why did the French and British plan fail?

2 **a** List the preparations that Monash made for the Battle of Hamel.
  b Outline the reasons for the quick success of this battle.

Applying and analysing

3 Study Source 9.6.4. Compare Monash's criticism of British tactics to his preparations for the Battle of Hamel.

4 Study Source 9.6.5. What does the picture suggest about the conditions at the Battle of Hamel?

5 With a partner or in a small group, create an annotated timeline of the key battles of the Somme campaign. Use Source 9.6.1, the information in this unit and further research on the internet to help you. Annotate your timeline with both images and text.

War propaganda

War Precautions Act

Shortly after the war was declared, the Australian Parliament passed the *War Precautions Act 1914*. Under the Act the government was able to censor the press and people's personal mail and establish **internment** camps for people who were considered a security risk.

Propaganda

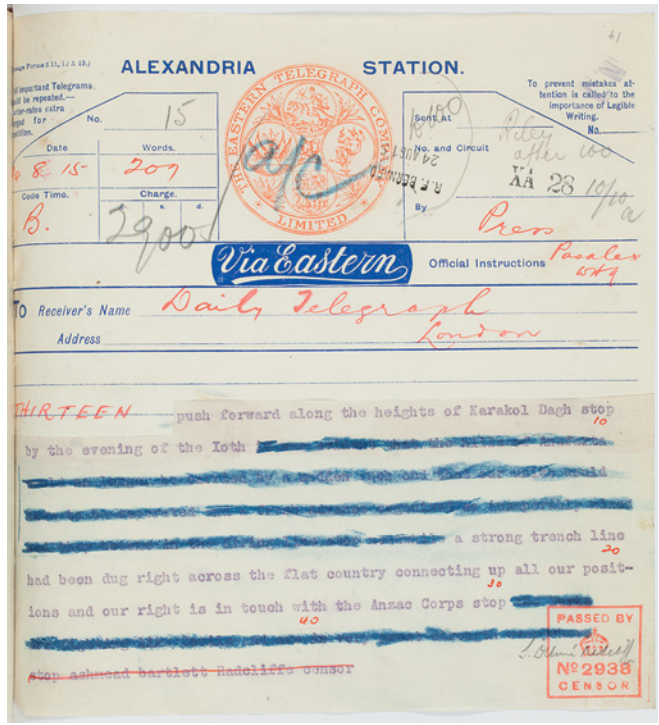
During World War I, government propaganda was used to encourage recruitment and conscription. Other propaganda encouraged women to become involved on the home front and promoted hatred of the enemy.

There was no sign of nerves or excitement … Not waiting for orders or for the boats to reach the beach, but, springing out into the sea, they waded ashore, and, forming some sort of rough line, rushed straight on the flashes of the enemy's rifles … The Turks in the first trench were either bayoneted or they ran away …

Then this race of athletes proceeded to scale the cliffs without responding to the enemy's fire … but then [their] blood was up, they rushed northward and eastward searching for fresh enemies to bayonet … I have never seen anything like the wounded Australians before … they were happy because they knew that they had been tried for the first time and not found wanting … There has been no finer feat in this war than this sudden landing in the dark … These raw colonial troops proved worthy.

Source 9.7.1 An early newspaper account of the landing at Gallipoli, Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett dispatch, *Hobart Mercury*, 8 May 1915. The account is a piece of propaganda and not an accurate reflection of what occurred.

Propaganda was mainly in the form of posters, which appeared in the press and in public places. Posters were created to play on emotions such as mateship, fear, self-respect, community esteem and hatred of the Germans. Propaganda also took the form of newspaper editorials, speeches by prominent people in towns and communities, and local events held to support the war effort.


ALEXANDRIA STATION.

Via Eastern

Official Instructions

To Receiver's Name Daily Telegraph

Address London

THIRTEEN push forward along the heights of Kerakol Dagh stop by the evening of the 10th [redacted] a strong trench line had been dug right across the flat country connecting up all our positions and our right is in touch with the Anzac Corps stop [redacted]

PASSED BY Nº 2938 CENSOR

Source 9.7.2 A telegram sent by Ashmead-Bartlett to the *Daily Telegraph* in London, reporting on the Gallipoli campaign, State Library of NSW. Note the heavy military censorship.

Censorship

Censorship was the process by which information released to the public was controlled and limited by the government. Although it was impossible to hide the casualty figures, the government only allowed positive information about the Australian involvement in the war to be made public.

The most obvious censorship was that of letters to and from the troops at the front. Officers read these letters to ensure they contained nothing that reflected badly on the war effort or that might place troops in danger if an enemy were to read it.

Enemy 'aliens'

Enemy 'aliens' were people who had been born (or whose parents or grandparents had been born) in one of the enemy nations, particularly Germany and Turkey. There was a fear that these people might actually be spies for the enemy. In 1915, naturalised British subjects of German descent were also categorised as enemy 'aliens'.

Source 9.7.3 Internment camp at Holsworthy, c. 1917, National Library of Australia

According to the 1911 Census, there were over 33 000 people of German origin living in Australia. These people had to report to their local police stations on a regular basis. In many cases they were locked up in internment camps.

Due to the heavy anti-German propaganda at the beginning of the war, there was a strong anti-German attitude in the population. Australians would avoid German-owned shops, German dogs such as dachshunds were kicked, and there was verbal abuse and physical attacks against Germans in the streets. People of Germanic origin were encouraged to anglicise their names and even the town of Hahndorf in South Australia changed its name to Ambleside. It was changed back again in 1935.

Internment camps

Internment camps were established throughout the country to house approximately 7000 people regarded as enemy aliens. The camps were often in remote areas of the country although there was one at Holsworthy in south-western Sydney. Other New South Wales camps were at Bourke, Berrima and Trial Bay.

Holsworthy's camp housed about 6000 men, both internees and prisoners-of-war. Over the course of the war the camp developed to include theatres, cafes, small businesses, social clubs and educational facilities. Many internees left the camp better educated than they had been when they entered, and others developed new skills to help them in the future.

The camp at Bourke was different as internees were lodged in the town at houses, hotels and even the local jail. Internees were also not necessarily Australian Germans but Germans who had been brought to Australia from British territories in South-East Asia such as modern-day Malaysia, Singapore, Sri Lanka and Hong Kong. Although they had more physical freedom than internees in places such as Holsworthy, the types of activities that developed in other camps did not develop in Bourke, partly due to the small number of internees.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Define the terms 'censorship', 'enemy aliens' and 'propaganda'.
2. Infer why the government introduced censorship.
3. Describe the differences between the internment camps at Holsworthy and Bourke.

Applying and analysing

4. Study Source 9.7.1.
   - **a** What words and phrases show that it is an example of propaganda?
   - **b** How accurate an account is this of the first day at Gallipoli?
   - **c** Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett was an experienced war correspondent. Do you think this makes his work more or less reliable and why?

Evaluating and creating

5. Find three to five World War I propaganda posters on the internet. Use these to create an annotated collage on World War I propaganda. Rank the posters in order of effectiveness. Justify your decisions.

UNIT 9.8

The changing role of women

Women demand new roles

When war was declared, there were clearly defined gender roles for men and women in Australia. There were many occupations that were considered unacceptable for women. However, with the outbreak of war, many women wanted to be involved in the effort and do all they could to assist the fighting men. These women wanted to contribute as doctors, cooks, drivers, signallers, stretcher-bearers and nurses. They wanted to do jobs behind the lines, which could then free up men for front-line duties. The government, however, was not interested in having women become involved in the war effort beyond the nursing profession. Throughout the war, despite pressure from Australian women, the government refused to send any woman to the front unless she was a nurse.

Did you know?

Although there were female doctors in Australia during the war, the Australian government refused to send them overseas. In response, some female doctors enlisted in foreign medical corps.

Nurses

Australian women were sent to serve as nurses at the same locations as the men. The only exception was Gallipoli. While the men were fighting on the peninsula, the nurses were on nearby Greek islands such as Lemnos where they worked in the hospitals. The working conditions were not ideal due to the hot climate, often undrinkable water, and food that was hard to digest. Frequently the nurses themselves succumbed to disease because of exhaustion and poor sanitation.

When the men moved to France and the Middle East, the nurses followed. A casualty clearing station was the first stop for an injured soldier. Nurses in the stations were in the same situation as the male doctors. Putting nurses in these dangerous locations

Source 9.8.1 A nurse assisting in an operation at the 1st Australian Casualty Clearing Station in November 1917, Australian War Memorial

was unthinkable in 1914, but by 1917 it became accepted. A total of 2139 Australian nurses served overseas during the war.

Bravery awards

Sister Pearl Corkhill from New South Wales was awarded the Military Medal for her actions during two attacks by the Germans on her casualty clearing station in 1918.

At home

The women who were left at home also wanted to participate in the war effort. However, due to Australia's distance from the front, there was not the same sort of war work for women in Australia as there was in Britain or Germany. Many working-class women continued in their pre-war jobs, but for some middle-class women this was a time when they took on new roles and responsibilities.

Volunteer organisations

THE RED CROSS

The patron of the Red Cross was Lady Helen Munro-Ferguson, who was the wife of the Governor-General. During the war, the Red Cross expanded into almost every town and suburb across the country. The women who worked for the Red Cross knitted more than one million socks for the men at the front as well as other garments such as mittens. Even school children were encouraged to knit during classes and in their breaks.

AUSTRALIAN COMFORTS FUND

The Australian Comforts Fund provided tobacco, homemade cakes and biscuits, condensed milk, newspapers and other luxuries to the troops. The ladies raised funds to purchase these goods and arranged the collection, packing and dispatch of these comfort packages. A package might also include knitted items such as socks and sometimes a letter to cheer up its recipient.

Women in the workforce

When men were sent to the front, women replaced them in the workforce.The percentage of women in the workforce during the war rose from 24 per cent in 1914 to 37 per cent in 1918. Women worked mostly in occupations such as clothing and footwear, which had been dominated by women in the pre-war years. When a woman did take a job previously held by a man, it was at a lower wage and there was often an understanding that when the man came home he would take up his job again.

Source 9.8.2 Women members of the Australian Red Cross packing comforts to be sent to servicemen overseas

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. Identify the two main areas in which women assisted the war effort.
2. Identify three places where Australian nurses served.
3. How did the Australian Red Cross develop during the war?

Applying and analysing

4. What evidence is presented in the text that attitudes towards women changed during the war?
5. Refer to Source 9.8.1. What can be learnt from this source about the working conditions of nurses close to the front?
6. Refer to Source 9.8.2. How does this source reveal the role of women on the home front?

Evaluating and creating

7. Conduct some further research on the changing roles of women in another country involved in World War I, such as Britain or Germany. Use this information to create a Venn diagram that compares and contrasts the changing roles of women in Australia and the other country you researched. Assess in which country the role of women changed the most.

The conscription debate

Volunteers and conscripts

In World War I, all Australian servicemen were volunteers. After war was declared, many Australian men rushed to enlist. However, as the casualty figures started to emerge from the Gallipoli campaign, the number of enlistees began to drop.

In 1916, the majority of the Australian forces were involved in the massive battle of the Somme with its very high casualty rate. The Battle of Fromelles resulted in over 5000 casualties in 24 hours. The number of replacement troops enlisting back in Australia was not enough to replace those injured and dying in France.

When the Australian prime minister, Billy Hughes, visited Britain during the summer of 1916, the British government suggested that he introduce conscription (compulsory military service) in Australia. The prime minister agreed but the Australian Labor Party (ALP), which he led, did not. Hughes decided to take the question to the Australian people in a **referendum**.

1916 referendum

The 1916 referendum on the issue of conscription was a very divisive time in Australia's history. The prime minister led the 'Yes' campaign while the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Melbourne, Daniel Mannix, led the 'No' campaign.

'Yes' campaign

The 'Yes' campaign was supported by the Reinforcements Referendum Council and the majority of the press. The 'Yes' campaign focused its arguments on the promise to support Britain and the men already serving. The prime minister travelled across the country promoting the 'Yes' arguments. He found support from Protestants as they viewed conscription as a sign of loyalty to the Mother Country. He also found support with women who had family serving, including those who had already lost a loved one to the war, or who believed conscription would share the burden of war more evenly across the classes.

'No' campaign

The 'No' campaign focused on the wrongness of trying to force young men to fight in a war when they did not want to do so. People who supported the 'No' vote included many Roman Catholics, a large percentage of the working class, the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW), who were a socialist group, the Quakers and the Women's Peace Army.

Archbishop Mannix, originally from Ireland, had opposed the war from the outset, describing it as a 'sordid trade war'. Although not a politician, he was an outspoken advocate for the 'No' vote and was supported by the ALP.

The question

The question was put to the Australian people on 28 October 1916: 'Are you in favour of the government having in this grave emergency the same compulsory powers over citizens in regard to requiring their military service, for the term of this war, outside the Commonwealth, as it now has in regard to military service within the Commonwealth?'

The outcome

All referendums in Australia need a double majority: a majority of the population and a majority of the states. The vote was 1 087 577 'Yes' and 1 160 033 'No' votes. Three states voted 'Yes' so the result was a 'No' vote on both criteria.

Hughes was disappointed and was forced to leave the ALP as the party passed a vote of no confidence in his leadership. He took a number of other members of the ALP with him and they formed a new party with the Liberals. This new party was called the Nationalists and they went on to win a large majority in the federal election in May 1917.

1917 referendum

Hughes took his huge win in the election in May as an indication that he might be successful in winning a second referendum on conscription. In December 1917, Hughes once again put the issue of conscription to the Australian people. This time the question was simpler: 'Are you in favour of the proposal of the Commonwealth Government for reinforcing the Australian Imperial Force overseas?'

The campaigning was just as strong as it had been in 1916 with similar arguments being put forward. Once again the Australian people voted 'No' with 1 181 747 'No' votes to 1 015 59 'Yes' votes.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1 What prompted the prime minister to support conscription in Australia?
2 What is meant by a 'double majority' when referring to an Australian referendum?
3 What was the result of the two different referendums?

Applying and analysing

4 Study Sources 9.9.1 and 9.9.2. Explain the arguments for and against conscription in Australia in 1916 and 1917.

Evaluating and creating

5 Create your own propaganda poster for either the 'Yes' or the 'No' campaign.

Source 9.9.1 Campaigning for the 'Yes' vote, poster, 1917, National Library of Australia

Source 9.9.2 Campaigning for the 'No' vote, 1916, Australian War Memorial

UNIT 9.10

Aftermath of World War I

Armistice

11 November 1918 has become known as Armistice Day as it was on that day that fighting on the Western Front officially ended. Over the next six months, the Australian troops and support personnel came home.

After Armistice Day, the first decision made by the Australian government was to bring men home in the order in which they left Australia, rather than as a combined force. This meant that the men who had been away since the initial ships left for Europe were on the first ships to come home. These men had experienced over four years of war, including battles at Gallipoli and the Western Front.

The men left in Europe spent their time travelling and seeing the sights of France and Britain. The opportunity to travel was one of the main reasons men had enlisted. Some also engaged in educational courses aimed at improving their prospects of gaining employment.

Source 9.10.1 An Australian soldier recovering in a British hospital, Australian War Memorial

Returning to civilian life

When the soldiers returned to Australia, they had some difficulties adjusting to a peacetime society again. The problems they faced included:

- re-establishing family relationships, especially with their wives and children
- finding jobs
- communicating with civilians about the war
- dealing with the injuries they had suffered, both psychological and physical.

Men who returned from war experienced different long-term effects. There were some men who would talk openly about the war, while others were more reserved and spoke about their experiences only with close friends and family, or would not talk about it at all. Some men were able to rebuild their lives and returned to their former jobs or gained new ones. They settled into being husbands and fathers and marched proudly on Anzac Day.

Other returned soldiers were not fortunate; the war had changed them and they were restless in civilian life. Many of these men struggled to remain in employment. There was another large group of men who had been badly wounded during the war. They had lost limbs, become blind, suffered from mustard gas attacks, and had burns and injuries that would never fully heal.

Government support

At the beginning of the war the government introduced war pensions for veterans, and in 1917 it established the Department of Repatriation. In 1918, it introduced the idea of soldier settlements, which gave returned servicemen a plot on which to farm and start a new life. Many failed in this attempt. The settlements were too small and the soldiers often did not have the skills to be successful farmers. By the start of World War II, around 60 per cent of the settlers had left their plots.

Source 9.10.2 Soldier settlement, Mullumbimby, 1921, State Records, NSW

Civilians

After the war ended, civilians had to absorb approximately 300 000 ex-servicemen back into their communities. For women, this meant an official return to pre-1914 attitudes and the expectation that they would leave any jobs previously held by men. Employers were not so happy with this arrangement as they paid female employees less money than they paid their male employees. Another problem for women was that they had become accustomed to running their families. Once the men were home, women had to relinquish control and return to being housewives. For many women, the end of the war also meant the end of their voluntary wartime activities.

> ***... that was the war to end all wars. No wars ever ended a war. I don't think there's any place for war. The history of wars has never been for any peace. I wouldn't do it again.***

Source 9.10.3 Ted Smout, former Corporal, member of the 3rd Sanitation Section AIF, 1915–19. Australian War Memorial

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. How did the government organise the return of the servicemen once the war was over?
2. List the types of problems that confronted a returning soldier.
3. Identify the ways that the government tried to help the soldiers.
4. List the problems that women had to deal with after the men came home.

Applying and analysing

5. Study Source 9.10.2 carefully. Describe the conditions of the soldier settlement.

Evaluating and creating

6. Imagine that you were either a returned soldier or his wife. Write an account of how you coped during the first six months after you (or your husband) returned home.

UNIT 9.11

Commemorating World War I

Anzac Day

Anzac Day is a day of commemoration that Australia shares with New Zealand. When the war ended, it was time to count the cost and to rebuild the nation. But it was also important to remember the sacrifice of those who had left Australia to fight.

Australia's population at the time of the war was approximately 4.5 million. Over 400 000 enlisted; 324 000 were sent overseas to serve in Gallipoli, the Middle East, the Western Front, or in the navy or newly formed Flying Corps. Of these, 155 000 were wounded and another 61 000 were killed.

The first Anzac Day

The first Anzac Day was acknowledged in London and elsewhere on 25 April 1916, which was the first anniversary of the landings at Gallipoli. Every year since, Australians and New Zealanders have taken the time to remember the troops who made these landings.

The dawn service

The dawn service commemorates the time when the first boats landed at Anzac Cove. Not only does New Zealand join with Australia for this commemoration; Turkey does so as well. Turkey regards Anzac Cove as a special part of its history and has made it a point of honour to care for the graves of Australians as well as their own people.

> ***Those heroes that shed their blood and lost their lives … You are now lying in the soil of a friendly country. Therefore rest in peace. There is no difference between the Johnnies and the Mehmets to us where they lie side by side here in this country of ours … You, the mothers who sent their sons from faraway countries, wipe away your tears; your sons are now lying in our bosom and are in peace. After having lost their lives on this land they have become our sons as well.***

Source 9.11.1 The first president of Turkey, Kemal Ataturk, speaking in 1934. Ataturk had been a general at Gallipoli.

Turkey has honoured these words ever since. Many young Australians now travel to Gallipoli each year to attend the dawn service. Sites of other battles, such as Villers–Bretonneux in France, are also places of pilgrimage for Anzac Day services.

Anzac Day marches

Anzac Day marches occur in many communities. Large marches are held in each state capital, and many other cities and towns have their own march to honour their local servicemen.

Today, many young people take part in Anzac Day ceremonies as a tribute to their fathers, grandfathers and great-grandfathers who fought for Australia or

Source 9.11.2 The Lone Pine diorama, Australian War Memorial

Australia's allies in various wars. Even though the enemy at Gallipoli was Turkey, Turkish soldiers' descendants also participate in Anzac Day marches because Anzac means as much to them as it does to Australians as a symbol of national pride.

War memorials

There are over 2000 war memorials across Australia as many communities built one for their local men. Because the majority of soldiers who died were buried overseas, war memorials were places where families and friends could commemorate and grieve.

The Australian War Memorial in Canberra lists every Australian who has died in any conflict. The list of names from World War I still outnumbers the total from all other conflicts combined. The Memorial has the following sections:

- the Commemorative Area with the Pool of Reflection and the Eternal Flame
- the Hall of Memory with the names of the dead from all conflicts
- the Hall of Valour, where the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier now lies
- museum galleries dedicated to each war.

At the Australian War Memorial, fallen servicemen are listed alphabetically under the Navy, Army or Air Force and Battalion. Listing names alphabetically was an initiative of Charles Bean, the official war historian, who argued that in death all men are equal.

Returned and Services League

The Returned and Services League (RSL) assists ex-servicemen and servicewomen and their families. Many suburbs or towns have a branch or sub-branch of the RSL. Every night at these clubs, there is an acknowledgement of those who died with a minute's silence and the reciting of the Ode.

> ***They shall grow not old, as we that are left grow old; Age shall not weary them, nor the years condemn. At the going down of the sun and in the morning we will remember them.***

Source 9.11.3 The Ode, from 'For the Fallen' by Laurence Binyon

Source 9.11.4 The Anzac Memorial in Sydney

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. How many Australians died in World War I?
2. When was the first acknowledgement of Anzac Day?
3. List the three countries that acknowledge Anzac Day as a major day in their history.
4. What is the role of the RSL?

Applying and analysing

5. Refer to Source 9.11.3. This verse is one of the middle verses of a much longer poem. Why do you think this verse became associated with those who had died during the war?

Evaluating and creating

6. With a partner, discuss Charles Bean's statement 'that in death all men are equal'. Do you agree? Consider, for example, whether those who received medals for bravery, such as the Victoria Cross, should be honoured more than other soldiers.

UNIT 9.12

Debating the Anzac legend

Creating the legend

Since the first ANZACs landed at Gallipoli, the Anzac legend has grown to the point where it is difficult to separate myth from the reality.

Early stories

When the Allies withdrew from Gallipoli, some of the early stories told to the public in Australia were exaggerations. The reasons for this were complex, but include the following.

- It was the first major war involving Australia since Federation so it was seen as a chance for Australia to prove itself on the world stage as a new nation.
- The Australian public had heard stories about the poor behaviour of some of the troops in Egypt while in training and wanted to counteract that poor impression.
- The public wanted to believe that the Australian troops were just as good as the best soldiers from the empire.
- Australians wanted to have a sense of pride and a national identity that was recognised as equal to those of other nations.

Charles Bean

During the war, the Australian Government appointed an official war correspondent, who visited Gallipoli to record events. His name was Charles Bean. Bean's work, both during and after the war, contributed to the creation of the Anzac legend. While at Gallipoli, Bean assisted in the creation of a work by the troops called *The ANZAC Book*. This book included many humorous stories from the troops about the conditions under which they were fighting. However, Bean was very strict about what was allowed in this book. He would not allow any content that contradicted the image that he, the journalist Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett and the Australian government were keen to present to the Australian public. Items that referred to fear or cowardice were excluded.

General Birdwood's introduction to *The ANZAC Book* was propaganda to promote the troops and the war. The book was widely sold as a fundraiser to people in Australia who wanted to read about the troops' experiences.

> ***No words of mine could ever convey to readers at their firesides in Australia, New Zealand and the Old Country, one-half of what all their boys have been through, nor is my poor pen capable of telling them of the never-failing courage, determination and cheerfulness of those who have so willingly fought and given their lives for their King and country's sake.***

Source 9.12.1 Extract from the introduction to *The ANZAC Book*

Alternative perspectives

Assessing the Anzac legend

There is no question that many of the stories that contributed to the Anzac legend are true. The job of a historian is to sort through the stories, identify myths and ascertain the facts.

The Anzac legend has many elements: mateship, independent spirit, courage and resilience. The myth is the assumption that these qualities only existed in the Anzacs and were not present in other troops or in the people at home.

It is worth examining these qualities to see if they only applied to the Anzacs.

- ***Mateship***—The essential point of mateship is never letting your mates down. In Britain, entire villages or workplaces joined up and fought together in 'Pals' Battalions.
- ***Independent spirit***—Australians were often described as larrikins and disrespectful of authority. Yet this was a feature of many soldiers.
- ***Courage***—The belief was that Australian troops never shirked their duty as soldiers, but in reality some did.
- ***Resilience***—Anzacs were considered resourceful, even ingenious, when needed. However, soldiers of other nations were equally resilient.

In September 1915, Bean committed to his diary a lengthy appraisal of the Australian soldier in which he acknowledged that fear, cowardice and reluctance were the 'true side of war' but he added: 'I wonder if anyone would believe me outside the army'.

Source 9.12.2 An extract from '*The ANZAC Book* and the Anzac Legend: C.E.W. Bean as Editor and Image Maker', D.A. Kent, *Historical Studies*, Vol 21, no 84, April 1985

Glorifying war

When analysed, the creation of the Anzac legend makes sense in its own time. With the benefit of over a century of hindsight, modern historians are more critical—not of the Anzacs themselves and their achievements, but of the way their story was manipulated by the government of the day and continues to be used as a propaganda tool to glorify the idea of battle and warfare.

Changing public opinion

Public opinion towards the commemoration of Anzac Day has changed greatly over the past century. In the 1920s and 1930s, the day was seen as an opportunity to honour those who served in the war and as a chance for returned soldiers to meet up and reminisce. In the 1950s and 1960s, the popularity of Anzac Day was overshadowed by the opinion that it was merely an excuse for veterans to get drunk. Then in the 1960s and 1970s, anti-war movements, a response to the Vietnam War, added further to the decline in interest and popularity among the public.

The 1980s saw a more positive attitude emerge towards both Anzac Day and the Anzac legend. This was due both to an increase in media coverage of the Anzac Day commemorations in major cities in Australia and the popularity of the film *Gallipoli* and the television mini-series *Anzacs*. At the same time there was an increase in numbers of both spectators and participants in Anzac Day activities—especially of younger people, who either marched with their families or in the place of elderly veterans. This trend has increased into the 21st century with Australian prime ministers and many young people attending Anzac Day commemorations, not only in Australia, but also in France and at Gallipoli in Turkey.

Source 9.12.3 Children attending the Anzac Day march in Perth, 2015

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

1. List four reasons why the government and press would allow exaggerated accounts of the landings at Gallipoli to be published.
2. Identify the types of entries that were not permitted into *The Anzac Book*.
3. Identify the four elements of the Anzac legend.
4. **a** Name the official war correspondent sent to Gallipoli by the Australian Government.
   b Outline his importance in creating the Anzac legend.

Applying and analysing

5. Use the information in this unit to create a timeline depicting the changing attitudes towards Anzac Day and the Anzac legend over the past century.
6. Refer to Source 9.12.1. Explain how General Birdwood's introduction aided in the creation of the Anzac legend.

Evaluating and creating

7. Evaluate the Australian Government's reasons during World War I for creating the Anzac legend. Explain whether we, as modern historians, should be critical of their actions or not.

Inquiry tasks

Being a historian

Historians spend a lot of their time looking at documents, both official and unofficial. These documents often take the form of letters, diaries, photographs, cartoons, newspaper reports, memorials, enlistment documents, service records, officer reports and maps, and are vital when learning about individuals and events related to World War I. Having gleaned all the relevant information from these sources, historians then synthesise the material to write an account of an individual or battle.

In this investigation you will do what historians do. You are to locate a number of different sources from a specific period of the war that relate to either a person or a battle. You will then create a report about that person or event, incorporating the evidence you gained from the sources.

The aim of this investigation is for you to use primary sources from the time and not to rely too heavily on secondary sources for your information.

Making your selection

Choose one of the following:

- Sir John Monash
- John Simpson Kirkpatrick
- Albert Jacka VC
- a soldier from your local area
- a member of your family
- the Battle of Beersheba
- the Battle of Bullecourt
- the Battle of Passchendaele.

Finding sources

Places where you should be able to locate necessary sources from the time include:

- Australian War Memorial website
- your local war memorial and/or RSL club
- the archives of local, state and national papers
- local institutions that existed at the time of the war such as schools and churches
- local libraries and the State Library of Western Australia.

When presenting history, you must acknowledge the sources you used. Your teacher will guide you on how to do this as there are a number of accepted formats.

You could present your report in one of these ways:

- written essay
- Microsoft® PowerPoint® presentation
- oral presentation
- storybook
- empathy task, in which you imagine you are either the person or a participant.

Information to be included

In your report you need to cover the following points.

a For an individual study:

- family background and childhood
- life before the war
- when the person joined the war
- the state of the war at the time they joined
- what they actually did during the war (this should be about 75 per cent of your final report), including a photograph
- the impact of the war on the rest of their lives.

b For a battle:

- background to the battle
- location of the battle, including a map
- objectives of the battle
- how the battle unfolded (this should be about 75 per cent of your final report)
- living conditions related to the battle
- achievements of the battle.

Source 9.13.1 Battle of Beersheba, 31 October 1917, Australian War Memorial

Horseshoe debate

Prepare for a horseshoe debate by making a list of arguments for or against the following proposition: 'Conscription in Australia should have been made law.'

Unlike a traditional debate in which you would have to argue for the affirmative or the negative, a horseshoe debate allows you to change sides as you become more or less convinced by the arguments of your class members. The class should be seated in the shape of a horseshoe or 'U'. On the right of the horseshoe are those who agree with the proposition and on the left are those who disagree. By sitting further to the left or right you are informing everyone that you either strongly agree or disagree with the proposition. Those who are uncertain sit in the middle of the horseshoe, but need to decide to which side they lean.

To ensure the debate runs smoothly, it is important that everyone makes a brief opening statement once they have sat down. Feel free to change seats as you change your mind. At the end, debrief by noting how the horseshoe looked at the beginning of the debate and how it looks at the end. Discuss the most convincing arguments and give feedback to the class about whether or not you finished the debate with a new point of view.

GLOSSARY

alliance agreement between nations to support and protect each other

artillery large guns that can fire over great distances and cause a lot of damage

assassination murder of a public figure

attrition a gradual wearing down by continual loss or damage

bombardment continuous shelling by the artillery as preparation for an attack or invasion

casualty a person who is killed, wounded or taken prisoner during a war

infantry foot soldiers

internment restriction of enemy 'aliens' during the war

propaganda information given to the public to influence the way they think

referendum vote to change the Constitution of Australia, which requires a 'Yes' vote from a majority of the people and a majority of the states to succeed

shell shock psychological and physical trauma of soldiers in response to continued bombardment

stalemate state of war in which neither side is able to make progress

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