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9

WRITTEN TO THE FINAL AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM

mark easton | geraldine carrodus | tim delany
bernie howitt | richard smith

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Using Oxford Big Ideas Geography | History

Oxford Big Ideas Geography | History is a brand-new series developed and written to meet the requirements of both the *Australian Curriculum: Geography* and the *Australian Curriculum: History* across Years 7 to 10. Based on the big ideas framework, it follows an inquiry-based approach that encourages students to develop deep, transferable skills and understanding in Geography and History.

Big questions

Each chapter of *Oxford Big Ideas Geography|History* is structured around key inquiry questions from the *Australian Curriculum: Geography* and the *Australian Curriculum: History* – supporting teachers and students as they implement an inquiry-based approach to Geography and History.

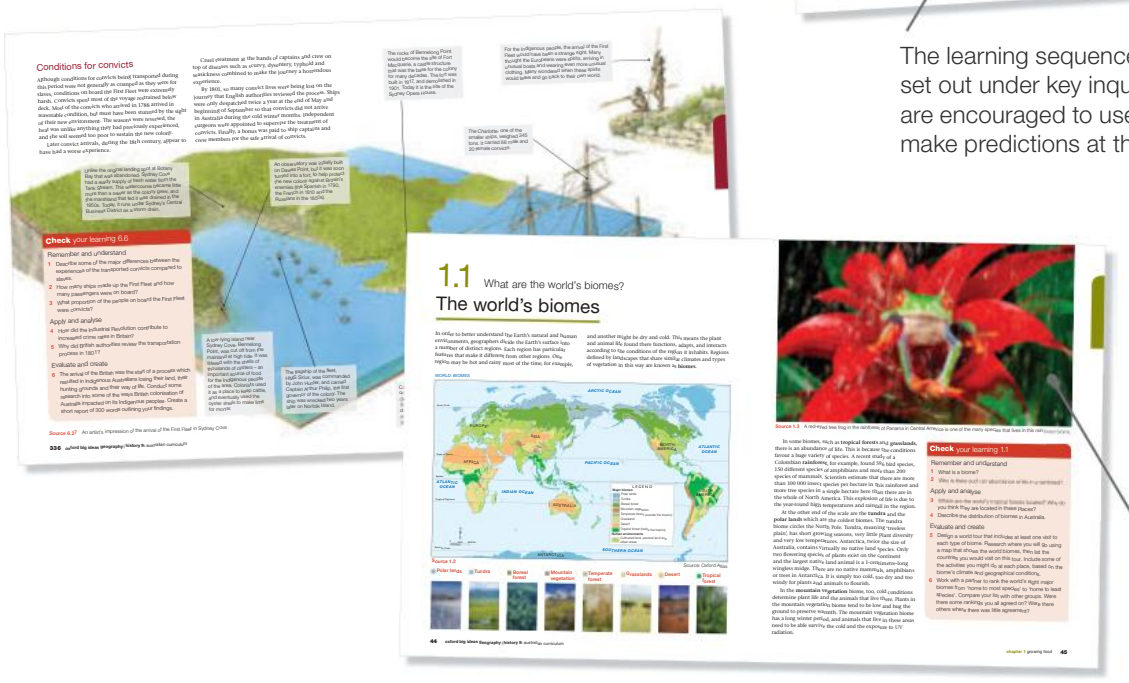
Stunning full-colour photography generates discussion and interest



Engaging learning

Each chapter of the student book combines a range of engaging source materials – maps, photographs, timelines, data tables, satellite imagery, graphs and illustrations – all with supporting questions and activities.

The learning sequence in each chapter is clearly set out under key inquiry questions. Students are encouraged to use their prior knowledge and make predictions at the start of each new topic.



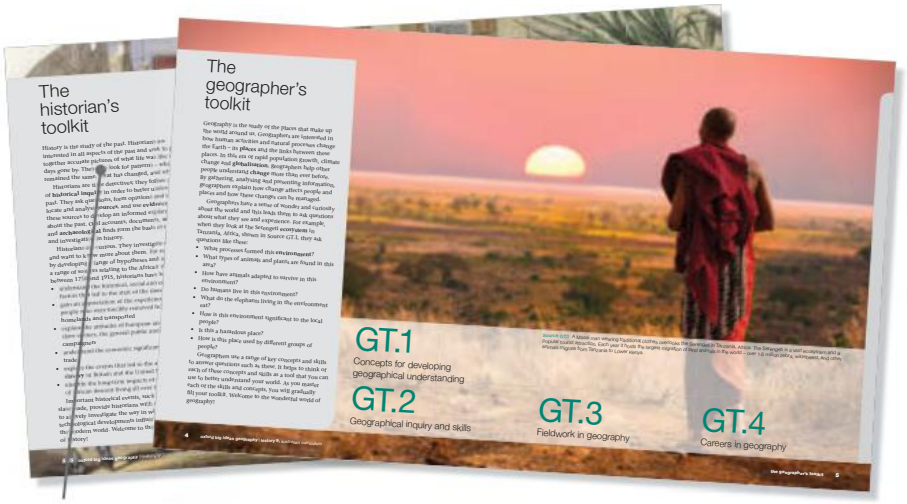
Stunning full-colour source materials inspire a sense of wonder about the world and encourage even the most reluctant learners to engage in geographical and historical inquiry.

Deep understanding

Geography and History syllabus content is covered in full and sequenced for depth of learning.

Focus on skills

The process of geographical and historical inquiry, including all key concepts and skills, is clearly outlined in two stand-alone reference sections – **The geographer's toolkit** and **The historian's toolkit**. These sections have been purpose-written to support the *Australian Curriculum: Geography and the Australian Curriculum: History*. It can be used flexibly as an introductory skills unit, or used for reference throughout the year.

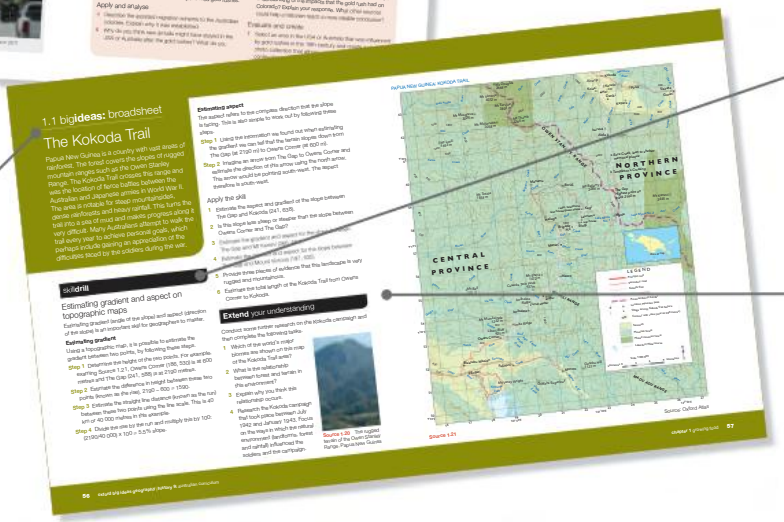


Every concept and skill required by students to take part in geographical and historical inquiries is introduced clearly and supported by question and activity blocks.



Key concepts are explicitly taught in both the geographer's toolkit and historian's toolkit, and are revisited throughout each chapter.

Check your learning question and activity blocks appear at regular intervals throughout each chapter, allowing students to consolidate and extend their understanding. These are graded according to Bloom's Taxonomy – catering for a range of abilities and learning styles.



Skilldrill blocks support an explicit focus on geographical and historical skills.

Broadsheet activities (in Geography chapters) and **Rich task** activities (in History chapters) encourage students to apply the knowledge and skills they have learned in each chapter to a new and interesting case study, event or issue.

Extend your understanding blocks present a challenge by asking students to conduct further research, or complete group work, to deepen their understanding on an issue being investigated.

Integrated teaching and learning support

obook assess

obook assess provides an interactive electronic version of the student book in an easy-to-read format. It features multimedia links, interactive learning objects, note-taking, highlighting and bookmarking tools and question blocks. **obook** compatible with laptops, iPads, tablets and IWBs, and also offers page view (in flipbook format) that can be used offline. **assess** provides 24/7 online assessment designed to support student progression and understanding.

obook assess TEACHER

Professional support is offered in digital format via **obook assess TEACHER**. Teaching strategies, additional worksheets, lesson ideas, planning tips, assessment advice and suggested solutions to all activities in the Student Book support the implementation of the Australian Curriculum and cater for ongoing professional development.

obook assess TEACHER also allows teachers to manage their classes by assigning work, tracking progress and planning assessment.

Australian Curriculum: Geography 9—Scope and sequence

	Level description and key inquiry questions
Level description	There are two units of study in Year 9: *Biomes and food security* and *Geographies of interconnections*. *Biomes and food security* focuses on investigating the role of the biotic environment and its role in food and fibre production. This unit examines the biomes of the world, their alteration and significance as a source of food and fibre, and the environmental challenges and constraints on expanding food production in the future. These distinctive aspects of biomes, food production and food security are investigated using studies drawn from Australia and across the world. *Geographies of interconnections* focuses on investigating how people, through their choices and actions, are connected to places throughout the world in a wide variety of ways, and how these connections help to make and change places and their environments. This unit examines the interconnections between people and places through the products people buy and the effects of their production on the places that make them. Students examine the ways that transport and information and communication technologies have made it possible for an increasing range of services to be provided internationally, and for people in isolated rural areas to connect to information, services and people in other places. These distinctive aspects of interconnection are investigated using studies drawn from Australia and across the world.
Key inquiry questions	• What are the causes and consequences of change in places and environments and how can this change be managed? • What are the future implications of changes to places and environments? • Why are interconnections and interdependencies important for the future of places and environments?

	Geographical knowledge and understanding
Unit 1 – Biomes and food security	• The distribution and characteristics of biomes as regions with distinctive climates, soils, vegetation and productivity (ACHGK060) • The human alteration of biomes to produce food, industrial materials and fibres, and the environmental effects of these alterations (ACHGK061) • The environmental, economic and technological factors that influence crop yields in Australia and across the world (ACHGK062) • The challenges to food production, including land and water degradation, shortage of fresh water, competing land uses, and climate change, for Australia and other areas of the world (ACHGK063) • The capacity of the world's environments to sustainably feed the projected future population to achieve food security for Australia and the world (ACHGK064)
Unit 2 – Geographies of interconnections	• The perceptions people have of place, and how this influences their connections to different places (ACHGK065) • The way transportation and information and communication technologies are used to connect people to services, information and people in other places (ACHGK066) • The ways that places and people are interconnected with other places through trade in goods and services, at all scales (ACHGK067) • The effects of the production and consumption of goods on places and environments throughout the world and including a country from North-East Asia (ACHGK068) • The effects of people's travel, recreational, cultural or leisure choices on places, and the implications for the future of these places (ACHGK069)

	Geographical inquiry and skills
Observing, questioning and planning	• Develop geographically significant questions and plan an inquiry that identifies and applies appropriate geographical methodologies and concepts (ACHGS063)
Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing	• Collect, select, record and organise relevant geographical data and information, using ethical protocols, from a range of appropriate primary and secondary sources (ACHGS064) • Evaluate sources for their reliability, bias and usefulness, and represent multi-variable data in a range of appropriate forms, for example, scatter plots, tables, field sketches and annotated diagrams, with and without the use of digital and spatial technologies (ACHGS065) • Represent the spatial distribution of geographical phenomena by constructing special purpose maps that conform to cartographic conventions, using spatial technologies as appropriate (ACHGS066)
Interpreting, analysing and concluding	• Evaluate multi-variable data and other geographical information using qualitative and quantitative methods, and digital and spatial technologies as appropriate, to make generalisations and inferences, propose explanations for patterns, trends, relationships and anomalies, and predict outcomes (ACHGS067) • Apply geographical concepts to synthesise information from various sources and draw conclusions based on the analysis of data and information, taking into account alternative points of view (ACHGS068) • Identify how geographical information systems (GIS) might be used to analyse geographical data and make predictions (ACHGS069)
Communicating	• Present findings, arguments and explanations in a range of appropriate communication forms, selected for their effectiveness and to suit audience and purpose; using relevant geographical terminology, and digital technologies as appropriate (ACHGS070)
Reflecting and responding	• Reflect on and evaluate the findings of the inquiry to propose individual and collective action in response to a contemporary geographical challenge, taking account of environmental, economic and social considerations; and explain the predicted outcomes and consequences of their proposal (ACHGS071)

Year 9 achievement standard

By the end of Year 9, students explain how geographical processes change the characteristics of places. They predict changes in the characteristics of places over time and identify the possible implications of change for the future. They analyse interconnections between people, places and environments and explain how these interconnections influence people, and change places and environments. Students propose explanations for distributions and patterns over time and across space and describe associations between distribution patterns. They analyse alternative strategies to a geographical challenge using environmental, social and economic criteria and propose and justify a response.

Students use initial research to identify geographically significant questions to frame an inquiry. They collect and evaluate a range of primary and secondary sources and select relevant geographical data and information to answer inquiry questions. They represent multi-variable data in a range of appropriate graphic forms, including special purpose maps that comply with cartographic conventions. They analyse data to propose explanations for patterns, trends, relationships and anomalies and to predict outcomes. Students synthesise data and information to draw reasoned conclusions. They present findings and explanations using relevant geographical terminology and graphic representations in a range of appropriate communication forms. Students propose action in response to a geographical challenge taking account of environmental, economic and social considerations and predict the outcomes and consequences of their proposal.

Australian Curriculum: History 9—Scope and sequence

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

	Historical knowledge and understanding
Overview	The following content is taught as part of an overview for the historical period. It is not intended to be taught in depth. An overview will constitute approximately 10% of the total teaching time for the year. Overview content identifies important features of the period (1750–1918) as part of an expansive chronology that helps students understand broad patterns of historical change. As such, the overview provides the broader context for the teaching of depth study content and can be built into various parts of a teaching and learning program. This means that overview content can be used to give students an introduction to the historical period; to make the links to and between the depth studies, and to consolidate understanding through a review of the period. Overview content for the making of the modern world includes the following: • the nature and significance of the Industrial Revolution and how it affected living and working conditions, including within Australia • the nature and extent of the movement of peoples in the period (slaves, convicts and settlers) • the extent of European imperial expansion and different responses, including in the Asian region • the emergence and nature of significant economic, social and political ideas in the period, including nationalism
Depth studies	**The depth studies for this year level include:** **1 Making a better world?** Choose ONE of the following depth study options • The Industrial Revolution (1750–1914) • Progressive ideas and movements (1750–1918) • Movement of peoples (1750–1901) **2 Australia and Asia** Choose ONE of the following depth study options • Asia and the world • Making a nation **3 World War I** This depth study MUST be completed by all students • World War I (1914–1918)

	Historical inquiry and skills
Chronology, terms and concepts	• Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events and developments in different periods and places (ACHHS164) • Use historical terms and concepts (ACHHS165)
Historical questions and research	• Identify and select different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry (ACHHS166) • Evaluate and enhance these questions (ACHHS167) • Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods (ACHHS168)
Analysis and use of sources	• Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS169) • Process and synthesise information from a range of sources for use as evidence in an historical argument (ACHHS170) • Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS171)
Perspectives and interpretations	• Identify and analyse the perspectives of people from the past (ACHHS172) • Identify and analyse different historical interpretations (including their own) (ACHHS173)
Explanation and communication	• Develop texts, particularly descriptions and discussions that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced (ACHHS174) • Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies (ACHHS175)

Year 9 achievement standard

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

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

oxford big ideas australian curriculum geography 9



Biomes and food security
Geographies of interconnections

The geographer's toolkit

Geography is the study of the places that make up the world around us. Geographers are interested in how human activities and natural processes change the Earth – its **places** and the links between these places. In this era of rapid population growth, climate change and **globalisation**, geographers help other people understand **change** more than ever before. By gathering, analysing and presenting information, geographers explain how change affects people and places and how these changes can be managed.

Geographers have a sense of wonder and curiosity about the world and this leads them to ask questions about what they see and experience. For example, when they look at the Serengeti **ecosystem** in Tanzania, Africa, shown in Source GT.1, they ask questions like these:

- What processes formed this **environment**?
- What types of animals and plants are found in this area?
- How have animals adapted to survive in this environment?
- Do humans live in this environment?
- What do the elephants living in the environment eat?
- How is this environment significant to the local people?
- Is this a hazardous place?
- How is this place used by different groups of people?

Geographers use a range of key concepts and skills to answer questions such as these. It helps to think of each of these concepts and skills as a tool that you can use to better understand your world. As you master each of the skills and concepts, you will gradually fill your toolkit. Welcome to the wonderful world of geography!



GT.1

Concepts for developing geographical understanding

GT.2

Geographical inquiry and skills



Source GT.1 A Masai man wearing traditional clothes overlooks the Serengeti in Tanzania, Africa. The Serengeti is a vast ecosystem and a popular tourist attraction. Each year it hosts the largest migration of land animals in the world – over 1.6 million zebra, wildebeest, and other animals migrate from Tanzania to Lower Kenya.

GT.3

Fieldwork in geography

GT.4

Careers in geography

GT.1 Concepts for developing geographical understanding

Geographers use seven key concepts to help investigate and understand the world. These concepts provide a framework to thinking geographically and will help guide you through every geographic inquiry. At times you will use several of these concepts at once, while at other times you may focus on just one. The seven key concepts in geography are:

- place
- space
- environment
- interconnection
- sustainability
- scale
- change.

Place

A place is a part of the Earth's surface that is identified and given meaning by people. For example, the Serengeti – which is a vast ecosystem in Africa – is a place. It is famous for its enormous plains filled with wildlife, animals and birds. Places aren't defined by size, however. They can be very large, like a whole continent, or small, like a corner of a library. Your home and school are important places for you, because they are places where you live and spend a lot of time.

Places can be natural (that is, shaped by the environment and largely unchanged by humans), or built (that is, constructed by humans). Each place is unique with its own set of characteristics.

The life of every person and animal on Earth is influenced by place. Places determine our relationships with one another. Our closest relationships are likely to be with people in places that are physically near. The environmental and social qualities of a place all influence the way we live. Climate, landscapes, types of plants and resources, transport networks, entertainment venues and workplaces all have a major impact on our daily lives.

Geographers use the concept of place when they investigate what a place is like, and when they look for explanations for what they see. For example, a geographer visiting this village near Mount Everest would be interested in the forces that have shaped these mountains.

They would look for clues and begin to ask questions, much like a detective. Why are the sides of the mountains so steep? Why are the highest mountain peaks in a line? Why are there stripes in the mountain peaks? By seeking answers to these questions the geographer is aiming to explain, not just describe, a place.



Source GT.2 The town of Namche Bazaar lies at the base of Mount Everest.

Geographers use the concept of place when conducting any geographical inquiry. For example, a geographer visiting Namche Bazaar in Nepal (see Source GT.2) would use the concept of place to help understand why people choose to live in this challenging environment and how they overcome these challenges. They would also investigate the ways people have altered this environment, and assess the environmental and social impacts of the effects of these changes.

Space

To most people, space means the empty universe, but to a geographer it has a different meaning. Geographers use the key concept of space when investigating the way that things are arranged on the Earth's surface. They also investigate the ways people use and change the spaces in which they live.

Geographers look for patterns in the way features and structures are arranged, and the concept of space helps them to do this. It has three main elements.

- Location – where things are located on the Earth's surface
- Organisation – how and why things are arranged and managed on the Earth's surface by people
- Spatial distribution – the shapes and patterns in which things are arranged on the Earth's surface.

At first, you may find you confuse the concepts of place and space, as people often use the words interchangeably. To a geographer, however, the concepts of place and space are quite separate. It may help you to remember that places can be divided and organised into spaces. Spaces also are assigned with different purposes.

For example, a place like your school is organised into different spaces, each with its own purpose. There are spaces for learning, spaces for sports and spaces to eat. Larger places, such as your **suburb**, town or city, are also organised into different spaces. There are spaces for housing, spaces for businesses, and spaces for sports and entertainment – all with their own function.

Understanding of the location, patterns and planning of spaces helps geographers to make sense of our world. A geographer would look at a photograph like this one of New York City (see Source GT.3) and might examine it by using the key concept of space in the following terms.

- Location – they would observe that Manhattan Island is located in the mouth of the Hudson river and that land is limited. Clearly, there is an open space in the centre of the city. A geographer might identify that it has been designated as a space for recreation and enjoying nature. They may ask questions like, How big is the park? When was it established?
- Organisation – they would conclude that there are many tall buildings in a confined area. Were the buildings constructed around a set perimeter, after the park was established? Are the buildings mainly used for business or housing purposes?
- Spatial distribution – the geographer may investigate how many buildings there are per square kilometre, how sparsely or densely they are situated from each other, and how sparsely or densely they are populated.

Further investigation would reveal that there is a complex network of bridges, ferries, subways and walkways that link the island to surrounding areas. In fact, Manhattan Island in New York is one of the most densely populated places on Earth, with more than 26 000 people living in every square kilometre! New Yorkers would perceive and use the space around them in quite a different way than someone living on a huge block in an outer suburban area.

Geographers also investigate the ways that people use and change the space in which they live. They recognise that different groups of people use space in different ways and that this changes over time. By examining, researching and describing how spaces are used, geographers can further our understanding of the world and help manage it into the future.



Source GT.3 Manhattan Island in New York is one of the most densely populated places on Earth.

Environment

You will have heard people talk about 'the environment' and probably studied aspects of the environment before. In geographical terms, the key concept of environment means the living and non-living components and elements that make up an area, and the ways they are organised into a system.

Geographers are interested in investigating and describing the relationships between people and the environment. In particular they examine:

- the ways in which different groups of people perceive and use the natural environment and why these perceptions differ
- the ways in which people change the environment and how these changes can be managed
- the impact of environmental hazards on people and how the impacts of these hazards can be reduced.

The world in which we live is made up of many different environments. Some environments are natural (or physical) such as deserts, **grasslands**, mountains, coral reefs, forests, oceans and ice caps. The natural environment provides us with basic resources for living such as food, water and clean air. Natural processes such as **tectonic plate** movement, **erosion** and **weathering** have formed these environments over millions of years. In order for an environment to be considered natural its soils, rocks, climate, plants and animals must remain largely untouched by humans. Today there are very few natural environments left on Earth. The Australian World Heritage listed Heard and McDonald Islands are an outstanding example of a pristine natural environment with no introduced animals and plant species, and no human impact.

Other environments have been so changed by humans – largely for settlement and economic activity – that very few natural features remain. These are known as built (or human) environments and include large cities, towns, suburbs and areas of farmland. For example, mountainous land in the Philippines has been transformed into terraced pond fields for rice farming by skilfully following the natural contours of the land.

Researching an environment also allows geographers to evaluate how people can best interconnect with that environment, and identify potential risks for people interacting with that environment. For example, examining the landscape, height, as well as the ascent of Mt Kilimanjaro (see Source GT.4) in Africa allows prospective travellers to know that, unlike with Mt Everest, they don't need to bring additional oxygen for their climb, but they do need to follow one of six official routes.

The study of different environments helps geographers to better understand and appreciate natural processes, such as how weather works, how mountains are formed and how rainforests and coral reefs grow. The concept helps geographers to analyse the changes humans make to natural environments and better appreciate their impact so that they can be managed more wisely.



Source GT.4 Mt Kilimanjaro in Africa is a popular place for climbers to interact with the natural environment.

Interconnection

Nothing on Earth exists in isolation – all environments and every living and non-living thing are connected. Geographers use this concept of interconnection to better understand the links between places and people, and how these interconnections affect the environment and the way we live. These connections can be on a local level or a global level.

Natural processes link places and people. For example, the water cycle links the water in the oceans with the land. When it brings rain to inland areas, water flows across the land and into rivers and streams. Farmers rely on this natural link to provide the water they need to grow food.

Links between places and people can affect the way people live. In turn, the way people live can affect places. A relatively small change in one area can have a great impact on another it is interconnected with. The melting of ice from a glacier at the top of a mountain, for example, will affect the land at the bottom of the mountain. The extra water could potentially damage crops that are being grown there, or conversely the changed conditions may benefit farmers.

Human activities such as the movement of people, the production and trade of goods, and the flow of money within and between different countries also link places and people. Interconnection through electronic means such as mobile phone and Internet is now a part of everyday life for many of us. Being consumers in a global market place also means we are connected to many places via international trade. More than 3000 ships carrying two million containers pass through the Port of Melbourne (see Source GT.5) each year. These ships and the goods they carry link dozens of countries around the world.



Source GT.5 A container ship prepares to berth at Port Melbourne.

Sustainability

The concept of sustainability relates to the ongoing capacity of the Earth to maintain all life. This means developing ways to ensure the Earth's resources are used and managed responsibly so they can be maintained for future generations.

Sustainable patterns of living meet the needs of the current generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Many of the world's resources (such as oil, coal and natural gas) are non-renewable. This means that if we continue to use them they will one day run out. Other resources (such as wind, forests, solar and water) are renewable. This means that they replace themselves naturally, or can be replaced to meet the needs of society. Sustainability encourages us to think more closely about these different types of resources – the ways in which they are formed and the speed at which they are being used. It also encourages us to look more closely at renewable options and take greater care of the Earth. Actions to improve sustainability can operate at a number of levels:

- local – recycling of paper by individuals, schools and households reduces the number of trees that need to be cut down
- national – in Australia, the government has begun to encourage sustainable use of energy by offering incentives to promote the use of solar panels
- international – organisations such as the Marine Stewardship Council (MSC) are working with fisheries and retailers to promote responsible and environmentally viable fishing practices around the world.

There can be debate surrounding the sustainability of an environment, as people or organisations with different interests may put forward different points of view. A tree-logging company may protest that their practices are sustainable, as they re-plant as much as they cut down. On the other hand, a conservation group may be equally convinced that a forest cannot sustain cutting down trees. New trees may take decades to grow, in which time wildlife has moved on and the ecosystem has been altered. Many underdeveloped countries, such as Myanmar (Burma), (see Source GT.6), face enormous challenges controlling and monitoring forest clearance.

Sustainability is an important concept for geographers. They use it to investigate how natural and human systems work, and understand how resources can be managed in such a way that they will be sustained into the future.



Source GT.6 Logging in Myanmar (Burma) gives local communities a source of income but leaves hillsides bare and easily eroded by heavy rain.

Scale

The concept of scale is used to guide geographical inquiries. Geographers study things that take place on many different spatial levels – meaning from small areas (such as a local park) to very large areas (such as the use of oil and gas all over the world). They use the concept of scale to look for explanations and outcomes at different levels. For example, a geographic inquiry on climate change may be carried out at a range of scales (from smallest to largest) (see Source GT.8):

- local – such as an inquiry into increased electricity use (for air conditioning) in your neighbourhood due to higher than average temperatures. Increased energy consumption may result in power outages.
- regional – such as inquiry into coral bleaching on the Great Barrier Reef (see Source GT.8). Warming ocean temperatures can trigger coral bleaching often resulting in coral death.
- national – such as an inquiry into changing weather patterns and increased frequency of extreme weather events in Australia. This impacts on government allocation of resources across many sectors (water security, agriculture, emergency services, coastal communities and **infrastructure**).
- international – such as inquiry into drought in Africa. Rains have become less reliable in many places as the climate has changed and many African nations have been hit by a series of devastating droughts that have brought widespread hunger and starvation.
- global – such as an inquiry into the reduction in Arctic sea ice due to global warming. This reduction in white ice means that less of the Sun's energy is reflected back into space and more is absorbed into the earth and sea resulting in further increases in temperatures globally.

Some geographic studies investigate a large area. For example, something that affects a whole country, such as a severe drought, would involve a study at the national scale. If an event or phenomenon affects the whole world, such as climate change and rising sea levels, it would be examined at the global scale.

It may be necessary to use different scales when studying the same thing. For example, as mentioned above, climate change is occurring globally and should be examined at the global scale.

However, it can be examined at other scales too.

Source GT.7 Geographical inquiries can be carried out on a number of different scale levels.

Scale	Example of climate change inquiry
Local scale	Electricity consumption in your neighbourhood (increased use of air conditioning)
Regional scale	Coral bleaching on the Great Barrier Reef
National scale	Frequency of extreme weather events across Australia
Global scale	Reduction in Arctic sea ice; rising temperatures throughout the world



Source GT.8 The Great Barrier Reef off the coast of Queensland is the world's largest coral reef system. A geographical inquiry of the reef could be undertaken at a range of scales.

Change

The Earth is constantly changing. Some changes occur very rapidly and are easy to observe, while others take place over millions of years and are almost undetectable to us.

The concept of change is important in geography because it helps us to understand what is happening around us and to see the world as a dynamic place. Change refers to both time and space, and allows geographers to examine how environments develop, transform or disappear.

Change can be the result of natural forces. For example, the Earth has been shaped and changed by climate, earthquakes, volcanoes and running water over millions of years. It can also be the result of human activity, such as the building of a new bridge or clearing of forest for farmland.

Changes also take place on many levels, from local through to global. Local changes that happen quickly, such as storm damage in your street, are easy to observe and explain. Regional or national changes resulting from a bushfire or an earthquake can also happen quickly and their effects can be widespread with devastating impacts on places and people.

Changes that take place on a global scale can take much longer to occur. Global warming, for example, is a long-term change that happens slowly. Global warming has widespread effects that are not easily explained.

Observing and understanding changes that are natural and have occurred over time or changes that have been made by humans over time, is an important part of any geographical inquiry. Geographers need to look at different types of changes, why they have occurred, over what time period they have occurred and what further changes may take place as a result.

Sometimes changes can be positive, such as the regeneration of vegetation, while other changes can have negative consequences, such as the pollution of waterways from industry. Geographers play an important role in ensuring that change is managed in a sustainable way.







Source GT.9 In preparation for the 2012 Summer Olympic Games, Newham, in East London was transformed from a suburb of derelict buildings and polluted rivers into a vast sporting complex.



Source GT.10 The resources and buildings for the London 2012 Olympic Games were planned with sustainability as a primary concern, adopting a Zero Waste Games Vision. The Velodrome in this photo was built using 100% sustainably sourced timber.

Check your learning GT.1

Remember and understand

1 Is Namche Bazaar an example of the natural, or built environment?

2 List three natural environments and three built environments. Your answers can be drawn from the photographs in this section, or you can use your own observations.

3 At what scale would a study of Mount Kilimanjaro's glaciers take place?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source GT.6 of the hillside in Myanmar (Burma).
   - a What evidence of change can you identify in this picture?
   - b How might this change impact on the natural environment in this place?
   - c How might it impact on the people in the nearby village?

5 Examine Sources GT.9 and GT.10 of Newham in London.
   - a Describe the arrangement of the sporting facilities. Using the key concept of sustainability, what factors do you think would need to be considered when planning the development of this area?
   - b What examples of interconnection can you identify in these satellite images?

6 Examine Source GT.3 of New York City. With a partner, construct four questions you could ask to investigate why so many people live in such a small space. Share your questions with your classmates.

7 A geographer examining the changes that occurred at Newham in preparation for the 2012 Olympic Games would be interested in assessing the impacts and sustainability of these changes at the local scale. Describe some possible links between:
   - a environment and sustainability
   - b space and interconnection
   - c place and space
   - d scale and environment
   - e environment and interconnection.

Evaluate and create

8 Conduct some research online into the upgrades being made at the Port of Melbourne. Choose three of the geographical concepts discussed in this section that could be used to better understand this project. Jot down two points for each concept.

9 Research the host city of the next summer or winter Olympics. What changes are being made to the natural and built environments in and around the city in preparation for the games?

10 Choose one of the key geographical concepts outlined in this section. Find a photograph in a magazine or on the Internet that illustrates this concept. Explain your choice of photograph and how you think it describes the concept.

GT.2 Geographical inquiry and skills

Geographers are investigators. They explore the world around them by asking questions about what they see. These questions begin an investigation that requires them to collect and analyse information and to communicate what they have discovered. To complete an investigation they need a set of skills such as drawing **maps** and cross-sections, surveying, sketching and presenting information. To complete a full geographic inquiry there are five sets of skills. These are listed in Source GT.11.

To become a better geographer you should try to learn new skills as you continue to practice, use and develop the skills you have already learnt. It might help you to think of each of these skills as individual tools in your toolkit. For some geographical inquiries, you may only need to use one tool; for others, you may need to use many. As you develop each new skill you will have gained another important tool in explaining the natural processes and human activities that shape our amazing planet.

Observing, questioning and planning

Observe the world and its geographical characteristics

Understanding our world begins by observing the processes that are taking place all around us. Geographers look at people, land, air, water, plants and animals and the connections between them to understand what is happening. They also seek to investigate where, why and how natural, managed and constructed environments are formed and changed. These observations often include identifying any problems or issues that need to be investigated and resolved.

Observing, questioning and planning	• Develop geographically significant questions and plan an inquiry that identifies and applies appropriate geographical methodologies and concepts
Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing	• Collect, select, record and organise relevant geographical data and information, using ethical protocols, from a range of appropriate primary and secondary sources • Evaluate sources for their reliability, bias and usefulness, and represent multi-variable data in a range of appropriate forms, for example, scatter plots, tables, field sketches and annotated diagrams, with and without the use of digital and spatial technologies • Represent the spatial distribution of geographical phenomena by constructing special purpose maps that conform to cartographic conventions, using spatial technologies as appropriate
Interpreting, analysing and concluding	• Evaluate multi-variable data and other geographical information using qualitative and quantitative methods, and digital and spatial technologies as appropriate, to make generalisations and inferences, propose explanations for patterns, trends, relationships and anomalies, and predict outcomes • Apply geographical concepts to synthesise information from various sources and draw conclusions based on the analysis of data and information, taking into account alternative points of view • Identify how **geographical information systems (GIS)** might be used to analyse geographical data and make predictions
Communicating	• Present findings, arguments and explanations in a range of appropriate communication forms, selected for their effectiveness and to suit audience and purpose; using relevant geographical terminology, and digital technologies as appropriate
Reflecting and responding	• Reflect on and evaluate the findings of the inquiry to propose individual and collective action in response to a contemporary geographical challenge, taking account of environmental, economic and social considerations; and explain the predicted outcomes and consequences of their proposal

Source GT.11 The five categories of skills used in a geographical inquiry.

Developing geographical questions

One of your greatest assets as a geographer is curiosity. Geographers look at the world around them and ask questions about what they see, experience or have thought about. You may, for example, see a news item about a volcanic eruption or hear a report about the world's most liveable cities. Or you may visit the centre of a large city on a field trip or a national park on holiday. As you begin to think like a geographer you will begin to ask questions about these events and places and these questions may be the starting point for a geographic inquiry.



Source GT.12 Zebras grazing on the plains surrounding Mt Kilimanjaro.

skill**drill**

How to develop geographical questions

You can learn to develop geographical questions which will help you begin an inquiry about a particular topic or place. Start your questions with the words 'what', 'where', 'how', 'why', 'what impact' or 'what should' when thinking about your topic.

Your questions should examine ideas such as:

- Where is it?
- How big is it?
- What pattern or shape is it?
- Why is it like this? Is it like this because something else is at this location?
- How does it interact with other things in this place?
- How is it changing?
- How should people best manage this change?

The very best questions open up an exciting area for you to explore. Examine Source GT.12. A visitor to this place might ask a simple question, such as 'How much snow is there on the mountain?'. This is a question with a relatively straightforward answer.

A better geographical question would be to ask 'Does the amount of snow on the mountain change over time?'. This question opens up a whole new area to explore, because the answer to that question will lead on to further questions and greater depth of understanding. Some other example questions are:

- Is this a volcano?
- Why is it green on the ground but there is snow on the mountain?
- Are the animals all eating the same things?
- Is there more or less snow than in the past?
- How do people use the mountain?

Apply the skill

1 Why is 'Does the amount of snow on the mountain change over time?' a better geographical question than 'How much snow is there on the mountain?'.

2 Examine Source GT.6 which shows forest clearing in Myanmar. Work with a partner to develop a set of geographical questions about this place.

3 Where could you begin to find the answers to your questions?

Plan a geographical inquiry

Asking geographical questions is a good way to open a range of possibilities for further research and investigation. It is usually best to narrow your investigation by selecting one of the geographical questions you have written as the basis for your inquiry. You should select a question in which you are interested and to better help you understand the environment you are investigating.

Planning an inquiry about Mount Kilimanjaro

Having chosen to investigate the key geographical question 'how does this mountain affect the climate?', it is time to consider what information you are going to need to answer this question. You also need to decide where you are going to locate the information you will need to collect. A good way to this is to use a planning table like the one below.

Source GT.13 Planning is a key stage in conducting a geographical inquiry.

Key inquiry question	Information needed	Possible sources of this information
How does this mountain affect the climate?	Climate data, particularly temperature and rainfall for places at various distances from Kilimanjaro including the summit	Atlas map to locate towns and cities at various distances from Kilimanjaro Encyclopaedia entry for the climates of Kenya and Tanzania Online search for climate data for selected towns and cities
	Observation of photographs and satellite images of the region	Photographs and satellite images of Kilimanjaro from throughout this chapter Google Earth, including historic imagery
	An understanding of the impact of landforms on temperature and rainfall	Printed resources such as geography textbooks, encyclopaedias and Bureau of Meteorology (BOM) books and leaflets BOM website

Check your learning GT.2

Remember and understand

1 What are the five sets of skills in a full geographical inquiry?

2 Imagine that while watching the news on television this evening you see an item about a large earthquake in China.
   a How could this news item be the beginning of a geographical inquiry?
   b Write a series of geographical questions about this earthquake.

Apply and analyse

3 For the geographical questions that you have written, develop a planning table similar to the one shown here for Mount Kilimanjaro (see Source GT.14).

Evaluate and create

4 Bring a copy of your local newspaper to class. Search through the newspaper, or think about your local area, and identify examples of stories or issues that could be investigated as part of a geographical inquiry. Examples may include a shopping centre extension, or a proposal for a new set of traffic lights or a pedestrian crossing. Choose one local issue and work with a partner to develop a series of geographical questions about it. Then, complete a planning table for one of your questions.

Source GT.14 Mt Kilimanjaro in Africa.



Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing

Collect, record and evaluate primary and secondary data

Good planning and preparation will ensure that your geographical inquiry will run smoothly, be relevant and give you the answers you are looking for. Once you have identified the issue, formulate your key inquiry question. You can conduct a sound, useful inquiry by following these steps:

- collect and record the information you think you will need to answer your key inquiry question
- evaluate this information and data to determine that it is accurate and relevant
- represent your findings in an interesting and appropriate way (such as tables, graphs, maps and sketches).

Geographers find answers to their questions in many places. They may collect information themselves by interviewing people, taking photographs, making sketches out in the field or conducting surveys and questionnaires. This kind of information will generally only be relevant to a particular inquiry and is called **primary data**.

Often a geographer collects information that supports his or her inquiry but has not been specifically collected or designed by the geographer for the inquiry. This type of information is called **secondary data**. Secondary data sources include maps, graphs, statistics, and websites that someone else has developed. One of the best secondary sources of information may be photographs from newspapers and magazines and satellite images from Google Earth. It is important to always evaluate any secondary sources for reliability, relevance and bias. This is particularly true for information accessed through the Internet. Unlike a printed source such as a book or atlas it can be very difficult to establish who has written and published information online.

Reliability

When undertaking an inquiry, geographers need to evaluate the sources they use for reliability and potential bias, as well as usefulness. In the case of collecting data from primary sources, such as interviewing subjects directly on a topic, the information gathered will be reliable, as it is gathered first-hand. It is important for the geographer to keep in mind, then, any potential bias that may be influencing an interviewee's response. An interview that a geographer is conducting on the potential effects of turning local parkland into an industrial park, for instance, would have very different responses from a representative of the industrial developer, compared to a member of a local wildlife conservation group. It is important for a geographer to evaluate this kind of bias, and remember to ask questions about the motivation behind it.

When selecting secondary sources, such as maps, graphs, photographs or other data, the geographer also needs to ensure the data is reliable and unbiased. This includes evaluating the creator of the data – is the data from a recognised source like a government body, such as the Bureau of Meteorology or a research agency like the **CSIRO**? Is the data provided without bias? Or is it presented on a website for a company that might have a vested interest in influencing public opinion?

Ethics in geography

When conducting research and obtaining data for an inquiry, it is important for a geographer to be mindful of issues that are likely to raise ethical concerns. This may include being aware of privacy concerns, ensuring anonymity if required, and obtaining informed consent for research participants. Geographers may also need to outline where and how the information obtained will be used or published, and special attention may need to be given for relational data where geographical references or co-ordinates might disclose a participant's location and/or identity.

If a geographer is undertaking an inquiry that involves consulting with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities, they should be aware that there are guidelines and protocols that should be followed. While these are not necessarily rules, it is important to know that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people have distinctive regional and cultural identities which require respectful consideration for meaningful consultation. This may involve preferred terminology, cues for cultural communication, and other means for making consultation harmonious and productive. If conducting such an inquiry, it is advisable to do further reading, such as the *Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples Engagement Toolkit*, which can be found online.

skill**drill**

Evaluating the reliability of websites

There is an enormous amount of information available online, but it is important to keep in mind that not all websites provide reliable information. You must be careful not to naively accept all information published online as being from a reliable source. Websites should be critically evaluated for reliability by following these steps:

Step 1 Find out how old the information is. When was it first published? This will help you decide whether it is useful for your inquiry or not.

Step 2 Find out who published the information. Is it possible they have a bias? You can often find out more about the organisation publishing these statistics by going to their 'home' page or 'about us' page.

Step 3 Look at the extension at the end of the website address as this gives you an important clue about the origin of the information. For example .com is used by commercial organisations such as online stores, .org is used by non-commercial organisations such as NGOs and welfare groups, .gov by government departments, .edu refers to schools and universities, .biz by businesses and .mil by military groups.

Step 4 If you cannot find out when the information was published or who published it, it is probably too unreliable to use in a geographic inquiry. Look for a more reliable source of information.

Apply the skill

1 Common websites used for reference information include the CIA factbook (see Source GT.15), the Australian Bureau of Statistics, National Geographic and the United Nations Development Programme. Using the steps listed above, assess the reliability of the data found at these websites.



Source GT.15 This web page describes Tanzania. How do you know if it contains reliable information?

Evaluating and representing geographical data visually

Geographers often present the information they gather during their inquiries in a number of different ways. They make maps, create graphs and tables or even draw diagrams to help them look for patterns in the data they have gathered. These tools help the geographer analyse and interpret the information they have gathered, and also present the information to other people (the general public, the government, the media) and help them understand the geographer's findings.

Maps

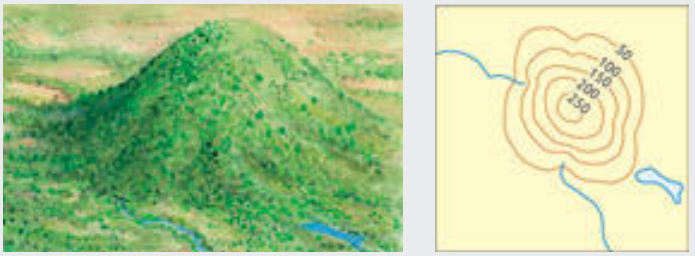
One of the most useful tools that geographers use to process information is a map. A map is a simplified plan of an area. Maps are drawn in the plan view (directly from above) because this ensures the scale will be the same across the entire area. If maps were drawn from an angle, some parts of the mapped area would look distorted and so it would not be an accurate representation of the area. When properly used, maps can reveal a great deal about our planet and the ways in which we use it.

Topographic maps

A piece of paper only shows two dimensions: width and length. However, the Earth's surface has a third dimension: height. Cartographers (map drawers) use a variety of methods to show this third dimension.

Topographic maps are one of a geographer's most useful tools. Because most topographic maps are drawn of a small region they can show that region in great detail right down to individual buildings and rocks. They also show the height of the land above sea level through the use of **contour lines** which join together all places of an equal height. By learning to interpret the contour patterns made by these lines you can work out the shape and height of the land that has been mapped (see Source GT.16).

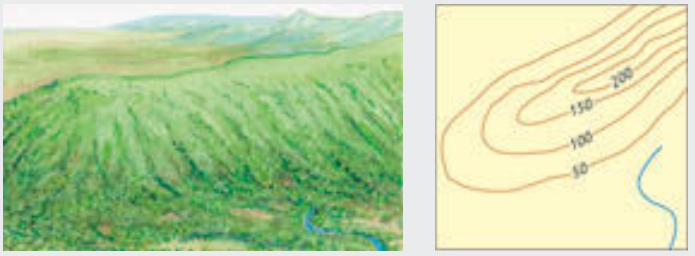
ROUND HILL OR VOLCANO



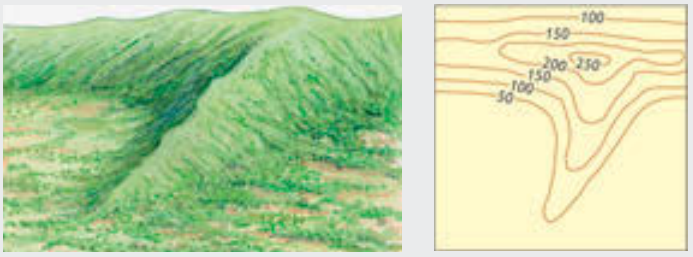
VALLEY



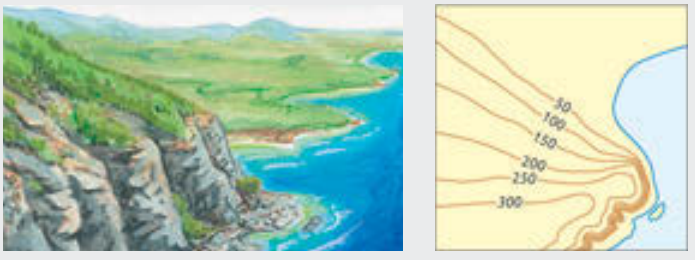
RIDGE



SPUR



CLIFF



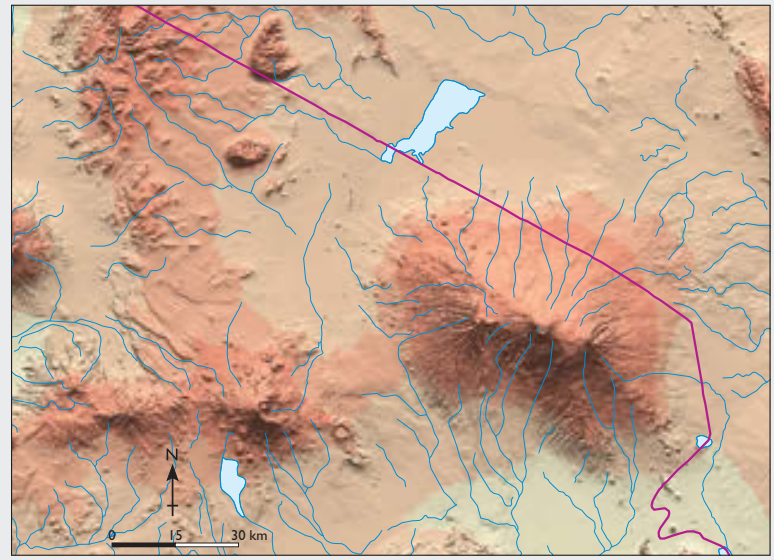
PLATEAU



Source GT.16 Common contour patterns

Digital maps and terrain models

There are about 6000 man-made satellites orbiting the Earth. Many of these collect digital data about the shape and height of the land and transmit it back to computers on the ground. This data is then interpreted and can be used to draw maps. Cartographers can use computer programmes to add colours to these digital maps to highlight certain aspects of the environment. In Source GT. 17, for example, the land has been shaded according to its height. The data can also be manipulated in other ways. In Source GT. 18 it has been used to create a side view of the landform being mapped. This type of illustration is known as a digital terrain model.



Source GT.17 In this digital map of the Mount Kilimanjaro region land has been shaded according to its height above sea level. Shadows have also been added to help map users understand the shape and height of the land.

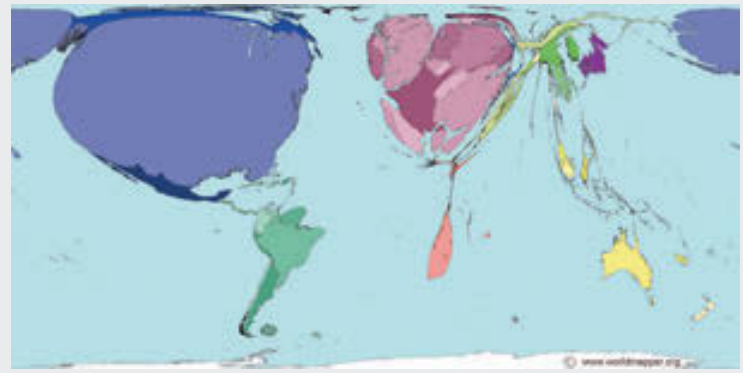


Source GT.18 This is a digital terrain model of Mount Kilimanjaro and the surrounding area. The data was collected by a NASA space shuttle and an orbiting satellite. Cartographers have exaggerated the height of the landform so that it appears twice as high as it actually is.

Cartograms

You will have already seen **cartograms** in the course of your geography studies. These are the maps which look distorted and have areas that appear thinner or more enlarged than they would normally be, depending on what they are showing. Cartograms are sometimes called 'value by area' maps, which means the spaces on the maps are distorted to show a representation of a value rather than land area.

For example, while Vietnam is a relatively small country in terms of land area, it is the fifth largest rice growing country, so it would be exaggerated to a much greater relative size in a cartogram. The United States of America, which actually has a much larger land mass than Vietnam, is the 10th largest rice producer, so would appear much smaller than actual size on a cartogram.



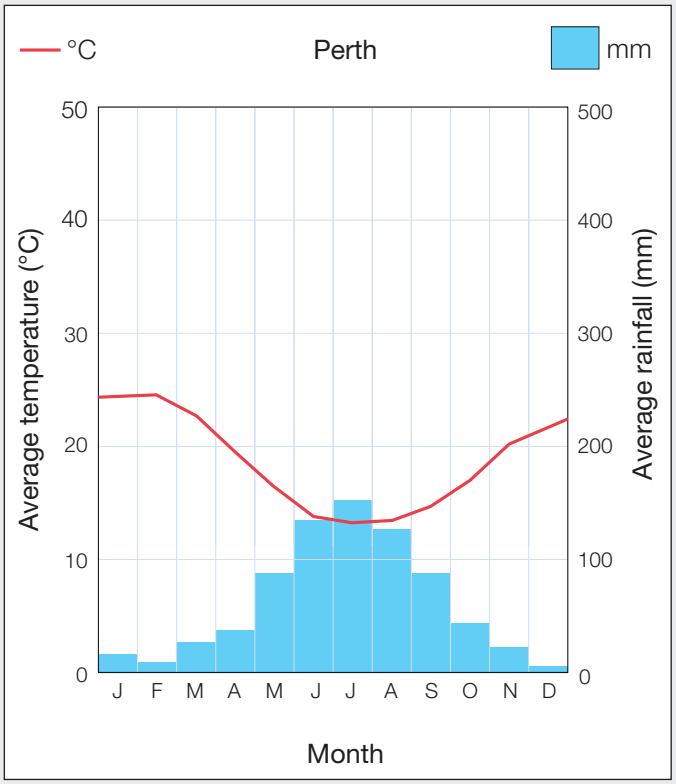
Source GT.19 This cartogram shows the percentage of the population living on more than US$200 a day. The distortion shows that the United States has many more people living on this amount than Asia does.

Graphs

In Years 7, 8 and 9 you will have learnt how to create and interpret simple graphs, such as **bar graphs**, **column graphs** and **pie charts**. In Years 9 and 10 you will be working with more complex graphs. You won't necessarily be creating these kinds of graphs yourself, but you will be learning how to interpret them and make sense of the information they provide. A range of complex graphs are described below.

Climate graphs

Climate graphs show the general climate of a place – what the weather is like overall in a certain location, graphing the average monthly temperature and over the course of a year (or other set period of time) (see Source GT.20). Climate graphs combine line and column graphs. Temperature is recorded as a **line graph** and rainfall is recorded as a bar graph.

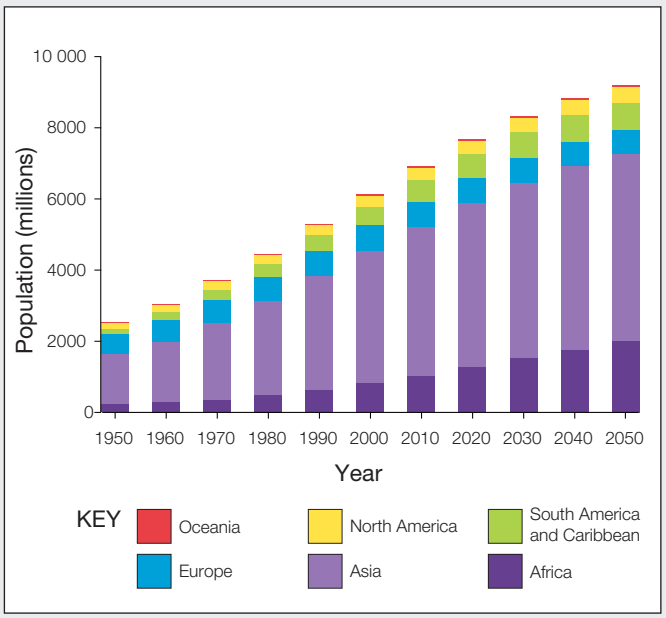


Source GT.20 A climate graph showing the average monthly temperature and rainfall in Perth.

Compound column graphs

A **compound column graph**, sometimes called a stacked column graph or stacked bar graph, is used by geographers to compare the parts of something to the whole. They are a more complex type of column graph in which each column is split into sections. The results are then stacked on top of each other, in different colours or different shades of a colour, so that results can be easily compared (see Source GT.21).

Each column in a compound column graph represents a total, and each different coloured segment represents a part that makes up that total. The graph in Source GT.21, for example, shows the total increase in world population, from 1950 projected up to 2050. Of the total increase in population, it is immediately clear that Asia, coloured light purple, has experienced and will continue to experience the greatest growth. It is also immediately clear that Oceania, coloured red, has experienced very small population growth in comparison. Presenting the information in this way means we can quickly see and compare a number of figures that contribute to a total.

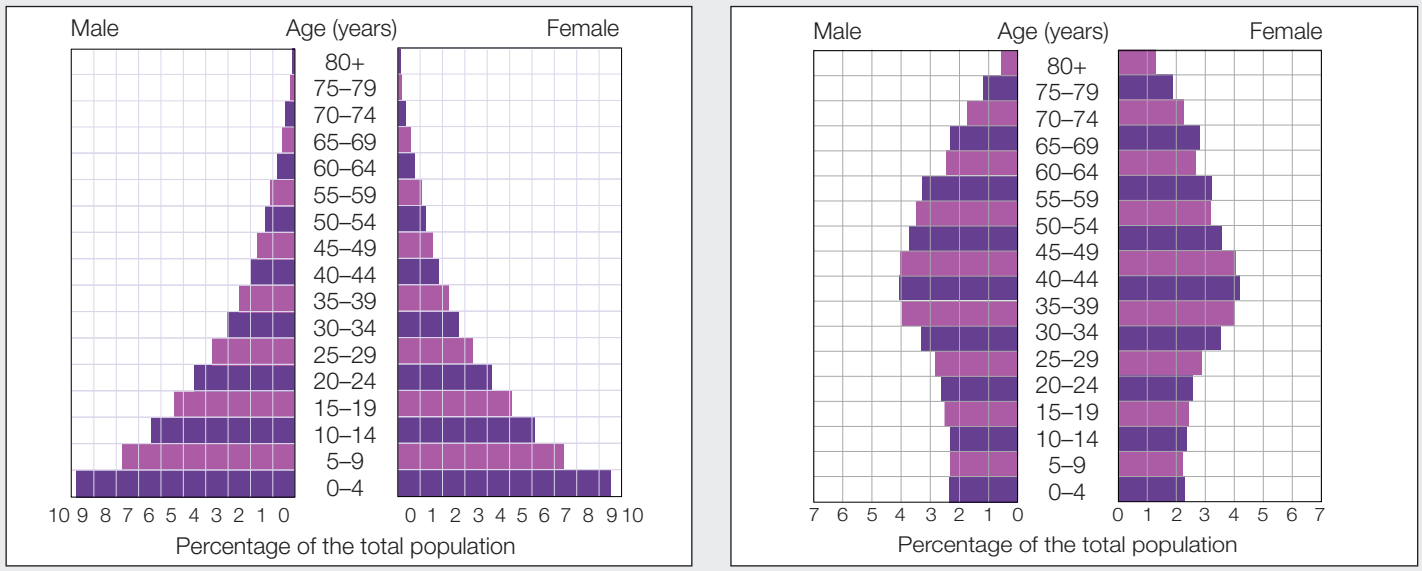


Source GT.21 A compound column graph showing the increase in world population by region, 1950–2050 (columns on the right provide projections).

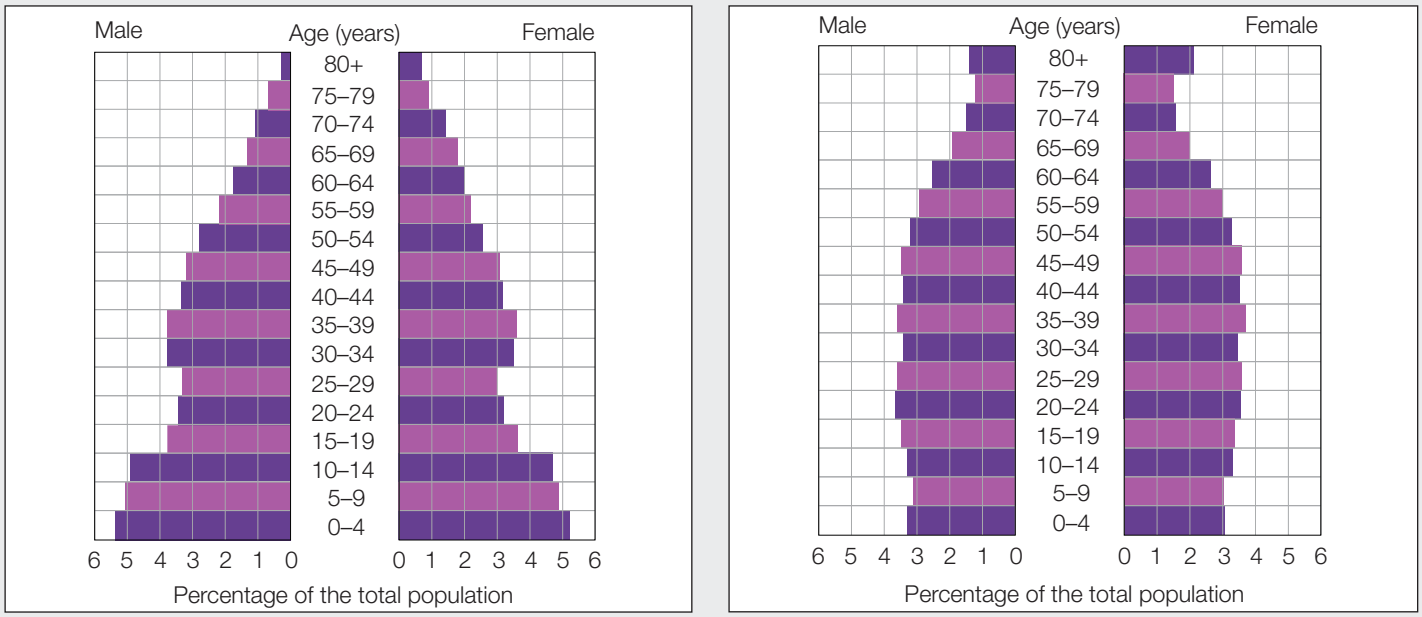
Population pyramids

Population pyramids are horizontal bar graphs that show the proportion of men and women in different age groups in a population. They can be used in a number of ways. Most commonly, they are used to compare the population structures and growth rates of different countries. A triangular-shaped graph shows a population with a high birth rate – that is, the population in that country is growing – while a graph that tapers in (is narrower) at the younger ages indicates a population that is contracting or declining (see Source GT.22).

Population pyramids can also help geographers to identify the ways in which the population in a single country is changing over time. In these population pyramids of Australia's population, for example, it is clear that the percentage of Australia's population over the age of 65 increased between 1960 (see Source GT.23) and 2009 (see Source GT.24). Geographers describe this change as the ageing of the population.



Source GT.22 Population pyramids showing growing (left) and contracting (right) populations



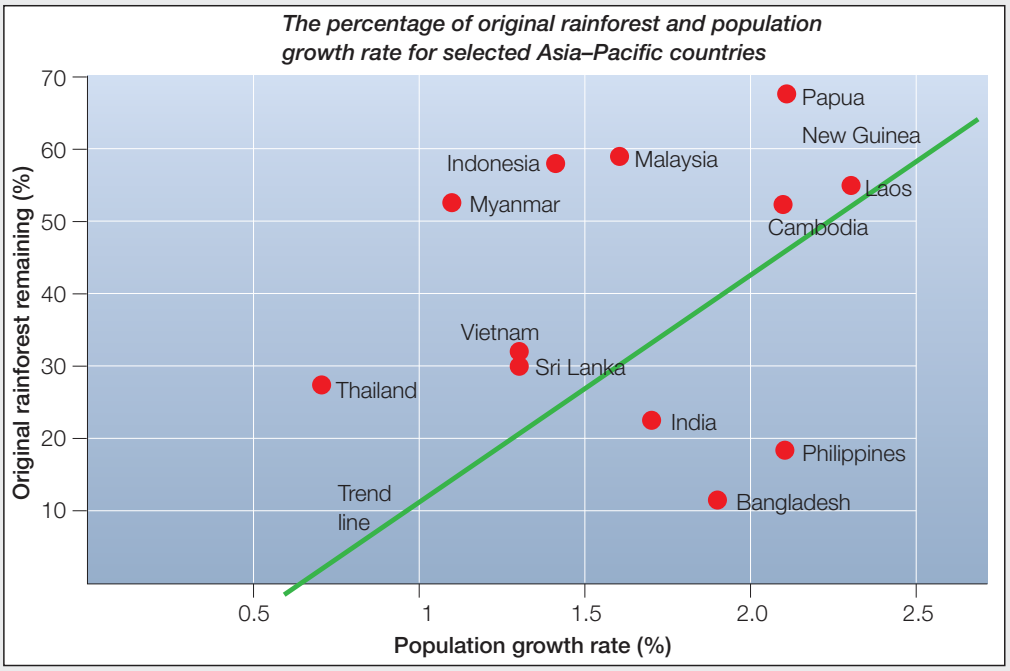
Source GT.23 Population pyramid for Australia, 1960

Source GT.24 Population pyramid for Australia, 2009

Scatter plots

Maps can be useful to show a pattern but they don't really explain that pattern. A special type of graph, called a **scatter plot**, or scatter graph, is a better way of doing this. A scatter plot compares two sets of data in a visual way so that connections between them can be easily seen. They are also called a scattergram. The following scatter graph compares the amount of original forest cover remaining in selected Asian countries with their population growth rate. It is essentially testing the theory that forests are more endangered in countries where the population is growing rapidly.

Because most of the countries lie close to the trend line in this graph it is possible to say that there is a relationship between the amount of forest in a country and the rate at which its population is growing. Countries with the fastest growing populations have the most rainforest remaining. Those countries that lie apart from the general trend such as Bangladesh are called outliers. A geographer studying this graph might use it as the beginning of a geographical inquiry into deforestation in Bangladesh.



Source GT.25 Scatter graph showing remaining forest and the population growth rate.

Check your learning GT.3

Remember and understand

1 Why is a website that ends with .edu more reliable than one that ends with .com?
2 What advantages do scatter plots have over maps?
3 What do population pyramids show? Why are they a useful tool for geographers?
4 Examine Source GT.25. In which of these countries is the population increasing most rapidly? How much original forest cover remains in this country?

Apply and analyse

5 What is the difference between primary sources and secondary sources of information? Is the CIA Factbook (see Source GT.15) an example of a primary or secondary source?
6 Using Source GT.17, describe the terrain of the region surrounding Mount Kilimanjaro. Do you think Source GT.17 is more useful for this task than Source GT.18?
7 Describe the differences between the population pyramids in Sources GT.23 and GT.24. What do these differences reveal about the populations at these two times?

Evaluate and create

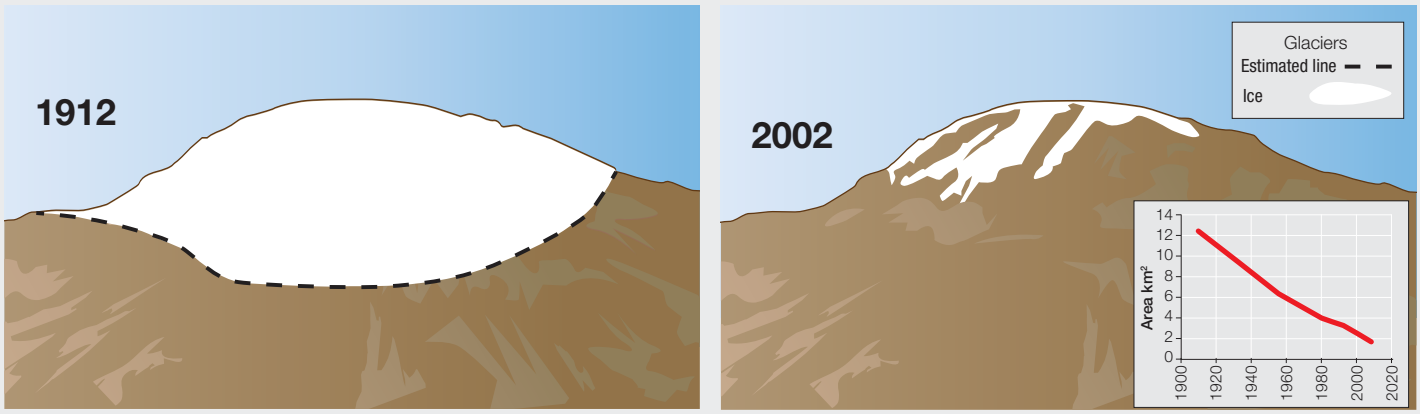
8 Examine Source GT.18. Sketch the probable contour pattern of the landscape shown. Use Source GT.16 as a guide to common contour patterns.
9 Research the size of the population of a country other than Australia over a ten-year period. Create a graph or graphs to present your findings.

Other graphic representations

In addition to maps and graphs, geographers use a range of other visual representations to communicate information they have collected. These include geographic diagrams, sketches, tables, geographic photographs and geographic information systems (GIS). These ways of presenting information allow geographers to communicate their findings in the most clear and appropriate manner.

Geographic diagrams

Geographical diagrams are simplified drawings of the real world. They allow geographers to show the features or characteristics of places or things much more directly than describing them in words. Certain interesting or complex processes can also be easily explained and demonstrated in a diagram, and communicated quickly and effectively by simple visual representation (see Source GT.26).



Source GT.26 This diagram shows the dramatic rate at which snows have melted on Mt Kilimanjaro.

Tables

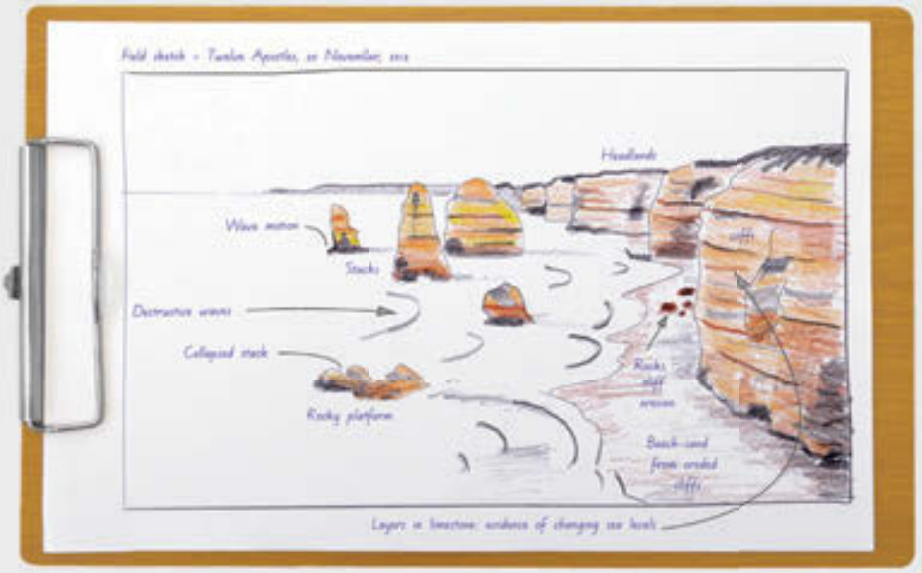
Tables allow geographers to present and compare data by organising it under different headings. Tables can be useful for presenting information over a range of time periods or locations.

Source GT.27 This table, based on data gathered by geographers in 2006, shows the change in area of seven glaciers (A–G) on Mount Kilimanjaro, 1912–2003.

Areas (10^3 m^2)	Glacier Area A	Glacier Area B	Glacier Area C	Glacier Area D	Glacier Area E	Glacier Area F	Glacier Area G	Total
1912	5676	3	27	5011	811	372	158	12058
1953	3829	0	16	2156	493	181	0	6675
1976	2440	0	0	1409	209	113	0	4171
1989	1900	0	0	1168	147	90	0	3305
2003	1304	0	0	1025	132	49	0	2510

Geographic sketches

A geographical sketch can be an extremely useful way of collecting information, and presenting it in a straightforward and immediate way. They are often completed in the field (and are known as field sketches) or are sketched from photographs. The aim of a geographic sketch is to focus on those parts of the environment that are relevant to the current geographic inquiry. For example, a geographer studying the role of waves in the erosion of a coastline would sketch the rocks and landforms of a beach (see Source GT.28) while another geographer studying tourism at the coast would sketch the buildings and roads at the same beach. Sketches allow the geographer to simplify information to make it easier to understand.



Source GT.28 Field sketches are useful for capturing information quickly and directly.

Geographic information systems (GIS)

A geographic information system (GIS) is a way of collecting, storing, presenting and using geographical data. GIS encompasses collecting geospatial data – real-world distance between landmarks, depth of sea level, height and width of buildings, layout of streets and suburbs – and presenting it through digital means. A car's GPS uses GIS data to allow you to navigate through the real world, using data that has been gathered using computer technology. GIS has many different applications and is used for planning, telecommunications, transport and logistics, to name just a few.



Source GT.29 Geographic information systems gather and present real-world geographical data using computer technology.

Geographic photographs

Geographic photographs differ from other types of photographs in that they are taken to depict and present a place or particular feature of the landscape for the purpose of demonstrating an aspect that you are studying. This is quite different from taking photos of you and your friends for fun, or even from taking an attractive picture of a landscape. Geographic photographs are used as a source of data.



Source GT.30 A geographic photograph demonstrates a particular aspect of a place or environment, like this one of the Mt Kilimanjaro glacier area.

skill**drill**

Collecting and evaluating geographic photographs

Geographers take photographs with the purpose of capturing a specific visual reference. This skill in geography is learning to capture a scene on camera that shows exactly what you want it to. You will not necessarily be taking the prettiest picture – you will be taking the picture that is relevant to your inquiry. Then, you can show the key features by adding notes or labels to your photograph. This is known as annotating the photograph. Annotating your photograph will help with your evaluation of the subject, too.

Step 1 Prepare for your session. Read the manual for your camera and get to know what your camera is capable of doing. Learn about exposure and how to frame your subject – there are plenty of tips online to help you with this. It is important to hold your camera steady, or you can practice using a tripod. This is especially useful when collecting photographs of the same place over a period of time.

Step 2 Decide on your subject and ensure you are photographing the relevant parts you want to feature. Select the features of the landscape that show important aspects of your geographic inquiry. Remember your key inquiry question. It could be something like, 'How does tourism impact on this environment?' If so, ensure you include evidence of any impact, like rubbish left along a shoreline. In the case of the photo shown here, the key inquiry question was, 'Are the glaciers becoming smaller because of natural or human factors?'

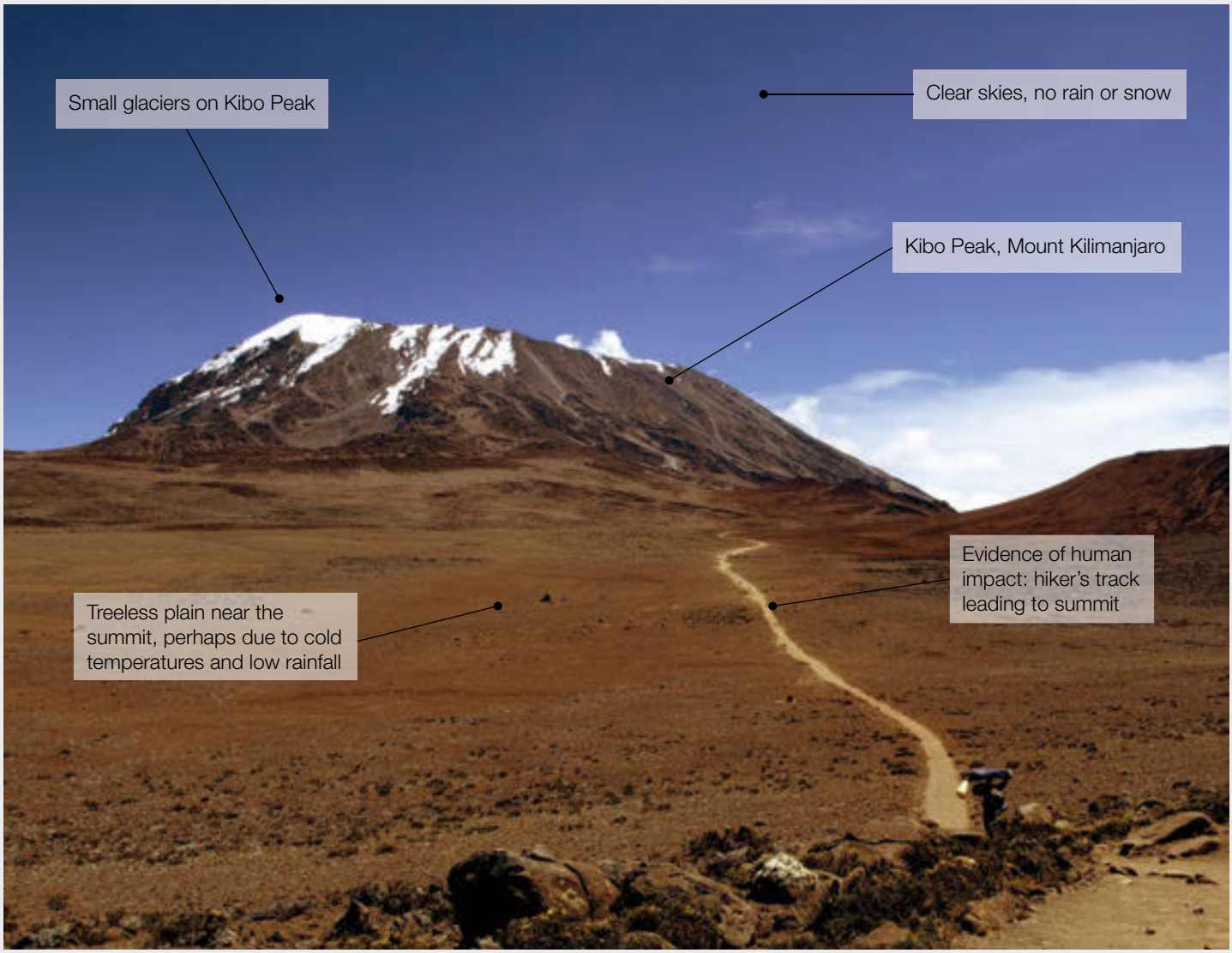
Step 3 Evaluate photo drafts as you go. Remember that your photograph is part of your geography **fieldwork** or study, and ensure that your photographs include the aspects you want to show. You might need to try photographing your subject from different angles, or from above or below it to capture what you are after.

Step 4 **Annotate** your photographs, remembering to focus on the topic of the inquiry. Write short labels that include the key features of the landscape. Keep your labels neat, relatively short and relevant to your inquiry. Note any observations you have and possible causes for changes or damage you note in the environment.

Step 5 Place your labels, taking care not to obscure important parts of the photograph. Space the labels around the photograph without making them too cluttered. Avoid having the lines from the labels crossing each other. If you think you have too many labels, go over them again and delete any you think aren't really relevant to your inquiry question.

Apply the skill

1. Prepare for a geographic photo session. Decide on a subject and head out to a natural environment such as a forest, stream or coastline with your camera. Evaluate your photographs as you go to ensure you are collecting the information you are seeking.
2. Annotate your photographs following the steps listed above. Choose your best three photos and set up a digital display on the school computer network or print them out and set up a wall in your classroom as a photo gallery.



Source GT.31 An annotated image of Mt Kilimanjaro

Interpreting, analysing and concluding

Once you have collected, recorded, evaluated and represented your information, it is time to make sense of it all so that you can reach some conclusions about the geographic questions that began your inquiry. Geographers look for order, diversity, trends, patterns, anomalies and relationships in their information. It can often help to classify information by sorting it into groups.

Using models to identify trends, patterns and relationships in geographical data

There are a number of methods and models that geographers use to help them during this stage of their inquiries. These include the:

- PQE method
- SHEEPT method

Using the PQE method

PQE is a tool used by geographers to describe the data they have gathered (particularly on maps) and look for patterns in this data. The letters PQE stand for pattern, quantify and exceptions.

P – Pattern

In this step, you need to give a general overview of any patterns you may identify.

When looking at any form of data, look for things that stand out or form patterns. A pattern may be a group of similar features on a diagram, a concentration of a particular colour or feature on a map, or a particular shape that is created by data on a column graph. For example, when looking at a map of Africa (see Source GT.32) you might say, 'the forests seem to be located mainly in Central Africa and Southern Africa'.

Q – Quantify

In this step, you need to add specific and accurate information to define and explain the patterns.

Quantifying involves using statistics, amounts, sizes and locations to give specific details. For example, rather than just saying, 'The most forest is located in the centre of the continent', you would need to quantify this statement. You might say instead, '240.3 million hectares of forest has been recorded in Central Africa, compared to 35.4 million hectares in East Africa'.

E – Exceptions

In this step, you need to identify everything that does not fit your patterns.

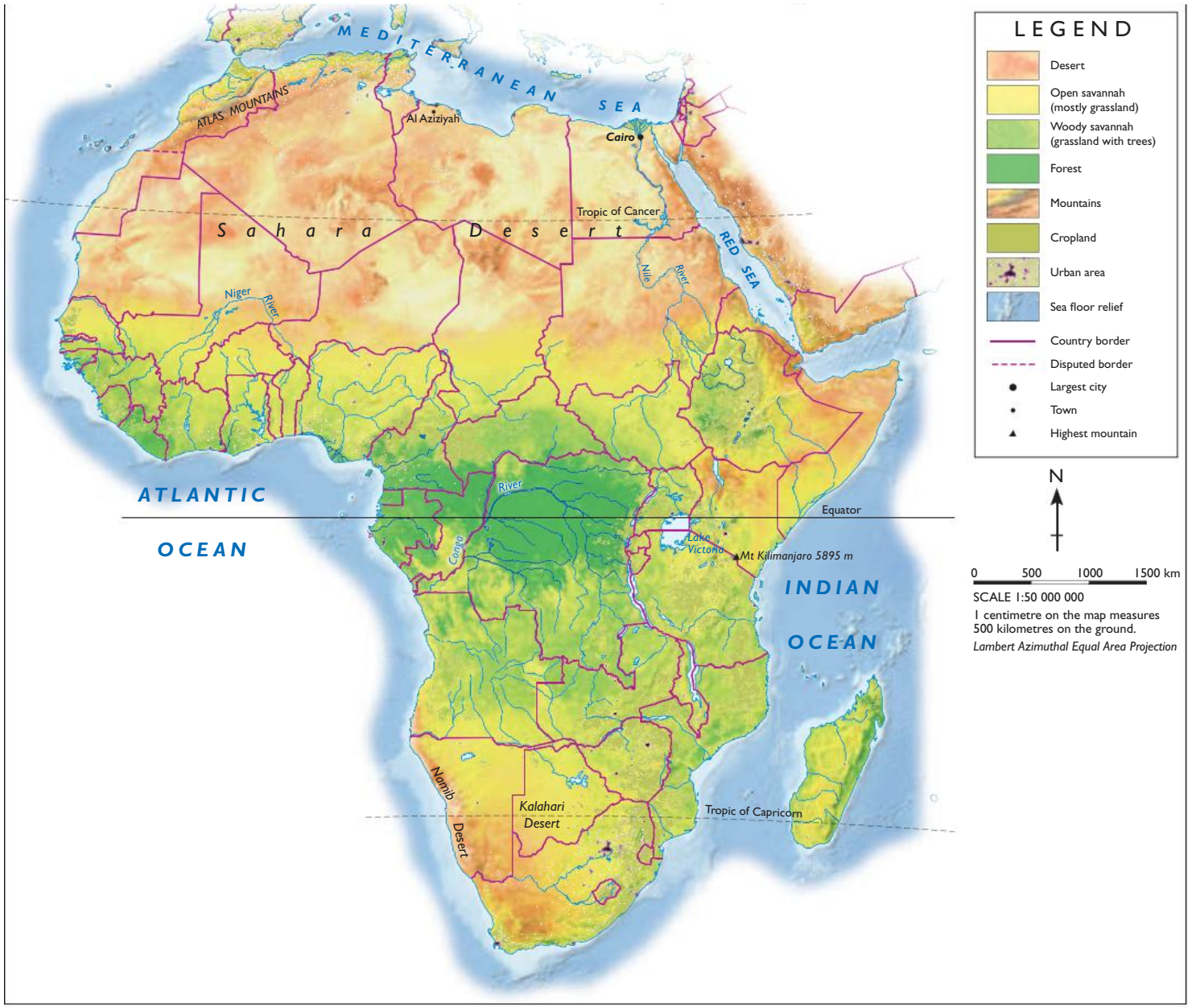
Often, you may find that there are things in your data that do not fit into a pattern you have identified. These are called exceptions. They also need to be identified and quantified. For example, you might say 'There are also forest regions located in North Africa and Western Africa'.

Using the SHEEPT method

SHEEPT is a tool used by geographers to help them consider the many factors that may contribute to the patterns identified in their data. When you are examining issues related to your inquiry, it is useful to think about them in terms of these six factors and rank them in order of importance. This will help you reach your conclusions. The letters SHEEPT stand for:

- social (S) – factors relating to culture and people
- historical (H) – factors relating to past events
- environmental (E) – factors relating to the natural environment (including climate, landforms and vegetation)
- economic (E) – factors relating to the earning or spending of money (including income earned from industry and tourism and the cost of building a dam or highway)
- political (P) – factors relating to governments (including laws, regulations and policies)
- technological (T) – factors relating to the availability and use of different types of technology (including the development of greener technologies, alternative energy sources and **GIS**).

AFRICA: ENVIRONMENTS



Source GT.32

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning GT.4

Remember and understand

1 What do the letters PQE stand for?

2 What do the letters in SHEEPT stand for?

Apply and analyse

3 Look at Source GT.32. Use the PQE method to think about Africa's deserts.
   - a Can you identify a pattern?
   - b Can you quantify this pattern?
   - c Are there any exceptions in this pattern?

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct your own Internet research on the way in which Mt Kilimanjaro is managed and use the SHEEPT method to think more closely about the factors that impact on it.
   - a List at least one point for each of the SHEEPT factors.
   - b What conclusion(s) can you make about the way in which Mt Kilimanjaro is managed?

5 Create a colourful and informative pictogram to help you remember what SHEEPT stands for using an image or picture for each of the 'SHEEPT' letters.

Distinguishing between quantitative and qualitative data

Primary and secondary data provide either **quantitative data** or **qualitative data**.

Quantitative data includes anything that can be recorded as numbers (for example, Mt Kilimanjaro is 5,895 metres tall and has an area of 753.5 km^2).

Qualitative data, on the other hand, includes anything that can be recorded in words (for example, Mt Kilimanjaro is the tallest mountain on the African continent).

Quantitative data

The PQE method uses mainly quantitative data.

Examples of quantitative data include:

- climate and temperature statistics
- tourist numbers
- population figures (including birth and death rates)
- types and amounts of food grown
- plant and animal species and wildlife in certain areas
- forest clearance rates
- numbers of people killed in natural disasters
- numbers of volcanic eruptions and earthquakes.

Qualitative data

The SHEEPT method uses mainly qualitative data.

Examples of qualitative data include:

- opinions
- points of view
- personal stories
- likes and dislikes
- feelings.

Good geographical inquiries will always be based on a combination of primary and secondary data that is both quantitative and qualitative. Even though qualitative data is an important part of any geographical inquiry, quantitative data is considered to be more valuable because it is less open to personal interpretations and can be more accurately represented in graphs and charts.

Before you move to the next stage of your inquiry, it is important to check that you have recorded all your data without errors and that it is balanced and fair. Your data should not reflect your personal opinions, emotions or attitudes; instead it should present the facts in a clear and concise way.

Using other methods to interpret geographical data

Analysing geographic photographs

Landscapes can be photographed from several different angles depending on the position of the camera at the time the photograph was taken. Each angle makes some features of the landscape easier to see and interpret than other features, so you need to carefully consider at which angle the photograph has been taken.



Source GT.33 This is a **ground level photograph** of Mount Kilimanjaro. The camera is being held by someone at the same level as the landscape being photographed. This angle allows you to clearly see the height of any object and the detail in vertical surfaces. However, objects such as the mountain and the tent hide the landscape behind them.



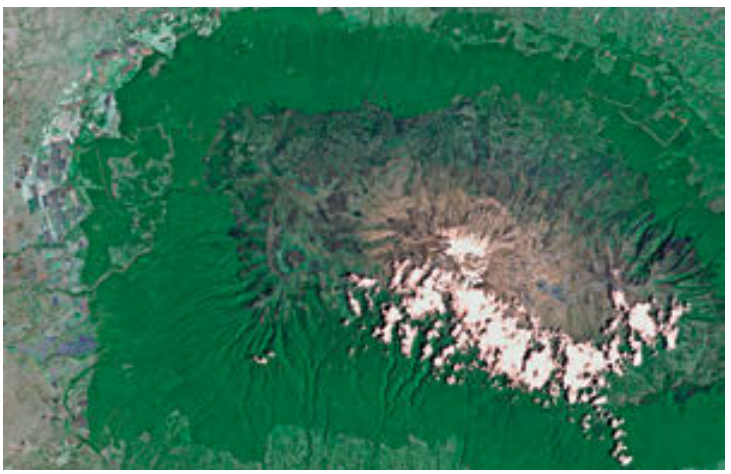
Source GT.34 In this **oblique aerial photograph** the camera is positioned above the landscape, but is angled towards the scene being photographed (oblique means 'at an angle'). This allows you to see both the foreground and the background of the scene. You can also see both the height of an object and its width or area. Objects in the background, however, seem much smaller than those in the foreground.



Source GT.35 In a **vertical aerial photograph**, the camera is positioned directly above the landscape. This vertical (or plan) view allows you to see the extent of any feature such as Kilimanjaro's crater. It is very difficult, however, to judge the steepness of the mountainside or the depth of the crater. Plan views are used for making maps, as the scale is the same over the area shown and similar objects look the same size.

Analysing satellite images

A satellite image is taken from space. It allows us to see large areas of the Earth's surface. These images are often used to investigate patterns such as the streams and rivers that radiate from Mount Kilimanjaro. It is difficult however to see smaller features of the environment.



Source GT.36 This image of Mount Kilimanjaro was taken by a satellite orbiting at 830 km above the Earth's surface.

Analysing false colour images

You may have heard the terms '**false colour image**' or 'false colour map' before. The term 'false colour' does not mean the colours used in an image are incorrect, it just means different colours have been used to make the image or map easier to interpret. The cartographer or person working on the image has chosen colours that make some aspects easier to see or understand than a normal 'natural' photograph or map would be.

The colours used in a false colour image can be quite exaggerated and unnatural-looking. This is because the colours of the natural features are too similar to demonstrate a particular point or aspect. If someone is trying to show where a muddy brown river meets a brown-coloured riverbank where there are brown rocks and some brownish shrubs, they might decide to use false colour to clearly show where the different elements are. In that case, they may decide to make the shrub areas bright green, the river a neon yellow and the rocks a bright red, leaving just the river bank brown.

You should examine the accompanying legend to interpret the colours used in a false colour map.

Check your learning GT.5

Remember and understand

1 What is an oblique aerial photograph?
2 What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of using a vertical aerial photograph?

Apply and analyse

3 Which type of photograph would you take on a field trip?
4 Some geographers are very interested in the amount of snow and ice on Mount Kilimanjaro, as it has been gradually declining for several decades. Which type of photograph do you think would be most useful to show the decline of the total area of the mountain's snow and ice?

Evaluate and create

5 The oblique aerial photograph (Source GT.34) was taken in 1991 and the ground level photograph (Source GT.33) was taken in 2009.
   a How has the mountain top changed in this time?
   b With a partner, discuss some geographic questions you could ask to investigate why the mountain has changed in this time. Don't worry about the answers; just concentrate on writing some good questions.
   c Share your questions with the class. List three questions from the class discussion that you think could be the beginning of a geographic inquiry.
   d Where could you find information to help you investigate these questions?

Communicating

During a geographic inquiry you may discover something new that other people should know about. It is important that you are able to communicate your findings clearly and effectively. There are several ways of doing this and you should select the method that best suits your audience and purpose:

- verbal methods, such as oral reports, discussions and debates
- audio methods, such as radio reports
- graphical methods, such as graphs, annotated photographs, sketches and satellite images
- visual methods, such as annotated visual displays or PowerPoint displays
- maps
- text-based methods, such as essays or paragraphs.

Check your learning GT.6

Remember and understand

1 Why is communicating an important part of a geographic inquiry?

2 List three ways you could communicate the findings of your geographic inquiry.

Apply and analyse

3 What do you most enjoy about other students' oral presentations? What do you least enjoy?

Evaluate and create

4 Imagine that you are preparing a PowerPoint presentation for your class on the decline of the glaciers on Mount Kilimanjaro. Write some notes outlining a rough plan for your presentation, including answers to the following.
   - What are some of the main points you would raise in your presentation?
   - What images from this toolkit would you use to illustrate these points?
   - What would the focus of your presentation be?

skill**drill**

Creating and delivering a PowerPoint presentation

Follow these steps to create and deliver a PowerPoint presentation with confidence.

Step 1 Gather the research for your geographic inquiry. This will include any written research materials, the sources you have used, results of any surveys or interviews, and a range of relevant images, graphs, maps or photographs.

Step 2 Plan your presentation. Decide what you would like to focus on.

Step 3 Time yourself. Your teacher will be able to tell you how long your presentation should be, so you should plan your presentation accordingly. For a 10-minute presentation you may need to include 10 slides and talk for about a minute on each one.

Step 4 Once you have worked out the length of your presentation and the content you would like to include, create your slides. If you aren't too familiar with PowerPoint there are plenty of online guides to help.

Step 5 Include a couple of bullet points on each slide. You can progress through the points quickly or take a bit more time on some points as you move through your presentation.

Step 6 Include a question caption with any photo slides. Having a question presented along with a photo helps engage the audience and promotes discussion.

Step 7 Practise your presentation. Practising will help you with your timing, and get you used to talking through your key points using the slides to support you. Make sure you are confident with the technology before you do your presentation in front of the class.

Step 8 Deliver your presentation, working through the PowerPoint slides you've prepared.

Step 9 Invite your audience to ask questions and do your best to answer them. Don't make up answers if you are unsure, just do your best.

Apply the skill

Prepare and deliver a PowerPoint presentation on an area of geography that you find interesting. It could be the local issue that you researched in the previous section, or something you have noticed in the news, such as the United Nations Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Ensure you include some interesting visual elements like photographs or graphs, as well as your key points.

Reflecting and responding

Reflecting

The final steps in completing a geographical inquiry are to reflect on the results of your inquiry and the methods that you used. This is an essential step as it allows you to learn important lessons from any mistakes that you have made and apply these lessons in your next geographic inquiry. There are several ways to reflect on your geographic inquiry: looking at what you have learned, thinking about how it was learned, and asking critical questions about the way your geographic inquiry was conducted. One of the best methods to help you reflect is to complete a self-evaluation checklist.

The title of my geographical inquiry is: _____

My geographical inquiry set out to investigate: _____

GENERAL POINTS	My rating 1	2	3	4	5	Comments
I was able to complete all stages of my geographical inquiry	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I was able to answer all my key inquiry questions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I was able to plan my inquiry effectively	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
My maps, graphs, tables and diagrams were clear and accurate	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I was able to analyse my data and reach a conclusion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I was able to communicate my findings in an interesting and appropriate way	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

Source GT.37 A self-evaluation checklist is a very useful way of revising your geographic inquiry.

Responding

Geographers often use the information gathered and analysed in their inquiry for a specific purpose. This could be to report on an issue and educate people, to raise awareness of a potential problem, or to lobby local, state or federal government about a particular concern. This can be done via various means, from presenting official reports or studies, to using social media and starting an online petition. The work you do as a geographer can contribute to your environment, and responding and acting is an important part of this work.

If the results of your geographic inquiry lead you to recommend a plan of action, there are some important things to consider.

- Is it environmentally sustainable? Does the plan impact in a negative way on the natural environment and natural processes?
- Does it bring more economic benefits than it costs? Is it affordable in both the short term and the long term?
- Does everyone affected by this plan of action benefit from its outcomes or just a few people?

Case study

A geographic inquiry on the lower slopes of Mount Kilimanjaro found that many schools lacked a reliable supply of clean water for sanitation. Based on this inquiry, the members of several non-government organisations along with the local villagers laid hundreds of metres of new pipes and installed tanks and taps so that children at the schools could wash their hands before preparing food.



Source GT.38 Children at school near Mount Kilimanjaro using newly installed taps to wash their hands before preparing food.

Check your learning GT.7

Remember and understand

1 The self-evaluation checklist is one way to reflect on a geographic inquiry. What are two other ways?

2 Why are the findings of a geographic inquiry often useful to the community?

Apply and analyse

3 What geographic questions do you think began the inquiry that resulted in the new taps in the Tanzanian school shown in Source GT.38?

4 Why is it important that an action plan for change consider the issue of sustainability?

Evaluate and create

5 Create a checklist to assess your map-drawing skills.

GT.3 Fieldwork in geography

Why is fieldwork important?

A historian studying a period in the past will try to find primary sources of information such as letters or diaries to better understand that period. For geographers the field is an essential primary source of data. Books, websites and maps can give you some information about a particular place but they are usually secondary sources of information. To really understand a landscape or issue you need to go and see it for yourself.

A field trip can be a fun and exciting experience as you spend time with your classmates in an interesting place. As well as being fun, field trips are an essential part of your geography course. This is because **fieldwork**:

- helps you to better understand how the world 'works' as it builds a bridge between what you learn in a classroom and the world outside that classroom
- teaches you new skills, particularly in collecting information. Many of these skills, such as surveying and digital mapping, are in demand in the workplace.
- allows you to learn about the world in a new and different way. Not everyone learns well by reading books or answering questions in the classroom. Many students learn more by completing practical, hands on activities such as fieldwork.
- gives you the opportunity to discover how other people feel about their environment and to compare this to your own values and ideas about your world
- requires you to be organised and to work together with other people.



Source GT.39 You never know where fieldwork will take you! These geographers are using a drill to examine the age of the glaciers on Mount Kilimanjaro.

The skills associated with fieldwork

The aim of all fieldwork is to enable you to develop the skills of observation, information gathering, analysis and interpretation of different forms of data and communication of your results. The types of fieldwork you conduct will differ according to your chosen topic and the fieldwork site. All fieldwork is activity-based and inquiry-based. You will be:

- identifying different types of environments and the features within them
- describing what you see around you in geographic terms
- recording data from different sources
- sampling things like water quality and wind speed
- investigating why things are where they are
- comparing different features to see if there is a pattern
- calculating amounts such as water flow, number of different species of plants and animals, visitor numbers
- analysing different forms of data
- forming a more complete picture of the area you are studying
- communicating your findings.

All these activities are aimed at developing and improving your geographic skills and understanding

Fieldwork locations and inquiry questions

Fieldwork can take place in many locations and for a wide variety of purposes. The best locations tend to be where change is happening before your eyes. Rivers and coasts are popular fieldwork locations as the constant movement of water in these places changes the natural environment, often resulting in a response from people. Shopping centres, parks and city streets are also popular as the constant movement of people creates patterns, flows and changes. Source GT.40 provides examples of fieldwork locations and inquiry questions that can be the beginning of an investigation at some of these locations.

Source GT.40 Examples of fieldwork locations and inquiry questions for a range of topics

Unit	Fieldwork locations	Inquiry questions
Biomes and food security	Local farm	What crops or animals are grown on this farm? What makes this place suitable for this type of farming? How has the farmer changed the natural environment? What new technologies is the farmer using? How does this impact on the farm's productivity?
	Rural **urban** fringe	Is the city growing in this region? What are the main drivers of this growth? How has this impacted on food and fibre production in the past? What evidence is there for changing land use patterns?
Geographies of interconnections	Local business	How is this business connected to people in other places? How have new communication and information technologies changed this business? What is the size and shape of the region served by this business?
	Major shopping centre	How many businesses in this centre are foreign owned? Where are the goods offered in the shops in this centre manufactured? Where do the customers who use this centre come from? How is this shopping centre connected to people in other places?
Environmental change and management	River or stream	What natural processes are shaping this riverine or coastal environment? How do these natural processes impact on human activities? What human activities have changed the natural processes and environment in this place? How have these environmental changes been managed? How effective has this management been? What further management strategies could be used to better manage change in this place?
	Coast	
Geographies of human wellbeing	Two contrasting suburbs	What are living conditions like in these two suburbs? What are the similarities and differences? How can these differences be mapped? Why do these differences occur? How can wellbeing be improved in these places?
	Programme to improve wellbeing	What are the aims of this programme? Why does this programme exist? How successful is the programme in reducing inequalities in wellbeing? How could it become more successful? Could this programme be applied in other regions and places?

Conducting successful fieldwork

Fieldwork is a type of geographical inquiry, so whenever you take part in fieldwork you will need to follow the stages that are outlined in this toolkit, namely:

Stage 1 Observing, questioning and planning

Begin by looking at an issue or location and compile a set of related inquiry questions that you would like to answer. There are some suggestions in the previous table to get you started. Plan what information you will need to answer your key questions, how you will collect it and what equipment and skills you will need.

Stage 2 Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing

Plan your fieldwork so that you can collect the evidence and data that you will need. There is a range of geographic skills that are well suited to fieldwork. These include taking photos, drawing field sketches, conducting surveys and collecting data such as stream and pedestrian flows. You need to consider ethical principles such as people's right to confidentiality and the right to refuse to take part in a survey. If your class is planning a field trip to a natural environment such as a forest or beach, you will need to ensure you do not damage the environment by trampling on plants or animals, or by dropping litter.

Stage 3 Interpreting, analysing and concluding

Analyse the evidence you have collected and look for patterns or clues that will help you to answer your inquiry questions. This is usually done in the classroom where you can more easily draw maps and graphs to interpret your information and reach some conclusions.

Stage 4 Communicating

Communicate what you have found to an audience in the form of a written report, an oral presentation or an annotated visual display (AVD).

Stage 5 Reflecting and responding

Think about your fieldwork findings and reflect on ways to improve your investigation process. Finally, decide on a course of action, if this is appropriate. This should take into account environmental, economic and social factors.

A fieldwork example: Lowecroft Vegetable Farm

In the following example, the Year 9 geography class (9GEO) at Gumtree College conducted fieldwork at a vegetable farm in their local area as part of a geographic inquiry into food security in Australia. This site was chosen because it is reasonably close to Gumtree College and the farmer's children attend the school.

Stage 1 Observing, questioning and planning

The students in 9GEO discussed a range of problems and issues that they could investigate and this lead to a brainstorm based on the unit of inquiry they were completing in class. They used the ideas generated from this brainstorm to develop a list of possible inquiry questions:

- How does food production on this farm impact on the natural environment?
- How does the natural environment impact on food production?
- What technologies does the farmer use to increase his food production?
- How does the food grown on this farm reach the consumers?
- How will food production in this region change in the future?

The students decided that all of these questions could be used for a geographical inquiry but they decided to focus on the second question about the role of the environment in influencing food production. This linked with their study of 'the environmental, economic and technological factors that influence crop yields in Australia and across the world'.

While some of the students in the class were from farming families, most were not. They had only limited understanding of the importance of environmental factors such as rainfall, frosts, temperature, seasons, drainage and soil type on food production.

Students planned what information they would need in order to investigate this issue. They decided that some information about rainfall and temperature could be researched using the Bureau of Meteorology website. They decided that they would only visit the vegetable farm once and during this time they should speak to the farmer and record the ways in which the natural environment has impacted on his production of food.

Stage 2 Collecting, recording, evaluating and representing

To investigate the impact of the natural environment on food production students set out to collect and record a range of geographical information.

- Before their field trip students collected data about temperature and rainfall from www.bom.gov.au ('climate and past weather'). They also used Google Earth and maps of the region to locate the farm in relation to environmental features such as streams and hills. They used these maps to draw a sketch map of the farm.
- Based on this data students wrote a series of questions to ask the vegetable farmer about how factors such as the seasonal pattern of rainfall and temperature highs and lows impacted on his crops. They also added questions about the type of soil and soil drainage to the local creek. They emailed these questions to the farmer before their visit.
- On the field trip students asked the farmer their questions and recorded his answers in their notes.
- They took photographs of the different crops grown on the farm and added these to their sketch map along with the location of irrigated paddocks, glasshouses and other buildings.
- They recorded environmental factors such as wind speed and **direction**, temperature and rainfall during their visit. They also sketched a soil profile that could be seen where a track had been cut through a low hill. Students also collected some soil to test the clay and sand content as well as the soil pH in class.



Source GT.41 Students from Gumtree College speak to the vegetable grower about the impact of climate on his food production.

Stage 3 Interpreting, analysing and concluding

Once they had converted their primary data into a range of tables, graphs and maps, the students analysed it much more easily and looked for patterns and trends that would help them answer their key inquiry question: How does the natural environment impact on food production?

They decided to break their inquiry into different environmental factors to simplify their analysis. This

also allowed them to conclude that some environmental factors were more important than others. The key conclusions were:

- Rainfall is a key environmental factor that affects this farmer and his ability to grow food. The seasonal pattern of rainfall in this region means that he must purchase water to irrigate his crops during summer. During winter and spring he captures water in large dams and uses this water in drier times of the year.
- The air temperature influences the type of crops he grows and the times of the year in which he grows them. Leeks and parsnips are mainly a winter crop whereas his other main crop, lettuce, grows best in summer.
- The farmer has large areas of hedges that are habitat to insects and birds. These help to control harmful insect pests. He also plants crops that naturally control some soil diseases.
- This farm is part of a much larger farming region that grows large quantities of food for Australia's cities. Farmers in the region, including the vegetable farmer visited by 9GEO, have flat land with fertile soil. In the past the area often flooded during heavy rains but a system of drainage ditches and levees have reduced this hazard. The farmers and local council maintain these ditches.
- There is little natural vegetation remaining in the region as it has been cleared for farming.



Source GT.42 Students doing fieldwork



Source GT.43 A student's sketch map of the farm showing the location of crops and other key features.

Stage 4 Communicating

Students prepared individual field reports based on their inquiry. Most completed this as a display folder containing their sketch map, photographs, climate graph and written conclusions. Several students presented their field reports as an Annotated Visual Display (AVD) and two gave an oral presentation to the class. One of these students included a short film that he had made while on the field trip.

This film and several of the written reports were sent to the farmer along with a letter thanking him for his time and expertise. A group of students wrote a report on the field trip and their conclusions for the school newsletter.

Stage 5 Reflecting and responding

Following the submission of their field report students reflected on their findings and the methods they used to reach their conclusions. They decided that the key inquiry question they had chosen was a good one because it allowed them to explore a range of factors rather than just one or two. Many students felt that visiting a farm on a field trip helped them better understand how farmers use both the natural environment and their own ingenuity to produce food they eat.

Some of the students felt that they would like to have explored the impact of this farm on the natural environment, particularly the impacts of fertilisers on the soil and streams of the region. They suggested that the class who visited this farm next year could explore this in more detail.



Source GT.44 An auctioneer sells a mob of sheep in Jamestown, South Australia. Saleyards such as these can be a great fieldwork destination as you can investigate the ways in which people and places are interconnected as well as where our food comes from.

Check your learning GT.8

Remember and understand

1. Is the information collected by the geography students an example of primary or secondary information?
2. Why do you think the geography students emailed their questions to the farmer before the field trip?

Apply and analyse

3. Examine Source GT.43. What features of the farm has this student chosen to focus on in her sketch map? Why do you think she has chosen these features?
4. Why would investigating the type of soil on Lowecroft Vegetable Farm help to answer the inquiry question?
5. What other information could the students have collected on the field trip to help them answer the inquiry question?

Evaluate and create

6. Why is fieldwork sometimes better than investigating an environment through secondary sources such as books and films?
7. Students from another geography class at Gumtree College visited a sheep sale as part of their investigation into food security in Australia.
   a. What inquiry questions could they investigate at a sheep sale?
   b. Work in a small group to describe the steps you would undertake to explore one of these questions using fieldwork.

GT.4 Careers in geography

In recent years there has been a marked increase in the number and range of jobs and careers that are linked to geography. This is likely to continue well into the future as there is a growing awareness of the importance of understanding our fragile environment. Many employers are also becoming more aware of the many skills that geographers have and the usefulness of these skills in a wide range of careers. Many geographers find that their skills and expertise are in such demand that they can easily find employment all around the world. There are many jobs and careers that are linked to your study of geography at school. Some of these are listed in Source GT.45.

Source GT.45 Studying geography can lead to many different careers.

Working outdoors	Caring for the environment	Other
Geologist	Coastal zone manager	Emergency management
Hydrologist	Wildlife conservation & management	Cartographer
Forestry	Community programme organiser	GIS/geospatial sciences officer
Farming	Environmental impact analyst	Geography analyst/ strategy consultant
Landscape architect	Environmental planner/ consultant	Social data analyst
National park ranger	Zoologist	Urban planner
Freshwater scientist	Defence (e.g. military planner)	Medical geographer/ health services planner
Surveyor	Heritage officer	Foreign affairs

Working outdoors

Many geographers spend most of their working life outside. Many of them had their first experience of this while at school during geography fieldwork. They are employed in a wide range of jobs in some of the world's most interesting environments. You will find geographers on oil platforms at sea, in outback areas of Australia, national parks, farms, forests and even on active duty as members of our defence forces.

Career profile: Daniel Moore – Surveyor

Daniel Moore surveys the ocean floor to locate ideal locations for structures such as oil rigs and wind farms. He uses a variety of methods and instruments including sonar, Remotely Operated Vehicles (ROVs) and GPS systems. This work takes him around the world, to locations such as the North Sea in Europe and the Timor Sea, between Australia and East Timor. As Daniel himself states, this is an important role as 'the world uses lots of energy and having good geographic data makes it much simpler to find'.

Daniel enjoyed studying geography at school 'because it wasn't just about maps, it was about analysing and using spatial information to find answers that weren't always easily accessible'. He completed a Bachelor of Geomatic Engineering and has found geomatics to be an area that is in high demand in the workforce. Daniel advises students to continue their study of geography into Years 11 and 12 as it helps each student 'learn critical thinking skills and analysis skills that can be transferred to limitless other applications. Students will learn how the spatial aspects of any situation can help explain the world.'



Source GT.46 Daniel Moore works on a survey ship off the Western Australian coast.

Caring for the environment

Many of the Earth's natural environments are facing pressure from human activities. As the world's population and its thirst for resources increases, environments face an uncertain future.

Many geographers work to assess the impact of human activities on the natural environment and make recommendations about lessening these impacts. They work to make our use of resources such as water, soil and land more sustainable. This is one of the fastest growing areas of employment, not only in Australia but in many places around the world.



Source GT.47 These geographers are assessing the potential impact of an oil spill on the coastal environment. Caring for the environment is an important reason many people pursue a career using geography skills.

Caring for people

Geographers are interested in issues of social justice as well as environmental issues. They are informed, responsible and active citizens with an understanding of variations in living conditions and wellbeing.

This understanding, and a desire to help other people, helps them to find employment in a range of jobs. Many of these are involved in government and non-government organisations (NGOs) that work to improve wellbeing in local communities both in Australia and in other countries.



Source GT.48 Geographers have a vital role to play in disaster recovery and in helping communities to prepare for future disasters. This AusAID disaster specialist is explaining the importance of building earthquake-resistant buildings in Indonesia.

Check your learning GT.9

Remember and understand

1 What reasons does Daniel Moore give for continuing to study geography in Year 11 and Year 12?

2 Why is the number of careers in geography likely to increase in the future?

Apply and analyse

3 What geography careers shown in Source GT.46 are connected to the concept of sustainability?

4 What skills do geographers have that make them useful in helping communities recover from natural disasters?

5 Why do you think it is important for an environmental planner to have skills in geography? What key concepts do you think might be used frequently in this kind of career?

Evaluate and create

6 Select one of the careers from Source GT.46 that interests you. Research this career and prepare a one-page fact sheet that includes at least one picture. Include answers to the following questions in your career fact sheet.

- a What qualifications are needed in this career?
- b How does someone working this career use geographic skills and concepts?
- c What aspect of this career do you think is most attractive?
- d What kinds of tasks might be included in a typical day's work for someone in this career?

Biomes and food security



unit 1



Growing food

It may surprise you to learn that most of the world's people, including you, eat grass. It has been estimated that there are about 50 000 edible plants in the world, but of these, just 15 species provide 90 per cent of the world's food. Three types of plants, in particular, make up well over half of all food eaten each year and they are all types of grass: wheat, rice and corn. Every day, foods from at least one of these types of grasses will be consumed in different countries all over the world.

These hillsides in southern China have been terraced, or had flat 'steps' cut into them, to create flat land for growing rice, which is the most important staple food for more than half the world's population. Rice, like wheat and corn, grows in the **grasslands** regions of the world. Grasslands around the world share similar climate and vegetation features and are therefore known as a single biome.

1.1

What are the world's biomes?

1 Grasslands are an important biome for producing food. There are about seven other main biomes on Earth. How many can you name?

2 Grasslands have a climate that supports the growth of grass. What do you think are some of the features of this climate?

1.2

Why do some biomes produce more food than others?

1 What features of the landscape in Source 1.1 make this a productive area for the growing of food?

2 Virtually all of Australia's rice is grown on the flat river plains of southern New South Wales. How will rice farming in this region differ from rice farming in southern China?



Source 1.1 These mountainsides in China have had 'steps' cut into them to create flat areas for growing rice.

1.3

What are the environmental impacts of food production?

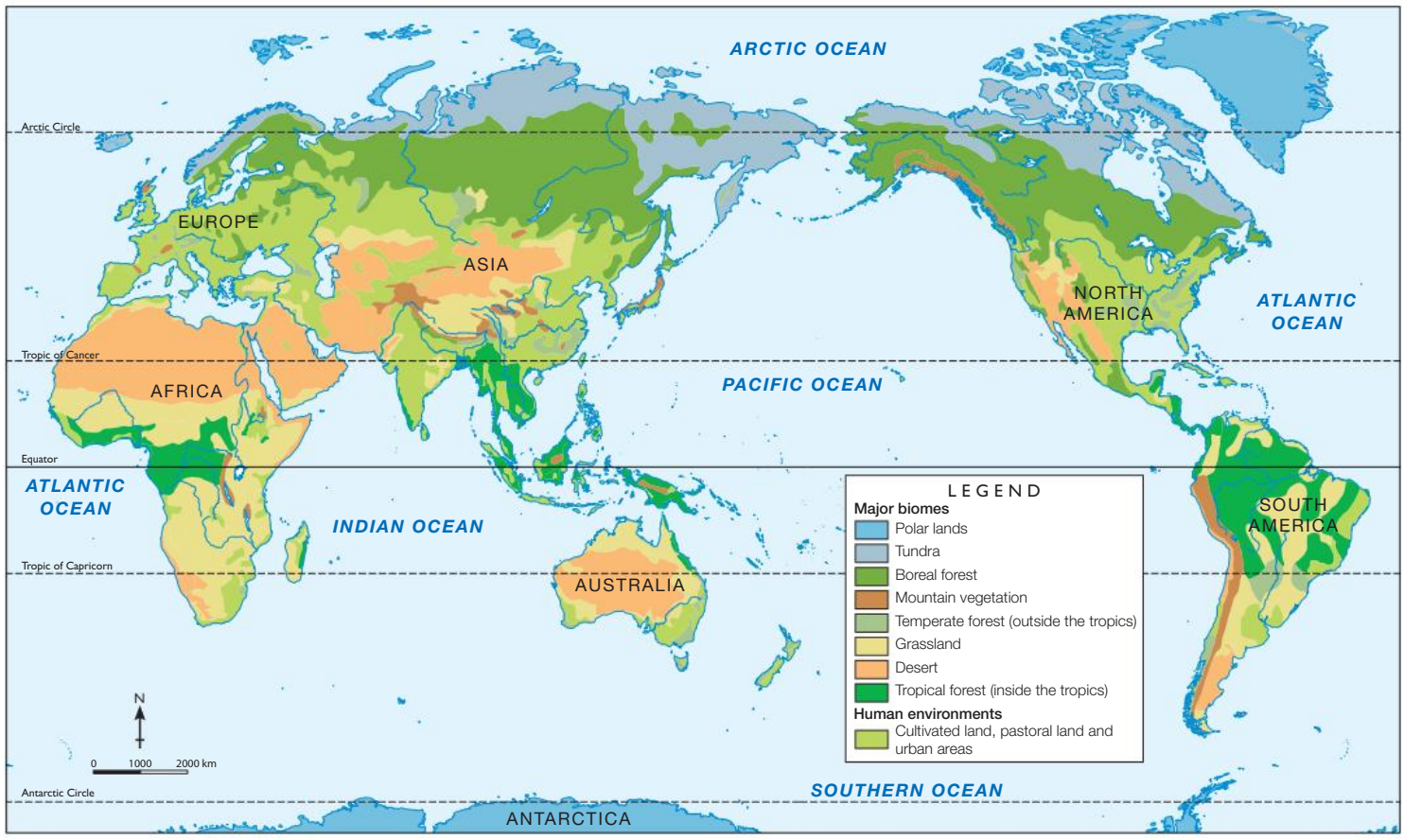
1 Describe the ways in which farming in this region of China has changed the natural features such as the shape of the land, the natural vegetation, the soil and the water.

1.1 What are the world's biomes?

The world's biomes

In order to better understand the Earth's natural and human environments, geographers divide the Earth's surface into a number of distinct regions. Each region has particular features that make it different from other regions. One region may be hot and rainy most of the time, for example, and another might be dry and cold. This means the plant and animal life found there functions, adapts, and interacts according to the conditions of the region it inhabits. Regions defined by landscapes that share similar climates and types of vegetation in this way are known as **biomes**.

WORLD: BIOMES



Source 1.2

Source: Oxford Atlas

Polar lands | Tundra | Boreal forest | Mountain vegetation | Temperate forest | Grasslands | Desert | Tropical forest





Source 1.3 A red-eyed tree frog in the rainforest of Panama in Central America is one of the many species that lives in this rainforest biome.

In some biomes, such as **tropical forests** and **grasslands**, there is an abundance of life. This is because the conditions favour a huge variety of species. A recent study of a Colombian **rainforest**, for example, found 596 bird species, 150 different species of amphibians and more than 200 species of mammals. Scientists estimate that there are more than 100 000 insect species per hectare in this rainforest and more tree species in a single hectare here than there are in the whole of North America. This explosion of life is due to the year-round high temperatures and rainfall in the region.

At the other end of the scale are the **tundra** and the **polar lands** which are the coldest biomes. The tundra biome circles the North Pole. Tundra, meaning 'treeless plain', has short growing seasons, very little plant diversity and very low temperatures. Antarctica, twice the size of Australia, contains virtually no native land species. Only two flowering species of plants exist on the continent and the largest native land animal is a 1-centimetre-long wingless midge. There are no native mammals, amphibians or trees in Antarctica. It is simply too cold, too dry and too windy for plants and animals to flourish.

In the **mountain vegetation** biome, too, cold conditions determine plant life and the animals that live there. Plants in the mountain vegetation biome tend to be low and hug the ground to preserve warmth. The mountain vegetation biome has a long winter period, and animals that live in these areas need to be able survive the cold and the exposure to UV radiation.

Check your learning 1.1

Remember and understand

1 What is a biome?

2 Why is there such an abundance of life in a rainforest?

Apply and analyse

3 Where are the world's tropical forests located? Why do you think they are located in these places?

4 Describe the distribution of biomes in Australia.

Evaluate and create

5 Design a world tour that includes at least one visit to each type of biome. Research where you will go using a map that shows the world biomes, then list the countries you would visit on this tour. Include some of the activities you might do at each place, based on the biome's climate and geographical conditions.

6 Work with a partner to rank the world's eight major biomes from 'home to most species' to 'home to least species'. Compare your list with other groups. Were there some rankings you all agreed on? Were there others where there was little agreement?

Boreal and temperate forests

Boreal forest biome

The largest biome on land is not the hot **desert** or treeless tundra – it is the **boreal forest** biome. Boreal forest, sometimes called **coniferous forest**, is composed of coniferous, evergreen trees that have needle-like leaves and cones, like pine cones. This biome is characterised by having a low number of species of plants when compared to other forests in more temperate regions or in the tropics.

The boreal forest biome covers vast areas in the Northern Hemisphere, between the Arctic tundra and the north of Europe, Asia and North America. While the climate in these regions is not as harsh as that experienced in the polar lands or on the tundra, it is still cold enough to limit the number of plant and animal species that can survive, and winter is long. In fact, the boreal forest's longest season is winter. Average temperatures fall to about -15°C and snow is common. In summer, which lasts only one to three months, temperatures climb towards 20°C and humidity is relatively high. The plants and animals that survive in this biome must be able to handle great variations in rainfall and temperature, as well as large areas of permanently frozen ground and poor soils.

Threats to the forest

Boreal forests have provided many important resources for people both in the past and the present. Historically, wood for construction, heating and cooking came from boreal forest trees. More recently, boreal forests have supplied the increased global demand for cheap wood and paper, spurred by population growth and a change in global markets.

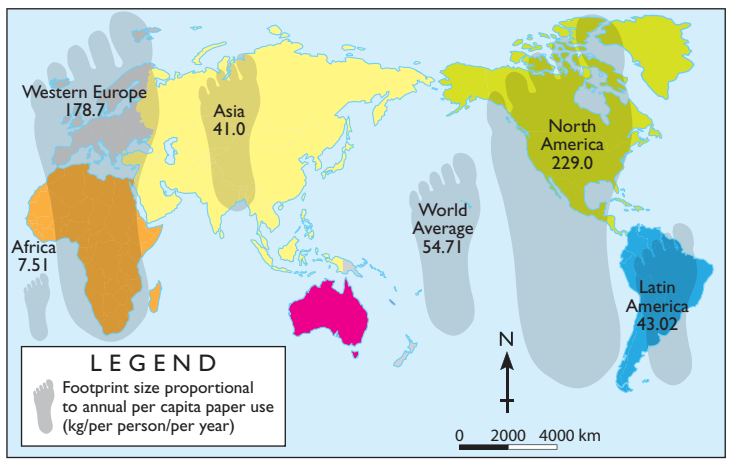
However, many boreal forests are under threat. One of the main threats to the boreal forest biome is the clearing of trees to make way for oil and gas exploration. It is estimated that huge reserves of petroleum products lie under the forests, and the ever-increasing demand is pushing exploration into these areas.

In Canada and Russia, forests are logged extensively and many are being attacked by insect plagues and acid rain. Forests are also at risk from bushfires during the summer period. Climate change is causing some forest areas to spread further north. Rising temperatures in the Arctic region have seen the edge of the boreal forest slowly advancing northward, replacing tundra in some places.



Source 1.4 This Canadian paper mill is situated by a large body of water. Paper is made by pulping woodchips from logs and mixing the pulp with water.

WORLD: AVERAGE PAPER CONSUMPTION



Source 1.5 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 1.6 The spectacular deciduous trees in the town of Bright in Victoria's high country are mainly oaks and elms, native to England half a world away.

Temperate forest biome

Between the tropics and the cold polar regions is a large zone that is neither excessively hot nor excessively cold. For this reason it is called the temperate zone. The forests that grow in the temperate zone experience a range of seasonal climate conditions. In winter, temperatures may fall below freezing and in summer they can climb above 40°C. In some temperate forests, rain falls reliably throughout the year. In others, there are more distinct wet and dry seasons.

Most of the world's population lives in the temperate zone and this has had a huge impact on the **temperate forest** biome over time. As the world's population spread and grew, temperate forest biome areas gradually became smaller. Cities were formed on land that was once covered in forest, and trees were cut down to clear land and to provide fuel and building materials. The forests gradually disappeared from these places. This happened in Europe, then in Western Asia and North America. Currently, little temperate forest remains in some of these places.

However, as explorers set out from Europe to colonise new lands, they often carried with them seeds and saplings of the trees with which they were familiar. They planted these in the places they travelled to, such as Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, and in this way temperate forest trees were spread around the world.

Check your learning 1.2

Remember and understand

1 Describe the temperature variations experienced in the boreal forest biome.

2 How have trees from temperate forests spread around the world?

Apply and analyse

3 What are some of the differences between boreal and temperate forests? What are some of the similarities?

4 Use the map in Source 1.2 to compare the distribution of temperate and boreal forests.

5 Why do you think the consumption of paper has increased dramatically in the last 50 years? What influence has this growth in demand had on the world's forests?

Evaluate and create

6 Examine Source 1.5, showing the average consumption of paper by person in each continent.

- a Who are the biggest paper users? Who are the smallest?
- b Australian consumption is not shown on this graphic. Draw the size you estimate Australia's paper footprint to be compared to one other continent. Explain how you decided on the size of Australia's footprint.

The grasslands biome

In places where it is too dry for forests and too wet for deserts lies a biome dominated by shrubs and grasses – the grasslands biome. In some places, regions that are part of this biome are also known as **prairies**, **steppes** or **savannas**. In Africa the grasslands are often referred to as savannas. In the United States of America they are often called prairies, and in parts of Siberia and south-eastern Asian, they are alternatively known as steppes.

Much of the world's food and fibre comes from plants and animals that live in the world's grasslands. Rice, wheat and corn, all grasses, provide the bulk of the human population's food, and many animals which are farmed to provide meat and milk also live in the grasslands biome.

Much of Australia can be considered grassland and many of our native animals, such as kangaroos, wallabies and wombats, thrive in this biome.

In Africa, too, grasslands dominate, covering more than half the continent. In this landscape the grassland is dotted with individual trees, providing little cover for the wildlife that live there.

These grasslands support a variety of plant-eating mammals as well as predators that feed off them. The animals living here have developed an amazing array of physical and behavioural changes to adapt to the challenges of the open environment. The zebra's stripes, for example, make it difficult for a predator to see it clearly. The giraffe, one of the larger kind of grasslands inhabitant, has evolved in such a way that its long neck allows it to source food at the tops of trees. Many other animals that live in the grasslands are nocturnal, allowing them to avoid the main heat of the day and venture out at night to hunt and gather food. These animals include the prairie dog, barn owl, and gray wolf which scout for food at night. Smaller mammals also venture out in the cool of the night, often when the moon is full or near full, to allow them to better spot animals that may be seeking them out as prey.

Many grasslands around the world have changed greatly over time. Some of these changes are the result of human activities, such as introducing grazing animals to a grasslands environment. Grazing animals such as cattle, sheep and goats compete with native species for food and often trample the ground, damaging the roots and soil structure.



Source 1.7 Elephants on the savanna



Source 1.8 An Asian steppe



Source 1.9 A Bison on the prairie

key**concept:** change

The American prairie

The prairies of North America were once dominated by Indigenous American tribes, such as the Cheyenne, Apache and Comanche tribes.

The Comanche lived in the grasslands in the region which now includes Texas, Oklahoma and Kansas, in the United States. They were typical of many of the Indigenous tribes of North America. As their main food source was bison, they followed the great herds across the plains, as the bison travelled to find the best grazing. When the bison stayed in one location to eat the plentiful grass, the Comanche set up temporary villages. Then they moved with the bison when better grazing lands were needed. The bison provided more than food for the Comanche, their hides were used to make clothing and the distinctive pyramid tents, called tepees.

Some tribes hunted bison by building fences from fallen logs, then herding the bison into a small area where they were killed with arrows and knives. Herding massive animals such as bison was difficult for tribesmen on foot. However, life for Native Americans changed dramatically with the arrival of European explorers, and their horses, about 400 years ago.

Many tribes, including the Comanche, quickly realised the potential of the horse in their culture and soon became expert horsemen. As well as being faster and more nimble than a bison, the horse had one other great advantage for the grasslands tribes. Like bison, horses are grazing animals that eat grass. This meant that the tribes could move easily across the plains following the gradual movement of the bison herds, the grasslands now feeding both bison and horses.

But as European ranchers moved across the prairies through the 16th to 19th centuries, the numbers of Native Americans and their way of life gradually disappeared. Much of the vast grasslands of the prairie were turned into grazing land and farmland by the European settlers. However, the open plains remain an iconic image of American history and the American pioneering spirit.



Source 1.10 With the arrival of the horse, tribesmen could hunt bison more easily.



Source 1.11 It is estimated that 30 million bison lived in North America in the 1500s. Within 400 years this had fallen to about 1000. In this photograph, taken in the 1870s, a pile of bison skulls waits to be crushed for fertiliser.

For more information on the key concept of change, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Check your learning 1.3

Remember and understand

1 Why is the grasslands biome important for human populations?

2 What changed the grasslands of North America?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine the map in Source 1.2 showing the distribution of the world's biomes.
   - a Describe the distribution of grasslands in each continent.
   - b What relationship do you notice between grasslands and human environments such as cultivated land and urban areas?
   - c Why does this relationship occur?
   - d Examine the three images of grasslands (Source 1.7, Source 1.8 and Source 1.9) from different parts of the world. In which countries do you think each of these photographs was taken? Give some reasons for your answers.

Evaluate and create

4 Compare the images of the grasslands with the pictures of deserts that appear in Source 1.19. What are some of the main differences between the two biomes? Explain why these differences occur.

The tropical forest biome

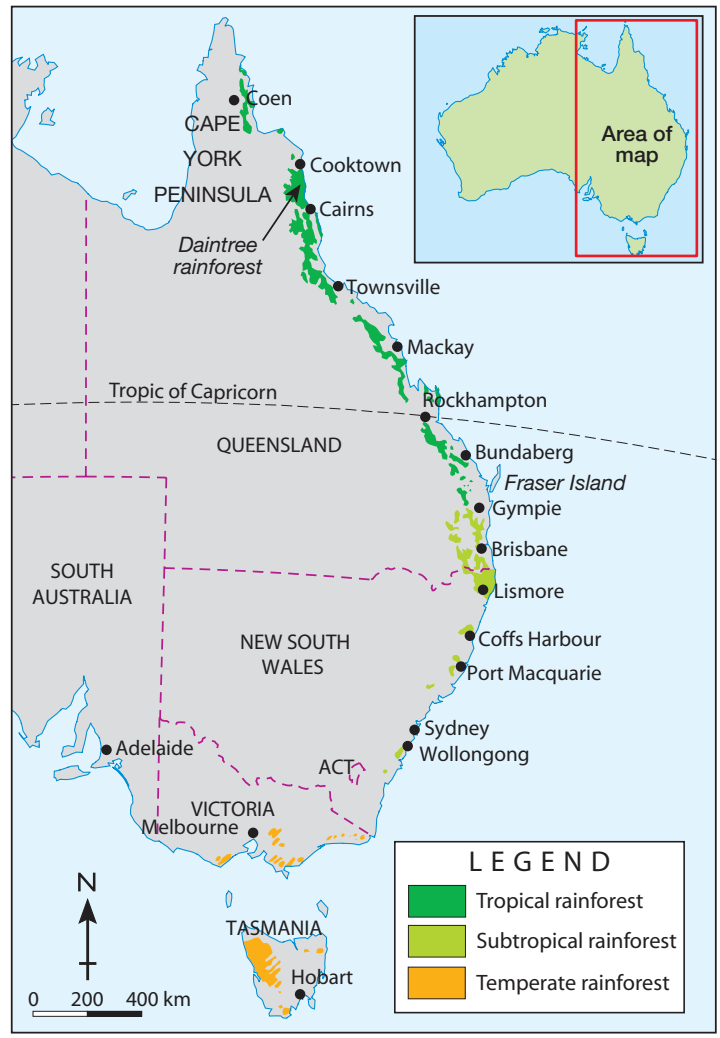
It is estimated that about half of all the plant, animal and insect species in the world live in tropical forests. Many of these are amongst the wettest places on Earth and are therefore known as **rainforests**. They can be considered to make up the world's richest biome and the abundance of life can be astounding. In Brazil, for example, researchers found that a single pond contained more fish species than exist in all of Europe's rivers. In Peru, a single tree was found to contain forty-three ant species; this is more than the total number in all of the British Isles. One hectare of South American rainforest may contain over 750 different types of trees and one-fifth of all of the world's birds live in the Amazon rainforest. This explosion of life is due to the ideal growing conditions that occur in the tropics.

These places experience the most stable climate conditions on the planet with virtually no seasonal changes in rainfall, temperature or available sunlight throughout the year. Most days are the same in the rainforest: hot and wet. It rains virtually every day, often in torrential downpours. The temperature hovers between about 26°C and 32°C all year round.

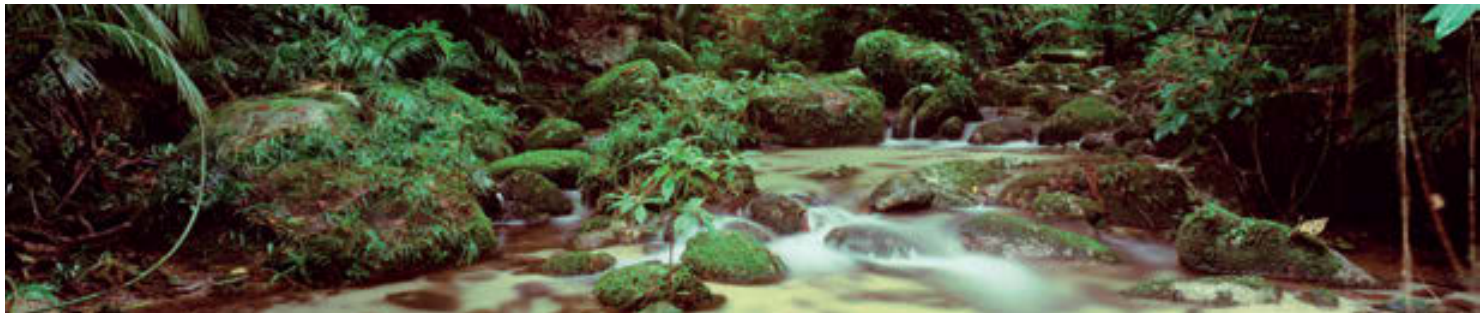
Australia's rainforests

Though much of Australia was once covered in forest, now there are only a few small pockets near the east coast (see Source 1.12). Rainforests now make up only 2.5 per cent of Australia's remaining native forest. This surviving forest, however, is a real Noah's Ark for many plant and animal species, many of which exist nowhere else in the world. There are more than 1000 species of plants in Australian rainforests, of which about 700 exist nowhere else. These plants support thousands of insect species, hundreds of reptile and bird species and nearly 90 different types of mammals. The subtropical rainforests of New South Wales and Queensland are also internationally recognised for their direct links to the world's first flowering plants, which occurred about 100 million years ago.

EASTERN AUSTRALIA: RAINFOREST REGIONS



Source 1.12 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 1.13 Tropical rainforests cover the slopes of many Queensland mountains and experience Australia's highest rainfall. The Daintree rainforest near Port Douglas is the oldest continuously surviving rainforest in the world.

The gifts of the rainforest

Rainforests have provided humans with many resources for thousands of years. These resources are known as **ecosystem services**. Rainforests provide many services, including the ones described in Source 1.14.



Ecosystem services

About 80% of the plants we eat began in the world's tropical rainforests. Potatoes, corn, rice, avocadoes, oranges, bananas, coffee, chocolate and hundreds of other foods are rainforest plants.

About 25% of the drugs we use to treat illnesses, from leukaemia to headaches, come from rainforest plants.

Rainforest plants take in carbon dioxide and produce oxygen. The Amazon rainforest alone is thought to produce about one-fifth of the world's oxygen.

Rainforests regulate the Earth's temperature and rainfall, and hold much of the world's fresh water.

Rainforests in Africa, Asia, South America and Australia are home to Indigenous peoples.

Products such as toothpaste, golf balls, rubber tyres, paints, cosmetics, steroids and cork are all made from rainforest plants.

Source 1.14 A scarlet macaw flies over the world's largest rainforest – the Amazon. The Amazon provides many ecosystem services.



Source 1.15 Temperate rainforests are found in the temperate climate zone. Like tropical rainforests, they receive an abundance of rain and take in high amounts of carbon dioxide. However, they do not have the same levels of biodiversity as the tropical rainforests. The temperate rainforests of Tasmania and Victoria are characterised by ferns covering the ground and tall trees, some of them amongst the world's tallest.

Check your learning 1.4

Remember and understand

1 Use the map showing the world's biomes (Source 1.2) to describe the distribution of the world's tropical forests.

2 What are some of the links between the world's climate and rainforests?

Apply and analyse

3 Describe the distribution of Australia's rainforests. Refer to particular places and states and use compass directions in your answer.

4 What are some of the differences between tropical and temperate rainforests?

Evaluate and create

5 Why do you think the amount of rainforest in Australia has decreased so much? Consider both natural processes and human activities.

6 What information from these pages would you use to explain the importance of rainforests?

7 Clearing of rainforests for farming, mining and urban development makes the tropical forest biome one of the world's most endangered.

a How might the clearing of a rainforest impact on people who live in it or nearby?

b How might it impact on people living in places that are further away?

Going with the flow in the rainforest

A rainforest, like all **ecosystems**, is a very dynamic place. Complex relationships between the climate (including rainfall, temperature, wind, humidity and sunlight), the shape of the land, soils, plants and animals have developed over millions of years and keep the rainforest alive and flourishing. A change to any part of the ecosystem can have devastating consequences for the whole ecosystem. The cross-section in Source 1.16 shows some of the flows of energy (intangible sources of power or nutrition) and matter (tangible sources of power or nutrition) that exist in a rainforest.

Changes in the rainforest

It might seem logical that rainforests must have a deep rich layer of soil to support the great trees and other plants that flourish there. However, this is not the case. The heavy rain washes the nutrients of the soil deep into the ground where the roots of the plants cannot access them. The rainforest trees are able to survive in these soils because they have developed wide-spreading roots and because the warm temperatures in the tropics allow leaf litter – dead plant material that has fallen to the ground – to be quickly recycled into plant nutrients.

When the rainforest plants are cleared to make way for farms, these nutrients are quickly lost and the soil becomes exposed to the heavy rain and tropical sun. Farmers often find, contrary to expectation, that their plants do not thrive in these conditions as the soil provides few nutrients which the plants need.

skill**drill**

Creating a flow diagram

Geographers use **flow diagrams** to show the movement, sequence or stages in a process. Flow diagrams can be created by adding text and arrows to an image, or by creating text boxes from scratch, joined by arrows to describe the flow of a process.

You can create a flow diagram by following these steps.

Step 1 Decide on a process you want to describe. For example, you might want to describe the life of an apple, from seed to compost stage.

Step 2 Jot down the steps you wish to highlight in the process. Try to keep each step clear and separate.

Step 3 Create a text box for each step, and write or insert your text in each box.

Step 4 Link each step with an arrow showing the direction of the process. Read through your diagram to make sure the steps you have included are logical and that you haven't missed any important parts of the process you are aiming to describe.

You can also create a flow diagram by adding your arrows and text to an existing image, following the process described here.

Apply the skill

1 Use the steps above to construct a flow diagram of your own. Use the picture and labels of the rainforest from Source 1.16 to describe the flow of energy and matter that would occur between the different elements of the rainforest and the plants and animals that inhabit it.

Check your learning 1.5

Remember and understand

1 Look at the illustration of the rainforest in Source 1.16 and identify an interaction that takes place between animals and plants.

2 What effect do you think there would be on the rainforest ecosystem if this interaction no longer occurred?

Apply and analyse

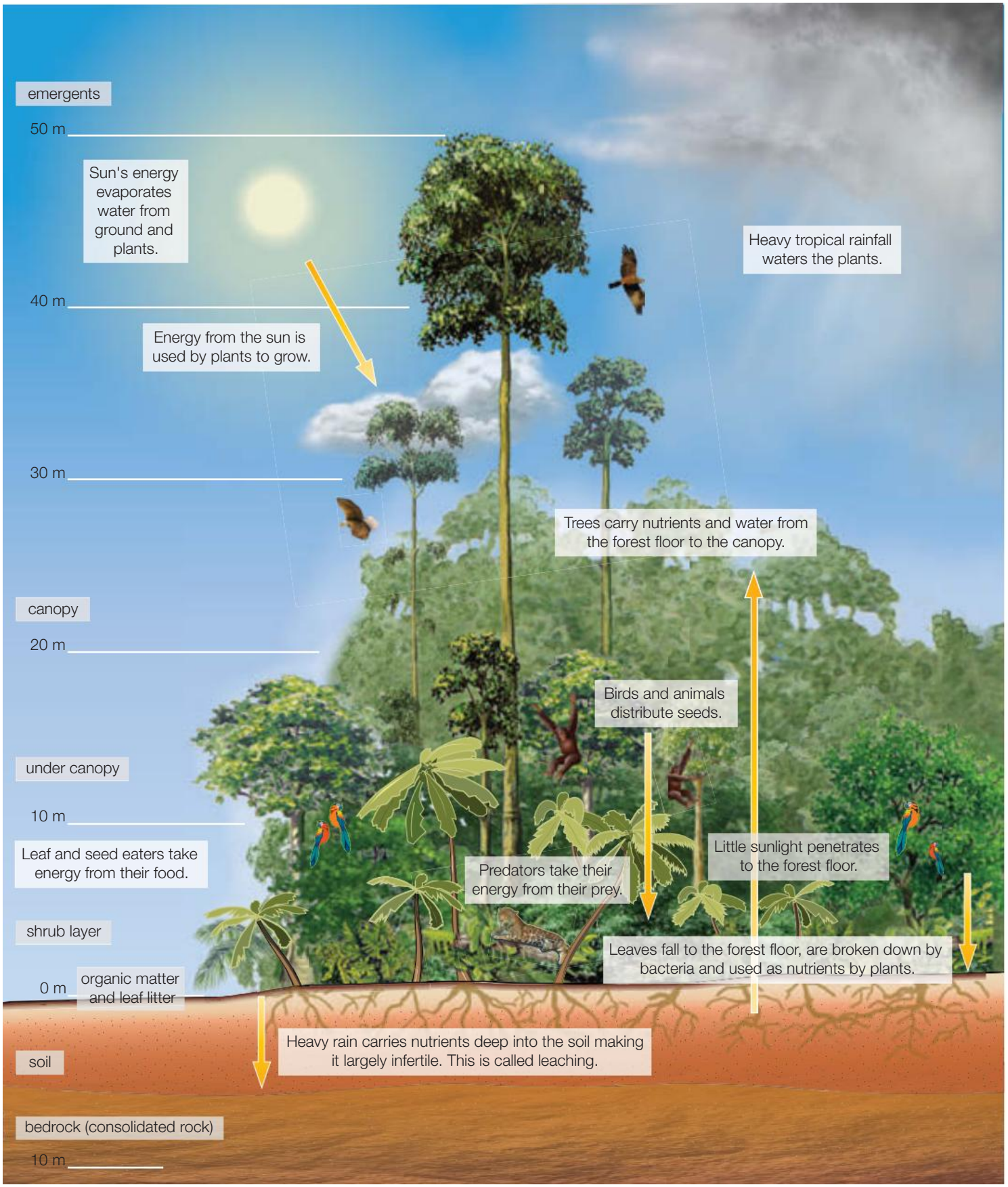
3 Why are rainforest soils poor in nutrients?

4 How have rainforest trees adapted to the poor soils in the rainforest?

5 Describe how water is moved through the rainforest.

Evaluate and create

6 What changes of movement in energy and matter would result if the trees and vegetation in Source 1.16 were cleared to make way for farming land? Consider the living and non-living inhabitants of the ecosystem.



Source 1.16 Cross-section of a tropical rainforest

Australia's biomes

Australia is one of the world's largest countries. The northern part lies in the tropics, while Tasmania reaches towards Antarctica in the south. The sheer size of the land mass which spreads across much of the Earth's southern latitudes means that there is a wide variety of biomes in Australia.

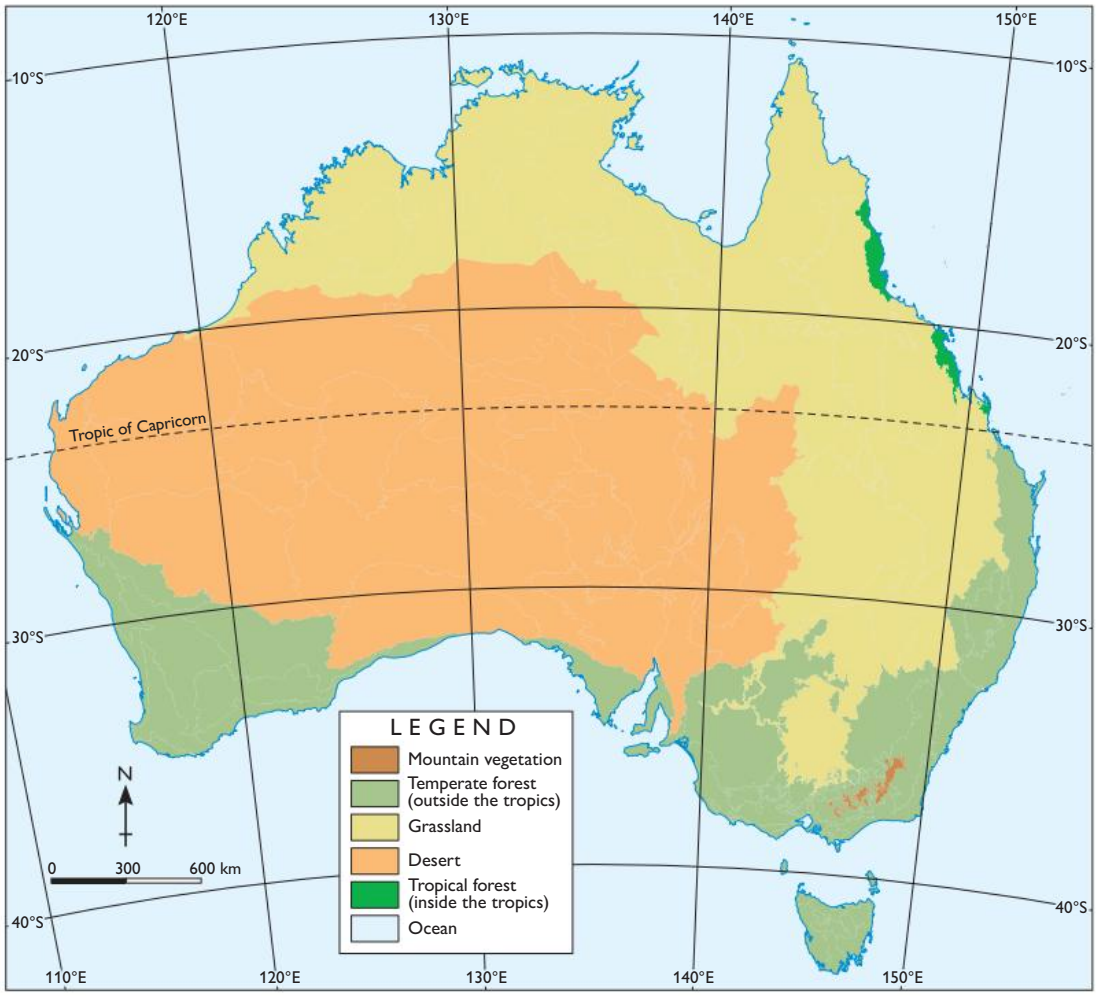
Many of Australia's original biomes have been changed by human activities. More than half of Australia's total land area is now used for food production, particularly sheep and cattle farming, covering 430 million hectares of land. This has resulted in significant changes to vegetation, land and water across much of the country. The following map shows Australia's original biomes before they were changed by human activities.

Australia's deserts

Australia is the second driest continent in the world, after Antarctica. The combined area of the ten biggest Australian deserts makes up about 18 per cent of the total land area of our 'wide brown land'. We can also describe Australia as arid or semi-arid because 70 per cent of the continent receives less than 500 millimetres of rainfall each year. This low rainfall has resulted in large desert areas across much of Australia.

Many people think of deserts as being entirely composed of large sand dunes, with the occasional date palm or cactus the only sign of life. This image may come from movies, or pictures they have seen of deserts around the world.

AUSTRALIA: BIOMES



Source 1.17

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 1.18 About one-third of Australia's total land area is used for cattle farming.







Source 1.19 Different Australian desert landscapes: spinifex grass in the Great Sandy Desert (top); acacia trees in the Great Victoria Desert (middle); stony plains in the Simpson Desert (bottom).

However, while the Sahara Desert in Africa does have date palms and sand dunes and most North American deserts have cactuses, there are variations within the desert biome. Some desert areas in Australia have large areas of red dunes, for example, but some are covered in vast areas of stones, called gibber plains.

In most of Australia's desert areas, grasses and low shrubs dominate the landscape (see Source 1.19). In the tropical deserts north of the Tropic of Capricorn, Spinifex and tough Mitchell grass cover much of the ground. South of the tropics, woodland deserts are more common, with tough acacia trees, such as the mulga and witchetty bush, in evidence.

Check your learning 1.6

Remember and understand

1 Why is there a wide variety of biomes in Australia?

2 What is the dominant natural biome where you live? Describe some of the ways in which this has been altered by human activities.

Apply and analyse

3 Compare Australia's biomes in Source 1.17 with the world's biomes in Source 1.2 and answer the following questions.

- **a** Which biomes do not exist in Australia?
- **b** Give a reason for each of these biomes being 'missing' in Australia.
- **c** How has latitude influenced the distribution of biomes in Australia?

Evaluate and create

4 The world biomes map (Source 1.2) shows large areas of desert, while the three images in Source 1.19 show us that there are significant variations in landscape within the desert biome.

- **a** What are the limitations of describing places according to their dominant biome?
- **b** Why do you think there are such variations within the desert biome?
- **c** Research one of the other biomes to find out if such variations exist in that biome's regions too.
- **d** Construct a collage or create a PowerPoint display of Australia's major biomes. Include at least one image of each biome.

1.1 big**ideas:** broadsheet

The Kokoda Trail

Papua New Guinea is a country with vast areas of rainforest. The forest covers the slopes of rugged mountain ranges such as the Owen Stanley Range. The Kokoda Trail crosses this range and was the location of fierce battles between the Australian and Japanese armies in World War II. The area is notable for steep mountainsides, dense rainforests and heavy rainfall. This turns the trail into a sea of mud and makes progress along it very difficult. Many Australians attempt to walk the trail every year to achieve personal goals, which perhaps include gaining an appreciation of the difficulties faced by the soldiers during the war.

skill**drill**

Estimating gradient and aspect on topographic maps

Estimating gradient (angle of the slope) and aspect (direction of the slope) is an important skill for geographers to master.

Estimating gradient

Using a topographic map, it is possible to estimate the gradient between two points, by following these steps.

Step 1 Determine the height of the two points. For example, examing Source 1.21, Owens Corner (186, 530) is at 600 metres and The Gap (241, 588) is at 2190 metres.

Step 2 Estimate the difference in height between these two points (known as the rise). 2190 – 600 = 1590.

Step 3 Estimate the straight line distance (known as the run) between these two points using the line scale. This is 40 km or 40 000 metres in this example.

Step 4 Divide the rise by the run and multiply this by 100: (2190/40 000) x 100 = 5.5% slope.

Estimating aspect

The aspect refers to the compass direction that the slope is facing. This is also simple to work out by following these steps.

Step 1 Using the information we found out when estimating the gradient we can tell that the terrain slopes down from The Gap (at 2190 m) to Owens Corner (at 600 m).

Step 2 Imagine an arrow from The Gap to Owens Corner and estimate the direction of this arrow using the north arrow. This arrow would be pointing south-west. The aspect therefore is south-west.

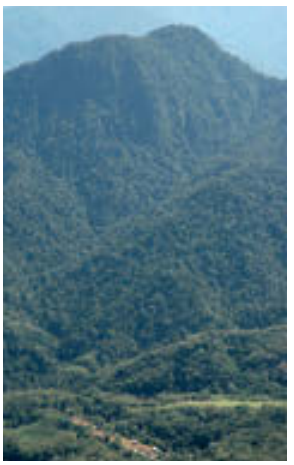
Apply the skill

1. Estimate the aspect and gradient of the slope between The Gap and Kokoda (241, 638).
2. Is this slope less steep or steeper than the slope between Owens Corner and The Gap?
3. Estimate the gradient and aspect for the slope between The Gap and Mt Kenevi (266, 584).
4. Estimate the gradient and aspect for the slope between The Gap and Mount Victoria (197, 635).
5. Provide three pieces of evidence that this landscape is very rugged and mountainous.
6. Estimate the total length of the Kokoda Trail from Owens Corner to Kokoda.

Extend your understanding

Conduct some further research on the Kokoda campaign and then complete the following tasks.

1. Which of the world's major biomes are shown on this map of the Kokoda Trail area?
2. What is the relationship between forest and terrain in this environment?
3. Explain why you think this relationship occurs.
4. Research the Kokoda campaign that took place between July 1942 and January 1943. Focus on the ways in which the natural environment (landforms, forest and rainfall) influenced the soldiers and the campaign.



Source 1.20 The rugged terrain of the Owen Stanley Range, Papua New Guinea

PAPUA NEW GUINEA: KOKODA TRAIL



Source 1.21

Source: Oxford Atlas

1.2 Why do some biomes produce more food than others?

Where our food comes from

For many people in the world, the question of where their food comes from is easy to answer. Throughout the developing world, particularly in developing areas of Africa and Asia, the majority of food comes from what people grow or gather. People in these places spend much of their time planting, growing and harvesting crops or looking after a few animals, like sheep, goats or cows. These activities provide them with virtually all of their food requirements, from milk and meat to grains such as rice, wheat or corn. The crops they grow and the animals they raise are influenced by a wide range of factors but mainly by the climate in which they live.

In developed countries like Australia, the question of where food comes from is much more difficult to answer.

In fact, very few people across the developed world would be able to tell you where their food comes from.

WORLD: ORIGIN OF SOME COMMON SUPERMARKET FOODSTUFFS



1 Cornflakes, Wales



2 Apple sauce, Belgium



3 Chocolate hazelnut spread, Germany



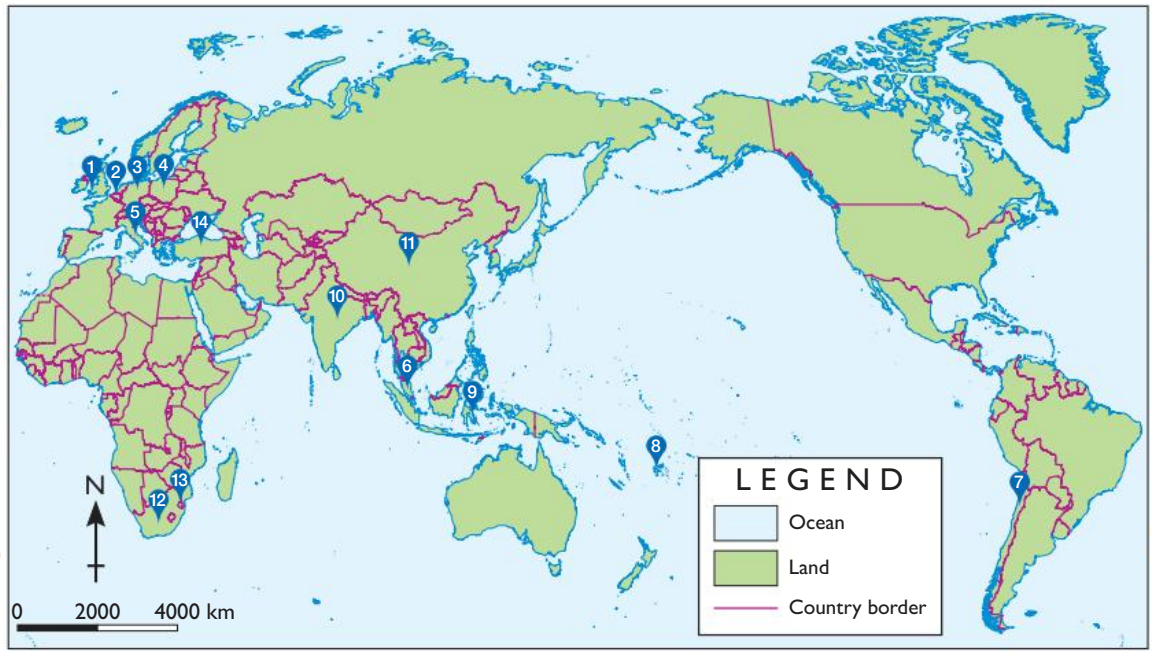
4 Strawberry spread, Poland



5 Baked beans, Italy



14 Dried sultanas, Turkey





6 Instant noodles, Malaysia



13 Fruit salad, Swaziland



7 Peach halves, Chile

Source 1.22

Source: Oxford University Press



12 Crumbed fish fillets, South Africa



11 Frozen cut beans, China



10 Pickled onions, India



9 Pineapple slices in natural juice, Indonesia



8 Choc mint slice biscuits, Fiji

This is because most people in these countries spend little or no time growing food. They rely on people in other places to grow food for them. Many Australians, for example, buy their food at a supermarket. But where does a supermarket get this food from? Labels on food give some indication, but these can be misleading at times.

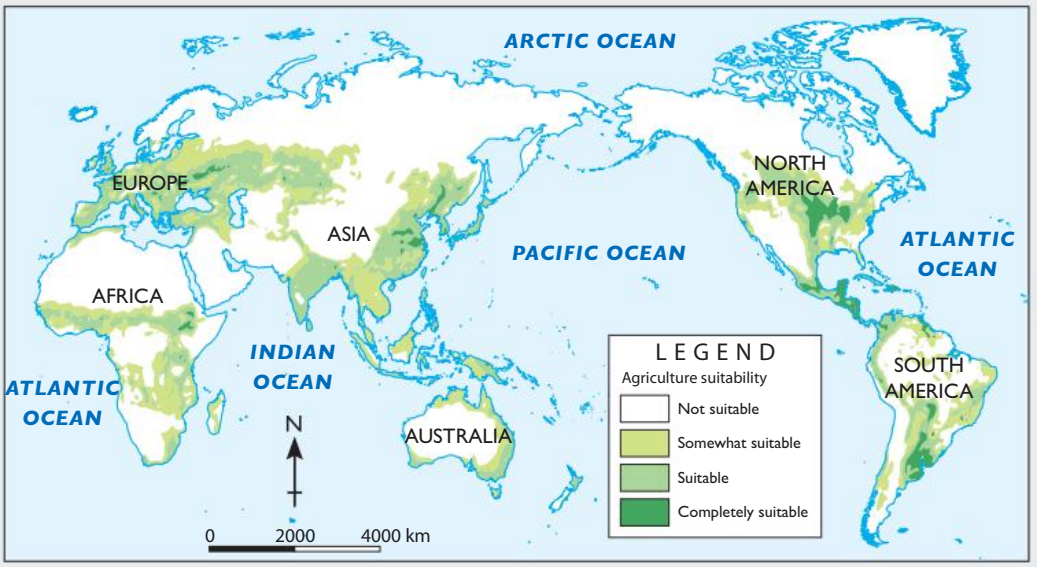
In a recent study, the origin of the home brand products sold in large supermarkets was studied in detail. The researchers found that about 50 percent of Coles' products and 38 per cent of Woolworths' products were made or grown in Australia with the rest coming from overseas. Source 1.22 shows the origin of some common foods sold in Australian supermarkets.

key**concept:** space

Agricultural suitability

Limitations of climate such as extremes in temperatures or low rainfall mean that many regions cannot support farming. Other areas may have low soil fertility, be covered in rainforest, be too mountainous or covered in ice caps. This means that the world's farms are concentrated in certain areas where the soil, climate and availability of water make farming possible. Source 1.23 ranks regions of the world in terms of their suitability for agriculture (i.e. completely suitable for agriculture to not suitable at all). Geographers use the key concept of space to better understand the patterns formed by agricultural use to make recommendations for the future.

WORLD: AGRICULTURAL SUITABILITY



Source 1.23

Source: Oxford University Press

For more information on the key concept of space, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Check your learning 1.7

Remember and understand

1 Why is it difficult for people in developed countries to know where their food comes from?

2 Using the scale provided, work out which supermarket item shown in Source 1.22 has travelled the furthest distance to be sold in your town or city.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 1.23 carefully.

a Explain why each of the white areas in the following regions and countries may be unsuitable for agriculture: Australia, South America, North Africa, Central Asia.

b Compare the map showing areas of the world suitable for agriculture to the world biomes map (Source 1.2). Make some general statements about which biomes are most suitable for agriculture. Explain why you think this is the case.

Evaluate and create

4 What factors would be considered when making a map like Source 1.23 that show areas that are most or least suitable for farming?

5 Conduct research online to work out why Australian supermarkets source a large proportion of their products from overseas.

Making decisions on a farm

Every year, famers in different countries around the world make decisions about what crops they will grow and what animals they will raise on their properties. Before they make any decisions, they must consider a number of competing factors. They need to consider their own level of experience as a farmer, the types of machinery and help they have available, the cost of grain, the amount of rain forecast, the quality of the soil, the estimated price they will be paid for the crops they produce and how they will transport them to market. Broadly speaking, all of these competing factors can be divided into two main categories:

- environmental factors
- technological and economic factors.

Examples from each of these categories are provided in Sources 1.24 and 1.25.



Source 1.24 A range of environmental factors that need to be taken into account when making decisions on a farm.



Source 1.25 A range of technological factors that need to be taken into account when making decisions on a farm.

Check your learning 1.8

Remember and understand

1 How does the climate in a particular place influence farming practices there?

2 Name three soil properties that might influence successful crop growth.

Apply and analyse

3 Most farmers continue to practise the same type of farming year after year. Why do you think this is the case?

4 Select one of the environmental factors discussed in Source 1.24 and explain how an individual farmer may improve or adapt to this factor on his or her farm.

Evaluate and create

5 Consider all of the environmental, technical and economic factors discussed in Sources 1.24 and 1.25. Rank the factors a farmer needs to take into consideration from most to least important. Give a reason for each of your three top-ranked factors.

The importance of climate

More than any other factor, climate (especially rainfall and temperature) determines the type of farming that is practised in a given location. Some crops, such as rice and sugar cane, require warm temperatures and a reliable supply of water. Other types of farming, such as sheep and camel farming, can tolerate a wider range of temperatures and water supply (see Source 1.26). Farmers who share a similar climate, therefore, tend to practise the same type of farming. This leads to large regions of the Earth's surface being farmed in the same way.

In some places, farmers are able to use technology to overcome some of the limitations of climate. Many Australian farmers, for example, use water from rivers and dams to **irrigate** their crops rather than relying on natural rainfall. Others pump water from natural underground water storages called **aquifers**. Others use greenhouses so they can control the temperature and humidity, allowing crops such as flowers and vegetables to grow throughout the year.



Source 1.26 A nomadic farmer herds his camels in Ethiopia.

skill**drill**

Comparing patterns on maps

One of the most common ways that geographers analyse and explain the world around them is by looking for patterns in geographical data. For example, comparing patterns on maps they can examine the relationship between climate and farming.

To compare patterns on two maps, follow these steps:

Step 1 Look carefully at the first map, particularly the title and legend, so that you understand exactly what it shows.

Step 2 Repeat this for the second map.

Step 3 Look at each map carefully and note regions where there seems to be a correlation (relationship). For example, in Sources 1.27 and 1.28 one correlation would be: 'little or limited agricultural use' on the agricultural regions map (Source 1.28) relates to hot desert on the climate zones map (Source 1.27).

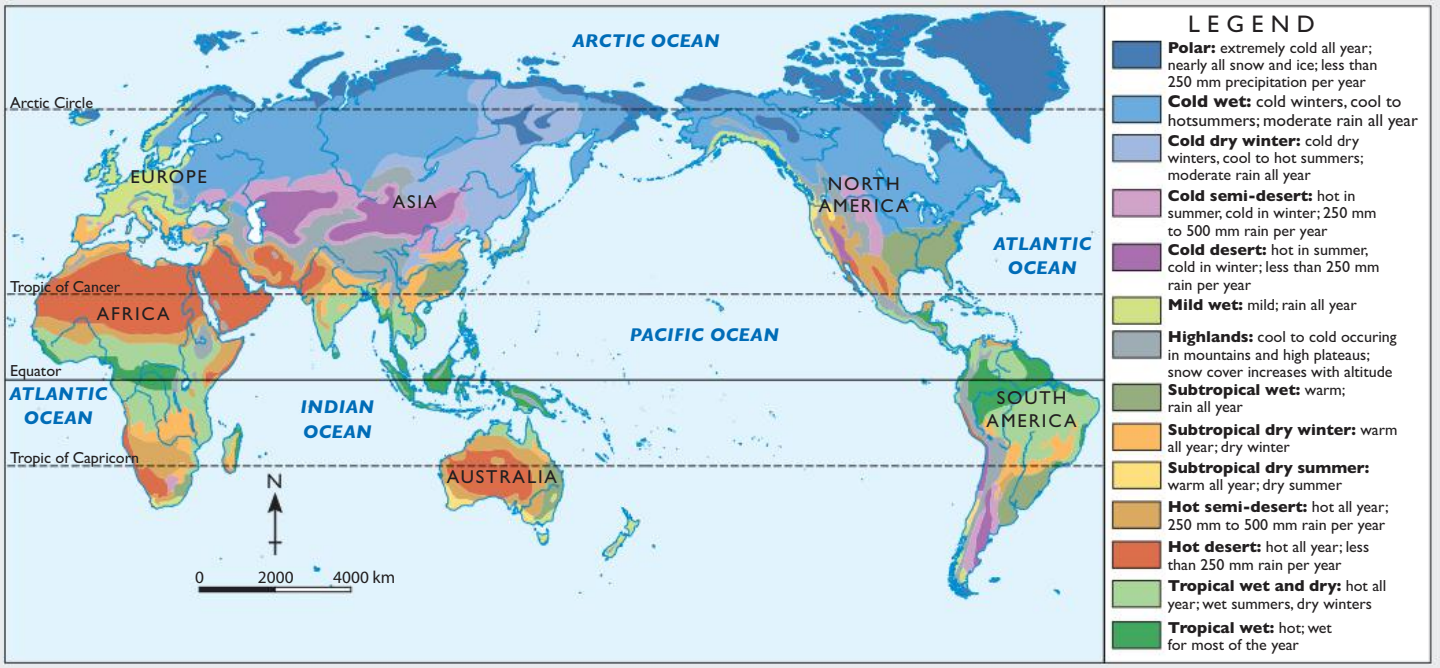
Step 4 Use an atlas map to find out the names of the places where this association occurs.

Step 5 Make a statement that sums up your associations. For example, rice farming is dominant in places with a subtropical climate such as north-east India and southern China where it is warm all year and has a dry winter.

Apply the skill

1 Use Sources 1.27 and 1.28 to account for the distribution of:
   - **a** dairy farming
   - **b** commercial – extensive livestock farming
   - **c** the pattern of agriculture in South America.

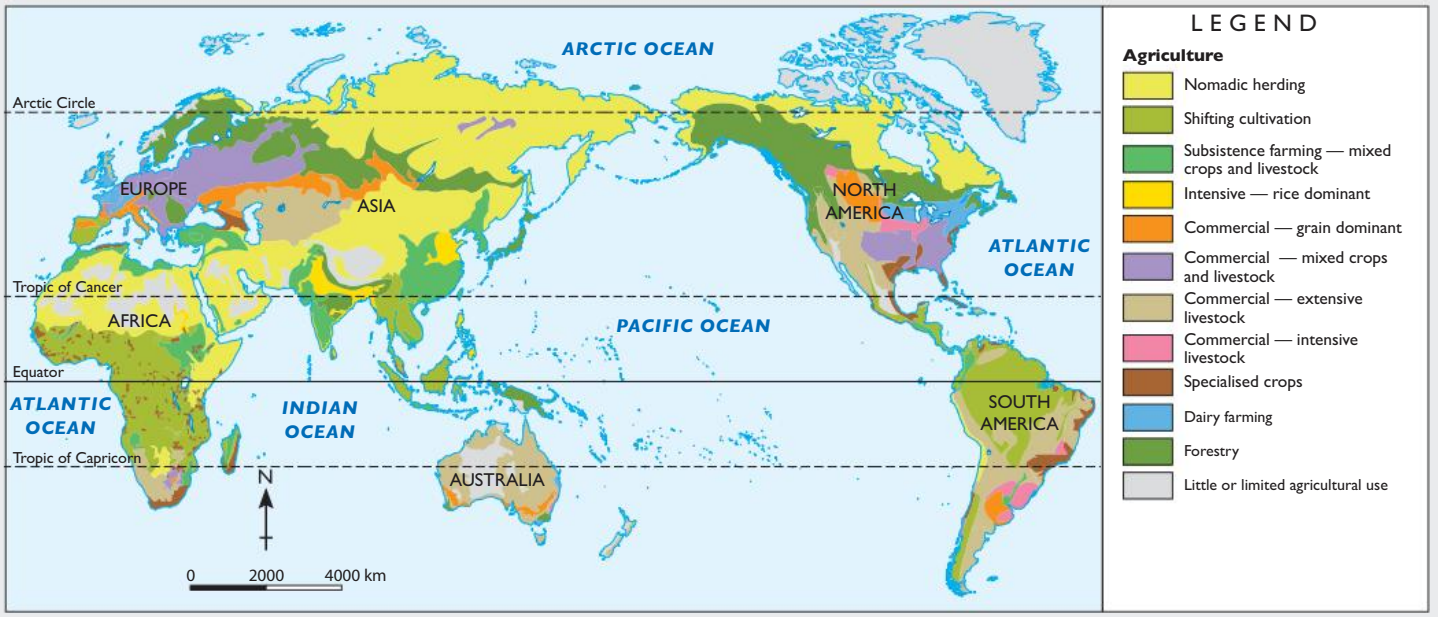
WORLD: CLIMATE ZONES



Source 1.27

Source: Oxford University Press

WORLD: AGRICULTURAL REGIONS



Source 1.28

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 1.9

Remember and understand

1 How does the climate of particular places influence the type of farming practised there?

2 How do some farmers overcome the limitations of climate?

Apply and analyse

3 How might a farmer overcome the limitations of frost?

4 Describe the distribution of nomadic herding in the world. Account for this distribution using Source 1.27.

Soil – more than just dirt

Many parts of the Earth's surface are covered in a thin, fragile layer of soil. Plants grow in this soil that feed every animal on Earth, including you. But what is soil and how are plants able to use it to grow?

Soil is a mixture of air, water, broken-down rock, and organic material such as tiny animals and plants. Soil is a non-renewable resource – it takes thousands, even millions of years to form. The first step is the gradual breaking down or weathering of rock. Rock weathers because it is subjected to physical forces and processes such as freezing and thawing, the expansion of roots, or because the rocks rub against each other in a stream or river. Movement of ice in a glacier, the flow of water in a river or ocean, or the force of wind can all cause rocks to weather.

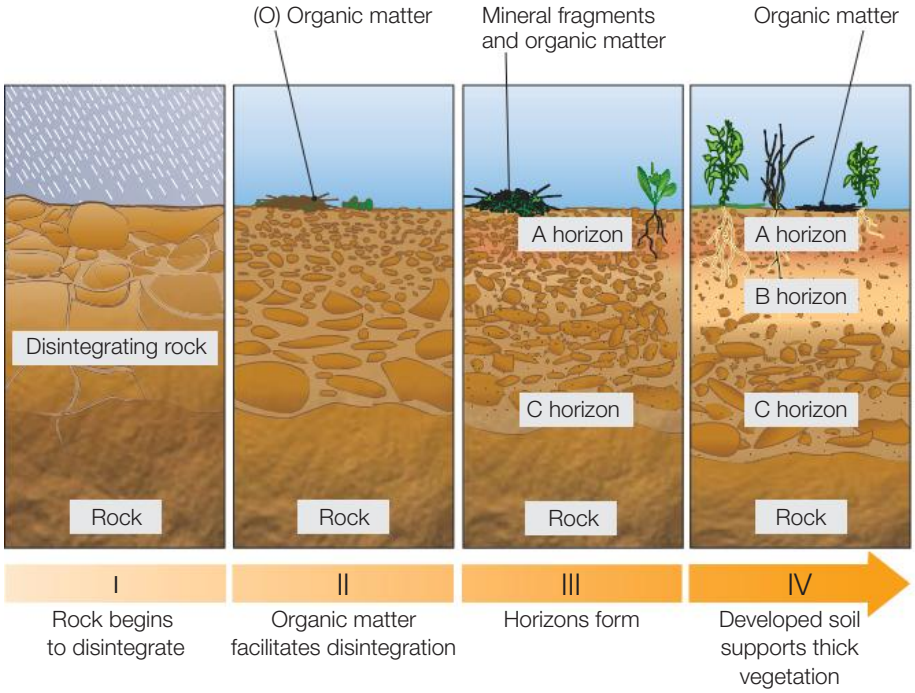
Rocks are also weathered by chemical changes that occur. Water can dissolve minerals found in rocks, reacting and forming new minerals which may then break down the rock itself. Oxygen also combines with some minerals to wear away rocks and the slightly acidic nature of rain can also help to dissolve rocks (see Source 1.29).

As rocks break down into finer and finer particles the minerals within them become available to plants. Seeds carried onto weathered rock by wind, water, animals and birds are able to germinate and send roots down into the new soil. As plants die and leaves fall onto the soil they decompose and add to the fertility of the soil. This allows other plants to flourish in the soil.

Over time, soils form layers known as **horizons**. These can be seen where a road has been cut through a hillside. By examining the horizons, soil scientists and farmers are able to determine how best to farm different areas. The horizons are labelled using letters so they can be easily identified and compared. From top to bottom, the horizons are O (organic matter), A, B, C and Rock (see Source 1.30). Some soils may have all the horizons, while others may have only one or two horizons. By identifying which of the horizons are missing in the soil, the farmer will know how and when to treat it. For example, if the soil is lacking organic matter, **mulch** can be added to increase mineral content and prevent water loss through evaporation.



Source 1.29 Like all rocks, Uluru is under attack from physical and chemical weathering. The desert soil in the foreground would be partly made up from weathered rock particles. Only shrubs and grasses are able to grow in this soil.



Source 1.30 The development of soil horizons over time



Source 1.31 Fertiliser containing nutrients such as nitrogen and phosphorus is usually spread using a tractor or truck.

Australia's soils

Australian farmers have to overcome the many challenges of a variable climate, with its extremes of droughts and floods. Perhaps the greatest challenge faced by Australian famers is the condition of the soil. As one of the world's oldest continents we also have some of the oldest soils on Earth. The constant weathering over millions of years has washed away many of the important nutrients and minerals and our soils are amongst the world's poorest.

As well as being much less fertile than other soils around the world, many of our soils are also much saltier than in other places. This is because much of the continent was once covered by ocean, and though the water has receded, the salt remains. Much of our soil is also composed of clay either at the surface or just below the surface. This restricts water drainage into the soil and makes it difficult for the roots of plants to penetrate.

Australian soils therefore are generally low in nutrients, thin and easily eroded. Australian farmers have developed many ways of dealing with these limitations. The most obvious of these is adding nutrients and chemicals to the soil that are missing (see Source 1.31). Farmers regularly test their soil and will add fertiliser containing those chemicals that their plants need. As crops grow they draw these nutrients from the soil and so farmers must continue to replace them, often applying fertiliser annually.

Check your learning 1.10

Remember and understand

1 Why are Australia's soils generally low in nutrients?
2 Why is soil an important natural resource?
3 Why do many farmers need to replenish the nutrients in the soil with fertiliser annually?

Apply and analyse

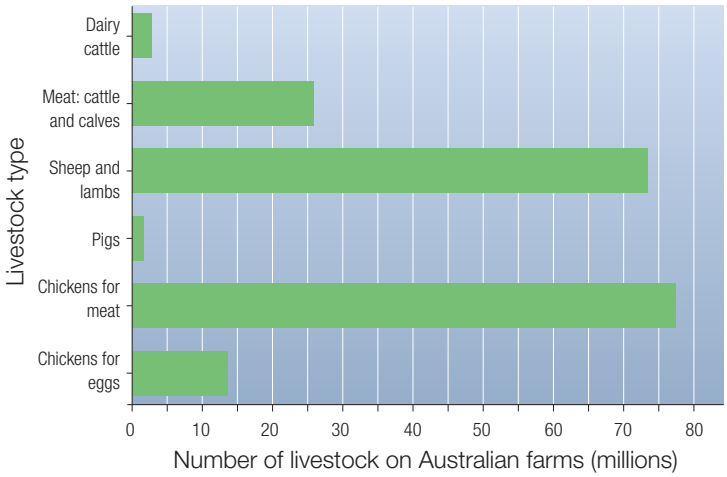
4 Look at Source 1.29. What physical forces do you think are weathering Uluru?
5 Is soil a renewable or non-renewable resource? Give some reasons for your answer.

Evaluate and create

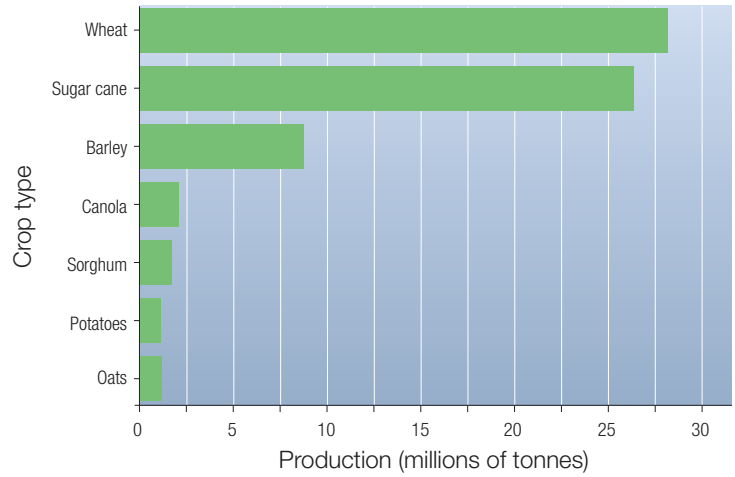
6 Construct a flow diagram with boxes and arrows describing how soil is formed.
7 Explore the soil profile in your local area. Look for a place where a stream has cut down into the soil or a cutting has been made for a road or railway. Sketch the soil profile and see how many of the horizons you can identify. Compare your profile to stage IV in Source 1.30. What are the similarities and differences?

Food production in Australia

There are more than 135 000 farms in Australia. They can be classified in many different ways, for example those that grow crops and those that raise livestock. Another way a farm can be classified is by how large it is in relation to the amount of food or fibre it produces. Farms that require large areas of land – to provide pasture for sheep or cattle, for example – fall under the classification of **extensive farming**. On the other hand, farms such as poultry farms or those that grow vegetables, can produce large volumes of food or fibre in a small area, and are classified as **intensive farming**.

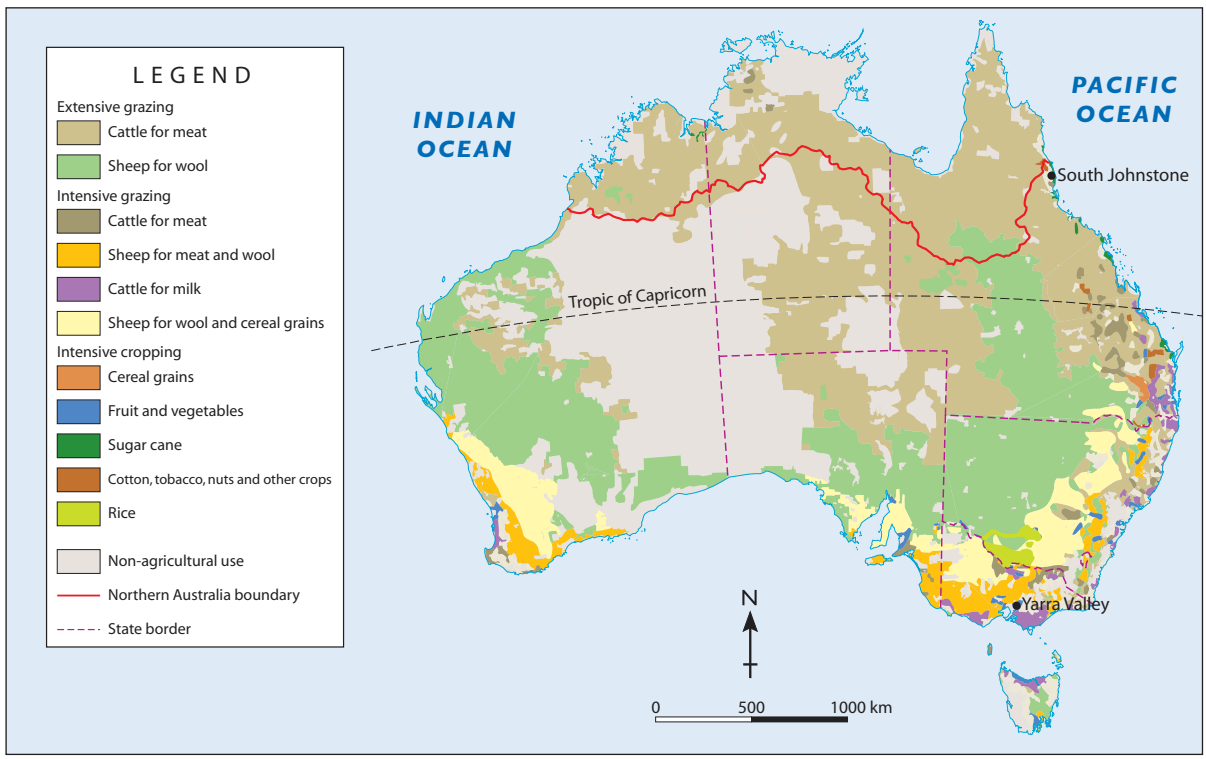


Source 1.32 This graph shows the number of livestock on Australian farms by type.



Source 1.33 This graph shows the crops grown on Australian farms by type each year.

AUSTRALIA: LAND USAGE



Source 1.34

Source: Oxford University Press

Should we grow more food in northern Australia?

Farming in northern Australia, like farming everywhere, is determined by environmental factors, particularly temperature, soil fertility and water. The soils in the north are among the world's oldest and have been subject to monsoonal downpours for millions of years. This has **leached** many important minerals out of the soil making them relatively infertile. Much of the soils of the north are arid or semi-arid and the rain that does fall tends to be seasonal rather than all-year round. These factors make intensive farming difficult. Cattle farming, therefore, dominates in northern Australia, covering 90 per cent of the land area and accounting for 30 per cent of the nation's total cattle.

Several government task forces have identified the water that lies in rock layers (known as aquifers) beneath northern Australia as the key to expanding intensive agriculture. They have suggested that small-scale intensive farming using groundwater has the potential to triple the amount of cropland in the north from the current 20 000 hectares. An example of this type of farming (known as mosaic agriculture) is shown in Source 1.37.



Source 1.35 Cropping of sugar cane is carried out near South Johnstone in north Queensland.



Source 1.36 Victoria's Yarra Valley is a significant sheep grazing area.



Source 1.37 These circular fields in northern Australia are an example of the result of pivot-circle irrigation using groundwater from aquifers.

Check your learning 1.11

Remember and understand

1 Describe the main differences between intensive and extensive farming.

2 What are some of the limiting factors for further intensive farming in northern Australia?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Sources 1.36 and 1.37. Classify each of these farming types as either intensive or extensive farming.

4 Select one of the farming types shown in Source 1.34.

- **a** Describe its distribution in Australia.
- **b** Brainstorm the environmental factors that help to explain this distribution.

5 Using Source 1.34, explain why you think fruit and vegetables are often grown near large cities.

Evaluate and create

6 Describe the current distribution of farming types in northern Australia.

7 Using the information provided, together with additional research, classify each of the livestock types in Source 1.32 and crop types in Source 1.33 according to whether they are examples of extensive or intensive farming.

High-tech farming

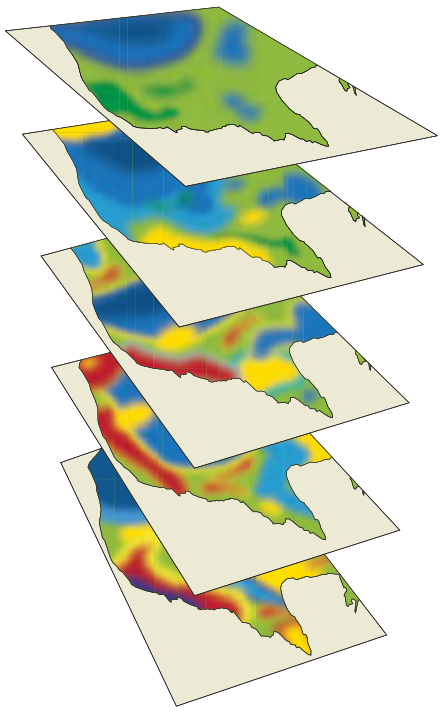
Modern technologies have changed farming methods and made many farms in Australia and around the world more efficient and more productive. The use of technologies such as computers, satellites, remote sensors, geographic information systems (GIS) and global positioning systems (GPS) has allowed some farms to go 'high-tech'. Some Australian farmers are using pilotless planes (known as drones) to keep watch on their soils, plants and water, while others are tracking their sheep and cattle with sensors implanted in the animals' ears or in electronic collars. Technology continues to advance farming operations, increasing the fruitfulness and longevity of crops and improving the breeding conditions of cattle.

Precision farming

On every farm there are wide variations in natural features such as slope, soil fertility, soil moisture and drainage. There may also be different soil conditions in different spots on the farm – past farming practices may have taken minerals from some parts of the farm but not others. Each farm and each field is therefore a patchwork of different soil and water features. Often, however, all parts of the field or farm are treated in the same way, despite being a 'patchwork' of different conditions and levels. This means that some parts of each farm are less productive than other parts.

A new farming system known as **precision farming** is beginning to change this old method to bring about better economic and environmental outcomes. Sensors mounted on satellites, planes and helicopters collect large amounts of data on many aspects of the environment including rates of plant growth, minerals in the soil and soil moisture. Using GPS, this data is then converted to detailed maps of each farm showing, for example, areas of high crop yield and areas with a lower yield (see Sources 1.38 and 1.39).

This information is then available to the farmer to make decisions about better and more precise irrigation and fertilisers and the choice of crops and the times to plant and harvest them. Using precision farming tools such as layered maps and GPS, farmers can determine precisely the best places to plant. They can identify where the soil is richer in minerals, so they can grow better crops. Rows of soil used in previous years where minerals have been depleted can be avoided.



Source 1.38 Layered maps using GPS data can clearly show farmers different elements they need to consider.



Source 1.39 Using precision farming tools such as layered maps and GPS, farmers can determine precisely the best places to plant their rows of crops.



Source 1.40 Milking time at Gala dairy farm in Coleraine, Tasmania and not a farmer in sight!

Case study: Robots on the farm

Gala dairy farm near Coleraine in Tasmania may look like most other dairy farms in Australia – cows contentedly munch on green grass for most of the day and then head to the shed to be milked. But this farm is like no other dairy farm in the world because these cows milk themselves, with help from a robot or two. Once the cow arrives in the dairy, overhead cameras and a Wi-Fi linked sensor guide robotic arms to clean the cow's teats and attach suction cups. An electronic collar identifies each cow and allows their milk production to be monitored and recorded.

The cows stand on a rotating circlular platform while being milked and are rewarded for coming to the dairy with a small feed of grain and access to a paddock of fresh grass. Because cows can choose when and how often they wish to be milked, milk production on the farm is up 20 per cent from the traditional method of milking cows twice a day.

Check your learning 1.12

Remember and understand

1 What is precision farming?
2 Why are the cows in Source 1.40 wearing collars?

Apply and analyse

3 Is Gala farm an example of precision farming? Give some reasons for your answer.
4 Why is GPS an essential part of precision farming?
5 What are some of the advantages of robotic milking for the farmer and what are some of the disadvantages?
6 Explain why precision farming can help to make farming more sustainable.

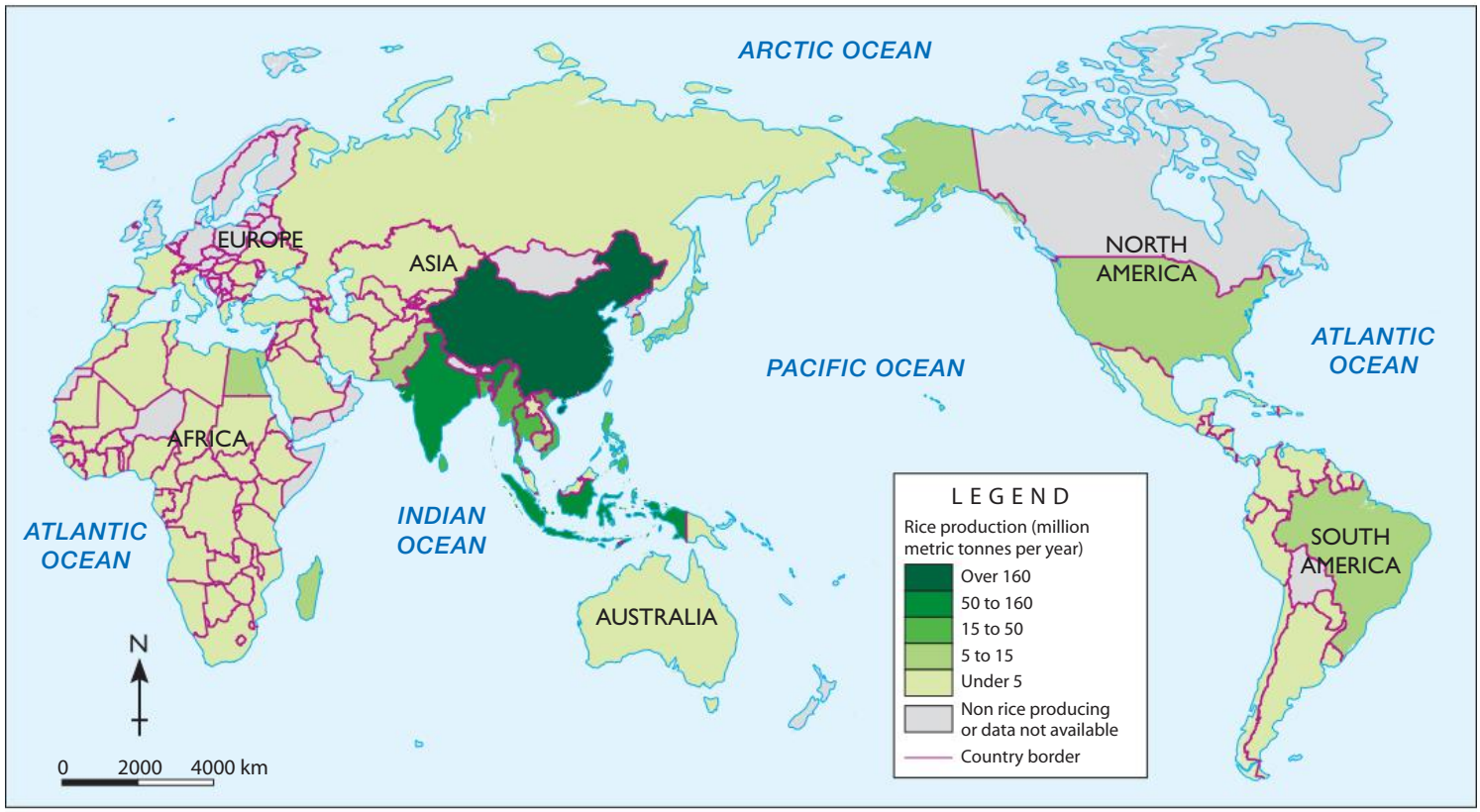
Evaluate and create

7 Using ideas from Source 1.40 and online research, invent a machine that shears sheep. Remember that each sheep is slightly different from every other sheep so your machine needs to take this into account. Draw a labelled sketch of your shearing machine.

Rice – the grain of life

Rice is one of the world's most important crops. It supplies about one-fifth of all **calories** consumed by humans and is the main food eaten in more than 30 countries. About 700 million tonnes of rice are produced around the world every year. Around 90 per cent of this is grown in Asia. China's production of rice alone accounts for almost one-third of the world's total annual rice production.

WORLD: RICE PRODUCTION



Source 1.41

Source: Oxford University Press

skilldrill

Describing patterns on choropleth maps

The map in Source 1.41 is a **choropleth map**. Geographers use choropleth maps to give a quick impression of a spatial pattern by using dark and light shades of the same or similar colours. Darker shades usually show 'the most' and lighter shades show 'the least'. You can describe the pattern on choropleth maps by following the PQE (Pattern–Quantify–Exceptions) method. For more information on the PQE method refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Step 1 Read the title and examine the legend carefully so that you understand what the map is showing.

Step 2 Describe the general pattern that is apparent on your map. Use the names of continents and large regions.

Step 3 Quantify your description of the pattern by giving the names of specific countries and the mapped data related to these countries.

Step 4 Point out any exceptions to the general pattern that you have described. For example, this may be a country that produces a lot of rice despite being far away from any other major rice-producing country.

Apply the skill

1 Describe the pattern of global rice production using Source 1.41 and the PQE method.

Rice growing methods

Rice growing occurs in many different environments – from the sides of the world's highest mountains to coastal river deltas. Rice is grown in areas that flood every year and in other places where rain is far from reliable. Because of these variations in climate and environments, it is possible to identify four main systems of rice growing.

1 **Irrigated rice:** Irrigated ecosystems account for about three quarters of global rice production. Irrigated rice is grown in fields, called rice paddies, where series of embankments and terraces are built to control the flow of water across the fields. This system is most common in East Asia, particularly Indonesia, Vietnam, the Philippines and Thailand.

2 **Rainfed rice:** Many farmers in low-lying areas in countries such as Bangladesh, Myanmar (Burma) and Thailand rely on natural rainfall rather than irrigation to water their rice crops. Annual monsoonal rains may cover their fields with 50 centimetres of water into which they plant their crops. This is known as the rainfed lowland system of rice growing. These farmers face many challenges to produce a reliable crop, notably poor soil quality and unreliable rain.

3 **Upland rice:** In West Africa, Central and South America, and highland regions of Asia, upland rice growing dominates. Usually grown beside other crops, productivity is generally low as soils are often poor and little or no fertiliser is used. Rainfall may be unreliable and erosion of the hillsides may be a problem in some areas, as the rice fields do not usually have embankments to control the flow of water.

4 **Flood-prone rice:** In some flood-prone zones in Cambodia, Vietnam and Myanmar (Burma) a rice crop may be grown in areas characterised by periods of flood and drought. The rice grown is tolerant to being covered by water but yields tend to be low and unreliable.



Source 1.42 In upland areas many farmers first clear the land, often by slashing and burning.



Source 1.43 Rice paddies near Longsheng, China

Source 1.44 A comparison of the productivity of four different rice systems.

System	Yield (tonnes/ hectare)	Crops (per year)	Productivity (tonnes/ hectare/year)
Irrigated rice – rice grown using irrigation systems for water	5.0	2.5	12.5
Rainfed rice – rice growing system that relies on rainfall for water	2.5	1	2.5
Upland rice – rice grown in rainfed lowland fields that is prepared and seeded when dry	1.0	1	0.12
Flood-prone rice – rice grown in areas prone to extreme flooding and drought, typically low-yield	1.0	1	1.0

Check your learning 1.13

Remember and understand

1 What type of rice growing system is being used in Source 1.43?

2 How would the farmers in these fields control the flow of water to their crops?

Apply and analyse

3 Which is the most productive system of rice growing? Why do you think this is the case?

4 Why do you think upland rice growing is not as productive as the other systems?

Evaluate and create

5 In small groups, discuss the environmental impacts of growing rice. Present a report of your conclusions, using headings such as 'Impacts on water, soil, landforms and natural vegetation'. Which of the four rice growing systems do you believe impacts the natural environment the most?

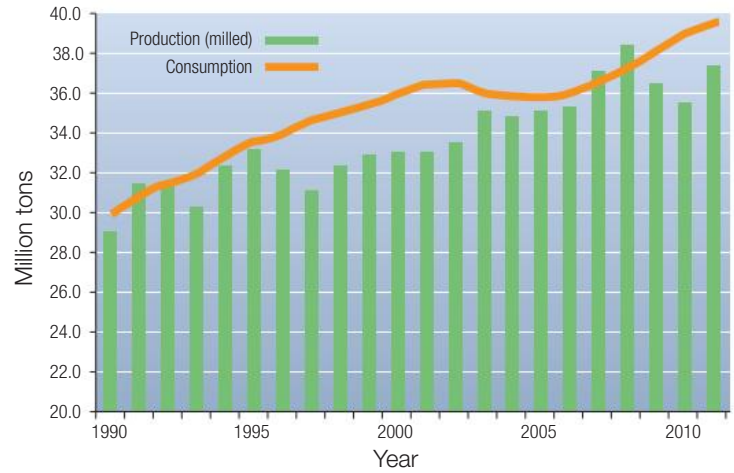
Rice growing in Java

The Indonesian island of Java is one of the world's most populated islands and one of the most densely populated places on Earth. It is home to almost 150 million people. The Javanese people have developed a way of life that uses the island's natural resources to provide them with ample food. Java is a volcanic island with abundant rainfall, and eruptions over millions of years have produced fertile soil for the growing of crops such as rice.

In fact, Java is home to some of the world's most productive rice fields. Over three-quarters of Javanese farmers grow rice, mostly in small family-owned fields of less than one hectare (0.01km^2). Farmers tend to live in villages and towns and walk every morning to their rice fields. Everyday tasks are determined by the season. Most rice farmers in Java are able to grow two crops throughout the year but on more fertile ground some farmers are able to grow three. Fertiliser is usually added to the soil to complement its natural fertility.

In recent years, Java's population has grown faster than increases in rice production and this has meant that the island has had to import rice from other Asian countries. As Java's population continues to grow there is greater pressure on the rice farmers to become more productive. There is also an increased competition for land. Agricultural scientists are working hard to find solutions to Java's stalled increases in crop yields but they face serious issues:

- Farmers tend to be poorly educated and have little money to invest in new technologies.
- Farm sizes are declining because land is divided between family members after the death of a farmer.
- 100 000 hectares (1000km^2) of rice paddies have been lost, they have been used to grow other crops such as palm oil, or to build houses and factories.
- Little government money is spent on improving and repairing irrigation systems.
- There are few qualified experts to advise farmers how to increase crop yields through the introdcution of new varieties of rice and pest control.



Source 1.46 Rice production and consumption in Indonesia between 1990 and 2011.

JAVA: RICE GROWING AREAS



Source 1.45

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 1.47 Mount Merapi is one of Java's 45 volcanoes.

skill**drill**

Constructing an annotated field sketch

Geographers use field sketches as a way of capturing impressions immediately and directly. While on a field trip to examine an environment in detail you may be asked to complete a field sketch. It is often a good idea to practise field sketching from a photograph before the field trip. The method for drawing a field sketch is the same as sketching from a photograph. Follow these steps:

Step 1 Draw a border of the correct shape.

Step 2 Using a pencil, lightly sketch the main landscape lines. If there is a horizon in the scene put this about one-third from the top of the frame.

Step 3 Add detail to your sketch. Annotate or label those parts of the scene that you consider most important.

Step 4 Add some shading and colour. Don't try to copy every subtle colour of nature, just give a hint of the right colour.

Step 5 Label your sketch with the location and date.

Apply the skill

1 Follow the steps provided to complete a field sketch of Source 1.47. On your sketch, label key natural and managed features of the environment.

Check your learning 1.14

Remember and understand

1 How is the island of Java able to support so many people?

Apply and analyse

2 Examine Source 1.46.
   - a Describe the pattern in Indonesia's rice production between 1990 and 2011.
   - b Describe the pattern in consumption over the same period.
   - c Explain why Indonesia has become a rice importer in recent years.
   - d What relationships are there between the natural environment and the growing of rice in Java?

3 The farmer in Source 1.47 is using water buffalo rather than a tractor to plough his fields. What would be the advantages of using buffalo? What would be the disadvantages? How might his methods of farming change if he were given a tractor?

Evaluate and create

4 Imagine that the Australian Government has decided to give aid to Indonesia to increase its annual rice yield. Write a letter to the Foreign Minister outlining how you think this money should be spent.

Growing rice on the world's driest inhabited continent

There are about 1600 rice farms in Australia and virtually all of them are in southern New South Wales and northern Victoria. This region is suitable for the growing of rice because of several key environmental factors. The most important of these is the availability of water. Rice farmers in the region irrigate their crops with water from nearby rivers – the Murrumbidgee and the Murray. The soil is also ideal for rice growing as the heavy clay that is present stops water from seeping away. Year-round warm temperatures help the rice to grow and the flat land makes flood irrigation possible.

Although Australian rice growers are the most productive in the world, rice is a controversial crop in this country. Some people feel that growing rice is not a sustainable use of Australia's river water. They argue that the natural environment is suffering because water is being taken from the rivers. Supporters of the rice industry believe that rice is a valuable export crop and that Australian rice farmers are becoming better at using less water to grow more rice.

skill**drill**

Estimating the size of features on a map

Estimating the size of features on a map is an important skill for geographers. You can use the scale of maps to estimate the area covered by certain features. If the feature is a regular shape such as a triangle, circle or rectangle you can apply the skills and formulas you have learnt in mathematics.

If the shape of the feature you are studying is irregular, a grid can be used to estimate its size. For example, on Source 1.50, a grid with squares representing 20 km x 20 km has been drawn. If your map does not have a grid like this already, you can draw your own. You might like to do this onto a piece of tracing paper that you can then place on top of the map.

Step 1 Count the number of grid squares in which the mapped feature you want to estimate fills the entire square. Write this number down.

Step 2 Now count the number of grid squares that contain some, but not all, of the mapped feature. Take this number and divide it by two.

Step 3 Add these numbers (the result from Step 1 and the result from Step 2) together.

Step 4 Multiply this number by the area of each square. In the following map each square is 20 km x 20 km, or an area of 400 km^2.

Source 1.48 These formulas can be used to estimate the size of differently shaped features on a map.

Shape of feature	Formula
Triangle	The base x the height, divided by two
Circle	π (approximately 3.14) x radius squared. The radius is the distance from the centre of its circle to the edge.
Square and rectangle	Width x length

Apply the skill

1 Follow the steps provided to estimate the areas of the three main rice-growing regions shown in the map in Source 1.50.



Source 1.49 Rice fields and the main irrigation canal near Leeton, NSW.

NEW SOUTH WALES: RICE GROWING REGIONS

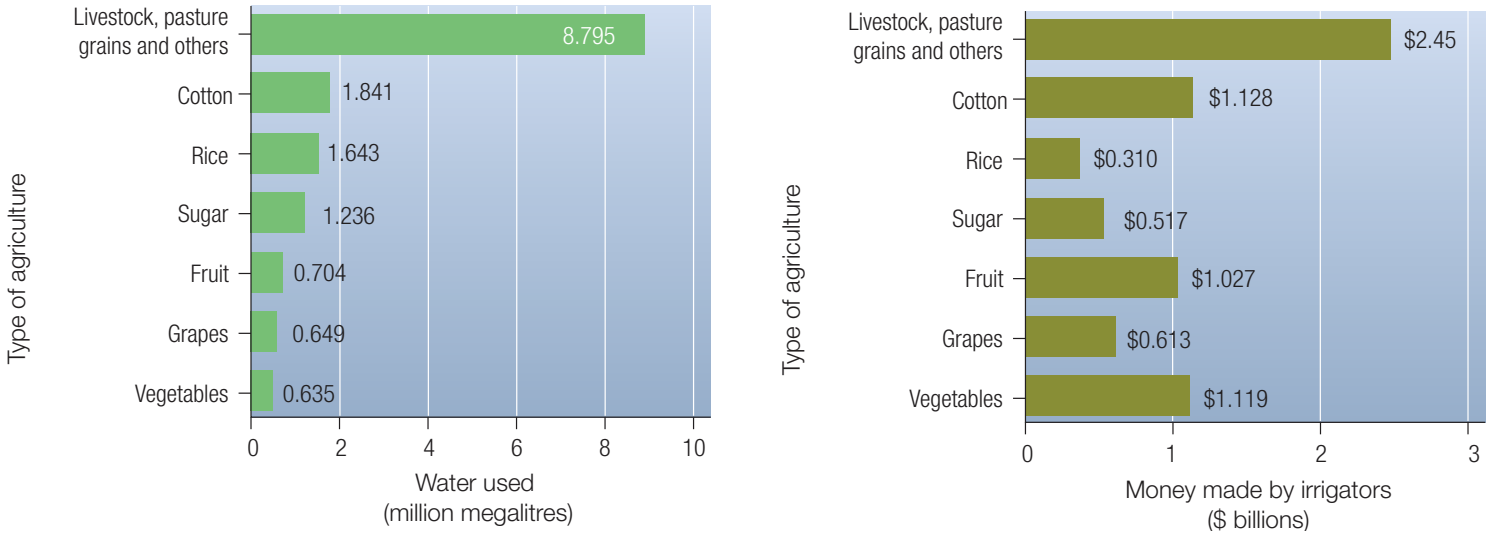


Source 1.50 Source: Oxford Atlas

Extend your understanding

Conduct some further research on rice growing in Australia and then complete the following tasks.

1. Describe and account for the relationship between rivers and rice-growing regions.
2. Compare the photograph of the rice-growing area in Java (Source 1.47) with the rice-growing region of Australia (Source 1.49). Make a list of all of the differences that you can find. Discuss with a partner why these differences occur. Consider both natural and human factors in your discussion.
3. Examine Source 1.51. What do these two graphs tell you about the relationship between rice crop profitability and water usage? What questions could you ask to assess if Australian rice growers are using water sustainably? Write a few paragraphs exploring the link between rice growing and water usage in Australia.



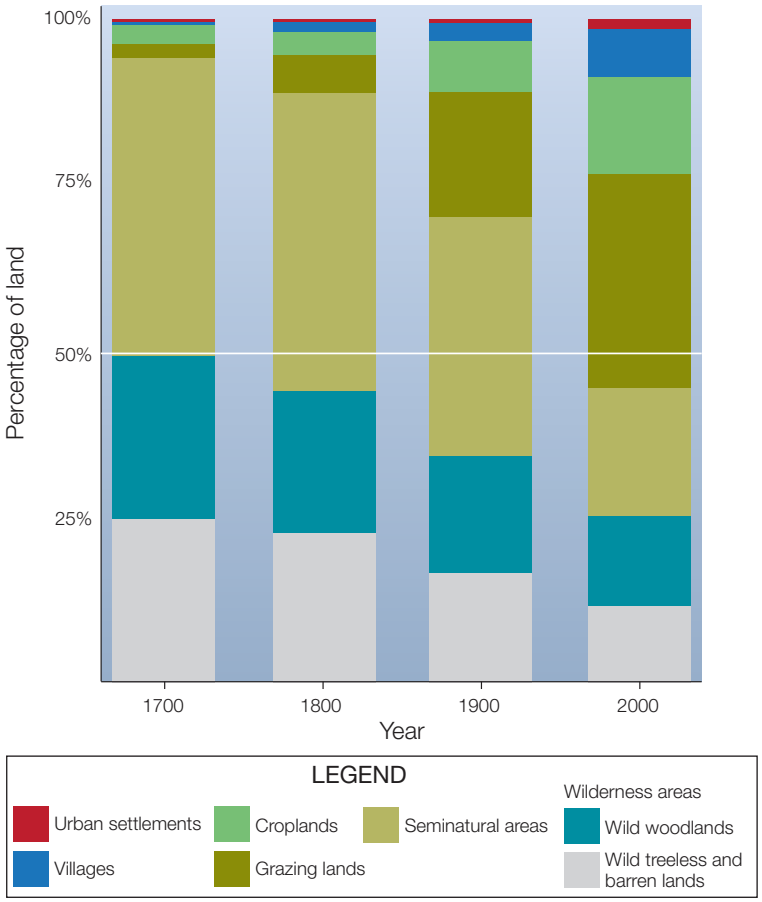
Source 1.51 Graphs showing the amount of water used for agriculture in Australia (left); and the money made from these types of agriculture (right).

1.3 What are the environmental impacts of food production?

Changes to the natural environment

The last 300 years have seen more extensive change to the Earth's biomes than in any other period in the Earth's history. Over half of the world's land area that is considered habitable has now been converted into farmland or housing to provide food, fibre, shelter and fuel to the world's people – and this area is expanding.

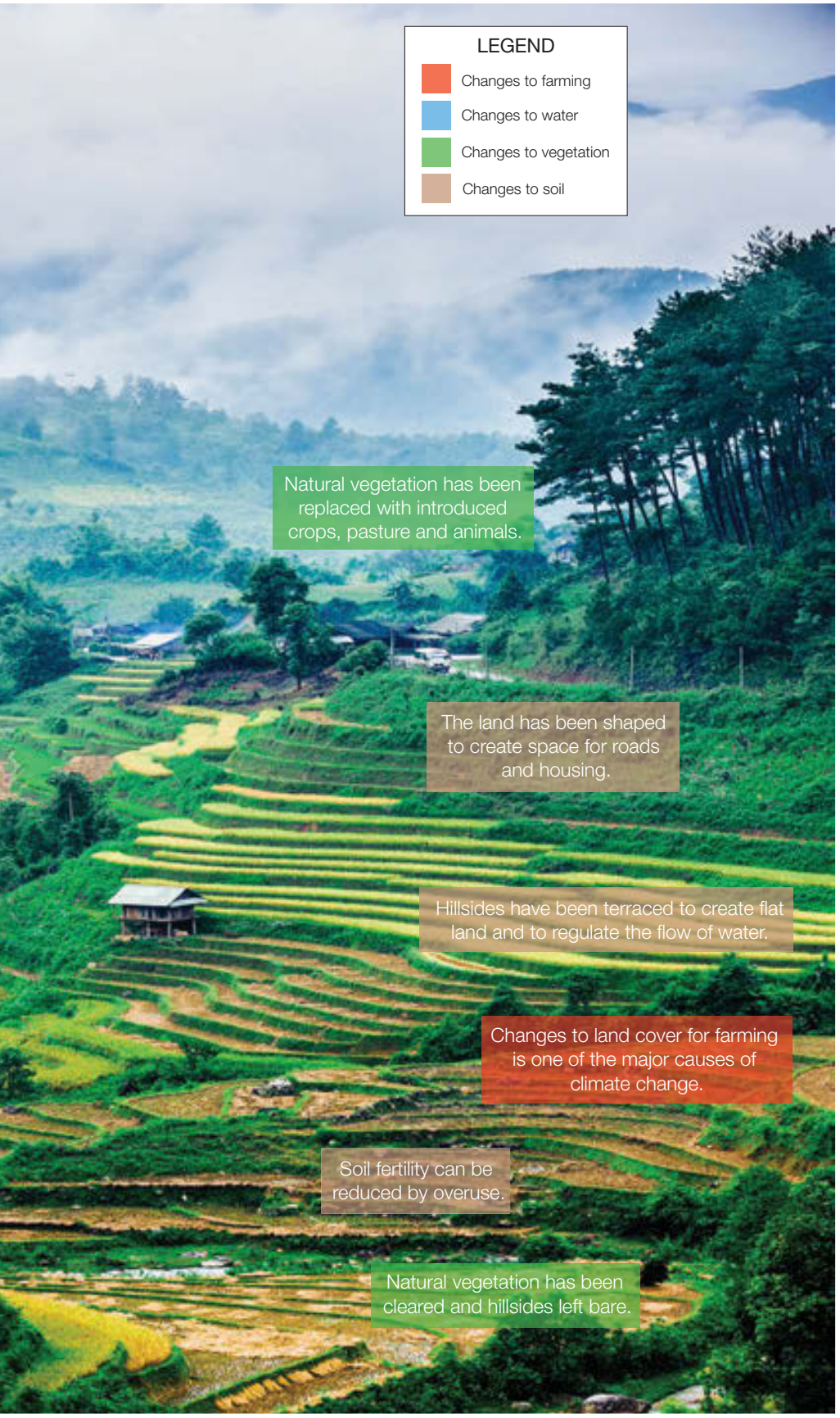
All around the world the natural biomes of forests, grasslands, tundra and even deserts are being converted into farms. In some places, large corporations are converting the land but in most places it is the work of small-scale farmers, each motivated by the need to provide food for their own families. Source 1.52 shows the extent of biome change around the world since 1700.



Source 1.52 Changing land use patterns worldwide between 1700 and 2000.



Source 1.53 Some of the changes made to a landscape in China that is being used for farming.



Check your learning 1.15

Remember and understand

1 How much of the world's habitable land area has been converted into farms?

2 Name three potentially negative impacts that farming can have on the environment.

3 List two changes made on the Chinese farm in Source 1.53 that involve altering irrigation practices.

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 1.52.

- **a** Describe the change to the amount of wilderness areas from 1700 to 2000.
- **b** Use the world biomes map (Source 1.2) to classify the wilderness areas remaining today.
- **c** Which type of land use has increased the most? Why do you think this is the case?
- **d** The labels for Source 1.53 are in four different colours. Suggest a title for each colour.

Evaluate and create

Do some further research on the Internet to complete these tasks.

5 Examine the image of a Chinese farming landscape as shown in Source 1.53. Describe the landscape as you think it would have been before people arrived in this valley.

6 The labels on this image focus on the ways in which people have changed the landscape. What are the underlying causes of these changes?

7 Compare the changes made on the farm in Source 1.53 with the technology used in Source 1.40. What differences in productivity do you think the two farms might experience?

Changing vegetation

Farmers make many changes to the natural environment in order to grow crops and raise farm animals. The greatest changes are made to the natural vegetation. Forests are cut down, burnt and replaced with a single plant species, wetlands and swamps are drained and vast areas of native grasses are replaced with crops such as wheat and rice.

Changes to forests

Around the world about five million hectares of forest is converted for agricultural use every year: an area about two-thirds the size of Tasmania. Most of this change takes place in tropical forests, particularly in South America and Africa. Few forests in regions such as North America and Australia have been converted to farmland in recent years, largely because most of the forest has already disappeared. In Australia, for example, around 50 million hectares of forests and woodland have been cleared for farming or affected by logging since European settlement began.

In the developing world, there is a strong link between **deforestation** and poverty. Millions of people who live below the poverty line and struggle to meet their daily food requirements are becoming small-scale slash-and-burn farmers. They use a machete to slash the undergrowth in forests and then set it alight to clear the land. Seeds are thrown into the warm ashes and in this way a forest has been converted into a farm. The types of farm animals that small scale farmers raise, such as goats and dogs, push deeper into nearby forest areas to forage for food. Over time as soil fertility declines, the farmers and their animals move into a new patch of forest and begin the process again. In Madagascar, for example, where 80 per cent of the population lives in poverty, only 10 per cent of the natural forest remains.



Source 1.54 A woman in Madagascar plants a food crop on a burnt hillside.

MADAGASCAR: DEFORESTATION AND POVERTY LEVELS



Source 1.55 Source: Oxford University Press

Greening the desert

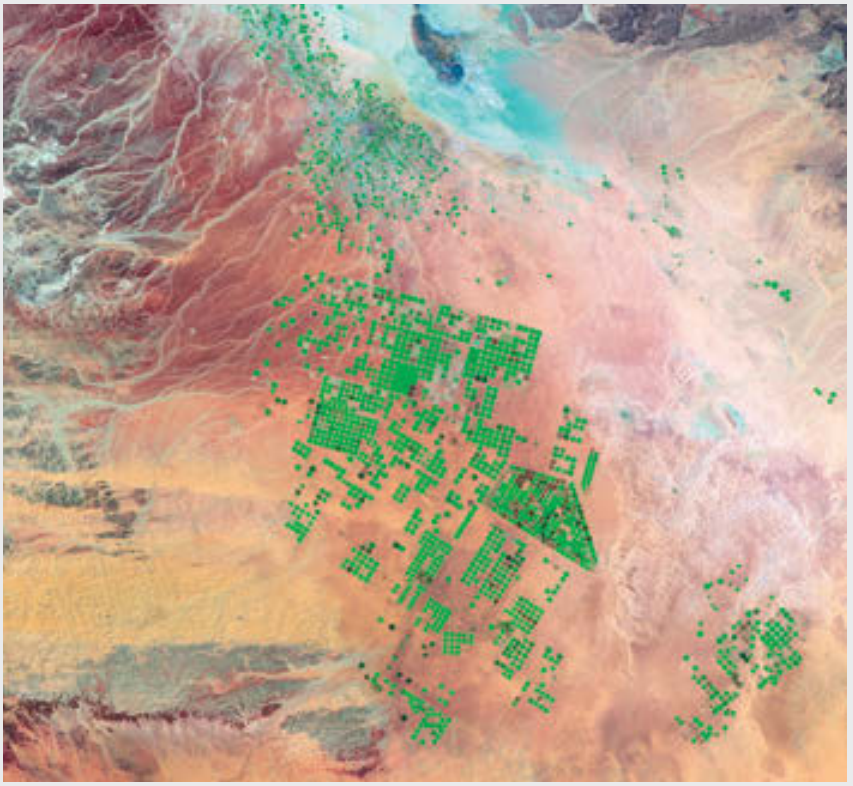
The types of changes being made to tropical rainforests and grasslands in South America and Africa for agricultural use are also being made to biomes in other parts of the world. In Saudi Arabia for example, sections of the desert have been transformed into farmland for the purpose of growing crops.

Only a few centimetres of rain fall naturally in the Saudi Arabian desert each year, but crops can still be grown there thanks to large **aquifers** deep beneath the Earth's surface. These aquifers contain water that was trapped between layers of rock during the last Ice Age. They also store water that has fallen as rain over hundreds of thousands of years.

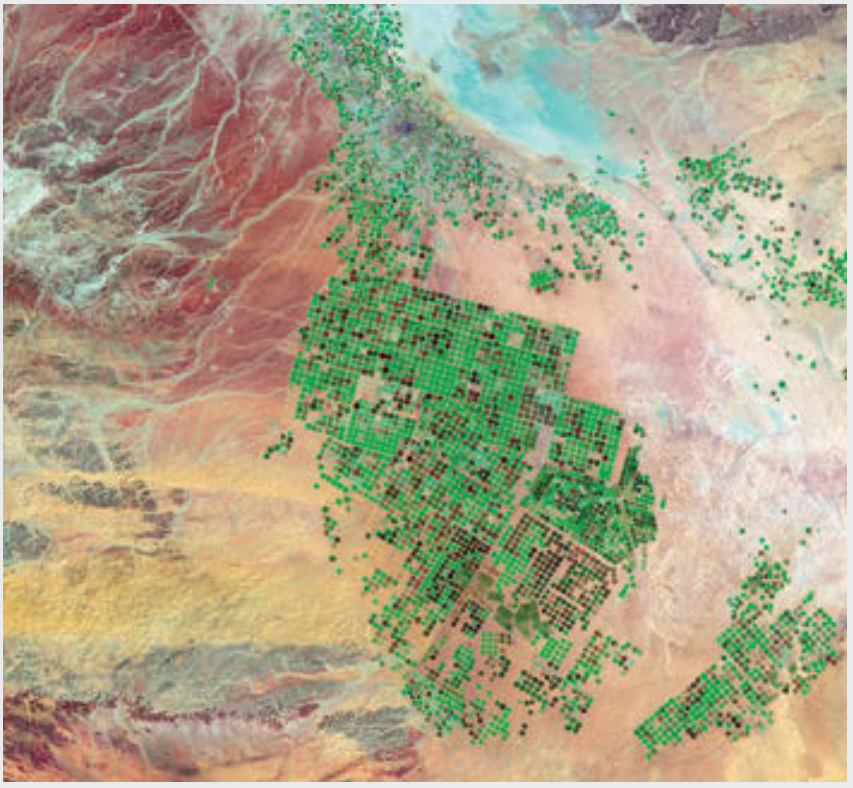
In Saudi Arabia, water is extracted from the aquifers by drilling deep into the ground under the desert floor and pumping it to the surface. Once on the surface, the water is pumped through a circular sprinkler system. This is known as centre-pivot irrigation. Sources 1.56 and 1.57 show the dramatic increase in centre-pivot irrigation in Saudi Arabia from 2000 to 2012. These satellite images show healthy vegetation in bright green, dry vegetation in orange and barren soil in pink. Each circular field shown in green is approximately one kilometre wide.

Because of the increasing rate at which water is being used, geographers and environmental scientists now believe that this type of farming has become unsustainable – both environmentally and economically. In time, supplies of water in the aquifer will become totally depleted as they are being used far more quickly than they can be replenished. The high cost associated with accessing water from the aquifers also means that crops grown in this way will soon become too expensive to buy.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability refer to section GT.1 in 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 1.56 Satellite image of the Saudi Arabian desert in 2000.



Source 1.57 Satellite image of the Saudi Arabian desert in 2012.

Changes to grasslands

Because the world's most important food crops – rice, wheat and corn – are grasses, they grow best in the world's grasslands biome. However, clearing of native grasses to plant these crops can have, devastating effects on the natural environment. Across much of Australia, North and South America, Asia and Africa, native grasses have been cleared and replaced by these three crops to provide food.

This farming then has a further impact on the biome. Because the rice, wheat and corn crops are harvested for human consumption, none of the nutrients from the plant material are returned to the soil. As a result, the soil fertility falls. This means farmers need to add chemical fertilisers to the soil, which further changes its composition. This can impact on the ability of the soil to hold water and can pollute waterways and coasts. Pesticides used to control weeds and insects also pollute the air, soil and water and may kill native plants and animals. Exposed soil becomes vulnerable to erosion by wind and rain and is washed away. Clearing of native grasses to make way for farming has many flow-on effects.



Source 1.58 Fields of wheat have replaced native grasslands across much of central USA.

Source 1.59 Conversion of the world's natural grasslands.

Case study regions	Existing grasslands (% of natural cover)	Estimated conversion of natural grasslands (%)		
		Crops	Cities	Other
North American prairie	9.4	71.2	18.7	0.7
South American savanna	21	71	5	3
Asian steppe	71.7	19.9	1.5	6.9
Sub-Saharan African grasslands	73.3	19.1	0.4	7.2
South-west Australian grasslands	56.7	37.2	1.8	4.3

Check your learning 1.16

Remember and understand

1 Describe the link between poverty and deforestation in your own words.

2 Is the scene in Source 1.58 a natural or human environment? Give evidence from the source for your answer.

Apply and analyse

3 Carefully examine Source 1.54.
- a List the changes that you can see to the soil, vegetation and water that have taken place in this environment.
- b Add changes that are likely to have occurred that you cannot see.
- c Why has this farmer made these changes to the landscape? What are her likely motivations? Compare these to the likely motivations of the farmer who has changed the grasslands environment shown in Source 1.58.
- d Examine Source 1.55. Describe the variations in forest cover between regions of low poverty and regions of high poverty.

4 Examine Source 1.58.
- a What is the most common land use that replaces grasslands around the world?
- b Which region has converted the most grassland? Suggest a reason for this.

Evaluate and create

5 Use an ICT chart tool such as Microsoft Excel to construct pie graphs for the conversion of grasslands in Australia, North America and Sub-Saharan Africa. Describe the differences between these three regions as shown in your completed pie graphs.

Changing water

Water is one of our most important resources, and agriculture is by far the greatest consumer of water around the world. About 70 per cent of the available water supply is used for agriculture, mostly for irrigation. Once water has been used to grow crops and given to animals to drink, it is, of course, returned to the environment. However, the farming process can change the quality of the water significantly, making it unsuitable for other uses and for the natural environment.

Water pollution from farming

The water that is used on farms eventually flows through soil and rocks into nearby streams and rivers. Bare soil that is not protected by plants and held together by their roots can be washed away in the process, causing streams to become so cloudy that sunlight cannot reach the stream bed. This often kills many aquatic plants and animals.

Fertilisers such as nitrogen, phosphorus and animal manure can also end up in lakes and rivers, causing algae to grow out of control. This starves the water of oxygen and creates 'dead zones' in the water. Upon entering water sources, pesticides used in farming to control insects and weeds can poison fish and native animals, as well as killing the plants that create their habitats.



Source 1.60 This Filipino farmer is spraying his rice crop with a pesticide to control insect pests. His fields drain into Laguna Bay, which is one of the world's most polluted water bodies and also home to a large freshwater fishing industry.

Changing natural water flows

In many places, rivers are dammed to create a large reservoir of water which can be used for irrigation. In the last 50 years the amount of water held in dams has quadrupled and the volume of water taken from rivers and lakes has doubled. Most of this water is used for farming. The reduced volume of water in the rivers creates major problems for the natural environment and for downstream users. In the lakes near the mouth of Australia's Murray River, for example, the water can be five times saltier than the sea partly because so much water has been extracted for farming that the river cannot flush out the naturally occurring salt.

Check your learning 1.17

Remember and understand

1 How might the farmer shown in Source 1.60 impact on the quality of fresh water?

2 How can fertilisers that are used on a farm eventually reach and kill fish?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Sources 1.56 and 1.57.

- **a** Each of the agricultural fields in these images is about 800 metres squared in area. Estimate the area covered in 2000 and in 2012.
- **b** What impact will this change have over time on the volume of underground water in this region?
- **c** Can you think of the environmental impacts that would result from irrigating using water that has been extracted from under the ground?

Evaluate and create

4 Draw a sketch of a river flowing through a farming region. On your sketch show five different ways in which the farms impact on the quality or quantity of water in the river.

5 Discuss some ways in which the impacts shown on your sketch could be reduced.

Wearing out the soil



Source 1.61 The most highly erosion-prone soil in the world is said to be found at China's Loess Plateau.

In many places around the world, soils are being degraded to such an extent that the amount of food that can be grown is in decline. It is estimated that about two billion hectares of land have been affected in this way, an area that is home to about one-fifth of the world's population. **Soil degradation** occurs because human activities impact on the soil's ability to support plants and animals. These activities include clearing forests to make way for farms and towns, increasing the numbers and density of farm animals, poor irrigation practices and overfarming growing so many crops that the natural nutrients of the soil are removed and not replaced.

Soil degradation takes many forms. At its worst, the soil is broken down and washed away (see Source 1.61). It is estimated that 75 billion tonnes of fertile soil is lost this way each year. This is largely as a result of forest clearing that allows fragile soils, particularly on sloping land, to be attacked directly by heavy rain. Without the roots of forest plants that help bind the soil together, soil is washed away. In other places, nutrients in the soil such as nitrogen and potassium have become so depleted that the soil lies barren, unable to support plant life.

In Australia, soil degradation often takes the form of **salinity**. Salinity is a condition where the amount of salt causes problems in the soil, and impacts on the environment. There are two types of soil salinity:

- primary salinity, which is a natural condition that develops in the landscape over time,
- secondary salinity, which is caused by human impact.

Human impact is related to the irrigation of soil to grow crops. Salts in the irrigation water are left in the soil, and eventually the soil becomes too salty for plant life to survive. Secondary salinity also occurs when trees that have deep roots are removed by humans to make way for crops with short roots. Salt held in the **water table** is then able to move up to the soil's surface, killing virtually all plant life. Approximately 2 million hectares of Australian farming land is degraded in this way (see Source 1.62).

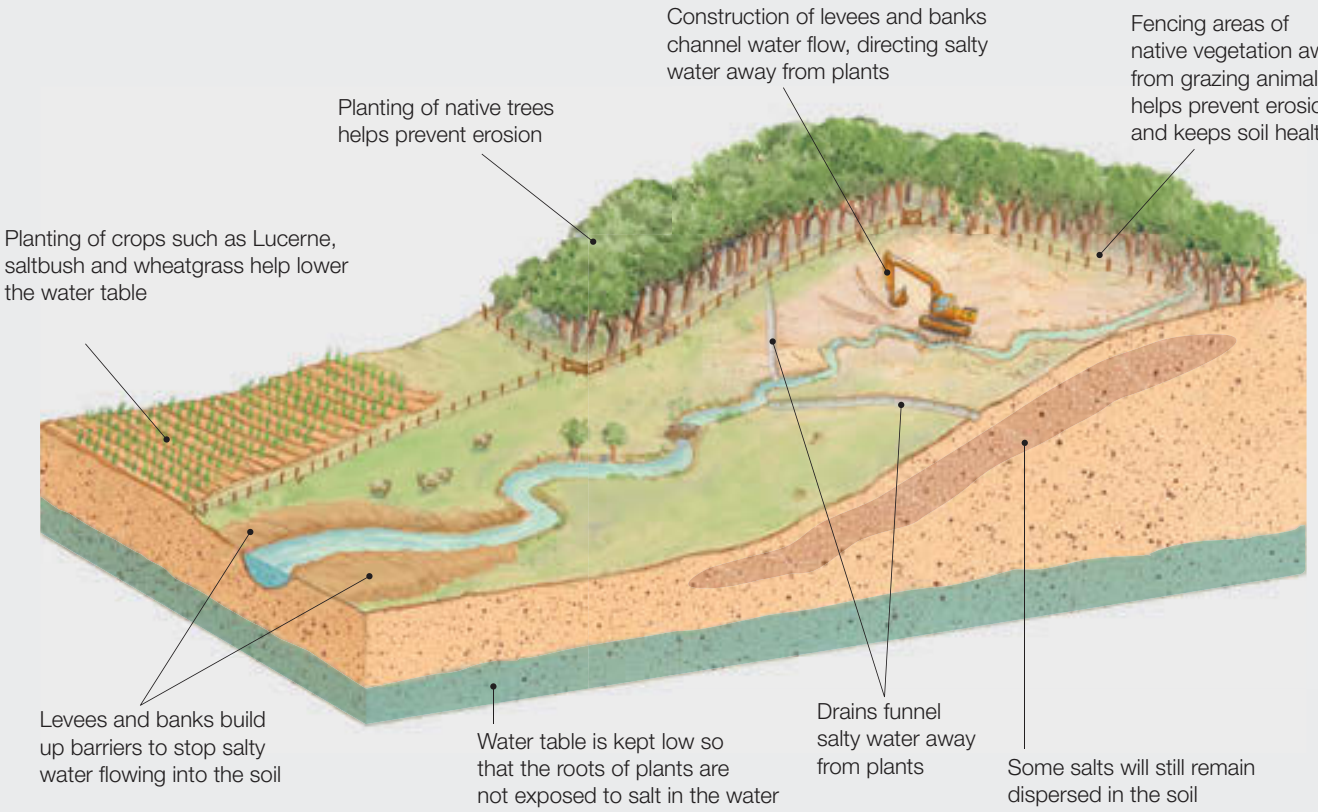


Source 1.62 Soil salinity near Renmark, South Australia

Managing salinity

Many Australian farmers, particularly in Western Australia, have responded to the threat of soil salinity by changing the ways in which they farm the land. Some of these changes have been more successful than others but all are designed to use the soil in a more sustainable way. Source 1.63 shows some of the strategies used by farmers to combat soil salinity. The most successful strategy used so far appears to be lowering the level of the water table which keeps salt in the water away from plants.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 1.63 A range of responses and strategies can be used to tackle salinity.

Check your learning 1.18

Remember and understand

1 What is salinity? Why is it considered to be a cause of soil degredation?

2 How does forest clearing lead to soil degradation?

Apply and analyse

3 How has the farmer in Source 1.63 managed salinity on his farm?

4 Select one of his strategies and comment on its potential effectiveness.

5 Examine Source 1.61 showing soil erosion in Northern China.

a What evidence is there that this is a farming area?

b How has farming changed the soils in this place?

c Compare this image to the image of rice terraces seen in Source 1.47. Both these areas have been farmed in the same way but one has experienced soil erosion while one has not. Brainstorm the possible reasons for these differing outcomes.

Evaluate and create

6 The eroded soil in Source 1.61 was once some of the most fertile soil in the world. Describe and sketch a system that would help to slow or reverse soil erosion in this place.

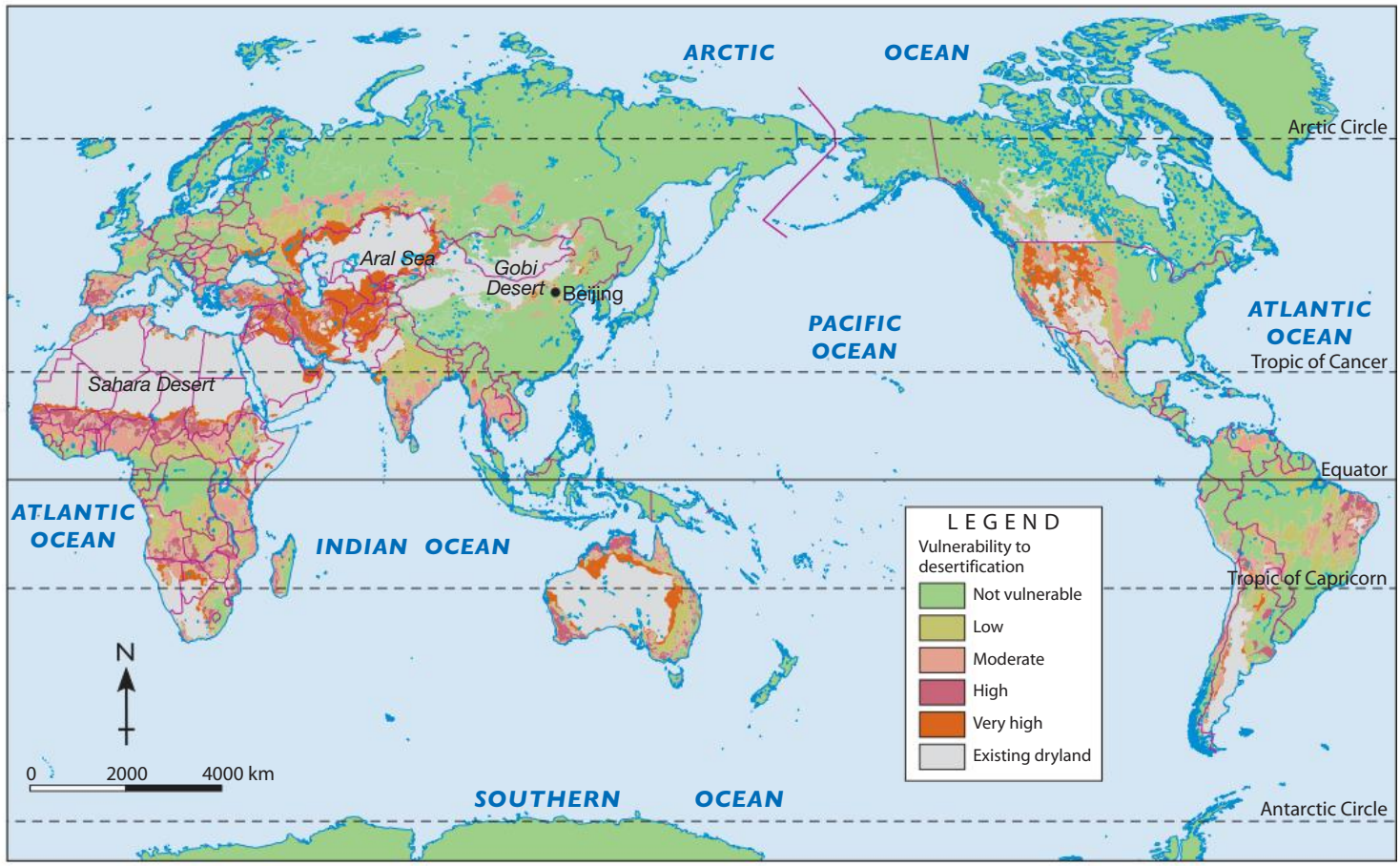
Spreading deserts

The **food security** of people who live in the world's dryland areas is under threat from a process known as **desertification**. As a result of desertification, once-productive land has become too infertile, too salty or too heavily eroded to continue to support the way of life previously experienced in those areas. According to the research by the United Nations Desertification Convention released in 2013, there are currently 168 countries at risk from desertification.

There are many human activities that can lead to desertification but they are all related to the overuse of the land and water in vulnerable regions. This includes overgrazing by animals such as cattle and goats, the removal of forest cover, the use of trees and shrubs for firewood, extracting water from the ground, poor irrigation practices and growing crops on marginal farming land (land which is difficult to cultivate). Natural factors including drought can also contribute to desertification.

The United Nations currently estimates that the food security of about 250 million people around the world is directly affected by desertification. They believe that the food security of a further one billion is also threatened. There are many effects of desertification: sandstorms, crop losses, famine, environmental refugees and conflict are all direct or indirect results of desertification. About 12 million hectares of land are lost every year to desertification, which is about twice the size of Tasmania. It is estimated that this results in an annual loss of 20 million tons of grain. Most of this occurs in developing regions in Central Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, further contributing to food insecurity in those regions.

WORLD: DESERTIFICATION VULNERABILITY



Source 1.64

Source: Oxford University Press

key**concept:** environment

The Green Wall of China

Over the next few decades, the Chinese government has plans to plant over one billion trees in an attempt to halt the advance of the Gobi desert over productive farmland across vast areas of China. Nicknamed the Green Wall of China, this line of trees is expected to extend for 4480 kilometres and cover 4 million square kilometres on the desert margins.

Despite some local success stories, not all experts are convinced the wall will halt desertification. In fact, some geographers argue that it may even add to desertification, over the longer term as the trees require large amounts of water to help them grow.

For more information on the key concept of environment, refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 1.65 A line of trees on the edge of the Gobi Desert in China helps to protect crops from being covered in sand.

Check your learning 1.19

Remember and understand

1. What is desertification? What are some of the direct and indirect results of desertification?
2. Name three human activities that can lead to desertification.
3. How does desertification lead to food insecurity?

Apply and analyse

4. Using Source 1.64, describe the global pattern of desertification. Ensure you name specific countries, regions and continents in your description.
5. What is the spatial association between existing dry lands and areas vulnerable to desertification? Explain why this spatial association exists.
6. How do you think desertification may lead to wars between countries or civil conflicts within countries?

Evaluate and create

7. In what ways might climate change be a leading cause of desertification in some regions of the world?
8. How effective do you believe the line of trees shown in Source 1.65 will be in stopping the advancing sand dunes of the Gobi Desert? Give some reasons for your answer.

1.3 big**ideas:** broadsheet

The environmental impact of changing diets

The diets of many people around the world is changing and this is having significant impacts on the environment. As the wealth and wellbeing of people in countries such as China and India increases, the diets of people in those countries is gradually changing. With greater wealth, many people in India and China are moving from a diet based almost entirely on grains and plants to a diet with more protein from meat and dairy products. Food production industries are also changing to meet this new and growing demand.



Source 1.66 A new KFC store opens in China at the rate of about one per day.

skill**drill**

Analysing secondary geographical data and drawing conclusions

It is important for geographers to be able to correctly interpret data that has been collected and represented by other people. They often need to use secondary data sources to draw conclusions about what they have found. By following these steps you will learn to interpret a range of secondary data sources (e.g. graphs, tables, reports) and use it to reach conclusions about your investigation.

Step 1 Once you have gathered a range of secondary data sources for your investigation, look at each source carefully.

Step 2 For each source of information, write down two or three key facts that are presented.

Step 3 Try to summarise the key focus of each data source in one or two sentences. Identify any patterns or exceptions that you notice.

Step 4 Pay particular attention to the title, the date of the data and its source. Is the information contained in the source already dated, is it still relevant, or is it commenting on a situation or place at a particular point in time?

Step 5 Remember to check the information on graphs carefully. Pay particular attention to ranges of figures and make sure that you understand the classifications. Are things being measured in kilograms or tonnes, for example? If the figures in one source are in kilograms and in tonnes in another, you will need to convert the figures to the same units of measurement in order to understand and compare them.

Step 6 Remember to think about bias – ask why the author has written the piece of information. Are they trying to influence opinion on an issue? Are you getting the complete picture? Try to find a range of sources on the same subject to ensure you have the most complete data available.

Step 7 Compare the facts and figures you have summarised. It may be helpful to use the PQE method to do this.

Step 8 Use your notes to reach your own conclusion about the key question or issue that you are exploring. Support your conclusion with information from the data.

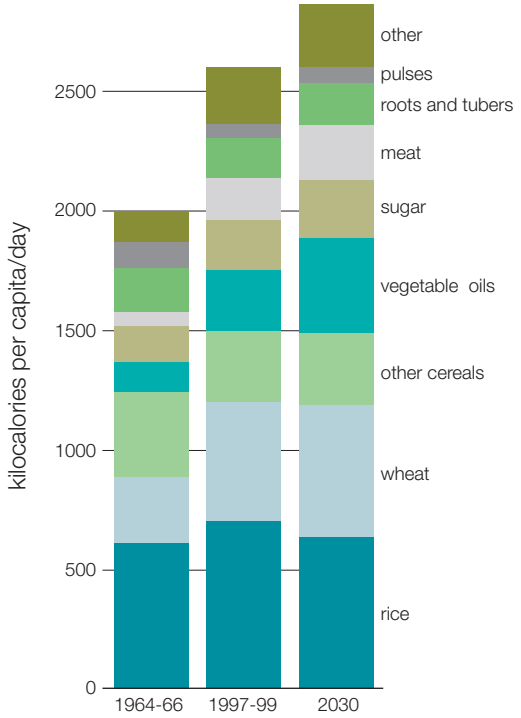
Step 9 Present your conclusion to an audience. This may be done verbally, graphically or in a written form. Whatever form you choose, make sure you use the evidence you have gathered to support your conclusion.

Apply the skill

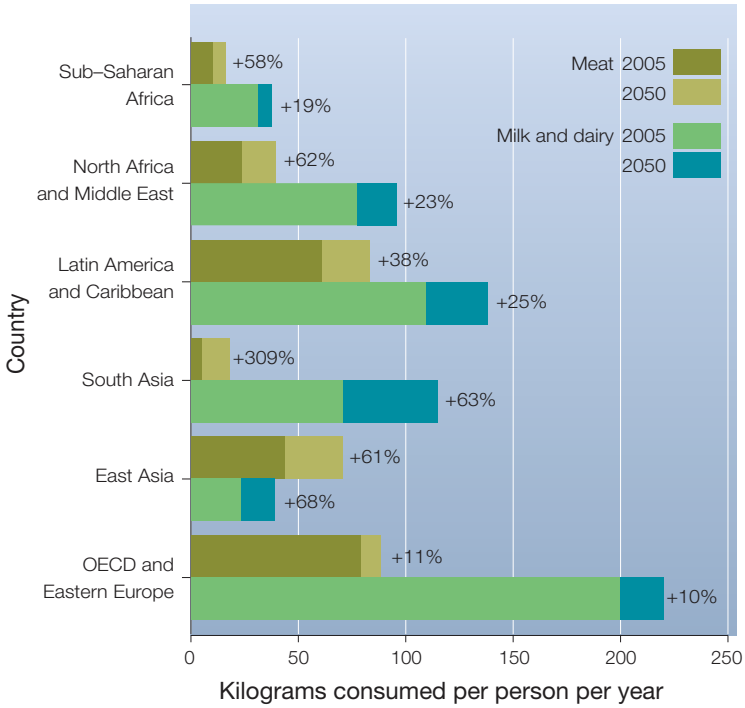
1 Examine the information presented in Sources 1.67, 1.68 and 1.69 and follow steps provided to draw a conclusion about the environmental impact of changing diets.

2 Which information best supports your conclusion?

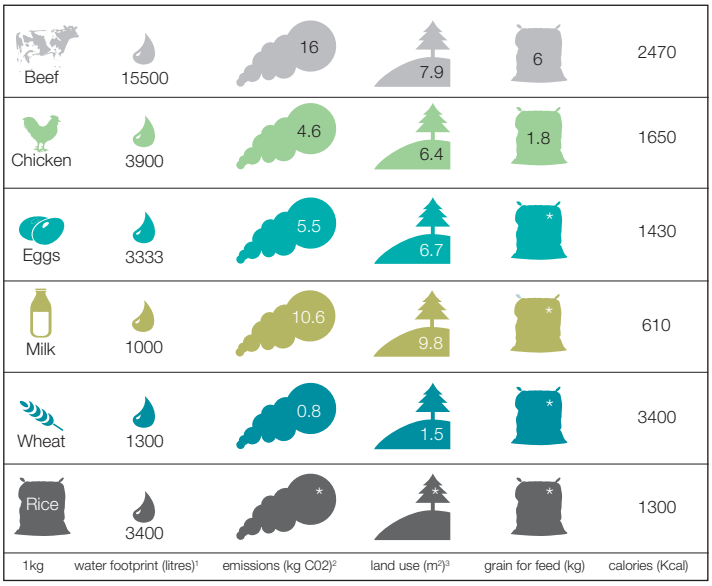
3 What other information would you need to further support your conclusion and where could you find this information?



Source 1.67 A compound column graph showing observed and predicted changes in the human diet between 1964 and 2030.
Source: http://www.unep.org/pdf/foodcrisis_lores.pdf



Source 1.69 Projected changes in meat and dairy consumption from 2005 to 2050.
Source: http://ccafs.cgiar.org/bigfacts/dietary-change/



Source 1.68 The ecological footprint of different food types

Extend your understanding

1 Use the information presented here to suggest ways in which people in developed countries such as Australia could reduce the environmental impacts of their diets.

2 Design an advertising campaign to communicate your findings to the Australian public.

Here are some facts you might consider:

- Meat consumption is expected to increase from 39 kg/person/year in 2009 to over 52 kg/person/year by 2050 (FAO, 2006).
- By 2050 50% of cereal grown may be used to feed animals for human consumption (UN report, 2011).
- Currently, 33 per cent of total farming land is used for producing animal feed (UN report, 2011).
- The production of animal protein must be more than tripled if the projected global population of 9 billion people in 2050 were to consume meat and dairy at current North American and European levels (Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research report, 2012).
- Today, the number of urban residents is growing by nearly 60 million every year. By 2050, the urban population will almost double to 6.4 billion people. Almost all urban population growth in the next 30 years will occur in cities of developing countries (World Health Organisation, 2013).

Source: Oxford University Press

Food security: Feeding a hungry world



Compared with people living in many countries around the world, most Australians have very reliable access to a wide variety of different foods. High wages and a strong economy mean that many Australians can afford to purchase and prepare the food they need and rarely worry about where their next meal is coming from.

Unlike people in Australia, these Somali women are waiting in line to receive food from a local aid organisation in their country's capital city, Mogadishu. They are victims of a food shortage that affected 10 million people in African nations in 2011–2012. A widespread shortage of food such as this is known as a famine and can be caused by many factors including drought and war. Food experts are warning that famines are likely to become more severe and widespread as the Earth's climate changes and the human population continues to grow. Some argue that food security is the greatest single issue facing the world today.

2.1

What is food security?

1 Make a list of the different things you have eaten in the last 24 hours.

2 How different do you think your list would look compared with one of the women shown in Source 2.1?

2.2

What are the main threats to food security?

1 Brainstorm some of the ways in which food security is threatened around the world, including in Australia.

2 Some areas of the world, such as the Horn of Africa, are more at risk of famine than other places. Why do you think this is the case?



Source 2.1 These people are victims of the famine in the Horn of Africa. Drought, conflict and restrictions on delivery of food aid caused the famine – one of the world's biggest humanitarian emergencies – in 2011–2012.

2.3

How can we improve food security?

1 What is being done in Somalia to improve the food security of people affected by famine?

2 The United Nations has set the target of halving hunger by 2015. Do you think this is possible? Give some reasons for your answer.

2.1 What is food security?

Food security

Food security is a state where all people at all times have access to enough safe, nutritious food to sustain a healthy life. For a person, community or country to have a secure food supply they must have three things:

- **food availability**
- **food accessibility**
- **the ability and resources to use the food appropriately.**

People who do not have food security suffer from hunger and illnesses related to lack of food, such as malnutrition. About 870 million people around the world do not have food security – the majority of them live in developing countries.

Food availability

Food availability means people have enough food of appropriate quality available on a consistent basis. This may include production, storage, distribution and exchange of foodstuffs, provided reliably and regularly. People whose food availability relies solely on the production of a single crop, for example, may find themselves at great risk of food insecurity if that crop fails.

Many countries have strategies in place, such as growing a variety of crops, to maximise their food availability and ensure food security. Management of fishing and fishing industries is also used by some communities to ensure a constant supply of fish is available to sustain them. Food availability alone, however, does not guarantee food security.

Food accessibility

Food accessibility means physical and economic access to food. That is, there needs to be enough food available and it must be in reach of those who need it. Many food researchers believe that the world's farmers produce more than enough food to meet the needs of every person on Earth. However, the food is not distributed evenly. **Developed countries** have more food than they need and high levels of wastage, while many people in **developing countries** struggle to access enough food to meet their daily needs. The reasons for this uneven distribution are many and complex. They include social, political and economic factors, such as rising prices, trade agreements and quotas set up between countries.



Source 2.2 In many coastal communities in Arnhem Land, the ocean provides food security. Local knowledge ensures the catch will be prepared in a safe and appropriate way.



Source 2.3 Australia is a country that has a high level of food accessibility – many people enjoy good access to a wide variety of food.



Source 2.4 Deep fried scorpions ready for sale at a Beijing street market.

Using food appropriately

Appropriate use of food means using food safely and applying knowledge about nutrition, clean water and sanitation when preparing food.

What is appropriate use of food varies between different places and cultures. What is appropriate and usual to eat in one part of the world might be viewed as unusual somewhere else. In many Asian countries, for example, insects and other invertebrates such as scorpions and spiders are regularly eaten as part of a balanced diet. (See Source 2.4) Local cultural knowledge means these insects are prepared properly, making them safe to eat and nutritious. This is an example of appropriate use of food. Knowing how to use such foods appropriately could potentially stave off the incidence of food insecurity. In fact, the United Nations has identified insects as the 'forgotten food crop' as they could help alleviate food insecurity, particularly in developing countries.

Check your learning 2.1

Remember and understand

1 What are the three factors that contribute to food security?

2 Describe and explain food security in Australia with reference to these three factors.

Apply and analyse

3 Where does most of your food come from? How would your answer differ if you lived in another country, for example, Vietnam? Explain the reasons for your answer.

4 Quentin, the boy in Source 2.2, shows that he has food availability and food accessibility. To have food security he now has to use the food appropriately and prepare it ready for eating. Do you know how to prepare his food? Do you think that he does? What does this tell you about food security?

Evaluate and create

5 Find images of foods from around the world and display them on your classroom wall. Use your examples to explain why food preferences and food security differ between places and cultures.

6 It is estimated that about 870 million people suffer from hunger due to poor food security. Of the three factors that contribute to food security which do you believe is most important? Discuss your thoughts with a partner and then share your thoughts with the class.

Levels of food security in different places

People living in different parts of the world experience different levels of food security. People in developed countries including North America, Western Europe and Australia, for example, generally have very high levels of food security. Food is available, accessible and appropriate to a high proportion of the population in these places. At the other end of the scale, many people in developing countries, particularly throughout Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, do not have food security.

Forces impacting on food security

Poverty and food insecurity are closely linked. Individuals who suffer from poverty struggle to meet their basic daily food needs and spend a greater percentage of their income on food than those in wealthier countries. This makes them highly vulnerable to forces that change the availability and accessibility of food. If the price of food suddenly increases, for example, food which they could previously afford becomes unaffordable.

Other forces that can impact severely on those who do not have food security include natural disasters, such as drought or flood. Many people in poor areas rely on local agriculture for food, so food sources can be left damaged or destroyed following natural disasters. Human activities can also affect food security in many places. Armed conflicts may interrupt usual markets and food supply lines, or land used for growing crops may be repurposed for other uses, which results in local food supplies being affected. Those without food security are much more vulnerable to change that is caused by outside forces.



Source 2.5 The people of Zimbabwe in Southern Africa have one of the lowest levels of food security. This girl is scavenging for food in a rubbish dump near the capital, Harare.



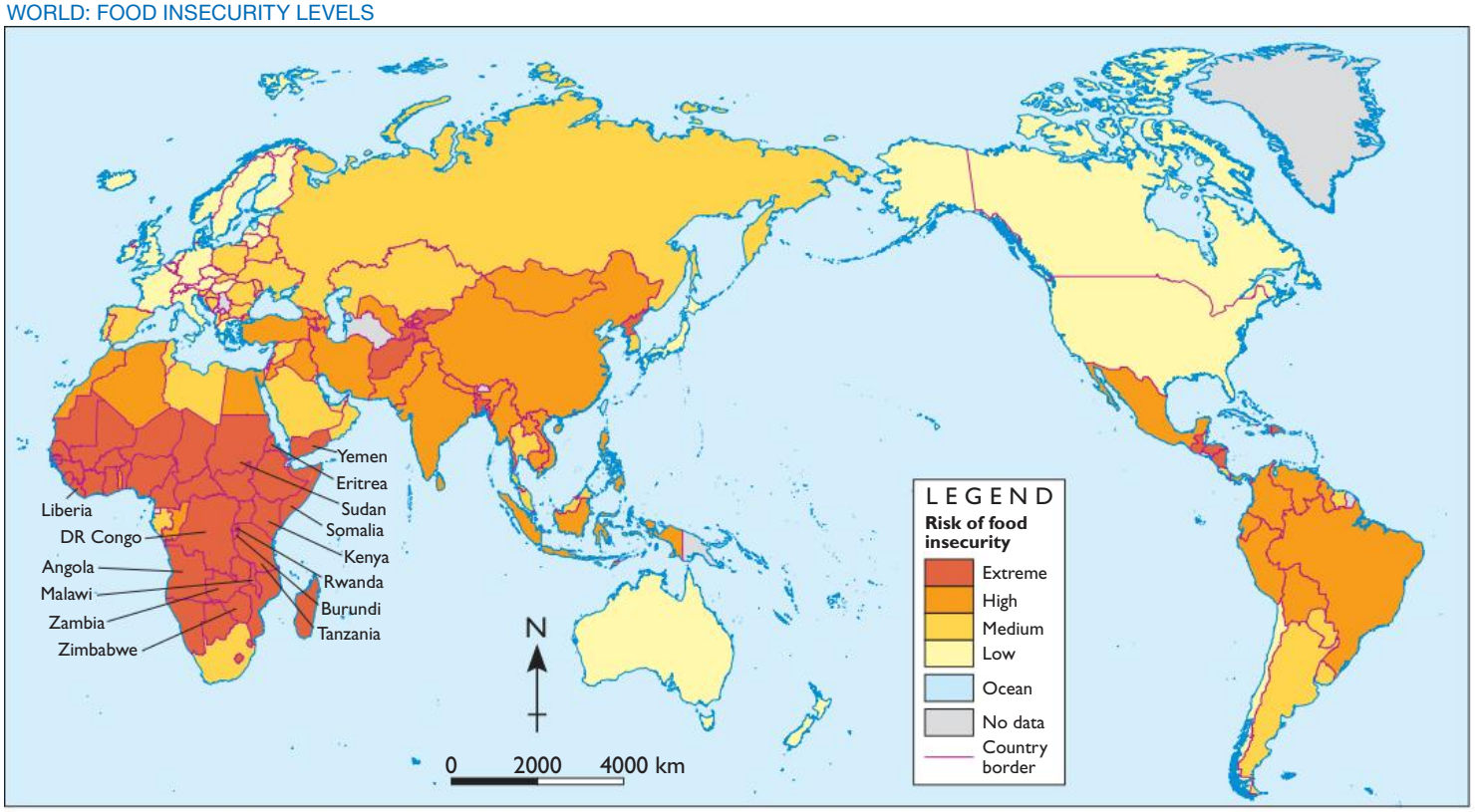
Source 2.6 One of the most food-secure nations in the world is the United States, where the majority of people have access to a reliable, safe and nutritious food supply.

Global patterns of food security

Source 2.7 shows the global pattern of food security and insecurity. Scores for each country were calculated using 18 different indicators, including the nutrition and health status of the population, the availability of food staples such as rice, wheat and corn, and access to these foods. Countries were then grouped into four categories according to their risk of experiencing widespread food insecurity.

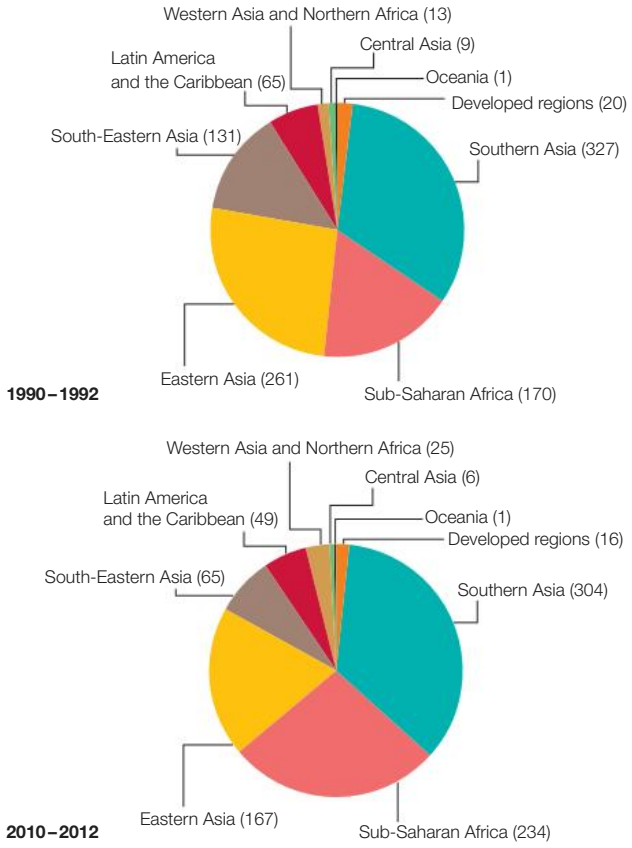
The global distribution of food security is not static. The number of **undernourished** people in the world, for example, has fallen by more than 130 million in the last 20 years, despite the world's population growing by more than 1.5 billion in the same period. The distribution of undernourished people in the world has also changed (see Source 2.8).

WORLD: FOOD INSECURITY LEVELS



Source 2.7

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 2.8 The distribution of hunger in the world is changing. These charts show the number of undernourished by region, 1990–1992 and 2010–2012, in millions.

Check your learning 2.2

Remember and understand

1 How are poverty and food insecurity linked?

2 Compare the food security of the two individuals shown in Sources 2.5 and 2.6. Comment on the food availability, accessibility and appropriateness for each of these people.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.8 which shows the 1990–1992 distribution of undernourished people in various parts of the world compared with the 2010–2012 distribution.
   - a What has happened to the overall number of undernourished people over the past 20 years?
   - b Which regions have seen an overall increase of undernourished people?
   - c Is this change reflected in Source 2.7?

4 Describe the distribution of global food insecurity using the PQE method (for more information on the PQE method, refer to section GT.2 in 'The geographer's toolkit').

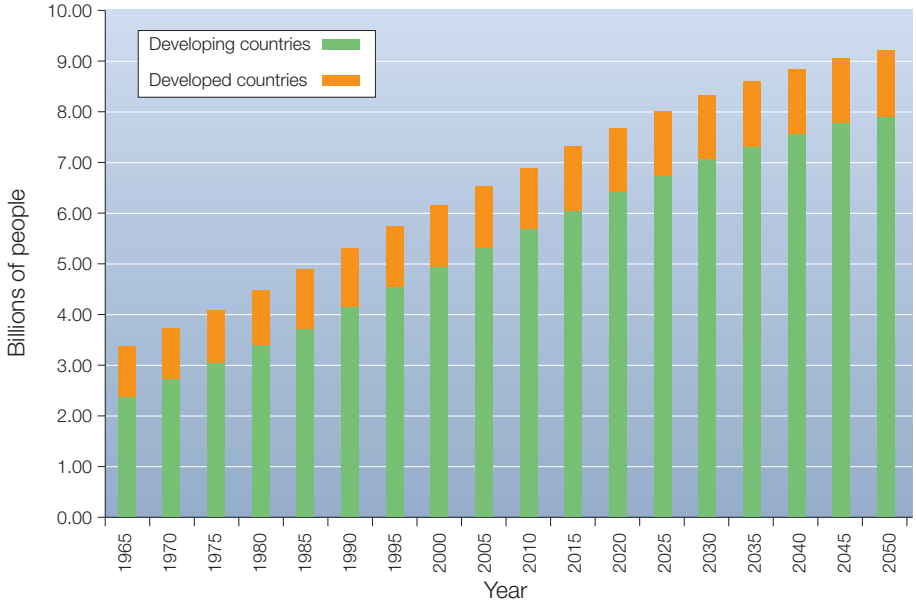
5 Discuss the factors that may be responsible for the pattern you have described.

6 Australia is described as having a low risk of experiencing food insecurity. Why do you think this is the case?

Food security into the future



Source 2.9 Will the world's growing population mean there will less food security in the future?



Source 2.10 Population growth in developing and developed countries, 1965–2050.

The world's population increases by about 200 000 people per day. At this rate, food will need to be grown to feed an extra 2.5 billion people by 2050. Virtually all of this population growth will occur in developing countries (see Source 2.10) where much of the population already struggles to meet their daily food requirements. Asia's population will increase by more than 1 billion by 2050 and Africa's population is projected to increase by 1.3 billion. Food experts estimate that global food production will need to increase by about 70 per cent by 2050 to meet the food requirements of the growing population.

There are two schools of thought regarding the impacts of population growth on food security:

1. Some researchers believe that the world's population is growing faster than the world's farmers are able to feed it. The result will be widespread food insecurity, starvation and famine. Those who support this scenario point to the degradation of existing agricultural resources such as fresh water and soil. They also point out that most of the population growth is occurring in areas already at risk of food insecurity, such as parts of Africa.
2. Other researchers are more optimistic. They point out that food production over the last few centuries has largely kept pace with (and even exceeded) population growth. This has been largely due to the use of new technologies, referred to as the Green Revolution (see Source 2.11). They also focus on the slight slowing of the world's population growth rate in the last few years and the ability of humans to adapt to changing situations through research and innovation. Many believe that new developments in **genetic modification** of plants, for example, hold the key to increasing farming productivity and crop yields in the future.

key**concept:** environment

The Green Revolution

The Green Revolution refers to sweeping and widespread changes that occurred in farming regions across the world over the period 1950 to 1979. Beginning in Mexico and spreading through North America and much of Asia, these changes brought food security to hundreds of millions of people. The key changes were:

- the development and planting of new and improved varieties of grains, including wheat and rice, that produced much higher yields
- the widespread use of fertilisers and pesticides to increase farm productivity
- the adoption of mechanical vehicles and systems, such as tractors, pumps, sprays and irrigation systems.

As these and other related changes swept through countries such as India and China, many farming practices changed from small, **subsistence farms** to larger, more efficient farms. Although the Green Revolution has its critics, it is important to note that many of the African countries most at risk of food insecurity have yet to adopt many aspects of the revolution.

For more information on the key concept of environment refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 2.11 Farm workers in the Punjab region of India use a tractor to pull a load of grain. Part of the Green Revolution in India has been the introduction of high-yielding seed varieties, such as wheat, to encourage self-sufficient farming.

Check your learning 2.3

Remember and understand

1 What was the Green Revolution? What were the key changes it introduced?
2 How could the Green Revolution help to increase food security in Africa?
3 By what number is the world's population increasing each day?
4 By the year 2050, by how much do food experts estimate food production will need to increase to feed the world's population?

Apply and analyse

5 Examine Source 2.10 and answer these questions.
   a What evidence is there that the most population growth is occurring in developing countries?
   b Why is this important when considering global food security in the future?
6 List the arguments for and against the theory that there will be increasing food insecurity due to population growth. Which arguments and evidence do you believe have the most solid basis? Give some reasons for your response.

Evaluate and create

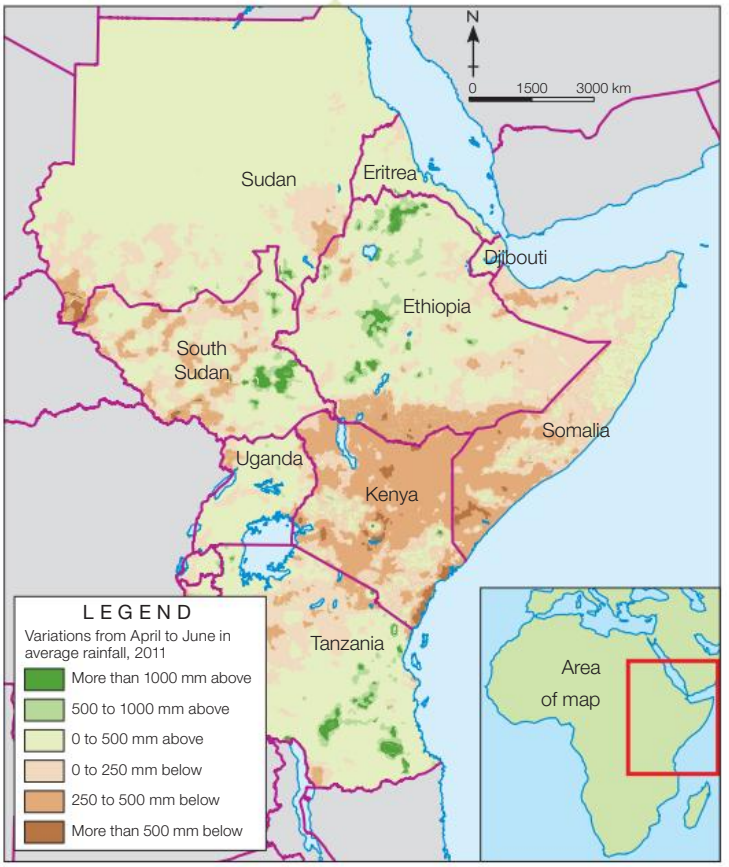
7 While there are many supporters of the Green Revolution there are also many critics. As a class, brainstorm what these criticisms might be. Use this brainstorming session to develop some inquiry questions and use these to research this issue further.
8 Conduct research on the Internet into the genetic modification of plants.
   a In your own words, explain what is meant by genetic modification.
   b Outline three main arguments in favour of genetic modification of foods.
   c Outline three main arguments against the use of genetically modified foods.

Food insecurity in the Horn of Africa

The Horn of Africa refers to the countries in the north-east of the African continent. Ethiopia, Eritrea, Somalia and Djibouti are the four countries that officially make up the Horn, but Kenya, South Sudan, Sudan, Uganda and even Tanzania are sometimes considered to be part of the Horn of Africa. It covers an area of approximately 2 million km^2 and is home to around 100 million people.

People who live in countries on and around the Horn of Africa often experience food insecurity. This is mainly due to a combination of natural processes and human activities. In 2011–2012, the area experienced the worst drought in decades. It caused the widespread devastation of millions of hectares of vital food crops and led to the deaths of hundreds of thousands of people by starvation and malnutrition. The United Nations declared the area to be in the grip of a famine, the first announcement of its type in nearly 30 years.

THE HORN OF AFRICA: VARIATIONS FROM AVERAGE RAINFALL, 2011

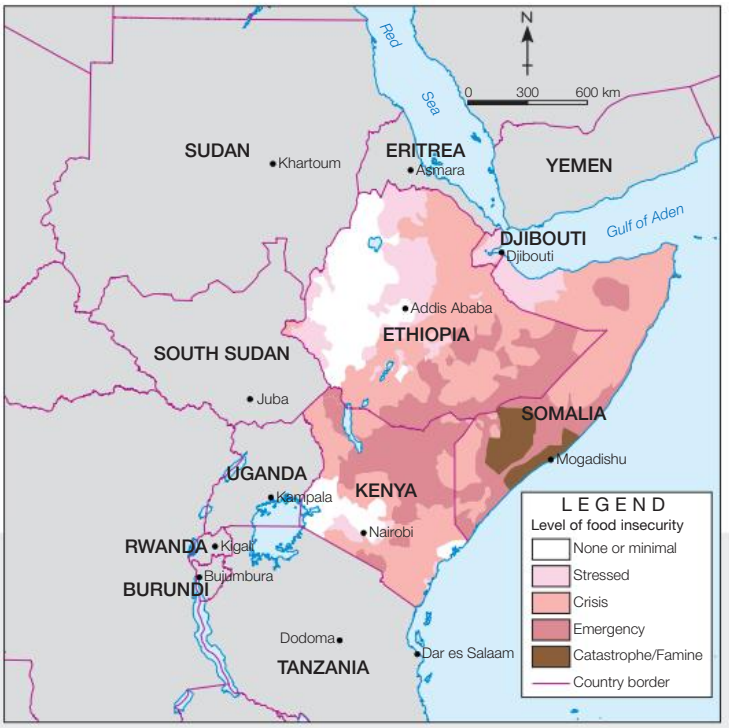


Source 2.12 Source: Oxford University Press

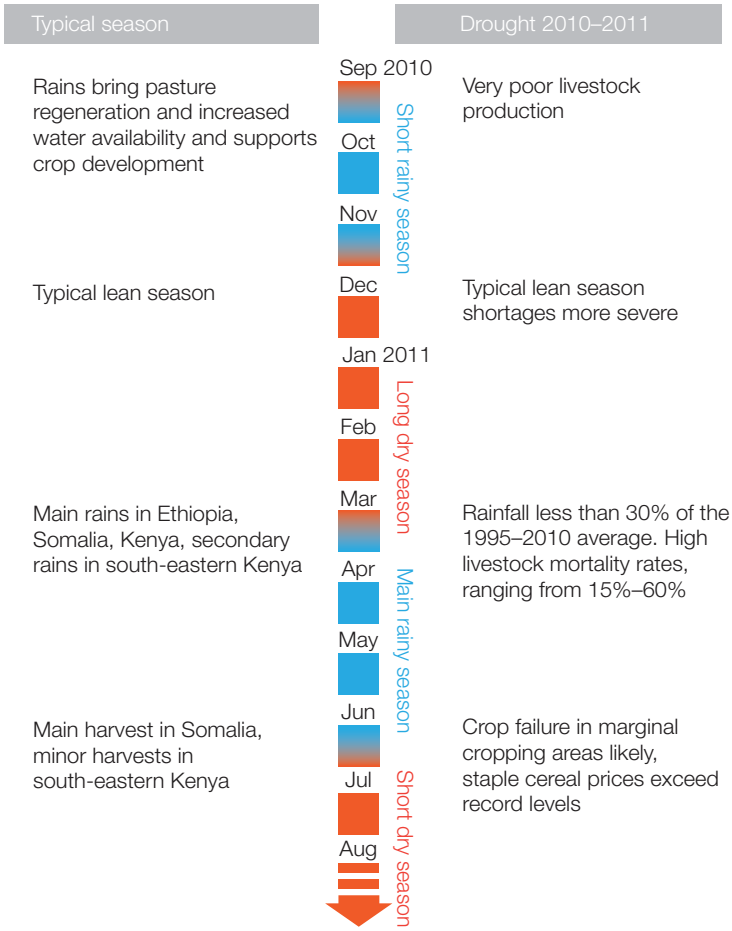
At its most severe, the drought and subsequent famine brought food insecurity to more than 13 million people in the Horn of Africa as well as in neighbouring countries, including Kenya, Uganda and South Sudan. The situation was worsened by an ongoing conflict in southern Somalia that made it difficult for aid agencies to deliver food to the communities in need. As many as one million people fled the affected areas causing a further humanitarian crisis as refugee camps struggled to accommodate the flood of new arrivals.

Local people in need of assistance as at 5 September 2011	
Ethiopia	4.6 million
Djibouti	146 600
Somalia	4 million
Kenya	3.8 million

THE HORN OF AFRICA: FOOD INSECURITY SNAPSHOT, 2011–2012



Source 2.13 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 2.14 This timeline shows the rainy season failure of 2010–2011, compared to a typical season.

skill**drill**

Developing geographical questions

It is important that geographers ask lots of questions. These questions can be simple or complex, and can guide understanding of places, events, and the causes and effects that various factors have on an environment.

For example, in the case of an event such as a famine, a geographer may start the process of understanding the situation by asking a simple question such as, 'How many people died in the famine?' Often a simple question will look at the more quantitative aspects of a situation (i.e. facts that can be expressed in numbers).

Then, to investigate further and deepen their understanding, a geographer may ask a more complex question, such as, 'Was there a change in climate that caused food crops to fail?' Often, a complex question will look at the more qualitative aspects of a situation (i.e. things that can be expressed in words not numbers).

The best complex questions can open up a whole new area to explore and result in an in-depth understanding of the situation.

The following steps will help you generate a range of simple and complex questions.

Step 1 Select an event that you would like to investigate.

Step 2 Construct some simple questions to guide your initial investigation. The key words 'who', 'where', 'when', and 'what' should help you get started.

Step 3 Investigate the questions you have listed and note down your answers.

Step 4 Expand your investigation by forming some more complex questions. Words such as 'why', 'what caused', 'who interacts' and 'what impact' will help you to construct these types of questions.

Step 5 You may also develop some of the questions from Step 2 into more complex ones. For example, you could develop 'What?' into 'What will the effect of … have in the future?' to allow for further discussion.

Apply the skill

Use Sources 2.12, 2.13 and 2.14 together with the information provided to complete the following tasks.

1. Develop a set of five simple questions about the famine in the Horn of Africa in 2011–2012. Use your answers to list some main facts about the situation.
2. Now investigate the famine more deeply by constructing three complex questions which focus on its causes. You may want to develop a complex question that focuses on the political situation in the region and the effects this had on the countries that suffered.
3. Prepare a brief report explaining the famine based on your answers. Check that you have included causes as well as effects in your report to give a well-rounded viewpoint.

Extend your understanding

Conduct some further research and then complete the following tasks.

1. How did the ongoing conflict in southern Somalia contribute to the famine?
2. Research the ways in which organisations such as Caritas, UNICEF, AusAID, Mercy Corps, World Vision and Oxfam helped bring food security to this region during 2011 and 2012.
3. What means do you think can be adopted to establish long-term food security in a region that experiences famines?

2.2 What are the main threats to food security?

Food security risk factors



Source 2.15 The melting of glaciers and icebergs is a well-known example of climate change. Another effect of climate change is the threat to food security in many parts of the world.

As we have learned, food security (the consistent access and availability of an adequately nutritious food supply) depends on a number of factors. In some places, these factors are in a state of flux, and food security is under constant threat.

There are six main threats to food security which are outlined here, and which will be explored in more depth in this section of the chapter. The main factors that come into play and put food security at risk are: water scarcity; climate change; threats from non-native plants, animals and insects; competition for land; the use of land for fuel instead of food; and armed conflict.

Water scarcity

Water scarcity is the lack of access to enough safe water. The supply of clean, safe water is important not only for people to drink, but for the safe growing of crops for food. As the world's population continues to grow, water becomes an even more important resource, and its management becomes more crucial. Water is needed for people to drink, wash and cook with on a household level; however, massive amounts of water are also needed for agriculture, industry, manufacturing and leisure activities. This competition for water can lead to shortages, and when there is not adequate water, food security is put at risk.

Climate change

The term 'climate change' refers to long-term changes in weather events and patterns worldwide. The effects of climate change include rising global temperatures and changes in levels of rainfall. Such changes impact on the environment and the sustainability of agricultural production. Places that are able to grow certain crops because of the reliable rainfall, for example, may find that increases or decreases in rainfall affect the viability of that crop. Climate change may also cause more frequent droughts or floods in some regions, both disastrous to crops. The effect on crop growing is just one example of the way climate change can directly impact on food security.

Threats from non-native plants, animals and insects

The introduction of non-native plants, animals or insects into an area can have devastating effects on the natural environment. This, in turn, can develop into a situation where food security is put at risk. Pests such as the Khapra beetle that live and breed in stores of grain, can destroy up to 70 per cent of a store and make it inedible. A native of South Asia, the Khapra beetle is now one of the top invasive species globally. In countries where rice is a food staple, the damage caused by this beetle puts food security at risk.

Competition for land

In many places around the world, agriculture is being threatened by competition for land. Food security may come under threat by people or corporations who want to use land for purposes other than growing food crops. Land that was once productive farmland is being converted into housing, mines, golf courses, shopping complexes and factories (see Source 2.17). This competition for land, partly to service and house growing populations, means that there is less land available to grow food.

The use of land for fuel instead of food

One of the biggest emerging threats to food security in recent years has come from the growth in the amount of land being used to produce crops used to feed cars, not people. These crops are used in biofuels – fuels that are produced, or partly produced, by some types of plants. Researchers, trying to reduce carbon emission caused by traditional fuels, developed biofuels. This has meant that land previously used to grow food crops has been taken over in order to supply the produce for biofuel (see Source 2.18).

Armed conflict

Armed conflict is another complex and severe threat to food security. Armed conflicts have the potential to affect the food security of entire regions and may even result in famine. In cases of armed conflict, the food security of a population can be affected in various ways. Food may be stolen from the local people by armed forces, land used for growing food crops may be destroyed, or the young men – even children – who would normally tend fields may instead go off to fight. The effect of armed conflict on food security, and how to deal with it, is a major global concern to organisations such as the United Nations and UNICEF.



Source 2.16 Swarms of locusts, that will eat any plant material in their path, are another pest that can quickly destroy crops, resulting in food insecurity.



Source 2.17 Increasing competition for land to use for purposes other than growing food poses a threat to food security in some regions of the world.



Source 2.18 The practice of using land to grow crops for fuel, not food, puts food security at risk for many people.

Check your learning 2.4

Remember and understand

1 Why is there growing competition for water and land resources?

2 Name some of the competing uses for land around the world.

Apply and analyse

3 The use of biofuels can help reduce the carbon emissions that cause climate change, but growing crops for fuel can also increase food insecurity.

- **a** In this instance, do you think it is more important to provide enough food for people or to help stop climate change?
- **b** How would you suggest balancing the potential risks of climate change against people's need for food?

Water scarcity

Agriculture uses about 70 per cent of all fresh water taken from rivers every year. From the rice terraces of China to the orchards of Australia's Murray–Darling Basin, river water is used to irrigate farms and feed billions of people around the world.

River systems and the water they capture, store and distribute are among the most threatened natural environments on Earth. The level of threat to the ongoing supply of fresh water available for agriculture varies from place to place, but an increasing demand for water is by far the most common threat to food security around the globe. In many places, population growth – particularly in cities – puts increased demand on nearby rivers and lakes. This increased demand and usage then threatens the water supplies that farmers rely on.

Economic factors

Greater prosperity and socioeconomic development also places greater demands on water supplies. Industrial development and an increase in the number of individual households means increased water consumption. At current usage rates water needed for industry around the world is predicted to at least double by 2025.

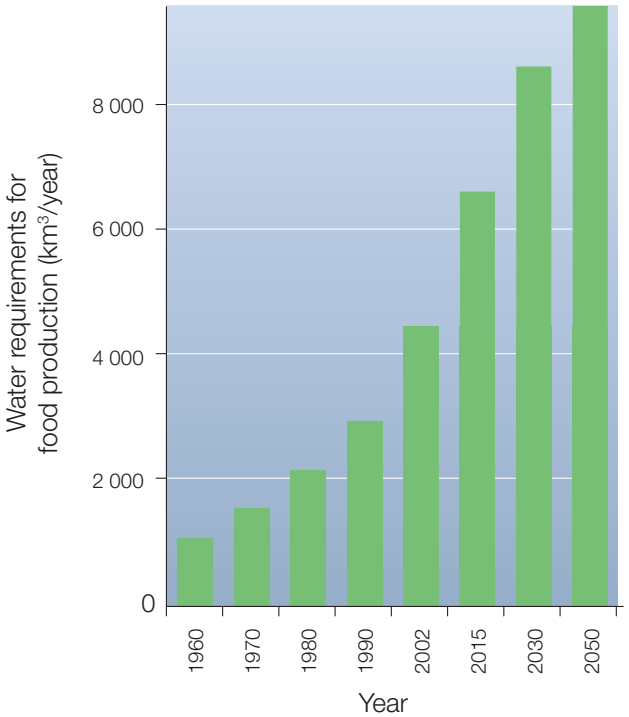
Rapid economic growth and Westernisation in countries such as China and India is also affecting water usage. According to environmentalists and academics, water scarcity and quality is the most pressing environmental issue facing China today. Currently water is being used at an unsustainable rate. Changing tastes in places like China are also increasing the demand for certain foods, such as meat, which requires more water to produce than traditional rain-fed crops. This is putting an added strain on water resources.

Environmental factors

Environmental factors also affect the amounts of water used for growing food (see Source 2.20). Changing rainfall patterns and warmer temperatures as a result of climate change are seriously affecting water supply in some regions of the world. The rapid melting of glaciers in places such as South America and Central Asia is of particular concern.



Source 2.19 A farmer searches for water in the Mekong river basin.



Source 2.20 The historic and projected changes in water consumption needed for agriculture, 1960–2050.

Glaciers have historically acted like reservoirs. As the glaciers have slowly melted, water has flowed down the mountains into the rivers, providing water to millions of people. This water has been used to grow a significant amount of the food to meet the requirements of 2.5 billion people in Asia, and 53 million people in Peru, Bolivia and Ecuador. As the glaciers shrink, however, this water flow is declining. A lack of water to grow crucial crops is predicted to have a severe impact on food security for people in these regions.

Case study: The Mekong Basin

The Mekong River begins on the northern slopes of the Himalayas and crosses six countries before reaching the South China Sea. On its journey it is dammed for electricity and diverted for irrigation, providing water to meet the needs of more than 60 million people. Forty-eight million people rely directly on the Mekong River basin for their food supply (see Source 2.21).

THE MEKONG BASIN: LAND USE



Source 2.21

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.5

Remember and understand

1 List the ways in which the supply of river water for farming is threatened. Highlight those that apply to rivers in Australia.

2 Explain how water scarcity and food security are linked.

Apply and analyse

3 Use an atlas and Source 2.21 to describe the route taken by the Mekong River from its source to the mouth. Explain how changes near the source could bring about food insecurity for communities near to the mouth.

4 Estimate the area of rice paddy cultivation in the region shown in Source 2.21. Describe the spatial association between the river and the rice paddies.

5 Describe the changes in the amount of water used, and projected to be used for food production from 1960 to 2050.

Evaluate and create

6 The Mekong River crosses six countries. How might this cause problems and conflicts between countries who rely on it? In particular, how might downstream users such as the rice farmers of Vietnam be affected?

Climate change

Much debate surrounds the subject of climate change, but there is now considerable evidence and consensus that the main cause of global warming is the rising carbon dioxide levels in our atmosphere from burning **fossil fuels**. Gases produced by human activities are being added to the atmosphere at such a rate that they are changing the Earth's climate. The most obvious change is a rise in global temperatures but there are other changes too. Some places are becoming wetter, while others are becoming drier. Glaciers and ice caps are melting, causing sea levels to rise. Extreme weather events such as droughts, floods and cyclones are becoming more serious and frequent.

Source 2.22 Climate change is projected to impact significantly on food, water and ecosystems.

Global temperature increase	Projected effect
0°–1°	• Small mountain glaciers disappearing, impacting on water supplies • Extensive bleaching and damage to coral reefs leading to widespread death of coral and attached species • Risk to some ecosystems • Increase in extreme weather events – increased damage from floods and storms
1°–2°	• Up to 30% of species at increasing risk of extinction • Failing crop yields in many areas, particularly developing regions • Cereal-growing productivity to decrease in some regions • Risk to some ecosystems increases
2°–4°	• Significant decrease in water availability in many areas, including the Mediterranean and southern Africa • Increasing level of extreme weather events – increased number of human deaths due to floods, heatwaves, droughts, etc. • Many ecosystems now at risk • About 30% of global coastal wetlands to be lost
4°+	• Very high risk of irreversible environmental damage • Very high risk of abrupt changes to global environments • Sea level rise threatens major cities • Falling crop yields in many developed regions • Significant number of extinct species around the globe • Increasing levels of malnutrition, diarrhoea and infectious disease

These and other changes are already impacting on food production, and climate scientists warn that these impacts will become more severe in the future depending on global temperature increases (see Source 2.22).

Changes in the atmosphere affect water and land that is used for growing crops. Droughts mean there is not enough water for successful crop growing, while a drastic increase in the amount of rain falling on a region means crops may be flooded and destroyed. These changes in climate pose a significant threat to food security.

Impacts on Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia

The impacts of climate change on food production are likely to be greatest in Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia. Many farming areas in Africa are expected to become drier. As the soil dries, causing plants such as trees and shrubs to die, the possibility of Africa's deserts spreading into areas currently being farmed is expected to increase. Infestations from plants and animal pests such as locusts are also expected to become more severe, as are droughts.

Asia's river deltas, such as the Mekong, Ganges, Indus and Yangtze, are sometimes referred to as the world's rice bowl. Due to farming improvements introduced during the Green Revolution, these river deltas now help provide food security to over one billion people. This food security, however, is under threat from several impacts of climate change. Changes in rainfall patterns are making it difficult for farmers to know when to plant their crops. Severe rainfall variability is damaging crops and affecting food security. Thailand, for example, suffered a severe drought



Source 2.23 This rice field sits on a low island near the mouth of the Ganges River in Bangladesh. A sea level rise of a few centimetres would cover the crop in salty water, destroying it.

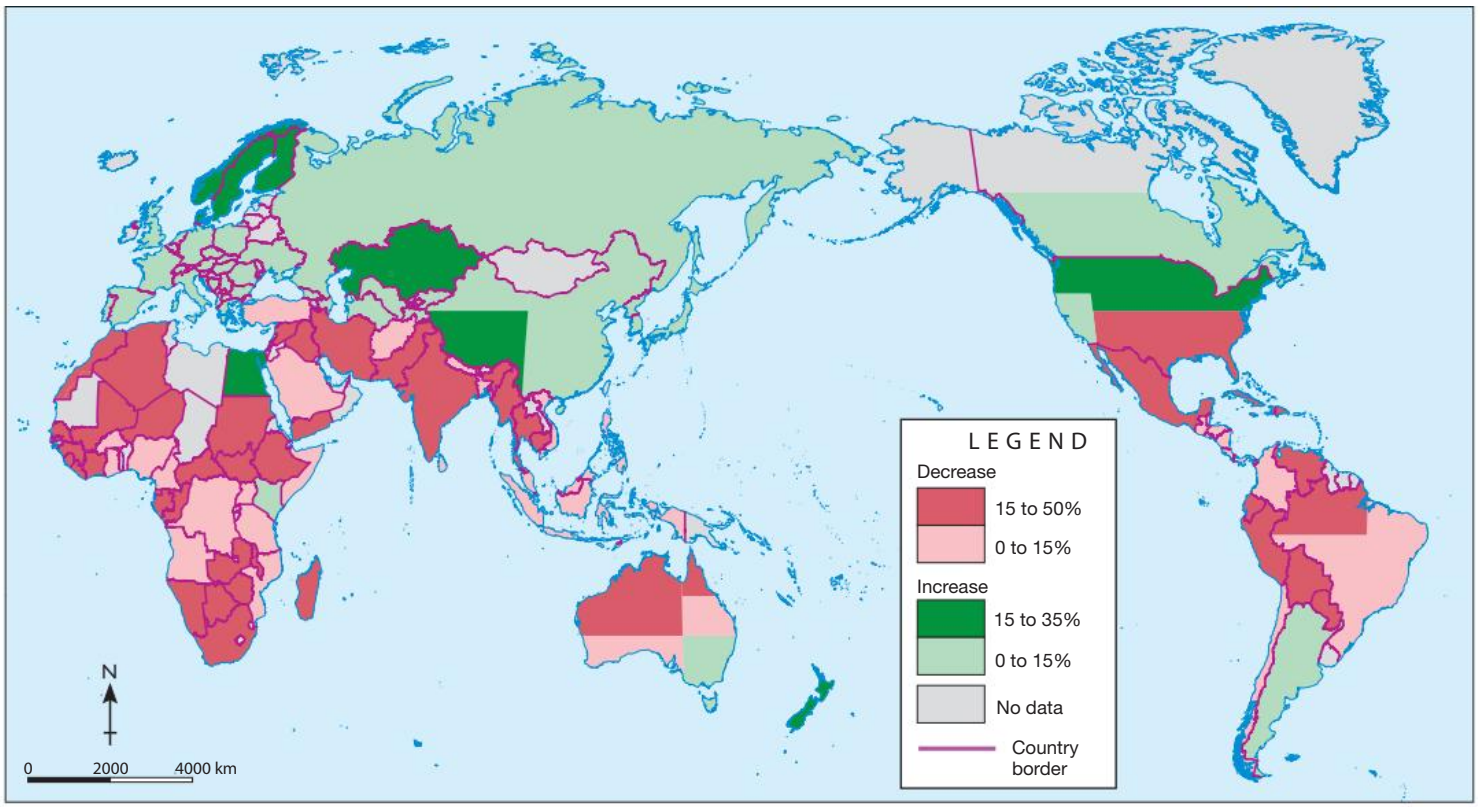
in 2010 that damaged crops across the country. A year later, devastating floods swept through Thailand leaving behind a $40 billion damage bill.

It is the impact of rising sea levels, however, that has the greatest potential to damage food security in these river delta regions. Rice is grown in the fertile soil of low-lying river deltas. As sea levels rise, ground and river water become saltier, killing rice crops and depositing more salt in the soil.

Predicted changes in food production

The effects of climate change on food production will vary across the world. Some regions may even be able to increase food production with the changes in climate. However, for most parts of the world, and most significantly, for the most populated parts of the world, climate change will cause a decrease in potential food production (see Source 2.24).

WORLD: PREDICTED CHANGES IN FOOD PRODUCTION BY 2080



Source 2.24

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 2.6

Remember and understand

1 Why are many rice paddies in river delta regions at risk from climate change?

2 Explain the link between human activities and climate change.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.22 showing some predicted effects of climate change. Select five of the effects listed and describe how they may threaten food security.

4 Examine Source 2.24. Which regions of the world are predicted to lose between 15 per cent and 50 per cent of their food production by 2080?

5 Compare Source 2.7 with Source 2.24 and complete the following tasks.

a Which regions that currently have stable food security are predicted to experience significant change by 2080?

b Which regions currently at risk of extreme food insecurity are predicted to lose more than 15 per cent of their food production by 2080?

Evaluate and create

6 Compare the predicted changes in food production for Australia and New Zealand. Which impact of climate change do you think will most affect their food security in the future? Give some reasons for your answer.

Threats from non-native plants, animals and insects

One of the greatest threats to natural ecosystems and to food security is the arrival or introduction of non-native plants, animals or insects into an area. Known as **invasive alien species** (**IAS**), they cause billions of dollars of crop loss and damage throughout the world every year. Vast sums of money are spent trying to control and contain these invaders.

Virtually all farming communities are under threat from invasion. In Australia, for example, it is estimated that about 15 per cent of all plants growing throughout the country are weeds. Weeds affect food security as they compete with crops for water, sunlight and soil nutrients. The number of invading plant species in Australia is also growing by about 10 new species per year. These new species are spreading faster than they can be controlled.

Invading plants and animals are mainly spread through human activities. In some cases, the spread is accidental. The most successful invader in the world, for example, is the black rat. Native to north-east China and India, rats were carried around the world as stowaways on ships. Most modern invaders, however, now hitch rides on planes rather than ships. Seeds carried accidentally on shoes, or insects in clothing can now travel from place to place across the world in a matter of days, even hours.

In other cases, alien invaders are introduced to native environments deliberately. Humans have, at different times, purposely brought non-native species into an environment, usually to tackle an existing problem with another species. Unfortunately, in the past there has been a failure to predict the level of negative consequences that the introduction might have on the local ecosystem as a whole. The cane toad and Indian Myna bird were both introduced to Australia to control pests. They have, however, now caused massive destruction to the natural ecosystem, native species and the food chain.

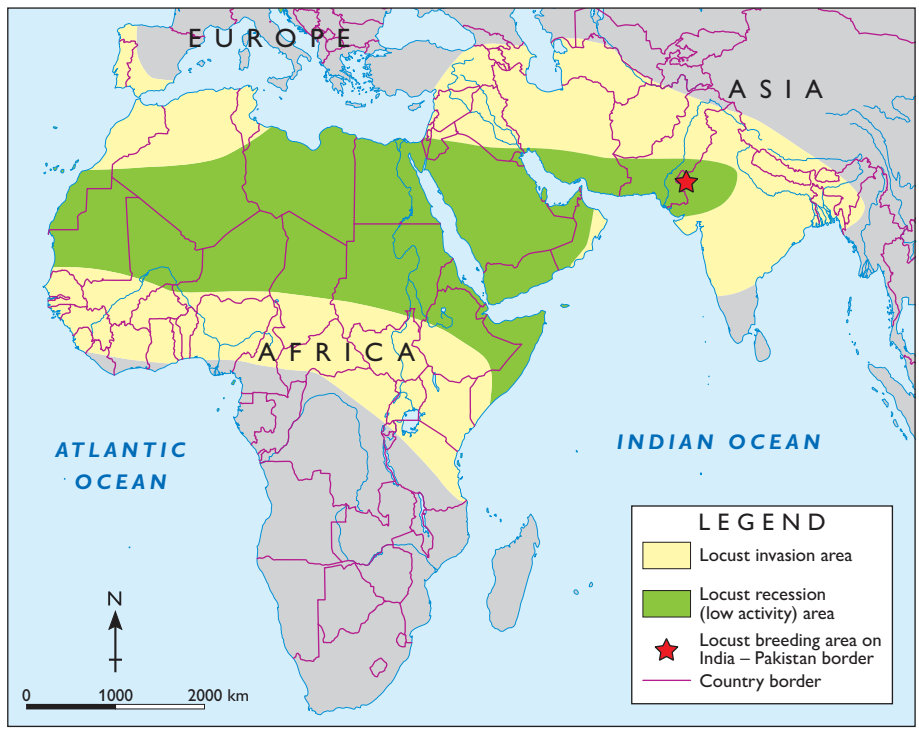
Case study: Desert locusts

Desert locusts are usually solitary insects causing no great harm to farmers' crops. When conditions are right for them, however, they become one of the world's most



Source 2.25 A swarm of locusts can devour a vast area of crops in a stunningly short period of time.

AFRICA AND SURROUNDS: LOCUST AREAS



Source 2.26 Source: Oxford University Press

destructive pests, bringing widespread food insecurity to communities in Africa, Asia and the Middle East. Drought conditions in their usual recession area (the area where they normally withdraw and are not active) combined with good rains in their breeding area cause the locusts to form vast swarms that invade surrounding areas (see Source 2.25). A swarm may cover 1000 square kilometres, with up to 80 million locusts per square kilometre. Travelling up to 100 kilometres per day, they devour entire crops in minutes. One swarm in Ethiopia, for example, is believed to have consumed enough grain to feed a million people for a year.

Case study: The larger grain borer

Two of the most important food crops in Sub-Saharan Africa are maize (a type of corn) and cassava (a root plant). **Subsistence farmers** – those who grow only enough for their household needs – grow small fields of maize and cassava and pick and store them during harvest time, providing some food security throughout the year. However, their stored crops are under attack from an unwelcome invader, the larger grain borer.

Accidentally introduced into Tanzania from its native Central America in the late 1970s, the larger grain borer has now spread throughout West and East Africa. Feeding on the stored maize and cassava, it can quickly reduce stores to piles of dust unfit for human consumption. Farming families are then forced to try and buy food from other farmers. In many cases, however, all the stored crops in a region have been destroyed.



Source 2.27 Maize is the staple food of millions of people. An invasive alien species such as the larger grain borer can pose a very serious threat to the food security of people who rely on a maize crop for food every day.

Check your learning 2.7

Remember and understand

1 How do weeds impact on food security?
2 How are invasive alien species spread?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 2.26. Describe the spread of desert locusts from recession areas into invasion areas. Use the names of regions, countries and compass directions in your description.
4 Why are desert locusts a threat to food security in some regions?

Evaluate and create

5 From its discovery in Tanzania in the late 1970s, the larger grain borer has spread throughout much of the African continent. Here is a list of countries where the larger grain borer has been found with the year of its detection:

Kenya (1983); Togo, Benin and Burundi (1984); Guinea (1987); Ghana (1989); Burkina Faso (1991); Malawi and Nigeria (1992); Rwanda and Zambia (1993); Niger (1994); Namibia (1998); Mozambique (1999).

a Using the list of the countries above, as well as the years of detection, map the spread of the larger grain borer from its discovery in Tanzania in the late 1970s on an outline map of Africa. Use labelled arrows to show the progression of the spread.
b Describe the movement of the borer as shown on your map.
c Which countries do you believe are most at risk from the future spread of this invader? Why do you think this would be the case?

Competition for land

In addition to environmental factors, food security can also be threatened by individuals or corporations taking over productive land and using it for purposes other than growing food. In many places around the world, land that was once farmland is being converted for housing, mines, golf courses, factories and other uses. This competition for land is being driven partly by the increase in the world's population and partly by the desire to make more money from the land.



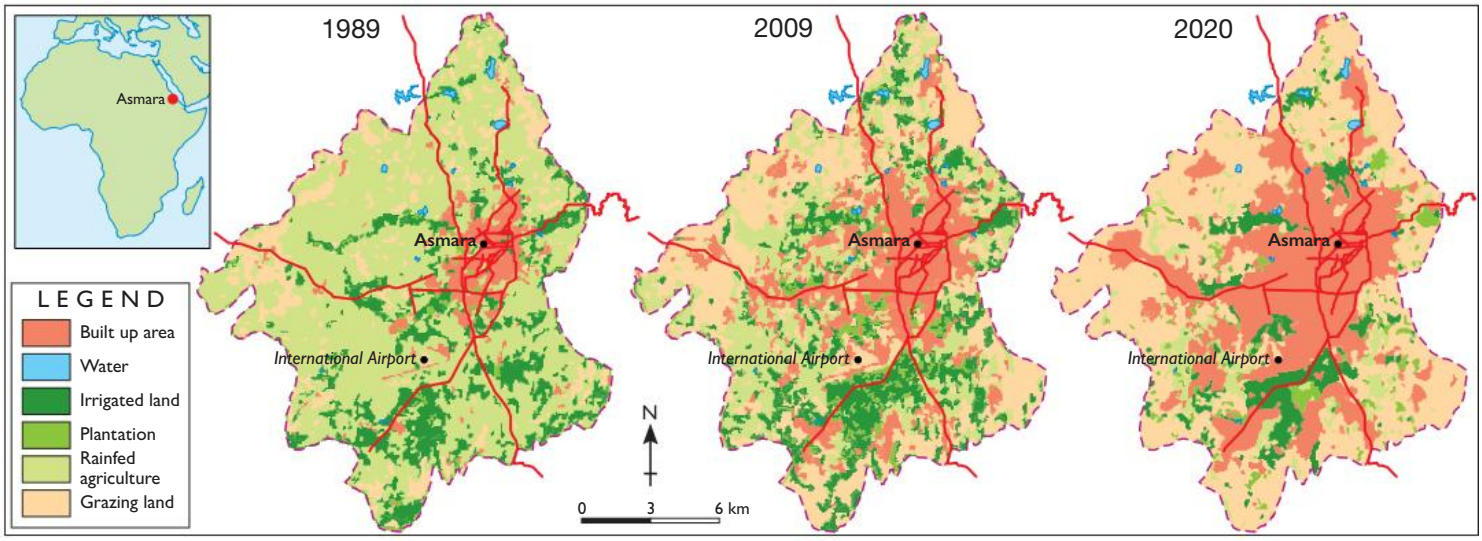
Source 2.28 New suburbs sprawl into existing farmland north of Asmara, the capital of Eritrea, in Africa.

Land for housing

The development of rural areas for housing is one example of competition for land use. Urban areas cover only about two per cent of the world's total land area. They are often built, however, on the best land – flat, fertile and well watered. Farming areas on the edges of cities provide food to the city dwellers. As cities grow in population, however, they also grow in size, and farmland and rural spaces are taken over and developed into new suburbs for the growing population. The spread of a city outwards is known as **urban sprawl**. In this process, farmland is taken over for housing, and farmers are pushed further out onto land that may not be as suitable for growing crops. Their ability to produce food may fall, putting at risk the food security of the people in the city.

The city of Asmara in Eritrea, for example, has tripled in size in the last 20 years and now sprawls across land that was previously prime farmland. Source 2.29 maps the rapid growth of Asmara. This growth is expected to continue at its current rate, and may even accelerate in the next few decades, absorbing more productive farmland. This same process has been experienced by many places around the world, including in Australia, where urban sprawl has seen productive farmland converted to suburban living spaces.

ASMARA: URBAN GROWTH 1989–2020



Source 2.29

Source: Oxford University Press

Land for tourism and recreation

In some places, productive farmland is also being converted into tourism and recreation facilities. Many developing countries, for example, recognise that attracting tourists provides them with a reliable source of income. These tourists, most of them from developed countries such as Australia and the USA, are drawn to these countries for a range of factors including climate, stunning scenery and unique cultures. But tourists often also want a high standard of accommodation and recreation facilities like hotels, pools and golf courses (see Source 2.30).

A study of the impact of golf course development in Thailand found that 250 courses in the country together consume about 200 square kilometres of land. About three-quarters of these courses were built on existing farmland, the rest on land that was previously forested. This area represents a loss of about 89 000 tonnes of rice every year. Furthermore, golf courses put great pressure on the freshwater resources of the local area. Each Thai golf course consumes the same amount of water as 60 000 Thai villagers would.

This trend is not confined to Thailand. In other Asian countries such as Indonesia, Cambodia and Vietnam, as well as in island nations throughout the Caribbean, productive farmland and scarce fresh water resources are being consumed by golf courses and other recreation facilities.



Source 2.30 A rice field has been converted into a golf course to attract tourists, an increasingly common use of agricultural land in many places in Asia. This poses a significant threat to food security – not only is the land for crop growth taken away but golf courses consume massive amounts of water.

Check your learning 2.8

Remember and understand

1 What is urban sprawl and why is it a threat to food security?

2 How does the growth in global tourism impact on food security?

Apply and analyse

3 Use Source 2.29 to describe the growth of Asmara from 1989 to 2009. Which type of farming was most affected by this growth? What is predicted to happen by 2020?

4 If golf courses threaten food security, why do many countries around the world build them on productive farmland? Explain the underlying causes of this problem.

5 The golf course shown in Source 2.30 has caused the loss of productive farmland and created other problems. It has also brought some benefits. Brainstorm the potential costs and benefits of this golf course to the local region and community.

Evaluate and create

6 Research the growth of a large Australian city. Find out if its development has resulted in urban sprawl and the loss of productive farmland. If so, explain what the impacts of this have been for food production in the region.

The use of land for fuel instead of food

Brazil is one country where the use of land for growing fuel rather than food has increased dramatically. Despite offering many advantages, this change has the potential to put food security in Brazil at risk in the future.

Case study: Brazil's biofuel industry

Biofuels are fuels made from organic matter rather than fossil matter. They are often made from biomass (i.e. plant materials high in sugar, starch or oil) such as sugarcane, corn, soya beans or sunflowers.

Brazil has gradually developed a booming biofuel industry. Biofuels such as ethanol and biodiesel are an example of how countries can develop 'home-grown' renewable energy sectors. The establishment of a biofuel industry has been part of wider long-term initiatives to change the way Brazilians produce and use energy, including adopting integrated food–energy systems (IFES). IFES combine the production of food and energy into one system. Other measures include:

- the introduction of new 'flex-fuel' vehicles which run on any blend of petrol and ethanol
- new land zoning laws that identify suitable areas for biofuel production (avoiding using land with high biodiversity, such as rainforests)
- efficiency improvements to increase the productivity of biofuels
- social and environmental safeguards to address any concerns.

Around 15 per cent of Brazil's total domestic energy supply now comes from biofuels made from sugarcane.

skill**drill**

Analysing complex maps

Complex maps contain more than one set of information. Geographers use complex maps to analyse different features, reveal patterns and explain links between features in a given area. You can analyse a complex map by following these steps.

Step 1 Look carefully at the map and read its title to make sure you understand what is being shown.

Step 2 Examine the map's legend. Complex maps can have more than one part to a legend, and these parts will be represented on the map in different ways. For example, in Source 2.31 areas of colour are used to show the location of soya bean and sugar cane crops. Different coloured symbols are also used, to show biodiesel plants, ethanol plants, and pipelines.

Step 3 Train your eyes to look for one set of information at a time. For example, look at solid blocks of colour on the map and work out what they tell you.

Step 4 Move to a different set of information by selecting another symbol or block of colour from the legend. Examine the map to identify the symbol or areas of colour.

Step 5 Look for concentrations of the same symbol in areas to see if patterns exist.

Step 6 Note any patterns you can find on the map between different features and locations.

Step 7 Describe the degree to which patterns are connected.

Step 8 Try to suggest reasons for the connection between the two patterns.

Apply the skill

Look at the map of South America (Source 2.31) showing biofuel infrastructure.

1 Find the symbol for ethanol and biodiesel plants in the legend then locate these on the map. Describe the concentration of these.

2 What relationship is there between the concentration of ethanol plants and the location of sugar cane crops?

3 What does the location of the ethanol pipelines tell you about the production and consumption of biofuels?

BRAZIL: BIOFUEL INFRASTRUCTURE



Source 2.31

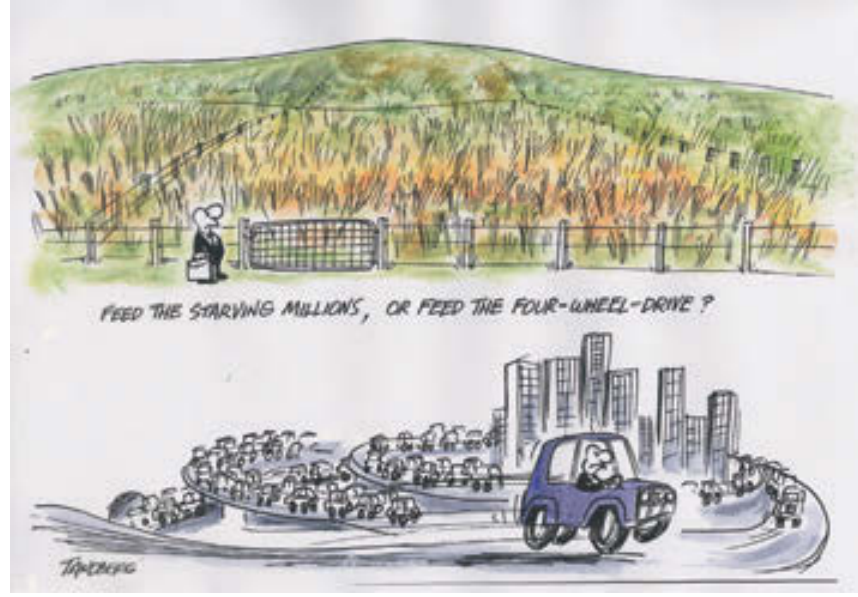
Source: Oxford University Press

Biofuels as a threat to food security

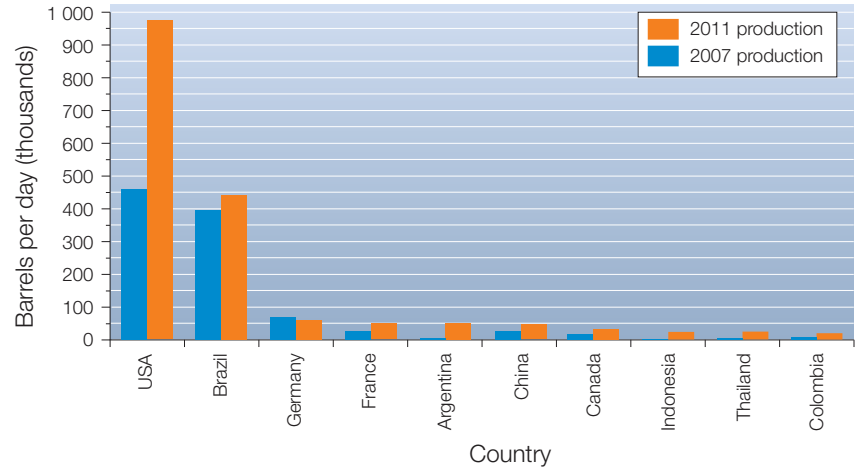
Although waste products of food crops such as corn and sugarcane can be used to provide some of the raw material for the production of biofuels, greater production of biofuel needs bigger crops. In some places, fuel crops are replacing food crops and this has raised concerns about food security in these countries.

While the amount of biofuel produced and used has grown rapidly in recent years, it still provides only three per cent of the total energy used to power vehicles worldwide. Despite this, biofuel production threatens the food security of many communities, particularly in South American countries such as Brazil, Argentina and Colombia, that are boosting their biofuel production.

Biofuel production poses a threat to food security in two main ways. Firstly, marginal farming land (land that is situated on edges of arable land) is the land most likely to be converted for growing biofuel crops. This is often the land that poorer farmers use to grow the food needed to feed their families. Secondly, growing crops for fuel rather than food pushes up the price of food, making it less accessible. As people on lower incomes spend a much greater proportion of their income on food than wealthy people do, it is the poor who suffer most when food prices increase.



Source 2.32 Political cartoonists often rely on simple images to convey a complex message – this cartoon comments on the competition between using land for food and using land for fuel.



Source 2.33 The top ten biofuel producers in the world, 2007 and 2011

Check your learning 2.9

Remember and understand

1 What are biofuels? What are they produced from?

Apply and analyse

2 Examine Source 2.32.
   - a What point is the cartoonist making about biofuels?
   - b How effective is this cartoon in communicating this point?

3 Examine Source 2.31.
   - a Compare Source 2.31 with Source 1.2 (World biomes). Which biomes are most threatened by the expansion of Brazil's biofuels industry?
   - b Some new ethanol plants are planned for construction across Brazil (shown as 'Proposed ethanol plant'). Describe the distribution of these new plants. How might the construction of these new plants lead to land use changes in the near future?

4 Who benefits from the growth in biofuel production? Who loses?

Evaluate and create

5 Use the data in Source 2.33 to construct a proportional circles map of the world's major biofuel producers in 2011.

6 One type of plant being used for biofuel production is jatropha. Jatropha is a flowering plant whose seeds are high in oil. In India, there are more than one million hectares of jatropha plantations. Research this plant and list the advantages and disadvantages of using it as a biofuel to replace fossil fuels. When finished, state your opinion on this use of farming land in India.

Armed conflict

Armed conflict – war between different countries, or civil war between groups within a single country – also has the potential to affect the food security of millions of people. It can result in widespread food shortages, and even long-lasting famines. While armed conflict results in deaths from battle, in some conflicts many people also die from a lack of access to food. Food insecurity caused by an armed conflict can kill more people than are killed by the fighting itself. Most at risk are people in developing countries, where many people rely on their own small farms to provide their family's food.

Several countries in Africa have experienced the devastating effects that armed conflict can have on the food security of the population. In an area where food security is already a serious concern – currently 75 per cent of the continent's countries are considered at high or extreme risk of food insecurity – the added turmoil of armed conflict brings an extra threat to a situation which is already critical. Many African countries, including Somalia, have endured decades of armed conflict and the resulting decrease in food security.

International aid

While international aid agencies such as the Red Cross and United Nations work hard to address the lack of food security in these war-torn areas, the environment can be very dangerous. In Somalia alone, 14 employees of the United Nations World Food Program were killed while distributing aid between 2008 and 2011 (see Source 2.35). Corruption, theft and a lack of law enforcement all contributed to the terrible situation.

Transporting food and farming supplies by road in these countries is risky, with aid often being seized by fighters for their own use. In Somalia, sacks of grain, peanut butter and other foodstuffs meant for starving Somali people were often stolen. Some families receiving aid were even forced to give it back after journalists taking photos of them with the food had left. With local food supply markets disrupted, food aid that has been stolen is often sold on in markets, taking relief efforts away from the starving and needy (see Source 2.35).

Distributing food aid is also often complicated by difficulties in reaching war-torn areas. Groups in remote areas can be difficult to locate and delivery of food aid to these places may be slow.

In such situations, hunger can be used as a weapon. The government can deliberately keep food away from opposition fighters and the local people who support them.



Source 2.34 Western armed forces distributing food aid in Somalia



Source 2.35 Food supply is affected as local markets are targeted. In Mogadishu, the capital of Somalia, relief aid was commonly looted at the distribution points and then sold at the markets.



Source 2.36 Somali children waiting in line for food aid.



Source 2.37 In war-torn areas, water is a precious resource. These women wait at a water distribution area for their empty containers to be filled.

Impact on local farmers

During times of war, such as those experienced by Somalia, food shortages are common. There are many reasons for this. Some food shortages are caused by the disruption of food markets and food aid. Land mines are planted, causing lasting danger (see Source 2.40). Some are caused by the fact that apart from the conflict that is happening, there are ongoing harsh climate conditions to deal with. The effects of war combined with climate can go on for years (see Source 2.39).

Crops cannot be planted, weeded or harvested. Farmers cannot plant new crops, which extends food insecurity even when the conflict is finished (see Source 2.39). Irrigation systems are destroyed and other water resources, such as wells, are sometimes poisoned as an act of war.

Animals are killed and taken for food by armies and rebel fighters. As well as a food supply, farmers lose manure for their crops as well as animal power to work their fields. Crop stores are often raided by rebel fighters as well.

Young men are often forced to fight. This seriously affects the agricultural output by reducing the available hands to work on farms. The amount of food and income for the family is diminished.

Farms may also be completely destroyed by the armed forces. Native scrub is burnt, and wild sources of food, such as wild fruits and honey, are destroyed. Many farmers abandon their farms.

In the Democratic Republic of Congo in Africa, at least 400 000 people were displaced from their fields during the harvest period. This affected not only their short-term food security, but their long-term food security as well.

Particularly for countries that already experience other threats to their food security, such as weathering the effects of climate change or battling plagues of locusts, the effects of an armed conflict on their food security can result in life-or-death situations.



Source 2.38 Amnesty International reported that in Somalia, children as young as eight years old were recruited to take up weapons and fight in the conflict.



Source 2.39 Food security can be threatened for years, as the land bears the ravages of war.



Source 2.40 Due to landmines, land previously used to grow food becomes inaccessible for years. Harvests are destroyed and fields cannot be cultivated.

Check your learning 2.10

Remember and understand

1 Why is there often a shortage of farm labour during armed conflicts?

2 How can hunger be used as a weapon during times of war?

Apply and analyse

3 Why are subsistence farmers – farmers who grow just enough to feed their own family – most at risk of food insecurity during armed conflict?

4 Describe three ways in which food security for local people would improve if peace was reached in an area that had been experiencing armed conflict.

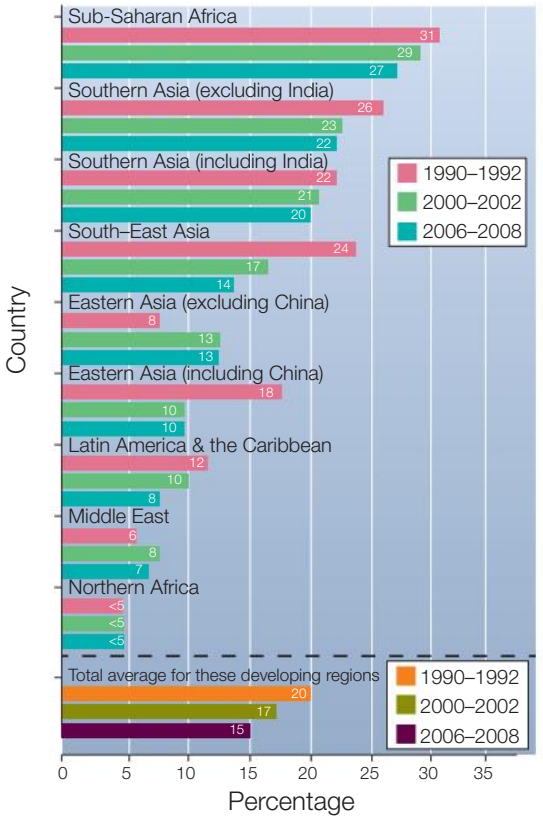
Evaluate and create

5 List the effects of armed conflict mentioned here. Rank them in order from the one that you think will have the most severe lasting impact on food security to the one you think will have the least serious lasting impact. Explain the reasons for ranking them in the order you chose.

6 How would the conflict in Somalia impact on the food security of people in other areas of the country or in neighbouring countries? Discuss this with a partner and then with your class.

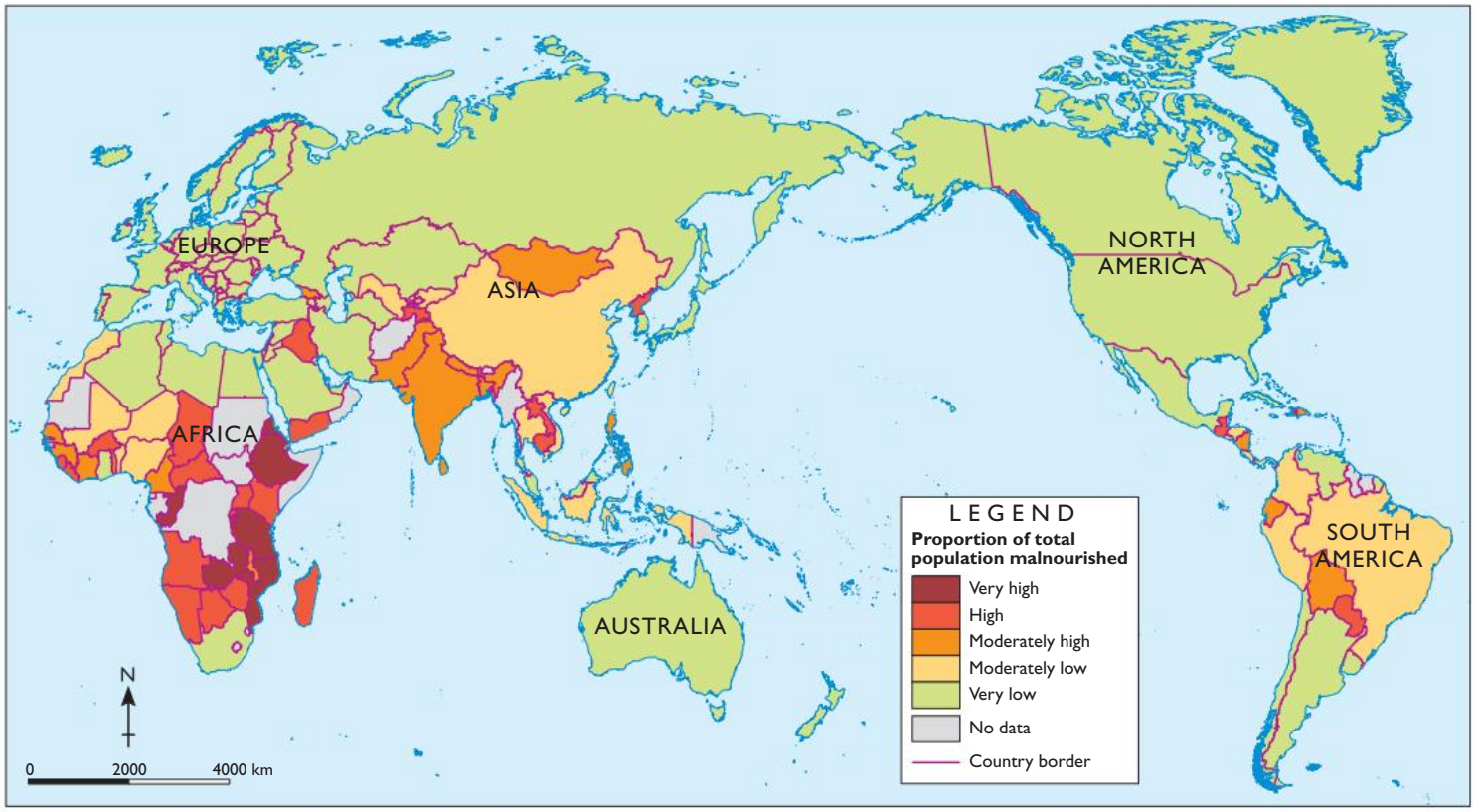
Halving hunger

At a meeting of the United Nations in 2000, representatives of 189 member countries agreed on a set of goals designed to improve the living conditions of people in developing countries. Eight goals, known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), were developed. One of these goals was to eradicate extreme hunger and poverty, with the specific target of halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by 2015. Some of the 2015 targets have already been reached and many others are likely to be met. However, reaching the target of halving world hunger by 2015 seems unlikely.



Source 2.41 Proportion of undernourished people.

WORLD: HUNGER LEVELS 2012



Source 2.42

Source: wfp.org

skill**drill**

Presenting an oral report to an audience

Geographers often present their findings to an audience by giving an oral presentation.

You may find giving an oral presentation a little daunting at first, but if you follow these steps you will be able to confidently deliver a successful report.

Step 1 Decide on a topic that will interest both you and your audience. Consider your audience and think about what they already know about the topic. What would you like them to understand by listening to your presentation?

Step 2 Research your topic. Geographers start with inquiry questions and then seek to answer them. Collect information from a wide variety of sources and keep a bibliography of these sources. Try to find images, visual material and audio that may add variety to your presentation.

Step 3 Organise your findings into a draft outline of your report. It should have a clear introduction and conclusion. In your introduction it is often a good idea to use something to 'hook' your audience. It may be a question, a personal story or a challenging image. After your introduction, develop your report in a series of clearly defined sections (like paragraphs in a written report). Your conclusion usually summarises your key points. If your report is going to be assessed, make sure you have fulfilled the criteria for assessment.



Source 2.43 Practise with your memory cards before your presentation.

Step 4 Support your verbal report with clear visual material. This may be a set of graphs, maps or images. The trick is not to overdo your visual material but to think of it as supporting what you are saying. It gives your audience something to focus on and allows you to refer to features such as places on a map. Do not use your written report as visual material or read it to your audience.

Step 5 Practise your presentation. Make sure that you do not exceed the time limit and that you know your information well enough to avoid having to read it. It may be a good idea to have some memory cards with key words or ideas written on them. Avoid holding a single piece of paper if you are prone to nerves – memory cards are sturdier and won't tremble. If you are worried about being nervous, practice will help. Are you nervous because you are not properly prepared? Have you practised? Do your visuals work to support your report?

Step 6 Deliver your presentation. Make sure that you speak clearly and vary pitch and tone. Stand up straight, keep your hands out of your pockets and don't lean on a desk. If you become nervous while presenting, take a few deep breaths to calm yourself and then pretend that you are speaking to only one person.

Step 7 Invite your audience to ask questions and do your best to answer them. If you are unsure of an answer don't make something up, just do your best.

Apply the skill

1 Prepare and deliver a verbal report on an aspect of the Millennium Development Goal target to halve hunger by 2015. Your report must be supported by visual material and include responses to questions asked by the audience. Here are some possible topics to choose from, or you may like to develop your own.
   - There will always be hungry people in the world.
   - It is possible to halve hunger in some places but not others.
   - The solution to halving hunger is to …
   - If we address the causes of poverty we will meet the goal of halving hunger.
   - The proportion of hungry people in the world is more likely to rise than to fall.

Extend your understanding

Do some further reading on the Millennium Development Goals before answering the following questions.

1 Describe the distribution of hunger on a global scale.

2 Which regions of the world seem least likely to reach the 2015 goal? Which seem most likely? Why do you think these differences exist between world regions?

3 Research the other Millennium Development Goals and find the latest report. What are the goals, which have been achieved and which are the furthest from being achieved?

2.3 How can we improve food security?

Looking for answers

Over the course of human history, the world has seen dramatic and far-reaching changes. Humans have adapted to changes in the natural environment as well as building and changing the environment themselves. People have changed from being hunters and gatherers living in small communities to living as farmers and city dwellers. We have also improved our way of life through a series of remarkable revolutions: the **Agricultural Revolution**, the **Industrial Revolution** and the **Green Revolution**. These revolutions have allowed our populations to grow at an astonishing rate. In the rush to provide enough food and other raw materials to support our way of life, however, we are in danger of causing permanent damage to the very systems that support us – the soil, water and climate.

There are solutions, however, and some of them can be found in unusual places. Some solutions are based on developments at the forefront of technology, such as manipulating the genes of living organisms. Others come from the distant past; techniques used by Indigenous people who worked more closely with the natural systems of the Earth.

Looking after the soil

Soil is perhaps the farmer's most important resource. Many farming practices, however, such as ploughing, fertilising, clearing natural vegetation, irrigating and draining have degraded soil to such an extent that the soil can no longer support the same growth of crops as it did in the past. Many farmers are now changing their techniques to minimise their impact on the soil structure and nutrients by reducing ploughing, adding protective layers of organic material (mulch) and growing plants that help return nutrients to the soil.



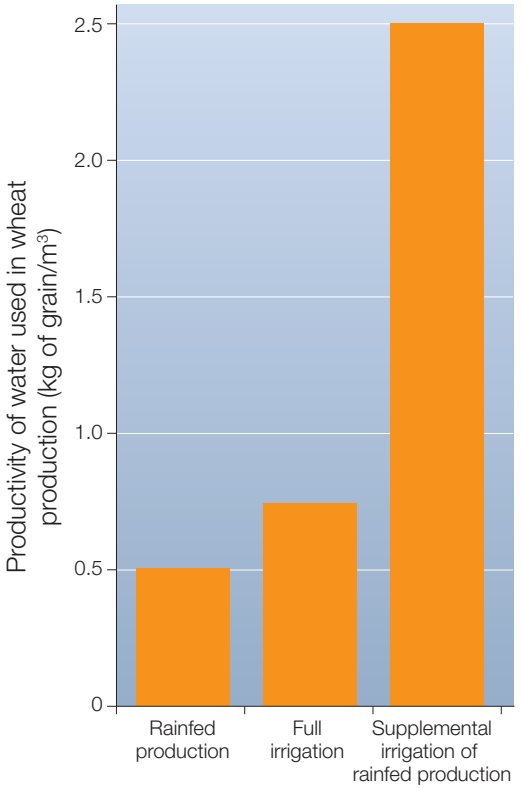
Source 2.44 Maize crops planted beneath Acacia trees in Africa are three times more productive than others nearby as the shade reduces evaporation and the falling leaves provide a natural fertiliser and mulch.

Water management

Modern techniques of measuring soil moisture and delivering water to plants and animals are helping to reduce poor water management techniques and improve results in yields. Measuring distribution of water not only conserves the resource, but avoids over-watering, which can lead to salty soils. Storing rainwater in dams and adding it to crops during critical growing times, for example, can triple the amount of wheat grown compared to irrigation systems that water the crops all year round (see Source 2.46).

Pest control

The Green Revolution promoted the use of pesticides such as chemical sprays that helped to increase the amount of food grown in many places. Some of the side-effects of using these pesticides, however – such as build-up of chemicals in the soil, loss of biodiversity and an immunity of some pests to the chemicals – have damaged some of the natural processes on which farmers depend. A range of techniques are now being developed and put into place around the world to reduce reliance on pesticides. Using natural pest controls such as ladybirds to reduce numbers of aphids on crops, for example, has been highly successful in many places (see Source 2.45).



Source 2.46 Productivity of wheat production under various irrigation techniques, including supplemental irrigation.



Source 2.45 These Cambodian schoolgirls are learning how some insects can be used to control pest species in their rice crops.

Check your learning 2.11

Remember and understand

1 What are the advantages of growing crops in fields where trees are present? What might be some disadvantages?

2 List the ways in which using chemical pesticides may be harmful to the environment.

Apply and analyse

3 In Australia, adding mulch to the soil is a common practice for gardeners and farmers alike. What is mulch and how does it help look after soil and water?

4 Using Source 2.46, describe the advantages of adding water to wheat crops at the right time of the year.

Evaluate and create

5 Find an example of an animal species that has been successfully introduced to control another species.

6 Cane toads were brought to Australia to control pests but now cause more problems than the pests they were supposed to control. Research the introduction and spread of the cane toad. What lessons can be learnt from these experiences?

Lessons from Indigenous farmers

In many countries around the world, Indigenous peoples have farmed the land successfully for centuries. They have developed techniques that work with the natural cycles of nature to maintain the soil and water resources of the area. In some of these places, the arrival of mechanised farming and the introduction of chemical fertilisers and pesticides have begun to degrade the soil and make it less productive. Researchers are now learning that the ancient farming practices of Indigenous peoples have valuable lessons to teach modern farmers about working with, rather than against, nature.

Traditional South American practices

Many South American food crops such as potatoes, tomatoes, peanuts and cocoa are now farmed throughout the world. While these plants started to be grown in countries all around the world, the traditional methods used to farm them were not used. South American farmers are experts at improving and protecting their soil and using water sustainably. The methods they use today are the result of hundreds of years of working with the natural cycles of the area in which they live.

In the Amazon forest, heavy rains leach nutrients from the soil making it almost impossible to farm. The Indigenous people of the region therefore created their own soil by building up layers of charcoal, human waste, river silt, shards of pottery and plant material. They also built garden beds above the flood levels of the region's rivers. Modern-day soil researchers have found that these garden beds are still highly fertile more than 500 years after they were constructed.

Indigenous farmers on the high plains and slopes of the Andes Mountains solved another common problem – variable rainfall. They terraced thousands of hectares of mountain slopes to collect water and provide flat land for growing crops (see Source 2.47). In the high plains, areas that were dry for half the year and covered in water for the other half were successfully farmed by building raised platforms and constructing irrigation and drainage canals, as well as man-made islands. The Aztecs farmed floating platforms on the lake that covered much of what is now Mexico City.



Source 2.47 These terraces were built by the Indigenous Inca people of Peru to grow and supply food to the people of Machu Picchu.



Source 2.48 Kenyan farmers are now planting fields of indigenous bambara nuts – once considered a food of last resort during famine, now a potential wonder crop.

Traditional African practices

In many communities in Sub-Saharan Africa, food insecurity and hunger are constant problems. Many people see modern techniques such as adding chemical fertilisers and pesticides as the best way to improve food security in the region. However, some Kenyan experts believe that an important clue to solving food supply problems lies in the past. They are promoting the growing and harvesting of indigenous plants such as sorghum, millet and bambara nuts, as they are better able to cope with the natural soil infertility and cycles of flood and drought than introduced plants such as maize and wheat (see Source 2.48).

As Kenya's population is growing at around one million people per year and there is limited arable land for growing food crops, exploring options for agriculture, including traditional methods, is crucial for Kenya's food security.

Check your learning 2.12

Remember and understand

1 How did farmers in the Amazon forest overcome the problem of soil infertility?

2 Why did Indigenous farmers in the Andes build terraces?

Apply and analyse

3 Why do indigenous plants sometimes grow better than introduced plants?

4 Why do you think Amazonian farmers added broken pieces of pottery to their soil?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct research online in order to write a step-by-step guide to building terraces on steep mountainsides such as those shown in Source 2.47. Use sketches to illustrate some of these steps.

6 Compare the soil improvement techniques used by Indigenous farmers in the Amazon forest to those described earlier in 'Soil, more than just dirt' in Chapter 1.2. What are the differences and similarities? Which techniques are more sustainable?

Genetically modified food

Farmers have taken advantage of natural genetic processes in their farming for generations. Dairy farmers, for example, will choose the most productive cows to breed with carefully selected bulls in order to produce offspring who produce the most milk. This is known as selective breeding.

Some farmers, using modern scientific discoveries and techniques, have taken this selection process a step further. All living things are made up of cells containing genes. These genes determine how each organism grows, acts and looks. Scientists are able to change the genes of plants and animals to give them certain desirable qualities known as traits. This is known as **genetic modification** (GM). In one example of genetic modification, scientists developed a cotton plant that produced a natural insecticide. This has resulted in a 90 per cent decrease in the amount of chemicals used to control insect pests on many Australian cotton farms since 1996.



Source 2.49 Some canola crops in Australia are genetically modified to produce larger yields and require fewer sprayings of herbicide. Canola is present in many foods such as margarine, bread, mayonnaise and potato chips.

The main benefits of GM food production

Pest resistance
Crops can be modified so that they can resist pests such as insects.



Disease resistance
GM can help plants resist fungi, viruses and bacteria.



The main benefits of GM food production

Nutrition
Minerals lacking in human diets can be introduced into food plants making them more nutritious.



Drought resistance
Genes from plants that grow in arid areas can help make other plants survive droughts.



Cold tolerance
Plants affected by frost can be modified to help them survive the cold.



Source 2.50 The five main benefits of producing genetically modified food

Opposition to GM foods

Many people are opposed to the genetic modification of food. They are concerned that GM foods are gradually becoming a part of our everyday diet without us knowing very much about the long-term effects. They are also concerned about the possible impacts of GM crops on other organisms such as the animals that eat the crops, which are then used for human consumption.

Environmentalists are worried about the impacts of GM crops on the environment and on the balance of ecosystems. They believe that some characteristics from GM plants, such as a resistance to herbicides (weed killers), may be passed onto other plants within the environment and even the weeds themselves.

GM foods in Australia

In Australia, many foods containing GM plants are already available on our supermarket shelves. You have probably eaten some GM foods today. These foods are checked for their safety and must be labelled as being genetically modified (see Source 2.52).

Source 2.51 Genetically modified foods that are available in Australia. The name of the GM crop (see column 1) differs from the way it appears on food labels (listed in column 2).

GM crop	The way it appears on ingredients lists	Examples of foods in which it may be used
Canola	• Vegetable oil, canola oil	Cooking oil, margarine-type spreads, mayonnaise, bread, cakes, biscuits, snacks (such as potato chips)
Corn	• Glucose/glucose syrup/dextrose	Cakes, biscuits, muffins, muesli bars, breakfast cereals
	• Fructose	Cakes, muesli bars
	• Maltodextrin	Simmer sauces, cake mixes, snacks, breakfast cereals, peanut butter
	• Modified starch/ thickener	Cakes, biscuits, muffins, muesli bars, sauces, breakfast cereals
Cotton	• Vegetable oil/ cottonseed oil	Cooking oil, margarine-type spreads, mayonnaise, snacks (such as potato chips), simmer sauces
Soya bean	• Soy oil/vegetable oil	Mayonnaise
	• Soy protein/ vegetable protein	Breads, cakes, biscuits, snack foods
	• Soy lecithin/ emulsifier (322)	Breads, cakes, biscuits, chocolate, margarine-type spreads, sauces



Source 2.52 In Australia, foods with genetically modified ingredients must disclose this on the label.

Check your learning 2.13

Remember and understand

1 What are the main benefits of genetically modified foods?

2 Examine Source 2.51. Did you know that so many foods in Australia contain GM ingredients? Do you eat any of these foods regularly?

Apply and analyse

3 Check the food labels of five foods you eat often. How many of them contain GM ingredients? Compare this to your classmates' results and work out a percentage of these foods that are partially GM.

4 Why is it beneficial for farmers to reduce their use of chemicals such as pesticides and herbicides?

Evaluate and create

5 How do you feel about GM foods? Write a 250–300 word piece explaining your point of view and the reasons behind it.

6 Which of the benefits of GM food production do you think has the greatest potential to increase global food production? Give some reasons for your answer and discuss them with the class.

7 Research one of these GM crops: Golden rice, Bt cotton, Fortuna potatoes, Flavr Savr tomatoes or GM bananas. How, why and where have these crops been modified?

Conservation agriculture

Geographers and environmental scientists classify different farming and agricultural practices in terms of the impact they have on the environment. At one end of the scale is the type of farming that relies heavily on human intervention with nature, using technology. Turning over the soil with machinery (tilling), and adding chemical fertilisers and pesticides are characteristics of this type of farming.

At the other end of the scale is the type of farming that requires only minimal human interaction with nature and disturbance of the natural environment. Known as 'minimum impact farming' or '**conservation agriculture**', this type of farming is seen by many experts and farmers as the best way to increase food production while protecting and restoring the natural environment.

Conservation agriculture is the practice of adopting resource-saving production methods – adding elements such as water, seed and fertiliser that complement natural processes. This aims to achieve high and consistent levels of production, while conserving the environment at the same time. Australian farmers are leading the world in the adoption of this type of farming. A 2008 survey of Australian grain farmers found that about 80 per cent were using conservation agriculture techniques compared with less than five per cent in 1980.

The three key principles of conservation agriculture are:

- Principle 1 – Do not disturb the soil by tilling (see Source 2.53).
- Principle 2 – Keep the soil covered with organic material (see Source 2.54).
- Principle 3 – Grow a range of plants, not a single crop (see Source 2.55).





Source 2.54 Principle 2: Keep the soil covered with organic material such as stalks from the previous harvest as mulch.



Source 2.55 Principle 3: Grow a range of plants including trees, shrubs, crops and pastures. This encourages natural biodiversity and crop nutrition and aids resilience to pests.



Source 2.53 Principle 1: do not disturb the soil by tilling (turning it over). Plant crops by drilling seeds instead. Tilling leads to soil erosion and disturbs the microorganisms in the soil that are crucial for fertility.

key**concept:** sustainability

Farmer-managed natural regeneration

A well-known form of conservation farming is called **permaculture**. This type of farming brings together the resources of the natural environment and the people who use those resources for their food, energy, shelter and other needs. The emphasis is on the careful and thoughtful use of nature to ensure the sustainability of Earth's ecosystems – using nature to support the farming rather than working against nature.

Farmer-managed **natural regeneration** is a form of permaculture used to combat poverty and hunger among poor subsistence farmers in developing countries. It uses old methods of management to encourage continuous growth of trees on farmland. When woodland management techniques are followed, trees are integrated into crops and grazing pastures. As a result there is an increase in crop yields and soil fertility and a decrease in wind and heat damage, and soil erosion.

For more information on the key concept of sustainability refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 2.56 This area of Jordan is a garden developed by an Australian permaculture expert, which uses natural regeneration techniques.

Regreening the desert in Niger

The country of Niger in Western Africa lies in the Sahel, a vast arid belt of savanna that crosses Africa, south of the Sahara Desert (see Source 2.58). This zone is considered to have the highest levels of food insecurity in the world. A combination of poor rains and overuse of the land and water mean that crops regularly fail there. In the last 25 years, however, there has been a remarkable transformation across much of Niger.

Five million hectares of degraded land have become productive again, increasing the amount of food grown in some areas fivefold. This produces an extra 500 000 tonnes of grain each year, feeding an extra 2.5 million people. Vast areas that were once infertile dust bowls incapable of supporting any farming are now green croplands, returning food security to one of the world's poorest nations.

This dramatic change is due largely to the work of an Australian, Tony Rinaudo, and a simple discovery he made in Niger. For generations Niger's farmers had seen trees in their fields as a source of wood for fuel and a nuisance to farming. Millions of trees had been cleared from the landscape to make way for small farms.

'An underground forest'

When Rinaudo arrived in Niger in 1981 he began planting new trees but they kept dying. He noticed, however, that the roots of the trees that had already been cleared still lay in the ground and were soon sending up new growth in the form of saplings. He called these roots an 'underground forest.'



Source 2.57 Thanks to the trees in the background this farmer in Niger grows lettuces in land that was once desert.

He convinced a few farmers to carefully prune this new growth rather than clear it completely. The trees soon returned to the landscape bringing shade and wind protection to crops and animals, preventing erosion, providing firewood for the farmers and adding organic matter and nutrients to the soil. The crop yields of those farmers who pruned and protected their trees increased dramatically. Other farmers soon followed their example. It is estimated that around 200 million trees have been protected in Niger and the technique is now being used across the Sahel to help increase food security for millions of people.

skilldrill

Analysing satellite images

A satellite image is a photograph taken from space. Satellite images have become one of the most useful tools for geographers, as they provide a snapshot in time of a large area of the Earth's surface. This allows us to identify patterns and changes over time, and to better understand the causes and effects of these patterns and changes.

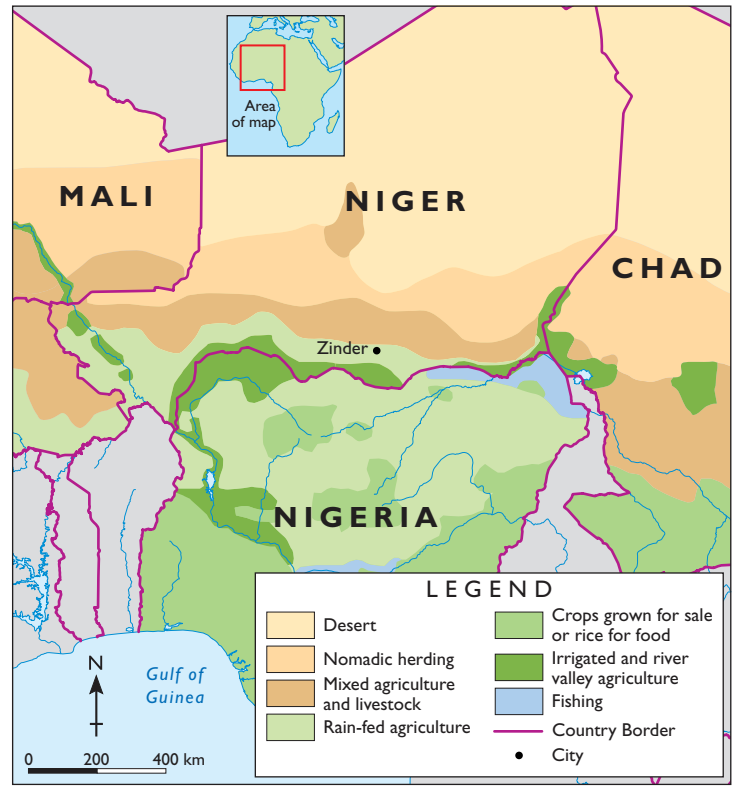
When analysing a satellite image or set of images follow these simple steps.

Step 1 Identify the exact area shown in the image or images. Use an atlas to verify where they were taken. Take note of other features in the region such as international borders, mountains and cities.

Step 2 Look closely at the image for features you can identify. A satellite image is taken from directly above (**plan view**) so objects appear in their correct location and size relative to each other.

Step 3 When comparing two satellite images of the same places taken at different times note the dates when the images were taken. Look for changes that have occurred between these two dates.

AFRICA, NIGER: LAND USE IN THE SAHEL REGION

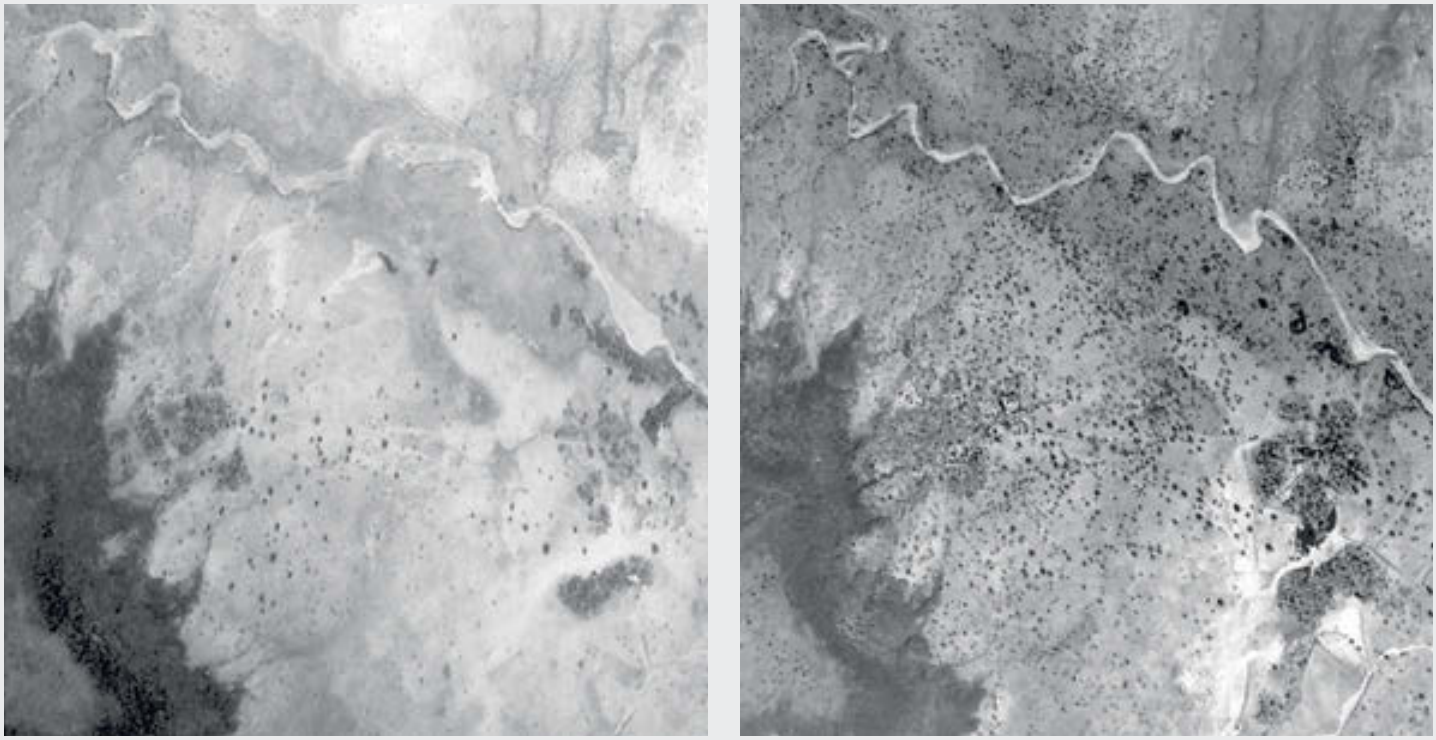


Source 2.58 Source: Oxford University Press

Apply the skill

1 Describe the landscape in the 1975 satellite image in Source 2.59. Each dark grey dot is a tree. Estimate the number of trees.

2 Describe the changes between 1975 and 2005 in Source 2.59. Include an estimate of the number of trees and also their distribution.



Source 2.59 Dual satellite images of the Zinder area of southern Niger in 1975 (left) and 2005 (right).

Check your learning 2.14

Remember and understand

1 What is tilling?
2 What are the three key principles of conservation agriculture?
3 What is permaculture?
4 Describe the method of revegetation developed by Tony Rinaudo.

Apply and analyse

5 Why is drilling seed directly into the soil better than tilling the ground and then planting seed?
6 How does using a variety of plants (principle 3) help to reduce pests such as weeds and invasive insects?
7 How does covering the soil with organic material (principle 2) help to conserve water? How would it benefit the soil?
8 Examine Source 2.58. Describe the location of the Sahel.
9 Describe land use patterns in Niger from north to south. Why do these variations in land use occur in this country?

Evaluate and create

10 The permaculture garden shown in Source 2.56 shows what is possible on a local scale. Do you think permaculture principles could be applied on a national or global scale? Discuss this with a partner and then with your class.
11 Permaculturalists limit their use of chemical fertilisers and pesticides. How do you think they achieve this?
12 You can use the historic imagery feature on Google Earth to explore satellite images and aerial photographs of Niger. Find a region that has changes similar to those in Source 2.59.
13 What lessons from the experience in Niger could be applied to other places struggling to maintain food security?

2.3 big**ideas:** broadsheet

Food waste and loss

It has been estimated that around one-third of all food is lost or wasted around the world every year. **Food loss** refers to the amount of food lost during the growing or production process. In developing countries, most food tends to be lost during production because of problems in harvesting, storing, cooling, packaging and marketing by producers. This equates to around 1.3 billion tonnes.

Food waste refers to the amount of food thrown away during the consumption process. In developed countries most food waste is carried out by consumers and retailers rather than food suppliers. Consumers tend to reject food that is not perfect in appearance. They also tend to buy too much food which spoils or passes its 'best-before' date. Reducing food waste and food loss would help increase food security in many places.



Source 2.60 Australians tend to buy more food than they need, leading to a high level of food waste.



Source 2.61 This Mongolian boy is transporting milk without refrigeration, which could lead to a high level of food loss.

skill**drill**

Preparing an infographic

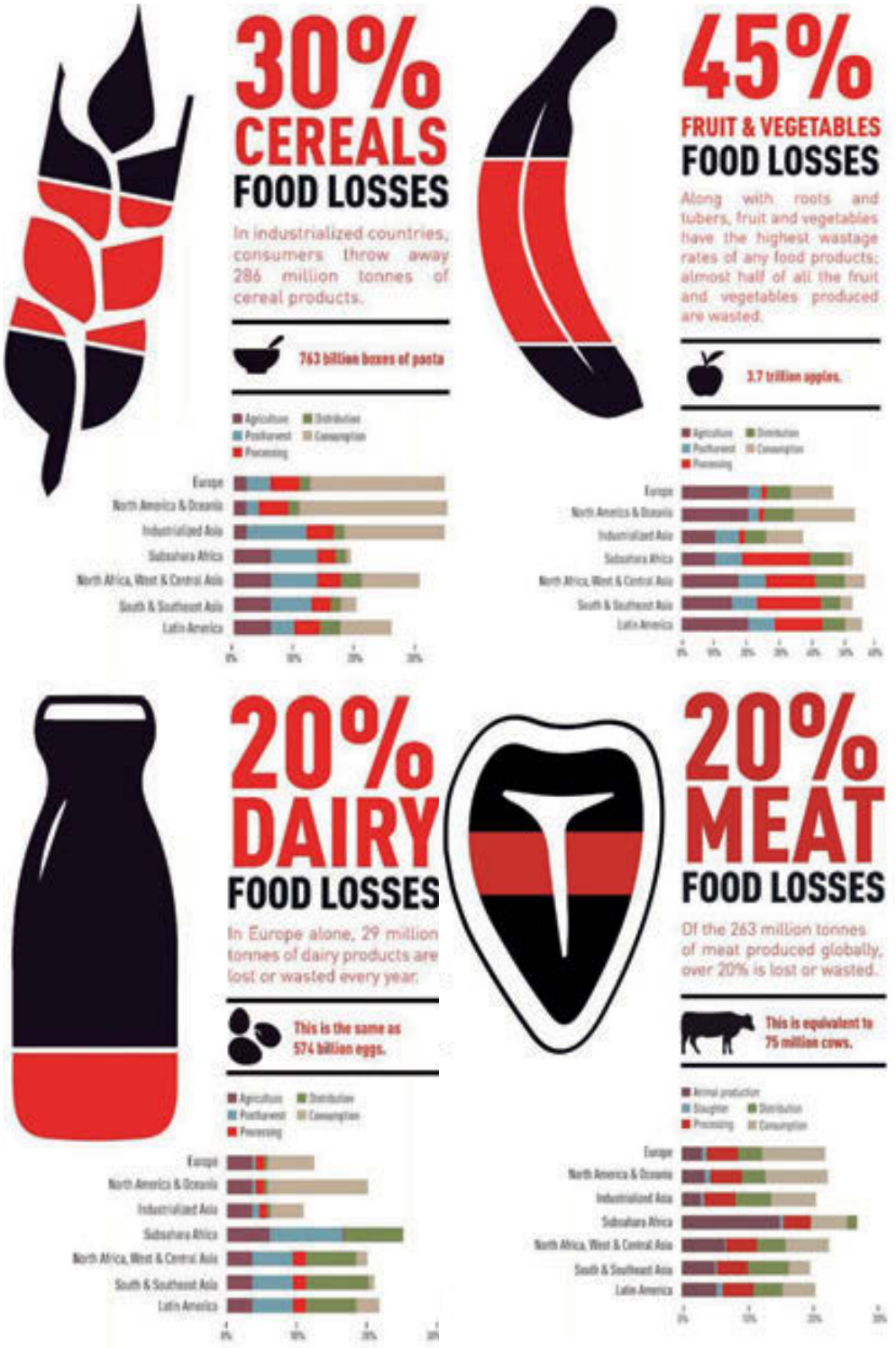
An increasingly popular way for geographers to present their findings and data is to prepare an infographic. Infographics use pictures and symbols to represent complex ideas and data so that information is clear and quickly accessible. Follow these steps to produce your own infographic.

Step 1 Decide on a topic and the message that you want to communicate to your audience. In the infographic in Source 2.62, for example, the key message is that people waste a huge quantity of food.

Step 2 Research your topic and collect data that helps to communicate your key idea. Try not to have too much data; don't include more than 10 key facts or numbers.

Step 3 Use a simple picture to communicate each of your key facts. The digger and hole in Source 2.63, for example, communicates that food is being dumped in landfill.

Step 4 Lay your graphics out in a logical way that links together the key ideas. Make sure your infographic is not too cluttered. Give your infographic a catchy title that communicates your message – something like, 'From Farm to Plate', 'Waste not, want not' or 'Starve the landfill'.



Source 2.62 Food waste is a serious issue for many countries around the world. This infographic shows the percentage of waste worldwide each year for different food groups.

Apply the skill

1 Design and present an infographic on an aspect of food waste. Here are some facts that you can use to help you get started. Many of these come from a UN report, *Global Food Losses and Food Waste*.

- One-third of all food is wasted or lost.
- Up to 50 per cent of fruits and vegetables are wasted every year.
- Total food wasted and lost in North America, Oceania and Europe is 280–300 kilograms per person per year. The amount of this that is food wasted by consumers is 95–115 kilograms.
- In Sub-Saharan Africa 120–170 kilograms is wasted or lost, about six kilograms of it by consumers.
- In developing countries more than 40 per cent of food loss occurs in harvesting, transporting and processing. In developed countries more than 40 per cent of losses occur at the retailing and consuming stages.
- The total amount of food wasted every year in developed countries is about the same as the total amount of food produced in Sub-Saharan Africa, which supports close to 900 million people.
- One-third of all fish and seafood produced in North America and Oceania is wasted by consumers.
- The cost of wasted food in Australia is about $239 per person per year, or $5.2 billion as a nation.

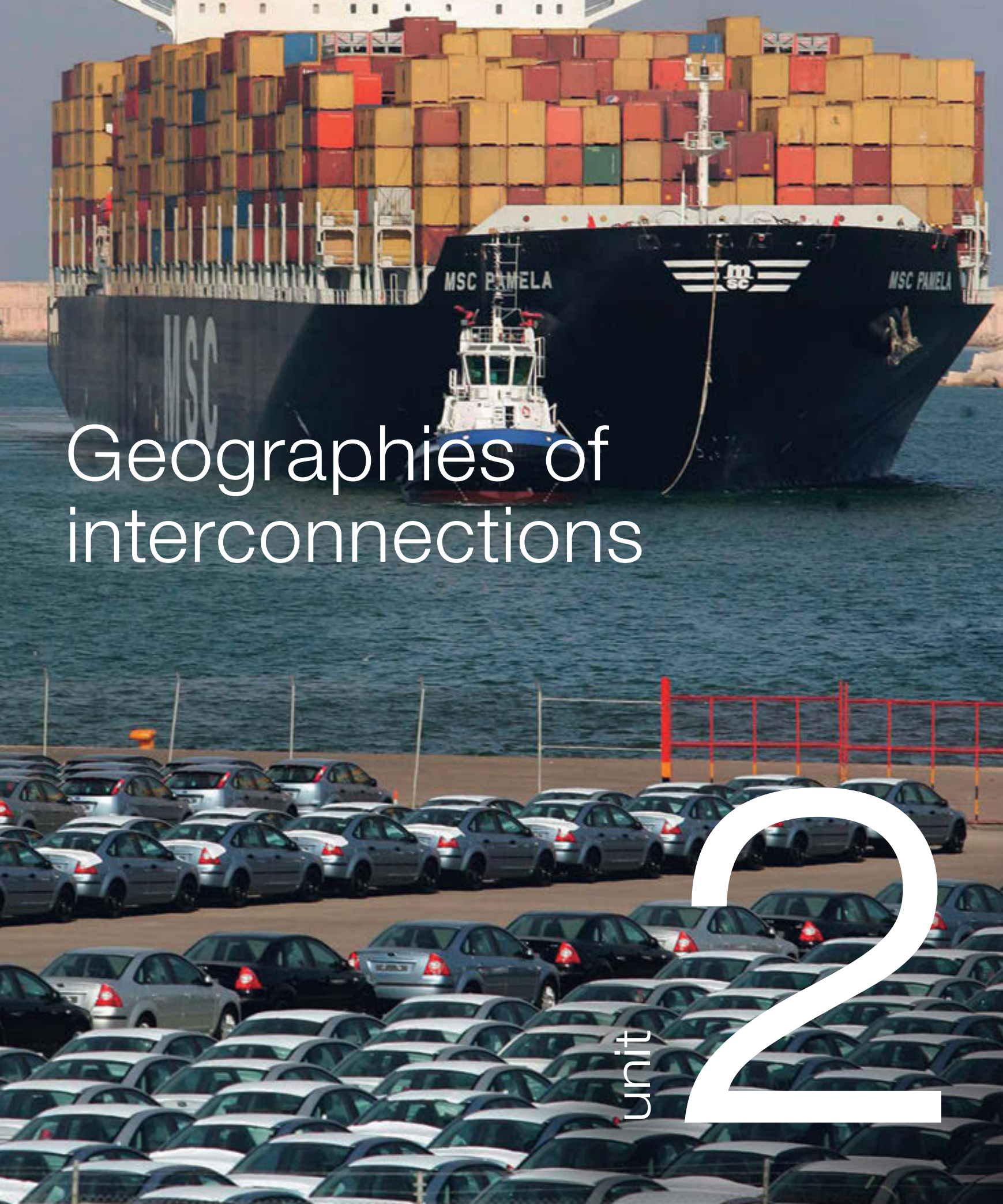


Source 2.63 Infographics can be used to convey a lot of information in a clear way so that it can be quickly understood.

Extend your understanding

1 Keep track of your household's food waste for a week. This means taking note of all edible food that is not eaten, and includes food that is wasted during meal preparation (such as peelings), food served but not eaten, or food that is spoiled and discarded. This could be placed into a bucket and weighed every day. Multiply the total amount by 52 to find out the amount of food wasted per year at your house. Compare this result to those of your classmates.

2 One of the main reasons why food is wasted in Australia is linked to consumer demand for fruit and vegetables that are pleasing in shape and appearance. Blemished items such as curved carrots or spotted apples are often taken out by the food producer, discarded by the retailer or not chosen by the consumer. Design an advertising campaign to reduce this aspect of food waste. Your campaign may take the form of a television, newspaper or social media advertisement, or a combination of these.



Geographies of interconnections

unit 2

Connecting people and places



This is Gibraltar, an English territory that lies on the southern tip of Spain in a body of water that connects the Atlantic Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea. This means it is strategically significant for shipping between Europe and the rest of the world. For this reason, disputes over the territory have resulted in many wars over the last 500 years. Though once heavily fortified to protect its inhabitants from invasion, Gibraltar is now highly accessible. It has a busy international airport, container port, a cruise ship harbour and is connected by road to Spain. Now home to almost 30 000 people, it receives almost 12 million tourists a year.

Connected to the world by trade, tourism, transport technologies and communications, Gibraltar illustrates how every place on Earth is connected to every other place more than ever before.

3.1

How do people perceive places?

1. Gibraltar is famous for a 426-metre high rock, known as the Rock of Gibraltar, which is a popular drawcard for tourists. Do you think the people that live within sight of the Rock every day would regard it differently than a visiting tourist would?
2. In what ways might a resident feel differently about Gibraltar compared to a tourist?

3.2

How do people connect to different people and places?

1. Describe some of the ways in which Gibraltar is connected to other places around the world using evidence from this picture. Are there other likely connections that are not shown in this picture?



Source 3.1 Gibraltar is a compact country at the southern tip of Spain. Its coastal location and access to many countries means it has been a highly sought-after territory over the course of history.

3.3

How does trade connect people and places?

1 Gibraltar has little land that is suitable for farming and food production. Where do you think the people who live there get most of their food from?

3.1 How do people perceive places?

What is place?

Everyone has places that mean something special to them. You can probably think of a place right now that has a particular significance for you. It could be a corner of your room where you listen to music, or a local sports ground where you train with your friends – somewhere that you identify with and attach meaning to. Indeed, this is what places are – parts of the Earth's surface that are identified and given meaning by people. A place can be as small as your bedroom or as large as a continent. It can be a constructed feature, such as a building, or a naturally existing feature such as a freshwater lake.

The key concept of place is essential to geographers. By dividing the Earth's surface into a series of identifiable places, geographers can better understand the natural processes and human activities that shape and change our world.

People may be attached to different places for different reasons, and places can mean completely different things to different people. The tourists in Source 3.2, for example, might perceive this place as an opportunity to see something unique and to photograph it. The bus driver who brought them here and the owner of the resort where they are staying may see it quite differently – as somewhere that provides them with employment and an income. For the Indigenous people of the region, the Anangu, this place has a very different meaning. Different parts of the landscape contain stories of their origin and creation and are regarded as sacred sites which they have a duty to care for and protect.

What are spaces?

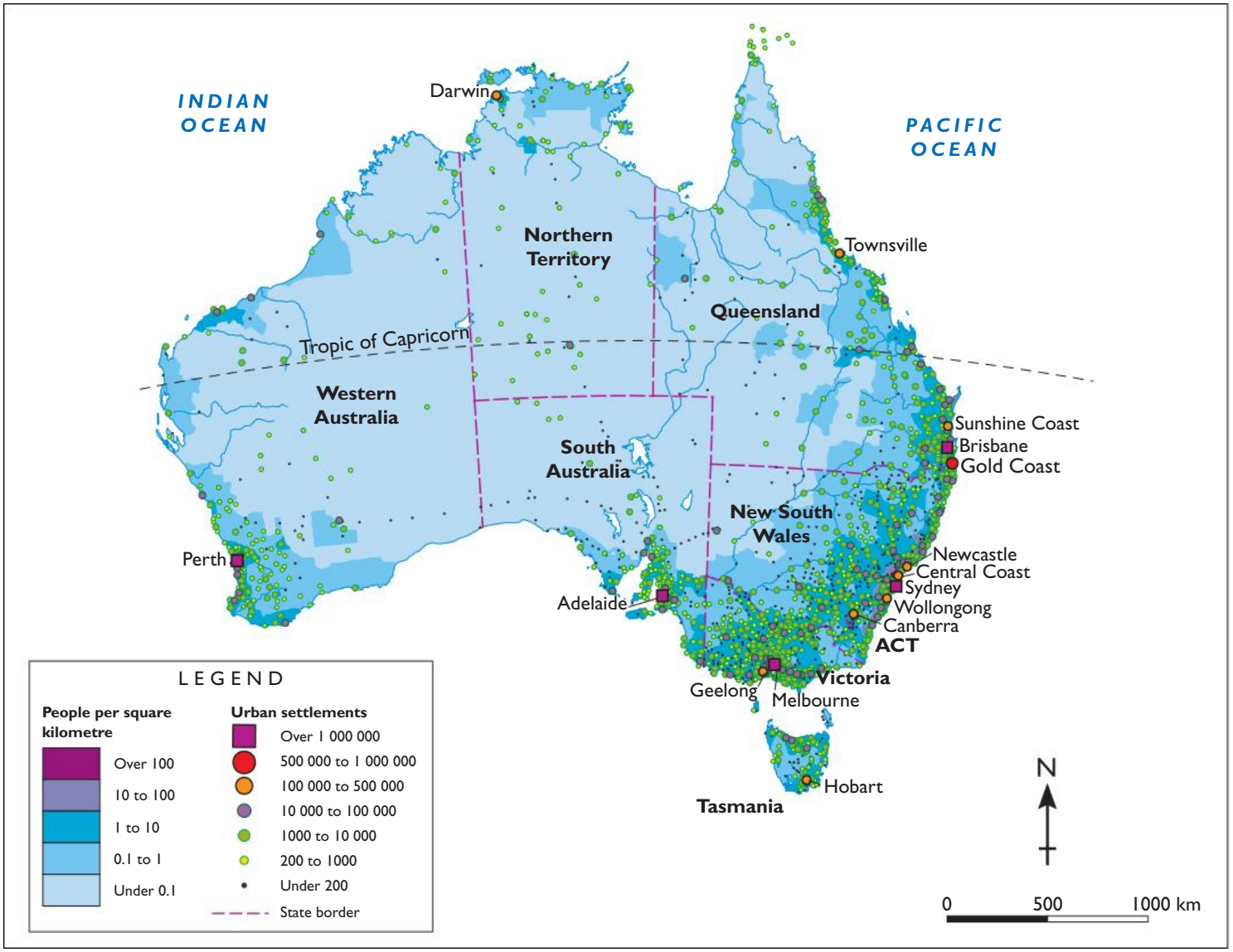
Space refers to the way in which features are arranged on the Earth's surface. The key concept of space helps geographers to explain the way things are arranged by applying the elements of location, organisation, and spatial distribution – the shapes and patterns in which things are arranged on the Earth's surface.

Geographers often use maps to explore and explain the arrangement of the Earth's features. Maps allow us to see patterns and try to explain why these patterns occur. Source 3.3, for example, shows the distribution of Australia's population. It shows us that Australians tend to live near the coast in large cities, particularly in eastern Australia. A geographer studying this map would note the pattern. They may also ask questions about it, and perhaps ask about the line of small towns between Adelaide and Perth. Why are the towns arranged in this way? How are they connected? These kinds of questions are applying the concept of space.



Source 3.2 Uluru is a place that has been identified and given meaning. Like all places it has both tangible (able to be touched) and intangible (not able to be touched) characteristics. The rock, the plants and the soil are all tangible while the scenic beauty, cultural significance and economic value are intangible.

AUSTRALIA: POPULATION DENSITY AND DISTRIBUTION



Source 3.3

Source: Oxford Atlas

Interconnections between places

We all create places of our own by defining them and giving them meaning, and all of these places are interconnected. Geographers use different ways to understand and explain these interconnections.

No place exists in isolation. Not even a rock in a mountain riverbed or a single tree is isolated. Every place is interconnected with another. The place where you live is connected to a neighbourhood, the road outside the school connects it with different suburbs, and entire continents are connected to each other in many ways, too.

Some of the interconnections between places are the result of natural processes. The rock in the riverbed mentioned above, for example, may be connected not only to the other surrounding rocks but also to other areas entirely. Fast-flowing rivers, for example, wear down rocks into tiny pieces and then carry these pieces to the coast, where they are shaped into new features such as sand dunes and sandbars. This process links together the mountains and the coast.

Other interconnections are the result of human activities such as trade, transport and communication. These move people, goods, services and ideas between places, linking them together.

There are various ways that geographers explain how and why we connect to place, and these will be examined in the material to follow.

key**concept:** place

Comparing different perceptions of place

How you perceive and use a place can be influenced by various factors. The same place can be perceived in different ways by different people – a historian might perceive a museum as a fascinating place to visit, for example, while another person might think it is quite boring. The same place can be used in very different ways, too. The steps outside the museum could be used as a place to go skateboarding, or at other times as a backdrop for wedding photos. A park that is filled with families on a bright sunny day might seem like a safe, enjoyable place to go with a friend, but the same park might seem very different to you if you found yourself there in the middle of the night alone. Factors that influence how you perceive places include:

- your age
- your ethnic origin
- your gender
- the time of day or night you are visiting the place
- whether you are travelling to the place alone or in a group
- whether you have a disability or are able-bodied.

For more information on the key concept of place refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 3.4 There are many factors that might influence the way someone perceives a place.

Check your learning 3.1

Remember and understand

1 Write a definition of the term 'place' in your own words.
2 Think of a place that you know well. Describe this place in terms of its tangible and intangible characteristics.
3 Explain how new technologies have helped to create greater links between people and places.

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 3.3.
  a Describe the spatial distribution of Australian cities that contain more than 100 000 people.
  b Why are maps often used to show the concept of space in geography?
5 Examine Source 3.4. How do you think the people in these photos feel about the places shown? How might a different person feel about each of the places?

Evaluate and create

6 Give an example of a place in your area that is used for more than one purpose. Design a poster showing the different ways in which it is used. Try to think of as many people as possible that might use the place, the different ways they might use it, and what their perceptions of the place might be.
7 Write a tweet or start a meme that helps the person who receives it to understand the concept of place, space or interconnection. You may want to find a picture on the Internet to inspire you, or you could even give an existing meme a new geographical twist.

Explaining different ways we connect to place

Geographers are interested in how people are connected to different places, and how each of these different places is interconnected. They also interpret people's perception of places. Perception refers to the way in which we regard, understand or interpret things, including places.

Geographers use different models, tools and strategies to understand and explain some of the ways people perceive place. Here, we will examine three of these methods:

- Asking questions
- Using a geographical model
- Applying a set of geographical criteria

Asking questions

As you know, geographers ask lots of questions, and this is certainly the case when it comes to examining the key concept of place. Because we connect to places in many different ways, geographers need to ask a range of questions in order to understand and explain these interconnections.

For example, a geographer visiting the rock formation of the Bungle Bungle Range in Western Australia might investigate why the rocks are such a distinctive and unusual shape. They would look for clues and ask questions. Why are there stripes in the rocks? What outside forces might have caused them? How are the rocks connected to the surrounding landscape?

As the concept of place involves many different aspects (in addition to physical appearance), a geographer would then go on to ask a range of other questions about the area's cultural, spiritual and economic aspects. Do people live in the area? If so, how long have they lived here? Do other people come to visit? Is the place used for spiritual or religious purposes?

Asking such questions often reveals that people view the same place very differently. One place may be nothing more than pretty scenery to a passer-by, while to someone else it could be a sacred site or even burial ground. This difference in perception can lead to very different opinions about what might be a suitable way to treat or use a place.



Source 3.5 To a visiting tourist, the Bungle Bungles might just be another pretty landscape. To the traditional owners, the Kija peoples, it is perceived very differently.

Using a geographical model

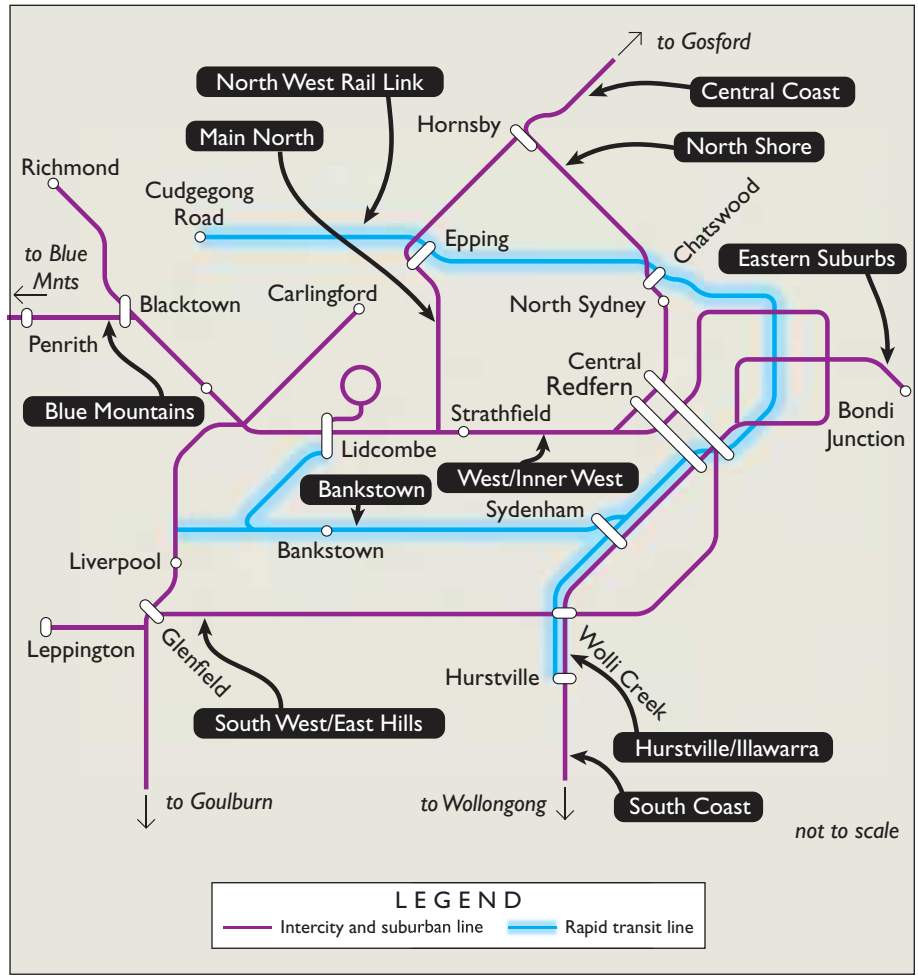
Geographical models are used by geographers to explain patterns and analyse their significance. The networks that connect people and places together can be very complex and confusing. Geographers often simplify complex networks by using a range of models such as a **hub and spoke** model. A 'hub and spoke' model is a way of representing connections in a way that can be more easily understood. They look and function a bit like a bicycle wheel, where the hub is the centre of the 'wheel', and each spoke is connected to it.

Complex connections between places like the suburbs of a city can be viewed using a hub and spoke model, where the city centre is the hub, and the roads and public transport connections that bring people to it are the spokes.

A hub and spoke model is also useful when explaining the interconnections of the complex networks we access every day, such as transport and communication networks. These networks allow people to connect with each other and provide access to vital services such as schools, hospitals, shopping centres and other community facilities. While most established Australian communities have well-developed networks, not everyone finds them easy to access. People with disabilities, for example, may find it difficult to use some forms of public transport and this can limit their connectedness with their local community.

Applying a set of geographical criteria

There are many different reasons why people feel connected to particular places. Geographers try to understand these reasons by grouping them into similar categories according to a set of criteria. By doing this, they can start to identify patterns in the data they collect and draw conclusions



Source 3.6 This image shows how lines of a public transport network act like spokes, connecting places to the central hub. A place can have more than one hub, and many spokes.

based on these patterns. For example, you might feel connected to a particular street because you wrote your initials in wet cement there when you were a kid. Another person might feel connected to that street because their church is located there. A third person might also feel connected to the street because they work in a shop there. Although all three people feel a certain connection to this place, they each perceive it in a different way because of the different experiences they had there and the meaning they attach to them.

By classifying these reasons, or sorting them into groups, geographers can better understand important interconnections to place. Most reasons for a feeling of connection to place can be grouped under the following four criteria:

- **Spiritual**: factors related to a person's beliefs
- **Economic**: factors related to employment and income
- **Cultural**: factors related to the shared characteristics of a group of people
- **Historical**: factors related to past experiences and events.



Source 3.7 Westfield Chadstone is a shopping and entertainment hub in Melbourne's south-east. It is the largest shopping centre in the country and receives about 20 million visitors a year. It is linked to other parts of Melbourne by an extensive network of road and public transport 'spokes'.

Check your learning 3.2

Remember and understand

1 List two methods geographers use to explain how people connect to place.

2 Examine Source 3.7 and write down how a hub and spoke model could be used to describe it. It may help to first identify the hub and what facilities it provides, and then describe the spokes when thinking about your answer.

Apply and analyse

3 Write a short paragraph about a place that is important to you. Can you identify the main reasons why you perceive it as being important?

4 What are some of the important hubs in your local community? Select two or three hubs and write a paragraph on each, explaining how they service and support different members of the community.

5 Examine Source 3.5. Brainstorm reasons why people might have different opinions about appropriate ways of using or developing important sites such as the Bungle Bungle Range. Create a table in your notebook to classify these reasons under the following four criteria: economic, cultural, historical or spiritual.

6 Examine Source 3.6. Why is a network such as this one important for a community? In what ways does it connect people and places?

Evaluate and create

7 Choose a city you have read about or visited and explain the different ways in which people there are interconnected.
You may want to think about the reasons people visit, what the transport system and road network are like, and any historical factors.

Connections to place

As discussed, the different ways in which peole connect to place can be categorised according to four main criteria – spiritual factors, economic factors, cultural factors and historical factors.

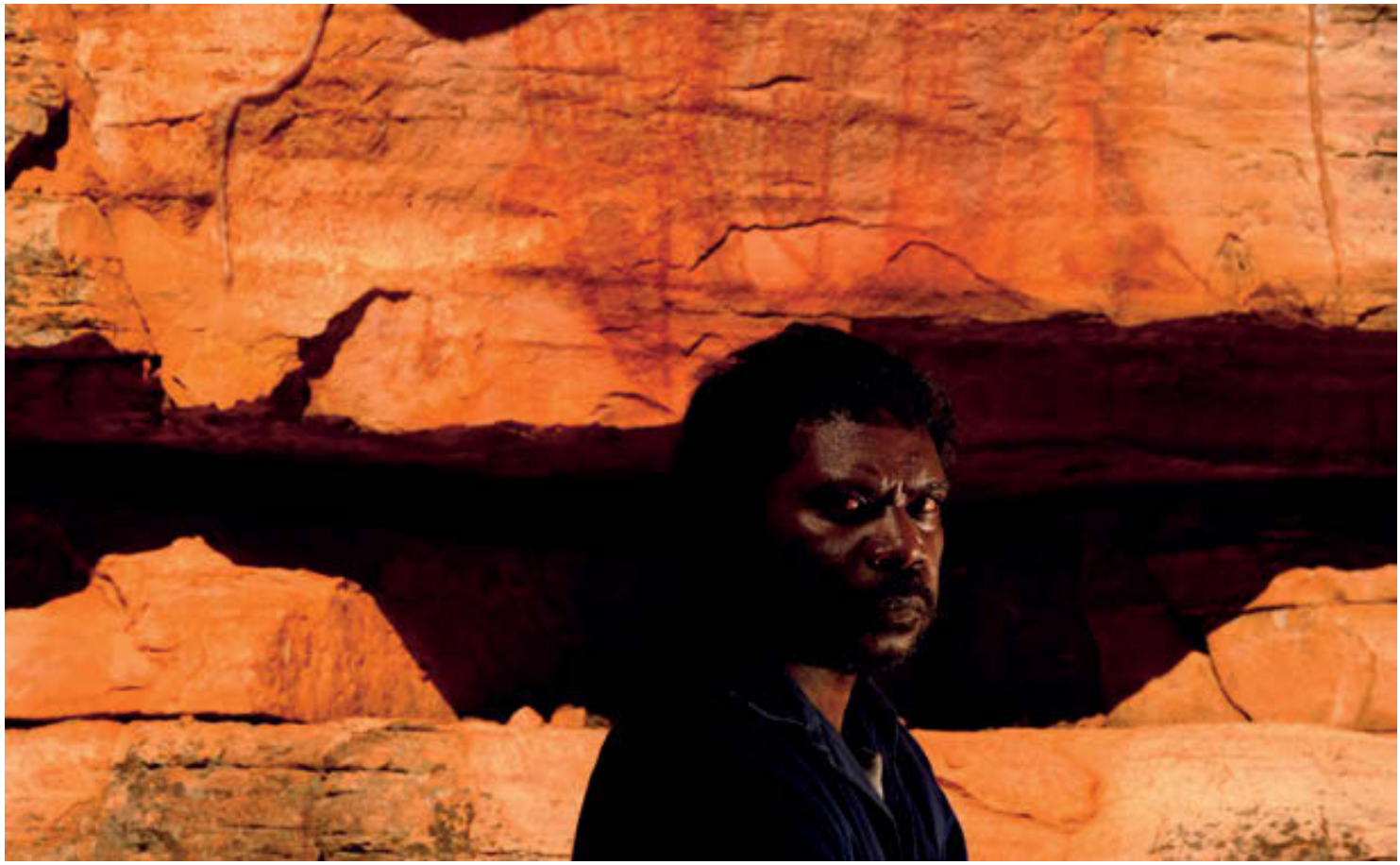
Spiritual factors

Many people feel connected to particular places because of their beliefs or the way a place makes them feel. Sometimes this connection can be difficult for other people to fully understand but this does not make the connection any less real or important. For example, many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people have a deep and complex spiritual connection to places in the natural world that other people in the wider community do not have.

Jeffrey Lee, the sole survivor of the Djok clan in the Northern Territory, could have become one of Australia's richest men (see Source 3.8). He is the custodian of land that contains vast deposits of uranium. However, when a French energy company offered him millions in royalties to allow them to mine the uranium, he declined.

Instead, he offered the land to the Federal Government so that it would be included as part of Kakadu National Park, and therefore protected from mining.

'When you dig 'em hole in that country, you're killing me. Money don't mean nothing to me. Country is very important to me,' he told newspaper reporters. Mr Lee believes that it is his responsibility to look after the land and that digging into the ground would disturb the spirits that live within it. 'There are sacred sites, there are burial sites and there are other special places out there which are my responsibility to look after. I'm not interested in white people offering me this or that … it doesn't mean a thing. I'm not interested in money. I've got a job; I can buy tucker; I can go fishing and hunting. That's all that matters to me.'



Source 3.8 For Jeffrey Lee, the spiritual importance of the land far outweighs any potential monetary gain.



Source 3.9 A 2011 protest in Illawarra against the mining of gas in New South Wales farming areas shows how the economic connection to place can be at odds with those who have other factors which influence their connection.

Economic factors

Many people feel a connection to particular places because these places provide them with employment or a source of income. In the previous example of the proposed uranium mine in the Northern Territory, the French mineral company was interested in connecting to this place because of economic opportunities. In the same way, a farmer will feel connected to the place in which he or she farms and a tourism operator will feel connected to the place that tourists come to visit.

In countries where personal wealth is viewed as a desirable goal, economic connection to place may take precedence over less tangible reasons for connection, such as spiritual or historical factors. Different reasons for connecting to place can cause disagreement, protest and even conflict between individuals and groups.

In parts of Queensland and New South Wales, for example, there is widespread disagreement about mining gas from the rocks beneath farming areas (see Source 3.9). Many farmers believe that the process used to extract the gas degrades their land and water but mining companies point out that the gas is needed by many people for heating and cooking. Many protests have been held to try and influence state and federal governments to more closely control or stop the mining of this gas.

Cultural factors

Connections to place can also be strongly influenced by a range of cultural factors. This can include the perceived historic value of a place, and how that is meaningful for people in the present, the past and even into the future. The notion of cultural heritage can be an important motivating factor for connection to place.

People with similar interests, backgrounds and heritage often connect with each other to form communities. Immigrants to a new country, for example, tend to live close to other recent arrivals from the same country. This allows them to connect more easily to people with the same language and culture and therefore, to fit more easily into their new community.

This happens all around the world and creates areas of ethnic concentration. In New York, for example, there are neighbourhoods known as Little Italy, Chinatown, Little Manila, Le Petit Senegal, Jamaica, Koreatown and Spanish Harlem. The residents of these places may feel connected to the area in which they live because of their cultural connections (see Source 3.11).



Source 3.10 The Bright Moon Buddhist Temple in Springvale acts as an important hub for many Vietnamese people who have made the suburb their home.

Case study: Vietnamese in Springvale, Melbourne

The Melbourne suburb of Springvale is an example of ethnic concentration in Australia. Many of the residents were born overseas, with eight out of 10 Springvale residents speaking more than one language. While the area has seen several waves of migrants from Europe and Asia over the last century, it is now the Vietnamese who dominate.

As a result of the Vietnam War in the 1960s and 1970s, millions of Vietnamese fled the country to find refuge elsewhere.



Source 3.11 Springvale in Melbourne is home to communities of Chinese, Cambodian, Thai and Greek families and has a strong Vietnamese population – Vietnamese people make up 21.3 per cent of the population.

Many Vietnamese refugees crammed into small boats to escape and became known as 'boat people'. More than 112 000 Vietnamese came to Australia in the 20 years after 1975 and Melbourne is now home to more than 67 000 people who were born in Vietnam.

Many Vietnamese refugees also settled in the suburbs of Cabramatta in Sydney and Richmond in Melbourne. Springvale originally became a popular place for Vietnamese people because a migrant hostel was located there and cheap housing was available. In Springvale, new arrivals from Vietnam joined a large and growing migrant population from many other places.

Historical factors

Events that happened in the past can also result in people forming special connections to particular places. These may be recent events or events from hundreds of years ago, but they can form powerful links between people and places. For many people, the places they visited on holidays as children remain special places well into their adulthood because of the memories these places hold.

On a wider scale, important historical events can give particular places a special meaning. Such historical events could include a war or battle such as Gallipoli (see Source 3.13), a terrorist attack such as the Bali bombings, or the birthplace or burial place of a famous person. In some towns and cities, places of historical significance might be marked with a statue or other commemorative marker. In London, for example, many places which are connected

with historical events and people are marked with blue memorial plaques (see Source 3.12).

The strong connection some people feel with a place for historical reasons can explain why many people feel strongly about the demolition of old buildings or the development of a site for a new apartment block. It also helps to explain why people may have a special connection to battle sites thousands of kilometres away or to the wharf where they first arrived in Australia as a refugee.



Source 3.12 Blue plaques in London mark places where people may feel a historical connection due to an event that occurred or a person that lived at that place.



Source 3.13 Many Australians and New Zealanders feel a special connection to Gallipoli in Turkey because of battles fought there a century ago. These people are attending an Anzac Day dawn service at Gallipoli.

Check your learning 3.3

Remember and understand

1 Why might people sometimes find it difficult to understand another person's spiritual connection to a particular place?

2 Why do people with similar cultural backgrounds often live close to each other?

3 Why would some farmers in Queensland and New South Wales protest about gas mining in the places where they live?

Apply and analyse

4 Re-read the information relating to Jeffrey Lee.
   - a Describe the connection he has to the place in which he lives.
   - b Why does he have this connection?
   - c Is this the same way you feel about the land? Why or why not?
   - d Account for the similarities and differences between his connection to the land and yours.

5 What might be some of the important hubs for Vietnamese people in Springvale? Are there similar hubs in your local area? Are you connected to these places for similar reasons?

Evaluate and create

6 Many people feel a connection to places where important events occurred in the past. Find out why many Australians have a special connection to Gallipoli in Turkey, or to Kuta in Bali.

7 The Yasukuni Shrine in Tokyo, Japan, is an example of a place that inspires strong feelings in people. Research the shrine and investigate why people might have different connections to this place. Design a poster that shows the results of your research.



Source 3.14 Yasukuni Shrine in Tokyo, Japan, is a place that inspires a range of different reactions in people.

Mental maps versus GPS

A **mental map** is a map that we keep in our heads, rather than on paper or in our phone. We all carry a map in our head of our local area. This allows us to find our way quickly and easily between places. We tend to know the places we use often and the spaces between them much better than the places and spaces we rarely use or visit. As we all use different places, we each have a unique mental map of our local area.

Is GPS ruining our mental maps?

Many Australian cars and mobile phones are fitted with a GPS device. GPS or **Global Positioning Systems** use satellites to accurately pinpoint the location of the car or phone. By adding data in the form of a digital map, GPS devices can be used to help us find our way around. For many people, their GPS device has replaced printed maps and written directions as the main way of navigating around an area. Using GPS devices can be extremely helpful, but has using them ruined our own mental maps?



Source 3.15 GPS devices can translate complex three-dimensional places into a series of lines and instructions that make it easy to navigate.

A study published in the *New York Times* in 2012 found that using a GPS rather than our internal mental map reduces the ability of our brain to build up a mental picture of our environment. While our brains build up layers of information to develop mental maps, a GPS device reduces all of the information to a simple list of distances and directions. By not using the mental maps we have stored, we may risk losing the ability to create them in the first place.

The report concludes with this advice:

'Next time you're in a new place, forget the GPS device. Study a map to get your bearings, then try to focus on your memory of it to find your way around. City maps do not tell you each step, but they provide a wealth of abstract survey knowledge. Fill in these memories with your own navigational experience, and give your brain the chance to live up to its abilities.'

skill**drill**

Putting a mental map down on paper

A mental map is a simple but effective tool people use to perceive, remember and analyse an area. You can record the mental map you have of an area into hard copy, for yourself or for another person to use, by following these simple steps:

Step 1 Choose an area you know well that you wish to map.

Step 2 Starting with a blank piece of paper, jot down the main places you can remember in the area. Do not refer to street directories or other professionally drawn maps. Remember that there is no 'right' answer for a mental map.

Step 3 Fill in the main roads, pathways and any railway lines that connect places in the area.

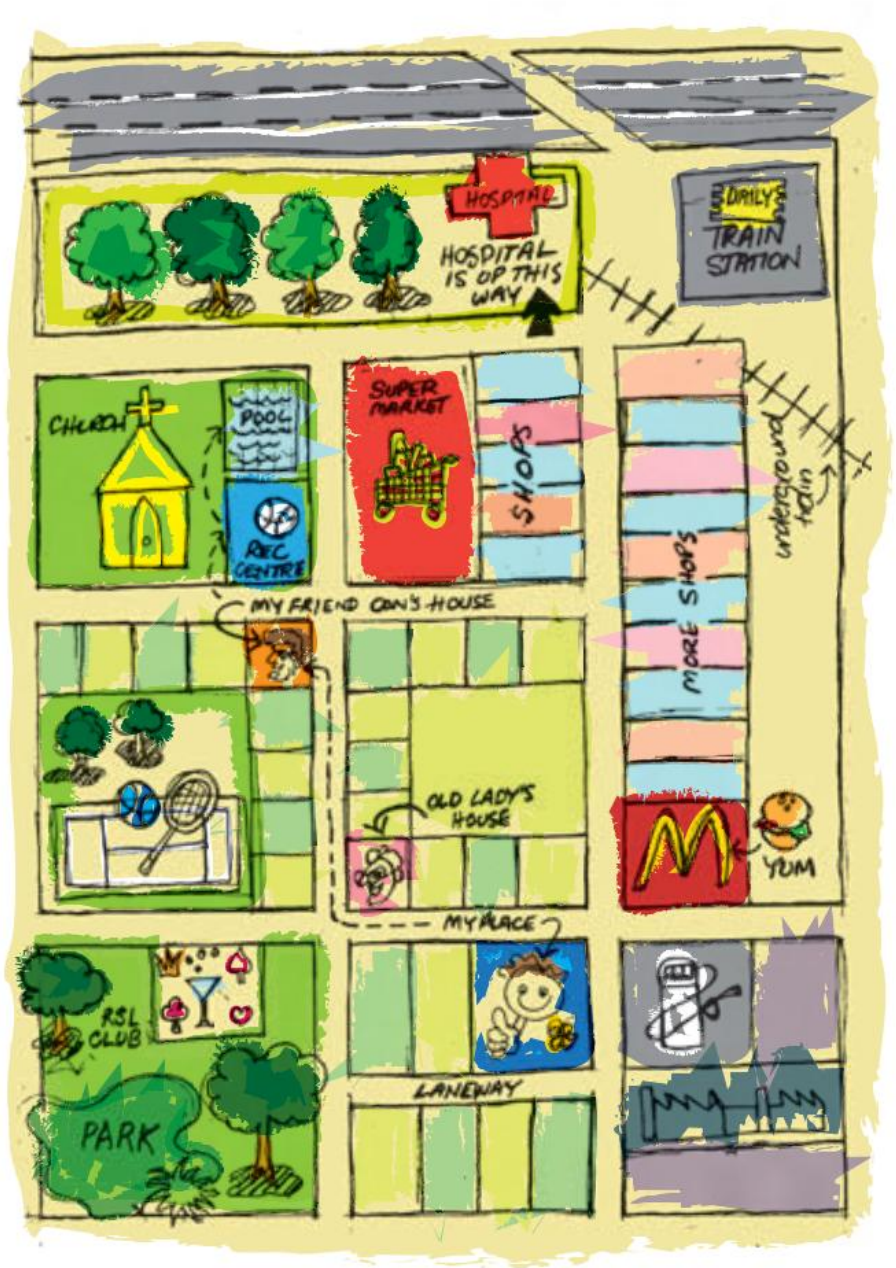
Step 4 Include any parks, ovals or reserves, or any significant natural features you can remember.

Step 5 Mark down any significant landmarks or buildings. These might include a statue on a corner, a church or school, shops or even a wall that features some graffiti art.

Step 6 Continue plotting features, roads, and landmarks until you are satisfied that all the things you can remember as being significant are added to your hard-copy map.

Apply the skill

1 Make a hard copy of your mental map of the area in which you live. It could cover a couple of blocks or more – the size will depend on how much information you keep in your head. Label features that are important to you. This might include shops, your sports club, or a friend's house.



Source 3.16 Everyone has a mental map of their home area whether they realise it or not. You may be surprised at how much detail you can readily recall about the area where you live and how often you use your mental map.

Extend your understanding

1 Swap your map with another person in your class.
   a Note down any similarities and any differences in what you chose to include in your mental map. What were some of the main differences between the two mental maps?
   b Discuss with your partner what their mental map revealed about them and their perception of their local area. What did the features they included tell you about them? For example, if they included a football field, oval and gym, you could safely say they had an interest in sports. What did they think your mental map revealed about you?

2 Look closely at the mental map in Source 3.16.
   a What are some of the places in the local area that are important to this person?
   b What does this mental map reveal about the person who drew it?

3 List the pros and cons of keeping a mental map versus using a GPS. Are there any aspects of a GPS that might limit your understanding of an area? Do you think you would prefer to rely on a GPS or a mental map? Why do you think this?

4 Ask a primary school student to draw a mental map of their local area and display them on a classroom wall along with the completed maps from your own class.
   a What were some of the main differences between the two sets of mental maps?
   b Why do you think the mental maps of primary school students differ to those of secondary school students?
   c What has this activity taught you about the ways in which different people perceive their local area?

3.2 How do people connect to different people and places?

The things we do, see, use and consume

'No man is an island Entire of itself, Every man is a piece of the continent, A part of the main.'

The English poet John Donne wrote these words way back in 1624. In these lines he expresses the idea that every person is connected to someone else. This is as true today as it was nearly 400 hundred years ago. The more we learn about our amazing planet and the people who live here the more we come to realise that everyone and everything is connected to everyone and everything else.

We are connected to people and places all around the world in many ways. This includes being connected by the food we eat, the clothes we wear, the goods in our homes, the sport we play, the music we listen to and the movies we watch.

We are also the most mobile generation in history, travelling for work and for leisure more often and more quickly. As well as these physical and cultural connections there are the rapidly growing digital connections that break down barriers such as language and distance that once separated people and places.

Global citizens

Each of us is an example of the connected world in which we live. This is true even when we are just sitting at our desk at school – we don't have to physically travel to be connected with other places in the world.



Source 3.17 Australia's Cadel Evans (right) wins a stage in the 2011 Tour de France. He is followed to the line by cyclists from Spain, Kazakhstan, Colombia, Belgium and Norway. The race was televised in 190 countries and watched by an estimated 3.5 billion people around the world.

Some people, however, are true global citizens and are linked in many different ways to places all around the world. Cadel Evans, the famous Australian cyclist, is one example of a person who is interconnected globally on many levels (see Source 3.17). Perhaps best known as the first Australian to win the Tour de France cycling race, Evans was once asked how it felt to be an Australian whose sport has taken him around the world. He replied, 'Chiara's [his wife] Italian, we're living in Switzerland and I'm Australian riding for an American registered team sponsored by a Swiss company.' He could also have added that he and his wife have adopted an Ethiopian child and that his teammates are from 10 different countries.

The life and career of Cadel Evans is a clear example of the many ways we can be connected with many different places.

key**concept:** interconnection

How submarine cables connect the world through communication

In the past, most countries used their own resources to feed and clothe their own populations. Today, however, all nations increasingly rely on each other to supply goods and services to their populations. We are more connected to the rest of the world than we have ever been before. This increasing interconnection between countries is referred to as globalisation.

Globalisation has increased rapidly over the last 50 to 60 years. In 2008, for example, the same amount of trade took place in one day as in a whole year in the 1940s. This increase is largely due to rapid improvements in information and communications technology (ICT) such as the Internet. Virtually all of the world's Internet connections are made through submarine cables on the ocean floors that link together the world's land masses. In total, there are about 885 000 kilometres of submarine cables around the world and the latest cables carry signals 12 000 kilometres across the Atlantic Ocean in 0.00072 seconds. The latest submarine cables are about the thickness of a garden hose but contain enough bandwidth for 20 million Internet users.

For more information on the key concept of interconnection refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

WORLD: NETWORK OF SUBMARINE TELECOMMUNICATION CABLES



Source 3.18 Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 3.4

Remember and understand

1 How do the lines of John Donne's poem relate to the principle of interconnection? Do you think this poem is relevant to today's world? Why or why not?

2 In what ways do submarine cables connect different places around the world?

Apply and analyse

3 Write a list of some of the ways in which you link to other countries.
   - a Share your links with your classmates and build up a class list of these links.
   - b Show these links on a world map. You may need to develop a legend to show different types of links.
   - c Describe the pattern shown on your class map.

4 Examine Source 3.18.
   - a Which regions and countries are the most connected by submarine cables?
   - b Which places are important hubs for submarine cables?

Evaluate and create

5 Re-write the section of John Donne's poem in your own words as a tweet. How many people would his poem have reached when it was published in 1624? How many people could the Twitter version reach? Describe how both the poem and the tweet are examples of interconnection.

How geographical features influence interconnections

The distribution of the world's land masses and physical features has always been a key factor in making connections between people and places easy or difficult. Some physical features, such as high mountain ranges, deserts and stormy seas, have been natural barriers to trade and communication for thousands of years.

Others, such as rivers and mountain passes, act as natural corridors for connecting people and places. All around the world, people have attempted to cut through mountains, build bridges over valleys, and even construct underwater tunnels to overcome some of the natural barriers that inhibit transport and trade.

The Khyber Pass: A natural corridor

Some of the world's greatest natural barriers are the massive mountain ranges of Central Asia including the Himalayas and Hindu Kush ranges. Transport links across the ranges are limited to a few high mountain passes. The most important of these is the Khyber Pass. Carved by mountain rivers and streams, the pass allows road and rail connections between Afghanistan and Pakistan. The pass is one of the world's most significant natural corridors and was part of the fabled Silk Road that linked traders in Africa, Europe and Asia from the 2nd century BCE to the 16th century CE. Military leaders such as Genghis Khan and Alexander the Great also used the Khyber Pass during their military campaigns.



Source 3.19 Narrow gorges near the Khyber Pass in Northern Pakistan have acted as natural barriers to trade and communication.

skill**drill**

Interpreting false colour satellite images

You may have heard the term 'false colour' before. The term means different or exaggerated colours have been used or added to make an image easier to interpret. Satellite images have become one of the most useful tools available to geographers. They are taken from special cameras mounted in orbiting satellites and show a large area of the Earth's surface. While some satellite images are shown in natural colour others are altered by computers and use false colours to highlight particular features. The cartographer or person working on the image applies colours that make the range of features easier to see or understand than they would be on a 'natural' photograph or satellite image. The colours used in a false colour image can be completely unrelated to the feature being highlighted – a forest may be coloured pink, for example.

This change to colour is done when the colours of the natural features are too similar to demonstrate a particular point or aspect clearly. If someone is trying to show where a muddy brown river meets a brown-coloured riverbank where there are brown rocks and some brownish shrubs, they might decide to use colour to clearly show where the different elements are. In that case, they might make the shrub areas green, the river bright yellow and the rocks a bright red, leaving just the river bank brown.

When interpreting false colour satellite images, you should examine the accompanying legend if there is one to interpret the colours used in a false or simulated natural colour image.

Follow these steps to interpret a satellite image that uses false or simulated colour.

Step 1 Use an atlas to locate the area shown in the image on the Earth's surface.

Step 2 Compare the false or simulated natural colour satellite image with the map of the same area. Use the atlas to identify natural and human features of this environment.

Step 3 Then look closely at the satellite image and, guided by the false or exaggerated colours, identify key features of the environment such as rivers, mountain ranges and valleys. Follow the legend on the satellite image if it has one and you are not sure at first what features you are looking at.

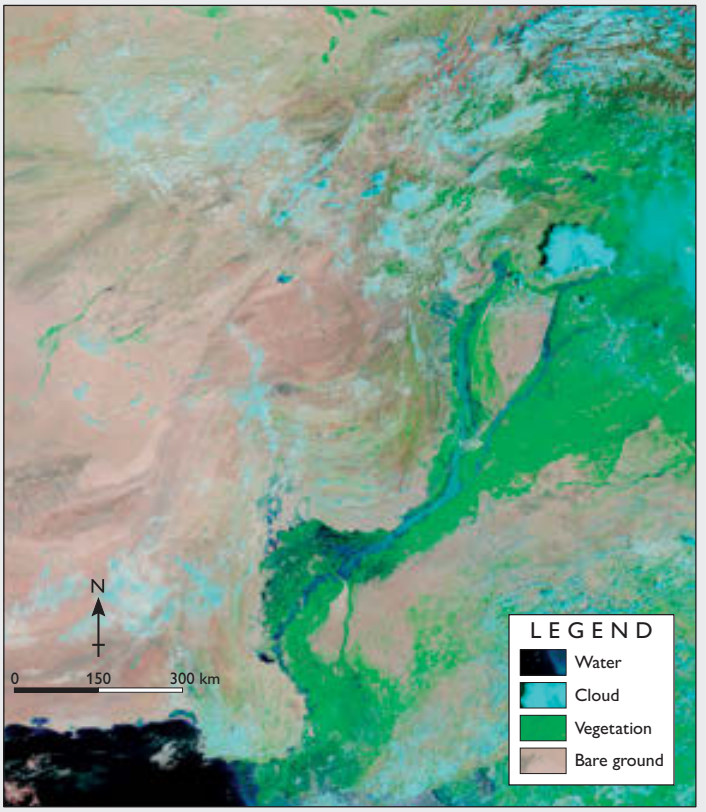
Step 4 Continue to compare the map with the satellite image to deepen your understanding of the area shown.

Step 5 Describe any relationships between features of the environment that you can identify on the satellite image. You can also use your atlas to help you add the names of features to your description.

Apply the skill

1 Find a map that shows the area around the Khyber Pass. Use it to help you describe the landscape around the Khyber Pass shown in Source 3.20.

2 Compare Source 3.20 with a map of the Khyber Pass. What geographical features do you think have made the Khyber Pass a significant feature of the region?



Source 3.20 This is a false colour satellite image of the Khyber Pass region with the Indus River in flood. The image uses exaggerated colours to make it easier to detect the various natural features in the area.

key**concept:** change

Reopening the Northwest Passage

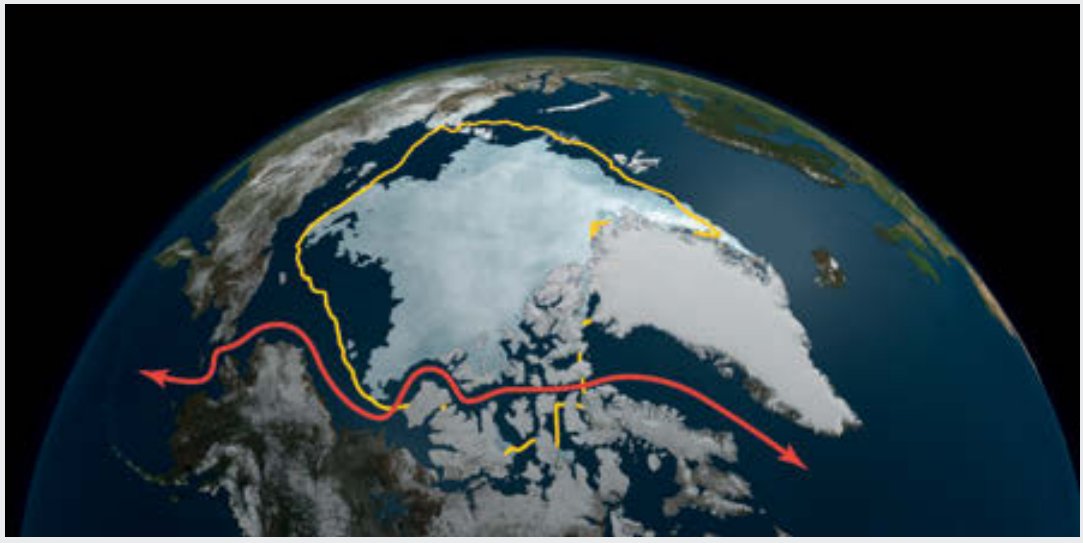
As the economies of the world become more closely linked due to globalisation, shipping companies are looking for ways to reduce the relative distance between trading countries. The Americas have always been a physical barrier between Western Europe and East Asia, two of the major trading areas of the world.

Before the completion of the Panama Canal in 1914, ships were forced to brave the dangerous waters around Cape Horn on the southern tip of South America. Today, around 40 ships a day pass through the Panama Canal but some large ships now exceed the size limits of the canal.

The preferred route for ships would be the Northwest Passage around the north of North America. However, the Arctic sea ice is unpredictable and hazardous, even in summer when much of the ice covering the Arctic Ocean melts.

Climate change, however, is now opening up the Northwest Passage. Each year the sea ice shrinks by about 70 000 square kilometres, and many researchers now believe that the passage could be completely ice-free all year within decades. Many shipping companies around the world won't wait that long, however, and have begun building ships that can withstand the reduced Arctic sea ice.

For more information on the key concept of change refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.



Source 3.21 NASA satellite data in 2011 showed that Arctic sea ice had retreated to a level far smaller than the 30-year average (marked in yellow), opening up the Northwest Passage shipping lanes (in red).

Check your learning 3.5

Remember and understand

1 Where is the Khyber Pass and why is it important?

2 What are the similarities between the Khyber Pass and the Northwest Passage?

Apply and analyse

3 Describe the relationship between sea ice and shipping shown in Source 3.21. Use the correct names of seas and countries in your description.

Evaluate and create

4 Use an atlas to examine the area between Tokyo, Japan and London, United Kingdom.

a Estimate the distance a ship would sail between Tokyo and London if passing through the Northwest Passage compared to the Panama Canal.

b Container ships travel at about 40 kilometres per hour and use about 200 tonnes of fuel a day. Estimate the savings in time and fuel for a Tokyo–London ship using the Northwest Passage.

5 Research other natural barriers and corridors to trade such as deserts, rainforests and rivers. Make a list of these and locate them on a world map. How have new technologies helped to overcome natural barriers?

How people influence interconnections

Geographical features, including both natural and man-made structures, can pose many challenges for humans and their activities. Trade in particular, has been affected for centuries by physical geographical barriers. Among these are rivers, mountains, forests and deserts. Exploration and building efforts have often been directed at building bridges, tunnels, canals and other structures to close the gap between places and increase the level of interconnection between places.

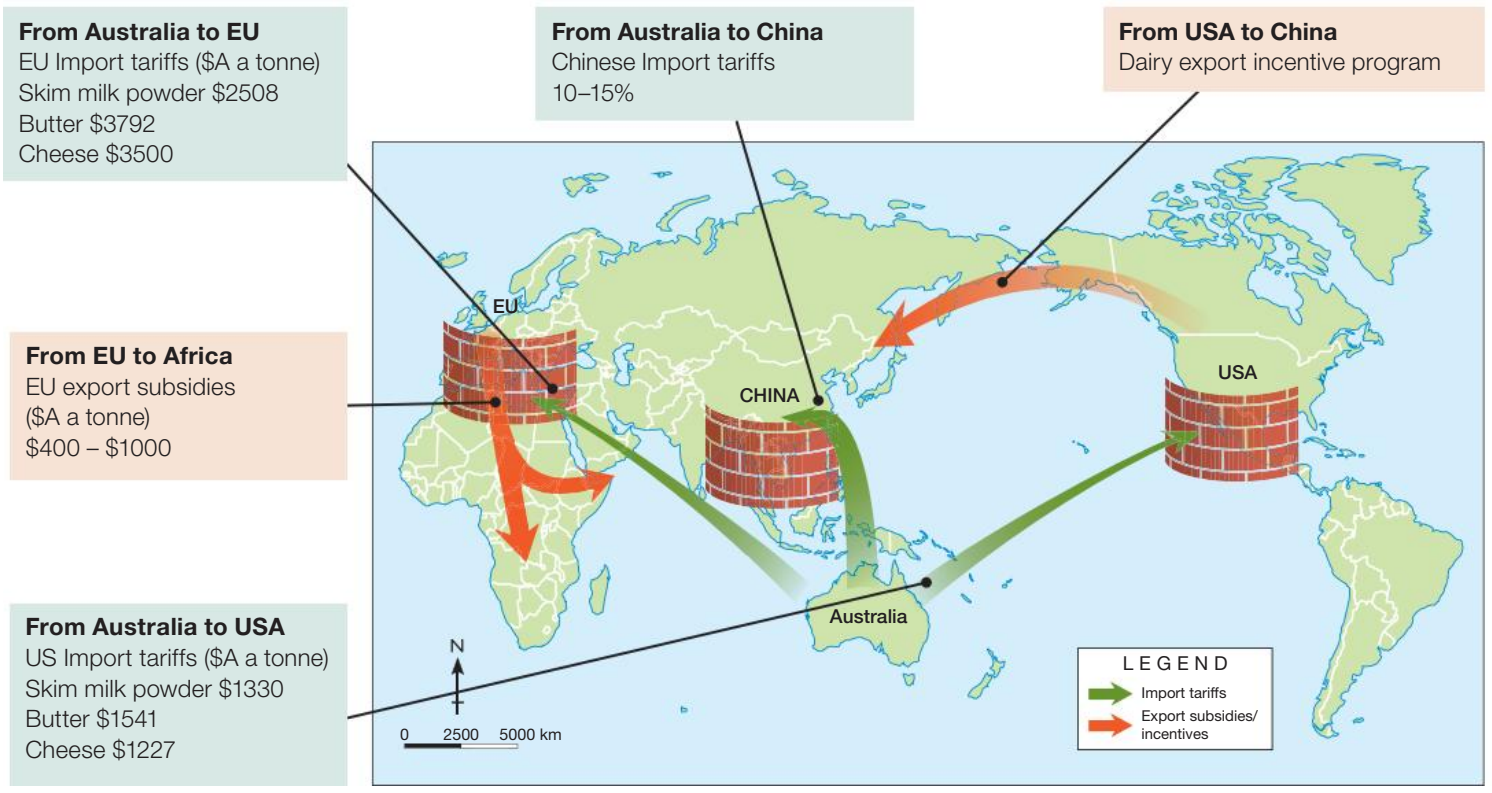
Some geographers believe that the greatest barriers to connections between people and places are not caused by physical features such as oceans and mountain ranges but by human activities and decisions.

For example, there are many barriers put in place to limit and control the movement of people and goods across international borders (e.g in the way of taxes and **tarrifs**). These exist to protect the interests of individual countries but the end result is often a restriction to trade and communications. Economists have estimated that removing trade barriers would add about $168 billion to the world economy every year. The biggest winners in the removal of these barriers would be people in developing countries as the price of food would fall and they would find it easier to export goods they produce.

Tariffs and non-tariff barriers

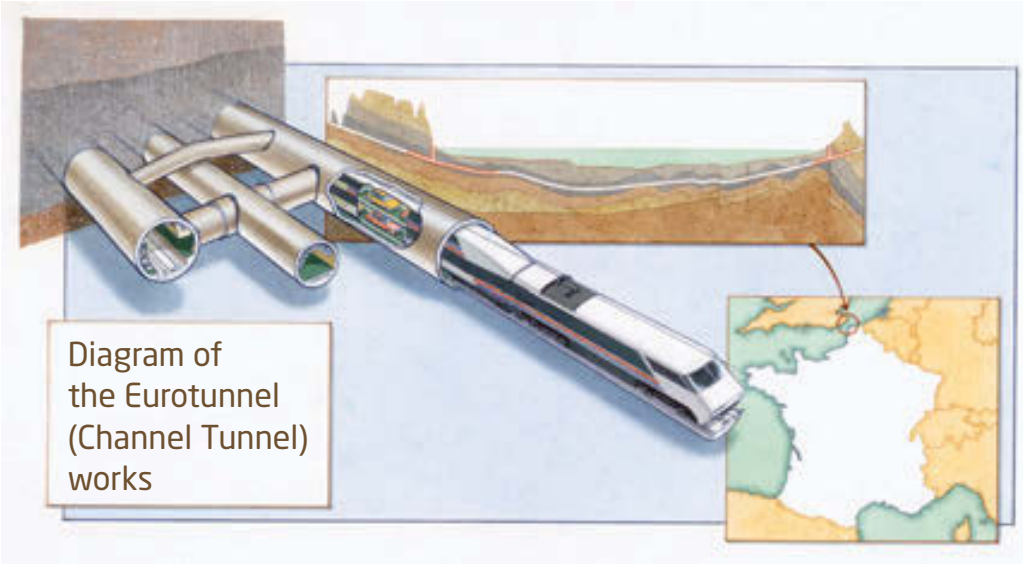
To protect local industries, governments in many countries impose a tax, known as a tariff, on imported goods. They also restrict trade by imposing import limits on some goods, and negotiate complicated trade agreements with other countries. Australian farmers often face trade barriers when trying to export their goods (see Source 3.22). Many countries apply tariffs to imported goods, while also providing incentives such as lower taxes to their own farmers to help them export their goods.

WORLD: TRADE TARIFFS AND INCENTIVES



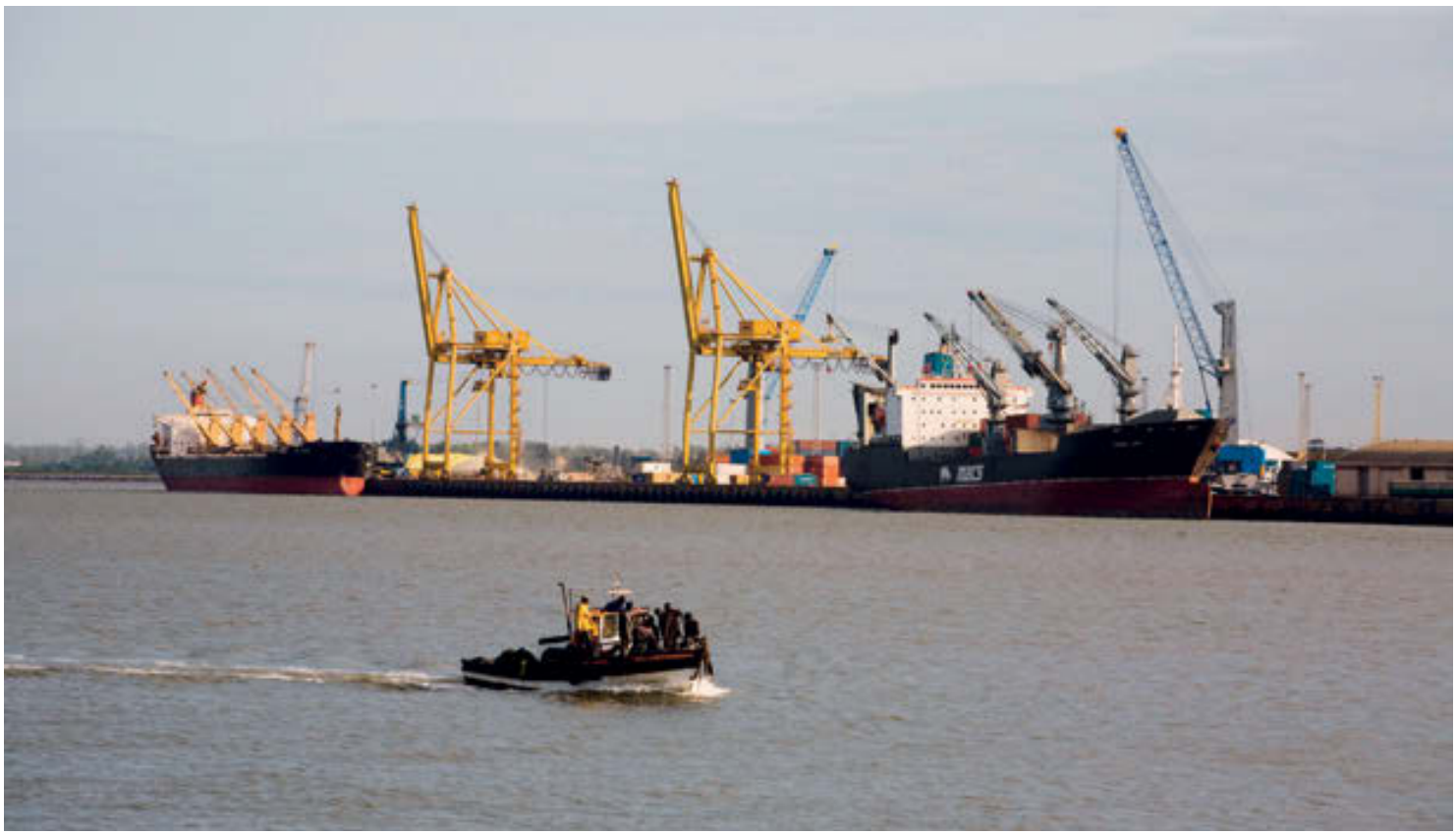
Source 3.22

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 3.23 The construction of the Channel Tunnel was a massive undertaking to bridge the physical barrier of water between France and England (known as the English Channel). The works took a total of seven years.

While these official procedures can be a barrier to free trade between countries so, too, can unofficial practices such as bribery and corruption. Imagine, for example, ordering the same product to be delivered to your home in Australia from two different places: one from the United States and one from Sub-Saharan Africa. Both suppliers pack the goods into a shipping container and contact the shipping company on the same day. Six days later, your container leaves the port in the United States and starts on its journey to you. The African container takes six times longer to pass through the port and reach a ship and you will pay twice as much to the port officials. Though labour costs are much lower in Africa, your extra money has been used to pay bribes to the shipping agent, customs officials, security agents, drivers and crane operators to keep your container moving through the system.



Source 3.24 The port of Maputo, Mozambique. Corruption, in the form of bribery, added 14 per cent to shipping costs and increased the salary of some port officials at Maputo by 600 per cent.



Source 3.25 A flock of sheep is driven through a tunnel beneath the streets of Rafah.

Case study: The tunnels of Gaza

The city of Rafah in the Middle East lies across an international border. The southern part of the city lies in Egypt while the north is in the Gaza Strip, a Palestinian territory. The neighbouring country of Israel, concerned that guns and ammunition are passing from Egypt into Gaza, maintain tight control of the border in Rafah.

The people of the city have responded by digging an extensive network of tunnels beneath the border to connect the two sides of the city. Up to 15 000 people were involved in digging the tunnels which are used to smuggle virtually everything that people and the government need. Machinery, livestock, fuel and steel pass through the tunnels daily. The political party that controls the Gaza Strip even taxes the goods that pass through the tunnels and are rumoured to raise as much as $750 million a year in this way. Some people living in Gaza even boast that they can order fast food from Egypt and have it home delivered!

Check your learning 3.6

Remember and understand

1 In what ways can trade and communications be restricted between countries?

2 Why do countries restrict connections in this way?

Apply and analyse

3 Imagine that you have ordered goods from Africa and the United States and they were delivered as described above.

- **a** How would your experience change the way in which you make purchasing decisions in the future?
- **b** Who suffers and who benefits from your decision?
- **c** Imagine that Maputo is the only place from which you can buy the goods you need. Brainstorm some ways in which you could receive your goods more cheaply and quickly.

4 Examine Source 3.22. What are some of the restrictions placed on Australian farmers exporting their produce? Use the names of specific products and places in your answer.

5 Why do the people of Rafah dig tunnels? What would be some of the risks in digging and using tunnels such as these?

Evaluate and create

6 Use Google Earth to explore the city of Rafah. Describe the border region and any differences you can identify between the two parts of the city.

7 Examine Source 3.23. Do some extra reading on the Internet and then write two to three paragraphs outlining the reasons for building the tunnel and the challenges that were encountered.

How technology influences interconnections

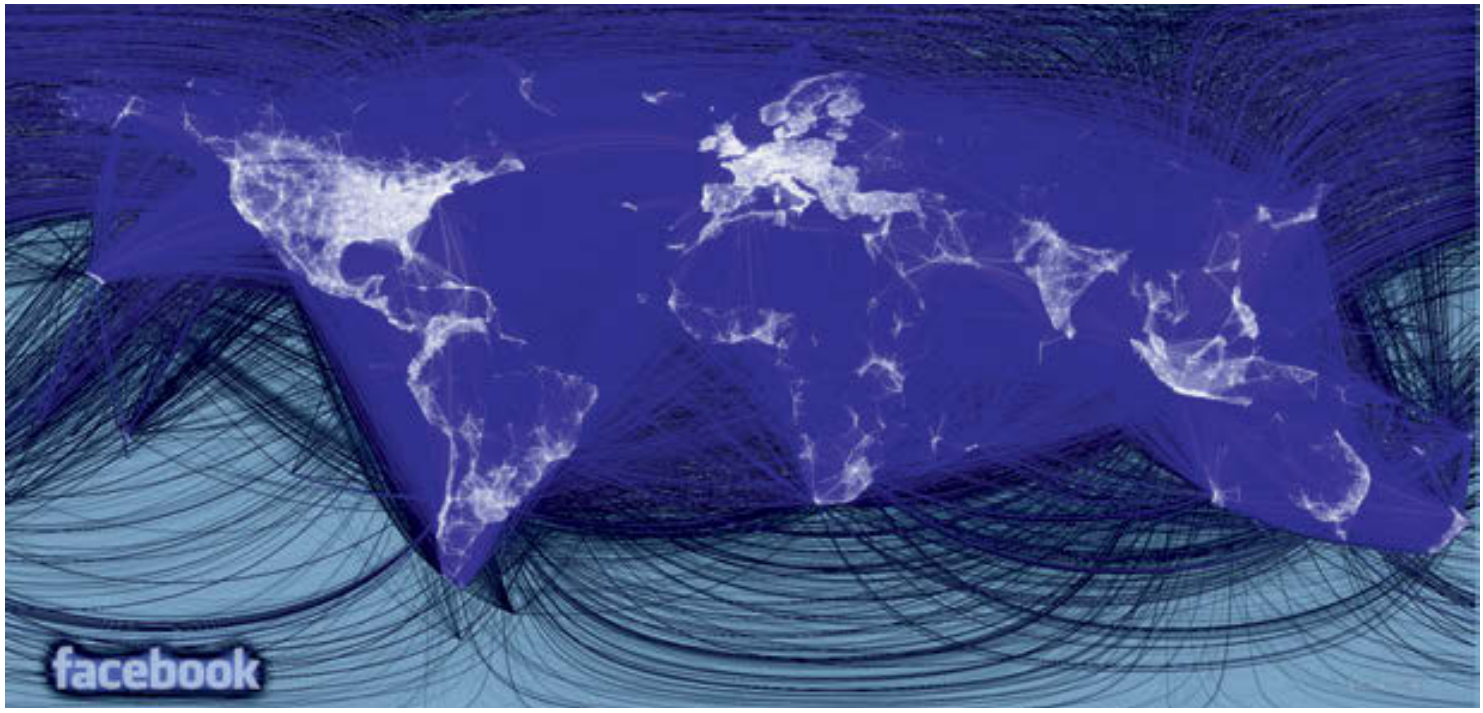
The Internet allows people to connect with other people in different places more quickly and conveniently than ever before. Today, we use the Internet for a range of activities and purposes that link us to many places all over the world. Your after-school activities are probably connecting you to places all over the world without you even realising it. In the space of half an hour sitting at the computer, you might have logged into Facebook, connecting with friends who live in the same area, others who live interstate or some who live in another country. You might listen to some British or American songs on YouTube while you do your homework, or stream an international sports game. The Internet allows you to make all these connections to different places without physically leaving your desk.

Communicating with people in different places

We use the Internet to play games, to shop, plan activities, find directions, read, research, complete homework and more than ever before, to communicate with each other.

Using the Internet for emails remains the most popular activity with 98 per cent of people online having sent an email in the last 12 months. The Internet has, in many ways, become the most dominant form of social interaction on the planet.

- There are 2.1 billion Internet users in the world and 3.1 billion email accounts.
- There are about 100 million active Twitter users sending 250 million tweets a day.
- There are 2.4 billion social networking accounts worldwide.
- There are more than 1 billion Facebook accounts. This is greater than the total world population 200 years ago.
- Every minute a further 48 hours of video content is added to YouTube.
- There are more than 500 million Google searches made every day. This rate has doubled in the last three years.
- About 250 billion emails are sent every day.



Source 3.26 This map of the world was created not by drawing borders, but by marking the connections between 10 million Facebook friends.

Access to news and information

Developments in information and communications technologies (ICT) have meant that people can now access a wide range of global news and information services quickly and easily. You can get American basketball scores in real-time, for example, or you can see photos from a collection at Paris fashion week on the same day it is shown. This information might be trivial, such as finding out what everyone was wearing at last night's music awards, or it might be something that could potentially save a life.

During the Black Saturday bushfires which swept through Victoria in 2009 many people were alerted to the threat via social media, not by traditional news forms. Following Twitter allowed people to get real-time updates from others who were tweeting from areas nearby the flames, information which traditional news services did not have access to. You may be able to think of other examples where Twitter or other social media have broken stories before traditional news providers.

Access to services in other places

Do you watch your favourite programs on free-to-air TV or do you prefer to live-stream or download? Do you prefer to shop for clothes online or do you go and try things on in store before you buy?

Entertainment and shopping are two areas of your life where information technology connects you to other places on a regular basis. You probably take it for granted that you can download new music the same day it is released in the United States. In the past, you would have had to wait for CDs to arrive in shops here. You can also shop online, and often purchase things more cheaply than if you were buying them in a physical store. Almost $8 trillion a year changes hands through e-commerce, and half of all Australians have shopped online in the last three months. Access to services and goods in other places is an aspect of globalisation that many of us now enjoy as a matter of course.

Case study: Offshore call centres

When people call up to complain about mobile phone service, book an airline ticket, or pay a bill, chances are they speak to someone in the Philippines or India rather than in Australia. Many Australian companies have moved their call centres to these other countries to take advantage of the lower wages. The call centre industry, which currently employs around 400 000 Filipinos and 350 000 Indians, is expected to grow quickly as Internet speeds increase and new companies take advantage of the cost savings.



Source 3.27 Developments in technology and increased Internet speeds mean that it is possible for overseas companies to use call centres in India or the Philippines.

Check your learning 3.7

Remember and understand

1 In what ways do you think an online news service might be more useful than a traditional television or print-based news service?
2 Name three ways that the Internet facilitates interconnections bewtween people in different places.
3 How are offshore call centres an example of interconnection?

Apply and analyse

4 Compare the Facebook map shown in Source 3.26 to an atlas map of the world.
   a Name six countries that are very active Facebook users.
   b Name four countries where there appears to be relatively little Facebook usage. Suggest some reasons for this.
   c Describe the pattern of Facebook usage in Australia.
5 Do you use online shopping for any purchases? If so, which items do you tend to buy online? Do you know where the items you purchase are coming from?
6 In what ways does online shopping affect:
   a the consumer?
   b the environment?
   c local shop owners?
   d postal and delivery service providers?

Digital access around the world

The digital divide

During your lifetime, the Internet and other digital technologies have become the most powerful tools of connection the world has ever known. As a result, many experts argue that we are currently experiencing a digital revolution. In many places it now seems easier to be connected to other people and places than not to be. However, this high level of connection is not experienced equally by everyone. In some places there are more computers and mobile phones than there are people, while in other places these devices are still uncommon. These differences are known as the **digital divide**.

Using indicators such as the number of mobile subscribers, the price of Internet access, adult literacy, bandwidth and the number of Internet users, organisations such as the International Telecommunications Union (part of the United Nations) award each country a score based on its level of digital access (see Source 3.30). The lighter the shade of green, the greater the digital access enjoyed by that country. The darker the shade of green, the more limited the digital access.

Digital access in developing nations

While access to communication technologies is greatest in developed nations the rest of the world is beginning to catch up. The people in the Sub-Saharan African nation of Niger, for example, are identified in Source 3.30 as having the least access to ICT. In 2000, only one resident of Niger in every 5000 had a mobile phone subscription. By 2013, this had become one in every three.

For many people in developing countries, the Internet and mobile phone have become a way to access the promise of a better future for themselves and their children. This promise grew following large scale protests against governments in many Middle Eastern and North African countries that began in 2010 and resulted in the overthrow of several governments. Known as the Arab Spring, it showed the power of social media, as people used sites such as Facebook and Twitter to organise protests and broadcast acts of violence by the police and armed forces.

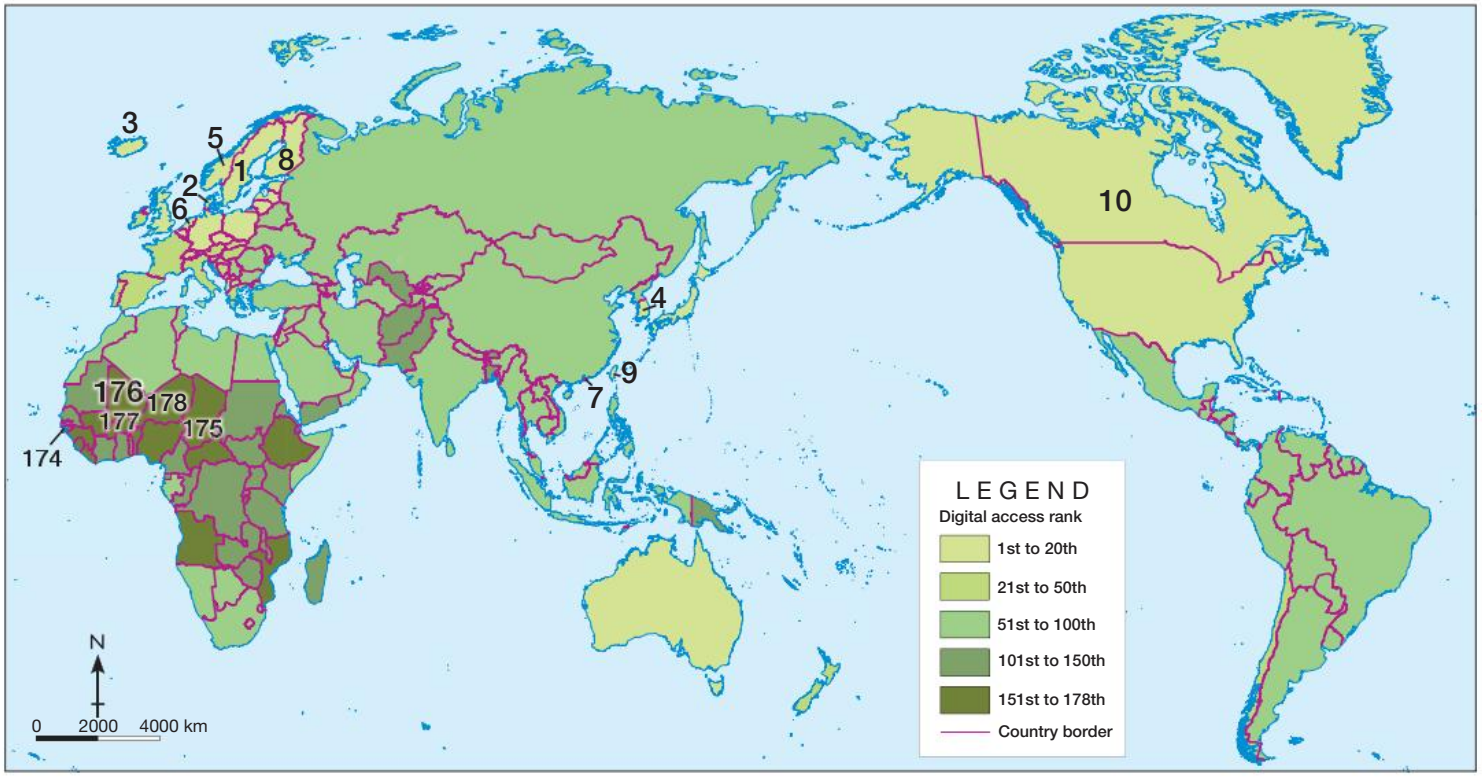


Source 3.28 This amazing image uses the digital traffic created by the social network site Twitter and the photo-sharing site Flickr to map the use of digital technologies in Europe and North Africa. The red dots show places where Flickr pictures are uploaded and the blue dots where tweets were sent. White dots are locations that produced posts to both websites.

Source 3.29 This data is from the International Telecommunications Union, a specialised branch of the United Nations, and shows the developing rates of mobile and Internet use in developed and developing nations as a percentage of the population.

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Mobile phone subscriptions	Developed	82.1	92.9	102.0	108.3	112.5	115.0	119.0	123.6	128.2
	Developing	22.9	30.1	39.1	49.1	58.3	69.0	78.3	84.3	89.4
Homes with Internet	Developed	44.7	48.2	53.4	57.7	62.6	66.3	70.2	74.0	77.7
	Developing	8.1	9.6	11.2	12.5	14.1	16.4	20.2	24.0	28.0
People using the Internet	Developed	50.9	53.5	59.0	61.3	62.9	67.3	70.5	73.4	76.8
	Developing	7.8	9.4	11.9	14.7	17.5	21.2	24.5	27.5	30.7

WORLD: LEVELS OF DIGITAL ACCESS



Source 3.30

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 3.8

Remember and understand

1 What is meant by the 'digital divide'?

2 What are some of the likely consequences of this divide?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.30.

- a Describe the distribution of those countries with very high digital access.
- b Describe the distribution of those countries with very low digital access.
- c Account for the differences in digital access as shown on this map.

4 Examine Source 3.29 and describe the general pattern of changes in digital access in developing countries.

5 Examine Source 3.28 and compare this to a political map of the same region.

- a Which countries send the most photos and tweets?
- b Which countries send the least?
- c Account for the spots of white in areas of darkness.
- d How does this map reflect physical features such as oceans, mountains and deserts?
- e How does this map reflect human features such as cities, wealth and population density?

Connecting with remote areas

While many of us live or spend most of our time in towns or cities, there are significant numbers of people who live in, or travel to, more remote areas. In the past, the physical distance that separated places posed significant issues, even risks. Alerting someone located in a remote area of an incoming violent storm, for example, may have been difficult, even impossible. Even now, restricted mobile phone coverage and slow Internet access can still make connecting with some places decidedly challenging.

People travel to remote places for many reasons. There are scientists who go out into the field to research and explore, religious missionaries or educators who might visit or do short stays in an area to help or teach a language, and those who simply want to tackle the frontiers of places that are still relatively unchartered. Here, we will look at how people who travel to remote areas as well as how those who live in such places interconnect with the world.

Changing the ways explorers interconnect

Antarctica is the most remote place on Earth. Explorers in the 1900s such as Robert Falcon Scott and Ernest Shackleton effectively disappeared once they sailed away from their last port in New Zealand or Argentina. Their families and supporters knew that it would be years before they would see them again.



Source 3.31 Alone but connected: Felicity Aston sets off across Antarctica.

Communication with the 'outside world' was simply not possible. This was the case throughout many remote places on Earth, including vast areas of inland Australia, until only recently.



Source 3.32 This picture shows the positions of the 6000 artificial objects currently orbiting the Earth. Note: that they are shown as much larger than their actual sizes.

Explorers still travel to Antarctica and although this extreme environment is as challenging as ever, they are no longer as isolated. In 2012, British adventurer Felicity Aston skied alone for 1477 kilometres across Antarctica, becoming the first woman to do so (see Source 3.31). Among the equipment she carried in the two sleds she dragged behind her were a satellite phone that gave her coverage for the complete 59-day journey and a solar panel to recharge it. Connecting to a series of satellites orbiting the Earth 780 kilometres above her allowed Felicity to chat to family and friends, make a daily safety call, take part in live radio interviews, maintain a blog and Facebook page and tweet to hundreds of thousands of followers daily.

The technologies that allow people in remote places to connect to other places all rely on a system of satellites that orbit the Earth. These receive signals from devices such as satellite phones and bounce them back to Earth or to another satellite. There are about 6000 of these satellites currently in orbit and this number increases by about 200 a year. These are used to relay messages to devices you probably have in your home, such as televisions and GPS receivers.

Connections in the Outback

Australia is one of the world's largest countries and some people live vast distances from the goods and services they need. This has resulted in unique problems that require unique solutions. The Royal Flying Doctor Service and School of the Air, for example, have helped to bring medical services and schooling to some of the world's most remote communities.

The Northern Territory Aboriginal community of Mungalawurru lies 90 kilometres north-west of Tennant Creek. In 2011, there was little contact between the community and people in other places. There were no home phones or mobile phone coverage and the pay phone was usually out of order. This situation is typical of many remote communities but an experiment in Mungalawurru may be about to change connections in the outback forever. A partnership between several technology providers and social researchers has seen computers with Wi-Fi and satellite connections installed in most homes, and education given to the local community about their use. Within months they became widely used, particularly for music downloads, online banking and emails.



Source 3.33 The Internet is providing connections in remote places where there was previously little contact with other communities.

Check your learning 3.9

Remember and understand

1 Why do some people travel to remote areas?

2 How are explorers in Antarctica able to connect to people in other places? How does this differ from explorers in the past?

Apply and analyse

3 Research shows that the percentage of people in Australia who are connected to the Internet declines the further away people are from the centres of Australia's largest cities. Use a key geographic concept to explain why this is the case.

4 How do you think the new technology in Mungalawurru will change this community?

5 Have you ever lost your phone or had the Internet cut out at home? How did you feel, or how do you think you would feel if you lost your usual access? Discuss how your life would change if all systems of digital communication such as mobile phones and the Internet were cut. Consider how you would overcome any problems this might create for you.

6 What factors might you need to consider if you were to travel to an area that had limited mobile network coverage? What things might you need to pack or prepare that you would not normally have to consider?

Evaluate and create

7 Examine Source 3.32 in light of the issue of waste management. Research the amount of space junk that is currently in the atmosphere.

- a What problems could having so much space junk floating unregulated in the atmosphere cause in the future?
- b Are there any ways you think this should be addressed or strategies that you think should be implemented to tackle this potential problem?

3.2 big**ideas:** broadsheet

How the Internet connects you to the world every day

Over a short period of time, we have come to rely on the Internet to connect us to the world in many ways throughout our day. We use it to play games, shop, research, find directions, work, read books, plan activities, complete homework and more than ever before, to communicate with each other.

Some of the ways in which we use the Internet every day include:

- online banking
- downloading podcasts and apps
- finding out sports results
- playing online games
- sending or reading email
- streaming music, movies and TV programs
- getting news updates
- checking weather reports
- buying clothes, groceries and presents
- completing and submitting homework.



Source 3.34 Many people today would feel lost without the Internet.

skill**drill**

Conducting a survey and presenting the results

Geographers use surveys to explore people's opinions, ideas and activities. By analysing the results they can gain valuable insights into personal and social behaviour. The key to finding useful information from a survey is asking the right questions. Try to ask closed questions (yes/no questions or questions that provide a limited selection of options to choose from) as much as possible. Closed questions in surveys are commonly multiple-choice and ask people to choose their reply from a set of answers that you provide. Open questions (a question that doesn't give options to select from but encourages an individual's own thoughts to be expressed) are sometimes important too, but because you may receive a huge range of replies you may not be able to use the data so easily. Follow these steps to design a survey and present the results.

Step 1 Decide on the focus of your study.

Step 2 When you have decided what your study will be about, work out what information you are interested in finding out. For example, your study might be about the Internet, and you may want information on how often people use it.

Step 3 Decide what people you will survey. You will need to talk to at least 10 people to get data you can report on. Make sure that you have enough forms for all of the people you intend to survey. The more people you survey, the more useful and reliable your results will be.

Step 4 Write a series of closed questions about your study. A closed question might look like this:

How often do you use the Internet at home?

- At least once a day ☐
- At least once a week ☐
- At least once a month ☐
- No Internet at home ☐

Step 5 Once you have your questions written, go over them to ensure that they are all focused on the subject of your study and are geared to find out the information you want. Make sure they are clearly worded and cannot be misinterpreted by people completing the survey. Ask a friend to read over your questions if you are unsure.

Step 6 Conduct your survey. Ask the questions and fill in the forms yourself, or you can get your participants to fill them in. Make sure the responses have been entered correctly and that you have accurate records.

Step 7 Once you have completed your surveys it is time to put the results together into a form you can use – this is called data analysis. This is often best done in a table like the one shown here.

Source 3.35 Data can be presented in a visual format like a table so the researcher can access information quickly and easily.

How often do you use the Internet at home?	Number	Percentage (%)
At least once a day	14	58.3
At least once a week	7	29.1
At least once a month	1	4.2
No Internet at home	2	8.4
Total	24	100

Step 8 Present your survey results in a way that make them easy to understand. Rather than a lot of numbers and writing, use graphs. Make sure you clearly label each graph with the question you asked and below each graph write a short summary of the results.

Apply the skill

1 Design and complete a survey about the ways in which people in your class and members of your family use the Internet. Include a minimum of 10 questions. Survey a minimum of five classmates and five family members (or other people you know outside of class). You might want to include questions like:

Do you watch television shows online?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If yes, how many hours a week would you watch on average?

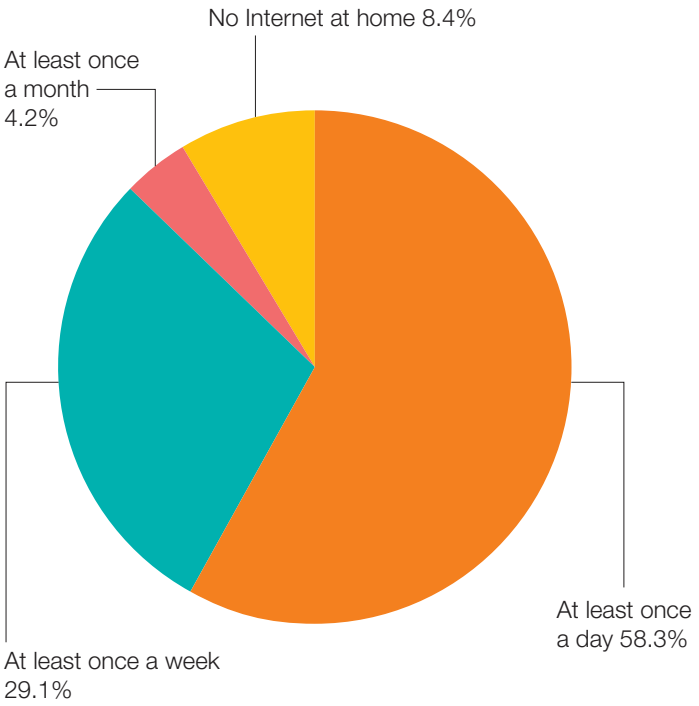
0–2 hours ☐

2–6 hours ☐

6–10 hours ☐

10 hours or more ☐

2 Once you have completed the survey analyse the results and present them in table and graph formats.



More than 90 per cent of the people in my class have access to the Internet at home. More than half the class use it at least once a day.

Source 3.36 How often do you use the Internet at home?

Extend your understanding

1 Compare your findings with those of a classmate. Write a report based on both sets of results explaining how often and in what ways you used the internet.

2 Present the results of your study to the class. Use your table or graph from the previous question as a visual aid, and talk through the most popular websites that people used, as well as the differences or similarities between the ways your family members and classmates used the Internet.

3.3 How does trade connect people and places?

Global trade connections

In the last 50 years or so there has been an explosion in the amount and value of goods traded within and between nations. When your grandparents were your age they probably ate food grown and processed in their local area. Most of their clothes were probably made locally, and they most likely bought things they needed from local shops. Communication with other places in the world would have come through the letterbox.

Today, homes contain many items made in other countries and we tend to shop globally. Today, trade between nations is valued at about US$18 trillion a year and international trade links people and places around the world. To make these connections there are:

- approximately 6000 planes in the air right now
- approximately 17 000 cargo ships crossing the world's seas and oceans
- pipelines transporting gases, oil and water a total distance of about 2 million kilometres
- more than 1 million kilometres of railway track.



Source 3.37 About 90 per cent of international trade in goods is carried out by ship. Bulk shipping of goods such as oil, gas and grain accounts for most of this. These ships are waiting to load or unload in Hong Kong Harbour, one of the busiest ports in the world.



Source 3.38 This is the world's second largest cargo plane. It can carry 150 tonnes of cargo over 3 000 kilometres.

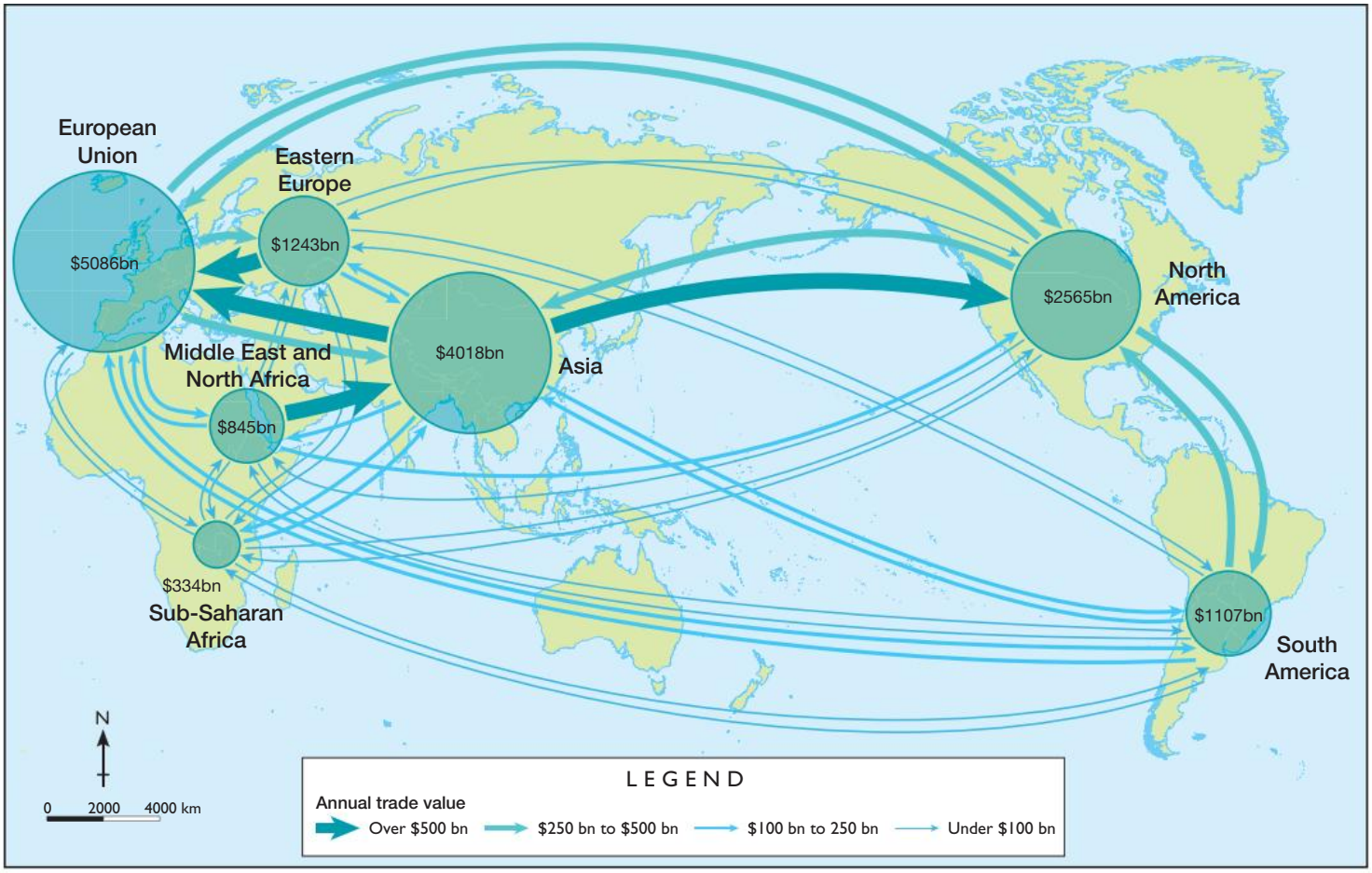
The global flow of trade

Source 3.39 shows the amount of trade that flowed between the different economic regions worldwide in 2012. Imports and exports have a huge economic value for countries and the amount of trade taking place between countries grows bigger each year.

International trade is dominated by a few big players. The United States, Germany and Japan together account for about one-quarter of all exports and have done so for several decades. This dominance is threatened, however, by the rapid growth in emerging economies, particularly China, India and Brazil. In 2011, Brazil had record trade figures, with its exports market reaching around $US 256 billion, and trade between India and China also grew to a record level of $US 73.9 billion in the 2011–2012 period.

Australia accounts for about 1.5 per cent of global trade and is ranked 21st in a list of the world's biggest exporters.

WORLD: GLOBAL FLOW OF TRADE IN 2012



Source 3.39

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 3.10

Remember and understand

1 How are most of the world's goods transported?

2 Which countries have dominated global trade in the past?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.39.

- a Rank the seven regions of the world shown in the map, from the largest trader to the smallest.
- b Describe the destinations of exports from Asian countries.
- c Which region is the smallest exporter? Why do you think this is the case?
- d Which region exports much more than it imports? Why do you think this is the case?

Evaluate and create

4 Discuss with someone older than you (say, a parent or grandparent) about ways in which their links with other places have changed in their lifetime. Develop a set of questions about means of communication, travel, and buying goods and services to help in your discussion. Report back to your class about what you found out from your discussion.

5 Think of one product that you (or someone you know) recently bought over the Internet and one product bought from a local shop. Find out where each product came from and map the journey taken by each to reach you. To help in your task, you can look up shipping routes at http://www.sailwx.info and airplane flight information at http://planefinder.net/. You might want to research some local trucking or delivery companies too.

Australia's mining connections



Source 3.40 A gold mine near Kalgoorlie (now known as Kalgoorlie–Boulder) in Western Australia

Australia's mining boom

Australia is linked to many places in the world through the goods and services produced here that are exported to other countries. Over 60 per cent of our exports are minerals and fuels such as iron ore, coal, gold, crude oil and aluminium. In recent years, there has been a rapid growth in the amount of minerals exported from Australia (see Source 3.41). Known as the mining boom, this rapid growth is driven by three main factors. These are discussed below.

Increases in demand for Australian minerals from China and India

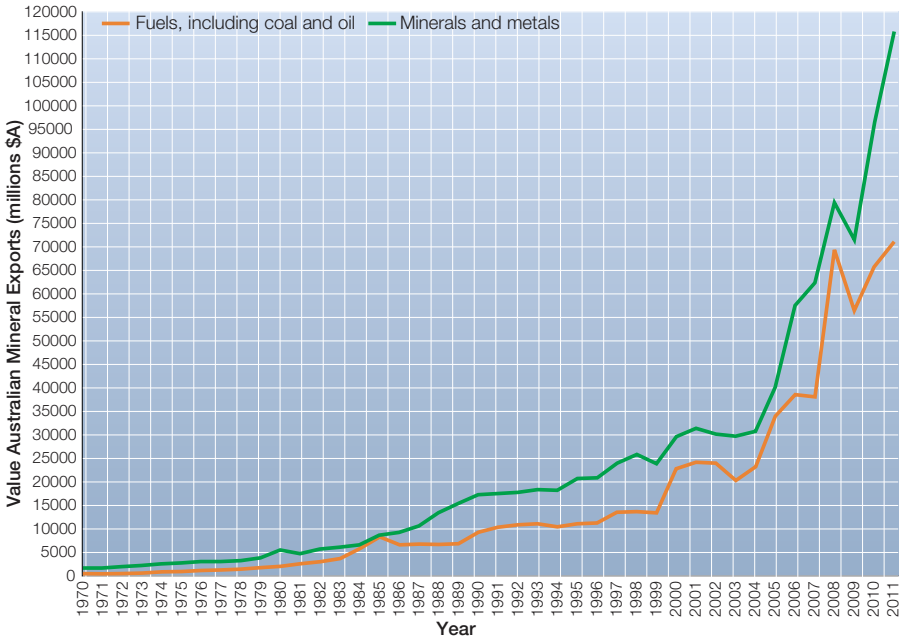
As China and India move from being rural societies to modern, urban and industrialised ones, they require vast amounts of raw materials. In particular, they need iron ore to produce steel for building projects. They also need a cheap source of energy, such as coal to generate electricity, needed to power homes and businesses. In the last few decades, Chinese industries have developed enormous factories producing goods such as machinery, ships and cars, all of which require steel made from iron ore. India has large reserves of iron ore but few coal reserves, whereas Australia has large quantities of both. This demand has seen a huge increase in the value of coal and iron ore.

Australia's vast mineral wealth

Australia is one of the world's biggest suppliers of many metals and minerals used around the world. For example, Australia has the largest reserves of lead, nickel, silver, uranium, zinc and zircon on Earth. Australia has the world's second-largest iron ore deposits – about 28 billion tonnes – almost all of which are located in Western Australia. It also has some of the world's largest coal deposits, which are used to provide about 80 per cent of our electricity. Large amounts of coal, mainly from the Bowen Basin in Queensland, are exported to Asian markets. Queensland has become the world's largest exporter of coal by sea.

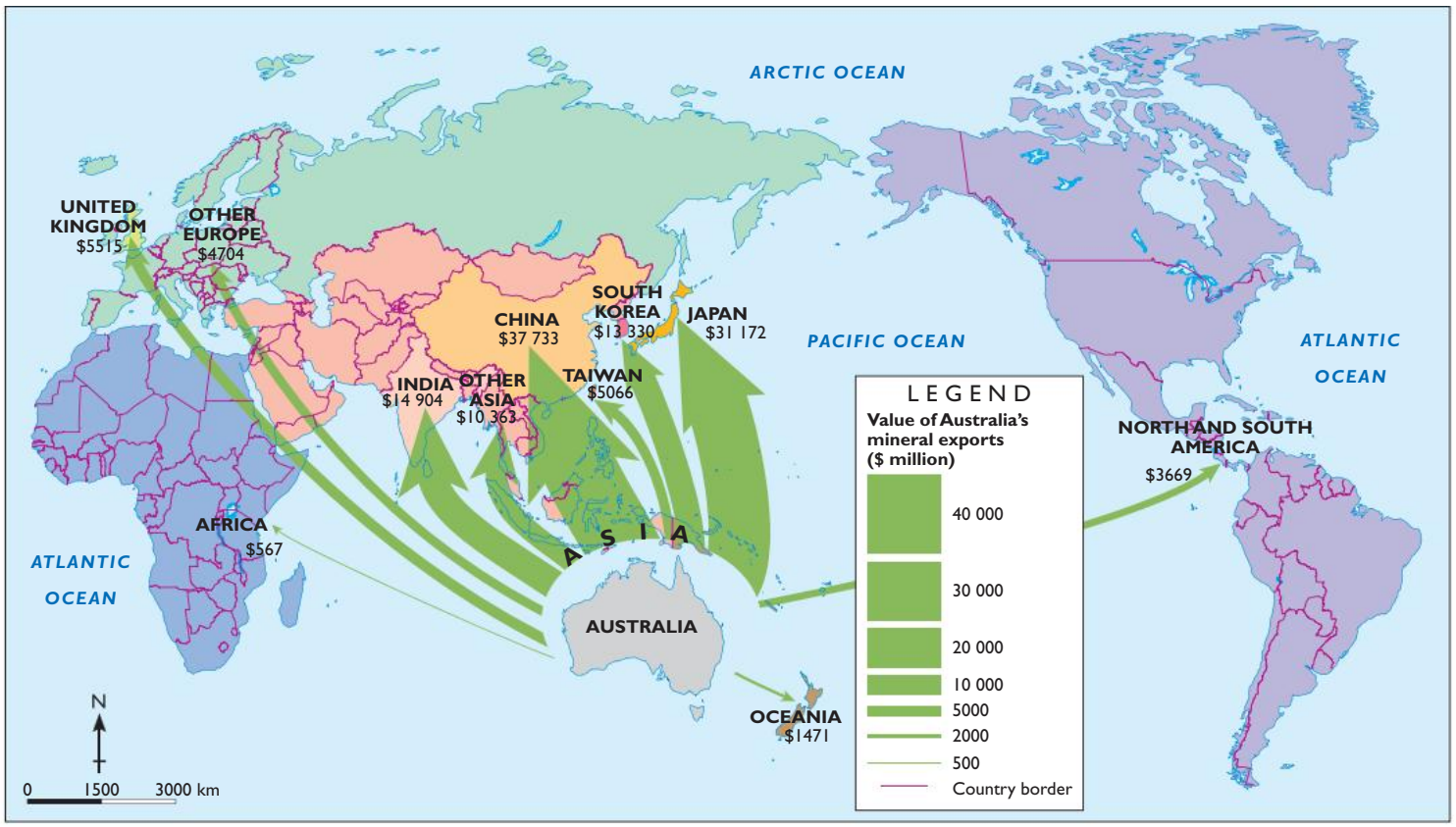
Australia's willingness and ability to export minerals

Since the 1850s, when miners began digging up gold in New South Wales and Victoria with picks, shovels and their bare hands, Australians have regarded minerals as a resource to be mined and sold. The mining sector is now Australia's largest export earner, accounting for nearly half of our total exports. Each day, about 1 million tonnes of iron ore leaves Australia on ships; this is expected to double within the next five years. Over 200 000 people are employed directly in the mining industry and they enjoy some of Australia's highest wages.



Source 3.41 Growth in Australia's mineral exports, 1970–2011

WORLD: VALUE OF AUSTRALIAN MINERAL EXPORTS, 2010



Source 3.42

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 3.43 BHP Billiton is Australia's biggest privately owned business and the world's largest mining company. It operates mines in 25 countries and employs around 41 000 people. This ship is being loaded with iron ore at the BHP Billiton facility in Port Hedland, Western Australia.

Check your learning 3.11

Remember and understand

1 Why are coal and iron ore in such demand in China and India? What are they used for?

2 How have changes taking place in India and China resulted in changes in Australia?

Apply and analyse

3 Use the key concept of interconnection to explain Australia's mining boom.

4 Using Source 3.41, describe the growth in mineral exports since 1970.

5 Examine Source 3.42, showing the destinations of Australia's mineral exports.

- a To which region do most Australian minerals go?
- b What is the current value of Australian mineral exports to India? How and why might this value change over the next 10 to 20 years?
- c Why do you think Japan imports so many of Australia's minerals?

Evaluate and create

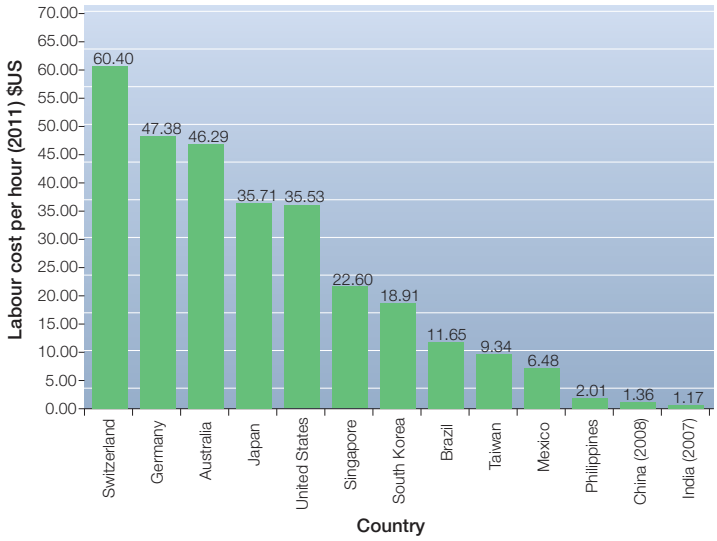
6 Which individuals and companies benefit most from the mining boom?

7 Conduct research to discover how the mining boom might result in inequalities in wealth between different groups in Australian society.

Multinational companies

As you have learnt, one of the most common factors linking us around the world to people in different places is the movement of goods and services. In the last few decades, many large businesses based in wealthy developed countries have chosen to manufacture their goods in poorer developing countries. Because these businesses operate in more than one country, they are called **multinational companies** (**MNCs**). Some of the largest, most profitable and most recognisable brands in the world are produced by MNCs. These include Coca-Cola, Apple, IBM, McDonalds, Louis Vuitton, Adidas and Nike.

MNCs choose to base their manufacturing in developing countries for a variety of reasons, but the main one is cost. Labour costs are much lower in many of these countries (see Source 3.44) and this allows MNCs to spend less on manufacturing and thereby increase their profit.



Source 3.44 Hourly rates of pay (including all benefits) for manufacturing workers in different countries

Case study: Apple – a global giant

Apple is one of the world's largest and most profitable multinational companies in the world today with annual revenues of over US$150 billion. The company began in 1976 and at the time proudly boasted that all of its computers were made in the United States. Now virtually all of the 159 million products it sells every year are made outside the United States, mostly in China. While the cost of labour was a major factor in moving to China, other considerations were also important.



Source 3.45 Thousands of Chinese job-seekers queue outside the Apple manufacturing plant in Shenzhen city, keen to become part of the global giant.

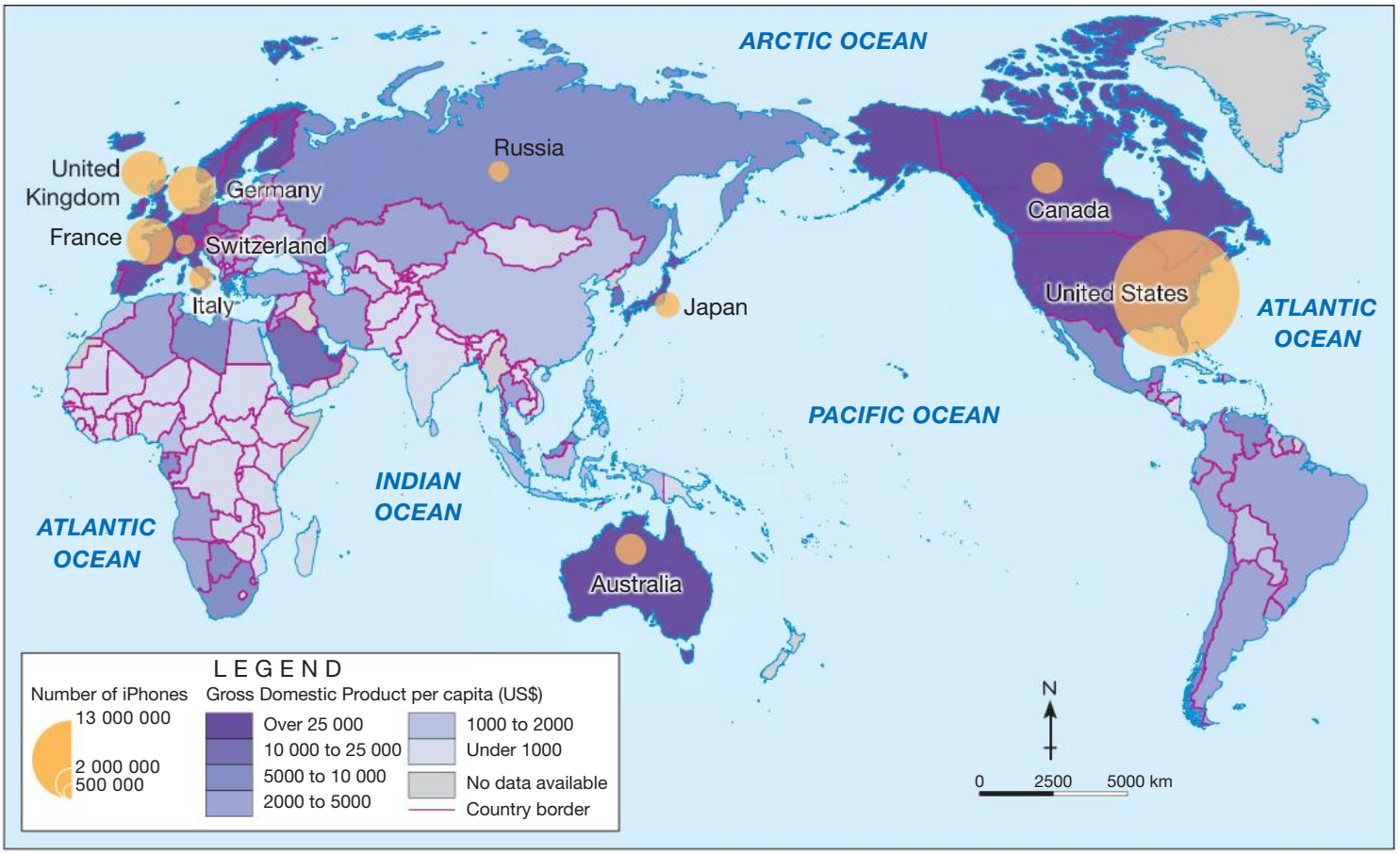
Virtually all of the components used in Apple products such as glass screens and computer chips are also made in China so it made sense to locate the assembly plant in the same place. Apple also found that Chinese plant owners and workers were much more flexible and willing to change than their American counterparts.

This is very important in a rapidly changing business such as electronics. The end result is that Apple can make an iPhone in China for about $8 in labour costs. The same phone would have labour costs of $73 in the U.S.

Source 3.46 Estimate of iPhone market share by country as at June 2009

Rank	Country	Estimated number of iPhones sold
1	United States	13 250 216
2	Germany	1 937 824
3	France	1 793 753
4	United Kingdom	1 682 491
5	Canada	805 594
6	Australia	762 161
7	Japan	525 658
8	Italy	490 451
9	Switzerland	334 649
10	Russia	326 458
	Other	4 490 745
	Total	26 400 000

WORLD: GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT



Source 3.47

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 3.12

Remember and understand

1 What is a multinational company?

2 Explain why Apple is described as a multinational company.

Apply and analyse

3 According to Source 3.44, which two countries pay workers the highest hourly wages? Which two countries pay the lowest? Why do you think this might be the case?

4 Why did Apple decide to move its manufacture of iPhones from the USA to China? Use evidence from Source 3.44 to support your answer.

5 Examine Source 3.45. What does this photograph tell you about the supply of labour in China?

6 Examine Sources 3.45, 3.46 and 3.47 and answer these questions.

a In which Chinese city are iPhones made?

b Where are iPhones sold?

c What is the relationship between wealth (measured as Gross Domestic Product) and the purchase of iPhones?

d Compare the **Gross Domestic Product** of the USA and China.

Evaluate and create

Complete some further research to do the following activity.

7 With a partner, discuss who benefits from the business activities of MNCs in different countries around the world. Consider consumers and the labour force in your discussion. Collate your ideas and report back to the class.

The global connections inside your laptop

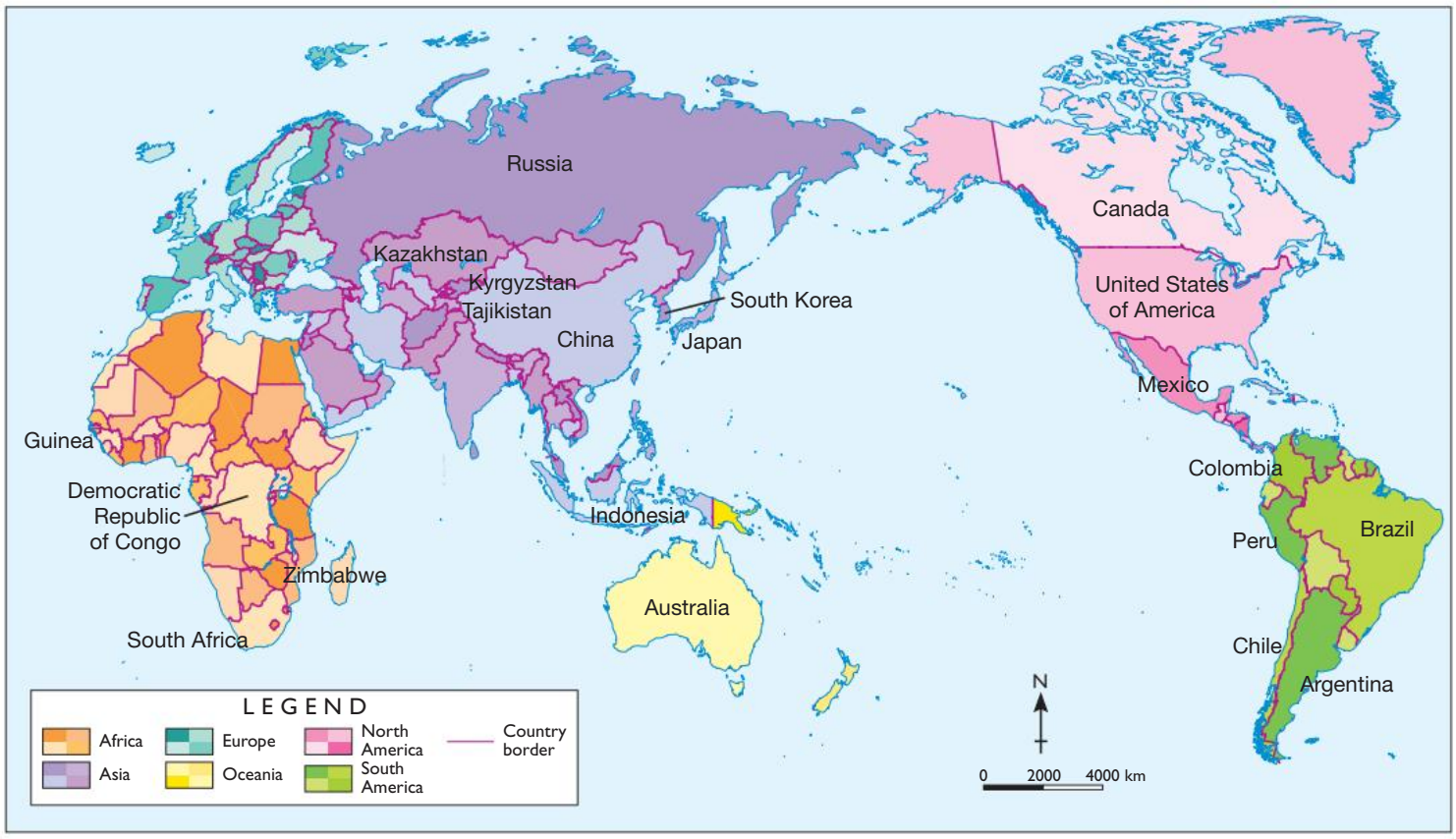
Hidden inside many of the items that you use every day are bits and pieces from all around the world. A modern laptop computer, for example, contains materials and components from at least 20 different countries located on every continent except Antarctica. A complex series of networks and supply chains produce these components, transport them, process and assemble them, then package and deliver the finished laptop to a store near you.

Sources 3.49 and 3.50 show the locations of a range of materials used inside every laptop computer. The actual origin of each piece inside a computer is difficult to determine as manufacturers constantly change the source of their raw materials. This can cause problems for communities who rely on supplying these materials to provide employment and income.



Source 3.48 Virtually all of the world's laptops are assembled in Chinese factories owned by Taiwanese companies. In 2011, 244 million laptops were made in China.

WORLD: SOURCE COUNTRIES OF MATERIALS USED IN LAPTOPS



Source 3.49

Source: Oxford University Press

Source 3.50 Materials used in laptop construction and their country of origin. At least 20 different materials from at least 10 different countries go into making a laptop computer.

Country of origin	Materials supplied for laptop construction
Canada	Europium, Aluminium
United States	Beryllium, Palladium, Phosphorus, Silicon, Copper, Europium, Boron
Mexico	Bismuth, Silver
Peru	Indium, Silver
Chile	Copper, Arsenic
Brazil	Silicon, Tantalum, Niobium, Aluminium
Argentina	Lithium
Colombia	Platinum, Guinea Gallium
Democratic Republic of Congo	Cobalt, Tin, Tantalum, Titanium, Gold
Zimbabwe	Lithium
South Africa	Chromium, Gold, Manganese, Cadmium, Platinum
Australia	Titanium, Lead, Nickel
Russia	Ruthenium, Ferrite, Steel
Kazakhstan	Vanadium
Kyrgyzstan	Mercury
Tajikistan	Antimony
Indonesia	Tin
South Korea	Glass, Cadmium
Japan	Selenium, Steel
China	Germanium, Terbium, Magnesium, Rhodium, Yttrium, Plastics

The little pieces of Australia in every laptop

Australia is one of the most mineral-rich countries in the world. Australian minerals are found in many common household items used all around the world. All laptop computers, for example, contain zinc, lead, gold and titanium, and Australia is amongst the world leaders in the mining of all of these minerals. The rocks near the town of Mt Isa, for example, contain some of the richest deposits of lead and zinc found on Earth. Settled in the 1920s, the town is now home to over 22 000 people – virtually all of whom rely on the town's mines for their employment and income.

Lead is mined and processed near the town. Lead ore is crushed and heated until it becomes a liquid so impurities can be removed in a process known as smelting. This process releases harmful gases and lead particles into the air. Recently some concerns have been raised that this is creating health risks for Mt Isa residents, particularly children. A study in 2008 found that 11 per cent of children tested had higher-than-normal lead levels in their blood.



Source 3.51 The lead mine at Mt Isa in north-west Queensland is one of the most productive in the world.

Check your learning 3.13

Remember and understand

1 Describe the interconnection between people in Mt Isa and the factory workers shown in Source 3.48.

2 Why are some people concerned about lead mining and smelting in Mt Isa?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.50.

- a What is Australia's role in the production of laptop computers?
- b Most laptops are assembled in China. Imagine that each material used in the computer reaches China by ship. On a world map sketch the route taken by each material listed using the shortest sea route to Southern China. Estimate the total distance travelled by these materials.

4 Why do you think most laptops are assembled in China?

Evaluate and create

5 Brainstorm the impacts of the laptop production process on people and the environment. Try to think of both positive and negative impacts.

6 Research the mining of cobalt in the Democratic Republic of Congo and write a short report on it including any impacts it has on people and the environment.

Connecting through food

Many countries around the world, including Australia, produce more food than they consume. As a result, some of that food is exported to other countries.

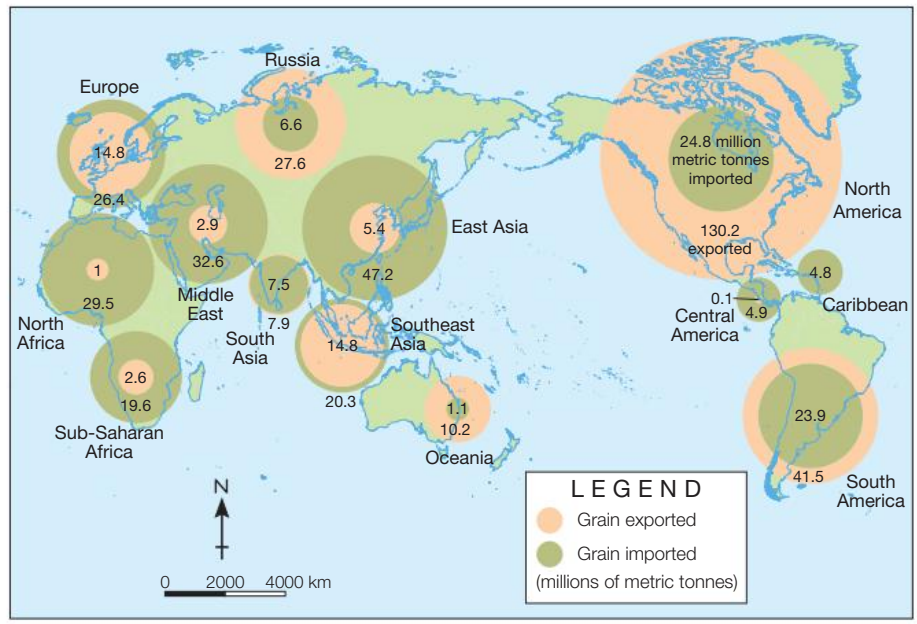
We can get an idea of the global connections made through food by looking at one type of basic food product and its movement around the world. Source 3.52 shows worldwide grain imports and exports over a year. Not all grain that is produced by countries is traded, in fact only a small proportion of the grain is. Only about 18 per cent of world wheat production and 10 per cent of maize production is traded globally.

Advantages and disadvantages for Australia's food producers

Over the last few decades, governments around the world have begun to reduce trade barriers between countries and this has resulted in some advantages and some disadvantages for Australia's food producers and consumers. For example, consumers now have access to a wider range of foods from around the world. This has created business opportunities for food suppliers such as grocers and restaurants, as well increased choice for consumers. On the other hand, Australian farmers now have to compete with other countries who may be able to provide produce at cheaper prices.

Australian farmers have responded to these challenges by producing food more efficiently, or by specialising in foods that are in high demand in other countries, such as organic foods. As a developed country, Australia also has the advantage of using innovations and new technologies in food production. Australia's proximity to Asia, with its large and increasingly wealthy markets, could also provide Australian farmers with new export opportunities.

WORLD: GRAIN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS



Source 3.52

Source: Oxford University Press

keyconcept: interconnection

Live animal exports

Most Australian meat that is exported to countries overseas comes from sheep and cattle that are killed in Australian abattoirs. Before export, the meat is processed, frozen and carried in refrigerated containers to ports around the world. Some sheep and cattle, however, are transported on special ships while they are still alive and are killed and processed in other countries. This type of animal export earns about $1 billion a year for Australia and employs about 10 000 people in rural and regional areas.

Many Australians are opposed to live animal exports as they believe it is cruel to the animals. This is because they feel the importing countries may have lower standards of animal welfare than in Australia. In 2011, the Australian Government temporarily stopped the export of live cattle to Indonesia following concerns raised about the inhumane treatment of Australian cattle there. Following the Australian 2013 election, however, as Indonesia was unable to supply enough of its own beef, live exports were recommenced.

For more information on the key concept of interconnection refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

skill**drill**

Constructing a flow map

Geographers use flow maps to describe the connection between events and show how things move between different places. Source 3.42 is an example of a flow map.

A flow map is a particularly useful tool for displaying information about the movement of goods and services between places. Follow these steps to construct a flow map.

Step 1 Locate an outline map that displays all of the countries represented in your data, including the country of origin.

Step 2 Develop a scale to be included in the legend for the arrows you will put on your map. The size or amounts of the flows between the country of origin and the destinations are shown by the different widths of the arrows. The smaller the amount shown on the scale is, the narrower the arrow is, the larger the amount, the fatter the arrow.

Step 3 Join the country of origin with each destination using an arrow of the correct width according to the scale you have drawn. Plot these out in pencil first – you may need to try a few different designs to make all of the arrows fit neatly.

Step 4 Shade each destination and label each with its name and the relevant data.

Step 5 Finish your flow map with **BOLTSS**.

Apply the skill

1 Complete a flow line map showing the destinations of Australia's live sheep exports. Use the figures in Source 3.53 and an outline map of the world as your base map.

Source 3.53 The destinations of live Australian sheep exported in 2010.

Destination country	Live sheep exports from Australia
Bahrain	498 731
Israel	42 000
Jordan	265 986
Kuwait	1 076 455
Libya	75 026
Malaysia	14 764
Mauritius	150
Oman	69 073
Qatar	321 415
Saudi Arabia	262 500
Singapore	6 438
Turkey	215 038
United Arab Emirates	78 747

Check your learning 3.14

Remember and understand

1 Why does Australia export food to other countries?
2 Why do some governments make it difficult to import food into their country?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 3.52.
- a Is Oceania a net exporter or importer of grain?
- b Which region is the largest exporter of grain and which is the largest importer?
- c Examine your completed flow line map.
- d Describe the distribution of the countries that import live sheep from Australia.
- e In small groups, discuss the possible reasons for the distribution you have noted. Consider a range of factors by using the SHEEPT (social, historic, economic, environmental, political and technological) method in your discussion. For more information on SHEEPT refer to section GT.2 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

Evaluate and create

4 Research the live animal trade further and list the arguments for and against this trade. Identify groups who support the trade and those who oppose it. What is your opinion, and what information did you base it on?



Source 3.54 A ship is loaded with Australian sheep in Adelaide before heading to the Middle East.

Connecting through sport

Many aspects of our daily lives are now influenced by globalisation. For example, the way in which we play, watch and connect through different sports and sporting codes has changed dramatically over recent years. In the last few decades, elite sportsmen and women have become global superstars, instantly recognisable around the world. The athletes, the sports they play, the teams they play for and the clothes and equipment they use have become commodities to be bought and sold by the highest bidder.

There are many factors driving the globalisation of sport, most of them connected to money. These include higher salaries for athletes and increased spending on leisure and entertainment. Perhaps the biggest driver, however, is the media and the global reach of sporting events that are broadcast live. Many companies, such as clothing and electronics manufacturers, have seized these new opportunities to advertise their goods to a global audience.

Put simply, sport is big business. It is predicted that by 2015, sport will generate $US 145 billion in revenue annually. While $US 44 billion of this will come from tickets sold to sports fans, the rest will come from media companies that buy the rights to broadcast events and companies that sponsor events or promote their products through sport.

Sport's 'golden triangle'

The close links between sport, business and the media are sometimes called the 'golden triangle' as each uses the other to advance their aims.



Business
Companies marketing their goods through sport

Advertise products to a massive audience, often in hard to reach places
Buy advertising time during sports broadcasts

Provide sponsorship money
Increased visibility of products



The media
Media companies broadcasting sport and advertisements

Use money to produce a better product for broadcast
Provide money in the form of broadcasting rights



Sports
Sporting organisations providing sponsorship deals

Source 3.55 The relationship between sport, business and the media is often referred to as the 'golden triangle'.

Case study: Maria Sharapova – a global brand

Like many sports stars, tennis player Maria Sharapova links together people and places all around the world. She has won tournaments in Britain, France, the United States, Australia, Japan, Switzerland, Qatar, Italy, Canada, South Korea, Germany and Luxembourg. She once travelled 77 000 kilometres in a two-month period to reach all of her tournaments in time.

Sharapova has been the world's highest paid female athlete every year between 2006 and 2013. This is due largely to the $23 million she receives in endorsements from a range of companies around the world.

She has her own website and there are many fan websites dedicated to her as well. Maria Sharapova's fans all around the world can connect to her wherever she is by watching her play when her games are broadcast, following her on Twitter and Facebook, and buying the products she endorses.



Source 3.56 Maria Sharapova's many product endorsement deals and brand ambassadorships illustrate how people and places can be interconnected globally through sport.

Check your learning 3.15

Remember and understand

1 Explain how athletes and sportswear companies are linked.

2 Explain the links between media companies and sporting organisations.

Apply and analyse

3 Conduct a quick survey in which you ask 10 people to name one golfer, one basketball player, one tennis player, one soccer player and one racing driver. Combine your results with those of your classmates.
   a What percentage of the athletes named are Australian?
   b What countries were well represented in the answers?
   c What does this tell you about the globalisation of sport?

4 Examine Source 3.55. Explain how these photographs show how the golden triangle of sport works.

Evaluate and create

5 Create a map of the world that shows the ways in which Maria Sharapova links different places together.

6 Use the principles outlined in the golden triangle of sport to discuss why male athletes are usually paid more than female athletes.

7 Who are the potential winners and losers from sport's golden triangle?

3.3 big**ideas:** broadsheet

The geography of you

You are a global citizen, and the things you use and consume come from different places all over the world. The decisions you make about the things you buy link you to people and places both near and far. This connection means that your decisions can impact on these people and places in both positive and negative ways. This broadsheet contains a series of activities that will make you more aware of the ways in which you are connected to producers of products and services from all around the world – and how they are connected to you.







Source 3.57 Do you know where the things you use and wear come from?

skill**drill**

Collecting, recording and representing primary data

During any geographical inquiry, geographers will ask questions, collect a range of data and information, record their findings and represent them so they can be interpreted more easily. By following a process of geographical inquiry like this, geographers can be sure that the conclusions they reach will be accurate, useful and reliable.

Geographers often collect their own data by interviewing people, carrying out research, conducting surveys, taking photographs, or drawing field sketches. This kind of information is known as primary data. They record this primary data carefully before representing it in different ways (e.g. as diagrams, tables, charts, graphs, maps or a combination of these).

Collecting, recording and representing your own primary data is a great way to practise your skills as a geographer. Follow these steps to collect, record and represent a range of primary data about the clothes you wear, the stuff you own and the ways you connect to other people – in other words, the geography of you!

Step 1 Construct a key inquiry question to begin your investigation, for example, 'Where do my clothes come from?'. Select 20 different clothing items from your wardrobe and record where each item was made. Try to select a range of clothing made from a variety of fabrics. The tags on your clothing will often include some information about where the item was made.

Step 2 Collect and record the information for your inquiry by creating a table or spreadsheet and entering your results into it.

Step 3 Choose the best way to represent your findings. Choose a format that clearly communicates the information. You may choose to represent this data as a table, a graph (e.g. pie chart, bar graph or line graph), an infographic or a map (e.g. a spatial distribution map or a choropleth map) – or even a combination of these things.

Apply the skill

Complete one or more of the following tasks to better understand the effects of your purchasing habits and Internet use and how your choices connect you to the rest of the world:

1 Exploring the origin of your clothing

Follow the steps outlined above to explore the origin of 20 items of your clothing. Collect the countries of origin for any of the 10 items you have researched, record the data and represent it in a suitable format of your choice.

2 Exploring the origin of your stuff

Select 10 items you use every day such as a pen, a computer and a DVD and examine them carefully to see if they contain some information about where they were made. You could also try an Internet search engine to research each item further but you may need the name of the manufacturer and a model name or number. Collect the countries of origin for any of the 10 items you have researched, record the data and represent it in a suitable format of your choice.

3 Exploring your communication links

Monitor your Internet and smart phone use for a week, recording the names and locations of people you communicate with via email, SMS, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and online games. Enter the results into a table or spreadsheet.



Source 3.58 A worker shows a label on a piece of newly made clothing at the Bantai textile factory in Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Extend your understanding

1 Conduct your own research into the Rana Plaza disaster and how it brought worldwide attention to the issue of sweatshop conditions in Bangladesh. Investigate the conditions faced by workers in the sweatshops, and find out what is being done to address the problems with safety and working conditions. Write a half-page report outlining what you find.

2 Examine your wardrobe and make a list of the brands that you usually wear. Research whether or not these brands use factories in Bangladesh. Create a table to record your results.

3 Do you think your purchasing choices have a direct impact on the people who work in factory sweatshops? List your thoughts, discuss them with a partner and report back to the class.

The effects of global connections

The increased movement of goods, services, people and ideas across the world has the potential to improve the lives of millions of people and bring people and cultures closer together. It also has the potential to degrade natural environments and to deepen the divide between the wealthy and the poor.

These men are employed as ship breakers at the Chittagong ship breaking yard in Bangladesh, south of the capital Dhaka. They pull apart old container ships and oil tankers by hand so the steel in them can be recycled and reused. Many of the ships are owned by the wealthiest multinational companies in the world. It is dirty and dangerous work and there are virtually no health and safety regulations to protect workers. A labourer here can earn about $1.50 a day working as a ship breaker. Ships arrive in the South Asian breaking yards at the rate of about one a day.



4.1

What effects does global trade have on people?

1 There are about 100 000 people in Asia employed as ship breakers. In what ways do these workers benefit from their employment?

2 Brainstorm the threats to health and safety for the workers at the Chittagong ship breaking yard.

4.2

What effects does global trade have on places?

1 What do you think the impacts of ship breaking on the coastal environment are?

2 The ship breaking industry was once concentrated in Europe but moved to India and Bangladesh after the 1970s. Why do you think the industry moved?



chapter 4

Source 4.1 Bangladeshi ship breakers at the Chittagong ship breaking yard pull apart old container ships and oil tankers by hand so the steel can be recycled.

4.3

What effects does international tourism have on people and places?

1 Tourism is one of the world's largest industries. What areas of Australia and the world are most visited by tourists?

2 In what ways does tourism change the natural environment in these places?

4.1 What effects does global trade have on people?

An interconnected world

As you have learned, we live in an increasingly interconnected world. Ideas, people, goods and services move more quickly, more often and in larger quantities than ever before.



Source 4.2 Sharing culture, food and language are just some ways global trade has influenced the experiences of people around the world.

Benefits and drawbacks of globalisation

As with all changes, there are winners and losers. Consumers are obvious winners. We now have access to goods produced all around the world. Our homes are filled with goods made by people we will never meet in places we may never visit. We now have access to the skills, expertise and labour of billions of people to supply our needs and wants. Some companies, industries and countries are also winners. China, for example, has become increasingly wealthy and powerful by making and supplying goods and services for the global marketplace. Many people believe that having better trade between nations also spreads the world's wealth.

Despite the many winners, there are also clear losers. Workers in developing countries are sometimes exploited for their cheap labour and are paid much less than those in the wealthier countries who are buying the goods they produce. Their working conditions are often much worse as well.

Globalisation can also lead to the loss of traditional skills and customs. Additionally, small local businesses can find it difficult to compete with large multinational companies. The closure of these businesses can lead to job losses for local workers and negative effects for societies and communities.

The environment is also often a loser when it comes to globalisation. As more and more raw materials such as timber, land and minerals are used to feed the world's factories, natural environments are changed forever (see Source 4.4). The need to transport these goods to countries all around the world also adds to major environmental problems such as air and water pollution, deforestation and climate change.



Source 4.3 Cartoonists often portray a complex issue using a simple image, employing the device of humour to do so.



Source 4.4 Steven, a Mooi child, squats in front of what used to be the forest that supported his community. The Mooi are one of the Indigenous people who live off the forests of West Papua. Their ancestral lands are being devastated by logging and taken away for palm oil plantations. Palm oil is used in many processed foods in Australia.

From 'riding on the sheep's back' to 'riding on the dragon's tail'

Australia today is part of the global marketplace. Billions of dollars' worth of goods and services are traded between Australia and the rest of the world every year. For much of the last century, most of Australia's exports came from the farming sector and our major trading partner was the United Kingdom. Products such as wool, butter and meat were shipped around the world and sold to British consumers. Australia was known as 'Britain's farm', and because our prosperity largely came from the sale of wool, Australia was said to be 'riding on the sheep's back'.

This century has seen dramatic changes in our main exports and trading markets. Less than 10 per cent of our total exports now come from the farming sector and the United Kingdom is only our fifth biggest trading partner. Over half of our total exports now come from the mining sector (mainly iron ore, coal and gold) and our two biggest trading partners are China and Japan. China is by far our leading supplier of imported goods (A$41 billion a year) and buyer of our exports (A$64 billion a year). This change has led many observers to remark that Australia is no longer riding on the sheep's back – instead we are riding on the dragon's tail.

Check your learning 4.1

Remember and understand

1 How has Australia's place in the global marketplace changed over the last 50 to 60 years?

2 What Australian products make it important in the global marketplace?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.2. Can you imagine how you might feel if you went to a McDonalds or other fast-food store in another country? What similarities and differences might you find?

4 Examine Source 4.4.

- a Do you think the child shown in this picture has benefited from global trade in any way?
- b What possible local benefits could there be from the logging that takes place in this area?

5 Examine Source 4.3. What point is the cartoonist making about the relationship between China and Australia?

Evaluate and create

6 Design a political cartoon based on the phrase 'riding on the sheep's back' or 'riding on the dragon's tail'. Before you begin, think about the message you want to convey about this phrase.

7 What benefits do you experience from the global increase in trade links between people and places? In what ways are you worse off because of these links? Are you a globalisation winner or loser?

Benefits of global trade for people

Benefits for individuals

Global trade means that you are now linked to manufacturers all over the world. This means that you can buy a wider range of products at cheaper prices than ever before. You are not restricted to paying for services or buying goods made in your local area, or even in your own country. Because of an intricate web of connections involving people from many countries you now have access to the global marketplace.

Online trade is spreading fast. As just one example, Australians have embraced online shopping for clothes at a remarkable rate. A single company, the British fashion site ASOS, racks up a purchase from Australia every six seconds, and is flying four jumbo jets of clothing into Australia every single week.

Not only do the buyers of goods and services benefit from global trade – there are also enormous benefits for the people that supply them. Employment and wealth has been created for hundreds of millions of people. This has improved living standards and life expectancies in many places and helped to pull people out of poverty. It is estimated, for example, that there are 600 million fewer people living in poverty in China today than was the case 30 years ago. This is largely because China has been transformed from an economy based on farming, supplying itself, to one based on manufacturing, supplying the world.



Source 4.5 Australian shoppers have access to goods from all over the world.

Benefits for businesses

Businesses are now linked to buyers from around the world. This means they may be able to sell more products to more people. They may also be able to access cheaper raw materials such as coal, iron and cotton from other places. These interconnections allow them to keep their costs down and sales up which creates higher profits.

As well as accessing cheaper materials from other countries many companies have moved much of their manufacturing base to other countries. This is often done to take advantage of lower labour costs in these countries. Many products in Australian stores carrying the labels of Australian companies, for example, are made in places such as Vietnam, China, Bangladesh and Fiji.



Source 4.6 Nike employs more than 1 million people in 777 factories in 43 countries, including China. It began as a single factory in the United States but now only one per cent of its workers are employed in that country.

Benefits of global trade for nations

Most nations around the world have welcomed the opportunities that closer links between nations have brought. Many have found that the benefits are greater if they specialise in a particular product or service. This is known as comparative advantage. If, for example, you can buy cheap cars from other places then you don't have to make your own. You can focus on producing another product such as clothing or electronics. If you are able to make these better or cheaper than any other country then you will capture the market.



Source 4.7 The Indian film industry, part of which is known as Bollywood, is the largest in the world. India has a comparative advantage in film-making based on its large population, technical knowledge and fine weather.

There is also movement of money, ideas, knowledge and technology between countries. Ideas and advances in medicine, education and business can move quickly around the world. This can help to remove cultural barriers that often exist between countries, including language and religious differences. Sharing knowledge and ideas in this way also helps us move towards what is known as the 'global village'.

Some aspects of globalisation benefit people, businesses and entire nations. Bollywood, the Hindi-language part of the Indian film industry, is an example of this. The volume of movies produced means that individual actors (both Indian and international), dancers, musicians, and other film professionals benefit from employment in the industry. Businesses reap the rewards on both small and large scales. Supporting businesses (catering, or lighting businesses for example) enjoy employment and, on a wider scale, the film industry at large benefits from the continued success of Bollywood films. The nation benefits, too, in many ways, just one of which is the increased awareness of Indian culture on a global level.

Check your learning 4.2

Remember and understand

1 What are some of the ways in which you benefit from global trade?

2 In what ways does the increasing globalisation of trade benefit other people?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain how global trade can help to reduce poverty.

4 What is comparative advantage? In which goods or services do you think Australia has a comparative advantage?

5 How does the Indian film industry help to break down cultural barriers?

6 In what ways has the Chinese economy transformed over the last 40 years?

Evaluate and create

7 Many businesses that use cheaper labour in developing countries are often reluctant to reveal this.

- a Explain why you think this is the case.
- b Nike is a notable exception to this trend. Explore the interactive map at *http://nikeinc.com/pages/manufacturing-map* to find out where Nike products are made. Which country has the largest number of Nike employees, which has the most Nike factories and how many Australians are employed in Nike factories?

8 Draw a diagram or find an image that sums up the concept of a global village to be displayed on your classroom wall. Examine the range of images submitted by your class and discuss the different ways you and your classmates have chosen to represent the idea.

Benefits of global trade for people in Australia

Australia is an active participant in the movement of goods and services around the world. We are the 55th largest country in terms of our population but the 23rd biggest exporter and the 21st biggest importer. Each year, around $500 billion worth of goods and services move between Australia and other countries. This trade brings many benefits to Australian individuals and businesses and to the country as a whole.

Benefits for individuals

Millions of Australians are employed in industries that export goods and services. These include agriculture, mining and tourism. Many others work in industries such as retail and manufacturing that rely on imported goods and services. This trade creates wealth and prosperity for these people and for the nation as a whole.

Australia's largest service export is education. There are more than 400 000 citizens of other countries enrolled in Australian universities and other education providers. This generates more than $16 billion of export earnings for Australia every year. As well as the financial benefits, Australia also receives other benefits. Many of these students apply to stay in Australia when they have finished their education and this leads to an increased number of people in many occupations, including medicine and education. Those that return to their home countries improve the level of skills in those countries and often help to improve levels of wellbeing.



Source 4.8 These overseas students are studying at the University of Sydney. Chinese students are the largest group of overseas graduates there followed by those from India, South Korea, Malaysia and Brazil.

Benefits for Australian businesses

Many Australian businesses have been able to take advantage of the increasing trade connections between people and places to become major players on the world stage. This includes Australian mining companies that have dominated world trade in minerals such as iron ore, coal and gold, as well as smaller companies that have developed uniquely designed products. Australian surf wear brands are a good example of this.

Case study: Crumpler

The Australian brand, Crumpler, most famous as the designer and supplier of distinctive messenger bags, is an example of an Australian business that has benefited from the interconnections of global trade. The Crumpler business had humble beginnings in a shed in Ballarat, outside Melbourne, where the first prototype bag was made by Stewart Crumpler himself. From there, the company grew rapidly and achieved success and has sold millions of products all over the world, reaching a wide global marketplace.

Crumpler has stores across Australia and all over the world, including in Japan, the United States, Canada, the Philippines, Singapore and China. The head office is in Berlin, Germany. A key factor of the brand's success has been the high level of international sales, with stores supported by online sales and distributors in many other countries as well.

Crumpler has 1500 Twitter followers and almost 10 000 likes on Facebook, extending its global reach and consolidating its urban 'street' image.



Source 4.9 Crumpler is an example of an Australian company that has achieved global success.

Benefits of global trade for the Australian nation

It is difficult to work out exactly how much individual countries benefit from increasing trade links. Most researchers, however, agree that Australia has gained much from our greater interconnections since the 1970s. From this time we began to expand our range of trading partners from traditional markets such as the United Kingdom and New Zealand to markets throughout the world, particularly in Asia. Australian governments continue to try and reduce barriers to trade around the world and have done so for decades.

About one in every seven Australian workers is now employed in the production of exports. The figures are particularly high for those in mining (seven in every 10), farming (four in every 10) and manufacturing metal products (three in every 10). This brings extra revenue to the whole country through taxes and levies on workers and companies and has the potential to improve the wellbeing of many Australians. This has been particularly significant for many Indigenous Australians who have traditionally worked in agriculture. Many have also found employment in the booming mining sector.

Multiculturalism

The interconnections that come with global trade can bring many benefits apart from financial ones. As people move to or communicate with those from other places, there is a natural sharing that occurs. This can enrich the cultural landscape, as aspects of life such as language, religious tradition, art and food are shared and integrated with or added to the existing culture.

Sharing a different range of experiences and learning about different ways of doing things can have many positive results. Multiculturalism can broaden our outlook, lead us to interests or hobbies we wouldn't have otherwise heard about, or create opportunities to do further study or travel. This kind of sharing can do more than just provide an interesting experience – it also has the benefit of promoting mutual understanding and accepting others' differences (see Source 4.10). This in turn may lead to a more harmonious society which is accepting of diversity.

From an economic perspective, a successful multicultural society makes Australia an attractive destination for tourism, education and business.



Source 4.10 There are many benefits that come with the interconnection that accompanies global trade. Learning about other cultures and food traditions are just a couple of them.

Check your learning 4.3

Remember and understand

1 In what ways can Chinese citizens studying in Australia bring benefits to both countries?

2 How did Australia's global trade connections change during the 1970s?

Apply and analyse

3 Australia has a comparative advantage in providing a university education when compared to many other countries. Work with a partner to brainstorm the reasons for this and then discuss this with your class.

4 Read the case study about Crumpler.

- a Use the key concept of 'interconnection' to explain the business operations of Crumpler.
- b List five ways that Crumpler benefits from being interconnected with places all around the world.

5 Examine Source 4.10.

- a Can you think of other examples of the positive effects of multiculturalism apart from the ones shown?
- b Have you ever had an exchange student from another country visit your school? If so, what did you learn about their country?

Benefits of global trade for people in the Asia–Pacific region

Trade in the Asia–Pacific region is thriving, and interconnection with other countries through trade has brought many benefits to the region. The boom in the demand for information and communications technology equipment in particular (such as smartphones, tablets and computers) has accounted for much growth, while places such as Indonesia and Vietnam have driven exports of manufactured goods such as clothes and shoes. Machinery and transport are strong growth areas, and industries such as shipbuilding are expected to provide continued benefits to some Asia–Pacific economies, such as South Korea. Benefits that accompany global trade activity include a buoyant economy, higher employment levels, a higher standard of living, better access to health care and increased life expectancy.

Case study: South Korea

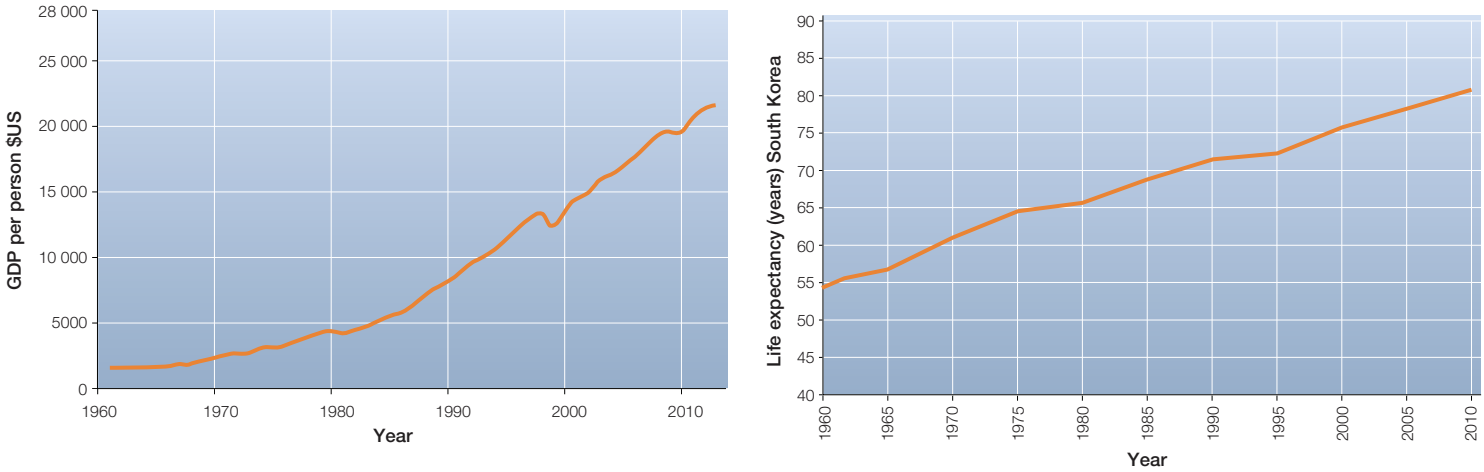
South Korea is an example of a nation that has embraced global trade and the benefits that it can bring. It has transformed itself from a poor nation with a large rural peasant population 50 years ago to a modern, urbanised society with one of the highest levels of wellbeing in the world. Along with Hong Kong, Taiwan and Singapore it is known as an Asian Economic Tiger. These four countries are now seen as a role model for other expanding economies including Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand (known as the Tiger Cub Economies).

In 1960, South Korea was considered one of the world's poorest nations. It is now Asia's fourth largest economy and the world's 15th largest. South Koreans enjoy an average wealth greater than the average European citizen, as measured by the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per person. Since 1960, average life expectancy in South Korea has increased from 54 years to 81 years.

This amazing transformation is due largely to the country's growing importance as a trading nation. It has chosen to concentrate on those industries such as electronics and motor vehicles that require a large, highly skilled labour force. The nation invests heavily in educating young people and providing them with the skills they need in these industries. As a result, South Korea is now the world's sixth largest exporter of cars and the fourth largest manufacturer of electronic goods.



Source 4.12 Samsung is one example of a South Korean company that has achieved massive global success. Samsung Electronics is the largest company in South Korea and the world's largest producer of smart phones, computer chips and televisions.



Source 4.11 The increase in the average life expectancy of South Koreans presents an interesting picture when compared to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). These graphs, which show the data for the country from 1960, could be used as secondary sources for a geographical inquiry.



Source 4.13 Korean pop, known as K-Pop, is growing in popularity. The musical sensation Psy had a massive worldwide hit in 2012. His single, *Gangnam Style,* topped the music charts in more than 30 countries around the world, including Australia.

The Korean Wave

Riding the crest of increased prosperity and electronic communication via the Internet, South Korean culture is spreading around the world. The push to promote local culture actually began in the 1990s, when the South Korean government became concerned that cultural traditions were in danger of being over-run by influences from China, Taiwan and Japan. They began to encourage the growth of local cultural expression in movies, television programmes and music.

Some of the nation's largest businesses, including LG, Hyundai and Samsung, were encouraged to invest in these industries and continue to do so. Korean television dramas have become the most watched programs throughout much of Asia and Korean pop (K-Pop) bands have become hugely popular throughout much of Eastern Europe and the Middle East. In 2011, K-Pop YouTube clips were viewed 2.28 billion times, with Japan, United States and Thailand topping the list of most frequent viewers.

The South Korean government has continued to encourage the spread of Korean culture (known as the Korean Wave) as it is seen as a way of promoting South Korean views and encouraging a positive view of the country. This is regarded as important in continuing to build South Korea's reputation as an important player on the global stage.

Check your learning 4.4

Remember and understand

1 What social and economic changes have occurred in South Korea since 1960?
2 What links do you have to South Korea?
3 What are the 'Asian Economic Tigers'?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 4.11.
   a Describe the change over time in life expectancy and GDP per person in South Korea.
   b Explain the links between these two measures of South Korean society.
5 What is K-Pop? Explain how it is an example of the growing interconnection of people around the world.

Evaluate and create

6 Draw a flow map that shows the movement of goods and services between South Korea and other nations. Use arrows to show the direction of these movements.
7 K-Pop is an example of the ways in which one country's culture can influence cultures in other places. Can you think of other examples of this principle?

Drawbacks of global trade for people

As you have learned, global trade has the potential to bring benefits to people and to places. It is a leading contributor to reducing poverty in many places and provides wealth and prosperity for countless people. However, these benefits often come at significant economic and social cost to other people in other countries. This takes place at individual, business and national levels.

Drawbacks for individuals

Many companies that are based in developed countries actually manufacture their goods in developing countries. This is usually to take advantage of the cheaper labour that is available in these developing countries. While this provides jobs and income for millions of people, manufacturing in developing countries does come at a cost. Workers are paid much less than those who perform similar tasks in developed countries and they often work in appalling conditions.

The demand for cheap labour and high levels of poverty means that child labour is used in some countries. There are estimated to be over 200 million children working in the world. Most of these children work on small family farms in developing countries but around 160 000 of them work in manufacturing.

Countries with high levels of child labour tend to share similar characteristics. These include:

- high fertility rates and a large percentage of the population being under the age of 15
- low rates of school attendance and low levels of literacy
- low levels of technology in comparison to other countries with whom they are competing
- a lack of government policies to deal with child labour
- large numbers of people living in poverty.



Source 4.14 Workers in a clothing factory in Dhaka, Bangladesh

Drawbacks for businesses

The interconnections that link the consumer to the person who made their product have, in some cases, become so complex that businesses lose control of the process. In Asian countries such as India and Bangladesh, for example, it is common practice for manufacturing plants to 'outsource' parts of their operations to smaller factories. They, in turn, may also outsource parts of the operations. The company executives in an office on the other side of the world then have little idea of the factories they are actually using, or whether they are involved in unsafe work practices. It also makes it difficult to maintain quality controls on the products. Additionally, there may be a backlash from consumers in the developed world once these practices become known to them.

Drawbacks for nations

Many critics of the growth in trade between countries believe that it benefits the people and businesses of the developed world at the expense of those in developing countries. These poorer countries are seen only as a source of cheap raw materials and labour. This, they argue, tends to widen the gap in wellbeing between wealthy and poor countries.

Another criticism of increased globalisation in trade is that problems in one place can affect many other places very quickly. In 2008, a dramatic fall in house prices in the United States triggered a global financial crisis and caused banks and investment companies to collapse throughout the developed world. Many companies were forced to close and spending on consumer goods fell dramatically. As developed countries reduced their consumer spending, imports went down and hundreds of thousands of people in developing countries were also plunged into poverty.

Financial problems are not the only things to spread quickly. Greater global trade may also result in the spread of infectious diseases between regions of the world as people travel more frequently for trade. In 2002–2003, a respiratory disease, SARS, was spread by tourists from its origins in China to many other countries. By the time the epidemic finished it had killed more than 8000 people in 17 countries. Outbreaks of bird flu and other health concerns like norovirus can also be spread quickly by people who are travelling around the world for business.



Source 4.15 These protesters in South Korea are campaigning against a G20 meeting of the leaders of the world's wealthiest nations. Many people are concerned that increasing global trade results in a widening gap between rich and poor countries.

Check your learning 4.5

Remember and understand

1 Why do many children in developing countries work rather than go to school?

2 What is outsourcing? How can it negatively affect people and businesses?

3 Factories such as the one in Source 4.14 are often called 'sweat shops'. Why do you think this is the case?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Source 4.14.
- a Estimate the number of workers in this room.
- b Estimate the percentage of women workers.
- c What are the roles of men in this factory? What does this tell you about gender roles in this place?

5 Imagine that you work in the clothing factory in Source 4.14. Describe a day at work.

Evaluate and create

6 Examine Source 4.15 showing a protest group in South Korea. Create a table listing both the benefits and the costs of global trade. Discuss which groups in society are likely to be opposed to globalisation and which would support it.

7 Research the global financial crisis (GFC) or the SARS epidemic and construct a flow diagram showing its spread within and between countries. How were global trade connections involved?

Drawbacks of global trade for people in Asia

Asia is the world's largest continent and home to three-fifths of the world's people. Its 48 countries contain a wide diversity of cultures, languages and ways of life. In some Asian countries, most of the population live in small villages and depend on their food-growing skills for their livelihood and to feed their families. In other parts of Asia, more and more people are working in industries such as agriculture, tourism and manufacturing. This growing involvement in industry has led to some alarming work practices. These include using child labour, unsafe working conditions and working hours that include factory shifts of up to 19 hours a day.

Case study: Clothing factories in Bangladesh

The clothing industry is the largest in Bangladesh, accounting for about 80 per cent of all exports. It employs about 3.5 million people, most of them young women. Working conditions and wages vary a great deal within the Bangladeshi clothing industry but a worker can typically earn about $50 a month. Workers officially usually work 10-hour days, but there are many reports of workers being locked into factories for much longer hours, sometimes from 7.00 a.m. to well past midnight, seven days a week.



Source 4.16 Rescue workers search for survivors in the rubble of the collapsed Rana Plaza building – Dhaka, in Bangladesh.

American clothing manufacturers began to outsource to Bangladesh in much greater numbers in 2005, following the end of an agreement that had kept a percentage of clothing production in the United States. In the rush, clothing factories were hastily installed in Bangladesh. Building regulations were overlooked and poorly controlled and factories were set up in buildings unsuitable for thousands of workers and their heavy machinery. Many lacked suitable fire exits and ventilation, making conditions in them both dangerous and uncomfortable. Hundreds of workers have died in fires in these factories as a result.

Perhaps most disturbingly, a survey by engineers found that three-fifths of the clothing factories are vulnerable to collapse. In 2013, concrete pillars supporting an eight-storey building on the outskirts of Dhaka collapsed (see Source 4.16). The building was home to five clothing factories and thousands of workers. More than 1100 people were killed, making this one of the world's worst industrial accidents. The building's owner only had permission to construct a five-storey building but illegally added three more floors to fit in more workers. He also installed heavy generators to counter the frequent disruptions to the electricity supply.

Case study: Ball stitching in India

Many Australian companies that supply the leather and synthetic balls you use for sport have their balls stitched in India. A newspaper investigation in 2012 found that many of the balls are being stitched by children who have been taken out of school by their parents to help earn money to support the family (see Source 4.17).

While Australian companies use factories that have signed agreements stating they will not use child labour, the reality is that many of them do. During busy times, when the factories are overloaded with work they use other smaller companies to help meet the labour demand. These companies employ children, most of them young girls, to stitch the balls.

Ten million balls are made in India and shipped to Australia every year in an industry worth about $1 billion. Each worker in India receives about eight cents per ball. It takes about an hour to hand stitch each ball, a task that is hard on fingers and eyes.

For people living in poor villages, however, sending their children to work doing such intense labour – at the expense of an education – is often the only option for the family's income.



Source 4.17 Twelve-year-old Reena works five hours a day, seven days a week to stitch together balls for Australian children. She thinks she has fallen three years behind her classmates in her schoolwork as a result.

Check your learning 4.6

Remember and understand

1 Why did the Rana Plaza building collapse?

2 Calculate how much workers in Bangladeshi clothing factories are paid a week. Compare this to the minimum wage in Australia which is $622.20. How does this help to explain why more clothes are made in Bangladesh than in Australia?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.17. Explain how Reena is linked to people in Australia. How has this interconnection impacted on her?

4 Why do you think workers in developing countries such as India and Bangladesh are more vulnerable to low wages and poor working conditions than those in developed countries?

Evaluate and create

5 The people who died in the Rana Plaza collapse have been called 'victims of globalisation'. Do you think this is a fair description? Give some reasons for your answer.

6 Some clothing companies have decided to close their factories in Bangladesh due to poor publicity following the building collapse. Do you think this is a good thing or a bad thing for workers in Bangladesh? Discuss this with your class.

Drawbacks of global trade for people in Africa

Africa's resources have been used by people from other places for hundreds of years. Today, natural resources including vast quantities of wood and minerals are exported from Africa to markets all around the world. Another abundant resource currently being widely used by other countries is the African labour force. This use of African workers has had negative consequences.

Case study: The flower growers of Lake Naivasha, Kenya

On the streets of many European cities, cut flowers are widely available to buy. Demand for these flowers always peaks around Valentine's Day and Mother's Day. People who buy cut flowers in cities such as London, Paris and Berlin probably give little thought to where the flowers came from and how they got there. It might surprise them to know that their purchase is contributing to an ecological and human catastrophe 6000 kilometres away.

About one-third of the thousands of tonnes of flowers imported into Europe every year come from Kenya. Picked in the early morning, they are packed, chilled and on a plane to Europe by the afternoon. Most of Kenya's flower trade is centred on the shores of Lake Naivasha, about 75 kilometres north-west of the Nairobi international airport.

Thirty years ago, Lake Naivasha was home to large numbers of wildlife, including hippopotamuses, giraffes, zebras, antelopes and birds. Masai herders brought their cattle to drink at the water's edge and fishermen and their families lived well on the abundant fish stocks. The total population in the area was estimated to be about 30 000.

In the 1980s, the potential for horticulture was recognised and European companies began buying land on the southern shores of the lake to grow flowers and vegetables. There are now 50 large flower farms covering 50 square kilometres of land, and there are 2000 hectares of plastic-covered greenhouses.

While 40 000 people have found jobs on the flower farms, research shows that for each person working, seven others are attracted to the area hoping to find work. This places a great strain on services such as housing, water supply, electricity, garbage collection, health care, food security and roads.

Workers labour for about 15 hours a day for the equivalent of about $A2. Crime rates, particularly assaults on children and sexual assaults, are higher here than in any other part of Kenya. This is, reportedly, because children are left in the care of elderly women, for a small fee, while their mothers work on the farms. This leaves them vulnerable to attack.



Source 4.18 Kenyan roses for sale in Europe – these ones are clearly labelled, but not everyone will take note or think about the origin of the flowers they buy.



Source 4.19 A worker's town near Lake Naivasha, Kenya

Case study: Child labour in cocoa farming, West Africa

Chocolate is made from the seeds of the cacao plant which are dried and ground to produce cocoa. Seventy per cent of the world's cocoa comes from West Africa, particularly the Ivory Coast and Ghana. A typical cocoa farm covers 2–5 hectares and is owned by a single family. Cocoa farming requires a large input of labour, and as children make up 44 per cent of the population in the region they are often used as labourers on the family farm.

The demand for cocoa and for cheap labour is so great that some children are sold by their families or kidnapped to work on the cocoa plantations. A 2002 report on the cocoa industry in the Ivory Coast reported that child slavery was common on cocoa farms, with children being forced to work for little or no wages in hazardous conditions. The authors of the report estimated that 284 000 children worked under dangerous conditions on these farms. A follow-up investigation by American television in 2012 found that little had changed, despite efforts by large multinational companies such as Nestlé to reduce the use of child labour on cocoa farms.



Source 4.20 This is seven-year-old Sami Sery with his uncles. Like many children in West Africa he works in a cocoa plantation supplying the raw material for the world's chocolate industry.

WEST AFRICA: MAIN COCOA PRODUCTION ZONES



Source 4.21 Source: www.oecd.org

Check your learning 4.7

Remember and understand

1 Who are the 'winners' from the global trade in flowers from Lake Naivasha? Who are the 'losers'?

2 Why do children often work on cocoa farms in West Africa?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.21. Where is most of the world's cocoa grown?

4 How would the supply of flowers from Kenya affect flower growers in Europe?

Evaluate and create

5 Construct a flow diagram that shows the links, movements and the interconnections demonstrated by Lake Naivasha and its flower-growing industry.

6 Do you think flower buyers should be made aware of the impacts of their purchase? Do you think this would make any difference?

7 Cocoa growing and ball stitching are not the only industries to employ children. Brick, match, cigarette and carpet-making; coffee, rice and corn growing; and diamond, gold and coal mining all employ large numbers of children.
Research the use of children in one of these industries and report your findings to your classmates. Include any details you can discover about wages, working conditions and the education levels experienced by children who work in one of these industries.
Compare what you find to working conditions in developed countries like Australia.

The effects of global trade on people and culture

Geographers use the word 'culture' to describe the characteristics of a particular group of people. Culture can be a difficult topic to study because it is an abstract concept and is not something tangible like, say, a mountain or a tree – it is not 'real' in the sense that we cannot touch it. Geographers, therefore, tend to study the products of culture. These include objects such as buildings, statues and clothing, as well as expressions of culture such as language, religion, art, food, music and dance.

Another thing that makes culture difficult to study is that it is constantly changing. Cultures grow and decline or adapt to new influences all the time. With the rapid increase in the movement of goods, services, people and ideas that has occurred in the last few decades many cultures have changed.

Here, we will examine the ways that global trade affects people and culture. Sometimes these changes have positive outcomes for the culture of a certain country. At other times, the results can be unplanned, more serious than forecast, or have serious and negative impacts.



Source 4.22 The imbalance in distribution of available food is one negative impact that globalisation has had on people in different places around the world. Here, Chinese children attend a weight-loss camp.

The negative effects of global trade on people and culture

The term cultural erosion has been developed to describe the loss of cultural diversity that is occurring in many places. This is due in part to new ideas, new products and new ways of doing things entering a culture. Examples include the spread of food, drink, clothing, music, movies and language from dominant cultures, particularly the United States.

One impact of cultural erosion is a loss of languages. More than 40 per cent of the world's 7000 languages are considered to be endangered and more than 200 have become extinct in the last few decades. Languages become endangered and then extinct when people stop using them. This can happen for a variety of reasons including the dominance of only a few languages in education, politics and trade. Those who do not speak the dominant language are at a disadvantage and so their use becomes less desirable.

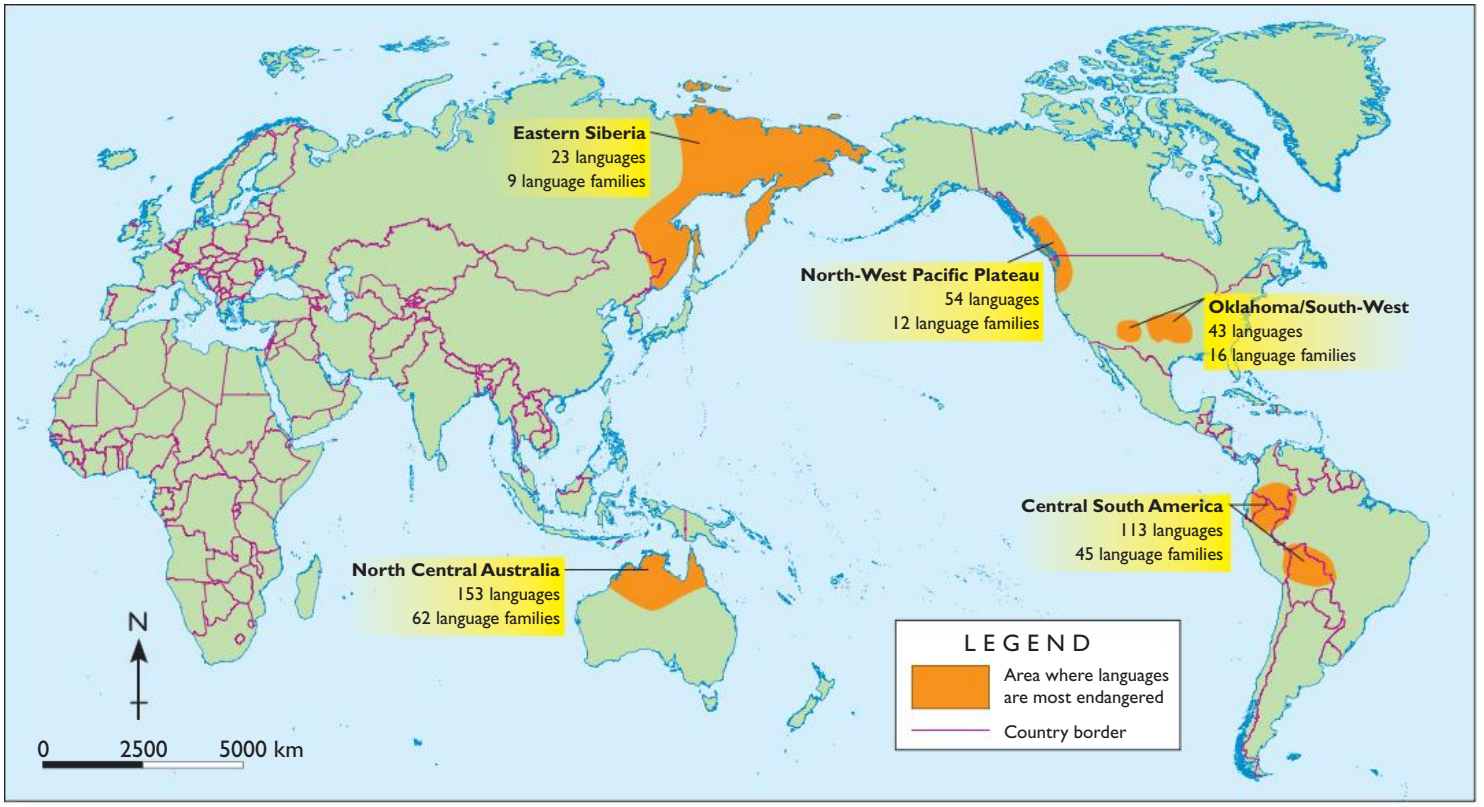
Places where language families (groups of languages that have descended from the same 'ancestor' language) are endangered are shown in Source 4.23.

The positive effects of global trade on people and culture

Increased links between people and places have the potential to erode cultures but can also bring cultural benefits. Modern information and communication technologies (ICT) have brought people closer together. They help people to better understand cultures different to their own and to share ideas and knowledge.

These interconnections can create a greater awareness of people and cultures in other places. This often leads to a greater respect of cultural diversity and a better understanding of the ways in which various cultural identities are formed, changed and threatened. ICT also allows individuals to tell their own stories rather than rely on governments and the traditional media to tell them.

WORLD: ENDANGERED LANGUAGE HOTSPOTS



Source 4.23

Source: Oxford University Press

For example, deep in the heart of one of the world's great wilderness areas, the Amazon rainforest, Indigenous tribes are fighting back against illegal logging that threatens their culture with modern tools: GPS, the Internet, mobile phones and Google Earth. They photograph loggers entering the forest, plot their location using GPS and inform authorities who can then send out a team to arrest the loggers. The Indigenous tribes are also linked through email, Skype and Facebook to thousands of supporters around the world.



Source 4.24 The chief of the Surui tribe in Brazil with his laptop computer. He uses his laptop for communication, in order to protest and protect his culture and his rainforest home.

Check your learning 4.8

Remember and understand

1 How has ICT lead to a greater understanding of cultural differences?

2 What is cultural erosion?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.23.

a Of the language hotspots identified, which has the greatest number of threatened languages?

b What are the likely threats to language in this region?

4 How is the Surui tribe in Brazil using ICT to protect their culture? In a small group discuss other ways in which ICT can lead to a greater understanding of other cultures. Report back to your classmates.

Evaluate and create

5 Brainstorm the ways in which cultures can be strengthened by increased contact with other cultures around the world.

6 Do you think it matters if a language becomes extinct? Give some reasons for your answer.

The effects of globalisation on Indigenous peoples

The original inhabitants of a region or country are known as its Indigenous people. These communities often developed a way of life suited to the natural environment in which they lived without influence and interference from the outside world.

With increased links between people and places, Indigenous peoples and their cultures have been threatened by the expansion of dominant cultures, or from the arrival of new people and cultural groups.

As people from different cultures have moved around the world and settled in new places, they have often come into contact with the Indigenous peoples. In some cases this first contact has been friendly, while in other cases conflict has broken out. Whatever the nature of the first contact, the long-term effects are largely negative for Indigenous peoples. They often become a minority in their own country and suffer from widespread prejudice and discrimination. As a result, their unique culture is threatened and may become extinct.

The United Nations estimates that there are almost 5000 Indigenous groups in the world today. In total, this accounts for about 370 million Indigenous peoples living in 70 countries. Australia is home to two groups of Indigenous peoples – Aboriginal Australians and Torres Strait Islanders.

The world map (see Source 4.25) and the information provided in Sources 4.26–4.31 give examples of some of the Indigenous cultures currently threatened by new global links, and explains how they have been affected.

WORLD: INDIGENOUS PEOPLES



Source 4.25

Source: Oxford Atlas



Source 4.26
The Saami,
Northern Europe

❶ The Saami

The Saami are the Indigenous people of Northern Europe, living in parts of Norway, Sweden, Finland and Russia. The Saami are traditionally semi-nomadic reindeer herders, but globalisation has brought changes to their way of life. Today, many Saami have modernised and now use snowmobiles and helicopters to herd the reindeer. However, pasture land for the reindeer is becoming limited as oil and gas mining are developed on traditional Saami lands. The oil and gas is refined and shipped around the world. The Saami are facing other environmental threats from dam building, logging and the effects of climate change.



Source 4.27
The Masai,
East Africa

❷ The Masai

The Masai are the semi-nomadic people of East Africa, and live in southern Kenya and northern Tanzania. The Masai have been subjected to eviction and to opposition to their semi-nomadic lifestyle over many years. Masai lands in Kenya were reduced by 60 per cent at the beginning of the 20th century, when the British took the lands to build ranches, then later, wildlife reserves and national parks. Today, loss of land to large-scale private farms and game parks for international tourists has made nomadic grazing impossible for the Masai. Many Masai now live in towns or depend on tourism for survival.



Source 4.28
The Karen,
Myanmar (Burma)

❸ The Karen

The Karen is an Indigenous group from Myanmar (Burma) who have long fought for their own homeland. Possibly the most recognisable Karen are the Red Karen, or Kayah, a subgroup whose females wear a series of brass rings to make their necks appear longer. Located in a political hotspot, the culture and lifestyle of the Karen have long been under threat from political tensions and military action in Myanmar (Burma). There are estimated to be 200 000 Karen hiding in the jungle from the Burmese army, and many Karen have fled across the border to Thailand. Here, they find themselves in refugee camps, or in villages where they are little more than a tourist attraction.



Source 4.29
The Vedda,
Sri Lanka

❹ The Vedda

The Vedda people are Indigenous to Eastern Sri Lanka, and were originally forest-dwellers. The Vedda people have been exploited for centuries by outsiders wanting their land. This land has been turned from forest to housing developments and government parkland. The Vedda have been banned from the parkland areas. Those who do still try to hunt risk being arrested or even shot by park guards.



Source 4.30
The Yolngu,
Australia

❺ The Yolngu

Yolngu is the name the Indigenous people of East Arnhem Land give themselves. Arnhem Land, in the Northern Territory of Australia, is owned solely by the Yolngu people, who are under threat from mining interests in the region. They are attempting to balance the needs of their traditional Aboriginal heritage with the demands of the mining industry, an industry which is a huge business for Australia. Some argue that while there are serious problems within their own communities – health, poverty and substance abuse – Yolngu manage a way of life that blends Western technology with traditions that have been passed through generations.



Source 4.31
The Mentawi,
Indonesia

❻ The Mentawi

The Mentawi are the native people of the Mentawai Islands in Indonesia. The Mentawi have traditionally relied on the rainforests of the Mentawai Islands for all their needs. Today, rapid change has led to the clearance of forests, replacing the forests with profitable palm oil plantations. As a result, the Indonesian government has relocated many Mentawi to villages where they are unable to follow their traditional ways. They now suffer high rates of poverty and disease.

The Mentawai Islands are popular with international surf tourists and the Mentawi have found themselves the unlikely beneficiaries of Internet connections via groups like Surfaid, that aims to help people in isolated areas Surfaid's members are connected to through surfing.

Check your learning 4.9

Remember and understand

1. Why do Indigenous populations often decline when settlers from other places arrive?
2. In what type of environment do the Saami live?

Apply and analyse

3. List one forest-dwelling Indigenous group. What threats to their way of life do forest-dwelling Indigenous groups face?
4. What do the Masai and the Mentawi have in common?
5. Give an example of how technology has changed the way of life of one Indigenous group.

Evaluate and create

6. Make a list of the ways in which Indigenous cultures are changing. Construct a flow diagram showing how some or all of these changes are connected to each other.
7. Select one of the Indigenous groups described on these pages. Research the issue described and report back to your class on the ways in which this group is changing.

4.1 big**ideas:** broadsheet

The global coffee trade

Coffee is one of the world's most traded commodities. About $17 billion worth of coffee is traded between producing and importing countries every year. This makes it the second most valuable commodity (after oil) in the world. It is a particularly important crop to many developing countries as it accounts for as much as one-third of their entire export earnings. More than 25 million people are employed in the coffee industry, many of them small farmers.

The overall demand for coffee is growing rapidly and this is causing many changes in its production and processing. Many small farmers in developing countries are finding it difficult to compete with large plantations which are often owned by companies from developed countries. The demand for coffee is also creating environmental problems, particularly the clearing of rainforest to make way for new plantations and an increased demand for fresh water.

The coffee that ends up in your cup begins as a bean grown on plants in tropical countries, often on hillsides. The beans are picked, washed, dried, sorted and packed into 60-kilogram bags for export. Once transported the beans are roasted and ground before being packaged and sold to the consumer.



Source 4.32 Brazil is the world's largest coffee producer and exporter. Coffee farms range from large plantations owned by transnational companies, such as this one, to small plots owned by a single farmer.

skill**drill**

Describe, explain and compare patterns on maps

Geographers often use maps to interpret and analyse complex information and reach some conclusions. While a single map is a useful tool for describing a pattern, we can compare several maps to help explain these patterns. Follow these steps to describe, explain and compare the patterns on maps.

Step 1 Examine the first map carefully. Look at the title and the legend so that you know precisely what the map is showing. Take note of any patterns that you notice. These may be a cluster of similar features located close together or other patterns such as features in a rough line (lineal pattern) or spreading out like spokes on a wheel (radial pattern).

Step 2 Repeat Step 1 for the next map and for any other maps you are using.

Step 3 Look for similarities between the maps. You can do this by using your notes and by scanning the maps with your eyes. You are looking for sets of data on the maps that seem to roughly follow similar patterns. Make a note of these similarities.

Step 4 Use your observations to find a logical explanation for these similarities. For example, when comparing maps of altitude and temperature it is logical that temperatures will fall as altitude increases. Similarly, it is logical that tropical rainforests are found in warm areas with high rainfall.

Apply the skill

1 Examine Source 4.33, showing the world's top coffee producers and coffee importers. Describe the distribution of the world's top coffee producers. Pay particular attention to the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn.

2 Examine Source 4.35, showing the world's climates. Describe the main climate types found in the tropics.

3 Compare your answers to the previous questions and explain the distribution of the world's top coffee producing countries.

4 Use Source 4.33 to describe the distribution of the world's top coffee importers.

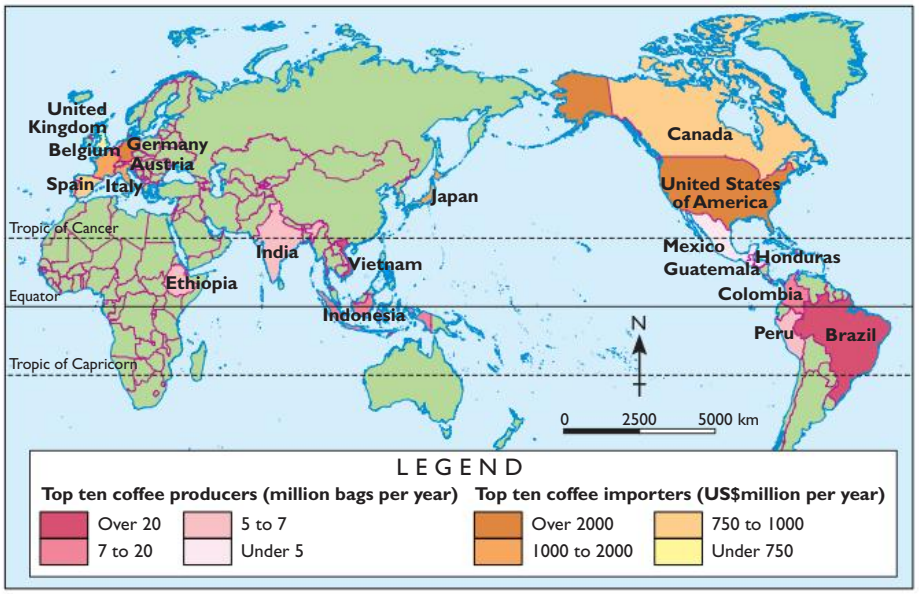
5 Having examined the maps in Sources 4.33 and 4.35, what climate factors do you think influence the growing of coffee? What climate factors are apparent in the areas that import large amounts of coffee?

Extend your understanding

1 Many coffee producing countries rely very heavily on this single crop for their export income. What are the possible dangers for countries in this situation? What kinds of risks does relying on a single crop expose them to?

2 Do some further reading or use the Internet to research the coffee industry in one of the top producing countries. How has this changed in the last 10 years and who has been impacted by these changes?

WORLD: TOP TEN COFFEE PRODUCING AND CONSUMING COUNTRIES



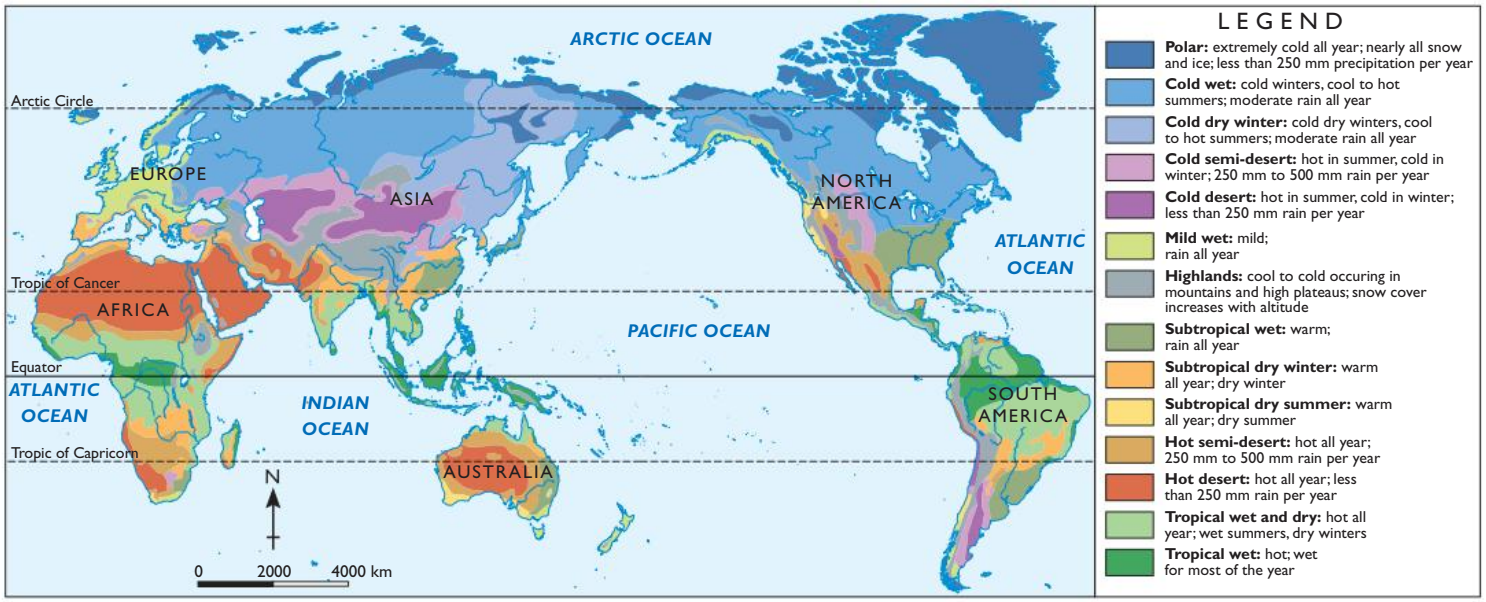
Source 4.33 Source: Oxford University Press

Source 4.34 This table shows the top ten coffee-producing and importing nations in the world

Country	Annual production (in 000s of bags*)	Country	Annual imports (in US $ 000s)
Brazil	43 484	USA	4 121 228
Vietnam	20 000	Germany	3 344 098
Indonesia	8250	Italy	1 382 895
Colombia	7800	France	1 381 309
Ethiopia	6500	Japan	1 272 614
Peru	5443	Belgium	1 204 122
India	5333	Canada	789 431
Honduras	4500	Spain	752 415
Mexico	4300	United Kingdom	631 785
Guatemala	3750	Austria	454 791

* 1 bag weighs 60 kilograms. Figures, 2008

WORLD: CLIMATES



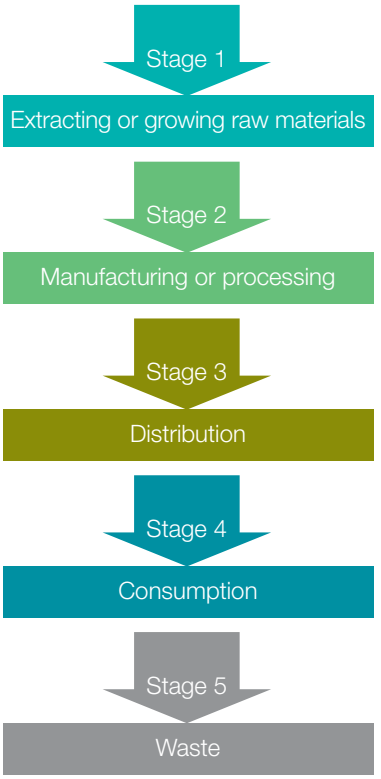
Source 4.35 Source: Oxford Atlas

4.2 What effects does global trade have on places?

Stages of production and consumption

As you have learnt, the production and consumption of goods around the world has brought change in both expected and unexpected ways to the lives of countless people. It has also changed the natural environment in many places and in many ways.

To help make sense of these changes geographers use a simple flow model known as the supply chain. Put simply, a **supply chain** is the journey of a product from its source to the consumer and then its disposal once it is used. You are surrounded by objects that have followed a series of supply chains to reach you. The main stages in supply chains are shown in Source 4.36.



Source 4.36 The main stages of the supply chain of production and consumption.



Source 4.37 Growing produce is part of the first stage of production.

Stage 1: Extracting or growing raw materials

All consumer goods begin as **raw materials**. They are dug from the ground, grown in farms and forests or taken from rivers and oceans. Raw materials include substances like oil, wood, water, metals and minerals. Most goods that we consume are made up of a combination of raw materials. A laptop computer, for example, contains at least 30 different minerals (see 'The global connections inside your laptop' in Chapter 3.3.) and even simple items such as a chair may contain three or four different materials. The processes involved in taking these raw materials impact on the natural environment at a range of scales from local to global.

Stage 2: Manufacturing or processing

Most raw materials are processed in some way to transform them into useful consumer products. This may be as simple as washing, sorting and packaging tomatoes or other foods from farms, or it may be a very complex and intricate series of processes. An increasing trend is for different parts of the manufacturing process to occur in different places, often in different countries. This requires the movement of materials and partly manufactured goods around the world.



Source 4.38 Manufacturing or processing is the second stage of the supply chain.

Stage 3: Distribution

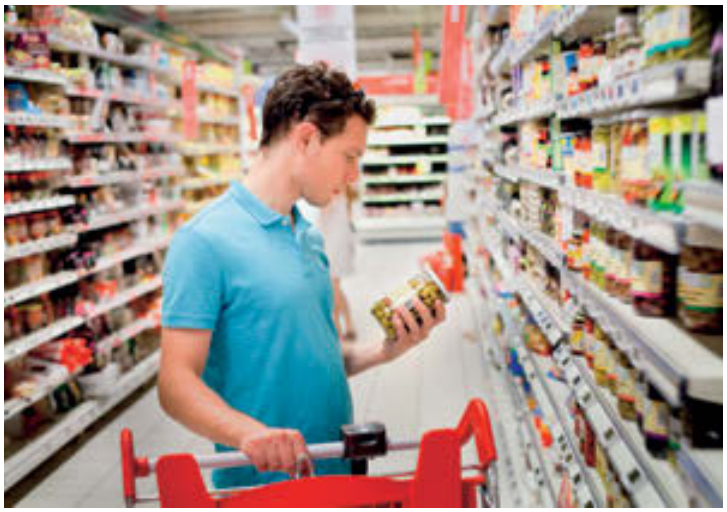
The manufactured goods must be transported to the consumer. The largest volumes of goods are moved by ships but planes, trains and trucks are also used. Goods are often taken to warehouses for storage and then to shops where they are accessed by the consumer, who then transports them to the place they will be used.



Source 4.39 Stage 3 is distributing goods from one place to another.

Stage 4: Consumption

The use of goods and services is known as consumption. The volume of goods and services being consumed is growing rapidly. This is largely due to the growth of the world's total population and to increases in people's level of wellbeing. As more and more people are moving out of poverty they are able to access more goods and services. This growth in consumption is bringing about great change to the natural environment, including supplies of fresh water and fertile soil. Perhaps most disturbingly, our consumption patterns are damaging the atmosphere and causing global changes to the climate.



Source 4.40 Consuming goods is a stage we are all familiar with.

Stage 5: Waste

We often forget what happens to goods once we have finished with them. While some are treated and recycled, others are simply dumped. As consumption increases the amount of waste does, too. The availability of cheap replacements for many consumer goods means that broken or faulty goods are more likely to be thrown away than repaired. China generates an estimated 150 million tons of rubbish per year, and this is predicted to rise to 400 million tons by 2020, the equivalent of the world's entire rubbish production in 1997.



Source 4.41 After the consumption of goods, waste follows.

Check your learning 4.10

Remember and understand

1 Name the five stages of the supply chain.
2 Why is the consumption of goods increasing in many places around the world?

Apply and analyse

3 How does the global increase in consumption of goods impact on the amount of waste produced? Give some examples in your response.
4 Name three raw materials that go into a product that your household uses every day.
5 What are some of the ways in which people try to reduce the amount of waste they generate?

Evaluate and create

6 Rank the five stages in the supply chain from the one that causes the greatest impact on the natural environment to the one that causes the least. Explain your rankings to a partner and then discuss them with your class.
7 Select a common consumer item such as a toothbrush, chocolate bar or packet of biscuits. Look carefully at the item and write down all the materials in it. Use your research skills to trace the supply chain of these materials back to their sources.

The effects of extracting or growing raw materials on places

The first stage in the supply chain of production and consumption is extracting or growing raw materials. Extracting includes activities such as mining (of gold, minerals, uranium, etc.) or taking natural gas or petroleum to use for energy (to heat, cook and generate electricity) and fuel from the Earth.

We also grow crops to provide the raw materials to produce food (wheat which is used to make bread) or clothing (such as cotton).

Accessing the raw materials that are used to supply our needs and wants can bring about many changes in the natural environment. Extracting raw materials from the Earth, such as the minerals that go into many everyday items we use, can cause erosion, a loss of biodiversity and contamination of soil and waterways.

If the raw materials are grown, fresh water and soil systems can be impacted. Intensive farming can cause soil degradation, water scarcity and salinity in places.

Case study: Grasberg mine, Papua, Indonesia

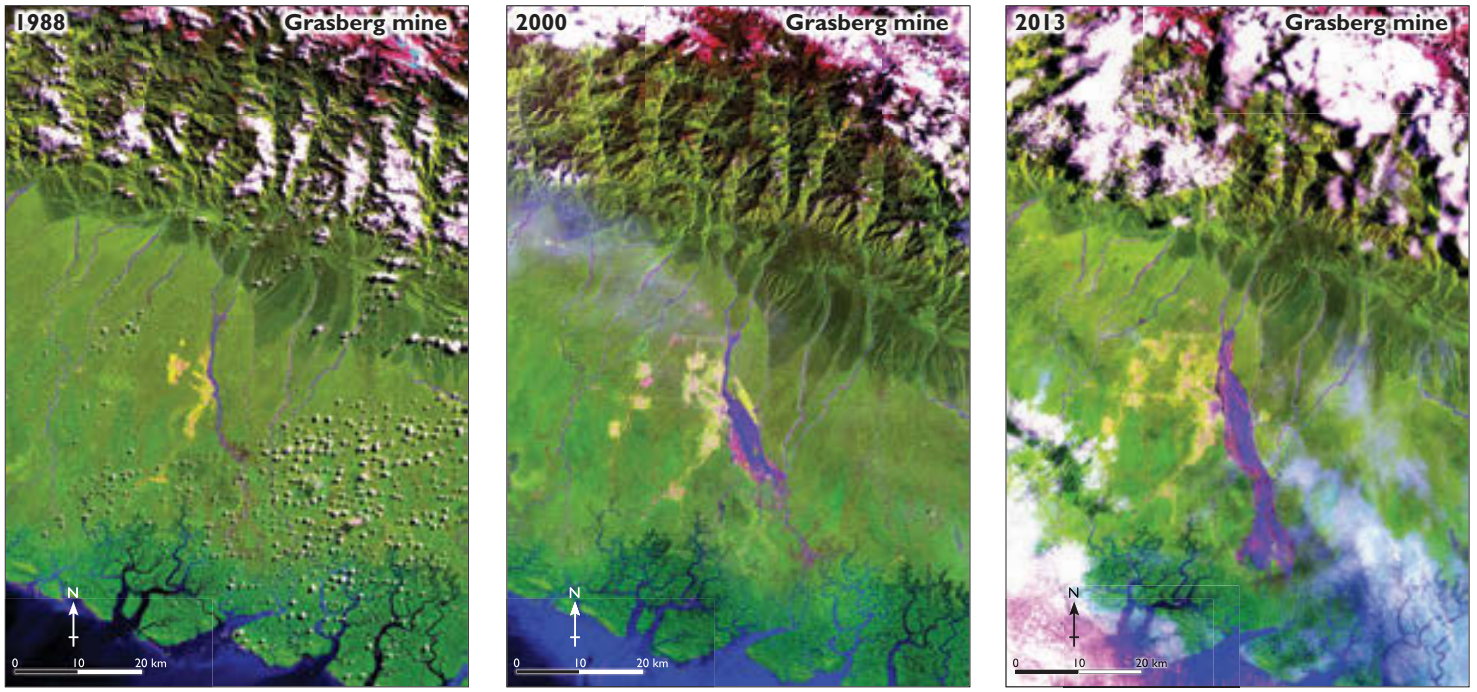
The Grasberg mine, located in the Indonesian province of Papua on the island of New Guinea, is the third-largest copper- and largest gold-mine in the world. Its gold reserves are estimated to be worth over $20 billion and it also contains the world's largest deposit of copper.

The mine is located high in the mountains that run the length of the island. The mining company also controls much of the land between the mine and the coast, a distance of 80 kilometres. This land is used to house the miners and to grow food for them.

In the mining operation vast amounts of water are used and the refuse from the mining process (known as **tailings**) washes into the river systems. These tailings contain silt, and this silt is changing the patterns of river flow below the mine. Most of the sediment flows into the Ajkwa river system. This river system naturally carries up to 20 000 tonnes of sediment a day but the mining operation is dumping an additional 238 000 tonnes a day into the river. This extra sediment is collecting in the lower reaches of the river, greatly altering the river system. Much of the sediment has ended up as a large plain, which has now grown to 166 square kilometres.



Source 4.42 The Grasberg mine in Papua, Indonesia, is an example of the process of extracting raw materials. The mine itself can be seen as a dark hole in this satellite image.



Source 4.43 These satellite images, taken in 1988, 2000 and 2013, show changes to Ajkwa River over time. In these false colour images pink shows areas of dry tailings and bare soil, and blue shows tailings of waste deposits. Black shows areas of water while light green areas are disturbed vegetation.

One billion tonnes of sediment have already been added to the river system. There is so much sediment that the river has ceased to flow in some places. The mining company has built a series of levees in an attempt to contain the sediment and to channel it towards the sea.

Independent reports have found that the mine is creating many other environmental problems. These include:

- dissolved copper, acids and sediments in the water supply at more than 100 times the legal limit
- unstable rock piles up to 270 metres high that sometimes collapse
- landslides due to the changing shape of hillsides
- poisoning and death of fish from polluted rivers
- risk to animals and birds that rely on the fish as a food supply
- loss of shellfish in the river estuary
- loss of mangroves along the coast and rainforest in the plain below the dam
- large areas of rainforest destroyed for settlement, agriculture and tailings.

Check your learning 4.11

Remember and understand

1 What minerals are mined at the Grasberg mine?
2 Where is this mine? Locate this region in your atlas.

Apply and analyse

3 Explain the sediment problems caused by the Grasberg mine in your own words.

Evaluate and create

4 Create a sketch map of the area shown in Source 4.43. Use a legend to show:
   - areas of disturbed vegetation in 1988
   - areas of disturbed vegetation between 1988 and 2013
   - tailings in 1988
   - tailings in 2013.
5 List the environmental effects of the Grasberg mine, ranking them from greatest impact to smallest.
6 Explain why this case study is an example of the key concept of interconnection.

The effects of manufacturing and processing on places

Once raw materials have either been extracted from the Earth or grown, they go through the next stage of production. This is the manufacturing or processing stage.

Virtually every product you use or consume has been processed in some way, or is entirely manufactured. This includes the food you eat, the clothes you wear, the transport you use and the things you consume such as paper, plastic, furniture and appliances. The processing of raw materials into these and millions of other consumer items impacts on the natural environment in many ways.

The impact this has on places depends on the type of product manufactured. Manufacturing car tyres, for example, may result in chemical emissions to air, water and soil. Manufacturing aluminium – used in products ranging from bottle tops and soft drinks to outdoor furniture and building construction – produces greenhouse gases that are released into the environment.

The manufacturing process

Different processing industries have varying levels and kinds of environmental impact. Here we will examine the examples of woodchip processing for paper production, and iron-ore processing for steel, and the effects they have on the environment.



Source 4.44 A paper mill in the United States. For decades, the USA was the world's largest producer of paper but they have recently been overtaken by China.

Case study: Woodchip processing for paper production

On average every Australian consumes about 200 kilograms of paper each year, two-thirds of which is imported. Paper is usually manufactured from trees. The trees are cut down and transported to a mill where they are converted into woodchips. The chips are then ground and cooked in a chemical solution to produce pulp. Chemicals such as bleaches and titanium oxide as well as fillers such as clay and chalk are added to the pulp, which is then filtered and squeezed between giant rollers to produce paper.

These processes impact the environment in several ways. Removing trees contributes to global climate change, as does transporting them to the paper mill. Mills use large amounts of electricity, which often comes from burning fossil fuels, another climate change contributor. Mills use thousands of litres of water to produce paper, and they release chemicals such as sulphur dioxide into the air. Chemicals used in the process may also be released into nearby streams and rivers.



Source 4.45 What does this cartoon say to you about the effects of manufacturing and processing?

Studies in the United States have found that the paper industry is the largest consumer of water per tonne of finished product in the country. It is also the third-largest user of energy. The industry is the fourth-largest water polluter and the third-largest air polluter. It has been estimated that each tonne of recycled paper saves 13 trees, more than 30 000 litres of water and 2.5 barrels of oil.

Case study: iron ore processing for steel production

Steel is used in thousands of products, from fine surgical blades to skyscrapers and massive ships. More than 1.5 billion tonnes of steel is consumed every year and this amount is growing. It begins as iron ore, which occurs naturally in some rocks, many of them in Australia. The ore is crushed and then melted at very high temperatures. Limestone and coke (processed coal) are added as the iron heats and becomes a liquid known as pig iron. This is melted once again in giant furnaces and impurities are removed to produce molten steel, which is poured into moulds, cooled and hardened.

It is estimated that about five per cent of the world's greenhouse gases come from the production of iron and steel. Producing a tonne of steel can produce up to two tonnes of carbon dioxide, the leading greenhouse gas. This figure varies a great deal around the world depending on processes. Many steel manufacturers in developed countries are using new technologies to reduce their emissions but manufacturers in developing countries are less likely to do this because of the added cost.



Source 4.46 A worker at a Chinese steel mill checks the blast furnace. China is the world's leading steel producer. Most Chinese steel is made from Australian iron ore.

Case study: Manufacturing in China

China is now the world's leading manufacturer, having taken the top spot from the United States since 2010. Manufacturing has grown in China due to a range of factors, including opening up the country to foreign trade, the modernisation of Chinese factories and transport networks, and the movement of Chinese people from farms to cities in search of work. This has led to improved levels of wellbeing for hundreds of millions of people living in China. These rapid changes have, however, come at a cost to the natural environment.

Air pollution

About two-thirds of China's energy for producing electricity, heating and cooking comes from burning coal, the cheapest but most polluting way to get energy. China is now home to 16 of the 20 most air-polluted cities on the planet. A third of China's urban residents are exposed to harmful levels of pollution resulting in a rise in cancers, asthma and birth defects. A UN study found that outdoor air pollution is associated with some 300 000 deaths and 20 million cases of respiratory illness in China each year.

Water scarcity

Many communities in China face water scarcity due to the over-extraction of water for industry or from water pollution. Some studies have found that more than 70 per cent of China's rivers and lakes are polluted and that more than 300 million people nationwide have no access to clean water. This drastically affects their wellbeing as they are more susceptible to water-borne diseases and food insecurity.

CHINA: POPULATION DENSITY AND ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES



Source 4.47

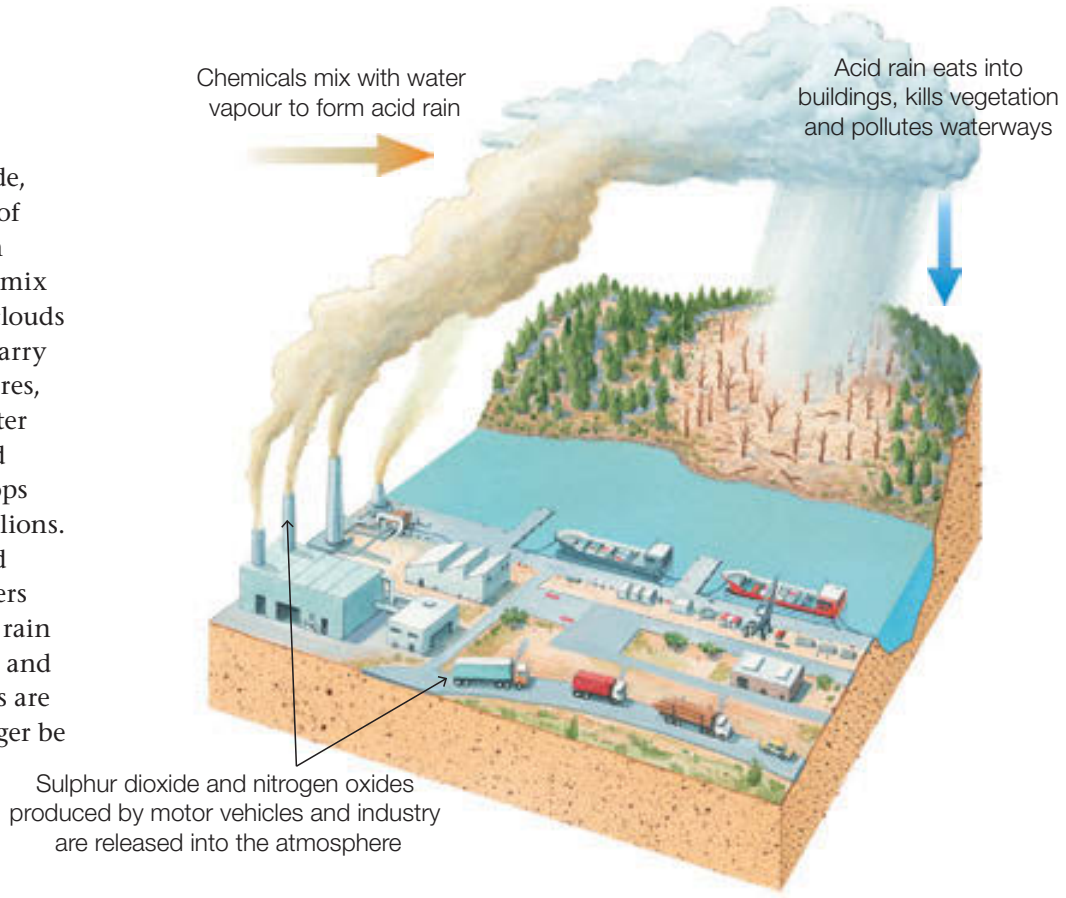
Source: Oxford University Press

Source 4.48 Chinese cities with the highest levels of air pollution, measured by the amount of small particles considered dangerous to health in the air (a reading of 20 is considered the safe limit).

Cities with between 4 to 5 times the safe limit of air pollution		Cities with more than 5 times the safe limit of air pollution			
Changchun (85)	Shanghai (81)	Beijing (121)	Hefei (111)	Shenyang (110)	Urumqi (140)
Changsha (92)	Yinchuan (90)	Chengdu (111)	Jinan (123)	Shijiazhuang (104)	Wuhan (105)
Hangzhou (97)	Zhengzhou (99)	Chongqing (105)	Lanzhou (150)	Taiyuan (106)	Xi'an (113)
		Harbin (101)	Nanjing (100)	Tianjin (101)	Xining (141)

Acid rain

The burning of coal during the manufacturing and processing stage releases large clouds of sulphur dioxide, producing acid rain over 30 per cent of the country. Acid rain is caused when certain pollutants in the atmosphere mix with the moisture (water vapour) in clouds and become acidic. The clouds may carry the dangerous cocktail many kilometres, and when rain falls it poisons the water and soils, killing fish populations and forests. It also affects the yields of crops grown by farmers to feed China's millions. Sulphur dioxide produced by cars and nitrogen oxides from farming fertilisers also contributes to the problem. Acid rain falls on one-third of China's territory and 70 per cent of China's rivers and lakes are so full of toxins that they can no longer be used for drinking water.



Source 4.49 Acid rain is a direct result of air pollution.

Check your learning 4.12

Remember and understand

1 How does paper production impact on the natural environment?
2 Examine Source 4.44. List the impacts on the natural environment that you can identify.
3 What is acid rain?
4 Why are some communities in China suffering from water scarcity? How can this lead to lower levels of wellbeing?

Apply and analyse

5 Why is the environmental impact of manufacturing often greater in developing countries?
6 Examine Source 4.45. Cartoons such as this are often used to make a serious point. What point is this cartoonist making?
7 Consider Source 4.46 which shows a Chinese Steel mill. List five ways in which you will use steel today.
8 Examine Source 4.47.
   a Describe the distribution of China's population.
   b Describe the distribution of areas affected by acid rain.
   c What association do you notice between population density and acid rain? Account for this association.

Evaluate and create

9 What steps could you take to reduce your use of paper and steel? Design a poster encouraging others to take one of these steps.
10 Use the Internet or do some further reading to research the process of making concrete. What are the main ingredients in concrete, where do they come from and how does this impact upon the environment?
11 The head of the World Coal Association has stated that 'Coal played a key role in reducing poverty in China. During the period 1980–2008 Chinese annual coal consumption increased by more than 400 per cent from 626 million tonnes to 2.7 billion tonnes.' Discuss why burning coal has advantages and disadvantages for China and its people.
12 Do you consider the economic revolution in China to be environmentally sustainable? Give some reasons for your answer.

The effects of distribution on places

After raw materials have been grown or extracted, then processed or manufactured, the resulting products are distributed. This is stage 3 in the supply chain. Distribution – transporting a product from one place to another – is a by-product of the way we frequently purchase and use things from all around the world. A product may travel many thousands of miles before it reaches us, by means including freight train, truck, aeroplane, shipping container and courier. The effects of distribution are many, and include direct impacts (emissions of carbon dioxide from fuel, for example) and indirect impacts such as traffic congestion and urban sprawl.

Case study: Shipping

About 8 billion tonnes of goods are transported on ships every year. This represents more than 90 per cent of global trade. Ships are the most efficient form of moving large amounts of goods because of their large carrying capacity, and the lower ratio of emissions they produce. Cargo ships, for example, produce one-tenth of the greenhouse gases (GHG) of trucks for every tonne of goods carried and about one-fiftieth of the gases produced by aeroplanes.

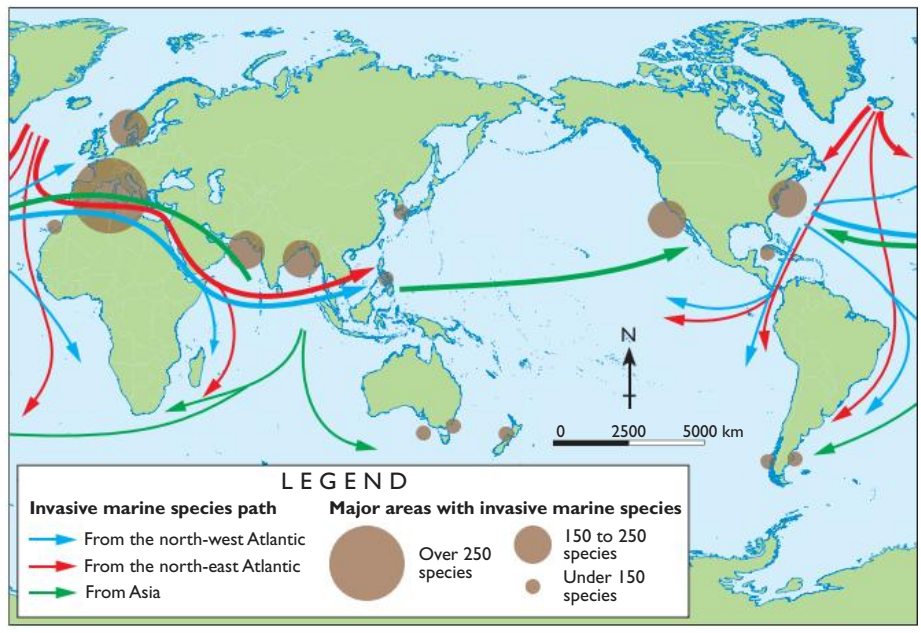
Shipping does, however, impact on the natural environment in other ways. Although the number of shipping accidents that result in oil spills has declined in recent years they still have the potential to cause great damage to the natural environment. One of the worst shipping disasters occurred in 1989, when an oil tanker, the Exxon Valdez, ran aground in Prince William Sound, Alaska. Eight of its 11 tanks were damaged, spilling more than 40 million litres of crude oil into the sea. This resulted in the deaths of up to half a million seabirds, 1000 sea otters, 300 seals and 250 bald eagles. Billions of salmon and herring eggs were also destroyed.

To remain stable ships carry water in their holds. Known as ballast water it is pumped into the ship's hold from the sea at the start of its journey and then carried to the next port where it is discharged back into the sea. Between 3 and 5 billion tonnes of ballast water is moved around the world every year. The ballast water keeps ships and sailors safe but it also carries marine organisms, including starfish and molluscs. It has been estimated that at least 7000 different species are carried in this way and this can cause great environmental damage (see Source 4.51). The Northern Pacific seastar, for example, arrived in Tasmania in ballast water from



Source 4.50 Oil from the grounded Exxon Valdez ship affected 1770 kilometres of coastline and 28 000 square kilometres of ocean – an area approximately 10 times the size of the ACT.

WORLD: INVASIVE MARINE SPECIES AND PATHWAYS



Source 4.51 Source: http://www.grida.no

Japan in 1992 and was then carried to Victoria's Port Phillip Bay. Within two years the population had reached 12 million and had begun to ravage the native shellfish.

Case study: Aeroplanes

Aeroplanes use large amounts of fossil fuel to transport goods as well as people around the world. Burning this fuel produces gases such as carbon dioxide and nitrous oxide as well as other pollutants such as soot and sulphate particles. Because most of these are produced at altitude they tend to have greater impact on the atmosphere than those produced at ground level.

Water vapour – also a greenhouse gas – is formed by aircraft at high altitude. Water vapour condenses into droplets to form condensation trails, or contrails (visible line clouds). Contrails are thought to contribute to global warming and climate change.

Aircraft also contribute to noise pollution levels, and they have other associated impacts on places they travel to and from. These include:

- the general level of pollution and emissions caused by energy use in airport buildings
- greenhouse gas emissions from ground airport vehicles
- carbon dioxide emissions from vehicles transporting goods to the airport for distribution
- waste products that accompany the manufacture of aircraft
- waste associated with airport construction and maintenance.

Many people are concerned about the level of greenhouse gases produced by aeroplanes, and are becoming more aware of the issue when evaluating their purchasing habits. You may have opted for something you bought online to be delivered from overseas by express, which means it would have travelled by plane, an increasingly common practice with the popularity of Internet shopping.

As the world's population grows, and we continue to live in a global marketplace, the levels of pollution contributing to climate change will become more and more of a concern. The impact of aircraft is under consideration by the International Civil Aviation Organisation and the UN, amongst others. Strategies that have been discussed to reduce the effects of aircraft on the environment include:

- increasing the price of air travel to reduce the number of planes in the air and amount of flying time
- increasing air freight costs to deter people from using airmail
- ending frequent-flyer programs that encourage people to fly as often as they can
- trialling alternative fuels
- striving for better efficiency
- discouraging the building of new airports or the expansion of existing ones.



Source 4.52 The white trails behind jets are formed from water vapour, a greenhouse gas. They are sometimes called 'contrails', a shortened form of 'condensation trails'.

Check your learning 4.13

Remember and understand

1 What is ballast water? How does it impact on the natural environment?

2 What are contrails? What impact might they have on the atmosphere?

Apply and analyse

3 Describe what happened in Alaska in 1989.

4 Examine Source 4.51.

- a Which regions have large numbers of invasive marine species?
- b Describe the movements of invasive marine species from the three main source areas around the world.
- c Looking at the map, can you reach any conclusions about how the movement of invasive species might be interconnected with trade?

Evaluate and create

5 Although the number of ships has increased, the number of oil spills and shipping accidents has decreased in recent years. Brainstorm the possible reasons for this trend.

6 Research the environmental impacts of train travel. Which has the greatest environmental impact: trains or aeroplanes?

The effects of consumption on places

After raw materials have been grown or extracted, then processed or manufactured into a product and distributed, the stage of consumption follows. You have probably heard terms like 'consumer behaviour', 'consumer rights', and even 'consumer society'. All of these terms illustrate how much the consumption of goods and services has penetrated the way we live. You have probably been the consumer of many goods and services today. Some things you consume might be immediately obvious – a can of drink or a chocolate bar – but others, such as the gas that powered the hot water system for your shower – might be less evident.

As our levels of consumption increase, so the impact on the natural environment deepens. The way we consume products and resources has changed and damaged the Earth's **biodiversity** (the variety of living organisms on the planet) even contributing to plant and animal species disappearing.

Impacts of consumption on endangered species

Trading in wildlife is one of the largest industries in the world. Much of this trade is legal but still threatens many species: the legal forestry trade, for example, is endangering many plant species, while legal fishing poses threats for marine life. But the illegal wildlife trade is bringing many species to the point of extinction. The value of illegal trading in wildlife is second only to illegal drug trading.



Source 4.53 A member of the Kenyan anti-poaching team guards two of Kenya's four remaining white rhinoceroses.

Some people who are involved in the illegal trading of wildlife smuggle live birds and animals across international borders. Animal smugglers use a range of methods to hide the wildlife. Spiders are mailed in film canisters, small animals are drugged and stitched into luggage lining, and snakes are put into stockings and strapped to people's legs. Many animals don't survive the journey.

Other illegal wildlife traders smuggle animal parts across international borders. Crocodile skins, rhino horns, elephant tusks and tiger body parts all fetch huge prices on the illegal (black) market.

Case study: The online ivory trade

Many endangered species are facing a new threat brought on by increasing demand combined with Internet access. Studies by conservation groups have found that live endangered animals and body parts can be bought online. For example, a two-week study of European auction sites found hundreds of items made from ivory which comes from elephants' tusks. A similar study of Chinese sites found almost 18 000 elephant products for sale on just 13 websites.



Source 4.54 Screenshot of the Ivory Trade app.

Ivory is valued for use in carved statues and trinkets and, like the demand for rhino horn, is driven by demand in Asia. In the middle of last century there were about five million elephants in Africa, today several hundred thousand exist in the wild and they are listed as a vulnerable species. Some conservation groups estimate that up to 32 000 elephants per year have been killed in Africa for their tusks.

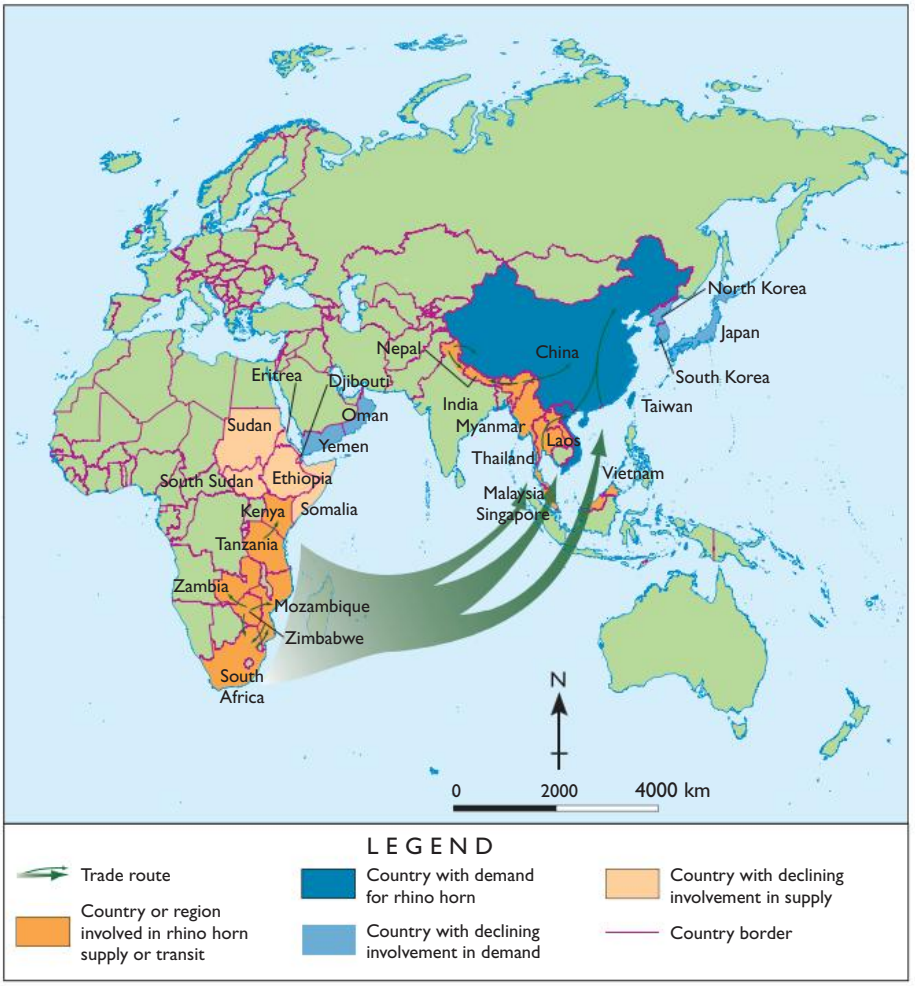
One of these groups, the International Fund for Animal Welfare has launched a digital magazine and iPad app *Unveiling the Ivory Trade* in an attempt to bring attention to the online trade in ivory.

Case study: The black market trade in rhinoceros horn

The powdered horn of the rhinoceros is believed by many people, particularly in Asia, to be a cure for many diseases. This has resulted in rhino horn being valued at $65 000/kilogram making it more valuable than gold. African rhino hunters, often poor villagers, hunt rhinos across borders and into reserves and national parks, shoot them, cut off their horns with a machete or chainsaw and sell the horn to traders who smuggle them to Asia, usually on ships. Wildlife patrol officers shoot to kill those who hunt protected species such as the rhino.

Of the world's five rhinoceros species, three are considered to be critically endangered. The population of the Black Rhino of Africa has declined from 850 000 in 1900 to less than 5000 today.

WORLD: BLACK MARKET TRADE IN RHINO HORN



Source 4.55

Source: http://ngm.nationalgeographic.com

Check your learning 4.14

Remember and understand

1 Why are rhino horns and elephant tusks valuable?

Apply and analyse

2 Examine Source 4.55.
   - a In which countries is there a demand for rhino horn? Where does this horn come from?
   - b In which of these countries is the demand declining? Give some possible reasons for this decline.
   - c How does the demand for rhino horn threaten this species?

3 Compare the threats facing elephants and rhinos in Africa. What are some of the similarities and some of the differences?

Evaluate and create

4 List the various methods described to try to protect these two endangered species. Which of these do you think would be the most effective? Give some reasons for your answer.

5 One proposed method of conserving rhinos is to make the trade in their horns legal. Rhino would then be farmed and their horns harvested for sale. Discuss the possible consequences of this proposal.

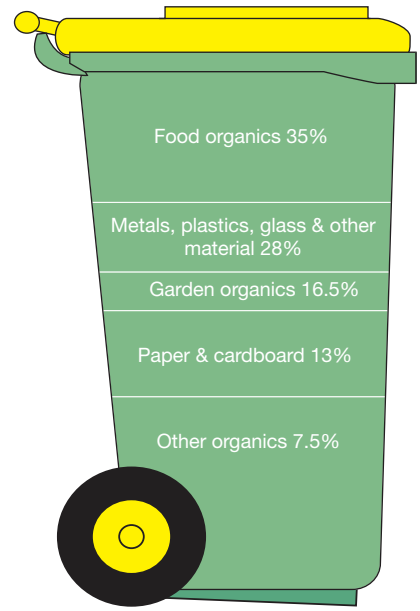
6 Tigers have been hunted throughout history, as souvenirs and to use in medicines in some parts of the world. Research the threats faced by tigers and compare these threats to those faced by elephants.

The effects of waste on places

The consumption of a product or a service is followed by waste, our fifth stage in the process of production and consumption.

Some sources suggest that only one per cent of all materials flowing through the American economy end up in products still being used six months after manufacture. What happens to the other 99 per cent? Mass production and the move of factories to developing countries have made goods cheaper and more readily available. New models are released constantly, older ones become out of date quickly and it is often cheaper to throw away a broken item and buy a new one than to have it repaired.

The move to this 'throwaway society' has resulted in vast volumes of waste being produced. City dwellers alone produce about 1.3 billion tonnes of waste a year, but the amount produced by each person varies a great deal between countries and regions. People living in developed countries such as Australia and the United States each produce about 2.2 kilograms of waste a day, five times that produced by those living in developing countries in South Asia.



Source 4.56 What is in your bin? An analysis of Australian wheelie bins found that most waste is organic (i.e from organisms that were once living).

Check your learning 4.15

Remember and understand

1 What is meant by the term a 'throwaway society'? Do you think we live in a throwaway society? Give some reasons for your answer.

2 What happens to the e-waste in those places that receive it? How does this impact on people and the environment?

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.56.
   - a What percentage of household waste in Australia is wasted food? Why do you think this figure is so high?
   - b How could the amount of waste produced by Australians be reduced?

4 Examine Source 4.57.
   - a Which places generate large quantities of e-waste?
   - b Which places receive large quantities of e-waste?

5 Why do you think people in developing countries produce less waste than those in developed countries?

Evaluate and create

6 Access the website http://www.worldometers.info/ to find out how many computers have been sold this year and mobile phones sold today. What conclusions can you reach from your results regarding global consumption of these products?

7 Investigate what your local council does with e-waste. Is it recycled, banned or put into landfill? Write a letter to the council either supporting its approach to e-waste or recommending some changes.

E-waste

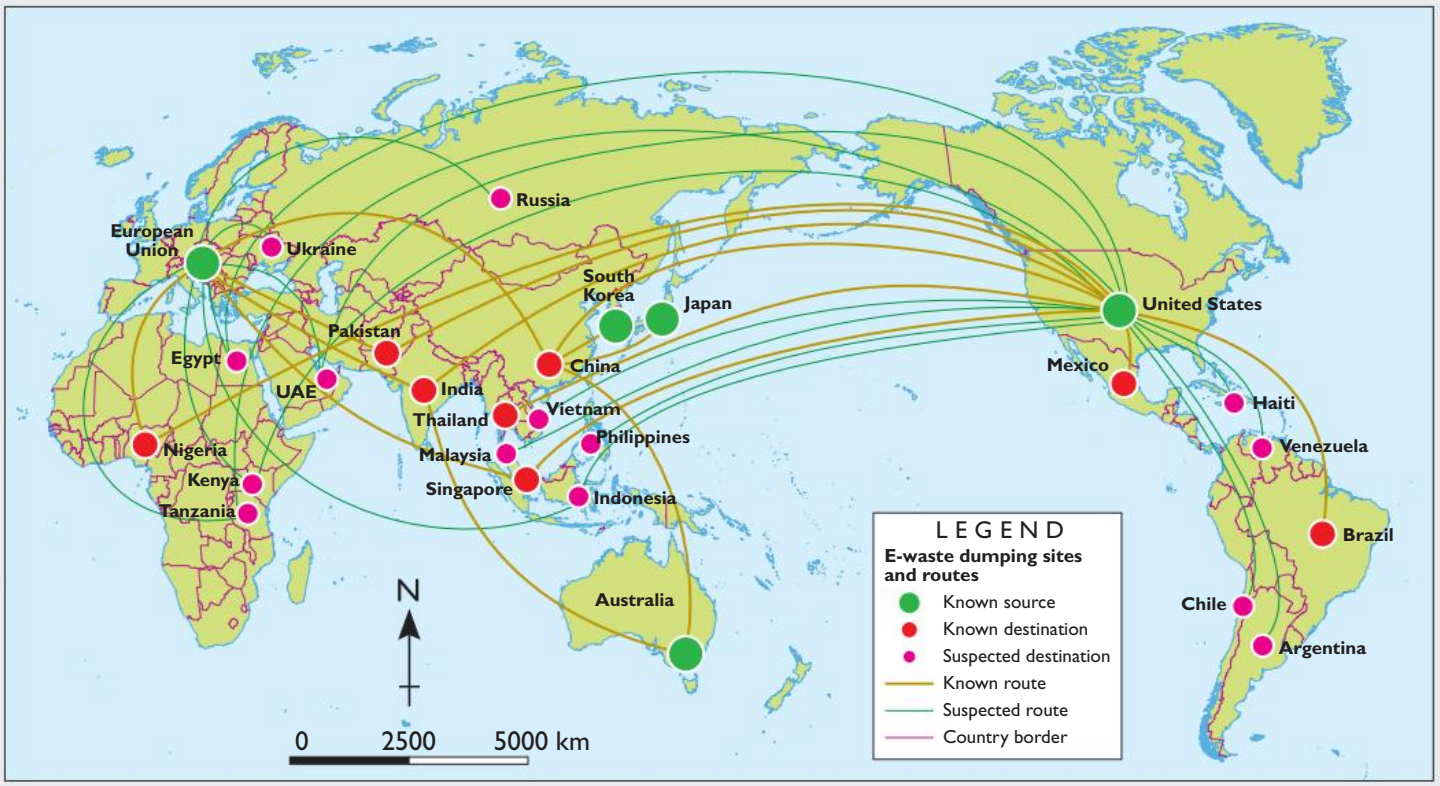
The fastest growing type of waste in the world is discarded electronic equipment such as computers, televisions and mobile phones. Known as **e-waste**, it is estimated to add up to more than 50 million tonnes a year worldwide. Monitors and computers contain significant quantities of heavy metals such as lead, mercury, cadmium and chromium. These metals are considered dangerous because they can build up in the soils, enter the food chain or contaminate water sources and, in sufficient concentrations, may cause health problems.

Computers and other forms of e-waste can be pulled apart so that the materials inside can be recycled. These include valuable copper, gold and nickel. This can reduce the environmental impact of dumping e-waste in landfill and also reduces the need to mine these raw materials for new equipment. Many Australian local councils operate e-waste recycling schemes and discourage people from dumping computers and televisions in landfill.

Recycling e-waste is labour intensive and therefore costly. For many developed countries the solution is to ship the e-waste to poorer countries with lower wages and few or no health and safety regulations. In many communities in Africa and Asia people pull apart the e-waste and melt the plastics in fires, releasing many dangerous chemicals into the air and water.

For more information on the key concept of environment refer to section GT.1 of 'The geographer's toolkit'.

WORLD: ELECTRONIC WASTE ROUTES



Source 4.57

Source: Oxford University Press

4.2 big**ideas:** broadsheet

Food miles

Global transport networks have made it possible for people to access food from all over the world. This means we are no longer restricted to eating foods that can only be grown in our local area at certain times of the year. It has also meant that food retailers are able to access and sell food that is produced more cheaply in other places. Food consumers, particularly those in developed countries, benefit from this globalisation of food supply. Transporting food around the world however, does have consequences for the natural environment.

One obvious impact on the environment is the emission of greenhouse gases from oil-powered transport such as trucks and ships. The further the food travels, the more greenhouse gases have been produced. The term 'food miles' has been coined to give consumers an easy way to understand some of the environmental impacts of their food choices. It is important to realise that food miles only give a rough guide to the impact of food and that there are many other aspects to consider. However, it is still a useful way of comparing the distances travelled by different foods, and encourages us to think about what we consume.



Source 4.58 Supermarkets have been part of Australian retailing since the 1960s. Prior to that, people bought their food at individual markets such as this one in in Haymarket, Sydney in 1935, or grew it themselves.

A study of the total distance travelled by the items in a typical Melbourne supermarket trolley found that they had travelled more than 70 000 kilometres! Twenty-one thousand kilometres of this was by road and the researchers estimated that the total carbon emissions of the trucks carrying this food were about the same as 4247 cars driving for a year.

skill**drill**

Collecting, recording and analysing relevant data to inform a geographical inquiry

Collecting, recording and analysing data is an important skill that geographers often use. One way they do this is by developing a table that allows them to show and compare the information they have collected. You can use this skill to develop a table to record the distance food items travel.

Step 1 Copy the table in Source 4.59 into your notebook. Fill in the blank cells in the first column with three of your own favourite food choices.

Step 2 Locate the items in your local shops or supermarket.

Step 3 Investigate the origin of each item. You can do this by:

- reading the food label
- checking the signs at the fruit and vegetable counter or deli or checking the stickers on the items
- reading the display tags at the supermarket
- speaking to the people at the local butcher or fruit and vegetable shop or the person at the counter
- investigating the company on the Internet or calling them.

Step 4 Enter the country or town of origin into your table.

Step 5 Investigate the routes likely travelled by the items produced in other countries. They most likely travelled by container ship, so follow the obvious shipping routes from the main port in those countries to the main port near you. A site like http://new.marinetraffic.com will show you the main shipping routes of the world.

Step 6 Use a world map to calculate the distances of the route for each item. Enter these figures in the 'Estimated distance by ship' column in your table.

Step 7 Estimate the road distance from your nearest port to the supermarket or place where you buy your food. You can use the 'Get Directions' feature in Google Earth to find this distance. Enter this figure in the 'Estimated distance by road' column in your table.

Source 4.59 Copy and complete this table to estimate your food miles.

	Food item	Town or country of origin	Estimated distance by ship (if relevant)	Estimated distance by road	Total estimated distance travelled to sales point
1	Fresh lemons				
2	King Island cheese				
3	Uncooked prawns (from the deli counter or fish shop)				
4	Fresh milk				
5	Valencia or navel oranges				
6	Bertolli olive oil				
7	Kikkoman soy sauce				
8	Ribena fruit juice syrup				
9	Twinings English breakfast tea				
10	San Remo couscous				
11	John West salmon				
12	Bananas				
13	Always Fresh artichokes				
14	Tinned home brand peaches				
15	Minced beef				
16	Chobani Greek yoghurt				
17	Fresh asparagus				
18					
19					
20					

Step 8 Investigate where the items produced in Australia probably originated. This may need to be a calculated guess based on a map of farming in Australia. Alternatively you could research the company who processed your food by using the Internet. Estimate the road distance travelled by these items. Enter these figures in the 'Estimated distance by road' column in your table.

Step 9 Fill in the 'Total estimated distance travelled to sales point' column. Add together the shipping and road distances if your item came from overseas, or copy the road distance figure across if the item was produced in Australia.

Step 10 Add together your data to calculate the total distance travelled by your 20 items.

Apply the skill

1. Develop a table to calculate the food miles you personally accumulate during an entire week. Collect and record your food consumption data through the week and add up your total on the last day. Which item travelled the furthest to reach you? Which travelled the least distance?
2. Compare your food miles table with those of your classmates and discuss the results. Were the total amounts roughly the same, or were there significant variations? In small groups, note down particular food items that you found travelled the longest and shortest distances.
3. Examine the picture of the market shown in Source 4.58. How does the scene shown here differ from a modern supermarket? How far do you think the items shown here would have travelled to reach the customer?

Extend your understanding

Do some further reading on the Internet to complete the following tasks.

1. Some researchers have warned that using food miles to estimate environmental impact is misleading. Research the controversy about food miles, outlining the reasons some people think they confuse the issue. Make a list of arguments for and against using food miles, and present these in table format.
2. Interview a grandparent or someone you know who is older, and ask them about the foods they used to eat when they were young. Find out how today's food choices and habits compare. Describe and explain the similarities and differences. Did they prefer the way they used to eat, or the choices available now? List their reasons.

4.3 What effects does international tourism have on people and places?

Different types of tourism

It is estimated that tourists spend around $A1 trillion annually (i.e. $A1000 billion). This revenue makes a valuable contribution to the economies of most countries around the world.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) now estimates that the total number of tourists travelling each year will reach 1.8 billion by 2030. Asian countries such as India, Malaysia and Indonesia are expected to see the most rapid increase in tourist numbers over this time.

Tourists travel for many different reasons. Some simply want to relax on a beach, while others are keen to experience the culture, language and history of the places they visit. In order to understand the decisions different types of tourists make, and analyse the impacts that their decisions have on the environment, geographers tend to classify tourists into a number of groups. In this section, we will examine four of the most popular types of tourism and investigate the impacts that each is having on environments around the world.

Recreational tourism

Recreational tourism is perhaps the most well-known and popular type of tourism. Recreational tourists travel to have a good time, to relax, and to enjoy the attractions and activities on offer in the places they are visiting. Many recreational tourists spend their time relaxing on the beach, eating in restaurants, shopping or attending shows. Each year, around 39 million tourists flock to New York City to enjoy all of the recreational activities on offer there (see Source 4.60).

Historical tourism

Historical tourists are generally interested learning more about important events that may have taken place in the past, by visiting the places where they happened. They visit important buildings, view artefacts and monuments and sometimes listen to stories from local experts. The Great Pyramid in Egypt, Stonehenge in England and Machu Picchu in Peru (see Source 4.61) are all popular destinations for historical tourists.



Source 4.60 Times Square in New York City is among the most popular destinations in the world for recreational tourists because of the many attractions there.



Source 4.61 Machu Picchu in Peru attracts visitors because of its historical significance. Up to 2000 people visit every day.

Wilderness tourism

Wildeness tourists enjoy the challenge of visiting wild places such as the Amazon rainforest, Antarctica or the Himalaya. For these travellers, the lure of remote lands, rugged landscapes and even challenging weather conditions is much more attractive than a cosy hotel and a bit of sightseeing. The chance to visit places that relatively few others have and be exposed to the people and cultures of these remote places makes wilderness tourism an attractive option for many, despite the potential risks involved.

Ecotourism

Ecotourists typically travel to natural areas that are relatively undisturbed, and possibly fragile, to learn more about these special places in a socially responsible manner. Ecotourists try to minimise their impact and avoid damaging the environment in which they travel. They may even aim to improve the wellbeing of the land and those that live there. Some ecotourism raises funds for conservation (see Source 4.63), or goes to directly benefit the local communities in the places visited by tourists.



Source 4.62 Climbers on Mount Everest wait for their turn to reach the summit. Climbers like these must wait up to two hours to reach the top of the mountain.



Source 4.63 In Central Africa, ecotourism brings about $20 million a year to the region – much of this used to preserve the habitat of mountain gorillas.

Check your learning 4.16

Remember and understand

1 How many tourists travel to a different country each year?

2 Which countries are expected to see the most rapid growth in the number of tourists over the next 15 years or so?

Apply and analyse

3 As a class, brainstorm examples of experiences and destinations under each of the four tourism types. Which one did your class know the most about? Which did they know the least about? Why do you think this is the case?

4 Think about your last experience as a tourist.
- a Classify your experiences into one of the four tourism types discussed on these pages.
- b Write a list of all the ways your last holiday had an impact on the places you visited.
- c Classify these into the positives and negatives.
- d Identify the places where the impact was felt.

5 Which of the four types of tourism outlined do you think is the most popular amongst the world's tourists? Give some reasons for your answer.

Evaluate and create

6 One method to reduce the impacts of tourism is to give tourists a code of behaviour that outlines a number of rules and guidelines to follow.
- a As a class, discuss the kinds of rules and guidelines that would reduce the impact of tourism on mountain gorillas such as those shown in Source 4.63.
- b In pairs or small groups, design a brochure that you could give to tourists to educate them about the code of behaviour your class has come up with.

Impacts of recreational tourism

While some forms of tourism, such as ecotourism, may not appeal to everyone, travelling for recreation is massively popular. There are many destinations that people choose to visit for recreation, so the impacts vary widely. Some places become extremely popular as tourist destinations, and the concentrated number of visitors can have significant impact on both the natural and built environments there. For example, a beachfront that once attracted people for its sunshine and clean sandy beaches can all too quickly become overcrowded, and polluted if it is not carefully managed and cared for.

Case study: Cancun, Mexico

Many areas that were once wilderness have been changed to provide the things that tourists need and want such as hotels, airports, swimming pools and roads. On the Yucatan Peninsula in Mexico, for example, lies the tourist town of Cancun (see Source 4.64). Blessed with a spectacular coastline and warm temperatures, it attracts about 2 million visitors a year. Before it became a tourist destination, Cancun was a barrier island enclosing a massive shallow lagoon, the Nichupte Lagoon, which was an important nesting site for sea turtles and seabirds.

The lagoon was fringed by mangroves, which acted as a nursery for fish and other marine animals (see Source 4.65). As more tourists began to visit, causeways were built at both ends of the island to join it to the mainland. The causeways restricted how much fresh water was able to flow into the lagoon, changing the conditions of the ecosystem. In addition, sections of the lagoon were filled in, and 60 000 hectares of rainforest and mangroves were removed to make way for the development of hotels and resorts.

Native plants that once protected the coast and prevented erosion were replaced with non-native plants. There are far fewer fish and shellfish due both to the loss of their habitat and overfishing to feed the tourists. Large areas of coral reef are now dead or damaged as a result of the snorkelling and scuba diving. Boats and jet skis create pollution, while boat anchors can drag along the seabed, damaging coral and stirring up sediment, all of which have negative impacts on marine life.

The increased numbers of tourists and residents (who work in hotels and restaurants and run tour companies) have also resulted in waste management problems. The lagoon has become polluted with sewage, petroleum products, heavy metals and chemicals from stormwater run-off and the boating marinas in the lagoon.



Source 4.64 Tourist development in Cancun, Mexico

CANCUN, MEXICO: TOURIST AREA



Source 4.65 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 4.66 While tourists enjoy luxury accommodation in purpose built resorts, living standards are very different for many of Cancun's workers and their children.

In addition to these negative environmental consequences, there are also negative social consequences. The rapid development in Cancun has put pressure on local resources, meaning the prices of food, energy, raw materials and land have risen. There is also increasing pressure to use agricultural land for the booming tourism industry.

When tourist infrastructure for Cancun was built, little provision was made for the additional residents needed to work in the industry. As a result, there are many slums that surround the area. People living in the slums have poor living conditions, with a lack of drinking water, waste management and other services.

Although the industry provides employment, tourism workers are often poorly paid. This leads to inequalities between resident workers and tourists, with some workers feeling resentment towards tourists and being forced into other illegal means of earning an income, such as selling drugs or prostitution.

Check your learning 4.17

Remember and understand

1 Why do many tourists visit Cancun?
2 How has tourism benefited local people?

Apply and analyse

3 Investigate the natural environment of Cancun.
   a Describe the current environment. Use Source 4.64 to help you.
   b How has tourist development changed this environment? Use Source 4.64 as a source of information.
   c How have the activities and behaviours of tourists impacted on the Cancun region? Refer to particular places and activities in your answer.
4 Cancun has been described as 'a victim of its own popularity'. What does this mean? Do you agree with this statement?
5 Examine Source 4.66. What does this picture reveal about living conditions in the workers' villages?

Evaluate and create

6 Imagine that a new tourist development has been proposed for a stretch of coastline in Queensland that has a similar natural environment to Cancun. What lessons could the developers of this new resort take from the experiences at Cancun in order to reduce impacts on natural and built environments?

Impacts of historical tourism

While many modern-day tourist attractions such as theme parks and museums are built specifically to cater for tourists, most historic sites built long ago were never designed to cope with the demands of the growing numbers of visiting tourists. The interconnection between tourists and ancient buildings, for example, is having a disastrous effect on many of these historic sites in many locations.

Case study: Angkor Wat, Cambodia

Cambodia's 1000-year-old temples at Angkor Wat lay hidden from tourists for hundreds of years by the thick tropical jungle. Today, nearly 3 million tourists visit Cambodia every year, most of whom go to Angkor Wat. In 1995, there were eight hotels in the nearby town of Siem Reap. By 2013, there were more than 350, virtually all of them owned by foreigners. Many of the stone statues and steps of Angkor Wat are crumbling under the stress of millions of footsteps, and entire sections of the walls have collapsed. Pollution from hundreds of tourist buses threatens to corrode the fragile sandstone. The demand for water, including that needed to water two new golf courses built nearby, has resulted in ancient wells and moats drying up. Some researchers fear that drawing water from the ground may eventually result in the sinking and collapse of the ancient monument.



Source 4.67 Tourists scramble up the side of a temple wall at Angkor Wat, Cambodia.

Case study: Pyramids of Giza, Egypt

The Pyramids of Giza, on the outskirts of Cairo in Egypt, are some of the most instantly recognisable buildings in the world. More than 4500 years old, they stand as a monument to human ingenuity. They have withstood centuries of desert erosion but are now threatened by mass tourism. Inside the tombs and pyramids, ancient paintings are being eroded by salt deposits that are caused by the sweating and breathing of tourists. Despite strict rules, some tourists touch the ancient paintings, which hastens their decay. The air pollution caused by the growth of Cairo's suburbs and the many tourist buses has corroded the pyramids' surfaces.



Source 4.68 Tourists and buses at Giza's ancient pyramids

Case study: The Great Wall, China

The Great Wall of China was declared one of the Seven Wonders of the World in a public vote in 2007, and China is one of the fastest-growing tourist destinations in the world. Rapid economic growth and rises in living standards in China are allowing millions of Chinese people to own cars and visit places they could not previously access. These two factors are bringing even more people to the Great Wall every year. Unfortunately this is creating many problems for this ancient structure.

In some heavily visited sections virtually every stone has been defaced with graffiti and some tourists even take pieces of the wall as souvenirs. Cars are sometimes driven along the wall, rave parties are held on it, and parts have been torn down to use for building materials or to create space for other developments. It has been estimated that only one-third of the wall still stands, the rest having been torn down or eroded away.



Source 4.69 Crowds such as those shown here flock to the Great Wall of China during national holidays in China in 2012.

Check your learning 4.18

Remember and understand

1 List the ways in which tourists change the ancient structures described on these pages.

2 Why is water supply an issue for Angkor Wat?

Apply and analyse

3 Why is the impact of tourism on ancient places such as these likely to worsen in the future? Can you think of any likely impacts for each of the places shown here in addition to the ones already described?

4 Examine Source 4.67. How are these tourists impacting on Angkor Wat? Are these impacts also likely to occur at the Egyptian pyramids or the Great Wall?

5 What are some of the positive impacts of tourism that may occur at each of these three historic sites?

Evaluate and create

6 The case studies presented focus on the impact of mass tourism on the built environment. Brainstorm ways in which tourism can impact on other aspects of the human environment such as language, culture and religion.

7 Do some further research about the impact of tourism on one of the three historic sites mentioned here. Prepare a Powerpoint presentation about what you discover and present it to the class.

Impacts of wilderness tourism

Many tourists are drawn to wilderness areas to experience natural sights and events. Well known examples of wilderness tourist destinations include Uluru in Central Australia, the Grand Canyon in America, and the Serengeti in Africa, where many people travel to go on wildlife safaris. Wilderness tourists, and the facilities built for them, can bring great change to natural environments.

Case study: Tourism in Antarctica

Antarctica is the world's last great wilderness and a land of extremes. Located at the most southerly point of the Earth's surface, it is the highest, coldest, driest, windiest and most isolated continent. This makes it one of the least visited places on Earth. Despite being about twice the size of Australia, Antarctica receives only 26 000 tourists a year compared to Australia's 5.8 million visitors.

Most visitors to Antarctica travel on cruise ships from South America and visit a few sites on the Antarctic Peninsula. They come to marvel at the unique wildlife, the pristine condition of the natural environment and the stunning scenery. Nearly 40 per cent of these tourists are from the United States. Australians make up only eight per cent of tourists to Antarctica.

People usually visit Antarctica for only short periods but their visits usually take place at that same small number of sites. This leads to a long-term cumulative impact. Tourists also tend to visit the places with the most wildlife, which has the potential to disrupt the animals' normal way of life. The fragile environment means tourism in Antarctica has to be carefully controlled and managed. It is particularly difficult to manage environmental problems, however, as there is no government, police force or park rangers to manage impacts and control behaviours.

Potential impacts from wilderness tourism

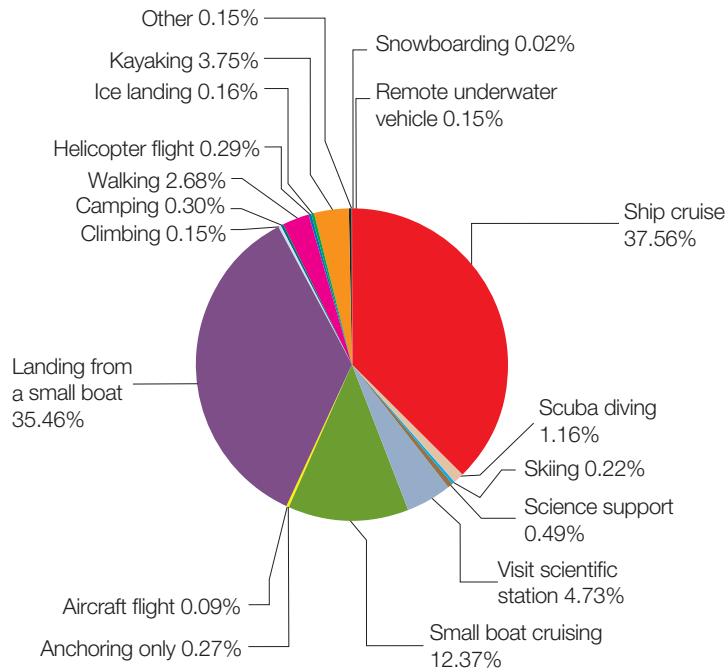
- Disturbance of wildlife, especially as most tourists are taken to penguin and seal colonies by small boats from large cruise ships.
- Oil spills from cruise ships. Rubbish and waste from ships also pose a problem.
- Difficulty in rescuing people involved in medical or other emergencies.
- Introduction of foreign species to Antarctic waters from water carried as ballast on cruise ships.
- Tourists can also damage plant life, such as trampling slow-growing beds of moss.



Source 4.70 Passengers from a cruise ship photograph a pair of Emperor Penguins in Antarctica.

Protection

Tourism in Antarctica is self-regulated by the International Association of Antarctic Tour Operators (IAATO). The association has strict guidelines for its members and their ships, such as limiting the size of ships allowed into Antarctic waters. The numbers of people that can land at sites are also limited. The association is seen as being successful in managing tourism in the area; after all, if damage to Antarctica occurs, the attractiveness to tourists will be lost.



Source 4.71 Tourist activities in Antarctica.



Source 4.72 The passengers and crew of the first flight from Hobart to Antarctica in 2008 gather beside the runway. In the centre of the front row is Peter Garrett, Australia's environment minister at the time.

Membership of IAATO, however, is not compulsory, and there is still the possibility of businesses that don't belong to the association bringing in larger ships carrying more people and causing more damage. This has not happened so far but, if it did, nothing could be done to prevent it as there are no international laws governing the area.

The future of Antarctic tourism

While virtually all tourists currently access Antarctica by boat, this may be about to change. The Australian government has spent $46 million to put a regular air service in place between Hobart and Casey Station in Antarctica. This has meant the construction of a reliable runway on a 700-metre-thick glacier. Airbus A319 planes have been modified with long-range fuel tanks added so that a return flight to Hobart can be made without refuelling. This minimises the chances of a fuel spill in the pristine environment.

The service will be for scientists and researchers working from the Australian bases in the summer months and will reduce the current three-week sea journey to a four-and-a-half-hour flight. This will allow more scientists to visit Antarctica.

While tourist flights from Australia currently do not land in Antarctica, the technology used to construct this runway may be employed by tour operators in the future. It is important to remember, however, that Antarctica remains a challenging environment to visit and this will always keep the number of tourists relatively low.

Check your learning 4.19

Remember and understand

1 Why do so few tourists visit Antarctica?
2 Would you like to visit Antarctica? Give some reasons for your answer.

Apply and analyse

3 Examine Source 4.71.
   a What are the two most popular activities in Antarctica?
   b What are some of the potential environmental impacts of these activities?
   c What percentage of tourists take a flight in an aircraft?
   d Why might this percentage increase in the future?
4 Discuss some of the potential and real environmental impacts of aeroplane flights to Antarctica.

Evaluate and create

5 Design a poster that will be displayed in the rooms of a cruise ship which will sail to Antarctica. Your poster should outline a code of behaviour for tourists who will travel on the ship, to educate and guide them on how to reduce their environmental impact. Because not all passengers will speak the same language you will need to use pictures and symbols rather than words on your poster.

Impacts of ecotourism

Many tourists are becoming aware of the impacts of their travel on people and places they visit. As a result, many of them have started looking for opportunities to reduce these impacts. In response to this growing awareness, many destinations are developing ecotourism options. These tend to be nature-based, educational and designed to have a minimal impact on the environment. Ecotourism is now one of the fastest growing tourism sectors.

Case study: Kapawi Ecolodge, Ecuador

The Kapawi Ecolodge and Reserve is located in the Amazon Basin, 250 kilometres south-east of Quito (see Source 4.74). It is close to the border of Ecuador and Peru on the Pastaza River, a major tributary of the Amazon. People can really only reach Kapawi by air or by a three-day canoe trip – it is a 10-day walk to the nearest town. Because of this Kapawi is one of the most pristine and remote areas of the Amazon Basin. It is also one of the most biologically diverse areas on Earth with 10 000 species of plants and more than 570 species of birds. The lodge is located in the territory of the Indigenous Achuar people, which covers 5000 square kilometres and is home to 6000 Achuar.

The Kapawi project began in 1996 as a partnership between Conodros (an Ecuadorian tour company) and the Achuar people. They wanted to start a sustainable business that would preserve the unique cultural and environmental assets of Ecuador's Amazon Basin. Conodros provided the initial funding, management and technological expertise to get the project started. Full management of the project was handed over to the Achuar on 1 January 2008. They now have total ownership and responsibility for the Kapawi Ecolodge and Reserve. As management of the environment is an ongoing process, Kapawi continues to strive to improve management processes, and involves guests in this too.

ECUADOR: TOURIST MAP OF KAPAWI ECOLODGE



Source 4.74 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 4.73 Kapawi Ecolodge, deep in the Amazon rainforest.



Source 4.75 Achuar people teach tourists staying at the Kapawi Ecolodge about the biodiversity of the Amazon rainforest.

Before Kapawi, most of the Achuar had earned money from raising beef cattle. This agricultural activity causes significant damage to the environment. Today, members of the 56 Achuar communities earn a significant percentage of their income from ecotourism. For the communities near the lodge, up to 60 per cent of their total income comes from direct employment at the lodge, supplying products and selling handicrafts.

Leave nothing but footprints, take nothing but photographs

The lodges at Kapawi are built using traditional Achuar architecture techniques combined with modern technologies. This includes building on stilts to minimise the impact on surrounding vegetation. All soaps, detergents and shampoos used are biodegradable. Sewage goes through a three-step drainage process. Plastic, glass and metal waste is packed and taken away to be recycled. Paper waste is burned. Biodegradable garbage is composted. Batteries are collected and taken to countries with recycling facilities. The entire lodge is powered by a hybrid system of solar energy and a diesel generator. Showers have solar-heated water.

Tourists who visit Kapawi can take part in many activities, including hiking, bird-watching, visits to local Achuar communities, learning about traditional foods and medicine, camping and canoeing.

Kapawi Ecolodge is a successful sustainable tourism business. Tourism has been managed so that the environment and the culture of the Achuar people can be maintained. In addition, the Achuar people have found sustainable ways to become part of the world economy while still maintaining their traditions.

Check your learning 4.20

Remember and understand

1 Describe the location of the Kapawi Ecolodge.

2 What are some of the interconnections between the Achuar people and people from other places?

Apply and analyse

3 Copy and complete this table to list some of the ways in which environmental impacts are minimised at Kapawi:

Features of buildings	Tourist behaviours	Reducing waste

4 How does the isolation of the ecolodge help in minimising its environmental impacts?

5 Ecotourism can be defined as 'responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the wellbeing of local people'. Do you think that the Kapawi Ecolodge is an example of ecotourism? Give three reasons for your answer.

Evaluate and create

6 Compare the tourist developments at Kapawi (see Source 4.73) and Cancun (see Source 4.64). What are the key differences? Discuss which of these types of development is most likely to represent the future of tourism. What will this mean for environmental impacts in the future?

The effects of tourism in the future

Tourism is an industry that is constantly changing. Geographers who research tourism and leisure have identified the following trends that will shape the ways in which people and places are impacted by tourism in the future.

Trend 1: More people travelling more often

Tourist numbers are expected to continue to increase. By 2030, the number of international travellers will reach 1.8 billion per year if current trends continue. As some places become too crowded tourists are expected to look for new destinations to offer them the experiences they want. This gives new places the opportunity to benefit from the resulting tourism, which provides a significant boost to an economy. However, it also makes them vulnerable to negative impacts on the environment and their culture.

In many places where profits are put ahead of minimising impacts, tourism has brought environmental degradation and a loss of traditional ways of life. As many communities in developing countries rush to attract tourists, many geographers are concerned that the lessons from places such as Cancun, Angkor Wat and Giza will be forgotten.

Trend 2: Increased awareness of environmental issues

More travellers are becoming concerned about their impact on the places they are visiting. Many are choosing their destinations partly because of environmental qualities such as conservation. Mass tourism to large resorts such as those at Cancun, however, still dominate in some countries. Ecotourism, though, and nature-based tourism are growing two to three times more quickly than tourism as a whole.



Source 4.76 Namibia is predicted to be the 'next big thing' in African safari tourism as traditional areas in South Africa, Kenya and Tanzania become too 'busy' for many travellers.

There are many popular destinations for conservation-aware tourists including parts of Australia, and Africa, which has stunning landscape and the chance to see wildlife in its natural environment.

The Internet has allowed people to learn more about destinations before they travel and this trend is expected to continue. Places that are becoming degraded are becoming less popular as tourists pass on their negative experiences through travel websites. This may result in greater efforts in these places to repair environmental damage and for future developments to be more environmentally friendly.

Trend 3: Travellers want 'real' experiences

There has been a significant growth in the number of people who are looking for authentic places and experiences rather than artificial ones that have been created specifically for tourists. One of the fastest growing types of travel experiences is known as adventure tourism. This includes the 'adrenaline junkies' who want extreme experiences such as mountaineering, white-water rafting and rock-climbing as well as those who want gentler physical experiences such as hiking and biking.

For many tourists, the experiences they have are becoming more important than the places they visit. Many are looking to interact with local people and to experience their culture away from the packages offered by large hotels and tour companies. Adventure tourism allows them to move out of mass tourism and have an individual experience. Where this has occurred it seems to impact people and places much less than mass tourism and can lead to a better understanding of cultures and environments.

Other trends

In addition to these trends described above, many others have been observed.

- Trips are becoming shorter but tourists are spending more.
- Twice as many people now book their travel on the Internet than use a travel agent.
- Growth in the number of tourists from Asia is larger than from any other region.
- There is a surge in 'niche' tourism: small numbers of people travelling for unusual reasons. This includes medical tourism, when people travel to another country for surgery and other medical procedures. Already worth up to $60 billion a year, medical tourism is growing at 20 per cent a year.
- There is also an increased demand for 'accessible tourism' for the 10 per cent of the population with a disability (see Source 4.77).



Source 4.77 Tourism catering for disabled people is a growing industry.

Check your learning 4.21

Remember and understand

1 How has the Internet changed travel and tourism?
2 What is adventure tourism?

Apply and analyse

3 Make a list of those factors and trends that may result in tourism having a greater impact on the environment in the future. Make another list of those factors and trends that suggest that tourism will impact less on the environment. Which of these two outcomes do you consider most likely? Give some reasons for your answer.
4 Examine Source 4.76.
   a Why do you think these tourists have visited this place?
   b How has this visit impacted on the natural environment?
   c How will these impacts increase if the number of tourists to Namibia greatly increases?

Evaluate and create

5 Imagine that it is 2050 and that you are a reporter for an online newspaper. Write an article describing the ways in which tourism has changed in the last 35 years or so (since 2015). You could describe a typical 2050 holiday and include an advertisement for a typical 2050 destination.

4.3 big**ideas:** broadsheet

Tourism at Gallipoli

On 25 April 1915, Australian and New Zealand troops fighting in World War I landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The battle lasted about eight months and claimed the lives of around 8000 Australians. It is seen by many as a milestone event in our nation's history. Thousands of Australians visit Gallipoli every year to pay their respects to the soldiers who fought there and to see this famous place for themselves.

While a few busloads of visitors arrive at Anzac Cove on an average day, on Anzac Day, the anniversary of the landing, tourist numbers increase dramatically. This gained popularity in 1990 when then Prime Minister Bob Hawke attended the dawn service and declared that 'Gallipoli is, in one sense, a part of Australia'. Anzac Day dawn services at Anzac Cove and Lone Pine now attract up to 10 000 people, most of whom sleep on the ground the night before the service.

To cope with visitor demands during this busy time, bus movements on the narrow winding roads are restricted, temporary grandstands are erected and a special group of Australian volunteers clean up rubbish once the visitors depart.

While many Australians see a visit to Gallipoli on Anzac Day as their right, others believe that the sheer number of visitors degrades the environment and demeans the memory of those who fought there. Some guidebooks are now recommending that tourists not visit on Anzac Day but go on other, less busy days instead. There are some who hold the view that perhaps Australians shouldn't be going there at all, or at least should be better informed about the Gallipoli Campaign.

Visiting Gallipoli on Anzac Day has become, amongst other things, a geographical issue. This is because the landscape itself is fragile, and the size of Anzac Cove, some feel, cannot support the number of visitors that descend on the Cove at once on Anzac Day. It is also an issue because people have different points of view. This is often the case in geography and comes about, in part, because people have different reasons for connecting to places.



Source 4.78 Tourists attending the Anzac Day service at Lone Pine cemetery, Gallipoli.

skill**drill**

Interpreting qualitative data about geographical issues and events

Geographers need to consider different points of view, and the reasons behind these different viewpoints, when evaluating a geographical issue or event. They may use qualitative or quantitative data when doing this.

When presented with qualitative data like news pieces, blogs, or research articles, geographers will examine the opinions in these sources, evaluate the sources and the motivation behind them, and analyse the issue or event using this information.

Follow these steps when interpreting qualitative data related to a geographical issue or event.

Step 1 Identify the issue you wish to investigate.

Step 2 Gather the relevant sources of qualitative data.

Step 3 Carefully read each source. Highlight or take note of the following:

- What do you know about the person who expressed this opinion?
- What possible bias may this person have about this issue?
- What is their opinion on this issue?
- What evidence or information do they use to support their opinion?
- Why did they write or publish the piece? For example, were they paid to write it?
- Who is the target audience?
- What result do you think the writer wants? For example, do they want to sway public opinion or change a current practice?
- Is the source reliable?

Step 4 Using your answers to the questions above, examine the motivation behind the piece. Is the person approaching the issue from a historical, economic, cultural or social perspective?

Step 5 Analyse the issue by comparing the different points of view provided in each source. You can ask questions like these to help you do this:

- What are the main points raised about the issue?
- Is there anything that the writers agree on?
- What are the main points on which they disagree?
- How does their perspective (historical, economic, cultural or social) influence their opinion?

Apply the skill

Following the steps provided, examine each of the four following Sources which express different points of view about visiting Gallipoli on Anzac Day.

1. Do you think Virginia Maxwell (see Source 4.79) is writing from a historical, economic, cultural or spiritual perspective? Why do you think this? List your reasons.
2. Describe the issues surrounding visiting Gallipoli in your own words. Use the key concepts of environment and place in your description.
3. Compare the pieces written by Shelley (Source 4.82) and Erin (see Source 4.83) in their blogs.
   a. How do you think a discussion between Erin and Shelley might go if they were to meet? Write a short dialogue based on the conversation they might have about their views on Gallipoli.
   b. With a partner, present your dialogue in a role-play for the class. Be prepared to stay in character and answer questions from your classmates about your feelings on Anzac Day.
4. Why do you think people can have such different points of view about geographical issues? Identify another place you think people might have different viewpoints about and list the possible reasons for this. You could research somewhere like Cronulla Beach in Sydney, for example, or the Franklin River in Tasmania if you are stuck for a place to write about.

Source 4.79

> It's important to remember that this site is just as significant and important for the Turkish people as for the Australians, the New Zealanders and the British. Visitors who come at other times than on Anzac Day get a much better chance to do some quiet reflection, get the full historical context from the tour guides and get the Turkish perspective on the battle as well. This is something that you won't get on a crowded overnight package trip from Istanbul, which is how most people end up seeing the site. It's also easier to find accommodation at other times, and avoids damage to the park, which is fragile.
>
> Virginia Maxwell, co-author of the *Lonely Planet: Turkey* guide

Source 4.80

Instead of commemorating the heroism of Australian soldiers who landed on that fatal shore in 1915, the conference in October concluded that Australians should reframe the landing as an unmitigated disaster and apologise to the Turkish Government for invading their country.

'The landing was nothing but an unjustified invasion of foreign soil like the British invasion of Aboriginal land in 1788,' says John Lack of the University of Melbourne. 'And we should put the two coves together – Sydney Cove and Anzac Cove – because both invasions were just as bad as each other and cost a lot of lives.'…

John McQuilton of Wollongong University says Australians should look at the story of Gallipoli from the Turkish angle to see how they feel about it, a view that has been neglected for too long. The Turks lost 86 000 soldiers compared with Australia's 8709. 'It is now time to embrace our old enemy Turkey,' he says. ….

McQuilton says Australians should stop going to Gallipoli and claiming rights over Turkish soil for their commemorative activities. 'This land belongs to Turkey and the reason they are building so many memorials of their own is they want it back,' he says.

'Charge of the rewrite brigade,' by Jonathan King
http://www.battleforaustralia.org/battaust/AustInvasion/References/Stanley_on_Gallipoli.html

Source 4.82

We will never forget. The journey that we were privileged to experience on the Gallipoli peninsula was incredible! A journey of both heart-gripping and breathtaking emotions as well as a surreal pilgrimage; a tiny glimpse of what the Anzacs went through on the 25th April, 1915. …

We embarked on a 5-day tour with Top Deck, discovering a quick peek of Istanbul and Gallipoli. … it's fair to say that we left our hearts on the shores of the Gallipoli National Park, with the many remaining there. Men of bravery, men of obedience, and men, who courageously and heroically left family, loved ones and their country behind.

… if you ever do get a chance to go to Gallipoli, especially over Anzac day, I would highly recommend it, as it really is (as cliché as it sounds) a life-changing experience.

It was an honour and an eye-opening adventure to be able to stand in the place where thousands had been laid to rest. What a memory to carry. We all walked out of the experience, knowing that we will never think of Anzac day the same. Lest we forget.

Shelley, attended the Anzac Day service, Gallipoli, 2013
http://thesharechair.blogspot.com.au/2013/05/Anzac-day-gallipoli-lest-we-forget.html



Source 4.81 For many tourists, a visit to Gallipoli at a quiet time allows them to connect more closely with this place.

Source 4.83

I have had this rant to all of my mates who go to Gallipoli for Anzac Day.

It is a problem when Anzac Day starts to resemble the Big Day Out. There are the bogans draped in the Aussie flags who have been up all night. There are the stages, the microphones, the cameras, the celebrities, the spotlights, the lead up that could confuse the upcoming rendition of the 'Last Post' with an upcoming rock band. There are the people who have fought online and forked out hundreds for tickets. And now, there will even be ballots.

Erin, in her blog 'Lessons for the 20s something wanderer'
http://lessonsforthe20somethingwanderer.blogspot.com.au/2013/04/lesson-28-why-im-not-at-gallipoli.html#!/2013/04/lesson-28-why-im-not-at-gallipoli.html

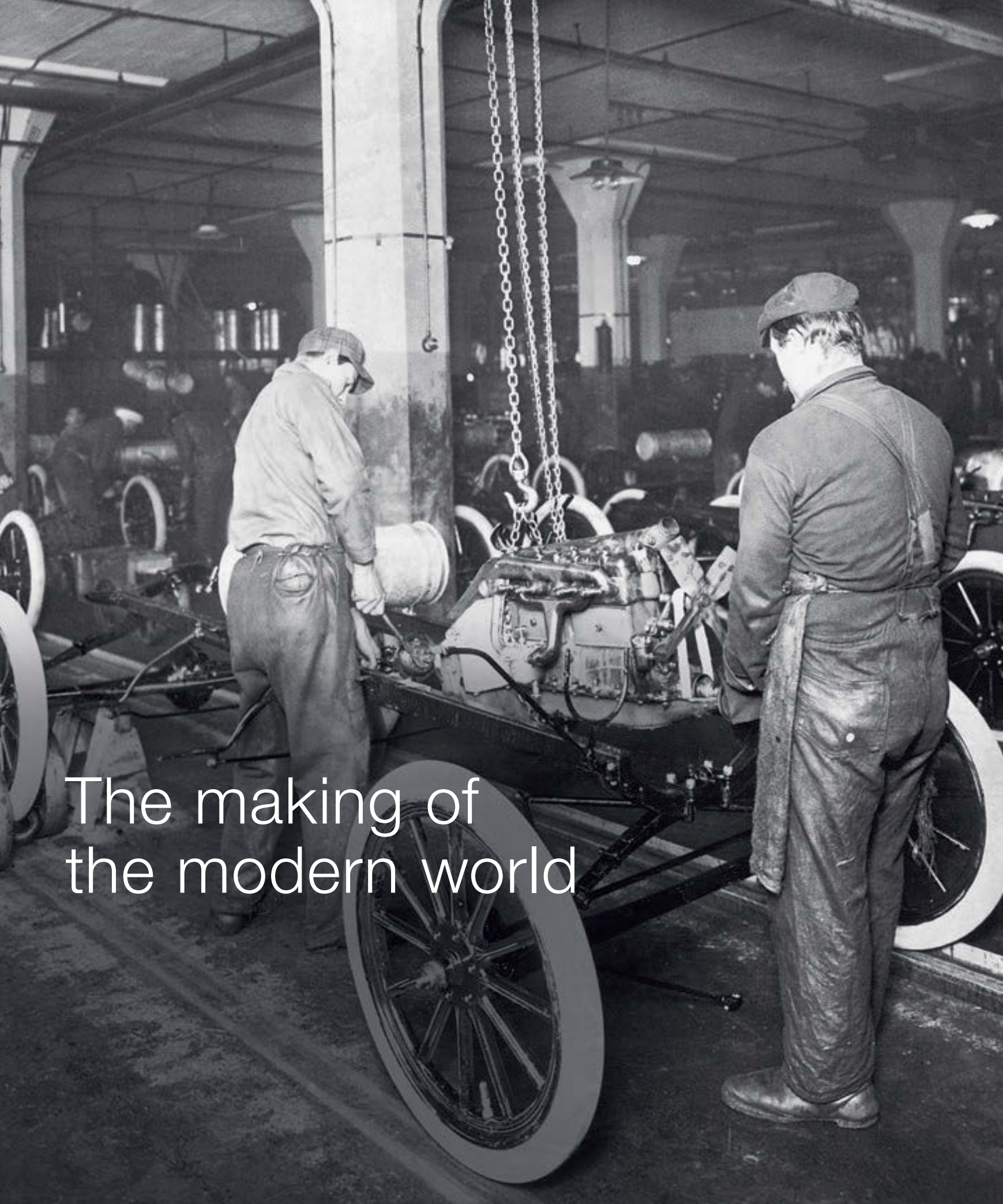
Extend your understanding

1. Research the environmental impact that visitors are having at Gallipoli, and the ways in which local authorities are responding. Present your findings in a short written report.
2. Design a code of behaviour for visitors attending Anzac Day services at Gallipoli, to help them minimise their impact on the environment.
3. Write a few paragraphs or a short speech about attending Anzac Day services at Gallipoli, framing your viewpoint from a single perspective (historical, economic, cultural or spiritual). For example, you might write your piece from the economic perspective of a tour bus operator to Gallipoli.



Source 4.84 View of soldiers attacking during the final days of the Gallipoli Campaign in 1915.

oxford big ideas australian curriculum history 9



The making of the modern world

The historian's toolkit

History is the study of the past. Historians are interested in all aspects of the past and seek to piece together accurate pictures of what life was like in days gone by. They also look for patterns – what has remained the same, what has changed, and why.

Historians are time detectives; they follow a process of **historical inquiry** in order to better understand the past. They ask questions, form opinions and theories, locate and analyse **sources**, and use **evidence** from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past. Oral accounts, documents, **artefacts** and **archaeological** finds form the basis of research and investigation in history.

Historians are curious. They investigate events and want to know more about them. For example, by developing a range of hypotheses and analysing a range of sources relating to the African slave trade between 1750 and 1915, historians have been able to:

- understand the historical, social and economic factors that led to the start of the slave trade
- gain an appreciation of the experiences of African people who were forcibly removed from their homelands and transported
- explore the attitudes of European and American slave owners, the general public and anti-slavery campaigners
- understand the economic significance of the slave trade
- explore the events that led to the abolition of **slavery** in Britain and the United States
- identify the long-term impacts of slavery on people of African descent living all over the world today.

Important historical events, such as the African slave trade, provide historians with the opportunity to actively investigate the way in which new ideas and technological developments influenced the making of the modern world. Welcome to the wonderful world of history!



HT.1

Concepts for historical understanding



Source HT.1 An engraving from 1856 showing a slave auction in the city of Charleston, South Carolina, USA

HT.2
Historical skills

HT.3
Careers in history

HT.1 Concepts for historical understanding

Historians use seven concepts to help them investigate and understand the past. At times you will use several of these concepts at once; at other times you may focus on just one. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian. The seven key concepts in history are:

- perspectives
- empathy
- continuity and change
- significance
- cause and effect
- contestability.
- evidence

Perspectives

The concept of **perspectives** is an important part of any historical inquiry. A person's perspective is their point of view – the position from which they see and understand events going on in the world around them. People often have different points of view (or perspectives) about particular events, historical figures, civilisations or artefacts depending on their age, gender, social position and their beliefs and values. Just like anyone else, historians have perspectives, which can influence their interpretation of the past and the way in which they write about it. Regardless of their own perspectives (and what they may think about something personally), historians must try to understand the different values and beliefs that shaped and affected the lives of people who lived in the past.

For example, the period from 1750 to 1914 was a time when the European powers competed with each other to expand their territory and influence around the world by acquiring colonies. This was known as **imperialism**. The European powers spread their reach over Asia, Oceania and Africa, desperate to get hold of the valuable natural resources found in these countries. By the beginning of the 20th century, most of Asia and Africa were ruled by foreign powers.

European **colonies** were forced to adopt the laws, languages, customs and religions of their imperial masters. Over time, Europeans also shared new technologies with their colonies. They established roads, railways and communication networks, modernising many of these nations.



Source HT.2 By the beginning of the 20th century, the British Empire covered one-quarter of the world's total land mass and ruled over around one-fifth of the world's total population. For these reasons it became known as the 'empire on which the sun never sets'.

From the perspective of most Europeans at the time, the Indigenous cultures of Asia, Oceania and Africa were inferior. They saw it as their right and duty to bring European culture and belief systems to the 'backward' societies they colonised.

From the perspective of the Indigenous populations in these regions, the arrival of Europeans was seen as an invasion of their lands that resulted in the devastation of their traditional ways of life. In the worst instances, as with Belgian rule in the Congo, the Indigenous population was subjected to a brutal, violent rule with a great loss of life.

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things stay the same, while others change. This concept is referred to as **continuity and change**. Examples of continuity and change can be seen across every civilisation at any given period of time.

Historians refer to aspects of the past that have remained the same over time as continuities. Aspects of the past that do not stay the same are referred to as changes. Change can occur within a certain civilisation or specific time period, but also across different civilisations and time periods.

Many aspects of history influence how we act and live today. For example, during the **Industrial Revolution**, a number of companies began producing products that have now become household names all around the world. One of these brands is Coca-Cola. This syrupy, carbonated cola drink made to a secret recipe was first produced by a pharmacist named Dr John S Pemberton in the United States city of Atlanta. The Coca-Cola logo (see Source HT.3) has been used in a distinctly recognisable form since 1885. This is an example of historical continuity.

However, Coca-Cola also provides many examples of historical change:

- During the first year, sales averaged a modest nine servings per day in Atlanta. Today, daily servings of Coca-Cola beverages are estimated at 1.8 billion globally.
- The first servings of Coca-Cola were sold for 5 cents per glass, whereas today a can of Coke generally retails for around two dollars.
- In the early years, Coca-Cola also contained cocaine from coca leaves. When cocaine became a restricted drug in the United States, the coca leaves used in the recipe were changed to be cocaine free.
- In 1985, the company introduced a new formula and branded it 'new Coke', but a consumer backlash forced a return to the traditional recipe.
- Recent awareness about the dangers of a high consumption of sugar has seen the introduction and success of sugar-free options such as Diet-Coke and Coke Zero.



Source HT.3 A Coca-Cola delivery driver and his truck, New Orleans, 1929.



Source HT.4 This restaurant in Chad is painted in Coca-Cola's colours. Coca-Cola today is sold in more than 200 countries and is one of the world's most recognisable brands.

Cause and effect

The concept of **cause and effect** is used by historians to identify chains of events and developments, both in the short term and in the long term. Cause and effect aims to identify, examine and analyse the reasons why events have occurred and the resulting consequences or outcomes. It helps to think of cause and effect as the 'why' and 'what' of history.

Sometimes the link between cause and effect is very clear. For example, heavy rain over many weeks (cause) leads to flooding and the destruction of crops (effect). However, often this link is not quite so obvious. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event or action. There can also be many effects (outcomes). Sometimes the effects are simple to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even become obvious until long after the event.

When Edward Hargraves found gold near Bathurst in New South Wales in 1851, it was the first gold to be found in the region. The find quickly triggered the first Australian gold rush. The chance to strike it rich was irresistible for thousands of people who flocked to the goldfields in New South Wales and Victoria from around Australia and overseas. In the 10 years after the first discovery of gold (cause), the population of Australia more than doubled from 405 400 to 1 145 600 (effect).

The discovery of gold and the subsequent gold rushes in New South Wales and Victoria resulted in a range of effects – some short term, others long term. Short-term effects included:

- the arrival of large numbers of **immigrants** from Britain, Germany, Poland, the United States and China
- further **dispossession** of Indigenous people from their land
- discrimination and violence against Chinese miners on the goldfields
- unsanitary conditions in the gold camps leading to outbreaks of dysentery and typhoid
- establishment of businesses such as shops, traders and transporters to support the gold miners.

Long-term effects included:

- huge increases in the amounts of money flowing into the economies of New South Wales and Victoria through taxes and increased spending
- a growth in overseas trade
- improvements in infrastructure including the construction of grand public buildings, roads, train and tram networks, and sewerage systems as well as the creation of schools, churches, libraries and other community amenities.



Source HT.5 The Australian gold rushes of the mid-1800s brought people and wealth to Australia and led to a period of growth and expansion, as these illustrations of Melbourne in 1860 show.

Evidence

Evidence is the information gathered from historical sources. The concept of evidence is an essential part of historical inquiry. Evidence can come from many different sources; for example, interviews and accounts from people who lived at the time, letters, diaries, films, maps, newspapers, buildings, paintings, photographs, song lyrics, nursery rhymes, clothing, photographs and even cartoons. But how do we use these sources to piece together the story of the past? We can make an educated guess (called a **hypothesis**) and then look for evidence to support it.

Evidence can be gathered from two types of sources:

- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated, for example during an event or very soon after. Examples of primary sources include: official documents, such as laws and treaties; personal documents, such as diaries and letters; photographs or films; and documentaries. These original, firsthand accounts are analysed by historians to answer questions about the past.
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation. Examples of secondary sources include writings of historians, encyclopaedia entries, documentaries, history textbooks, films, illustrations, reconstructions and websites.

Historians do not always agree on evidence, even when it is coming from the same source. They often have different opinions or points of view. This is why historians are constantly searching for new sources of evidence. They need to use a range of different sources to help them gain a more complete picture of the past.



Source HT.6 This photograph taken in 1915 shows Australian troops charging a Turkish trench during the final days of the Gallipoli campaign. The photograph clearly shows the rocky terrain of the Gallipoli Peninsula and is an example of a primary source. War photography became a part of warfare at all levels for the first time during World War I. As well as documenting military offensives, photographs were used for surveying and mapping territory and for propaganda campaigns. Photographs were not only taken by military photographers, they were also taken by ordinary soldiers in order to document their personal experiences.



Source HT.7 This still from the 1981 feature film *Gallipoli* starring Mel Gibson shows Australian soldiers in battle during the Gallipoli campaign. The movie recreates the experiences of a number of Australian soldiers who fought as part of the ANZAC forces. It is an example of a secondary source.

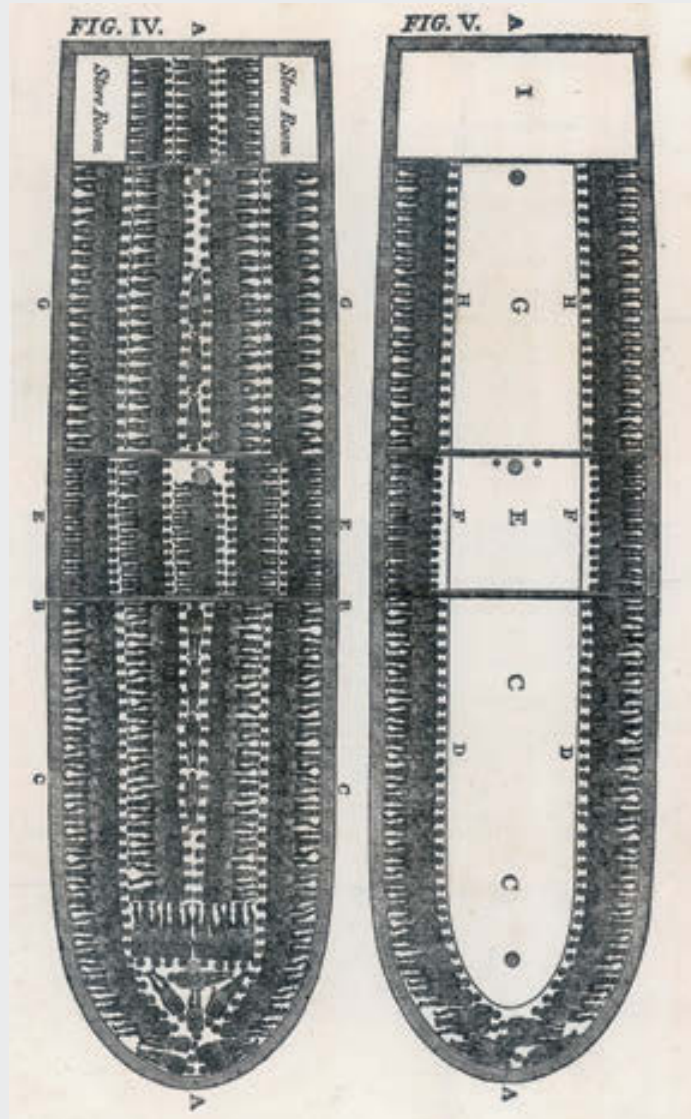
Empathy

The concept of **empathy** helps us to understand the impact of past events on particular individuals or groups. This includes an appreciation of the circumstances they faced and the motivations, values and attitudes behind their actions. Put another way, empathy is the ability to 'walk in someone else's shoes' – to be aware of and sensitive to their feelings, thoughts and experiences.

Empathising brings history to life. It connects us as human beings regardless of how much time has passed. For example, by the beginning of the 18th century the slave trade was well established in many parts of the world. It is estimated that up to 12 million African people may have been shipped to the Americas as slaves. After capture, slaves were packed into ships for transportation to the Americas. Slave ships were extremely crowded and conditions were inhumane (see Source HT.8). Slaves were kept below decks for most of the long journey in dark and filthy conditions with no ventilation. They were kept chained and were given no medical assistance if they fell ill. From a modern perspective, it is easy to view this treatment of other human beings as barbaric and wrong, and to feel empathy for those slaves who suffered as a result of this treatment. Slavery was outlawed in most countries around the world in the 1800s and since this time, the vast majority of people have come to think of slavery as cruel and unacceptable. However, this has not always been the case.

For historians, applying the concept of empathy during a historical inquiry into the slave trade encourages them not to judge events and people by modern standards. It requires an appreciation of the social norms of the period in order to better understand people's motives and actions. Although it may be difficult, a reasoned inquiry means you also need to empathise with slave owners and traders. The slave owners truly believed that they were doing nothing wrong – even George Washington, the first President of the United States, was a slave owner. African slaves were believed to be inferior to white men in intellect, in fact they were considered to be childlike, but to be physically stronger than white men and well suited to the heat. It was considered the 'natural order' for the slaves to be 'looked after' by their owners. Some Christian teachings at the time also supported this view, as did theories such as **social Darwinism**. In addition to these factors, owning slaves was legal. As a result of these factors, slavery was common across the Caribbean and Southern American states, where there were severe labour shortages. Without slaves, the landowners would not have been able to produce their crops of cotton and sugar that were in demand in Europe.

Although empathy does not excuse the actions of people in the past, it does allow us to understand them better.



Source HT.8 A plan of the British slave ship *Brookes* in 1789. This shows it carrying 454 slaves, 'tightly packed', after the Slave Trade Regulation Act of 1788 which was introduced to improve conditions on slave ships. Before the Act, the *Brookes* carried between 609 and 740 slaves.

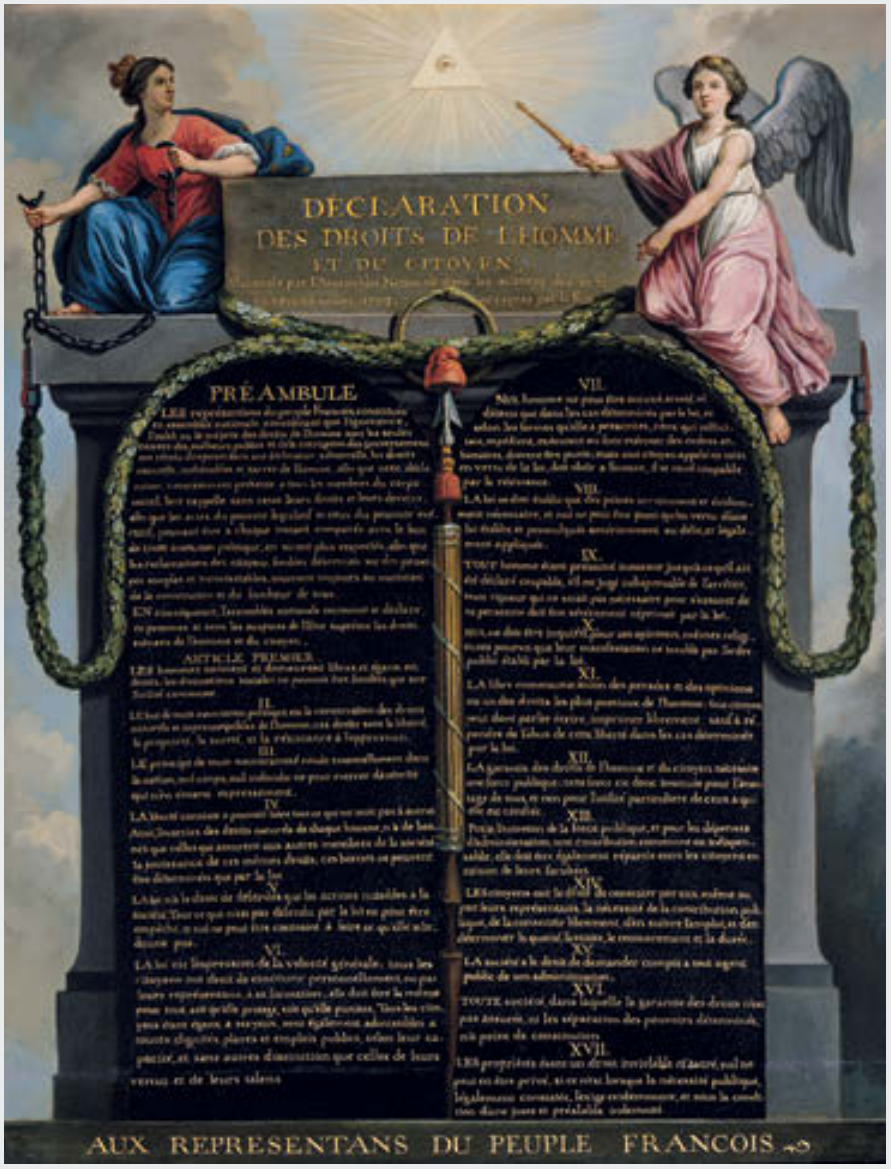
Significance

The concept of **significance** relates to the importance assigned to aspects of the past. This includes people, events, developments, discoveries, movements and historical sites. History is full of so many important events, significant people and interesting places that we could never study all of them. Instead, we need to make a judgement about which of these is worthy of study. In order to determine if a person, event, development, discovery, movement or site is historically significant, historians may ask the following questions:

- How important was it to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected by it?
- To what degree were people's lives affected by it?
- How widespread and long-lasting were its effects?
- Can its effects still be felt today?

For example, the **French Revolution** has been said to have laid the groundwork for the birth of the modern world across Europe. Why would a revolution affecting a single country be considered so significant? The French Revolution took place in 1789, starting with the demand for a government under the king that was more representative of the people. It ended with the king being executed, along with many members of the **aristocracy**. The political and social ideals of the French Revolution went on to inspire many other developments around the world. Some legacies of the French Revolution that are still significant today include:

- the introduction of a representative government in France guided by the understanding that rulers could only govern with the consent of the people
- the introduction of the **separation of powers** between three arms of government – executive, legislative and judicial branches
- the creation of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (see Source HT.9); a fundamental document in the history of human rights around the world based on the idea that all citizens should have equal rights and opportunities in society
- the realisation that royal power and the 'right to rule' in many countries across Europe could no longer be taken for granted
- the democratisation of rule in different countries across Europe and the establishment of many representative **democracies** around the world.



Source HT.9 The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, 1789.

Contestability

The concept of **contestability** relates to explanations or interpretations of past events that are open to debate. Historians around the world often have access to very different sources. Artefacts, such as jewellery and weapons, may have been damaged, or artworks may be incomplete. Written records may contain errors, or might have been changed after they were written. Some records may even have been completely destroyed. This can lead historians to draw different conclusions about what they are seeing. Even historians studying the same sources can sometimes come to very different conclusions about what the evidence is telling them. This is one of the exciting things about history – it is open to debate. There is often no right answer, and historians are always seeking a more complete understanding of the past.

The Industrial Revolution was a time of great change. In a short amount of time, new inventions and innovations brought about huge changes to the way people worked, lived, communicated and travelled. For example, the invention of the telephone revolutionised the way in which people communicated all around the world. Scottish-born inventor Alexander Graham Bell has long been credited with inventing the telephone. Certainly, he was the first to patent it in the USA, in 1886, after conceptualising and developing a version of the telephone (see Source HT.10). However, many historians contest this belief.

Other inventors were also working on similar inventions at the same time as Alexander Graham Bell. Among them were Antonio Meucci, Innocenzo Manzetti and Thomas Edison (see Source HT.11). Many historians credit these inventors with the development of the first voice communication apparatuses. Unfortunately, it is difficult to prove who was first because many of the electronic components that would eventually become part the telephone were being developed separately around the world by many different people at the same time.

For this reason, the inventor of the telephone will always be contested by historians. One thing that cannot be contested is the fact that no single person was solely responsible for the invention.



Source HT.10 An artist's impression of Alexander Graham Bell making the first telephone call between New York and Chicago, 18 October 1892



Source HT.11 An illustration from the 1940s showing an image of Thomas Edison surrounded by his inventions – including the telephone.



Check your learning HT.1

Remember and understand

1 What is the difference between a primary and secondary source? Give an example of each type of source.

2 The red-and-white logo of Coca-Cola (and its distinctive font) has been around since 1885. Which historical concept is this an example of?

3 Which historical concept would be most helpful to historians attempting to understand the factors that allowed the slave trade to continue for so long?

4 The Industrial Revolution was a time of great invention. Why is it sometimes difficult to credit only one person with a particular invention? When historians disagree about particular events and facts, which historical concept is this an example of?

Apply and analyse

5 Look again at the types of questions historians ask to decide if events, discoveries, people or sites are historically significant. For example:
- How important was it to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected by it?
- To what degree were people's lives affected by it?
- How widespread and long-lasting were its effects?
- Can its effects still be felt today?

a Use each of these questions to determine the historical significance of the following:
- i the French Revolution
- ii the discovery of gold in Australia
- iii the making of the film *Gallipoli*
- iv the introduction of a new formulation of Coca-Cola in 1985 (marketed as 'new Coke').

b Discuss your responses as a class. Did you all draw the same conclusions?

6 Examine Source HT.2 showing the extent of the British Empire at the start of the 20th century.

a What motivated countries such as Britain to form empires? What perspective did the British adopt towards the people and places they colonised?

b Why is the historical concept of perspectives useful when conducting a historical inquiry into imperialism?

Evaluate and create

7 Directors and production staff on historical feature films like *Gallipoli* invest a lot of time and money to achieve a high level of historical accuracy in the settings and costumes they use. Despite this, many of these films also tend to reflect a modern view of the event and the people involved. Think of a historical film you have seen and assess its usefulness as a historical source.

8 Create a flow chart to show the causes and effects (both short-term and long-term) of the gold rushes on Australian society.

9 Using a selection of new images and examples, create a poster or audiovisual display that briefly explains all seven of the historical concepts discussed in this section.

HT.2 Historical skills

History has been described as the study of 'who we are and why we are the way we are'. Historians examine the past and try to explain what they find. Like detectives at the scene of a crime, they follow a process of historical inquiry – they pose questions, locate and analyse sources, use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past, and then communicate their findings.

To conduct a historical inquiry, historians need a range of skills. By studying history you will gradually master each of these skills. Some of them you will find easy to master, others may take a little longer. As you develop each new skill you will have gained another important tool for understanding and explaining events and people that have shaped our world.

You will now be familiar with many of these skills from your studies in junior history. This year you will revisit each of the skills and learn to apply them more effectively. Each of the skills you will be learning are organised into five broad categories (see Source HT.12). Each category represents the stages of a historical inquiry and contains a number of more specific skills that you will be practising.

It might help you to think of each of these skills as individual tools in your toolkit. For some historical inquiries, you may only need to use one tool; for others, you may need to use all of them.

Source HT.12 The five categories of skills used in a historical inquiry

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



Source HT.13 Historical skills help you to be a detective of the past.

Chronology, terms and concepts

Use chronological sequencing to demonstrate the relationship between events

One of the most helpful things historians can do to get a better understanding of the past is to organise events according to the order in which they happened. This is known as **chronology**. Chronology can help us organise things that happened over a small period of time, like a day or week, or huge periods of time, like hundreds of thousands of years. We can also use chronology to look at events that happened in one place or society, or compare events across many different places and societies.

Chronology allows us to develop an ordered sense of time. Once events have been ordered chronologically, we are able to use a range of historical concepts such as cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change to analyse them in detail.

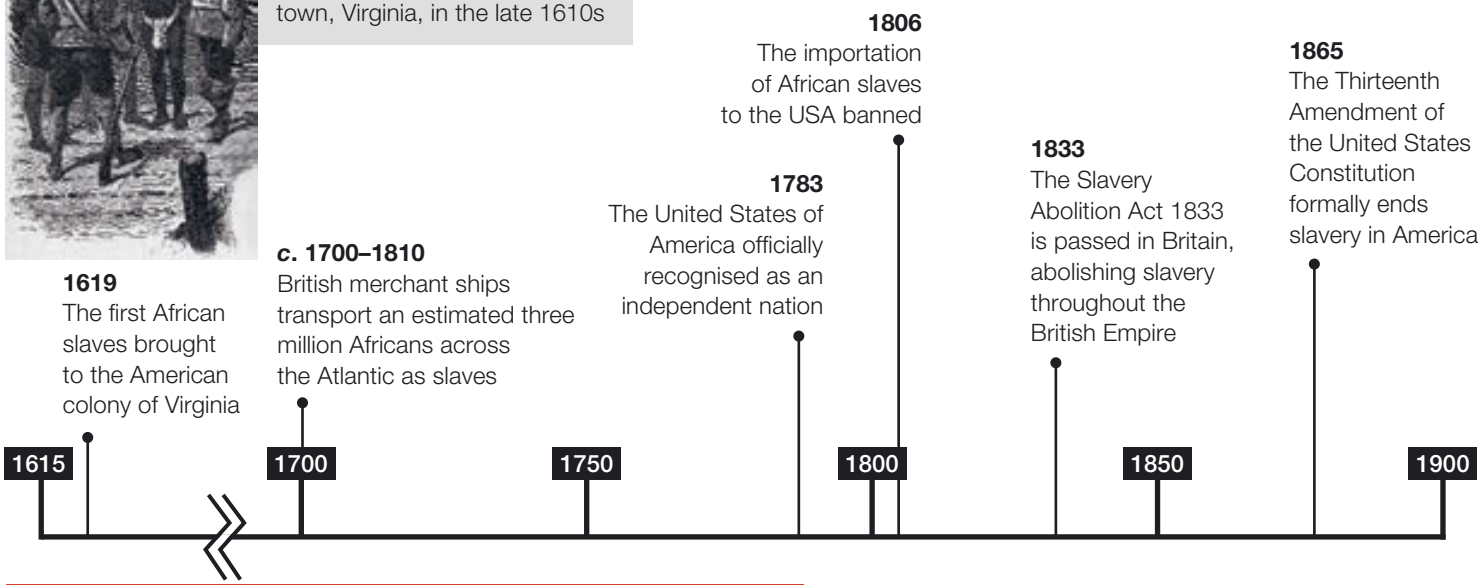
Creating timelines

Timelines are used by historians to sequence time and order important events chronologically. They help divide large sections of time into smaller periods so that events (like the births and deaths of important people, wars and discoveries) can be arranged in the correct order.

Timelines can look quite different, but essentially they all work in the same way. There are some basic steps you need to follow when constructing timelines. You should already be very familiar with creating timelines, but Source HT.14 provides a simple example and some basic reminders.



An engraving titled *Introduction to slavery*, showing slaves being examined on a dock in Jamestown, Virginia, in the late 1610s



Work out the length of time you want to represent on your timeline, then divide it evenly into suitable blocks of time – in this case, 50 years. A timeline showing what you did yesterday might be divided into hours; one showing key events in the 19th century might be divided into decades.

To represent a huge span of time, you may need to break your timeline into sections using a jagged line. This break shows that a section of time has been left out and will ensure that your timeline will fit on the page! Just make sure no important events fall in the time you are leaving out.

Mark specific dates onto the timeline. These dates need to be accurately plotted so that they appear in chronological order. If an exact date is not known, the abbreviation *c.* (from the Latin word *circa*, meaning 'around') is placed in front of it (e.g. *c.* 1700).

Provide a brief description of the dates plotted on the timeline, describing the events that took place. Include a picture and caption if appropriate.

Source HT.14 A timeline showing key events in the slave trade

Use historical terms and concepts

Just like scientists and mathematicians, historians share a common language. They use historical terms and concepts to clarify what they are talking about and share their findings. Source HT.15 lists and defines some important historical terms you will come across during your study of the making of the modern world.

Source HT.15 Some useful historical terms you will learn while looking at the making of the modern world

Term	Definition
assimilation	the process by which a minority group adopts the language and customs of a dominant population; in the mid-1900s assimilation of Indigenous Australians into white society became official government policy in Australia
capitalism	an economic system under which investment in, and ownership of, the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are privately owned by individuals or corporations and run to generate profits; as opposed to state-owned and controlled systems such as **socialism** and **communism**
census	a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, religious beliefs, etc.
emigration	to leave one country or region in order to settle in another
empire	a group of countries and/or areas, often with different languages and having different cultures, ruled by a central power or leader (known as an **emperor**)
Federation	the process by which separate colonies or states form a unified nation with a central government; the Commonwealth of Australia was established in 1901 after the six colonies were joined
immigration	the act of entering and settling permanently in a country or region to which a person is not native
imperialism	the process of gaining and maintaining control over other countries, regions or territories for economic or strategic (military) reasons
industrialisation	a process in which a society or country transforms from an economy based primarily on agriculture and farming into one based on manufacturing and industry
propaganda	information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society; propaganda can take many forms (e.g. posters, flyers, advertising campaigns, films) and is designed to promote a particular cause or course of action and/or damage the cause of an enemy
reparations	money paid by one country to another as compensation for damage, injuries and deaths it has caused during war
socialism	an economic and political system under which investment in, and ownership of, the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned and resources are allocated to the people according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as **capitalism**
urbanisation	a term used to describe the increase in the numbers of people living in urban areas (i.e. cities) versus rural areas (i.e. farms)

Check your learning HT.2

Remember and understand

1 Why do you think history has been described as the study of 'who we are and why we are the way we are'? Do you think this is an accurate description?

2 In your own words, define the term 'chronology'? Why is it an important skill for historians?

3 What is one of the most useful tools for organising significant historical events into chronological order?

Evaluate and create

4 Choose a significant issue or event of interest to you that took place between 1750 and 1918. Conduct research and create a timeline that features a number of entries related to the issue or event you have chosen. Some events you may like to examine include:

- the suffragette movement and women's struggle for voting rights
- World War I
- the invention of the telephone or motorbike during the Industrial Revolution

a Your timeline should include at least six entries related to the issue or event. Each entry must include the date and a brief description.

b You should also include images related to at least two of the entries on your timeline.

c Present your timeline electronically or as a poster.

Historical questions and research

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

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking big questions. From these big questions, historians develop a **hypothesis** (theory) about who, what, where and why certain events took place. These questions then help to frame the process of inquiry and act as a guide for the collection of evidence.

The photograph in Source HT.16 shows a group of slaves working in the sweet potato fields on the Hopkinson plantation in South Carolina, USA. Slaves were a part of life on plantations across the southern states of America during the 19th century.



Source HT.16 Using sources such as this, historians can begin to develop a range of questions to frame a historical inquiry.

skill**drill**

Generating questions to inform a historical inquiry

Look closely at Source HT.16. This photograph could provide an interesting starting point for a historical inquiry into the slave trade during the 19th century. To start your inquiry, think of some questions that begin with the words 'what', 'where', 'how', 'when' and 'why'.

For example, questions such as those listed below help to guide the research process:

- Who are the people in this photograph?
- What are they doing?
- When and where was the photograph taken?

By asking these kinds of questions (known as closed questions), you will often discover a range of facts to follow up on. This is a good start. However, in addition to asking closed questions, it is important that you ask more complex questions (known as open-ended questions). Open-ended questions such as 'What were working conditions like for these people?' and 'What were conditions like for slaves living on plantations?', will often open up exciting new areas for you to explore.

Apply the skill

1. Based on what you have read and seen, generate two open and two closed inquiry questions of your own that will help guide your investigation into slaves in the southern states of America.
2. Once you have generated a range of closed and open-ended inquiry questions, think about the kind of information you will need to answer them. Also work out where you might be able to locate this information.
3. Are there any questions for which you have not been able to find reliable evidence or information? What reasons might there be for this?

Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Sources provide information for historians. They can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records in books or online. Some examples of sources include human remains, coins, cave paintings, textbooks, journals, online databases, newspapers, letters, cartoons and diaries.

Locating a range of relevant sources is a valuable skill which usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues at your school and local library
- using online search engines such as Google, Yahoo and Bing
- visiting museum and government websites
- looking at newspaper and magazine archives
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing older family members about the past, and examining family antiques and keepsakes.

Using ICT to locate relevant sources

Although printed books and newspapers are valuable sources of information, most research today is conducted online. In order to ensure that sources gathered online are accurate, reliable and relevant, a number of guidelines should be followed:

- Search engines such as Google are useful research tools, but much of the material on these sites is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information or material that is out of date. When using search engines like Google or Yahoo, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools will also have a website devoted to providing information about developing good research skills.
- A reliable way of searching for sources is to use sites linked to educational institutions, government departments, reputable companies, museums and universities. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (Internet address). Some of the most common domain names are listed in Source HT.17 along with some information about their reliability.
- Avoid blogs posted by unknown individuals. If you happen to find information relevant to your investigation on a blog or social media site, always verify it by using a more reliable source.
- Never cut and paste information from the Internet straight into your own work. Taking someone else's work, ideas or words and using them as if they were your own is called plagiarism and can result in very serious consequences.

Source HT.17 Some domain names and their characteristics

Domain name	Description
.edu	The site is linked to an educational institution such as a university or school. These sites are generally very reliable.
.gov	The site is linked to a government institution. These sites are generally very reliable.
.net	This site is linked to a commercial organisation or network provider. Anyone is able to purchase this domain name and generally there is no one to regulate the information posted on the site. As a result, these sites may be unreliable.
.org	This site is linked to an organisation. Generally, these organisations are not for profit (e.g. Greenpeace, World Vision International, British Museum). If the organisation is reputable and can be contacted, it generally means that the information provided has been checked and verified by that organisation. You need to be aware of any special interests that the organisation may represent (e.g. particular religious, commercial or political interests) as this may influence what they have to say on a particular issue. If you are unsure about the reliability of information found on a website with this domain name, check with your teacher or librarian.
.com	This site is linked to a commercially based operation and is likely to be promoting certain products or services. These domain names can be purchased by anyone, so the content should be carefully checked and verified using another, more reliable source.

Recording relevant sources

As you identify and locate relevant sources, it is essential that you record details to include in your list of references or bibliography.

When citing (mentioning) a book in a bibliography, include the following, in this order, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s)
2 year of publication
3 title of book (in italics)
4 edition (if relevant)
5 publisher
6 place of publication
7 page number(s).

Example:

Easton, M., Carrodus, G., Delany, T., Howitt, B., Smith, R., 2014, *Oxford Big Ideas Geography|History 9 Australian Curriculum*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
2 year of publication or date of web page (last update)
3 title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
4 date of posting
5 organisation name (if different from above)



Source HT.18 Most research today is conducted online.

6 date you accessed the site
7 URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets <…> .

Examples:

'Life on a Southern Plantation, 1854', EyeWitness to History, www.eyewitnesstohistory.com (2005), accessed 24 March 2013, <http://www.eyewitnesstohistory.com/plantation.htm>.

Ferguson, L, 2010, 'African Americans on Southern plantations', www.sha.org, accessed 2 April 2013, <http://www.sha.org/unlockingthepast/cultures_in_contact/aa_ferguson.htm>.

Check your learning HT.3

Remember and understand

1 List three different examples of sources. Next to each example, write where it can be found.

Apply and analyse

2 Copy the table below and use it to list two advantages and two disadvantages of using the different search methods shown.

Search methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Using a library catalogue	• •	• •
Conducting an Internet search	• •	• •
Interviewing an older family member	• •	• •

3 Examine the following sites. Decide whether you think they are reliable. Explain why.
   a Australian National Museum
   www.nma.gov.au
   b The Coca-Cola Company
   www.coca-cola.com.au
   c Oxford University Press
   www.oup.com.au
   d Wikipedia
   http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Plantations_in_the_American_South

Evaluate and create

4 Create a handbook or class wiki providing tips on good research techniques. Share it with other students in your year level or post it on your school intranet.

Analysis and use of sources

Identify the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources

As explained earlier, historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

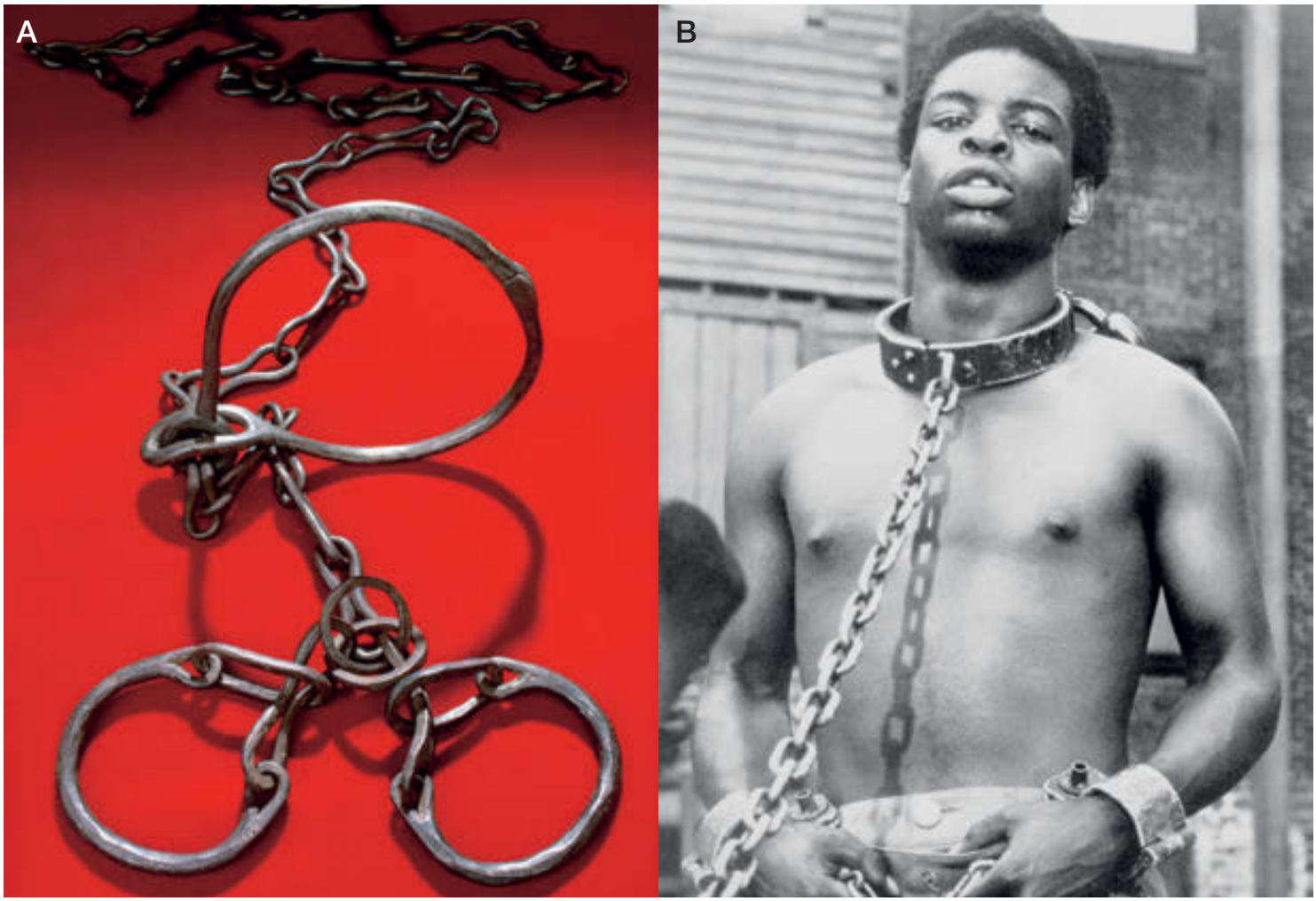
- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Understanding the origin, purpose and context of primary and secondary sources

Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but it is important to understand:

- where they came from (origin)
- why they were created (purpose)
- the historical setting in which they were created (context).

These factors are important because they provide clues about the perspective of the person who made the source, as well as the attitudes and beliefs that were common at that time. All sources are influenced by the author's own point of view. In some cases the author may even have been paid (or forced) to write in a particular way or to ignore certain facts. This is referred to as **bias** and is often aimed at persuading the reader to agree with the author's point of view. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate all of the sources they use.



Source HT.19 The origin and purpose of these primary (A) and secondary (B) sources are very different, even though they are both related to African slavery: (A) Slave shackles from Zaire, held at the Museum of Central Africa, Terveren, Brussels, Belgium; (B) Actor LeVar Burton is wearing slave shackles in a scene from the 1977 TV mini-series *Roots*.

Analysing sources by asking 'who', 'what', 'when' and 'why' questions will help you identify the origin and purpose of the sources. For example:

- Who wrote, produced or made the source?
  - Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source?
  - Is the creator a member of a particular group, religion or organisation?
- What type of source is it?
  - Was the source created at the time of the event or afterwards?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
  - How old is the source?
  - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
  - Is the source complete?
- Why was it written or produced?
  - Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
  - Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source?
  - What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?

Process and synthesise information from a range of sources as evidence

By this stage of your historical inquiry, you will have located and collected a variety of different sources and types of information. Now it is time to process and synthesise the most relevant information that you will use as evidence to support your hypothesis. There are a number of different ways to organise large amounts of information so that you can decide quickly and easily which sources provide the most useful, relevant and reliable evidence.

Using graphic organisers to help you process and synthesise information

Graphic organisers are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A decision-making chart like Source HT.20 can help you do this.

Source HT.20 A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might process, compare and select sources.

Research topic: Slavery in America – what were the consequences?			
Hypothesis: That slaves suffered from a lack of freedom and cruel treatment at the hands of plantation owners even though they were critical to the success of the agricultural industry in America.			
Source 1: 'African Americans' Encyclopaedia Britannica	Pros: • The entry is current and based on reliable evidence • The entry is written by a reputable organisation – Encyclopaedia Britannica • It provides a good overview of slavery in America and talks about the positive impacts for America's economy and the negative impacts for slaves Cons: • Not detailed enough • No first-hand experiences are provided	Category of source: Secondary source – Encyclopaedia entry	Reference information: http://www.britannica.com/blackhistory/article-285186 (Accessed 24 February 2013)
Source 2:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information:
Source 3:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information:
Source 4:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information:
Source 5:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information:
Recommended sources in order of relevance/usefulness: 1 2 3 4 5			

skill**drill**

Analysing political cartoons

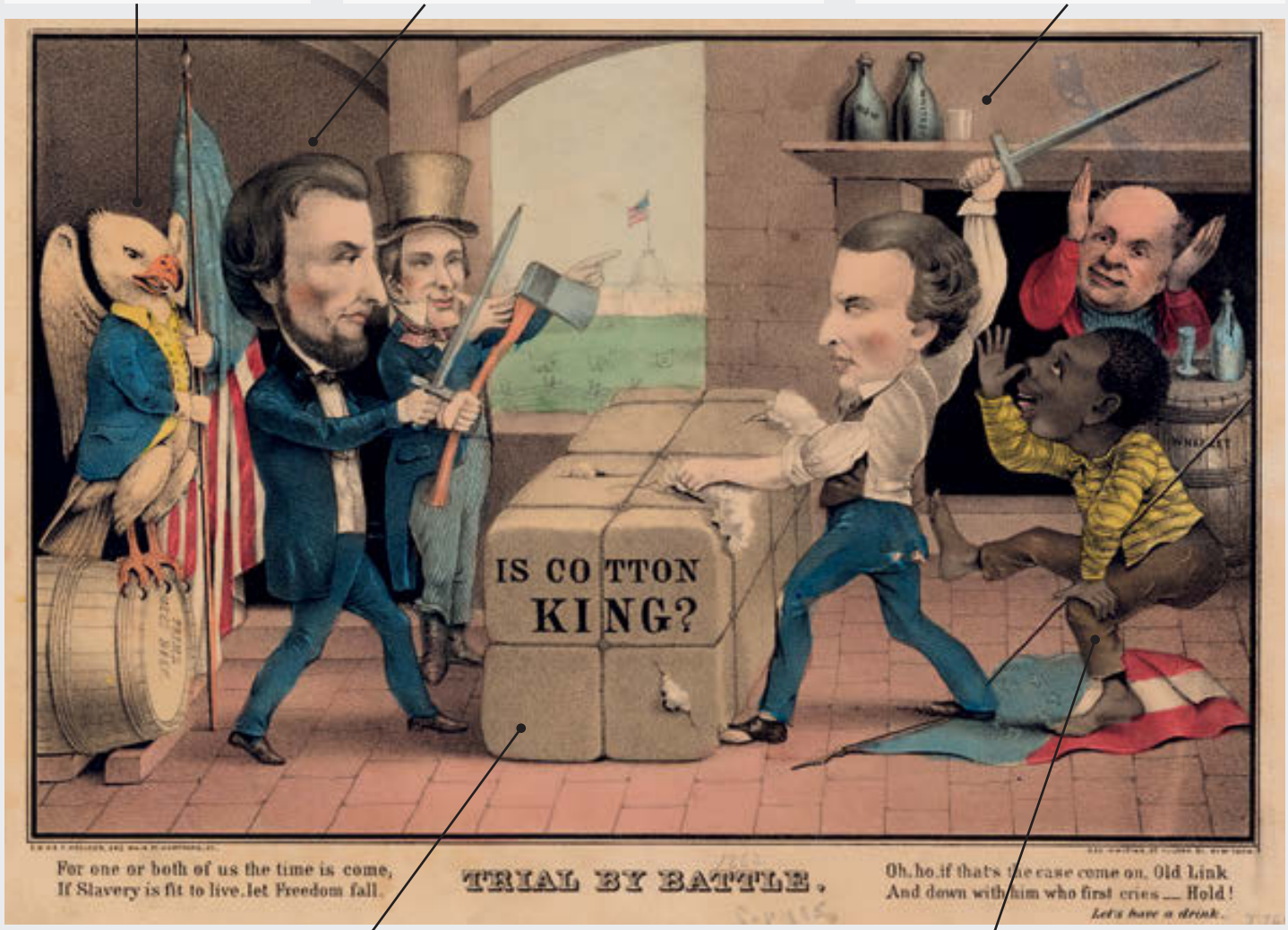
Political cartoons appear in newspapers, magazines and online. They are as popular today as they were in the past because they use humour and satire to pass comment on a range of topical political and social issues. They tend to present caricatures of important political figures from the time, exaggerating their physical features for effect.

Political cartoons taken from a particular period of history can be excellent primary sources because they provide a rich combination of fact and opinion from the time. However, they often tend to present a particular point of view on an issue and are not always balanced in their approach. For this reason, it is important that you are able identify examples of **bias** and separate fact from fiction when using them in your research.

Symbols such as the American eagle and the American flag are used to represent the freedom and integrity of the northern states.

Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States (in the North) is shown on the left and Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States (in the South) is shown on the right. Both men are ready to attack each other with swords.

The cartoon is satirising the conflict between the North and the South – the American Civil War. Lincoln wanted to end slavery but the South believed the end of slavery would destroy their cotton industry.



The cotton bale is shown in the centre of the cartoon to represent the importance of the cotton industry.

An African American slave is dancing on the Confederate flag and making fun of Jefferson Davis suggesting he will be glad to see the end of slavery in the South.

Source HT.21 *Trial by battle*, published by EB & EC Kellogg, Hartford, Ct; and Geo. Whiting, New York, in 1861 or 1862

When analysing political cartoons, follow these steps:

Step 1 Identity the date on which the cartoon was first published, the title of the cartoon (if available), the name of the publication it appeared in, and the name of the artist (if available). If you are unfamiliar with the publication, conduct some research to find out the types of readers it was aimed at.

Step 2 Identify the political event or issue being shown in the cartoon. Look for visual clues to help you work this out.

Step 3 Once you have identified the political issue, try to identify the person or people shown in the cartoon. Look at what they are doing and wearing. Analyse how they are behaving or interacting with other people shown. Are they wearing unusual clothing, posing in a certain way or shown with particular facial expressions?

Step 4 Examine any other visual clues or devices that the cartoon uses to convey its message. What symbols does it use? Are these important and do they evoke a personal or emotional response for the reader? How are the characters represented? Source HT.21 has been done as an example.

Apply the skill

1 Follow the steps outlined above to analyse Source HT.22.

2 Note: Often there may be certain aspects of political cartoons that you do not fully understand. You may not be familiar with all of these issues presented or they may not be clearly explained in the cartoon. This shouldn't stop you from analysing those aspects of the cartoon that you are familiar with.



Source HT.22 *Doctor Lincoln's new elixir of life – for the southern states*

Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of sources

A useful source, whether primary or secondary, is one that will add to your understanding of a historical inquiry. The source needs to be relevant to your investigation and must also be reliable. The conclusions you draw about the sources you have found will determine their usefulness. In many cases, this means separating fact from opinion. A fact is something that can be proved: when an event took place, what happened and who was involved. An opinion is based on what a person, or persons, may believe to be true. A simple way to detect whether a statement is fact or opinion is to look closely at the language used. The use of words such as 'might', 'could', 'believe', 'think' and 'suggests' all indicate that an opinion is being expressed. For example:

- Fact: Slavery was abolished in 1865 by the Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution.
- Opinion: African slaves were better off working on plantations because they were unable to take care of themselves.

The following questions will help you determine the reliability and usefulness of a source:

- Does it provide factual information or opinion?
- Does it provide information that is supported and reinforced by evidence from other sources?
- Does it provide enough information and sufficient detail to help me answer the inquiry question?
- Is it balanced or does it present one point of view (in other words, is it biased)?

Check your learning HT.4

Remember and understand

1 Which of the following is an example of a primary source?
   a a photograph of slave shackles from the collection at the Museum of Central Africa, Brussels
   b the mini-series Roots released in 1977 and based on a novel by Alex Hailey
   Give a reason for your answer.
2 Provide two reasons why graphic organisers are useful tools when processing and synthesising information from a range of different sources.

Apply and analyse

3 Give two reasons why it is important to know the origin and purpose of every source used in a historical inquiry.
4 What words indicate that a writer is expressing an opinion rather than a fact?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct an online search to locate other graphic organisers that may be useful to help you process and synthesise information from a range of sources as evidence. Some graphic organisers of use to you may include KWL charts, fishbone diagrams and PMI charts. Once you have examined other types of graphic organisers, make a decision about which ones you think are most useful to you.



Source HT.23 This photograph from the 1860s shows the scars on a slave's back after a series of floggings. It provides evidence of the brutality some slaves faced without the need for words.



Perspectives and interpretations

Identify and analyse perspectives and interpretations from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect many different perspectives, interpretations and values from the past. These may include personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view. For example, an extract from the autobiography of Olaudah Equiano, presents a very personal account of his journey on a slave ship after being captured and sold as a slave in Benin (a former French colony in West Africa):

Source HT.24

> I was soon put down under the decks, and there I received such a greeting in my nostrils as I had never experienced in my life; so that, with the loathsomeness of the stench, and crying altogether, I became so sick and low that I was not able to eat, nor had I the least desire to taste anything. I now wished for the last friend, death, to relieve me … the air soon became unfit for respiration, from a variety of loathsome smells, and brought on a sickness among the slaves, of which many died. The wretched situation was again aggravated by the chains, now unsupportable, and the filth of the necessary tubs, into which the children often fell, and were almost suffocated. The shrieks of the women, and the groans of the dying, rendered the whole a scene of horror almost inconceivable.
>
> *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, or Gustavus Vassa, the African* (1789)

This account is one of many that can help you to gain a more thorough understanding of the experiences of slaves at the hands of their captors and the inhumane conditions they faced on board the slave ships.

Source HT.24 comes from a book titled *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, or Gustavus Vassa, the African*, published in 1789. It is a first-hand account of slavery written by an educated slave who had managed to buy his freedom. His book helped raise support for the **abolitionist** cause in Britain and America. Its purpose was both personal and political.

Many other sources provide evidence on different aspects slavery; from the perspectives of former slaves, slave owners, abolitionists and social observers at the time.

It is only when we consider a range of different perspectives revealed through all of the available sources that we can begin to form a realistic picture of slavery and how it was regarded during the 19th century.

Explanation and communication

Develop texts, particularly descriptions and explanations that use evidence from a range of sources that are referenced

Historical writing requires you to describe and explain events using evidence from a range of sources. You will often be required to outline the significance of a past event while providing reasons for the event and referring to relevant evidence. As you have learned, different types of sources need to be used to ensure that historical writing presents a balanced view and is supported by reliable evidence.

The two most common and useful text types you will be expected to use this year are descriptions and explanations.

Writing descriptions

The purpose of descriptions is to give clear information about people, places or objects at particular moments in time. They focus on the main characteristics or features of particular people or things. They 'paint a picture' in words for readers to increase their understanding.

Descriptions must be well planned. Use the structure in Source HT.25 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Descriptions must always follow a set structure, and events must be organised in chronological order.

Source HT.25

Structure of a description	
Introduction	Introduces the subject. States the name of the person or event. Outlines why the topic is important.
Body	Provides details about the person or event (including dates and important facts). Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. Quotations and descriptive words should be used where relevant.
Conclusion (optional)	Revisits the most important details and provides a concluding statement.

Writing explanations

The purpose of explanations is to tell how or why something happened. They provide the reader with a greater understanding of the causes and effects of past events. Use the structure in Source HT.26 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Explanations must be clear and factual. They should not contain opinions or emotional language. There must be supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made. These sources must be acknowledged in a bibliography using the correct referencing format.

All historical writing needs to be acknowledged. At the end of your writing you must always include a full reference list or bibliography. This list shows your readers the range of different sources of evidence you used and where they can be found. For detailed information on this refer to the skill 'Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods', which was covered earlier.

Source HT.26

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	Clearly states the main idea or aim. Briefly outlines the reason/s why an event occurred and its effect/s.
Body	Each idea must be supported by evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance or importance. Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. Language should be precise and not contain emotional words. Personal opinions (e.g. 'I' or 'my') should be avoided.
Conclusion (optional)	Provides a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body. States a conclusion drawn from the evidence.

Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies

The final stage of any historical inquiry is the presentation of your findings. This is one of the most important aspects of your inquiry because it draws together all of the sources, evidence and findings of your investigation.

There are a number of ways to effectively and impressively communicate your findings. For example:

- oral – speeches, class presentations, re-enactments, interviews and role plays
- graphic – posters, cartoons, graphic organisers and models
- written – descriptions, explanations, class newspapers, scripts, letters and diaries
- digital – audiovisual presentations, websites, films, blogs, wikis and apps.

All of these communication forms can add colour and life to the presentation of historical information.

skill**drill**

Creating an audiovisual presentation

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation there are several steps to follow.

Step 1 Gather your research Make sure that you have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images and/or photographs. If you have been working in a group, this may involve collating your research with other members of your class.

Step 2 Plan and create your presentation Once you have gathered your research, you will need to decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi. Alternatively, you may like to create a website or short film to show to the class. How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher. It is important to check these before your presentation so that you can ensure you are meeting all criteria.

Step 3 Deliver your presentation Regardless of the format you have chosen, there are some things to keep in mind:

- Practice makes perfect – rehearse your presentation before coming to class, especially if you are working in a group. Make sure each member of the group knows exactly what they have to do.
- Prepare for the worst – make a backup copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as data loss.
- Engage the audience – make eye contact, do not read from your notes and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make sure your text and layout is as visually appealing as possible.
- Check for errors – make sure any audio and visual material is correct and contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly – focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish strongly – your presentation should end on a high note!

Check your learning HT.5

Remember and understand

1 Historical sources always reflect the perspective of their writer. Give two examples of factors that may influence a writer's point of view or perspective.

2 What is the purpose of a description? How is this different from the purpose of an explanation?

3 List three key pieces of information about the living conditions a slave might experience as presented in Source HT.24, *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, or Gustavus Vassa, the African (1789)*. How would an account from the perspective of a slave owner differ?

Apply and analyse

4 Your teacher has asked you to provide a written report on the significance of slaves to plantation farming in the southern states of America during the 19th century. Would it be more appropriate to write a description or an explanation? Explain your choice.

5 Source HT.24 is a primary written source taken from *The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano, or Gustavus Vassa, the African.* It was written in 1789 by a former slave.

a Do you think this piece of writing presents a balanced and reliable description of slavery? Why/why not?

Evaluate and create

6 Imagine that all members of your class have been asked to present an audiovisual presentation on slavery in America during the 19th century focusing on short- and long-term consequences for slaves and slave owners. Your teacher has asked each member of the audience to create a peer evaluation form that can be used to assess each presentation. Create five assessment criteria to be included on the form that can be used to assess the most important aspects of each presentation. Present your five assessment criteria in order of importance.

HT.3 Careers in history

There are a wide range of jobs and careers linked to the study of history. Because many aspects of society, culture and technology change so quickly these days, the need to preserve stories and artefacts from the past has become more important than ever. An appreciation of events from the past can help members of a community or citizens of a nation avoid repeating costly mistakes (such as wars) and make better plans for the future.

Today, many employers recognise that historical research and analysis skills are essential for a wide range of careers. As a result, these skills are in demand and there are many jobs and career paths linked to your study of history at school. Some jobs relate to the study and protection of our heritage, while others involve working out in the community. A selection of these jobs is listed in Source HT.27.

Studying and protecting our heritage

Many historians are involved in collecting, conserving and restoring important artefacts and records from the past. Historians are also involved in selecting and protecting significant objects and records from the present day so they can be studied by future generations. These collections are kept in museums, art galleries, government buildings and not-for-profit organisations. They can be accessed and used by anyone interested in finding out more about the past. Historians work in a wide range of fields. There are curators who look after precious collections, exhibition designers who help to present artefacts to the public and education officers who organise talks and presentations for the public, especially school students. A new and growing career path for historians involves studying, photographing and cataloging rare and important artefacts and physical collections so that they can be displayed online. Online collections allow people all around the world to access important historical sources from the past.

Source HT.27 Studying history can lead to many interesting and exciting career paths.

Studying and protecting our heritage	Working out and about	Related opportunities
Museum curator	Archaeologist	Writer
Art gallery manager	Tour guide	Information manager
Oral historian	Film and TV consultant/Location scout	Lawyer
Archivist	Building restoration	Publisher
Conservator	Heritage officer	History teacher
Exhibition designer	Documentary film maker	Film and TV production assistant
Genealogist	Urban planner	Records management
Museum education officer	Surveyor	Foreign affairs

Career profile: Michelle Stevenson – Coordinator of Humanities Collection Online

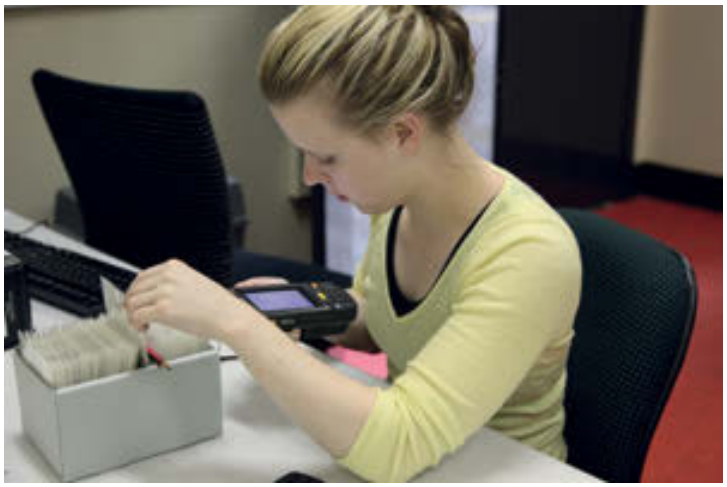
Michelle Stevenson works for Museum Victoria on the development and implementation of digital projects using objects from Museum Victoria's large collections. Museum Victoria's collections cover everything from Indigenous Australian history to Antarctic exploration to film and television in Victoria. Because of this, a strong and broad knowledge of Australian history is essential. Michelle has worked on a range of projects, including:

- creating digital labels for exhibitions in the museum's galleries
- working with developers to create historic walking tour apps
- project managing the creation of virtual exhibitions to be viewed online.

Michelle creates some of this content herself and relies on all her historical skills when she is researching and writing about different collections and objects. Depending on the project, this can include using books and journal articles, archival materials, other collection materials and conducting interviews. Michelle believes history is all about stories. She loves uncovering the hidden stories behind objects from the past and sharing them with other people.

Michelle's other passion is alpine skiing. She has found a clever way to combine her love of history with her love of the sport. She is currently completing a PhD in the history, development and significance of skiing in Australia and in her free time is curator of the National Alpine Museum of Australia, a small community museum which explores stories of Australian alpine life and winter sport.





Source HT.28 Michelle Stevenson helps share Museum Victoria's collections with new audiences online.

Working out and about

Not all career paths in history mean you will be working inside. Studying history also provides many opportunities for people who prefer to travel or spend their time outdoors. Urban planners help to plan the development of towns, cities and buildings in Australia and all around the world. They work with councils to decide on appropriate uses for land. They need to have an understanding and appreciation of heritage issues in cities and recommend new developments that blend in with older buildings. Specialist planners are known as heritage officers. They look at the conservation value of older areas and buildings, deciding what should be kept or restored. Before any big, new development happens, archaeologists may also be called in to work with heritage officers and explore the area for evidence of past use. Old urban areas can be a treasure trove of objects from the past – old pots, coins, bottles and even bones can be important objects from our past that need to be protected.

Related opportunities

Bill Gates, the founder of Microsoft and one of the richest men in the world, has often employed history graduates. Gates commented that he prefers history graduates because of the way they learn to think about the world and because they are able to consider many different aspects of an issue at once. History graduates are also sought after in fields such as law, politics and foreign affairs. History not only teaches us to understand more about societies and cultures around the world today but also how to locate, evaluate and analyse information. Most importantly, a study of history teaches us to test assumptions and support statements and hypotheses with evidence. The ability to sift through large amounts of information and work out what is important in the detail is essential in professions such as law and politics.

Check your learning HT.6

Remember and understand

1 What reasons does Michelle Stevenson give for her love of history?

2 What sort of projects is Michelle Stevenson involved with at Museum Victoria?

Apply and analyse

3 What skills do history graduates have that make them sought after in areas such as law and foreign affairs?

4 Why do you think it is important for an urban planner to have an understanding of history?

Evaluate and create

5 Create a design brief for a historical walking app of your school's local area.

- a What landmarks would you include?
- b How would you present information in an interesting visual format?
- c Write the guide's commentary for the app.

What factors shaped the world from 1750 to 1918?

The years from 1750 to 1918 are some of the most interesting and significant in human history. During the period, enormous changes took place that affected the way in which people all around the world lived, worked and thought. It was a period of **empire** building that saw the **colonisation** of new territories such as Australia. It was also a period of rapid **industrialisation** that saw the spread of new technologies and birth of many new ideas and social movements. Towards the end of the period, in 1914, World War I broke out. By the war's end in 1918, the world was different. Once powerful empires were broken up and new nations were created in their place.

What is the modern world?

Most historians agree that the modern world (also known as the industrial world) developed from the 1750s onwards. They use the term 'modern world' to describe this period mainly because the developments that took place from this time onwards are familiar to people in Western societies today – for example, systems of law and government still followed in countries like Australia, Britain and the United States all took shape at this time. Other examples include:

- the mass production of goods in factories
- the mass movements of people to cities and towns
- the establishment of trade unions and workers' rights
- mass migration of people from across Europe to colonies in the **New World**
- the start of rapid transport and mass communication
- organised public education and schools.

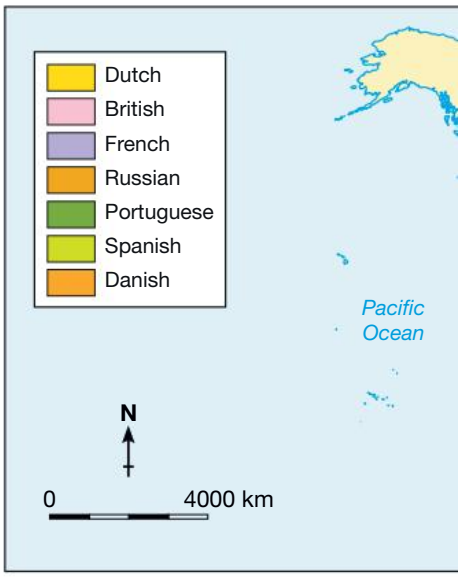
The expansion of European empires

From the late 16th century onwards, major European powers – such as Britain, France, Spain and Portugal – all competed to increase their control of new territories across the globe – a practice known as **imperialism**. Colonies were valued not only for the additional power and military advantages they could provide, but also because they delivered access to a range of raw materials like timber, cotton, coal and gold. These materials became the driving force behind the development of a range of industries in Europe. They also made imperial powers extremely wealthy.

Raw materials from **colonies** across the British Empire fuelled the **Industrial Revolution**. These materials included wool and gold from Australia; cotton, sugar and tobacco from the Americas; gold and diamonds from Africa; and spices, fabric and tea from India.

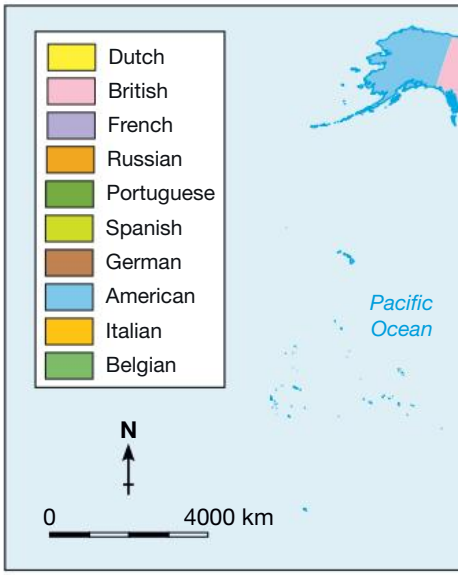
In addition to raw materials, the overseas colonies became valuable markets in which to sell the products manufactured from those raw materials for a profit (e.g. cloth made from cotton and cigarettes made from tobacco). In this way, European empires profited not once, but twice from their colonies around the world.

WORLD: COLONIAL EMPIRES IN 1750



Source O.1

WORLD: 2 COLONIAL EMPIRES IN 1900



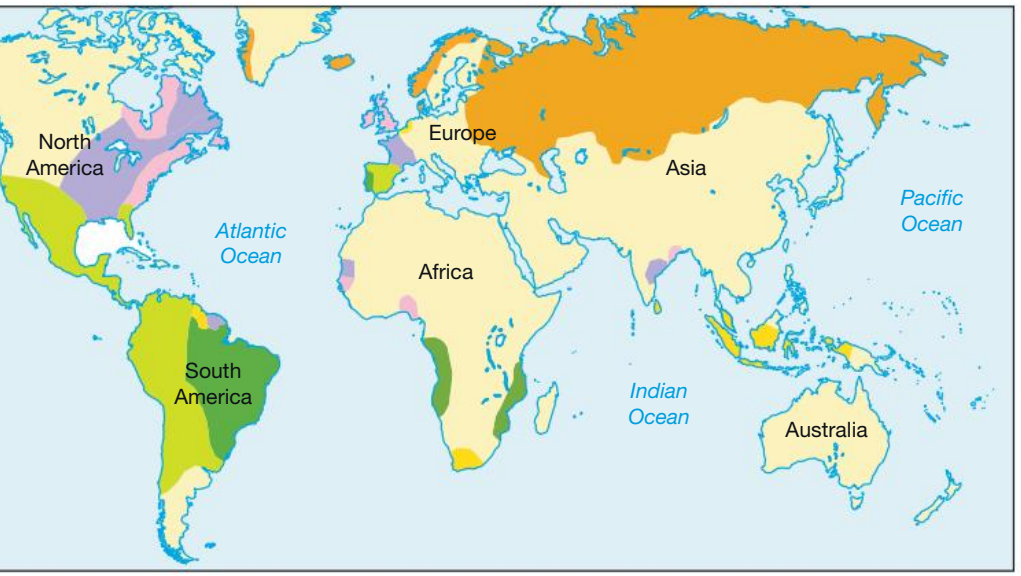
Source O.2

overview 1

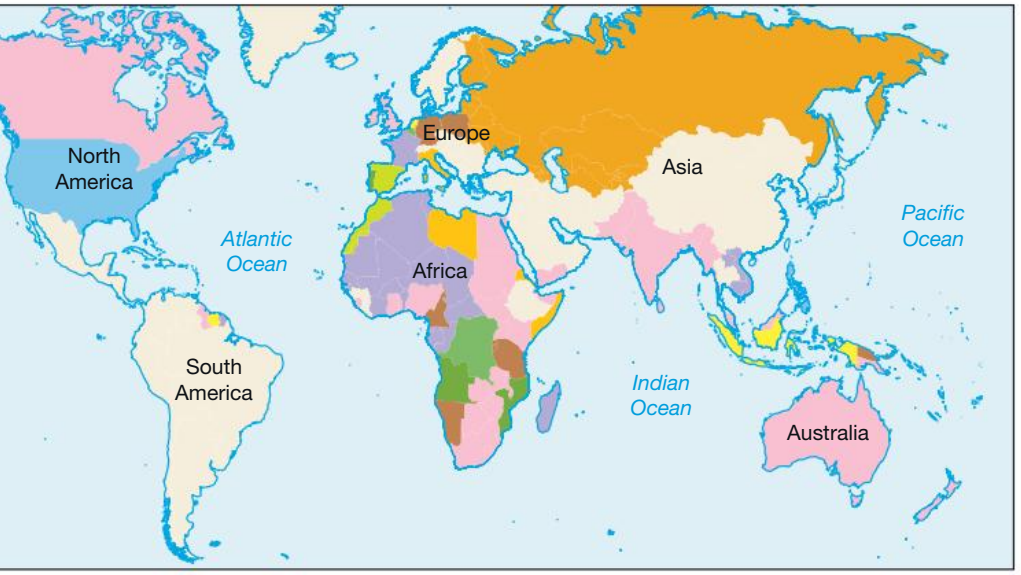
A comparison of world maps in 1750 and 1900 reveals how quickly European empires expanded their territories over a period of 150 years (see Sources O.1 and O.2).

Newly formed countries such as Italy and Germany aggressively looked for colonies at the end of the 19th century so that they could compete with the major powers in Europe such as Britain and France. This rivalry over colonies around the world was one of the key factors that contributed to the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

At the end of World War I in 1918, the British Empire reached its peak. By that time, it controlled approximately a quarter of the world's population and land mass. Many of these colonies were vital during World War I, as they provided local support and supplies for the British war effort.



Source: Oxford University Press



Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning O.1

Remember and understand

1 What is meant by the term 'modern world'? When do most historians agree it began?

2 Why were distant colonies such important assets to European powers during the 19th century? In what ways did imperial powers profit from them?

3 What percentage of the world's total population and land mass did Britain control by 1918?

Apply and analyse

4 Examine Sources O.1 and O.2.

a List the three European powers that controlled the most overseas colonies in 1750.

b List the three European powers that controlled the most overseas colonies in 1900.

c What changes in European empires and territories took place between 1750 and 1900?

Making a better world?

How did technological developments contribute to change from 1750 to 1918?

Depth study 1
Making a better world?

This depth study offers the choice of three options:

- The Industrial Revolution
- Progressive ideas and movements
- Movement of peoples.

You are required to choose ONE of these options and learn in detail about particular aspects of it.

In *Depth Study 1 – Making a better world?* you have the opportunity to learn about a number of key events and changes that took place between 1750 and 1918. These include:

- the **Industrial Revolution** (1750–1914)
- progressive ideas and movements (1750–1918)
- the movement of peoples (1750–1901).

The Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution first began in Britain around 1750 after a series of changes in farming practices paved the way for the country to increase its population and improve its production and manufacturing methods. These changes in farming methods – now referred to as the **Agricultural Revolution** – were gradual. They began in the middle of the 17th century and continued through the 19th century. Without them, the Industrial Revolution would not have taken place. One of the main features of the Agricultural Revolution was the fencing off of thousands of small areas of common land that had previously been used by local farmers to grow food. These smaller areas



Source O.3 Textiles industry: The Spinning Jenny, invented in 1764



Source O.4 Manufacturing industry: The steam hammer, invented in 1840

of land were joined to create larger farming areas. This process, known as the **enclosures**, benefited wealthy people who were granted rights to farm these larger areas of land for profit. The enclosures, together with innovations in farming machinery and animal breeding, meant that more crops could be grown and animals could be raised by far fewer people. Overall, farming became much more efficient but this took place at the expense of poor people who relied on common land for their daily needs.

During the Agricultural Revolution, farm workers and their families were forced from their homes, and people moved away from rural villages to towns and cities in search of work. They became a new class of workers that fuelled the spread of the Industrial Revolution. They provided a much-needed labour force to operate the new factories and mills in rapidly expanding cities.

Key inventions and innovations of the Industrial Revolution

The first industries that were transformed by innovations in the Industrial Revolution were related to the production of iron, coal, cotton and wool. Inventions and new practices in one industry tended to affect others. For example, the development of coal-powered steam engines led to an increased demand for coal. The expansion of new and deeper coal mines required better steam engines for the pumping machines that removed water from the bottom of mines. Improved steam engines could power hundreds of spinning and weaving machines and led to the spread of large factories and mills across England. As steam engines developed, they also powered new modes of transport, including steam-powered trains and ships, and were later used to generate electricity.

Living and working conditions

Working conditions for British factory and mine workers in particular were harsh and demanding during the Industrial Revolution. Men, women and children worked in unsafe conditions and for many hours – six days a week and up to 16 hours a day. Through the 19th century, demand for reforms to regulate working conditions grew louder in Britain, particularly for child labour. This led to a series of government inquiries and legislation that regulated the minimum employment age, wages and the length of the working week. By the 1870s, for example, no child under 10 could be employed in factories and education for children under 10 was compulsory.

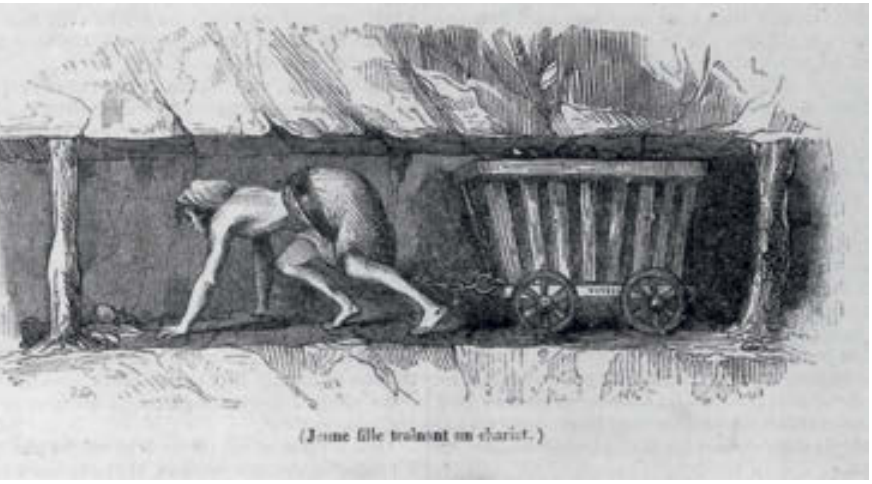
Living conditions for factory workers were also appalling. Many workers lived in slum areas close to the factories where they were employed (see Source O.8). Families had no choice but to live in overcrowded conditions, often with no access to fresh water or proper sewerage. Consequences of these unhygienic living conditions included regular outbreaks of disease, a low life expectancy (just 29 years, in Liverpool in 1865) and a high infant mortality rate.



Source O.5 Transport industry: The steam train, invented in 1801



Source O.6 Communications industry: The telephone, first patented in 1876



Source O.7 This illustration shows a girl employed as a 'hurrier' at a coal mine. Her job was to pull heavy coal carts along dark, narrow tunnels, using a harness and belt.



Source O.8 People living in a 19th-century London slum. Conditions were often crowded and unsanitary.

Many writers of the time were appalled by the plight of the working poor whose work seemed unrewarding and whose lives were cut short by poverty, disease and injury. This period led to calls for social reform and also saw the formation of workers' groups, such as **trade unions**.

Towards the end of the period, conditions improved for many people. Slums were torn down to be replaced by new houses that provided heating, running water and sewerage systems. There were also a number of other benefits for workers in cities brought about by the Industrial Revolution. For example:

- improvements in farming made food cheaper and more plentiful
- mass produced goods such as clothing and furniture became more affordable
- improved public transport allowed workers to live away from factories in the newly developed suburbs
- street lighting transformed city life, encouraging people to enjoy entertainment at theatres and in music halls at night.

Long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution in Britain

The Industrial Revolution had significant impacts for Britain and its people. It transformed Britain's economy, which became (for a time) the world's leading economic and industrial power. Britain's population quadrupled from an estimated 6.5 million people in 1750 to more than 27.5 million in 1850 as living standards improved and death rates decreased.

Britain changed from an agricultural society to an urban society, with most people living in towns and cities where work could be found. In the growing towns and cities, a 'middle class' emerged: people who were neither landowners nor workers, such as bankers, shopkeepers, teachers and administrators. Suburbs surrounding the cities later developed.

Check your learning O.2

Remember and understand

1 Why was steam power so important to the Industrial Revolution?
2 Name the four industries that underwent great change during the Industrial Revolution.
3 What were the enclosures? What effect did they have on farmers using common land to grow food?

Apply and analyse

4 In a class discussion, share your knowledge of working conditions for children during the Industrial Revolution. How do they compare with working conditions around the world today?

Evaluate and create

5 Conduct some additional research and write a 250-word description of what life in a typical city in Britain would have been like for a factory worker during the Industrial Revolution.

How did new ideas contribute to change from 1750 to 1918?

Progressive ideas and movements

In most nations across Western Europe, the religious teachings of the Catholic Church had formed the foundation of law, government and daily life since medieval times. However, from around 1650 new ideas and theories began to emerge that challenged these views. This period became known as the **Enlightenment** – a time when thinkers questioned existing ideas about science, religion, education, government, the economy, and the ways in which societies should be organised.

At different times over the period, a number of theories, ideas and social movements developed that proposed new ways of looking at the world and organising aspects of society. From the 1750s onwards, three significant historical events resulted in a number of these ideas and movements becoming extremely popular. These events included:

- the **Industrial Revolution** (1750–1914)
- the **American War of Independence** (1775–1783)
- the **French Revolution** (1789–1799).

In many ways, these revolutionary events and particular progressive ideas are interconnected and supported each other. However, the **cause and effect** between the ideas and these events is not always clear for historians. In some cases, progressive ideas and movements contributed to these events. In other cases, these events led to the rise of new ideas and movements. What is clear is that in their own way, each of these progressive ideas and movements challenged many long-held traditions and rules for organising societies.

The most significant of these included **capitalism**, **socialism**, **egalitarianism**, **nationalism**, **imperialism**, **Darwinism**, and **Chartism**. Each one is briefly outlined here.

Capitalism

Capitalism is an economic system that relies on private ownership of industry and the means of production (for example, factories and machinery used to make products). As a result of the Industrial Revolution, the way goods were manufactured changed. Over time, private **entrepreneurs** and **industrialists** started to invest in new enterprises and industries – rather than governments. This meant that they took on more of the financial risks, but also made more profits if they were successful.

Capitalism was built on the idea that kings and government ministers should not have to control trade or business. Instead, **competition** between producers together with the laws of **supply and demand** in a 'free market' would result in the best outcomes for all. During the early years of the Industrial Revolution however, unregulated capitalism resulted in poor conditions for many factory workers (see Source O.9).



Source O.9 Under capitalism, the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are owned by individuals and corporations and run to generate profits. During the early days of capitalism, this resulted in very poor working conditions and low wages for factory workers.

Socialism

Socialism is a political and economic system that emerged during the Industrial Revolution as a direct result of what some saw as the negative impacts of capitalism. Unlike capitalism, socialism is an economic system under which the government (referred to as 'the state') plays a crucial role in the allocation of resources and the distribution of wealth. Under socialism, the means of production is owned collectively by the people and administered by the state. The state manages all production and manufacturing and is responsible for distributing the profits equally among the population. In the mid-19th century, Friedrich Engels and Karl Marx developed socialism as a way to counteract the unregulated capitalism that was exploiting many powerless and poorly-paid factory and mill workers at that time.



Source O.10 The biggest socialist revolution to happen during this time was the Russian Revolution in 1917. Lenin, the leader of the Russian Revolution, is shown here addressing the workers.

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is the idea of equality among people. The word comes from the French *égal*, meaning 'equal'. Egalitarians consider all people to have equal social status or worth as human beings and argue that they should be offered the same opportunities to succeed in society regardless of wealth or background. In 1783, at the end of the American War of Independence, the founding fathers of the United States wrote a Declaration of Independence based on the principles of egalitarianism. The United States of America had previously been ruled by the British, under the assumption that kings had a divine right to rule and were superior to the rest of the population. The Declaration of Independence rejected the divine right of kings in favour of an egalitarian society where 'all men are created equal' and had rights. At the time, however, these rights did not extend to African slaves or women.

When the French Revolution, started in 1789, championed 'liberty, equality and fraternity', it was also popularising the concept of egalitarianism. As a political philosophy, egalitarianism also helped to justify demands made by the working-class in the late 1800s and early 1900s for the vote and direct political representation.

Nationalism

In simple terms, **nationalism** is a strong identification with a nation or a particular national identity. Up until the 18th century, people in Europe usually only identified with the local ruler or other people in their local village or area. The concept of a nation as we think of it today did not really exist.



Source O.11 Uprisings across Europe in 1848 broke out in support of nationalist ideas and political representation for workers. This engraving shows the February Revolution of that year in France, when an uprising of students, workers and National Guard tried to force the abdication of the king and proclaim the Second Republic.

During the American Revolution in 1775 and French Revolution in 1789, theories about the rights of the people began to emerge and nationalism gained popularity. Many theories argued that a country should be defined by its people, belong to its people and be governed by its people, rather than a king, queen or ruler. As the United States and France re-emerged from war as strong and independent nations, people there united and the concept of nationalism spread even further. As a result of these events, people began to strongly identify themselves as united and loyal to a particular country or state, rather than to a local area, a religion or a particular **monarch**.

During the 19th century, as once-powerful empires around the world began to break apart, and the colonies and territories they had ruled began fighting for independence, the concept of nationalism spread further. European peoples started seeing themselves as members of independent nations rather than members of united empires. For example:

- In 1829, Greece freed itself from the Ottoman Empire.
- In 1831, Belgium won its independence from the Dutch.
- In 1848, revolutions broke out across Europe as different nations started demanding the right to exist independently. None of the 1848 revolutions were successful, but by 1871 both Italy and Germany had emerged as unified nations.
- From the 1880s, Irish nationalists demanded self-government or independence from Great Britain.
- By 1914, nationalists protesting in the Balkans would be a key contributor to the outbreak of World War I.

Imperialism

In basic terms, **imperialism** is the control of countries or territories by foreign powers. From the 18th century to the early 20th century, European powers sought to take control of territories all over the world. They exercised economic, political and cultural control over these colonies and the Indigenous populations living there. Great Britain, Spain, France, Portugal, the Netherlands, Austria–Hungary and the Ottomans all ruled over vast empires. In the late 1800s, newly formed nations such as Italy and Germany were aggressive in acquiring new colonies around the world. They felt they had been left behind in the 19th-century race for colonies.

Darwinism

Darwinism is the theory of evolution brought to prominence by the publication of a book by Charles Darwin called *On the Origin of Species* in 1859. Darwin's scientific theories challenged literal interpretations of the Bible about the creation and development of plants and animals on Earth. His research presented scientific proof that species had descended over time from common ancestors and evolved to look and behave in certain ways based on their environments. Darwin argued that certain



Source O.12 *A friendly power in Egypt*, painted by WC Horsley, shows the 41st Welsh regiment marching into Cairo, Egypt, in 1887. Public ceremonies such as this demonstrated the power and authority of the British in Egypt.

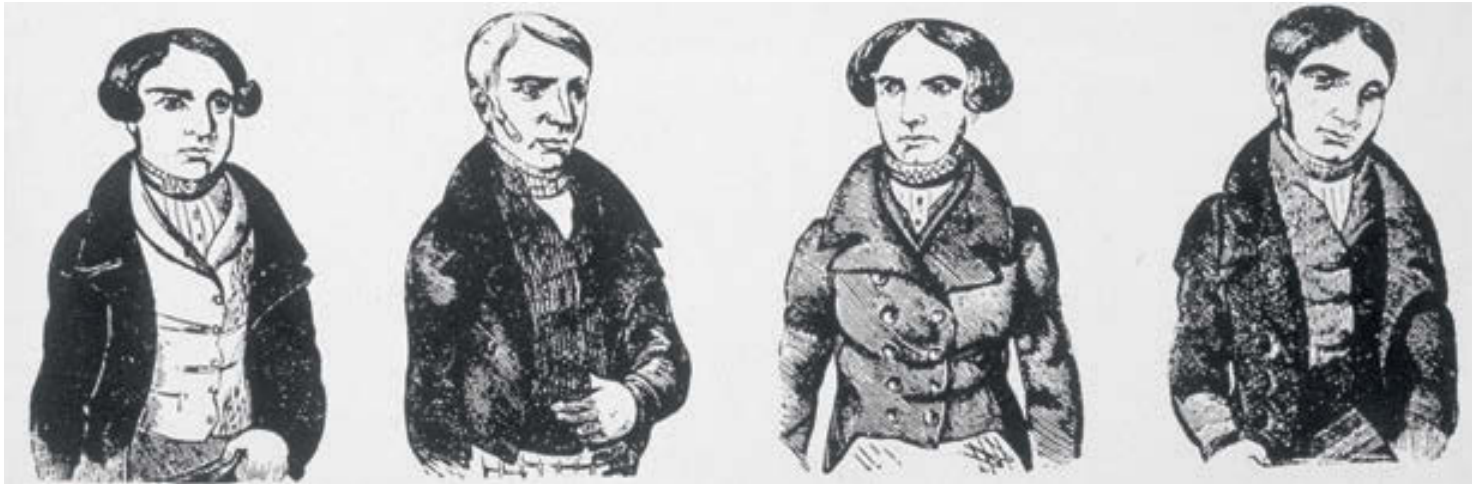
genetic traits became more or less common in a population based on how successful members of the population were at passing on their genes through breeding. He named this process 'natural selection'. This theory challenged the widely-held belief in Christian countries that all animals and plants were the work of a divine creator, God.

Shortly after the publication of his book, Darwin's biological theories about natural selection started being applied to everyday social situations and used to explain differences in power and authority among groups within human societies. These theories by people such as Herbert Spencer and Thomas Malthus became known as **social Darwinism**. The general principle behind social Darwinism was known as 'survival of the fittest'. It maintained that the strong in society should see their wealth and authority increase while the weak should see their wealth and authority decrease. In the late 1800s and early 1900s, social Darwinism was used to justify European imperialism, political conservatism, racism towards Indigenous peoples throughout the world, and the submission of lower classes of people. Social Darwinism has now largely been discredited.

Chartism

As industrialisation came to dominate British society, workers started to form groups known as trade unions. Trade unions were designed to protect workers from unsafe working conditions and lobby for basic rights in the workplace such as fair pay and working hours.

In 1838, a group of trade unionists also started to demand a range of additional rights for members of the working class. The members of this group proposed the Peoples' Charter of 1838, a document calling for six basic reforms designed to make the political system in England more democratic. The primary goal of the charter was to give all men the vote and stop the wealthy from dominating political decision-making. At this time, the right to vote was only offered to men over 21 years who owned property and membership of the parliament was limited to wealthy landowners. Because of the charter, the movement became known as **Chartism** and its members became known as Chartists.



Source O.13 Four of the six 'Tolpuddle Martyrs', early trade unionists in Britain who were sentenced to seven years' transportation to New South Wales. They became popular heroes, and were pardoned and returned to England after serving two years of their sentence.

Check your learning O.3

Remember and understand

1 What is the key difference between capitalism and socialism?
2 Describe the term imperialism in your own words.
3 What was the primary goal of the Chartists?

Apply and analyse

4 What is nationalism? What events in the late 1700s led to a rise in nationalism around the world?
5 Conduct some additional research to learn more about the governments of the United States or France after the revolutions there.
   a In what ways did the actions of the new government reflect the ideals of egalitarianism?
   b Are there any ways in which the new government failed to uphold the ideals of egalitarianism?

What were the changing features of the movement of peoples from 1750 to 1901?

Movement of peoples

The period from 1750 to 1901 saw a huge increase in the world population, with the number of people more than doubling from 790 million to 1.65 billion. Over the same period there was an enormous increase in the numbers of people moving around the world. For the most part, these movements were directly linked to the Industrial Revolution and the expansion of European powers into new territories.

There were three main groups of people moving round the world over this period. Some were forced to move, while others moved voluntary. They included:

- **slaves** – the practice of forcibly capturing and enslaving people in Africa and transporting them to the Americas as a source of free labour
- **convicts** – the transportation of convicted prisoners to distant colonies by Britain and other European countries
- **free settlers** – events such as the gold rushes in the Americas and Australia enticed free settlers to travel around the world in search of better opportunities and wealth.



Source O.14 *The immigrants' ship*, 1884, by John Charles Dollman, showing a group of free settlers (including a young family) migrating to a new country to find a better future.

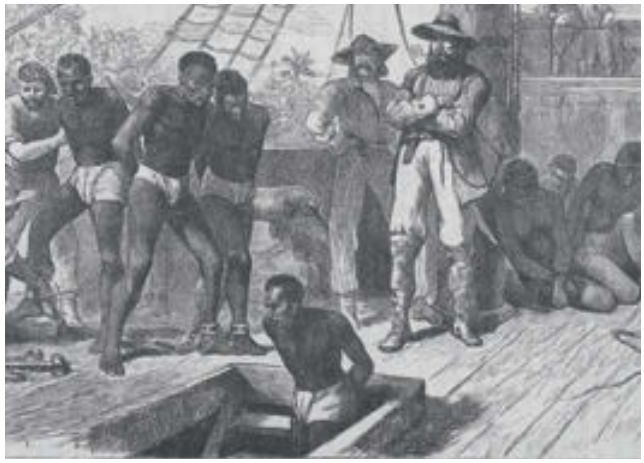
As a consequence of these movements of people, North America's population rose from 0.3 per cent of the world's population in 1750 to 5 per cent in 1900. The population in the Pacific region grew from 2 million to 6 million over the same period as Britain's colonies in Australia and New Zealand grew and prospered.

Forced transportation of slaves

Slavery has been a part of almost every human civilisation since ancient times. In many different societies around the world, including Africa, rival groups and enemies captured in battle were kept as slaves. As European empires expanded into Africa and the Americas, they used their military superiority to take control of the land and all of its resources – including human beings who were counted alongside supplies of gold and tobacco as resources to be bought and sold. By the end of the 17th century, a **triangular trade** was firmly established. The purpose of the slave trade was to provide a labour force in British and European colonies in the Americas that could produce the raw materials needed by the growing numbers of people and factories in Europe. It functioned in the following way:

- Europeans purchased slaves who had been captured in Africa, then transported them by ship to the Americas to be sold as labourers to work on sugar-cane, cotton and tobacco plantations.
- The raw materials from these plantations were then shipped back to Europe to be refined or sold in European markets.
- Some of the goods made from these raw materials (such as rum, textiles and manufactured goods) were then shipped to Africa to be sold in markets there. At this point, new slaves would be loaded and transported to the Americas again, continuing the cycle.

Historians estimate that over 12 million Africans were transported to the slave markets of Europe and the Americas between the 16th and 19th centuries.



Source O.15 An illustration *c.* 1835 shows captured Africans being shackled before being put in a ship's hold for transportation to the Americas.



Source O.16 The faces of three of the 162 000 people sent to Australia as convicts between 1788 and 1868

Forced transportation of convicts

Faced with overcrowded jails, British authorities starting housing convicted prisoners in rotting hulks (ships no longer considered seaworthy) that were kept moored in harbours and ports around England. Soon these hulks became so overcrowded that another solution was needed. This time, English authorities began transporting **convicts** to **penal colonies** on the other side of the world – first in North America and later in Australia.

The **First Fleet** of convict ships to Australia sailed from Portsmouth in England with 751 convicts and around 250 soldiers and their families on board. The ships landed in what became known as Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788. This event marked the European settlement of Australia. In addition to the penal colony at Sydney Cove, the British government established many other convict settlements around Australia, including those in the Port Phillip District (Victoria), Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), Moreton Bay in Queensland and the Swan River Colony (Western Australia). Between 1788 and 1868, when the final shipment of convicts arrived in Western Australia, a total of 162 000 male and female convicts were transported to Australia.

Voluntary migration of free settlers

The brutality associated with the forced movement of slaves and convicts tends to overshadow the stories of the **free settlers**. Throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, large numbers of people left their homelands in search of safety and better opportunities for their families.

The prospect of cheap or free grants of land drew millions of immigrants away from overcrowded cities in Europe to the New World – North America, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. Many left Europe to escape poverty, famine or political upheavals.

The discovery of gold in California in 1848 and Australia in 1851 also brought a new wave of immigrants from Europe and, for the first time, large numbers also travelled from China.

Check your learning O.4

Remember and understand

1. What did the British use as prisons in the 18th and 19th centuries?
2. What were some of the factors that caused people from Europe to move voluntarily to the USA and Australia?
3. How much did the world's population grow between 1750 and 1901?

Evaluate and create

4. Conduct some brief research on the Internet to find out about the treatment of slaves transported from Africa to the Americas during the period. Use the information and sources you find to create a visual diary from the viewpoint of an African slave.
5. Create a poster or graphic organiser that explains the triangular trade between Europe, Africa and the Americas.



Making a better world

depth study 1

depth study – option

The Industrial Revolution

The **Industrial Revolution** was a period of rapid technological change that took place from around 1750 to 1914. It began in Great Britain before quickly spreading to Europe and other parts of the world. Huge developments in farming and manufacturing changed not only the way things were produced and sold, but also how people lived and where they worked. The changes were so significant that they revolutionised many societies.

The RMS *Titanic* was one of the most important achievements of the Industrial Revolution. On 10 April 1912 after more than a century of industrial development, she set out from England on her maiden voyage to New York. The night *Titanic* sank, over 1500 people died. Like the Industrial Revolution itself, the *Titanic* was an immense achievement and a triumph of technology. For many though, it was also a disaster.

5.1

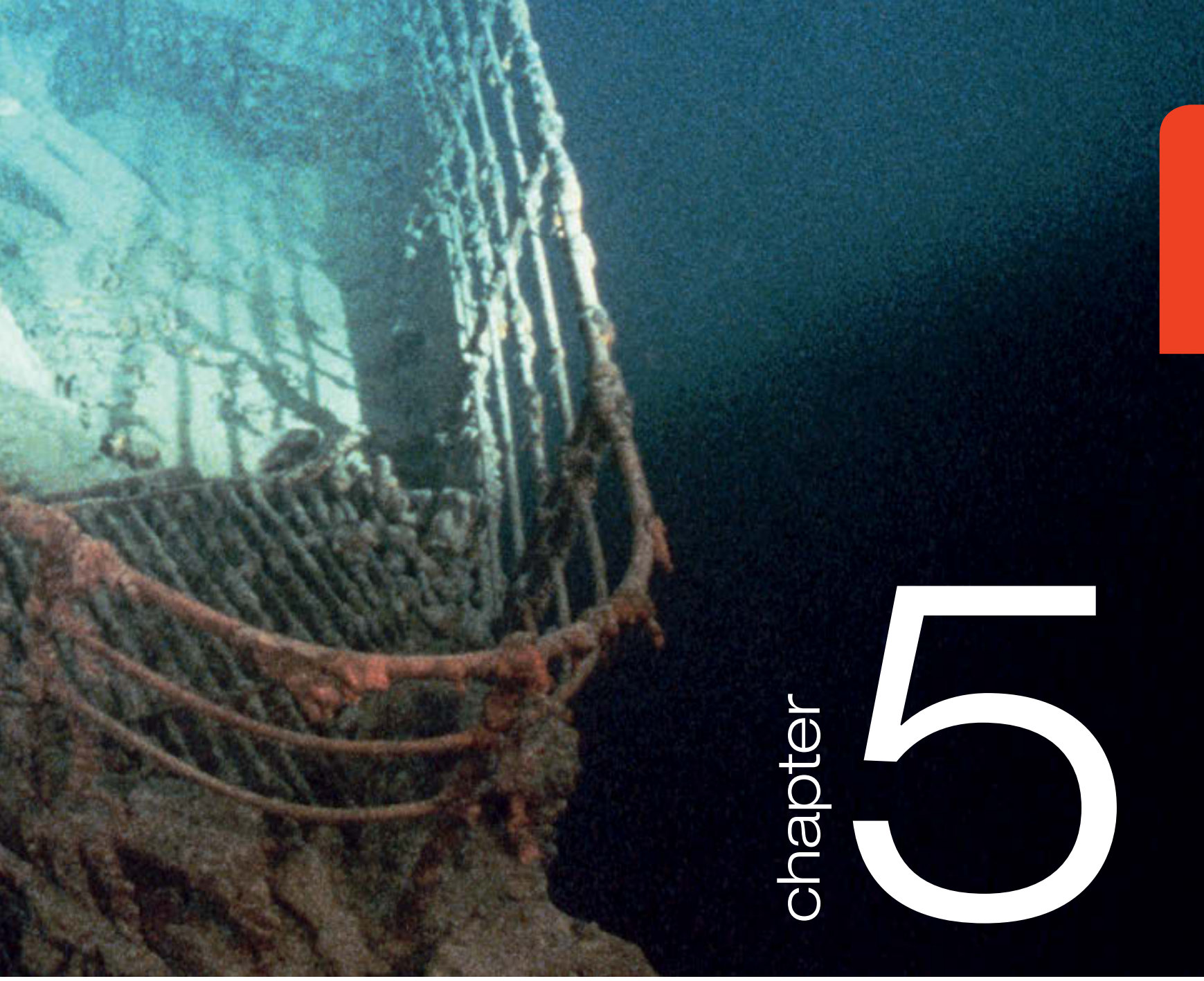
What developments and innovations led to the Industrial Revolution?

1. The Industrial Revolution was brought about by a range of technological, economic and social changes. As a class, brainstorm some examples of each.
2. Do you agree that we are in the middle of a digital revolution?

5.2

How did the Industrial Revolution affect the lives of men, women and children?

1. During this period people gave up farming to find work. How do you think this affected their lives?
2. What do you think living conditions would have been like at the time?



chapter 5

Source 5.1 The RMS *Titanic* as she looks today – resting on the ocean floor almost four kilometres from the surface.

5.3

What were the short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution?

1 Industrialisation had many impacts on society and the environment. In pairs or small groups, brainstorm as many changes as you can that were brought about by the Industrial Revolution – both in the short-term and long-term.

The Industrial Revolution: a timeline



A woman using a spinning jenny

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

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

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

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

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

1775
James Watt creates an efficient steam engine

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

1792
Inventor William Murdoch uses coal gas for house lighting

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

1580 — 1700 — 1750 — 1800



The flying shuttle introduced a more efficient way of weaving



A stocking frame, *c.* 1770

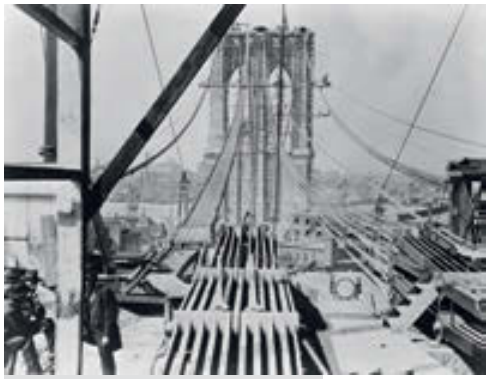
Source 5.2 A timeline of the key events of the Industrial Revolution



Brunel's engineering feat: the Thames tunnel



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



The Brooklyn Bridge under construction, *c*. 1878

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

1821
Michael Faraday demonstrates the principle of an electronic motor

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

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

1850

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

1866
First transatlantic telegraph cable laid

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

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

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

1900

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

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

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

1915

Check your learning 5.1

Remember and understand

1 What was the 'flying shuttle' used for, and when was it invented?
2 When was the first transatlantic telegraph cable laid?

Apply and analyse

3 Using the timeline, calculate how many years there were between when the first steam engine was invented and the first aeroplane flight.

Evaluate and create

4 Conduct some Internet research to find out the dates of some other significant inventions and discoveries that occurred during the Industrial Revolution. Add these events to a new timeline in your notebook.

5.1 What developments and innovations led to the Industrial Revolution?

The Industrial Revolution in Britain

Britain before 1750

Before 1750, Britain was an agricultural society. Around 80 per cent of people at the time lived and worked on small farms in rural areas. Most farms harvested small crops each year and raised small herds of livestock (such as sheep and cattle). Despite the small scale of most English farms, agriculture was still the main economic activity in Britain.

By comparison, manufacturing, mining and trade employed relatively few people in Britain. For the most part, manufacturing was small and localised. Tools used in the manufacture of most goods (such as carts, mills and looms) were basic and powered by people, animals or waterwheels that harnessed the power of fast-flowing rivers and streams.

Towns and villages at the time were small and self-contained. Roads linking villages were poor and most people travelled on foot or by horse. In fact, Britain's road system had not improved much since the fall of the Roman Empire, around 1300 years earlier. As a result, most people rarely travelled far from the places where they lived and worked.



Source 5.3 A 19th-century artist's impression of rural life in Britain before the Industrial Revolution

In most cases, the working day began at sunrise and ended at sunset. People's diets were inadequate and average life expectancy was short. Illness was common because of poor hygiene, bad or non-existent sewage systems, and polluted water supplies.

British society was divided into strict social classes according to wealth and position based on birth. The aristocratic (noble) families made up only one per cent of the population but controlled about 15 per cent of Britain's wealth. Noble gentlemen did not involve themselves in farming, trades or professions. Instead, they invested much of their wealth in land.

There is no single event that marks the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in Britain, but the industries that first experienced it were connected with the production of iron, coal, cotton and wool.

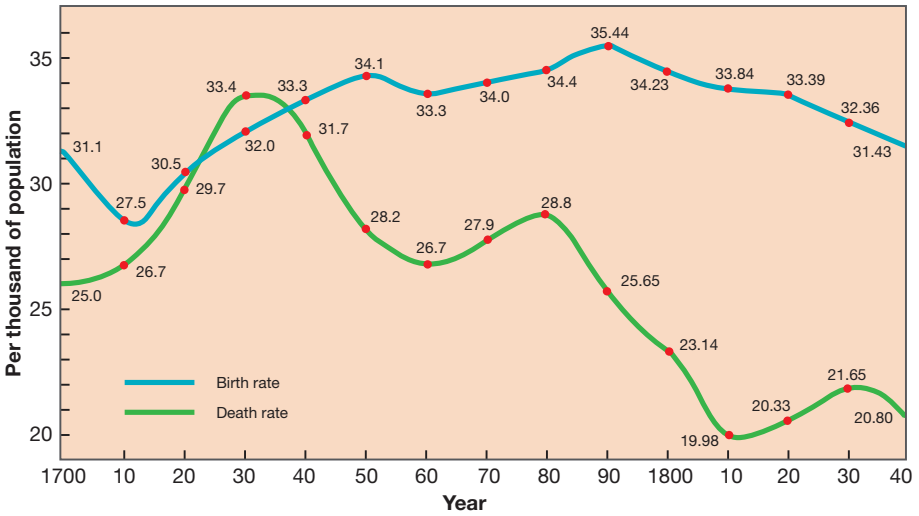
The Industrial Revolution begins

During the Industrial Revolution, Britain's population quadrupled from an estimated 6.5 million people in 1750 to around 32.5 million in 1900. This increase was mainly a result of improved living standards and declining death rates. The population of Britain moved from rural to urban communities, and Britain was transformed through the development of:

- *factories and textile mills* – the Industrial Revolution led to thousands of new factories and mills being built across Britain. These factories relied on large numbers of workers and machinery to manufacture massive quantities of goods in one place. The growth of factories and textile mills transformed Britain's economy and society.
- *modern towns and cities* – great industrial and commercial cities like London and Manchester grew as people moved to towns and cities to work at the new factories, mills and metal foundries. Before the Industrial Revolution, 80 per cent of the population lived in the countryside and only 20 per cent in cities. **Industrialisation** reversed this pattern. By 1850, 80 per cent of people in Britain were living in a major city or town and only 20 per cent remained on the land.

- *new sources of power* – the development of steam power and electricity transformed the manufacturing, agricultural transport and communications industries, having a major impact on people's everyday lives. Supplies of coal became vital to fuel steam engines and, later, electrical power stations.
- *improved transport and communications* – as the population grew, towns became linked by new canals, roads and railway lines. New modes of transport were also invented to replace horse-drawn carriages (see Source 5.5). As travelling conditions improved, people travelled more and lived less isolated lives. Later, new communication technologies like telegraph and telephone systems were also introduced.

The growth of cities and industries also saw the emergence of a new social class that became known as the 'middle class'. This new group of people came from a broad range of backgrounds and were neither wealthy aristocratic landowners nor impoverished factory workers. Instead, they included wealthy industrialists and merchants, as well as bankers, shopkeepers, teachers, doctors, lawyers, and the increasing number of managers, clerks and government officials. People earning middle class salaries could afford fine clothing, furniture, ceramics and other household items. It was this class of people that drove the demand for mass-produced consumer goods. They also drove the need for more schools, universities and libraries. The political power of the British middle class increased throughout the 1800s.



Source 5.4 Population change in Britain, 1700–1840



Source 5.5 This painting from 1831, *The Progress of Steam, A View in Regent Park 1831,* humorously shows suggested replacements for horse-drawn carriages.

Check your learning 5.2

Remember and understand

1 When and where did the Industrial Revolution begin?

2 List five key features of British society in the century before the Industrial Revolution began.

Apply and analyse

3 Write a paragraph explaining how life changed for British people between the mid 1700s and the late 1800s.

4 Using Source 5.4, describe the changes that took place in Britain from 1700 to 1840.

5 Before the Industrial Revolution, 80 per cent of people lived and worked on the land. How had this trend changed by 1850?

Evaluate and create

6 Historians still argue about why Britain became such a powerhouse of the Industrial Revolution, while other European countries were slower to modernise. The Netherlands and France were two other countries that might have had an Industrial Revolution first. Conduct some Internet research to identify some of the reasons why this didn't happen.

Why the Industrial Revolution began in Britain

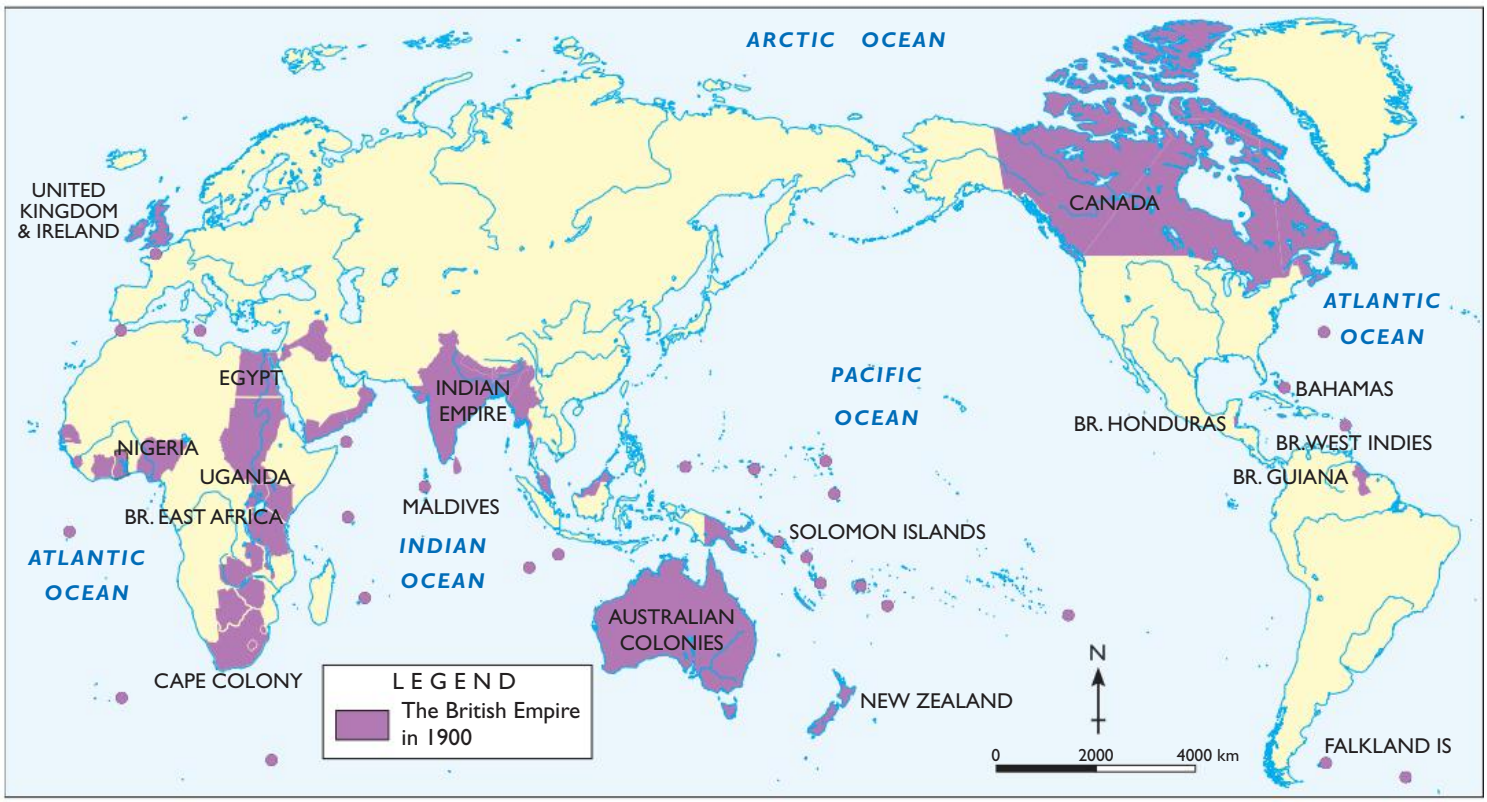
Rise of the British Empire

One of the key factors that led to the start of the Industrial Revolution in Britain was its authority and wealth as an **empire**. The expansion of the British Empire took place in two phases:

- the first phase was the establishment of the earliest British **colonies** in North America in the 1600s. Over the next 200 years Britain, France, Spain, the Dutch and Portuguese all laid claims to new territories around the world, including the Americas, Asia, Africa and the Pacific.
- the second phase was linked to a series of wars fought between the European powers in the 18th century and early part of the 19th century. Britain's superior naval strength ensured that it succeeded in becoming the dominant imperial power, despite the loss of many of its American colonies in the **American War of Independence** in 1865.

By 1900, the British Empire had expanded to cover around a quarter of the Earth's surface and ruled over a quarter of the world's population (see Source 5.6). Many of Britain's colonies provided the raw materials, workforce (in the form of slaves) and customers needed to drive the Industrial Revolution. Britain controlled more colonies, and therefore had access to more raw materials than any other country, including sugar from Australia and the West Indies, wool from Australia and New Zealand, cotton and tea from India, rubber from Malaya, gold from Australia and South Africa, coffee from Jamaica and Africa, wheat from Australia and Canada, and timber from the vast pine forests of Canada.

WORLD: BRITISH EMPIRE 1900



Source 5.6

Source: Oxford University Press



Source 5.7 Britain relied heavily on a strong navy and experienced fleets of merchant trading ships.

Other factors

In addition to the power of the British Empire, historians have proposed a range of reasons why Britain was the first country to experience the Industrial Revolution and why it became the world's leading economic and industrial power for a time. The answer lies in a combination of factors related to Britain's history, geography and culture. Some of these are discussed briefly below:

- *Britain's coal supplies* – Britain was fortunate to have large supplies of coal, a vital fuel for the steam power that drove the Industrial Revolution. None of the other European powers had such large quantities of accessible coal.
- *naval power and trading power* – as an island nation, Britain had always relied on skilled sailors, a strong navy and experienced fleets of merchant ships. Its largest merchant trading company was the East India Company (EIC). At its peak, the EIC rivalled many smaller European powers in terms of wealth and influence.
- *individual freedom and the capitalist spirit* – unlike many of the other European powers, there was a greater measure of individual and intellectual freedom in Britain. These freedoms provided a fertile ground for those willing to try new methods and take risks. In other parts of Europe, government restrictions and less individual freedom limited opportunity.
- *stable government* – before the start of the Industrial Revolution, Britain had enjoyed a prolonged period without much political or social conflict, compared to many other countries in Europe. This sense of stability and order encouraged the growth of business.
- *superior banking system and capital for investment* – increased trade meant that financial services in England – such as banking, investment and insurance – expanded to support and protect that trade. Britain's banking sector was more advanced and modern than those of other European countries. There was a ready supply of capital (money) available at very low rates of interest. This meant that money was available to start up new businesses and pay for experiments to develop new inventions. Two of the key inventions of the Industrial Revolution, the steamship and the telegraph, were important in helping Britain administer their colonies around the world.

Check your learning 5.3

Remember and understand

1 List the main changes that took place across Britain between 1750 and 1850.
2 Why were large coal deposits in Britain so significant during the Industrial Revolution?
3 What was the name of the largest British merchant trading company?
4 List three colonies under British rule and the raw materials they provided to fuel the growth of industries in Britain during the Industrial Revolution?

Apply and analyse

5 What percentage of the Earth's surface was under British rule by 1900?
6 Use Source 5.6 and your own research online to answer the following:
   a By 1900, 25 per cent of the world's total population was ruled by the British. How many people was this?

Developments in agriculture

From the mid-1600s, changes in farming and agriculture across Britain paved the way for the Industrial Revolution. Many historians believe that without these changes industrialisation would not have been possible from 1750 onwards. The changes that took place in agriculture were brought about by demands for more food to support Britain's growing population. Collectively, these changes are referred to as the **Agricultural Revolution**.

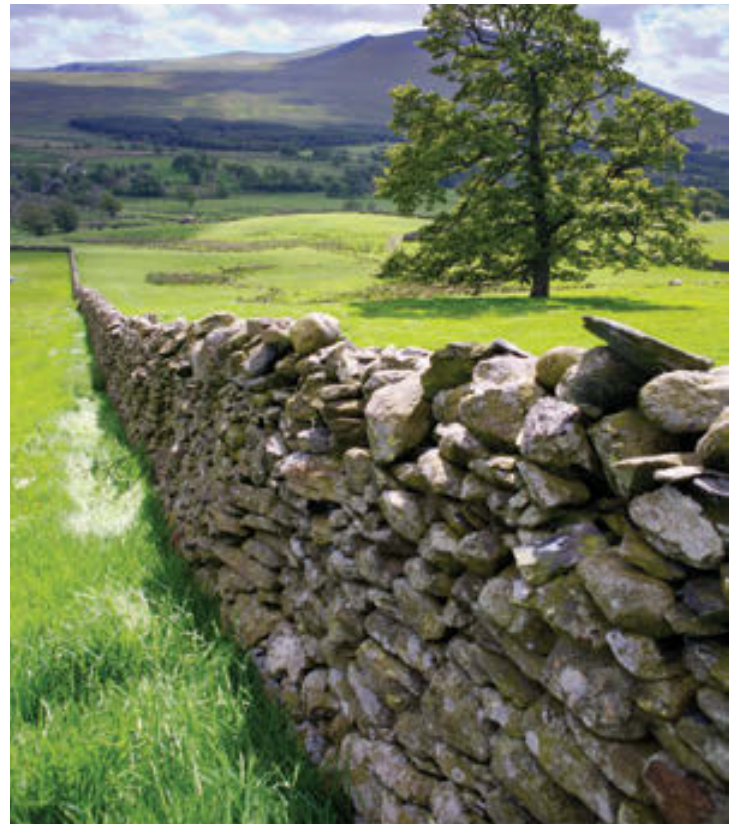
During the Agricultural Revolution, forests were cleared, grazing pastures were turned over to crop growing, and low-lying marshes were drained to grow even more crops. Small plots of farmland were consolidated into larger, more efficient fields under the **enclosures.** As a result, over 100 years Britain increased its farmlands by 30 per cent.

For the first time, agriculture became a business. Instead of just growing food to eat, farms began producing surplus amounts of food with the goal of selling it for profit. Landowners began investing more money in better livestock, fences and farming equipment. They also moved to growing high-yield crops such as wheat and barley. Improved farming techniques and equipment led to increases in crop production. For example, the amount of wheat produced in Britain increased by 75 per cent between 1700 and 1800.

The enclosures

More than 4000 Enclosure Acts (laws) were passed by the British Parliament during the Agricultural Revolution. These Acts transferred areas of common land that had previously been worked by small groups of local farmers into the hands of private landowners. These smaller areas of land were then joined together to create large farms that were enclosed by hedges or stone walls. This meant that local famers could no longer graze their animals or farm the land (see Source 5.8). Other land, which until then had been known as 'waste land', was also enclosed. By 1790, three-quarters of all farming land in Britain was enclosed by wealthy landlords. These landlords then rented this land to tenant farmers.

The process caused a great deal of social unrest as many poor people were forced off the land they had farmed free of charge for generations. Many flooded into the cities and became part of the new industrial working classes, while others sought new lives abroad.



Source 5.8 Stone walls like these were built to enclose what was once common land.

Crop rotation

Despite the hardship it caused for many poor farmers, the new commercial approach to farming led to improved management of the crops. For centuries, farmers had practised a process known as crop rotation, which involved leaving a field fallow (unused) for a period in order to avoid exhausting the soil. However, in 1730 a landowner by the name of Charles Townshend introduced a new method of crop rotation on his farm that became known as the 'four-field system'. He grew wheat in the first field, barley in the second, root vegetables (such as carrots and turnips) in the third and clover in the fourth. Each season, the crops were rotated (shifted around), which meant that no field was left fallow and the soil in each field was kept high in minerals and nutrients (like nitrogen). Wheat and barley were harvested for humans, while the fallow period was now replaced by clover, which could be used for grazing animals. The development of the four-field system earned Charles Townshend the nickname Turnip Townshend.

Improved farm machinery and methods

By the early to mid-1800s, new farming machinery was in use. There were new mechanical drills for planting seed, reaping machines for harvesting crops (see Source 5.9) and threshing machines to separate the valuable grain from the stalks of wheat and barley plants. These machines made farming more efficient and increased the profits that could be earned from the land. Each year, the amount of land that could be prepared, farmed and harvested in a season increased. By the 1840s, fertilisers were widely used, once again raising the productivity of the land.

Along with improvements in crop production came improvements in animal breeding and rearing. From the late 1700s onwards, the agriculturalist Robert Bakewell began selective breeding of livestock on his property. He developed a new breed of quick-fattening sheep with finer wool and tastier meat, called the New Leicester. Bakewell also bred cattle for beef production. His ideas produced stronger animals that were noted for their larger size and better quality.



Source 5.9 Cyrus McCormick's reaping machine of 1831 led to huge improvements in how grain was harvested.

key**concept:** empathy

The effects of the enclosures

By applying the key concept of empathy, historians are able to understand the effects of the enclosures from the point of view of all those involved. While many wealthy landowners saw the enclosures as a way of increasing in productivity and profits, many thousands of ordinary farmers in Britain saw them as the destruction of their way of life. The enclosures denied them access to the lands that had supported their families for centuries and in many cases their property was destroyed. Some landlords permitted their tenants to dismantle their houses and take the wood away to build elsewhere. Others simply burned the homes and property of their tenants.

Between 1775 and 1850, over 25 000 Scots were forced from their homes in the Highlands of Scotland by landowners wanting to enclose the land. This process became known as the 'Highland Clearances'. These farmers were left homeless and without the ability to grow their own food (see Source 5.10).

Source 5.10

> Their wretchedness was so great that [they] … were obliged to subsist upon broth made of nettles, thickened with a little oatmeal. Those who had cattle [resorted to] bleeding them and mixing the blood with oatmeal, which they afterwards cut into slices and fried.
>
> James Loch, *The Sutherland Improvements*, 1820

For more information on the key concept of empathy refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Check your learning 5.4

Remember and understand

1. What did the 'enclosure' of land mean?
2. Approximately how many Acts did the British parliament pass that related to enclosure in the 1800s and 1900s?
3. What innovation led to Charles Townshend's nickname Turnip Townshend? Why was this innovation important?
4. What was Robert Bakewell known for?

Apply and analyse

5. Write a short paragraph explaining how new machinery affected the harvesting of crops.

Evaluate and create

6. The Enclosure Acts resulted in improvements in the farming industry, but it also led to a number of social problems for farmers who had previously had free access to land. With a partner, write and role-play a conversation between a landowner who has benefited from the Enclosure Acts and a farmer who has lost both land and income as a result of the Enclosure Acts. In this conversation, ensure each person describes and explains the effect the Enclosure Acts have had on their lives and livelihood.

Developments in cotton, wool and iron production

Some of the most important developments and innovations of the Industrial Revolution took place in the production of cotton, wool, coal and iron. However, arguably the most important 'invention' of the Industrial Revolution was not a single item of equipment or technology at all. Instead, it was a way of producing goods on a large scale using many workers and specialised machinery on one site. This method of production became known as the **factory system**.

The factory system

Before the introduction of the factory system, manufacturing often took place in small workshops or in local workers' cottages (hence the term 'cottage industries'). Local trades and crafts people such as blacksmiths, wheelwrights (wheel makers), cartwrights (cart makers), potters, millers and weavers used their skills, muscle power or water power to largely hand-make items. In contrast, the factory system brought together large numbers of workers in a single site or factory. Few of these workers were skilled because most of the manufacturing was done by machines. Instead, the many workers performed tasks that were repetitive and required little skill. The machines were powered at first by water with waterwheels, then by steam and next by electricity. The factory system itself was made possible by a combination of the technological innovations and knowledge that emerged during this period.

Cotton and wool production

The first factories of the Industrial Revolution were cotton mills. Inventions such as the flying shuttle, spinning jenny, water frame (Source 5.11) and Crompton's mule (Source 5.12) in Britain paved the way for the mass production of cotton and wool.

The flying shuttle

The flying shuttle, invented by John Kay in 1733, introduced a more efficient way of weaving on hand-looms. It only required one weaver to shoot the yarn from one side of the width of the loom to the other. This was especially useful for very wide looms. Weavers could produce cloth much more quickly, increasing the demand for spun yarn.

The spinning jenny

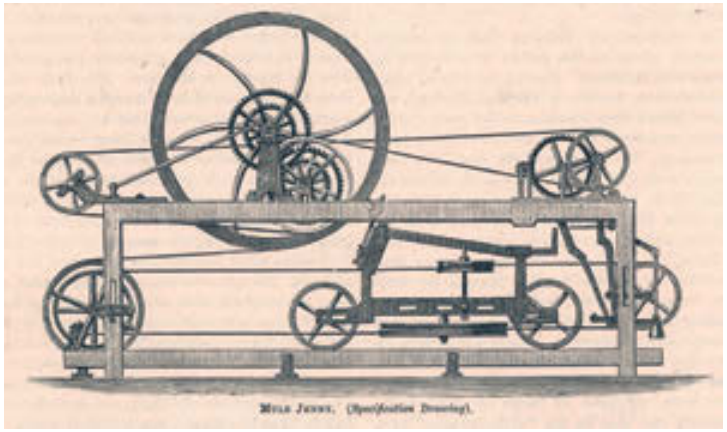
The spinning jenny, a machine invented by James Hargreaves in 1765, helped increase the supply of yarn. It could spin eight threads at once, whereas the traditional spinning wheel could only spin one thread at a time.

The water frame

The water frame, invented by Richard Arkwright in 1768, was a spinning frame that improved on James Hargreaves' invention, as it could be powered by a waterwheel and produce yarns of any type.



Source 5.11 Arkwright's water frame



Source 5.12 Crompton's mule

Crompton's mule

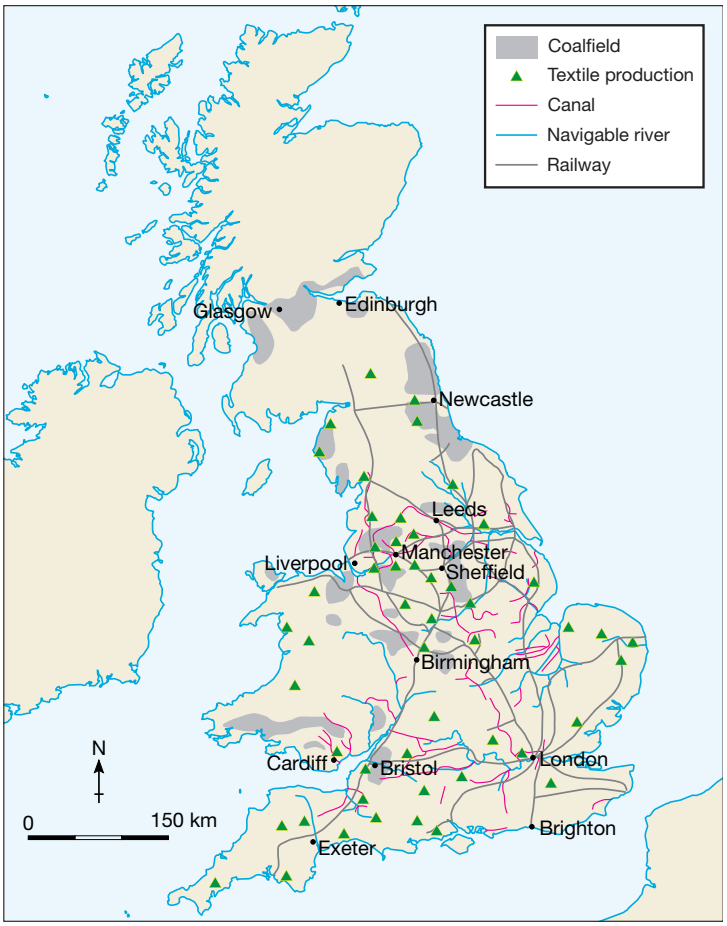
Crompton's mule was invented in 1779 by Samuel Crompton by combining the spinning jenny's carriage and the water frame's rollers. It allowed a single power source to spin multiple machines, and worked with wool or cotton yarns. However, it still required a skilled weaver to operate. These spinning mules were developed further so they could be operated by unskilled workers. Steam power was later applied to the spinning mules for use in cotton-spinning factories.

By the middle of the 1760s, Britain had become the centre of cotton production, importing raw cotton from India and the United States. The raw cotton went to the mills where machines were used to spin the raw cotton into yarn, and then weave the yarn into cloth. The very first mills were powered by waterwheels, so they needed to be located close to strong-flowing rivers and streams. After the development of steam power, mill owners were able to build mills in cities – closer to a constant supply of workers and potential customers.

As a result of these developments, over time the skills of traditional weavers (see Source 5.14) were no longer needed. Weavers were replaced by workers who were only required to feed the raw cotton or cotton yarn into machines. Many mill owners, keen for increased profits, wanted their machines running all of the time. This meant long working hours – up to 16-hour working days – and shift work for labourers. Because mill workers did not need to be skilled, women and young children became part of the workforce as they were cheaper to employ.

Overall, conditions for workers during the first decades of the Industrial Revolution were poor. Brutally long hours for low pay, in badly lit and uncomfortable conditions became commonplace. Although harsh working conditions for the men, women and children working in factories and mines were common, there were also exceptions. For example, at the cotton mills operated by Robert Owen in New Lanark in Scotland, the children of workers were well cared for and educated.

BRITAIN: TEXTILE PRODUCTION AND COALFIELDS, EARLY 19TH CENTURY



Source 5.13 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 5.14 Weavers originally worked from their homes, using their own looms, rather than in factories.

Iron production

Before the Industrial Revolution, iron producers had to heat (smelt) the iron ore (rock) to extract the raw metal or 'pig iron' from it. Generating the necessary heat to smelt the iron ore required charcoal, but making charcoal was time-consuming and demanded large quantities of wood. Because of this, wood supplies across Britain were dwindling. In 1709, Abraham Darby, an iron producer at Coalbrookdale in Derbyshire, England (see Source 5.15), found a way to bake coal to make a substance known as coke. Coke was a new, smokeless fuel that burned much hotter than ordinary coal. Quickly, coke replaced charcoal as the fuel used to smelt iron ore. Iron foundries were established near coalfields (rather than forests), and the iron and coal industries became strongly linked.



Source 5.15 Coalbrookdale ironworks operating at night, 1801



Source 5.16 The Eiffel Tower under construction, 1889

Other innovations also made the smelting process more efficient. In 1784, iron producer Henry Cort was able to combine two processes, known as 'puddling' and 'rolling', which made the large-scale production of pig iron possible. The amount of pig iron smelted in Britain rose from 25 000 tonnes in 1728 to 60 000 tonnes in 1788. By 1796, Britain was producing was 125 000 tonnes.

As production increased, new uses were found for iron. Iron utensils such as knives and forks became common, as did iron pots and pans for household kitchens. Iron was also used as a building material in factories and houses, transforming the design of buildings. For example, in 1851, London's Crystal Palace had a roof and walls made of iron frames and giant panes of glass. By this time, British pig-iron production was 2.25 million tonnes, 18 times as much as in 1796. Similarly, the French put iron to use in 1889 building Gustave Eiffel's famous tower (see Source 5.16). The Eiffel Tower is an iron lattice structure created as the centrepiece of the 1889 World's Fair in Paris. It is 324 metres tall – as high as an 81-storey building – and remained the tallest structure in the world until 1930.

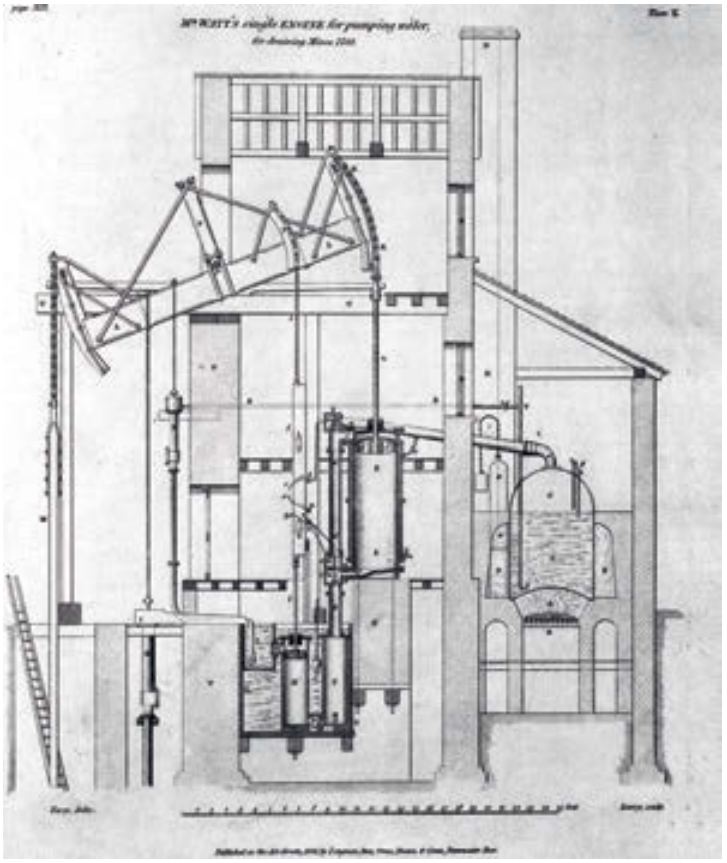


Source 5.17 Foundry workers using a large steam hammer to shape red-hot iron, Manchester, England, 1832

The development of the steam engine

The invention of the steam engine revolutionised manufacturing and transport, and was later used to generate electricity. Coal supplies were vital to fuel the Industrial Revolution, and the ever-increasing demand for coal led to the opening of new mines and the deepening of older mines. The digging of deeper mines in turn required better pumping systems to keep water from flooding lower levels. Two inventors, Thomas Savery (around 1698) and Thomas Newcomen (around 1710) developed early steam engines to pump water from mines.

While repairing a Newcomen steam engine, engineer James Watt realised that he could greatly increase its efficiency. Watt did not invent the steam engine but in 1769, he developed an improved version that was more practical and powerful. In 1775, Watt formed a partnership with Matthew Boulton to manufacture the new steam engines (see Source 5.18). Over the next 25 years, their firm manufactured almost 500 steam engines. They were used not only in the mining industry, but also in cotton-spinning factories, flour mills, breweries and sugar cane crushing mills around the country.



Source 5.18 James Watt's steam engine for pumping water from mines

Check your learning 5.5

Remember and understand

1 What were some of the problems with using charcoal in the process of extracting iron from iron ore?
2 What is coke, and what difference did it make to the iron-making process?
3 Name some of the new uses and products that developed from the availability of mass-produced iron.
4 What was one of the major reasons for the increase in demand for coal during the 1700s?
5 List three effects of the increased demand for coal during the 1700s and early 1800s.
6 Why was the cotton industry regarded as a 'cottage industry' prior to the Industrial Revolution?

Apply and analyse

7 Explain why the iron production and coal-mining industries became so closely linked during the Industrial Revolution.
8 Why was James Watt's invention so important at this time in history?
9 In your opinion, which of the four inventions discussed was the most important for the textile industry in Britain? Justify your response.

Evaluate and create

10 Create a poster which shows how new inventions transformed the textile industry during the Industrial Revolution. Make sure you include labelled diagrams or illustrations.
11 Imagine you are an 80-year-old weaver in the late 1700s. Write a short account of how your life and work practices have changed over your lifetime because of new inventions in the textile industry.

Developments in transport

At the start of the Industrial Revolution, transport in Britain was slow and costly, regardless of whether people travelled by road, river or sea. From 1750 onwards, growing numbers of wealthy merchants and **industrialists** started demanding quicker and cheaper forms of transport to move coal to their factories, ship their products to markets and speed up travel between cities. As a result, a number of new inventions and improvements were made in the area of transport.

New inventions

Steam locomotives

The first steam locomotive was built by English engineer Richard Trevithick in 1801. Unlike modern locomotives, it was driven on roads rather than rails. In 1804, Trevithick was the first person to drive a steam locomotive on the rails of a tramway.

The first locomotive built and used for commercial purposes was known as the Stephenson's Rocket. It was invented by George Stephenson (see Source 5.19) in 1829 and remains one of the most famous steam locomotives. From this point on, the designs of steam locomotives became more sophisticated. They also became far more powerful and capable of reaching greater speeds.



Source 5.19 The original Stephenson's 'Rocket' locomotive, from 1829, now housed at the Science Museum in London

Steamships

The first commercial steamship was developed by an American named Robert Fulton in 1807. Like the steam locomotive, the steamship went through many different designs and improvements over the next 100 years. For example, the more resilient screw-propellers were developed to replace the easily damaged paddle-wheels of the early steam ships. By 1838, ships were crossing the Atlantic Ocean driven purely by steam power. In 1843, the great British engineer Isambard Kingdom Brunel (see the Significant Individual section on pages 286–287) launched the SS *Great Britain*, the first iron-hulled steamship with a screw propeller designed to cross oceans. Steamships quickly began to replace sailing ships as the preferred means of ocean-going transport. Although their cargo space was reduced by the large amount of space required for storing coal, they were faster and more reliable.



Source 5.20 The launch of SS *Great Britain* in Bristol in 1843

The internal combustion engine

While the steam engine was useful for factories, trains and ships, it was too large to use in smaller businesses and smaller vehicles. In 1859, Belgian engineer Etienne Lenoir developed an engine that sucked coal gas and air into a cylinder, where it was ignited by a spark, pushing down a metal piston that turned a wheel. This invention became the basis for the internal combustion engine – the same engine that is used in all modern cars and engines.

German engineers Gottlieb Daimler and Wilhelm Maybach experimented with an engine that used a new fuel, which later became known as gasoline or petrol. Daimler first used it in 1885 to power a wooden bike called the Daimler *Reitwagen* (see Source 5.21). A year later, another German designer and engineer named Karl Benz patented the world's first petrol-powered car known as the *Benz Patent-Motorwagen* (see Source 5.22).

As internal combustion engines became more reliable and powerful, cars became more and more common. At first, private cars were painstakingly built by hand. Their high cost meant they became the toys of the very rich. It was not until 1908 that Henry Ford made the dream of owning a car possible for the common man. He did this by adapting the factory system to create an affordable car known as the Ford Model T. By using an **assembly-line** technique with a sequence of specialised workers who repeated the same task on a series of components, he was able to produce cars much more cheaply and quickly.

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



Source 5.21 The world's first motorcycle built by Gottlieb Daimler, 1855



Source 5.22 The first Mercedes Benz motorcar, 1886

Other transport improvements and innovations

As new modes of transport became available, demand for new and improved roads, bridges, canals, and railway lines grew rapidly.

Improved roads and bridges

In the early 1700s, most roads in Britain were built and maintained by local inhabitants who carried out repairs only when absolutely necessary. This meant that most roads outside London were in very poor condition. A few roads were managed by turnpike trusts – agencies that collected fees from travellers in return for keeping the roads in good condition (see Source 5.23). By the early 1800s, pressure from industrialists such as Josiah Wedgwood (ceramics), John Wilkinson (iron) and Matthew Boulton (coin minting) led to a dramatic increase in the number of turnpike trusts. By the 1830s there were more than 1000 such trusts. As a result, roads improved and travel times decreased.



Source 5.23 An artist's impression of Tyburn Turnpike in London in 1813 showing the toll house and a toll being collected from a horseman passing through the gate.

As roads improved, demand for more reliable and convenient ways of crossing rivers grew. In 1779, Abraham Darby began building the world's first cast-iron bridge to link a small mining town with nearby factories in the town of Coalbrookdale. A toll was charged for using the bridge which became known as the Iron Bridge (see Source 5.24). The bridge became famous in 1795 when it remained standing after a major flood. After that, many more bridges were built using iron rather than stone.



Source 5.24 This bridge in the town of Ironbridge, England, designed by Thomas Pritchard and built by Abraham Darby in 1779, is the world's first iron structure.

Railways

The world's first railway line was built in 1825 between the coalfields in Darlington and the seaport of Stockton in north-east England. It combined two innovations – the steam engine (formerly used to pump water from mines) and rail-mounted mining trucks (formerly pulled by horses).

Railways added a whole new phase to the Industrial Revolution. In 1830, a new track linking the Manchester cotton industry to the port of Liverpool opened to transport goods for export. This was the first railway to link two major cities. Throughout the 1830s and 1840s, the building of rail tracks and strong, iron bridges for new train routes meant that iron production doubled at this time.

Development of railways in Britain grew rapidly, with permission for the construction of 438 new lines granted by Parliament between 1844 and 1846. More workers were needed in the iron factories to meet railway orders, and another 200000 men were employed, just for laying railway tracks. By 1848, over 40 million train journeys were made in Britain.

Before the Industrial Revolution, the journey from London to Edinburgh – just over 640 kilometres – took between 10 and 12 days by horse-drawn coach. By 1836, the travel time had dropped to just under two days by train. By 1850 – when all of Britain was linked by rail – this had dropped to around 12 hours (see Source 5.26).



Source 5.25 The Forth Railway Bridge in east Scotland under construction. By the time of its completion in 1890, it was the longest bridge of its kind.

Source 5.26 Changes in travel times (in hours) between London and other key cities, 1836 and 1850

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

Travel for holidays became more common and some commodities became more readily available. These included fresh flowers and milk, delivered to London on early morning 'milk trains' from Cornwall and Devon in the south-west.

Just like roads, these new railway lines required strong, reliable bridges that could carry locomotives and their cargo across wide rivers and gorges. The designs of iron bridges – already being used to carry cars and other small vehicles – were modified so they would be strong enough to carry much larger, heavier loads over larger distances (see Source 5.25). The surge in demand for these types of railway bridges in turn led to increased demand for iron production.

Canals

Over 100 canals were dug across Britain from 1760 to 1820, linking the major rivers and creating a transport network for the transportation of food and freight. One of the longest canals was the Liverpool to Leeds canal at 204 kilometres long. Work on it was begun in 1770 and finished in 1816.

Initially, barges pulled by horses walking beside canals transported crops from the country the city and manufactured goods from the city back to the country. The canals were also used to move coal and other heavy goods, replacing the slower method of coastal shipping. As the high price of coal was mainly due to the costs of moving it (rather than mining it), new canals caused the price of coal to drop by half. The new lower price fed even faster growth in cotton mills. Cheaper coal transport also dropped the price of cotton weaving, increasing the profits for mill owners.



Source 5.27 Canals, such as this one in Leeds, played an important role linking mills with the sources of their raw materials.

Check your learning 5.6

Remember and understand

1 How did developments in the use of canals lead to a drop in coal prices?

2 Use the information provided to answer the following:
   - a How were roads maintained in Britain before the Industrial Revolution?
   - b What led to better upkeep of roads during the early 1800s?
   - c Where and when was the world's first railway line built?

3 What commodities became more easily available as a result of improvements to the railway network in Britain?

4 How were ships powered prior to steam power?

Apply and analyse

5 What evidence is there in Source 5.20 to suggest that the launch of the SS *Great Britain* was a significant historical event? In groups, construct a list of modern events that you believe to be equally significant. Discuss your lists as a class and decide which characteristics or impacts of both events make them significant.

6 Why was steam power regarded as 'more reliable' than earlier forms of transport? What role did it play in furthering the Industrial Revolution?

Evaluate and create

7 Explain the role that the internal combustion engine played in the British economy and society in the early years of the Industrial Revolution. Using at least two sources, prepare a 250-word discussion around the following topic:

   'The internal combustion engine is the single most important development in transport ever. Discuss.'

8 Conduct some additional online research in order to design a poster advertising the advantages and benefits of one of the following inventions:
   - the Stephenson's Rocket
   - the Daimler *Reitwagen*
   - *Benz Patent-Motorwagen*.

Significant individual: Isambard Kingdom Brunel

Isambard Kingdom Brunel was a British engineer, builder and inventor who lived during the Industrial Revolution. During his lifetime, Brunel worked on the first-ever tunnel under the River Thames; engineered the Great Western Railway, along with all its bridges and tunnels; and designed the world's first iron-hulled, steam-powered and propeller-driven ship. For these reasons he is often described as one of the most significant individuals in British history.

Early life

Brunel was born in 1806 in the town of Portsmouth in south-east England. His father was a French civil engineer who taught him technical drawing and observational techniques from the age of four. When Brunel was 15, his father was sent to prison for failing to pay debts of more than £5000. After three months, however, the British government ended up paying off his debts to keep him from offering his engineering skills to the Russians.

Although Brunel received a traditional education, his main hobby was building model boats. After completing an apprenticeship as a clockmaker in France, Brunel returned to Britain, where he worked with his father on a ground-breaking engineering project – the Thames Tunnel – a railway line under the river. This project was plagued by accidents and challenging engineering problems, but eventually resulted in success. It also provided many opportunities for Brunel to develop his skills.

Bridges and railways

Although there was strong competition from other engineers, the young Brunel's plans for the Clifton Suspension Bridge (see Source 5.30) in south-west England beat all other contenders. Brunel replaced old-fashioned designs with a modern look. He believed that innovation and experimentation was important and would be welcome: 'I am opposed to the laying down of rules or conditions to be observed in the construction of bridges lest the progress of improvement tomorrow might be embarrassed or shackled by recording or registering as law the prejudices or errors of today.'



Source 5.28 Isambard Kingdom Brunel, in front of the launching chains of the SS *Great Eastern*, *c.* 1850

At the age of 27, Brunel was appointed the chief engineer for the Great Western Railway, whose tracks eventually stretched 230 kilometres from London to Exeter. Brunel surveyed the route himself in order to ensure the trains would have the smoothest passage. He also designed numerous iron bridges to carry the trains, as well as massive iron-supported train sheds and buildings, such as the vast Paddington station in London. Brunel was personally involved in the design of the railway itself, claiming that the 'standard gauge' was a relic from the days when rails were only used for mining carts, and that better speeds could be obtained by using wider rails.

A new kind of ship

Before the Great Western Railway was complete, Brunel announced that he had a vision of an even greater project – the construction of a steam-powered ship that would allow passengers to continue their journey all the way from the English coast to New York. In 1838, his paddle steamer the SS *Great Western*, made of wood but reinforced with iron, crossed the Atlantic in 15 days. By 1843, Brunel's ship the SS *Great Britain* was the first truly 'modern' ship, built entirely of iron, and with a six-bladed screw propeller instead of a paddle wheel. Late in his life, Brunel began work on the SS *Great Eastern* (see Source 5.29), the largest steamship built before the 20th century. It was designed for the long return journey to India and Australia without refuelling, as it was believed at this time that there was no coal in Australia.



Source 5.29 A model of the SS *Great Eastern* steamship, designed by Isambard Kingdom Brunel



Source 5.30 Clifton Suspension Bridge, as it stands today in Bristol

Brunel's legacy

Brunel hoped to retire to Brunel Manor, a house and garden that he had designed himself to enjoy in his old age. However, he died from a stroke in 1859, and did not live to see it finished.

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

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

Check your learning 5.7

Remember and understand

1 What did Brunel train as before taking a job with his father's firm?
2 Why did the British government bail Brunel's father out of prison?
3 What two design innovations set the SS *Great Britain* apart from earlier ships?
4 Which of Brunel's creations have stood the test of time?

Apply and analyse

5 Conduct some research to discover why Brunel's first steamship was called the SS *Great Western*.
6 What evidence is there to suggest that things did *not* always go Brunel's way?

Evaluate and create

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

Expansion of factories and mass production

Progress and developments from the 1850s brought about advances in engineering and machine tools. Machinery both shortened the time required to make a product and reduced the number of people that were necessary for its production. Workers were needed to look after the machines, but they did not need to be as skilled. Instead, production became focussed on producing large volumes of machine-made goods at far lower prices – a system known as mass production.

Cotton became Britain's chief export, replacing wool. British cotton goods accounted for 5 per cent of all national income. People such as Richard Arkwright, the inventor of the water frame in 1768, had predicted that production would become centralised, with all workers in the process being housed in one location. Many production centres turned into factory towns, with housing for the workers located close to the mill. Manchester was one of the largest, with a population that grew from 25 000 to 300 000 between 1777 and 1851.

There were some obvious benefits. The overall standard of living improved, and salaries increased from 25 pounds (£25) in 1750 to £44 in 1860. However, the new production methods also created new problems, leaving many skilled cottage workers jobless, and encouraging a factory system that only valued large-scale production at low cost. Furthermore, the role of the worker became closely linked to ensuring that the machinery produced a certain quantity of goods or material rather than ensuring it was of a certain quality. Employment was offered to women and children because they could be paid less. Factories became notorious for poor safety conditions and harsh working environments. Until parliamentary reform began to regulate these working conditions, workers had to endure long hours and mindless repetitive tasks, unsanitary work areas, and conditions in which they either froze or roasted depending on the season of the year.

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



Source 5.31 An illustration of power-loom weaving in a textile factory, 1834

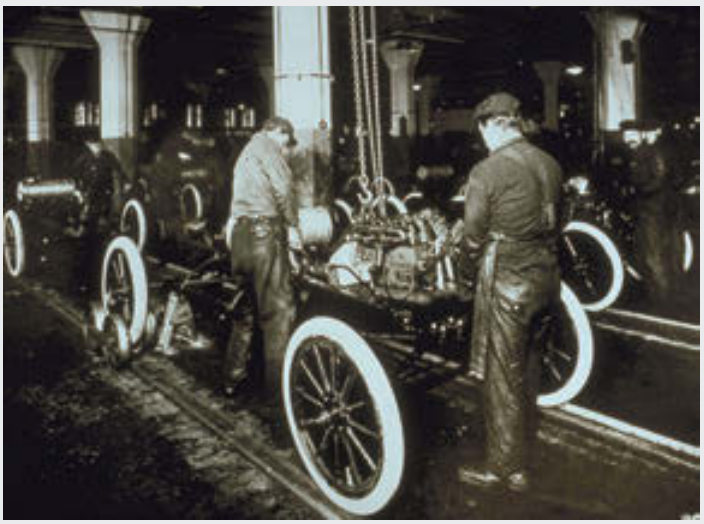
key**concept:** continuity and change

The assembly line

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

Source 5.32

> I will build a car for the great multitude. It will be large enough for the family but small enough for the individual to run and care for. It will be constructed of the best materials, by the best men to be hired, after the simplest designs that modern engineering can devise. But it will be so low in price that no man making a good salary will be unable to own one and enjoy with his family the blessing of hours of pleasure in God's great open spaces.
>
> Henry Ford, *My Life and Work,* 1922



Source 5.33 The assembly-line production of the Ford Model T, as seen here in a photo from the early 20th century, made automobile ownership more than a dream for many.

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

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Check your learning 5.8

Remember and understand

1. Why were women and children popular choices as factory workers?
2. Why did workers need less skill to work in factories in the Industrial Revolution?
3. What were two of the benefits of new production methods and two of the drawbacks?
4. What innovation allowed Henry Ford to manufacture the first truly affordable automobile?

Apply and analyse

5. Write a short paragraph explaining how industrialisation led to the creation of 'factory towns'.
6. Using the information provided as your own research, define the term 'Fordism' in your own words.

Evaluate and create

7. Imagine you are a worker in an 18th-century factory. Write a short account of a typical day in your life, making sure you highlight the advantages and disadvantages of factory work in those times.

The spread of the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution in Britain marked a major turning point in human history. Almost every aspect of daily life was influenced in some way. At around 1850, a whole series of new developments in technology led to even greater technological and economic progress. Many historians describe the period from 1850 to 1914 as the Second Industrial Revolution. The discovery of electricity offered yet another source of power for industry and further changes in lifestyle (see Source 5.34). It also led to new forms of communication, such as the telegraph and the telephone.

Recognising the potential for earning money from new inventions and markets, investors gave strong financial support to the new technologies. Although Britain attempted to stop the spread of industrial knowledge beyond its borders, it was not successful. Ideas, machines and designs were soon copied abroad. Britain began to regard technology itself as a new export. Manufacturing spread across Europe and then into other parts of the world.



Source 5.34 With the discovery and harnessing of electricity, people quickly found ways to use it that made their lives easier.



Source 5.35 France's emergence as an 'industrial' country, with industries such as large-scale coal mining, came later than Britain's.

Europe

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

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

Germany had large deposits of coal and iron ore, and these were quickly exploited using the new technologies. Between 1870 and the start of World War I in 1914, Germany developed at such a rate that its manufacturing output outstripped Britain's.

USA

After the birth of the United States of America following the War of Independence, American industry began to grow rapidly, especially in the north east of the USA. By 1900, the USA had a larger percentage of world manufacturing than Britain. The USA was rich in natural resources and as settlements expanded into the western regions of the country, more and more of these raw materials became available to American manufacturers. American inventors and inventions proved to be as important as any in Britain in moving the world into the modern era.

Japan

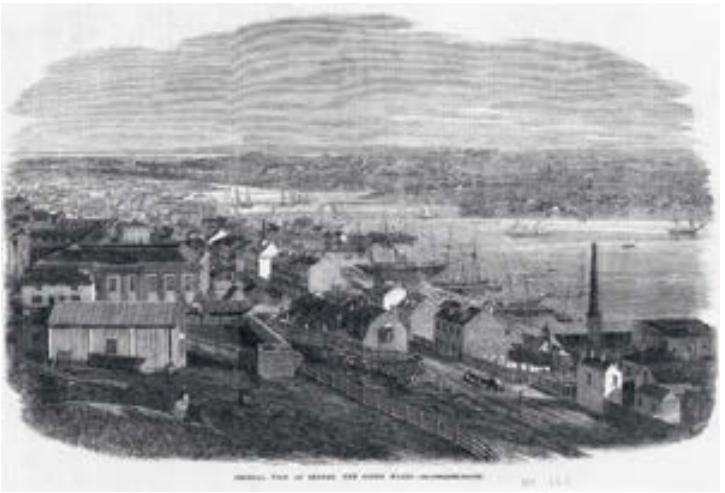
By 1868, Japan had been effectively cut off from Western influences for 260 years, after the shogun (military leader) expelled all Christian missionaries from the country and closed the borders to all foreigners. The arrival of American warships in the 1850s led to the Meiji Restoration – a period in Japanese history when the emperor was returned to power as the figurehead of a new, modern government, and trade with the West increased dramatically. Initially, large quantities of goods were imported from Europe and the Americas. Over time, however, Japan became the first country in Asia to become industrialised, as it swiftly adopted Western ideas and inventions. Japanese goods became highly sought after overseas, particularly tea, silk, cotton fabrics and buttons. Japan also imitated the West in its adoption of an aggressive policy of overseas expansion, seizing territory in China and Korea in the late 19th century.

Australia

The British decision to establish a penal colony in Australia in 1788 was largely an attempt to solve some of the problems faced by Great Britain that were a consequence of the Industrial Revolution. Rising prison populations were the result of increased crime rates in the new factory towns and among unemployed farm labourers. It was thought that this problem could be resolved by transporting criminals to a distant land.

By 1813, a steam mill was operating in Sydney, major roads had been constructed to transport goods to and from the seaports and a strong pastoral (stock-raising) industry had developed inland. By the mid-1830s, Australia had also become a colonial destination for free British migrants. As other colonies were settled, the development of transport links increased. Railways were in use in Australia by the 1850s, as well as steamship travel along the coast and major rivers. Wealth from the discovery of gold gave the Australian colonies opportunities to develop new railways and take advantage of new technologies such as the electric telegraph and electric lighting.

Despite these advances, Australia's industrial development was in many ways hectic and unplanned. This became apparent after **Federation** in 1901, when the new country was found to have three different rail gauges, which made it impossible to transport goods across state borders without changing trains. In addition to this, the states had conflicting ideas about industry (and its development or protection) and disagreed about tariffs (taxes) and their use.



Source 5.36 The settlement of Sydney, *c.* 1870

Check your learning 5.9

Remember and understand

1 List some of the countries that were affected by the Industrial Revolution after Britain.

Apply and analyse

2 Write a short paragraph comparing and contrasting the 'first' Industrial Revolution in the 1750s and the 'second' Industrial Revolution 100 years later.

3 Explain how the Industrial Revolution differed in Britain and one other European country.

4 Name three areas in which Japan's modernisation followed a Western model, and name the countries from which it copied.

Evaluate and create

5 What evidence was there in 1901 that the development of Australia had been hectic and unplanned?

Later developments in technology and science

Chemistry

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, scientific thought worked on the theory that four basic elements – fire, earth, water and air – were the components of all things. Scientists began to extend this with the first creation of a table of chemical elements in 1789. This marked the beginnings of the modern periodic table. French chemist Antoine Lavoisier identified 23 elements. He named different chemical compounds made by the combination of these chemical elements and developed a system that recognised the weight of atoms.

During the 1800s, other scientists broke down over 70000 chemical compounds, often in search of new materials for inventions or for improvements to existing materials. In the process, they discovered how to make petroleum, vulcanised rubber, Portland cement and synthetic dyes. Polish–French researcher Marie Curie (see Source 5.37) isolated the element radium and coined the term 'radioactivity', which would become a controversial source of power after the Industrial Revolution.

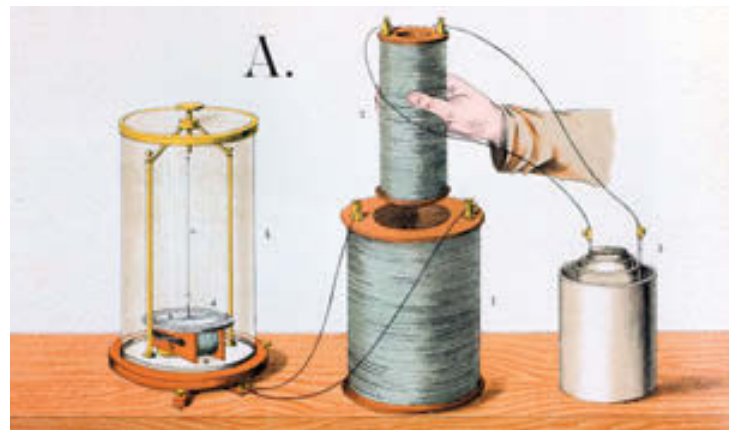


Source 5.37 Physicist and chemist Marie Curie in her laboratory in 1905

Electricity

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

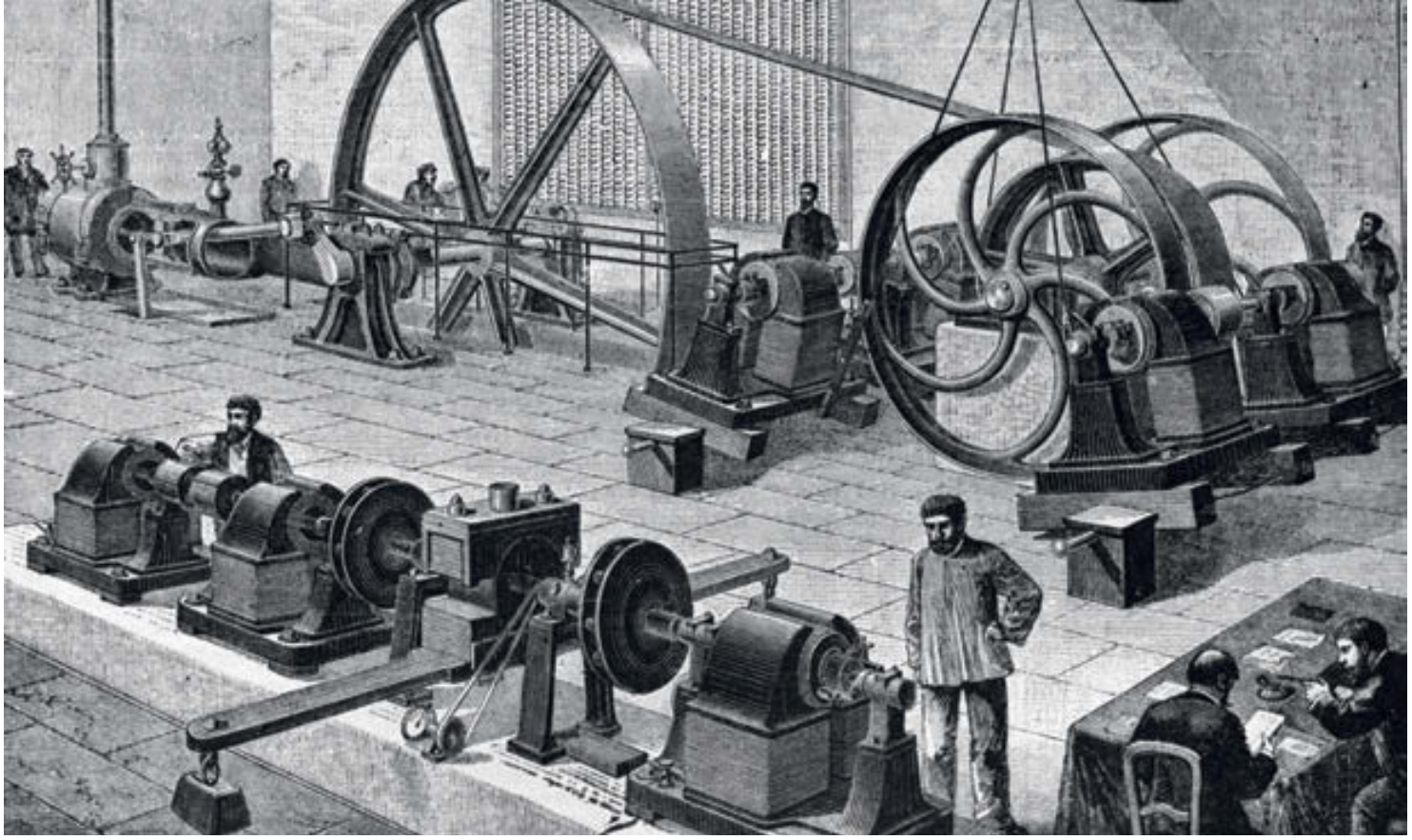
In the 1880s, electric power stations were built. These stations offered an alternative to steam engines for driving machines and to gas for lighting. Electricity was not the work of one person or nation. The English scientist Michael Faraday produced the first continuous flow of electric current. His work in electromagnetic induction (see Source 5.38) was the basis for dynamos and other electric motors. He produced current by rotating a coil between the two poles of a horseshoe magnet. A dynamo turned the mechanical power needed to rotate the coil into electric current. This current could then drive a machine by using the energy.



Source 5.38 Faraday's electromagnetic induction experiment, 1882

Power stations were first built as a source of power for electric lighting. Developed through the work of Joseph Swan, an Englishman, and Thomas Edison, an American, they produced 'Ediswan' bulbs to light houses and streets.

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



Source 5.39 An 1887 woodcut showing an early power station

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

Wires were strung around Britain to carry power to factories and homes. Power grids were created to share the electricity produced and to service high demand areas such as cities. A reliable supply of electricity meant that factories no longer relied on a supply of coal to power them. As a result, they were free to move away from coal mines in the north and west of Britain closer to cities in the south like London.

Communications

The discovery of electricity helped to develop an invention that revolutionised mass communications – the telegraph. The telegraph allowed text messages to be transmitted long distances without the need to physically deliver a letter. Telegraphs were sent using a coded system of sounds to represent the alphabet. For example, Morse code used short electrical impulses (dots) and slightly longer ones (dashes) to spell out the letters of messages.

In 1851, London and Paris were linked by an undersea cable and by 1858, the first transatlantic cable was laid, stretching from Europe to North America. By 1866, this transatlantic cable allowed rapid communication between Britain and the USA. The telegraph helped to bind together the distant parts of the British Empire and was an important part of the development of Australia. From 1858, the Australian capital cities were all linked by telegraph. The Australian overland telegraph from Darwin to Port Augusta in South Australia was completed in 1872. This, together with new undersea cables, provided an instant communication channel between Australia, Britain and Europe for the first time.

Check your learning 5.10

Remember and understand

1 In what year was the modern periodic table first developed?
2 Which scientist was responsible for the discovery of the element radium?

Apply and analyse

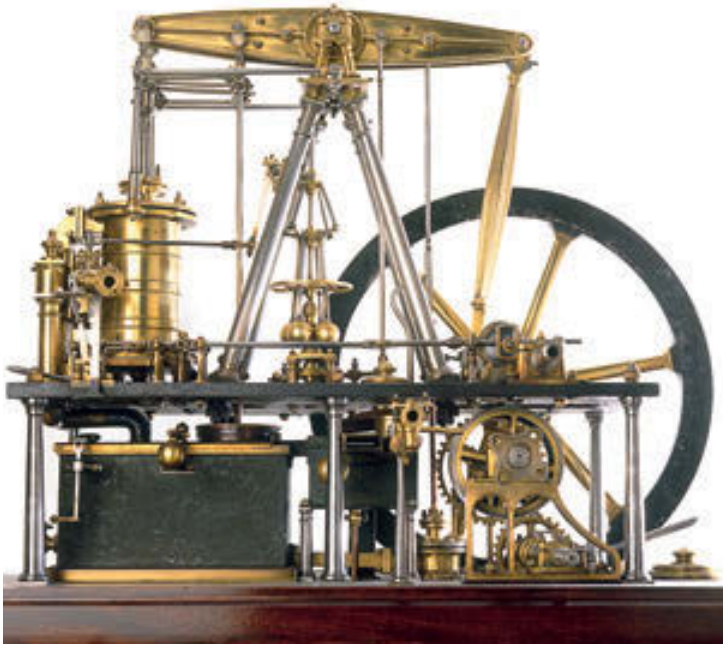
3 Describe some of the advantages of the first electric power stations.
4 Why was the development of the battery so important for users of electricity?
5 How did the growth of electricity-powered factories lead to a general movement of population from the north to the south?

5.1 big**ideas:** rich task

Inventions of the Industrial Revolution

During the Industrial Revolution, new technologies and inventions transformed the way that people lived and worked. Major changes in farming, mining, agriculture, communication and manufacturing changed almost all aspects of life.

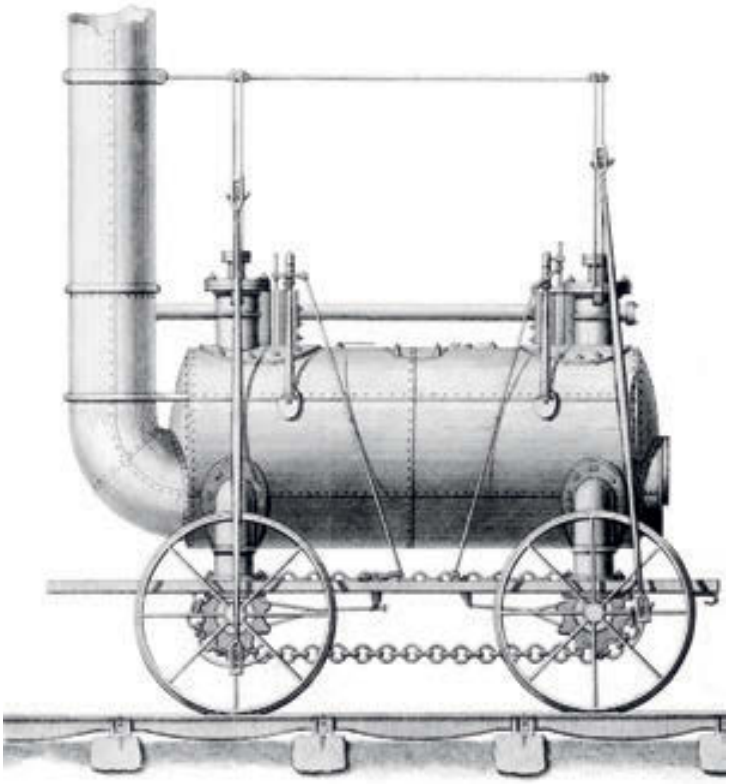
In this chapter, you have learned about many significant inventions from The Industrial Revolution such as the flying shuttle, the spinning jenny, the steam engine, the internal-combustion engine, electricity and the telegraph. These are only a few of the many inventions and discoveries that changed the way people lived and worked at the time. Others include the sewing machine, the telephone, the light bulb, the phonograph, the circular saw, the battery, the typewriter and even the first revolver. All of these inventions contributed to the modern world in some way.



Source 5.40 A reconstruction of James Watt's steam engine



Source 5.41 The flying shuttle allowed the thread to be shot back and forth across a wider weaving bed, producing much wider lengths of cloth, much faster.



Source 5.42 George Stephenson's locomotive *Blucher* was the first successful steam-powered train. It was completed and tested on the Cillingwood Railway on 25 July 1814.

skill**drill**

Creating and delivering an audiovisual presentation

You have probably created several PowerPoint presentations already. You may have also tried out some other audiovisual presentation software, such as Prezi, which is freely available on the Internet. Whichever program you choose, it is important to use it effectively, and avoid some common problems of these types of presentations. Use the following steps to help you avoid these issues.

Step 1 Design your presentation

- Plan your presentation carefully so it has a clear beginning, middle and end.
- Make sure you present the content in clear, concise dot-point form, *not* as large slabs of text.
- Don't fill up your PowerPoint with lots of random pictures that are not related to the content. Make sure each visual is accompanied by a caption that explains why it is relevant to the presentation.
- A common mistake is to have objects and text moving on the screen in a way that just distracts the audience. Use graphics, sounds, video, animations and transitions only if they add value to the point being made, not just because you think they will look or sound good.
- Use a design that ensures your audience can clearly see and read the slides. Make sure there is enough contrast between the text colour and the background colour on the slide, and make sure your font size is large enough.

Step 2 Deliver your presentation

- When delivering a PowerPoint presentation to an audience, you should do more than just stand up and read out the text on each slide. Instead, talk in a way that develops and expands on the points on each slide. Carefully plan in advance what you are going to say during each slide. Record this plan on cue cards, and refer to these cards during your speech to remind you what to say.
- One thing at a time! At any moment, what is on the screen should be the thing you are talking about. Your audience will quickly read every slide as soon as it's displayed. If there are four points on the slide, they'll have read all four points while you are still talking about the first point. Plan your presentation so just one new point is displayed at any given moment. Navigate to the next point only when you are ready to talk about that next point.
- Speak clearly – not too fast, not too slow. Vary your tone and pitch to make your presentation more interesting.
- Make eye contact with different members of your audience. *Do not* just look down at your cue cards.

Apply the skill

1 Research, prepare and present an audiovisual presentation about three significant inventions created during the Industrial Revolution that were not discussed in this section. Use the following questions to structure your presentation:
   - a Who invented it?
   - b When was it invented?
   - c How did it work?
   - d Why was it significant?

2 Your presentation should be well researched and based on relevant and reliable sources. For detailed information on this skill, refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Extend your understanding

As you listen to the presentations of your classmates, complete the peer assessment proforma below. Ask your teacher to photocopy several copies so that you can complete one for each presentation you listen to.

Name of presenter:		**Name of person completing peer assessment:**
Component of presentation:	What did the presenter do well in this regard?	What could the presenter improve upon in this regard?
PowerPoint design:		
Oral presentation:		

Give each classmate your completed peer assessment. Collect the peer assessments that your classmates completed as they listened to your presentation. Read their feedback, and then complete a short self-assessment by responding to the following questions:

- What did I do well in terms of my PowerPoint design?
- What could I improve in terms of my PowerPoint design?
- What did I do well in terms of my oral presentation?
- What could I improve in terms of my oral presentation?

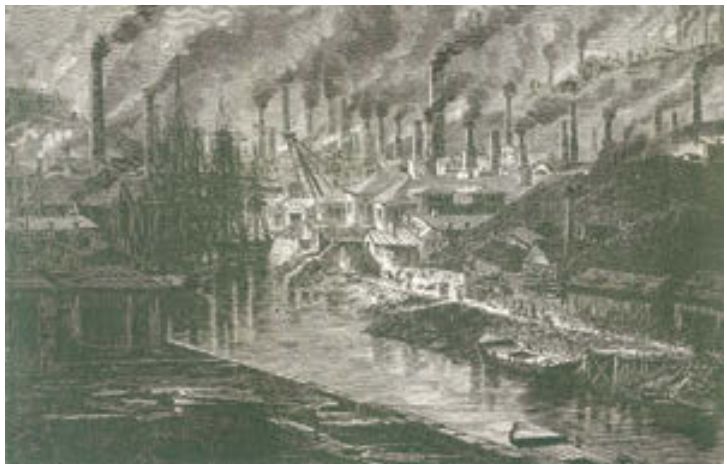
5.2 How did the Industrial Revolution affect the lives of men, women and children?

Working conditions

While it cannot be denied that the Industrial Revolution improved living standards of most people across Britain, these improvements came at a high price. The obvious winners were the industrialists, the people who owned the mills, the factories and the mines. The new middle class also benefited from technological advances, making their lives more comfortable. However, many more people were forced to give up their traditional rural lifestyle for a life in one of the new industrial cities – working long hours and living in cramped and unsanitary conditions.

Britain's 'dark satanic mills'

The working conditions and experiences of men, women and children during the Industrial Revolution varied from person to person and from one industry to the other. The proportion of people in Britain working in manufacturing in 1801 was estimated at 40 per cent. By 1871, this had risen to 60 per cent. Many people across Britain were still employed in agriculture, construction, domestic service or smaller workshops, and their working lives remained largely unchanged. However, life was very different for those in the factories and who struggled to survive on low wages and were forced to work in harsh conditions, as owners operated for a time without any government regulation.



Source 5.43 A 19th-century engraving showing copper foundries in Swansea, Great Britain

Factory and mine owners often cut corners with safety and conditions in the pursuit of higher profits. This included enforcing long working hours and using cheaper labour in the form of women and children. Long working days took their toll on families, and children were dragged into working life with little opportunity for education.

The phrase 'dark satanic mills' was first used by the English poet William Blake in 1808. It was frequently used in the 19th century to refer to the miserable working conditions of labourers in Britain. Many writers of the time were appalled by the plight of poor people whose work seemed endless and unrewarding, and whose lives were cut short by poverty, disease and injury. One of these concerned individuals, Friedrich Engels, a German industrialist and philosopher, wrote extensively about this situation (see Source 5.44).

Source 5.44

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

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



Source 5.45 An artist's impression of a group of mill workers in Manchester, *London Illustrated News*, 1840

Child labour

When the Industrial Revolution began, children were seen as ideal employees. They were small enough to fit between the new machinery, they were cheap to employ and their families were grateful for the extra income. At the time, there was no real concern about their education being affected as education was not compulsory. Most working-class families could not afford to send their children to school anyway.

Children often started work at the age of four or five. Their jobs were often simple, but physically demanding and dangerous. They included collecting dropped fluff from underneath the weaving machines or acting as helpers in coal mines. In many cases, child workers were orphans provided to the factories or mills by the local authorities.

Children's pay was well below that of adults – often about 20 per cent of the full adult wage. Wages for children were sometimes paid in the form of vouchers that could only be used at stores owned by the factory owner. There, the children could use them to purchase clothing or basic foods such as flour. This system allowed the factory owner to avoid paying wages in cash and helped them to make extra profits on sales.

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



Source 5.46 Children working in factories were frequently exploited and injured.

Child labour in factories also declined as complex machinery became more difficult for children to handle. In other areas, such as mining, their use as labourers was limited or barred. It is hard for us now to imagine their lifestyles or the conditions in which these children worked. Source 5.47 comes from evidence given to a British government inquiry into child labour in factories in 1833.

Source 5.47

> I work at Mr Wilson's mill. I think the youngest child is about seven. I daresay there are 20 under 9 years. It is about half past five by our clock at home when we go in … We come out at seven by the mill. We never stop to take our meals, except at dinner.
>
> William Crookes is overlooker in our room. He is cross-tempered sometimes. He does not beat me; he beats the little children if they do not do their work right … I have sometimes seen the little children drop asleep or so, but not lately. If they are catched asleep they get the strap. They are always very tired at night … I can read a little; I can't write. I used to go to school before I went to the mill …
>
> Evidence from a young textile worker, Factory Inquiry Commission, Great Britain, Parliamentary Papers, 1833

Check your learning 5.11

Remember and understand

1 Why did women and children make up a large part of the industrial working population in the early years of the Industrial Revolution?

Apply and analyse

2 In Source 5.47, what do you believe the young worker is trying to say about working conditions in the factory and the treatment of other child workers?

Evaluate and create

3 Summarise Friedrich Engels' findings in Source 5.44 about the condition of the working class in England.

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

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

Living conditions

In the 1750s, before the Industrial Revolution began, only 15 per cent of the population of Great Britain lived in towns or cities. By 1850, the urban population had risen to 50 per cent. By 1880 it had risen again to 80 per cent. This process of **urbanisation** was due to changes in farming practices, production methods and the lure of new jobs in the factory towns. Between 1801 and 1871, the proportion of the British population working in manufacturing rose from 40 per cent to 66 per cent. All of these changes had dramatic effects on how people lived.

Conditions for the rich and poor

Huge differences between the living conditions of the rich and poor in Britain existed long before the start of the Industrial Revolution. Prior to 1750, Britain's feudal history and strict class system dictated how people lived and where they worked. From 1750 onwards, rapid changes in technology and society gave birth to a new social class (known as the 'middle class'). Despite this change, the Industrial Revolution was initially responsible for widening the gap between rich industrialists and poor factory workers even further. Some key facts about living conditions for different social classes in the 1800s are included in Source 5.50.

On top of the social hierarchy were the **aristocracy.** These people included people of royal blood – dukes, earls, lords and barons – with strong family traditions and reputations. They were often land owners who lived off rental income and led privileged lives as members of 'high society' who lived in manors and stately homes. They possessed enormous wealth, land and political influence. In this world, good breeding and a title were seen as more important than wealth – this was assumed.

The middle classes included factory owners, industrialists, doctors and lawyers whose generous incomes allowed them to establish their homes on the outskirts of the new towns and cities where the air was clean and there was more space for larger homes. These areas grew as a result of new railway lines that allowed the rich to commute from home to work in the city.

By contrast, the majority of the working class lived closer to the factories, in slum areas with poor sanitation. Houses were built back-to-back to save space. New apartment blocks were also built quickly and cheaply to meet demand. There were very few building or fire regulations so accidents and house fires were common. There was no proper sewerage, no fresh water and little or no garbage disposal. In Liverpool in 1865, 40 per cent of young children died in such conditions, and the average life expectancy was just 29 years. Birth rates were low, but population continued to grow due to the constant flow of people from the countryside. Those who endured such conditions often turned to alcohol and other drugs to help them cope with the harsh conditions. Crime was widespread, particularly in the slums of the larger cities such as London (see Source 5.51).



Source 5.48 There were enormous differences between the living conditions of the rich and poor in Britain prior to the Industrial Revolution.

Source 5.49

> … the social order makes family life almost impossible for the worker. In a comfortless, filthy house, hardly good enough for mere nightly shelter, ill-furnished, often neither rain-tight nor warm, a foul atmosphere filling rooms overcrowded with human beings, no domestic comfort is possible. The husband works the whole day through, perhaps the wife also and the elder children, all in different places; they meet night and morning only, all under perpetual temptation to drink; what family life is possible under such conditions? Yet the working-man cannot escape from the family, must live in the family, and the consequence is a perpetual succession of family troubles …

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

Source 5.50 Conditions for British social classes during the 1800s

Living conditions for the aristocracy (nobility)	• Birth mattered more than income. The poor and lazy cousin of a duke would be acceptable in high society over a millionaire industrialist from a lower class. • Some lords had large country houses, and town houses in London. They were waited on by servants. • During the 1800s, members of the aristocracy dominated all levels of government. • A young aristocratic lady who was eligible for marriage would 'come out' as a debutante, when she was presented to Queen Victoria. On this special occasion she wore a white dress and a headdress. • Boys of the nobility had governesses and nannies, then attended elite schools. Girls were mostly educated at home then prepared for marriage. Some girls went to boarding school. By the late 1800s, a small number were able to go to university.
Living conditions for the middle class	• Many middle-class people aspired to join the upper classes. Wealthy middle-class businessmen would socialise with the aristocracy. Some donated large sums of money to be granted a knighthood. • Middle-class people lived in houses in the suburbs and commuted to work in the city. Even the poorest middle-class home would have a servant. • Many middle-class Victorian women enjoyed shopping – the first department store opened in London in 1863. • Over time, some middle-class women sought a university education. They also became involved in the women's **suffragette** movement. • Many middle-class boys went to grammar schools. Girls increasingly went to school, but were still expected to find a husband and learn how to run a home.
Living conditions for poor	• Working class people lived in cramped houses in city slums and had no access to running water or sewerage systems. • Crime in the slums was rife and overcrowding led to the spread of many diseases. • At the start of the 19th century, few poor people received an education. In 1880, a new law made primary school compulsory for all children. • Working-class leisure activities included playing or watching football, bicycling clubs, reading the newspaper and attending the music hall.

As urban areas grew, new technologies were applied in building, even in workers' housing. Planned, drained and uncluttered new urban settlements replaced slums. Public transport allowed workers to live further away from their work places. Cities began to develop suburbs. In 1863, the first part of London's underground railway network opened, linking suburban trains to the city centre. By the 1870s, the ability to create skyscrapers allowed for even denser retail and office areas in city centres, where land was more expensive.

Better street lighting helped transform the atmosphere of the cities at night, encouraging leisure activities later in the day and after dark, as people felt safer.



Source 5.51 An artist's impression of poor people in Whitechapel, a London slum

Check your learning 5.12

Remember and understand

1 Why did people move from rural areas to the towns and cities during the Industrial Revolution?
2 Where did most unskilled workers live in Britain during the Industrial Revolution and in what sort of conditions?
3 Why did the population of factory cities continue to grow, despite low birth rates?

Apply and analyse

4 What was the average life expectancy in Liverpool in 1865? Did people tend to actually die at this age, or was there another factor that lowered life expectancy?
5 Write a paragraph describing how, after a bad start, the Industrial Revolution started to improve living conditions for city dwellers.

Evaluate and create

6 Using the statistics provided and information gathered on the Internet, create three graphs that illustrate the key changes in urban populations that took place in Britain from 1750 to 1880.

5.2 big**ideas:** rich task

Working conditions for children during the Industrial Revolution

Many of the early textile factory owners employed large numbers of children. Children were seen as good workers because they were paid less, and were small enough to crawl under the machines to repair broken threads. They were often forced to do this when the machines were operating, and many children were injured as a result. The factory owners paid **overseers** to make sure the children worked as hard as they could. The more work the children did, the more the overseers were paid.



Source 5.52 This photograph, taken in 1908, shows a young barefoot girl standing next to a spinning frame in her workplace, a North Carolina cotton mill.

It was not until the 1830s when certain politicians, concerned about the working conditions that had developed as a result of industrialisation, began introducing laws to regulate the factories in terms of conditions like the use of child labour and the length of the workday.

Each of the following sources provides different views about the nature of working conditions for children during the Industrial Revolution.

Source 5.53

Q: Explain what you had to do.

A: When the frames are full, they have to stop the frame, and take the flyers off, and take the full bobbins off, and carry them on to the roller, and then put the empty ones on.

Q: Suppose you slowed down a little, what would they do?

A: Strap us. The girls had black marks on their skin many a time, and their parents dare not come in about it, they were afraid of losing their work.

Q: What part of the mill did you work in?

A: In the card-room. It was very dusty. The dust got up my lungs, I got so bad in health. When I pulled the baskets all heaped up, the basket pulled my shoulder out of its place and my ribs have grown over it. I am now deformed.

An extract from an interview with Elizabeth Bentley, who began working in factories at the age of six. The interview was conducted as part of a parliamentary inquiry into conditions in the textile factories in 1832.

Source 5.54

I have visited many factories, both in Manchester and the surrounding districts, during a period of several months and I never saw a single instance of corporal punishment inflicted on a child. The children seemed to be always cheerful and alert, taking pleasure in using their muscles. The work of these lively elves seemed to resemble a sport. Conscious of their skill, they were delighted to show it off to any stranger. At the end of the day's work they showed no sign of being exhausted.

An extract from 'The Philosophy of Manufactures', 1835, by Dr Andrew Ure. Dr Ure was a supporter of the new industries.

Source 5.55

… In such an establishment [i.e. a factory] … between 700 to 1400 persons, of all ages and both sexes, almost all working by the piece, and earning wages of every amount between two shillings and 40 shillings a week, are engaged in producing one ultimate effect, which is dependent on their combined exertions. Any stoppage, even any irregularity in one department, deranges the whole. A strict and almost superstitious discipline is necessary to keep this vast instrument going for a single day. Now how, ask the mill-owners, could this discipline be kept up, if the sub-inspectors were at liberty to walk over our establishments at all hours; listen to the complaints and jealousies of all our servants, and at their instigation [urging] summon us as criminals before the magistrates?

An extract from a letter of complaint by Nassau Senior, a factory owner, to Parliament after the Factory Act of 1833 was introduced to give some protection to child workers. He believed that the Act would allow government inspectors to interfere with the smooth running of cotton factories.

skill**drill**

Using information from a range of sources as evidence in a historical argument

The primary sources that historians use to form opinions and arguments about the nature of working conditions for children in the early 19th-century factories tell different stories. It is the job of historians to analyse these sources, identify what evidence they provide to support or refute (not support) particular arguments, and come to a conclusion about their usefulness and reliability. It is important to:

- identify who created each source and the reason why it was created
- identify any potential bias
- write your argument, using the sources as evidence
- explain why each particular source supports your argument
- give reasons why you consider the sources that do not support your argument to be not as important or as valid.

Apply the skill

1 Examine Sources 5.53–5.55 carefully and complete a copy of the table below in your notebook.

	Source 5.53	Source 5.54	Source 5.55
What evidence does this source provide about conditions in factories for children during the Industrial Revolution?			
Who wrote or created it?			
Why was the source created?			
Is the source reliable?			

2 Once you have completed the table, use the information you have gathered to write an historical argument about the working conditions for children in the early 19th century, using the plan provided below.

- **Title**: What were conditions like for children in Britain working in 19th-century factories?
- **Introduction**: The Industrial Revolution led to a massive increase in … (introduce the context of your piece and the focus on the working conditions of children within that context).
- **Paragraph 1**: Some sources say … (explain which sources indicate that conditions were bad. Give examples of some of the bad conditions).
- **Paragraph 2**: However, other sources say … (explain which sources indicate that conditions were acceptable or necessary. Give examples of some of the arguments provided).
- **Paragraph 3**: We have to be careful about which sources we use because … (explain the problems with some of the sources in terms of reliability and bias).
- **Conclusion**: Overall, the evidence suggests … (summarise the evidence and give your informed opinion about the nature of working conditions for children in this period).

Extend your understanding

1 Some important people were strongly opposed to the use of child labour in factories during the Industrial Revolution. Eventually, Parliament passed several Acts that attempted to impose regulations that would lead to improved conditions for children. Use the Internet to find out about this legislation, and complete a new table in your notebook:

Name of Act	Year it was introduced	How did it attempt to improve conditions for children?	How effective was it?

5.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution?

Short-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Between the 1750s and 1914, Britain, the USA and most countries in Europe transformed into industrial societies. New technologies and production methods changed societies in positive and negative ways in both the short and long term. Growth in the development of cities, changes in living and working conditions and the introduction of new laws became apparent fairly quickly. Other changes took place over much longer periods and were not initially obvious. Indeed, many argue that we are only now beginning to see many of the long-term effects of the Industrial Revolution.

Population growth and urban planning

One of the most obvious short-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution was the dramatic increase in world population. In 1750, the population of England and Wales was around 5.5 million people. By 1900, this figure was around 32.5 million. Throughout Great Britain and the rest of Europe, there was a mass movement of people from the rural areas to the growing cities. In 1801, only 17 per cent of the population of Europe lived in the cities. By 1891, this had grown to 54 per cent. In Britain, the growth cities were Leeds, Manchester and Birmingham, as well as London. After terrible initial problems with disease caused by poor or non-existent sanitation, city reform began with the introduction of some **urban planning**. Over time, conditions in the urban slums of factory towns and cities improved. The tenements (overcrowded rooming houses) were pulled down and replaced with new urban settlements, with positive consequences for residents. For example:

- residents in new housing, who previously had no running water and shared an outside toilet, now had access to running water, central heating and improved sewerage systems (see Source 5.56) that included their own toilets. Health conditions improved and there were fewer outbreaks of disease.
- planned, drained, and uncluttered and open spaces were created for sport and entertainment.
- gas-powered (see Source 5.57), and then electric, street lighting helped transform the atmosphere of the cities at night, reducing the gloomy, dangerous streets and encouraging leisure activities after dark, such as visits to theatres and music halls.
- cities began to develop suburbs (outlying communities) and new public transport systems allowed workers to live further away from the factories in which they worked. First there were horse-drawn trams and then came cable trams or electric trolley systems. The opening of London's underground railway network in 1863 encouraged more people to use public transport to move between their homes in the suburbs and work. As the population increased, so did the transport capacity and new lines were developed to service growing areas.



Source 5.56 The building of a London sewer, *c.* 1860



Source 5.57 'A peep at the lights in Pall Mall', is a satirical look at people's reactions to the new invention of gas-burning streetlights in London in 1807.

Improvements in living standards

There were other positive consequences of the Industrial Revolution on the lives of many people.

- Improvements in agriculture throughout the period of the Industrial Revolution reduced the risk of famine through crop failure. Increased food production also meant that people could afford better food in larger quantities, which in turn helped them stay healthier.
- Sport was encouraged in 'leisure time' in order to keep workers healthy. Sport and recreation became more important as working hours reduced during the 19th century.
- Mass entertainment, such as theatres and spectator sports, developed alongside newspapers and magazines for people of all classes. Literature was no longer just for the wealthy and learned.
- The development of railways meant that travel times were speedier. It also meant that travel for leisure was affordable, even for the working classes.
- Mass-produced consumer goods, such as clothing and crockery, became more affordable.
- The use of the telegraph and telephone meant that news could quickly be reported from around the world. Industrialists, merchants and ordinary people benefited from these more immediate ways of communicating, as well as from faster postal times from improved road and rail networks.

Historians and economists agree that standards of living did improve in the 19th century, although they disagree about the timing of its benefits to the working class. For example, were large improvements in the lives of working-class people evident in the early or mid-1800s? Some studies have shown that workers' incomes grew rapidly from the 1820s. However, others contest whether this indicator of improvement balanced out the negative consequences of the Industrial Revolution, such as the harsh working conditions, high rents and crowded living conditions, and pollution.

Check your learning 5.13

Remember and understand

1 Identify the ways in which cities began to change in the second half of the 19th century.

2 Explain why sport and entertainment became more popular in this period.

Apply and analyse

3 Using Source 5.57 outline the ways in which the introduction of street lighting changed people's way of life.

Evaluate and create

4 In two columns, list the positive and negative aspects of the Industrial Revolution for working-class Britons in the 19th century. Decide whether it was a positive or negative development for the working class, giving reasons for your decision.

The emergence of socialism and trade unions

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

Many workers found it hard to adapt to their new lives in the city. Some embittered workers began to demand better conditions and political rights. The result was a rising interest in social revolution, with philosophers and activists such as Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels gaining a following among the working classes.

In his influential book, *Capital: A Critique of Political Economy* (1867), German philosopher Karl Marx suggested that the Industrial Revolution was driven by an economic system known as **capitalism**. Marx argued that capitalism was based on the exploitation of the workers by the owners of land, factories, railways and roads, shops and banks for profit. For capitalism to work, it relied on an 'army' of urban workers who would work for less than the value of their labour. Later theorists would build on Marx's work to promote alternative systems that they argued would deliver a fairer distribution of wealth.

These ideas were the beginning of **socialism**. They laid the foundations for the **welfare state** (under which the state took responsibility for all its subjects, rich or poor) and also for **communism** (under which the state attempted to abolish ownership of private property).



Source 5.58 An illustration showing Karl Marx (seated) and Friedrich Engels

Luddites

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

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

Poor Laws and the rise of Chartism

In 1834, the British Parliament attempted to deal with changing social and economic conditions by reforming the 233-year-old Poor Law. The *Poor Law Amendment Act 1834* decreed that any poor or homeless person requiring assistance from the state (except for the old and sick) had to enter a government workhouse. These institutions kept people off the streets but often fed their residents poorly, worked them extremely hard and broke up families.

Widespread discontent over the Poor Law Amendment Act reminded many people that they had little say in government. Reform bills in 1832 had extended the right to vote, but only to about 600000 out of 3 million men over the age of 21. At this time, all members of parliament were required to own property, which limited the number of men who could afford to stand for office. In 1838, a group of reformists published a People's Charter written as a bill that could be presented to Parliament, demanding a better life for people through the use of parliamentary change (see Source 5.60).

The movement in support of the People's Charter became known as **Chartism**. It spread through Great Britain and in June 1837, Chartists held a general meeting at the British Coffee House in Cockspur Street, London. One faction wanted to use peaceful persuasion while another suggested physical force, even revolt.

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

A second petition was drawn up in 1842 and presented to Parliament in May, this time with over 3 million names. Again it was rejected by Parliament. A third petition was drawn up in 1848, when revolutions in Europe encouraged a revival of the Chartist ideas. This petition was signed by two million people but again it was ignored. As a result, many Chartists gave up on Britain and **emigrated** to other countries such as the USA, Italy and Australia.

Source 5.60 The Chartist claims

The six points of the People's Charter

1 A VOTE for every man twenty-one years of age, of sound mind, and not undergoing punishment for crime.
2 THE SECRET BALLOT—To protect the elector in the exercise of his vote.
3 NO PROPERTY QUALIFICATION for members of Parliament—thus enabling the constituencies to return the man of their choice, be he rich or poor.
4 PAYMENT OF MEMBERS, thus enabling an honest tradesman, working man, or other person, to serve a constituency, when taken from his business to attend to the interests of the country.
5 EQUAL CONSTITUENCIES, securing the same amount of representation for the same number of electors, instead of allowing small constituencies to swamp the votes of larger ones.
6 ANNUAL PARLIAMENTS, thus presenting the most effectual check to bribery and intimidation, since though a constituency might be bought once in seven years (even with the ballot), no purse could buy a constituency (under a system of universal suffrage) in each ensuing twelve-month; and since members, when elected for a year only, would not be able to defy and betray their constituents as now.



Source 5.59 An illustration of a Chartist meeting in 1848

Emergence of trade unions

Over time, workers found ways of banding together to protect their interests. Skilled workers realised that they needed to protect their jobs and incomes (in case of illness or injury) so they would not become victims of the Poor Laws. As a result, many formed Friendly Societies. Workers each paid a weekly subscription to their Friendly Society that would provide them with a small income during illness, an old-age pension, or money for a funeral when they died.

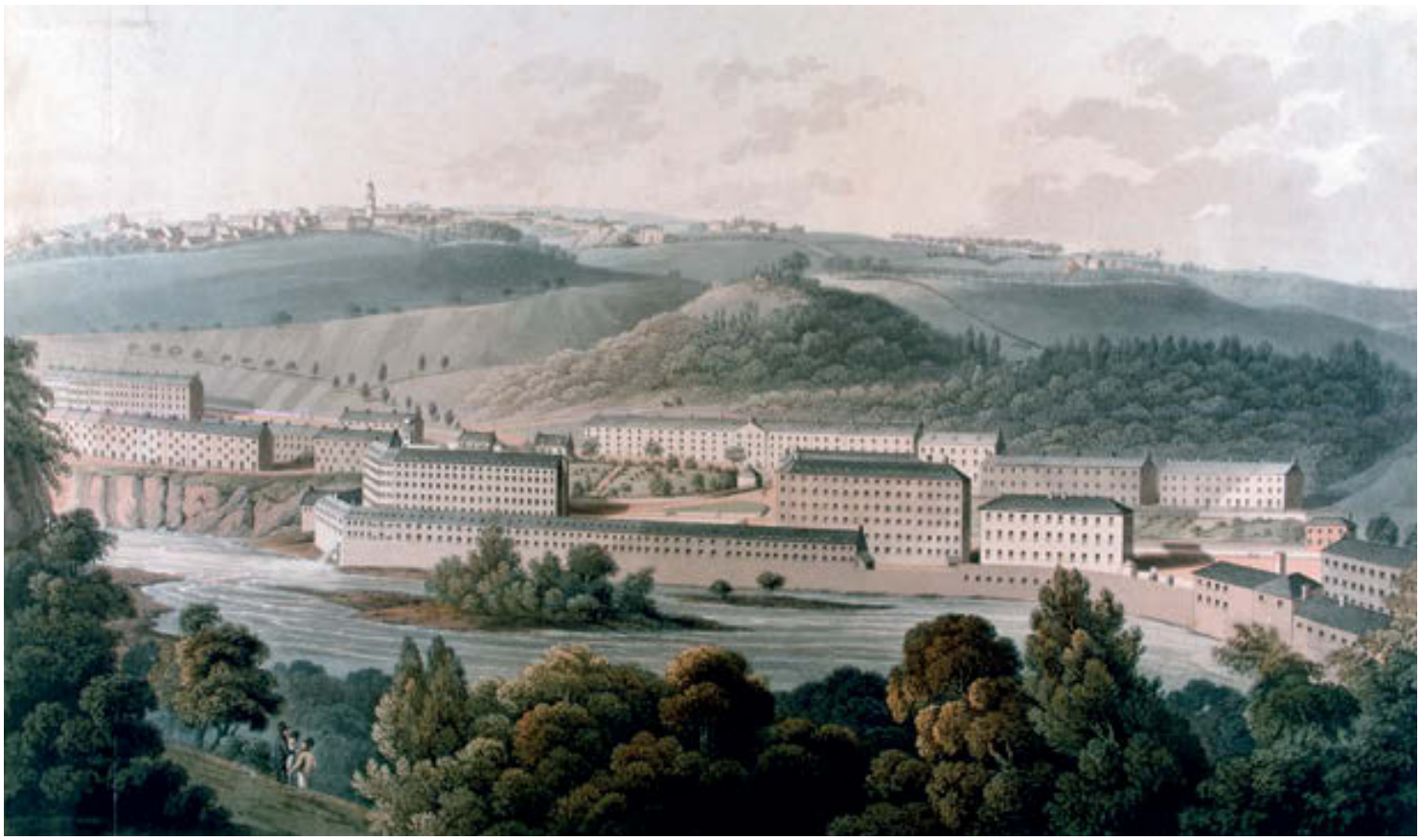
Some industries developed trade clubs, which quickly developed into unions that fought for common aims, such as higher wages. A union's main weapon against employers and industrialists was the threat of work stoppages known as strikes. The Combination Acts of 1799 and 1800 banned workers in Britain from meeting to demand increased wages or shorter working hours. If caught, the punishment for this crime was three months in jail.

After protests and debate, **trade unions** were legalised in 1825, swiftly leading to the establishment of groups such as the National Association for the Protection of Labour, with over 100 000 members. The largest union was the Grand National Consolidated Trades Union, established in 1833 by a mill owner, Robert Owen. Unlike many other mill owners, Owen supported the welfare of his workers. He abolished child labour in his mills (for those under the age of 10), provided schooling and good housing. He also paid good wages, including sick pay.

The Factory Acts

The Factory Acts were inspired by complaints about the employment of child labourers, who worked long days in appalling conditions. In 1802 and 1819, British politician and industrialist Robert Peel was instrumental in passing laws that restricted the hours that children had to work. Unfortunately, many mill owners had influence over local judges, so these laws were not enforced. By 1830, most of the 250 000 mill workers in Britain were still under the age of 18.

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



Source 5.61 An artist's impression of Robert Owen's cotton mill at New Lanark in 1818. Unlike many industrialists at the time, Owen supported the rights of workers at his mills and established one of the largest trade unions.

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

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

Emergence of modern lifestyles

Robert Owen was not the only factory owner who came to see that happier workers would work harder. Titus Salt, an industrialist and politician from the English town of Bradford began experimenting with the idea of providing well-built homes with drainage for his employees, as well as a local hospital, public baths, churches and schools.

In France, workers were allowed to gradually buy the cottages in which they lived. These workers' cities also had schools, hospitals and baths. Similar 'cities' were developed in other European nations.

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

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

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

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



Source 5.62 Young American boys working as mine helpers, *c.* 1900, before the introduction of child labour laws in the USA

Check your learning 5.14

Remember and understand

1 What did Karl Marx think was the driving force behind the Industrial Revolution?
2 Look at the first point of the People's Charter in Source 5.60. What large group was left out of their demands for voting rights?
3 In your own words define the term 'Luddite'.
4 Prior to 1825, what was the legal punishment if workers gathered to discuss demands for higher wages?

Apply and analyse

5 Read Source 5.60. In your own words, explain what a 'property qualification' was. Why did the Chartists want to abolish the property qualification for Members?
6 Explain how workers benefited from joining Friendly Societies.

Evaluate and create

7 Many people today who avoid using computers or new technology are called 'Luddites'. Given what you have learned, describe how the original 'Luddites' differ from modern-day 'Luddites'.
8 Create a poster advertising a Chartist meeting. Include the six proposals shown in Source 5.60 on your poster, ensuring that you explain each proposal in your own words so that they can be understood by young people today.

Long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution

Although it is impossible to accurately identify a date on which the Industrial Revolution came to an end, many historians argue that this coincided with the beginning of World War I in 1914. In the century since then, many of the long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution have started to become apparent. Some of these long-term impacts are positive while others are negative.

Long-term population growth and global inequality

Although rapid population growth was one of the major short-term effects of the Industrial Revolution, in the 100 years since then world population has continued to rise. Today, this growth has slowed in the industrialised nations but continues to increase rapidly in the developing world. In 1801, world population was approximately 1 billion people. By 2027, this number is estimated to exceed 8 billion. Many academics now argue that this number of people is unsustainable and is placing the world's resources at risk from overuse.

In the short-term, the advantages brought by the Industrial Revolution – including higher standards of living, education, better food and medical treatment – only benefited the industrialised world. Other areas of the world – such as the colonies of major European powers – were left behind or exploited for their resources. Today, these countries are striving to bring themselves into line with the first-world countries and former imperial powers that controlled them in the past.

In many ways, increased levels of global trade have allowed the industrialised world to export many of the problems of the Industrial Revolution – long hours, poor working conditions, child labour – to developing countries.



Source 5.63 An abandoned 19th-century lead mine

Environmental impacts

One of the most significant long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution is related to the environment. New sources of air and water pollution were introduced that we are only now beginning to acknowledge as directly linked to 19th-century industrial processes. Coal burnt in the production of steam power produced heavy layers of smog that hung over the factory towns and cities. Evidence of the effects of this pollution was found when modern scientists tested hair samples from famous people such as Isaac Newton and Napoleon Bonaparte. They discovered high concentrations of lead and mercury.

Today, not much has changed. The modern world is still heavily dependent on fossil fuels such as coal and oil. Not only do we use petroleum products in our cars, ships and planes, we also use them in the manufacture of our iPads, smart phones, computers and similar devices. The only difference is that these fuels we burn to maintain our affluent lifestyles are running out.

Air pollution

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

The developing world and its growing economies, particularly those of India and China, have copied the example of the industrialised nations by becoming large producers of pollution as they strive to improve the living conditions and wealth of their populations (see Source 5.65).

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



Source 5.64 The effects of industrialisation are seen in scenes such as this, where chemicals from a nearby chemical plant have killed the trees.



Source 5.65 Today, modern China follows the example set by Britain in the 1800s.

Water pollution and sewage difficulties

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

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

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



Source 5.66 Modern cleaning of the Thames; this device collects floating rubbish, such as plastic and wood.

key concept: significance

'Smellbourne'

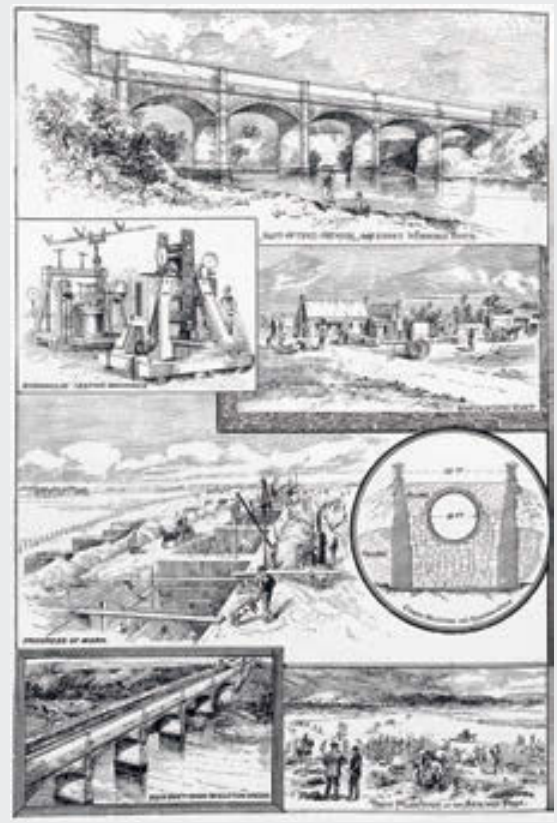
In the 1850s, the majority of sewage and human waste from houses across Melbourne was emptied into open drains that flowed into street channels. This waste mixed with other waste from stables and industries making these open street channels extremely smelly. As a result, Melbourne was given the nickname 'Smellbourne'.

Although there was a collection system (waste products collected from outhouses or 'dunnies' behind city homes by 'nightmen') it was disorganised and often resulted in the outbreak of diseases like typhoid.

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

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

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 5.67 An engraving showing works on the new sewerage scheme for Melbourne, 1892



Source 5.68 A modern example of the effects of deforestation in Haiti

Deforestation and land clearance

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

Check your learning 5.15

Remember and understand

1 In what ways did the Industrial Revolution encourage an increase in overall world population?

2 Use the information provided to complete the following tasks:
   - **a** Why was Melbourne nicknamed 'Smellbourne'?
   - **b** How did Melbourne resolve its difficulty with sewage?
   - **c** Why is the Melbourne sewerage system still considered significant to this day?

3 What effect did industrialisation have on waterways such as the Thames?

4 What were the unexpected consequences of the removal of trees from some mountain areas?

Apply and analyse

5 Write a paragraph describing some of the long-term environmental effects of the Industrial Revolution.

6 Explain why the Industrial Revolution did not benefit developing countries such as India.

7 Over the centuries, what has been the relationship between industrialisation and outbreaks of serious diseases and illnesses? Use examples from this text and from your own research to answer this question. Provide examples to support your answer.

Evaluate and create

8 Create a poster that advises people how to limit their pollution of waterways.

9 Write a letter to the newspaper arguing the need to investigate alternative energy sources of industrial and domestic power.

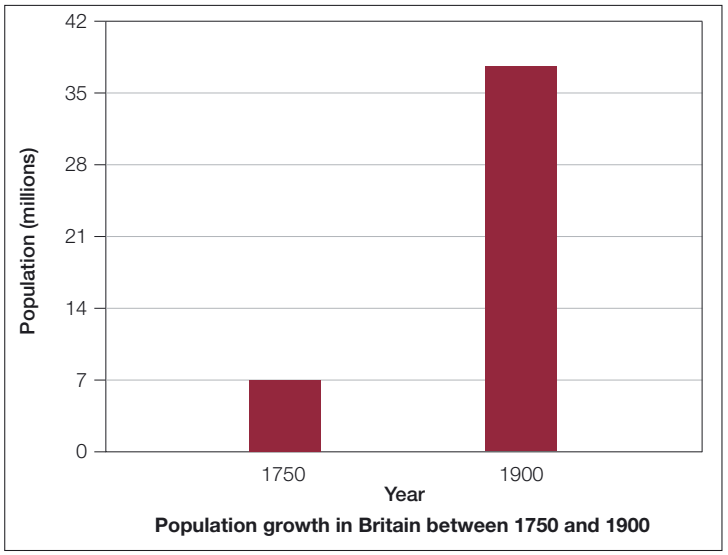
5.3 big**ideas:** rich task

Population growth in Britain during the Industrial Revolution

The Industrial Revolution meant the transformation of countries' populations from being predominantly rural to being predominantly urban. In England, millions of people migrated from farming areas to the cities springing up near the coal and iron fields. The population of Manchester, England, grew from 25 000 in 1772 to 303 000 by 1850. Overall in Britain, the number of cities with populations of 50 000 or more rose from three in 1785 to 31 in 1860. By 1850, Britain had become the first nation in history to have a larger urban than rural population.

Source 5.69

Britain	1750	1900
Population	7 million	37 million
People living in towns	13%	87%
Life expectancy	Men: 31 years Women: 33 years	Men: 45 years Women: 48 years
Deaths at birth	Deaths at birth: 65%	Deaths at birth: 15%



Source 5.70 Graph showing population growth in Britain between 1750 and 1900.

skill**drill**

Using graphs to communicate historical information

Sometimes, complicated numerical information presented in writing or in tables can be difficult to understand. Historians need to be able to read and interpret this information and communicate it visually. Graphs can be a very effective communication form for historians. They can condense information, make a point clearly and concisely, and show relationships and trends visually.

Bar graphs are very useful for showing how something has changed over time. Use the following steps when constructing a bar graph:

Step 1 Decide upon a title for the bar graph. The title should say what the graph is about in a very specific and concise way. For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 5.69, the title 'Population of Britain between 1750 and 1900' is more specific than the title 'Population of Britain', or the title 'Population between 1750 and 1900'. It is also more concise than the title 'The changing population of Britain between the years 1750 and 1900'.

Step 2 Determine the labels for the *x*-axis (the horizontal axis). The *x*-axis is usually used to show items, categories or time periods. To determine the labels, you need to consider the data you are using to make your graph. For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 5.69, we have put two labels on the *x*-axis: 1750 and 1900.

Step 3 Draw the *x*-axis and mark where the bars will be.

Step 4 Determine the scale for the *y*-axis (the vertical axis). The *y*-axis is usually used to show the frequency of something happening or the amount. Again, you need to consider the data you are using to make your graph. (For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 5.69, we have used a numerical scale which goes from zero to 37 million). You then need to choose an appropriate scale interval (e.g. 1 cm = 10 million).

Step 5 Draw the *y*-axis and mark your chosen intervals with the appropriate numerical labels (e.g. 10 million, 20 million).

Step 6 Write an appropriate *y*-axis title beside the *y*-axis and an appropriate *x*-axis title underneath the x-axis. For example, when graphing the information in the first row of the table in Source 5.69, the *y*-axis title is 'Population' and the *x*-axis title is 'Years'.

Step 7 After looking closely at your data, draw each bar. If the value falls between two of your marked intervals on the *y*-axis, approximate where the correct value would lie.

Step 8 Each graph should be uniquely numbered, for example, 'Figure 1'. (Note that all other images such as diagrams, pictures, photos and maps are also included in this numbering series.)

Step 9 Whether creating your own graph using another source's data, adapting their graph, or reproducing their graph as a whole, you must quote (cite) the source. Place the citation below the graph, and precede it by either 'Source:' (for an exact reproduction) or 'Data source:' (when you have modified the original).

Apply the skill

Using the information in Source 5.69, follow the steps outlined above to create three bar graphs in your notebook which show:

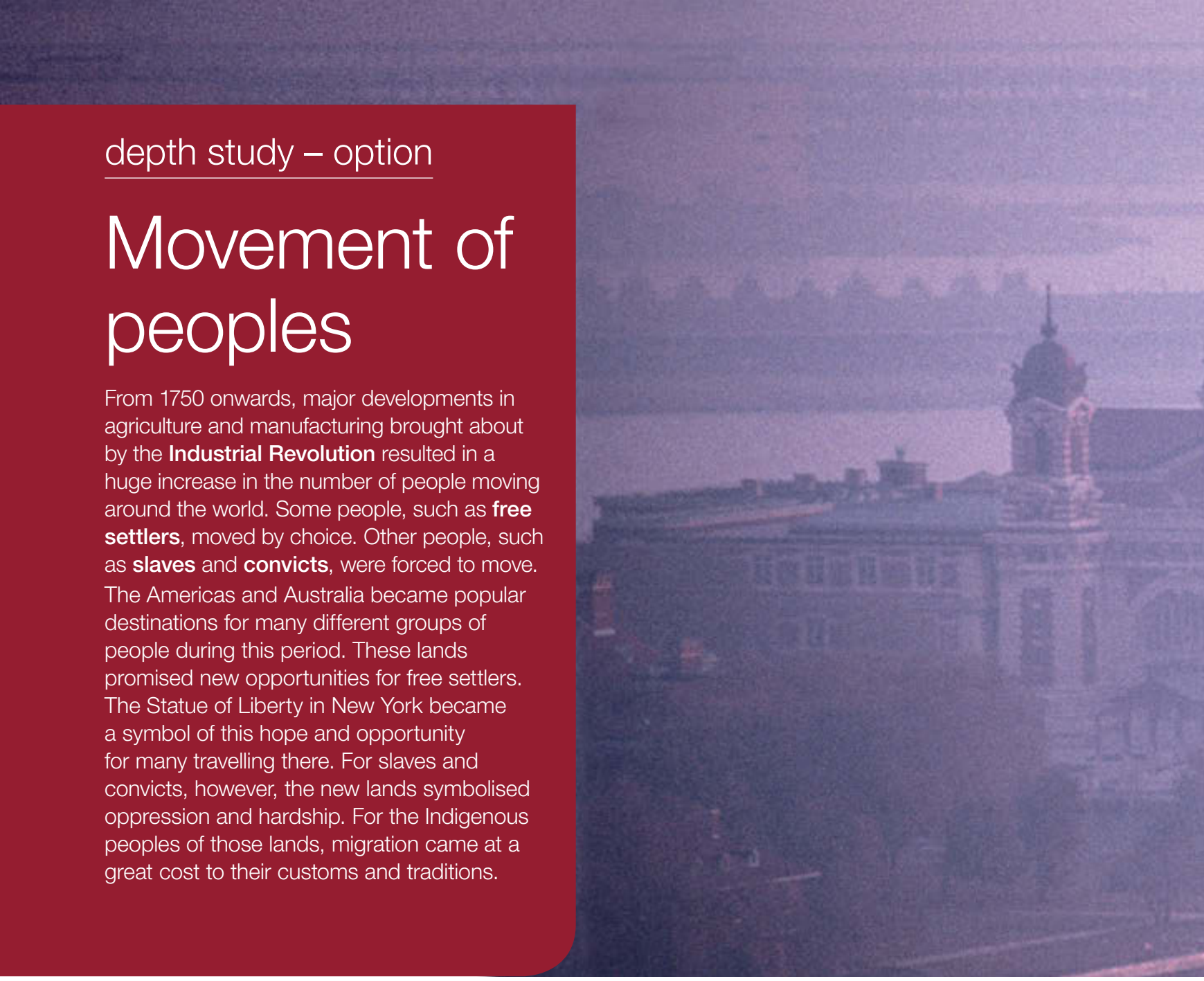
1. The difference in life expectancy of men and women in Britain in 1750 and 1900.
2. The difference in the number of babies that died at birth in 1750 compared to 1900.
3. How many more people were living in towns in 1900 compared to 1750.

Extend your understanding

1. Conduct some independent Internet research to find out why populations increased so rapidly during the Industrial Revolution, both generally and within cities. Using the information you have gathered, write a historical explanation of 200 words describing the population boom and the reasons why it occurred.



Source 5.71 Manchester's population grew rapidly between 1772 and 1850.



depth study – option

Movement of peoples

From 1750 onwards, major developments in agriculture and manufacturing brought about by the **Industrial Revolution** resulted in a huge increase in the number of people moving around the world. Some people, such as **free settlers**, moved by choice. Other people, such as **slaves** and **convicts**, were forced to move. The Americas and Australia became popular destinations for many different groups of people during this period. These lands promised new opportunities for free settlers. The Statue of Liberty in New York became a symbol of this hope and opportunity for many travelling there. For slaves and convicts, however, the new lands symbolised oppression and hardship. For the Indigenous peoples of those lands, migration came at a great cost to their customs and traditions.

6.1

What events influenced the movement of peoples around the world?

1 Make some predictions about the kind of events that might have caused people to leave their homelands between 1750 and 1901.

6.2

How did the movement of peoples affect the lives of slaves, convicts and free settlers?

1 In what ways do you think the experiences of convicts transported to Australia by force would have differed from the experiences of free settlers who came to Australia by choice?



chapter 6

Source 6.1 A view of the Statue of Liberty and Ellis Island in New York City. Ellis Island, shown in the background, was the main processing centre for new arrivals to the United States from 1892 to 1954.

6.3

What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?

1 The Indigenous peoples of Australia and America were affected greatly by the movement of peoples between 1750 and 1901. Brainstorm ways in which you think their experiences were similar and different.

Movement of peoples: a timeline



An oil painting depicting the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788

1619
The first African slaves brought to the American colony of Virginia

1770
The continent of Australia claimed in the name of the British Crown by Captain James Cook

1776
Declaration of Independence of the American colonies from Britain; end of convict transportation to American colonies

1783
The United States of America established

1788
The first convict settlement established in New South Wales after the arrival of the First Fleet

1806
The importation of African slaves to the USA banned

1600 1750 1800



An engraving titled *Introduction to slavery*, showing slaves being examined on a dock in Jamestown, Virginia, in the late 1610s

Source 6.2 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to the movement of peoples between 1750 and 1901



This wood engraving from *The Illustrated London News*, December 1848, shows an Irish peasant family being evicted from their cottage. They were unable to pay rent because their potato crop had failed due to potato blight.



Washington DC's black community celebrates the passage of the Thirteenth Amendment in 1865, which outlawed slavery

1836
The free colony of South Australia established

1838
Caroline Chisholm arrives in Australia and establishes help for female immigrants

1847
The Great Famine in Ireland, also known as the Irish Potato Famine, approaches its peak

1848
Gold is discovered in California, sparking a gold rush

1850

1851
Gold is discovered in New South Wales and Victoria, leading to an Australian gold rush

1861–1865
The American Civil War between the northern and southern states of the USA

1865
The Thirteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution formally ends slavery

1868
The end of convict transportation to Australia when the final convicts land in Western Australia

1890
The Battle of Wounded Knee marks the end of Native American resistance to western expansion

1900

1901
Australian colonies are federated



An engraving showing Caroline Chisholm meeting newly arrived immigrants on the Sydney wharves, *c.* 1845

Check your learning 6.1

Remember and understand

1 In what year were the first African slaves transported to America?
2 When was gold first discovered in New South Wales and Victoria?

Apply and analyse

3 Using the timeline, calculate the number of years that convict transportation to Australia from Britain took place.
4 Using the timeline, calculate the number of years that the transportation of slaves from Africa to the USA took place.

6.1 What events influenced the movement of peoples around the world?

The main causes of migration from 1750 to 1901

The period from 1750 to 1901 saw an unprecedented increase in the number of people moving around the world – a process known as **migration**. Some people moved within their own countries (e.g. from rural areas to urban areas) while others moved between countries (e.g. from England to new colonies in North America and Australia).

There were many reasons why people moved. Historians try to understand the different reasons for migration by organising them into four main categories:

- **economic migration** – moving in search of work. During the Industrial Revolution, mass migration took place as people moved from the countryside to growing towns and cities across England searching for work in factories and mines there. Later, once gold had been discovered in British colonies in Australia, thousands migrated in search of wealth.
- **social migration** – moving for a better quality of life or to be closer to family and friends. With steady work came an improved standard of living. Many people believed that industrial cities offered opportunities for a better life. Others believed that a fresh start in a far-off land offered these opportunities.



Source 6.3 *The Emigrant Ship*, a painting by Charles J Staniland, *c.* 1880, shows a ship docked in Liverpool, England, with emigrants to the New World on board being waved off by friends and relatives.

- **political migration** – moving to escape political persecution or war. A large number of people who moved from England to other parts of the world during the 18th and 19th centuries were political prisoners or radical thinkers who had criticised the monarch of England or challenged the authority of the government. These people were transported by force or fled persecution of their own accord.
- **environmental migration** – moving to escape natural disasters such as flooding and famine. In Ireland between 1845 and 1852, a period known as the Great Famine (or Irish Potato Famine) led to more than one million Irish men, women and children leaving their homeland in search of a safer environment in which to rebuild their lives.

As well as grouping migrants, historians also consider a range of other factors that influence people's decisions. These are known as **push factors** and **pull factors**. Push factors are negative things that tend to push people away from certain places, whereas pull factor are positive things that pull people towards a certain place. Some examples of push factors include poverty, famine, crop failure, lack of employment, overcrowding, natural disasters, war, and political or religious oppression. Some examples of pull factors include better job opportunities, more space and greater religious and political freedoms.



Source 6.4 *The Last of England*, a painting by Ford Maddox Brown, 1852–55, shows a couple emigrating with their baby in a ship named *Eldorado*, with the white cliffs of Dover (a city in southern England) in the background.

key**concept:** perspectives

Defining migration and understanding different types of migrants

Before learning about the events of the period, it is important to define some key terms and groups of people. These terms are used frequently throughout this chapter, so refer back to this list whenever you need to. They include:

- **emigration:** the departure of people from their homeland (country of birth) to settle permanently in a new country
- **immigration:** the arrival of people into a new country to settle permanently
- **migration:** the movement of people within a country or from one country to another
- **convict:** a person found guilty or a crime and sentenced to punishment by a court; convicts in Britain during the 18th century were often transported to serve a sentence in British colonies such as Australia
- **slave:** a person who is considered to be the property of another person and has very few (if any) rights; during the 18th century, many Africans were enslaved by Europeans and taken by force to the Americas
- **free settler:** a person who pays their way and chooses to settle in a new country
- **assisted migrant:** a person who receives assistance from a government or organisation to move to another country.

When learning about the movement of peoples during this period, we need to consider the perspectives of the various people involved. For example, the perspectives and experiences of slaves and convicts will be very different to the perspectives and experiences of free settlers. The perspectives of these different people will have influenced how they viewed or reacted to specific events at the time. They will also have influenced the ways in which people recorded and wrote about their experiences. It is always important to consider the impact that a particular perspective will have on a source.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Push factors

Since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in 1750, many factors have pushed people towards starting a new life elsewhere. A range of these factors is discussed below.

The Agricultural Revolution

Until the early 18th century, most people in Europe lived in rural areas and worked in agriculture. Land use had changed little since the Middle Ages, and families often worked the same land for generations. Most peasants worked enough to provide food to feed their families. Their lives were simple and there was a certainty about their roles as members of village communities.

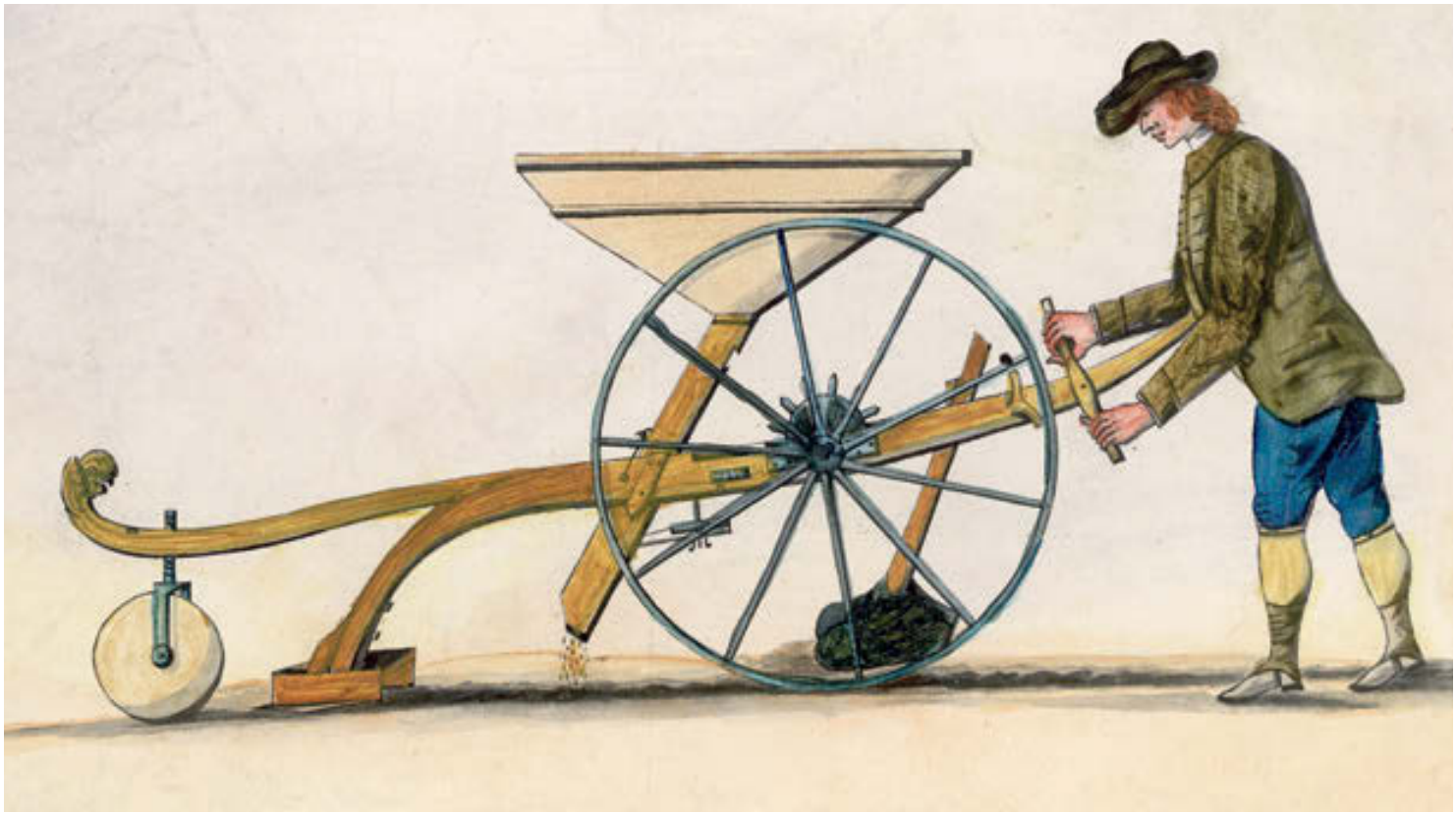
All of this changed with the development of new farming techniques and agricultural machines during the 18th century. The **Agricultural Revolution** began in Britain but quickly spread to Western Europe. New methods of crop rotation and animal breeding – as well as the invention of machines for ploughing, sowing seed and harvesting – improved crop yields and quality of meat (see Source 6.5). These new approaches to farming were beneficial for the landowners, but forced many peasants off the lands that their ancestors had farmed. Wealthy landowners enclosed fields for planting and grazing. They still required peasants to look after the crops and animals, but the new machines meant fewer labourers were needed. This was the first major example of technology claiming jobs.

The Agricultural Revolution resulted in a wave of migration from the country to newly emerging towns and cities. Many who had lost their livelihoods in villages, especially the young and single, flocked to the towns and cities looking for work. This migration coincided with the Industrial Revolution.

The Industrial Revolution

At the same time as new methods and machines were modernising agriculture, new approaches to manufacturing and food processing were emerging. The steam engine paved the way for the development of machines such as the locomotive, spinning and weaving machines, pumps to assist mining, and smelters to process the ores.

A vast unskilled or semi-skilled labour force was required to support this new industrial economy. Working conditions were terrible and there were also no laws banning child labour. As a result, children as young as six were put to work in the mines and factories (see Source 6.6). Their size made them valuable to employers because they could fit into small spaces and climb under machines. They often worked in great danger for very little money.



Source 6.5 The seed drill invented by Jethro Tull made the sowing of crops easier and involved far less waste of seed. It also required fewer labourers.

The great migration of people into towns and cities across England provided the labour force for the new factories. English cities such as Manchester, Liverpool and Birmingham grew rapidly. This resulted in overcrowding and unhealthy living conditions. For many of the poor in these industrial cities, as well as the displaced in rural areas, migrating to new countries in search of a better life provided a way out.

A great increase in crime, plus overcrowded jails, contributed to another of the major push factors behind emigration from Britain in the 18th and 19th centuries – the transportation of convicts to **penal colonies** in North America and Australia.

Population growth

During the 18th century, improvements in food production and new discoveries in medicine and hygiene led to a significant increase in population. The birth rate was rising, fewer children were dying and adults, on average, were living longer. Between 1750 and 1800, the population of Britain grew from 6.5 million to 9 million. This population growth created great pressures, especially at a time when new technology on farms and in factories was reducing the number of available jobs. Emigration provided a kind of safety valve in reducing pressure on jobs, housing and resources.



Source 6.6 Children were often forced to work in factories during the Industrial Revolution. This was a push factor for some families to emigrate.

Natural disasters: the Irish Potato Famine

Over the centuries, natural disasters have also been push factors motivating groups of people to leave their homelands in order to survive. One such natural disaster took place in Ireland in the middle of the 19th century. It resulted in one of the greatest movements of people from a single country, and occurred as a result of the failure of the potato crop in Ireland.

At the time of the famine, most Irish farmers rented the farming lands on which they lived and worked from wealthy English lords. The majority of crops and animals that the Irish farmers produced on these lands were paid as rent, leaving most peasant families to rely heavily on the potato crop in order to survive. In the 1840s, the potato crop failed several years in a row because of poor soil and a disease called potato blight that made the potatoes inedible. Most landowners refused to waive the rents, which would have enabled the Irish farmers to survive this tragedy.

The result was starvation in Ireland while tonnes of edible crops (paid in rent) were shipped to England. Those who were evicted from their cottages for non-payment of rent often finished up in workhouses where they received only the most basic accommodation and food. Disease was widespread in most workhouses, and the already starving and weakened peasants had little resistance. The most disastrous years of famine were from 1847 to 1849. The famine, which became known as the Great Famine, caused between 1 and 1.5 million deaths and resulted in up to two million people leaving Ireland in search of a better life.

Over the ten years of the Great Famine, the population of Ireland decreased by one-third. A small percentage of those who left Ireland travelled to Australia and New Zealand, but most went to North America because the journey was shorter and cheaper. However, it is estimated that up to one in five emigrants died making the voyage. As a result, the ships they travelled on became known as 'coffin ships'. Poor sanitation, overcrowding, lack of food and disease meant that many passengers, already weakened by starvation, were not able to survive the journey.

Discrimination and persecution

Over the centuries, many waves of emigrants have also left their homelands to escape religious or political persecution. Certain American colonies, for example, were established by Puritans (a group of English Protestants who believed in strict religious discipline) escaping religious persecution in Britain.

Jewish people had suffered discrimination in Europe for centuries and emigrated to escape persecution. They often became scapegoats when times were tough, because some Jews appeared to be more wealthy and successful than other groups in society. However, this perception was often untrue. Many Jewish people, especially in Eastern Europe, were not allowed to own land and were among the poorest peasants. During the 19th century there were organised attacks on Jews (see Source 6.7). This led to many Jews fleeing to countries like the USA.



Source 6.7 A 19th-century engraving showing an attack on Jewish citizens in Kiev, Ukraine

Forced migration

Not all people who left their homelands during this period of history did so willingly. In fact, the largest number of migrants at this time were forced to move. These groups included slaves and convicts.

From the early 17th century, hundreds of thousands of African people were captured and transported across the Atlantic to America as slaves (see Source 6.9). This meant they were taken prisoner and then sold as goods. The purpose of this scheme was to provide a free labour force in the North American colonies.

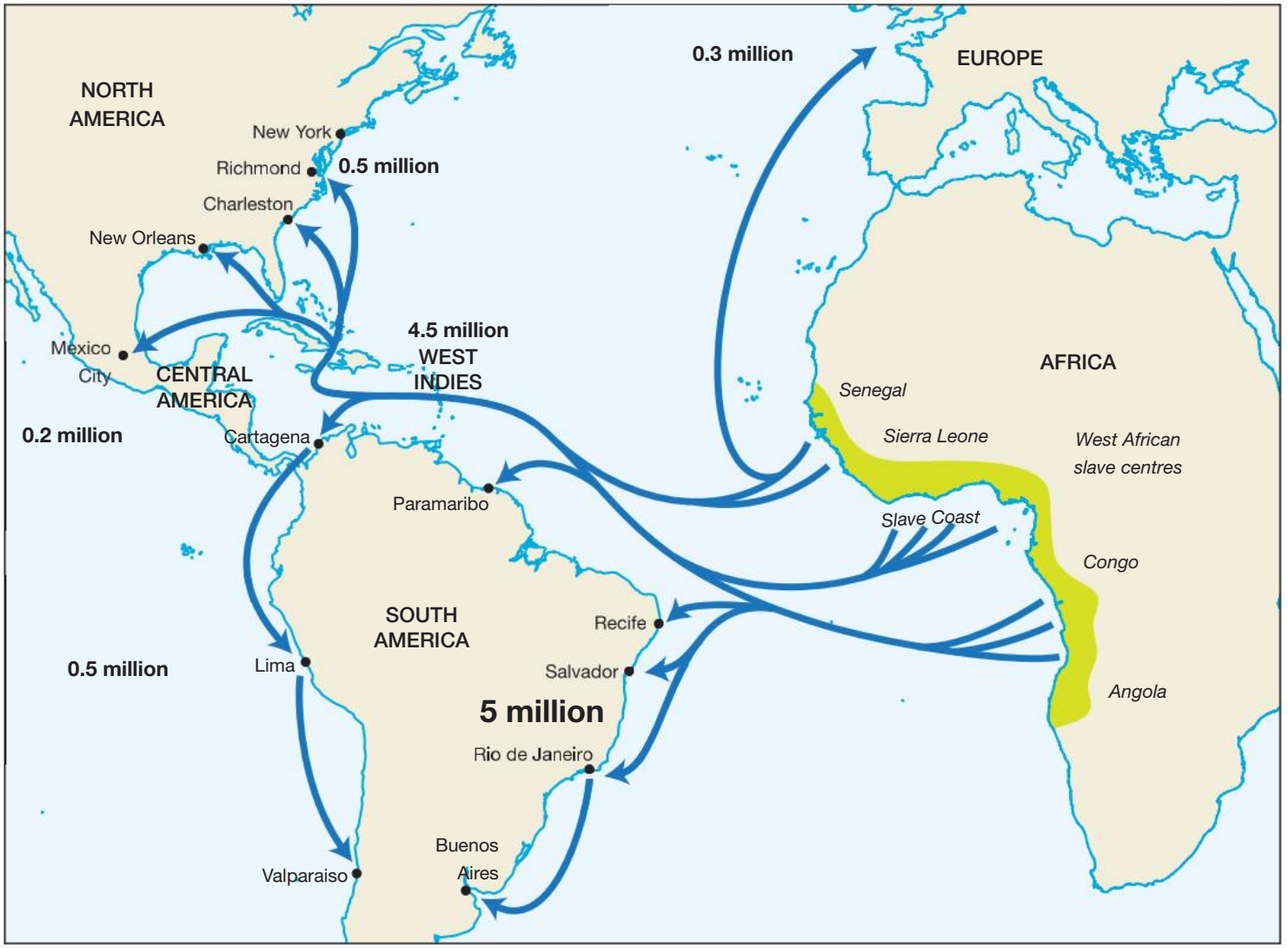
A smaller scheme also involved the capture of people from islands across the Pacific and the transfer of these people to Queensland from the 1860s. These people, who became known as South Sea Islanders, were used as cheap labour on Queensland sugar cane and pineapple plantations (see Source 6.8).

In addition to the forced migration of slaves, between 1788 and 1868 over 165 000 convicted British criminals – many guilty of only minor crimes – were transported across the world to the Australian colonies. Although these people were forced migrants, great opportunities were offered to those convicts who worked hard and did not reoffend. After their release, many ex-convicts in Australia reflected that transportation had eventually provided a better way of life than they could ever have hoped for in Britain. Only a small percentage of convicts returned to Britain when they had completed their sentences.



Source 6.8 South Sea Islanders on a Queensland pineapple plantation in the 1890s

WORLD: SLAVE ROUTES



Source 6.9

Source: Oxford University Press

Check your learning 6.2

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, explain the difference between emigration and immigration?
2. What are some of the 'push factors' that can caused people to emigrate from their homelands from 1750 to 1901?
3. Explain the difference between a free settler and an assisted migrant?
4. Name three cities in England that grew rapidly during the Industrial Revolution. What were conditions there like?
5. What percentage of the Irish population died as a result of the Great Famine?

Apply and analyse

6. Explain how population growth in Europe was a push factor for emigration.
7. How would the perspectives of a convict, slave, free settler and assisted migrant differ if they were explaining why they had emigrated to a new country?

Evaluate and create

8. Research the use of South Sea Islander labour in Queensland in the 19th century. In what ways is it similar to African slavery and in what ways is it different?

Pull factors

Some pull factors that encouraged people to migrate during this period included things like the promise of a better life, better employment opportunities, more space, more fertile soil, greater personal freedom and the opportunity to shape the future of an undeveloped land.

Between 1750 and 1901, millions of people were pulled towards particular destinations as a result of a range of these factors. North America and Australia offered stability, democracy and a future. The discovery of gold in both regions during this period also led to a dramatic increase in the population.

During the 18th and 19th centuries, North America, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa offered abundant land that many Europeans saw as theirs for the taking. In some cases, free grants of land were made to attract new settlers. Even when land was not free, prices were usually low and it was relatively easy for newcomers to set up small farms and build new lives. This pull factor, along with a range of other factors, is discussed below in relation to North America and the Australian colonies.

North America

From 1775 to 1783, thirteen colonies in North America fought a War of Independence to break free from British control. After winning their independence, a period of growth and expansion began and the country we now think of as the United States of America began to take shape. As people moved west across the country, new settlements and trade routes developed, creating employment and opportunities to own land.

By the late 19th century, other British colonies and settlements across Canada were also starting to expand. Like the USA, Canada had large areas of land available. To encourage development, land was given free to settlers along the route of the Canadian Pacific Railway – a railway line built during the 1880s connecting the east coast of Canada with the west coast.

In 1848, gold was discovered in California. This led to a gold rush that brought around 300 000 people to California over the next five years, transforming the area. This was followed by a Colorado gold rush that led to the development of the area inland from California. Over time, the goal of developing the USA as a land of opportunity that stretched from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west was achieved.

The idea of 'America' as a prosperous democracy was a powerful pull factor for the many Europeans who had seen their lives worsen as a result of the Industrial Revolution.

key concept: continuity and change

Idaho Springs

In 1859, gold was discovered in Idaho Springs in Colorado, USA. This began the Colorado gold rush that followed the one in California. Like many areas, Idaho Springs was transformed by the sudden influx of goldminers and the support industries necessary to provide them with goods and services such as tools, meals and accommodation.

It is important to see how both the California and Colorado gold rushes transformed different areas, but it is also just as important to look how these areas stayed the same over time. Sources 6.10 and 6.11 are photographs taken over 100 years apart. As a historian, it is important that you train yourself to look for obvious changes, but also take the time to explore continuities. Continuities are often more difficult to recognise, but they are also important in historical study. For example, although the methods of transportation in Idaho Springs have changed, the basic layout of the town and a number of its buildings remain unchanged.

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 6.10 A 19th-century street scene in Idaho Springs, Colorado, as goldminers flock to the area



Source 6.11 The same street in Idaho Springs in 2011

Australia

When the **First Fleet** arrived in Australia to establish a British colony in 1788, they were carrying around 750 convicts, soldiers and government officials with them. This was the first British population of Australia. Life was difficult in such a different climate, but gradually the first **colony** expanded. By the 19th century there were also colonies in Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia.

As exploration opened the continent to settlement, the need for workers increased. Convicts were gradually replaced by free settlers and a new class of assisted migrants (people who were given financial assistance from the government to encourage them to move Australia). If workers in Britain possessed a particular skill, employers in Australia could apply for financial assistance to bring them over to settle and work here. Magazines often featured cartoons comparing life in England with life in the colonies (see Source 6.13). This kind of assisted migration continued throughout the 20th century and was an important way of boosting the number of immigrants arriving in Australia.

The discovery of gold helped transform Australia. Gold was first discovered in New South Wales in 1851. Between 1850 and 1860 the population of Australia more than doubled. In addition to the thousands who arrived in search of wealth on the goldfields (see Source 6.12) were groups of political refugees (known as **Chartists**), activists and religious orders. These groups believed there was greater opportunity to think and speak freely, express differing political views and practise one's chosen religion in Australia.



Source 6.12 This painting by ST Gill from 1869 titled *Digger's Wedding* shows a newly wealthy goldminer enjoying a drunken carriage ride. At the time, the upper classes feared wealthy miners with no social standing as a serious threat to their position and authority in society. (The subtitle of the painting is *The Dangers of Horrid Democracy*.)



Source 6.13 One of many posters used in Britain during the 19th century to encourage people to emigrate to British colonies such as those in Australia.

Check your learning 6.3

Remember and understand

1 What were the major pull factors that influenced migration between 1750 and the start of the 20th century?
2 Which areas of land in Canada were offered free to settlers?
3 Name two American states that experienced gold rushes.

Apply and analyse

4 Describe the assisted migration scheme to the Australian colonies. Explain why it was established.
5 Why do you think new arrivals might have stayed in the USA or Australia after the gold rushes? What do you think would have played a more important role in their decision-making: push factors or pull factors?
6 Can an analysis of the two Idaho Springs photos (Sources 6.10 and 6.11) allow you to develop a thorough understanding of the impacts that the gold rush had on Colorado? Explain your response. What other sources could help a historian reach a more reliable conclusion?

Evaluate and create

7 Select an area in the USA or Australia that was influenced by gold rushes in the 19th century and create a digital photo collection that allows you to show and explain continuities and changes in the area.

6.1 big**ideas:** rich task

The movement of Jewish people during the 19th century

During the 19th century, there was enormous movement of Jewish people around the world due to a range of factors and events.

Large numbers of Jews, many of whom were living in Europe, moved overseas – above all to the United States of America. Discrimination and prejudice against Jewish people (known as **anti-Semitism**) has existed for centuries, but became particularly severe at various times throughout the 1800s. Anti-Semitism in Europe during the late 19th century was demonstrated by an event known as the 'Dreyfus affair'.



Source 6.14 One of Lenepveu's anti-Semitic posters, depicting a journalist by the name of Caroline Rémy as a cow. Rémy was a defender of Dreyfus.



Source 6.15 Another of V. Lenepveu's anti-Semitic posters, depicting Dreyfus as a sea monster with many heads and labelling him as *le Traître* (a traitor)

The 'Dreyfus affair' took place in France in the 1890s. Alfred Dreyfus was a French Army Captain of Jewish faith who was accused of leaking military secrets to the Germans. He was found guilty on the basis of false evidence. During his trial, it became clear that the single motivation for the charges was the fact that he was Jewish. The Dreyfus affair created a political split in France and exposed widespread anti-Semitism at the highest levels of French government and culture. The controversial case led to widespread mob violence and an overall increase in anti-Semitism in France.

During Dreyfus' trial, an artist using the pseudonym (fake name) V. Lenepveu created a series of political posters titled the *Musée des Horreurs* (meaning Museum of Horrors or 'Freak Show'). These posters were published weekly and depicted prominent friends and supporters of Dreyfus (such as journalists and Jewish leaders) as animals.

skill**drill**

Writing a historical discussion using evidence from a range of sources

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. They consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence. This involves considering not only various primary sources (such as newspapers, photographs or political and legal documents from the period being studied), but also the ideas of other historians, presented in secondary sources such as textbooks and on websites. Historical discussions conclude with the writer's own point of view on the question or issue, and include a bibliography that references all sources used. The table summarises the structure of a written discussion.

Introduction	• Introduces the topic, question or issue • Outlines why the topic, question or issue is important
Main body	• A series of paragraphs that outline different arguments or opinions about the topic, question or issue • Each opinion or argument that is presented should also refer to the evidence which supports it
Conclusion	• Sums up the issue and gives the writer's opinion

Any sources that you have used in your written discussion must be referenced. First, you need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. Some examples of how you can do this include:

- 'According to the 19th-century American historian William Hickling Prescott …'
- 'The depiction of Jewish people in the French newspaper *La Libre Parole* (Free Speech) during the 1890s shows that …'.

You then need to include any sources you have referred to in your discussion in a bibliography. When citing a *book* in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s); Year of publication; Title of book (in italics); Edition (if relevant); Publisher; Place of publication; Page number(s).

  Example:

Easton, M and Carrodus, G, 2014, *Oxford Big Ideas Geography/History 9 Australian Curriculum,* Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19

When citing an *online source* in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
- Year of publication or date of web page (last update)
- Title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
- Date of posting
- Organisation name (if different from above)
- Date you accessed the site
- URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets.

  Example:

Sarna, J and Golden, J, 2012, 'The American Jewish Experience through the Nineteenth Century: Immigration and Acculturation', accessed 30 March 2013, <http://nationalhumanitiescenter.org/tserve/nineteen/nkeyinfo/judaism.htm>.

Apply the skill

1 Write a historical discussion of 250–300 words outlining the main reasons why so many Jewish people emigrated from Europe during the 19th century.
   - Use the information and sources in this section as the basis of your discussion, but you will also need to conduct further research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources that provide evidence about other factors, events and attitudes that led to Jewish emigration in this period.
   - Make sure you include a bibliography that references all your sources using the instructions provided.

Extend your understanding

1 Using the library or Internet, find out about another example of anti-Semitism that caused Jews to emigrate, namely the anti-Jewish pogroms (attacks) in the Russian Empire in the 19th century.

  Copy the following data chart into your notebook and complete it as you conduct your research.

Details of event:	Year	Place	Cause/ motivation for the persecution	Impact on migration

6.2 How did the movement of peoples affect the lives of slaves, convicts and free settlers?

Slavery in the Americas

During the early part of the 18th century, the southern British colonies of North America (such as Virginia, North and South Carolina and Georgia) were experiencing major labour shortages. In these colonies, many of the farms were large plantations dependent on large numbers of workers performing hours of backbreaking labour in the hot sun. Workers of European background were unwilling to undertake plantation work unless they were paid very high wages. Employing them would have made the plantations unprofitable, so another solution had to be found. This solution came in the form of **slavery**. For the next 200 years, this practice was the backbone of the economy across much of North America. Slaves were regarded as the property of whoever bought them, and any children born to slaves also became the property of the slave owner.

Initially, there were slaves and slave owners in all of the original 13 British colonies across North America. However, by the time of the War of Independence in the 1770s and the signing of the Declaration of Independence in 1776, slavery was largely confined to the southern states.



Source 6.16 An 1824 engraving showing a slave and his wealthy master, southern USA

At this time, it was regarded as acceptable for European and American raiding parties to land in West Africa. By negotiation or force, they would gather boatloads of men, women and children, chain them together and transport them by boat to the Americas. On arrival, these African people would be sold to landowners who were desperate for cheap labour. These slaves were completely removed from their families, traditions and cultures, and left without hope. Their experiences were often horrific.

The journey

Slaves were kidnapped from the north-west coast of Africa – from places such as Guinea (a French colony) or Gold Coast (a British colony). Slave catchers used rope nets to capture young Africans, then herded them into cages. They were then loaded onto slave ships. Often African men were captured while they were out hunting, and their families had no idea what had happened to them.

The slave journey was a brutal and terrifying experience. Slaves were chained together in the ship's hold for up to 23 hours a day. They were allowed an hour's exercise on deck, purely to keep up their



Source 6.17 Slaves were shackled before being put in the ship's hold, *c.* 1835.

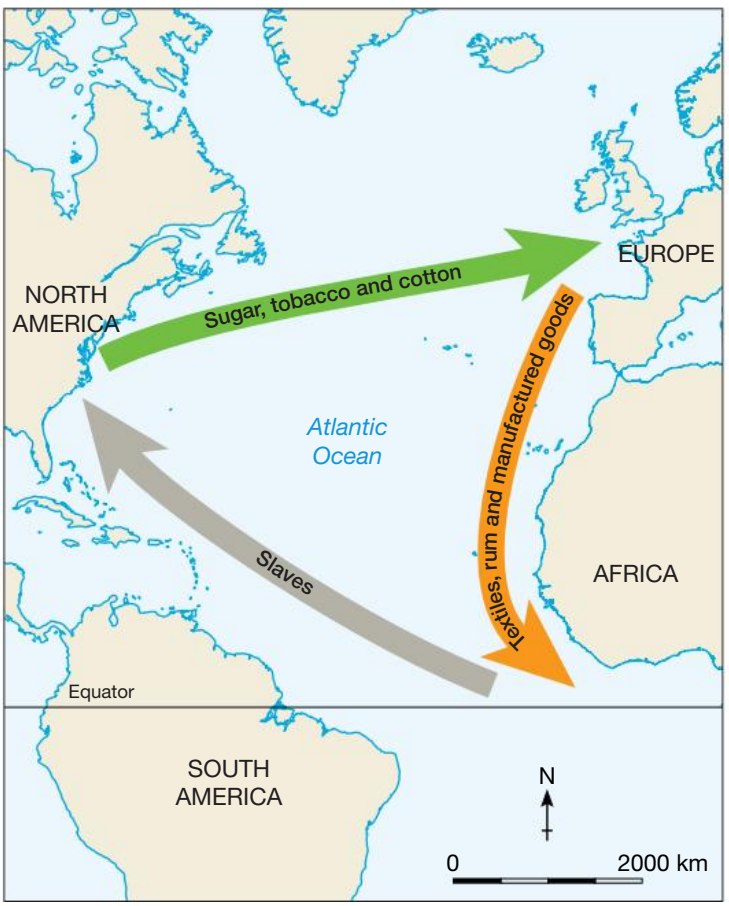
fitness so that they would fetch a good price on arrival in America. The holds were never cleaned and after a few days the stench was unbearable. Slaves were violently punished for any wrongdoings and female slaves were often assaulted by crew members. A ship's doctor described the situation on a slave ship like this: 'It is not in the power of the human imagination to picture a situation more dreadful or disgusting'.

The triangular trade

By the end of the 17th century, a **triangular trade** was firmly established (see Source 6.18). It functioned in the following way:

- Europeans purchased slaves who had been captured in Africa, then transported them by ship to the Americas. They were sold as labourers to work on sugar-cane, cotton and tobacco plantations.
- The raw materials from these plantations were then shipped back to Europe to be refined or sold in European markets. The mass production of goods during the Industrial Revolution created greater demand for raw materials.
- Some of the goods made from these raw materials (such as rum, textiles and manufactured goods) were then shipped to Africa to be sold in markets there. At this point, new slaves would be loaded and transported to the Americas again, continuing the cycle.

TRANSATLANTIC TRIANGULAR TRADE ROUTE



Source 6.18 Source: Oxford University Press

Arrival

When the slave ships docked at one of the American ports, slaves were unloaded and prepared for auction (see Source 6.19). Sores and wounds were covered with tar to hide them from potential buyers. Troublesome slaves were given laudanum (a drug to calm them down), while lethargic slaves were given a small sip of brandy (to make them seem more alert). Slaves were paraded like animals before interested buyers. Potential buyers would examine them thoroughly, look in their mouths, feel their muscles and even comment on their ability as potential breeders of more slaves. The entire process was dehumanising and undignified, especially as the slaves had no idea where they were or what was ahead of them.

The majority of slaves brought to North America worked on southern plantations and farms. They were given English names and usually went by the surnames of their masters. The men worked long hours in the cotton or tobacco fields. They were accommodated in simple huts and had few comforts. Women slaves were more likely to work in the owner's house, although some tended animals and vegetable patches. Female slaves were often at the mercy of male members of the household.

Slaves who tried to escape were punished severely (see Source 6.20). Whipping was common for those who were caught, and repeat offenders could have their teeth filed into points so that it was obvious to all that this slave was troublesome.

In the southern states most slaves worked on farms or plantations, but there were also slaves in the towns working as house servants, messengers, labourers, coach drivers and blacksmiths. By 1800, slavery had been abolished in all of the northern states. Half a million black people living in the northern states were no longer enslaved, but they did not enjoy equality with the white population.



Source 6.19 An artist's impression of a slave auction

Most ex-slaves in the north still held the most unskilled jobs, lived in the worst conditions and were discriminated against in a range of ways.

In some ways, some enslaved people had easier lives if they had 'kind' masters as their basic needs – such as food and shelter – would be met. Slaves who were freed were left to fend for themselves, which often meant that they had difficulty surviving because of the discrimination they faced.



Source 6.20 An illustration of a slave owner whipping a slave to death after she attempted to escape

The Caribbean

Slavery had been part of life in the Americas since the arrival of the Spanish at the end of the 15th century. The islands of the Caribbean (such as Barbados, Haiti and Cuba) were particularly profitable areas for growing sugar cane and tobacco. Sugar became hugely popular in Europe as it made the flavour of many foods more acceptable. This led to demands for slave labour to increase and maintain the supply of sugar and tobacco to Europe.

The British moved to abolish slavery in this region in the 1830s, and France followed soon after. The increase in numbers of Africans into the Caribbean had a significant impact on the local population. Many Caribbean people claim African heritage, and restoring those cultural links has become a significant part of Caribbean life.

An end to slavery

Despite the claim in the Declaration of Independence (signed in 1776) that 'all men are created equal', it was not until 1808 that the US Congress officially banned the importation of slaves from Africa. It was not until much later that the practice of slavery was officially outlawed in all states of the USA. In December 1865, after a civil war between northern and southern states, the Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution came into effect. It abolished slavery for good. At this time, around 40 000 slaves were officially freed in states such as Kentucky, Kansas and Louisiana.

Check your learning 6.4

Remember and understand

1 In your own words, define and explain the triangular trade as shown in Source 6.18.
2 Using Source 6.20 and the information provided, describe the kind of treatment slaves were generally subjected to.
3 What were troublesome slaves given to calm them down before being auctioned?
4 What were the two main products that slaves produced in the Caribbean?

Apply and analyse

5 Explain how labour shortages on American plantations contributed to the development of the transatlantic slave trade.
6 The American Declaration of Independence states that 'all men are created equal'. How do you think slave owners and members of Congress in the US justified the use of slave labour after this time? Which concept for historical understanding would best help you to understand this situation? Why?
7 How did people make money from the triangular trade?
8 How do Sources 6.17 to 6.20 support the hypothesis that slavery was a cruel and dehumanising experience?

Evaluate and create

9 Put yourself in the position of a slave captured in Africa and transported to the Americas. Create a number of diary entries recounting your experiences of being captured in Africa, your journey to the Americas, and your arrival at auction.

Significant individual: George Washington

George Washington (1732–1799) became the first President of the United States in 1789. Although he was a slave owner for most of his life, his attitude towards the practice of slavery changed significantly over his lifetime. In 1799, Washington drew up a secret will, without his family's knowledge, that would free all the slaves he owned after his wife Martha died. The question of how George Washington came to this decision is one that has continued to intrigue historians because during his lifetime he never spoke out publicly against slavery and did little to prevent its spread.

Washington's background

George Washington was born on his father's plantation in Westmoreland County, Virginia, on 22 February 1732. In 1743, his father died, leaving most of his property to George's older half-brothers. As the oldest child living at home, George helped his mother manage the plantation where they lived. There he learned the importance of hard work and efficiency. The death of his father made a European education impossible for George due to the high cost of studying abroad. Instead, he attended local schools and his formal education ended around the age of 15.

When his father died, 11-year-old George inherited ten slaves. The practice of slavery at this time was commonplace. Slaves, like land and other property, could be bought, sold, given away, rented out and inherited. As a young man, George Washington shared the attitude common among plantation owners, that there was nothing morally wrong with slavery.

By the time of his death, 316 slaves lived and worked at his Mount Vernon plantation. As on other plantations during this era, Washington's slaves worked from dawn until dusk unless they were injured or ill. They could be whipped if they ran away or broke the rules of the house.

When they died, slaves were often buried in unmarked graves on his plantation (see Source 6.22). Historians believe around 150 slaves were buried at Mount Vernon.

Washington's changing attitude

Before the the **American War of Independence**, Washington expressed no moral doubts about slavery, but by 1778 he had stopped selling slaves because he did not want to break up families. This was despite the fact that he had too many slaves, including elderly slaves who were no longer able to work. Some historians believe that Washington's thoughts on slavery changed as a result of the war – including the fact that so many blacks enlisted in the army to fight for independence.

After the war, Washington often privately expressed his dislike of the institution of slavery. In 1786, he wrote in a letter to Robert Morris (an influential merchant and future politician) about his desire to see the lawful end of slavery: 'I can only say that there is not a man living who wishes more sincerely than I do, to see a plan adopted for the abolition of it; but there is only one proper and effectual mode by which it can be accomplished, and that is by Legislative authority …'.



Source 6.21 George Washington



Source 6.22 The slave burial ground at George Washington's home, Mount Vernon

Washington's later actions against slavery

In 1794 while President, Washington attempted to lease property at Mount Vernon to English farmers on the condition that former slaves would work as paid free labourers. This idea had been suggested to Washington by his friend the Marquis de Lafayette, in 1784. However, the plan proved to be impractical and no buyers of the land could be found. Although Washington himself could have freed his own slaves and paid them as workers, he never did. He also did nothing as President to publicly fight slavery. Many historians believe this is because he did not want to risk splitting apart a new nation over such a contentious issue.

At this time, it was illegal in every slave state to simply let one's slaves go free. Each state had laws regulating 'manumission' (the legal process by which a slave owner could free his slaves). It was an expensive thing to do, requiring slave owners to pay fees and provide certain amounts of money, materials and education for the slaves. Even slave owners who had begun to oppose slavery on principle were unable or unwilling to pay the costs associated with freeing their slaves.

Washington did not free his slaves during his lifetime. However, he wrote in his will that all of his slaves were to be freed upon his wife's death, and that special provisions were to be made to care for older slaves no longer able to work. The younger slaves were to be given an education so that they could get a job. Twelve months after Washington's death, and 16 months before her own death, his wife made sure his wishes were granted and freed all of their slaves.

Check your learning 6.5

Remember and understand

1 How old was George Washington when his father died? What did he inherit after his father's death?
2 When and why did George Washington first begin to change his views on the institution of slavery?
3 How did George Washington believe that the abolition of slavery could be effectively achieved? What is 'manumission'?

Apply and analyse

4 Why did Washington not abolish slavery when he became president?
5 How do you explain the many contradictions in Washington's actions and attitudes in relation to slavery?

Convict transportation from Britain

The largest and most significant movement of people to Australia in the early years of European settlement was brought about by the transportation of convicts from Britain.

Conditions in England

The idea of transporting convicts first came about as a result of significant changes that took place in Britain and Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries. Increasing populations across Europe and the movement of people to rapidly growing towns and cities were significant changes brought about by the Agricultural Revolution and the Industrial Revolution. These factors combined to produce a further effect: a massive increase in crime rates in Britain. Most criminals were poor, unskilled and uneducated people from overcrowded British towns and cities or from poor rural areas. The movements of people away from rural villages into towns and cities created great pressure on available jobs, housing and the supply of food and services. For some, petty crime was an easy way out; for others, it was a necessity – a case of steal or starve. There was little mercy for petty crime resulting from poor living conditions. It was possible to be sentenced to a prison term (and later, transportation) for stealing something as small as a loaf of bread for your family.

At that time, there was no understanding of (or support for) rehabilitating prisoners. Instead, the only response to the rapid growth in criminal activity was punishment. Those found guilty of crimes such as murder, **treason**, or theft of valuable goods could be sentenced to death. In the late 18th century in Britain, at least 200 crimes were punishable by execution.

Those who escaped the death penalty were imprisoned in overcrowded jails where conditions were far worse than in the poorest slums. John Howard, an investigator of prison conditions, wrote about the state of British jails in 1777 (see Source 6.23).

Source 6.23

> Air which has been breathed is made poisonous to a more intense degree by the effluvia [smells and secretions] from the sick … My reader will judge of its malignity when I assure him that my clothes were, in my first journeys, so offensive that in a post chaise [horse-drawn carriage], I could not bear the windows drawn up; and was therefore obliged often to travel on horseback … even my antidote, a vial of vinegar, has after using it in a few prisons, become intolerably disagreeable.

Extract from *The State of the Prisons in England and Wales, with Preliminary Observations, and an Account of Some Foreign Prisons* by John Howard, Warrington, 1777

When jails became so overcrowded that they could not hold any more prisoners, a new solution had to be found. Rather than building new prisons, criminals were imprisoned on ships that were no longer considered seaworthy. These ships, known as hulks, were moored in



Source 6.24 An artist's impression of convicts on the First Fleet arriving at Sydney Cove in 1788 – only the lucky ones survived the journey from England to New South Wales.

British harbours and filled with so many prisoners that they were even more cramped and unhealthy than the jails (see Source 6.25). It was also more difficult to make them secure, so riots and escapes were constant problems.

In 18th-century Britain, new theories for treating and dealing with criminals became popular. One theory in particular was widely supported. This theory argued that crimes could be stopped by the removal of the 'criminal class' from the wider population. In line with this theory, convicts were first sent to British colonies in North America, such as Virginia and Maryland, from the mid-17th century until Britain lost control of these colonies in 1783, after the American War of Independence. It was at this time that Joseph Banks, who had sailed with James Cook to Australia and the South Pacific in 1770, suggested Botany Bay on the coast of New South Wales as a location for a new penal colony. Britain, soon after this, turned to the newly discovered land of Australia as a place to send its convicts. Between 1787 and 1869, about 162 000 people were transported from Britain to Australia.

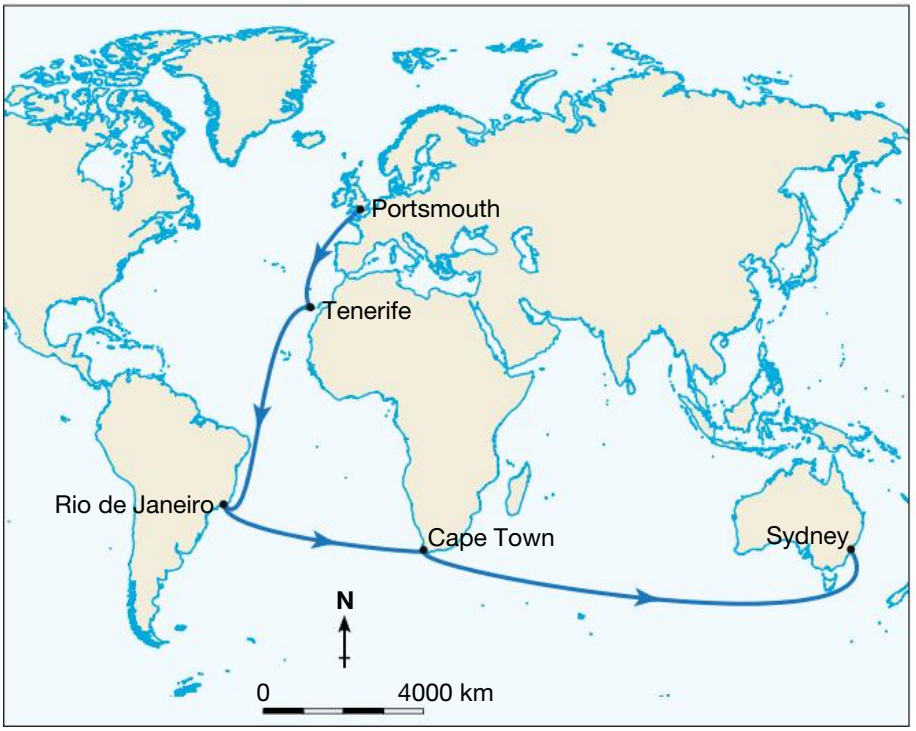
The arrival of the First Fleet

The First Fleet of 11 ships left Britain for Australia in 1787. Of the 1400 passengers on board, more than half (around 770 people) were convicts. It took around six months to complete the journey to New South Wales (see Source 6.26). Arriving at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788, it was soon found that the area was unsuitable for settlement and the fleet moved on to Port Jackson (Sydney Harbour). They landed at Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788. Before the arrival of the British, this place was called Warrane by the local Cadigal people. The arrival of the First Fleet would have a devastating impact on the Indigenous population – one that is felt to this day.



Source 6.25 Prisoners being rowed out to a hulk, 1829

WORLD: THE ROUTE TAKEN BY THE FIRST FLEET



Source 6.26 Source: Oxford University Press

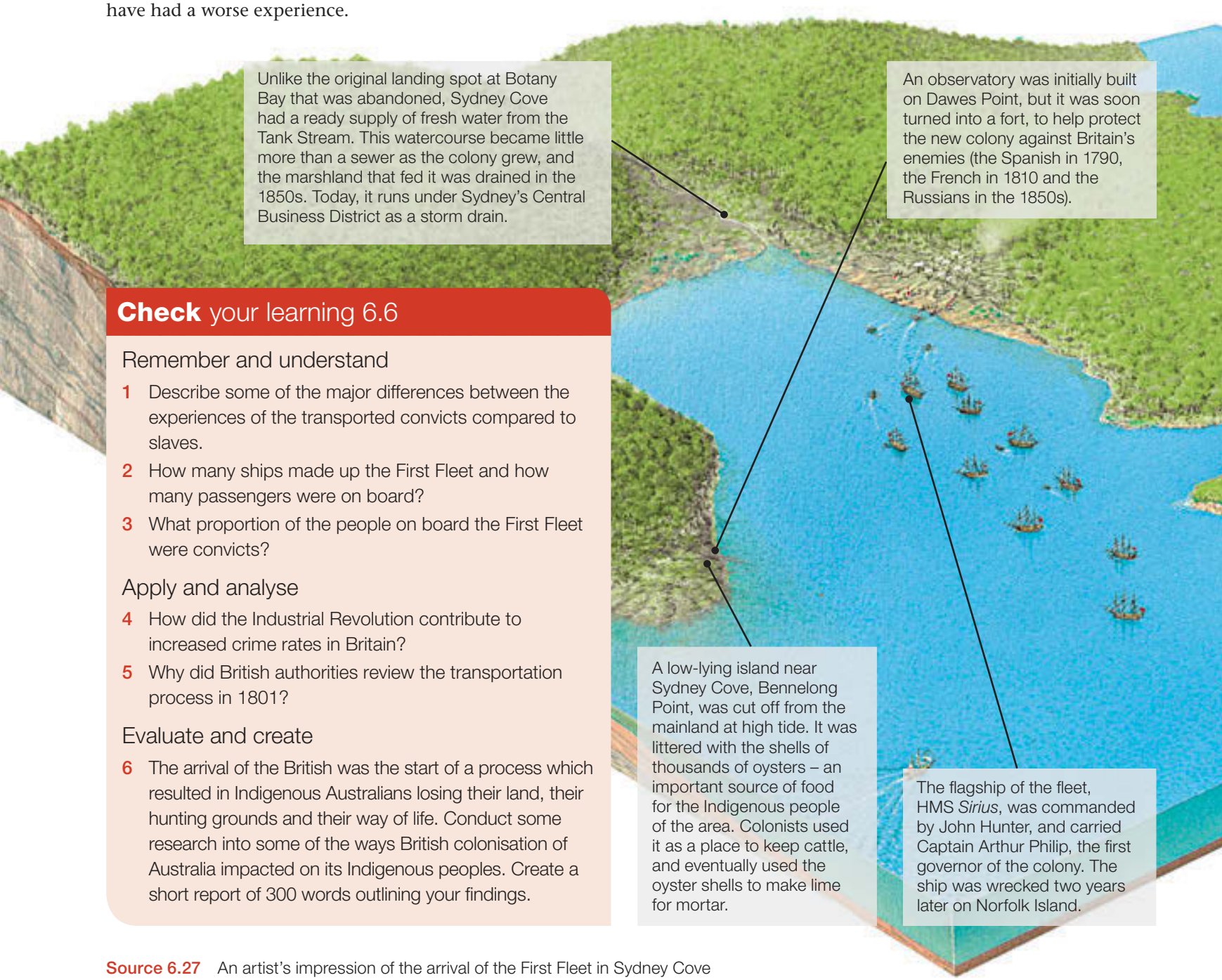
Conditions for convicts

Although conditions for convicts being transported during this period were not generally as cramped as they were for slaves, conditions on board the First Fleet were extremely harsh. Convicts spent most of the voyage restrained below deck. Most of the convicts who arrived in 1788 arrived in reasonable condition, but must have been stunned by the sight of their new environment. The seasons were reversed, the heat was unlike anything they had previously experienced, and the soil seemed too poor to sustain the new colony.

Later convict arrivals, during the 18th century, appear to have had a worse experience.

Cruel treatment at the hands of captains and crew on top of diseases such as scurvy, dysentery, typhoid and seasickness combined to make the journey a horrendous experience.

By 1801, so many convict lives were being lost on the journey that English authorities reviewed the process. Ships were only despatched twice a year at the end of May and beginning of September so that convicts did not arrive in Australia during the cold winter months. Independent surgeons were appointed to supervise the treatment of convicts. Finally, a bonus was paid to ship captains and crew members for the safe arrival of convicts.



Check your learning 6.6

Remember and understand

1 Describe some of the major differences between the experiences of the transported convicts compared to slaves.

2 How many ships made up the First Fleet and how many passengers were on board?

3 What proportion of the people on board the First Fleet were convicts?

Apply and analyse

4 How did the Industrial Revolution contribute to increased crime rates in Britain?

5 Why did British authorities review the transportation process in 1801?

Evaluate and create

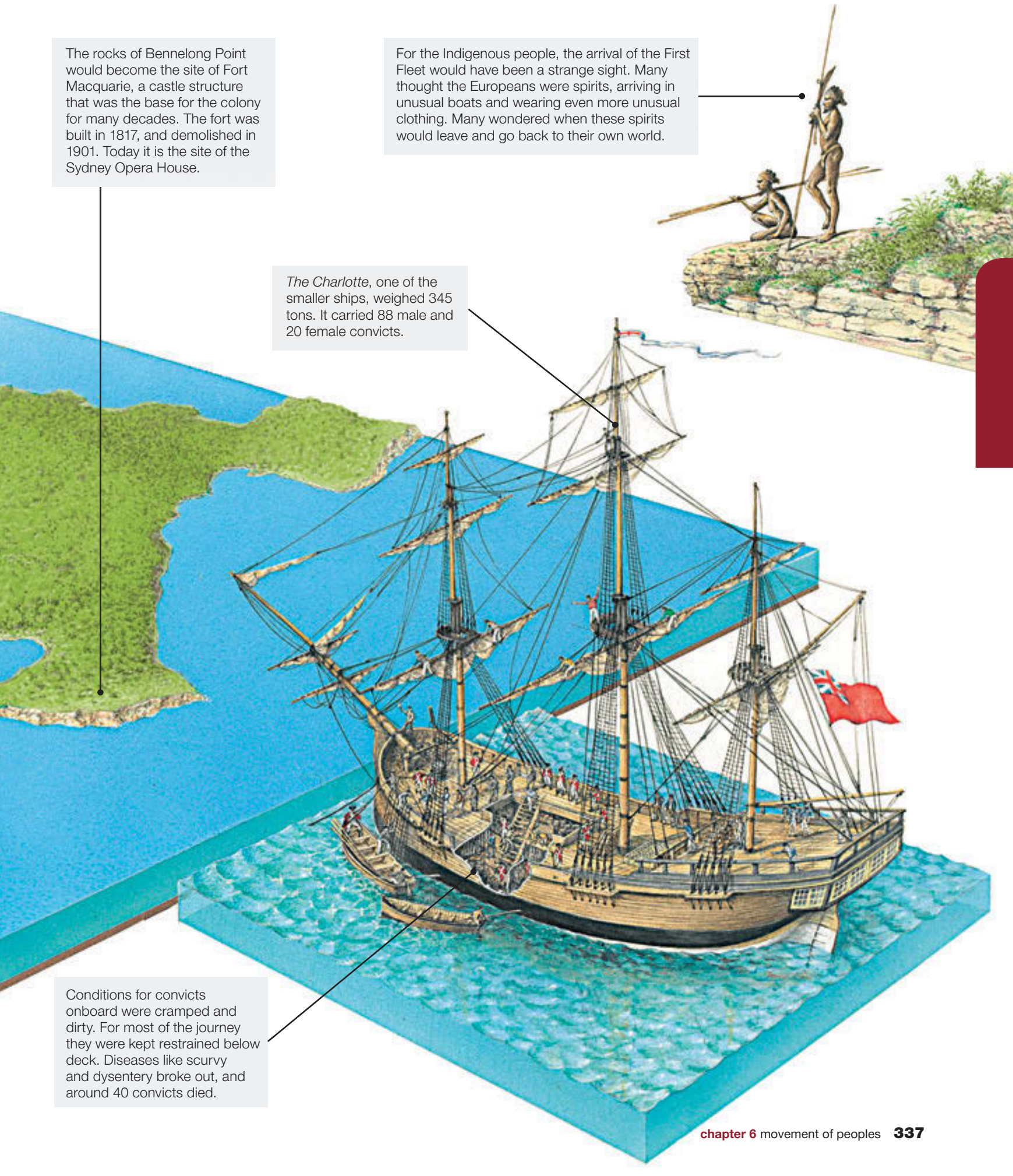
6 The arrival of the British was the start of a process which resulted in Indigenous Australians losing their land, their hunting grounds and their way of life. Conduct some research into some of the ways British colonisation of Australia impacted on its Indigenous peoples. Create a short report of 300 words outlining your findings.

Source 6.27 An artist's impression of the arrival of the First Fleet in Sydney Cove

The rocks of Bennelong Point would become the site of Fort Macquarie, a castle structure that was the base for the colony for many decades. The fort was built in 1817, and demolished in 1901. Today it is the site of the Sydney Opera House.

For the Indigenous people, the arrival of the First Fleet would have been a strange sight. Many thought the Europeans were spirits, arriving in unusual boats and wearing even more unusual clothing. Many wondered when these spirits would leave and go back to their own world.

The Charlotte, one of the smaller ships, weighed 345 tons. It carried 88 male and 20 female convicts.



Conditions for convicts onboard were cramped and dirty. For most of the journey they were kept restrained below deck. Diseases like scurvy and dysentery broke out, and around 40 convicts died.

Convict life in Australia

A wide range of convicts made the journey to Australia in the 18th and 19th centuries. Crimes that could result in transportation to the colonies in Australia included petty theft, receiving stolen goods, bigamy (being married to more than one person) and counterfeiting coins. In addition to these kinds of criminals, a significant number of convicts transported to the Australian colonies were political prisoners. These were people who had criticised the king or opposed the authority of the government in some way. Workers who formed the first trade unions (organisations established to protect the rights of workers) were among those sent to the colonies. One such group – six agricultural labourers from the English village of Tolpuddle – had met to set up a trade union to bargain for better wages with local landowners. They were transported to the colony of New South Wales for seven years in 1834. However, the men became popular heroes and only two years into their sentence they were pardoned and returned to England. For their sacrifice, they earned the title 'Tolpuddle Martyrs' (see Source 6.28). Other political prisoners included:

- a group of workers known as **Luddites** (rioters who were against the use of machinery in factories that led to the loss of jobs)
- a group of activists known as **Chartists** who were linked to trade unions and who proposed a 'People's Charter' to give all men the vote and stop the wealthy from dominating the political process. These political prisoners played a crucial role in the establishment of **representative democracy** in the Australian colonies as they developed.

In addition to the colony of New South Wales established at Sydney Cove, penal colonies were also established in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), Moreton Bay in Queensland, Port Phillip in Victoria, Norfolk Island and on the Swan River in Western Australia. For more than 80 years, convicts and ex-convicts provided a labour force that helped to develop the Australian colonies. Over this time, more than 160 000 convicts were transported to the Australian colonies before the practice ceased in 1869.



Source 6.28 Four of the six Tolpuddle Martyrs sentenced to seven years' transportation to New South Wales



Source 6.29 An engraving of the prison at the penal colony established at Port Arthur in Tasmania, *c.* 1854

Making a go of it

Once convicts arrived in Australia, their future was largely dependent on their attitude. For many, it was desperation to improve their life that led to their transportation. If they served their time, there were plenty of opportunities in a colony establishing itself on the other side of the world. Skills in building and food preparation ensured a bright future.

The experiences of convicts in Australia varied greatly. In the first decades in New South Wales, many convicts were housed in government barracks similar to prisons and were sent out daily, often in jail gangs, to build roads, bridges and houses. Others were assigned to work for free settlers on farms or to act as labourers in private businesses. These people became known as assigned convicts. The treatment of assigned convicts depended on the nature of the master. Most masters were harsh, but some also showed compassion and fairness, teaching assigned convicts skills that would assist them once they had served their terms.

The majority of convicts played an important role in the development of this country. In most cases, their labour in the towns and on the farms went unnoticed or unacknowledged. However, some ex-convicts went on to take up significant positions in colonial society.



Source 6.30 An artist's impression of a government jail gang in Sydney, 1830

Well-known ex-convicts included Francis Greenway (architect), James Blackburn (engineer), William Bland (surgeon), John Davies (journalist and publisher), William Field (**pastoralist** and businessman), Simeon Lord (merchant and magistrate), Mary Reiby (businesswoman), Robert Sidaway (theatre organiser), Samuel Terry (merchant) and D'Arcy Wentworth (surgeon and pastoralist).

D'Arcy Wentworth was the father of William Charles Wentworth, one of the most significant figures in New South Wales society for much of the 19th century. There is some dispute as to whether D'Arcy should be described as a convict because he volunteered to go to Botany Bay before he was sentenced for highway robbery.

Case study: Elizabeth Needham (*c.* 1761–1825)

Elizabeth Needham was sentenced to a term of transportation for seven years on 19 July 1786 for the theft of two pairs of silk stockings. She travelled on the First Fleet, and was married to another convict by the name of William Snailham within days of arriving in Sydney. Both Elizabeth and her husband received land grants after serving out their sentences. Land grants like these were designed to encourage convicts to remain in Australia and contribute to the new society once they had served their time.

After her husband's death, Elizabeth took over the licence of the Wheatsheaf Inn and worked as a seamstress. She married again in 1797 to another freed convict named John Driver. With her new husband she established a shop and public house (inn). She retained control of her own money and invested in shipping. In 1801 after traveling home to England for a time, she returned to Australia as a free settler. After her second husband's death in 1810, Elizabeth remarried for the third time to Henry Marr. He was also a former convict but had made a name for himself as a dealer and successful publican (inn keeper). By the time she died in 1825, Elizabeth Needham had returned to England three times to visit, but chose to live her life in her new country.

Elizabeth Needham's story indicates the opportunities that existed for convicts in the new colony. Like Mary Reibey, who was also sent to Australia as a convict (and whose face is on the $20 note), Elizabeth's story reveals that there was social and economic progress in convict Australia, regardless of one's origins or gender.

Check your learning 6.7

Remember and understand

1 What types of crimes could result in transportation to the Australian colonies in the 18th and 19th centuries?
2 In addition to New South Wales, where were the first Australian penal colonies established?
3 Who were the Tolpuddle Martyrs and why were they sent to Australia?
4 Name two groups of political prisoners that were transported to the Australian colonies. How did they contribute to the establishment of Australia's current political system?

Apply and analyse

5 Based on what you have learned, discuss the degree to which experiences of convicts in Australia varied.

Evaluate and create

6 In pairs, discuss the suggestion that Australia benefited more from receiving convicts than Britain did by removing them. What position do you take? Use the Internet to collect three sources that support your point of view.

The arrival of free settlers

From the time of the First Fleet, free settlers chose to come to Australia. They found ways of paying for the journey and establishing themselves in new homes and on farms. In the early years of each colony, many of these people became the first landowners, establishing pastoral properties that were to form the backbone of the country's thriving wool industry.

By the 1820s, although convicts (and former convicts) still made up the largest segment of the population, there were growing numbers of free settlers arriving in the colonies. The need for workers had increased as land exploration opened up the continent.

Assisted migration

Over the course of European **colonisation** and settlement of Australia, a great many migrants were assisted to emigrate. Even with the convict population providing a labour force in the early years, shortage of workers was a constant problem in the Australian colonies. There was also an idea that the colonies needed 'a better class of settler' and this led to the idea of assisting respectable immigrants. From the 1820s, a range of schemes was developed to attract and assist migrants who would be useful and productive citizens.

In 1822, the government of New South Wales began paying or subsidising the passage of settlers – this was called assisted migration. A government agent in London assessed single men and families to make sure that they had the qualities required in the new colonies. Youth was one of the desired attributes, and most assisted migrants were under 30. People with skills were also given preference over the unskilled. The greatest demand was for workers with a background in agricultural work. There was also a need for workers in trades such as building, food processing, quarrying, road making and dock work. Some later complained that the agents were not honest about what migrants could expect in Australia, but most adjusted to their new life and many prospered.

By the 1830s, new colonies had been established in the states we know today as Tasmania, Western Australia, Victoria and South Australia. Labour shortages were a problem in all colonies, partly because land was cheap and settlers took advantage of the ability to become landowners. In Western Australia the first settlement on the Swan River had not been successful for several reasons, including the low price of land. If a settler could become a landowner, then he would have no wish to work for someone else.

The colony of South Australia, established in 1836, was based on a plan developed by EG Wakefield. Land was to be sold at a higher price than in the other colonies, and the money earned was to be used to bring out assisted migrants who would work for wages. One of the essential elements of the plan was that the colony should be for free settlers



Source 6.31 *The Emigrant's Farewell*, a painting by James Fagan, 1853, showing a family group of free settlers saying goodbye to loved ones before their departure from England to the colonies

only and that there should be no convict labour. By 1835, enough land had been sold to finance migration to the colony. Between January 1836 and December 1840, over 9000 applications had been received. By December 1840, almost 5000 immigrant labourers had arrived in South Australia. Among them were many Germans who settled in the Adelaide Hills and Barossa Valley, pioneering South Australia's wine industry.

The colony of Port Phillip (later renamed Victoria) was also established as a free colony. An attempt to set up a convict colony at Sorrento had been made in 1803, but this colony was quickly abandoned because of insufficient water. When John Batman and John Pascoe Fawkner crossed from Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) in 1835 to establish Melbourne, the new colony was to be a free settlement. Some pastoralists who came to Port Phillip from Tasmania and New South Wales brought assigned convicts with them. There were also some gangs of convicts sent from Sydney to help with public works. But overall, the convict presence in the colony was minimal and Victoria, like South Australia, prided itself on being free of the convict stain.

In the late 1830s, a new program known as the Bounty Scheme was developed. The conditions varied from colony to colony but the general principles were the same. Landowners or business owners would pay the passage of a labourer or sometimes a whole family. In return, the migrant would work for the employer for two to five years, to pay back the cost of the journey. The landowner or employer would also receive a payment or bounty from the government. On a property or farm, the assisted migrant would be provided with food and lodging and sometimes a token income, until the passage was paid.

Costs of passage also varied but, in 1841, the price for a man and wife (both aged under 30) was 30 pounds (£30), with £5 for each child over one year of age. Between 1834 and 1850, approximately 70 000 migrants came to Australia under some sort of assistance scheme. Around half of these were female. The majority of men listed their occupations as labourer or unskilled worker. Most women were farmhands or domestic workers.

key**concept:** perspectives

Settlement of the Yorke Peninsula

After surveys of the area had been conducted in the 1840s, settlers applied for licences to run sheep on the Yorke Peninsula in South Australia. Twenty-three applications had been made by the end of 1847. By August 1849, there were 63 horses, 270 cattle, 50 000 sheep and 106 people living in the area on seven stations.

For these new settlers, this was a land to be opened up. Being the first settlers into a new area usually meant large areas of the best land to farm. The most attractive areas to white settlers were the open plains where sheep could graze, and near existing waterholes.

The Yorke Peninsula was also the traditional country of the Narungga people. Kangaroos, wallabies and emus grazed on the grasses of the clearer areas. The Narungga regularly fired the grasslands to maintain their health and continue to attract animals that were an important part of their diet. The wells and waterholes were under the supervision of various families for the benefit of all.

Typical of the settlement of the Australian frontier, there were two very different perspectives regarding the land of the Yorke Peninsula. To the Narungga, this was their home, a place where they had intimate knowledge and a connection as long as time. The four 'totem' groups of the Narungga were the Emu, Red Kangaroo, Shark and Eaglehawk. This further emphasised the deep connection between the land and the people.

For the settlers, the land represented the opportunity for wealth. It was a resource that, if exploited correctly, could set a family up for life. This meant grasslands for sheep and cattle, and waterholes for animals and wells to support farms.

These different perspectives would translate into physical clashes right across the Australian frontier as European settlers moved into the new colonies.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 6.32 A sheep farm on the Yorke Peninsula, South Australia

Female immigrants

In the earliest years of each colony there was a marked gender imbalance. Men greatly outnumbered women. Apart from convict women, most female migrants were the relatives of male settlers. As the government and bounty schemes developed from the 1820s, there was a push to attract female free settlers to the colonies. As well as supplying much-needed labour as nannies, domestics, and factory and farm workers, there was a belief that women would have a civilising influence on colonial societies (see Source 6.33).

One of many schemes in the 1830s was run by the London Emigration Committee. Even though wages for women were much lower than those for men, there was still high unemployment among women in Britain and few prospects for young, single girls. Helping women to emigrate seemed to meet the needs of Britain as well as the new colonies. The Committee's scheme lasted for four years and brought almost 3000 women to Sydney. In its advertising, the committee appealed for 'unmarried women or widows … between the ages of 18 and 30 and … of good health and character'.

Under another scheme developed after 1838, the Irish Poor Law Unions offered free passage to Australia for poor girls aged between 14 and 18 years. Young women, many of them orphans, were chosen from the workhouses. This scheme had the advantage of reducing the number of dependent young women in Ireland as well as providing a labour force for the Australian colonies.

Unfortunately, little support was offered to these women when they arrived in the colonies. Many had no choice but to stay in unsuitable and often unsafe lodgings where they were vulnerable to all sorts of exploitation. Some were lucky and found work. Others gained domestic posts with families but many were 'employed' by single men, including ex-convicts, who took advantage of them. Some of those who could not gain employment turned to theft or prostitution to survive.



Source 6.33 A ship carrying poor needlewomen (sewers) to Australia, from *The Illustrated London News*, 17 August 1850. There were no private cabins for assisted migrants.

key**concept:** empathy

Caroline Chisholm

An improvement to the situation of immigrant women came with the arrival of Caroline Chisholm in 1838. Chisholm became aware of the appalling conditions in which many young women were living in Sydney and took matters into her own hands. She began by appealing to Governor Gipps for a building in which to house immigrant women. Not put off by his initial refusal, she persisted and was eventually rewarded with the use of a large but rat-infested shed. Within months, this shed had become home to up to 100 young women. Over the next few years, Chisholm opened a further 16 hostels for immigrant women to ease their transition to colonial life.

Caroline Chisholm's work extended beyond providing housing. She taught skills to the girls and helped them to find jobs that were safe and adequately paid. Her care for them was recorded by Roger Therry in 1862. He wrote that she sometimes 'accompanied them to their places and left them there with an earnest admonition to the heads of each family to be careful of those whom she said she regarded as her children … '.

For more information on the key concept of empathy refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 6.34 Caroline Chisholm.



Source 6.35 Many new arrivals ended up living around The Rocks in Sydney.

The gold rush

The discovery of gold in 1851 brought a new wave of free settlers, tripling the population of Australia in only 10 years. Although the gold migrants were still predominantly British, there was a broader range of nationalities, including Chinese, Germans, Italians and Americans. The new arrivals were also slightly better educated, and many of them were more politically aware than earlier migrants. Chartists and those who had experienced the 1848 revolutions in Europe were among the gold seekers. The **Eureka rebellion** in Ballarat in 1854 was partly about unfair practices and taxes on the goldfields but it also reflected growing concerns about political rights. It is suggested that the constitutions drawn up by the colonies in the 1850s were more democratic than they might have been had the Eureka rebellion not occurred.

The migrants who came for gold made an enormous contribution to the economic development of Australia. The gold wealth ensured that from 1860 to 1890 there was an economic boom. In the later decades of the century more migrants, some of them assisted but most paying their own way, poured into the Australian colonies, adding to the growing population of native-born Australians.

In 1902 at the time of **Federation**, 2 908 303 people (77.2 per cent) counted in Australia were Australian-born, and 857 576 (22.8 per cent) stated that they were born overseas. Of those, 679 159 were born in Britain, which was 18 per cent of the entire population. Of the 74 673 from other European countries, and 47 014 from Asia, the overwhelming majority had arrived in Australia in search of gold or a better life.



Source 6.36 Tom Roberts' *Coming South*, 1886 depicts a group of free settlers making the long journey to Australia from Europe.

Check your learning 6.8

Remember and understand

1. When did the assisted migration scheme first begin?
2. What sort of qualities, skills and attributes were most desired in free settlers?
3. Who developed the plan to establish South Australia?
4. From which countries did many of the gold rush migrants come from, and how were they different to earlier migrants?

Apply and analyse

5. Describe some of the key reasons behind the development of the assisted migration scheme.
6. Explain how the Wakefield plan worked.
7. Why was the Bounty Scheme important for Australia's development?

Evaluate and create

8. Examine Source 6.32. What perspective would European settlers have of the photo? What would be the perspective of the Narungga people?
9. Research the experiences of women in colonial Australia and create an interview with a young woman who either:
   a. finds herself working in the city
   b. finds herself working in the outback.

6.2 big**ideas:** rich task

The treatment of convicts in Australia

Between 1788 and 1868, 165 000 convicts were transported to Australia. Transportation to New South Wales officially ceased in 1840, although there was a short-lived revival in 1849. The experiences of convicts varied considerably, essentially according to luck of the draw.

The following sources provide evidence about some of the different experiences convicts had upon their arrival in Australia.



Source 6.37 Convicts writing letters at Cockatoo Island, New South Wales in 1849; *Canary Birds* by Phillip Doyne Vigours

Source 6.38

Mr Robert Arlack belonged to a class at that time … who looked solely upon their assigned servants or government men as machines for getting money, and who, with this view worked them most unmercifully … In fact they considered convicts to be only a more expensive kind of labouring cattle … they never thought of giving these unfortunate wretches a single ounce of any nourishment they could possibly avoid.

An extract from 'Ralph Rashleig or the Life of an Exile' by James Tucker, 1845. Tucker was a convict who wrote this while in the penal settlement of Port Macquarie in New South Wales.

Source 6.39

Moreton Bay

One Sunday morning as I went walking
By Brisbane waters I chanced to stray
I heard a convict his fate bewailing
As on the sunny river bank I lay
I am a native from Erin's island
But banished now from my native shore
They stole me from my aged parents
And from the maiden I do adore
I've been a prisoner at Port Macquarie
At Norfolk Island and Emu Plains
At Castle Hill and at cursed Toongabbie
At all these settlements I've been in chains
But of all places of condemnation
And penal stations in New South Wales
To Moreton Bay I have found no equal
Excessive tyranny each day prevails
For three long years I was beastly treated
And heavy irons on my legs I wore
My back from flogging was lacerated
And oft times painted with my crimson gore
And many a man from downright starvation
Lies mouldering now underneath the clay
And Captain Logan he had us mangled
All at the triangles of Moreton Bay
Like the Egyptians and ancient Hebrews
We were oppressed under Logan's yoke
Till a native black lying there in ambush
Did deal this tyrant his mortal stroke
My fellow prisoners be exhilarated
That all such monsters such a death may find
And when from bondage we are liberated
Our former sufferings will fade from mind.

A folk song written by a convict named Francis MacNamara (also known as 'Frank the Poet') during his time at the Moreton Bay penal settlement (Queensland) in the 1830s. Patrick Logan (mentioned in the song) was the Commandant of the Moreton Bay penal settlement and was hated for his harsh treatment of convicts.

Source 6.40

The overseer rises at day break, and rings a bell, which is affixed to a tree, as a signal for the men to proceed to their labour … The bell is rung again at eight o'clock, when the men assemble for breakfast, for which they are allowed an hour; they again return to their labour till one o'clock, when they have an hour for dinner, and they afterwards labour from two till sunset.

An extract describing convicts' daily routine on Dunmore Station, from *An Historical and Statistical Account of New South Wales as a Penal Settlement and as a British Colony* by John Dunmore Lang, 1837

Source 6.41

I am happy to inform you that I am now very comfortably situated within a mile of Hobart Town … As to my living, I find it better than ever I expected, thank God, I want for nothing in that respect. As for tea and sugar, I could almost swim in it.

An extract from a letter by convict Richard Dillingham to his parents written in 1836

skill**drill**

Processing and synthesising information from a range of sources for use as evidence in a historical argument

The primary sources that historians use to form opinions and arguments about the ways in which convicts were treated after their arrival in Australia tell different stories. It is the job of historians to analyse these sources, to identify what evidence they provide to support or disprove particular arguments, and to come to a conclusion about their usefulness and reliability. It is important to identify who created each source and the reason why it was created. That way you can identify any potential bias. Once you have done this, you can write your argument, using the sources as evidence. You should explain why particular sources support your argument, and give reasons why the sources that disagree with your argument are not as important or valid.

Apply the skill

1 Examine Sources 6.38–6.41 carefully and complete a copy of the table below in your notebook.

2 Once you have completed the table, use the information you have gathered to write a historical argument about the ways in which assigned convicts were treated after their arrival in Australia, using the plan provided here.

- **Title**: How were assigned convicts treated after their arrival in Australia?
- **Introduction**: Between 1788 and 1869, over 160 000 convicts were transported to Australia … (introduce the context of your piece and the focus on how convicts were treated within that context).
- **Paragraph 1**: Some sources say … (explain which sources indicate that convicts were treated badly. Give examples of some of the ways in which the convicts' experiences were negative).
- **Paragraph 2**: However, other sources say … (explain which sources indicate that convicts were treated well. Give examples of some of the ways in which the convicts' experiences were positive).
- **Paragraph 3**: We have to be careful about which sources we use because … (explain the problems with some of the sources in terms of reliability and bias).
- **Conclusion**: Overall, the evidence suggests … (summarise the evidence and give your informed opinion about the ways in which assigned convicts were treated between 1788 and 1869).

	What evidence does this source provide about the ways in which convicts were treated after their arrival in Australia?	Who wrote or created it?	Why was the source created?	Is the source reliable?
Source 6.38				
Source 6.39				
Source 6.40				
Source 6.41				

Extend your understanding

1 Re-read Source 6.39, 'Moreton Bay' – a folk song by a convict about his experiences in a penal settlement in Queensland.

a Put yourself in the position of Captain Logan. Do some research on the Internet to find out about the attitudes of colonial authorities such as Captain Logan towards convicts.

b Write an alternative version of 'Moreton Bay', from the perspective of Captain Logan. Make sure this version reflects his likely experiences and attitudes towards convicts.

6.3 What were the short- and long-term impacts of the movement of peoples?

Impacts of the movement of peoples on Australia

Australia changed dramatically in the period between 1788 and 1918. It started as a tiny, struggling British colony on Sydney Harbour. By 1901, Australia was a united (federated) and independent nation – one that would soon be mourning the enormous number of Australian lives lost in foreign lands during World War I.

The main reason for this transformation was the arrival of people who had been prepared to move to Australia and help build a new nation. From the start, colonial Australia was populated by those willing to do something different and make a go of their situation. This applied equally to convicts who were forced to come here, free settlers and **diggers** seeking gold.

It appears that most convicts chose not to return to Britain. The dramatic rise in native-born Australians during the 19th century supports this conclusion. After transportation ended in 1868, there were enough settlers to allow Australian colonies to develop. The gold rushes marked the change in Australia when free settlers began to dominate.

One group who suffered during this period was Indigenous Australians. The 19th century was a period of colonial expansion that destroyed their cultural links to the land. Indigenous Australians found themselves on the fringes of the new society, as their lives, values and traditional attachments were all swept aside by 'progress'.



Source 6.42 Henry Burn, *Swanston Street from the Bridge,* Melbourne, 1861. Melbourne grew rapidly as a result of the gold rushes.



Source 6.43 A view of Sydney *c.* 1800 by an unknown artist

Impact of convicts on Australia

Historians still debate the impact convict transportation had on the development of an Australian identity. They argue that the original convicts had to be tough to survive the original jailing in Britain, the journey to Australia and assignment on arrival. Once they were here, the old and weak died, and the lazy or angry clashed with authority, who responded with floggings and forced labour on chain gangs. Those convicts who survived and prospered were the ones who saw transportation as a fresh start. They developed their skills, used whatever education they had, and usually married.

These things combined to give them a level of respectability they could never have dreamed of having in Britain. Children born in Australia were no longer the dregs of society – instead, they were the start of a new society. In this way the Australian colonies became places of opportunity and social mobility. With so many sharing criminal backgrounds, being an ex-convict was less of a social stigma or reason for shame.

Impact of free immigration on Australia

Free immigrants have been coming to Australia since the time of the First Fleet. In the early years of New South Wales and Tasmania, free settlers were outnumbered by convicts. By the 1830s, however, the majority of settlers in the Australian colonies were either immigrants who had paid their own fares or those who had been assisted. There was also a growing population of locally born children to both free settlers and convicts. By 1850, there were six colonial settlements, and the cities of Sydney, Hobart, Brisbane, Perth, Adelaide and Melbourne had been established.

Free immigration also led to the emergence of **squatters** (see Source 6.44). These were settlers who moved into wilderness areas and laid claim to the land they used. This practice completely ignored Indigenous claims, and originally relied on landmarks to show boundaries. Farms were established near water sources, and sheep in particular became a major source of wealth. Successful squatters could become wealthy and move up the social ladder very quickly. By December 1837, sheep stations stretched for 1600 kilometres from southern Queensland into South Australia.

The farms of squatters developed rural Australia. In 1836, the New South Wales colonial government legitimised squatting by charging a pound an acre for the homestead lot. The squatter was then entitled to as much land as they could reasonably take possession of. Large landholdings developed, and wheat and wool became two main products that produced much of Australia's wealth. Modern rural Australia still reflects many of the settlement patterns and family histories of the squatter period.



Source 6.44 A painting by ST Gill showing an early squatter farming sheep

Impact of European settlement on Indigenous Australians

The settlement of Australia was always going to cause conflict with Indigenous Australians. Until the arrival of the British, most Indigenous Australians had led lives of continuity. Their culture was based on links to each other and the land. The land sustained a population that was able to eat well. Indeed, when Bennelong, an Indigenous man captured by Governor Phillip, lived with the settlers, he struggled to live on their rations. A week's food for the colonists was barely enough for a day's worth of meals for Bennelong.



Source 6.45 An etching, *c.* 1860, by Samuel Calvert, entitled *Natives attacking shepherd's hut*



Source 6.46 A painting from 1826, by Augustus Earle, entitled *A native family of New South Wales sitting down on an English settler's farm*

For the Europeans, living successfully depended on private ownership of land, cultivation of the soil, building houses and fences, and outward displays of progress. Indigenous Australians had a totally different concept of land ownership and use. They believed that they belonged to the land and that it existed to meet the needs of the whole community. There was no concept of private ownership or of demonstrating ownership with boundaries and fences. They had learned to live in harmony with the land and they had an elaborate culture and spirituality that gave meaning to their lives.

The early years of colonisation

Governor Phillip, the first governor of New South Wales, was instructed to treat the Aboriginal people kindly and to attempt to share with them all the 'benefits of white civilisation'. However, there was no mention of any recognition of their rights to the land. There was also little attempt, in any of the colonies, to understand Aboriginal society or culture. Well-meaning but misguided settlers, including Phillip, gave the Aborigines European food, clothing, alcohol and tobacco. Not only were these bad for their health but the Indigenous people gradually also lost many of their hunting and food-gathering skills, which led to further disintegration of their culture.

One of the most devastating impacts of white colonisation was disease. Aborigines had no resistance to serious diseases such as smallpox and cholera. Even illnesses such as influenza, the common cold, measles and chicken pox could prove fatal. Sexually transmitted diseases and depression also severely affected the birth rate. Aborigines were dying in their thousands while the number of newborn babies was declining year by year.

In Port Phillip, an estimated Indigenous population of up to 30000 at the time of settlement in 1835 had shrunk to between 3000 and 5000 by 1850. Apart from disease, the displacement of Aborigines from their land was a major cause of their decline. Aborigines appeared **nomadic** and showed no outward signs of possession. This led many settlers to believe that they could be moved from place to place with no negative consequences. As the pastoralists and their flocks moved across the Western District and Gippsland, Aborigines were simply driven off their traditional lands. This often resulted in clashes with other groups further out. Indigenous Australians responded in various ways. Some decided it was better and easier to accept their fate and become dependent on the white settlers. Others strongly resisted what they saw as invaders in their land. Robbed of their traditional game they speared sheep and cattle for food and some also attacked white property (see Source 6.45). These attacks often led to retaliation by white settlers.

Violence on the frontier

The whole question of the extent of violence towards Indigenous Australians is a complex one, with considerable controversy among historians. Some argue that violence and massacres were widespread and others suggest that these claims have been exaggerated. It is difficult to get to the whole truth about many of these violent clashes because they took place in remote areas. Also, because it was illegal to attack Aboriginal people, people found to have killed them could be tried for murder. Therefore, massacres were often denied or numbers were underreported.

Nevertheless, violent attacks on Aborigines certainly took place. La Trobe University historian Richard Broome has examined conflicting figures about Victorian massacres and suggests that around 1000 Aborigines in Victoria died as a result of white violence. Among these attacks were a series of massacres against the Kurnai people of Gippsland. Warrigal Creek, Boney Point and Butchers Creek were all scenes of violent killings of Aboriginal people.

At Warrigal Creek in 1843, hostilities began with a drunken attack by white settlers that resulted in the death of several of the Kurnai people. To avenge these deaths, the Kurnai killed Ronald Macallister, nephew of a powerful landholder in the district. In retaliation, a planned series of attacks was made on the Kurnai, resulting in many Aboriginal deaths. Estimates range between 60 and 150, but it is difficult to gain an accurate number. Rumours and even some drunken boasting about the massacre brought the event to the attention of the authorities. However, no one ever officially admitted to participating in or witnessing the massacres so no official action was ever taken.



Source 6.47 A plaque commemorating the Myall Creek Massacre. The inscription reads: 'In memory of the Wirrayaraay people who were murdered on the slopes of this ridge in an unprovoked but premeditated act in the late afternoon of 10 June, 1838'.

At Myall Creek, New South Wales, in June 1838, 12 stockmen murdered 28 Aboriginal people, many of them women, children and the elderly (see Source 6.47). The event, known as the Myall Creek Massacres, is one of the worst examples of a brutal and unprovoked attack on Aborigines. It is also the only case in which white men were found guilty and punished for violence against Aboriginal people. Seven men were convicted and hanged for the events at Myall Creek.

Although the exact numbers of attacks and deaths are contested, it is clear that there were considerably more Aborigines killed by whites than there were whites killed by Aborigines.

The gold rushes

By the time of the gold rushes, the numbers of Indigenous Australians in all colonies had severely declined. Disease, malnutrition, violence and a low birth rate had all taken their toll. It is estimated that the Indigenous population in 1850 was only about 10 per cent of the total at the time of settlement in 1788. There were gold-rush migrations to New South Wales and Victoria in the 1850s, and to Queensland and Western Australia later in the 19th century. New settlers continued to displace the remaining Aborigines from their land and their culture.

The gold rush was a mixed blessing for the remaining Aborigines. The departure of many stockmen to the goldfields meant that skilled Aborigines working on properties were now in greater demand. Most had been working for little or no pay before 1851. Following the discoveries of gold, some pastoralists actually began paying wages to Aborigines that were comparable to wages for white workers. However, the gold discoveries also meant the end of any chance of traditional living for many Aborigines in the areas where gold was discovered.

On goldfields from Victoria to Queensland, from the Northern Territory to the west, Indigenous Australians were exploited. Aboriginal guides were used by prospectors branching out into unsettled areas. Without the assistance of these guides, many Europeans would have become lost and died of thirst. However, the guides were poorly paid (often with tobacco or alcohol) and often exploited and abused by European goldminers.

The situation at Federation

By 1900, there were few Aborigines living traditional lifestyles in Australia. The majority of people of Aboriginal descent were living on **reserves**, **protectorates** or **missions**. In Queensland, the Northern Territory and Western Australia, some Aborigines were living between the two cultures – working on cattle properties but still camping around waterholes and living off the land. They were able to maintain some links to their traditional culture and way of life. There were also Aborigines living on the fringes of towns and cities. Many of them did not feel that they belonged to either culture.

Overall, the Indigenous people had poorer health, shorter life spans, lower education levels and were more likely to be imprisoned than the white population of Australia. Their place on the margins of the newly formed nation was clearly illustrated through the Constitution. The new federal government was given no power to legislate over Aboriginal matters, and Aborigines were not to be counted in the **census**. Furthermore, under the Franchise Act of 1902, Aborigines, even those who had been able to vote before 1900, were denied the right to vote in federal elections.

The waves of immigration from 1788 had helped to make Australia one of the most prosperous, free and democratic nations on earth by 1900. Unfortunately, the country's original inhabitants were denied full participation in the benefits of this new nation.



Source 6.48 *Australia – news from home*, an illustration by George Baxter, 1853, showing white settlers on the goldfields reading of home while two Aboriginal men look on



Source 6.49 Blankets being distributed to Aborigines in New South Wales, *c.* 1888.

key**concept:** significance

Pemulwuy

Historians still debate how much resistance there was to white settlement by Indigenous Australians. There is no doubt that a Bidjigal man led significant resistance to the early British settlement in the region that is now Sydney. He has become known as Pemulwuy, but was also given other names and spellings by Europeans who were struggling to understand the Darug language.

Pemulwuy appears to have been born around 1750 and, in 1790, speared Governor Phillip's gamekeeper John McIntyre. When McIntyre died, Phillip sent an expedition to hunt Pemulwuy, but they found no trace of him. By 1792, Pemulwuy was leading resistance in the Parramatta area to the west of Sydney. He would often raid for food or in retaliation for ill-treatment of Indigenous Australians. In 1797, he led a raid on the government farm at Toongabbie. Settlers led a reprisal party that shot Pemulwuy seven times. He was captured and placed in hospital.

Despite having a chain around his leg, he escaped, and was among a group of Aborigines who met the Governor's party at Botany Bay a month later. This helped create the legend that he could not be killed by bullets. Among Aboriginal people in the Sydney region, Pemulwuy became revered as the leader of resistance.

So effective was Pemulwuy's campaign that on 1 May 1801 Governor King issued an order that Aborigines near Parramatta, Georges River or Prospect could be shot on sight. In November, King outlawed Pemulwuy and offered a reward for his capture, dead or alive. The following year, Pemulwuy was shot dead. His head is supposed to have been removed and sent to Britain. This certainly occurred during the early years of British settlement. The return of Aboriginal remains to Australia has been an ongoing issue for British and Australian governments.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 6.50 The only known illustration of Pemulwuy – by Samuel Neele

Check your learning 6.9

Remember and understand

1 At what point did the Australian population start to consist of greater numbers of free settlers rather than convicts?
2 How many colonial settlements were there by 1850?
3 What was 'squatting' and when and why was it legitimised?
4 What attitude was Governor Phillip instructed to take towards the Aborigines?
5 What were some of the diseases that were introduced to Australia by the settlers and that killed many Aborigines?
6 What were some of the ways in which Indigenous Australians responded to being driven off their traditional lands?
7 Why is it difficult to get precise evidence about the number of Aboriginal people killed in massacres in the early days of European colonisation and settlement of Australia?
8 How were Indigenous Australians regarded in the 1901 Federal Constitution?

Apply and analyse

9 Describe some of the ways in which the attempts at kindness shown by some settlers towards Australia's Indigenous peoples led to horrible consequences.
10 What problems do Pemulwuy's life and achievements present for historians?

Evaluate and create

11 Research the Battle of Sand Creek in 1864. How should it be commemorated?
12 Why is Pemulwuy important?
13 Should Pemulwuy's skull be returned to Australia? What should happen to it if it is?
14 Create a memorial for Pemulwuy that celebrates his achievements.

Impacts of the movement of peoples on the USA

There were several similarities between the USA and Australia in the period 1750–1901. Both were expanding from British colonies to become independent countries. As they expanded, there was confrontation with their Indigenous populations. Frontier settlement meant conflict and, ultimately, dominance by the European population.

The settlement of the USA has fuelled a century of popular culture. The clash of 'cowboys and Indians' was a staple of films, television and comics in the 20th century. Like Australia, the USA was also changed by a series of gold rushes. This started a period of mass migration that transformed the country.

In 1800, the population of the USA was just over 5 million. By 1920, this had grown to 106 million. This had been a massive movement of people, mainly from Europe. British transportation of convicts to North America had stopped in 1776, when the American colonies fought their War of Independence. The newly independent country became increasingly attractive to free settlers in the 19th century. Like Australia, it seemed a land of great promise at a time when the standard of living for many Europeans was affected by the Industrial Revolution.

Westward expansion

In the years after the War of Independence, immigrants to the USA poured out across the central plains in search of land and new opportunities. They travelled on foot or horseback, by riverboat and barge or by horse-drawn vehicles. From the 1860s onwards, wagon trains carried settlers westwards. Cattle ranchers drove herds of cattle across the plains, and railways crossed the land carrying supplies to the west and bringing meat and other produce back east.

All this 'progress' took place at the expense of the Native Americans. On the central plains lived a number of Indigenous tribes, the largest of which was the Sioux. To the Sioux, the buffalo was the lifeblood of existence. Every single part of the buffalo was used. There was no waste, and a buffalo was only killed when the people were sure that it could be used in its entirety.

George Catlin spent a number of years in the 1830s travelling in the lands of the Sioux people. He recorded his observations in writings and paintings. Catlin wrote of the dependence on the buffalo (see Source 6.52).



Source 6.51 *Buffalo Hunt* painted by Karl Bodmer, 1832–34

Source 6.52

> There are, by a fair calculation, more than 300000 Indians, who are now subsisted on the flesh of the buffaloes, and by those animals supplied with all the luxuries of life … The great variety of uses to which they convert the body and other parts of that animal, are almost incredible to the person who has not actually dwelt among these people, and closely studied their modes and customs. Every part of their flesh is converted into food. The [skins] are worn by the Indians … The horns are shaped into ladles and spoons … their bones are used for war clubs … Their sinews are used for strings and backs to their bows …

Extract from *Letters and Notes on the Manners, Customs, and Condition of the North American Indians* by George Catlin, 1857



Source 6.53 *Ration Day at the Reservation* by Joseph Sharp, 1919, depicting Native Americans applying for rations at a Government Agency

Destruction of the buffalo

One of the first casualties of westward expansion was the buffalo. It is estimated that in the early 19th century, there were upwards of 13 million buffalo on the plains. By the mid 1880s that number had shrunk to fewer than 1000. Many thousands of buffalo were shot in order to provide meat for the American army troops stationed in the west and for the crews building the Union Pacific Railroad. Many buffalo were also shot for sport, and their remains were left to rot where they fell. The loss of the traditional source of so many basic needs had a devastating impact on the native people of the plains.

One of the consequences of the destruction of the buffalo herds was that the plains people began attacking the cattle herds and white settlements in order to survive. This gave the colonists the excuses they wanted to attempt to move the remaining Native Americans into **reservations**.

The discovery of gold in the Black Hills of Dakota brought more settlers into the area. North Dakota was Sioux territory and the Sioux resisted settlers moving onto their land for as long as possible. The famous Battle of Little Bighorn was fought between the Sioux and the US army in 1876. Although the Sioux, with the help of the Cheyenne and Arapahos people, were victorious at Little Bighorn, the battle marked the end of their freedom.

By the 1880s, most native peoples of the plains were confined to reservations. Here they were dependent on handouts and for many there was a loss of pride and self-esteem. They were encouraged to forget their traditional culture and customs, and assimilate into the white American way of life.

White settlement

The settling of the west became an important part of America's understanding of itself as a nation. It became accepted that white settlers had a 'manifest destiny' to settle the land of the Native Americans. This meant that they believed they were following God's plan by expanding westwards and settling the entire continent of North America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast.

Land Run of 1889

An example of the white attitude to Native American land was the Land Run of 1889. After lands in Oklahoma Territory had been purchased from Native American tribes, President Harrison authorised the opening of 2 million acres. Over 100000 prospective settlers lined up to stake a claim for land. At a signal from the army, this huge line of people dashed across the countryside to try and claim pieces of land to establish farms.



Source 6.54 Oklahoma City in 1889

This happened so quickly that Oklahoma City and the cities of Norman and Guthrie literally sprang up in a day. Small landholdings became farms, and Native Americans were forced to give up all rights to lands that white settlers could use. This process was repeated over the next four years, as millions more acres were granted to the ever-expanding demands of white settlement.

Colorado – the 'Centennial State'

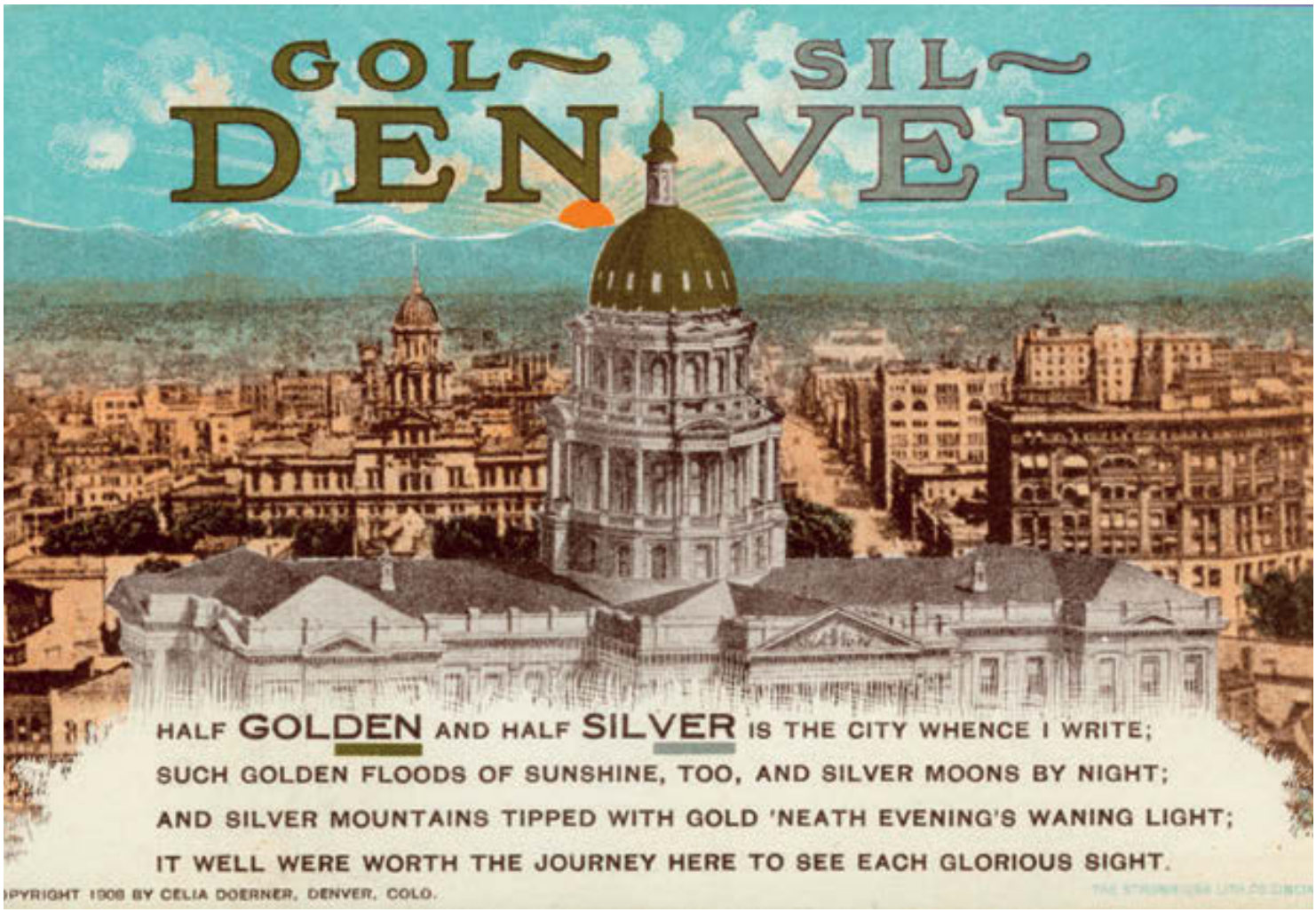
The story of Colorado is typical of the settling of the American West. It was home to a range of Native American tribal groups. They often followed different ways of life, with the Pueblo people living a settled life in cliff dwellings, while the Comanche, Arapaho and Cheyenne were more plains-style nomads who were forced out of the area.

In 1858, the discovery of gold in the Rocky Mountains in Colorado brought on a gold rush (see Source 6.55). Prospectors came flocking to the region, with cattle ranchers following the miners. This led to the displacement of the Native American tribes. Conflict between white Americans and Native Americans continued to escalate, and peaked during the massacre at Sand Creek in 1864, where a large number of Cheyenne and Arapaho women and children were massacred by the US army. This was initially portrayed as a heroic victory, but investigations revealed the brutality of the soldiers.

With an increasing population, Colorado was proclaimed a state by President Ulysses Grant in 1876. As this occurred shortly after the celebrations for the centenary of American independence, it has become known as the Centennial State.

Impact of slavery

From the 16th to the 19th centuries, an estimated 12 million Africans were shipped as slaves to the Americas. The USA became the destination for 645 000 of these Africans who had literally been stolen from their homes. Slavery became limited to the southern states by the 19th century. As campaigners started to question the morality of the entire concept of slavery, it became an increasingly divisive issue in the USA.



Source 6.55 A poster promoting the gold rush city of Denver (capital of Colorado) in the early 20th century



Source 6.56 An artist's impression of one of the bloody battles of the American Civil War

Civil war

By 1860, the USA was divided over the issue of slavery. In the 1860 presidential election, Abraham Lincoln was elected on a platform of preserving the unity of the nation. He set out his vision in his famous 'House Divided' speech (see Source 6.57).

Source 6.57

> A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure, permanently, half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved – I do not expect the house to fall – but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest the further spread of it, and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in the course of ultimate extinction; or its advocates will push it forward, till it shall become alike lawful in all the States, old as well as new – North as well as South.
>
> Abraham Lincoln, in a speech delivered in 1858

Lincoln's election led to the secession (withdrawal) of 11 southern slave states. They created a new nation, the Confederate States of America. The southern army fired the first shots of the Civil War on 12 April 1861. The war was fought bitterly for four years. It tore the nation apart, often dividing friends and families as well as armies and leaders. In 1863, President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation freeing all slaves in the Confederate states. When the war ended in April 1865, slaves in the middle states, which had not seceded, were also freed.

The freed slaves

The Civil War brought slavery to an end but it did not lead to equality for the descendants of those kidnapped from the African coast hundreds of years earlier. The responses of slaves to the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863 depended to some degree on their circumstances and age. Some left their masters immediately and took to the roads, usually heading north. Often they did not get far and it was not long before makeshift camps developed on the edges of southern towns and cities. A few of the ex-slaves damaged property and looted plantation mansions before they left. One group of slaves on a plantation in Mississippi drove the master out and began farming the land themselves. Nearly 200 000 African Americans, most of them former slaves, joined the northern army when they were allowed to, after 1863.

In some cases, ex-slaves rented parts of former plantations and began to cultivate the land themselves. However, many older slaves and those who had not been treated badly by their masters chose to remain. This was sometimes out of a genuine belief that they were better off staying put, but often because they did not know where to go or how to fend for themselves (see Source 6.58).

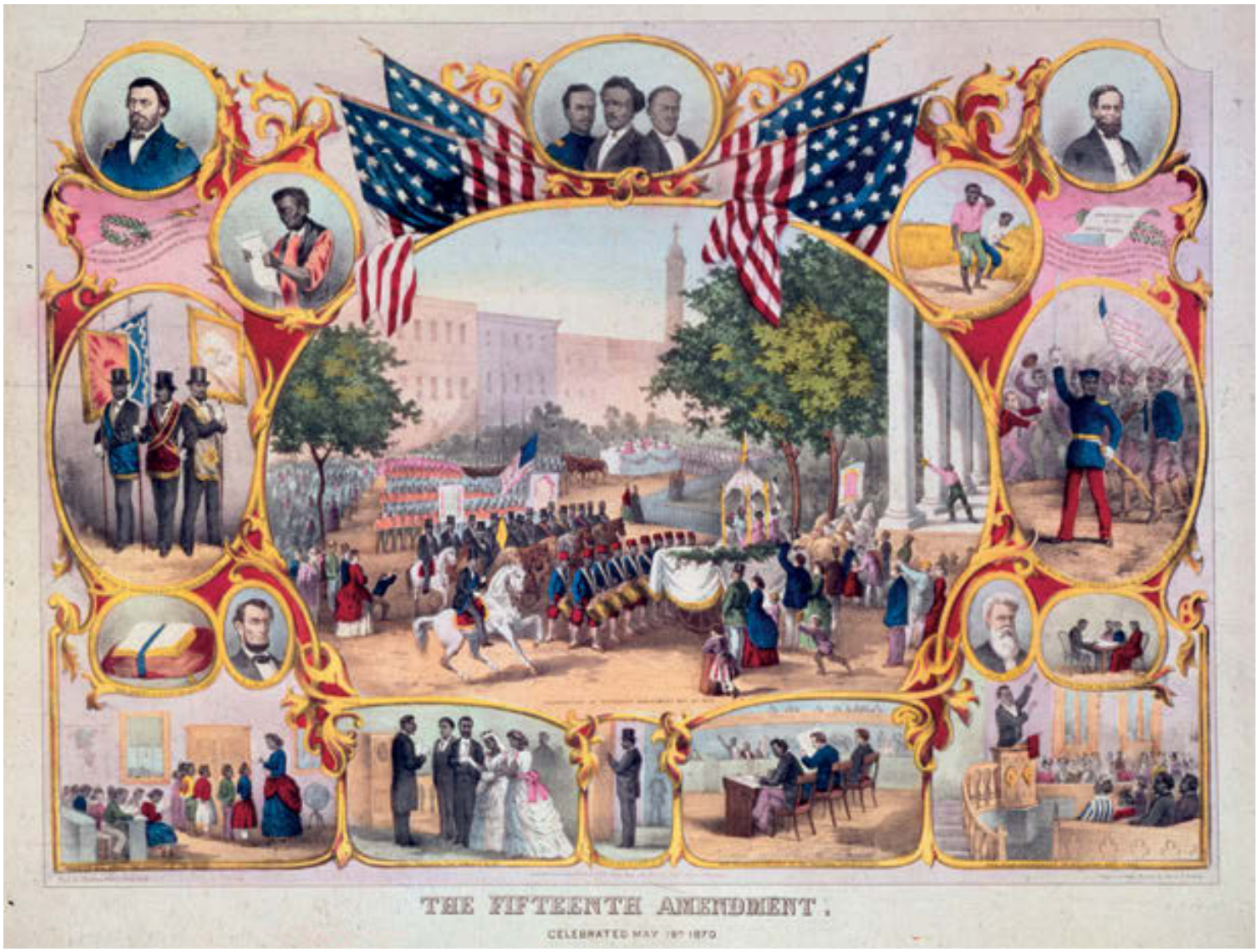
Source 6.58

> Slavery was better for some of us. Had no responsibility; just work, eat, sleep. Slaves prayed for freedom, got it and didn't know what to do with it. Slavery was a bad thing. But the freedom they got, with nothing to live on, that was bad too.
>
> I've been working for white folks washing and cooking, ever since freedom came.
>
> Extracts from an interview with Patsy Mitchner, a former slave who was interviewed in 1937 at the age of age 84

Reconstruction

The years immediately after the Civil War were known as the Reconstruction period. Between 1865 and 1870, a series of laws and arrangements brought all the rebel states back into the USA. Congress also passed several amendments that were supposed to ensure the future security of the former slaves. The most important of these was the Fifteenth Amendment, which stated that no one could be denied the right to vote 'on account of race, colour or previous condition of servitude' (see Source 6.59).

Many ex-slaves took advantage of this and used their vote to elect black politicians or whites known to be sympathetic to their cause. In South Carolina by 1877, the majority of members of the lower house were former slaves.



Source 6.59 A poster celebrating the passing of the Fifteenth Amendment in 1870

The Jim Crow years

This situation was not to last. As the northerners gradually withdrew from overseeing Reconstruction during the 1870s, southern state governments began to undo many of the changes. The racist organisation Ku Klux Klan developed at this time (see Source 6.60). By 1900, many black southerners lived in what was described as 'a state worse than slavery'. Various tricks and methods of intimidation were used to stop African Americans from using their vote. The dates and venues of polling stations would be changed at the last minute and only white voters would be notified; voters could be denied the vote on the basis of literacy or length of residency.

Segregation (separation of racial groups) was also widespread across the south and in some areas of the north. Schools, churches, shops, transport, neighbourhoods and public parks were all strictly divided between whites and blacks. In theory they were 'separate but equal' but in reality the white facilities were always superior. The laws relating to segregation became known as Jim Crow laws. Jim Crow was a black character in a well-known minstrel song.

Despite their low social position, by the end of the 19th century, African Americans were probably more important to the American economy than they had been in the slavery era. They provided much of the unskilled and semi-skilled labour force and, in most cases, their pay was lower and their conditions poorer than for white workers. Even though they had access to poorer education and fewer opportunities, there were some outstanding black Americans who played leading roles in medicine, business, writing, invention and music.

Some key African American figures of this period include Dr Daniel Williams (surgeon), Frances Harper (poet and writer), Jan Matzeliger (inventor of a shoe-making machine), Ida B Wells (journalist and newspaper editor), Dr WEB Dubois (historian and sociologist) and Mary McLeod Bethune (teacher).

The consequences of migration and resettlement for the descendants of African slaves are difficult to assess. The experiences of the original slaves brought from Africa were almost always negative. Over the decades, most descendants of the transported slaves also suffered physical and emotional damage, even after emancipation in 1863. Nevertheless, their contribution to the nation that became their home was significant, economically and culturally. By the turn of the 20th century, the movements that would see black Americans strive for equality were beginning. For many black Americans, they felt their journey to full acceptance was symbolised by the election of Barack Obama as the 44th President of the USA in 2008.



Source 6.60 Members of the Ku Klux Klan at a secret meeting in the early 20th century

Check your learning 6.10

Remember and understand

1 Why were the buffalo herds destroyed in the 19th century?
2 What was the last major battle between Native Americans and soldiers in the 19th century?
3 In your own words, define 'manifest destiny'.
4 How many settlers lined up for the 1889 Land Run?
5 Why is Colorado called the Centennial State?
6 Which tribal groups were forced off the land in Colorado?
7 What was the Emancipation Proclamation?

Apply and analyse

8 Examine Source 6.53. What are the arguments for and against placing Native Americans on reservations?
9 Write a paragraph explaining why and how segregation continued after the Civil War.

Evaluate and create

10 Research the Ku Klux Klan. What do their aims tell you about the conditions under which former slaves lived at the end of the 19th century in the southern USA?
11 Reread Source 6.58. Could slaves be better off as slaves than as free men and women?

6.3 big**ideas:** rich task

The slavery debate

Between the 16th and 19th centuries, an estimated 12 million Africans were shipped as slaves to America. By the 1800s, slavery had become one of the most debated and contested issues in American history.

Prior to American independence from Great Britain in 1790, slavery existed in all the American colonies. After independence, however, the new northern states (those of New England along with New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey) came to oppose slavery, and either abolished it outright or passed laws for its gradual abolition. By 1820, there were only about 3000 slaves in the north. Slavery could be abolished more easily in the north because there were far fewer slaves, and they were not a vital part of northern economies. In fact, the main demand for the abolition of slavery came not from those who found it morally wrong but from white working-class men who did not want slaves as rivals for their jobs.

The situation in the southern states was very different. Many southern whites were convinced that free blacks would be savages – a threat to white survival – and that slavery was necessary as a means of race control. Slaves also played a very important economic role in the southern states as farm workers, and many southerners did not believe that white men could or should do the hard labour required to produce the region's main crops (tobacco, cotton and rice). This difference of perspective between those in the northern and southern states is arguably one of the major causes of the American Civil War.

Those against slavery understood the power of pictorial representations in gaining support for their cause (see Source 6.63). As white and black women became more active in the 1830s, appeals for interracial sisterhood also appeared regularly (see Source 6.61).

Music was also commonly used by those promoting the abolition of slavery. In 1848, William Wells Brown, abolitionist and former slave, published *The Anti-Slavery Harp* (see Source 6.63), containing songs and occasional poems composed for a special event or occasion.

Source 6.61

The negro woman's appeal to her white sisters

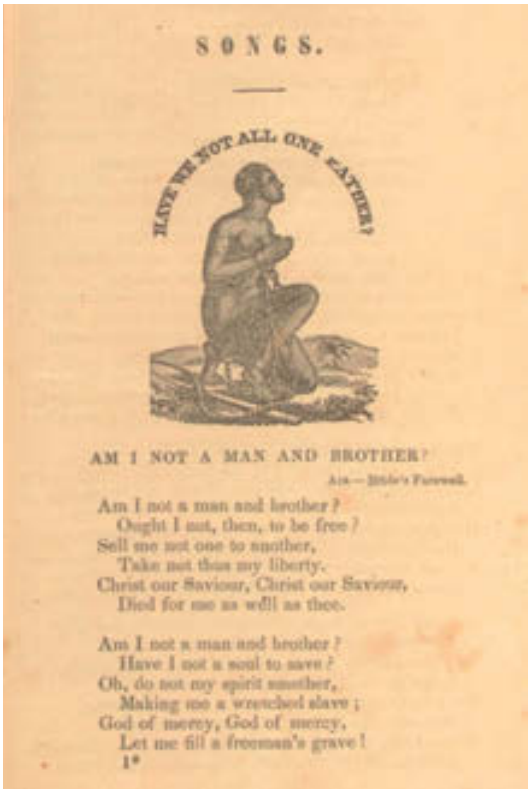
Ye wives and ye mothers, your influence extend –
Ye sisters, ye daughters, the helpless defend –
The strong ties are severed for one crime alone,
Possessing a colour less fair than your own.
Ah! Why must the tints of complexion be made
A plea for the wrongs which poor Afric invade?
Alike are His children in His holy sight,
Who formed and redeems both the black and the white.

An extract from 'The Negro Woman's Appeal to Her White Sisters', Richard Barrett, 1850

Source 6.62

The Negro slaves of the South are the happiest, and in some sense, the freest people in the world. The children and the aged and infirm work not at all, and yet have all the comforts and necessaries of life provided for them. They enjoy liberty, because they are oppressed neither by care nor labor. The women do little hard work and are protected from the despotism of their husbands by their masters. The Negro men and stout boys work, on the average, in good weather, not more than nine hours a day. The balance of their time is spent in perfect abandon … The free (white) laborer … is more of a slave than the Negro, because he works longer and harder for less allowance than the slave, and has no holiday, because the cares of life with him begin when its labors end.

An excerpt from George Fitzhugh's 'Cannibals All! or Slaves Without Masters', 1857. Fitzhugh was a pro-slavery lawyer, writer and slave owner.



SONGS.

HAVE WE NOT ALL ONE FATHER?

AM I NOT A MAN AND BROTHER?

Air — Bible's Farewell.

Am I not a man and brother?
Ought I not, then, to be free?
Sell me not one to another,
Take not thus my liberty.
Christ our Saviour, Christ our Saviour,
Died for me as well as thee.

Am I not a man and brother?
Have I not a soul to save?
Oh, do not my spirit smother,
Making me a wretched slave;
God of mercy, God of mercy,
Let me fill a freeman's grave!

1*

Source 6.63 An excerpt from *The Anti-Slavery Harp,* William Wells Brown, 1848: 'a collection of songs for anti-slavery meetings'.

skill**drill**

Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different perspectives, points of view, attitudes and values. People who create sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs; by their life experiences and the time in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when applying this skill:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What was he/she trying to convey? Is the message explicit, or are there implicit messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What does the author choose not to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? Do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology. How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 Consider Sources 6.61, 6.62 and 6.63. Who wrote or produced them? Identify and analyse the perspectives portrayed in each of these sources, using the steps.

Extend your understanding

1 Identify as many different groups and individuals who were involved in or affected (directly or indirectly) by the slavery debate in America during the 1800s. Make a list to describe their roles or positions in society.

2 Look again at the list of groups and individuals involved in or affected by the slavery debate in America during the 1860s. Of these groups and individuals, whose perspectives are *not* represented within Sources 6.61, 6.62 and 6.63?

3 Conduct some research to locate some additional primary source documents which help to illustrate the perspectives of these other groups or individuals. Identify and analyse these perspectives, using the process outlined in Step 5 above.

What was the impact of imperialism in this period?

Depth study 2
Australia and Asia

This depth study offers the choice of two options:

- Making a nation
- Asia and the world

You are required to choose ONE of these options and learn in detail about particular aspects of it.

Historians understand that all historical events are interconnected and that a complete understanding of our history is not possible if its study is limited by national borders. In *Depth study 2 – Australia and Asia* you have the opportunity to learn about a number of significant events that took place both in Australia and Asia. These include:

- Making a nation – examine how the Australian nation was formed and explore links between Australia and Europe, the USA and the Asia–Pacific region in order to gain a thorough understanding of the factors that shape our history and heritage.
- Asia and the world – gain a detailed understanding of some key historical events and social aspects of one Asian society such as China, Japan or India and make links to Australia and other countries in the region

Australia and British imperial expansion

As we have seen, Australia's settlement by the British was largely a result of changes brought about by the **Industrial Revolution** in Britain and Europe. The mass movement of people from rural farming villages across Britain to the new factory towns in search of work led to harsh living conditions and overcrowding. In turn, this led to a rise in crime rates and an increase in the numbers of prisoners held in jails. Ultimately, the **penal colonies** established in New South Wales and other parts of Australia were seen by Britain as a solution to its overcrowded jails and social problems.

Australia's settlement was also linked to Britain's expansion of its colonies, at a time when European powers were competing for power and wealth around the world. Exports of wool, timber and sugar from its Australian colonies increased the wealth of the British Empire, and contributed to Australia's developing economy.



Source O.17 A view of Sydney Cove in 1794



Source O.18 A view of the settlement of Sydney, *c.* 1870

Over time, Australia became a place where hard-working ex-convicts and free migrants could build new lives and be granted new opportunities – particularly in the boom decades of the 1850s after the discovery of gold. **Convicts** and **free settlers** provided the labour that helped build a new nation. Some also brought progressive political ideas with them that would go on to play a crucial role in the establishment of Australia's democratic system of government and the formation of a national identity.

Impacts on Indigenous Australians

From the earliest days of British settlement, all colonies around Australia shared the same view of the Indigenous peoples. The concept of *terra nullius* (a Latin term meaning 'empty land' or 'land belonging to no-one') was applied to the land and generally accepted by the colonists. This concept justified the British belief that they were entitled to land and all of the resources it provided. The actions of the white settlers had a dramatic effect on Australia's Indigenous populations. Indigenous Australians were **dispossessed** of traditional lands, killed by disease and isolated by government policies that removed them from their homelands and placed them on **reserves** or in **missions**. As a result, traditional cultures and ways of life were changed forever.

Federation makes a nation

Over time, Australia transformed from a group of independent penal colonies established by the British, to a united and prosperous democratic nation. Although six colonies established across Australia were settled separately by the British, they shared many common characteristics – culture, language, political systems and religion.

During the second half of the 19th century, Australian colonists became increasingly aware of the fact that they also shared many common goals and beliefs. As a result, the idea of nationhood began to grow. Many other nations – such as the United States, France, Italy and Germany – were formed after revolution or war. In Australia, progress towards **Federation** was a gradual and peaceful process. A series of referendums (national votes) and constitutional conventions led to the development of the Constitution of Australia in 1900. This series of documents – the most important of which is known as the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia – outlined the supreme laws of the Commonwealth Government (also known as the Federal Government).

overview 2

It also established the relationship between the Federal Government and the states and territories of Australia in 1900. Following a positive vote from the majority of the people in each colony, the Australian nation was created in 1901.

Check your learning O.6

Remember and understand

1 How did imperialism affect Indigenous Australians during the 19th century?
2 Describe the concept of *terra nullius* in your own words.
3 Describe the process that changed Australia from a collection of separately governed states to a unified nation.

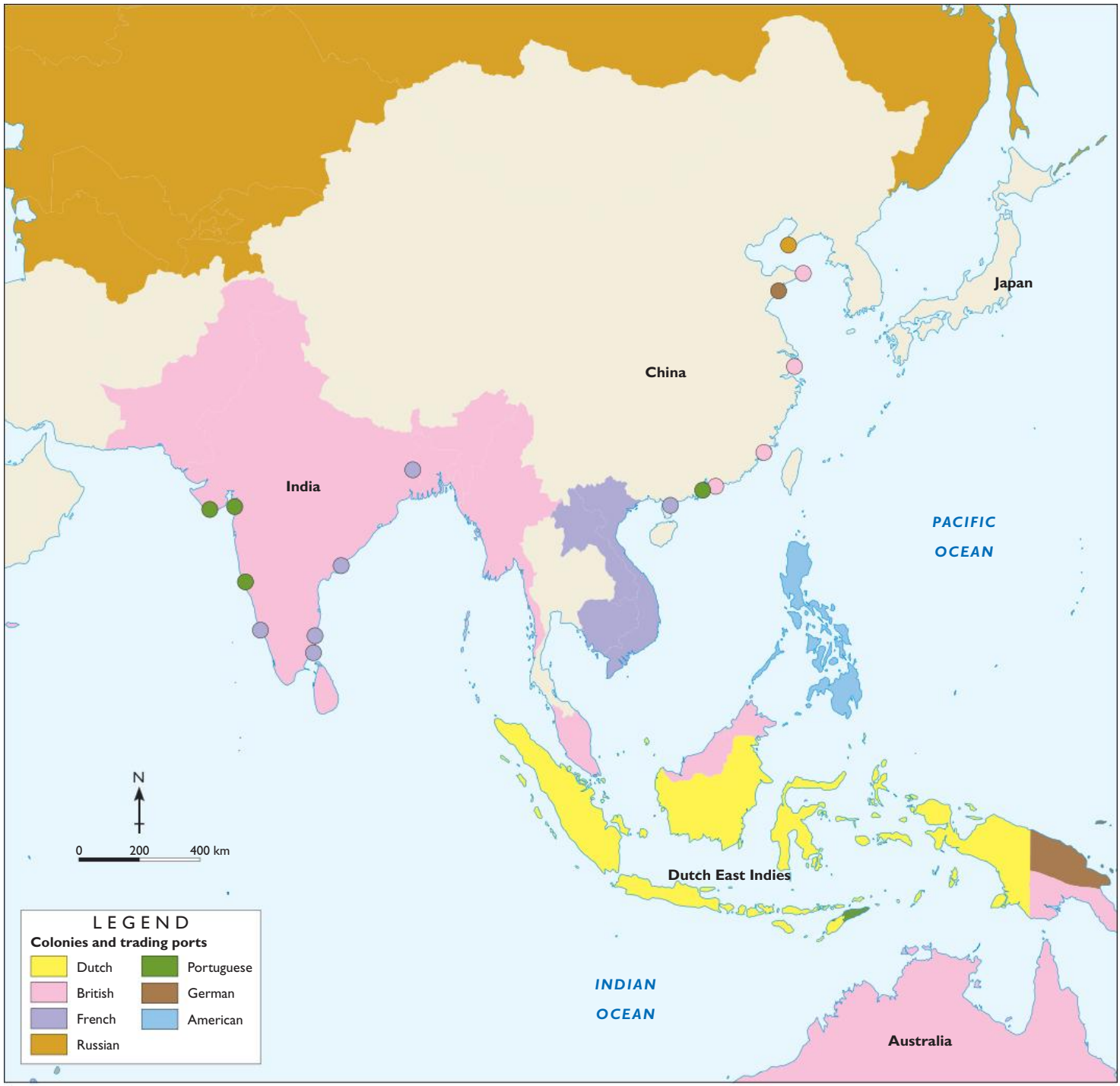
Apply and analyse

4 Examine Sources O.17 and O.18. They show Sydney in 1794 and 1870. During this time Australia's non-Indigenous population increased from an estimated 3500 people to 1.6 million people.
   a Describe the continuities and changes that can be seen between these two depictions of Sydney, 76 years apart.
   b What developments and events during this period would have contributed to these changes?
   c Locate a photograph of Sydney Harbour and the Rocks today. What continuities and changes can you see?

Asia and European imperial expansion

Societies and cultures across Asia emerged and developed as powerful and unique empires over thousands of years. Until the mid-18th century, many Asian societies remained largely isolated from Western societies. Contact between East and West was limited to a few established trading ports across Asia. From 1750 onwards, however, a number of European powers – particularly Britain, France and the Netherlands – challenged the authority and **sovereignty** of a number of traditional Asian societies as they competed to expand their empires around the world. By the end of the 19th century, most Asian countries had been occupied by a European power (Source O.19).

ASIA: EUROPEAN TERRITORIES, 1900



Source O.19

Source: Oxford University Press

China

In 1750, China was ruled over by the Qing Dynasty and China was the supreme power in East Asia. The Chinese government kept out foreign influences. As a result the Chinese court and Chinese society remained largely unchanged for hundreds of years.

Trade: Around this time, China mainly traded with its Asian neighbours. In addition to this, it exported large quantities of porcelain (known as China) and tea to Europe. By comparison, the Chinese expressed little interest in importing goods from Europe.

Foreign influence: British traders finally found an answer to the trade imbalance in the drug opium – a highly addictive drug. The drug became widely used and the British flooded the Chinese market from 1773 onwards. China tried to stop this trade by going to war with Britain and France (Opium Wars 1839–1842 and 1856–1860). Defeated, China was forced to sign a series of unequal treaties with Britain, France, Germany and Russia. The treaties allowed these nations to set up their own trading hubs in China with their own laws and businesses. China was also made to pay **reparations** (fines) to the Europeans. These moves crippled China politically and financially.

Impact: Chinese military strength and weaponry was no match when it came to fighting the Europeans. Towards the end of the 1800s, China attempted to modernise its army and society, but growing unrest across the nation led to a rise in nationalist movements and anti-European protests. Ultimately, the ruling Qing Dynasty was overthrown in 1911.

Dutch East Indies

The Dutch East Indies were colonised by the Dutch in 1800. The many islands were each home to different communities all with their own leaders. Now known as Indonesia, this archipelago (chain of islands) is made up of more than 17 000 islands. Today, Indonesia is one of the most culturally diverse nations on Earth.

Trade: The Dutch East India Company was set up in 1602 to profit from the spice trade and break Portuguese control over this market. In 1619, the company established a capital in the port city of Batavia (now Jakarta). The Dutch East Indies were important to the trade of coffee, tea, sugar and spices, particularly pepper, as well as tin, copper and timber.

Foreign influence: When the Dutch East India Company was disbanded in 1800, its territories were taken over by the Dutch government and renamed the Dutch East Indies. The Dutch East Indies helped to make the Netherlands a rich, industrialised nation. It produced most of the world's quinine (a substance used to treat malaria) and pepper, as well as over a third of the world's rubber, and a fifth of its tea, sugar, coffee and oil.

Impact: The Indigenous peoples of the archipelago became the primary workforce on plantations established by the Dutch. The Dutch were well settled in the East Indies and influenced the development of the country's institutions. The Dutch were removed by the Japanese occupation during World War II, and Indonesia became an independent nation in 1949.

India

In 1750, most of modern-day India was part of the Mughal Empire with an all-powerful and absolute emporer. The emperor had a *diwan* (government) to administer the empire, divided into provinces.

Trade: The Portuguese, Dutch, French and British all had trading companies in India from the 1600s. India was a source of valuable trade items such as tea, silk and spices. By 1800, the British controlled all Indian trade. India was a source of the British Empire's land, money, employment and military strength. In the late 19th century, the Indian army made up half of the British Empire's troops and a quarter of Indian taxes went straight back to Britain.

Foreign influence: By 1800, the British East India Company had built up its private armies and taken political control over most of India. In 1857, uprisings by *sepoys* – Indian soldiers employed by the British East India Company – known as the Indian Mutiny led to the British government taking control of India in 1858. This period of British rule, known as the British Raj, lasted for almost a century.

Impact: India had until this time operated as a series of semi-independent provinces. New technologies introduced by the British allowed for mass transportation and long-distance communication, bringing the different regions of India closer together. By 1880, India had over 9000 miles of railway and the cable telegraph across India. This in turn led to nationalist movements such as the Indian National Congress, started in 1885, campaigning for self-rule. Independence was finally achieved in 1947.

Japan

In 1750, Japan was technically under the rule of an emperor. Although the emperor commanded great respect, the real power lay with his military leader, the shogun. From 1603 to 1867, a powerful **dynasty** of shoguns known as the Tokugawa shogunate controlled Japan.

Trade: European traders had been visiting Japan since the mid-1500s. However from 1635 until 1853, the *shogun* banned all European ships from entering Japanese waters (except for Dutch ships which had limited access to islands off the mainland). It was also illegal for any Japanese person to leave the country. This period, known as *sakoku* meaning 'chained country', stopped foreign influence over Japan and protected the shogun's power.

Foreign influence: Japan's period of isolation ended in 1853 with the arrival of a fleet of American warships commanded by Commodore Matthew Perry. The United States forced Japan to open its doors to trade with the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854.

Impact: The Japanese recognised that there was little they could do to prevent the increasing influence of foreigners. They recognised that modernisation would put the country in a stronger position. Japan modernised its government, economy and army over a period known as the Meiji Restoration. By the end of the 19th century, Japan had an army and a navy to rival many other modern powers and began attempts to create its own empire. Japan went to war with China in 1894 and with Russia in 1905 and defeated them both, gaining control over parts of China and Korea.

key**concept:** continuity and change

Exploring continuity and change in Asian societies

As you explore the history of Asian societies and the impact that contact with European powers had on them, it will help you to keep in mind the key historical concept of continuity and change. In particular, the related concepts of 'transformation' and 'change within tradition' are useful lenses through which to view different Asian societies. These concepts are defined below and some examples of each are provided in Source O.20.

- *Transformation* – this concept relates to sweeping change that was often brought about by military action and, at times, occupation by Western powers (that is, change from the outside).
- *Change within tradition* – this concept relates to change brought about by traditional leaders, heads of government, or religious and cultural institutions (that is, change from within).

For more information on the key concept of continuity and change, refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source O.21 King George V and Queen Mary, attended by young Indian princes at the 1903 Imperial Durbar in Delhi. British monarchs were called emperors and empresses of India, rather than kings or queens, to remind Indians of the symbolic power of past emperors of India. They also held grand ceremonies in Delhi, called the Imperial Durbar, to demonstrate the wealth and strength of the British Empire. This echoed the *durbars* of earlier times, when Mughal emperors held court in great splendour.

Source O.20 Examples of transformation and change within tradition

Transformation	Change within tradition
The rule of the once-mighty Mughal emperors in India was undermined by European trading companies. By 1800, the British East India Company had taken political control over most of India. In 1858, the British government took over direct control of India.	The British government deliberately kept some of the traditional leadership structures and practices after they took direct control of Indian territories. For example, India's princes retained their local power and the rights of traditional landlords were respected.
In 1853, Japan was forced by Western powers to open its borders to Western trade. This change resulted in a change of leadership in Japan and the creation of a more Western-style government under the rule of Emperor Meiji, was who influenced by Western ideas and beliefs. This period became known as the Meiji Restoration.	During the Meiji Restoration, beginning in 1868, much of the real power rested with the same powerful clans that had once dominated Japan.

Check your learning O.5

Remember and understand

1 List the main reasons why European countries competed to colonise territories across Asia?
2 Which Asian country managed to isolate itself from Western powers for more than 200 years? What was this period known as and what was it designed to achieve?
3 What name was Indonesia known by before it gained independence from the Netherlands? Why was it colonised in the first place?

Apply and analyse

4 How did China and Japan's policies of isolation affect their abilities to defend themselves against attacks and interference from foreign powers?
5 Why was India considered to be 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown' of Britain's colonies?

Australia and Asia



depth study 2

depth study – option

Making a nation

A nation is a group of people united by a common language, history and culture that live in a clearly defined area. The story of Australia's journey from **convict** dumping ground to democratic nation is a dramatic and exciting one. In 1901, after more than 100 years of European settlement, the six separate British colonies across the continent joined together to create the Commonwealth of Australia – a process known as **Federation**. Each **colony** shared many common characteristics – culture, language, political systems and religion. They also shared a belief that the Indigenous people of Australia had no claim over the land they had inhabited for tens of thousands of years. The characteristics and beliefs of people from each of the original colonies heavily influenced the newly formed nation of Australia and continue to do so to this day.



7.1

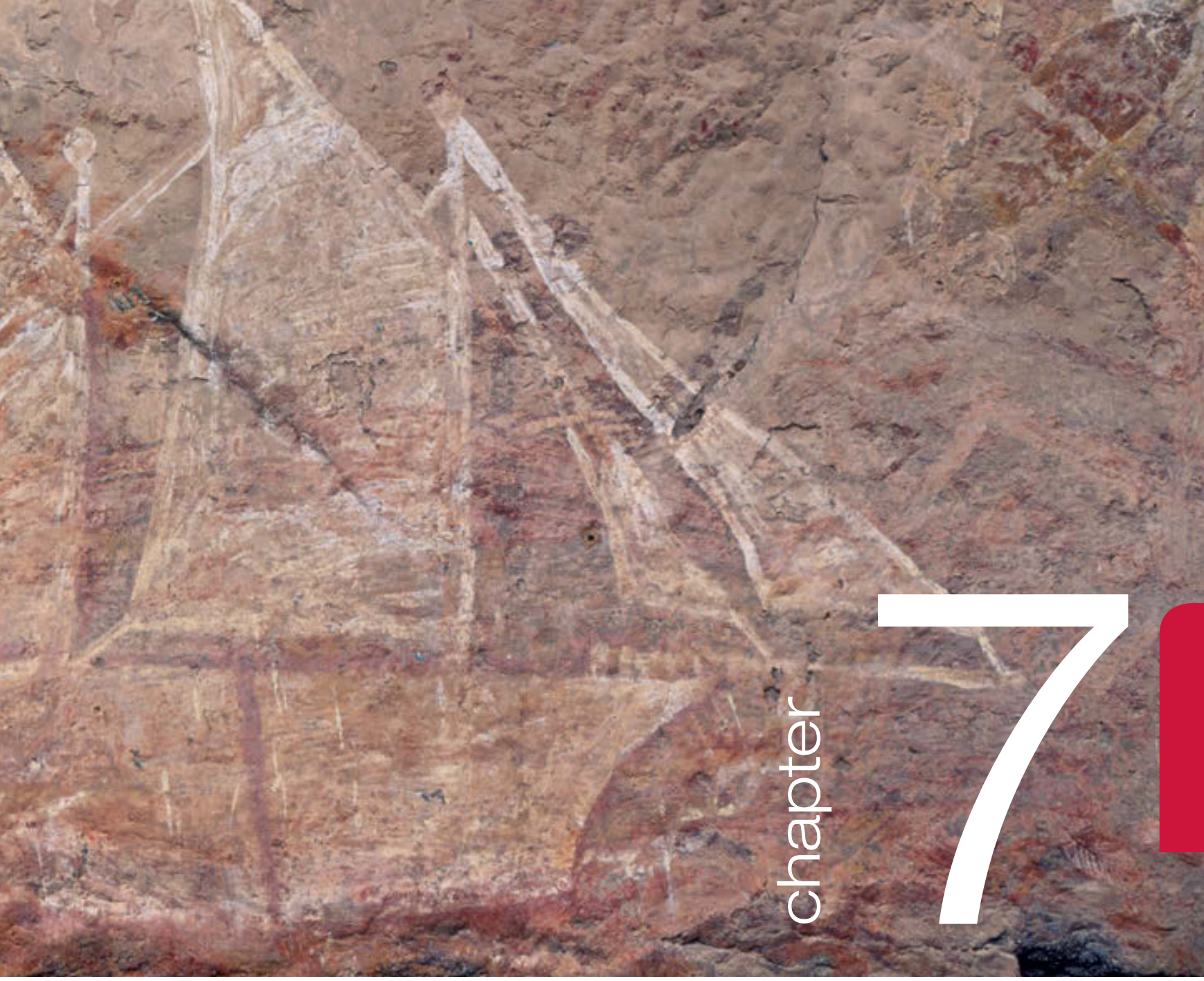
How and why were British colonies established in Australia and who was affected?

1 In what ways do you think the arrival of British settlers to Australia impacted on the Indigenous population. Think about these effects both in the short and long term.

7.2

How did key events and ideas influence the development of Australia?

1 The Australian gold rush of the 19th century had huge impacts on the economy and influenced Australia's development as a nation. Why do you think this was the case?



Source 7.1 This Indigenous rock painting of a tall ship at Nanguluwur in Kakadu, Northern Territory, provides evidence of the interaction that Indigenous Australians had with early settlers. It also stands as a reminder of the changes that took place as a result of contact with the British.

7.3

What was life like in Australia at the start of the 20th century?

1 In the early 1900s, Australia experienced a period of great progress and prosperity. However, the benefits of this prosperity were not available to all Australians. Which groups do you think might have faced hardship and social discrimination at this time?

Making a nation: a timeline



A cottage in early Hobart, 1806

1770
James Cook's landing at Botany Bay in HMS *Endeavour* on 29 April 1770

1803
Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania): first settlement at Risdon Cove on the Derwent River, followed by the Hobart settlement in early 1804

1824
Queensland: Moreton Bay convict settlement

1750

1800

1829
Western Australia: Swan River Colony

1788
New South Wales: first settlement at Sydney Cove

1813
First crossing of the Blue Mountains, New South Wales leads to British expansion inland



An artist's impression of explorers Gregory Blaxland, William Wentworth and William Lawson crossing the Blue Mountains in 1813

Source 7.2 A timeline of some key events and developments relating to the making of the nation Australia

Zealous Diggers at Bendigo, painting by ST Gill, 1854





Children at work in the Berry's Creek school, Victoria, in the 1890s

1838
Myall Creek Massacre, New South Wales

1835
Victoria: settlement of Port Phillip colony and the foundation of Melbourne

1851
Start of the Australian gold rushes

1872
Free, compulsory and secular (non-religious) education

1902
The Commonwealth Franchise Act grants the vote to most Australian men and women over 21

1907
The Harvester Judgement introduces a minimum wage for Australian men

1850

1900

1856
Introduction of the eight-hour day



Banner created to celebrate the 50th anniversary of the achievement of the eight-hour working day

1901
Australian colonies federate, creating the Commonwealth of Australia

1836
South Australia: settlement of Adelaide

1914
Start of World War I



The statue of Colonel William Light on Montefiore Hill in Adelaide, overlooking the city. Colonel Light was one of the founders of South Australia and was the surveyor responsible for the fine layout of Adelaide.

Check your learning 7.1

Remember and understand

1. In what year was New South Wales first settled by the British?
2. When did the Australian gold rushes begin?
3. In what year was a law introduced to limit the working day to eight hours?

Apply and analyse

4. Use the timeline to calculate the exact number of years between when the British first settled Australia and the founding of the Commonwealth of Australia through Federation.

7.1 How and why were British colonies established in Australia and who was affected?

The first Europeans



Source 7.3 An artist's impression of the view at the Swan River Colony (Western Australia), 1834

James Cook and European exploration of Australia

In 1768, James Cook, a British Navy Lieutenant and highly capable navigator, was appointed commander of a ship called the *Endeavour*. He was instructed to sail to New Holland – a name that had been given to Australia by Dutch explorers in the 1600s. Cook's commands were to investigate the plants and animals he found there, and examine the available natural resources and the native population. In addition to these tasks, he was ordered to befriend the Indigenous people and take possession of the land for Britain.

Cook claimed the east coast of Australia in the name of Britain in 1770, and took back favourable reports of the soil and climate. He gave mixed reports of the Indigenous people. Cook was generally sympathetic, without ever acknowledging that they had any claim to the land.

Source 7.4

> … In short, they seemed to set no value upon anything we gave them, nor would they ever part with anything of their own for any one article we could offer them; this in my opinion argues that they think themselves provided with all the necessaries of Life and that they have no superfluities [luxuries].

Journals of Captain James Cook (JC Beaglehold, *The Journals of Captain James Cook*, Hakluyt Society, 1974)



Source 7.5 Prison hulks on the Thames River, London, 1805. These hulks were usually old naval ships that were no longer seaworthy.

The decision to settle Botany Bay

One of the places where Cook had landed in 1770 was Botany Bay, just south of Port Jackson. As a result of information from Cook's voyage, Britain decided to establish a **penal colony** there. There were several factors that contributed to Britain's decision:

- The **Industrial Revolution** taking place in Britain at the time meant that many people from rural areas had moved to the towns and cities seeking work. Those unable to find work turned to crime to survive. This increase in crime rates meant that British prisons became very overcrowded.
- Because of the overcrowding in British jails, convicts started being imprisoned on empty ships moored in British harbours. These rotting ships were called 'hulks' (see Source 7.5). Over a short period, these hulks also became extremely crowded and full of disease. The government feared that those diseases would spread to the general public unless these prisoners were removed.
- Before the **American War of Independance**, some British prisoners had been transported to the American colonies, but after the Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776, they refused to accept any more convicts from Britain.
- As a result of the Industrial Revolution, British factories and industries were hungry for raw materials such as wood, coal and minerals. It was hoped that Australia would provide many of these resources. For example, Norfolk Island, off the coast of New South Wales, was seen as a valuable source of hard timber (suitable for making ships' masts) and flax (a type of grass used for making sails).
- Britain was keen to maintain its role as the leading seafaring and colonial nation. Having a colony in the 'Great South Land' was a good way of doing this. It also meant that Britain would be able to keep pace with French explorers who were colonising new territories in the Pacific.

The First Fleet

The **First Fleet** of 11 ships set sail for Australia from Portsmouth, England, on 13 May 1787. Despite poor weather, the fleet finally arrived at Botany Bay on 18 January 1788. On arrival, however, the area was declared unsuitable for settlement. The fleet moved on to Sydney Cove, landing on 26th January. The fleet's commander, Captain Arthur Phillip,



Source 7.6 An oil painting depicting the arrival of the First Fleet

became the first governor of Britain's first Australian colony, New South Wales (see Source 7.7).

The voyage

The First Fleet was made up of two warships, six convict ships and three supply ships. On board were naval officers, four companies of marines for protection, administrators and their families, and male and female convicts. For the time, the fleet was very well stocked, and three stops were scheduled to take on fresh supplies.

Conditions on the ships were crowded. Prisoners spent a great deal of time below deck in poorly ventilated darkness. Barred and bolted hatches let in little light and air, and many convicts were chained together. The ships were infested with rats, cockroaches and fleas, so diseases spread quickly and easily.

Captain Phillip was aware of the poor conditions on the First Fleet, but tried to look after the health of convicts. They were allowed on deck regularly to wash and breathe fresh air, and were checked by a medical officer. Convicts were given full rations, but only around one litre of water per person each day. The First Fleet convicts arrived in Australia with a surprisingly low death toll.



Source 7.7 Captain Arthur Phillip

The Second Fleet

In 1790, the **Second Fleet** of three ships arrived in Sydney. It had left England with 1000 convicts on board, but conditions were worse than on the First Fleet, and the death toll was higher. The Second Fleet was run by slavers (slave traders) who said they would take the convicts to Australia – dead or alive – for a fixed sum. Many convicts were not given their full ration of food because the slavers planned to sell any unused rations when they arrived in Sydney. Two hundred and sixty-seven convicts died on the voyage. In addition to the 267 deaths, 480 convicts became dangerously ill during the journey from scurvy, dysentery and fever. On arrival in Sydney, many could not walk to shore without help. Conditions on one convict ship were so poor that 30 per cent of the convicts on board died – the highest of any Australian convict ship.

The food that arrived in the colony on board the Second Fleet saved the settlers of the First Fleet from certain starvation. However, the convicts arrived in such poor health that they soon became more of a drain on the colony's resources than a help.

On the Second Fleet's return to Britain, stories of convict suffering led to legal action against some of the seamen and contractors, and the authorities reviewed the transportation process. Ships were only despatched twice a year, in late May and early September, to avoid the dangerous winter conditions in the southern hemisphere. Independent surgeons were appointed to supervise the treatment of convicts, and bonuses were paid for their safe arrival.

After the First and Second Fleets, convicts continued being transported to the eastern colonies until 1850, when transportation to Western Australia began, lasting until 1868.

Convict life

The living and working conditions of convicts in Australia varied greatly according to the region they were sent to and the years in which they were sent. In the early years of the colony, most convicts were forced to work on vital public works, such as roads and buildings. At this time, the governor decided the convicts' food and clothing rations. Some convicts were also assigned as unpaid servants to farmers and townspeople. By the 1820s, the majority of convicts in New South Wales worked for private employers, including former convicts.

In 1801, Governor King introduced the 'ticket of leave' system for good behaviour, which allowed prisoners to choose their employers and receive wages (see Source 7.8). Some of these ticket-of-leave convicts, such as Mary Reiby,


COLONIAL TICKET OF LEAVE.

No. 69

Convict Department,

Sydney, New South Wales,

18 June 1849

It is His Excellency the Governor's pleasure to dispense with the attendance at Government work of Joseph Phillips

who was tried at Supreme Court Sydney, 27 April 1853

Convict for Wounding arrived per Ship Dromedary

Master, in the Year 1854 and to permit him

to employ himself (all the States) in any lawful occupation within the District of

Port Macquarie for his own advantage during good behaviour, or

until His Excellency's further pleasure shall be made known.

By His Excellency's Command,

Inspector General of Police.

Source 7.8 A ticket of leave, given to well-behaved convicts.

went on to become prosperous and influential citizens. Occasionally, heroic acts carried out by convicts were rewarded with an absolute or conditional pardon.

On the other hand, punishments for offences committed by convicts after transportation were severe. The Coal River settlement (later known as Newcastle, New South Wales), Norfolk Island (in the Pacific Ocean, 1600 kilometres east of Sydney), or Macquarie Harbour (Tasmania) were all established to deal with convicts who had reoffended while serving their original sentences. For this reason they became known as places of secondary punishment. Of these sites, Norfolk Island was the harshest and was reserved for the 'absolute worst' convicts. Here, solitary confinement and hard labour in a chain gang were the norm. The degrading treatment they received there was designed to punish rather than reform, as a warning to convicts on the mainland.

Between 1840 and 1844, Captain Alexander Maconochie attempted to introduce a more humane system at Norfolk Island, but it did little to change the views that convicts had about the island. In 1843, Governor Gipps commented, 'they would go anywhere rather than remain on Norfolk Island'.

About 12 per cent of the convicts transported to the Australian colonies were female. They were mainly guilty of minor offences such as theft and vagrancy (homelessness). Contrary to popular belief, not one was transported for prostitution, but sources do suggest that some female convicts resorted to prostitution on the voyage and after arrival in Australia in order to survive.

The convict legacy

Convicts played a very important role in the establishment of New South Wales and most other Australian colonies. Up to the 1840s, much of the labour that opened the interior and built the towns, roads and bridges, and supported the farmers was provided by convicts.

Between 1788 and the end of transportation in 1868, approximately 160000 convicts were sent to Australia. In 1838, a British House of Commons committee condemned transportation; this, together with local opposition, saw the end of transportation to New South Wales. However, it continued to Van Diemen's Land until 1853. Also, from 1850 to 1868, Western Australia received 7000 convicts.

Check your learning 7.2

Remember and understand

1 What were some of the main reasons behind Britain's decision to establish a penal colony in New South Wales?
2 What happened to convicts who misbehaved or reoffended while serving their sentences in the colonies?
3 What were some of the regulations put in place by British authorities in 1801 to ensure that convict transportation became safer?
4 Briefly describe how the 'ticket of leave' system operated.
5 What percentage of the convicts transported to Australia were female, and what sort of offences were they mainly guilty of?

Apply and analyse

6 How do you explain the different mortality rates between convicts transported on the First Fleet and Second Fleet?
7 Identify some of the contributions made by the convicts to the development of the colonies.

Evaluate and create

8 Do you think Captain Arthur Phillip was a good choice to lead the First Fleet and become the first governor of New South Wales? Justify your position in a 150-word written response based on information in the text and your own Internet research.

The colonies of Australia

The Australian colonies were established for a range of different reasons. One of the main reasons was to provide a place of punishment for many of the convicts crowding Britain's jails. The colonies also offered the opportunity for poor people from Britain to begin a new life and even own land. They were also a great source of wealth and raw materials for the British government and industry, initially providing timber for shipbuilding, and later supplying wool, minerals and grain.

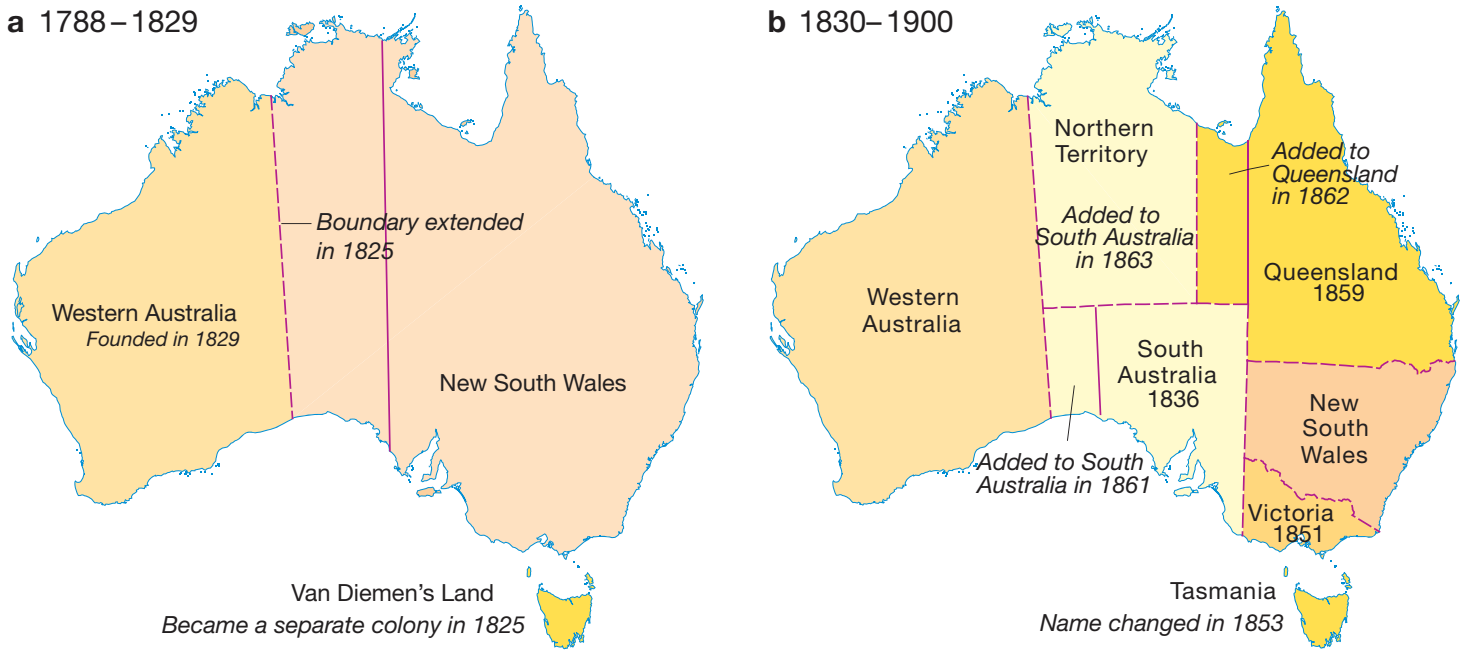
Changing social and economic conditions in Britain during the 18th century led to the first permanent convict settlement in New South Wales in 1788. The process of European settlement of Australia after that time was gradual. New South Wales was later followed by other colonies and districts around the country; some were originally administered from New South Wales, while others were established as colonies in their own right. Over the next century, these colonies gradually became the states and territories of Australia that we recognise today (see Source 7.9).

Underlying the whole colonial experience was a strong belief in the idea that British values and achievements were superior to those of any other peoples. This belief provided the British with a justification for their perceived right and obligation to take control of Australian lands, without regard for the Indigenous inhabitants.

New South Wales

After his arrival on the First Fleet in 1788, Captain Arthur Phillip remained as the governor of the colony of New South Wales for five years. Phillip represented the British government and was more or less the ruler of the colony. His chief achievement was the survival of the colony and the establishment of Sydney and Parramatta. He was known to be a humane leader, and this extended to his relations with the Cadigal and Wangal Wangal peoples of the Sydney area. Governor Phillip named the suburb of Manly after the strong and 'manly' Aborigines he met in that area shortly after settlement – 'their confidence and manly behaviour made me give the name of Manly Cove to this place'.

In the early days of the colony, the harsh landscape, blazing hot summers and the settlers' lack of experience made farming difficult. In its first two years, the colony came very close to collapsing because of starvation, inadequate shelter and a lack of appropriate equipment. The arrival of the Second Fleet in June 1790 possibly saved the young settlement, but conditions remained harsh. By the time Phillip left, however, farms were almost able to support the New South Wales population.



Source 7.9 Australian colonial settlements, **a** 1788–1829 **b** 1830–1900

The spread of settlement in New South Wales

From 1788 until about 1810, the colony of New South Wales was confined to an area extending not much more than 100 kilometres in any direction from Sydney. The crossing of the Blue Mountains by explorers William Wentworth, Gregory Blaxland and William Lawson in 1813 allowed settlements to expand inland. Other explorers followed and, by 1850, most of New South Wales had been opened up to British settlers. The land was cleared, allowing farms and small towns to be established.

By the 1830s, although there was still plenty of convict and ex-convict labour, there was a growing move towards bringing free settlers out to Australia. These people initially formed a labouring class, but eventually become landowners. In 1831, an assisted migration scheme was introduced. Under this scheme, potential employers in the colony were able to choose British workers. The workers were then assisted with the cost of their passage to Australia. In return, the assisted settlers (often whole families) would guarantee that they would work for their patrons (employers) for two to three years. Many **assisted migrants** went on to become influential citizens in the colonies. One was Henry Parkes (later Sir Henry Parkes), who went on to become Premier of New South Wales and is remembered today as one of the leaders of the federation movement.



Source 7.10 A view of Government Farm at Rose Hill, New South Wales, 1791

Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania)

The first European explorer to discover and map large sections of Australia – including the southern island we know as Tasmania – was a Dutchman by the name of Abel Tasman. In the 1640s, Tasman named the island Van Diemen's Land after the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies (modern-day Indonesia).

The first European settlement in Van Diemen's Land was at Risdon Cove on the Derwent River. In September 1803, Lieutenant John Bowen arrived from New South Wales on HMS *Albion*, which carried 50 passengers, half of whom were convicts.

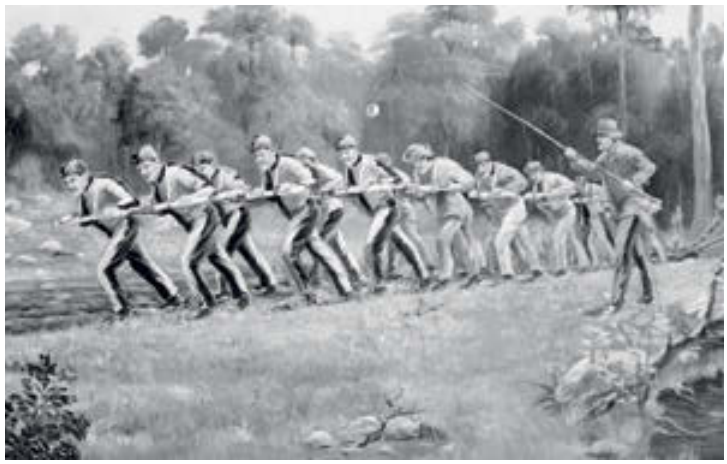


Source 7.11 The remains of the penal colony at Port Arthur in Tasmania

In early 1804, the settlement was joined by over 400 colonists and convicts from the abandoned Sullivan's Bay colony at Sorrento (Victoria). The leader of this expedition, Lieutenant David Collins, moved the settlement from Risdon Cove to Hobart and took over responsibility for the colony from Bowen. Hobart was established as a penal colony and was to become one of the harshest of the convict settlements. Overall, 40 per cent of all convicts transported to Australia were to spend time in Van Diemen's Land.

Over the next 20 years, the colony developed and prospered. **Free settlers** and ex-convicts helped to establish a sheep-grazing industry, and set up sealing and whaling stations. In addition to Hobart, the towns of Richmond and Launceston were established, and industries such as milling, brewing and brick-making developed.

In 1825, Van Diemen's Land, which had been part of New South Wales, became a colony in its own right. In 1853, the name was changed to Tasmania (in honour of Abel Tasman) and it achieved the right to self-government in 1854.



Source 7.12 *The Plough Gang*, an artist's impression of convicts working near the Port Arthur colony

The impact of European settlement on the Indigenous people of Van Diemen's Land (the Parlevar or Palawa people) was more devastating than in most of the mainland colonies. As the settlers and their livestock spread out across the island, Aboriginal people were displaced from their traditional lands and dispossessed of their culture and traditions. The main killer of Aborigines was European disease, but they also suffered as a result of loss of food sources and their traditional skills. Violence against Aborigines also accounted for deaths, although it is difficult to gain accurate figures about such actions because massacres were often covered up or not recorded.

The Tasmanian Aborigines did not accept colonisation and made many attempts to strike back against the settlers. This resulted in a period of tension between the two groups that has been described as guerrilla warfare and the Black War.

In 1832, George Robinson was appointed by the government to gather all remaining Aborigines into a camp on Flinders Island in an attempt to 'remove the problem'. As far as it is known, the last full-blood Tasmanian Aborigine died in 1876, but there are thousands of Tasmanians today who are blood relatives of the original inhabitants of their island.

Queensland

The area around Moreton Bay (now Brisbane) was home to the Jagera and Turrbal people for up to 40 000 years before British settlers arrived. In 1824, a convict settlement was established on the shore of Moreton Bay under the leadership of Lieutenant Henry Miller. A year later it was moved to the banks of the Brisbane River. Over 2200 convicts, most of them hardened criminals, were sent to the settlement between 1824 and 1839.

Officially, free settlers were forbidden from moving into the area, but over time it became increasingly difficult to stop them. The area offered fertile soil and good grazing pastures, and was very attractive to free settlers and colonists from New South Wales.

In 1838, the decision was made to allow free settlers into the area, and the following year the convict settlement was closed. The area remained part of New South Wales until the colony of Queensland was officially proclaimed in 1859.



Source 7.13 A hand-coloured etching showing a convict being flogged at Moreton Bay in 1836

Western Australia

The area around the Swan River had been occupied by several Indigenous groups for thousands of years before European settlement. These groups lived along the banks of the river where there was an abundant supply of fish, game birds, fruit and berries.

The first European settlement in Western Australia was at King George Sound in 1826. This decision to settle here was prompted by a fear that the French were interested



Source 7.14 *The Foundation of Perth 1829* by George Pitt Morison. This painting was commissioned to mark the centenary of the founding of Western Australia in 1929.

in colonising the area. In 1829, Captain James Stirling established the Swan River Colony in the name of the British government. The main city was Perth, with a port called Fremantle at the entrance to the harbour. Unlike settlements in New South Wales, Hobart, Moreton Bay and Norfolk Island, this new colony was to be a free settlement – free from the stigma of convicts.

The population of the settlement grew slowly. While the idea of a free settlement was appealing to immigrants, they quickly found that there was a drastic shortage of labour. Land prices were low so most free settlers became farmers, leaving few people to work for wages.

This problem eventually led to the demand that convicts be sent to Western Australia. In 1850, at a time when convict transportation was being phased out in the east, it became an important element in the economy of the west. From 1850 to 1868, nearly 10000 convicts, all of them male, were transported to the Swan River Colony. They worked on constructing public buildings – roads, bridges and even prisons. A small number were assigned to farmers, but as the years progressed and the convicts gained their freedom, they began to provide a much-needed labour force for the free settlers.

As in other colonies, the settlers at Swan River did not recognise any claim that the local Aborigines had to the land. Initial interactions between the two groups were friendly but it quickly became obvious that they could not coexist. In the 1830s, following several clashes between Aborigines and settlers, a local elder, Yagan, was killed. This incident was followed by the Battle of Pinjarra (also known as the Pinjarra Massacre), considered one of the worst attacks on Indigenous people in Australia's history.

Information about what happened at Pinjarra is unclear, and estimates of the number of Aborigines killed vary from 10 to 150. This event seems to have marked the end of Aboriginal resistance to European settlement. By the 1850s, most of the Indigenous people in the areas surrounding Perth had been dispossessed of their heritage and connection to the land.

Check your learning 7.3

Remember and understand

1 What were some of the reasons why the New South Wales colony nearly failed in the first few years after it was established?
2 When did explorers first cross the Blue Mountains?
3 What was Tasmania originally called and why was this name changed to 'Tasmania' in 1853?
4 Convicts were sent to the settlement of Moreton Bay (now Brisbane) between 1824 and 1839.
   a How many convicts were sent to Moreton Bay?
   b Why was this area also so attractive to free settlers?

Apply and analyse

5 How and why did European settlement in Van Diemen's Land have such a devastating impact on its Aboriginal people?
6 Explain why Western Australia suffered from a labour shortage. What was the solution to this problem?

The Port Phillip District (Victoria)

The first attempt to settle the colony that eventually became known as Victoria was made at Sorrento near the mouth of Port Phillip Bay in 1803. Originally, this was to be an administrative district of the colony of New South Wales. The settlers' first contact was made with the peoples of the Kulin nation who lived in the areas surrounding Port Phillip Bay. The Sorrento settlement, however, was abandoned after only a few months because of a lack of fresh water. Unlike New South Wales, Tasmania or Queensland, the colonisation of Victoria was driven by free settlers rather than convicts.

In 1834, the Henty brothers settled illegally in the area around Portland (in Victoria near the current border with South Australia). A year later, John Batman crossed Bass Strait from Tasmania and explored the area around the Yarra River. At the time, Batman claimed to have signed a treaty for around 600 000 acres of land from a group of Wurundjeri elders, the local Indigenous people (see Source 7.15). This area became the site for the establishment of a settlement that would eventually become known as Melbourne. More recently, Batman's claim has been challenged by historians. They contend that other pioneer settlers such as John Pascoe Fawkner and John Lancey actually have greater claim to being the founders of Melbourne.

The Port Phillip district grew quickly, largely because of profits from wool. Melbourne developed as a processing centre and port for wool exports. By 1850, it was an impressive city of 22 000 people, with many fine streets and buildings, an art gallery, theatres, hospitals and schools, and beautiful botanical gardens.

Unlike New South Wales, the Port Phillip District was established as a free settlement. From the late 1830s, assisted migrants were brought to the colony to provide a labour force. The opportunities offered in the colony were so great that, by 1850, one in five of these migrants had become landowners.

Despite its economic success, the settlement of the Port Phillip District had a disastrous impact on the Indigenous people of the region. European diseases such as smallpox and measles led to many deaths. Violence and loss of food sources also contributed to the decline of the Aboriginal population. It is estimated that by 1850 the Indigenous population had declined to around 3000.

In 1851, under the Australian Colonies Government Act, the Port Phillip District separated from New South Wales and was renamed the Colony of Victoria in honour of the reigning British monarch at the time, Queen Victoria. Following the discovery of gold in August 1851, Victoria went on to become one of the richest and most progressive of the Australian colonies.



Source 7.15 *Batman's treaty with the Aborigines,* JW Burt, 1885, State Library of Victoria (painted to mark the 50th anniversary of the treaty signed on 6 June 1835)

South Australia

South Australia was settled in 1836 on the banks of Adelaide's Torrens River. Its first governor was John Hindmarsh. The colony was based on a plan by Edward Gibbon Wakefield to create an ideal, convict-free society. Land was to be sold at a reasonable price and the money raised was to be used to bring out free settlers as labourers. The colony was founded with the aim of recreating all the best elements of the British homeland.

Adelaide was one of the first towns built in South Australia. It was designed by surveyor Colonel William Light (see Source 7.16). The regular grid of streets and the border of parklands surrounding the city make Adelaide one of the best-planned cities in the world.



Source 7.16 An artist's impression of Colonel William Light, the surveyor and planner of Adelaide

The early economy of the new town relied primarily on sheep farming. During the 1840s, the colony spread further inland when deposits of copper were discovered at Burra in 1845. In the 1840s, the foundations of the wine industry were laid by German immigrants in the Barossa Valley and Irish settlers in the Clare Valley.

The Indigenous people of the Adelaide area were the Kaurna people. At the time the colony was established there were between 500 and 1000 Kaurna in the area. Unlike the other colonies, South Australia was not based on the doctrine of ***terra nullius*** ('land belonging to no one' or 'empty land'). The South Australia Act acknowledged the existence of the Indigenous people and stated that no settler could interfere with their enjoyment or use of the land.

There is little evidence of direct violence between Europeans and the Kaurna people, but the Kaurna people fell victim to the same problems as Aborigines in other colonies. The majority died of introduced diseases. Others suffered because their lands were taken, their culture was undermined and their way of life was destroyed.

Check your learning 7.4

Remember and understand

1. Where and when was the first settlement established in Victoria, and why was it later abandoned?
2. Why did the Port Phillip colony grow so quickly?
3. Describe Edward Wakefield's plan to create an ideal society in South Australia.
4. In what year did the Port Phillip District separate from New South Wales? What was the name of the new colony and who was it named after?
5. What was the name of the Indigenous people in the Adelaide area? What was different about the way in which Indigenous peoples in South Australia were treated compared with other Australian colonies?

Apply and analyse

6. List as many different reasons as you can for the establishment of colonies in Australia between 1788 and 1836.
7. What overall benefits were provided to the Australian colonies by the presence of convicts?
8. Why did colonial leaders in Port Phillip, South Australia and (initially) Western Australia take pride in the fact that they were not convict colonies?

Development of the colonies during the 1800s

At first, the establishment of the Australian colonies centred on the main settlements, which grew to become the capital cities. With the growth of population through migration and natural increase, there was a need to expand from these hub settlements. Between 1810 and 1860, much of inland Australia was opened up through many journeys of discovery by adventurers known as 'explorers'.

The land closer to the coast was used largely for agriculture. The drier inland areas were increasingly used for pasture for sheep and cattle. The Industrial Revolution in Britain created a huge demand for raw materials such as wool. The factories of Leeds and Bradford in Yorkshire were hungry for the fleeces of **merino** sheep bred in the Australian colonies. The population and prosperity of the Australian colonies were also strongly boosted by the discovery of gold in the 1850s.

The opening of the interior

By 1810, it was becoming clear that the crops being shipped to Australia from England to supplement crops grown in New South Wales were not meeting demand. The land around Sydney was filling up quickly with new settlers and it was obvious that more land was needed to grow crops and raise livestock to feed the growing population. It was decided that, to do this, the interior of Australia needed to be opened up to meet the demand for food and living space.



Source 7.17 Rundle Street, Adelaide, *c.* 1865. By the middle of the 19th century, Australian cities were flourishing. Even cities like Adelaide, which were not directly affected by the gold rushes, grew in population and wealth.



Source 7.18 The historic port of Echuca on the Murray River was one of the busiest inland ports during the 19th century.

Transport

As settlers cleared land in the interior to graze cattle and sheep, they established small towns. Roads were made back to the main settlements to transport wool and supplies. Although the Europeans were taking over Aboriginal lands, they were unaware that they were benefiting from Aboriginal knowledge of the areas. Indigenous trading trails had been operating along the clearest and most accessible routes for thousands of years. The sheep farmers moved their sheep along these routes. Later, the first postal services on horseback used the Indigenous trails to deliver mail to farmers.

Echuca was one of the busiest inland ports in the 19th century. Paddle steamers carried cargoes of wool from properties along the Murray–Darling river system to the railway at Echuca and from there goods were transported to Melbourne for export.

Initially, inland travel was on horseback, by stagecoach or by cattle cart. Over time, more efficient modes of transport were introduced. The first Australian passenger railway, linking Melbourne and Sandridge (Port Melbourne), opened in September 1854. Throughout the 19th century, sailing ships grew in number, size and speed. By the 1850s, steamships began travelling to Australia.

By 1860, all the colonies had busy ports in their capital cities. There were also many ports along the inland river systems. The colonists enjoyed regular communication through the network of steamships, railways and the telegraph, which linked the eastern capital cities by the late 1850s.

Check your learning 7.5

Remember and understand

1 Why did the early settlers feel the need to explore and settle regions in the interior of Australia, far away from towns along the coast?

2 How did settlers benefit from Indigenous knowledge and use of the environment?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain why wool was important in the development and expansion of the colonies.

4 Explain why transport was so important to the opening up of the country.

5 In what ways had methods of transport and communication improved by the later part of the 19th century?

Evaluate and create

6 Some of the explorers who went on expeditions to unlock areas of land in Australia's interior included Major Mitchell, Edward John Eyre, John Oxley, and Robert Burke and William Wills (who travelled together). Choose one of these explorers and conduct some research into their life and experiences. Write a 250-word report outlining their achievements. Include at least two historical sources in your report and reference them according to the instructions in section HT.2 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

The impact of early colonisation on Indigenous people

For most of the 20th century, most non-Indigenous Australians accepted that Australia was a *terra nullius* before the arrival of the British in 1788. This concept of *terra nullius* underpinned the settlement of the Australian colonies. Europeans took the approach that because the Indigenous people did not fence the land, farm it or build on it (and appeared to have no concept of landownership), they had no claim to ownership of the land. This idea developed in spite of the fact that Indigenous Australians had continuously occupied the land for at least 60 000 years before the arrival of the first Europeans.

Despite what European settlers at the time may have believed, the Aborigines had a deep spiritual connection with the land. This relationship to 'country' was the source of all of their physical, social and spiritual needs. Because they had a concept of shared landownership, they saw no necessity to fence off certain areas or to show possession through the building of permanent structures.



Source 7.19 This photograph taken on 24 May 1890 shows Aborigines from a local mission gathered at the Court House in Goondiwindi (Queensland) to receive blankets to mark the birthday of Queen Victoria.

Early contact

From the earliest days of settlement, the impact of European contact with the Indigenous people of Australia was disastrous. Early British explorers and traders introduced new diseases, which Aborigines had little or no immunity to. The settlements that followed the explorers pushed onto Indigenous land, disturbing established territories and introducing new species of animals that would change the face of Australia. The European settlements also threatened the traditional ways of life and spiritual practices of the first Australians.

By the end of the 19th century, the destruction of the traditional lifestyles of Indigenous people was almost complete. In the more remote parts of South Australia and Western Australia, there were small numbers of Aborigines still living according to traditional customs, but, for the most part Aborigines were living on **reserves**, **missions** or **protectorates** set up by the British. A small number also lived and worked on farms and pastoral stations, managing to live lives that straddled both cultures.

The rest of the Aboriginal population lived on the fringes of European society – in camps on the edges of towns and cities. These were probably the most disadvantaged of all. Many had lost their links to traditional family and culture; their health was poor, and alcohol and tobacco abuse was common.

At first, European contact was usually accidental. There were sightings and landings before 1788, as sailors tried to establish new trade areas or colonies in the Asian region. There are some records of Aboriginal contact with the Macassans (from the island of Sulawesi in Indonesia), the Dutch, the English and the French before James Cook's official 'discovery' of Australia.

Some historians also have argued that a fleet of Portuguese ships sailed around the south coast of Victoria and that one ship – made of mahogany – ran aground near Warrnambool.

First settlers

Historical records of early contact between the first British settlers and the Aboriginal people tend to only be given from a European perspective. Much less importance has been attached to the oral accounts (stories) of these early encounters that have been passed down through generations of Indigenous Australians by word of mouth. Some of the European accounts are from people in official positions and others are kept in private diaries and records. From these accounts it appears that relationships between the Aborigines and settlers in the area around modern Sydney were good for the first 12 to 15 months of contact after the arrival of the First Fleet in 1788.

Records show that soon after the Europeans had landed, Aborigines welcomed them – some even danced with them. Some Aborigines believed that the Europeans were ancestral spirits returning from the sea, as their white skin was the colour of death. The local Aborigines showed the Europeans some good fishing spots and shared the fish that they had caught. Despite these early events, conflict soon developed. Shots were fired at Aborigines who took some shovels from the colony storehouse. After this, the local Aborigines moved away from the colony for some time.



Source 7.20 A portrait of Bennelong dressed in European clothes.

As winter set in and food became scarce, conflict grew between the Aborigines and settlers. The shooting of kangaroos and other animals by the Europeans meant the Aborigines had scarce supplies of winter skins for clothing. The fish stocks, which were always uncertain in Port Jackson, suffered from being fished too heavily by Europeans. Governor Phillip also ordered land to be cleared to grow crops and raise livestock. This led to Aboriginal people being pushed off their traditional hunting grounds.

By the following year, the conflict between the British and the local Cadigal people became more violent, with deaths on both sides. In an attempt to open a line of communication, Governor Phillip ordered that some Aboriginal men be kidnapped in 1789. Governor Phillip aimed to teach these men English language and customs so they could act as ambassadors for the British and pass messages back and forth. The first man taken, Arabanoo, died of smallpox. Two others, Bennelong and Colbee, also caught smallpox but survived. Both men escaped from the colony but Bennelong returned. He learned to speak English and developed a close relationship with Governor Phillip, teaching him some Indigenous customs and traditions. Bennelong ate at the governor's table and dressed in European clothes. He also accompanied Governor Phillip on a visit to England before returning to Australia in 1795.

Check your learning 7.6

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, define the concept of *terra nullius*.
2. Which groups of people had had some contact with Indigenous Australians before the official 'discovery' of Australia by Captain Cook in 1770?
3. What evidence suggests that a Portuguese ship may have been wrecked on the coast near Warrnambool before the British colonised the region?
4. How were the British settlers at Sydney Cove originally welcomed by the local Indigenous peoples?
5. In what ways did the Aborigines help the first settlers?

Evaluate and create

6. What can you learn about the attitudes and values of European colonisers towards Indigenous Australians from the concept of *terra nullius*?
7. Was the kidnapping of Aboriginal men justified in order to promote communication between the settlers and the Indigenous population? Give reasons to justify your opinion.

Ongoing effects of colonisation on Indigenous populations

Within a few years of the establishment of every British colony in Australia, the numbers of local Aboriginal people declined dramatically. For example, up to 90 per cent of the local Indigenous groups, such as the Kameygal and Cadigal peoples, are thought to have died after three years of settlement around Botany Bay and Port Jackson. The numbers of Indigenous people surrounding Port Phillip Bay are believed to have declined from over 30000 in 1835 to no more than 5000 in 1850.

Estimates of the Aboriginal population of Australia prior to European settlement vary greatly, from a minimum of 318000 up to 750000. The population was spread throughout the continent but the majority lived in the south-east with large groupings thought to have been established along the Murray River. Indigenous communities lived **semi-nomadic** lives, meaning that they lived for short periods in the same place before moving on in search of different hunting grounds.

Traditional hunting areas and food sources were disturbed as the colony of New South Wales expanded. Food became scarcer in the wild and traditional hunting and gathering areas used by the Aborigines were cleared for agricultural development. Fences appeared and access to waterholes or sacred sites became difficult or impossible.

European expansion often displaced the Aboriginal people in the more heavily populated areas. In some cases, this resulted in warfare as certain Aboriginal groups were pushed into the territories of other groups. This is something that has rarely been mentioned in historical accounts until recent times.

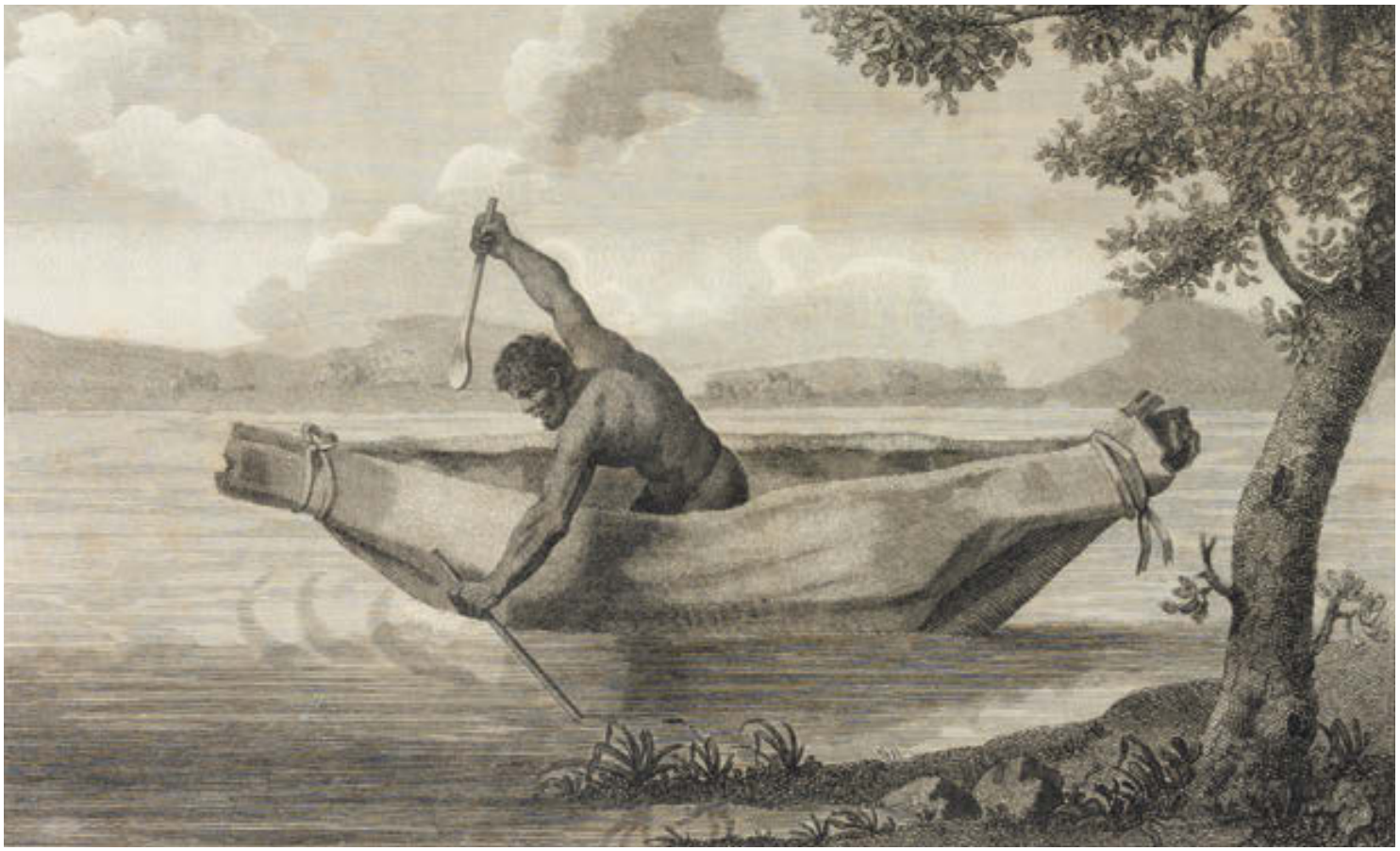
Armed conflicts also developed between Aboriginal people and the settlers as the Europeans spread out into the interior of the country. In most cases, attempts by local Aborigines to resist European expansion failed – largely because of British fire power.



Source 7.21 This painting, *Collins Street, Melbourne town, 1839,* by William Knight, shows a group of Indigenous Australians overlooking the township of Melbourne (National Library of Australia).

Diseases

Diseases introduced by the Europeans spread quickly and had a dramatic effect on the Aboriginal population. In fact, they were by far the biggest killer. Diseases such as the common cold and tuberculosis wiped out large numbers of Indigenous people, often a generation at a time. Many diseases that were only mildly dangerous to Europeans were lethal to Aboriginal people, who had no immunity to them.



Source 7.22 An artist's impression of Pemulwuy in a canoe spearing fish

Syphilis and other sexually transmitted diseases not only caused deaths but also rendered many Aboriginal women infertile, leading to a declining birth rate. Other diseases, including measles and influenza, also spread rapidly throughout the Aboriginal population. Smallpox alone is thought to have wiped out at least 50 per cent of the total Aboriginal population of Australia.

Frontier conflict and resistance

By the late 1700s, conflict between the Europeans and Aboriginal people became more common because more and more European settlements were intruding onto Aboriginal lands. Indigenous people often reacted angrily to these intrusions. Some attacked the farms, stole or killed livestock and speared the settlers. In retaliation, settlers often took revenge into their own hands, carrying out attacks and violent raids on the camps of those thought to have attacked them (see Source 7.36).

In the Hawkesbury area of New South Wales, 26 Europeans and 200 Aborigines died in conflicts between 1794 and 1800. One well-known Aborigine who resisted the Europeans was Pemulwuy. He became famous for launching attacks on the settlers, burning their crops and destroying their huts. In 1801, Governor King offered a reward for Pemulwuy's capture. Pemulwuy was shot and killed by soldiers and the resistance movement fell away for a brief period.

Collaboration

While there were times of conflict, there were also times that Indigenous people and Europeans worked together. Many Aboriginal people joined the police force and became trackers (experts at finding and following animal and human tracks).

In another example of collaboration, Bennelong worked with Governor Phillip to bring Aboriginal people into the settlement. Bungaree sailed with Matthew Flinders between 1801 and 1803. He was taken to help communicate with Indigenous people along the way. However, Flinders did not realise the great differences among the Aboriginal language groups. The further they moved away from the settlement, the more difficult it became for Bungaree to communicate with the local inhabitants. In Port Phillip District, Billibellary, an elder of the Wurundjeri people, also worked closely with the new arrivals in the early years. He attempted to enable his people to move between the two cultures.



Source 7.23 This wood engraving from around 1873 titled *Marriage of Aboriginal natives*, shows Aboriginal people on a mission near Melbourne being married according to British customs.

Missions and protectorates

The exclusion of Indigenous Australians from the national story was reflected in government policies in all colonies. These policies isolated Indigenous people by moving them onto areas of land known as **missions** and **protectorates**. Here they were taught English language and customs, while at the same time being kept away from European communities. During Australia's colonial period over 211 missions were established. While officially the missions and protectorates were set up to look after Aboriginal people, in fact they caused them a tremendous amount of damage. Even in these early years, hundreds of Aboriginal children were removed from their families (although this did not become official government policy until the 20th century). The first mission was established in 1815 to 'civilise' the Aborigines, which meant teaching them to think and live like Europeans. In 1824, another mission was established at what is now Newcastle in New South Wales. All the Aboriginal people at that mission either died of disease or, if they could, escaped.

In Port Phillip District, the Melbourne Mission was set up under the leadership of George Langhorne in 1837. Its aims were to 'civilise and Christianise' the Aboriginal people. It had little success because they could come and go as they pleased. Also, because it was so close to Melbourne, they became reliant on European products such as white flour, sugar, alcohol and tobacco.

By 1838, the Aborigines' Protection Society had been established in London, but in Australia the Society did little to live up to its name. Conditions in most missions were very poor and family members were often separated before being sent there. Most missions were run by the Church and Aboriginal people sent there were banned from speaking their own languages, usually forced to wear European clothes and live according to Western customs and traditions (see Source 7.23). In addition to this, they were forced to adopt the religion of Christianity and were not permitted to practise their traditional spiritual beliefs and customs.



Source 7.24 An etching showing the New Norcia mission cricket team

Despite the many failed missions and protectorates, there were a small number of successful ones at New Norcia in Western Australia and Hermannsburg in the Northern Territory. Although Aboriginal people here were still encouraged to adopt British customs, such as cricket (see Source 7.24), what made these missions stand apart was their respect for Aboriginal culture. These missions acted as sanctuaries for women, children and old people. European workers also helped maintain the Aboriginal culture, teach the local Indigenous language and save Aboriginal artefacts.

Dispossession

When the land, culture and way of life of Indigenous peoples are removed, we refer to this as **dispossession**. As the European settlers spread across the country, Aboriginal groups were pushed off their traditional lands and lost many of their customs and languages. The Wiradjuri people from central New South Wales were one group who experienced the full effects of dispossession. As the Europeans crossed the Blue Mountains and settled Bathurst, trees were cleared for sheep- and cattle-grazing, and native animals like kangaroos and possums were killed. Native grasses and plants were damaged by the hoofs of these introduced animals. Furthermore, Aboriginal links to the land and its features were destroyed by land-clearing, the construction of European huts and yards, and the fencing-off of sacred areas, especially waterholes.

By the late 19th century, there was a general belief among officials that the Aboriginal people would soon die out. A new protection policy, sometimes referred to as 'smooth the dying pillow', was developed. On the surface, it involved better treatment for Aboriginal people, but in reality it stripped them even more of their independence, self-confidence and traditional culture.

In 1901, when the colonies federated (united) to form the Commonwealth of Australia, it was made clear that the original people had no place in the new nation. The new federal parliament had no powers to make laws relating to Indigenous people and they were not to be included as members of the population for the purposes of the census. Before 1901, some Aboriginal people in several colonies had received the right to vote, but in 1902 this right was removed from all Indigenous people. They were effectively non-existent people in the land they had called home for over 40 000 years. In fact, until the referendum in 1967, Indigenous people were classified under the Flora and Fauna Act, and not counted in the census as citizens.

Check your learning 7.7

Remember and understand

1 Give five examples of the negative impact of European settlement on Indigenous people.
2 What was the major reason for the deaths of Indigenous people?
3 What is the meaning of dispossession?
4 Why were European diseases so damaging to the Aboriginal people?
5 What were the aims of the missions and protectorates, and why did they fail?

Apply and analyse

6 Examine Source 7.21.
   a What messages does this painting give about the impact of European settlement on the Melbourne area and the local Aboriginal people?
   b How is this message conveyed?
   c Imagine a conversation between two of the Aboriginal people in the foreground of the picture. Write the script for such a conversation, drawing on your knowledge of the settlement of Port Phillip and the impact on the Indigenous people.
7 Using information in the text and gathered on the Internet, describe what it meant by the phrase 'smooth the dying pillow'. How did this relate to the policy of Aboriginal 'protection' at the time?

The Australian gold rushes

The most significant influence on the economic and social development of the Australian colonies in the 19th century was the discovery of gold. Gold tripled the population of the colonies and made Melbourne one of the richest cities in the British Empire. Gold also helped lay the foundations of the democratic nation that would later be established in 1901.

However, the gold rushes in New South Wales and Victoria also strengthened the belief in white superiority that had influenced the colonies since they were first settled. The movement of thousands of people into the inland goldfields led to further displacement of the Indigenous people from their traditional lands. Gold seekers from China also faced discrimination and violence from European settlers.

Gold was first discovered in the Australian colonies from around 1823. The amounts discovered, however, were quite small and were all on government-owned land. This meant that the gold should have been surrendered to the governor, so the finds were not usually reported. In April 1851, Edward Hargraves claimed correctly that 'payable' gold (gold on unclaimed land) had been discovered near Bathurst. The New South Wales government rewarded his discovery with £10000 (pounds). Hargraves immediately announced his find to the newspapers, and with this the Australian gold rushes began.

Shortly after, gold discoveries were announced in Victoria. By the end of 1851, 20000 prospectors (known as **diggers**) were working on the goldfields in Ballarat, Bendigo and elsewhere. Over the coming years, around half the male population of Melbourne and Adelaide left for the Victorian goldfields. The first immigrant ships carrying would-be goldminers arrived in 1852. By 1858, 150000 people were living on the Victorian goldfields. In total, the gold rushes in New South Wales and Victoria brought around 622000 people to Australia in the 10 years after 1851.

Mining methods

Diggers on the goldfields were looking for two main types of gold – alluvial gold and deep reef gold. Alluvial gold was a type of gold that washed up in creek and river beds, from underground streams. It was the easiest for most miners to find, and searching for it did not require much equipment. One cheap option was to use a pick, shovel and panning dish to swirl dirt and water from riverbeds to separate the gold. Another method used a piece of wooden equipment called a cradle. This resembled a baby's cradle and could be 'rocked' to catch the gold in a sieve (see Source 7.26).



Source 7.25 This painting by ST Gill titled *The New Rush*, shows miners making their way to the Victorian goldfields around1865; Ballarat Fine Art Gallery.



Source 7.26 An artist's impression of goldminers using cradles to find alluvial gold

By about 1853, much of the alluvial gold had been found and miners turned their attention to the deep reef gold buried many metres below the surface. To access deep reef gold, mines had to be sunk deep underground. Expensive machinery and complex processes (such as **puddling**) were needed to separate the gold from the quartz rock in which it was trapped. When this deep shaft mining started, groups of miners began to form companies, pooling their money and labour to operate one mine. Often they would toil for many months before they received any reward for their labours. All miners had to pay a licence fee to the government during this time, something that they bitterly resented. This tax was one of the main factors that let to the Eureka Rebellion at Ballarat in December 1854.

Conditions on the goldfields

Living conditions were hard for everyone on the goldfields. In places like Bendigo, for example, around 40000 people lived close together in tents. Water and fresh food were scarce and sanitation was very poor. Garbage piled up around the diggings and toilets were simply holes dug in the ground. The smell from the camps was unbearable for those who were not used to it. Most of the people living on the goldfields were men, although some women did brave the difficult conditions with their children in order to keep their families together. While some children were able to attend school, education was of varying quality and often depended on the willingness of teachers to give up time looking for gold in order to run classes. Most children were expected to work with their parents looking for gold. Medical care was very poor, and trained doctors were few and far between. Children on the goldfields were much more likely than adults to be injured or to die from disease. Children under the age of five made up a majority of deaths on the goldfields. Many women died in childbirth from a lack of sanitation and medical care.

Unsanitary conditions led to the spread of diseases such as dysentery and typhoid. Illnesses also resulted from a poor diet, as there were few fresh foods. Exotic foods were available but they were very expensive and were not affordable for most miners.

Living and working on the goldfields

Most diggers on the goldfields worked from dawn until dusk, six days a week. In the early years, most miners were able to make a reasonable income from alluvial gold mining and a few even had major strikes, making them instantly wealthy. In reality though, most found very little gold at all and struggled to make a decent living.

Once most alluvial gold had been found and the mining of deep reef gold began, many miners really began to struggle. There were also, of course, very successful miners like George Lansell, whose profitable mining company in Bendigo earned him the title 'The Quartz King'. Success stories like this kept new people flocking to the goldfields to test their luck – despite all the hardships.

The people who were most assured of a steady income on the goldfields weren't miners at all, but traders, shopkeepers, transporters and other business people. The miners were so caught up with the search for gold that it was a full-time job for them. This allowed enterprising people to recognise a need for services and supplies in and around the goldfields, so many people built up prosperous businesses. For example, John Chandler and his father, who arrived in Melbourne in 1850, developed a very successful business transporting goods (such as mining tools and supplies) to and from towns on the Victorian goldfields.



Source 7.27 An artist's impression of children panning for gold

keyconcept: empathy

Food on the goldfields

In order to have a real understanding of the hardships and rewards of life on the goldfields, it is necessary to look closely at how the miners lived. One really good way to empathise with miners is to look at the types of food they ate, because the importance of food in people's lives never really changes. Food is not just for sustenance; it is also a way of connecting with people and celebrating. By examining food on the goldfields we can begin to have some empathy with the miners as real people, even though they lived very different lives to us.

There is a general belief that all miners lived on a boring diet of mutton (meat from sheep), damper and tea. While this was true to a large extent, the diaries and letters from the time also provide evidence that more varied and exotic foods were also available. See the list of food items eaten and prices recorded by a party of four diggers in the early 1850s (Source 7.28).

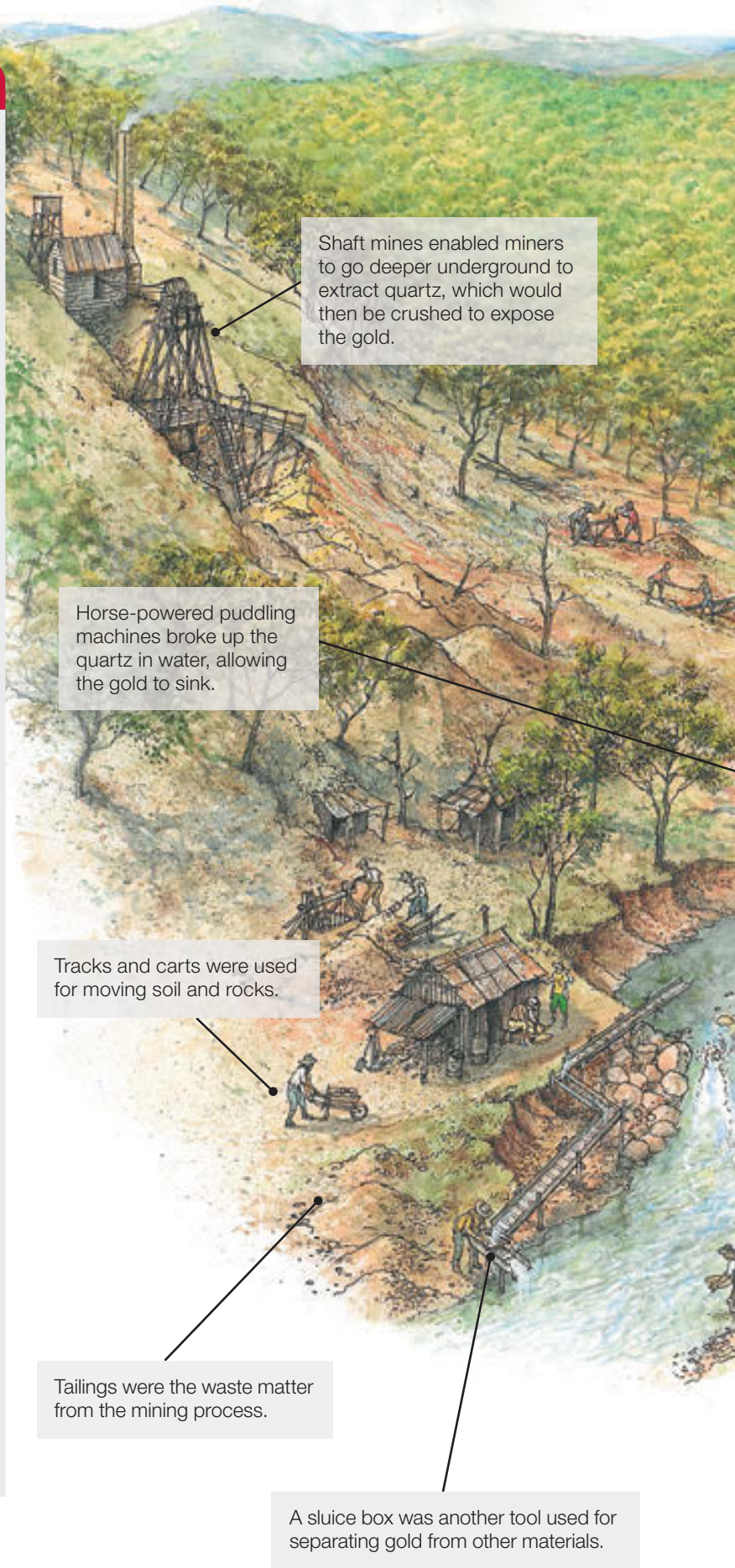
Source 7.28

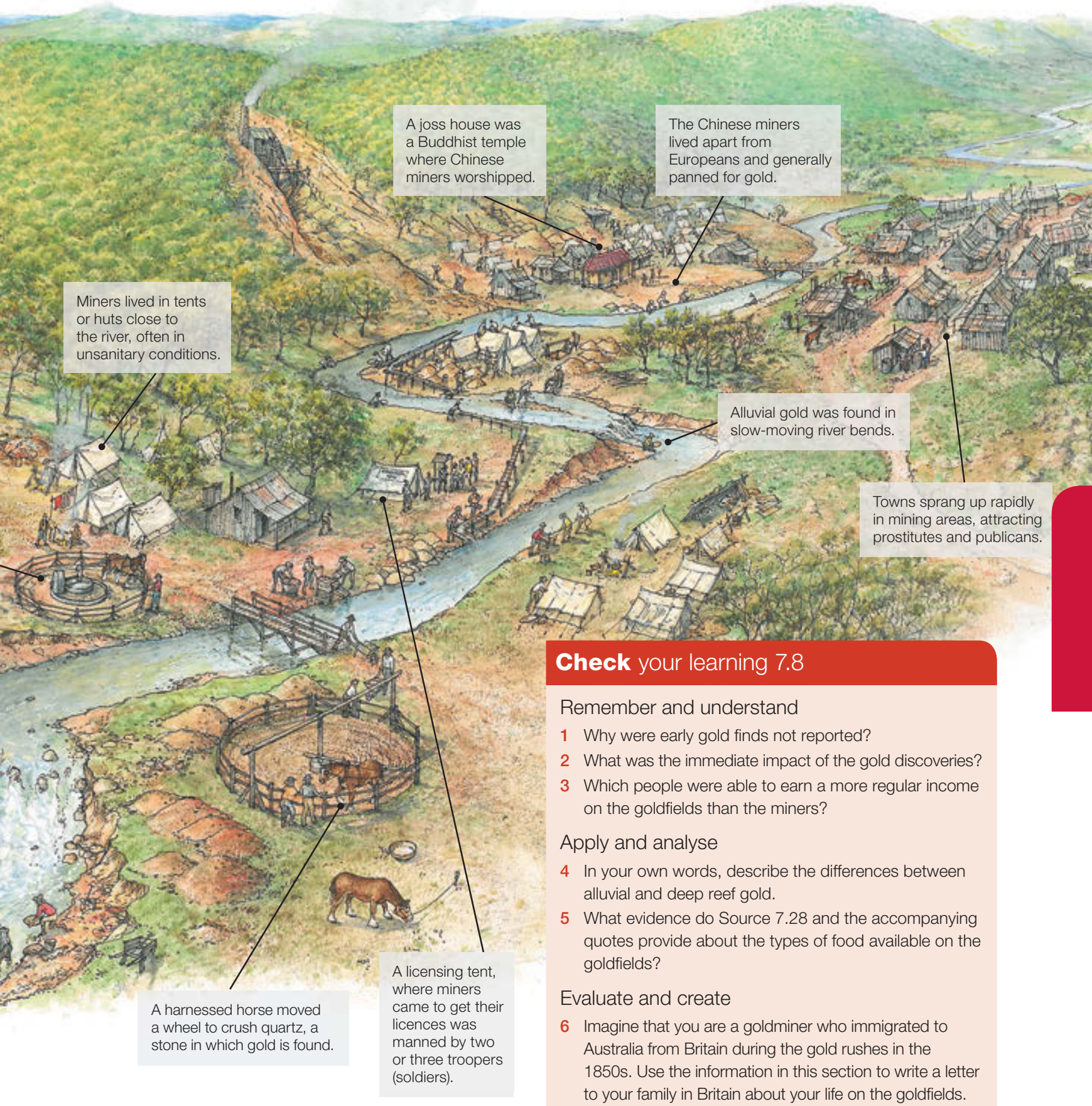
Mutton forequarter 4 shillings
Coffee 2 shillings and 6 pence
Potatoes 6 pence per pound [weight]
Porridge 1 shilling per pound
Tongue 2 shillings and 5 pence per pound
Anchovy paste 1 shilling and 5 pence per pot
Mustard 2 shillings per pot
Pickles 1 shilling per pot
Lemon peel 2 shillings and 6 pence per pound
Hot cross buns 4 pence

(Note: 1 shilling = 10 cents, 6 pence = 5 cents, 5 pence = 4 cents, 1 pound [weight] = 450 grams)

James Selby, a medical practitioner and fossicker on the Victorian goldfields around 1852–54, recorded in his diary that he had 'dined this day with Nankeville [another digger] who regaled me with [gave me] a Cornish pasty … '. He then 'went to drink tea and eat bacon currant fritters with Hunt [another digger] … ' Another miner described 'a collation [collection] of beef steak, cold ham, Dutch cheese, sardines, pickles and damper'. There are also accounts of miners making gigantic Christmas puddings with gold nuggets sprinkled through the mixture!

For more information on the key concept of empathy refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.





Source 7.29 A modern artist's recreation of the goldfields

Check your learning 7.8

Remember and understand

1 Why were early gold finds not reported?
2 What was the immediate impact of the gold discoveries?
3 Which people were able to earn a more regular income on the goldfields than the miners?

Apply and analyse

4 In your own words, describe the differences between alluvial and deep reef gold.
5 What evidence do Source 7.28 and the accompanying quotes provide about the types of food available on the goldfields?

Evaluate and create

6 Imagine that you are a goldminer who immigrated to Australia from Britain during the gold rushes in the 1850s. Use the information in this section to write a letter to your family in Britain about your life on the goldfields. Your letter should contain at least three paragraphs, each focusing on a different aspect of life and work.

The experiences of non-Europeans in Australia before 1900

In the centuries after British settlement, Australia has attracted people from around the globe. Some came in search of riches and new opportunities; others were looking for a place to start a new life. Among them were Afghans from the Middle East, South Sea Islanders from across the western Pacific region and the Japanese. By far the largest group of non-Europeans to journey to Australia over this period of time were the Chinese.

The Chinese

For most Chinese, the main motivation for making the long journey to Australia was the search for gold. During the 1850s Australia was known to the Chinese as *Xin Jin Shan* ('New Mountain of Gold'). Many Chinese immigrants were also political refugees who left China following a bloody civil war that raged across China between 1850 and 1864.

By the late 1850s, there were around 40 000 Chinese immigrants in Victoria. They represented 25 per cent of the miners in the state at this time. In New South Wales, gold mining communities were not as large as they were in Victoria. Here, around 60 per cent of all miners were Chinese immigrants. Their language, culture, religion, appearance and clothing, meant that the Chinese were often viewed with suspicion by Europeans. They were also accused of introducing exotic diseases and drugs (such as opium) onto the goldfields (see Source 7.32). As a result, they were regularly the victims of prejudice and racial abuse.

The main reasons for anti-Chinese feeling among Europeans included:

- *racism* – it was assumed that the culture and religion of white, European peoples was naturally superior. The other purely racist notion was that non-whites would contaminate the pure white race of British Australians. These views were widely expressed in parliament, popular literature and cartoons (see Sources 7.32 and 7.52). An argument often used by European settlers in the lead up to Federation in 1901 was that a united nation would be better able to make laws to restrict further 'unwanted' immigration.
- *fear of being overrun* – there was also a fear that the arrival of the Chinese in increasing numbers might result in Europeans being overtaken as the largest ethnic group. The Europeans feared they would be dispossessed of their land by the Chinese, just as they had dispossessed the Indigenous Australians.
- *suspicion of an unfamiliar culture* – the Chinese stood out as a cultural group. Their language, religion and appearance meant they were often viewed with suspicion by Europeans. Because almost all Chinese immigrants on the goldfields were male, they were also seen as competition for the relatively small number of women there.
- *jealousy* – having been denied access to the best mining areas near water, the Chinese often reworked claims (pieces of land) that European miners had abandoned. They worked hard to go over the tailings (the clay and soil that had already been worked by previous miners) and were often successful in finding quantities of gold that had been left behind, causing anger and resentment among the European diggers. The practice of sending gold home to their families was also viewed as taking wealth away from Australians. This was despite the fact that many European miners sent gold home to their families in Europe as well.



Source 7.30 A Chinese miner on the goldfields carrying a cradle and other mining tools

Resentment and anger towards the Chinese community flared into violence on a number of occasions. From 1855 onwards, colonial governments in Victoria and South Australia started passing anti-Chinese legislation. Two of the worst incidents occurred shortly after this time. One at Buckland River in Victoria in 1857, and another at Lambing Flat in New South Wales in 1861. 'The Lambing Flat riots' as they became known were a series of riots and attacks against Chinese miners that took place over a period of about 10 months. Mobs of several thousand miners attacked Chinese miners working the goldfields in a number of locations. Over this time, about half of the Chinese miners living there were brutally beaten or injured in the attacks. Only one of the attackers, William Squires, was convicted and sentenced in relation to the attacks.

Despite widespread anti-Chinese feeling, there were some Europeans who showed sympathy and even admiration for the Chinese. Antoine Fauchery, a French miner, described the Chinese as 'strong, industrious and patient'. By the 1870s, the focus of goldmining had moved to Queensland. The decline in alluvial goldmining saw many Chinese people return home, though a small community remained. Some moved on and set up new businesses such as restaurants, trading companies and shops, while others became market gardeners.



Source 7.31 *John Alloo's Chinese restaurant, main road, Ballarat,* 1855 by ST Gill; lithograph, National Gallery of Australia



Source 7.32 'The Mongolian Octopus – his grip on Australia', a cartoon that appeared in *The Bulletin* in 1886

Check your learning 7.9

Remember and understand

1 List the main groups of non-European migrants to Australia in the period before 1900. Explain why these groups came to Australia.

2 What did the Chinese call Australia in the 1850s?

3 Why was this a major **pull factor** for Chinese immigration to Australia? What was a major **push factor**?

Apply and analyse

4 Look carefully at Source 7.32. What evidence does this cartoon provide about the way in which Chinese migrants were regarded by many Australians in the 19th century?

Evaluate and create

5 In pairs or small groups, research one of the violent outbreaks against the Chinese on the goldfields during the late 1800s.

a Your research should cover the following inquiry questions:
- when and where the riot/outbreak was
- what happened and why
- what sources are available
- whether the riot brought about any changes.

b Prepare a short written report of around 450 words or create an audiovisual presentation to present your findings to the class.

The Afghans

From the 1830s onwards, a group of people from the Middle East also began to travel to Australia in search of work. They were experienced camel handlers who managed and tended to the camels that had been imported by the British to help explore and settle Australia's dry and inhospitable interior. Although the cameleers were known as 'Afghans', they came from various parts of the Middle East, Turkey and India. Camels – known as 'ships of the desert' – could survive and work in conditions too harsh for horses, donkeys and bullocks. Many 'Afghans' were employed under short-term contracts that required them to return to their homelands after a few years. By 1900, however, it is estimated that there were around 2000 cameleers living permanently in Australia.

The Afghans faced hostility and suspicion because of their race and they rarely mixed with Europeans outside of work. Many Afghans were Muslim and this only increased the prejudices of many of the Europeans. The Afghans were usually housed on the fringes of settlements, with outback towns typically segregated into sections for whites, Indigenous Australians and the cameleers.

The Afghans made a major contribution to exploration and development of Australia's interior. From the 1860s until the expansion of the railways around 1900, camels were vital for moving people and property. The inland railways and the Overland Telegraph line were two of the great projects that depended on the cameleers.

The combination of Federation and the Immigration Restriction Act meant that any Afghans who left Australia were not allowed to return. Those who stayed to make their homes in Australia could not become citizens because, under the White Australia Policy, they were classified as 'Asian'.

South Pacific Islanders

From the 1860s, the growing of sugar cane dramatically increased in Queensland's tropical north. Harvesting, or cane cutting, was backbreaking work and there was a common belief that it was unhealthy for Europeans to undertake hard physical labour in the tropics. This was due to European ideas about differences between the races. The result was that employers looked to the South Pacific islands for workers and brought in workers from the Solomon Islands, New Hebrides (modern-day Vanuatu) and the Loyalty Islands. By the 1890s almost 50 000 South Sea Islanders, collectively called Kanakas, had been brought to Australia. Some of the islanders had in fact been kidnapped. Though many were legitimately employed in Australia, many thousands of others were exploited by unscrupulous employers and worked under conditions that resembled slavery.

Although historians acknowledge the importance of the contribution of these South Sea Islanders to the economic development of Queensland, their treatment on the cane fields is one of the contested aspects of Australian history. There is ongoing debate among historians who have reviewed statistics available about medical conditions and mortality rates among the South Sea Islanders. The experiences of these workers tended to vary depending on whom they worked for, and where and when they were employed.

It is fair to say, however, that islander labour was attractive to some employers because it was cheap and cost them less than employing European labour. Hence employers looked to keep saving money and the islanders were not always as well fed, housed or clothed as they might have been. Pacific Islanders were also vulnerable



Source 7.33 Camels carrying timber as part of the construction of the Trans-Australian railway



Source 7.34 Pacific Islanders loading sugar cane, *c.* 1890



Source 7.35 A Japanese pearl diver in full diving suit, waiting for the helmet

to European diseases, such as tuberculosis and influenza, which contributed to high death rates. The historian Marilyn Lake noted that in 1883, 'one Islander in every twelve working on plantations died, by 1884 one in seven. In some places the death rate was even higher, reaching 60 per cent on the CSR [a large sugar refinery] estate in Goondi.' Perhaps the most telling statistic is that, in the 1890s, the death rate among South Sea Islanders in Queensland was over 60 for every 1000 workers, while the death rate for other Queenslanders was only 13 for every 1000.

Federation in 1901 saw the gradual deportation of Pacific Islanders as the Pacific Islander Labourers Act was phased in. Amendments or changes to the legislation over the years meant that by 1906, it was decided that Pacific Islanders who had come to Australia before 1879, had been in Australia for more than 20 years, were too old to return home or who owned land in Australia could stay. At present, it is estimated that there are around 20000 descendants of the original Pacific Island labourers living in northern New South Wales and Queensland.

The Japanese

In the 1880s, the Japanese and immigrants from other Asian countries came to Australia to work in pearl diving areas such as Darwin, Broome in Western Australia, and Thursday Island in northern Queensland. Their expertise in deep-water diving was instrumental in developing Australia's pearling industry. Deep-water diving was a dangerous occupation, involving diving suits, helmets and lead-weighted boots. Air was manually pumped to the diver, who walked on or drifted along the seabed. Divers risked injury or death from decompression sickness and shark attacks. Cyclones were also known to shipwreck whole fleets of pearling luggers (special pearling boats).

Like other non-European immigrants, Japanese workers experienced racism from European Australians because of their different appearance and unfamiliar culture. However, unlike other people from Asia, Japanese divers in Broome became exempt from the White Australia policy after Federation. Originally the government attempted to replace them with divers recruited from the British Navy, but almost all of the group of 12 British divers were killed while diving.

Check your learning 7.10

Remember and understand

1 Outline the contribution that 'Afghans' made to Australia's development in the 19th century.
2 Explain why South Sea Islanders were deported from Queensland after Federation.
3 What happened to the British Navy pearlers that the government employed to try and replace Japanese divers?

7.1 big**ideas:** rich task

The impacts of European colonisation on Australia's Indigenous population

From the earliest days of British **colonisation** of Australia, the impact on the Indigenous population was catastrophic. Although British authorities initially attempted to treat the Aboriginal people well, they still intended to take their land. As more and more Europeans arrived, conflict increased as Aboriginal people were increasingly robbed of their hunting and fishing grounds.

Most early settlements were on the east coast of Australia. Gradually, however, explorers began making long and dangerous expeditions inland. Whenever the explorers found land suitable for farming, settlers would follow them there. Later in the 1800s, Europeans began to expand even further into the infertile parts of the country, searching for gold or other valuable minerals. As explorers and settlers pushed further and further inland, they were also moving into Aboriginal tribal areas. There was often conflict on this frontier as Aboriginal people tried to protect what was theirs.

The conflict was made worse by the fact that misunderstandings existed on both sides. The British settlers at the time considered their civilisation to be superior and looked down on Aboriginal people as primitive natives who needed help. On the other hand, Aboriginal people had no knowledge of European values and did not understand their attitude to land ownership.

In many parts of Australia there was open warfare as Aboriginal people fought to defend themselves and their land. They used guerrilla tactics such as making surprise attacks on lone settlers, or spearing their sheep and cattle before disappearing back into their land. These attacks were often worse in times of drought. Usually, however, this led to groups of settlers or mounted police hunting down the Aborigines. On many occasions, this led to the massacre of innocent Aborigines who had taken no part in attacks on settlers. The Aborigines had no weapons to match the European guns, nor could they organise themselves in sufficient numbers to oppose the continuing spread of settlement as more convicts and settlers arrived.



Source 7.36 '… the revenge of the Whites …', AS Broad (1854–1929), National Library of Australia



Source 7.37 *Maltreatment of the blacks*, 1880 engraving by CH Hunt, State Library of Victoria

skill**drill**

Generating different kinds of questions about the past to inform historical inquiry

One of the first and most important steps in conducting a historical inquiry is to generate or pose key questions. The questions that you generate will frame or direct the research that you then undertake.

Usually, historians generate one broad, overarching or key question for their inquiry, for example: 'How did European colonisation impact on Australia's Indigenous population?' After that, you need to generate more specific questions that are related to your overall inquiry question. You will need to generate a mixture of:

- Closed or simple questions (e.g. '*When* did event *X* occur?')
- Open or probing questions (e.g. '*Why* did event *X* occur?')
- Questions that relate to the process of historical inquiry (e.g. 'What evidence is there?', 'What other sources might be needed?').

The first step in generating questions is to think about what you already know about the topic. Use this knowledge as a springboard for questions that will help you understand the topic in more depth. Use a table like the one below to brainstorm all the things you know in dot-point form in one column. In the second column, use each dot point in the first column to generate related questions that will help to deepen or build your understanding. Remember to include a mix of the three question types described above.

Overarching inquiry question:

What I already know:	Questions to help me deepen or build my understanding:
Point 1	Question/s related to point 1
Point 2	Question/s related to point 2

Apply the skill

1 Use the process described above to generate a range of questions related to the overarching historical inquiry question: 'How did European colonisation impact upon Australia's Indigenous population?' Copy the table below into your notebook.

First, identify what you already know as a result of reading this chapter and the information in this section. List these ideas in dot points in the first column.

Then, in the second column, generate related questions that help to deepen or build your understanding. The first one has been done for you.

Overarching inquiry question: 'How did European colonisation impact upon Australia's Indigenous population?'

What I already know:	Questions to help us deepen or build my understanding:
Many Aboriginals were killed as a result of violence on the frontier.	How many massacres of Aboriginals occurred? (simple or closed question) Where and when did they occur? (simple or closed question) Why did they occur? (open or probing question) What evidence exists of these massacres? (question related to the process of historical inquiry)
Point 2	
Point 3	
Point 4	

Extend your understanding

1 Of all the massacres of Aborigines that occurred in Australia between 1788 and 1928, the Myall Creek Massacre is regarded as one of the most historically significant.

a Conduct some Internet research on the Myall Creek Massacre. Write a 300-word report that addresses the following questions:

- Where and when did it take place?
- Which tribe of Indigenous Australians was involved?
- Who were the white settlers?
- What was the main cause of the conflict?
- What was the result?
- Why is the Myall Creek Massacre regarded as one of the most historically significant massacres of Aborigines in the history of Australia?

7.2 How did key events and ideas influence the development of Australia?

Emerging Australian identity



Source 7.38 This painting, titled *The Lawn at Flemington on Melbourne Cup Day* by Karl Kahler, *c.* 1887 shows the early influence that sporting events had on the development of Australian identity.



Source 7.39 An early painting of Oxford Street, Sydney, showing British-style clothing and buildings (Jacob Janssen, 1847)

A sense of Australian identity was slow to develop during the 19th century. Many of the thousands who came to Australia as free settlers or assisted migrants were initially unwilling to bond with their new country. Even though the culture, customs, buildings, gardens, clothing, food, institutions and pastimes were all closely modelled on British styles (see Source 7.39), many immigrants longed for the day they could return to their British homeland.

This sense of isolation and separation was even stronger for convicts. As Australia was a place of exile, most of the convicts who arrived in New South Wales or Van Diemen's Land felt no link to this strange and often harsh land. Most had also been separated from all family and loved ones in Britain, making the desire to return home greater.

Gradually though, attitudes towards being 'Australian' started to change. Over time, some ex-convicts and assisted migrants who had initially resisted the idea of staying in Australia now began to recognise the many economic and social benefits offered by this new society.

Identifying with Australia

By the late 19th century, many British customs and practices were being altered to suit the different physical and social conditions of Australia. Verandahs were added to British-style houses to keep out the heat. Clothing became lighter and less fussy, and new words and pronunciations began creeping into the language. The words *billy*, *larrikin*, *battler*, *bludger* and *outback* all came into common usage, especially in the bush. The diet of most people in Australia at this time was similar to that of people in Britain, but gradually this became more nutritious because meat, dairy produce and vegetables were more readily available here.

Another influence that brought Australian colonists together was sport. Although Australian Rules football was not played in every colony, it was well established in Victoria, Tasmania, South Australia and Western Australia. The first inter-colonial football game was played between Victoria and South Australia in 1879. Cricket was played in all the colonies from the earliest days of their settlement,

and the first Test Match against England was played (and won by Australia) in Melbourne in 1877. Horse racing was also a big part of life in the colonies. The first horse race is recorded to have taken place in Sydney within weeks of settlement. By the 1880s, the Melbourne Cup (see Source 7.38) had already developed its reputation as 'the race that stops a nation'. Even in the remotest parts of Australia, people followed the results, and the Cup fashions were reported in popular magazines such as *The Bulletin*.

There was also a freer and more egalitarian spirit among the Australian colonists. Most of these changes happened unconsciously over time. Many people believed that they were still living a very British lifestyle. It was only when they travelled to Britain, or welcomed visitors from 'home', that they became aware of how much attitudes and practices were changing between the two countries.

Check your learning 7.11

Remember and understand

1 Why was a sense of 'Australian' identity slow to develop in the colonies during the 19th century?
2 In your own words, define the term 'egalitarianism'. How did this philosophy influence the development of Australian society in the 1800s?
3 Explain how sport contributed to a growing sense of unity among the Australian colonies and influenced the development of an Australian identity.

Apply and analyse

4 What point is Source 7.40 making about egalitarianism in Australia compared to Britain?
5 How do you explain the fact that most Australians accepted the idea of an egalitarian society even though they often saw evidence to the contrary?
6 Modern-day Australia is regarded as an egalitarian society. Think of three examples of laws or public policies that demonstrate Australia's egalitarianism today.

key**concept:** perspectives

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is the idea of equality among people. The word comes from the French *égal*, meaning equal. Believers in egalitarianism wish for all people to be have equal social status or worth as human beings. They also wish for all people to be given equal opportunities in society.

As the national identity of Australia was forming, many people both here and overseas believed in a society where all had an equal chance to prosper. Unlike in Britain, there was no strict class system. However, this did not mean that there were no class differences. There was still a large gap between the wealthy, the middle class and the poor. There was also a distinction between white people and non-whites. A wealthy and successful Chinese merchant usually had less social acceptance than a white person on a low wage in an unskilled occupation.

However, this egalitarian spirit did mean that the children of convicts or poor immigrants were able to rise to positions of importance in politics, business and the arts. What counted most under Australia's egalitarian social system were hard work, risk-taking and an ability to make the most of the land's opportunities.

It also meant that people were more inclined to mix with those of other classes. Relations between bosses and workers, **pastoralists** (landowners) and shearers, politicians and voters were far less formal than they were in Britain.

For more information on the key concept of perspectives refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 7.40 This cartoon from *Melbourne Punch* (1883) makes fun of the growing sense of equality between the wealthy and the working class in the Australian colonies.

The impact of gold

Gold brought enormous growth in wealth and population to the Australian colonies. In the 1850s, the value of gold produced was around $21 million (around $1.2 billion today), and by the 1890s, the value was still $18 million (around $1.1 billion today).

For this reason, the period from 1860 to 1890 is known as 'the long boom'. It was a period of great expansion and development in the mining and pastoral industries. The capital cities expanded and many new towns developed in regional areas.

The impact of the 1850s gold rushes was most significant for Victoria, the colony that included the mining towns of Ballarat, Bendigo and Castlemaine. By the end of the 1850s, the colony of Victoria was producing about one-third of the world's gold and was home to around half of Australia's European population. During the gold-rush decades, groups of Germans, Poles and Americans joined a community that had previously been dominated by settlers from Britain.

The gold rushes had a lasting effect on Australia. The population increased from 437 000 to 1.1 million during the 1850s. Gold money helped to establish overseas trade, improve transport and build roads so that more inland areas could be opened up to farming and settlement. The introduction of coach companies, such as Cobb & Co. in 1853, improved travel within and between the colonies. By 1861, 110 towns and cities were linked by telegraph.

key**concept:** significance

'Marvellous Melbourne'

By the end of the 1850s, Melbourne was one of the wealthiest cities of the British Empire. Between 1850 and 1890, fuelled by the gold rush, Melbourne's population grew from 22 000 to half a million. This made Melbourne the second biggest city in the British Empire after London, and larger than many European capitals of the time.

This population growth, along with the enormous wealth of the goldfields, supported a boom that lasted for 40 years and became known as the era of 'Marvellous Melbourne'. This wealth had a huge impact on the development of Melbourne. Many of the buildings and institutions established at this time are still a central part of the life of the city today and provide many of Melbourne's landmarks.

With the arrival of more educated gold seekers from England, there was a corresponding growth in the number of schools, churches, learned societies, libraries and art galleries in the city. The University of Melbourne was founded in 1855 and the State Library of Victoria in 1856. Parliament House, Melbourne, was started in 1855, though not completed until 1929. Ornate office buildings rivalled those of New York and London. Money was poured into lavishly decorated banks, hotels and coffee palaces.

Melbourne's civic pride swelled. The elaborate Royal Exhibition Building was built in 1880 to house the Melbourne International Exhibition. It was a world-class building to show off the latest in commerce and industry, art, science and education.

The city spread out in all directions and wealthy new suburbs were settled. These new suburbs were serviced by train and tram networks that were among the largest and most modern in the world.

In 1891, however, the good times came to an end. Banks closed their doors, stockbrokers panicked and thousands of people betting on the boom continuing lost jobs, homes and savings. Growth in Melbourne slowed for some time and Melbourne entered a more sober era.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 7.41 Parliament House in Melbourne is one of many grand buildings built from proceeds of the gold rush during the era of 'Marvellous Melbourne'.

Gold and national unity

Some historians have suggested that the many immigrants who arrived in Australia during the 1850s in search of gold actually slowed down the development of national unity. There is some evidence to support this, but only in the short term. Letters and diaries of gold-rush immigrants suggest that many of them initially saw Australia as a place only of temporary residence. They expected that Australia would provide them with a quick fortune, and then they would return to their homelands in Britain, Asia or Europe. For some, gold did indeed bring great wealth. For most however, the experience was difficult and unrewarding (see Source 7.42).

Gold discoveries gave the colonies great wealth and boosted their populations. By the late 1860s, most of the gold-rush immigrants had chosen to stay in Australia. There were generally very high rates of employment across the colonies. Towns and cities developed and settlement continued to expand inland. Gold-rush immigrants settled on small farms, started their own businesses or took jobs working in various trades and professions.

The majority of gold-rush immigrants were still from the British Isles. However, there is evidence that many of them were slightly better educated, and more politically aware than the pre-gold arrivals. Achievements such as the right to vote for all men over the age of 25 and the eight-hour day are regarded as having been influenced by the new waves of immigrants after 1851.

Despite their initial doubts, most gold-rush immigrants had increasingly positive attitudes towards their adopted country and its future. They began to identify with the landscape, no longer seeing it as harsh and unforgiving. Life in Australia had many positives – a more relaxed lifestyle, a lack of strict class barriers and the potential prosperity of an economy based on gold and wool. The idea of moving towards a single nation was developing.



Source 7.42 Although some miners struck it rich on the goldfield, the majority did not. This painting from 1854, titled *The Invalid Digger* by ST Gill shows the hardship faced by many diggers in Australia at the time.

Check your learning 7.12

Remember and understand

1. Which colony produced the most gold in the period 1850 to 1900?
2. Which particular goldfields were the richest in Australia?
3. Name two ways in which the discovery of gold assisted in the development of the Australian colonies after 1850.

Apply and analyse

4. Explain why some historians suggest that gold slowed the development of national unity.
5. What role did gold play, in the longer term, to create positive feelings about Australia?

Evaluate and create

6. Many of the accounts of life on the goldfields refer to the spirit of mateship and camaraderie that existed among the diggers. ST Gill's painting *The Invalid Digger* (Source 7.42) and Weston Bate's research suggest a different situation.
   - **a** Conduct further research to discover which view is more likely to be accurate.
   - **b** Use this material and your own research to write a 500-word essay on the topic: 'Mateship on the goldfields: myth or reality?'. Be sure to include and reference at least two historical sources.

The development of Australian culture

Developments in art

In the 19th century, Australians began to show their growing national identity through art and literature. Appreciation grew for new styles that were distinctly Australian. In the early 19th century, painters tended to see the Australian landscape through European eyes. Landscapes were usually depicted by artists as dark and hostile. Human figures tended to be dwarfed by high mountains or trees. Town scenes were often painted in similar ways to those found in Britain. Cottages were quaint and the people were neatly dressed.

It was not until the 1870s and 1880s that artists began to show the Australian landscape and people as they really were. Over time, their work also became more popular and respected. Painters of the Heidelberg School in Melbourne (now referred to as the Australian Impressionists) started painting in the open air. Tom Roberts, Frederick McCubbin and Arthur Streeton were among the first painters to capture the true colours of Australia – blues, golds and greyish greens that had not been used by earlier artists. These colours can be seen in Arthur Streeton's *Near Heidelberg* (Source 7.44) and Tom Roberts' *Slumbering sea, Mentone* (Source 7.43).

Late 19th-century Australian painters presented simpler, everyday themes and more ordinary people. Subjects included bushfires and floods, drovers and shearers. Tom Roberts' famous painting *Shearing the rams* (Source 7.45) celebrated – and romanticised – the difficult, dirty and often back-breaking work in the shearing shed.

Painting completed in the early 1800s, often showed people as small figures being overpowered by the landscape. By contrast, paintings from the 1880s and 1890s showed people that looked 'at home'. Instead of looking threatened by their environment, they appeared relaxed and at peace.



Source 7.43

Tom Roberts
born Great Britain 1856, arrived Australia 1869, died 1931
Slumbering sea, *Mentone* 1887
oil on canvas
1.0 x 76.5 cm
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Purchased with the assistance of a special grant from the Government of Victoria, 1979



Source 7.44

Arthur Streeton
Australia 1867–1943, lived in England 1899–1919
Near Heidelberg 1890
oil on canvas
53.4 x 43.1 cm
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Felton Bequest, 1943

By this time, the beach was increasingly becoming a part of the Australian way of life. In Charles Conder's *A holiday at Mentone* (Source 7.46), people are shown using the beach for recreation, even though they are still seen in formal poses and dressed in European-style clothes.



Source 7.45

Tom Roberts
born Great Britain 1865, arrived in Australia 1969, died 1931
Shearing the rams 1890
oil on canvas on composition board
122.4 x 183.3 cm
National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
Felton Bequest, 1932



Source 7.46

Charles Conder
Australia/Britain, 1868–1909
A holiday at Mentone 1888
oil on canvas
46.2 x 60.8 cm
South Australian Government Grant with the assistance of Bond Corporation Holdings Limited through the Art Gallery of South Australia Foundation to mark the Gallery's Centenary 1981
Art Gallery of South Australia, Adelaide

Developments in literature

A new body of literature also reflected more Australian themes and subjects. Like artists and painters, early 19th-century writers had tended to portray Australia as an alien and threatening place. By the 1880s and 1890s however, poets and storytellers were writing positively about Australia. Stories of men who roamed the land and tamed the bush became popular. Magazines such as *The Bulletin*, *The Queensland Worker* and *Dawn* were filled tales of drovers, selectors, shearers and even bushrangers. Writers such as Joseph Furphy, Barbara Baynton and Banjo Paterson portrayed the bush as a safe and welcoming place to be. Others, such as Henry Lawson were a little less idealistic. In some of Lawson's stories, such as 'The Drover's Wife', he acknowledges that the bush could be a lonely and even dangerous place.

Despite the rise in distinctly Australian forms of art and literature towards the end of the 19th century, paintings and stories that reflected British themes and styles were still popular. Some critics at the time remarked that the new trends in Australian art and literature could not be considered as serious examples of culture. An art critic described the first exhibition of the Heidelberg painters in August 1889 as 'a pain to the eye'. However, the new body of Australian material was becoming increasingly popular with ordinary Australian settlers. Australian art and literature reflected a developing sense of identification with, and love of, Australia. It also inspired positive feelings about the environment and way of life, and played a role in the shift towards the creation of a unified nation.

The development of Australian icons

Around the same time, depictions of Australian flora and fauna were increasingly being used to promote food products and as decorations on buildings and in stained glass. The use of brand names such as 'Rosella' for tomato sauce (see Source 7.47), 'Emu', 'Dingo' and 'Ringer' (the fastest shearer) showed a growing confidence in all things Australian. This type of imagery would go on to become an iconic part of Australian culture and society. Many companies still use Australian flora and fauna in their logos today. One of the best known examples of these is Qantas, whose white kangaroo on a red background (known as the 'flying kangaroo') is recognised around the world.



Source 7.47 The Rosella trademark was first used on bottles of jam and tomato sauce in 1895.

Check your learning 7.13

Remember and understand

1 How did the Australian landscape tend to be depicted by early 19th-century artists?

Apply and analyse

2 Describe the difference between some of the well-known Australian authors in the late 19th century in terms of the ways they portrayed life in the Australian bush.

Evaluate and create

3 Examine Sources 7.43 to 7.46 and analyse the features of each in terms of their ties to the established cultures and traditions of Britain and the new traditions and customs of Australia. Copy and complete the following table into your notebook. You may need to conduct additional research on the Internet to help you.

Painting	European features	Australian features
Near Heidelberg		
Slumbering sea, Mentone		
Shearing the rams		
A holiday at Mentone		

The idea of a united Australia

Towards the end of the 19th century, people living in separate Australian colonies began to realise just how much they had in common. All six Australian colonies were settled by people from Britain, all spoke the same language, followed the same customs and traditions and had very similar legal and political systems. Because of these shared goals and ideals, some key individuals began to argue that much could be gained by uniting the separate colonies to form a single nation.

The term 'Australia' was only used occasionally during the early 1800s. One of the first people to do so was William Charles Wentworth, who set up a newspaper called *The Australian* in 1824. However, in the 1850s, goldminers from Europe were still more likely to say that they were going to Bathurst or Ballarat than to Australia. As late as the 1850s, some in Britain used the name 'Botany Bay' to describe the entire country.

From about 1860 onwards, businesses and organisations were increasingly using the name 'Australia'. The Australian Natives Association (ANA) was one of the first and most significant organisations to use the word Australia in their name around 1871. The ANA was set up as a 'friendly society' (an early version of modern-day health funds) providing sickness, medical and funeral cover. In the 1880s, its members broadened their purpose, seeking to promote identification with Australia. They pushed for 26 January to be celebrated as Australia's national day, commemorating the arrival of the First Fleet into Sydney Harbour. In the 1890s, they also began campaigning for **federation** (the unification of separate Australian colonies into a single nation).

The White Australia ideal

Another significant factor that unified people in all of the Australian colonies was a belief in white superiority. The settlers who colonised Australia had a profound belief that European culture and civilisation (and therefore white people themselves) were far more advanced and superior than any others. This belief was clearly demonstrated in the ways colonists treated Indigenous people and non-Europeans (especially Chinese and South Sea Islanders). By the late 19th century, a white Australia was seen by many as an essential foundation for a united Australian nation.

The White Australia ideal was also an important element in Australia's developing sense of national identity. Indeed, one of the main reasons why Australians accepted the move towards federation was to allow for the creation of a strict national policy on **immigration**. Alfred Deakin, who became Australia's second prime minister, was one of many politicians and campaigners supporting federation who argued for the preservation of Australia as a white nation (see Source 7.49). In fact, the very first law passed by the new Commonwealth parliament after Federation in 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act. This act used a range of methods (including a complicated dictation test) to ensure that only 'desirable' (i.e. white) immigrants could enter the country.



Source 7.49 Sheet music for the 'White Australia' song, composed by WE Naunton, with words by Naunton and HJW Gyles, and performed at the Australian Natives' Association National Fete, 31 January 1910

Source 7.48

> The unity of Australia is nothing, if that does not imply a united race. A united race not only means that its members can intermix, intermarry and associate without degradation on either side, but implies one inspired by the same ideas and an aspiration towards the same ideals, of a people possessing the same general cast of character, tone of thought, the same constitutional training and traditions … Unity of race is an absolute essential to the unity of Australia.

Speech by Alfred Deakin on the Immigration Restriction Bill, *Commonwealth Parliamentary Debates*, 12 September 1901

Check your learning 7.14

Remember and understand

1. Around what time did businesses and organisations begin using the name 'Australia'?
2. Which organisation was the first to begin campaigning for federation?

Apply and analyse

3. What role did negative attitudes towards non-whites play in the movement towards Federation?

7.2 big**ideas:** rich task

The White Australia debate

One of the factors that united Australian colonists in the lead up to Federation was a growing concern that white people would be overrun by the Chinese, Japanese and Pacific Islanders who were coming to Australia to work. After Federation, the first law introduced by the new federal parliament in June 1901 was the Immigration Restriction Act, which prevented certain types of people from entering Australia, particularly those who were not white.

In 1887, two Chinese Commissioners, General Wong and E Tsing, were appointed by the Chinese government to visit Australia and report on the conditions facing the Chinese people who had settled here. Source 7.50 is part of an article published in the *Sydney Morning Herald* in response to the Commissioners' visit.

Source 7.50

… The COMMISSIONERS, there is every reason to believe, came to Australia, not only to discover how the Chinese who are already here are getting on, but with the object of paving the way for the arrival of others … the Australian colonies could not give way upon such a question as this. The restrictions which have been placed upon Chinese immigration have been adopted deliberately, and with the determination that Australia shall be essentially a European community. We have made up our minds not to be overrun by the Chinese or any other inferior race, and no proposal to relax the precautions which serve to keep back the threatened Chinese invasion would be listened to for a moment.

An extract from an article in the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 4 August 1887

Louis Ah Mouy (1826–1918) was a Chinese carpenter who was brought to Melbourne in 1851 under contract to build six houses. After the contract ended, he joined the gold rush and made a fortune discovering gold in the Yea area. He became a leader within the Victorian Chinese community and spoke publicly against the immigration restrictions on the Chinese. Source 7.51 is an extract from a pamphlet he wrote. It was published in Melbourne as 'The Chinese Question in Australia, 1878–79'.

Source 7.51

… surely there is room enough in this large continent – many portions of which can never be cultivated by European labour – for some, at least, of the redundant population of China. That country is estimated to contain not much less than 2,000,000 square miles of territory, and 400,000,000 of people. Australia comprises an area of close upon 3,000,000 square miles, and it contains no more than 2,100,000 white people, and a few thousand blacks. In our own land, millions of men, women, and children – yes, millions – think of the horror and pity of it! – have died of starvation during the last year … You do not endeavour to exclude Germans, or Frenchmen, or Italians, or Danes, or Swedes. There are men of all these nationalities here. Then why are Chinese colonists to be placed under a ban? Are we an inferior race? No one can say so who knows anything of our history, our language, our literature, our government … China had reached a very high stage of civilisation when Britain was peopled by naked savages …

An extract from 'The Chinese Question in Australia, 1878–79', Louis Ah Mouy



Source 7.52 This cartoon published in the magazine *Melbourne Punch* on 10 May 1888 depicts the Australian colonies (shown as pretty white women) using Federation as a means to get rid of 'the Chinese pest'.

skill**drill**

Identifying and analysing the perspectives of people from the past

Primary and secondary historical sources represent many different perspectives, attitudes and values. The perspectives of the people who create different sources are influenced by their gender, age, family and cultural background, education, religion, values and political beliefs, their life experiences and the times in which they live. It is the historian's job to make sure that they consider a range of perspectives in their investigations, allowing more voices to be heard and a more complete picture to be formed. Identifying and analysing the perspectives of different people is a very important historical skill. To do this, you need to understand the social, cultural and emotional contexts and factors that shaped people's lives and actions in the past.

Follow these steps when identifying and analysing different perspectives:

Step 1 Identify the historical issue around which there may be different opinions or interpretations.

Step 2 List the various groups and people who may have been involved in or affected by this issue.

Step 3 Identify their role or position in society.

Step 4 Locate some primary sources that provide evidence about their point of view or opinion on the issue.

Step 5 Analyse each source, using the following questions as a guide:

- Why was the source written or produced?
- Who was the intended audience of the source? Was it meant for one person's eyes, or for the public? How does that affect the source?
- What was the author's message or argument? What was he/she trying to get across? Is the message explicit, or are there implicit messages as well? What can the author's choice of words tell you? What about the silences – what does the author choose *not* to talk about?
- How does the author try to get the message across? For example, do they give a detached, balanced account, or is it biased for or against the issue?
- Compared to what we face today, what relevant circumstances and experiences were different for the author of the source in the past? Some examples might include religion, economy, family life, technology etc. How do you think these factors and experiences influenced their thoughts and actions?

Apply the skill

1 Identify the different groups and individuals who were involved in or affected (directly or indirectly) by the 'White Australia' debate in Australia in the late 1800s. Describe their roles or positions in society.

2 Consider the three sources (Sources 7.50 to 7.52) included above. Who wrote or produced them? Identify and analyse the perspectives presented in each of these sources, using the steps provided.

Extend your understanding

1 In recent years, there has been substantial debate in Australia about asylum seekers. Many politicians and journalists have promoted the idea that Australians need to be concerned about a growing influx of 'boat people' – asylum seekers arriving on Australian shores in the boats of Indonesian people smugglers.

a Conduct some research into the asylum seeker issue, and locate a number of primary source documents (e.g. newspaper articles and cartoons) that reveal some contemporary Australian attitudes towards asylum seekers.

b Analyse each source, using the steps provided. Then, create a Venn diagram to help you identify the similarities and differences between:

- Australia's views on immigrants in the late 1800s
- Australia's views on asylum seekers in the early 2000s.

7.3 What was life in Australia like at the start of the 20th century?

The road to Federation

In the years leading up to Federation in 1901, there was a shared belief that a unified country would provide ordinary people with the chance to create a better society. Australians had a vision of a nation that included the best qualities of their British heritage, while providing opportunities for all people – not just the wealthy and privileged.

It must be recognised, however, that the road towards Federation was not always a smooth one. There were obstacles that had to be overcome before the people were ready to embrace the idea of a unified nation. These included a strong sense of local identity in some areas, and rivalries between different colonies. Some people were also strongly loyal to the British Crown and resisted any reduction in the amount of British power. There were also disagreements about the exact form and structure of the federation that was to be created. Some people wanted a stronger central (federal) government, while others wanted the state governments to have the greatest power. Then there were those who simply resisted change and were happy for things to continue as they were.

Nevertheless, as the colonies approached the end of the 19th century, most of these obstacles were overcome. A majority of people voted in favour of the creation of the new Australian nation. Several other factors also encouraged this movement towards federation, including defence and economic concerns, and an increasing recognition of 'sameness' among the colonists.

The first significant move towards Federation is regarded by most historians as having begun with a speech given by Sir Henry Parkes in the town of Tenterfield in New South Wales in 1889. In what became known as the 'Tenterfield Address' Parkes called for the colonies to 'unite and create a great national government for all Australia'. In reality though, the idea of uniting the colonies had been around at least since 1847 when Henry Grey – British Colonial Secretary from 1846 to 1852 – proposed a Federal Assembly. The intention was that this assembly would meet regularly to allow colonial leaders to discuss matters that affected all colonies such as taxes and tariffs, railways, and postage services. However, the idea was not taken up by the colonial leaders and the movement stalled until the 1880s. The key stages in achieving Australia's Federation are summarised in Source 7.54.



Source 7.53 *Swanston Street from the Bridge,* Henry Burn, 1861, Melbourne (National Gallery of Victoria). Melbourne grew rapidly as a result of the gold rushes.

Check your learning 7.15

Remember and understand

1 When was Federation actually achieved?

2 List some of the main factors that caused people to be wary of federation prior to 1901.

3 List some of the main arguments that were presented in favour of federation prior to 1901.

Evaluate and create

4 Look again at the key stages in the achievement of Australia's Federation (Source 7.54).

a In your notebook, create a flowchart like the one shown here, and identify five events that you consider to have been the most important. Put the events in chronological order.

Year	Description of key stage

1840

1847
Earl Grey, the British Secretary of State for War and the Colonies, proposes an informal federation of colonies.

1850
Australian Colonies Government Act of 1850 establishes the colony of Victoria and gives colonial governments of Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania the right to pass their own laws (already allowed in NSW)

1850

1867
Intercolonial conference held on uniform postal issues



Sir Henry Parkes (1815–1896)

1880
Intercolonial conference – main issue discussed is Asian immigration

1883
Federal council formed to start preparing a constitution

1870



Sir Samuel Griffith (1845–1920)

1881
First Australia-wide census across the colonies, excluding Aboriginal people

1890
Australasian Federation Conference, attended by delegates from all colonies and New Zealand, calls for the creation of a national convention to consider and report on a Federal Constitution

1880

1889
A report commissioned in Britain recommends establishing an Australian defence force that can act in unison. Sir Henry Parkes, Premier of NSW, delivers his famous Tenterfield Address in favour of Federation.

1893 onwards
Popular movements in support of federation emerge, including the 'Federation leagues'

1891
The first Federal Constitutional Convention meets to write a constitution, attended by delegates from all colonies and NZ. A draft constitution is produced in five weeks, led by Sir Samuel Griffith, Premier of Queensland. It is opposed by NSW.

1890

1898
First referendum on the Federal Constitution – passed by Victoria, Tasmania and SA and defeated by NSW. Queensland and WA did not take part.

1897–1898
The second Federal Constitutional Convention meets. Delegates from all colonies, except Queensland, draw up a second draft constitution and agree to put it to a referendum.



A souvenir handkerchief created for the celebration of Australian Federation

1900

1899
Second referendum passed following amendments to the Constitution. Western Australia did not take part.

1900
The Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act is passed by the British Parliament on 5 July. WA joins Federation. Queen Victoria proclaims the Commonwealth on 17 September.

1901
Commonwealth of Australia comes into being on 1 January. The first Commonwealth Parliament opens in Melbourne on 9 May.

1910

Source 7.54 Key stages in the achievement of Federation

Reasons for Federation

By the 1890s, the idea that the separate colonies of Australia should federate to form a single nation was one that had gained widespread support. The example of the United States – a country that had declared its independence from Britain in 1776 – was of great importance. From the mid-1800s, the United States had become a model for Australia's idea of itself and its future, including its Constitution (set of guiding principles). Improvements in transport and communication brought people in the colonies closer together, and the things that made Australians feel like one people began to seem more important than the things that divided them. As discussed, the 'White Australia' ideal and protecting Australia from non-whites was a major factor in the push for federation. There were also a number of other important factors, including the issues of defence, concerns about the economy and a recognition that many of the colonies shared the same goals.

Defence

In the early 1880s, a number of European countries were expanding their territories by setting up colonies in Africa and Asia. Some (such as France) were also interested in setting up colonies in the Pacific region. Some colonists in Australia feared that these moves by European powers might also lead to a takeover of some Australian territory.

Some colonial leaders argued that the colonies could better defend themselves if they united. Two events in 1889 strengthened this view. The first was Major General Sir Bevan Edwards' examination of the defence systems of the colonies. His report to the British government recommended that the colonies form united defence forces and strategies. The second event was the speech given at Tenterfield by New South Wales Premier, Sir Henry Parkes (see Source 7.74). Parkes may have been inspired by Edwards' report, but his address went further. Parkes recommended the creation of an Australian government and set out steps by which it could be achieved.

The economy

Many historians argue that the main driver for federation was economic. Federation would allow branches of businesses, banks, import and export merchants and manufacturers to develop across the borders of different colonies. It would also allow for consistent trading policies. One of the main obstacles to economic progress, it was thought, was that there were two different customs systems operating between the colonies (customs authorities control the flow of goods into and out of the country).

In Victoria, protective **tariffs** (taxes) were placed on all goods entering the colony from interstate or overseas. This made the imported products dearer and, therefore, 'protected' the manufacturers of locally made goods.

In New South Wales, no extra charge was placed on imported goods. This meant that imported goods were not more expensive than locally produced goods. Supporters of this policy of **free trade** argued that it would be easier to sell their goods overseas and in other colonies, if tariffs on incoming goods did not exist.

Removing tariffs imposed between colonies was supported by those who traded across borders, such as the farmers in the Riverina district of southern New South Wales. Although the rich wool-growing region of the Riverina was in New South Wales, it was easier for the farmers to market their wool through Victoria. The wool bales would be transported by riverboat through the Murray–Darling river system to Echuca, then by train to Melbourne. Federation and the removal of inter-colonial tariffs would definitely advantage the Riverina wool growers.

On the other hand, sugarbeet growers in the Maffra area of Victoria opposed the removal of tariffs. They were in competition with the Queensland sugarcane growers. Because sugar importers had to pay a tariff to bring sugar into Victoria, Queensland sugar was more expensive. The Maffra sugar producers had no desire to have to compete on an equal footing with Queensland growers.

Source 7.55

> Your Commissioners are firmly convinced that the welfare of Australia will be promoted by the abandonment of all restrictions upon intercolonial trade …
>
> We recommend the adoption of intercolonial free trade, on the basis of a uniform tariff, and regard it as the corollary [natural consequence] of federation of the Australian colonies … The benefits arising from intercolonial free trade will far outweigh any disadvantages which may result.

Extract from a 'Report from the Royal Commission on Intercolonial Free Trade to the Parliament of South Australia', 1891

The 1890s depression

Another economic influence on federation came from the 1890s depression. The extended boom from the 1860s, largely the result of gold, came to an end in the early 1890s with largescale business collapses, a fall in farm prices, and rising unemployment. Many in the eastern colonies, especially in Victoria and South Australia, argued that a centrally managed economy could prevent future depressions or allow them to be better managed.

The view in Western Australia was that a centralised economy would disadvantage the west because conditions there were very different. Western Australia was also concerned that because of its small population, it would not have a significant representation in a national parliament. This issue was addressed by the establishment of a two-house system. The Senate is known as the house of review, or the 'states' house', this structure is still part of our Federal Parliament today.



Source 7.56 Bush hawkers (travelling salesmen) travelled from colony to colony spreading news from one part of the country to the other. This became known as 'the bush telegraph'. It helped colonists to realise that they shared many common goals and fuelled a sense of nationalism.

A growing sense of nationalism

As politicians, business people, shearers, bush workers, hawkers (travelling salesmen), entertainers and railway workers travelled around the country, from colony to colony, they helped to spread news and stories from other areas. This phenomenon became known as 'the bush telegraph'. The travellers and the people they encountered along the way became increasingly aware that the things that drew colonists together were far stronger than the things that drove them apart. This movement towards a common identity was also reflected in magazines such as, *The Bulletin*, which was widely read throughout the country.

By the 1890s, more than 70 per cent of the people in the Australian colonies had been born in Australia. Although many of their parents still spoke of Britain as 'home', the native-born were more likely to identify with Australia and to feel positively about the culture, customs and way of life. These developments led to a growing sense of **nationalism** that fuelled support for federation. In the lead-up to federation, many appeals were made to the native-born (which did not include the Aborigines) to support the idea of a new nation. These arguments were set out in the pro-federation poster 'To the Australian Born' (see Source 7.73).

Check your learning 7.16

Remember and understand

1 Read the text and answer the following questions:
   - **a** What are 'tariffs'?
   - **b** Which Australian colony used tariffs prior to federation?
   - **c** Who supported the removal of tariffs, and why?
   - **d** Who opposed the removal of tariffs, and why?

2 What were some of the other economic benefits that federation seemed to offer the colonies?

3 What was the 'bush telegraph' and what influence did it have on nationalism in Australia?

4 By the 1890s, what proportion of people living in the Australian colonies (not including Aborigines) had been born in Australia?

Apply and analyse

5 Explain the connection between the defence fears of colonists and the arguments for federation.

Evaluate and create

6 Conduct some Internet research and explain how the two-house parliamentary system allows states with smaller populations equal representation in national parliament.

Significant individuals: People who helped to shape the nation

Australia's emergence as a nation in 1901 was the result of the inspiration and effort of a wide range of colonists from all walks of life. As the colonies developed, there was a growing recognition that Australia was a land with a promising future. The contributions of some of the significant individuals who shaped the nation have been recorded and celebrated. However, for every trade union leader, politician, journalist or feminist there were hundreds of thousands of ordinary men and women who played equally important roles in building the nation.

William Guthrie Spence

William Guthrie Spence (1846–1921) is known as the father of the Australian trade union movement. The child of gold-rush immigrants, he worked as a miner before helping to form the Amalgamated Miners Association of Victoria in 1874. In the 1880s, he was the key figure in the formation of Australia-wide unions for miners and shearers.

Because these unions had large memberships, they were able to achieve better pay and conditions for workers. After the depression in the 1890s, employers tried to cut back on these gains. Spence then formed the Australian Workers Union, which covered miners, shearers and rural workers. Spence was a strong supporter of federation and was elected to the first Australian parliament in 1901.



Source 7.57 William Spence

Sir Henry Parkes

Born in England, Sir Henry Parkes (1815–1896) emigrated to Australia with his wife in 1839. He had a rich and varied career in commerce, publishing and politics, before serving five terms as Premier of New South Wales, between 1872 and 1892.

Parkes earned the title 'Father of Federation' following his famous Tenterfield Address in 1889. However, he had proposed the idea of federation as early as 1867 at an inter-colonial conference.

In 1881, Parkes proposed that a federal council be set up to start preparing a constitution for federation. The federal council came into being two years later. However, it did not meet with Parkes' approval as he did not believe that New South Wales had enough power to plan and work towards a federation. New South Wales did not take part in its early meetings during the 1880s.

In 1891, Parkes was appointed Chairman of the National Australian Convention, held in Sydney. At this Convention, the first draft Constitution was developed. Over the next few years several obstacles to the federation movement emerged. One was the economic depression of the 1890s. Another was the resignation of Parkes as Premier in October 1891. Nevertheless, Parkes continued to promote the idea of unity. He argued strongly for federation in a lecture tour through Victoria in 1893. Parkes died in April 1896 from complications following pneumonia. Five years later the cause he had championed so strongly, federation, became a reality.



Source 7.58 This statue of Sir Henry Parkes was unveiled in 1996 in Centennial Park, Sydney, on the centenary of his death.

John Feltham Archibald

John Feltham Archibald (1856–1919) was a key figure in the literary and publishing life of the Australian colonies in the late 1800s and early 1900s. He played a significant role in raising awareness of an Australian national identity.

In 1880, Archibald established *The Bulletin* magazine, which he used to promote Australian art and literature. Nicknamed the 'bushman's bible', *The Bulletin* was read in shearing sheds, country pubs and all the capital cities around Australia. It was the first Australian magazine to pay real attention to local issues. It was also among the first to support values and characteristics that were distinctively Australian.

Ironically, although the magazine claimed to promote equal rights for all, it also campaigned proudly for a white Australia. Some of its cartoons represented the Chinese in a grotesque manner (see Source 7.32). The August 1890 edition included a list of things denounced by *The Bulletin* – this included 'religious interference in politics, foreign titles and the Chinese'.

Archibald died in 1919, having left a bequest for an annual portrait prize. The Archibald Prize has become one of Australia's most prestigious art awards.



Source 7.59 John Archibald

Catherine Helen Spence

Scottish-born Catherine Helen Spence (1825–1910) was one of Australia's earliest feminists and the first woman to run as a political candidate. With her journalistic background, she was always able to articulate her views and opinions. She had a great interest in social reform, especially in relation to the rights of women. Spence was also the first woman to preach in a South Australian church and she worked hard to arrange foster homes for abandoned or at-risk children.

Spence was at the forefront of the movement to gain votes for women. She became vice-president of the Women's Suffrage League in 1891 and played an important role in ensuring that in 1894 South Australian women were the first in Australia to gain the vote.

In 1894, women in South Australia had also won the right to stand as political candidates and Spence was the first to take advantage of this change. She stood as a candidate for one of 10 positions allocated to South Australia for the Federal Constitutional Convention held in Sydney in 1897, becoming the first Australian woman political candidate. Although she was unsuccessful (coming 22nd out of 33 candidates), her action showed that women were very capable of running political campaigns. Spence's role in Federation was recognised nationally by the placement of her image on one side of Australia's 2001 Federation five dollar note, with Sir Henry Parkes 'the Father of Federation' on the other.



Source 7.60 Catherine Helen Spence

Check your learning 7.17

Remember and understand

1 What was one of the major achievements of the trade unions in the 1880s?

2 Why is Sir Henry Parkes remembered as the 'Father of Federation'?

Apply and analyse

3 Explain what you see as the key contribution of each of these individuals to the building of the Australian nation.

4 Explain how the 1890s depression had such a negative impact on union membership and union gains.

5 Why do you think that Catherine Helen Spence had so little success in her attempt to be elected to the Federal Consitutional Convention in 1897?

Evaluate and create

6 Sir Henry Parkes and John Feltham Archibald both contributed to the growth of national unity. Which do you believe made the greatest contribution and why?

7 Imagine that you are Catherine Helen Spence. Prepare and record an audio or video presentation of the campaign speech that you used to attempt to gain election to the 1897 Federal Consitutional Convention. Your speech should deal with the importance of federation and the Constitutional Convention, and list the reasons why you, as a woman, would be an excellent candidate.

Australia becomes a nation



Source 7.61 Tom Roberts' painting *The Opening of the First Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia by His Royal Highness the Duke of Cornwall and York, 9 May 1901*

On 1 January 1901, Australia became a nation when the separate, self-governing colonies set up by Britain federated (united). Federation was achieved as a result of two **referendums**, one in 1898 and another in 1899. It is perhaps easy for Australians today to assume that Federation was the result of a natural process that was always going to happen. In fact, the road towards Federation was not always a smooth one, and a closer look at how it was achieved reveals a story full of complications, false starts, twists and turns.

The first referendum failed. A year later, after some changes were made to the Constitution, a second referendum was held. In the second referendum, a majority of people in most of the colonies voted to support a new **Constitution** that would create the Commonwealth of Australia (see Source 7.63). This time, all colonies except Western Australia voted 'Yes'. The people of Western Australia had been less supportive of federation as they felt isolated from the eastern colonies. The sense of isolation was exaggerated by the fact that there was no rail connection between Perth and the other capital cities. Western Australia also had a small population and many feared that, in a federal parliament, its interests would be swamped by those of the larger colonies (see Source 7.62).

Source 7.62

> It is all very well to talk about a Federal Australia. It may be highly sentimental and patriotic, but the stern questions are – Will it pay us? Will it pay the manufacturer of Western Australia to sacrifice his 15 or 20 per cent [tariff income] to meet the more advanced, better equipped and overstocked manufacturer of the eastern colonies?
>
> An extract from a letter by WT White (a concerned businessman in Western Australia) to the *Bunbury Herald*, 31 May 1898

Source 7.63 Votes for and against federation, Australian colonies

	First vote (1898)		Second vote (1899, 1900)	
Colony	**For**	**Against**	**For**	**Against**
New South Wales	71 595	66 228	107 420	82 741
Victoria	100 520	22 099	152 653	9805
South Australia	35 800	17 320	65 990	17 053
Tasmania	11 797	2716	13 437	791
Queensland	–	–	38 488	30 996
Western Australia	–	–	44 800	19 691

Notes: The first referendum failed in New South Wales because the Parliament there increased the minimum number of affirmative ('yes') votes required to 80 000; Queensland and Western Australia did not take part. In the second referendum Western Australia voted later than the other colonies, in 1900.

Scott Bennett, Department of the Parliamentary Library, *ABS Year Book Australia 2001*

In 1900, delegates from the Australian colonies took the Constitution approved at the referendum to London to have it approved by the British government. They were so confident that Western Australia would eventually join that they left a space in the Constitution document for the name Western Australia to be inserted. While they were in London, the news came through that the people of Western Australia had also voted to join the federation. Australia became a federation in January 1901, and the first Commonwealth parliament opened in May in Melbourne (see Source 7.61).



Source 7.64 A handkerchief created as a souvenir of Australian Federation in 1901

Australia's Constitution

The Constitution of Australia that was signed into effect in 1901 outlined how the new federal government would share its powers with the state governments. It also detailed the limits of these powers and set out how laws would be made and how governments would be formed.

The Constitution splits the power to govern the country between three different areas of responsibility. It says what each of these areas of government (also called the three arms of government) can and cannot do. Each arm of government has to obey the Constitution. The three arms of government are:

- the legislature (this arm creates the laws)
- the executive (this arm approves and administers the laws)
- the judiciary (this arm enforces the laws and decides if they have been broken).

The powers of the different arms of government are independent of each other. This means, for example, that the judiciary cannot influence the executive or the legislature, or the other way round. This is a basic principle of the Westminster system from Britain and is referred to as the **separation of powers**.

Over the last 100 years, some changes have been made to the Constitution but most proposed changes have been rejected. A referendum must be held for every proposed change. To be approved, a referendum must have the support of a majority of voters in a majority of states (that is, in at least four states). Since 1901, there have been 20 referendums, proposing 44 changes to the Australian Constitution. Only eight have been approved.

The structure of the Australian government

The Australian government is a federal system, made up of a group of states and territories – the former colonies. The government of Australia has three levels (or tiers) that are outlined in the Constitution. Under the Constitution the states kept their own parliaments and most of their existing powers but the federal parliament was given responsibility for areas that affected the whole nation. State parliaments in turn gave councils the task of looking after the particular needs of their local communities. These levels are designed to work together to provide Australians with the services they need. The three tiers of government are:

- the Commonwealth Government (also known as the federal government and Australian government)
- the state and territory governments (one for each of the former colonies)
- local governments (hundreds of local and shire councils).

The Constitution defines the roles and responsibilities of the federal and state governments, but not local governments. Local governments are a responsibility of the relevant state minister for local government.

The areas of responsibility under Australia's three tiers of government are outlined in Source 7.65.

The Commonwealth Government is responsible for:

- taxation
- national economic management
- immigration and citizenship
- employment
- postal services and the communications network
- social security (pensions and family support)
- defence
- trade
- airports and air safety
- foreign affairs (relations with other countries)

State and territory governments are responsible for:

- hospitals and health services
- schools
- railways
- roads and road traffic control
- forestry
- police
- public transport

Local governments (and the Australian Capital Territory Government) are responsible for:

- street signs, traffic controls
- local roads, footpaths, bridges
- drains
- parks, playgrounds, swimming pools, sports grounds
- camping grounds and caravan parks
- food and meat inspection
- noise and animal control
- rubbish collection
- local libraries, halls and community centres
- certain child-care and aged-care issues
- building permits
- social planning
- local environmental issues

Source 7.65 Responsibilities of the three tiers of Australian government

The Commonwealth Government

At the federal level, the government was established as a bicameral system. This means it was made up of two houses of parliament: the **House of Representatives** and the **Senate**. The House of Representatives, sometimes called the lower house, represents all the people of Australia. It is made up of representatives of electorates that are formed on the basis of population. Therefore the most populous state, New South Wales, has the largest number of seats in the House of Representatives and Tasmania has the smallest. The lower house is responsible for the formation of the government. The government is formed by the party (or parties) with the majority of elected delegates. Generally, the Prime Minister is leader of that party and is responsible for the overall governing of the nation.

The Senate, sometimes called the upper house, represents the states that make up the Commonwealth. All of the states are given equal representation in the Senate, regardless of population. The Senate's role is to monitor and review the actions of the House of Representatives. The Senate also has the right to block the proposed legislation of the government and to send legislation back to the House of Representatives with suggested amendments.

Check your learning 7.18

Remember and understand

1 When was the first referendum over federation, and why was it not passed?

2 What is the Constitution and what purpose does it serve?

3 Read the letter from WT White to the *Bunbury Herald* (Source 7.62).

- **a** What main argument is he using against Western Australia's joining the federation?
- **b** Suggest two other reasons why many Western Australians were not enthusiastic about federation.
- **c** Suggest one reason why some people in Western Australia did support federation and eventually voted for it.

Apply and analyse

4 What can you learn from the fact that New South Wales set a higher than 50 per cent target to gain a 'Yes' vote in the federation referendums?

5 Examine the souvenir handkerchief (Source 7.64). Does anything about it surprise you? Explain your answer.

Living and working conditions in Australia after Federation

Once Australia became a federation, the issues and ideals that had formed the nation continued to be important. In the early 1900s, Australia was regarded as one of the most progressive nations in the world. In comparison with the rest of the world, the standard of living was high, the pay and conditions of workers were improving, women had more democratic rights than in most other parts of the world, and the sense of Australian identity was developing and becoming stronger.

Living conditions around 1900

Despite egalitarian ideals, all Australians did not live equally. In the cities, the wealthy lived in large homes with well-tended gardens and servants to look after their needs. Meanwhile, working people tended to live in humble, overcrowded rented cottages with few facilities (like running water or toilets) and little hope of ever becoming homeowners (see Source 7.67).

These cottages tended to be small inner-city terraces or attached houses built in rows alongside factories. Families with eight or more children would occupy these houses, often with all the children sleeping in one room. The buildings were usually shoddily built from cheap materials and had little insulation.

While the middle and upper classes could afford proper sewerage and plumbing in their homes, these facilities were not provided in the workers' cottages. The toilet was generally a can with a seat resting on the top of it. It was situated in a small shed outdoors near a back alley. The waste would be taken away by waste collectors called 'nightsoil men'.

These poor housing conditions often led to serious illnesses among the working class. The lack of sanitation encouraged the spread of infectious diseases such as whooping cough, tuberculosis and diphtheria. These diseases often hit the young, and infant mortality rates were high. In 1901, there were 103.6 deaths for every 1000 live births. For the first decade of the 20th century, male children had a life expectancy of 55.2 years and females 58.4 years.



Source 7.66 A working-class family home in Melbourne, *c.* 1900



Source 7.67 This photo of a poor family in Paddington, an inner Sydney suburb, gives a clue to how hard life could be for the poor around 1900. The corrugated iron shanty has no floor, no electric light or running water.

Education

After Federation, all children aged between six and 13 were given free access to education through government schools. But many children from poorer families were expected to work as soon as possible to help support the family. Children from wealthy families often attended private schools. Education for girls tended to focus on subjects such as literature, music and French. In addition to these subjects, girls were taught how to run a household – cooking, cleaning and sewing were the focus of these classes. Boys were encouraged to continue with their education through to tertiary level in order to be trained in a profession. Working class boys by comparison often left school early to learn a trade and start work.

Transport and communication

At the time of Federation, more than 20 000 kilometres of track had been laid across the continent, and all states except for Western Australia were connected by rail – although not directly. As the railways had been built by the colonies independently of each other, different gauges (track widths) had been used across the country.



Source 7.68 Mrs Thompson, the only woman entrant in the first motor car reliability trial from Sydney to Melbourne, (21–25 February 1905), celebrates at the finishing line.



Source 7.69 This photograph from around 1870 shows wool-washing on the banks of the Yarra River in Melbourne. The owners of the factories and processing plants that lined the river used it to dump their waste.

During this period, rail services were starting to replace ships for the transport of goods and passengers. Railways themselves faced competition from another mode of transport from 1900, with the importation of the first motor car from Europe. The first Australian-made motor vehicle, the Thompson steam car, was manufactured in the same year. Although motor cars were exclusively for the rich until the 1920s, the Australian public was fascinated by them.

The birth of aviation also began in this period. Inventors, including Lawrence Hargrave, were experimenting with flying models in the 1880s. In time, this led to the first powered flights from Europe to Australia in the 1920s.

Working conditions

For the average working man, the early years of the 20th century in Australia offered rights and conditions that were unheard of in other parts of the world – a guaranteed basic wage, an eight-hour day (with a half-day on Saturday), a pension if he lived to 65, and assistance should he become disabled or unable to work before that age. As a result, the reputation that Australia had gained during the 19th century as a 'working man's paradise' was once again revived.

Nevertheless, life for working people was by no means easy. Many factory workers toiled in unsafe and unhealthy conditions. The factories were poorly ventilated, were extremely hot in summer, and cold and damp in winter. They tended to be overcrowded. There were no safety regulations for workers working on often poorly maintained machinery. Injuries were common.

Factory workers also had to work long hours. Although the standard was the eight-hour day, many workers were expected to do more, and overtime often went unpaid. These workers had no protection in times of short-term illness and no unemployment benefits. In spite of the overall prosperity of the economy, employment was unpredictable for unskilled and semi-skilled workers. The factories, which were often located in working-class areas, polluted the air and waterways with chemicals and other wastes (see Source 7.69).

Check your learning 7.19

Remember and understand

1. Describe typical living conditions for the working class in Australia around 1900.
2. What access did children have to education after Federation?
3. Why were conditions still tough for workers, despite the introduction of the eight-hour working day?

Apply and analyse

4. What evidence is there that Australia could be called a 'working man's paradise' in the early 20th century? What evidence is there that this was *not* the case?

Legislation that shaped a nation

One of the government's first priorities after Federation was the introduction of legislation that restricted non-whites from settling in Australia. At the same time, the government introduced some of the world's most progressive legislation for other groups in Australian society. Several of the most significant pieces of legislation are discussed below.

Key legislation

The Immigration Restriction Act 1901

The Immigration Restriction Act was the first law to be passed by the Commonwealth parliament in 1901. This Act became one of the key pieces of legislation that became known as the **White Australia policy**. Although it did not specifically exclude non-whites from entering the country, it did state that prospective immigrants to Australia could be given a dictation test in any language chosen by an immigration official. Unwanted immigrants were simply given the test in a language they did not understand. The result of this system was that very few non-whites were admitted to Australia. After a few years, non-white immigrants were also far less likely to even apply.

In the early 20th century, only a few were willing to argue against the racism of the majority. A Tasmanian politician, Norman Cameron, argued in parliament against the Immigration Restriction Bill of 1901, as did Melbourne bookseller EW Cole, and Bernard O'Dowd, the editor of the newspaper *Tocsin* (see Source 7.70).

Source 7.70

> I know that the coloured races are classed inferior races, but I must admit that I cannot see evidence of their inferiority which do not equally brand the white races of Europe and America as inferior. The notion of inferiority appears to me to be a myth sprung originally from European ignorance and nourished now by a foolish self-conceit.
>
> Bernard O'Dowd, *Tocsin*, 25 April 1901

Despite the introduction of the Act, there was still a strong Chinese presence in Australia. Many were gold-rush immigrants or their children, and some had developed successful businesses and had positive feelings about the country. At Federation, the Chinese community enthusiastically celebrated the occasion with street arches and parades (see Source 7.71).



Source 7.71 Chinese Arch, Melbourne, 1901, Australian Federation celebrations.

Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902

Another one of the earliest Acts of the new parliament was the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*. This Act extended the vote to all Australian women over 21, at the same time as it denied the vote to all Indigenous Australians. Although at this time, in terms of wages and property rights, women were in no way equal to men, in Australia they now had greater political rights than women in most parts of the world. Indigenous people, however, had no federal voting rights.

Harvester Judgement 1907

One of the most important reforms of this time was the introduction of the principle of a basic minimum wage. The issue of a 'fair and reasonable' wage was first brought to the attention of the courts in 1907 when the owner of the Sunshine Harvester Company of Victoria applied to the Commonwealth Court for permission to sell his farm machinery without having to pay taxes on the sale. The owner, HV Mackay, had to show that he was paying his workers a fair wage to avoid paying the tax.

The judge, Justice Higgins, investigated the amount that would be needed under normal circumstances to support a family. He deemed that a minimum weekly wage of 42 shillings a week (roughly $4.20) was enough to support a man, his wife and three or four children in basic comfort. The weekly wage paid by Sunshine Harvesters was only 36 shillings a week. The idea of setting a minimum wage based on a 'living wage' rather than a worker's output was a progressive idea at this time, anywhere in the world.

Source 7.72 The minimum weekly wage from 1907 (converted from pounds [£] into dollars [$]) and prices of common items around this time

Minimum weekly wage, adult male	$4.20
Loaf of bread	$0.02
Milk (1 litre)	$0.03
Men's cotton shirt	$0.85
Women's shoes	$1.45
Rent of a three-bedroom house (per week)	$1.30
Daily newspaper	$0.01

Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act 1908

The Invalid and Old-Age Pensions Act was passed in 1908. This was in response to the growing numbers of people aged over 65 years at this time. The period 1891–1902 saw this number increase by 60 per cent. It came about in recognition of the fact that many invalids (sick or disabled people) and elderly people had no means of supporting themselves. They had worked hard to build the country, paid their taxes and they deserved some help in return.

Maternity Allowances Act 1912

In 1912, the Labor government introduced the Maternity Allowances Act. The aim was to reduce infant mortality (death) rates by improving access to medical services for pregnant women. The government also agreed to pay five pounds (£5) to the mother at the birth of every child.

This lump sum was known as the 'baby bonus' and was designed to encourage women to have more children to build a stronger Australia with a bigger white population. The 'baby bonus' was not available to Aboriginal women.

Consequences for Indigenous people and women

Under the federal Constitution in 1901, many of the rights extended to citizens of Australia were denied to its original inhabitants:

- under section 51, the Constitution specifically stated that the federal government had no power to make laws for Aborigines. This power remained in the hands of the states.
- under section 128, Aboriginal people were not to be counted in the census, effectively denying them membership of the Australian community.

The following groups had the right to vote in Australia's first federal election in March 1901: all men over the age of 21; women in South Australia and Western Australia; and Aborigines in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania (although few Aborigines exercised this right).

However, one of the earliest Acts of the new parliament was the *Commonwealth Franchise Act 1902*. This extended the vote to all Australian women over 21 and denied the vote to all Indigenous Australians. It was not until 1962 that Indigenous Australians in all states were given full voting rights.

Although women in Australia were considered in no way equal to men at this time – especially in terms of wages and property rights – under the Constitution, they now had greater political rights than women in most other parts of the world.

There had been some agitation for **suffrage** (voting rights) for women from the 1880s, and the first Women's Suffrage Society was formed in 1889. In 1894, South Australian women were granted the right to vote and the right to stand for parliament. This right was extended to women in Western Australia in 1899. Catherine Helen Spence (see Source 7.60) became the first woman in Australia (and possibly the world) to stand for political office. She stood (unsuccessfully) for a seat at the second Federal Constitutional Convention in 1897.

The federal Constitution adopted in 1901 allowed all people who already had the right to vote in their states, to exercise this right in federal elections. This meant that men and women in South Australia and Western Australia and Aborigines in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania were allowed to vote (although few Aborigines exercised this right).

Check your learning 7.20

Remember and understand

1. Explain how a basic minimum wage was established in 1907.
2. Which pieces of legislation introduced after Federation formed the basis of the White Australia Policy?
3. In your own words, describe the outcome of the Harvester Judgement of 1907. Why was this an important moment for Australians?

Apply and analyse

4. Why do you think that Chinese colonists were so enthusiastic about celebrating Federation?

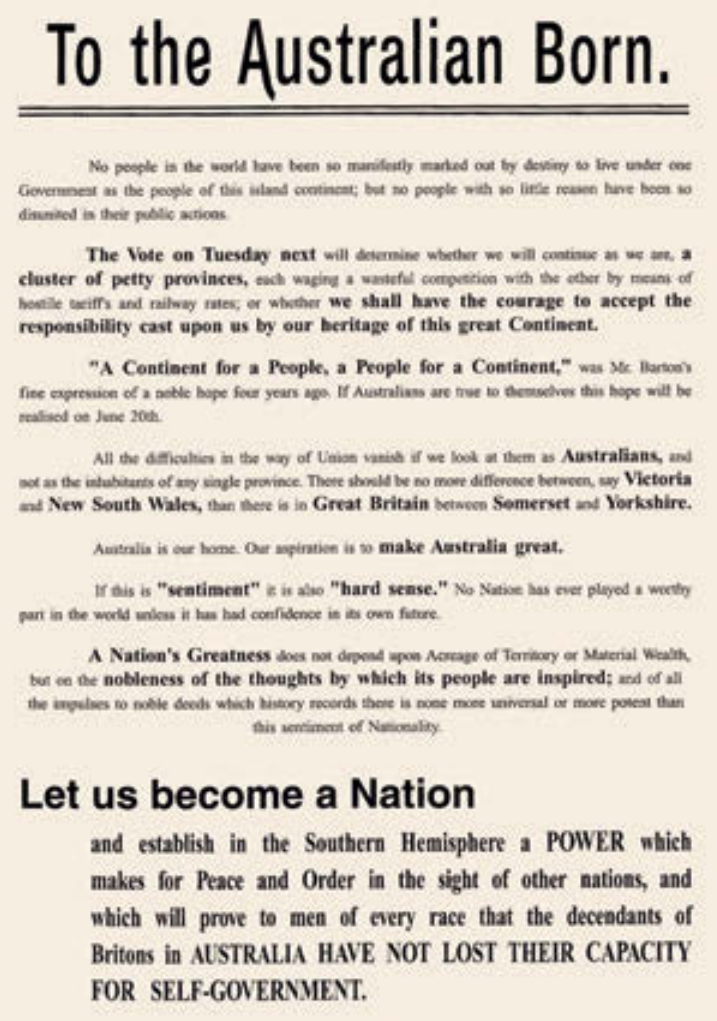
Evaluate and create

5. Women in Victoria were able to vote in federal elections from 1902. However, they could not vote in state elections until 1908. In pairs, prepare a short role-play of two minutes between a Victorian suffragette and a man opposed to extending the right to vote to women. The dialogue takes place in 1905.

7.3 big**ideas**: rich task

Arguments for and against Federation

By the end of the 1880s, the debate about whether Australia should become one nation had intensified. There was a range of arguments put forward both in favour of and in opposition to the idea of Federation.



To the Australian Born.

No people in the world have been so manifestly marked out by destiny to live under one Government as the people of this island continent; but no people with so little reason have been so disunited in their public actions.

The Vote on Tuesday next will determine whether we will continue as we are, **a cluster of petty provinces,** each waging a wasteful competition with the other by means of hostile tariffs and railway rates; or whether **we shall have the courage to accept the responsibility cast upon us by our heritage of this great Continent.**

"A Continent for a People, a People for a Continent," was Mr. Barton's fine expression of a noble hope four years ago. If Australians are true to themselves this hope will be realised on June 20th.

All the difficulties in the way of Union vanish if we look at them as **Australians,** and not as the inhabitants of any single province. There should be no more difference between, say **Victoria** and **New South Wales,** than there is in **Great Britain** between **Somerset** and **Yorkshire.**

Australia is our home. Our aspiration is to **make Australia great.**

If this is **"sentiment"** it is also **"hard sense."** No Nation has ever played a worthy part in the world unless it has had confidence in its own future.

A Nation's Greatness does not depend upon Acreage of Territory or Material Wealth, but on the **nobleness of the thoughts by which its people are inspired;** and of all the impulses to noble deeds which history records there is none more universal or more potent than this sentiment of Nationality.

Let us become a Nation

and establish in the Southern Hemisphere a POWER which makes for Peace and Order in the sight of other nations, and which will prove to men of every race that the decendants of Britons in AUSTRALIA HAVE NOT LOST THEIR CAPACITY FOR SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Source 7.73 A poster encouraging Australian-born citizens to vote for federation, 1899

Source 7.74

The great question which they had to consider was, whether the time had not now arisen for the creation on this Australian continent of an Australian Government. In other words, to make himself as plain as possible, Australia now had a population of three and a half millions, and the American people numbered only between three and four millions when they formed the great commonwealth of the United States. The numbers were about the same, and surely what the Americans had done by war, the Australians could bring about in peace …

An extract from a speech by Sir Henry Parkes at Tenterfield, reported by the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 25 October 1889

Source 7.75

Does Sir Henry Parkes forget that we already belong to the greatest and most beneficent Federation the world has ever seen – the Federation of the British Empire? Talk about the 'birth of a nation' was high-flown nonsense! What has all this talk about the United States to do with New South Wales … Queen Victoria is our Queen and Sovereign, and Ministers and people of England have been our most loving friends. Why, then, are we called upon to ignore them?

Sir John Robertson, 1890

Source 7.76

If the Australian colonies had to rely at any time solely on their own resources, they would offer such a rich and tempting prize. Isolated as Australia would be with forces which cannot be considered efficient in comparison with any moderately trained army, and without any cohesion or power of combination for mutual defence among the different colonies, its position would be one of great danger. The defence forces should at once be placed on a proper footing, but this is however quite impossible without a federation of the forces of the different colonies.

An extract from a report by Major General Edwards on Australia's defences to the New South Wales Legislative Assembly 'Votes and Proceedings', 1889

skill**drill**

Writing a historical discussion using evidence from sources that are referenced

Historians study the past to figure out what happened, why things happened, and how specific events and developments affected individuals and societies. The more we know about the past, the better we can understand how societies have evolved into what they are today.

The answers historians offer are all more or less educated guesses about the past, based on interpretations of various primary and secondary sources of information. Historians also revise earlier explanations of the past, adding new information.

Historical discussions present different opinions about particular historical questions or issues. They consider evidence from a range of sources, and outline different possible interpretations of that evidence. This involves considering not only various primary sources (such as newspapers, photographs, or political and legal documents from the period being studied), but the ideas of other historians, presented in secondary sources such as textbooks and on websites. Historical discussions conclude with the writer's own point of view on the question or issue, and include a bibliography that references all sources used in the discussion.

The table summarises the structure of a written discussion:

Introduction	• Introduces the topic, question or issue • Outlines why the topic, question or issue is important
Main body	• A series of paragraphs which outline different arguments or opinions about the topic, question or issue • Each opinion or argument that is presented should also refer to the evidence which supports it
Conclusion	• Sums up the issue and gives the writer's opinion

Any sources that you have used in your written discussion must be referenced. First, you need to mention in your writing where information is coming from. Some examples of how you can do this include:

- 'According to the historian John Hirst …'
- 'The depiction of life in the Australian bush in Hans Heysen's paintings during the late 1800s shows that … '.

You then need to include any sources you have referred to in your discussion in a bibliography. When citing a book in a bibliography, include the following information, in this order:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s)
- Year of publication
- Title of book (in italics)
- Edition (if relevant)
- Publisher
- Place of publication
- Page number(s).

Example:

Easton, M and Carrodus, G, 2014, *Oxford Big Ideas Australian Curriculum Geography/History 9,* Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.

When citing an online source in a bibliography, include the following information, if available:

- Author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
- Year of publication or date of web page (last update)
- Title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
- Organisation name (if different from above)
- Date you accessed the site
- URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets.

Example:

Bennett, S, 2001 'Australian Federation', *Australian Bureau of Statistics,* accessed 30 March 2013 <www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf>

Apply the skill

1 Write a discussion outlining the arguments for and against Australian federation in the late 1800s. Use the information and sources in this section, but you will also need to conduct further research to locate a range of primary and secondary sources that provide evidence for or against federation. Make sure you include a bibliography that references all your sources.

Extend your understanding

1 What influences do you think might have made native-born Australians more likely to support federation than people born overseas?

2 Prepare a poster designed to encourage colonists to vote for federation in the 1899 referendum. It should appeal to national identity and at least two other influences on federation.

3 Why was the defence of the colonies used as an argument in favour of federation?

What were the key events of World War I?

Depth study 3
World War I

This depth study is core. It must be completed by ALL students.

World War I was a global conflict that has played a key role in defining world history in the 20th century. A study of Australia's involvement in World War I is important because it helps us to better understand Australian **society** and the wider world in which we live today. Many of the conflicts, attitudes, prejudices and grievances that make the international news today can still be traced to the effects of World War I.

World War I fundamentally changed many aspects of Australian government and society. Our country's involvement in World War I also played an important part in the development of our idea of Australia as a nation, and our place in the world. Knowing about the history of Australia at war helps us to gain a clearer understanding about the world beyond our shores, and about how our own history, national character and identity developed. It can also be argued that a historical study of the causes of World War I is important in a world where there are weapons capable of mass death and destruction. Understanding how wars begin may be one of the keys to preventing them.

In *Depth study 3 – World War I* you have the opportunity to learn in detail about:

- the main causes of the war and the reasons why men enlisted to fight
- the places where Australians fought and the nature of warfare (including the Gallipoli campaign)
- the impact that the war had on Australia and the world (including the changing role of women and the **conscription** debate)
- the ways in which the war is commemorated (including debates about the nature and significance of the Anzac legend).

World War I was a horrific experience for those involved. The statistics are damning. It is estimated that 10 million people were killed and 20 million wounded as a result of actual combat. Although official statistics vary, most countries involved suffered horrendous losses. There are also civilian casualties to be taken into consideration. Australia lost over 50 000 men, a huge toll in a population of 4.5 million, it meant over 1 per cent of the population were victims of the war.

A study of World War I can sometimes be overwhelming given the complexity of the events and number of countries involved. The following tables provide a quick reference to some of the main issues and events of World War I and Australia's involvement in them. They provide an overview and summary of all content within the depth study and can be used to help you navigate the topic and guide your understanding of key points.



Source O.22 New weaponry such as machine guns and poisonous gas changed the nature of warfare from previous wars.

overview 3

An overview of the causes of World War I, why men enlisted and where Australians fought		
Causes of World War I	See section 8.1	• Long-term factors contributing to the outbreak of conflict in 1914, including nationalism, rivalry over colonies, the arms race in Europe, Europe's alliance system and military plans • Events leading to war after the 'July crisis', which followed the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand
Where was World War I fought?	See section 8.2	• Major campaigns involving Australian forces: Gallipoli campaign (Turkey) 1915; campaigns on the Western Front (France and Belgium) 1916–1918; campaigns in the Middle East 1916–1918
Australia's entry into World War I	See section 8.1	• Varied reasons motivated men to enlist, including loyalty to Britain, spirit of adventure, experience of war unknown to most Australians

An overview of significant campaigns and the scope and nature of warfare		
The Gallipoli campaign	See section 8.2	• Landing of troops at Anzac Cove on 25 April 1915 • Attacks and counter attacks by ANZAC and Turkish soldiers over 8 months, including fighting at Lone Pine and the Nek • Withdrawal of ANZAC troops in December 1915
The Western Front	See section 8.2	• Defensive warfare using machine-guns, trenches and barbed wire. • Series of attacks and counter-attacks using artillery fire, then infantry charges involving close fighting with rifles, bayonets and grenades • Appalling conditions for soldiers living in the trenches
The nature of warfare in World War I	See section 8.2	• Theatres of war in WWI: the Middle East, the Western Front and the Eastern Front in Europe, the North Sea, Turkey, northern Africa • New weapons technology – machine guns, heavy artillery, poison gas, tanks, planes and Zeppelin airships • New communications technology – telephone, wireless radio • Both sides evenly matched, resulting in stalemate on the Western front

An overview of the impact of the wars on Australia at home		
The conscription debate	See section 8.3	• During WWI, a decline in enlistments and heavy casualties on the Western Front caused Prime Minister Billy Hughes to call for two plebicites (public votes) on conscription in 1916 and 1917, with both resulting in a majority of 'no' votes (see Sources 8.65 and 8.66) • The conscription debate was a hugely divisive issue in Australian society
Use of government propaganda	See section 8.3	• During WWI, the government issued pro-conscription and anti-German propaganda, including flyers and posters. Propaganda was designed to glorify the efforts of Australian soldiers overseas, maintain public anger towards the enemy, motivate people to join the war effort and regulate their behaviour
Changing roles of women	See section 8.3	• During WWI, women moved into previously male occupations to support the war effort, with an expectation they would return to domestic roles and traditional occupations after the war
Internment of 'enemy aliens'	See section 8.3	• During WWI, people with German backgrounds or born in countries at war with Australia were interned (imprisoned) in remote camps to isolate them from the general public
War-time controls and censorship	See section 8.3	• During WWI, extension of Commonwealth powers allowed the government to collect income tax, censor media and communications, control the movement of 'enemy aliens', among other war-time controls
Participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples	See section 8.1	• During WWI, Indigenous Australians attempting to enlist were initially turned away, but by 1916 changes were made so that 'half-castes' could enlist. Over 400 Indigenous Australians fought in the army, although at this time they could not vote and were not counted as Australian citizens



Source O.23 Tins of Fray Bento and Heinz eaten by soldiers during World War I

Check your learning O.7

Remember and understand

1 How many Australian men died during World War I?

2 In your words, define the term 'conscription'. Why was the conscription debate in Australia so divisive?

Apply and analyse

3 What is propaganda and why was it used by the Australian government during World War I?

Evaluate and create

4 Search the Internet to find examples of Australian propaganda from World War I designed to achieve the following goals:
- regulate the day-to-day behaviour of civilians
- maintain public anger towards the enemy
- motivate people to join the war effort.

What was the significance of World War I?

World War I left Europe devastated. In January 1919, the victorious nations met at the Paris Peace Conference in France to come up with a plan for rebuilding Europe and ensuring peace in the future. After months of negotiations, the **Treaty of Versailles** was signed on 28 June 1919. This document officially ended World War I and forced Germany to accept responsibility for starting the conflict. It also ordered Germany to pay **reparations** to the Allied Powers.

As a result of the war, the map of Europe was redrawn. Four major European empires – the Austria–Hungary, the Russian Empire, the German Empire and the Ottoman Empire – were broken up and a number of new countries were created in their place. The ruling monarchies of these empires all lost power. The Russian Tsar was overthrown by a communist revolution in 1917; Austria–Hungary was broken up into a number of newly-formed states including Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia; and Turkey emerged as a modern, secular republic after the break-up of the Ottoman Empire.

However, World War I was not only a historically significant event in Europe. Far way in Australia, the events and experiences of the war had major effects on our nation's society and relationships with other countries. Australia had become a nation after Federation in 1901. Unlike many other countries, such as the United States and France, the founding of the Australian nation was achieved without the need for revolution. Instead, the Australian people created a nation founded on the principles of modern democracy through peaceful means. The events of World War I such as the ill-fated invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula in 1915, are often described our 'coming of age' as a nation and our 'baptism of blood'. In many ways, World War I provided an opportunity to create a national story that expressed our national character and identity.



Source O.24 Parade of Australian soldiers at the trenches on the Western Front, following capture of Pozières on 23 July 1916.

An overview of the significance of the wars to Australia		
Impact of the wars on returned soldiers and civilians	See section 8.4	• Over 300 000 Australians served overseas during WWI, with around a quarter of a million servicemen returning to Australia at the end of the war. Many returned with physical or psychological injuries. Their care and families' financial responsibilities fell on women in the community. The government established a Repatriation Department in 1917 to provide health, compensation, housing and job training for veterans
Commemorating the war	See section 8.4	• Commemoration services on Anzac Day and Remembrance Day both linked to WWI • Aspects of commemoration services still linked to WWI
Different perspectives on the ANZAC legend	See section 8.4	• The birth of the ANZAC legend and its significance today • Differing perspectives on the place of Gallipoli in defining Australia's national identity • Differing views on what Australia should most celebrate



Source O.25 An Anzac Day parade, commemorating Australian soldiers who fought in World War I and all wars since

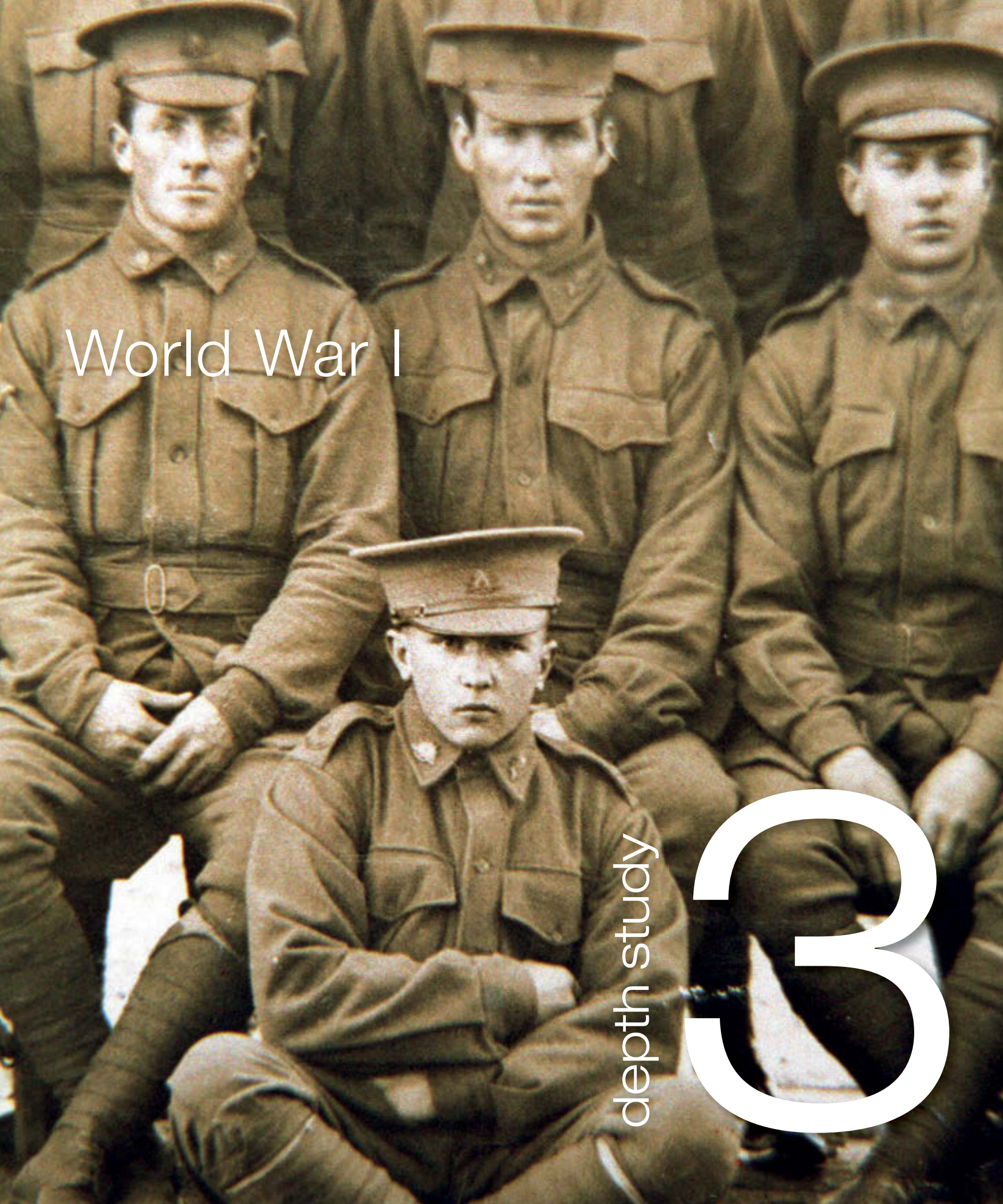
Check your learning O.8

Remember and understand

1 What European empires disappeared after World War I?
2 Why do so many Australians regard the Gallipoli campaign as a significant event?
3 What is the Treaty of Versailles?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think the Gallipoli campaign has been described as Australia's 'coming of age' and 'baptism of blood'? Do you think these descriptions are accurate? Justify your response.



World War I

depth study 3

depth study – core

World War I

World War I is often called 'the Great War', 'the first modern war' or 'the war to end all wars'. It was the first war in which modern machine guns, chemical weapons, tanks, fighter aircraft and submarines were used to cause devastation on a global scale. Regardless of what it is called, the events of World War I destroyed entire cities and towns and took the lives of millions of soldiers and civilians.

At the end of World War I, the map of Europe was redrawn. Once powerful **empires** were broken up and new nations were created in their place. The war also tested Australia's commitment to Great Britain. Although Australia displayed a strong sense of loyalty to Britain by committing troops and resources, the Australian public was divided over the issue of **conscription**.

Today, the sacrifice of those who fought and died in World War I is commemorated in many nations around the world – including Australia.

8.1

What were the causes of World War I?

1 There were a number of short-term and long-term factors that led to the outbreak of World War I in 1914. Make some predictions about what some of these might have been.

8.2

How and where was World War I fought?

1 During World War I, there were major developments in warfare and weaponry. Much of this new technology was blamed for extending the war. Why do you think this might have been?



chapter 8

Source 8.1 Trench warfare was a major part of the fighting that took place across Europe during World War I. This photograph shows the remains of a fallen soldier photographed in the trenches during World War I. It illustrates the horror of daily life in the trenches for soldiers on both sides.

8.3

What was the impact of World War I on Australia?

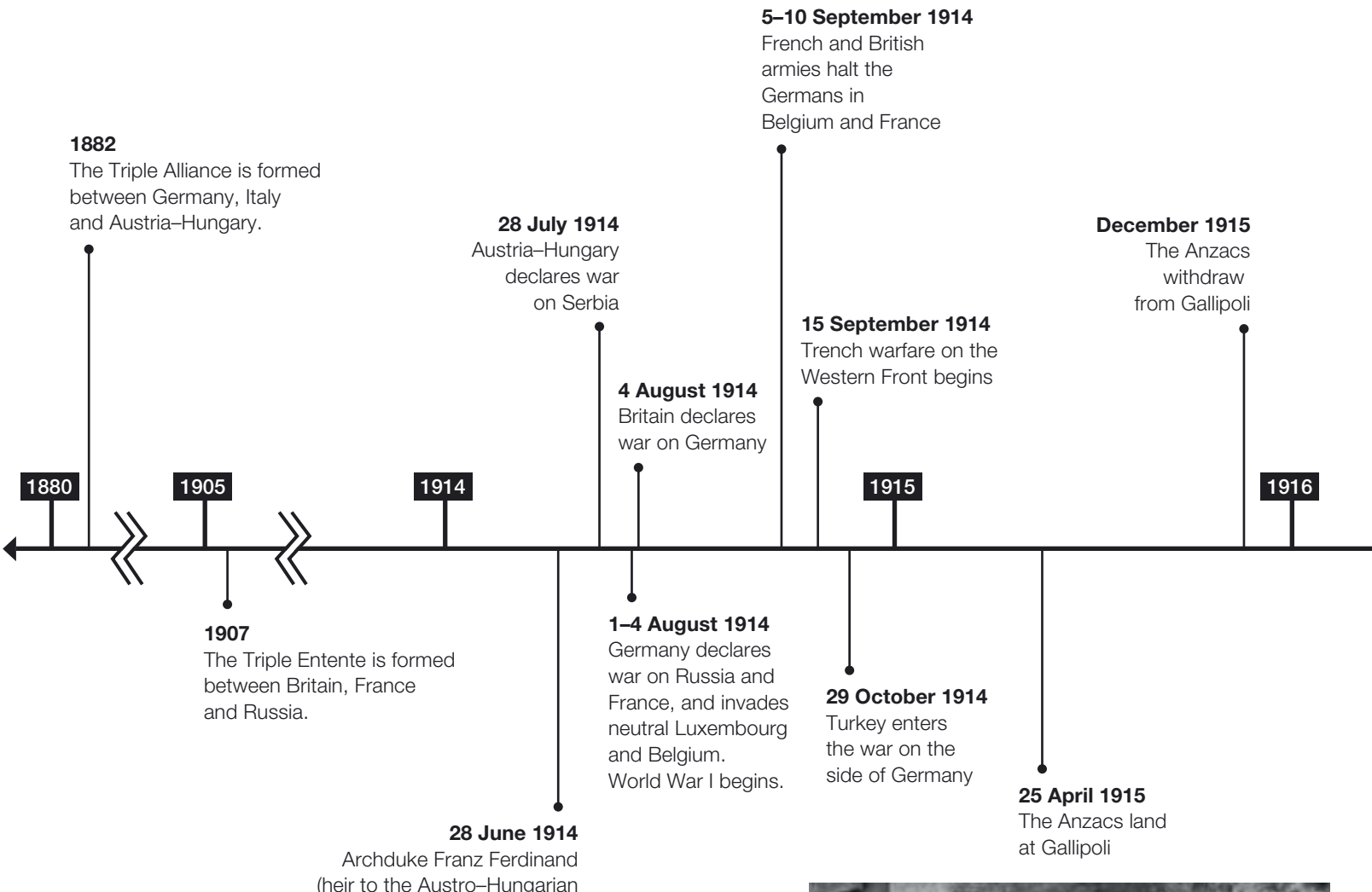
1 World War I had a significant impact on people at home in Australia, especially for women and people of German background. Explain why and how the war might have affected these two groups of people in particular.

8.4

How is World War I remembered and commemorated?

1 It has been argued that wars are essential to a nation's development and sense of national identity. Do you believe this is true? Discuss your ideas as a class, making reference to the way in which World War I is commemorated each year.

World War I: a timeline





Franz Ferdinand, Archduke of Austria



Australian soldiers at Gallipoli

Source 8.2 A timeline of key events leading up to, during and immediately after WWI.

A key moment in the Russian Revolution; the storming of the Winter Palace in 1917





The signing of the Armistice between the Allies and Germany in a railway carriage in the French forest of Compiègne on 11 November 1918

March 1916
The Australian Imperial Force (AIF) joins the fight against Germany on the Western Front

July–November 1916
The Battle of the Somme; tanks are used for the first time

28 October 1916
The first referendum on conscription is held in Australia

1917

April 1917
The USA enters the war

1917
Fighting continues on the Western Front. Battles are fought at Passchendaele, Ypres, Pozières and Bullecourt.

October 1917
Communist revolution in Russia

March 1918
The Ludendorff Offensive begins – a final attempt by Germany to break through the Allied lines and win the war

April 1918
Australian troops recapture the town of Villers-Bretonneux in France – costing the lives of around 1200 Australian troops

1918

July 1918
The Battle of Le Hamel

8 August 1918
The Battle of Amiens begins. This day will later come to be known as the 'Black Day for the German army'

11 November 1918
The Armistice (ceasefire) is signed; end of World War I

1919

January–June 1919
The Paris Peace Conference is held to decide the fate of Germany; the Treaty of Versailles is drawn up

Check your learning 8.1

Remember and understand

1 When did Britain declare war on Germany?
2 When did the USA enter the war?
3 On what day did World War I end?

Apply and analyse

4 Using the timeline, calculate how long the Gallipoli campaign lasted.
5 Conduct some research to discover why 8 August 1918 became known as the 'Black Day for the German Army'.

8.1 What were the causes of World War I?

Background to World War I



Source 8.3 An English recruitment poster from World War I

The outbreak of World War I in 1914 was the result of a complex interaction of tensions that had been building between countries in Europe for more than 20 years. National rivalries, jealousies over territory, competition over economic progress, competition over the size of armies and navies, and the race to colonise new parts of the world all contributed to the tension.

The last major war in Europe (the Franco–Prussian War) was fought between France and a number of independent German kingdoms. The war ended in 1871 when the French were defeated. As a result of their victory, the German states unified to form the German Empire (Germany). After unification, Germany attempted to limit France's power and secure its place in European politics by developing a system of alliances with other countries across Europe. This system changed the way in which many European countries interacted with each other and resulted in the development of two major alliances. All of the most powerful European countries belonged to one or the other of these alliances. These countries believed that their alliances would act as a deterrent to war because if a member of one alliance was attacked by a member of the other alliance, all the members of both alliances would have to become involved. This became known as 'balance of power' politics.

Europe in the lead-up to war

In 1901, the situation in Europe appeared peaceful. Queen Victoria had occupied the British throne for over 60 years and many of her relations and descendants had married into royal houses all over Europe (see Source 8.4). As a result, many of the royal families of Europe were closely related. Tsar Nicholas II of Russia, Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany and King George V were all first cousins (see Source 8.5). The wife of Tsar Nicholas II was also one of Queen Victoria's granddaughters.

In the lead-up to World War I, it seemed unlikely that close relations would become involved in armed conflict – let alone fight on opposing sides.

Europe seemed prosperous during this time. The **Industrial Revolution** had transformed Western Europe, with new production methods and advances in technology affecting almost every sector of society. Governments had made improvements in health care, sanitation and assistance for the poor. Roads, canals and railways were making trade and transport cheaper and more accessible. Literacy levels were also rising. On the whole, members of the middle classes across Europe had fought for greater political rights and now enjoyed a higher standard of living. The working classes had also won some basic rights, such as the right to vote in Britain after 1867.

However, this prosperity masked both international and domestic tensions. Despite their close family ties and relationships, there were jealousies among many of the

royal families in Europe. Issues such as the different rates of economic progress, the size of colonial empires and the development of weapons, armies and ships all caused rivalry between major European nations. For example, the rate of economic progress and improvements in the standard of living was unevenly spread across Europe. The Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries led to many advances in Britain and Germany, but had little impact on the nations of Eastern Europe such as Austria–Hungary, the Balkan states and Russia. This contributed further to the rivalry between nations. Even in industrialised nations like Britain and Germany there was a huge gap between rich and poor. Many working-class families lived in cramped, unsanitary conditions or in urban slums. Women were still not allowed to vote in Europe, and new political movements divided people along class and ethnic lines. Many governments and people were afraid of the rising influence of radical political movements like **socialism** and **anarchism**.

So although Europe seemed to be peaceful before World War I, these rivalries and tensions bubbled away beneath the surface.



Source 8.4 Queen Victoria (seated front centre) photographed with members of her extended family in 1894. Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany is seated front left.



Source 8.5 Tsar Nicholas II of Russia with his cousin King George V of England – their mothers were sisters.

Check your learning 8.2

Remember and understand

1. Which country was responsible for developing a system of alliances in the 1870s?
2. Why did European countries at the time believe that these alliances would help to prevent war?
3. Explain how it was that so many of Europe's royal families were related.

Apply and analyse

4. How would you summarise the social and political situation in Europe around 1900? Explain your answer.

Evaluate and create

5. Conduct some research into the meanings of socialism and anarchism. Why do you think governments in the early 1900s would have been afraid of the growing influence of these movements?

Causes of World War I

There were four main factors that contributed to the growing tensions between European countries in the lead-up, to World War I including:

- the alliance system
- nationalism
- imperialism
- militarism.

The alliance system

One of the key factors that led to the outbreak of World War I was the **alliance system**. From the 1870s onwards, Europe's leading nations grouped themselves into two alliances. Over time, these alliances became more formal and legally binding. In 1882, the **Triple Alliance** was formed between the countries of Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy. In 1907, the **Triple Entente** was formed between the countries of Britain, France and Russia (see Source 8.7). *Entente* is a French word meaning an 'understanding' or 'alliance'. By joining one of these alliances, each participating nation promised to provide military support if one of its members was attacked by a member of the opposing alliance.

Ironically, one of the main goals of the alliance system was actually to prevent the outbreak of war. It was assumed that no single country would go to war against another if there was a risk that a small conflict between two nations could easily build into a large conflict between many countries.

Unfortunately, the alliance system had the opposite effect (see Source 8.8) and over time these alliances increased the tension between Triple Alliance and Triple Entente countries.

In addition to the key countries shown in Source 8.6, many other countries, colonies and territories around the world were drawn into the alliance system (see Source 8.7). For example, all British colonies (such as India) and dominions (such as Australia and New Zealand) automatically became part of the Triple Entente. Japan had signed a treaty with Britain in 1902 that also meant that

EUROPE: BEFORE THE OUTBREAK OF WORLD WAR I



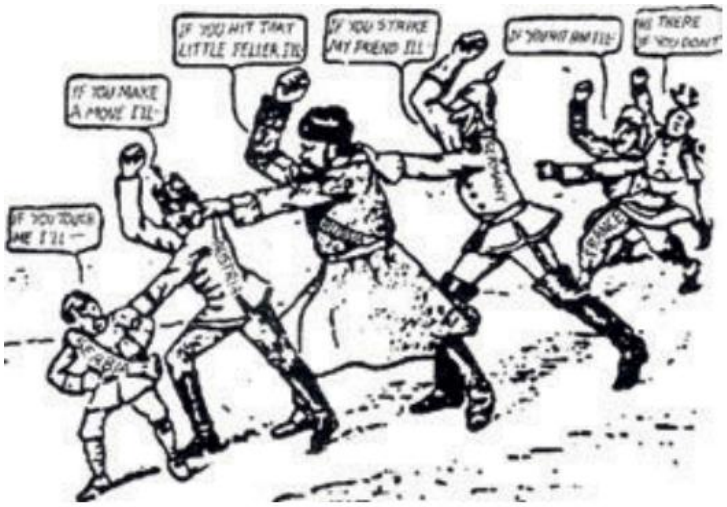
Source 8.6 Source: Oxford University Press

EUROPE: DEVELOPMENT OF ALLIANCES 1879–1907



Source 8.7 Source: Oxford University Press

they could all be drawn into war if a conflict broke out in Europe. Bosnia–Herzegovina was also considered a member of the Triple Entente because Russia was a key supporter of Bosnia–Herzegovina's bid for independence from Austria–Hungary. A conflict between Bosnia–Herzegovina and Austria–Hungary would therefore become a conflict between all the countries that were members of the two alliances.



Source 8.8 This cartoon illustrates how World War I escalated as a result of the alliance system.

Nationalism

Nationalism was another important factor that contributed to the outbreak of war in 1914. Put simply, nationalism is a sense of pride in, and a love of, one's nation. Nationalism grows out of an understanding of common goals and beliefs between the people of a nation – for example, a shared language, culture and history. In Europe, nationalism played an important role in the lead-up to World War I.

Nationalism can either unite or divide the people of a nation or region. For example, feelings of nationalism contributed to the unification of many small German kingdom states to form the German Empire (Germany) in 1871. A sense of nationalism also encouraged cooperation between Germany and Austria–Hungary, because German-language speakers ruled both empires.

However, Austria–Hungary was not only made up of people who thought of themselves as Germans and spoke the German language; it was also made up of many other ethnic and language groups, such as Hungarians, Serbians and Bosnians.

From around 1900 onwards, a number of ethnic groups began fighting for independence from Austria–Hungary. One region attempting to assert its independence was Bosnia–Herzegovina, an area in south-eastern Europe known as the Balkans (see Source 8.14). In the years before World War I, Bosnia–Herzegovina was under the control of Austria–Hungary. However, Bosnia–Herzegovina was made up of many different ethnic groups, including Bosnians, Serbs and Croats, who did not see themselves as historically, ethnically or culturally linked to either Austria or Hungary. Instead, most of the people of Bosnia–Herzegovina wanted to join with Serbia to form their own nation.

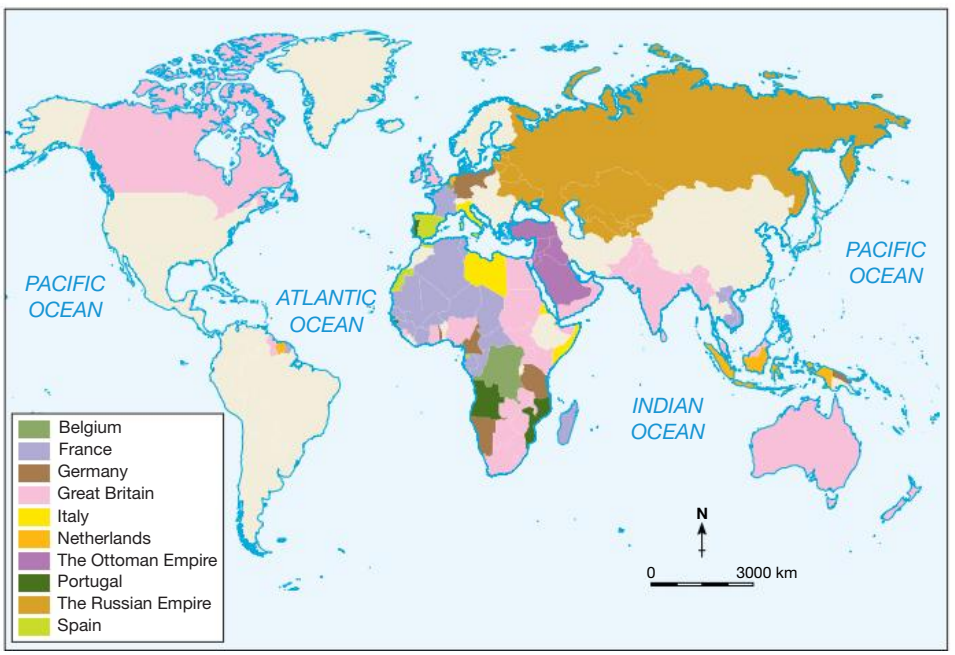
Russia had been supporting moves by Bosnia–Herzegovina to become independent and unite with Serbia, so when a Serbian youth was accused of assassinating Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria in 1914, Russia was drawn into the conflict that followed.

Imperialism

Another factor that led to tensions between European countries in the lead-up to World War I was **imperialism**. Imperialism is a policy by which a country increases its power by gaining control over new territories to create an empire. This is usually carried out for financial and strategic reasons.

European powers, such as Britain, Spain, France and Portugal had been building empires around the world since the 15th century. Since that time they had claimed new territories and colonised much of North and South America, Australia and parts of Asia (see Source 8.9). By the late 19th century,

WORLD: EUROPEAN EMPIRES BY 1914



Source 8.9 Source: Oxford University Press

European nations were engaged in a new wave of imperialism. This time, they competed to be the first to claim new territories across Africa. Historians often refer to this period as the 'scramble for Africa'.

The main rivals in the race for new colonies in Africa were Britain, France and Germany. At this time, Britain had the largest empire, with **colonies** and **dominions** (such as Australia) all over the world. France also had many colonies around the world. Germany, however, had only been a unified nation since 1871 and was still trying to build a large colonial empire in order to compete with France and Britain. In 1905, and again in 1911, Kaiser Wilhelm (William) II, the ruler of Germany, attempted to block further colonial expansion by France. He did this by sending German troops to take control of a number of French colonies in North Africa. In both cases, France, with Britain's support, resisted Germany's attacks, resulting in the defeat of Germany. Once again, these events escalated the tension between major European powers.

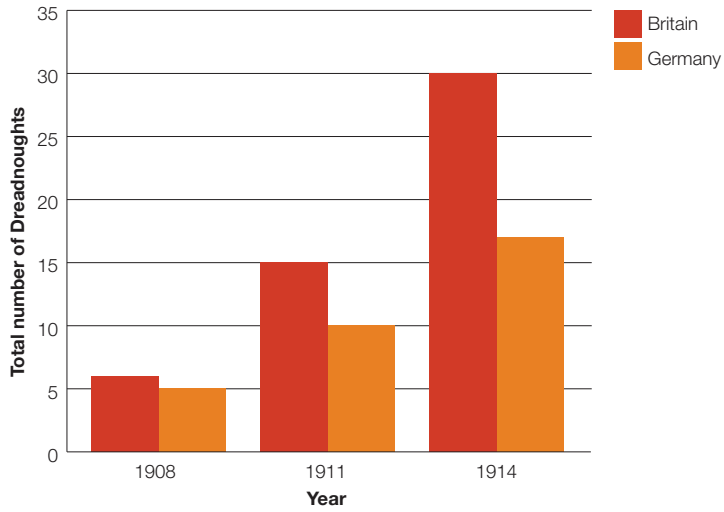
Militarism

Militarism is the belief that all nations should build and maintain strong armed forces so that they are prepared to defend themselves against attack or promote their national interests. In the lead up to World War I, many European countries competed with each other not only over the size of their empires, but also over the size of their armies. Between 1870 and 1914, military spending in many European countries increased on average by about 300 per cent. After 1871, all the major European nations except Britain also introduced **conscription**, which meant that all men over the age of 18 were forced to serve a minimum period in the armed forces such as the army or navy.

Source 8.10 Military spending and soldier numbers of key European powers, 1913–1914

Country	Size of population (millions)	Military spending (US $ millions)	Soldier numbers (millions)
Germany	67	60	8.25
Britain	45.8	50	0.75
France	39.6	40	1.5
Austria–Hungary	52.8	22.5	0.65
Russia	139	15.5	1.25
Italy	35.5	10	0.75

By 1900, Britain had developed the largest and strongest navy in the world. It needed a navy of this size to administer and control its huge overseas empire. When Germany started to build up its own navy, Britain became suspicious. Germany and Britain began competing over who could build the most 'Dreadnoughts' – a very fast, powerful and heavily–armoured battleship (see Source 8.12). By early 1914, even though the leaders of Europe were still talking of peace, they were clearly involved in an arms race and were preparing for war.



Source 8.11 Graph comparing the growth in numbers of Dreadnoughts held by the British and German navies in the lead-up to World War I



Source 8.12 A picture taken of the Royal Navy's HMS *Dreadnought*. It made such an impact when introduced in 1906, that all battleships built after that time became known as 'Dreadnoughts'.

key**concept:** cause and effect

The road to war

In the case of many historical events – and particularly when it comes to world wars – it is difficult to distinguish between causes and effects. This is illustrated by the factors that contributed to the outbreak of World War I. For example, although the alliance system was designed to prevent attacks by members of one alliance against members of the other alliance – a sort of 'insurance policy' against war – the reality is that these alliances actually contributed to the outbreak of war. When a dispute developed between Austria–Hungary and Russia following the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand in 1914, all six major powers (and their empires) were immediately drawn into the conflict.

The same applies to the process of militarism. Fear of war prompted many nations, particularly Britain and Germany, to build up their armies and navies. However, the rivalry caused by this arms race actually increased the likelihood of war.

In the case of both of these factors it is difficult to pinpoint clearly defined causes and effects. Certain events can be considered both causes and effects depending on who you ask. Nevertheless, the concept of cause and effect is a great tool for historians to use when thinking about events in the past.

For more information on the key concept of cause and effect refer to section HT.2 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.13 This German cartoon titled 'Map of Europe 1914' by W Trier, satirises the political and military situation in Europe at the beginning of World War I. It is also a good illustration of the complexities historians face when attempting to separate causes from effects.

Check your learning 8.3

Remember and understand

1 Define the following terms in your own words:
   - a imperialism
   - b nationalism
   - c the alliance system.

2 What were the two major alliances formed before World War I? Which countries were the members of the two alliances?

3 Why was Germany's colonial empire so much smaller than Britain's in the lead up to World War I?

Apply and analyse

4 Using Sources 8.10 and 8.11, explain what is meant by the term 'arms race'. Explain the possible reasons why major European powers began to increase the size of their armed forces between 1900 and 1914.

Evaluate and create

5 Do you think an arms race necessarily means that war is likely? Give reasons for your answer.

The outbreak of World War I

The event that finally triggered the outbreak of World War I in 1914 took place in the Balkan states. The Balkans is an area of south-eastern Europe made up of countries such as Romania, Serbia, Greece, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Bulgaria (see Source 8.15). The Balkan states were politically very unstable in the lead up to World War I. Three major imperial powers were actively involved in the region: Austria–Hungary, the Russian Empire and the Ottoman (Turkish) Empire.

The complex relationships between these powers made the Balkans a potential crisis point. Austria–Hungary controlled parts of the Balkans. In 1908 Austria–Hungary annexed (took control of) Bosnia–Herzegovina. Different ethnic groups in Bosnia–Herzegovina, such as the Serbs, did not see themselves as either Austrian or Hungarian and wanted to join together to form their own nation. They began a nationalist movement and began protesting to achieve independence from Austria–Hungary. The Russian Empire supported the Serbian nationalists because they wanted Bosnia–Herzegovina to become part of Serbia.

The emperor of Austria–Hungary was aware of this growing tension in the Balkans. Believing that the people of Bosnia–Herzegovina would be charmed and won over by a royal visit, he sent his nephew, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and the Archduke's wife Sophie, on a goodwill visit to the city of Sarajevo. On 28 June 1914, while many people lined the streets to welcome the royal couple, a Serb nationalist by the name of Gavrilo Princip took the opportunity to show his feelings towards their imperial rulers. During the parade, he shot and killed the Archduke and his wife (see Source 8.16).

EUROPE: 1914



Source 8.14 Source: Oxford University Press

DETAIL OF THE BALKAN STATES IN 1914



Source 8.15 Source: Oxford University Press



Source 8.16 An artist's impression of the **assassination** of the Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife in Sarajevo

The 'July Crisis' and declarations of war

From that point on, the results of a single event in the Balkan region of south-eastern Europe escalated into a European war. The key to the spread of the conflict was the complex alliance system that developed in Europe between the 1870s and 1907.

Immediately after the assassination, Austria–Hungary blamed the government of neighbouring Serbia. The following month was a confusing and frantic period of bluff, threats and negotiations between key European powers that became known as the 'July Crisis'. The Austrians issued a series of 10 harsh demands to Serbia. Serbia agreed to nine of the demands, but to accept all would have meant that Serbia lost any real independence, so negotiations broke down.

Exactly one month after the assassination, Austria–Hungary declared war on Serbia. The next day, Serbia turned to its ally Russia for support. Russia was also a Slavic nation and promised to protect Serbia against Austria–Hungary and its ally in the Triple Alliance, Germany. Russia then began preparing its army for war. On 31 July, Germany demanded that Russia stop these preparations. When Russia did not respond, Germany declared war. At the same time, the Germans also asked the French government what its intentions were. France issued a vague response, stating that it would 'follow its own interests'. In reality though, France was obligated to support its ally Russia as both were members of the Triple Entente.

The Schlieffen Plan and the invasion of Belgium

At this point, Germany was faced with hostile forces preparing for war on both its Eastern and Western borders. This was a threat that Germany had feared ever since France and Russia became members of the Triple Entente in 1907. The German response was to use a special military plan devised by a military strategist called Alfred von Schlieffen. It became known as the Schlieffen Plan. The Schlieffen Plan called for German troops to launch an all-out attack on France by passing through neutral Belgium. The aim was that the French forces could be defeated before the huge Russian army was ready to go to war. That way, Germany would not have to fight France and Russia at once. Instead, with France defeated, it was thought that Germany could concentrate solely on fighting Russia. The Schlieffen Plan was based on the following assumptions:

- Russia would take at least six weeks to get its army ready for war
- France would be easily defeated in six weeks
- Belgium would not resist any German attack
- Britain would remain neutral.

The main problem with the Schlieffen Plan was that it violated Belgium's neutrality. Britain had signed a treaty with Belgium in 1839 guaranteeing to come to its defence if another country attempted to invade its borders. As a result, the German invasion of Belgium forced Britain to become involved in the growing conflict.

Source 8.17

Key dates in the lead-up to World War I	
28 June 1914	Assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand
23 July 1914	Austria–Hungary presents 10 demands to Serbia
25 July 1914	Serbia agrees to only nine of the 10 demands
28 July 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Serbia
29 July 1914	Russia promises support for Serbia
1 August 1914	Germany declares war on Russia
3 August 1914	Germany declares war on France and invades Belgium
4 August 1914	Britain declares war on Germany (Australia becomes involved)
6 August 1914	Austria–Hungary declares war on Russia
23 August 1914	Japan (an ally of Britain) declares war on Germany
29 October 1914	Turkey enters the war on the side of Germany
23 May 1915	Italy enters the war on the side of the Triple Entente

The war escalates

On 3 August 1914, British Prime Minister Herbert Asquith and Foreign Secretary Sir Edward Grey sent a message to the German government announcing that Britain would declare war if Germany did not withdraw its troops from Belgium by midnight. There was no response to the message, so on 4 August 1914, Britain and its empire found itself at war with Germany.

Italy was also a member of the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria–Hungary. It was expected that Italy would join the war on their side. However, under the wording of the Triple Alliance, members were not to support each other if one had been the aggressor. Italy used this clause to remain neutral at the start of the war and to switch to the Triple Entente in May 1915.

Turkey entered the war on the side of the Triple Alliance in October 1914. It was against Turkey that Australia's first land battles took place. The USA also came into the war, on the side of the Triple Entente (or Allies), in April 1917 after German submarine attacks on passenger ships resulted in the deaths of hundreds of American civilians.

key**concept:** contestability

The Schlieffen Plan

Historical events can become contestable with the release of new sources of information. The Schlieffen Plan is a good example of this because it has become the accepted explanation of German tactics in 1914. More recently, however, historians like Terence Zuber have used material released from German archives after the fall of the Berlin Wall to challenge this view. They argue that the 1905 Schlieffen Plan was not a practical war plan, but actually a theoretical training exercise. This argument is based on inconsistencies between the 1905 Schlieffen Plan and the German mobilisation plans implemented in 1914.

Zuber points out that the Schlieffen Plan was for a war against France on a single front, yet in 1914 Germany was planning for a war against France and Russia. The actual document outlining the Schlieffen Plan was also in the possession of Alfred von Schlieffen's daughters in 1914, rather than with the military.

Historians have to be prepared to accept the emergence of new evidence that challenges accepted beliefs. The Schlieffen Plan has long been accepted as fact, but as Zuber argues, it can now be regarded as contestable.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Check your learning 8.4

Remember and understand

1. Which European power took control over Bosnia–Herzegovina in 1908?
2. Which Balkan state believed that Bosnia–Herzegovina should break away from Austria–Hungary and join it? Why did Russia support this move?
3. Why did the Archduke Franz Ferdinand and his wife tour Sarajevo?
4. Why did Serbia refuse to comply with the last of 10 demands issued by Austria–Hungary after the assassination?
5. What was the event that involved Britain in the war in Europe?

Apply and analyse

6. Explain why there is now historical debate surrounding the importance of the Schlieffen Plan in understanding Germany's actions at the start of World War I?

Evaluate and create

7. Use the information provided to construct a flow chart that clearly explains the key events that lead to the outbreak of World War I in 1914.
8. Using the Internet conduct research about the difference between the 1905 Schlieffen Plan and the plans used by Germany in 1914. Put this information into a table to compare the two plans.

Australia's entry into World War I

Before the outbreak of World War I, Europe had been relatively peaceful for over 40 years. The last major war (the Franco–Prussian War) had been fought in 1871, meaning that a whole generation of young men and women across Europe had grown up with no real experience of war. The same was true of Australia. Apart from a small number of soldiers who had fought for Britain in Africa during the late 1800s, Australians had no experience of war and had little understanding of what it meant.

Largely as a result of this inexperience, there was a perception that war was glorious, exciting and heroic. Young people, especially boys, were brought up on military stories and were taught military drills in school. In these stories, the heroes were rarely wounded or killed; they won their battles effortlessly, and the drills taught them to obey orders and work together. This idealistic outlook on war and military involvment encouraged a romantic view of military action.

The great adventure

When World War I began in 1914, Australia had been a single, federated (united) country for only 13 years. Although Australia was a self-governing country, it was still a **dominion** of the British Empire and was obliged to follow the instructions of Britain in many areas of government. As a result, when Britain declared war on Germany Australia automatically became involved, as did all other countries that were part of the British Empire.

In Australia, a wave of enthusiasm for the war effort swept the country. The men of Australia rushed to enlist in the Australian Imperial Force (AIF). According to legend, many were concerned that the war might end before they got to Europe. The Australian government initially promised to supply 20000 men to the British war effort by the end of 1914 – in reality, the number of men enlisted by this time was around 50000.



Source 8.18 An Australian recruitment poster from 1915 (AWM ARTV00021)

The reasons for enlistment were varied and complex. Some men were driven by a desire to show what their new nation could contribute to a world conflict. Others went to war purely out of loyalty to 'the mother country' – Britain. Many of the first wave of volunteers who enlisted to fight were former British soldiers. Others were British citizens who happened to be living in Australia. In addition to these people, some wanted to show their support for Britain in case Australia should need Britain's help at some stage in the future.

There were young men who joined out of a spirit of adventure. These men saw the war as an opportunity to leave home, see the world, meet beautiful foreign women and experience life beyond Australia's shores. Whole football and cricket teams joined, as did groups of workmates from businesses and factories in cities and country towns. Many women encouraged their husbands, boyfriends, brothers and even fathers to enlist. Many young women preferred to socialise with men in uniform.



Source 8.19 An Australian recruitment poster from 1917 (AWM ARTV00026)

The opportunity to earn a good income also acted as an incentive. The pay was 6 shillings (60 cents) per day, a figure calculated to match the average wage of Australian workers, minus the cost of rations. The promise of regular pay also encouraged many unemployed men to volunteer. As the war progressed, hatred of the enemy also became a motivation for enlistment. Propaganda stories (often exaggerated) of German atrocities were used in recruiting campaigns.

In every city and town, recruiting rallies were held. Platforms would be set up with the Australian and British flags side by side as a backdrop to the speeches. High-profile sportsmen such as footballers, cricketers and athletes would be planted in the crowd. When the call went out for young men to step forward and sign up, it was frequently one of these sportsmen who led the charge.

Among those who offered to enlist were also Aboriginal Australians. Only 400 Aborigines were accepted for service – all others were rejected on the basis that they were not 'of substantial European origin or descent'. When Australian soldiers returned from World War I, there were many benefits available to them to assist their readjustment to civilian life. Aboriginal soldiers, however, were denied access to these benefits.

Of course, not all motives for joining the war effort were noble. There were stories (perhaps just rumours) of soldiers changing their names before enlisting in order to get away from their wives or other commitments. Others enlisted to escape the boredom of jobs they hated, to leave school early, or to escape the strict rules and confines of their family homes.

Those who had fought in the Boer War (1899–1902) in Africa had some understanding of the brutality of war but, for most, war seems to have meant adventure. Based on all of the thoughts that ran through the heads of those who enlisted, particularly in the first few months, the idea of death or even injury seems to have been very much in the background.

Questioning voices

Despite the positive response by many, not all Australians were enthusiastic about the war. Some argued that it was not Australia's war and that Australian troops would make little difference to the final outcome of the war. Others were opposed to the war because they were **pacifists** – people who are opposed to violence and war. One group of pacifists were the Jehovah's Witnesses, a religious group whose beliefs prevented them from participating in any armed conflict or wars.

There was also a small group known as **conscientious objectors** – people who opposed war and refused to perform military service because it went against their beliefs, religion or conscience. The Women's Peace Army, led by a woman named Vida Goldstein (see Source 8.20) was a women's organisation made up of pacifists and conscientious objectors. Their mission was to mobilise women in Australia who opposed the war. Goldstein, who was also a well-known **suffragette** (a woman demanding the right to vote), attracted large numbers of people to public meetings.

Finally, there was a small number of Australians who did not enlist because they were afraid, or because they believed it was in their best interests financially to stay at home. Very few records relating to these people exist today, but we do know that those who were reluctant to go to war often used excuses such as poor health or family responsibilities to explain their decision not to enlist.

In total, however, all of the groups who objected to the war only made up a small percentage of the total population. In 1914 and through most of 1915, the dominant feeling towards the war was positive and supportive. It was only as the harsh reality of war became clear to Australians that this initial enthusiasm began to fade away.



Source 8.20 Vida Goldstein, president of the Women's Peace Army was both a suffragette and a pacifist.

Check your learning 8.5

Remember and understand

1 What was the attitude of most Australians to war before 1914? Why did they hold this attitude?
2 What were three reasons why an Australian might have wanted to enlist?
3 Why were some Aboriginal Australians not accepted for service?
4 Why were some people or groups not enthusiastic about the war?

Apply and analyse

5 Examine the two recruiting posters (Sources 8.18 and 8.19).
   a Identify the techniques used on these posters to encourage Australian men to enlist such as:
      - the overall message of the poster (what it wants the viewer to do)
      - any emotions the poster taps into
      - the effect that the poster may have had on people at the time.
   b Now identify the key features, such as:
      - symbols and images
      - words
      - arrangement of the images and words
      - colours of the posters.
   c Which poster do you think would have been more successful at the time? Justify your answer based on the techniques and elements used.

Evaluate and create

6 Use a range of print and digital resources to locate and print a series of recruitment posters from World War I (two of which must be Australian). Be sure to include posters from a range of different countries that were involved in World War I. Analyse these posters, looking for points such as:
   - appeal to sense of national identity
   - appeal to sense of adventure and excitement
   - appeal to sense of outrage and anger at the enemy.

   Create a PowerPoint presentation in which you identify the key features and techniques of the posters in each category. Discuss whether you think each poster was successful in encouraging people to get involved in the war effort and why.

8.1 big**ideas:** rich task

Why Australians enlisted to fight

When Britain declared war on Germany, Australia (part of the British Empire) was also obligated to enter the war. The Prime Minister of Australia Joseph Cook said in August 1914:

> …Whatever happens, Australia is part of the Empire, right to the full. When the Empire is at war, Australia is at war.

All major political parties, churches, community leaders and newspapers seemed to support Australia's entry to war. It was seen as a moral and necessary commitment. There was a rush to the recruiting offices. Early in the war, only the very fittest and healthiest men were accepted.


5 QUESTIONS to Men who have NOT Enlisted ! ! !

1. IF You are Physically Fit and between 18 and 44 years of age, are you really satisfied with what you are doing to-day ?
2. DO You feel quite happy as you walk along the streets and see OTHER Men wearing the King's Uniform ?
3. WHAT will you say in years to come when people ask you "Where did YOU serve in the Great War?" ?
4. WHAT will you answer when your children grow up and say "Father! Why weren't you a soldier, too?" ?
5. WHAT would happen to the Empire if every man stayed at home ?

Your King and Country Need You!

ENLIST TO-DAY!

Issued by the Queensland Recruiting Committee

Source 8.21 A recruitment poster for World War I issued by the Queensland Recruiting Committee

Source 8.22

Turn your eyes to the European situation and give the kindest feelings towards the mother country at this time. I sincerely hope that international arbitration will avail before Europe is convulsed in the greatest war of any time. All, I am sure, will regret the critical position existing at the present time, and pray that a disastrous war may be averted. But should the worst happen after everything has been done that honour will permit, Australians will stand beside our own to help and defend her to our last man and our last shilling.

An excerpt from a speech by Andrew Fisher, Leader of the Opposition (later Prime Minister), in 1914 just before the outbreak of war

Source 8.23

I wasn't eighteen. I was working on the lathe [carpentry tool], next to another chap … I said to him 'Why don't you enlist?' I said 'I'll enlist if you do'… I went right up to Victoria Barracks and enlisted. We left the factory and I had to get my father's signature. Well, I forged that.

Stan D'Altera (in A Thomson, *Anzac Memories*, Oxford University Press, p. 27)

Source 8.24

I have joined the Australian Army … it's not bad money here, 5/- [shillings] a day and clothes and food … nearly as good as cabinet making and not half as hard. You may (think) it's funny (my) turning up such a good job, but … this (employer) had only about three days work left for us … things are so bad out here for there is a drought on and we haven't had any rain for months, so I thought I would join the army.

Corporal RE Antill in a letter to his parents, 1914 (defencemagazine)

Source 8.25

I have enlisted and I don't regret it in the very least. I believe it is every young fellow's duty. There are far better men than any of us have already gone… we are the sort of men who ought to go.

Private AJ McSparrow (in B Gammage, *The Broken Years*, p. 7)

skill**drill**

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources

Evaluating the reliability and usefulness of sources is one of the most important, and perhaps most difficult, historical skills you need to master. The first thing to understand is that these terms (*reliable* and *useful*) are not interchangeable. A source can be both unreliable and useful at the same time, or both reliable and not useful at the same time.

Step 1 Evaluating reliability

To determine the reliability of a source, you need to identify whether it is **biased**. Being biased means having an unbalanced or one-sided opinion. Bias is found in secondary and primary sources. It is natural for people to show their opinion when they write something. To recognise bias in a source, ask yourself the following questions:

- Who wrote it or made it?
- When was it written or made?
- Why was it written or made?
- Was the person who wrote or made it paid? If so, who paid them?
- Does it distort the facts?
- Does it give one side of the story, or is it balanced?
- Can the views expressed in this source be verified by another source?

By finding the answers to these questions, you can come to a conclusion about whether the source is biased. Make sure you give specific reasons for your conclusion. You need to explain how and why a source is biased, and how this bias affects its reliability. The more biased the source, the less reliable it is. But remember, no single source is ever completely reliable or unreliable.

Step 2 Evaluating usefulness

Some historical sources are more useful than others. But sources are not simply useful or not useful in their own right. They are useful or not useful depending on what you wish to find out from them.

Just because a source is biased does not automatically mean that it is not useful. It may be extremely useful if you are investigating the opinions of a particular group at a particular time. However, if you are investigating 'the facts' of an event, a biased source may be much less useful. For example, anti-Chinese **propaganda** during the gold rushes may be very useful when considering Australian attitudes towards migrants in the 19th century, but not much use as evidence about the important role that Chinese migrants played in the development of the Australian economy. So to reach a conclusion about whether a source is 'useful', you need to be very clear about *what* you want to use the source for.

Use the following steps to evaluate a source's usefulness.

- Be clear about what historical question you are investigating.
- Identify whether the source is biased/reliable using the process above.
- Look at what the source is telling you and compare it to what you need/would like to know. Remember to consider both explicit and implicit messages.
- Ask yourself: what are the uses of this source to answer my historical question?
- Ask yourself: what are the problems of using this source to answer my historical question?
- Make a final judgement about the source's usefulness for your purposes.

Apply the skill

Read each of the sources provided in this section. Then, using the steps provided:

1. evaluate each source's reliability.
2. evaluate how useful each source would be in explaining the factors which motivated Australian men to enlist.
3. evaluate how useful each source would be in explaining the methods used by the Australian government to encourage men to enlist.

Be sure to explain how you reached your conclusions.

Extend your understanding

1. Think about some of the reasons why young men decided to enlist for World War I. Do you think the same reasons apply for young Australians who enlist to fight in wars today?
2. Visit the Australian Army Reserve website.
   a. Identify some of the methods used by the creators of the website to encourage Australians to join the Reserves.
   b. Create a Venn diagram to demonstrate the similarities and differences between these methods.

8.2 How and where was World War I fought?

The nature of warfare in World War I

Unlike earlier wars, World War I was fought across a large part of the world and involved many countries. Britain, France and Russia fought against Germany and its allies on the Western Front (a zone of fighting in Western Europe). Germany also fought against Russia on the Eastern Front (a zone of fighting in Eastern Europe). There was also fighting in Turkey and the Middle East, and in North Africa. Finally, there were small conflicts in the Pacific Ocean, where a combined effort of Japanese and Australian forces took over German colonies in New Guinea. The common feature across all regions and theatres was the emergence of new technologies.



Source 8.26 British aircraft like the ones shown here played a vital role in World War I.

New technologies

Over the course of World War I, many new technologies were introduced and existing technologies such as military vehicles and weapons were improved. Developments in powerful long-range weaponry, such as the machine gun and heavy artillery, were particularly important. Deadly new chemical weapons and gases were also a significant development.

Much of this technology is blamed for extending the war, as the conflict quickly became an evenly matched battle of technology and tactics, with neither side able to break the deadlock. Unlike earlier wars, in which the soldiers moved around constantly to gain an advantage, both sides on the Western Front were forced to dig **trenches** for protection, bringing the armies to a stalemate.

Guns and artillery

Machine guns, which had first been used during the American Civil War, were improved for use in World War I (see Source 8.27). Many were capable of firing up to 600 rounds of ammunition (bullets) per minute in short bursts. Facing one machine gun was similar to facing 250 soldiers with standard rifles. Although these new machine guns often overheated and were heavy and difficult to move through the mud, they were devastating when used against oncoming troops.

Heavy artillery guns were also used widely in World War I for the first time. Like canons, these guns could fire large shells over a long distance, usually projecting them in an arc to land on the target from above. Like machine guns, heavy artillery guns were heavy and difficult to move. They were usually mounted on wheels that often became bogged down in the mud or got stuck in bomb craters.



Source 8.27 British machine gun operators wearing gas masks fire on the enemy during the Battle of the Somme in 1916.



Source 8.28 A soldier and dog wearing gas masks work to find the wounded in areas where poison gas has been used.

Gas

In April 1915, Germany introduced poison gas as a weapon of war (see Source 8.28). Chlorine, which was blown over the enemy trenches, burned and destroyed the respiratory tracts (airways) of anyone without a gas mask, causing terrible pain and death. Other gases were introduced throughout the war, including mustard and tear gas. Poison-gas attacks were so horrific that the use of chemical and biological weapons was banned under a treaty signed in 1925 known as the Geneva Protocol.

Tanks

The British army introduced the first tanks into the war in September 1916 at the Battle of the Somme in France. While they were successful at overcoming barbed-wire obstacles and trenches, the mechanical unreliability of these early tanks meant they were not always so useful. The first tanks were designed and built quickly, so they frequently broke down or became stuck in muddy trenches. The crews inside the tanks had to endure unbearably hot and noisy conditions, almost constantly choking on the fumes inside the cab. By the end of 1917, improvements in the design and manufacture – and tank battle tactics – made tanks more effective.

Aircraft

Large-scale aerial warfare was conducted for the first time during World War I. At first, small planes were used to scout for enemy positions. Later, planes armed with machine guns were used in aerial combats, known as **dogfights**.

Huge airships called **zeppelins** (named after their inventor Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin) were used by the Germans in the first air raid over England in January 1915. Made of a cylindrical metal frame covered with fabric and filled with gasbags full of hydrogen, zeppelins were able to fly higher than conventional aircraft and drift almost silently over their targets. This made zeppelins difficult to shoot down with normal anti-aircraft guns. The ability to hit targets accurately from a zeppelin was poor though, and they were also vulnerable to strong winds that could blow them off course. Towards the end of the war, zeppelins were largely replaced by multi-engine bomber planes, such as the Gotha G.V. bomber (see Source 8.29). Britain responded with its equivalent, the Handley Page Type O bomber (see Source 8.26, bottom left corner).



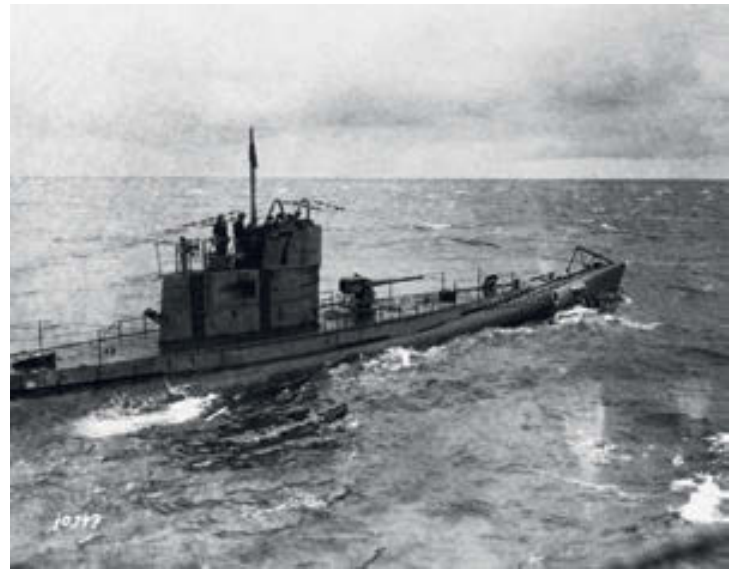
Source 8.29 German airmen attach a 100-kilogram bomb to the underside of a Gotha G.V. bomber.

War at sea

In 1914, the sea was vital for transportation, trade and communications. Protecting the sea lanes in your own waters – or striking at those of the enemy – was an essential part of the war effort.

Submarines were widely used during World War I. Initially they were used by the Germans to attack and sink trade ships carrying imported food and vital goods between allied countries. German submarines were commonly referred to as U-boats, short for *Unterseeboote* (undersea boats). U-boats were able to disrupt the movement of goods and people by sea and struck fear into those travelling by sea.

Another naval tactic that reduced the ability of ships to carry soldiers and supplies, was the laying of underwater mines (explosives) in the North Sea. Although agreements had been made regarding where mines could be placed, neither side was very strict when following them. Mines made the North Sea a very dangerous place for ships. This was also a problem for the **neutral nations** of Norway and Sweden, which were heavily reliant on the North Sea for fishing and trade with the rest of the world.



Source 8.30 A surfaced German U-boat during World War I

Communications

Advances in communication technologies during World War I allowed faster contact between commanding officers behind the scenes and soldiers fighting on the front line. The development of telephone and wireless (radio) systems allowed instant reports from the battlefield to be passed to command centres. Tactical decisions could be made much more quickly. On the downside, telephone lines had to be laid in each new location where fighting took place and were easily damaged by artillery. Wireless radios were also very heavy and difficult to move. Despite the increased use of these new technologies, soldiers still acted as runners to relay information. Motorbike couriers, carrier pigeons and even dogs were used at times (see Source 8.31).



Source 8.31 Dogs were sometimes used to carry messages to and from the battlefield. This dog is bringing orders to a soldier in the trenches.

Check your learning 8.6

Remember and understand

1. Identify three ways in which the technologies used in World War I were different from those used in earlier wars.
2. In what ways did submarines change the way World War I was fought?

Apply and analyse

3. Do you think new developments in technology actually prolonged the war? Explain your answer.
4. Why do you think that the use of poison gas was banned under the Geneva Protocol in 1925, while the use of other types of weapons was not?
5. What were the advantages and disadvantages of new developments in communication technologies?

Where World War I was fought

In World War I, the greatest loss of life took place in Europe. Many of the best-known land battles of World War I were played out in an area in France and Belgium known as the Western Front (see Source 8.32). However, the Eastern Front was also very important, especially in terms of the conflict between Germany and Russia. A third front, along the border between Italy and Austria, was the scene of fierce fighting and great loss of life.

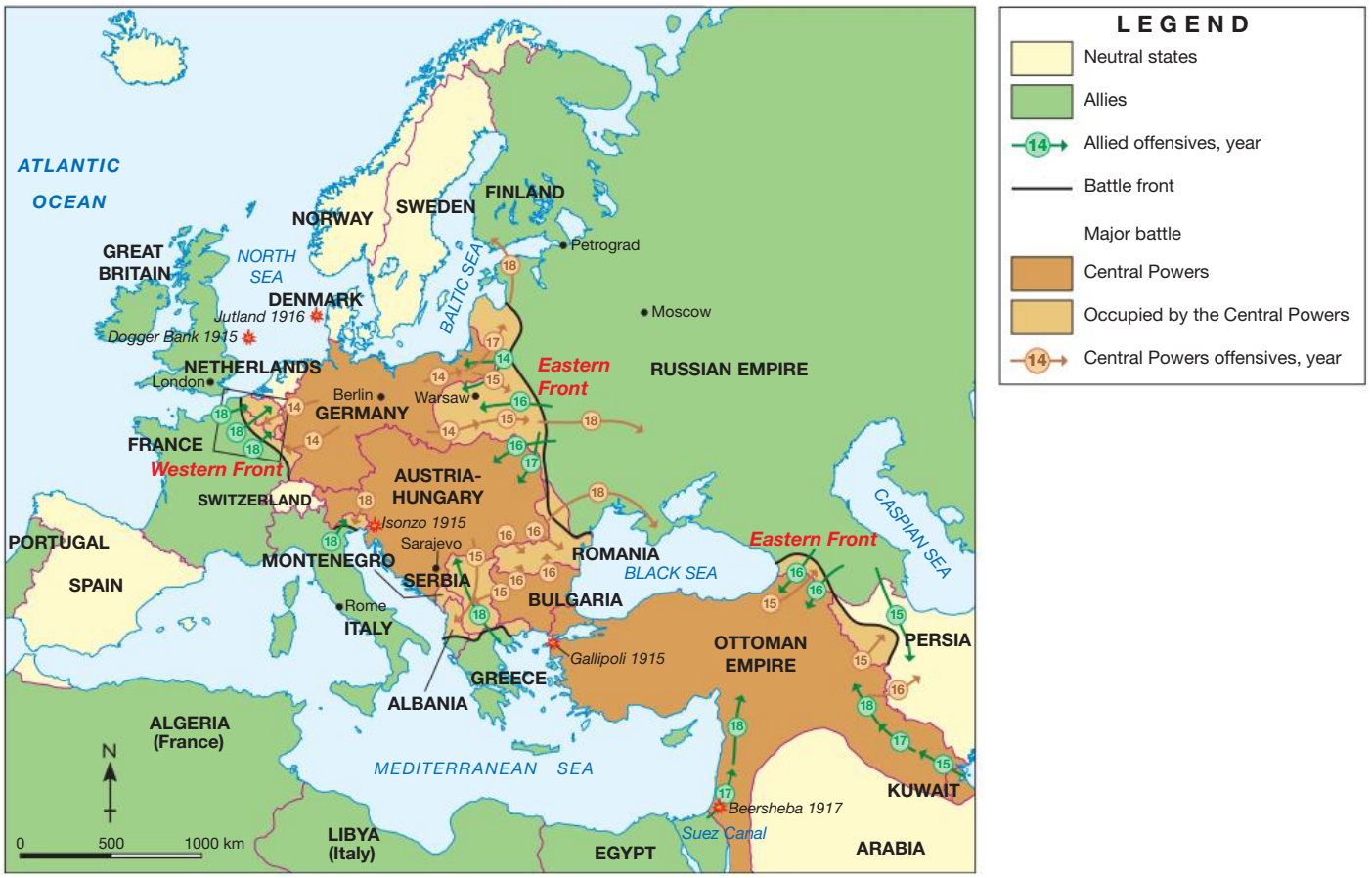
Because so many European nations had large colonial empires, people from all over the world participated in the conflict. Members of the British Commonwealth (such as Australia, India, South Africa, Canada and New Zealand) were involved in the conflict. The war came close to Australia because Germany had colonies in Samoa and New Guinea. As early as August 1914, New Zealand forces occupied German Samoa with no loss of life. Australian forces had driven the Germans out of New Guinea by the end of 1914.

World War I was also fought in the Middle East. The Gallipoli campaign, for example, was designed to open up access for the Allies. They needed this access in order to get troops and supplies into Russia to aid the campaign on the Eastern Front. In the end, the Gallipoli campaign was abandoned, but not before the deaths of around 140 000 soldiers from countries including Britain, Canada, France, Australia, New Zealand, India and Turkey. More than half of those killed were from Turkey.

Following the withdrawal from Gallipoli in December 1915, some of the Allied troops, including the Australian Light Horse, were redeployed to Palestine where they fought alongside Arab tribes against Turkish troops from the Ottoman Empire.

Japan, a rapidly modernising nation, was also involved on the side of the Triple Entente. In response to a request from Britain in 1914, Japanese ships led raids on German naval vessels around Chinese waters. The Japanese further provided 17 battleships to assist British naval actions in the Mediterranean Sea and in South Africa. Japan also took advantage of the war situation to extend its power and influence in China.

WORLD WAR I: MAJOR BATTLES AND ALLIANCES



Source 8.32

Source: Oxford University Press

key**concept:** contestability

Lawrence of Arabia

When World War I began, TE Lawrence (see Source 8.33) was a university student, specialising in the study of Middle Eastern archaeology. In October 1914, he became a member of British intelligence and shipped out to Cairo in Egypt. Over the course of the war, Lawrence became a close adviser to an Arabic prince by the name of Emir Faisal. Lawrence and Faisal helped to unite a number of Arabic tribes and convince them to fight against the troops of the Ottoman Empire. During the war, the Ottoman Empire was a member of the Central Powers fighting against the Allies (see Source 8.32). Lawrence convinced the Arabic tribes to support British troops and military strategies.

Lawrence also worked with the Arab tribes against the Ottoman Turks and supported their demands for independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1916 – an event known as the Arab Revolt. His adventures earned him the title 'Lawrence of Arabia' and made him a popular hero in Britain during the war. Later, Lawrence's reputation as a heroic figure was questioned by historians who contested the accuracy of his reports and writings about the role he played in the Arab Revolt.

For more information on the key concept of contestability refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.33 TE Lawrence – also known as Lawrence of Arabia – in 1915.

The USA enters the war

At the start of the war in 1914, the USA remained a neutral country, but its sympathies definitely lay with the members of the Triple Entente – Britain, France and Russia. In the early years of the war, the USA continued to trade with Britain and provided indirect support for the war effort in Europe by transporting supplies across the Atlantic Ocean.

In an attempt to stop this trade, the Germans began to use submarine warfare. On 7 May 1915, the British passenger ship *Lusitania* was sunk by a German submarine, killing 1198 passengers (see Source 8.34). Among the dead were 128 Americans.

Following the sinking of two more British ships carrying American passengers, Germany agreed to stop submarine attacks on ships carrying civilians. This pledge lasted until March 1917, when German submarines sunk more American ships. As a result of these attacks, on 6 April 1917, the USA declared war on Germany.

Another suggested motivation for the USA joining the war was the large amount of money that American bankers had lent to the British and French. It was important that the Triple Entente countries win the war in order for them to pay back the debt to the USA.

The USA also supplied extra food, facilities and money to fund the final months of the campaign.



Source 8.34 A sketch of the passenger ship *Lusitania* sinking on a trip from Liverpool to New York after it was hit by a torpedo from a German U-boat

Check your learning 8.7

Remember and understand

1 World War I was predominantly a European war. Why then were people from so many other parts of the world involved?

2 What was the main purpose of the Gallipoli campaign?

Apply and analyse

3 What impact do you think the early Australian and New Zealand successes in the Pacific would have had on attitudes to war in Australia?

Evaluate and create

4 Using the information provided together with your own research, identify the main reasons why the USA became involved in World War I. Which do you believe to be the most important? Why?

The Western Front

The most common image that comes to mind when people think about World War I is the image of the trenches, and the mud, blood and barbed wire that were features of the long, drawn-out war on the Western Front. Although this was generally regarded as the most important area or 'theatre of war' in which the war was fought, there were also many others (see Source 8.35).

At the start of the war in August 1914, the Germans had marched through Belgium into France. Fierce resistance from the British and French stopped them from moving further into France. However, the Allies were unable to drive the Germans back, and by Christmas 1914 there was a deadlock. The Germans and the Allies faced each other across a line of trenches (see Source 8.35) that stretched from Ostend on the Belgian coast in a south-easterly direction to the Swiss border (see Source 8.36 for more detail).

Many historians see the Western Front as the defining experience of World War I. New weapons, such as gas and tanks, were introduced there. Defensive tactics using machine guns, trenches, barbed wire and artillery meant that rather than a rapid war of movement, war on the Western Front became bogged down in a senseless series of attacks and counter-attacks, each achieving little but costing millions of lives.

Breaking the stalemate

Between 1915 and 1918, many attempts were made to break the stalemate of trench conflict. These attempts tended to follow a pattern. Initially there would be a long and sustained artillery attack – opposing trenches would be bombarded with explosive shells. These attacks could go on for a few hours or sometimes for many days. It was believed that this would force the defending troops underground, destroying their fortifications and clearing the way for troops to cross **no man's land** (the narrow strip of land between opposing trenches that belonged to neither army).

Weighed down with heavy equipment, soldiers would cross the strip of territory to their opponent's trenches.



Source 8.35 French soldiers wait in their trenches on the Western Front during World War I.

EUROPE: THE WESTERN FRONT IN 1915



Source 8.36 The two-trench system along the Western Front ran unbroken from the Belgian coast to Switzerland. Source: Oxford University Press



Source 8.37 Allied soldiers at the Battle of the Somme, 1916.

Struggling through mud-filled shell holes created by their own artillery, they might learn that the bombardment had not destroyed the barbed-wire obstacles between the lines. More frightening still was the possibility that the artillery attack had failed to destroy the enemy's position. Often, as soldiers made their way across no man's land, the enemy would emerge from deep bunkers to fire on them with machine guns.

Generally, such assaults on enemy trenches failed to achieve their goals. Confusion, smoke, noise and death turned plans into chaos. If attackers reached enemy lines, hand-to-hand (or one-on-one) combat with rifles, bayonets, pistols and grenades often followed. If ground was gained, it could be retaken in a counter-offensive only weeks later. The only real consequence of most of the battles that took place on the Western Front over four years was death and injury.

The Somme

The first Battle of the Somme (in an area along the banks of the Somme River) was one of the most costly attempts to break the stalemate of the trenches. Between July and November 1916, the Allied forces tried to break through German lines. Focused on a 19-kilometre front in northern France, the soldiers managed to push the Germans back by about 8 kilometres. These gains came at an enormous price. The initial 'softening up' bombardment used over 1.5 million shells in a week-long attack. British deaths on the first day of the assault are estimated at over 19 000. Thirty-five thousand were injured and 2000 were counted as missing. French casualties for the first day alone were around 7000.

Later in the Somme campaign, Australian and New Zealand troops fought at Pozières from 23 July to 8 August 1916. After making early gains, Australia suffered over 23 000 casualties. By the end of the Somme campaign, casualty figures for the Allies were around 620 000 dead and wounded, and 500 000 for the Germans.



Source 8.38 The remains of Commonwealth soldiers who died during the Battle of Fromelles, and objects recovered at the site, are recorded by specialists of the Oxford Archaeology Institute after being recovered in mass graves in Fromelles.

Australian engagements on the Western Front

Australians fighting on the Western Front between 1916 and 1918 were engaged in numerous battles that earned more than 50 Victoria Crosses for the soldiers who participated. The Victoria Cross is the highest Commonwealth military decoration for valour 'in the face of the enemy'. Australians again distinguished themselves in battle and earned a reputation for courage and toughness, especially in 1918, under the leadership of General Sir John Monash.

There was also terrible loss of life. In battles along the Somme, and at towns such as Passchendaele, Villers-Bretonneux, Ypres and Amiens, thousands of soldiers were killed or wounded, often for little gain in the futile 'game' of trench warfare.

Two of the most destructive battles involving Australians were at Fromelles in northern France in 1916 and at Bullecourt, closer to Paris, in 1917. At Fromelles, an attack

on the German trenches was designed to draw German attention away from an onslaught on the German lines 80 kilometres to the south, on the banks of the Somme River.

The attack was unsuccessful and the cost was terrible. In one day, 1917 Australian soldiers were killed and over 3600 were injured, some to die later of their injuries. This event has been described as 'the worst 24 hours in Australia's entire history'.

Because the Germans quickly regained any territory they had lost, the Australians had no opportunity to bury the dead. The Germans buried many in mass pits. During the 1920s, most of the bodies were reburied in Commonwealth War Graves cemeteries, but one mass grave remained undiscovered until 2007. In that year, as a result of painstaking research by war historian Lambis Englezos, a burial site was identified on the edge of the town of Fromelles. It has since been confirmed that up to 400 Australian soldiers are buried in this mass grave. The process of identifying these soldiers and preparing them for reburial (see Source 8.38), with full military honours, in a newly built cemetery is slow and delicate. Up to 75 soldiers have been positively identified so far through the use of DNA technology.

Nurses on the Western Front

At the start of the war, a small number of women wanted to join the services but were told that war was 'no place for ladies'. The only women allowed to enlist and serve overseas were nurses.

The nurses worked under appalling conditions, especially on the Western Front where makeshift field hospitals were often set up in trenches behind the lines (see Source 8.39). The nurses became known as 'the roses of no man's land'.



Source 8.39 A nurse in a makeshift hospital on the Western Front

Over the course of World War I, 2562 Australian nurses joined the AIF as members of the medical units. Out of this number, 2139 served overseas in the Middle East and on the Western Front. Twenty-five women lost their lives while serving overseas and 388 received military honours.

Source 8.40

> I cannot remember what came next, or what I did, except that I kept calling for the orderly to help me and thought he was funking [showing cowardice], but the poor boy had been blown to bits. Somebody got the tent up, and when I got to the delirious pneumonia patient, he was crouched on the ground at the back of the stretcher. He took no notice of me when I asked him to return to bed, so I leaned across the stretcher and put one arm around and tried to lift him in. I had my right arm under a leg, which I thought was his, but when I lifted I found to my horror that it was a loose leg with a boot and a puttee on it. It was one of the orderly's legs which had been blown off and had landed on the patient's bed. The next day they found the [body's] trunk about 20 yards away.

Sister Kelly, an Australian nurse in France describing her experiences when a bomb hit a casualty clearing station behind the lines

Check your learning 8.8

Remember and understand

1. In your own words, define 'the Western Front'.
2. Why had the war become 'bogged down' on the Western Front by the end of 1914?
3. What was 'no man's land'?
4. Describe the pattern followed in most of the attempts to break the stalemate on the Western Front.
5. Why is the first Battle of the Somme regarded as one of the most disastrous battles of the war?
6. What qualities did nurses need to possess in order to do their jobs successfully under such difficult circumstances?

Apply and analyse

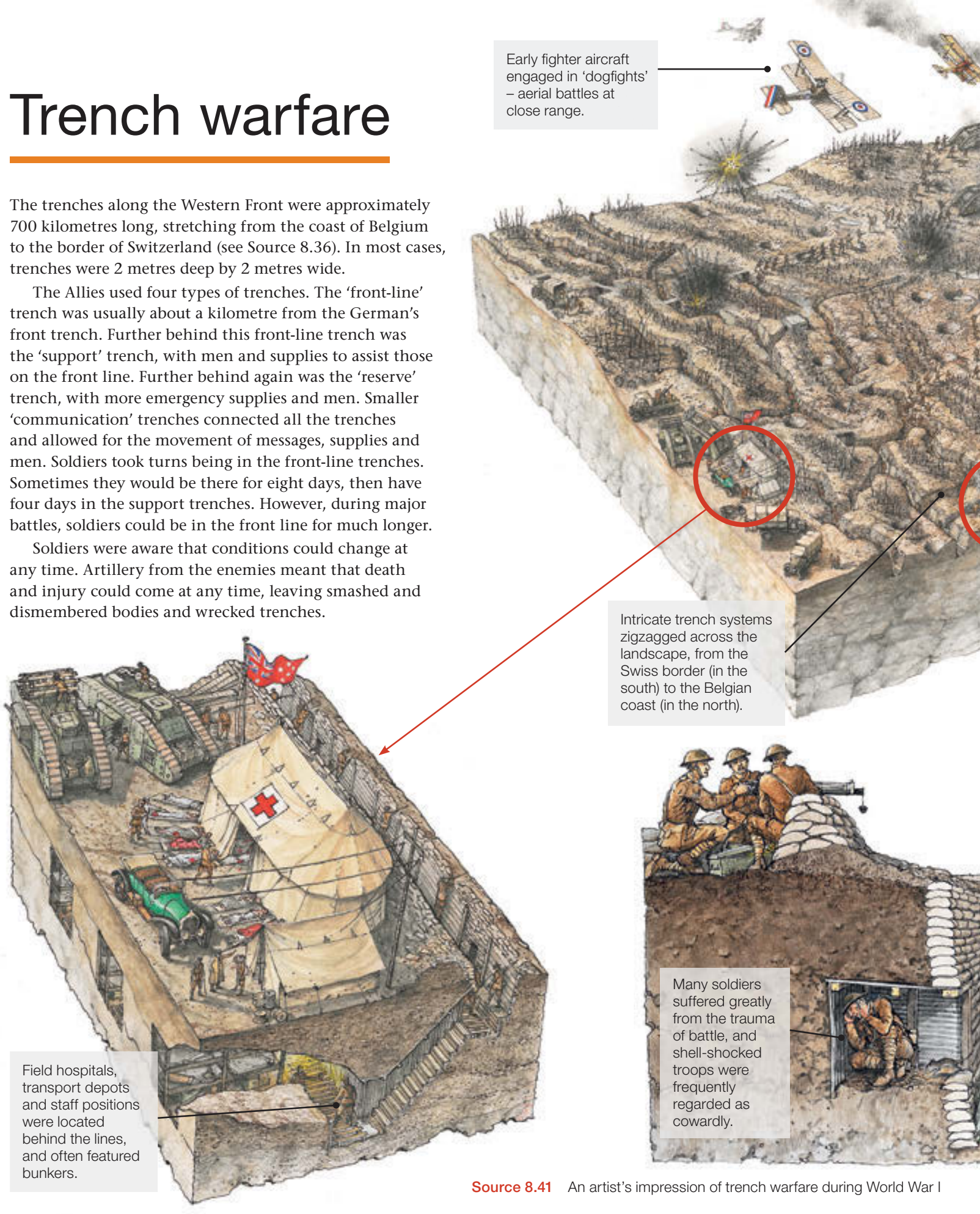
7. When it was obvious that little or nothing was gained through repeated assaults on enemy trenches, why do you think military commanders continued to order these assaults?
8. Despite their knowledge of terrible loss of life and injury, soldiers continued to take part in the assaults on the Western Front. Suggest three reasons why they did so.

Trench warfare

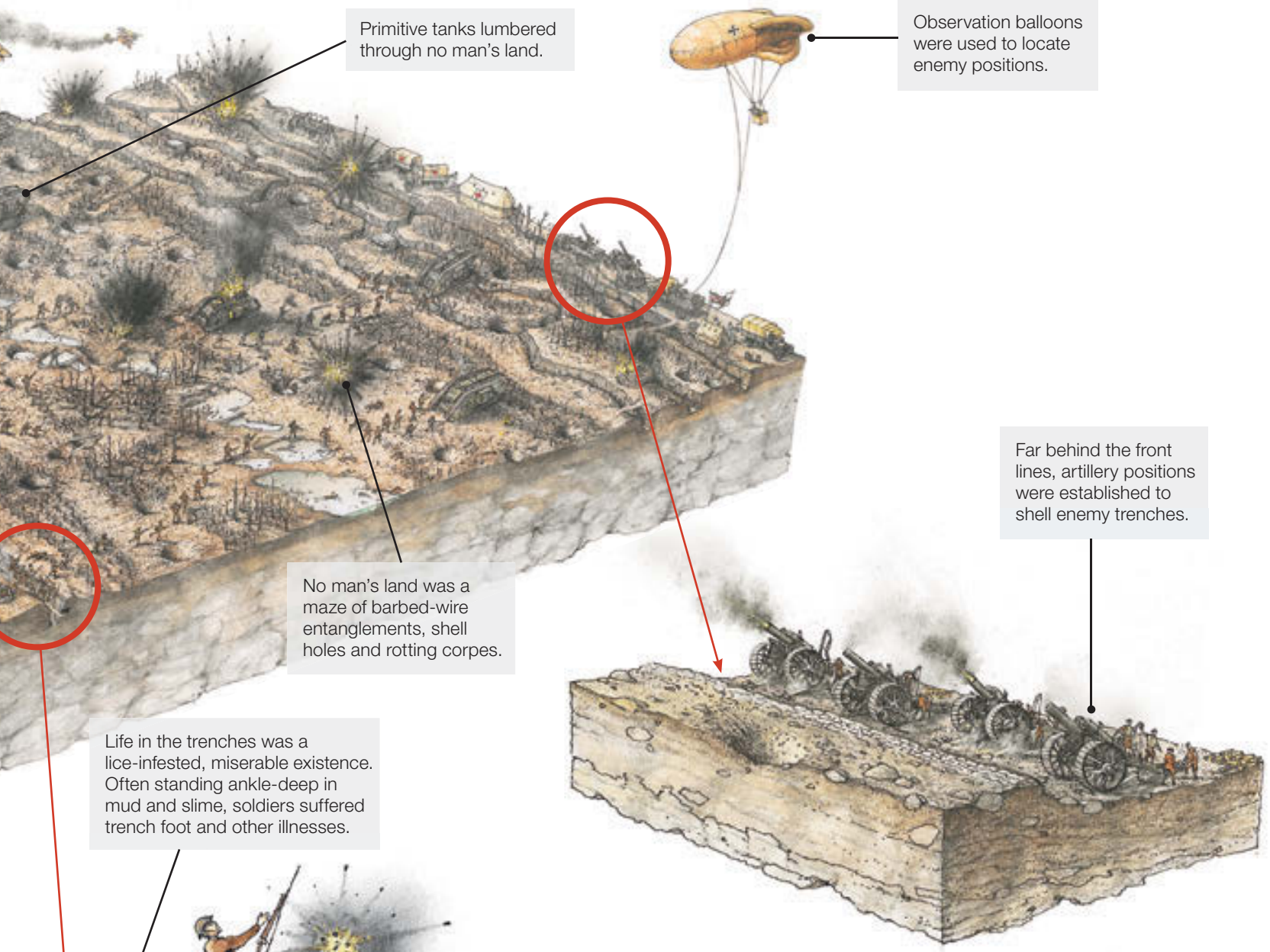
The trenches along the Western Front were approximately 700 kilometres long, stretching from the coast of Belgium to the border of Switzerland (see Source 8.36). In most cases, trenches were 2 metres deep by 2 metres wide.

The Allies used four types of trenches. The 'front-line' trench was usually about a kilometre from the German's front trench. Further behind this front-line trench was the 'support' trench, with men and supplies to assist those on the front line. Further behind again was the 'reserve' trench, with more emergency supplies and men. Smaller 'communication' trenches connected all the trenches and allowed for the movement of messages, supplies and men. Soldiers took turns being in the front-line trenches. Sometimes they would be there for eight days, then have four days in the support trenches. However, during major battles, soldiers could be in the front line for much longer.

Soldiers were aware that conditions could change at any time. Artillery from the enemies meant that death and injury could come at any time, leaving smashed and dismembered bodies and wrecked trenches.



Source 8.41 An artist's impression of trench warfare during World War I



Check your learning 8.9

Remember and understand

1 The trenches along the Western Front spanned what distance?

2 What was the purpose served by each of the four types of trenches used by the Allies?

Evaluate and create

3 Soldiers who suffered from 'shell shock' were often regarded as cowardly.

- a Why do you think this was so?
- b If you had lived during World War I, do you think that you, too, would have regarded such soldiers as cowards? Give reasons for your response. Remember to use your historical empathy skills when you answer this question.

The Gallipoli campaign

In an attempt to break the stalemate that had developed on the Western Front, Winston Churchill (Britain's First Lord of the Admiralty, who was in charge of the Royal Navy) argued for an attack on Turkey. Turkey was part of the Ottoman Empire and an ally of Germany. The Gallipoli campaign, as it became known, was the first major battle of World War I for Australian troops. It took place on the Gallipoli Peninsula in Turkey. Although many Australian men who enlisted in the early months of the war believed they would be travelling to Europe to fight against the Germans, many were instead sent to fight against the Turks.



Source 8.42 A painting by Lieutenant General Sir Carl Jess, *Australian infantry on fatigues at Gallipoli*

Formation of the Anzacs

When the war began in 1914, there was an equally enthusiastic response from people in Australia and New Zealand. Initially the two military forces of Australia and New Zealand were separate. The Australian troops formed the First Australian Imperial Force; and the New Zealanders formed the First New Zealand Expeditionary Force.

Early in 1915, as the two forces were training in Egypt, General Birdwood, commander of the Australian and New Zealand forces, decided to combine both forces to form a single **corps**. The first name that was suggested for the corps was the Australasian Army Corps, but this was rejected by New Zealand. Eventually the title Australia and New Zealand Army Corps (or ANZAC) was adopted. It was under this banner that the soldiers of both countries fought at Gallipoli and throughout World War I.

The Gallipoli landing

The Gallipoli campaign was launched because Britain and France needed to move troops, equipment and weapons to allied troops in Russia. In order to do this they needed to travel across the Mediterranean Sea, pass through Turkish waters and cross over the Black Sea into Russia (see Source 8.44). As a result, the plan required Turkey (part of the Ottoman Empire and an ally of Germany) to be forced out of the war.

The first part of the campaign plan was launched in March 1915. This involved a naval attack through the Dardanelles – a sea passage from the Mediterranean Sea to the Black Sea. This action failed because the entrance to the Dardanelles had been laid with underwater mines. Three Allied battleships were destroyed by these mines, and another three were badly damaged.

A plan was then developed to launch a land attack on the Gallipoli Peninsula from the Aegean Sea coast (see Source 8.44). The hope was that the Allies would surprise the Turks, defeat them quickly and then march on to take control of the Turkish capital, Constantinople (now known as Istanbul). This would open up the desired supply lines through to Russia, and help the Allies to fight Germany and Austria from the east.

On 25 April 1915, ground troops from Britain, France, Australia, New Zealand, India and the British dominion of Newfoundland (now a Canadian province) landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula. The campaign was in trouble from the beginning. As the Australian and New Zealand troops landed at what is now called Anzac Cove, they faced cliffs up to 100 metres high and heavy gunfire from behind the Turkish fortifications. Those soldiers who made it to the beach were unprotected as they faced the Turkish guns. The Anzacs managed to secure the beach and made limited progress up the cliffs and inland.

Although the plan had been to take 7 kilometres of territory, the day ended with barely a single kilometre achieved. More than 600 Australian soldiers were killed on the first day of the campaign. On hearing news of the disastrous landing, the British commander of the campaign,

General Sir Ian Hamilton, ordered the troops to 'dig, dig, dig until you are safe'.

Hamilton's decision to persist with the campaign was supported by news of the success of the Australian submarine *AE2*. On 25 April 1915 (the same day as the landing) it became the first Allied warship to penetrate the Dardanelles. It attacked a Turkish gunboat but was eventually discovered on 30 April and destroyed.

In May 1915, the Turks launched a great counter-offensive to take back the territory taken by the Allies, but were driven back. During this battle, Australian Lance Corporal Albert Jacka became a national hero. Jacka singlehandedly defended a trench and killed seven Turks. He later received the Victoria Cross for his actions.

In August 1915, the Australians and New Zealanders launched two famous diversionary attacks. The Australians captured Lone Pine, in fighting so fierce that seven Victoria Crosses were awarded to their men. At the Nek, a charge by members of the Australian Light Horse cost the lives of 234 in an area about the size of three tennis courts.

Despite these offensives and counter-offensives, the situation on Gallipoli was to remain essentially unchanged for the eight months of the campaign.

Over this time, respect grew between the Turkish soldiers and the ANZAC troops on the battlefield. Each side saw the other as honourable, and agreements were made to hold fire and bury the dead respectfully (see Source 8.43). Both sides had an amnesty (agreement) to enable a number of dead Turkish soldiers to be buried under the Red Crescent flag of their nation. Over time, the two sides even began trading with each other.

Source 8.43

> It is stated in messages from Cairo that the majority of wounded who have arrived there deny the stories of Turkish atrocities. They state that the Turks are fighting most fairly. In one case, a Turk dressed the wounds of a British soldier under fire.
>
> Another left his water bottle with a wounded Australian. An Australian who was taken prisoner, but subsequently escaped, stated he was very well treated.

An extract from the Melbourne newspaper *The Argus*, 22 June 1915

ALLIANCES IN EUROPE AND THE MIDDLE EAST



Source 8.44 Source: Oxford University Press

DETAIL OF THE GALLIPOLI PENNISULA



Source 8.45 Source: Oxford University Press

Conditions at Gallipoli

Conditions at Gallipoli were extremely difficult for the Anzacs. As the Turks held the high ground, the Anzacs were always exposed to enemy fire. Nowhere was safe. They were in constant danger day and night, from snipers (expert shots) or artillery bombardment from the Turkish guns.

The Allies landed in the Turkish spring, and a sweltering summer followed. When winter arrived, the bitter cold and snow took its toll on the troops. For men used to the mild weather conditions in Australia, the icy north wind and snowfalls cut right through protection offered by their uniforms and light blankets. Frequent rainfalls flooded the trenches and turned the battlefields to mud.

Source 8.46

> We landed on Gallipoli in what we were wearing and continued to wear it day and night until the socks were the first garments to become unwearable, and they were cast out and we went barefoot in our boots.
>
> We discarded our tunics during the day as the weather became hotter, and working and living in earthen trenches, while sometimes sweating profusely caused our pants and thick pure woollen shirts to become even worse than filthy.
>
> We got only sufficient fresh water, in fact, on some days barely enough to drink, so washing garments was out of the question, and so the only alternative was to get down to the beach and wash our garments and ourselves in the brine, which as far as our garments was concerned made little difference.
>
> There were parasites which caused an abominable itch to which ever part of the skin where they operated. They lived and bred mainly in the seams of the inner garments and as there was no hot water or chemicals available for their control or destruction the field was open for them to multiply and flourish. The best control means available was to wear the clothing inside out and then there were no seams next to the skin for the pest to hide away in and breed. This I did with my flannel shirt, but I simply could not come at wearing my trousers inside out, even though many of the other men did. It simply looked too awful.

An extract from a letter that Lieutenant Frank Boyes wrote about conditions at Gallipoli

Despite the rain and snow, drinking water was in short supply. It had to be shipped in to the troops, and this could be difficult if a supply ship ran into problems. Water was rationed carefully and soldiers were so conscious of the shortages that they often shaved with leftover cold tea.



Source 8.47 Anzac Cove, Gallipoli

Food was more plentiful, although lacking in variety. Rations commonly included canned meat, corned beef (called 'bully beef') and hard biscuits. Fresh food was rarely available.

Poor health was a major problem. More Australians and New Zealanders died or were forced into hospital as a result of disease rather than enemy action. Painful conditions and diseases such as trench foot, dysentery, diarrhoea and gastroenteritis were common in the damp conditions of the trenches. Illness was also spread by rats, lice, flies and mosquitoes. Many pests were attracted by the strong odour of decomposing bodies and human waste. Poor sanitation and food-handling practices meant the germs were often transferred to food and water supplies.

Withdrawal

In December 1915, the Anzacs were finally ordered to withdraw from Gallipoli. To hide the fact that they were leaving, they rigged up some rifles to fire at random. They did this by attaching tins to the rifles' trigger mechanisms with string. When the tins filled with water dripping from other tins suspended above, their weight caused the triggers to be pulled and the rifles to fire. This tactic became known



Source 8.48 Gallipoli, Turkey, 18 December 1915. This photo is of an Australian Army mock attack arranged in the Anzac area for photographic purposes two days before the evacuation took place (AWM H10379).



Source 8.49 *The Charge of the Australian Light Horse at Beersheba*, 1917, George Lambert (1920) (AWM ART02811)

as the 'ghost guns of Gallipoli'. Soldiers also carefully wrapped the horses' hooves in cloth to muffle the sound of their leaving. The last Australian soldiers were evacuated overnight on 19–20 December. Because of its efficiency, the silent withdrawal is usually remembered as the most successful part of the Gallipoli campaign.

Over the course of the campaign, 8709 Australians died, and 19 000 were wounded. Over the same period, over 80 000 Turks were killed. During their time on Gallipoli, the '**diggers**' – as Australian troops became known – displayed a courage and ingenuity that would form the basis of the Anzac legend. This legend would contribute to the Australian sense of identity over the course of the 20th century.

The Australian Light Horse

Following the withdrawal from Gallipoli, the Australian infantry were deployed to the Western Front in France and Belgium. However, the mounted troops remained to continue fighting against the Turks in Egypt. They became involved in what was known as 'the Sinai and Palestine campaign'.

The Australian Light Horse was a combination of cavalry and mounted infantry that had been developed during the Boer Wars in Africa (1899–1902). Traditional cavalry forces were becoming obsolete as nations developed more powerful infantry and artillery weapons. However, Australia's vast distances made military leaders reluctant to do away with mounted soldiers. The answer was a mounted force of trained infantry soldiers who would ride swiftly into battle, but fight on the ground like regular infantry. Australian mounted troops made a significant contribution to the defeat of Turkish troops in the Middle East.

The most famous battle fought by the Light Horse was the Battle of Beersheba in October 1917. The charge was aimed at capturing the important Turkish base of Beersheba, and has been called the last successful cavalry charge in history (see Source 8.49).

Check your learning 8.10

Remember and understand

1 What does the term 'ANZAC' stand for?
2 What was the outcome of early attempts by Allied forces to pass through the Dardanelles?
3 Where was the Australian infantry (soldiers who fought on foot) deployed to after the Gallipoli campaign? What happened to members of the Australian Light Horse (soldiers who fought on horseback)?

Apply and analyse

4 Write a paragraph explaining why the Gallipoli campaign was ultimately unsuccessful.
5 Why do you think the ANZAC soldiers earned high praise, even though they did not achieve what they hoped to?
6 Explain why some people argue that the withdrawal of the Anzacs from Gallipoli was the most successful part of the campaign.

Evaluate and create

7 Do you think the Gallipoli landing and the Anzac legend would have become as central to Australian culture and folklore if it had not been the nation's first experience of war? Explain your answer.
8 Draw a sketch of the beach at Anzac Cove where the troops landed during the Gallipoli campaign (see Source 8.45 and find other resources on the Internet to help you). Ensure that you label your sketch, and highlight the difficulties that the soldiers faced on arrival. You can find more information at the Australian War Memorial website.

The end of the war

After the failure of the Gallipoli campaign, the stalemate on the Western Front dragged on through 1916, 1917 and into 1918 with little change. By early 1918, troops on both sides were exhausted, resources were depleted and morale was at rock bottom. For the original Anzacs who had enlisted with such enthusiasm in 1914, there was a feeling that the war would never end.

The USA's involvement

Although the USA did not declare war on Germany until 1917, it had been involved in the war from the beginning supplying the allies with weapons and supplies.

After German submarines sank ships carrying American civilians, Americans were outraged and put pressure on their government to enter the war. US President Woodrow Wilson (see Source 8.50) initially campaigned for a peaceful end to the war, but was unsuccessful. When the Germans announced in March 1917 that they would continue to sink any ship that approached Britain, including passenger ships carrying civilians, this was the catalyst for the USA to finally intervene.

On 3 April 1917, President Wilson made a speech declaring that the USA would enter the war and restore peace to Europe. Three days later, they officially declared war on Germany. American troops joined the French and British in the summer of 1918.



Source 8.50 US President Woodrow Wilson

Russia's withdrawal

As the United States was entering World War I, Russia was getting ready to get out. In 1917, Russia became swept up in an internal revolution. The new communist government, wanting to focus on internal troubles, looked for a way to remove Russia from World War I. Negotiating separately from the rest of the Allies, Russia signed the Brest-Litovsk peace treaty with Germany on 3 March 1918.

With the war over against Russia, Germany was able to divert its troops in the west in order to face the new American soldiers.

Events on the Western Front

The freshness and enthusiasm of the American troops made a huge difference to the Allied troops on the Western Front. After years of almost constant defeat and huge numbers of casualties, by early 1918 the Allies had begun to slowly gain the upper hand over the Central Powers (Germany, Austria–Hungary, the Ottoman Empire and Bulgaria).

The Battle of Le Hamel

In July 1918, Australian and American soldiers launched an attack on the Germans in and around the town of Hamel in northern France. The battle was planned and commanded by an Australian by the name of Lieutenant General John Monash.

The Battle of Le Hamel in July 1918 was said by some to be the most well-prepared battle in World War I. General Monash distinguished himself by developing and using innovative tactics for coordinated infantry, artillery, tank and aircraft attacks. This meant that Allied battle objectives were achieved in 93 minutes. Using conventional tactics would have meant that the fighting would have lasted for weeks, with much higher casualty rates.

The Battle of Amiens

The Battle of Amiens, which began on 8 August 1918, was an important event because it would come to mark the final offensive by the Allies before bringing the war to an end. Allied forces advanced over 7 miles on the first day and, from then on, German defences were continually penetrated and forced to retreat. For this reason, the first day of the battle is often referred to as the 'Black Day for the German Army'. This battle also marked the end of trench warfare on the Western Front, as fighting became mobile once again.

On 26 September 1918, from their retreated position at the Hindenburg Line, the Germans were infiltrated by the Allies in only hours. German commanders began accepting that defeat was imminent.

The Armistice

At 5 am on 11 November 1918, the head of the German delegation, Matthais Erzberger, signed the **Armistice** (ceasefire) that marked the end of 'the war to end all wars'.

The terms of the Armistice were written by French Marshal Ferdinand Foch, and required the Germans to withdraw troops, surrender artillery, trucks, aircraft and naval vessels, return prisoners of war, and make promises about repatriation (repaying the costs of the war). The Armistice also stipulated that the fighting was to end later that day, at 11 am Paris time (i.e., the 11th hour of the 11th day of the 11th month). The news was quickly given to the armies during the morning of 11 November, but even after hearing that the Armistice was due to start at 11 am, intense warfare continued right until the last minute.

While the Armistice put an end to the fighting, it was initially only to last for 30 days and it did not determine how peace could be secured and maintained. The ceasefire was made permanent the following year when members of the Commonwealth and the League of Nations signed the Treaty of Versailles. While the Versailles Treaty was the peace treaty that officially ended World War I, a number of its terms were so controversial that it also set the stage for World War II.

News of the Armistice spread quickly around the world. People celebrated by dancing and singing in the streets. But at the same time as people celebrated, many were also overcome with sadness and horror as they reflected on the millions of soldiers who had lost their lives, or the many more who returned home with physical and mental scars.



Source 8.51 An artist's impression of representatives from France, Britain and Germany signing the Armistice that ended World War I



Source 8.52 South Australians celebrating Armistice Day near Parliament House in 1918

Check your learning 8.11

Remember and understand

1 In what ways was the USA involved with the war before their official entry into it in 1917?
2 What event finally triggered the USA into declaring war on Germany?
3 When and why did Russia withdraw from the war against Germany?

Apply and analyse

4 How and why did the entry of American troops into the war on the Western Front contribute to the defeat of the Germans?

Evaluate and create

Even after the Armistice was signed at 5 am on 11 November 1918, there were many more casualties later that morning before the official ceasefire at 11 am. For each of Britain, France, the USA, Canada and Germany conduct some research to find out:

a What was the name of the last soldier killed?
b What time did they die?
c How and why were they killed?
d Present your findings in a short report.

8.2 big**ideas:** rich task

Life in the trenches

The trenches that soldiers dug during World War I were typically around two metres deep by two metres wide. On both sides, conditions were barbaric, although German trenches tended to be better engineered and more comfortable than the French and British equivalents. To avoid snipers (marksmen trained to 'pick off' enemy soldiers from concealed locations), soldiers spent most of the daylight hours under the trench line – most attacks took place at dusk or in the early morning when visibility was poor. Soldiers were often bored during the day, and caught brief moments of sleep where they could. Those falling asleep on watch could be severely punished.



Source 8.53 German soldiers display the result of a night's rat-catching in a trench on the Western Front.

The soldiers had to share the trenches with millions of rats (see Source 8.53) that fed on the remains of dead soldiers left on the battlefields. With so much available food, some rats grew to be as large as cats. They bred constantly and spread disease as they ran over the faces of the sleeping soldiers.

Lice were also constant companions that lived and laid eggs in the seams of the soldiers' uniforms. The troops were often unable to bathe or change their clothes for weeks at a time. Even when washed, it was almost impossible to rid clothes of the lice eggs. Lice were responsible for the spread of 'trench fever'. If soldiers were fortunate enough to end up in military hospital, it took them up to 12 weeks to recover from this painful illness.

Relentless rain turned the trenches to canals of stagnant mud. Trench foot, acquired from standing for long periods in wet, muddy conditions, was a fungal infection that caused swelling. Serious cases could result in amputation. The winter of 1916 was one of the harshest on the Western Front. The cold was so intense that water was carried to the troops as blocks of ice.

Source 8.54

We are lousy, stinking, ragged, unshaven, sleepless. Even when we're back a bit we can't sleep for our own guns. I have one puttee [fabric strip wound around the lower leg for protection], a dead man's helmet, another dead man's gas protector, a dead man's bayonet. My tunic is rotten with other men's blood and partly splattered with a comrade's brains. It is horrible but why should you people at home not know.

Excerpt from a letter written to his family by John Alexander Raws, a South Australian soldier, who spent only four weeks on the Western Front before he was killed on 23 August 1916

Source 8.55

Enormous noise. Continuous explosion. A deserted landscape. Complete immobility of everything. Men were eating, smoking, doing odd jobs but no one was fighting. A few were peering in periscopes or looking through loopholes. I tried, but could see nothing but upturned empty fields. Then suddenly there was a terrific crash which flung me yards. I picked myself up and did my best to laugh. Nearby a man lay with a tiny hole in his forehead and close to him another limped with blood pumping out of his leg. They were both carried away. A casualty was not a matter for horror but for replacement. I regarded the incessant bombardment as temporary and expected every moment to see men going over the top to put the guns out of action. Nothing happened, however. That was how I first saw war.

RH Mottram, from RH Mottram, John Easton and Eric Partridge, *Three Personal Records of the War,* Scholartis Press, London, 1929

skill**drill**

Identifying and locating relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Being able to locate relevant primary and secondary sources using the Internet is an important historical skill. However, you need to keep in mind that not all information you find on the Internet is necessarily true, accurate, reliable or credible. So, in addition to being able to find source material online, you need to be able to evaluate the reliability and credibility of the information you find.

Use the following steps to apply this skill:

Step 1 Identify key words related to your topic and type these into a search engine such as Google. (Use only these key words – do not type in whole sentences or questions.)

Step 2 Add further relevant keywords to refine your search if you cannot find what you want on your first attempts.

Step 3 Look beyond the first page of results. The best results do not always appear first.

Step 4 Assess the reliability of each site by asking yourself:

- Who is the author or creator? If it is an individual, do they have their credentials listed (e.g. a degree or title)? If it is an organisation, is it a reputable organisation like a government or university department?
- What is the purpose of the website? Is it trying to inform, persuade or sell?
- Is the site objective? Is the author's point of view biased?
- Is the information accurate? Can the information be verified if you cross-check it with other sources of information?
- Does the site contain spelling mistakes or grammatical errors? (If so, this is usually an indication that the site is not particularly reliable.)
- Is the information current? Can you find evidence of recent updates?

Apply the skill

1 Conduct an Internet search to find relevant, credible and reliable source material about life in the trenches during World War I using the steps outlined above.

2 Copy the data chart below into your workbook. Read the source material you have located and record the key points in the appropriate column. Make sure you also record the URLs of the sites you have used.

Life in the trenches – data chart

	URL	Food, clothing and shelter	Hygiene	Entertainment	Mateship	Injury, death and medicine
Source 1						
Source 2						
Source 3						
Source 4						

Extend your understanding

1 Read the letter written from the trenches by John Raws (Source 8.54).

a Why do you think he felt that people at home should know what he was going through?

b What impact do you think such letters would have had on the views of war at home? Suggest several responses.

2 Use the text and sources included above, as well the notes you have recorded in the data chart as a result of your research, to write three brief diary entries from the perspective of a soldier that describes life in the trenches. Write one diary entry about a calm period, another about a bombardment, and the final diary entry about the lead-up to 'going over the top'.

8.3 What was the impact of World War I on Australia?

Impact of war on Australian society



Source 8.56 An Australian poster from 1917 encouraging Australians to enlist. After heavy casualties on the Western Front, Britain pressured Australia to make a bigger contribution to the war effort.

World War I had a significant impact on Australian society. A young nation with a population of less than five million in 1914 lost over 60 000 young men as a result of the war. Many of these men were the fittest and most able of the male population. As a percentage of total troops sent to war, Australia's losses were the highest of any of the Commonwealth nations (see Source 8.57). A summary of the numbers of those who served and of the numbers of deaths and other casualties makes it clear that Australia made a major sacrifice for the Allied war effort.

The initial enthusiasm with which most Australians greeted the outbreak of war did not last. By the middle of 1915, the reality of war began to dawn. Following the landing at Gallipoli, Australians received the news of more than 2000 deaths. As a result, many in the nation took a more sober view or became disillusioned. There was still strong support for the war and the soldiers, but any excitement had evaporated.

By late 1916, Australia was a bitterly divided country. Not only was there a growing dissatisfaction with the war, but a real sense that there was 'inequality of sacrifice'. Many working-class Australians felt that they had contributed the most in terms of enlisting soldiers, and that they were also being exploited at home. There was a perception that middle- and upper-class people were less affected by the war. Some were even seen to be profiting from lucrative government war contracts. These perceptions were not always accurate, but they still had an impact on the growing divisions in the nation.

Source 8.57 A comparison of British Commonwealth casualties, World War I

Country	Total soldiers sent to war	Total casualties (captured, missing, wounded or killed)	% of casualties
Britain	5 000 000	2 535 424	50.71
Canada	422 405	210 100	49.74
Australia	331 781	215 585	64.98
New Zealand	98 950	58 526	59.01
India	1 096 013	140 015	12.77

Statistics from *Australian Campaigns in the Great War*, Lt The Hon. Stanisforth Smith

The War Precautions Act

In 1914, the federal government passed the War Precautions Act, which gave the government increased powers for the duration of the war. This Act gave the federal government the legal right to, among other things, monitor and **intern** German–Australians, impose a direct income tax, censor letters and publications, and set fixed prices for certain goods.

Impact on the Australian economy

World War I had a major economic impact on Australia and other nations. The cost of providing weapons, ammunition and supplies to the forces at home and overseas was vast. To meet these expenses, the federal government introduced income tax. It was also necessary to borrow funds from overseas. Australia borrowed heavily from Britain to build vital wartime infrastructure, such as expanded railways. Australia would take over 20 years to pay back loans taken out during the war.

The redirection of raw materials to the war effort and the needs of wartime industries caused **inflation**. As a result, the cost of living in Australia rose by up to 50 per cent during the war years. The war also disrupted international trade. Naval blockades and the use of shipping for military purposes meant fewer ships were available to move trade goods to overseas markets. The Australian government had introduced **tariffs** (taxes) on imported goods to protect its local wartime supplies. Many countries looked elsewhere for trade and discovered new sources in Japan and the USA.

On the positive side, however, Australia developed new industries. The fact that fewer goods could be brought in from overseas meant that inventive Australians began to develop alternatives that were made here. By the end of the war, 400 new products were being manufactured in Australia. The Newcastle steelworks, opened in 1915, was flourishing, the Australian National Shipping Line had been established and the role of the Commonwealth Bank expanded considerably.



Source 8.58 Aspro was developed in Australia as a direct result of the war.

One new product, developed as a direct result of the war, was a medication called Aspro (see Source 8.58). Before the war, aspirin (which at the time was a trademarked German-made pain reliever called Aspirin) had been widely used for pain relief in Australia. After the outbreak of war, the use of Aspirin became unpopular and unpatriotic because it was made by the German company Bayer. Two Australian pharmacists, George Nicholas and Henry Smith, analysed Aspirin and came up with an Australian version, which they called Aspro. Aspro became one of the most widely used over-the-counter medicines available in Australia.

There were people who profited from supplying goods needed for the war effort. These included farmers who supplied wheat, dairy products and meat to feed the soldiers here and overseas. Wool was in great demand for soldiers' uniforms (see Source 8.59) and munitions factories were working overtime to support the war effort.

However, many workers felt that they were not sharing in the wartime profits. Wages fell but the cost of living rose. This led to some resentment and even strike action in the coal industry, and on the railways and the wharves. These strikes drew much criticism. The strikers were described as unpatriotic and selfish, and they were largely unsuccessful.



Source 8.59 Wool, used to make soldiers' uniforms, was a valued commodity during the war.

Check your learning 8.12

Remember and understand

1 How many Australian men died in World War I? How does this figure compare with the losses suffered by other Commonwealth nations?

2 What were some of the factors causing division in Australian society by 1916?

3 What did the Australian federal government do in order to cover the great cost of the war effort?

Apply and analyse

4 Explain how the war influenced Australian manufacturing.

Evaluate and create

5 Aspro was developed because Bayer Aspirin was no longer imported from Germany. Research other products that were imported from Germany and Austria before the war to see if the bans placed on them led to the development of Australian alternatives.

Impact of war on Australian women

Historians often describe World War I as the first 'total war', because it was the first time that nations had mobilised all of their industries, resources and citizens for the war effort. Before World War I, most people's involvement in wars was usually limited to paying taxes and worrying about friends and family members engaged in fighting overseas. By comparison, 'total war' placed many new pressures on those left at home.

With so many men away at war, there was an expectation that women would take on many duties that had previously been the responsibility of men. Women did a great deal of voluntary work, including fundraising and assisting with recruiting. They also moved into previously male domains in the workforce, such as working in munitions factories. In Britain, women were also able to join the armed forces, but only for home defence.

Most women were supportive of involvement at the start of the war and more than 2000 served, generally as nurses. While these women faced dangerous conditions overseas, the women on the home front also found their lives changing.

Women in the paid workforce

Before the war, most women had been homemakers, with a small number working in traditionally female roles such as teaching, nursing, dressmaking or domestic work. However, with around 500 000 young men off at war, women wanted to support the war effort at home. There was some resistance by **trade unions** to hiring women in traditionally male jobs, as it was thought that this might lower wages. However, women were able to take on some traditionally male roles, such as store clerks and bank tellers. The government controlled war-related work and women were rarely able to gain jobs in these areas.

The Australian Women's Service Corps was formed with the aim of training women to take over male jobs in the services at home, to free more men to fight overseas. However, women were told that their services were not necessary.

Source 8.61

> The Australian Women's Service Corps, which has a membership of 1000, and which was formed recently with the object of training women to undertake the duties of motor-drivers, orderlies, clerks, and kitchen hands, in order to release men for fighting purposes, a few weeks ago made an offer to the Defence authorities to provide 700 women for such duties. A reply has been received from Mr T. Trumble, secretary of the Defence department, thanking the corps for its patriotic offer, but intimating that there are no positions available wherein the services of women could be utilised.
>
> *The Argus*, Melbourne, 4 January 1917



Source 8.60 This photograph, taken in 1915, shows women making uniforms at the Commonwealth Clothing Factory in Melbourne. Women were offered better working conditions and wages here than those offered by private employers, but they were also expected to work extremely hard for the war effort.

By the end of the war, the percentage of women working outside the home had risen by about 13 per cent. However, there was an expectation after the war had finished that women who had taken on the traditional roles and jobs of men would return to the home, making way for returned soldiers. Most women were willing to do this. However, there were roles such as secretaries, typists and telephonists that continued to be regarded as women's work.

Women's voluntary work during the war

During World War I, women were strongly encouraged to help the war effort by joining voluntary organisations. Vast numbers of women and girls sewed and knitted to ensure that the troops had warm clothing, and raised money to help those affected by the war.

Women who took on voluntary work developed skills and confidence. For many women, especially younger ones, these opportunities helped to shape their lives as the nation moved into the 1920s.

Australian Red Cross

After it was founded in Melbourne in 1914, the Australian Red Cross grew to have branches in every state of Australia. Women volunteering for the Red Cross attended working bees where they made packages for the men serving overseas. These packages included things like soap, toiletries, food, clothing and medical supplies. The Red Cross also raised money to assist soldiers' families, and established homes for wounded soldiers to recover in.

Australian Comforts Fund

The Australian Comforts Fund was established in 1916. Their main goal was to raise money, which they used to provide 'comfort boxes' for the soldiers. These boxes contained things like knitted socks, pyjamas and cigarettes.

Women and recruitment

Women were also active in influencing and encouraging men to enlist. Some women refused to speak to men who had not enlisted. Other women sent white feathers, a symbol of cowardice, to men who had not enlisted.

Images of women were regularly used in posters published by the government to encourage recruitment. Women were portrayed as 'helpless and vulnerable victims', in need of Australian soldiers to protect them from the 'evil Germans'.



Source 8.62 Australian Red Cross poster, 1914–1918

Other women encouraged men not to enlist. Vida Goldstein, for example, was a Melbourne woman who actively promoted pacifism (opposition to war) and formed the Women's Peace Army in 1915.

Check your learning 8.13

Remember and understand

1 What roles were open to Australian women during World War I?

2 Describe some of the main activities of the volunteer organisations that existed to help the war effort.

Apply and analyse

3 Why do you think the offer of the Australian Women's Service Corps was rejected?

Evaluate and create

4 Put yourself in the role of a business operator during World War I. When one of your male employees enlisted, you employed a young woman who has proved to be excellent. You have spent time and money developing her skills and knowledge. When your former employee returns from the war, he expects to be re-employed. He has lost a leg and is suffering from shell shock. You have to decide what to do. You cannot afford to employ them both.

a On a sheet of paper, write all the arguments for sacking the woman and re-employing the man. On the other side, list the reasons in favour of keeping the young woman and telling the man to look for work elsewhere.

b Decide which candidate you should employ to fill the position. Write a letter to the unsuccessful candidate explaining your decision and outlining the reasons for it.

The conscription debate

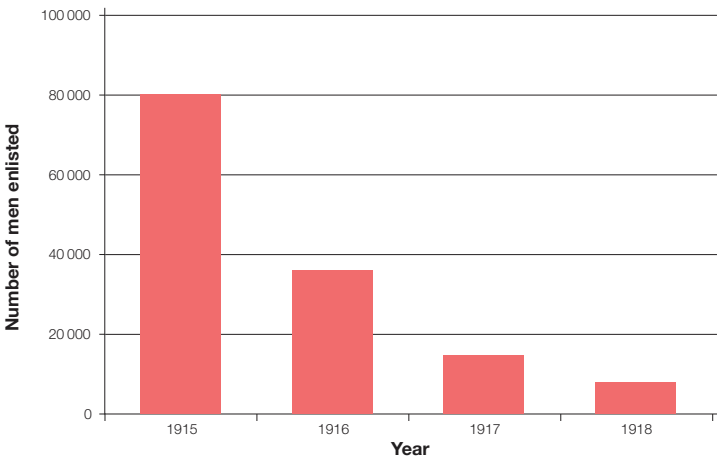
Despite the changes brought about in Australia by World War I, it did not impact on the Australian home front to the same degree as in France, Belgium, Italy, Russia, Turkey and Britain, where fighting took place. In these countries, civilians suffered through food shortages and regular military attacks. Because of the immediate danger faced, all of these countries had systems of **conscription** (compulsory service in the army) during the war. In Australia, however, service was not compulsory. This did not stop it from becoming one of the most divisive and bitter arguments of the war.

Enlistment

When the war began in 1914 many Australian men saw participation in the war as an exciting and noble cause. Men flocked to enlist as most expected the war to be over quickly. But as the war dragged on and information about the number of deaths and casualties emerged, volunteer numbers began to drop. Although there was a peak in enlistments after Gallipoli, from late 1915 numbers steadily declined.

As the numbers of men enlisting declined, the Australian government tried to pressure men to enlist through propaganda campaigns that either encouraged or shamed men into enlisting. The process of asking people to enlist is called recruitment.

Recruitment became an issue when the Australian Prime Minister William Morris (Billy) Hughes returned from a visit to Britain and the Western Front in 1916. Over 27 000 Australian soldiers had just been killed in the first five weeks of the Battle of the Somme in July 1916. Due to the decline in the number of Australian volunteers, heavy Australian losses and the critical state of the war on the Western Front, Hughes announced that there would be a **referendum** (a special national vote) to give the Commonwealth Government the power to force men of military age to join the army.



Source 8.63 Enlistments in the First AIF 1915–1918

Hughes believed that Australia needed at least 7500 men to enlist per month if it was to maintain its fighting strength. To achieve this, he announced that we needed to introduce conscription. This was despite the fact that only a year earlier he had declared, 'In no circumstances would I agree to send men out of this country to fight against their will.'



Source 8.64 William Morris (Billy) Hughes

The conscription plebiscites

The issue of conscription triggered a major debate around Australia. In October 1916, Australians were asked to vote for or against conscription in a **plebiscite** (a public vote or opinion poll). A plebiscite is similar to a referendum, but its outcome is not legally binding and does not result in a change being made to the Constitution. The 1916 plebiscite was narrowly defeated. Most of Hughes' Labor parliamentarians were opposed to conscription and, as a result, the Labor Party split. At the end of 1916, Hughes and 24 of his supporters left the Labor Party and formed a new party known as the Nationalist Party. The Nationalist Party was made up of Hughes and his supporters, along with most of the former members of the Liberal Party. One year later, in 1917, a second plebiscite was held. Again, it was defeated. Hughes could still have introduced conscription, because the results of the plebiscites were not legally binding, but he chose not to.

Australia divided

Supporters of conscription tended to be middle- and upper-class people of British and Protestant background. These people, known as pro-conscriptionists, argued that it was the patriotic duty of Australians to continue to support the war effort. They accused opponents of being lazy and selfish, of being 'German lovers' and of letting down the thousands who had already given their lives. In pro-conscription **propaganda**, images of noble Australian

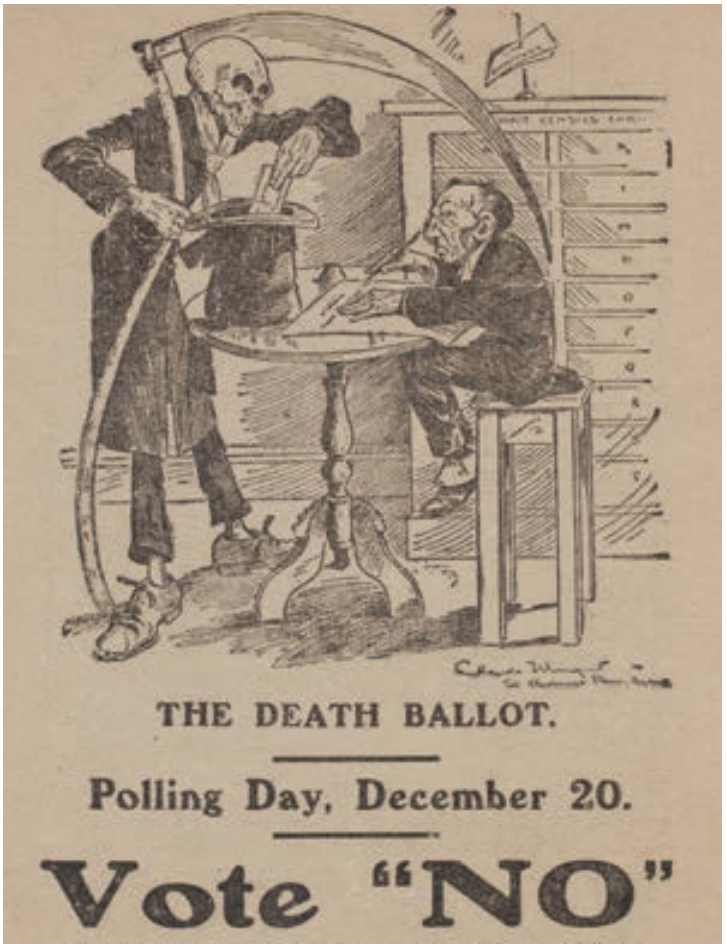
soldiers and their families are shown suffering for the good of the country as they fight the Germans.

Opponents of conscription were more likely to be working class, Catholic and of Irish background. Catholic Archbishop Daniel Mannix was the unofficial leader of the anti-conscription campaign and he urged Catholics to vote 'no'. Those who opposed conscription claimed that Australia had already given enough of its young men. They said that it was not really Australia's war. They also argued that several hundred thousand soldiers had gone voluntarily to the war and that it was not necessary to force Australians to fight. Anti-conscription propaganda urged people to vote 'no' in the plebiscite or 'Death Ballot' (see Source 8.66).

Many trade unionists opposed conscription, arguing that the war was a **capitalist** war and should not be supported. Some trade unionists also argued that if the majority of able-bodied Australian men were sent to the front, employers would begin to employ non-whites at lower wages, undermining the gains that Australian workers had made. Women were equally divided on the issue and were used by both sides of the campaign. Images of women and children frequently appeared in conscription propaganda (see Source 8.65).



Source 8.65 A pro-conscription poster produced in Australia around 1918. The word 'Hun' is a derogatory term being used here to refer to the Germans.



Source 8.66 An anti-conscription cartoon, printed in 1917, from the No Conscription Council Campaign Comittee

Check your learning 8.14

Remember and understand

1 Why do you think both sides of the conscription debate used women, especially mothers, in their propaganda?

Apply and analyse

2 Why do you think that Billy Hughes held two plebiscites when he had the power to introduce conscription without the nation's support?

3 Can you explain why middle- and upper-class people were more likely to support conscription than working-class people?

Evaluate and create

4 Do you think the war might have affected Australia differently if conscription had been introduced? Conduct some additional research and write a 250-word report to outline the possible effects of conscription on the war effort and the home front.

Anti-German sentiment in Australia

German–Australians before the war

Throughout the second half of the 19th century, many Germans had settled in Australia. Most German settlers arrived in Port Adelaide, and then moved on to settle in areas such as the Barossa Valley (in South Australia), the Riverina (in New South Wales) and south-east Queensland. Many German immigrants found these regions suitable for wheat and dairy farming, the planting of vineyards and wine making. By 1914 over 100000 people of German descent lived in Australia. Many of these had been granted full Australian citizenship before 1914, while others were second- and third-generation Australians. On the whole, German–Australians were a well-established and well-liked community prior to the outbreak of the war.

The outbreak of war

With the rising tension between the British and German Empires, German–Australian communities began to find themselves the subject of suspicion and hostility in Australia. When war broke out in 1914 this changed to outright aggression.

At the time, many German–Australians had come to think of themselves as Australian first. Indeed many of them enlisted in the AIF. For example, the first Australian commander of the AIF, General John Monash, was the son of German migrants.

However, when Australia and the rest of the British Empire were at war with Germany, German–Australians were considered potential threats to national security. Many Anglo–Celtic Australians believed the German–Australians had divided loyalties or even that they were spies. Almost overnight, German–Australians became the target of hate campaigns. Propaganda and vicious rumours were circulated. Life became very difficult for anyone of German descent.



Source 8.67 This poster, created by the New South Wales Recruitment Committee, uses anti-German sentiment to encourage people to enlist in the armed forces.

The Commonwealth government and legislation

Two months after the war began, the Australian government created more tension between British–Australians and German–Australians with the introduction of the War Precautions Act. The Act authorised the Commonwealth government to do whatever it felt necessary to secure the safety of the nation. This Act, together with later regulations and Acts, set out a number of restrictions on the lives of people of German descent. In particular, it specified that all '**enemy aliens**' (foreign residents from enemy nations) had to register and report weekly to local police stations or military authorities, pledge their allegiance to Australia and the British Empire, and inform the authorities of any change of address.

Internment

Over the course of the war, nearly 7000 people were classified by the government as 'enemy aliens' and imprisoned in **internment camps**. Most of these people were of German or Austro–Hungarian descent who had been residents in Australia when the war broke out. Some had lived here for many years or had even been born in Australia. There were no hearings or appeals.

Initially, internment camps were set up all across Australia, but in July 1915, all internees were moved to camps in New South Wales. Here, the three main internment camps were at Trial Bay Gaol, Berrima Gaol and Holsworthy Army Barracks. Germans who were not placed in camps were carefully watched by the police and neighbours.



Source 8.68 Holsworthy Internment Camp, Liverpool, New South Wales

Hostility towards Germans in Australian society at the time was so strong that many people of German or Austrian heritage decided that life inside the internment camps would be preferable. Many of them had lost their jobs and could not feed their families. During the war, 1500 people chose to enter internment camps voluntarily.

Other reactions to the threat of the 'enemy within'

In response to the threat of German–Australians, the government closed down German schools and changed the names of towns that it thought sounded 'too German'. In New South Wales, Germantown became Holbrook; in Tasmania, the town of Bismarck became Collinsville; and in Victoria, Mount Bismarck was renamed Mount Kitchener – after the British Field Marshal, Lord Kitchener. In Townsville, the German Gardens became the Belgian Gardens.

Many families of German descent changed their names to stop harassment from the government and a war-mad community. German schools and churches were closed, German music was banned, and German food was renamed.

After the failure of the second conscription plebiscite in 1917 the anti-German campaign was increased further. People of German descent were stopped from joining the Army, and from holding civil positions such as local councillors or Justices of the Peace.

Many Australians also refused to work beside people of German descent, striking until they were sacked from their jobs. People refused to buy anything from German-owned businesses.

key**concept:** empathy

Prejudice during war time

When times are tough, whether through war, depression or natural disaster, part of the natural human response to the difficulties is to look for someone to blame.

Ethnic or religious groups such as Irish Catholics, Jews or Muslims have often been held responsible, or used as scapegoats (those seen to bear the blame), for particular events over the course of history. The general public usually knows little about the scapegoat group, which makes it easier to hate and blame. When individual members of the targeted group are actually known, it becomes easier to empathise with them.

During World War I, Germans and Turks were demonised in the press, in posters and in general conversation. In the 1917 election, Australian-born Germans were forbidden from voting. A soldier fighting in France wrote to the *British–Australasian Magazine* in 1918 objecting to the fact that his mother (an Australian-born woman of German descent) was denied the vote: 'Now this has hurt me very much … She worked hard in every respect towards assisting the troops on this side, she paid particular attention to the Red Cross.'

However, there were still Australians who empathised with those of German descent. Some continued to mix on friendly terms with neighbours, and shop and trade with German businesses, particularly in areas like the Barossa Valley.

For more information on the key concept of empathy refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.

Check your learning 8.15

Remember and understand

1. How many people of German descent were living in Australia at the start of World War I?
2. What were some of the suspicions held about German–Australians after war broke out? Who held these views?
3. What restrictions were placed on German–Australians as a result of the War Precautions Act?
4. Why did some German–Australians voluntarily enter internment camps?

Apply and analyse

5. Write a paragraph describing the variety of ways in which anti-Germanism during World War I impacted upon the lives of German–Australians.
6. Negative attitudes towards Germans, even those who were born here or were naturalised Australians, were widely held during World War I.
   a. How do you explain this reaction?
   b. Do you think the same reaction would happen today if Australia were at war with a country from which many Australian citizens had migrated?

8.3 big**ideas:** rich task

Conscription

The issue of conscription was one of the most bitter and divisive debates in Australian history. Even though both plebiscites were defeated, and achieved no change at all, the impact on the nation was lasting. The issue divided friends, neighbours, workmates and even families. Well into the 1920s the scars of these bitter battles could be felt in the Australian community. Prime Minister Billy Hughes and Archbishop Daniel Mannix were two of the most important figures in the debate, with Hughes being the greatest proponent of conscription and Mannix being its loudest critic.

Source 8.69

Britain has raised, I say, an army and navy of over five million men. She has raised more than one-tenth of her total population. We have raised, at the outside, about one-twentieth…The time has come when (Australia) must do better…

Does anyone who loves his country… doubt that if Germany wins in this war she will lay her predatory hands on this country of ours? … Is there in the world a greater prize than Australia? … I tell you, and I am armed with knowledge, that our position is hopeless … We may say what we like, but once the Allies' line is broken in France… there is an end of us. Get that into your minds. But for the allied armies and the British navy we are doomed men. We may bleat and we may struggle, but we are like sheep before the butcher, and nothing can save us.

… Tens of thousands of our kinsmen in Britain have died that we might live free and unmolested. Is there one man who will say that we ought not to pay the debt we owe to Britain, with our lives if need be, for shielding our country with the bodies of her glorious soldiers and sailors from the scorching blast of war? Australians! This is no time for party strife. The nation is in peril, and it calls for her citizens to defend her. Our duty is clear. Let us rise like men, gird up our loins and do that which honour, duty and self-interests alike dictate.

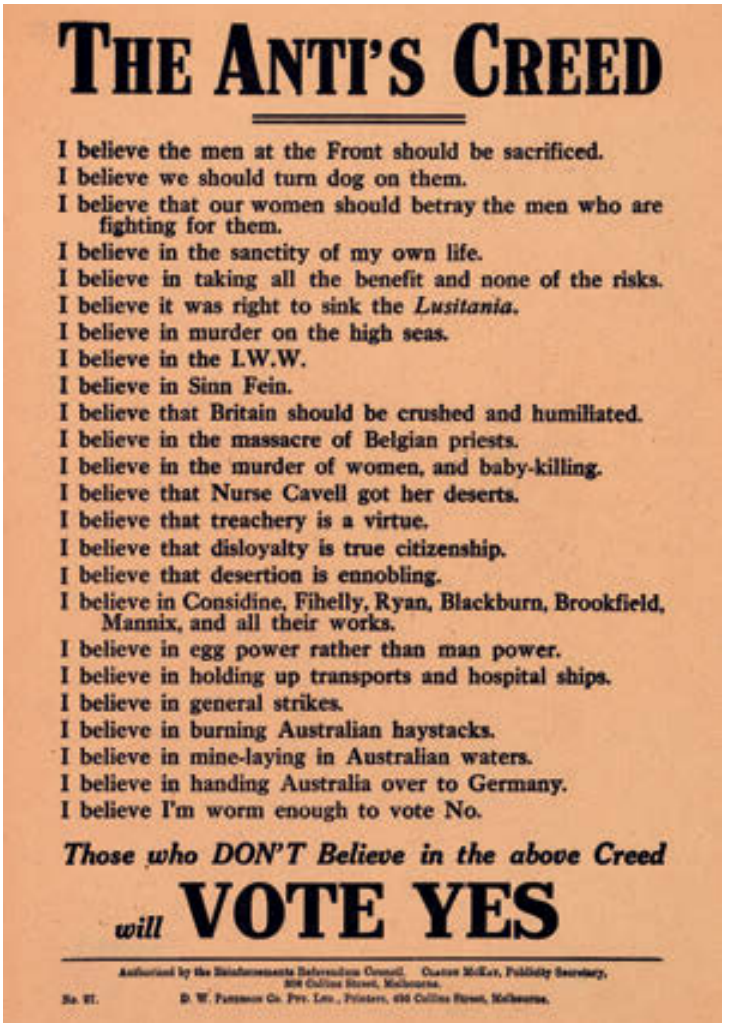
An excerpt from a speech by Prime Minister Billy Hughes, 18 September 1916

Source 8.70

… It is only twelve months since the people of Australia pronounced their emphatic verdict … that Australia is a democratic country, and that there is no room here for slavery and conscription. Now you are asked to pronounce on the same question again. I hope that your answer will be the same as before, but more emphatic and decisive.

We are quite ready to hear anything that the conscriptionists have to add on what they said on the previous occasion. Many things said then have since been unsaid, because they were untrue. This time, I hope that, even at the cost of some effort, they will stick as closely as they can to the truth. We were told a year ago that we should vote for conscription because there was some great secret locked up in the bosom of the Prime Minister. I hope there is no secret there now! Let us hear the worst. Indeed, we are likely to get very gloomy news from this to the taking of the referendum. We always get the news that fits the occasion. At other times, all our battles are victorious and our losses are very light. But now the Allies will suffer one defeat after another – and all for the lack of conscription in Australia and of a few more Australians in the trenches. Do not take my word for this. Just watch the papers. Wait and see what they have ready for you during the next few weeks. You will be appealed to as if everything depended on what Australia does or leaves undone …

Excerpt from a speech delivered by Archbishop Daniel Mannix to 6000 people, two months before the second conscription plebiscite in 1917



THE ANTI'S CREED

I believe the men at the Front should be sacrificed.
I believe we should turn dog on them.
I believe that our women should betray the men who are fighting for them.
I believe in the sanctity of my own life.
I believe in taking all the benefit and none of the risks.
I believe it was right to sink the *Lusitania*.
I believe in murder on the high seas.
I believe in the L.W.W.
I believe in Sinn Fein.
I believe that Britain should be crushed and humiliated.
I believe in the massacre of Belgian priests.
I believe in the murder of women, and baby-killing.
I believe that Nurse Cavell got her deserts.
I believe that treachery is a virtue.
I believe that disloyalty is true citizenship.
I believe that desertion is ennobling.
I believe in Considine, Fihelly, Ryan, Blackburn, Brookfield, Mannix, and all their works.
I believe in egg power rather than man power.
I believe in holding up transports and hospital ships.
I believe in general strikes.
I believe in burning Australian haystacks.
I believe in mine-laying in Australian waters.
I believe in handing Australia over to Germany.
I believe I'm worm enough to vote No.

Those who DON'T Believe in the above Creed

will VOTE YES

Authorised by the Reinforcements Referendum Council, Charles McKay, Publicity Secretary, 308 Collins Street, Melbourne.

No. 27. D. W. Paterson Co. Pty. Ltd., Printers, 416 Collins Street, Melbourne.

Source 8.71 A leaflet produced by the 'Reinforcements Referendum Council', a pro-conscription group in Melbourne, Victoria, in 1917 (AWM RC00317)

skill**drill**

Identifying the origin, context and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Historians use primary and secondary sources to gather evidence about the past. Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but sources will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of the time they were created in. All sources are affected by the author's own point of view, and in some cases an author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or ignore certain facts. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources. Historians need to identify:

- what a source is and where it came from (origin)
- what life was like when the source was created (context)
- why the source was created (purpose).

Ask yourself the following questions to identify the origin, context and purpose of a source:

Step 1 Identify origin

- What type of source is it?
- Who wrote, produced or made the source? What do you know about their age, gender, occupation, position in society or religious background?
- When was the source written, produced or made?
- How old is the source?
- Is it an eyewitness account or was it written by someone at a later date?
- Is the source complete?

Step 2 Identify context

- What was life like when this source was created?
- What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?
- What was the political environment like at the time the source was created?
- What sort of common prejudices and social norms existed at the time that may have influenced the author or the source?

Step 3 Identify purpose

- Why was the source written or created?
- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the author have anything to gain personally from the source?
- Does it give a detached, balanced account?
- Were there political reasons for the creation of the source?
- Is it propaganda?

Apply the skill

1 Identify the origin, context and purpose of the three sources in this section (Sources 8.69, 8.70 and 8.71) by following the steps provided.

   a For each source, work through the questions listed in steps 1, 2 and 3. Create a table in which to record your answers at each step. In order to answer some of these questions, you will need to draw on information from this chapter. You may also need to conduct some additional research about Prime Minister Billy Hughes, Archbishop Daniel Mannix and the Reinforcements Referendum Council.

   b Once you have completed your analysis of the three sources, write a 300-word report that explains the origin, context and purpose of each.

Extend your understanding

1 Many women wrote letters to newspapers arguing for and against conscription during World War I. Choose one side of the conscription debate and write a letter to the editor from the perspective of a parent whose son is a soldier on the front line.

8.4 How is World War I remembered and commemorated?

Anzac Day and the Anzac legend

Even before World War I had ended, Australians looked for a way for the whole nation to recognise the efforts of the Australian forces and the sacrifices that the war demanded. Today, we continue to remember the wars with two official commemoration days – Anzac Day and Remembrance Day – along with a number of other symbols and traditions.

For Australians, commemoration of World War I has always been closely tied to the Gallipoli landing on 25 April 1915. Despite Australians being involved in more successful campaigns and battles during World War I, it is Gallipoli that has come to symbolise Australia's war experience.

Despite the disastrous landing and loss of life, Australians at home met the news from Gallipoli with a sense of pride. In the first news reports that reached Australia, the soldiers were praised for their courage and gallantry. British war correspondent (journalist) Ellis Ashmead-Bartlett wrote of the Anzacs, 'There has been no finer feat in this war than this sudden landing in the dark and storming the heights, above all holding on whilst the reinforcements were landing.' (*The Argus*, 8 May 1915). His views were echoed by British General Sir Ian Hamilton.



Source 8.72 The Shrine of Remembrance opened in Melbourne in 1934 to commemorate Victorians who gave their lives in World War I. Similar war memorials exist in towns and cities across Australia.

Source 8.73

> … History contains no finer record of dauntless bravery than is here described, while the knowledge of the magnificent part taken in this spectacular drama by our own gallant troops will thrill every heart in our own land.
>
> Ian Hamilton, 'Australia's Glorious Day: The Official Story of the Landing and Attack by Our Combined Forces at the Dardanelles'

The greatest praise of all came from King George V, who stated that the diggers had 'indeed proved themselves worthy sons of the Empire'.

Anzac Day commemoration

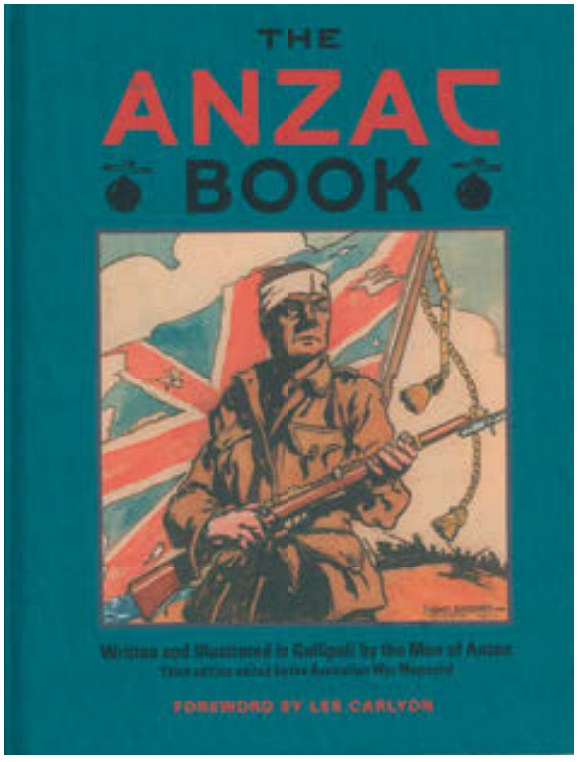
Anzac Day, 25 April, was made a day of commemoration in 1916. That year, ceremonies and marches were held all around Australia. A march was also held in London, England, where the ANZAC troops were hailed by local newspapers as 'The Knights of Gallipoli'. By 1927, Anzac Day had become a public holiday in Australia, with marches and dawn services held around the country annually.

The events of 25 April 1915, on a peninsula in Turkey, continue to resonate with Australians today. More than any other event in Australia's history, the Gallipoli landing occupies a special place. A legend has developed around Gallipoli that grows stronger as the years pass. Schoolchildren learn about the Gallipoli landing and relish legends such as the story of Simpson and his donkey. Hundreds of thousands of Australians join in or watch Anzac marches through large capital cities and small country towns. Many more take part in commemorations and wreath-laying ceremonies at war memorials throughout the country.

Each year, increasing numbers of young Australians find their way to Gallipoli to be present at the Anzac Day dawn service there. It has become something of a rite of passage. Anzac ceremonies, wherever they are held, traditionally conclude with the words from Laurence Binyon's poem 'For the Fallen':

Source 8.75

> 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.
>
> 'For the Fallen', Laurence Binyon



Source 8.74 Cover of *The ANZAC Book*, a collection of stories, poems, sketches and reminiscences by the Australian soldiers at Gallipoli, edited by CEW Bean (AWM ART90422)



Source 8.76 A dawn memorial service is held on 25 April each year at Anzac Cove, Gallipoli.

Origins of the legend

The significance of the Gallipoli campaign, and the origin of the Anzac legend that surrounds it, can largely be linked to the fact that it was the first time that Australia had fought in a war as a nation. Australia had only existed for 13 years as a united country at the time it went to war. Australians at home waited eagerly for accounts of the first encounter of the Australian Imperial Force. When news of the first battles at Gallipoli appeared in Australian papers on 8 May 1915, the fact that the landing had been a failure was almost completely overlooked.

Commentators at the time, and in the years since 1915, have developed the theme that Gallipoli was a defining national experience. It has been said that 'Australia became a nation on the shores of Gallipoli'. Historians have referred to the Gallipoli experience as Australia's 'baptism of blood' or 'baptism of fire'. Australian historian Bill Gammage wrote of the experience, 'The circumstances of a national army, an arena, a brave enemy … led three nations, Australia, New Zealand and Turkey, to create national traditions from the Gallipoli Campaign'.

It has also been suggested that, although they were enemies, a sense of respect developed between the Anzac soldiers and the Turks. Engraved at Anzac Cove are the words written in 1934 by Kemal Atatürk, Commander of the Turkish 19th Division during the Gallipoli campaign, and the first President of the Turkish Republic, from 1924 to 1938:

Source 8.77

> Those heroes that shed their blood and lost their lives … you are now lying in the soil of a friendly country. Therefore rest in peace. There is no difference between the Johnnies and the Mehmets to us where they lie side by side here in this country of ours. You, the mothers, who sent their sons from far away countries, wipe away your tears; your sons are now lying in our bosom and are in peace. After having lost their lives on this land they have become our sons as well.
>
> Memorial written by Kemal Atatürk, 1934



Source 8.78 Anzac soldiers in the trenches using periscope rifles (AWM A03868)



Source 8.79 'A present from home – "Do they think we're on a bloomin' picnic?" ', cartoon from *The ANZAC Book*, 1916, edited by CEW Bean, p. 64 (AWM ART00052)



Source 8.80 As this photo (taken on 19 August 1966 during the Vietnam War) indicates, Australian soldiers have maintained the spirit of 'mateship' in battle first evident at Gallipoli 50 years earlier. (AWM FOR/66/0665/UN)

key**concept:** significance

Alec Campbell

The last living direct Australian link to the Gallipoli campaign was lost on 16 May 2002 with the death of Alexander William ('Alec') Campbell, aged 103. Campbell enlisted in the AIF at age 16, after lying about his age to meet the required minimum age of 18. Campbell landed at Gallipoli in November 1915. He carried ammunition, supplies and water to the trenches. He was discharged on medical grounds around a year later. Campbell's funeral in 2002 was attended by the then Prime Minister John Howard and the chiefs of the defence forces. On this day, around Australia and overseas, flags were flown at half-mast to pay respect to this final link to Gallipoli.

For more information on the key concept of significance refer to section HT.1 of 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 8.81 Alec Campbell

Check your learning 8.16

Remember and understand

1 What was the immediate reaction in Australia to the news of the Gallipoli landing?
2 In what year was Anzac Day made a day of commemoration?
3 In what year did Anzac Day become a public holiday?

Apply and analyse

4 Why do you think the Gallipoli landing is such a significant event in Australia's history?
5 The Anzacs were fighting the Turks on their home soil. They could be said to have invaded Turkey. However, there seems to have been a mutual respect between the two peoples, which has grown through the years. What reasons can you think of to explain this? Conduct research online to help you if necessary.

Evaluate and create

6 Re-read the memorial written by Kemal Atatürk (Source 8.77). Imagine you are one of the mothers whose sons are buried at Gallipoli. Write a letter of gratitude to Atatürk.

Other forms of commemoration

Symbols, traditions and events that commemorate war are important elements in almost all nations. Well-tended war cemeteries can be found wherever significant battles have been fought. The Australian War Memorial in Canberra is one of the most visited sites in Australia. War memorials, avenues of honour and statues of war heroes can also be found in virtually every Australian town and city.

The legacy of World War I has shaped many aspects of Australian society and culture over the course of the 20th century, both positively and negatively. The restrictions on trade imposed by the war forced Australia to develop new industries.

The War Service Homes scheme was responsible for the development of new suburbs – streetscapes of comfortable Californian bungalows that are so desirable today. New hospitals, including the Repatriation General Hospital established in Hobart in 1921, were set up to care for those who had returned from war with physical or, sometimes, mental injuries. The Returned and Services League (RSL), established in 1916, continues to provide support and advocacy for the veterans of any war that Australia has engaged in over the past century.

Remembrance Day

Anzac Day is the main day for war commemoration in Australia and New Zealand. However, Remembrance Day, 11 November, is a more general recognition of the sacrifices made in war. This date marks the day and the hour when the Armistice (ceasefire) was signed, bringing an end to World War I.

In many countries, people pause for one minute at 11am on Remembrance Day to remember those who gave their lives in war. Red poppies are worn to symbolise the dead. Red poppies grew wild along the Western Front and also in Turkey. At these ceremonies, the poem 'In Flanders Fields' (see Source 8.83) is frequently read.

Source 8.83

In Flanders fields the poppies blow
Between the crosses, row on row,
That mark our place; and in the sky
The larks, still bravely singing, fly
Scarce heard amid the guns below.
We are the Dead. Short days ago
We lived, felt dawn, saw sunset glow,
Loved and were loved, and now we lie
In Flanders fields.
Take up our quarrel with the foe:
To you from failing hands we throw
The torch; be yours to hold it high.
If ye break faith with us who die
We shall not sleep, though poppies grow

'In Flanders Fields', John McCrae (1872–1918)



Source 8.82 During World War I, red poppies were the first plants to bloom on the battlefields of France and Belgium. Today, the red poppy has become a symbol of sacrifice and rememberance.

The Australian War Memorial, Canberra

The Australian War Memorial in Canberra is Australia's nation memorial to all those who have died or participated in the wars of the Commonwealth of Australia. It was opened in 1941, but the idea for it was conceived on the shores of Gallipoli.

Charles Bean (1879–1968), a journalist, was Australia's official war correspondent during World War I. He went ashore on Gallipoli on 25 April 1915 and stayed close to the front line for the rest of the war. It was he who, in 1918, first imagined how the Australian War Memorial would appear.

Source 8.84

> … on some hill-top – still, beautiful, gleaming white and silent, a building of three parts, a centre and two wings. The centre will hold the great national relics of the A.I.F. One wing will be a gallery – holding the pictures that our artists painted and drew actually on the scene and amongst the events themselves. The other wing will be a library to contain the written official records of every unit.
>
> CEW Bean, 1918, cited in Australian War Memorial website

The Australian War Memorial features a Roll of Honour that lists all those who died in World War I, as well as a Commemorative Roll which lists all those who died as a result of war injuries after the war finished.



Source 8.86 An aerial view of the Australian War Memorial, Canberra, 1945 (AWM 100793)



Source 8.85 Charles Bean at work on war histories in his Victoria Barracks office, Sydney, *c.* 1935 (AWM AO5389)

Check your learning 8.17

Remember and understand

1. Why are red poppies worn on Remembrance Day?
2. What is the purpose of the RSL?

Apply and analyse

3. Why do you think that wars and war experiences are such significant elements of so many national stories?
4. What is the main purpose of the Australian War Memorial? What information is featured there?

Create and evaluate

5. The poem 'In Flanders Fields' (Source 8.84) is often read at Remembrance Day ceremonies. Think carefully about the emotions and sentiments that it expresses. Write your own poem that also reflects these sentiments and that commemorates World War I.

8.4 big**ideas:** rich task

The Anzac legend today

The Anzac legend has not remained static. It was expected that as the last of the World War I diggers died, the significance of Gallipoli would begin to fade. There was some decline in interest in Anzac Day in the decades after World War II, but since the 1980s Anzac Day has grown in significance.

The reasons for this resurgence of interest in the Anzac legend and the Gallipoli story are complex. The attention paid to the declining numbers of World War I veterans combined with the popularity of films such as *Gallipoli* have brought the events of 1915 to the attention of the wider community. The pilgrimage of Gallipoli survivors in 1990, to mark the 75th anniversary of the campaign, brought widespread media and popular awareness of the Gallipoli landing.

Today, interest in Anzac Day has never been stronger. School assemblies, church services, television and radio programs and even sporting events are linked to the commemoration of the Gallipoli landing. In fact, as the nation approaches the centenary of Gallipoli in 2015, the place of the Anzac legend is firmly and securely at the centre of national consciousness.

Yet despite the significance of Anzac Day in Australian society, opinions on its origins and importance vary. The following sources (see Sources 8.87 to 8.89) show how Australians have debated the meaning of the Anzac legend across time.

Source 8.87

No one can express all that this day means to us Australians and New Zealanders. 'It is', said Australia's great historian Manning Clark, 'about something too deep for words.' But in the stillness of the early dawn, and in the silence that will settle once more along this shoreline, we feel it in the quiet of our hearts. The sense of great sadness. Of loss. Of gratitude. Of honour. Of national identity. Of our past. Of the spirit, the depth, the meaning, the very essence of our nations. And of the human values which those first Anzacs – and those who came after them – embodied and which we, their heirs, must cherish and pass to the future.

May they rest with God.

Address by His Excellency the Governor-General Sir William Deane at Gallipoli, 25 April 1999

Source 8.88

HR: [Anzac Day] is a day on which Australia remembers the war dead from all wars and grieves and mourns their death and their sacrifice. But there's another quite different aspect of it, and that is it's suggesting that the actual landing at Anzac was an event of overwhelming historic importance, and in fact many people would argue, and do so, that is was the creation of the Australian nation.

… We … fully accept and appreciate that every nation has some kind – some day – in which to remember the sacrifice of those who have gone to and have died in war, or have suffered in war. There's no problem with that whatsoever. It is what is built upon that. We are simply pointing out that the whole interpretation of Australian history is distorted by this view of Anzac.

AG: Australia's achievements in nation building and social areas – a living wage and decent working conditions, the 1967 referendum relating to Aborigines – all these things … are cast aside in favour of a new militarised view of history.

HR: [Governments in the last 15 years] have put a great deal of money, particularly addressed at children, … at schools, curriculum material, films … an unprecedented amount of government money going into promoting a particular view of history.

… we can only presume it was done with a view that Australians needed a unifying myth; they needed something to feel proud about their country. But …, by 1914, Australia was … a society which would be the envy of many countries even today. And yet the argument of the militarists is that this achievement wasn't as great because, at the time, there was this view that nations didn't become complete until they'd had their baptism of fire.

… Our argument is not with the mourning-aspect of Anzac Day, it's more with the way in which a whole interpretation of history has been built upon that and, in a way, sanctified by that.

An extract from an interview with the historian Professor Henry Reynolds, ABC, News, *AM,* Brisbane, 24 April 2010. Henry Reynolds [HR] is speaking with reporter Annie Guest [AG] about the book *What's Wrong with Anzac? The Militarisation of Australian History,* UNSW Press, 2010, which he and Professor Marilyn Lake co-edited.



Source 8.89 Australian soldiers in a boat heading towards Anzac Cove, 25 April 1915 (AWM AQ2781)

skill**drill**

Identifying and analysing different historical interpretations

As explained earlier, historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

- Primary sources – objects or materials created or written at the time being investigated
- Secondary sources – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated.

Much of the historical study and research you will complete in secondary school involves reading secondary sources (for example, textbooks and websites about the historical period you are studying). While these secondary sources at first glance may appear to provide a balanced, objective and unbiased view of historical events or periods, this is not always the case. All historians write from a particular perspective. There is no single objective, unbiased 'truth' – instead, all historians have to interpret historical events and issues from their own perspective. Historians must use evidence to support their interpretations, but there is no absolutely 'correct' way of interpreting evidence. They are also required to use (or disregard) different sources of evidence to support many different interpretations. For example, many historians writing in the early 1900s about the British settlement of Australia presented this in a very positive light, and more or less ignored the negative experiences of Indigenous Australians.

For these reasons, it is very important that you are able to identify and analyse different historical interpretations. Ask yourself the following questions:

- What historical event is being interpreted?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as important in this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as positive in this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are ignored or left out of this interpretation?
- What particular features, incidents, actions or behaviours are seen as negative in this interpretation?
- What motives or characteristics are being attributed to the humans involved in this interpretation?
- What primary sources are used to support the interpretation? How?
- What primary sources might have been left out of or ignored by this interpretation?
- Does this interpretation involve a critique of other interpretations? If so, what is being said about other interpretations?

Apply the skill

1 Consider sources 8.87 and 8.88. Using the questions above as a guide, identify and analyse the way that the writer of each source has interpreted the events that occurred on 25 April 1915 on the shores of Gallipoli. Write a 250-word report explaining your findings using additional background information from the Internet if required.

Extend your understanding

1 Interview 10 people (males and females of various ages and occupations). Use these interviews, plus other material in this chapter, to write an article for your school newsletter titled: 'What Anzac Day means to Australians today'.

2 The Peter Weir film *Gallipoli* (1980) is thought to have played an important role in the revival of interest in the Anzac legend. View the film and suggest why it may have had this impact. Refer to specific features of the film (scenes, characters, incidents, symbols and music).

glossary: geography

A

acid rain rainfall that has been affected by pollution so much that it becomes acidic, and in turn harms the environment

Agricultural Revolution, the a period of gradual change to the agricultural system that began in Britain in the 18th century, and included the introduction of new techniques and machinery in farming

annotate to add notes which explain, comment or clarify

aquifer an underground water supply consisting of a layer of rock or other permeable materials that contains water

arable a word used to describe land that is suitable for growing crops

armed conflict war between different countries, or civil war between groups within a single country

B

bar graph a graph that shows information as a series of horizontal bars

biodiversity the variety of living organisms on the planet

biome a large area of the Earth that is home to similar plant and animal communities that are adapted to that particular environment; e.g. desert or forest

biofuel a fuel that is produced directly from a living or recently living organism such as plant or animal waste

biodiversity the variety of life in a particular area or biome

BOLTSS a mnemonic (memory device) for remembering the essentials of a map: border, orientation, legend, title, scale and source

boreal refers to the north, or the northern regions

boreal forest the coniferous forest biome, dominated by fir, spruce and pine trees

C

calorie a unit used to measure the energy in food

cartogram a map that is distorted to show a representation of a value rather than land area

change a key concept in geography: the dynamic nature of all processes on Earth, whether slow or fast, small or large

choropleth map a map that shows particular data or characteristics, such as population density, by shading regions in variations of one colour (e.g. light green through to dark green)

climate change long-term significant change in the Earth's weather, including variations in rainfall and wind patterns, regional changes, and particularly the increased average atmospheric temperature

climate graph a combination bar and line graph that shows the rainfall and temperature of a given place; also known as a climograph

compass bearings a precise way of giving compass directions, such as 1350 south-east

complex map a type of map that contains more than one set of information

compound column graph a column graph that has sub-divided columns for further comparison

coniferous relates to trees or shrubs that bear cones and have needle-like leaves, like pine trees

coniferous forest a type of forest comprised of conifer trees, sometimes called a boreal forest

conservation agriculture a type of agriculture that uses farming methods that seek to cause minimum disturbance to the natural environment, conserve resources and complement natural processes

contour lines lines drawn on a map that connect points at the same height to show the height and steepness of land

CSIRO Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation, Australia's national science agency

cultural (adjective) relating to the shared characteristics of a group of people

cultural erosion the process of gradual loss of traditions, language and way of life of a country, community or society

D

deforestation the cutting down of trees and other plant life in a forest

desert a dry region of the Earth with little vegetation or rainfall, but experiencing extreme temperatures

desertification the transformation of fertile land into relatively dry desert areas

developed country an industrialised country with a well-developed economy capable of supporting its own people

developing country a non-industrialised country with a lower living standard, and lower Human Development Index ranking than other countries

direction a way of orienting a map, usually shown by the use of compass points, such as north

digital divide the unequal levels of access that people in different countries have to communication technologies like the Internet and mobile network coverage

digital terrain model topographic illustration that uses digital data to create a side view of the elevation of an area

dot distribution map a map using dots or other shapes to show the location of a particular feature

E

easting the lines that run vertically on a topographical map

economic (adjective) relating to employment, income and trade

ecosystem abbreviation for 'ecological system', a complex community made up of living organisms that interact with each other and with their environment

ecosystem services the important benefits that healthy ecosystems provide to humans; includes the service of providing (e.g. food and water) and regulating (e.g. purifying air and water)

ecotourism a form of tourism that involves visiting a natural environment with the aim of observing, experiencing and learning about it while conserving and supporting the environment and its inhabitants

endangered species a species at risk of becoming extinct

e-waste discarded electronic equipment, such as computers, tablets and mobile phones that are no longer wanted

extraction the process of taking raw materials from the Earth; includes activities such as mining

environment a key concept in geography: a specific place on Earth and all the things, both animate and inanimate, that are there

erosion the wearing away of the Earth's surface by wind, water or ice

ethnicity the background, nationality or culture of a person or group of people

extensive farming a type of farming that requires large areas of land, for example dairy farming, which needs to provide grazing land for cattle

F

false colour image an image that uses colours that are different or more exaggerated than those which occur naturally, in order to make it easier to interpret

famine widespread shortage of food

fertility rate the average number of children women in a particular area or country will have throughout the course of their lives

fieldwork geographical study on location of the site of inquiry

flow diagram a diagram that shows the movement sequence or stages in a process

flow map a map that shows movement (such as people or goods) from one place to another

food accessibility having physical and economic access to enough food that can be reached by those who need it

food availability the state of people having enough food of appropriate quality consistently available

food insecurity a state where not everyone has consistent access to enough safe nutritious food to sustain a healthy life; the opposite of the state of food security

food loss the reduction in the amount of food from where it is produced to where it reaches the consumer

food miles a term used to describe the estimated distance food travels from its site of growth or production to the consumer

food security a state where all people at all times have access to enough safe nutritious food to sustain a healthy life

food waste food that is thrown out by a retailer or consumer

fossil fuel fuel that is made from the organic remains of organisms that have been dead for a long time

G

genetic modification a process by which scientists can change the genes of plants and animals to give them certain desirable traits

geographic diagram a simplified drawing of the real world

Geographic Information System (GIS) a map plus database system for navigation and information collection

geographic photograph a photograph that is taken to depict a place or particular feature of the landscape for the purpose of demonstrating an aspect that is being studied

geographic sketch a sketch focusing on those parts of the environment relevant to the geographic study; often completed in the field but sometimes from a photograph

Global Positioning System (GPS) a device that uses satellites to accurately pinpoint the location of a car or phone, and then utilises data in the form of a digital map to help us find our way around

global trade the buying and selling of goods, services, produce and capital between countries or territories across international borders

global warming the gradual rise in the overall atmospheric temperature of the Earth, believed to be caused by increased levels of certain greenhouse gases in the atmosphere

globalisation the increasing interconnection between countries, including economic, political and cultural exchange between countries all over the world

grasslands a biome of wide open spaces, where the vegetation is dominated by grasses; sometimes called a prairie, steppe or savannah

Green Revolution, the a period of research, development and alteration of agricultural techniques that took place between the 1940s and 1960s, most markedly in the developing world, which saw global increased agricultural production

greenhouse gas a gas in the atmosphere, such as carbon dioxide, that traps heat in the Earth's atmosphere

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) the total monetary value of all the goods and services produced by a country over a specific time period (usually a year)

ground level photograph a photograph that is taken when the camera lens is level with the ground

H

historical (adjective) relating to past experiences and events

horizons layers that are formed in soil over time due to the gradual breaking down of rock into finer particles

hot spot a point not on a plate boundary where there is tectonic activity

hub and spoke a diagram or model in which information is arranged in a format shaped like a wheel, with the hub as the centre

Human Development Index (HDI) a tool developed by the United Nations to grade and rank the social and economic development of the world's countries

I

Industrial Revolution, the a period of major socioeconomic change during the late 1700s and early 1800s, where agricultural and other manufacturing processes were revolutionised by the use of machinery

infrastructure the components necessary for any business or city, such as buildings, electricity, roads, airports and water supply

intensive farming a kind of farming that can supply large volumes of produce in a relatively small area, for example poultry or vegetable farms

interconnection a key concept in geography: the relationship between all things, both animate and inanimate, and all processes, both natural and human

Internally Displaced Person (IDP) someone who has been forced to relocate within his or her own country

invasive species a plant, animal or other organism that is not native to an area, and whose introduction has negative effects on its new environment

irrigation the artificial supply of water to dry land to help in the growing of crops

landfill the method of disposing of rubbish by burying it; a place where rubbish is buried

leaching the draining away or removal of soluble substances

levee a floodbank or embankment that has been built to divert the flow of water or stop it overflowing

life expectancy the average number of years someone can expect to live based on statistics

line graph a graph that displays data as a line

lineal pattern a pattern with its features appearing in a rough line

location where things are located on the Earth's surface

M

map a simplified plan of an area shown from directly above the area

mental map a map that we keep in our heads, usually of our local area or places we are very familiar with, that allows us to navigate without a phone, GPS or hard-copy map

mountain vegetation vegetation that grows on the colder slopes of mountainsides

mulch decaying organic material such as leaves or compost that is spread over soil to insulate it and keep it warm and moist

multinational company a company that operates in more than one country

N

natural regeneration a form of permaculture that allows continuous growth of trees on farmland, whereby the natural process of replacement or re-establishment of plants is encouraged

O

oblique aerial photograph a photograph taken from an airplane (or similar aircraft) where the camera is at an angle to the Earth's surface

organisation how and why things are arranged and managed on the Earth's surface by people

over-farming the process of growing the same crop or harvesting the same product (such as fish) in the same location year after year until the soil or water is depleted to such an extent that it can no longer provide the resource

overlay map a map on some type of transparent paper or layer that is placed over a base map, used to show the relationship between features or evens on the Earth's surface

P

permaculture the growing of a garden or maintenance of an ecosystem that uses the natural systems and resources of plants and animals to sustain itself, without harming the environment

physical map a map that shows the locations and names of physical features of the Earth, such as mountains and rivers

place a key concept in geography: a part of the Earth's surface that is identified and given meaning by people

polar land very cold region that surrounds either the North or South Pole

political map a map that shows the locations and names of built features of the Earth, such as cities, roads, dams and railways

population density the population of a human habitat in terms of individuals per unit area (e.g. 1500 people per square kilometer)

population pyramid a graph that displays the population of males and females in a region by age-group

prairie a biome of wide open spaces, where the vegetation is dominated by grasses; sometimes referred to as grasslands, steppe or savanna

precision farming system of farming that adapts modern technology to analyse aspects of the environment to bring out better economic and environmental outcomes

primary data data collected for a geographical inquiry by a person conducting an inquiry, such as survey data, hand-drawn maps or photographs

Q

qualitative data any information that can be recorded in words, for example, Uluru is very large

quantitative data any information that can be recorded as numbers, for example, Uluru is 3.6 kilometres long

R

radial pattern a pattern with its features spreading out like spokes on a wheel

rainfed agriculture that relies on rainfall for water

rainforest dense forest areas found in tropical areas with warm temperatures and heavy rainfall

raw material the basic organic resources from which things are made; often refers to the Earth's natural materials such as oil, wood, and water

refugee a person who moves to another country because of a natural disaster or to avoid persecution

reliability the confirmation that information is from a reputable, trustworthy source that can be verified as legitimate and accurate

S

salinity the amount of salt content in the soil

satellite image image of a place taken from satellites orbiting above the Earth's surface

savanna a biome of wide open spaces, where the vegetation is dominated by grasses; sometimes called a prairie, steppe or grasslands

scale a key concept in geography: the level at which a geographical inquiry takes place – personal, local, regional, national or global

scale (mapping) a line that indicates the distances on a map as represented in the real world

scatter plot a graph that shows two sets of data by plotted points along two axes, the pattern of which shows their correlation; sometimes called a scatter graph or scattergram

secondary data data collected for a geographical inquiry from another source, such as textbooks, atlases and government websites

sediment solid particles that sink and settle at the bottom of water

silt fine sand rock, sand or clay particles that are carried by water and then deposited in another location

soil degradation the deterioration of soil condition caused by human activity, which results in a lowering of its levels of nutrients, quality and productivity

space a key concept in geography: the way things are arranged on the Earth's surface

spatial distribution the shapes and patterns in which things are arranged on the Earth's surface

spiritual (adjective) relating to a person's beliefs

spit a curved build-up of eroded material that forms at the mouth of a river

steppe a biome of wide open spaces, where the vegetation is dominated by grasses; sometimes called a prairie, savanna or grasslands

subsistence farming type of farming whereby the yield of crops grown or raised by a farmer are just enough to cover their household needs

suburb an area beyond a city centre, with medium-density housing

supply chain the stages through which a product journeys, from its source to the consumer and finally its place of disposal

sustainability a key concept in geography: the ongoing capacity of Earth to maintain all life

T

tailing the build-up of residue or waste products in water from the mining process; fine particles of sedimentary waste suspended in water

tariff a tax or payment that a government places on imports or exports of a particular type of product or produce; used to restrict or control trade between countries

tectonic plate one of the immense, slowly moving pieces that make up the Earth's surface and carry the continents and oceans

temperate forest a large forest biome that experiences a range of seasonal climate conditions; lies between the tropics and the polar regions

terracing the process of cutting 'steps' into sloping land to make flat sections

thematic map a map that shows details about a particular topic, such as land use or the distribution of resources

topographic map a map that shows the shape of the land, its relief and landforms

tropical forest a biome that lies between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Tropic of Cancer, which has high regular rainfall, high average temperatures and a high level of biodiversity

tundra a biome that is characterised by having a vast, treeless environment across the Arctic region of Asia, Europe and North America

U

undernourished the state of not having enough food to develop or function adequately

upland rice growing the practice of growing rice on hillsides or mountainsides

urban descriptive of a city or town

urban sprawl the growth of a city onto productive farming land on the city fringes

V

vertical aerial photograph photo taken from an aircraft in which the camera is pointed directly at (perpendicular to) the ground

W

water scarcity the lack of sufficient water to supply the needs of an area

water table the surface underground below which the ground is completely saturated with water

weather map a map that shows conditions in the Earth's atmosphere, such as air pressure, wind speed, wind direction, and warm and cold fronts

weathering wearing away by exposure to the Earth's elements

glossary: history

A

abolitionist a person who supported the ending of slavery and the freeing of all slaves

Agricultural Revolution, the a period of agricultural development and advances in farming methods that took place in Britain from the mid-1600s until the late 1800s and paved the way for the Industrial Revolution

alliance system, the a series of agreements (alliances) formed between various European powers to work together to achieve shared goals; one of the factors contributing to the outbreak of World War I (*see* also Triple Alliance and Triple Entente)

American War of Independence, the a revolutionary war fought between Britain and the 13 British colonies in North America (1775–1783); leading ultimately to independence and the formation of the United States of America

anarchism a social and political theory that all government and laws should be abolished and people should live in free communities where individuals govern their own behaviour

anti-Semitism prejudice, hatred or discrimination against Jews

archaeology study of human history through the excavation of sites and the examination of physical remains

aristocracy a group of people who (through wealth or birth) belong to the upper class of a society or civilisation

armistice an agreement made by warring parties (e.g. countries) to stop fighting in order to negotiate peace

artefact any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, the remains of a building)

assassination the murder of a prominent political or religious figure in a surprise attack

assembly line machinery that is arranged in sequence so that something can be assembled quickly and efficiently

assisted migrant a person wanting to settle in Australia whose transportation costs were paid by the government in exchange for a set period of unpaid work on arrival

B

bias a prejudicial view or attitude towards someone or something that is not altered by the presentation of facts and evidence to the contrary

C

capitalism an economic system under which investment in, and ownership of, the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are privately owned by individuals or corporations and run to generate profits; as opposed to state-owned and controlled systems such as socialism and communism, a supporter of this political system is called a capitalist

cause and effect a key concept in history: the link between what causes an action and the outcome of that action; an appreciation of the fact that events that take place (both short-term and long-term) are linked and can have impacts on people and places for many years to come

census a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, religious beliefs, etc.

Chartism a British working-class movement for political reform that took place in the 1830s; a People's Charter was drawn up in 1838 calling for a range of reforms to make the political system more democratic (including the right to vote for all men over the age of 21); the movement's supporters were called Chartists

chronology a record of events in the order they took place

circa a Latin word meaning 'around' or 'approximately' (abbreviated as 'c.')

colonisation the process of setting up outposts or settlements in other lands by a country, kingdom or empire, often for reasons of trade or defence

colony an outpost set up by a country, kingdom or empire, often for social, financial or strategic (military) reasons

communism an economic system in which the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned (by the state) and goods are distributed equally according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism

competition a concept central to the theory of capitalism; competition arises when more than one producer tries to sell the same (or similar) products to the same buyers; according to capitalist theory, competition results in innovation and more affordable prices

conscientious objector in wartime, a person who is opposed to the war and refuses to perform military service because it goes against their beliefs, religion or conscience

conscription the compulsory enlistment of people to serve in the armed forces

Constitution the political principles on which a country or society is based and that guide its government; also, a written document that outlines these principles

contestability a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of historical sources, historical events or issues put forward by other historians

continuity and change a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that while some aspects of a society stay the same over time (continuity), others will develop and transform (change)

convict a person found guilty of a crime and sentenced by a court to serve some kind of punishment

corps a large grouping of troops within an armed force that performs a certain function (e.g. the Royal Australian Infantry Corps and the Royal Australian Army Medical Corps)

D

Darwinism theory of biological evolution developed by Charles Darwin and others in the mid-1800s; the theory states that all species of organisms evolve through a process known as natural selection in which small, inherited genetic variations increase an individual's ability to compete, survive, and pass on those variations (see also social Darwinism)

democracy a political system based around the idea that the citizens of a society should have control over the way in which they are governed

digger a miner, especially someone who digs for gold; also an informal term used to describe soldiers from Australia and New Zealand; first used during World War I

dispossession to deprive a person or people of the possession or occupancy of land and property; when the British colonised Australia in the 18th century large numbers of Indigenous Australians were dispossessed of their ancestral lands, their hunting grounds and water resources; they were also cut off from their spiritual and cultural heritage as a result dispossession

dogfight a close-range aerial combat between fighter planes

dominion a self-governing nation or state under British sovereignty in the later part of the 19th century and part of the British Empire; British dominions (at various times) included former colonies such as Australia, Canada, India and New Zealand

dynasty a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other (e.g. the Qing Dynasty in China); power is often passed from father to son

E

egalitarianism a social and political theory that gained popularity in the 18th century, promoting the idea of equality among all people regardless of their position in society; the term is taken from the French *égal*, meaning 'equal'

emigration to leave one country or region in order to settle in another

empathy a key concept in history: the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their special circumstances and values into consideration

empire a group of countries and/or areas, often with different languages and having different cultures, ruled by a central power or leader (known as an emperor)

enclosures the act of seizing land (especially common farming land) by putting a hedge or other barrier around it; during the Agricultural Revolution over 4000 Enclosure Acts (laws) were passed by the British Parliament granting ownership of common farming land to private owners

enemy alien an immigrant from an enemy nation (during times of war) who had settled in Australia before the conflict broke out (e.g. people of German heritage already living in Australia during World War II became known as enemy aliens)

Enlightenment, the a cultural, philosophical and intellectual movement that took place across Europe during the 17th and 18th centuries; during this time, thinkers and philosophers questioned beliefs about education, religion, government and society that had been accepted for centuries; Enlightenment thinkers contributed ideas that now form the basis of modern societies and governments around the world

entrepreneur A person who sets up a business in the hope of making a profit

Eureka rebellion a violent uprising led by gold miners in Ballarat, Victoria in 1854 and a significant event in the development of Australian democracy; gold miners protesting against the expense of mining licences rose up against British troops resulting in the deaths of at least 27 people; also referred to as the Eureka Stockade

evidence the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

F

factory system, the a system of manufacturing goods on a large scale using many workers and specialised machinery located on a single site; first adopted in Britain during the Industrial Revolution

Federation the process by which separate colonies or states form a unified nation with a central government; the Commonwealth of Australia was established in 1901 after the six colonies were joined

First Fleet, the the name given to the 11 ships carrying convicts and British officers that left Britain in 1787 to establish a penal colony in New South Wales

free settler a person who leaves their homeland by choice to settle in a new country or colony

free trade an economic policy under which governments do not restrict or interfere with the trade of goods and services between countries by applying tariffs (taxes) to imported goods or providing subsidies (financial payments) to protect local manufacturers

French Revolution, the a revolution in France started in 1789 that saw the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of a democratic system of government

G

globalisation the increasing connectedness of economic and financial systems in countries around the world; globalisation refers to a number of changes that are taking place to decrease the importance of national barriers to the production and trade of goods and services

H

historical inquiry the process of examining historical evidence, conducting research and asking questions about it to find out about the past

House of Representatives the lower house in the Australian federal parliament with one member elected for each electorate (a voting area with set boundaries based on population)

hypothesis a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven

I

immigration the act of entering and settling permanently in a country or region to which a person is not native

imperialism the process of gaining and maintaining control over other countries, regions or territories for economic or strategic (military) reasons

Industrial Revolution, the the name given to the period of rapid development in manufacturing and industry from 1750 to 1900 particularly in Britain

industrialisation a process in which a society or country transforms from an economy based primarily on agriculture and farming into one based on manufacturing and industry

industrialist a person who owns or manages an industry

inflation a general increase in the prices of goods and services accompanied by a fall in the value of money or currency

intern to imprison or keep confined in a particular place

internment camp a prison camp set up to confine enemy aliens, prisoners of war or political prisoners

L

Luddite a member of a group of workers led by Ned Ludd who rioted and broke machinery from 1811 to 1818 in protest against loss of work due to the use of labour-saving machinery

M

merino a breed of sheep prized for their fine wool

migration the movement of people from one place to another

militarism a focus within a country on boosting the strength of the military by growing the armed forces and spending on military equipment

mission (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century (usually by Christian missionaries) to accommodate, educate and convert Indigenous Australians into Christians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

monarchy a system, state or country ruled by a monarch (e.g. a king or queen)

N

nationalism a sense of pride in, and love of, one's country; also the idea that one nation's culture and interests are superior to those of another nation

neutral nation a country that decides not to take part in a war or to favour one side or the other

New World a term that started being used by Europeans in the late 1400s to describe the new lands being discovered around the world (particularly the Americas and later Australia)

no man's land an area of land between two opposing armies that is unoccupied or unclaimed

nomadic a term used to describe a person (nomad) who lives his or her life moving from place to place rather than staying in a fixed place

O

overseer a person who supervises workers, common in factories during the Industrial Revolution

P

pacifist a person opposed to violence and war

pastoralist a farmer of sheep or cattle, usually on a large-scale farm

penal colony a colony set up primarily to receive and contain prisoners from the home country

perspectives a key concept in history: a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their knowledge, culture or beliefs

plebiscite a direct vote by all electors in a country, city or state on an specific and important issue

primary source a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

propaganda information or material that attempts to influence the behaviour or opinions of people within a society; propaganda can take many forms (e.g. posters, flyers, advertising campaigns, films) and is designed to promote a particular cause or course of action and/or damage the cause of an enemy

protection a government policy introduced in Australia from 1850 onwards designed to give the government extensive power over the lives of Aboriginal people (including the regulation of where they lived, where they worked, who they married and what languages they spoke); under this policy, a number of reserves and missions were established around Australia and many Aboriginal people were forced to move and live there

protectorate a district under the protection of a protector (a government official responsible for the Indigenous population)

puddling the process of separating gold from rock sludge using water

pull factors factors that are attractive about a place that a person is considering moving to

push factors factors that are unattractive about a place that a person is considering moving away from

R

referendum (in Australian history) a national vote of the people on actions proposed by the government; any proposed changes to the Australian Constitution must be put to a vote in a referendum

reparations money paid by one country to another as compensation for damage, injuries and deaths it has caused during war

representative democracy a system of democratic government in which certain people are elected by the public to represent their interests in parliament

reservation (in United States history) an area of land set aside as a place to live for the Indigenous people who had been dispossessed of their own lands

reserve (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century in Australia (usually by

colonial powers) to accommodate, educate and 'civilise' Indigenous Australians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

S

Second Fleet, the the name given to the six ships carrying free settlers, convicts and supplies from Britain to the colony of New South Wales that arrived in 1789

secondary source a source created after the time being studied

Senate the upper house in the Australian federal parliament with an equal number of members representing each State (currently 12 members)

separation of powers a principle that guides the way Australia is governed; the power to govern is divided between the Parliament, the Executive and the Judiciary to avoid one group having total control; each branch of government works within defined areas of responsibility and keeps checks on the actions of the other branches

significance a key concept in history: the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

slave a person who is the legal property of another person and who is forced to work for that person without pay (see slavery)

slavery the practice or system of owning slaves

social Darwinism the theory that persons, groups and races in society are subject to the same laws of natural selection as plants and animals in nature; based on a theory proposed by Charles Darwin in the mid-1800s (see Darwinism)

socialism an economic and political system under which investment in, and ownership of, the means of production (e.g. factories, farms and machinery) are publicly owned and resources are allocated to the people according to need; as opposed to privately owned and controlled systems such as capitalism

society a community of people living in a particular area who have shared culture, customs and laws

source any item (e.g. artefact, building, document) that has been left behind from the past; historical sources can be divided into two categories depending on when they were created (see primary source and secondary source)

sovereignty the independent authority and right for a nation or region to govern itself without interference from external powers

squatter (in colonial Australian history) a person who occupied a section of Crown land (land legally owned by the monarch of Britain) for cattle and sheep grazing without purchase or lease; squatters often came into conflict with selectors who were granted access to the land by law

suffrage the right to vote

suffragette a woman seeking the right to vote through organised campaigns and protests

supply and demand a concept central to the theory of capitalism; supply refers to the amount of a good or service produced by a company that is available for sale; demand refers to the amount of that good or service that people are willing to buy at a specific price

T

tariff a tax (usually applied to goods being imported or exported)

terra nullius a Latin term meaning 'land belonging to no one' or 'empty land'; a concept used by the British to justify the settlement of Australia based on the idea that Indigenous Australians did not own the land or possess any claim to it

timeline a visual representation of time showing a sequence of related historical events in chronological order

trade unions an organised group of workers formed by the workers to protect their rights and ensure that their interests are taken into account by company owners and governments

treason the act of betraying or insulting one's own country or monarch (e.g. king or queen)

Treaty of Versailles, the the treaty (binding agreement) that ended World War I and forced Germany to accept responsibility for starting the war and to pay reparations

trench the extensive system of ditches used in World War I to move troops and shelter them from enemy gunfire, as well as a place from which to fire on the enemy

triangular trade the trade of slaves, raw materials and manufactured goods that took place between the continents of Africa, North America and Europe from the 16th century through to the early 19th century

Triple Alliance the alliance formed between Germany, Austria–Hungary and Italy from 1882 to 1915

Triple Entente the alliance formed between Great Britain, France and Russia that formed the basis of the Allied powers during World War I

U

urban planning carefully planned development of cities, in comparison to unregulated and haphazard expansion

urbanisation a term used to describe the increase in the numbers of people living in urban areas (i.e. cities) versus rural areas (i.e. farms)

W

welfare state a system whereby a nation attempts to ensure that all citizens, including the poorest, have their basic needs met through health care, education, housing and pensions

White Australia Policy, the a term used to describe a series of government policies introduced after Federation in 1901 that prevented 'non-white' immigrants from settling in Australia, favouring instead those from certain European nations (especially Britain); these policies were progressively overturned between 1949 and 1973

workhouses public institutions for the very poor, where they could receive food and lodging in return for work

Z

zeppelin a large airship with a rigid frame filled with gas; commonly used across Germany to transport goods and people in the early 20th century

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9 Progressive ideas and movements

1750–1918

mailie ross | tim delany

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depth study option

Progressive ideas and movements (1750–1918)



The Occupy Wall Street demonstrations started in September 2011. Protesting against social and economic inequality, and the undue influence of corporations and financial institutions on government, the movement shares many ideas with the egalitarian and socialist movements of the 18th and 19th centuries.

Have you ever heard the saying, 'the pen is mightier than the sword'? Writers can be extraordinarily powerful when their ideas change the way societies think about the world. In this chapter we will explore how a number of highly influential progressive ideas and the movements they inspired changed the course of history. Some of the most important ideas grew out of oppression and revolution – ideas that transformed the way people thought of themselves and society, and profoundly changed civilisation. These progressive ideas include imperialism, nationalism, egalitarianism, capitalism, socialism, Chartism and Darwinism.

Where did capitalism and socialism come from, and how have they shaped economic and social systems around the world? These two ideas formed the basis for many of the institutions, political structures and economic arrangements that we now take for granted. Many opinions and theories that are accepted today were revolutionary in previous centuries, and without these progressive ideas and the thinkers who created them, the world we live in today may have been a very different place.

How to use this chapter

This chapter is divided into three sections:

Section 1 gives an overview of the main progressive ideas that arose between 1750 and 1918, and explains the contexts in which the ideas became popular.

Section 2 discusses the rise of capitalism and its influence on modern society.

Section 3 discusses the rise of socialism and its influence.

Students should complete **TWO** *sections of the chapter only. Section 1* **MUST** *be completed by all students, then students choose to undertake an in-depth study of either capitalism (Section 2)* **OR** *socialism (Section 3).*

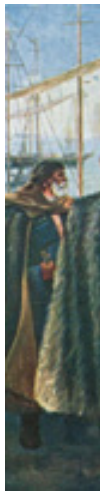
Key inquiry questions

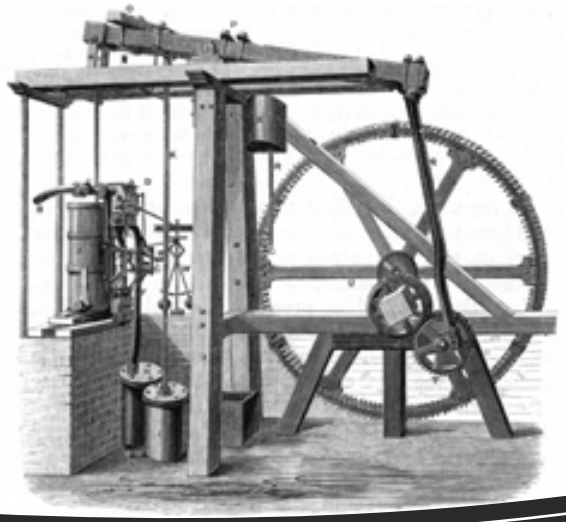
1. What progressive ideas and movements developed from 1750 to 1918?
2. What is capitalism and how has it influenced societies in Australia and the world?
3. What is socialism and how has it influenced societies in Australia and the world?

bigpicture

Progressive ideas and movements

Events that were taking place around the world between 1750 and 1918 influenced progressive thinking at the time. The Industrial Revolution was changing societies around the world, and revolutions in America and France spurred a wave of new ideas. In turn, some of the great thinkers of the world inspired momentous social change and even revolutions. Adam Smith's writings influenced the development of capitalism, and Marx and Engels popularised socialism around the world, inspiring revolution in Russia, in 1917.





1750

c. 1750
The Industrial Revolution begins in England, and continues into the 20th century.

Watt's steam engine, invented in 1776, had a significant impact on the early years of the Industrial Revolution.

1776
Adam Smith publishes *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, creating a foundation for some of the fundamental ideas of capitalism.

1776
The American Revolution ends and America declares its independence from Britain.

George Washington was the first president of the newly independent United States of America.



1788
With the arrival of the First Fleet at Botany Bay, British imperialism extends to Australia.

1789
The French Revolution begins, overturning a centuries-old monarchy in F



The taking of the Bastille. The prison was a symbol of repression for the

1848
Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels publish *The Communist Manifesto*. Marx and Engels are highly influential in the socialist movement.



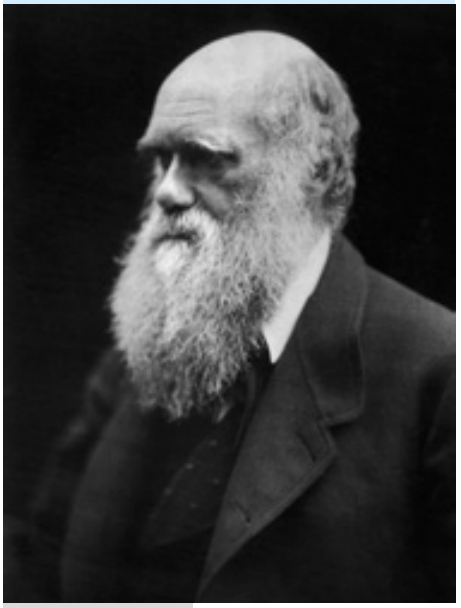
Working people arise! by painter Vladimir Serov, depicts the workers of Russia marching behind the Bolshevik flag during the Russian Revolution.

1917
The Russian Revolution and the victory of the Bolsheviks results in the world's first socialist state.

1860s
The development of the internal combustion engine launches the Industrial Revolution into a new phase.

1904
The Australian Labor Party is elected federally, and is the first socialist party in the world to be elected.

1859
Charles Darwin publishes *On the Origin of Species*, which demonstrates that humans were created by evolution, not by God.



Charles Darwin

1929
The Wall Street Crash plunges global economies into depression.



Crowds gather in Wall St, New York, on 'Black Tuesday' after financial markets crash in 1929.

France.



Source 1 Timeline of key events for progressive ideas and movements 1750 to 1918

1 What progressive ideas and movements developed from 1750 to 1918?



Source 2 *The Wheatfield* by John Constable, 1816, depicts rural life in Suffolk, England. At this time, prior to the emergence of factories during the Industrial Revolution, most people lived in rural settlements.

Between 1750 and 1918 many parts of the world underwent enormous social and political transformations. Systems of rule that had dominated for hundreds of years were broken down as more liberal and progressive ideas took hold.

In 1750 many parts of Europe were under the control of powerful monarchs or emperors. Kings and emperors tended to have absolute power, and leadership was ***hereditary*** *(passed from generation to generation within families); that is, leaders were not elected but were given the right to rule by birth. In Europe, kings were seen as having the divine right of kingship, which meant that God had specially selected them to rule above all others. These systems of rule had existed for many centuries. In general, European societies were very hierarchical, with a small, wealthy landowning class and a large, poor working class or peasantry.*

The Industrial Revolution was one of the biggest changes to occur in this period, providing the environment for the development of many of the progressive ideas we will look at. The Industrial Revolution refers to the enormous social, economic and cultural changes brought about by the introduction of steam power to Britain in 1760, and then the rest of the world. It was a period that lasted for more than 100 years and spanned the entire 19th century. The Industrial Revolution changed almost every aspect of daily life and caused profound economic changes. Manual labour and horse-drawn machinery had previously been the basis of the economy, but now the spread of steam and coal-powered machinery made agriculture, manufacturing and many other industries vastly more efficient. The traditional economy, dominated by landowning nobility, gave way to **capitalism**, where entrepreneurs could invest in machinery and equipment, and hire workers to make a profit. The emergence of factories meant that people migrated to urban areas to work, leading to the rise of cities. Average incomes increased, populations rose dramatically, and a strong middle class emerged in society.



Source 3 Children work in a factory in Georgia, USA, at the turn of the 20th century.

The Industrial Revolution held the great promise of improving lives; however, people did not benefit from it equally. In cities, there was a huge divide between those who had been made wealthy by the economic changes and the masses of factory workers living in overcrowded slums. The author Mark Twain referred to this time in America as 'the Gilded Age'. He believed the Industrial Revolution had promised a golden age to its citizens, whereas in reality many people were suffering under the conditions of the new, industrial economy. It was the perceived oppression of the working classes that gave rise to the ideas of **socialism**, which aspired to all members of society sharing equally in the profits of their labour. **Chartism** was a movement that similarly sought more equal rights for exploited workers.



Source 4 A poor neighbourhood in Glasgow, Scotland, during the Industrial Revolution

As the nations of the industrialised world developed, they started to look outside their own countries for resources, land and people to increase their own wealth and power. Throughout the 18th and 19th centuries, European countries expanded their influence and created great empires, dividing up Africa, Asia and other parts of the world between them. Many parts of the world came under European control as **imperialism** swept across the globe.

Other ideas also changed societies after 1750. Two influential revolutions occurred in the 18th century – the American Revolution (1775–1783) and the French Revolution (1789–1799). While Americans were fighting to free themselves from British colonial rule, the French sought the end of their monarchy. The idea of **egalitarianism** suggested that all people were equal, which did not fit with the disproportionate power held by monarchs. Independence movements also ushered in a new era of **nationalism**, as people began to build a sense of national identity.



Source 5 In 1789 a group calling themselves the National Assembly stood in opposition to the French king, demanding a constitution and political representation. It was an attempt to reduce the power of the king and the first step towards revolution.

Furthermore, changes were occurring in the intellectual world that would undermine the traditional power of the Christian Church across Europe. The Church, primarily the Catholic Church and the Vatican, had been extremely influential in European monarchies. These monarchs relied on the idea that they had been chosen by God to rule. Ideas such as **Darwinism**, which suggested a scientific rather than a divine cause for life on Earth, weakened the authority of the Church and questioned some of its religious teachings.

Check your learning

1. Describe how many European societies were organised before 1750.
2. What was the Industrial Revolution?
3. List some of the changes in society that took place as a result of the Industrial Revolution.
4. What were some of the negative effects of the Industrial Revolution?

Imperialism

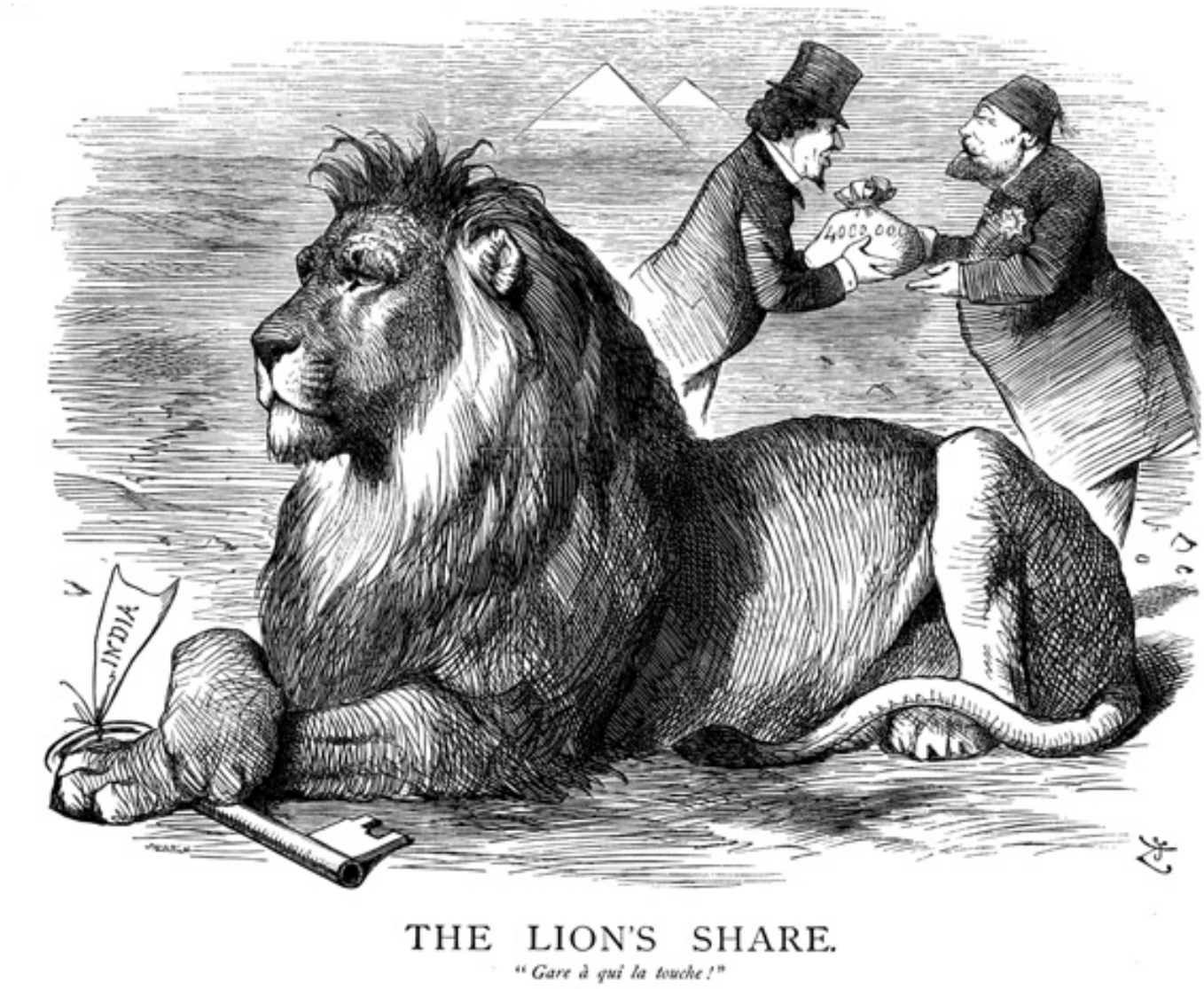
Imperialism is the geographic expansion and domination of one state or people over another. The Age of Exploration, from the early 15th century to the 17th century, opened up the world with the discovery of new lands and shipping routes. Columbus' discovery of the Americas, for example, was in the 1450s. With this greater geographic knowledge of the world, powerful European nations began expanding their empires to take advantage of the resources (land, labour and raw materials) that other countries or regions had to offer.

By the 1890s imperialism had created a very different world. The developed nations of Europe had expanded their territories, extending their political and military power over the less developed countries of the world. European powers controlled vast areas of Africa, Asia and the Middle East and were exploiting these territories for raw resources and labour.



Source 6 A map showing the extent of the British Empire in 1901

There were three main reasons for the dramatic spread of imperialism in the 19th century. First, the 'great powers' of Europe wanted to consolidate their power, so they scrambled for global territory. The empires were in a race for global domination that continued until the beginning of World War I. Second, the Industrial Revolution spreading through Europe demanded resources. The 'untouched' lands beyond Europe could be cheaply exploited to fuel this expansion – particularly if precious metals such as gold could be found. Finally, explorers and early European settlers were eager to 'civilise' native populations around the world and convert them to Christianity.



Source 7 Europe's leaders carve up the territories of Africa. The 'scramble for Africa' refers to the race among Europe's empires to colonise the newly opened continent at the end of the 19th century.

Check your learning

1. Define imperialism in your own words and give an example of an imperialist state and the territory it covered.
2. Explain the reasons for the spread of imperialism in the 19th century.
3. Use the sources to explain why European empires colonised foreign lands, and what they gained from it.

Nationalism

Nationalism refers to a strong identification with a nation or a particular national identity. While we might think of countries like Germany or Italy as being many centuries old, it was not until relatively recently that these countries actually existed as independent nations. For example, until 1861, the region that is now Italy was divided into smaller 'states' and ruled by many different powers and monarchs. Likewise, regions of what is now Germany were part of the kingdom of Prussia until 1871. Before the modern era, people tended to think of themselves as belonging to kingdoms, tribes, cities or religions, rather than to countries.

From the time of the American and French Revolutions in the 1770s to 1790s, the idea of the sovereignty of the people began to emerge. This idea suggests that a country is defined by its people and belongs to its people, rather than to a king, queen or ruler. Therefore, the birth of nationalism was closely linked to the decline of the absolute power of monarchies and imperialism. As empires around the world began to break apart and colonies and territories sought independence, the concept of nationalism expanded.

Nationalism has many different strands. In general, however, nationalists are people who care about their national identity or have a strong sense of belonging to their nation. Nation can be defined in a variety of ways, and can be used to refer to people with common origins, ethnicities, cultural ties, or those who are part of a particular political entity or 'state'. Thus, nationalism exists in many different forms, and can be an inclusive idea that is about expressing national identity, but it can also involve a belief that other races or cultures are inferior. Nationalism also generally linked a desire for independence from other groups or states and self-rule.

The birth of Irish nationalism in the mid-19th century shows how nationalist ideas can change a society. At that time, Ireland was part of the United Kingdom and had been directly ruled by England since 1603. In the 1840s a famine saw at least one million people starve, and another one million emigrate. A movement for independence began to grow among the discontented population, who felt that British rule in Ireland was responsible for many of their problems.

Irish nationalism arose in the call for all Irish people, both Catholic and Protestant, to work together to achieve independence. As part of the formation of national identity, Gaelic language and culture began to be revived and in 1914 a volunteer militia was formed to fight for self-rule. The nationalism of the early 20th century resulted in the 1916 Easter Rising in Dublin with Irish nationalists declaring their own republic. After seven days of fighting, the uprising was over but it spurred further action. The fight for independence continued and in 1922 the Irish Free State was formed after an agreement was reached with England. Ireland became a full republic in 1937. Northern Ireland remains part of the United Kingdom.



Source 8 British troops behind a makeshift barricade in Dublin during the Easter Rising, 1916. The Easter Rising was the culmination of decades of planning by Irish Nationalists.



Source 9 A postcard of 1908 encouraging Irish national pride. The woman is holding the Irish nationalist flag and the postcard reads 'Erin go bragh', meaning 'Ireland forever'.

Check your learning

1. Define nationalism in your own words.
2. Why did nationalism begin to emerge in the 1770s?
3. What are some of the different ways people can identify with their country?
4. When did nationalism emerge in Ireland and why?
5. What aspects of Irish culture did nationalists identify with?

Darwinism

Darwinism refers to the set of ideas and concepts that explain how all plant, animal and human life on Earth began from simpler life forms and changed over millions of years. In 1859 scientist Charles Darwin published a book called *On the Origin of Species*, which transformed our understanding of how complex life and the variety of species on Earth came into existence. Previously, the mainstream belief across Europe and other societies around the world was based on the belief that God created all life on Earth. Darwin was a scientist who used his meticulous observations of animals and plants across the world to turn that belief on its head.

By observing similar animals in different environments, most famously the animals of the Galapagos Islands, Darwin formulated a scientific theory called evolution. He was not the only person to pose the theory. His contemporary Alfred Russel Wallace came up with a similar set of ideas during the same period. The theory of evolution linked three related ideas that explained how complex life formed. First, there is variation within any population. Second, the traits that organisms have are hereditary, meaning they are passed on from parents to children. Third, the animals or plants in a population that are better suited to their environment are more likely to survive. This idea is commonly referred to as survival of the fittest. Darwin concluded that traits which made an animal more likely to survive would eventually be found in most animals within a certain population. In a different environment, a different set of traits would be found. In this way, animals changed or *evolved* into different forms, leading to the variety of species we see in nature today.

Today, Darwinism is accepted by most people as scientific fact. At the time, however, it was hugely controversial. While some heralded it as a highly influential and important work, many people saw it as challenging the religious beliefs that had been held for a long time, and rejected the idea that humans were related to apes. They may also have feared the ever expanding influence of science, which was now extending into areas of thought in which it had previously held little authority.

Darwin's findings also influenced ideas on roles in society, with the development of **social Darwinism** by the English philosopher Herbert Spencer. Spencer applied evolutionary theory to society, arguing that the stronger members of society would naturally dominate the weaker, as in nature. Therefore, those people were destined for wealth and power because of their strength. These ideas appealed to the wealthy industrialists of the time and provided a justification for their actions, often at the expense of the workers.



Source 10 A cartoon from *Harper's Weekly* in 1871 showing Charles Darwin confronted by a gorilla. Darwin holds *On the Origin of Species* under his arm.

Check your learning

1. Define Darwinism in your own words.
2. How was Darwinism different to the Christian idea of the development of life on Earth?
3. How did Darwin explain the variety of life on Earth?
4. Why was Darwinism controversial at the time?

Capitalism

The Industrial Revolution transformed the way society and the economy was structured. Previously, most Europeans had lived in feudal societies. Peasants 'rented' farming land from nobles or the Church and paid for it by providing labour and a portion of their harvest. The Industrial Revolution brought about the end of feudalism. Instead of having to be a landowning noble to gain wealth, people could now invest in machinery, hire workers, and make goods for a profit. Capitalism was a system for running the economy that evolved with the Industrial Revolution.

Most economists do not agree on an exact definition of capitalism, but all capitalist systems have some principles in common. Under capitalism, people work for wages; goods and services are sold for a profit; and there is competition between those who are providing the goods. Finally, the means for creating those goods (factories) are privately owned.



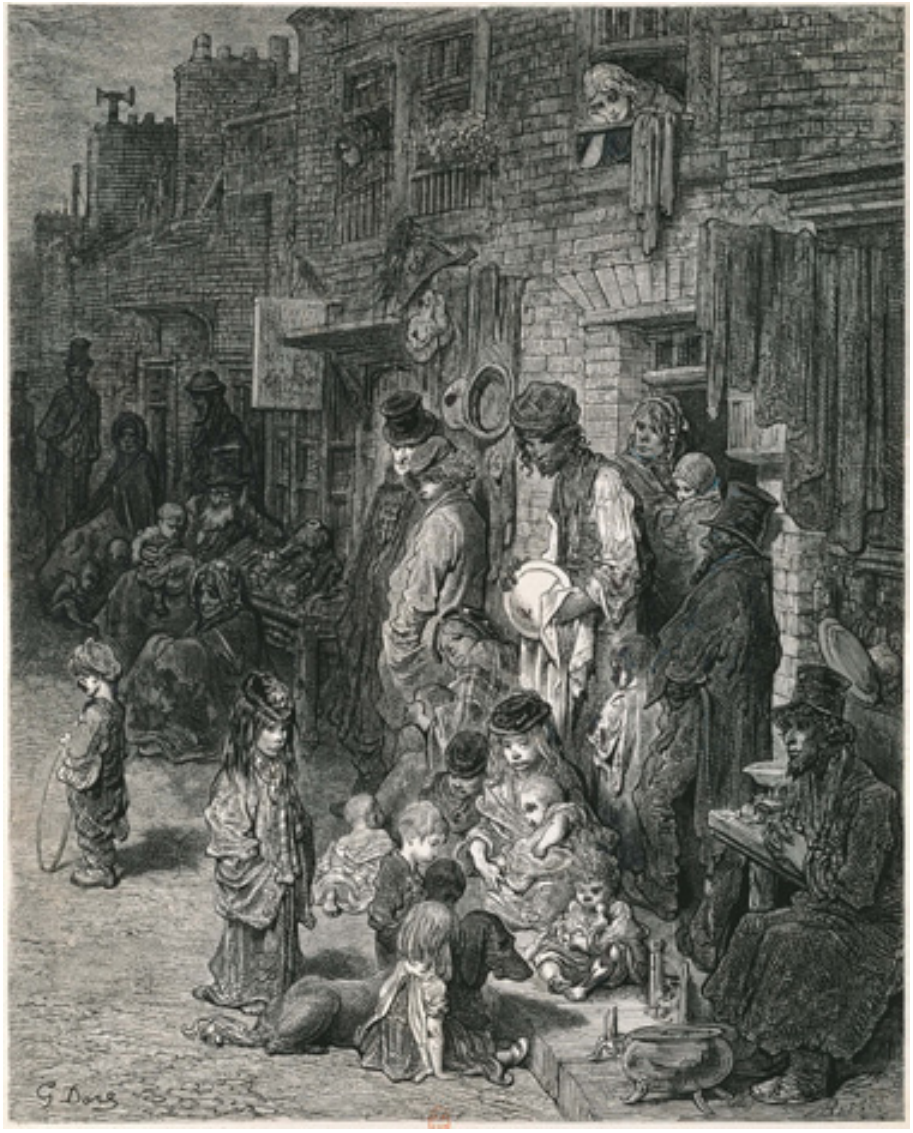
Source 11 An American cotton mill in 1912 – new machinery transformed the textiles industry during the Industrial Revolution.

The most famous capitalist thinker of the time was a Scottish economist called Adam Smith. Smith's book *The Wealth of Nations* outlined his ideas about capitalism. He thought the system would work for everyone involved. His theories were based on his certainty that humans act out of self interest, as well as a desire to be well regarded by others. Therefore, factory owners would produce a product because people wanted it and they would make a profit. This would mean that the goods and services people wanted would be available in a capitalist system. In addition, they would pay their workers fairly because they did not want to be judged harshly. Smith believed that the government would not need to intervene at all to make the system work. The 'invisible hand' of capitalism (as he called it) would ensure the system was balanced.

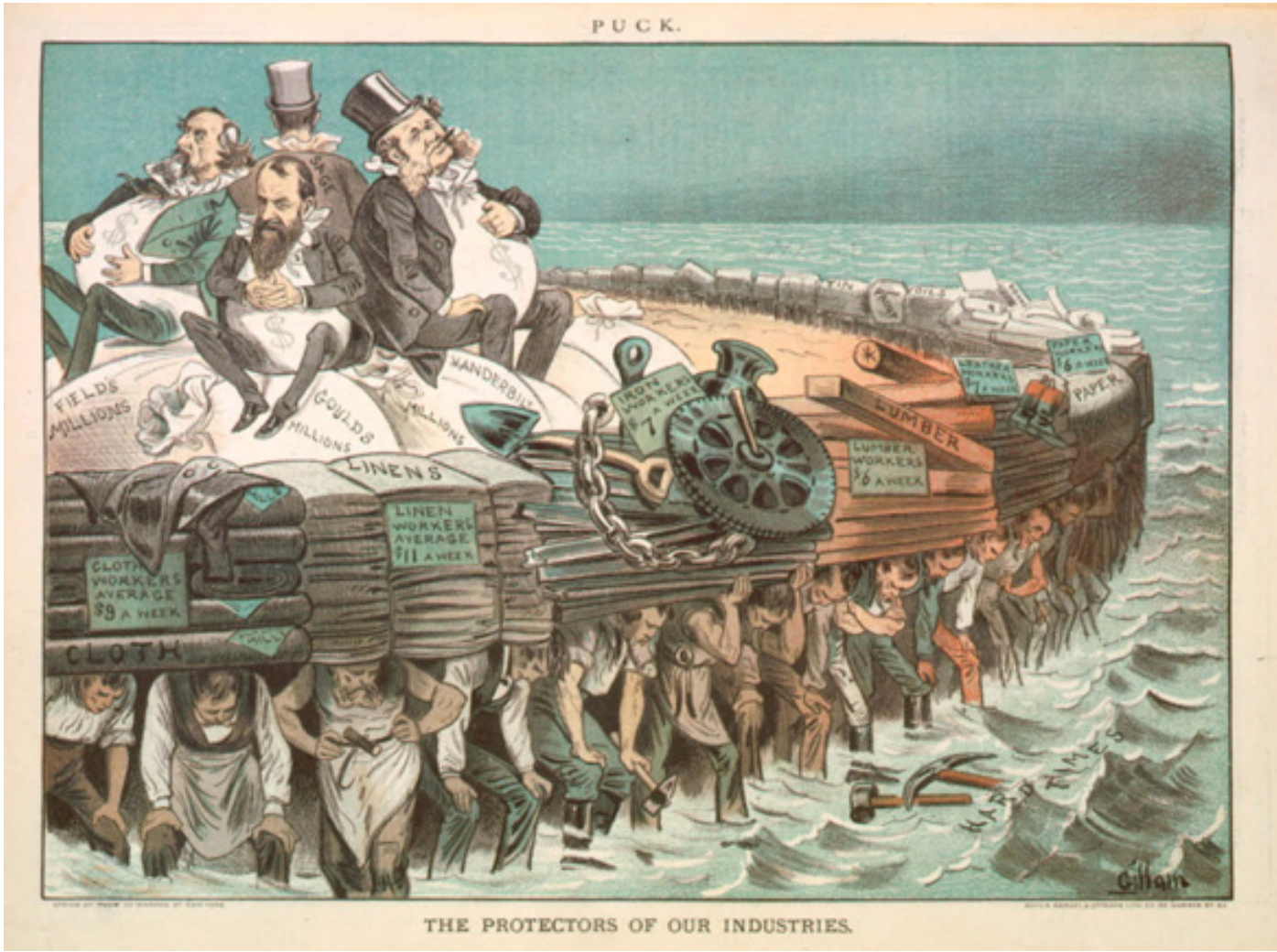
Capitalism created profound change in society. Capitalism made it possible for people from different backgrounds to become wealthy. Anyone who could raise enough capital could set themselves up in business. They were called **entrepreneurs,** and some of the wealthiest **industrialists** (manufacturers and industry owners) in America in the 1800s had come from humble beginnings. Wealth was no longer solely in the hands of the nobility.

Capitalism and the Industrial Revolution also provided people with access to products and services that had previously been beyond reach. This was the beginning of mass production, which created a greater variety of goods at more affordable prices. New ways of shopping developed with the opening of the first department stores. These stores attracted shoppers from the growing number of skilled, educated workers of the middle class.

Despite these developments, there was a dark side to capitalism. Many people were not able to access the opportunities made available under this new system, and workers could be easily exploited. Factory workers often had to work long hours for very low wages. Many worked from such a young age that they did not have time for an education. As a result, some of the wealthy industrialists of the 19th century and early 20th century became symbols of greed and exploitation. They were despised by the poor and sections of the middle class, along with some politicians. Capitalism ended up generating inequality in society, rather than providing opportunities for all. Adam Smith's ideal state of capitalism, where an 'invisible hand' would ensure balance, never eventuated.



Source 12 *The slums of London*, an engraving by Gustav Dore, depicting poverty in mid-19th-century London



Source 13 Bernhard Gillam, 'The Protectors of Our Industries', *Puck*, 7 February 1883. This political cartoon depicts fat, wealthy capitalists being supported on the backs of their workers.

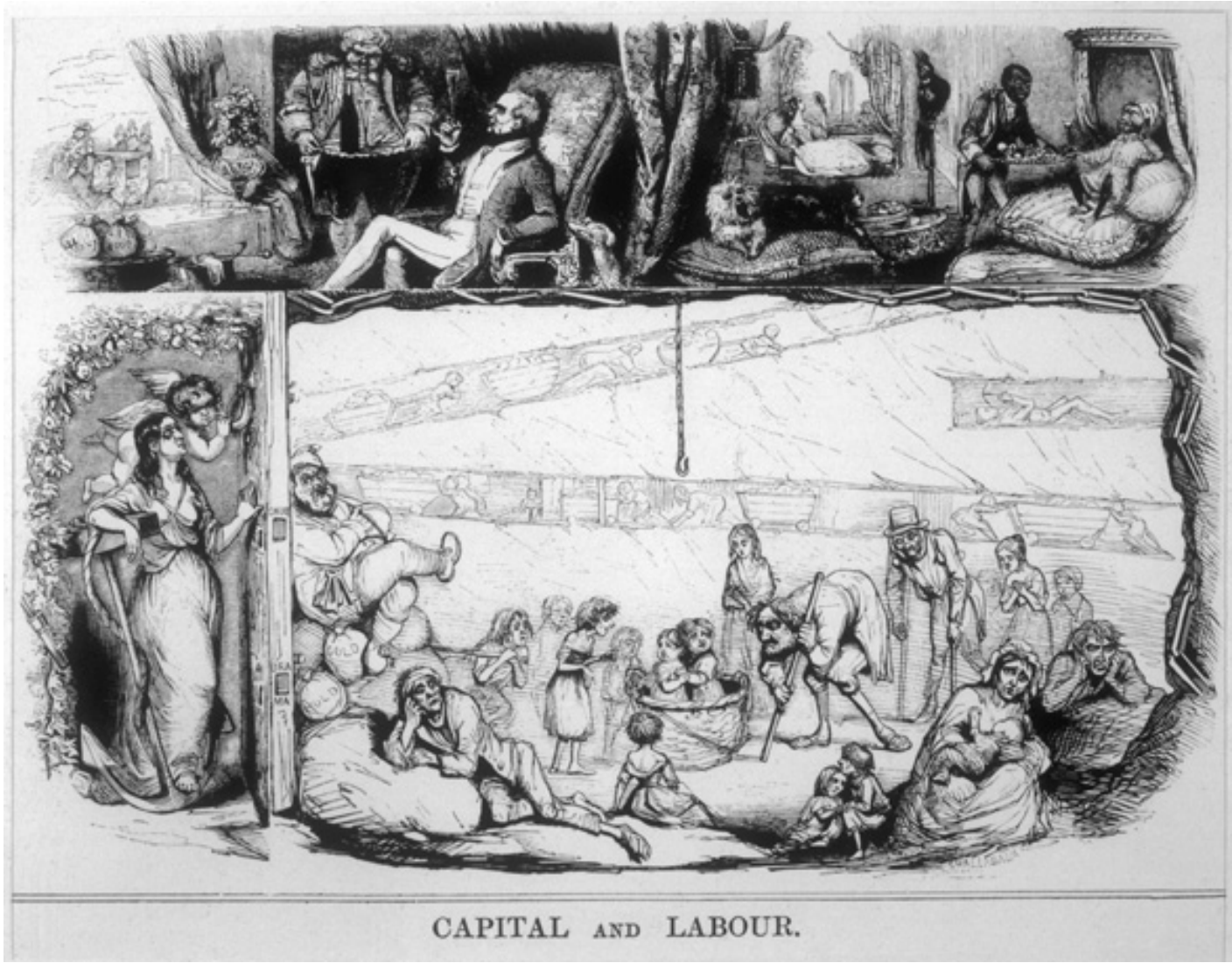
Most Western societies today operate capitalist economies. Goods and services are sold for profit, companies compete for customers, and many goods are provided by private companies who pay wages to their employees. However, capitalist models are accompanied by government controls. Smith's 'invisible hand' proved ineffective, so capitalism has been reformed to be fairer to workers and to impose restrictions on companies and employers. Despite some of its shortcomings, capitalism has been an extremely influential economic system that is still dominant today.

Check your learning

1 Define the concept of capitalism in your own words.
2 How was capitalism different to the feudal system that it replaced?
3 How did capitalism change societies?
4 What were some of the negative consequences of capitalism?

Socialism

The promise of capitalism and the Industrial Revolution was to create a world in which everyone could access opportunity and wealth. However, in reality, the Industrial Revolution created a new variety of inequality. While some people became incredibly wealthy, by investing capital and managing factories, a huge class of working poor was created. These people laboured for long hours on low wages in factories, mines and other industrial environments enduring dangerous, often brutal conditions. As people migrated to cities, the numbers of urban poor grew considerably. Slums developed in areas where workers lived together in unsanitary, crowded conditions.



Source 14 A satirical cartoon from 1843, entitled 'Capital and Labour'

In order to address the inequality they saw in society, politicians and philosophers began to develop radical ideas – socialism was one of them. Socialism is the idea that all people in society should have equal opportunity to share in the wealth that is created in the economy. In a socialist society, the State (or government) controls and allocates resources so that they are distributed equally among citizens. Some socialists believed that the only way to create a socialist state was through a revolution which would overthrow existing capitalist governments and societies. They aimed to completely overturn and replace the social order.

Socialist ideas were very popular among the working classes in the 19th century, and they were proposed by educated and even powerful figures. Robert Owen was a socialist and also an industrialist. He ran a mill in Scotland in which he protected the rights of workers and provided them with an education.

Karl Marx was an intellectual who popularised the ideals of socialism and an economic and social system called communism. Together with his colleague Friedrich Engels, Marx wrote a book, *The Communist Manifesto*, which inspired numerous revolutions and revolts in the 19th century and into the modern day.

The 19th century was a turbulent time for politics in Europe and elsewhere in the world. Socialism provided a vehicle for the unhappy masses to express their discontent. In 1848 a wave of revolutions swept through Europe and Latin America, as workers and the middle classes attempted to impose socialist societies. While these revolutions ultimately failed, they showed the widespread support for socialism around the globe. In 1871, a socialist government overtook Paris and maintained control for a few months. During that time they implemented reforms to benefit workers. Throughout industrialised countries, workers began to form trade unions to fight for reforms that would protect them from exploitation by their employers.



Source 15 An illustration depicting a riot in Trafalgar Square, London, on 13 November 1887. A demonstration by the Social Democratic Federation (Britain's first socialist party) and the Irish National League turned violent after police and troops tried to break it up.

The most famous revolution inspired by socialism and by the ideas of Karl Marx was the Russian Revolution in 1917. Amid deep public discontent with the government and the economy, a socialist party called the Bolsheviks seized control of Russia. Under their leader Vladimir Lenin they established a socialist government that aimed to create a more equal society. In fact, the Bolsheviks (and under their subsequent name, the Communist Party) found it difficult to maintain power. Ultimately, they became a repressive government that violently stifled opposition.



Source 16 Lenin addresses his deputies on 26 October 1917, the day after the storming of the Winter Palace which marked the victory of the Bolsheviks in the revolution.

Australia has a rich history of powerful trade unions and socialist ideas. The first socialist government to be elected in the world was in Australia. The Australian Labor Party represented workers and implemented reforms to protect workers' rights. Many of the institutions and policies we take for granted today are the products of socialism. These include a minimum wage, state hospitals and schools, and government welfare.

Check your learning

1 What sort of society was created by the Industrial Revolution?
2 What is the central idea behind socialism?
3 Why do you think some socialists believed revolution was necessary?
4 What are some of the policies that exist today in Australia that were based on socialist ideas?

Egalitarianism

Egalitarianism is the idea of equality among people. The word comes from the French *égal*, meaning equal. Egalitarians desire that all people be considered to have equal social status or worth as human beings and equal opportunities in society.

In 1776, at the end of the American Revolution, the American leaders wrote a Declaration of Independence based on a foundation of egalitarianism. America had previously been ruled by the British, under the assumption that kings had a divine right to rule and were superior to the rest of the population. The Declaration of Independence included the words, 'all men are created equal that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the Pursuit of Happiness'. This refuted the divine right of kings in favour of an egalitarian society where all had rights.

Equality had its limits however. The men who drafted the Declaration had in mind white men when they suggested that all men are created equal. Women did not have the same rights as men, and black slaves in the United States had almost no rights at all.



Source 17 The signing of the Declaration of Independence, 1776

Check your learning

1. Define egalitarianism in your own words.
2. In British society, who was considered to be better than the rest of the population and why?
3. The Declaration of Independence did not result in equal rights for all members of society. Who was not included as being 'equal'.

Chartism

Chartism was a British working-class movement that took place in the 1830s and called primarily for political reform. In 1832 middle-class men were granted the vote, but working-class people continued to be excluded. In response, a group of men (made up of members of Parliament and workers) published the *People's Charter* in 1938. The Charter called for:

1 votes for all men over 21 years of age
2 equal constituencies, so that the same number of voters would choose a representative in each electorate
3 removal of the rule that only property owners could be members of parliament
4 secret ballots
5 payment for members of parliament
6 annual general elections.

The Charter obtained a quarter of a million signatures before it was presented to parliament, where it was rejected. It was again rejected in 1848 when it was presented with three million signatures. Nevertheless, by 1918 five of the six demands had been adopted.

Chartism had an influence on Australian politics as well. At the 1958 Eureka Stockade on the goldfields of Ballarat, the leaders of the revolt put forward the demands of the *People's Charter*. Though the revolt was suppressed, all but one of the demands had been met within a year.



THE UNENFRANCHISED!
RALLY AROUND YOUR FLAG.

"The REPUBLIC for France, and the CHARTER for England."

NOTICE.

A PUBLIC MEETING

WILL BE HELD AT THE

MARKET SQUARE,

MERTHYR TYDVIL,

On MONDAY EVENING Next,

March 20th, 1848,

To take into consideration the propriety of further adopting the Petition for the immediate enactment of the "PEOPLE's CHARTER." Likewise, to elect a Delegate for the ensuing Convention.

Chair to be taken at 5 o'Clock.

Source 18 A poster calling people to a meeting to support the 1848 petition.

Check your learning

1 What was Chartism aiming for?
2 Why was the *People's Charter* created?
3 How do you know the *People's Charter* was influential, even though it was rejected twice?
4 How did Chartism influence Australia?

bigideas

1 What progressive ideas and movements developed from 1750 to 1918?

Remember

1 List the progressive ideas that developed from 1750 to 1918. Write definitions for them.

2 Create a timeline which shows when each of the progressive ideas developed. Some of the ideas may span many years, and some may overlap.

Understand

3 Select three progressive ideas and explain why each idea was popular at the time.

4 For the same ideas, describe how each idea changed society.

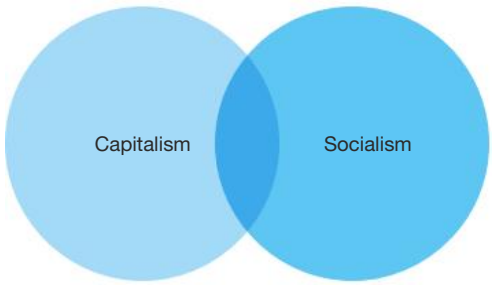
Apply

5 Write a quiz for your classmates about the ideas presented in this section. Include a mix of multiple-choice and short-answer questions.

6 Choose a progressive idea and create a picture story to describe the idea. Explain why you have chosen each picture and how it helps to illustrate the idea.

Analyse

7 Complete a Venn diagram, like the one below, to compare and contrast capitalism and socialism.



8 Why do you think imperialist countries were able to take over less developed societies?

Evaluate

9 Create a table like the one below to examine the positives and negatives of one of the ideas you have read about.

Positives	Negatives

10 Conduct a debate in a small group about one of the ideas and whether or not it should be accepted.

Create

11 Choose two or three progressive ideas. Find examples of aspects of our economy and society today that reflect those ideas and explain how you think these modern examples may have been influenced by the events of the 19th century.

12 Recently the Western Australian economy has been booming, providing significant employment and wealth for the state. Some people in Western Australia have argued that the state shouldn't need to 'share' this wealth with the rest of Australia. Plan a campaign for Western Australia to secede (separate) from the rest of the country. The campaign should be based on nationalism. Include 'new' national songs, stories and symbols.

2 What is capitalism and how has it influenced societies in Australia and the world?



Source 19 The Ironworkers' Noontime, Thomas Anschutz, 1880. The painting depicts the new industrial environment created under capitalism and the Industrial Revolution.

Capitalism is an economic system that has been extremely influential in the last few hundred years. It has given rise to major shifts in social hierarchies and people's lifestyles, and is now the dominant economic system in the world. The rise of capitalism coincided with the changes created by the Industrial Revolution. Suddenly, there were new ways of making money and new types of labour. This created major changes in economic systems.

You can think of an economic system as being the rules that a society uses to govern jobs, money, and goods and services. Capitalism is a system with a number of specific elements. Under capitalism, people work for wages. Businesses provide goods and services for a profit, and those businesses compete with each other. In addition, the means for creating those goods and services are privately owned. In this chapter, we will discuss the broad principles that are common to ideas of capitalism, as well as the history and context of capitalism's rise.

What was the world like when capitalism arose?

The term ‘capitalism’ was first used in the 1800s, but the idea has been around much longer than that. Capitalism has its origins in 17th-century Britain. The dominant system prior to capitalism was feudalism. Under this system, society was divided between peasants (or commoners) and nobles. The nobility and the Church owned all the land. Peasants farmed the land and were forced to provide labour to the nobility and pay them a portion of the harvest. Wealth under feudal systems was not measured in money, but land ownership. The nobility and the Church owned practically all of the land and were extremely powerful.

Most peasants lived off the land, having to pay the landowners for the use of it. They occasionally traded goods to obtain products that they could not make themselves. The conditions that commoners and peasants endured were often very harsh, and they had few freedoms.



Source 20 *Summer*, Pieter the Younger Brueghel, 17th century. The painting depicts peasants hard at work in the fields.

One of the basic principles of capitalism is the idea that you can borrow money, invest it, and make more money, but this was virtually non-existent under feudalism. Money lending was regarded as a sin by the powerful Catholic Church.

Despite the dominance of the feudal system, there were still a number of different economic systems operating at the time. In the port cities of Venice, Lisbon, Bruges and Amsterdam, governments and traders provided goods for profit and built up huge wealth. The system here was not feudal, but neither was it based on capitalism as we know it today. The trade was not competitive. Instead, governments implemented high tariffs to protect local producers and often operated trade **monopolies** (meaning they were the only people selling a particular product). Nevertheless, the beginnings of capitalism emerged from this system.



Source 21 View of Venice in the 18th century from above. Note the number of ships which fuelled the busy trade in the city.

Check your learning

1 Define feudalism in your own words?
2 How did feudalism determine the way the majority of people lived?
3 What sort of economic system operated in port cities like Venice?

Adam Smith and the origins of capitalism

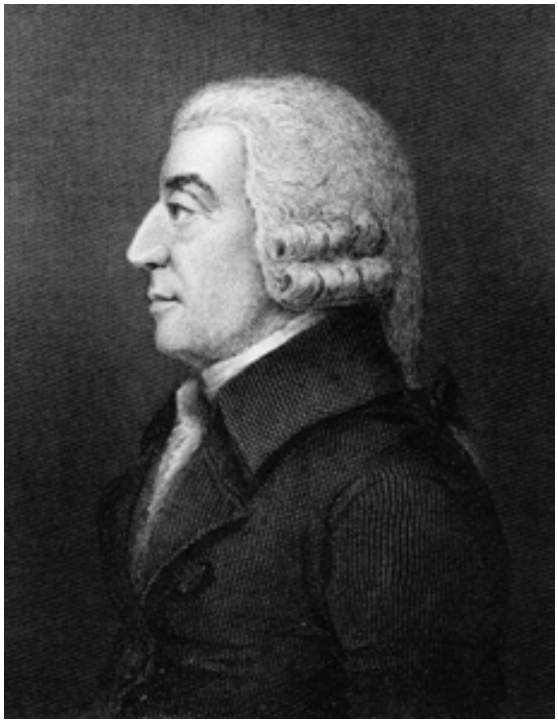
One of the most influential thinkers in the rise of capitalism was a Scot called Adam Smith. Smith was a philosopher who wrote many works challenging the ideas of feudalism. In 1776 Smith published the book *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. To this day, it remains one of the most influential books on economics, and can be seen as the starting point of capitalism as a 'big idea'.

The Wealth of Nations, as it became known, discusses the idea that people are motivated both by self-interest and by a desire to be fairly judged by others. Smith believed that under capitalism, people would make decisions that would benefit themselves:

'It is not from the benevolence of the butcher, the brewer, or the baker that we expect our dinner, but from their regard to their own interest.'

Smith believed that a capitalist system would operate efficiently and fairly. He described an 'invisible hand' that he believed would make markets work fairly. If a product was too expensive, it would not be sold and an alternative product would enter the market. If a worker was not well paid, he would find another job that paid more. Capitalism would work for all members of society, because customers or employees could move elsewhere if they were not happy with the product or their employer. In addition, people would avoid making decisions that would result in them being judged harshly by others. This meant that bosses would pay fair and reasonable wages, and shoppers would not buy products that would result in harm to others. Smith believed that people's basic motivations would ensure the system remained balanced.

Smith's ideas were very popular at the time. They coincided with the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, and governments and universities around Europe were positive about the system he proposed. Smith may have been too optimistic about human nature and the balance that would be created under a capitalist system. Later in the chapter we will explore how governments and societies have responded to his ideas in the 20th century.



Source 22 Adam Smith was an influential capitalist thinker.

Check your learning

1. Who was Adam Smith?
2. What did Smith believe influenced people's decisions?
3. Explain how the 'invisible hand' worked.

The capitalist economy

Some of the most important concepts relating to capitalism – described by Adam Smith and other economists – are capital, supply and demand, competition and *laissez-faire*. These terms are explained in further detail below, and understanding these will help you to understand the basic functioning of capitalism.

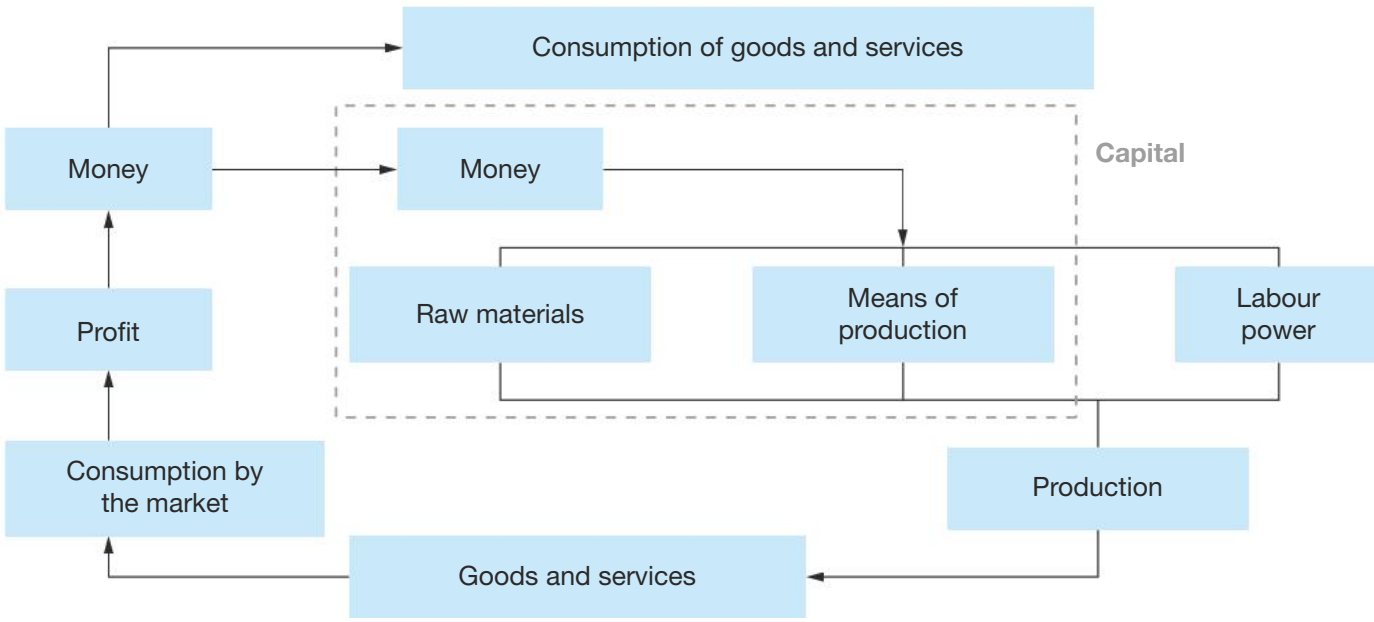
Capital

Capital forms the basis of the capitalist system. It refers to wealth, either in the form of cash, property, labour, knowledge or raw materials. Capital can be owned or borrowed. The basic idea of capitalism is that a person can invest capital in order to create more wealth. For example, you could invest your money (or money you have borrowed) in order to buy a concrete mixer. You could then use that concrete mixer to make more money, by selling concrete to people who are building houses.

Generally, capital is used to make consumer goods or products that will be sold to others for a profit. Capital can also be used to create services. For example, lawyers invest money and time in education to build their knowledge of the law. They can then sell legal services to clients for a profit. The products of capitalism do not necessarily need to be **tangible** (in a physical form).

There are three major inputs for production in the capitalist system. These are labour, the means of production (for example land, machinery), and raw materials. Both raw materials and the means of production qualify as 'capital' that the producer invests in.

The capitalist system



Source 23 Diagram showing how the different elements of the capitalist system are related

Supply and demand

Capitalism assumes that an **equilibrium** (or balance) will be created between supply and demand, and that this balance will take care of itself. Supply refers to how much of a particular product is available. Demand refers to how many people want to buy that product, or how much people want it. Supply and demand will be balanced by the price of goods or services. Supply and demand should interact so that the more people who want something, and the scarcer it is, the more expensive it will be. Conversely, if less people want a product and it is plentiful, prices will go down.

We can understand the balance between supply and demand by looking at Australian bananas. Usually you can buy bananas at the supermarket, and many of these bananas are grown in Queensland. The price of bananas does not normally change very much. Supply of bananas and demand for bananas are at equilibrium. However, in the last decade there have been a number of large cyclones that have devastated banana crops. This means that suddenly there are not nearly as many bananas available, but the same number of people want to buy them. Therefore, banana prices go up, because the demand for bananas is greater than the supply. As prices go up and bananas become expensive, fewer people are willing to buy them. Eventually, the supply of expensive bananas will match the demand from people who are willing to pay high prices. At this point, supply will match demand and equilibrium will once more have been reached, at a higher price. Once the crops recover and bananas become more common, prices will go down again.



Source 24 When Cyclone Yasi damaged banana plantations across northern Australia in 2011 lack of supply led to a sharp rise in the price of bananas.

Supply and demand can also be applied to wages. Capitalism assumes that workers are paid wages for labour. We said that under feudalism peasants used land owned by someone else in order to grow food or raise animals. They paid nobles a portion of their harvest in return for using the land. In contrast, under capitalism, peasants would be paid a wage for their work on the land, and could then use that wage to purchase food and other products they needed. How high or low a person's wage is set is decided by supply and demand. In its basic form, capitalism assumes that people will be paid wages based on their level of skill and the demand for that skill. People who are highly educated will be paid more, because there are fewer people with their level of skill. Likewise, people doing jobs that nobody else is willing to do will be paid more.

Competition

In capitalist systems there is competition between companies or individuals who are providing a particular product. This is supposed to create efficient markets, because if one company is selling a product that is inferior in quality or is too expensive, consumers will buy the product from somebody else. Think about all the advertisements you see for phone plans from different mobile phone companies. Each company is trying to attract consumers and, because they are competing with each other, they try to provide a better service or cheaper prices than their competitors. That means that overall the plans available to consumers should be higher quality and cheaper than if there was just one company selling mobile phone plans. Competition should have the same effect on products and services throughout the economy.



Source 25 Two rival mobile phone companies in Australia. Competition under capitalism means that companies will compete to provide a lower price or better product.

Laissez-faire

One of the guiding principles of capitalism is the term *laissez-faire*, which roughly translates as 'to leave alone' in French. Adam Smith's metaphor of an 'invisible hand' is broadly similar to *laissez-faire*, though he never used the term. *Laissez-faire* suggests that the capitalist economy will work best if it is left alone to function, without government intervention. This relies on the assumption that the 'invisible hand' will ensure that workers get a fair wage, and that consumers will be able to get what they need to lead a comfortable life. If the economy is truly operating as a *laissez-faire* system, governments should not decide how much people should be paid, or set prices for any goods or services.

Nowadays, ideas such as 'free trade' reflect the principle of *laissez-faire*. Free trade means that governments will not show preference for products made in their own country. Usually governments do this by imposing tariffs (or taxes) on imported goods. Free trade would mean tariffs were abolished and all countries could trade their goods freely without restrictions. As we will see, although pure capitalism would operate under the principle of *laissez-faire*, capitalist economies usually have some aspects of government intervention to ensure a level of fairness.

Check your learning

1. What is the purpose of capital?
2. How does supply and demand, in combination with price, help to create a balanced system?
3. How does supply and demand influence wages?
4. Under a *laissez-faire* system, what is the government's role?

How did capitalism influence societies?

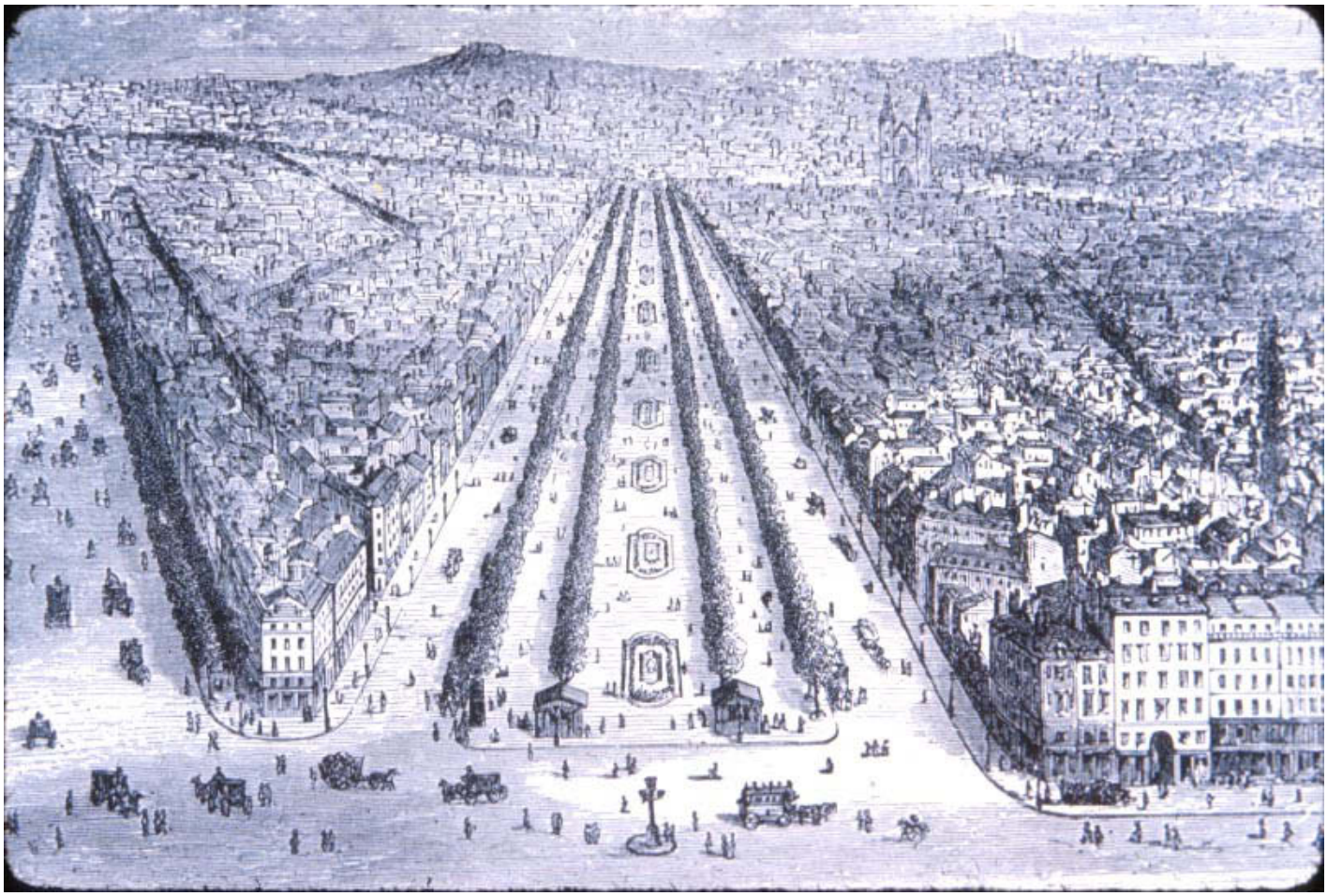
Capitalism's rise occurred simultaneously with the Industrial Revolution. The Industrial Revolution and the capitalist economy it created caused huge changes in society. Cities grew rapidly as people moved to urban centres for work, the way people obtained goods in society changed, and social hierarchies were altered as new ways of becoming rich emerged.

Two trends epitomised the growth of capitalism. First, the growth of businesses creating new consumer experiences which cemented 'shopping' as a pastime for the middle classes. Second, capitalism created opportunities for businessmen that led to the rise of the tycoon, forming a new class of extremely wealthy individuals.

The rise of the department store

In addition to creating opportunities to move up the social hierarchy, capitalism created unprecedented opportunities to consume. Shopping had of course existed prior to the Industrial Revolution. Capitalism, however, created new means for shopkeepers and entrepreneurs to encourage consumerism. The creation of department stores was one example of this.

In Paris, in 1848, Napoleon III was elected president. One of the changes that he brought to Paris was to modernise it. He ripped up the medieval alleyways and built wide boulevards across the city. The new streets created enormous opportunities for entrepreneurs and businessmen. They quickly found ways to interest the growing middle class in the art of shopping.



Source 26 Plans for Paris under Napoleon III



Source 27 Parisian streets (Rue Tirechape) before and after Napoleon III's modernisation

One such entrepreneur was Aristide Boucicaut. He knew exactly how to capture the market of potential shoppers from the middle classes, and created one of the world's first department stores. He founded *Le Bon Marché* in 1838 after serving as a cloth merchant's apprentice for a number of years. Boucicaut had a talent for creating products that were particularly appealing to women. Science in the 19th century had proposed that women should not be engaged in mental activity. As a result, many middle-class women were very bored. Boucicaut's department store offered exciting opportunities for excursions for women, and he used the press to create a fashion 'lifestyle' for females. There was demand among women for entertainment, and Boucicaut supplied a product to meet that demand. Modern capitalism worked to create department stores and consumerism as we know them today.

In 1852 the new *Le Bon Marché* opened its doors. Iron and glass structures had been vastly improved during the Industrial Revolution. In Paris they were particularly opulent. *Le Bon Marché* was a place to visit, to pass time and to be seen. It was a huge public show of consumerism. The store introduced price tags so that for the first time, potential buyers could discreetly consider the price of goods on sale before making any purchases.

By the 1860s this model of shopping had spread across Europe and the United States. Boucicaut's department store relied on creating fantasies about wealth and success, which became a mainstay in European culture. Today, shopping centres remain among the most popular weekend excursion destinations around the developed world.

How profound was the invention of the department store? Department stores fuelled consumerism and the aspirations of the middle classes, but also had other effects. For example, they created opportunities of employment for women. Young women from around France were employed by Boucicaut and others to 'assist' shoppers with their purchasing. Shops also created a place for women to go, outside the home, where they could engage in the public sphere.

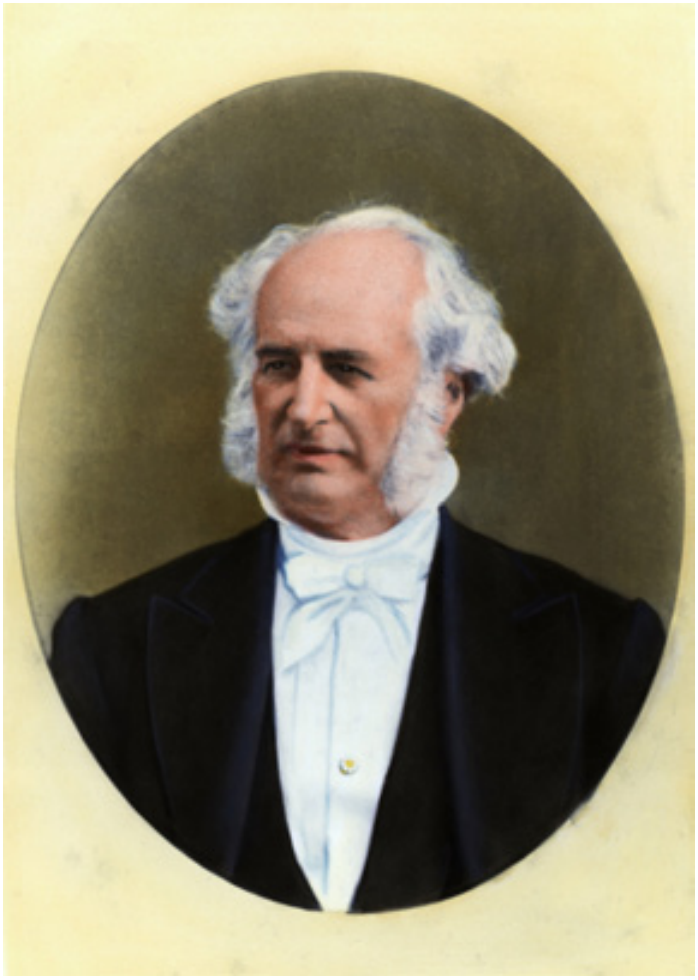


Source 28 The new staircase in Le Bon Marché, from *Le Monde Illustre*, c. 1875.

Tycoons and entrepreneurs

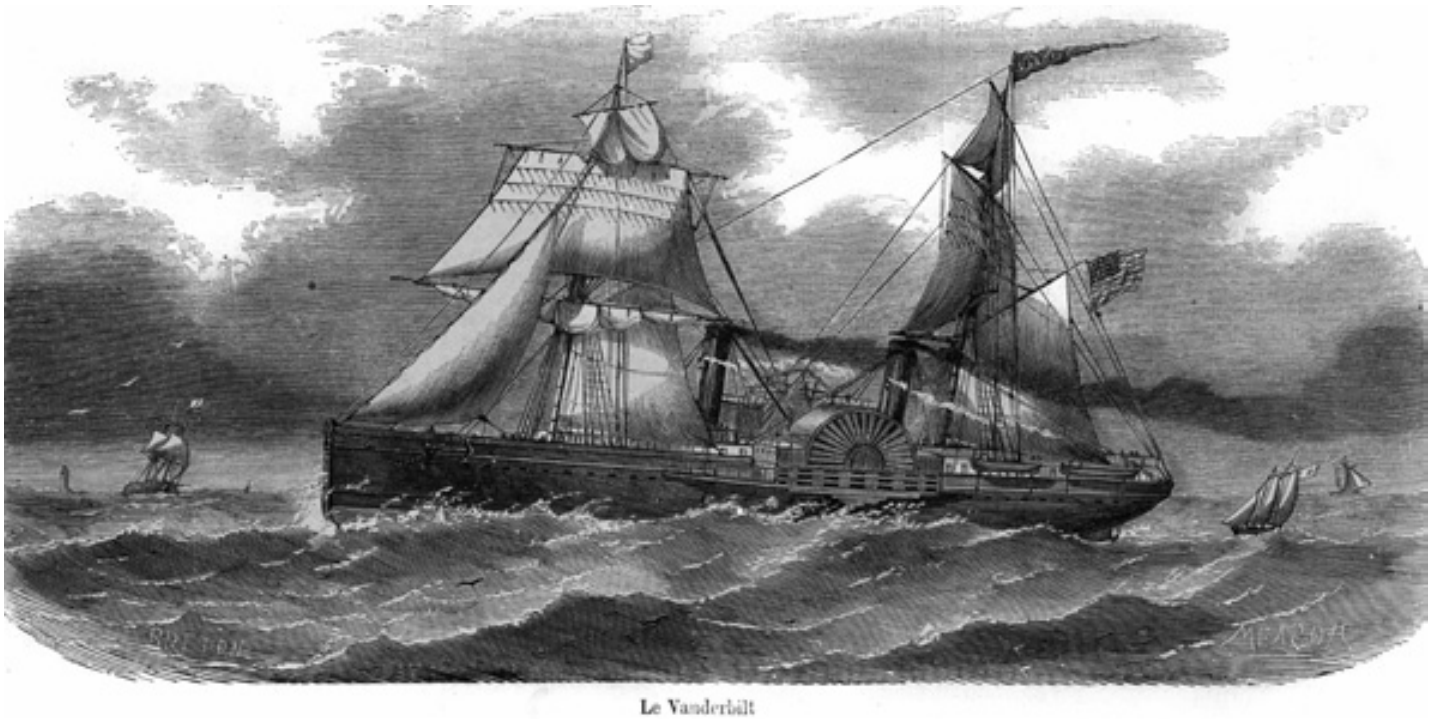
The capitalist system of the 19th century enabled the development of very wealthy individuals. These individuals differed from wealthy classes in previous generations, because they showed that it was possible to build wealth and power from nothing. Individuals who achieved their wealth through industry were called industrialists. Across the British Empire successful industrialists usually came from classes that owned property. Nevertheless, some middle-class individuals were also able to invest very successfully and join the ranks of the wealthy and powerful. Particularly in America, whose class system was not as rigid as Europe's, industrialists came from a variety of backgrounds.

One of the best examples of a successful capitalist was Cornelius Vanderbilt (1794–1877). Vanderbilt was a wealthy tycoon at the heart of 19th century capitalism in America. He built ships and railroads in order to become one of the richest men in history. In a previous era, however, his story would never have been possible. He was not part of the nobility, and started his life relatively poor. Capitalism and the Industrial Revolution provided the necessary foundation for his success.



Source 29 Cornelius 'Commodore' Vanderbilt

Vanderbilt's great-great-grandfather had emigrated from Holland to America as an indentured servant (bound to service for an agreed time) in the 17th century. Vanderbilt started work at the age of 11 on his father's ferry. At 16 years of age, he established his own business. Over the following decades he managed and owned a wide range of transport businesses. During his career, he owned passenger ferries in New York, textile mills, railway lines and ships. Vanderbilt exploited opportunities such as the gold rush in the 1840s to expand his businesses. He was known for his heavy-handed business tactics, which he used to build his empire and defeat his competitors.



Source 30 One of Vanderbilt's steamships, 1859

By the time Vanderbilt died in 1877, he had amassed a fortune of $100 million. In today's terms, that makes Vanderbilt one of the wealthiest Americans in history. Under feudalism, such wealth would never have been possible for the descendant of a poor servant. Capitalism, however, created an environment in which a boy who left school at 11 years of age could work his way up to being one of the richest people of our time.

focus on...

cause and effect: how capitalism changed high society

Prior to the Industrial Revolution, well respected upper-class men (or gentlemen) were expected to live off the rent from their land. Among the upper classes, wealth and land were inherited and passed from family to family. There were very few 'respectable' professions in which a person could earn money through work. Gentlemen could join the army, but most other professions would carry with them a lower social status. Even doctors and lawyers were not as highly regarded as landowners, as they had to work for a living. For women, who did not generally inherit land (it passed to the sons), there were even fewer options. The only respectable paid work for women was to be a governess or teacher, and even that was looked down upon.

The Industrial Revolution created enormous change in the way people earned money and produced food and other goods. Under capitalism, earning money (rather than inheriting land) lost its social stigma. Jobs that once carried a low social status, such as lawyers, bankers and pharmacists, began to gain respect in society as the economy changed. It became possible to become extremely wealthy without inheriting money, although it was rare for this to happen.

It can be difficult for us to imagine how different society was before capitalism. The text below is an excerpt from a well-known Jane Austen novel, *Pride and Prejudice*. Written in 1813, the excerpt describes a young woman, Charlotte Lucas, who has become engaged. She is not romantically interested in her fiancé, but there is no other respectable way for her to obtain a living. As you read the source, think about how her options in life would have been different under capitalism.

Source 31

> Sir William and Lady Lucas were speedily applied to for their consent; and it was bestowed with a most joyful alacrity. Mr Collins's present circumstances made it a most eligible match for their daughter, to whom they could give little fortune; and his prospects of future wealth were exceedingly fair… Charlotte herself was tolerably composed. She had gained her point, and had time to consider of it. Her reflections were in general satisfactory. Mr Collins to be sure was neither sensible nor agreeable; his society was irksome, and his attachment to her must be imaginary. But still he would be her husband. Without thinking highly either of men or of matrimony, marriage had always been her object; it was the only honourable provision for well-educated young women of small fortune, and however uncertain of giving happiness, must be their pleasantest preservative from want.

Excerpt from *Pride and Prejudice*, by Jane Austen, 1813



Source 32 Charlotte Lucas marries Mr Collins to secure her position in society. This still is from the 2005 film adaptation of *Pride and Prejudice*.

Check your learning

1. How did the Industrial Revolution influence capitalism?
2. What were the changes in Paris that affected the way people shopped?
3. Why was Boucicaut's department store so successful?
4. Why did capitalism allow a different group of people to become wealthy?
5. How did Vanderbilt make his fortune?
6. If a woman nowadays was not going to inherit money from her family, what would be some of her options to make money if she still wanted to be well respected?
7. Look at the passage from *Pride and Prejudice*. What can you infer Charlotte's options were, if she wanted to remain well respected?
8. *Pride and Prejudice* was written as the Industrial Revolution was beginning in Britain and capitalism was just starting to emerge. What changes did capitalism cause in the way people viewed work and money?
9. How would Charlotte Lucas' options in life have been different if she had been living in a capitalist society?

Exploitation and opportunity in the Gilded Age

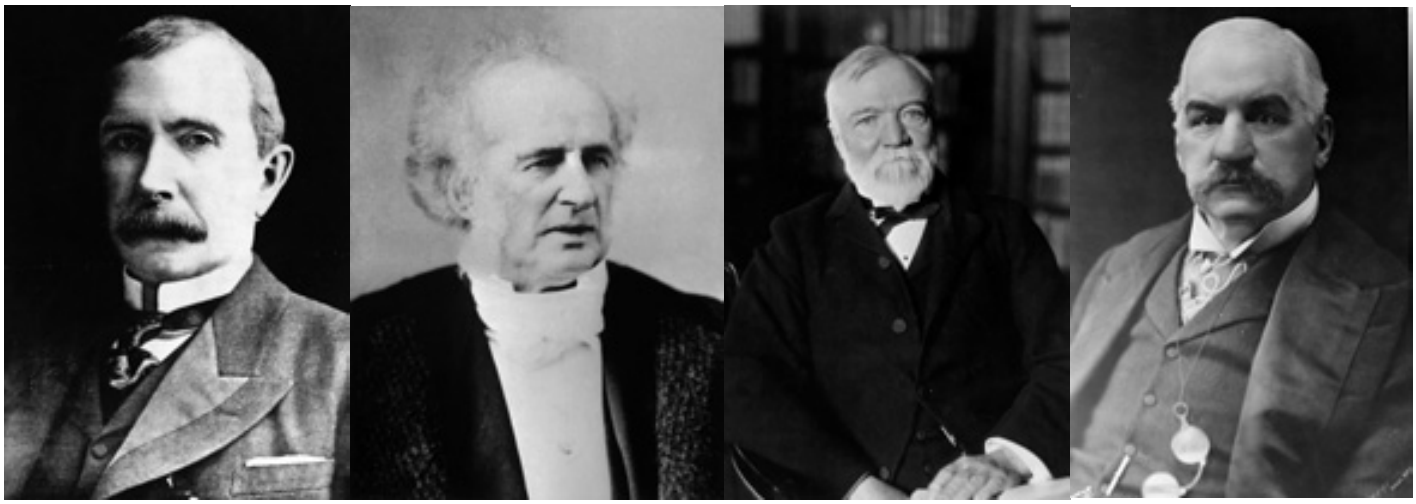
As we saw in the example of Cornelius Vanderbilt, individuals could use capitalism to achieve enormous wealth and power; however, many people suffered under the new capitalism. The era around the turn of the 20th century came to be known as the 'Gilded Age'. Gilt is a thin coating of gold. It is applied to be decorative or to make an object look as if it is made of gold. Here, the term suggests that at the surface, the industrial age was a sparkling era that created opportunities for wealth and success for anyone. However, the brilliance was false. Beneath the gilt, the changes brought about by capitalism and the Industrial Revolution did not serve the good of everyone.



Source 33 The dining room at the Breakers, the mansion built by Cornelius Vanderbilt II in 1895 in Newport, Rhode Island. The wealth of the Vanderbilt's is lavishly on display with the opulent design.

Robber barons or captains of industry?

In the United States, the most famous of the wealthy industrialists included Vanderbilt, John D. Rockefeller (oil), Andrew Carnegie (steel) and J. Pierpont Morgan (finance). These individuals were controversial and their legacy is still disputed. Their supporters have called them 'captains of industry' and their detractors, 'robber barons'. These industrialists made huge wealth and created more efficient businesses and infrastructure. However, their wealth came at a cost to others – both those who they put out of business and those who they exploited. The rise of capitalism was characterised by exploitation as well as opportunity.



Source 34 Portraits of the 'robber barons' or 'captains of industry', from left: John D Rockefeller, Cornelius Vanderbilt, Andrew Carnegie, J Pierpont Morgan

Critics of the tycoons cited their corrupt business practices. Historians who have referred to them as 'robber barons' claim that they made their huge fortunes unethically and immorally. The wealthy American industrialists also had a huge amount of influence over the media and politics, and many at the time resented this. At the turn of the century, Theodore Roosevelt ran for presidency in America on a platform of being against the rich industrialists of his time. He painted these men as highly unsavoury characters and called them 'malefactors (criminals) of great wealth'. During the Great Depression, when there was public scorn for big businesses, the idea of robber barons was popular.

Source 35

> *There is not in the world a more ignoble character than the mere money-getting American, insensible to every duty, regardless of every principle, bent only on amassing a fortune, and putting his fortune only to the basest use – whether these uses be to speculate in stocks and wreck railroads himself, or to allow his son to lead a life of foolish and expensive idleness and gross debauchery, or to purchase some scoundrel of high social position, foreign or native, for his daughter.*

Theodore Roosevelt criticises American Industrialists, published in *Forum*, 1895.

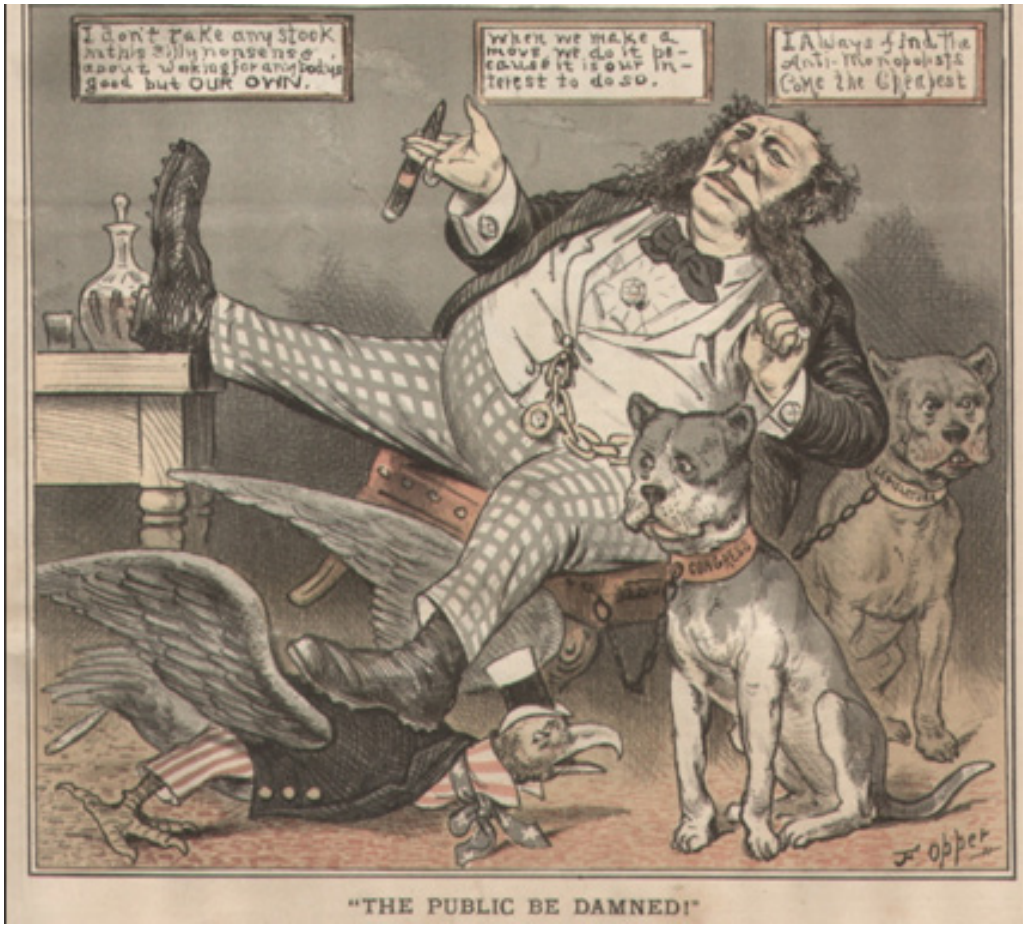
The supporters of these industrialists, both at the time and afterwards, have claimed that they were 'captains of industry' who made great contributions to their country. They argue that these men brought order to the chaos of the Industrial Revolution, and that they imposed stability on businesses. Many of these industrialists are also remembered today for giving back to society through **philanthropy** (charitable works) or public office.

examining**evidence**

William Vanderbilt

William Henry Vanderbilt, son of Cornelius Vanderbilt, was a wealthy railroad magnate. He achieved public notoriety for his comments about the role of industrialists in serving the public. For example, in 1882 he complained in an interview that, 'the railroads are not run for the benefit of the "dear public" – that cry is all nonsense – they are built by men who invest their money and expect to get a fair percentage on the same'. In the same year, he famously declared to a reporter, 'the public be damned!' in response to a question about the public interest. That phrase was afterwards commonly associated with him.

In October 1882 the following cartoon was printed on the front cover of *Puck* magazine. The cartoon depicts an opulent William H. Vanderbilt sitting with his foot on the American eagle above the heading, 'The public be damned!'. Behind him are framed some of his more infamous quotes. Two lapdogs are tied to his chair, whose collars read 'congress' and 'legislature'. Congress is the American lower house of parliament, and legislature is the law-making arm of government.



Source 36 Cartoon of William Vanderbilt in *Puck* magazine, 18 October 1882, drawn by Frederick Burr Opper

Check your learning

1. Look at what Vanderbilt is wearing, his posture and his accessories. How has the cartoonist presented Vanderbilt and why?
2. What do the quotes on the wall behind him suggest about Vanderbilt?
3. What do you think the cartoonist is implying through his depiction of the dogs?
4. Which group of people do you think the American eagle represents?
5. Do you think that the creators of *Puck* magazine believed capitalism was balanced and worked in everyone's best interests? Why or why not?

Wages and exploitation

Urbanisation across the developed world was a key outcome of capitalism. Urbanisation had some advantages for societies. Cities provided employment, particularly in the growing manufacturing industries. They also provided a mass market for goods and services. From the beginnings of the capitalist era, many believed the modern economy created an improved quality of life for all. This is because factories provided an ongoing wage, which could at least supplement earnings from farming or other work.

Nevertheless, urbanisation also had negative impacts on society. As cities expanded, a new class of urban poor developed, who lived in horrifying conditions in the new, crowded cities. Charles Dickens' many novels related the impact of the Industrial Revolution on the urban landscapes of Britain. The term 'Dickensian' has come to mean very poor social conditions or repulsive living standards. Capitalism had made industrialists and entrepreneurs rich, but simultaneously it created a large divide between rich and poor. These differences became entrenched through the wage system.



Source 37 'Please, sir, I want some more', from the 2005 movie adaptation of Charles Dickens' *Oliver Twist*. Charles Dickens' novels described the poverty of urban London during the Industrial Revolution.

Capitalism depends on labour. In fact these two sectors of our system are very much dependent on each other. It is important to the employer to have a healthy and adequate labour force, and equally it is important to workers for jobs to be available. Yet how fair was the wage system?

Capitalists argued that the capitalist economy provided the potential for increased earnings through individual efforts. Those who worked hardest could reap rewards. In contrast, those who were idle had only themselves to blame. They argued that everyone could effectively move up and down a ladder of opportunity.

Indeed, the emergence of the middle classes during the 19th century is evidence of this. The middle classes were trained to undertake more difficult or skilled activities such as engineering or accountancy. This meant they could command higher wages than their unskilled peers. With surplus earnings, many of these skilled workers were then free to invest in the capitalist system. By doing this, they could potentially increase their wealth and status.

However, similar opportunities were not common for the working classes. Working conditions, particularly in factories, had a devastating impact on the quality of life of workers. Days were up to 14 hours long in some industries, working conditions were poor, and industrial accidents occurred frequently. The conditions imposed on workers often had dramatic impacts on their health, and deformities arising from factory work were common. In addition, many people started work in the factories at a young age, so access to education was limited.

In theory, Adam Smith's 'invisible hand' should have meant that capitalism worked fairly for everyone. In practice, however, poor wage earners had few rights and few opportunities. Because they were uneducated, they had few other options if they were to make a living. Workers found it difficult to defend themselves against exploitation by powerful employers.



Source 38 Factory workers at a textile mill during the Industrial Revolution

Source 39

The other is the old, the often-repeated, and as often-refuted, argument that the work is light. Light! Why, no doubt, much of it is light, if measured by the endurance of some three or four minutes. But what say you, my Lords, to a continuity of toil, in a standing posture, in a poisonous atmosphere, during 13 hours, with 15 minutes of rest? Why, the stoutest man in England, were he made, in such a condition of things, to do nothing during the whole of that time but be erect on his feet and stick pins in a pincushion, would sink under the burden. What say you, then, of children – children of the tenderest years? Why, they become stunted, crippled, deformed, useless. I speak what I know – I state what I have seen. When I visited Bradford, in Yorkshire, in 1838, being desirous to see the condition of the children – for I knew that they were employed at very early ages in the worsted business…. I asked for a collection of cripples and deformities. In a short time more than 80 were gathered in a large courtyard. They were mere samples of the entire mass. I assert without exaggeration that no power of language could describe the varieties, and I may say, the cruelties, in all these degradations of the human form. They stood or squatted before me in all the shapes of the letters of the alphabet… Yet the work of these poor sufferers had been light, if measured by minutes, but terrific when measured by hours.

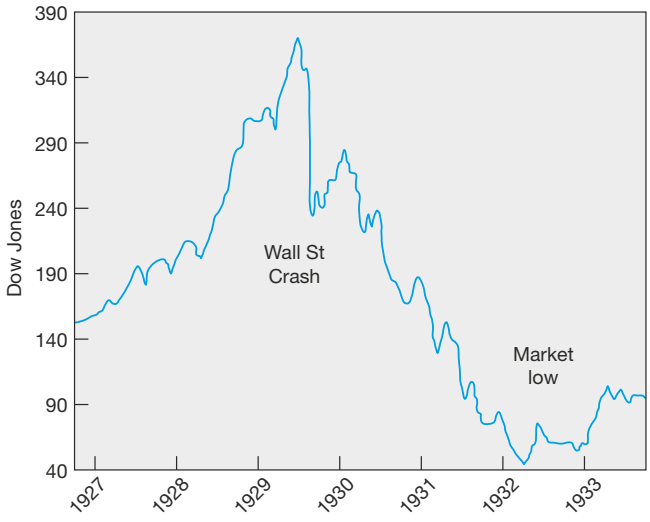
A parliamentarian describes the effects of factory labour on workers, in order to refute the argument that factory work is 'light,' 1879.

significance: the Wall St Crash

One of the activities through which people could make money under capitalism was by investing money in the stock market. In the 1920s, hundreds of thousands of Americans were investing in the stock market, hoping to make their fortune. Many of them had borrowed money in order to invest it. Investors were making great gains in the stock market, and the population was optimistic about the power of capitalism to provide pathways to wealth.

On 24 October 1929, known as 'Black Thursday', share prices on the New York Stock Exchange abruptly fell, and the stock market lost 11 per cent of its value in a single day. The slide continued as fearful investors hurried to sell their stocks and shares. In a matter of days, the stock market lost over $30 billion. Many people lost all their savings as a result of the crash. As businesses failed, many more lost their jobs. The event became known as the Wall St Crash, because the Stock Exchange and investment houses were located on Wall St, New York.

The Wall St Crash was hugely significant. It marked the beginning of the Great Depression, which lasted for twelve years and affected almost all industrialised countries. It also shook people's belief in the idea that capitalism would create a balanced system that needed little government intervention or oversight. In the wake of the crash, the public was avidly opposed to big business and the industrialists who had made huge gains from capitalism. Now, it seemed, those gains had come at the expense of the public, who paid dearly for the perceived greed of business.



Source 40 Stock prices at the New York Stock Exchange (measured by an index called the Dow Jones) before and after the Wall St Crash of 1929.


THE TIMES RECORDER

CORD STOCK MARKET CRASH; SALE OF 12,894,680 SHARES

OVER FIVE BILLION DOLLARS IN QUOTED VALUES SWEPT AWAY

Source 41 The Wall St Crash is reported on the front page in London, 25 October 1929.

Check your learning

1. What was the 'Gilded Age'?
2. What is a 'robber baron'?
3. Why did people believe that rich industrialists were 'robber barons'?
4. Describe what life was like for poor people living in cities during the Industrial Revolution.
5. Describe how factory workers were affected by their jobs.
6. What happened on 'Black Thursday'?

Capitalism in Australia

Australia's history means that capitalism developed slightly differently here, compared with Europe and America. This was both due to the way the country was colonised and the heavy influence of socialist ideas in Australian society and government.

Australia never had a feudal society. After it was colonised by white settlers in 1788, the economy operated under a mix of slave labour from convicts and mostly agricultural capitalism. Settlers and freed convicts produced goods for a profit, assisted by government land packages. One of Australia's biggest industries in the 18th century was wool which became an important cultural icon.



Source 42 *The Golden Fleece*, Tom Roberts, 1894. The wool industry was one of the foundations of the Australian capitalist economy.

The Australian economic system was never purely capitalist, however. From the beginnings of settlement, socialist ideas influenced how the colony developed. Governments in the states were generally very involved in the economy and society. They protected local industries by imposing heavy tariffs, and also upheld rights for workers. These rights were championed by strong unions who fought for their rights by holding strikes. By the middle of the 19th century, various state governments had imposed an eight-hour working day and a minimum wage, which was highly progressive compared to industrialised nations elsewhere in the world.

Today, Australia's economy represents a mix of capitalist and socialist values. The basis of the economy is capitalist, with private enterprise producing goods and services for a profit. However, elements of the economy are heavily regulated by the government in order to ensure the system is balanced and fair. The government also provides social welfare and attempts to provide equal opportunities to all people through the provision of free health care and education, and other social policies.

Check your learning

1 In what ways was the Australian economy different to Europe's during the Industrial Revolution?
2 Which elements of the Australian economy in the 19th century were not capitalist?
3 Explain why Australia's economy today is a mix of capitalism and socialism.

bigideas

2 What is capitalism and how has it influenced societies in Australia and the world?

Remember

1 Define the following terms: capital, supply and demand, competition, *laissez-faire*.
2 Identify the key ideas that were put forward by Adam Smith.
3 Describe what life was like for peasants before the Industrial Revolution.

Understand

4 What were the major changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution?
5 Create a cartoon strip to show how Cornelius Vanderbilt made his fortune.

Apply

6 Draw a diagram to illustrate the relationship between supply and demand.
7 Look at Source 39. Explain whether or not Adam Smith's 'invisible hand' was working to create a balanced system.

Analyse

8 Compare and contrast capitalism and feudalism by using the following table:

	Capitalism	Feudalism	Capitalism and Feudalism
Economic system			
Effect on society			
Equality among people			

9 Why do you think Adam Smith's ideas were so influential?

Evaluate

10 Think about an essential product like wheat or rice. Judge whether you think there would be any problems with a *laissez-faire* approach to price and supply of that product. Explain your reasoning.
11 Write a letter to Theodore Roosevelt defending the actions of the 'captains of industry' and the capitalist system.

Create

12 Draw a political cartoon that is critical of capitalism during the Industrial Revolution. Include the information you know about conditions in factories, and how wealthy industrialists benefited from the system.
13 Imagine you are leading a capitalist society. Draw up a list of rules that you would put in place to ensure that people are not disadvantaged by capitalism.

3 What is socialism and how has it influenced societies in Australia and the world?



Source 43 Detail of a poster representing the benefits of revolution. It show the victorious Red Army contributing to the transport of wheat and cattle.

Socialism is a term that is applied to a range of political ideas and can be used in a variety of contexts. It can refer to a political system, an economic system, a government strategy, or a philosophy or theory. It generally describes the idea that all people should have an equal opportunity to share in a society's wealth. Socialism emerged in the modern era as the Industrial Revolution and mass urban migration changed the way people lived. It promised the growing working classes a fairer share of both profit and power by ensuring that the State (the government) controlled and allocated resources equally among citizens.

Many socialists regarded revolution as either necessary or inevitable, and believed it was the only way to achieve greater equality. Revolution means the complete replacement of one political and social order with another. These socialists wanted to overturn their societies and replace them with an entirely new system.

Socialism inspired thinkers and movements across the globe, starting in the early 19th century. Intellectuals including Saint–Simon and Karl Marx wrote visions of socialist societies that they believed would be more equal. Factory workers formed trade unions to fight for improved working conditions. Revolutionaries around the world tried to start revolutions in order to put socialist ideas into practice in their own societies. These progressive ideas became a movement that was highly influential in the 19th century and still influences society and government today.

In this section, we will consider the rise of socialism and socialist movements from the beginning of the modern age to the socialist revolution in Russia in 1917.

What was the world like when socialism arose?

Socialism arose in response to the effect of capitalism and the Industrial Revolution on society. The Industrial Revolution profoundly changed the way people lived their lives. It introduced machinery into trades and agriculture, which made the production of food and goods more efficient. With less manual labour required on farms, many people migrated to cities, seeking new types of work in factories. Populations in cities soared.

The failure of capitalism

Capitalism challenged the unequal feudal social system of the time, but despite promises of a better society, capitalism created new forms of inequality and exploitation. In theory, capitalism was supposed to balance the needs of the economy and consumers with the rights of workers. Workers would be free to seek work elsewhere if their employer did not provide good conditions. In fact, capitalism and the Industrial Revolution created a deeply unequal society. Some people found opportunities for wealth. A middle class emerged which had not existed in feudal times. A few entrepreneurs amassed huge fortunes by investing money and capital into industries like railroads and oil. However, workers remained powerless and were often horrifically exploited. Simultaneously, overcrowding in cities resulted in cramped and unhealthy living conditions for the cities' poorest inhabitants. Capitalism had created definite winners and losers. The winners were accumulating enormous wealth while the losers were working very long days in dangerous environments for minimal pay.

Source 44

'A Sanitary Remonstrance'
THE EDITUR OF THE TIMES PAPER
Sur, — May we beg and beseech your proteckshion and power. We are Sur, as it may be, livin in a Wilderniss, so far as the rest of London knows anything of us, or as the rich and great people care about. We live in muck and filth. We aint got no priviz, no dust bins, no drains, no water-splies, and no drain or suer in the hole place. The Suer Company, in Greek St., Soho Square, all great, rich and powerfool men, take no notice watsomdever of our complaints. The Stenche of a Gully-hole is disgustin. We all of us suffer, and numbers are ill, and if the Colera comes Lord help us.
Some gentlemans comed yesterday, and we thought they was comishioners from the Suer Company, but they was complaining of the noosance and stenche our lanes and corts was to them in New Oxforde Strect. They was much surprized to see the seller in No. 12, Carrier St., in our lane, where a child was dyin from fever, and would not believe that Sixty persons sleep in it every night. This here seller you couldent swing a cat in, and the rent is five shillings a week; but theare are greate many sich deare sellars. Sur, we hope you will let us have our complaints put into your hinfluenshall paper, and make these landlords of our houses and these comishioners (the friends we spose of the landlords) make our houses decent for Christions to live in. Preaye Sir com and see us, for we are living like piggs, and it aint faire we shoulde be so ill treted.
We are your respeckfull servents in Church Lane, Carrier St., and the other corts. Teusday, Juley 3, 1849.

A letter written by 54 people living in London's slums to *The Times,* published on 5 July 1849 under the headline 'A Sanitary Remonstrance [protest]'. The signatures of all 54 slum dwellers then followed the text of the letter. Few people at the time would have been aware of the conditions that the city's slum dwellers endured.



Source 45 The people living in a 19th-century London slum. Conditions were often crowded and unsanitary.

Socialists argued that capitalism was not the best system for effectively distributing wealth. There were better ways to organise society and take advantage of modern technology. They pointed to a number of failings of the capitalist system. First, capitalism had concentrated power and wealth within a small group in society who created its wealth through exploitation. Therefore, opportunities were not equal for everyone in society. Under capitalism, people's wealth was based not on how much they contributed to society, but on how much capital they had to invest. Capital includes land, equipment and money. People who already had wealth could use that wealth to create more, while those without access to capital remained poor. Second, capitalism did not operate in the interests of the public and what society needed. Instead, it focused on what the market (or buyers) wanted, and what could be sold for a profit. Under socialism, wealth would be distributed based on contribution to society, while resources and technology would be used to their maximum potential for the benefit of society.

Conditions for workers

The Industrial Revolution saw the creation of factories, large-scale mines and other workplaces that had previously been unknown. The owners in these industries often became very wealthy by purchasing land and equipment and hiring labourers to work for them. The workers themselves usually endured very poor conditions.

Imagine standing for up to 14 hours a day at a machine, with just a short break and nothing to eat until you finished. Your wages were unlikely to cover your cost of living. There was a high chance of an industrial accident that could kill or seriously injure you. Imagine having no opportunity to go to school because you had started working before you were even a teenager. And then imagine going home to a shared room with no privacy, no running water, and no sewerage system. This was the life of a poor factory worker during the Industrial Revolution. The factory owner was making enormous profits from their work, but what share were they seeing of the wealth that was being created by their labour?

Source 46

> *Any man who has stood at twelve o'clock at the single narrow door-way, which serves as the place of exit for the hands employed in the great cotton-mills, must acknowledge, that an uglier set of men and women, of boys and girls, taking them in the mass, it would be impossible to congregate in a smaller compass. Their complexion is sallow and pallid – with a peculiar flatness of feature, caused by the want of a proper quantity of adipose substance to cushion out the cheeks. Their stature low – the average height of four hundred men, measured at different times, and different places, being five feet six inches. Their limbs slender, and playing badly and ungracefully. A very general bowing of the legs. Great numbers of girls and women walking lamely or awkwardly, with raised chests and spinal flexures. Nearly all have flat feet, accompanied with a down-tread, differing very widely from the elasticity of action in the foot and ankle, attendant upon perfect formation. Hair thin and straight – many of the men having but little beard, and that in patches of a few hairs, much resembling its growth among the red men of America. A spiritless and dejected air, a sprawling and wide action of the legs, and an appearance, taken as a whole, giving the world but 'little assurance of a man,' or if so, 'most sadly cheated of his fair proportions...'*

A description of how the working conditions in textile mills contributed to the physical deterioration of workers. Excerpt from P. Gaskell, *The Manufacturing Population of England,* London, 1833.

Lewis W. Hine was an American teacher turned photographer who documented child labour in factories and other industries between 1908 and 1912. His photographs capture the shocking conditions in factories and mines. They also show the high numbers of young children, sometimes as young as three years old, who were employed for as little as 50 cents a day. That is the equivalent of approximately $10 nowadays. They worked for long hours, often in dangerous conditions. Look at his photos and captions in the sources below to understand what working conditions were like at the turn of the century. Keep in mind that these conditions were much improved compared to 50–100 years earlier, when socialism first arose.

Socialism was a reaction to the inequality created by the Industrial Revolution, and proposed a form of society where people would have equal access to wealth and opportunity.



Source 47 Lewis Hine photograph – 'Fish cutters at a canning company in Maine. Ages range from 7 to 12. They live near the factory. The seven-year-old boy in front, Byron Hamilton, has a badly cut finger but helps his brother regularly. Behind him is his brother George, age 11, who cut his finger half off while working. Ralph, on the left, displays his knife and also a badly cut finger. They and many youngsters said they were always cutting themselves. George earns a dollar some days usually 75 cents. Some of the others say they earn a dollar when they work all day. At times they start at 7 a.m. and work all day until midnight.'



Source 48 Lewis Hine photograph – 'The Mill: A moment's glimpse of the outer world. Said she was 11 years old. Been working over a year. Rhodes Manufacturing Co. Lincolnton, North Carolina.'

Check your learning

1. What is the central idea of socialism?
2. How did capitalism create inequality in society?
3. Why did socialists argue their system was better?
4. Describe what life was like for workers during the Industrial Revolution.
5. Look at the photos of Lewis Hine, including his captions. What do these sources tell you about the lives of young workers? Make as many inferences as you can.

Influential socialist thinkers and the origins of socialism

Models of socialism and ideas proposing shared or public ownership have existed since the classical era. It was during the industrial revolution, however, that socialism became a mainstream idea, proposed by philosophers, politicians and even business owners.

Saint-Simon

Count Henri de Saint-Simon was a French aristocrat who first coined the term 'socialism' in the late 18th century. In the time after the French Revolution, industrialisation was changing the way people lived and worked across Europe. Saint-Simon believed that science, technology and industrialisation would bring about changes in the way society was governed, and that these changes were inevitable. He believed that every person in society would end up having equal opportunities. In Saint-Simon's socialist society, every person would be ranked based on his or her abilities, and would be rewarded according to the work that he or she put in.



Source 49 Portrait of Claude Henri de Rouvroy, Count of Saint-Simon, aged 35, 1848

Robert Owen

Robert Owen was a Welsh industrialist whose ideas formed the basis of British socialism. At the beginning of the 19th century, Owen owned and ran a cotton mill called New Lanark near Glasgow. He ran it for a profit, but also treated his workers according to principles higher than mere profit. He regarded the practices of many other factory owners as corrupt, and at his own mill he established a range of social supports for his workers. These included education and the provision of quality food and clothing for his workers. He was one of the first mill owners to remove children from his workforce. Instead, he provided them with daily schooling. By today's standards, the changes that Owen brought in may seem small, but they were radical at the time. Many of his fellow mill owners in Northern England and Scotland saw his actions as a dangerous precedent.



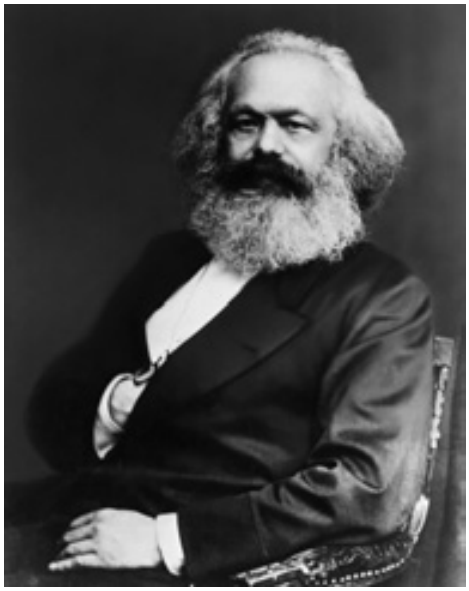
Source 50 Robert Owen

As well as bringing improved conditions and better opportunities to his workers, Owen was also a socialist thinker. He wrote many texts outlining his views on ideal societies. He desired a moral society made up of small communities without private property. He understood that individuals' behaviour and characteristics were heavily influenced by the social environment in which they were raised. Owen lobbied parliament relentlessly to better support the growing population of factory workers. His ideas and practices paved the way for decades of improvements in workers' rights in Britain and around the world.



Source 51 Robert Owen's New Lanark cotton mill

Karl Marx



Source 52 Karl Marx

Karl Marx was an enormously influential figure whose ideas changed the course of history. He developed the theory of communism, and made socialism and communism popular ideas across the globe.

Marx was born in 1818, in Trier, a town in Prussia (now Germany). His father was a lawyer, so he was born into a *bourgeois* (middle class) family. He went to university in Bonn and Berlin, studying law, history and philosophy. As a young man, he worked as the editor of radical newspapers which opposed the Prussian government.



Source 53 Marx's birthplace in Trier

He moved to Paris in 1843. There were many revolutionary groups that were active in Paris at the time, and Marx became involved with them. In Paris he also met Friedrich Engels who became his closest friend. The Prussian and French governments both considered Marx to be a dangerous revolutionary, because he campaigned for the overthrow of governments. He was banished from both countries, moving to London in 1845.

It was in London, with Engels, that Marx wrote his famous book, *The Communist Manifesto*. He believed that workers would rise up in violent revolution against the capitalists who were oppressing them, and would form a socialist state. He advocated for this to happen not just in one country, but across the world.

Marx wanted to create a world that was more just, and where all people would have what they needed. He had seen the destructive effect that capitalism had had on working-class people, and he dreamed of a society where exploitation and inequality would be a thing of the past. Nevertheless, it is not surprising that the governments of the day considered him to be extremely dangerous.

Source 54

> The Communists ... openly declare that their ends can be attained only by the forcible overthrow of all existing social conditions.
> Let the ruling classes tremble at a communist revolution.
> The proletarians have nothing to lose but their chains. They have a world to win.
> Working Men of All Countries, Unite!
> A spectre is haunting Europe – the spectre of communism.
> In place of the old bourgeois society, with its classes and class antagonisms, we shall have an association in which the free development of each is the condition for the free development of all.

Quotes from Marx and Engels, The Communist Manifesto (1848)

Marx spent his life campaigning to bring about socialist revolutions around the world. He did this through his writing and through political organisations. For much of his life he lived in exile and poverty, relying on charity from friends such as Engels. He died in 1883, a few months after his wife.



Source 55 Marx remains an iconic figure for socialists around the world. A flag with Marx's image and the words 'Long live socialism' at International Workers' Day celebrations in London in 2008.

A century later, Marx's ideas were still considered dangerous by many governments. The Cold War between the USA and USSR lasted for more than 40 years in the late 20th century. It was a battle between governments that wanted to implement Marx's ideas and those who thought his ideas would be extremely damaging.

Source 56

> If we have chosen the position in life in which we can most of all work for mankind, no burdens can bow us down, because they are sacrifices for the benefit of all; then we shall experience no petty, limited, selfish joy, but our happiness will belong to millions, our deeds will live on quietly but perpetually at work, and over our ashes will be shed the hot tears of noble people.

Letter from Karl Marx to his father (1837)

The socialist theories of Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels

Socialism dramatically increased in popularity around the world in the second half of the 19th century. One reason for its rising appeal was the development of Marxism, which proved to be an attractive idea for many. Karl Marx and his colleague Friedrich Engels redefined the socialist movement. They suggested that the class struggle between workers and capitalists was inevitable, and that the end result would be communism. For Marx and Engels, socialism was the first stage of the process of achieving communism.

Marx and Engels outlined their ideas in a famous book called *The Communist Manifesto* which proved to be hugely influential. They believed that wage earners (broadly the working class) would try to seek their freedom by revolting against the capitalist owners of society. Eventually, there would be a classless society with no state (or government) overseeing it.



Source 57 Marx and Engels in the pressrooms of *Rheinische Zeitung*, a socialist paper which they jointly edited

Socialism was viewed as a phase that would replace capitalism and precede communism. Under socialism, the proletariat (workers) would own and control the means of production. The means of production included things like factories and the machines that produced goods. The government would be a workers' state that was created and operated in the interests of workers.

Socialism, as viewed by Marx and Engels, was based on the principle of 'from each according to his ability, to each according to his contribution'. This means that the amount each person contributed to the system (for example, the number of hours or type of work that he or she did) would match the level of skill or ability he or she had. Each person would receive wages (or housing, or food, or other compensation) that matched the level of his or her contribution. That is, the more you put in, the more you would get out.

Communism was viewed by Marx and Engels as a higher form of society than socialism. It was the last stage that a society would reach after the workers had thrown off the shackles of the capitalists. They believed that the socialist stage would create an economy so efficient that there would be an abundance of goods and services available. Society could then move to an ideal state of communism, where there was no 'state', there were no social classes, and the means of production were commonly owned. Communism was based on the principle of 'from each according to his ability, to each according to his need'. People were still expected to contribute as much as they were able; however, goods and wealth would be distributed in society based on people's needs. Communism was seen by many as representing an ideal state of society, in which everyone was provided for and given equal opportunities.



Source 58 Lenin at the Third International, an organisation of socialists and communists from around the world, 1919

Check your learning

1. Why was Robert Owen an unusual employer?
2. Why do you think other industrialists regarded his actions as a 'dangerous precedent'?
3. Karl Marx was repeatedly exiled from countries he lived in. What aspects of his ideas do you think governments at the time found dangerous?
4. Marx and Engels' ideas were hugely popular. What do you think attracted people to their philosophy?
5. What are the differences between socialism and communism, according to Marx and Engels?

empathy: calls for revolution

It may be difficult nowadays to imagine why so many philosophers and politicians believed that the working class would revolt against the government. Often, these thinkers thought that the revolution would be violent and bloody. Why would workers feel so angry at their system of government that they would plot a violent revolution?

In 1842 Lord Ashley, a British member of parliament, headed an investigation into the conditions of workers in Britain. Read the testimony below, from a typical working class girl. See whether you can imagine why workers may have felt deep anger and resentment towards the people who employed them and who benefited from their work.

Source 59

Testimony of a Mine Worker: Patience Kershaw, aged 17

My father has been dead about a year; my mother is living and has ten children, five lads and five lasses; the oldest is about thirty, the youngest is four; three lasses go to mill; all the lads are colliers [miners], two getters and three hurriers [coal carriers]; one lives at home and does nothing; mother does nought but look after home.

All my sisters have been hurriers, but three went to the mill. Alice went because her legs swelled from hurrying in cold water when she was hot. I never went to day-school; I go to Sunday-school, but I cannot read or write; I go to pit at five o'clock in the morning and come out at five in the evening; I get my breakfast of porridge and milk first; I take my dinner with me, a cake, and eat it as I go; I do not stop or rest any time for the purpose; I get nothing else until I get home, and then have potatoes and meat, not every day meat. I hurry in the clothes I have now got on, trousers and ragged jacket; the bald place upon my head is made by thrusting the corves; my legs have never swelled, but sisters' did when they went to mill; I hurry the corves a mile and more under ground and back; they weigh 300 cwt.; I hurry 11 a-day; I wear a belt and chain at the workings, to get the corves out; the getters that I work for are naked except their caps; they pull off all their clothes; I see them at work when I go up; sometimes they beat me, if I am not quick enough, with their hands; they strike me upon my back; the boys take liberties with me sometimes they pull me about; I am the only girl in the pit; there are about 20 boys and 15 men; all the men are naked; I would rather work in mill than in coal-pit.

Testimony from the Lord Ashley's Mines Commission, 1842. The commission was charged with investigating conditions of labour in the mines in the United Kingdom. The resulting Mines Act of 1842 forbade employment in mines of all women, and of boys under thirteen. The picture is from the official report of the parliamentary commission, and shows a girl pulling a coal tub in a mine.



Source 60 Lord Ashley visiting the coal mines of the Black Country, 1840-42

How did socialism influence societies?

The influence of socialism, particularly the ideas of Karl Marx, was widespread. During the 18th and 19th centuries, many governments, politicians and revolutionaries were inspired by these ideas to revolt against their social system.

The union movement

The Industrial Revolution saw the rise of strong trade unions from the mid-19th century, spurred by the increasing popularity of socialist ideas. Trade unions are organisations of workers who band together to negotiate pay and working conditions.

One of the most famous reforms that unions agitated for was the eight-hour working day. As we have seen, factory workers and other labourers worked extremely long days during the Industrial Revolution. Robert Owen, who brought socialist ideals to his factory in Scotland, helped to fight for an eight-hour working day. In 1817 he created the slogan, 'eight hours labour, eight hours recreation, eight hours rest.'

Much of the union activity in the 19th century related to working hours. One of the ways workers could exercise power was to go on strike, which meant that they would all agree not to work unless their employer agreed to improve their conditions. Reforms were slow to come for labourers, despite the activity of trade unions. For example, it was not until 1847 in England that women and children were granted a ten-hour working day.



Source 61 A worker is initiated into a trade union. Due to official hostility, the earliest unions conducted themselves like secret societies.



Source 62 Trade union banners are held up as workers march in the 1889 London dock strike.

1848 revolutions

During 1848 a series of socialist uprisings occurred across Europe, starting in France in February. The revolutions represented a collapse of traditional authority across the continent. The uprisings spread through Europe and then to Latin America, affecting more than 50 countries in all. The revolutions were caused by general dissatisfaction with governments, a desire for more democracy and participation in government, and the conditions of the working classes. Revolutionary leaders fought for ideals such as universal suffrage and unemployment benefits.

The revolutions ultimately failed, and their impact was relatively small. There was no coordination between the revolutionaries across countries, and little consensus about what sort of society they actually wanted to create. While tens of thousands of people died, the reforms gained by the revolutionaries were minimal. In a few countries some lasting reforms were achieved. For example, in Austria and Hungary the uprisings were successful in ending serfdom. In most other countries, the events of 1848 had little long-term impact.

The Communist Manifesto was already in print at the time of the 1848 revolutions across Europe; however, the concerns of the revolutionaries at the time were so broad that few of Marx's ideas were on the agenda. Marx argued that they failed because they were largely directed by the middle classes, not by the working classes. He believed the middle classes preferred the safety of monarchy and empire over socialism.



Source 63 Map of Europe showing where revolutions occurred in 1848.

The Paris Commune

In 1871, for the first time during the Industrial Revolution, the working class seized power in Paris. They became the first socialists to succeed in overtaking a society. Workers in France were discontented with their place in French society and the conditions they had to work under. When France was defeated in the Franco-Prussian war, the emotions of the disgruntled populace boiled over, particularly in Paris. The National Guard were armed for combat with the Prussians and many of them were in a state of near mutiny. Amid the turmoil, the army and political leaders fled Paris to nearby Versailles. The National Guard took over Paris and held elections for a commune to rule the city. Many of those who were elected were socialists.



Source 64 A barricade on the streets of Paris, 18 March 1871

For a brief two months, the Paris Commune ruled Paris and tried to implement socialist ideas, all the while fighting a civil war to maintain power. During its short reign, the commune created laws to improve conditions for workers. They returned working tools that were being sold in city pawn shops, because they were concerned that during the war skilled workers had been obliged to pawn their tools. They granted pensions to dependents of National Guard soldiers who had been killed during the war. They allowed employees to run private businesses that had been abandoned by their owners. They also abolished night work in Parisian bakeries.

The Commune was led by a mix of socialists and anarchists (who believe that governments should be abolished). Disagreements between the two groups resulted in the Commune falling apart. Nevertheless, many socialist leaders regarded the Paris Commune as proof that when workers' rights deteriorate, revolution would follow.



Source 65 An artist's impression of the Commune in Paris in 1871 showing protestors flying the red flag of the Commune as fires blaze.

The Russian Revolution

Many historians consider the Russian Revolution to be the most significant socialist revolution ever to take place. Not only did socialism in Russia last for nearly a century, it also inspired socialist or communist revolutions in many other countries around the world.



Source 66 *Worker and Kolkhoz Woman*, a monument considered to be one of the main symbols of the Soviet Union.

At the turn of the 20th century Russia was a largely feudal society. Russia was ruled by a *tsar*, who was a monarch, and most Russians were peasants who worked on land they did not own themselves. There were many reasons for the population to be unhappy. The lower classes were poor and powerless, and they had endured centuries of oppression by the tsarist regime. Workers suffered from appalling work and living conditions and very low pay. In 1905, on 'Bloody Sunday', the *tsar's* troops massacred hundreds of unarmed protesters who were campaigning for reform. This cemented opposition to the *tsar*.

During World War I the military suffered heavy losses. Much of the army was composed of conscripts, and they became angry and mutinous. Economic hardships and inflation led to food shortages in many cities. There was a general public outcry against *Tsar* Nicholas II, who the people regarded as being unfit to rule. By 1917 the *tsar* did not have enough support even from his own army to maintain control of the angry population. In March he abdicated the throne, becoming the last *tsar* of Russia.



Source 67 Bolshevik forces march on Red Square in 1917.

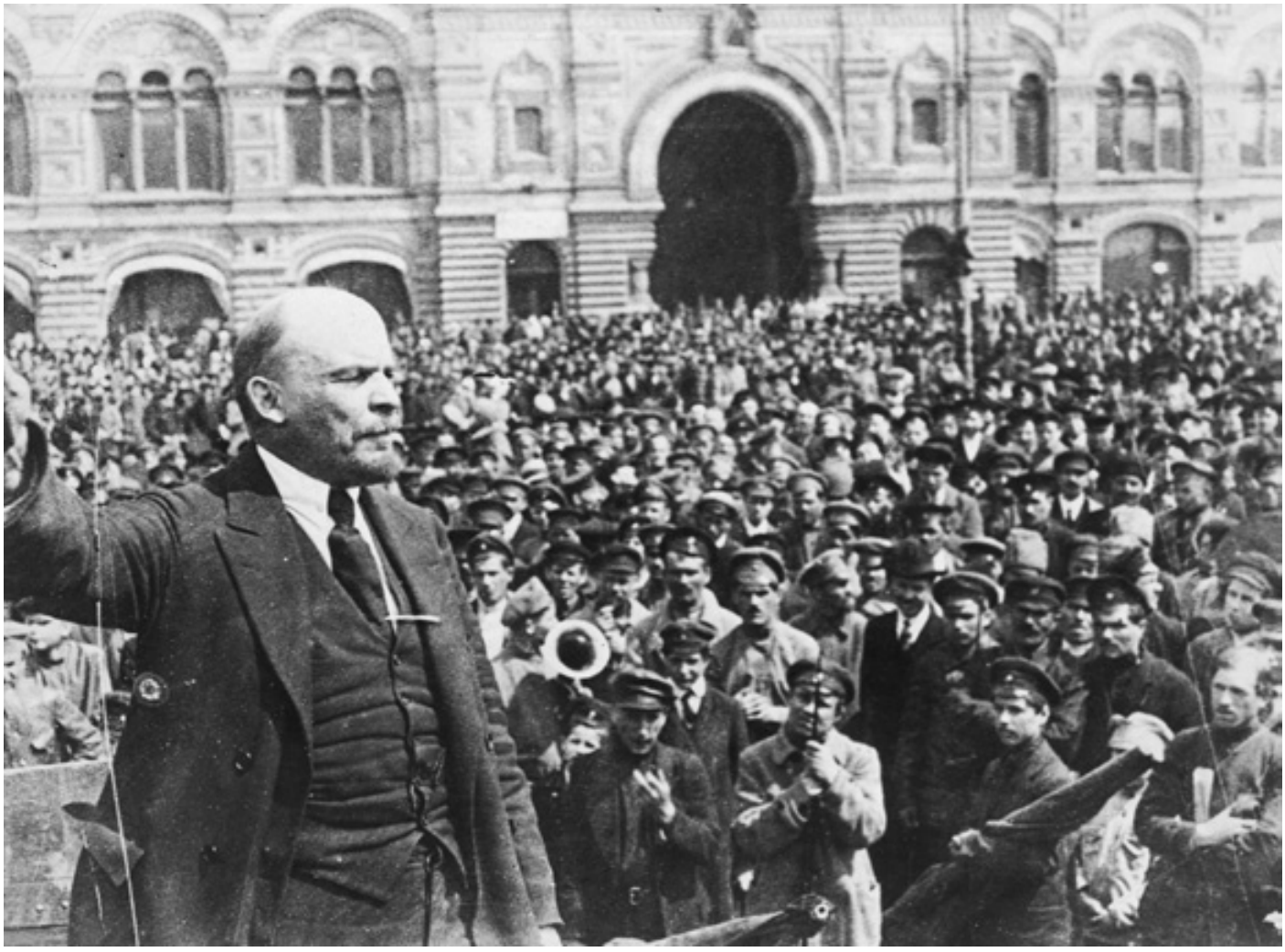
During this time, Vladimir Ilyich Lenin, a Marxist, was the leader of a minor political party called the Bolsheviks. He lived in exile in Switzerland, because the Bolsheviks had been banned under the *tsar*. In 1917 he returned to Russia. The public was dissatisfied with the provisional government that had been set up after Nicholas II's abdication. In October, aided by his colleague Leon Trotsky, Lenin led a revolution against the provisional government and took power.

The success of the Bolsheviks was influential across the globe. Bolshevik and Communist Party propaganda projected a vision of equality and prosperity. Their success inspired revolutions around the world. In fact, Lenin and his supporter Stalin claimed that for socialism to succeed, it needed to be a worldwide movement.



Source 68 *Bolshevik*, by Boris Kustodiev, 1920

Lenin aspired to put Marx's ideas into practice. He and the Bolsheviks wanted workers to take control of factories and for farms to become collectively owned. A period of state socialism would eventually make way for communism and a classless society. They did manage to implement some socialist policies. They created collective farms and nationalised production (meaning factories were owned by the government, not privately owned and operated). However, the Bolsheviks were not ultimately able to achieve many of the socialist goals they set out to deliver, and certainly never achieved a genuine communist state.



Source 69 Lenin addresses the crowd in 1920.

The Bolsheviks faced constant opposition to their radical plans and took drastic measures to retain power. Shortly after the October Revolution in 1917, civil war broke out between the Bolshevik Red Army and their opposition in the White Army. Even though the Red Army won the civil war, the government relied heavily on secret police to maintain control. Those who were suspected of being opposed to the regime were sent to brutal hard-labour camps in Siberia. The camps were in the bitterly cold, remote north. For the majority of the population, the prosperity promised by socialism never appeared, nor did the freedom. A few short years after the 1917 revolution, Russian society resembled a totalitarian state. This was far from Marx's idealised society of equality and opportunity. Nevertheless, 'communism' in Russia lasted for most of the century, persisting until 1990.



Source 70 Workers at a labour camp in Siberia. Many died in the camps, unable to tolerate the harsh conditions.

Check your learning

1. What is a trade union, and what is socialist about the reforms they sought?
2. Describe the spread of the 1848 revolutions. Why did they fail?
3. What changes did the Paris Commune bring in?
4. Why do you think socialists regarded the Commune as a success, even though it only lasted two months?
5. What were the conditions in Russia that allowed the socialists to take over in 1917?
6. Which aspects of the new Russian society were socialist, and which weren't?

Socialism in Australia



Source 71 A political cartoon published in Queensland depicting the international fight of workers against capitalists, Montagu Scott, 'All the world over', *The Worker* [Queensland], 23 May 1903.

Australia has a long history of socialist ideas, and has had particularly active trade unions. Since settlement, the government in Australia played a strong role in society and in protecting Australian industry. Before Federation in 1901, many state governments had been interventionist. An interventionist government is a government that is heavily involved in society and the economy. For example, the Victorian government imposed heavy tariffs on imported goods to protect local farmers and tradespersons from outside competition. The idea of a government making decisions and laws to protect its people or prevent competition is rooted in socialism.

In addition, a number of radicals had been deported from Britain to Australia as convicts, and brought their ideas with them. Trade unions in Australia were strong and were very active in the 19th century. Victoria pioneered short working weeks and a minimum wage in many industries. Australia was not a socialist society, but its governments did implement socialist ideas. In fact, the first socialist party in the world to be elected into government was the Australian Labor Party.

Source 72 The Harvester Judgement

> *I regard the applicant's undertaking as a marvel of enterprise, energy and pluck… he is allowed – if my view of the Act is correct – to make any profits that he can and they are not subject to investigation. But when he chooses, in the course of his economies, to economise at the expense of human life, when his economy involves the withholding from his employees of reasonable remuneration, or reasonable conditions of human existence, then, as I understand the Act, Parliament insists on the payment of the Excise duty.*

Excerpt from Justice Higgins' 'Harvester Judgement', 8 November 1907. Justice Higgins was the president of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration. The 'applicant' was Hugh McKay, president of the Sunshine Harvester Company, which built agricultural machinery. Higgins decreed that employees must pay their workers a fair and reasonable wage, regardless of the employer's capacity to pay. That is, a job should not exist if it cannot provide a living wage. This led to the legal requirement for a basic wage, which has underpinned the Australian economic system ever since.



Source 73 Banner for the eight-hour day in Melbourne, 1856

Australian 'socialism' and the labour movements of the late 19th century started with workers forming unions. Many of these unions undertook major industrial actions, including strikes, to achieve their aims. One of the most significant of these strikes was the 1891 shearers' strike. The wool industry was one of Australia's biggest industries, but conditions for shearers were poor. The strike started in January and spread quickly across wool stations. Tensions between shearers and station owners were so high that a civil war nearly erupted in central Queensland. Armed shearers who were striking faced off outside towns against soldiers who were protecting non-union labour. Eventually the strike was broken, but it strengthened the cause of socialists in Australia and is one of the reasons that the Australian Labor Party was formed.



Source 74 Miners march for an eight-hour day in Wyalong, NSW, 1890s.

The Australian Labor Party was formed in 1891, and was the most successful socialist party in the world at the turn of the century. It was immediately popular in state and federal elections, easily winning majorities in seats where workers lived. In 1904, Chris Watson became prime minister of the first Labour government in the world. The Australian Labor Party is a mainstream political party, yet the party rules still include a socialist objective: a commitment to work towards achieving equality. Australia also had a Communist Party for most of the 20th century.



Source 75 An Australian Labor Party poster, c.1928

Socialist ideas have had a strong impact in Australia. We traditionally attach a heavy importance to equality, and people look to the government to provide goods and services; for example, postal services. Government welfare policies, which are designed to protect the social interests of all members of society, are socialist policies. So are minimum wages, pensions, and state-run schools and hospitals. The Labor Party even established a bank in 1911 – the Commonwealth Bank. Even ideas that have been protected by groups who are vehemently anti-socialist have socialist underpinnings. The National Party (the country party) has always supported government intervention to protect the wellbeing of farmers. For example, they support subsidising farmers and controlling telephone and postal prices. Many of the public institutions and laws that we take for granted today are a product of the socialist ideas that arose during the Industrial Revolution.

Check your learning

1 Why was Australian society receptive to socialist ideas?
2 Why were unions important in Australia?
3 What factors do you think made the Australian Labor Party successful?
4 List some of the socialist ideas that are part of the Australian economy and society.

bigideas

3 What is socialism and how has it influenced societies in Australia and the world?

Remember

1 Describe the conditions of workers in factories and mines in the 19th century.

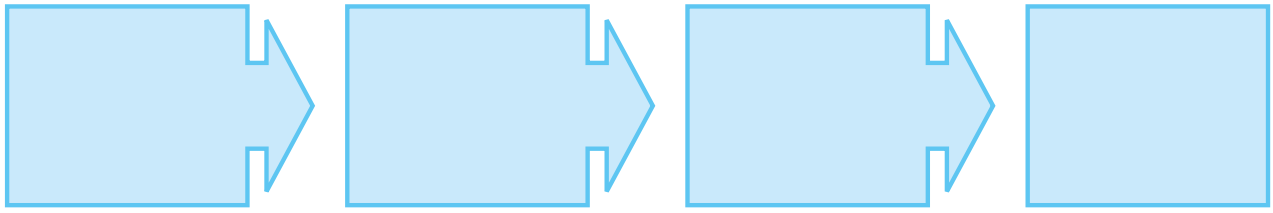
2 What were some of the goals of socialists in the 19th century?

Understand

3 Summarise the ideas of Karl Marx and describe the influence his ideas had.

4 Marx regarded socialism as inevitable. Why did he hold this belief?

5 Create a flow chart, like the one shown below, to illustrate the sequence of events that led to the popularity of socialism.



Apply

6 Examine Sources 47 and 48. What observations can you make about what it was like to be a worker in the Industrial Revolution? Why would socialist ideals have been appealing to these workers?

7 Draw a diagram that explains how a socialist society and economy operates.

Analyse

8 Research the shearers' strike of 1891. Determine whether the strike was effective in improving conditions for shearers. Did it have an effect on any other industries?

9 Read the excerpt from the Harvester Judgement (Source 70). Why do you think this judgement was important, and how do you imagine it affected the legal rights of labourers and the responsibilities of factory owners?

Evaluate

10 Look at the evidence in Source 59. Determine how the reforms that socialists campaigned for would have affected Patience Kershaw.

11 Write a letter to a factory owner in the 19th century recommending socialist reforms to his business.

Create

12 Using your knowledge of socialism and conditions in the Industrial Revolution, write a paragraph to explain why revolutions on behalf of the working classes were often led by the middle classes.

13 Consider the society, government and economy of Australia today. What elements of modern Australia are socialist in their origins? Create a propaganda poster in the style of Bolshevik propaganda (see Sources 43 and the image for the Russian Revolution in the timeline) to advertise the benefits of the socialist policies you have discovered.

acknowledgements

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9 Asia and the world: China

1750–1918

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depth study option

Asia and the world: China (1750–1918)



A Qing Dynasty lion outside the Forbidden City, Beijing

Chinese society underwent dramatic transformations between 1750 and 1918. At the start of this period China was a vast and powerful empire that dominated much of Asia, but by the end of this period it was divided and weak. The Chinese Empire had collapsed and the emperor was removed from power. Rival warlords competed for different parts of the country. Foreign nations such as Britain, France and Japan controlled many Chinese cities and much of the countryside.

These changes came about for several reasons. During the 16th and 17th centuries, the ruling Qing emperors believed China had little need of foreign trade or technology. But during the 19th century, China was forced to accept foreign trade and also lost control of significant parts of Chinese territory to foreigners. At the same time, several internal rebellions broke out against the Qing.

Life for many ordinary Chinese changed considerably during this time. The population grew by about 200 million between 1750 and 1918, creating land shortages. Many people were forced to migrate within China in order to live, or to escape conflict. Some cities, such as Shanghai, grew considerably. New ideas spread into China from the West, challenging traditional Chinese beliefs about education, the status of women and the right of the emperor to rule.

Key inquiry questions

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

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

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

bigpicture

Asia and the world: China

In the 18th century, the ruling Qing emperors of China were at the height of their power. China had the most territory in all of its history and was confident of its supremacy in Asia. During the 19th century, however, the situation began to change. The Qing failed to keep up with advances in technology made by other nations. Foreign traders began to sell the addictive drug opium in China and took silver and tea out of the country to pay for it. With more advanced military forces, foreign powers humiliated China in a series of wars. China also faced a series of internal rebellions.

By the start of the 20th century the empire was on the verge of collapse. In 1911, anti-Qing revolutionaries removed the emperor from power and



1760
The emperor bans foreign ships from trading in all Chinese ports except Guangzhou.

1773
Britain starts producing the drug opium in India and selling it in China.

1796
China bans the import of opium.

1790
The opium trade has grown and Britain is shipping 4000 chests of opium to China each year.

1839
The start of the First Opium War between China and Britain.

1842
China loses the First Opium War. Britain takes Hong Kong Island.

1850
The Taiping Rebe
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are killed.

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1760



Opium from India bound for China

Source 1 Timeline of key events in China 1750 to 1918



The Vanquishing of Wuchang City, depicting a battle of the Taiping Rebellion

ellion. Rebels set up their own kingdom in the
ion lasts until 1864. More than 20 million people

56–1860
ond Opium War between
na and Britain. China loses
the emperor is forced to
w foreign traders into many
nese ports.

1884–1885
China at war with France. China loses control over Vietnam.

1894–1895
China at war with Japan. China loses control over Taiwan.

1908
Empress Dowager Cixi dies.

1911
The Xinhai Revolution causes the collapse of the empire.



Sun Yatsen, the first president of the Republic of China

1912
The emperor abdicates. Sun Yatsen becomes president of the new Republic of China.

1917
China enters World War I by declaring war on Germany.

1
mpress Dowager Cixi starts to rule when her
named emperor at the age of four. She is the
uler of China for the next 47 years.



The Guangxu Emperor on horseback

1900
The Boxer Rebellion breaks out in Shandong, then spreads to other parts of China.



British and Japanese soldiers fight Chinese rebels during the Battle of Tientsin in the Boxer Rebellion.

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



Source 2 A painting of a ploughing festival in China, 1800s

In 1750, China stretched over 9000 kilometres from west to east and was home to roughly one quarter of the world's population. This vast empire included many different groups of people. As well as those who thought of themselves as 'Chinese', there were Tibetans and Muslims in the west, Mongols and Manchus in the north, and Taiwanese in the east. Most people made their livings from farming, with many households boosting their income by weaving silk or cotton, or making handicrafts for sale at local markets. Other industries included growing tea and making porcelain.

At this time, people living inside China were largely cut off from the rest of the world. Foreigners were not allowed into the interior of the country and were banned from trading in most Chinese ports. The emperor and his court saw China as a superior civilisation with little need for foreign contact. The emperor ruled from the capital in Beijing, assisted by governors-general in different parts of the country. The dominant belief system, Confucianism, encouraged respect for one's ancestors, as well as a personal sense of duty and loyalty between the people and their ruler.

The Qing Dynasty



Source 3 Yongzheng (1711–1799), the fifth emperor of the Qing Dynasty

In 1644, the Qing Dynasty came to power and would rule China for the next 268 years. A **dynasty** is a line of rulers from the same family who rule one after another. In China, most often an aging emperor would choose one of his sons to rule after him, but sometimes the new emperor could be a brother or nephew. When a new ruling family took over – usually by force – it meant the start of a new dynasty. Dynasty names weren't always the name of the ruling family. Instead, they often had special meanings. The name 'Qing' meant 'pure'.

Name	English meaning	Lasted	Number of emperors
Qin Dynasty 221–206 BCE The first dynasty of China	No real meaning, but many believe that 'Qin' is the basis for the word for China	15 years	2
Tang Dynasty 618–907 CE Considered a high-point of Chinese civilisation	'Boastful'	289 years	22
Ming Dynasty 1368–1644 CE Made Beijing the capital of China and built the emperor's palace, The Forbidden City	'Bright'	276 years	16
Qing Dynasty 1644–1912 CE Created China's largest empire before its decline in the 19th century.	'Pure'	268 years	11

Source 4 A selection of significant Chinese dynasties

The Qing Dynasty had 11 emperors over its 268 years. Early Qing emperors such as Qianlong (ruled 1736–1796) had long reigns that saw the empire reach great strength. The 11th Qing ruler would be the last emperor. He abdicated in 1912 when revolutionaries forced him from the throne and declared China a republic.

Each emperor had an official 'reign name' which was placed *before* the word emperor. For example, the last emperor of China, Puyi, was officially named the 'Xuantong Emperor'. Each reign name had a special meaning. 'Xuantong Emperor', for instance, meant 'Emperor of Proclamation'. *Note*: the emperors are referred to by their reign names throughout this chapter.

The empire and its extent



Source 5 The Chinese Empire under the Qing Dynasty in 1820. The solid red line shows the border of China today.

The Chinese Empire under the Qing Dynasty was one of the largest empires in world history. It covered almost 10 per cent of the land area on Earth. Larger than China today, the empire included territory that now belongs to Russia, Japan, Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan. All of Mongolia sat within the empire, as did the Qing rulers' homeland in Manchuria. The Qing had also quite recently conquered both Tibet and the distant western desert provinces of Xinjiang, known as 'the New Frontier'. Xinjiang was a huge area of land occupied mainly by a Muslim people called the Uyghurs. Chinese emperors had been trying to conquer Xinjiang for almost 2000 years.

China's territories contained fertile farmland and rich river-systems. Asia's longest river, the Yangtze, flowed across the country from Tibet to the East China Sea. Several of China's most important cities were located along its banks. These included the ancient capital of Nanjing, the triple city of Wuhan (made up of the smaller cities of Wuchang, Hankou and Hanyang) and the important seaport of Shanghai. Farms in the Yangtze Valley provided more than one third of China's crops. Ships and riverboats distributed grain from the valley up and down the coast and along the river. Beijing received its share of the crops via the Grand Canal – the longest artificial canal in the world, which ran over 1700 kilometres from Beijing in the north to Hangzhou in the south.

The Chinese Empire also contained some much harsher landscapes. Much of Mongolia consisted of grassy **steppes** (huge plains of grassland, generally without trees) with poor soil and an inhospitable

climate. Xinjiang province was nearly all desert, with less than 10 per cent of the land area suitable for people to live on. Tibet sat on a high plateau (a large area of flat level ground), rising to the Himalayan mountains in the south.

China's coastline ran from the Eastern Sea to the Southern Sea. In addition to these territories, the Chinese controlled many island territories off the coast.

Organisation of the empire

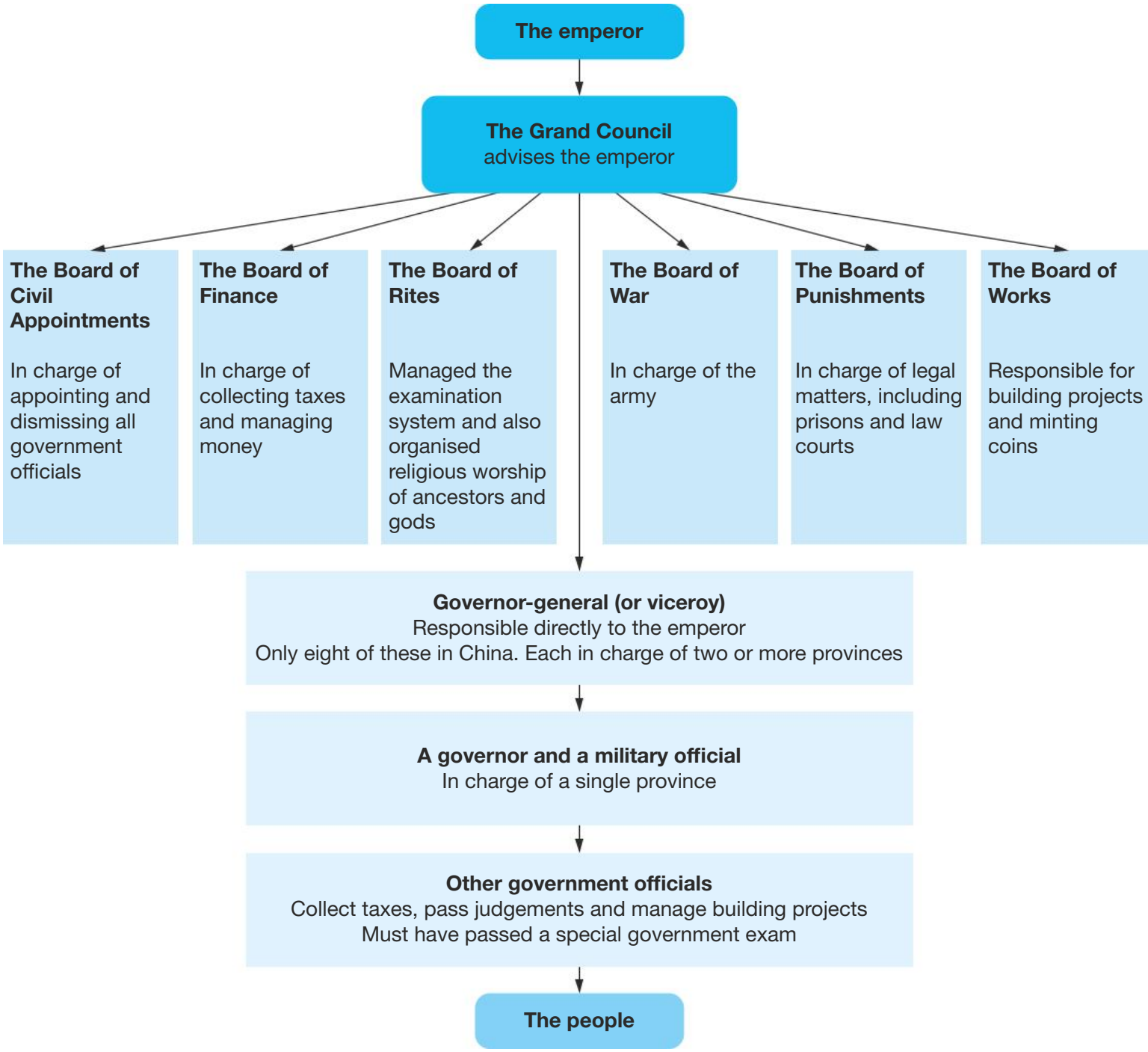


Source 6 The Forbidden City in Beijing was the centre of power for the empire

To govern such an enormous and varied empire, the Qing developed a complex political system. At the very top of the system sat the emperor, who ruled with absolute authority from the Forbidden City in Beijing. A 'Grand Council' advised him. They kept him informed about important events and helped him to make significant decisions. Six groups, known as boards, took responsibility for different tasks within the government:

- the Board of Civil Appointments
- the Board of Finance
- the Board of Rites
- the Board of War
- the Board of Punishments
- the Board of Works.

Beyond the capital, China was divided into 18 provinces (a political division of land). Eight powerful men called governors-general (or viceroys) ruled over these 18 provinces. Under them were a military official and a non-military governor for each individual province. Each province was then further divided into smaller areas of land called prefectures, sub-prefectures and counties, with local officials responsible at each level.



Source 7 The Chinese system of government under the Qing Dynasty (1644–1912)

The emperor



Source 8 Emperor Yongzheng being carried in Triumph in his **litter** (a couch or bed carried on long poles by the emperor's attendants)

According to Chinese tradition, the emperor ruled with a 'Mandate of Heaven'. This meant that he was given the right to rule from a divine source. Because of this belief, the emperor also called himself the 'Son of Heaven'. He had total authority. He personally directed the army and could overrule any judgement made by any court. Tradition stated that as long as the emperor was virtuous and ruled well, the country would also do well. But if the emperor ruled badly, the country was at risk of floods, famine and conflict. These were all thought to be signs of Heaven's unhappiness with the emperor's actions.

Because he ruled such an enormous empire with so many different kinds of people in it, the emperor used additional titles depending on who he needed to impress. While his Chinese subjects saw him as the 'Son of Heaven', Mongolians addressed him as 'Khan'. For Muslim subjects the emperor was the 'Protector of Islam' but to Buddhists he was the 'High Priest'. The emperor ruled from his palace in Beijing, known as the Forbidden City. The palace contained 980 separate buildings, as well as gardens, courtyards and an artificial river. As the name suggests, the Forbidden City was hard to get into – and out of. Nobody was allowed to come or go without the emperor's permission. Visitors to the palace were met by high walls surrounded by a moat. They entered through a gate studded with golden nails and crossed bridges, squares and more gates before reaching the emperor's throne room. Guests were received by the emperor in a richly decorated hall. Anyone coming into the presence of the emperor had to perform a ritual known as the *kowtow*. This was a sign of respect that involved kneeling and bowing very low, then touching one's head to the ground nine times. To perform the full *kowtow*, a visitor repeated this action three times.

The emperor lived at the back of the Forbidden Palace with his family. The Grand Council also met here, as did some other important officials. When responding to letters or writing down his decisions, the emperor used **vermillion** (scarlet red) ink – a colour forbidden to all others.



Source 9 The staircase to the centre of the Forbidden City in Beijing. The central ramp has no steps because the emperor would be carried above it on his litter.

The Qing emperors – the Manchus

The Qing originally came from an area to the north-east of the empire known as Manchuria. They conquered China in 1644 in a bloody takeover, looting cities and driving out the previous Ming dynasty. The Qing and their original people were also often known as the Manchus. By 1750 they had been ruling for over 100 years, but some Chinese still saw them as unwelcome foreigners.

After coming to power, the Qing adopted many Chinese customs and beliefs. Like previous Chinese emperors, the Qing called themselves the 'Sons of Heaven' and claimed absolute power. They relied on many Chinese officials to run the country, collect taxes and keep order, and they communicated in Chinese, as well as Manchu. Regardless, the Qing still thought of themselves as a separate ethnic group. They tried to protect their ethnic identity and gave special privileges to Manchus over other Chinese people. They reserved important government posts for Manchu people and forbade marriage between Manchus and Chinese. Up until the late 19th century, they also discouraged the migration of Chinese to their homeland of Manchuria.

Check your learning

1 How long did the Qing Dynasty rule for?

2 What areas of government were the six boards responsible for?

3 How were guests expected to greet the emperor and what was this ritual called?

Government officials

Beneath the emperor, trained officials looked after the day-to-day running of the empire. To become a government official, a person had to pass a special government examination. In theory, most males could apply to become an official, though in practice poorer men found it almost impossible because studying for the examinations meant they were not able to work. Men who were very rich could pay for a position rather than attend the examination. Women were not allowed to apply at all.

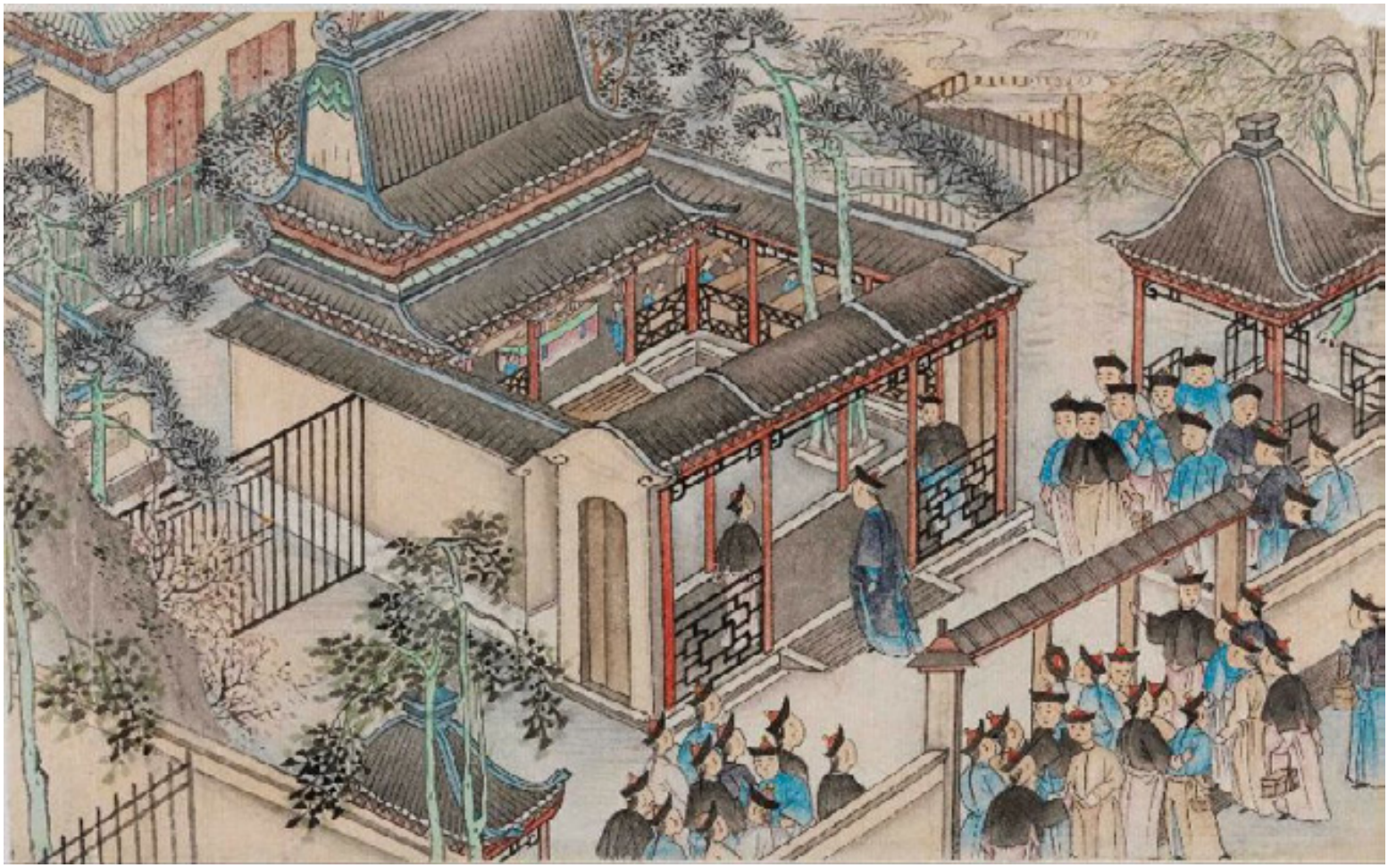
Government posts were highly sought after and brought money and status with them. Most officials lived in the provinces and oversaw local matters, such as the maintenance of roads and bridges, new building works and tax collection. Government officials also heard legal cases and passed judgements. If an official proved to be especially talented or ambitious, he might rise within the government to become the governor of a province. Alternatively, he might join the imperial court in Beijing.



Source 10 A Qing Dynasty portrait of a nobleman and his wife. Important government officials would have lived in this type of splendour.

An important practice of government under Qing rule was that the emperor reserved half of the most senior government posts for Manchus, giving the other half to Chinese. Sometimes a Manchu and a Chinese even shared the same position. Some historians have suggested that this policy allowed the Chinese to govern their own country alongside their Manchu masters. Others have pointed out that the practice was unfair, because 90 per cent of the population was Chinese and only two per cent was Manchu. Additionally, Manchus were not required to sit the government examinations.

The examination system



Source 11 A Qing painting of students waiting to enter the examination hall

Introduced in the year 605, the government examination system was over 1000 years old by the time the Qing came to power. Government posts were available to any men who could pass the examination. As a result, competition was fierce. By the mid 19th century, over a million candidates from all over the empire sat the examinations each year. Only 25 089 places were available. Those who passed the first round could choose to sit for a second examination. The students who continued to this second round were competing for 1400 places. The emperor himself interviewed students for a third and final round for only 220 places. Those who passed the third round had the greatest chance of taking the best government jobs.

The examinations themselves lasted between one and three days. The examiners tested the candidates' knowledge of ancient Chinese philosophy and literature. Those sitting the examinations had to answer oral questions, quote ancient texts and write formal essays and poetry.

As a result of the examination system, China's officials, judges and governors all knew an impressive amount of 2000-year-old poetry and philosophy. However, most knew nothing about engineering, geography, foreign languages or modern science. The Chinese word for those scholar-officials who passed the examinations was *guan*. However, European visitors from the 16th century onwards referred to them as **Mandarins**, from the Portuguese word *mandar*, 'to command'.

During the 19th century, some Chinese began to argue that the examination system was too old-fashioned and unsuitable for a modern country. Despite this, the system continued until the start of the 20th century, ending in 1905.

The army

The Qing emperor commanded two major military forces. The first was the original Manchu army, which was divided into a number of **banners** (legions or units of troops). In 1750, eight banners were still 'forbidden' legions of Manchu-only soldiers. Others had largely Manchu officers but Chinese soldiers, stationed in major cities all across China. The banners were made up of professional soldiers and were elite forces. Over time, these military ranks became hereditary as the army chose to recruit the sons of existing officers.



Source 12 A military banner from the Qing Dynasty, belonging to 'bannermen' cavalry

The other major military force was the Green Standard Army. This mainly consisted of Chinese soldiers. The Green Standard Army was two to three times larger than the banner armies and contributed most of the soldiers who fought during wartime. Each provincial governor had a battalion of Green Standard Army soldiers to command, using them to maintain local law and order. Other soldiers were stationed in outposts throughout the empire.

Like government officials, military officers also sat examinations. The military examinations supposedly tested the same philosophical and literary knowledge as the regular government examinations. In practice, though, government scholars often looked down on them as inferior. Military examination candidates also had to show their mastery of specific military knowledge, such as the writings of the famous 6th-century general Sun Tzu, author of *The Art of War*.

Attitudes to foreigners

The Chinese word for China is *Zhongguo*, meaning 'Middle Kingdom'. The emperor claimed to be ruler of 'all under heaven'; in other words, the whole world. Traditional Chinese thinkers divided the world into four realms. At the centre of civilisation was China. Around it lay the 'Moonlight Kingdoms', countries such as Nepal, Korea, Japan and Vietnam. These kingdoms reflected China's glory and paid occasional **tribute** to the emperor – meaning they gave part of their wealth in payment to the emperor as an acknowledgement of China's supremacy. In return, they were assured of friendly relations with China. Further out lived barbarians who failed to acknowledge China's supremacy. Finally, most distant from the Middle Kingdom were savages, who did not even know of its existence.

The Qing emperors believed that China had little need to trade or share ideas with foreign nations. They felt that China was a superior civilisation and that they had no need to treat the leaders of other countries as equals. In 1760, the Qianlong Emperor closed all coastal Chinese cities to European trading ships, with the exception of Guangzhou in the south. He also prevented foreigners from travelling freely within the empire.

In spite of these restrictions, some trade still took place. European ships continued to sail into Guangzhou. Chinese merchants dealt with Russian trading posts in the north-east. The Ryukyu Islands, which paid tribute to both China and Japan, acted as a secret trade corridor between the two countries. Similarly, in the far west, Xinjiang's Muslims could quietly trade over the border with fellow believers in Persia.

Check your learning

1 Why was it an advantage to be a Manchu if you wanted a position in government?
2 What were the main knowledge areas tested for in the examination system?
3 Name the two separate military forces that existed during the Qing Dynasty.

Tradition in daily life

For most people in China during the Qing dynasty, daily life depended on ancient traditions and beliefs. Most people worshipped their ancestors, farmed the land and used simple technology. Things had changed little over the generations.

Source 13

> *Could one gaze backward through a vista of five hundred years … he would probably see little more and little less than he sees today. [The Chinese] are doing just what their ancestors did, no more no less, no other. They cultivate the same fields in the same way (albeit a few of the crops are modern); they go to the same markets in the same invariable order; buy, sell, and wear the same articles; marry and are given in marriage according to the same pattern.*

The American missionary Arthur Smith writing about China in 1899

An agricultural society



Source 14 An 18th-century painting of Chinese peasants planting rice

Only around six per cent of the population lived in cities with more than 50 000 people. The rest of the population lived on the land or in small villages or towns. Most people were peasants who farmed the land. As well as growing crops, poorer peasant families often made extra money by spinning or weaving cotton or silk, or making other handicrafts for sale at local markets. Poorer families would also rent their land from wealthier landowners, and had to give them up to 50 per cent of what they grew.

One enormously important crop was tea. Peasants grew tea on their farms for sale at the market. From here, special tea merchants bought the tea and organised for it to be shipped overseas. By 1800, Britain in particular bought huge amounts of tea from China. Millions of pounds worth of silver flowed back into China every year as a result. Most of this, though, went to the merchants – very little of it made it back to the farmers who grew the leaves.

China did not have advanced heavy industries like Britain or the United States, however, some large industries did exist. Basic ironworks foundries employed up to 3000 men in some places. China also made large quantities of porcelain and sold it all over the world.

Technology

Most Chinese used simple technology in their day-to-day lives. Spinning wheels or hand spindles for making silk or cotton thread, farming tools such as ploughs, and carts for transporting goods, were all common. The Grand Canal – the largest artificial river in the world – allowed boats to take food from farming land in the south up to Beijing in the north. People and animals, rather than machines, did nearly all the important physical work.

By the 19th century, China had started to fall behind technologically. The traditional Qing attitude of superiority to foreigners meant that China was slow to introduce many modern technologies such as railways, steam-powered factories and gas streetlights. Compared to other large nations, China had developed very little advanced industry.

focus on...

significance: Confucianism



Source 15 Statue of Confucius at the Confucius Temple in Beijing

The main belief system in China during the Qing Dynasty was Confucianism. Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived from 551 to 479 BCE in eastern China. He argued that people should live virtuous lives. They should respect their elders and rulers and do their best to fulfil their given roles in society. Proper rules governed what people of different classes should or should not do in particular circumstances, and how they should behave toward their superiors. If everyone followed these rules, Confucius taught, society would be harmonious as a result. A person should also try to treat others well and kindly, to act nobly and to learn to distinguish right from wrong.

Confucianism encouraged 'ancestor worship'. On important days such as weddings, holidays or anniversaries of deaths, male descendants offered gifts to their ancestors. The names of dead family members were shown on stone or clay tablets. During the ritual, the men entered the family hall to lay offerings before these tablets and pay their respects to the dead. Women could not perform these rites.

Extended families

Typically, Chinese extended families lived together in the same home. Confucian tradition stated that the ideal situation was for five generations to live together under the same roof. How families actually managed this depended a lot on how wealthy they were. Affluent families could afford to build large homes with high walls. Inside, family members lived in separate buildings arranged around one or more central courtyards. Poorer families often shared a single building.

A household normally included the male head of the household, his wife, his sons and their wives and children and any unmarried daughters. When one of the daughters married, she would go to live with the family of her new husband. Marriage was an important economic exchange for families. Poorer families sometimes had to pay a **bride-price** (sum of money paid by the groom's family to the bride's family) to find wives for their sons. The sons of rich families, on the other hand, expected their new wife to come with a **dowry** (sum of money paid by the bride's father to the groom's family).

When the male head of the family died, his sons divided the property equally amongst them.

Check your learning

1 What were the main industries in Qing China?

2 Who was Confucius?

3 Describe the typical Chinese extended family that would be living under one roof at this time.

Women

Women in Chinese society occupied a much lower position than men. Because they could not inherit property they depended on their fathers or husbands for their livelihood. A virtuous woman was expected to be loyal and obedient to her father or husband.

Women generally took responsibility for domestic arrangements within the home. They cooked, cleaned and raised children. A wealthy woman might direct servants in this work, but poorer women had to do it themselves. Many farming women also worked in the fields, or helped make handicrafts for extra income.



Source 16 An 18th-century illustration shows an idealised domestic scene in a wealthy family. The woman is arranging flowers for the home.

Daughters were not considered to be of much worth within Chinese families. Instead, most parents hoped for the birth of sons rather than daughters. As a result, new-born girls were frequently killed.

Women faced many restrictions on their lives. They were discouraged from interacting freely with men. Women were barred from holding government positions and were not allowed to sit the government examinations. Very few were educated – the scholar Yuan Mei observed in the 18th century that 'absence of talent in women is synonymous with virtue'.

Men could remarry after the death of their wives or even take additional concubines while they were still alive. Women, by contrast, were expected to be completely faithful to their husbands. Many even believed that widows should commit suicide rather than remarry.

empathy: foot binding



Source 17 A woman with bound feet, *c.* 1900

Foot binding was a widespread practice in China during the Qing Dynasty that affected millions of girls and women across the social classes. Both men and women saw small feet as a sign of beauty, and many families looked for bound feet when arranging marriages between their children. The women, however, paid a high price for this beauty – foot binding had crippling results.

Foot binding started at around the age of five. The mothers (or female relatives) of girls this age would wrap tight cloth strips around their feet. For the next 10 years these girl wore the strips all day and night. As they grew older, the strips were bound tighter, slowly changing the shape of their feet. The four minor toes were bent around until they sat completely under the sole of the foot. The bindings also shortened both the length and width of the foot.

By the time these girls reached the age of 15, their feet had been transformed into 'golden lilies' – feet about seven centimetres long.

Foot binding was an agonising process. It completely deformed the bones of the feet. Girls often had so much trouble sleeping at night because of the pain that they asked their mothers to sleep on top of their feet to make them go numb. At the same time, they had to make sure the bindings did not cut off the circulation to their feet entirely – this could cause **gangrene** (the death of tissue in part of the body). They had to wash their 'golden lilies' carefully so they didn't smell. They also had to watch out for pus caused by infections.



Source 18 An elderly woman shows her ‘golden lily’ foot, unbound.

Girls and women with bound feet walked with difficulty. One American traveller reported seeing women in China ‘stumping about awkwardly on their heels as though the front sections of their feet had been amputated’. As a consequence, their leg muscles also often wasted away from lack of use. Girls never showed their unbound feet to anybody.

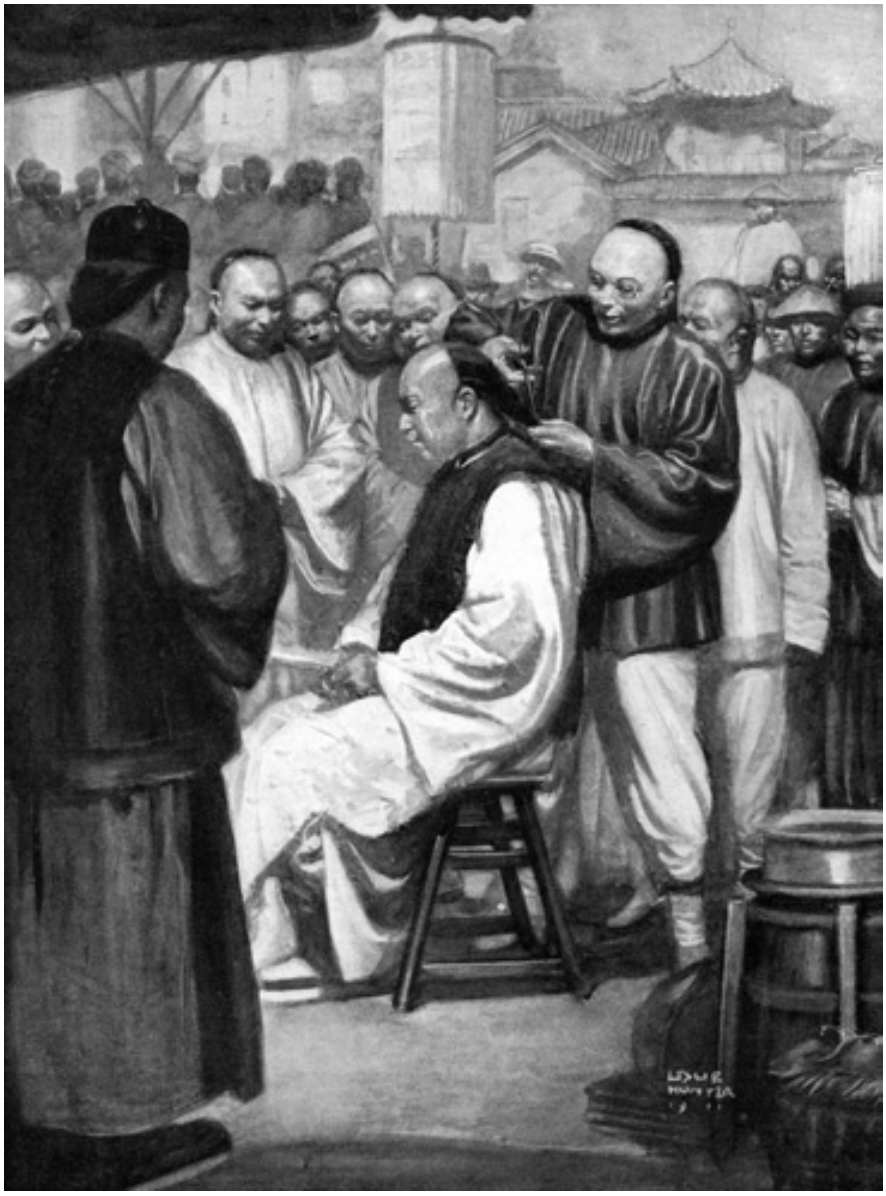
Interestingly, the very high and the very low in society were the most likely to avoid foot binding. Manchu women did not bind their feet, nor did many girls from peasant families, as this would have prevented them from working in the fields. Chinese women continued to have their feet bound well into the 20th century.

Qing fashion

The new Qing rulers established a dress code for the imperial court as a way of distinguishing the ruling elite and government from the general population. Court robes worn by the imperial family displayed round dragon medallions. The dragon symbolised the emperor, known as the Son of Heaven, and permission to wear this style of robe could only be given by him. Civil and military officials displayed square court insignia badges on their robes with the appropriate bird or animal to identify their rank. The robes were made out of expensive fabrics like silks, satins, fine wool and furs. They would often be further adorned with jewels. Women dressed according to the rank of their husbands.

There were also laws governing what commoners wore. Servants, actors and labourers were only allowed to wear clothes made of cheap materials like hemp cloth and sheepskin.

The Manchu hairstyle



Source 19 Chinese men having their 'queues' cut off after the fall of the Qing Dynasty

When the Shunzhi Emperor first conquered China in 1644 and established Qing rule in China, he decreed that all Chinese men should wear their hair in the Manchu style to show their obedience to their new rulers. They shaved the front of their head and wore a long braid at the back called a 'queue'. Anyone who refused to change his hairstyle was treated as a bandit and could be hunted down and killed. In the city of Jiangyin alone, the Qing army killed 100 000 men who continued to wear their hair as they had before. As a consequence, by 1750, all Chinese men except priests and monks wore their hair in the Manchu style. Growing one's hair long at the front or cutting off one's queue were symbols of rebellion. This hairstyle lasted until the fall of the Qing Dynasty in 1912.

Check your learning

1 What were women's bound feet thought to look like?
2 Why did Chinese men shave the front of their heads?
3 List four ways in which women were worse off than men in Qing China.

Arts under the Qing Dynasty

Architecture – the Summer Palace

The grandest building project of the Qing emperors was the construction of the Summer Palace. The palace served as a mark of the wealth and taste of the Manchu rulers. They arranged its landscapes and many buildings according to traditional principles of Chinese garden design. All aspects of the palace and its grounds contributed to an overall sense of harmony, with the many different elements of water, hills, trees, temples, walkways and palace buildings placed carefully in relation to each other to create a single impression of completeness.



Source 20 The Summer Palace

The Qianlong Emperor began the building project in 1749 when he ordered existing gardens just outside the capital to be expanded and turned into a summer retreat. He initially called his new haven 'The Garden of Clear Ripples' – an indication that he wanted water to be a significant feature. There was already a small lake at the location but the Qianlong Emperor ordered his workers to vastly extend it. Between 1750 and 1764, thousands of labourers dug out the lake at the command of the emperor, using the rubble to shape the nearby landscape.

The finished Summer Palace covered roughly three square kilometres. Only a quarter of this was land. A new artificial lake known as Kunming Lake covered the rest of it. Kunming Lake's layout, with small islands, bridges and side-streams, deliberately echoed the landscape of the famous West Lake near the city of Hangzhou in the south. One of the most important features was the Seventeen Arch Bridge, which imitated a well-known 13th-century structure, the 'Sudi Dyke' at West Lake. In this way, the Qianlong Emperor's garden demonstrated a connection between northern and southern China.



Source 21 The Seventeen Arch Bridge over Kunming Lake

The palace buildings themselves sat mainly on and around the hills that rose above the lake. The Qianlong Emperor set out the palace buildings and gardens into three main areas. The first area contained the Hall of Benevolence and Longevity, where political advisors and administrators worked. The second area was the residential area, having palaces for the emperor and his family. The third area was for leisure and recreation. This was the largest area, covering about nine-tenths of the grounds.

The Summer Palace was destroyed twice during the next 151 years by invading armies. Each time it was rebuilt at great expense by the Qing emperors.

Literature

The Qing emperors encouraged literature, as long as it supported their rule. The Qianlong Emperor ordered Chinese scholars to collect thousands of masterpieces of Chinese literature, which he published in a collection called *The Complete Book of the Four Treasuries*. The collection was meant to be an official version of China's greatest literary works, but he also ordered his scholars to carefully read every book they encountered. If a book or poem contained any negative views of the Manchu, he demanded that all copies be destroyed. As a result, the censors destroyed over 2000 literary works forever.

The examination system supported knowledge of ancient Confucian philosophy, literature and poetry. The Qing considered such texts to contain important traditional values. Confucian texts especially encouraged loyalty to the ruler. As a result, government officials had to be able to show a thorough knowledge of traditional literature to maintain their position at court.

Despite this, writers continued to produce new works during this time. Probably the most famous authors of the period were Yuan Mei (1716–1798) and Cao Xueqin (*c.* 1715–1763). Cao Xueqin wrote the 120-chapter novel *Dream of the Red Chamber*, first published after the author's death in 1791. Historians describe the novel as one of China's greatest literary works. It tells the story of a wealthy 18th-century family that breaks apart when its members deceive one another. *Dream of the Red Chamber* was especially notable because it showed scenes in which government officials made less than perfect decisions.

Chinese opera

Between 1790 and the 1840s, the distinctive 'Beijing opera' style evolved. Beijing opera was mainly a court entertainment, though it became popular with the wider public in the later 19th century. Its performers wore striking make-up and bright costumes to show the personalities and status of their characters. Rather than acting 'realistically', Beijing opera performers used graceful, 'symbolic' movements. Audience members knew that certain gestures were meant to show a particular emotion (for example, a sudden backward somersault expressed the despair a person feels upon losing a loved one), or that a specific movement indicated an action (for example, lifting a foot meant entering a house). Stories were usually about ancient events, often of a military nature. Beijing opera often adapted these stories from historical novels, keeping the stories alive over time. One of the most significant and long-standing Chinese operas is called *Farewell my Concubine*. It tells the dramatic story of a defeated king saying goodbye to his lover.



Source 22 A scene from the Chinese opera *Farewell My Concubine*, a story from 200 BCE, still performed in modern times.

Chinese porcelain

Until the late 18th century, porcelain was one of China's most important exports. European kings and nobles ordered their own heraldic shields or house mottos to be painted onto Chinese vases and plates. Chinese ceramics were so highly regarded that 'China' actually became the English word for porcelain.

Buyers from all over the world sought high-quality Chinese porcelain particularly during the 1700s when Chinese porcelain was at the height of its popularity. A high degree of skill was required to produce decorated porcelain.

Source 23

If the painted decoration on each piece is not exactly alike, the set will be irregular and spoiled. For this reason the men who sketch the outlines learn sketching but not painting; those who paint study only painting, no sketching; by this means their hands acquire the skill in their own speciality and their minds are not distracted. In order to secure a certain uniformity in their work, the sketchers and painters, although kept distinct, occupy the same house.

Tang Ying, the director of the Qing imperial kilns in the mid 18th century, describing the painting process



Source 24 A European merchant buying porcelain from a Chinese trader, 1724

By the end of the 18th century, however, porcelain trade was in decline. Europeans, particularly the Dutch, learned to reproduce Chinese porcelain-making techniques and set up their own factories. At first they imitated Chinese designs and even imported Chinese clay. But soon they developed their own style of china, which appealed to changing European tastes.

Another factor in the decline was the growth of the trade in Chinese tea. By 1800, tea was the largest Chinese export. It was so much more profitable than the porcelain trade that ships taking tea from China to Britain used broken pottery as **ballast** (a heavy substance used to improve stability and control in ships) – it was no longer worth taking up cargo space with porcelain that could be used for tea.

Check your learning

1. Give three examples of how tradition was upheld in the cultural arts of the Qing Dynasty.
2. In what ways did Beijing opera performers convey emotion and indicate what was happening on the stage?
3. Why did Europeans lose interest in Chinese porcelain?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 Who were the Manchus?
2 What was the 'Mandate of Heaven'?
3 What did government officials have to do to get their jobs?
4 How does the name of Xinjiang province show that it was one of the last provinces to be incorporated into the Qing Empire?
5 What was the traditional attitude of the Chinese emperor to other countries?

Understand

6 Why might the Chinese regard the Qing Dynasty as foreigners?
7 a Using graph paper, trace the borders of the Qing Empire in 1820 from the map in Source 5.
  b Using a different colour, trace the borders of modern China onto the same page.
  c Use the squares of the graph paper to calculate how big modern China is as a percentage of the Qing Empire in 1820.

Apply

8 Compare Chinese family life in 1750 to your own life today. Using a table like the one below, list the main features of each.

Chinese family life 1750s	Your family life in Australia 2010s

9 Consider the Chinese practice of foot binding.
  a What were the main reasons behind the practice of foot binding?
  b What effect did foot binding have on women and their lives?
  c Now consider women in Australia today. Draw an outline shape of a woman and label your drawing with all the things you can think of that women do to change their bodies.
10 Create a collage of images showing modern hairstyles that you believe communicate something important about the wearer.

Analyse

11 Why was it unlikely that the Chinese emperor would appoint engineers, architects or scientists to important positions in his administration?
12 Re-read Arthur Smith's description (Source 13) of daily Chinese life in 1899.
  a In your own words, what did Arthur Smith say about Chinese life?
  b What attitude towards China do his words communicate?
  c Do you think a Chinese writer would have described Chinese life in the same way? Why/Why not?

Evaluate

13 Look at the table you completed for question 8 above. Which situation do you think is better? Explain your answer fully.

Create

14 Imagine you are the Qianlong Emperor. You have decided to build a new palace. Create a plan for your new palace, keeping in mind the following:

- You need to draw a scale map of your palace. You have an area of three square kilometres to build the palace on – how will you lay it out?
- You need to draw designs of your buildings, showing their main features – what will they look like?
- You want your palace and gardens to communicate your power and wealth – how will you show this?

15 Imagine you are the mother of a five-year-old daughter. Write a speech you would give to your daughter to explain why you are binding her feet. Try to imagine any questions she might ask and answer them as part of your speech.

16 Do some research on Chinese porcelain designs. Create a design for a Chinese porcelain plate or vase that you think would appeal to a modern Australian ruler.

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



Source 25 A Chinese opium den

For most of the 18th century, the Qing emperors claimed to be superior to the leaders of other nations. They maintained that China was the centre of civilisation and had little need of foreign technology, learning or goods. In some ways this was true. Even though only one Chinese port was open to foreigners, Chinese profits from selling tea and porcelain overseas far outweighed anything foreigners brought into the country. By 1800 the British alone bought £3 655 000 worth of tea a year – three times as much as they made by selling British goods to China.

By the close of the 18th century, however, things were changing. European powers were demanding more trade and access to a greater number of Chinese trading ports. They also started to transport the drug opium to China.

Over the next 100 years, the Qing emperors witnessed their empire rapidly lose power, as the Chinese lost important wars with foreign nations. Britain, France, Germany, Russia and Japan all forced China to hand over control of parts of the country. They also forced China to sign unfair trade treaties. By the start of the 20th century, the Qing struggled to stay in power as foreigners traded freely in dozens of 'treaty ports'.

Early encounters with the West

Europeans had been trading with the Chinese by sea since the 1500s. Early traders included the Portuguese and the Dutch, who set up a trading port in Taiwan in 1624. The British arrived soon afterwards, but after the Qing conquest of China in 1644, foreign trade slowed. From 1760, foreign traders were only permitted to bring their ships into Guangzhou in the south.

This did not at all suit the British, who wanted to sell more goods to China to balance the enormous amounts of tea that they bought. In 1793, the British government sent an ambassador, Earl Macartney, to ask the Chinese emperor for more trade. The mission was a failure. Macartney refused to perform the *kowtow* before the emperor and the emperor refused all of his requests.

Source 26

> *The Empire of China is an old, crazy, first-rate man-of-war, which a fortunate succession of able and vigilant officers has contrived to keep afloat for these one hundred and fifty years past, and to overawe their neighbours merely by her bulk and appearance, but whenever an insufficient man happens to have the command upon deck, adieu to the discipline and safety of the ship. She may perhaps not sink outright; she may drift some time as a wreck, and will then be dashed to pieces on the shore; but she can never be rebuilt on the old bottom.*

Macartney's impressions of China and its rulers

Christian missionaries



Source 27 Lam Qua's 1840s portrait of Dr Peter Parker, the first American medical missionary in China

Christian missionaries had been in China since the 1600s. From 1800 onwards, they began to arrive in greater numbers and spread throughout the country. In 1807, Englishman Robert Morrison established the first Protestant mission in Guangzhou. It took Morrison seven years to make his first Chinese convert to Christianity. During this time, he started writing the first Chinese–English dictionary. American missionaries arrived in the 1830s. An American doctor named Peter Parker set up the first missionary hospital in 1835.

The Chinese emperors distrusted Christianity. They saw it as a challenge to Confucian values and disliked foreign missionaries moving around their country. In 1814, the Jiaqing Emperor prohibited all 'wizards, witches, and superstitions' in China, referring to religions that were not Buddhist or Chinese in nature. The Bible, however, had already been translated into Chinese. Missionaries continued to spread throughout the country, starting schools and hospitals. British missionary James Hudson Taylor, in 1865, urged followers to help him create a Christian mission in every Chinese province. By 1900, there were over 100 000 Christians spread across 350 different cities and towns in China.

Growing resentment

Many Chinese resented these Christian missionaries. They saw them as unwelcome foreigners. In particular, government officials, who had passed the examinations, saw Christian missionaries as potential rivals with their own belief system and education system. Commoners also frequently blamed missionaries for China's troubles. Wild rumours were spread about Christian beliefs, hinting that priests and Chinese converts held perverted orgies or killed babies to make them into medicine.

During the 19th century, violence against missionaries became more common. In Yangzhou, in 1868, thousands of Chinese rioters set fire to mission buildings. In 1870, 10 French nuns and nine other foreigners died in an anti-missionary riot in Tianjin. Britain and other nations sent armed warships to force the Chinese government to agree to protect foreigners, but attacks continued.

Check your learning

1. What did Earl Macartney think of China in 1793?
2. Why did the Chinese emperors distrust Christianity?
3. Why did the British think they should be able to sell more goods to the Chinese?
4. Why did many Chinese resent the Christian missionaries?

The opium trade



Source 28 The opium poppy bulb

The vast size of the Chinese market was an incredible temptation to traders from Europe and the USA. Because Chinese tea was so popular in Britain, British merchants needed something they could sell back to the Chinese in exchange for it. They settled on **opium**, a powerful drug that is better known today as a major ingredient in morphine and heroin. English ships were loaded with opium in India and the opium was sold in Guangzhou, flooding China with the drug.

The opium trade grew quickly. In 1790, private British traders shipped 4000 chests of opium a year into China. By 1822 this had risen to 18 766 chests. By this time, China could no longer sell enough tea to pay for so much opium, so vast amounts of money started to flow out of China.

Qing officials saw that the opium trade hurt China financially and socially. The emperor made buying opium illegal in 1796. English traders ignored the ban and continued to sell the drug illegally.

Source 29

> *Now the English are of the race of foreigners called [Red Hairs]. In introducing opium into this country, their purpose has been to weaken and enfeeble the Central Empire. If not early aroused to a sense of our danger, we shall find ourselves, ere long, on the last step towards ruin…*

The official Zhu Zun warns the Chinese court about the opium trade in 1836

The Qing authorities were powerless to stop the trade. British merchants were well armed, with far better boats and weapons than the Chinese. Officially, the British claimed to want fair access to Chinese ports. They wanted to be able to sell goods in return for the tea they bought from China. British politicians argued that more trade benefited the Chinese, allowing them to buy modern consumer goods. But from the Chinese perspective, the country faced hordes of drug dealers, backed by the British army and navy.



Source 30 Two men smoke opium together, *c.* 1880s. Their clothes indicate they are labourers.

Foreign interference

In 1839, the Daoguang Emperor appointed a government official by the name of Lin Zexu to stop the opium trade. Lin Zexu confiscated 20 000 chests of opium from British traders, burned them and disposed of the ashes in the sea. He also demanded that British merchants swear to stop trading in the drug.

In the same year, drunken British sailors vandalised a temple near Hong Kong and murdered a local man. The British Superintendent of Trade, Charles Elliot, refused to hand the suspects over. He did not trust the Chinese legal system and demanded **extraterritoriality** (the right for the men to be tried by a British court, as though they had committed the offence in Britain).

Lin Zexu wrote a long letter to Queen Victoria of Britain protesting about the behaviour of her subjects. He complained that they did not sell opium in their home country. Queen Victoria did not receive the letter.

Source 31

> *Suppose the subject of another country were to come to England to trade, he would certainly be required to comply with the laws of England, then how much more does this apply to us of the celestial empire! Now it is a fixed statute of this empire, that any native Chinese who sells opium is punishable with death, and even he who merely smokes it, must not less die. Pause and reflect for a moment: if you foreigners did not bring the opium hither, where should our Chinese people get it to re-sell? It is you foreigners who involve our simple natives in the pit of death, and are they alone to be permitted to escape alive?... Our celestial empire rules over ten thousand kingdoms! Most surely do we possess a measure of godlike majesty which ye cannot fathom! Still we cannot bear to slay or exterminate without previous warning, and it is for this reason that we now clearly make known to you the fixed laws of our land.*

An extract from Lin Zexu's letter to Queen Victoria

The Opium Wars



Source 32 Edward Duncan's 1843 painting of British ships destroying Chinese war junks during the First Opium War

Between 1839 and 1860, China and Britain were twice involved in conflict over the opium trade. These wars are known as the Opium Wars.

First Opium War 1839–1842

Following Lin Zexu's opium confiscations and the disagreements over who should charge the British sailors for their crimes, hostilities between the British and Chinese increased. The Chinese insisted that all British merchants sign a bond that they would not import opium to China and if caught doing so could be punished with death. In response, the British Superintendent of Trade in China, Charles Elliot, ordered all British to stop trading with the Chinese. Meanwhile the British government arranged for naval ships to be sent to China.

In late 1840, British armed forces arrived and demanded that the Chinese government pay damages for the destroyed opium. British boats first blockaded the port of Guangzhou then sailed up the coast.

They bombarded and captured a number of cities including Xiamen, Ningbo and Shanghai. In 1842, as they were about to take yet another major city, Nanjing, the emperor offered to negotiate.

In the Treaty of Nanjing of the same year, China agreed to pay $21 million to Britain in compensation. The Qing handed over Hong Kong to the British and also opened up five ports to British trade, including Guangzhou and Shanghai.

Second Opium War 1856–1860

Although the 'treaty ports' became new places of trade between China and Britain, the peace did not last. The treaty ports were places of friction between local Chinese and the new arrivals from abroad, and opium was still illegal in China. Britain was also keen to have its trading rights extended further.

In 1856, Chinese officials boarded *The Arrow*, a Chinese smuggling vessel flying a British flag. Britain used the incident, in which they claimed that China was interfering with a British registered vessel, as a reason to renew hostilities in what became known as the Second Opium War. This time, France joined the British against the Chinese because of recent assaults against their missionaries and sailors. The United States and Russia also offered to send military support to Britain and France but this proved unnecessary.

Britain and France easily overpowered Chinese troops and, once again, China lost. The Qing emperor was forced to open up 10 new ports to foreign trade. Additionally, China paid 8 million **taels** (a unit weight) of silver each to France and Britain.

At the same time, Russia laid claim to a large section of Chinese-controlled territory in the east, reaching all the way to the Pacific. The Russians built a new port on the coast called *Vladivostok* (meaning 'Ruler of the East').

The losses in the two Opium Wars were humiliating for China. The Banners and the Green Standard Army offered some fierce resistance to the better-armed British and French. Nevertheless, they could not stop foreign forces from advancing and occupying Chinese cities. The Chinese navy outnumbered the British fleet, yet the more manoeuvrable British ships easily defeated the old-fashioned Chinese war junks.

As a result of China's defeats in the Opium Wars, China was forced to sign a series of treaties that allowed Britain and France (and their allies Russia and the United States) to strengthen their presence in China and gain more direct control over their trading ports. The foreign powers set up their own residential communities in China. Chinese courts lost the right to try foreign suspects. The foreign powers also took charge of imports and exports out of Chinese ports. These foreign powers hoped that by controlling all trade they could make sure China paid the money it owed to European countries because of the Opium Wars.

Check your learning

1. Why did Britain start trading opium in China?
2. What action by the Chinese triggered the First Opium War?
3. What did China have to give up to Britain at the end of the First Opium War?
4. What action by the Chinese triggered the Second Opium War?
5. How did China's position with other powers change with the Opium Wars?

examining**evidence**

The Unequal Treaties



Source 33 The *Treaty of Nanjing*, signed on 29 August 1842, marked the end of the First Opium War. Engraved by John Burnet (1784–1868) and published in London by F. G. Moon, 1846

Britain, France and the United States forced China to sign three treaties as a result of the Opium Wars. Historians describe these treaties as 'unequal treaties' because they disadvantaged China and benefited Britain, France and the United States.

In the 1842 *Treaty of Nanjing* between China and Britain, China agreed:

- to open five new ports to British trade, including Shanghai and Guangzhou
- to pay $21 million in damages to Britain
- to hand over Hong Kong Island to Britain
- that British subjects in China could be tried by British rather than Chinese courts.

In 1858 China agreed to the *Treaty of Tianjin* between China, Britain, France, the United States and Russia, which gave:

- Britain, France, Russia and the USA the right to open small embassies ('legations') in the capital, Beijing. Beijing had been formerly closed to foreigners
- 10 more ports to foreigners
- free navigation to foreign vessels on the River Yangtze
- the right for foreigners (including missionaries) to travel within China
- further damage payments to Britain and France of another 8 million silver taels each.

In 1860, the *Conventions of Beijing* forced the emperor to accept:

- freedom of religion to all Chinese
- the legalisation of the opium trade.
- that Kowloon, opposite Hong Kong Island, should be handed over to Britain.

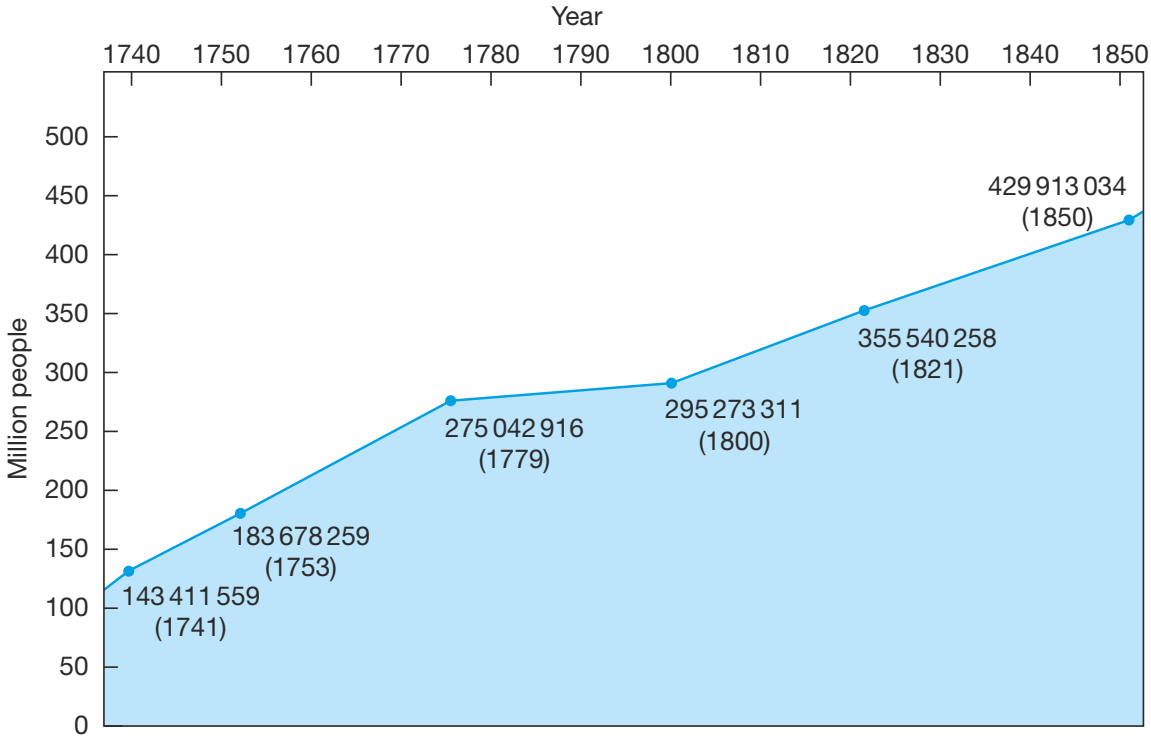
‘Most-favoured nation’ status

One of the most important features of the unequal treaties was that the European countries and the United States (and later Japan) demanded ‘most favoured nation’ status from the emperor. This meant that if China signed a new treaty with a different country that gave it extra benefits, the ‘most favoured nation’ would also automatically get those benefits. The idea behind ‘most favoured nation’ status was that if China treated all foreigners equally it would win their support. In practice, foreign countries used this idea to gain more and more privileges. If, for example, the emperor agreed to let missionaries from one country work in China, other countries demanded the same.

Check your learning

1. How did the unequal treaties get their name?
2. Which, in your opinion, is the most unfair of the three treaties listed above? Explain your answer.
3. Why do you think the Chinese emperor agreed to the *Treaty of Nanjing*?
4. Why did European countries, the United States and Japan want ‘most favoured nation’ status?

Challenges for China



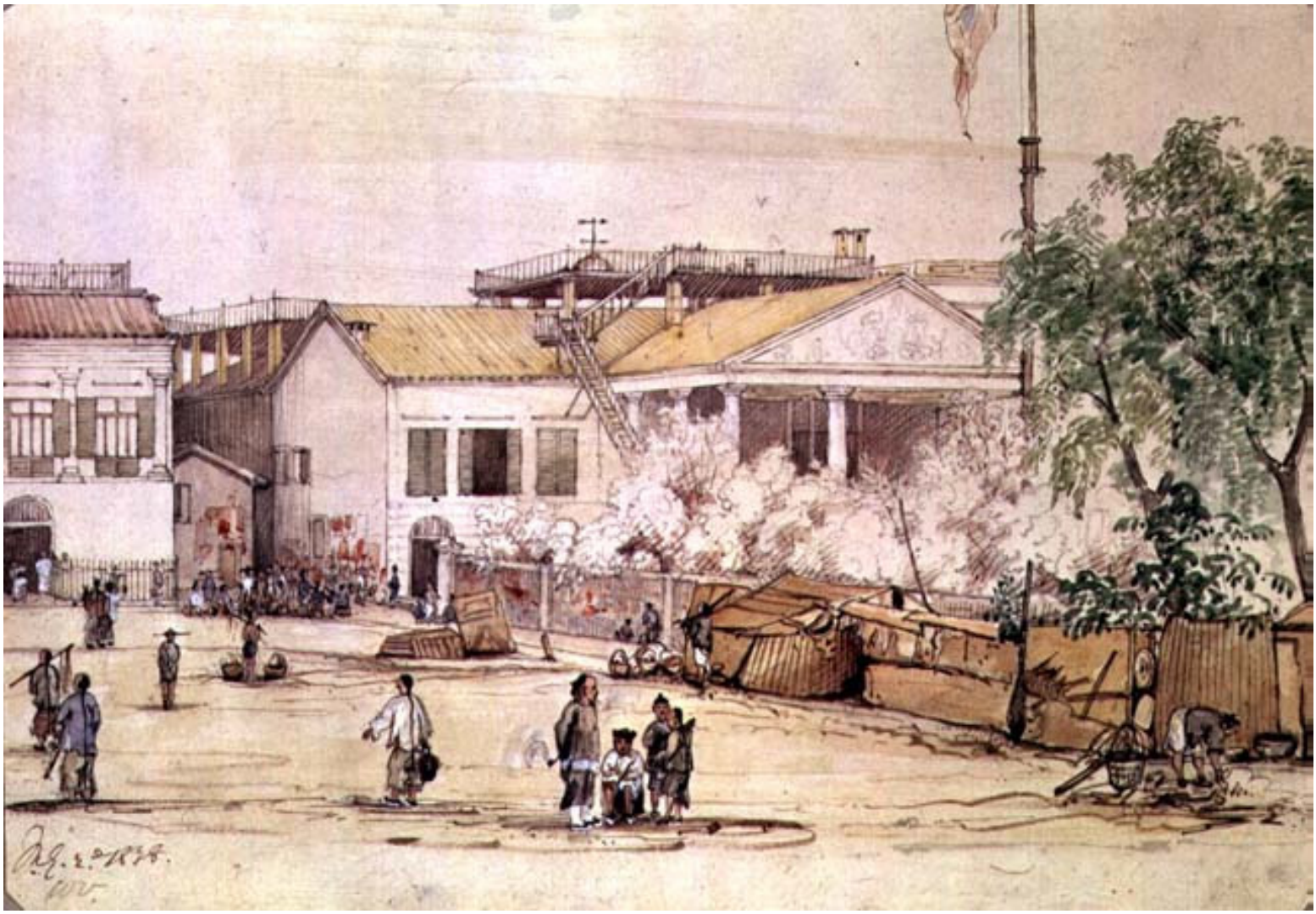
Source 34 Population growth in China 1741–1850

The Opium Wars put China under a huge amount of pressure at a time when China was also trying to cope with emerging internal problems. The second half of the 19th century was a difficult period for China, which was struggling economically. Most Chinese were farmers or made goods such as silk cloth or handicrafts on a small scale. China did not have modern, large-scale industries such as those found in Europe and the United States. To make matters worse, China's population had more than doubled between 1750 and 1850. Many farmers could not find enough land, and food was sometimes scarce. Large numbers of people moved across the country in search of work and food, unsettling the empire.

The Self-Strengthening Movement

From the 1860s onwards, the Qing government realised that China needed to improve its military forces if it was to face up to powerful Western countries. The Banners and the Green Standard Army were weak and disorganised compared to foreign military forces. They used outdated weapons and training methods. Just as importantly, countries such as Britain and France had far better navies. Their fleets of steam-powered and metal-hulled ships with powerful guns totally outclassed China's old-fashioned wooden boats.

China started by buying modern ships from Europe and also experimenting with building their own. Early trials yielded mixed results. In 1862, General Zeng Guofan reported that Chinese workers had managed to build a steamboat without foreign assistance, but that it was 'very slow'.



Source 35 A British factory in Hog Lane, Canton, *c.* 1838

China also needed to build up its industry if it wanted to compete with the West. In the 1870s, the Chinese began to build modern factories. In 1875, a factory in the city of Jiangnan began production of modern rifles, initially producing 12 a day. In 1877, the first steam engine was used to power a wool mill. Other industries included shipyards and coal mines. There were protests at the damage such industries had on the environment, but advocates of the Self-Strengthening Movement argued that these steps were essential. Self-Strengthening projects were only partially successful in modernising the nation. Foreigners were still needed to run many factories, as the government could not find Chinese who knew enough about modern science or engineering. In spite of the Self-Strengthening projects, China still was no match for more modern powers.

Check your learning

1 What effect did the great growth in population numbers have on China?
2 What was the Self-Strengthening Movement?
3 What problems did Self-Strengthening projects face?

Wars with France, Japan and Russia

The Sino-French War of 1884–1885

In the last decades of the 19th century, China's disastrous series of military defeats continued. In the Sino-French War of 1884–1885, China fought France for possession of Vietnam. Although Vietnam was officially a separate kingdom, it paid tribute to China and acknowledged the Chinese emperor as the supreme ruler. Once again, the conflict was about trade.

French traders hoped to use the Red River in northern Vietnam to reach China. They also wanted to operate in Vietnam, which was itself free from Chinese interference. French forces clashed with local soldiers who were supplied by the Chinese. The war moved into China itself when the French navy attacked Fuzhou without warning. At the end of the war, the French had gained control over northern Vietnam, which became part of 'French Indochina'.

The Sino-Japanese War of 1894–1895



Source 36 This Japanese print from 1895 shows the surrender of the Chinese admiral Ding Ruchang and his foreign advisers to the Japanese navy. The Chinese are depicted as old-fashioned Mandarins in comparison with the Japanese officers dressed in Western-style military uniforms.

By the late 19th century, Japan was gaining significant power. It had adopted many Western technologies and customs, including modern military training, uniforms and up-to-date weaponry. China and Japan clashed over Korea. Traditionally, Korea had paid tributes to China, but because it was also very close to Japan geographically, the Japanese believed Korea should also pay tributes to them. More broadly, the Japanese wanted to increase their influence in Asia.

In 1893, the Korean government asked the Chinese to send troops to help it quash a local rebellion. Japan immediately demanded that it also be able to send the same number of soldiers. At first, China refused. But in the end, both countries sent occupying forces, and argued about when and where their troops could be stationed. In 1894, this quarrel erupted into the Sino-Japanese War.

China was confident that it could defeat Japan. China had learned some lessons from earlier defeats by the British and French and had started to build up its own navy. By 1894, China had 65 large ships and

43 torpedo boats. In September 1894, 12 Chinese ships attacked a Japanese fleet near the Yalu River at the Korean border. The attack was a disaster. Four Chinese ships sank and four fled the battle. As a result, Japan seized Taiwan, as well as Chinese naval bases in the Liaodong and Shandong peninsulas. These were especially significant because they guarded the sea approach to Beijing. Once again, China had to negotiate. It signed an unequal treaty allowing Japan to keep Taiwan.

Internal rebellions

A growing population, lack of land, and large-scale migration all contributed to unrest among the people. Many Chinese were also unhappy about recent military defeats by foreigners, and they suffered because of the huge sums of money China was paying to foreign powers. This led to several serious rebellions against the Qing Dynasty during the 19th century.

The Taiping Rebellion



Source 37 Seal of the Taiping Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace

By far the largest rebellion was the Taiping Rebellion, led by Hong Xiuquan. Between 1850 and 1864 the Taiping rebels seized control of much of south and central China, establishing their own kingdom with their own laws and battling the Qing army for over a decade.

Hong himself was a former student who had failed the government examinations on several occasions. He was inspired by reading Christian-missionary pamphlets and decided that he must be Jesus' younger brother. He declared that he would establish a new kingdom called the 'Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace', and swore to throw the Manchu rulers out of China.

In his new kingdom, Hong promised to turn private property into common property to be shared by all. This attracted many famine-stricken peasants, workers, and miners who joined with Hong against the Qing rulers. Hong managed to train this mixed group to become a well-organised army and, in 1853, with up to one million followers, Hong captured the eastern city of Nanjing, renaming it Tianjing.

Later attempts by the Taiping rebels to take Beijing and Shanghai failed and they were eventually defeated by combined Qing Dynasty and Western forces. Between 20 and 30 million people died as a result of the Taiping Rebellion. Many died in battles, but others died from starvation and disease. More people died because of the Taiping Rebellion than died in World War I.

Other rebellions

The second-half of the 19th century saw several other rebellions against the Qing. Ethnic minorities from Yunnan in the south and the Nian rebels in central China also sought to overthrow the Qing Dynasty. In the province of Xinjiang in the far west, local Muslims rose up against the Chinese in a bloody struggle that claimed eight million lives. Between 1862 and 1877, these rebels briefly established an independent state, named Kashgaria. The new leader, Yaqub Beg, signed treaties with Russia and Britain, but was eventually killed by Qing soldiers.

Check your learning

1. What were the main factors behind China's defeat in the separate wars against France and Japan?
2. Give five reasons why many Chinese chose to rebel against the Qing during the 19th century.
3. Who was Hong Xiuquan and what was his relation to Christianity?
4. How many people died as a result of the Taiping Rebellion?

Empress Dowager Cixi



Source 38 The Empress Dowager Cixi with foreign envoys' wives at the Summer Palace, Beijing, *c.* 1903–1905

Intelligent and ambitious, the Empress Dowager Cixi (1835–1908) ruled China for 47 years. She was the ruler of China through both Opium Wars and through the Taiping Rebellion. Empress Dowager Cixi ruled China during a time of significant change, which would eventually lead to the end of the Qing Dynasty.

Early life

Most historians agree that Cixi was born into an important Manchu family and that she travelled to Beijing before her 15th birthday. In 1851, court officials chose Cixi to be one of the Xianfeng Emperor's concubines.

At first, Cixi occupied a low position in the emperor's household. As a preparative (junior) concubine she had very little status. But she quickly gained Xianfeng's attention and began to rise through the ranks. In 1856 she gave birth to his only son, Zaichun. By the time her son turned one, she had gained the title of 'Noble Consort'. Among the women of the court, she was now second in rank only to the empress.

Rise to power

The Xianfeng Emperor died in 1861. As one of his last acts he ordered that, after his death, power should be shared among the empress, Cixi and a group of eight regents or lords. Together, they were to rule until the new emperor was old enough to take the throne. Zaichun was only five years old.

The empress was not interested in politics, and Cixi and the eight regents distrusted each other. Secretly, Cixi approached a number of powerful nobles, including Prince Gong and Prince Chun, younger brothers of the Xianfeng Emperor. Unhappy with the regents' rule, they agreed to help Cixi overthrow the eight and seize power for herself. Soon after, Cixi and the princes charged the regents with treason. They accused the regents of betraying the Xianfeng Emperor and blamed them for recent military defeats against Britain. The leader of the regents, Sushun, was publicly beheaded in a vegetable market. Two others were forced to commit suicide.



Source 39 Early 20th century portrait of Empress Dowager Cixi by a Western artist

Rivals

Cixi was now the absolute ruler. Her son Zaichun, the Tongzhi Emperor, was totally under her control. Ministers and generals sought her approval for their decisions. Cixi was ruthless and quickly disposed of any potential rivals.

One of these was the Lady Alute. In 1872, the 17-year-old Tonghzi Emperor chose the Lady Alute to be his empress. Cixi took an immediate dislike to Alute and complained to her son that he should learn how to rule his empire instead of spending time with his new wife. When Tongzhi refused, Cixi ordered them to be parted. She sent the emperor to live alone in a separate palace in the Forbidden City, where he died of smallpox in 1875. Alute died several months later, aged only 20. Some historians suggest that Cixi was jealous of Alute's influence with the young emperor and ordered her to be starved to death. Others suggest that she committed suicide.

A more significant threat to her power came from the next emperor, Guangxu (ruled 1875–1908). Guangxu was only four years old when he became emperor, but as he got older he showed signs of wanting to rule his own empire, free from Cixi's influence. Guangxu believed that China needed to become a more modern country. In 1898, when he was 29 years old, he ordered dramatic changes to many aspects of Chinese life. He wanted to build new railways, build up industry and update the education system to include Western science. He even suggested a limited form of democracy.

These reforms alarmed Cixi, who saw them as a threat to her own power and to traditional Qing rule. She quickly organised his arrest. Her soldiers took the Guangxu Emperor to a small palace in the middle of a lake, connected to land by a single guarded bridge. Cixi publicly announced that Guangxu was not fit to be emperor. For the rest of his life, Guangxu lived as a prisoner. He died in November 1908, one day before the empress dowager. Many historians have wondered whether Cixi, knowing she was about to die, ordered him to be poisoned.

Limited reform

Cixi did make some attempts to modernise China. She ordered her generals to buy some modern weapons, including ships and guns, from the United States and European countries. She also decided China needed to learn more about Western science and technology. In 1862, she ordered a school for foreign languages to be opened in Beijing. Foreign experts came to China with her support to set up new factories. These included a weapons factory in 1865 (making mostly rifles), a shipyard in 1874, and a wool mill in 1877.



Source 40 Cixi's Marble Boat at the Summer Palace.

At the same time, she was very old-fashioned. She continued to spend vast sums of money on herself. For her 60th birthday, she had an extravagant pavilion built at her holiday retreat, the Summer Palace. The marble pavilion was in the shape of a boat, jutting out into an ornamental lake. Critics pointed out that, at this time, the Chinese navy did not have enough money for real boats.

Cixi refused to allow a railway to be built because she thought it might 'disturb the imperial tombs'. She also rejected any changes to the examination system for government officials to make it more modern. Cixi was keen to protect China from too much foreign influence. As an absolute ruler, she worried that Western ideas such as democracy were a threat to the Qing Empire.

Death

Cixi died in 1908. She was buried in the Qing imperial tombs near Beijing. In 1928, soldiers of the warlord Sun Dianying broke into her lavish tomb and stripped it of its priceless decorations. They even threw her corpse on the floor and stole a pearl that had been placed in her mouth.



Source 41 The tomb of the Dowager Empress Cixi

Check your learning

1. Empress Dowager Cixi was sometimes described by other important Qing nobles as ruling from 'behind the curtain'. Given what you have read above, what do you think this might mean?
2. List at least five challenges faced by Cixi during her rule.
3. Why was Empress Dowager Cixi so reluctant to allow reforms to be carried out during her rule?
4. State briefly whether you think Cixi was a good or bad ruler. Give reasons for your point of view.

bigideas

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

Remember

1 What strategy did the British use to pay for Chinese tea?
2 What was Lin Zexu appointed to do? How did he go about his task?
3 Describe three achievements of the *Treaty of Nanjing* (1858).
4 Name two things that the Chinese could freely do, according to the Conventions of Beijing (1860).
5 Name three areas of China that were lost to foreign control in the 19th century, and the countries that occupied them.

Understand

6 Who was the true ruler of China in the late 19th century?
7 What was the connection between Chinese tea and English opium?
8 Explain why Chinese government officials often distrusted Christian missionaries.

Apply

9 Do some research on opium in the modern world. Use the library or the Internet to prepare a PowerPoint presentation. Your presentation should cover the following information:
- Where is opium mostly grown in the world today?
- Who grows it? Why?
- What is opium mainly used for in the modern world?
- What are the legal and illegal uses of opium products in Australia?
- What does Australia do to try to restrict the use of opium? Does it work?
- Who makes the most money from opium?

Make sure you name the sources of your information in your presentation.

10 Reflecting on the unequal treaties that China was made to sign, prepare a short (one-minute) speech describing an unfair agreement you have made with someone. Explain why it is unfair and why you agreed to it.

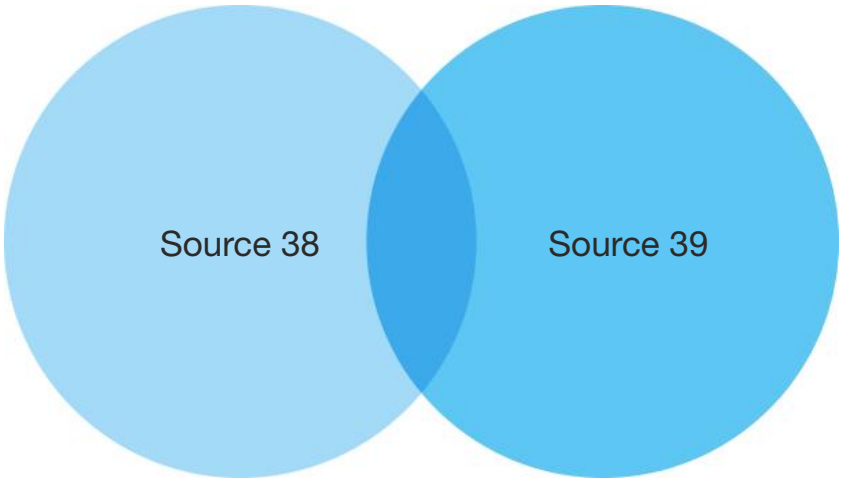
Analyse



Source 42 A picture from the 1790s of Earl Macartney meeting the Chinese emperor

11 Look at the image above of the mission by Earl Macartney to China.
   a Do you think this picture was drawn by a Chinese or an English artist? Why?
   b Given your answer to Question 11a, how accurate do you think this picture is likely to be?
   c Compare the Chinese and the English figures in the picture. What do you notice?
   d What point do you think the artist of this picture is trying to make? Give reasons for your answer.

12 Look back at the two images of the Empress Dowager Cixi in Sources 38 and 39.
   a What do you notice most about each image? Organise your ideas using a Venn diagram like the one below, noting similarities and differences.



   b Compare your responses with another member of the class. Did you respond the same way?
   c How is Cixi's powerful position shown in each of these images?

Evaluate

13 Re-read Macartney's journal entry about China and its rulers (Source 26).
   a Given what you know now about China's history, do you think he was right? Explain your answer.
   b Find someone in the class who disagrees with you. Hold a mini-debate with them about your different points of view.

14 Use the Internet or a library to do some more research on Christian missionaries in China in the 19th century. Prepare a presentation for the class showing what you have found. In your presentation, state whether you think missionaries were a force for good in China, or for harm. Give reasons.

15 Use the Internet or the library to research Queen Victoria of Great Britain, who ruled at roughly the same time as Cixi ruled China. Were there any similarities between these two rulers?

Create

16 Write a booklet for an aspiring Christian missionary travelling to China. In your booklet, explain six things the missionary will need to know in order to be successful.

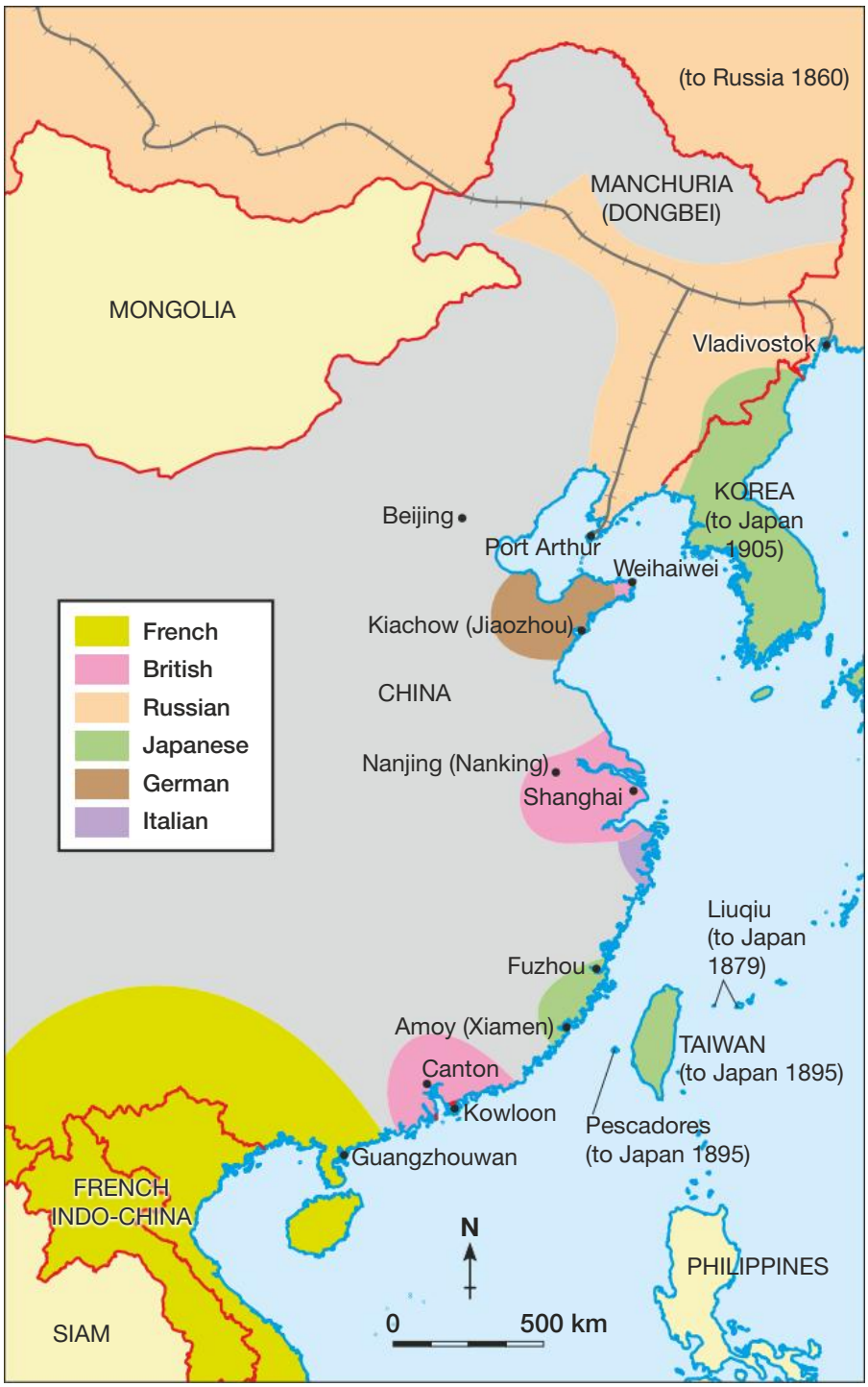
3 How was Chinese society influenced by world events and how did China interact with the world at the start of the 20th century?



Source 43 American troops marching in the Forbidden City during the Boxer Rebellion

The first decades of the 20th century were dramatic years for China. By 1900, it was obvious that the Qing Empire was in crisis. The Boxer Rebellion of 1898–1901 showed that many Chinese wanted foreign interference in their country to stop. On the other hand, many Chinese were also being influenced by foreign ideas. Thousands of Chinese were now travelling overseas to study in Western countries and Japan. They adopted many Western customs and beliefs. Coming home, they brought with them ideas about how government could run differently. Some believed that the education system needed to be changed. Others thought China should introduce some level of democracy.

Chinese losses



Source 44 Foreign-controlled areas of China in 1900

By 1900, China had lost control over large parts of its own territory. Taiwan and Vietnam were now controlled by Japan and France respectively, rather than by the Chinese. Dozens of treaty ports were run by foreigners. Christian missionaries and traders travelled freely throughout the empire.

The Qing Dynasty appeared weak to many Chinese, who saw them as powerless against triumphant European nations and Japan. Some questioned whether they had lost the 'Mandate of Heaven'.

The Boxer Rebellion



Source 45 Several groups from the Eight-Nation Alliance advance on Beijing to rescue the foreigners besieged in the Legation quarter (where foreign diplomats and ambassadors lived and worked), 1900.

At the very end of the 19th century, poverty, famine and banditry made life increasingly difficult in China. In Shandong province, large groups of young men joined an athletic society called the Society of Righteous Harmony. They were religious martial artists, who believed that their training could eventually allow them to develop resistance to foreign bullets. In 1898, they attacked a temple in Shandong that had been converted into a Christian church. Their slogan, which soon became infamous, was 'Support the Qing; Destroy the Foreigners'.

Members of the Society of Righteous Harmony blamed foreigners, and especially Christian missionaries, for China's weakness. In Shandong they attacked foreigners, as well as Chinese who worked for foreigners, or those who had converted to Christianity. The foreigners called them the 'Boxers' because of the martial boxing the society taught; they called foreigners 'Ghosts' or 'Devils'.

At first, Empress Dowager Cixi condemned the Boxers' actions. She was afraid that Western nations might use the Boxer attacks as an excuse to once more send in their military forces. But in 1900 the empress dowager suddenly changed her tone. She suggested that she might even sympathise with the rebels. With Boxers lynching foreigners in Beijing, Western powers and Japan sent 400 soldiers to fortify the Legation quarter of the city, where foreign diplomats and ambassadors lived and worked. In June 1900, however, the Boxers cut the railway line to Tianjin. From 20 June to 14 August 1900, the Legations were under a state of siege, constantly attacked by Boxer soldiers and the Qing army.

Source 46

> April 17 The danger of the Boxers is increasing. The danger is scarcity of rain which is attributed to the disturbance of the *feng shui* by foreigners. If rains come, the Boxers will soon disappear.
>
> April 26 … Anti-foreign literature is being sold in the streets. There has been some serious Boxer fighting near Paotingfu …
>
> May 16 According to my boy, 8 000 000 men are to descend from Heaven and exterminate the foreigners … Then the rain will come …
>
> May 18 … Much agitation still about the Boxers. I said to Sir Claude, 'The first shower and the movement expires.' … French priests report 61 men, women and children suffered death at Kaolo … Also trouble at Anhsien … Some burned alive.

George Morrison, an Australian journalist in China, chronicled the mounting dangers in his diary.

The Eight-Nation Alliance

Eight countries sent troops to rescue the besieged legations: Austrian-Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Russia, and the United States. The largest detachment comprised over 20 000 Japanese. Britain had 12 000 troops, including Sikh soldiers from British India, plus sailors and marines from New South Wales, Victoria and South Australia. The international force captured Chinese forts on the coast near Tianjin. It then advanced up the railway line to Tianjin and on to Beijing.

The Empress Dowager, the Guangxu Emperor and members of the imperial court disguised themselves in peasant clothing and fled the capital.



Source 47 This 1900 cartoon showing 'civilisation' avenging rumoured outrages against foreign envoys in China makes British attitudes to China clear.

Consequences of the Boxer Rebellion

The Eight-Nation Alliance quickly defeated the Boxers and Chinese Army troops. Foreign forces occupied Beijing and the surrounding countryside for over a year, and Russian troops remained in Manchuria even longer. Several armies embarked on terrible revenge killings to teach the Chinese a lesson. One soldier commented, 'It is safe to say that where one real Boxer has been killed ... fifty harmless coolies or labourers on the farms, including not a few women and children, have been slain.' Looting was widespread, often in the name of recovering wealth stolen from missionaries.



Source 48 A group of Boxer rebels, captured by the US 6th Cavalry, 1900

In 1901, China was forced to sign a treaty called the Boxer Protocol. Ten Chinese officials thought to have encouraged the Boxers were executed. China also had to pay damages of 450 000 000 silver *taels*, one for every Chinese subject. This was an astronomical amount of money, roughly equivalent to AUD $56 billion today. China kept paying the money for the next 37 years, along with interest of four per cent.

The foreign powers also gained the right to keep their own troops in several Chinese towns. The Boxer Protocol made it illegal, on pain of death, for a Chinese citizen to join an anti-foreign society. Over the next two decades, some of the money was redirected by foreign powers to be spent in China. They used it to set up banks and build railways and bridges, in a form of compulsory modernisation.



Source 49 China as a pie carved up by Britain, Germany, Russia, France and Japan, while a Mandarin protests, 1898.

Check your learning

1. What evidence is there in George Morrison's diary (Source 46) that summer drought was a major factor in the Boxer Rebellion?
2. How were Australians involved in the Boxer Rebellion?
3. How did the Boxer Protocols arrive at the figure of 450 000 000 silver *taels* in damages? How much is that worth in modern money?
4. Can it be suggested that the Boxer Protocols achieved what the Self-Strengthening Movement could not? Explain your answer.

Nationalism

One of the most important ideas to reach China in the early 20th century was nationalism. Nationalism was a growing awareness that China was a 'nation', or in other words, that the country belonged to a unified people. This was quite different from the traditional belief that China was an empire made up of different lands and ethnic groups that just happened to be ruled by the same emperor. Nationalists believed that the Chinese people should have a say in running their own country. They also believed it should be governed for the people's benefit. By 1911, nationalist sentiment in China reached a high point. Revolutionaries overthrew the Qing. Instead of declaring the start of a new dynasty, they announced the end of the empire. China was to be a republic – a country ruled by the people through elected representatives.

The collapse of the Qing Dynasty



Source 50 The 1987 film *The Last Emperor* was about the child emperor Puyi and the end of the Qing Dynasty

After the Boxer Rebellion, the Empress Dowager Cixi saw that changes had to be made. She agreed to a wide range of reforms, including the abolition of the government examination system. This happened in 1905. Other reforms, such as the introduction of a more democratic form of government, were not implemented.

Cixi died in 1908, a day after the death of the Guangxu Emperor. The new Emperor, Puyi, was just two years and 10 months old. Nationalists seized the chance and began to call for the end of Manchu rule. They suggested that the Manchus, like the British, Americans, Russians and Japanese, were unwelcome foreigners. They claimed that China could only be truly reformed under *Chinese* control. In 1911, the Chinese authorities announced the appointment of a 13-man government cabinet (to be advisors to the emperor) as part of reforms. However, nine of the officials were Manchus, and eight were members of the imperial family – a sure sign that little was likely to change.

The 1911 Revolution

Later that year, in October, a dispute about who should be in charge of a railway led to the revolution of 1911. The Qing government had relied on private individuals or local provincial gentry to raise money for the building and running of railways. In 1911, though, faced with the debts left over from the Boxer Rebellion, the Qing government declared it would nationalise the Hankou-Sichuan railway in Sichuan province in the west (which was by then owned by local shareholders). Money from the railway would be used to pay foreign countries what was owed.

Outraged provincial officials organised mass demonstrations in the Sichuan capital, Chengdu, which quickly turned violent. Things became even more serious when Qing government troops shot into the crowd, killing 40 people. The Qing government, fearing further uprisings, tried to send in troops from the neighbouring province of Hubei. Many of the soldiers, though, were sympathetic to the protesters. The army units in Hubei province encouraged provincial officials to declare their independence from the empire. They did so, and province after province followed suit.

The nationalist revolutionary Sun Yatsen was in the USA in exile when the revolution broke out. Reading about it in the paper, he hurried back to China to help organise a new republican government in Nanjing. By December 1911, he was provisional president of the new country.

significance: Sun Yatsen



Source 51 Visitors flock to the Sun Yatsen Mausoleum in Jiangsu Province, China

The revolutionary Sun Yatsen (1866–1925) founded the Revive China Society, devoted to expelling the Manchus and restoring control of a unified China to the Chinese. The son of a farmer, Sun left China in his youth and studied in Hawai'i. He was baptised as a Christian in Hong Kong. Exiled from China after a failed coup attempt in 1895, he spent 16 years organising a revolutionary movement abroad. He returned to China in 1911 to become the first president of the Republic of China.

Sun proposed 'Three Principles of the People'. These were:

- *Nationalism* – unity of ethnic groups, including the 'Han' Chinese, Muslims, Tibetans and many other ethnic groups such as the Hakka, Mian and Mongols. Presumably, the Manchus were also included, but they were often left out of revolutionary documents.
- *Democracy* – representation of those groups in a democratically elected assembly.
- *Welfare* – quality of life for those groups, recognising basic rights to food, clothing, transportation, education, rights, etc.

The early republic

Despite Sun Yatsen becoming provisional president, there was still no single government for the Republic of China for him to lead. Furthermore, Sun found his government in Nanjing was being opposed by a rival administration in Beijing, led by General Yuan Shikai. Sun offered to resign as president in favour of Yuan, if Yuan persuaded the emperor to abdicate. Yuan negotiated the emperor's abdication and became president in March 1912.



Source 52 Sun Yatsen (centre, in fur coat) prepares to assume his new role as President of the Republic of China, 1911.

Yuan Shikai's agreement with the last emperor of China, Puyi, is considered by many historians to be a generous one. Puyi was granted several 'articles of favourable treatment'. He was allowed to live in the Summer Palace and was offered 4 million *taels* a year as income. Additionally, Manchu princes and nobility kept their titles and land.

In the aftermath of the revolution, though, several massacres of Manchus took place. At Yichang on the upper Yangzi River, Chinese attackers murdered 17 Manchu women and children and smeared their blood over a public building. In the city of Xi'an, 20 000 Manchus were killed in the three weeks following the outbreak of the revolution.

Peace lasted until 1913, when China again split into northern and southern factions. When World War I broke out, Japan invaded Chinese territory by attacking the Shandong Peninsula, under German control since the Boxer Rebellion. China sent 100 000 workers (the Chinese Labour Corps) to dig trenches and unload ships in Europe, but did not officially enter the war until 1917. At the end of the war, Yuan Shikai made himself emperor and two major factions emerged to fight for control of China – the Kuomintang (nationalists) and the Chinese Communist Party. After decades of conflict, the Chinese Communist Party eventually took power in 1949 and established the People's Republic of China.



Source 53 Men from the Chinese Labour Corps building a road on the Western Front in Europe, *c.* 1917

Check your learning

1. Why were Chinese democrats unimpressed with the Qing Dynasty's first appointed Cabinet in 1911?
2. What were the 'Three Principles of the People'?
3. Where was Sun Yatsen when the 1911 Revolution broke out?
4. How did 100 000 Chinese men participate in World War I, before China had officially joined the conflict?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 What was the slogan of the Boxers?
2 Name three countries that seized, or attempted to seize, parts of China for themselves.
3 How were Manchus treated after the 1911 Revolution?
4 Why do historians suggest that the last emperor of China was fortunate?
5 What was the Chinese Labour Corps?

Understand

6 Define nationalism in your own words.
7 How did the time of year influence the start of the Boxer Rebellion?
8 Why was the outcome of the Boxer Rebellion so disastrous for China?
9 Why did the Empress Dowager Cixi agree to abolish the old government exams in 1905?
10 How might Sun Yatsen's school days in the US territory of Hawai'i have influenced his 'Three Principles of the People'?

Apply

11 Use the Internet or the library to find out more about the 1911 Revolution. Draw a detailed timeline of events from the beginning of 1911 to March 1912.

Analyse

12 Why did Chinese revolutionaries regard the Qing dynasty as foreigners?
13 Re-read George Morrison's diary account of the Boxer Rebellion (Source 46). What attitude does Morrison show towards the Boxers?

Evaluate

14 Look at the image by W.A. Rogers on the next page (Source 54).
a Complete the following chart, noting down at least three points in each column:

What do I notice in this picture about the Boxers?	What do I notice in this picture about the Americans?

b What do you think is the message that the illustrator of this picture is trying to get across?
c Do you think that this is a fair image, based on what you know? Explain your answer.



Source 54 1900 cartoon by W.A. Rogers in *Harpers Magazine* showing Uncle Sam and US President William McKinley reacting to the Boxers.

Create

15 Make a historical crossword based on information from this chapter. Don't make the clues too easy! Once you have finished, swap your crossword with a classmate.

16 Write a newspaper article about the uprising that Sun Yatsen may have read in the United States in 1911. Illustrate it in the style of early photographs.

17 Imagine you are Sun Yatsen. You have just been elected the very first president to rule the Republic of China. Prepare the first speech you will make to your people.

acknowledgements

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australian curriculum

history 9

depth study option

9 Asia and the world: Japan 1750–1918

luke matthews | jonathan clements

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AUSTRALIA & NEW ZEALAND

depth study option

Asia and the world: Japan
(1750–1918)



The Great Wave off Kanagawa, a woodblock print by the artist Katsushika Hokusai (1760–1849)

Between 1750 and 1918, Japan changed dramatically. At the start of this period, a military ruler, known as the shogun*, governed Japan from Edo Castle (in modern-day Tokyo). Powerful lords controlled by the* shogun*, called* daimyo*, ruled over large areas of the country, each with his own castle and trained* samurai *warriors. The emperor had been reduced to a figurehead who had little real power, and rarely interfered in day-to-day politics.*

At this time, Japan's government implemented a policy of isolation from the rest of the world. The shogun *banned Japanese people from travelling overseas and foreigners from entering the country. The only exception was a handful of Dutch and Chinese traders in the southern port of Nagasaki.*

In the middle of the 19th century, however, things began to change. The United States and European countries such as Russia and Britain became extremely powerful and were establishing themselves in Asia. In 1853, Commodore Matthew C. Perry of the United States sailed four American ships into Edo Bay and forced the shogun *to accept trade between Japan and the United States. This ended the period of isolation.*

For the rest of the 19th century, Japan struggled to become a powerful, modern country. In 1868, a group of unhappy samurai *rebelled against the* shogun *and returned the emperor to power. Following this event, known as the Meiji Restoration, Japan rapidly changed many aspects of its society. The government invested in industry, built railways and built a modern army. By the turn of the 20th century, Japan was widely acknowledged as a major world power, standing alongside Russia, Britain, Germany and the United States.*

Key inquiry questions

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

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

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

bigpicture

Asia and the world: Japan

By 1750, Japan was in the middle of a long period of peace. From 1603 to 1868, the Tokugawa family ruled Japan as shoguns, or military leaders, from their capital in Edo (modern-day Tokyo). During the Tokugawa period (or Edo period) the samurai *class dominated Japanese society. Japan was cut off from the rest of the world, with the* shogun *forbidding foreigners from entering Japan's ports.*

The Tokugawa period ended in 1868 with the Meiji Restoration. From 1868 onwards, the Japanese authorities, led by the emperor, experimented with new models of government and methods of education. They modernised the army and navy. They built steel and chemical factories, and established shipping companies and postal systems.

By the turn of the 20th century, Japan had become a powerful modern nation. In 1894–1895 Japan defeated China in the first Sino-Japanese War. Then, in 1904–1905, Japan surprised the world by defeating Russia – the first defeat of a European power by an Asian country in 500 years.

1790

1790
The number of foreign ships seeking to land in Japan starts to increase. Many of these are Russian and American ships seeking shelter from storms.



Samurai armour from the Tokugawa period

1825
The *shogun* orders Japanese captains to sink foreign ships approaching Japan 'without hesitation'.

1853
US Commodore Matthew C. Perry arrives in the port of Edo and demands that Japan open to trade.



Commodore Matthew Perry meeting imperial commissioners at Yokohama, Japan, 1854

1868
The Meiji Restoration returns the emperor to power, ending the Tokugawa period.



Mutsuhito, the Meiji Emperor 1852–1912

1871
Japan starts to modernise. The Mission travels around the wor search of modern ideas and te

1877
The Satsuma *samurai* rise traditional wa

Source 1 A timeline of key events in Japan during the period 1750–1918



a Rebellion. Anti-modern
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ay of life.

e Iwakura
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echnologies.



A Japanese flag flies over the wreck of a gun left by the Germans when they withdrew from Tsingtau (Qingdao), 1914.

1914
Japan fights alongside Britain, Australia and the other Allied powers in World War I.

1915
Japan presents the '21 Demands' to China.

1919
Paris Peace Conference. Japan demands and receives China's Shandong province from Germany as a spoil of war. However, a Japanese proposal to outlaw racism is vetoed.

1894–1895
Sino-Japanese War. Japan defeats China.



Book illustration depicting a Hiroshibata soldier in combat against the Chinese during the Sino-Japanese War

1904–1905
The Russo-Japanese War. Japan surprises the world by defeating Russia.

Illustration from a French journal showing a Russian ship being hit by a Japanese torpedo during the Russo-Japanese War



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



Source 2 An 18th-century woodblock print of women in Japan

During the Tokugawa period, Japan was a feudal society – that is, a society organised by a system of obligations between the ruler, nobles and common people. Rich lords called daimyo *owed allegiance to the* shogun*, and in return he granted them the right to rule over large areas of land. The* daimyo *made their own laws and had their own military forces. Further down the social hierarchy, peasant farmers working on lands controlled by* daimyo *paid taxes to them in the form of money or a percentage of the crops they grew.*

Society was rigidly structured. Every person, from the emperor and the shogun *down to peasants and craftsmen, had a role to play in society. Everybody was important, and everybody was expected to behave in a manner appropriate to their class.*

The size and power of the empire in 1750



Source 3 Japan and surrounding countries in 1750

In 1750, Japan had slightly different borders from those it has today. Almost all of the population lived on the three main islands of Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu. The northern island of Hokkaido was also technically under Japanese rule, but in fact most Japanese lived on the southern tip of the island. They traded and occasionally fought with Hokkaido's indigenous Ainu people. Japan also received some **tribute** (money paid by one country to another in return for peace and trade), from the Ryukyu Islands to the south that were officially under Chinese control.

To the west lay the vast Chinese Empire, ruled by the Qing Dynasty in Beijing. Between China and Japan sat Korea, while Russia held territories to the north and northwest.

The Tokugawa system



Source 4 Himeji castle, built in 1600 by the feudal lord Ikeda Terumas under the Tokugawa Shogunate

Since 1600, Japan had been ruled by the Tokugawa family. Japan had an emperor, who lived in Kyoto, but the real power lay with his military leader, the *shogun*. The Tokugawa *shogun* made laws, took command of military matters and dealt with foreigners.

During this period, Japan was mostly at peace. Unlike Europe at this time, Tokugawa Japan fought no major wars. There was also stability within Japan. The other Japanese lords were not nearly as powerful as the *shogun* and dared not challenge his rule. Droughts and famines sometimes brought protests from farmers, but the military stopped these easily.

Japan was cut off from the rest of the world. From 1635, the *shogun* forbade Japanese people from leaving the country and ordered any Japanese returning home after living overseas to be executed. Foreigners were not welcome. The only exception was about 2000 Chinese traders living in the southern city of Nagasaki. They were not allowed to travel anywhere else in the country. Dutch traders were not even allowed to set foot in the city. Instead, they could only land on a bleak artificial island in the middle of Nagasaki harbour. Other foreigners, such as the Spanish and Portuguese, were banned completely. As a result, the Japanese lived in a kind of time-warp. Most Japanese people, including the rulers, remained unaware of advances in science and technology taking place elsewhere in the world.

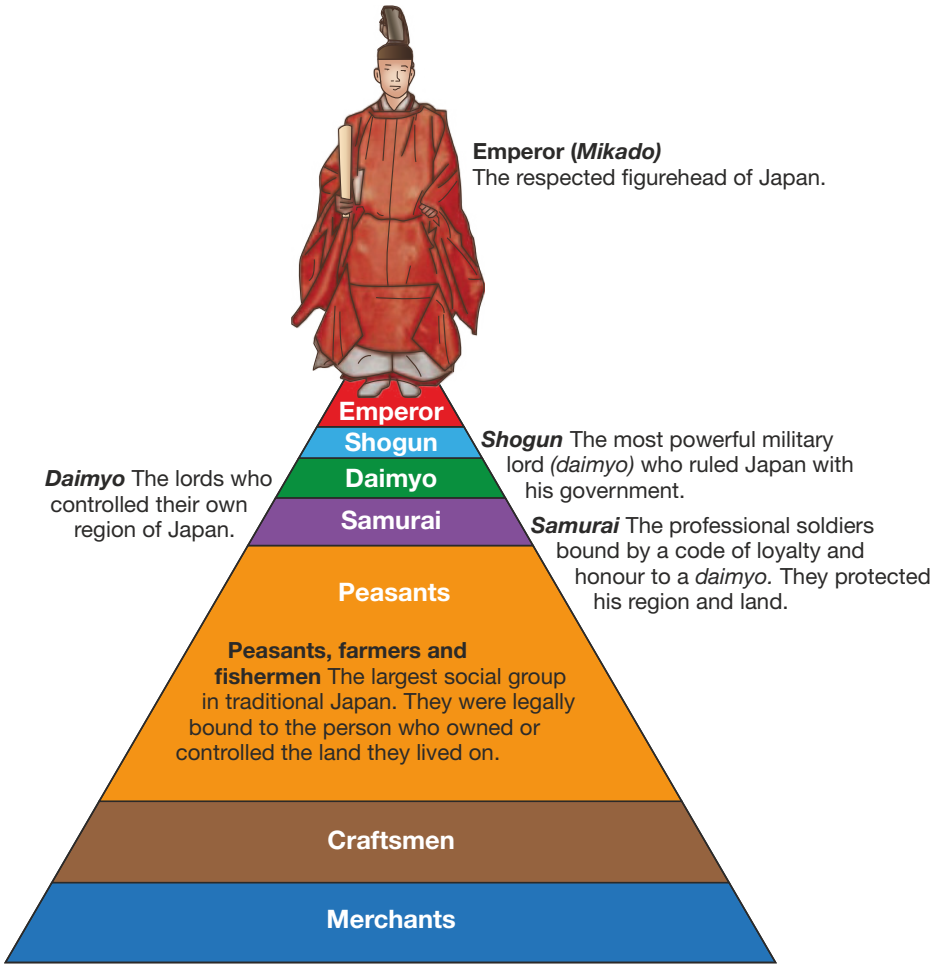


Source 5 Woodblock print showing New Year's Day activities in a Japanese teahouse, *c.* 1810

The class system

The social system in Tokugawa Japan was complex. At the very top of the social hierarchy sat the emperor. Although he possessed no real power in Japan, he commanded great respect. Below the emperor came the nobles: the *shogun* and the other *daimyo* and their families. The rest of Japanese society was officially divided into four classes: *samurai*, peasants, craftsmen and merchants. It was very rare for a person to move between classes. A peasant could never move up the scale to become a *samurai*. Merchants and craftsmen may have mingled with *samurai* in the big cities, but marriage between them was restricted.

Having a higher status in the class system did not necessarily mean that a person enjoyed a better life. Peasants supposedly occupied a relatively prestigious position, but often suffered from hunger and disease. Their day-to-day life consisted of gruelling physical labour. By contrast, merchants at the bottom of the system were frequently much wealthier than their *samurai* masters.



Source 6 The class structure of Tokugawa Japan

The emperor

According to legend, the emperor was a direct descendant of the sun goddess Amaterasu. The Japanese name for the emperor was *Tenno*, or 'Heavenly Sovereign'. By 1750, the emperor was little more than a figurehead with no real power. Instead, the emperor's role was ceremonial. He was the head of state and officially granted the Tokugawa family their titles and the right to govern. In reality, he lived isolated in his palace in Kyoto surrounded by his servants. Though he had enormous prestige, he and his imperial court had little to do with the business of government and the *shogun* in the capital of Edo.

The *shogun*



Source 7 A portrait of *Shogun* Tokugawa Ieyasu

As mentioned, the real ruler of Japan was the emperor's leading general, or *shogun*. The *shogun* lived at Edo Castle where he and his advisors governed Japan. The *shogun* was responsible for the welfare of the country as a whole and, in particular, for relations with foreign powers. The title *shogun* was actually a shortened version of *Sei-itai Shogun*, meaning 'Barbarian-subduing Commander'. In this phrase, barbarians refer to anyone who is not Japanese – in other words, the rest of the world. The people, the emperor and other lords all expected the *shogun* to protect Japan from foreign interference.

The Tokugawa *shogun* were extraordinarily wealthy. The Tokugawa extended family directly controlled about one-third of Japan's agricultural land. They held the important domains closest to the centre of the country and along the major trading routes between the biggest cities. This helped each *shogun* maintain his position above other, rival noble families.



Source 8 Soldiers force commoners to kneel down as the *shogun* approaches; to remain standing, or even to look at the *shogun*, could mean immediate execution.

Daimyo

Japan was divided into roughly 250 large areas called *han* (domains). A **hereditary** (passing automatically from parent to child) lord or *daimyo* ruled each domain. Large domains had their own castles. The *daimyo* often made their own laws and set their own taxes. In addition to this, they commanded impressive armies.

There were three official types of *daimyo*. The first, called *shimpan*, were directly related to the *shogun*. The second, the *fudai*, or 'house' *daimyo*, were traditional allies of the Tokugawa. The third group called the *tozama*, or 'outsider' *daimyo*, were the *shogun*'s traditional enemies. These 'outsider' *daimyo* tended to have large domains and controlled about 40 per cent of the land. Because of this, the *shogun* regarded them as a potential threat and sought ways to limit their power. He made sure that only *shimpan* and *fudai daimyo* gained positions within the government. He also demanded that all *daimyo* spend large amounts of money building public works such as roads and seawalls. Alliances between *daimyo* were outlawed. The *shogun* also had the right to approve or disallow marriages between noble families, preventing the formation of potential alliances against the Tokugawa family. Finally, the *shogun* used spies to keep track of what the *daimyo* were doing.

Sankin kōtai



Source 9 Illustrated folding screen showing *daimyo* and their attendants arriving at Edo Castle, home of the Tokugawa shoguns from 1603 to 1868

One of the most important methods the *shogun* used to control the *daimyo* was a system called *sankin kōtai* (meaning 'alternate attendance'). Under *sankin kōtai*, the *daimyo* who served the *shogun* most closely as retainers would spend six months of every year in Edo. All other *daimyo* were required to visit the capital city of Edo every other year and to live there for a year, before returning home to their domains. Each *daimyo* brought a number of *samurai* warriors with them to provide military service to the *shogun*.

Sankin kōtai meant that every *daimyo* had to have two homes. The cost of maintaining a palace or castle at home and another one in Edo was high. Additionally, the *daimyo* had to pay for the costs of travel and for the hundreds of warriors and assistants that the *shogun* expected him to bring. All of these expenses meant that a *daimyo* was less likely to be able to afford to wage war against the *shogun*. The *shogun* could also keep an eye on the activities of every *daimyo* more easily if they were required to visit Edo every other year.

When the *daimyo* finally returned home, his wife and children stayed in Edo. The *shogun* kept them as hostages.

Samurai

Around this time, *samurai* (warriors) made up about six per cent of the total population. Each *samurai* wore a pair of swords – one short, one long – as a mark of their status. They protected and served their *daimyo*.



Source 10 Three *samurai* warriors dressed in their armour, photo *c.* 1900

Samurai lived according to a strict set of values. These included loyalty to one's lord, self-sacrifice, courage and honour. They were supposed to be highly disciplined and skilful in the use of their weapons. A *samurai* was also meant to be frugal – despising money and commerce. A common saying of the time stated that a good *samurai* 'does not even know the price of rice'.

Samurai expected to be treated with respect by those below them. Members of lower classes had to bow when a *samurai* passed by; if they were riding a horse, they had to dismount. Anyone who failed to do so risked death – *samurai* had the right to cut off their head on the spot.

By 1750, the *samurai* had not been required to take part in any real fighting for around 150 years. There were no wars, so they mostly functioned as officials, accountants and policemen, wearing their swords for show rather than anything else. Many were more like sportsmen than warriors.

Some *samurai* held important government positions with good salaries. But many lower-ranking *samurai* were very poor. In theory, all *samurai* received a wage from their *daimyo*. In many domains, though, the allowance was not enough to live on. *Samurai* had to make money elsewhere. Many borrowed from merchants. Others took jobs secretly, teaching swordsmanship or making small goods for sale. In the worst situations, a *samurai* might sell his swords or try his luck at gambling.

Ronin

At the very bottom of the *samurai* hierarchy were the *ronin* (or 'wave men'), who received this title because they were adrift in society. *Ronin* were *samurai* who had lost their masters either through death or disgrace, or because their masters had released them from service. This became more common as the long Tokugawa peace continued. Some *daimyo* simply could not afford to keep large armies of warriors who never fought. Without a master, a *ronin* could not display the proper *samurai* behaviours of loyalty and self-sacrifice. As a result, *ronin* commanded little respect.

Peasants

Peasants were by far the largest group in Japanese society at this time, making up around 80 per cent of the population. Most peasants were farmers, but the class also included woodcutters, fishermen and workers in mines. Though not as highly regarded as *samurai*, peasants were still accorded official respect because they produced the food that all other classes depended on.



Source 11 Japanese peasants in black coats from the Edo period

Historical accounts of peasant life during the Tokugawa Period differ widely. Some historians tell of growing wealth for the peasant class, while others describe conditions as harsh, with peasants working long hours in the fields just to grow enough to survive.

During the 18th and early 19th centuries, farmers experimented with new crops such as cotton, tobacco and sweet potato. They tried out new farming techniques and in good years were able to sell excess produce for extra income. One Japanese writer of the period even complained that 'those who have become wealthy forget their status and live luxuriously like city aristocrats'.

In spite of this, life for most peasants was very hard. Taxes were high and most farmers had to deal with poor living conditions, hunger and disease. Laws prohibited peasants from enjoying many of the luxuries of other classes such as decorative clothing and rich foods. In some villages, peasants were even banned from brewing *sake* (rice wine). Peasants were bound in service to their *daimyo* and needed special permission to travel.

The *shogun* forbade peasants from carrying weapons such as long swords, short swords, bows, spears and muskets. Nonetheless, the peasants often rebelled during times of famine, using farming tools as weapons. They protested against the burden of taxes and sometimes tried to seize grain stores. The *daimyo* easily and harshly suppressed these uprisings using their *samurai* forces, usually executing the leaders.

Craftsmen, merchants and *chonin*

The next class under the peasants were the craftsmen. Craftsmen were those who made goods and tools, including swordsmiths, printers, boatbuilders and carpenters. Craftsmen received less official respect than peasants because, in theory, people could live without the goods they made.

At the bottom of the class structure were the merchants. The merchants made nothing useful and did not govern, or keep order, like the *samurai*. Instead, they lived by trading and transporting goods, lending money and opening shops. Although Tokugawa society needed their services, other classes commonly regarded merchants as parasites who lived off the real labour of others.



Source 12 An illustration of a busy tea mart, *c.* 1800s

Both craftsmen and merchants tended to live in the larger towns and cities. By the late 18th century, the strict division between them had started to blur. Craftsmen experimented with selling their own goods, and merchants invested in practical businesses such as publishing or textiles. This new mixed class of city-dwellers came to be called *chonin*. Though supposedly low ranking, *chonin* flourished in Tokugawa Japan. They often wore fine clothes and had large amounts of money. Poorer *samurai* depended on them for loans; richer *samurai* employed them to build houses, make their clothes and provide entertainment.

Outcasts

Tokugawa Japan included many groups of people who fell below the five official classes. Butchers, undertakers, executioners and leatherworkers lived in separate quarters of villages and towns. Prohibitions forbade them from socialising with other classes, dressing like them, or entering their homes. Other Japanese thought of them as unclean. Other outcasts included criminals, prostitutes, actors and travelling musicians.

Outcasts were not always poor. Successful entertainers in the cities could maintain a good standard of living and even have some kind of social recognition. Undertakers and leatherworkers often managed to do fairly well financially since there was constant demand for their services.

Check your learning

1. Who were the Tokugawa?
2. How were the borders of Tokugawa Japan different from those of Japan today?
3. How much power did the emperor have? Explain your answer.
4. Summarise what life was like for the following four classes of people in Tokugawa Japan: *samurai*, peasants, craftsmen and merchants.
5. What was a *ronin*?

The growth of cities and towns

In 1750, about eight out of every 10 Japanese people lived in rural areas. Most farmed the land and lived in small villages. Despite this, the Tokugawa period saw the growth of many large towns and cities. Major domains each had their castle town, which was often home to more than 10 000 people.

In the 17th century, Osaka, Kyoto and Edo grew massively to hold populations of hundreds of thousands of inhabitants. Several factors contributed to this growth. Tokugawa Japan was mostly peaceful. Apart from occasional peasant rebellions, armed conflict was rare. The *shogun* demanded that *daimyo* maintain roads, which encouraged travel. *Sankin kōtai* meant that many people constantly moved around the country. As a result, villages along the main highways prospered, selling goods and shelter to travellers. One of the very few foreigners the *shogun* allowed to travel inside Japan during this period was the German physician Engelbert Kaempfer. Kaempfer observed that Japan's highways were 'as crowded as the streets of a populous European city ... [because] the Japanese travel more often than other people'.

examining**evidence**

Edo



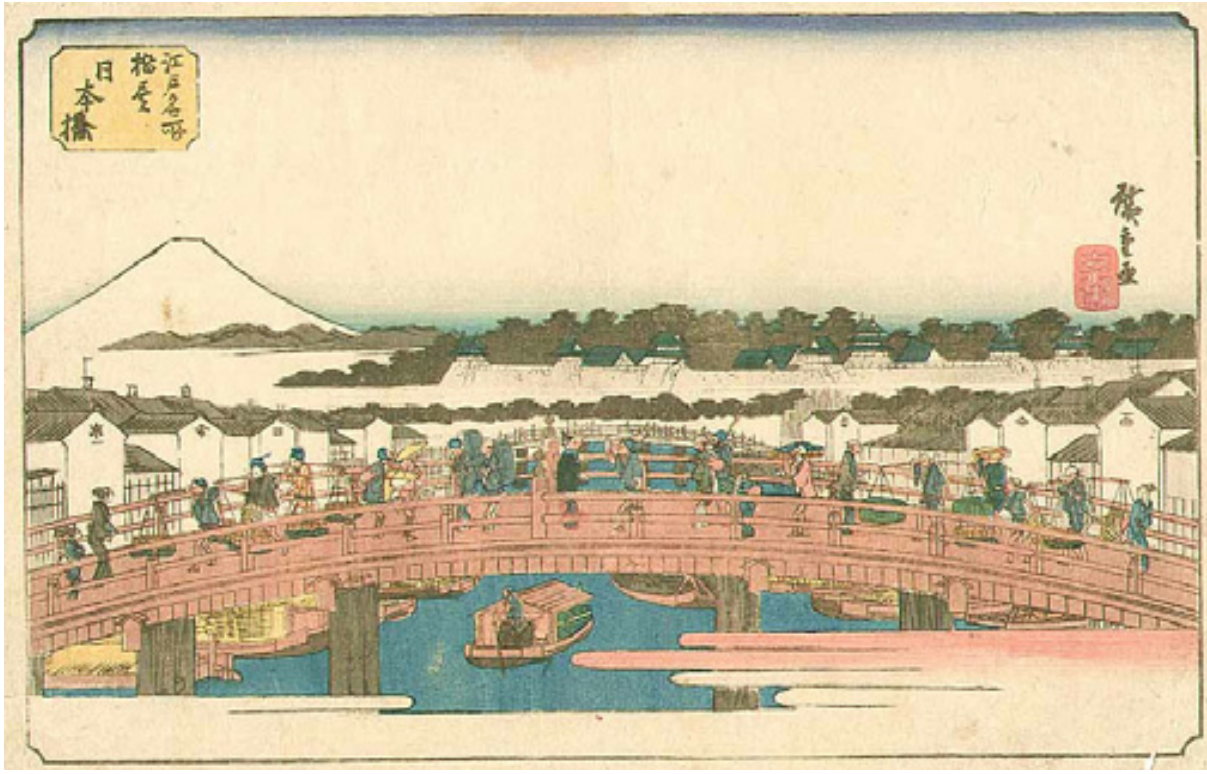
Source 13 Map of Edo in 1844–1848. East is at the bottom of the map. Note the Tokugawa seal in the centre of the map.

By 1750, Edo (modern-day Tokyo) was the world's largest city, with more than one million inhabitants. Only 150 years earlier, Edo had been a much smaller fishing town, surrounded by swamps, but the city grew quickly after the first Tokugawa *shogun* chose Edo as his capital in 1603. The *shogun* lived and governed from Edo Castle at the city's heart.

Because of *sankin kōtai*, Edo contained many mansions for the *daimyo* and their servants. The most important *daimyo* had their mansions within the outer moats of Edo Castle itself, whereas lesser *daimyo* built their homes further away. The castle was huge, with a complicated system of courtyards, bridges and guarded gates. Outer stone walls were up to 12 metres high and stretched for approximately 16 kilometres.

Beyond the castle and the residences of the lesser *daimyo*, lived the townsfolk. These included merchants, fishermen and workers. As the city grew, they built their houses over former swampland, which they filled in with rubble left over from the building of Edo Castle. Eventually, they started to reclaim land from the sea as well. Because of this, Edo was full of canals, waterways and bridges.

The most famous bridge was the Edobashi (Edo Bridge) which crossed the Nihonbashi River. Its western end was the starting point for two main highways between Edo and the imperial city of Kyoto. Markets thrived under and around the bridge, selling many different kinds of goods. Fish were among the most important. Fishermen sold any fish not wanted by the *shogun* for use in Edo Castle. The area near Edo Bridge was also a financial district, home to moneylenders and important businesses.



Source 14 Woodcut of the Edo Bridge, with a clear view of Mt Fuji, Japan's highest mountain, in the background, by Utagawa Hiroshige

With so much activity, Edo was constantly changing. Much of Edo was regularly destroyed and rebuilt due to disasters. The Great Ansei Earthquake of 1855 levelled around 50 000 buildings and killed almost 7000 people. Fires were very common. Because of its great population, people lived close together – the average living space per person was about nine square metres. They used wood and paper to build their houses, and used flame within the home for cooking and heating. Once a fire started it spread very rapidly. In 1772, the Meiwa Fire burned for 29 days, destroying thousands of buildings, including temples, *daimyo* mansions and ordinary dwellings. Thousands of people were killed. Another fire in 1806 caused similar damage. Because of the danger of fire, the *shogun* ordered harsh punishments for arsonists. Anyone behaving suspiciously during a fire could be arrested. Those caught deliberately lighting fires were burned at the stake.

One building that survived the disasters was the Senso-ji temple. Built in the 7th century, the temple is one of the oldest buildings in the city. The *shogun* adopted Senso-ji as the Tokugawa family shrine in the early years of the Edo period. Pilgrims from all over Japan visited Senso-ji. They approached the main temple through the ornate 'Thunder Gate', then passed along a road lined with stalls selling food and religious tokens.



Source 15 Tourists and locals visit Senso-ji temple in modern Tokyo. Shops line each side of the path approaching the main building.

Today, Tokyo is again the world's largest city, with approximately 30 million people living in the Greater Tokyo area. Many of the features of Tokugawa Edo are still visible. Tokyo residents continue to build on land reclaimed from the sea. Remnants of the walls of Edo Castle sit near modern buildings and parks. The emperor's palace stands over the site of the *shogun*'s old dwelling. The Edo Bridge has been renamed and replaced by a newer one, but the area around it is still the city's main business district. Importantly, too, Tokyo continues to be affected by disasters, such as the recent 2011 earthquake.

Check your learning

1. Why did Edo grow so quickly during the Tokugawa Period?
2. What did the inhabitants of Edo do to give themselves more space for building?
3. List four features of Tokugawa Edo that can still be found in modern Tokyo.
4. Apart from the features you listed in Question 3, why might a visitor to modern Tokyo find it difficult to find traces of Tokugawa Edo? Explain your answer.
5. Examine the 1844–1848 map of Edo (Source 13).
   - a. Copy or trace the main outlines of the map into your notebook.
   - b. Look carefully at the layout of the city. Using different colours, shade in the locations of the following features according to your best guesses based on the information above:
     - i. the residence of the *shogun*
     - ii. the mansions of the *daimyo*
     - iii. areas of artificial land, reclaimed from swamps or the sea.
   - c. Give reasons for your choosing the locations you have.
   - d. Use the library and/or the Internet to do some more research on the layout of Tokugawa Edo. Explain whether your guesses for Question 5b were accurate.

Life for women in Tokugawa Japan

Women in Tokugawa Japan occupied a subordinate position to men. They were normally dependent on men both financially and socially. Philosophers such as Kaibara Ekken argued that women should accept men's guidance and obey them in all circumstances. Kaibara published a book known as the *Onna Daigaku*, meaning 'Greater Learning for Women'. In it he suggested that women submit themselves to the 'three obediences' during the span of their lives. First, a woman lived with her father and obeyed his commands. Once she married, she lived with her husband and deferred to him. Then, if her husband died, she obeyed the commands of her son. Whereas men could take several concubines and other lovers in addition to their wives, women were expected to be faithful to their husbands.



Source 16 Illustration of three women from the Edo period

Life was particularly hard for peasant women. They often worked in the fields alongside their fathers and husbands, as well as carrying out domestic chores such as cooking and cleaning. When times were very harsh, poorer peasant families might sell their daughters rather than starve. Girls were often sent to brothels, where they remained until they paid off any debts owed by the family.

Educating girls

Some historians claim that, by the early 19th century, about 10 per cent of Japanese women could read and write. This compared to about 40 per cent of men. Most girls were not educated but in better-off farming families, girls were sometimes educated alongside their brothers. This was also true of merchants, whose children commonly learned counting and arithmetic. Daughters of *samurai* were the most likely to receive an education, but often it was a restricted one. Their teachers instructed them in their household duties and frequently taught them only the simpler written Japanese characters, allowing for basic literacy.

Beliefs

Three main influences on Japanese society during this period were the Shinto and Buddhist religions and Confucian philosophy.

Shinto

Shinto is Japan's native religion. According to Shinto legend, the brother and sister gods Izanami and Izanagi created Japan by dipping a spear into the sea. When they pulled it out, water dripped from the spear's tip. The first drops gathered together to create the first Japanese island. Izanami and Izanagi then gave birth to other islands and gods. One of these was Amaterasu, the sun goddess, from whom the emperor claimed direct descent. Shinto taught that many features of the natural world, such as people, animals, trees, mountains and rivers, are *kami* (spirits). To maintain one's wellbeing, it was important to conduct rituals at Shinto shrines. There were many different rituals. Some helped a person to acknowledge important *kami*. Others helped a person to cleanse themselves of impure deeds.



Source 17 Izanami and Izanagi creating the Japanese Islands, Meiji era, Japan, *c.* 1885

Buddhism

Buddhism arrived in Japan in the 7th century. Over time, many Japanese people came to follow both Shinto and Buddhist beliefs. Buddhism was based on the teachings of Gautama Buddha, who was born in India in the 6th century BCE. Gautama Buddha taught that life was suffering and that all people were trapped in a cycle of birth and rebirth, or reincarnation. To escape this cycle, one had to achieve enlightenment or freedom from desire. Buddhism remained popular under the Tokugawa. One particular type of Buddhism, called Zen, particularly appealed to *samurai* because it emphasised self-awareness and control. Other varieties met the needs of peasants and *chonin*. The Tokugawa expected every person in Japan to register with a Buddhist temple.



Source 18 A monk meditating by a Zen rock garden. The garden is designed to stimulate meditation and the white gravel represents water or space.

Confucianism

The other major influence on Japanese society at this time was Confucianism. Confucius was a philosopher and teacher who lived from 551 to 479 BCE in eastern China. He argued that people should lead virtuous lives. They should respect their elders and leaders and do their best to fulfil their given roles in society. In Tokugawa Japan, this meant that *samurai* should behave like *samurai*, peasants like peasants, craftsmen like craftsmen and merchants like merchants. The official class structure of Tokugawa Japan derived originally from Confucian teachings. The *shogun* embraced Confucian philosophy because it emphasised social stability. It also emphasised loyalty to the ruler – in this case the *shogun*.

Check your learning

1. Who were women expected to obey during their lifetimes according to philosopher Kaibara Ekken?
2. Which class of woman was most likely to receive an education during this period? What sort of education would she receive?
3. What qualities did Zen Buddhism emphasise?
4. What structure in Tokugawa Japan is thought to have derived from Confucianism?

Arts and literature

Two and a half centuries of peace during the Tokugawa period saw arts and literature of Japan flourish. These included 'high' art forms such as *noh* theatre and the tea ceremony, as well as the 'low' art forms such as *kabuki* theatre and puppet shows. Whether high or low, nearly all arts drew on stories from the distant past. The *shogun* would often censor any play or book that discussed current events.



Source 19 An 1865 woodblock print of a *kabuki* drama

focus on...

perspectives: education

One of the reasons that art and literature thrived during the Tokugawa period was that Japan was a highly educated society. The government of the *shogun* promoted literacy and supported schools across the country. Teachers varied. Some were out-of-work *samurai*, others were priests or educated *chonin*. Many teachers received food or goods instead of money for their work. In 1843 the government ordered that:

> Teachers who run schools both within the city of Edo and without should instruct children enthusiastically and treat them equally. Everyone – boys and girls, high and low – should be able to read and write appropriate to their station.

Not everyone agreed on what was appropriate, however. Some people, especially *samurai*, believed that the type of education received should be determined by a student's class and sex. The writer Fukuzawa Yukichi (1835–1901) described his early educational experiences in his autobiography. Fukuzawa's father was a *samurai*. He sent Fukuzawa to learn from a local teacher but was alarmed with the results.

Source 20

> The teacher lived in the compound of the lord's storage office, but, having some merchants' children among his pupils, he naturally began to train them in numerals. 'Two times two is four, two times three is six etc.' This today seems a very ordinary thing to teach, but when my father heard this, he took his children away in a fury. 'It is abominable,' he exclaimed, 'that innocent children should be taught to use numbers – the tool of merchants. There is no telling what the teacher may do next.'
>
> *The autobiography of Fukuzawa Yukichi* (1966), p. 3

The high arts

Respectable entertainment for noble families and *samurai* included the *ga*, or 'high arts'. Among these were *noh* theatre and the tea ceremony. By 1750, both *noh* and the tea ceremony were old practices, stretching back hundreds of years.

Noh theatre

Noh was a highly ritualised form of theatre that developed in Japan between the 14th and 16th centuries. *Noh* actors wore symbolic costumes and often carved wooden masks to communicate to the audience which characters they were meant to portray. A group of four musicians playing the flute and drums accompanied the actors, who chanted or sang their lines rather than speaking naturally. *Noh* plays often included ghosts and other supernatural beings. Frequently, the main character was a well-known historical figure, returning as a spirit to describe their strong emotions about a particular moment in their life, such as a doomed love affair or military defeat. Normally, the audience watched several *noh* plays in one sitting, with comic short performances called *kyogen* in between.



Source 21 A *noh* performance in Kyoto

The tea ceremony

The tea ceremony was another highly formal practice. During the ceremony, a host prepared tea for one or several guests. The host arranged the tearoom to promote tranquillity, laying out *tatami* (floor-mats) in a formal pattern and placing a flower arrangement and scroll of **calligraphy** (an art form of stylised handwriting) where the guests could see them. Before entering the room, the guests washed and removed their shoes. They sat in order of their social importance and exchanged compliments with the host. The host served the tea using a special service and the guests were expected to inspect the tea-bowls and scoops with careful attention. As well as tea, the host might serve *sake* (rice wine) and a meal.

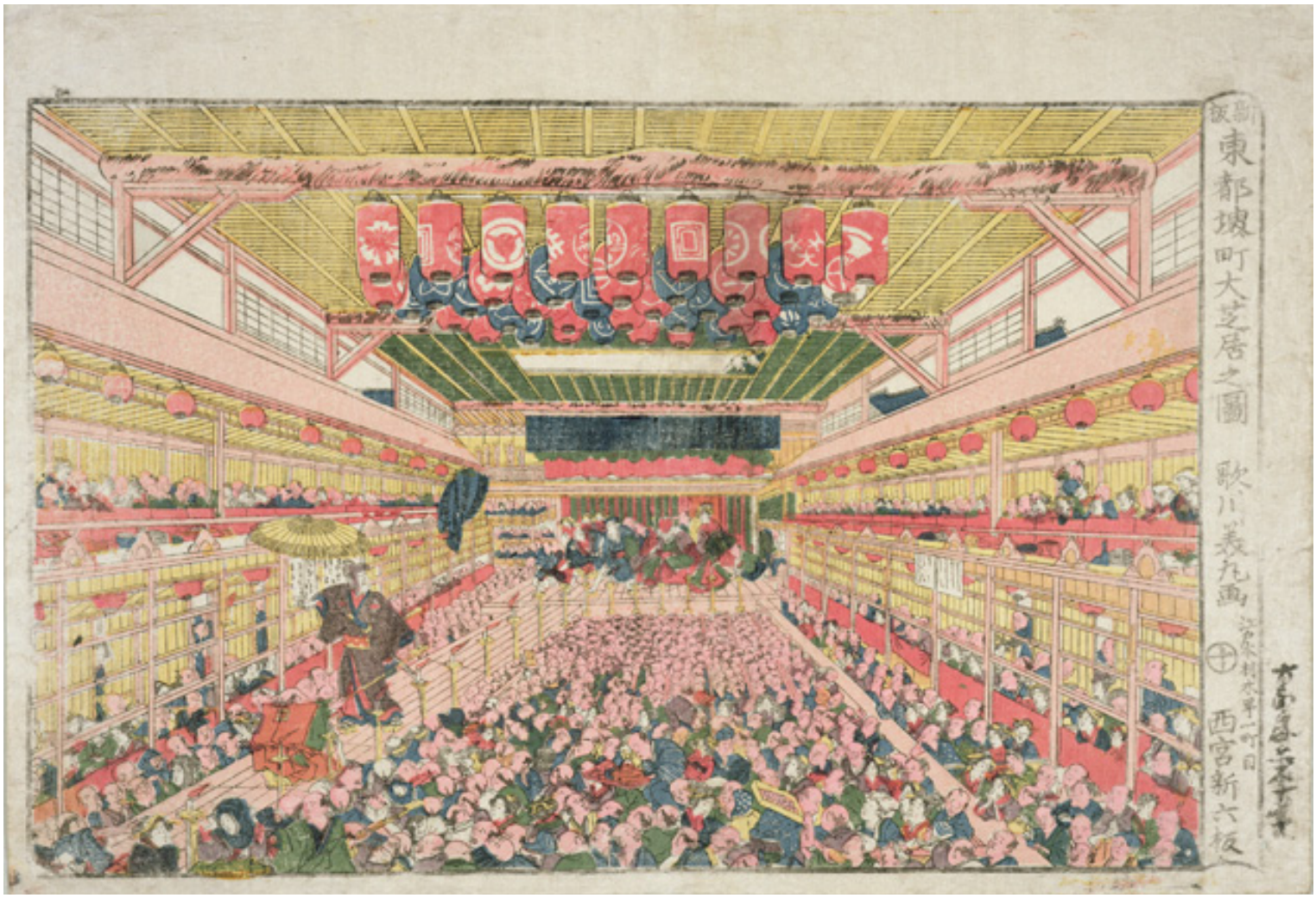
Tradition dictated every action of the tea ceremony, from the precise actions used by the host in pouring the tea to which side of the cup each guest would drink from. Conversation also followed a formal order. Guests were expected to comment on the flowers and the scroll, for example, before praising the flavour of the tea. Only once the main part of the ceremony was over did they discuss more casual matters.



Source 22 The traditional tea ceremony

The low arts

As well as the 'high' arts of *noh* and the tea ceremony, 'low' arts (more popular forms of literature and theatre) gained large audiences. This was especially true in the big cities. Each city had its own entertainment district called the *ukiyo* (meaning 'floating world'), full of theatres, public baths and drinking places. Within the *ukiyo*, a *samurai* or *chonin* could mix and 'float' above the cares of everyday life, surrounded by an environment of fleeting pleasures.

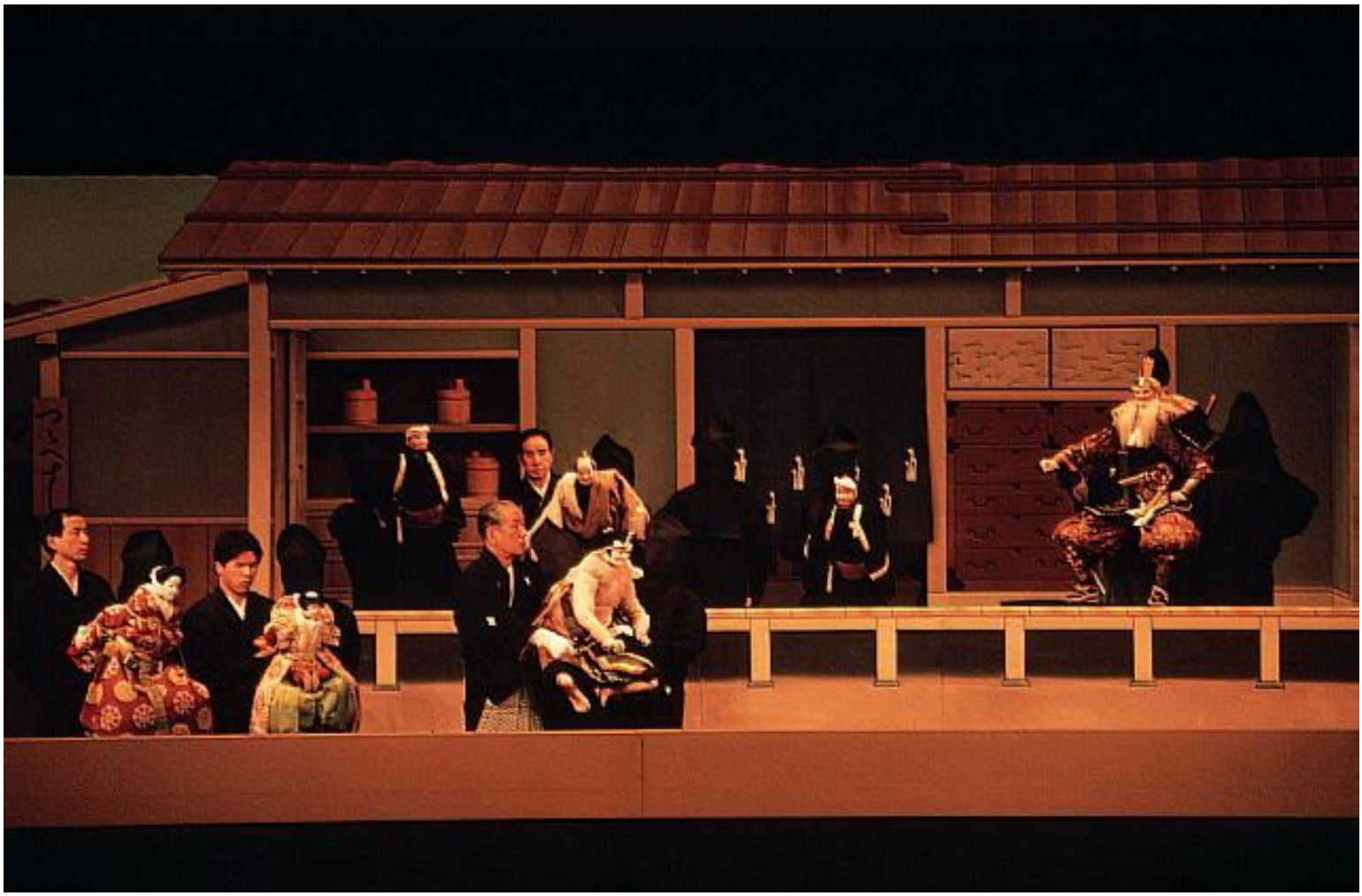


Source 23 A 19th century woodblock print of the interior of the Nakamura Theatre

Kabuki and *bunraku*

Two of the most popular entertainments of the floating world were the *kabuki* and *bunraku* theatres. *Kabuki* presented more action-filled stories than the *noh* theatre. It had complicated plots and needed more actors than *noh*. The acting style was also very different: *kabuki* actors sometimes used fitful movements similar to puppets and at important moments would freeze for a few seconds in dramatic poses called *mie*. These poses were meant to show high-points of emotion for a character. For the audience they were a highlight of the performance.

Bunraku was a kind of theatre that used puppets instead of actors. About half as tall as a real person, the puppets were intricately designed with moving lips, eyes and mouths. They had elaborate costumes and hairstyles. Puppeteers manipulated the puppets in full view of the audience, while special 'chanters' performed the voices of the puppets from the side of the stage. Musicians usually accompanied the action.



Source 24 Puppeteers move *bunraku* puppets during a performance.

A common theme for *kabuki* and *bunraku* plays was the conflict between duty and passionate emotion. One of the greatest playwrights was Chikamatsu Monzaemon (1653–1724 CE), who wrote for both forms. Chikamatsu's plays include the *Story of the 47 Ronin*. The play tells of the revenge of 47 masterless *samurai* on the lord who caused the death of their master. After plotting patiently for two years, the *ronin* successfully attack their enemy. Having achieved their revenge by cutting off his head, the *ronin* turn themselves in to the authorities. Though the penalty is death, the authorities are impressed with the loyalty of the *ronin* to their master. Rather than executing them, the authorities allow the *ronin* to commit suicide, a more honourable death. A second play, *Love Suicide at Sonezaki*, tells of a forbidden love between a clerk and a prostitute who choose to die together rather than be separated.

Onnagata and *geisha*



Source 25 *Geisha* still work in modern-day Japanese cities such as Kyoto and Tokyo.

Only men could perform in the *kabuki* plays. Women were forbidden. Because of this, professional female impersonators called *onnagata* took the female parts. *Onnagata* were very popular with audiences, often gaining many admirers.

Geisha were real women who entertained guests in the many venues of the *ukiyo* (entertainment district). *Geisha* were trained from a young age to be highly cultured in specific arts such as music, dancing and tea preparation. Wearing ornate clothing, wigs and make-up, *geisha* would sing to and converse with their guests.

Woodblock printing

Artists captured life in the entertainment districts in colourful woodblock prints known as *ukiyo-e*, meaning 'pictures of the floating world'. Woodblock printing was cheap and popular. To make a woodblock print, the artist carved the outlines of the design onto a master block and applied ink to create the overall shape of the picture. Next, the artist added colour by carving other blocks to exactly match areas of the first. It took great skill to overlay the different colours so that they fitted together perfectly. The designs could be extremely sophisticated. Common subjects for the *ukiyo-e* included famous *kabuki* actors, landscapes and scenes from society. The most famous woodblock artists of the time included Katsushika Hokusai (1760–1849) and Utagawa Hiroshige (1797–1858).



Source 26 Artists making a woodcut, *c.* 1850s

Literature

The growth of the big cities filled with educated and literate people also encouraged publishers to produce around 3000 different printed works a year. These ranged from news-sheets and pamphlets to literature and poetry. Illustrated adventure stories, romances and horror stories were all popular at this time. Two well-known writers were Ihara Saikaku and Matsuo Bashō. Saikaku wrote comic stories about love, whereas Bashō was celebrated as the greatest *haiku* poet. *Haiku* are short three-line poems with 17 syllables in total (5–7–5). *Haiku* are normally written in order to communicate a striking image from nature or idea, as well as the impact this had on the poet.

Source 27 The most famous Japanese haiku is called Old Pond by Matsuo Bashō.

古池や
蛙飛込む
水の音

This is pronounced in the following way (syllables in parentheses):

fu-ru-i-ke ya (5)
ka-wa-zu to-bi-ko-mu (7)
mi-zu no o-to (5)

This translates into English as:

The old pond
A frog leaps in …
A sound of water splashing.

Check your learning

1. Name some of the activities that commonly took place in the *ukiyo*.
2. What were the three main types of theatre during the Tokugawa period? Describe some of the main differences between them.
3. Why was significant skill involved in the production of woodblock prints?

bigideas

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

Remember

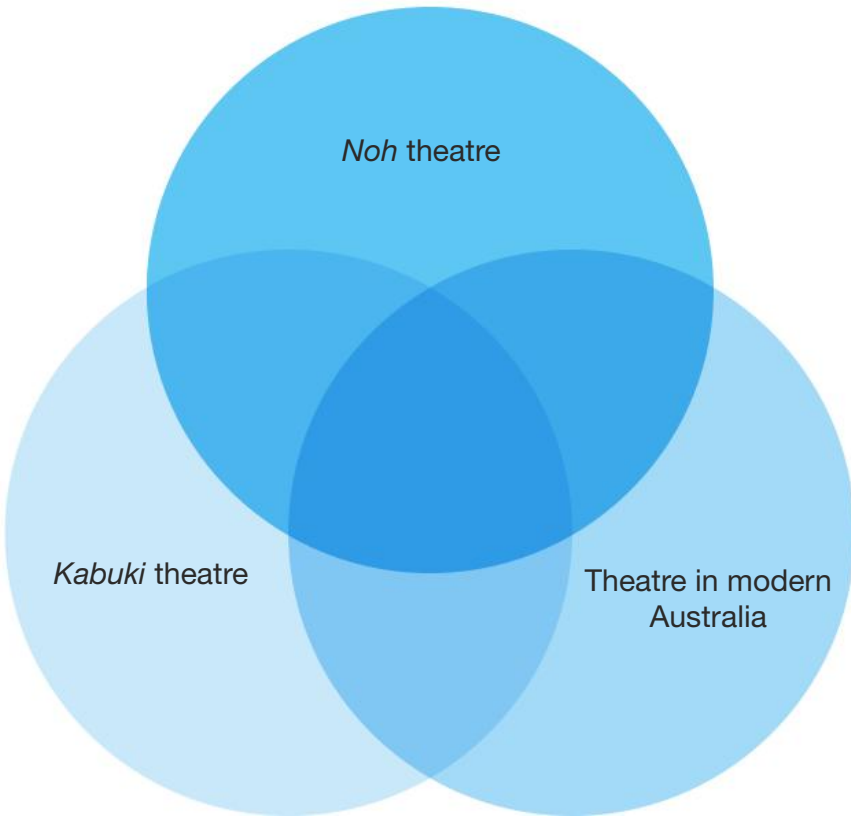
1 Who were the *shogun* and the *daimyo*?
2 What was *sankin kōtai*?
3 According to Shinto mythology, how was Japan created?
4 Where might a person in Tokugawa Japan find the 'floating world'?

Understand

5 List three ways in which the policy of *sankin kōtai* helped the *shogun* to control the *daimyo*.
6 Explain how the philosophy of Confucianism influenced the official class system.
7 Consider the 'outcasts' who fell below the four-class system:
   a Why do you think butchers, leatherworkers, executioners and undertakers were considered to be unclean?
   b Give possible reasons why criminals, prostitutes, actors and travelling musicians might have been outcasts.
8 Why do you think the *shogun* made artists and writers concentrate on stories and images from the distant past?

Apply

9 Draw a Venn diagram comparing *noh* and *kabuki* theatre with theatre you have seen in modern Australia. This might be a professional play or a play performed at your school. Use your diagram to show the similarities between these forms:



10 Prepare a PowerPoint presentation for your class about a significant artist from the Tokugawa period. You could select a writer such as Chikamatsu Monzaemon, Ihara Saikaku or Matsuo Basho, a woodblock artist such as Toshusai Sharaku, Katsushika Hokusai or Utagawa Hiroshige, or another artist of your choice in consultation with your teacher. In your presentation, include:
- details of the person's life
- examples of their work
- a description of your own response to their work
- an outline of the impact their work had on others, if any
- a discussion of whether their work is still important today in modern Japan or elsewhere in the world.

11 Compare the status of women in Tokugawa Japan to that in modern Australia.

a Copy the table below to record your thoughts in:

	Women in Tokugawa Japan	Women in modern Australia
Status		
Education		
Work		
Other		

b Discuss your findings as a class. Do you all agree?

Analyse



Source 28 Woodblock print showing a *kabuki* performance in Edo.

12 Examine the woodblock of a *kabuki* performance in Edo in Source 28.
- List four things you notice about this picture.
- How many different blocks would have been needed to make this print? (Refer to 'Woodblock printing', in the previous section, for a description of the printing process.)
- Based on what you can see, what do you think was expected audience behaviour during the performance?
- What are the main differences between this *kabuki* theatre and a modern theatre in Australia?

13 Look again at Fukuzawa's autobiographical account of his early education (Source 20).
- Is Fukuzawa's father's attitude in line with government ideas about education? Explain your reasoning.
- What does this passage tell you about the education of *samurai* during the Tokugawa Period?
- What does this passage tell you about traditional *samurai* values?

Evaluate

14 What do you think was the best class to belong to in Tokugawa Japan: *Samurai*, peasant, craftsman or merchant? Explain your answer.

15 Compare your answer to Question 14 with other students' answers in your class. Find two others with similar ideas to your own and organise a debate against another group of three who believe something different. Topics for your debate might be:

- It was best to be a *samurai* in Tokugawa Japan.
- It was best to be *anything but* a peasant in Tokugawa Japan.
- Although they were at the bottom of the class system, merchants had the best deal during the Tokugawa period.

Alternatively, choose another topic in consultation with your teacher.

16 Would you rather have gone to school in Tokugawa Japan instead of modern Australia? Explain your answer.

Create

17 Write a travel guidebook for *daimyo* preparing to go on the *sankin kōtai* journey. You may need to do some more research to help you prepare your book. In your guidebook, you could include:

- maps and travel advice
- information about Edo
- a description of what is expected of the *daimyo* at the *shogun*'s castle
- advice on how the *daimyo* might relate to his wife and children, whom he has not seen for some time.

18 Write a set of instructions for a ritual to be practiced in your community. Like the traditional Japanese tea ceremony, your ritual should be designed to promote harmony and tranquillity. It should be a formal occasion.

19 Draw and colour your own *ukiyo-e* woodblock design. Like the Japanese woodblock artists of the Tokugawa period, you might choose to show a famous person, place or social situation. Whatever you decide to show, try to imitate the style of the 'pictures of the floating world'.

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



Source 29 A cartoon showing three Japanese men, and a child, in Western clothing in the 1870s

The Tokugawa Shogunate's policy of isolation from the rest of the world lasted from 1641 to 1853. By the mid 19th century, Western powers such as Britain, Russia and the United States were pushing for Japan to open up to international trade and commerce. These countries wanted to sell their goods in Japan and moor their ships in Japanese ports. They put pressure on the Tokugawa Shogunate to change their isolationist position.

By 1868, many in Japan were unhappy with the rule of Shogun Tokugawa Yoshinobu. Unhappy samurai *rebelled against the* shogun *and removed him from power. They returned the emperor to power in an event known as the Meiji Restoration. During the next half-century, the emperor's new Meiji government set about modernising Japanese society. Adopting many Western ideas, the Meiji government overhauled major areas of Japanese society including business and industry, education and the armed forces.*

Early encounters with the West

Europeans had been visiting Japan since 1543, when the first Portuguese sailors ran aground on one of its southern islands. For several decades after this, Portuguese, Spanish, English and Dutch traders all came to Japan. But in the 1600s, the *shogun* banned Spanish and Portuguese ships from entering Japanese waters, suspecting them of plotting to undermine his rule. The English ships went elsewhere. Only the Dutch traders were allowed to stay. These Dutch traders had to live on a small man-made island called Dejima in Nagasaki harbour. The Dutch traders could not set foot on the mainland, and could only receive visiting ships a few times a year. All other Westerners were strongly discouraged from entering the country. This was the start of the government's official policy of isolation which was to last for the next 200 years.

Shipwrecked foreign sailors unlucky enough to wash up on Japan's islands were killed. Even diplomats had to be cautious – in 1640, Japanese officials put a group of Portuguese diplomats to death who had been sent by their government to request new trade arrangements. At the same time, Japanese people were forbidden to leave the country. Any Japanese person who managed to leave, and later returned, was in danger of being executed.

Throughout the Tokugawa period, a limited number of Japanese scholars learned Dutch so that they could study foreign books. Foreign knowledge was called *rangaku* (meaning 'Dutch studies'). Through *rangaku* these scholars read about some of the scientific advances made in the West in disciplines such as medicine and astronomy. They also learned about events in the outside world.

The threat of Christianity

One of the main reasons the Tokugawa shoguns wanted to exclude foreigners was the threat that Christianity would spread throughout the country. The early Portuguese and Spanish ships had brought Catholic Christian missionaries with them who had converted hundreds of thousands of Japanese. The first Tokugawa *shogun*, Ieyasu (ruled 1603–1605), feared that Christian missionaries would unite his enemies against him. He also distrusted Christianity because it asked believers to give their loyalty to the Pope – a foreigner – before their loyalty to the *shogun*. Then, in 1637, a massive uprising known as the Shimabara Rebellion took place in southern Japan. Tens of thousands of Christians protesting against tax increases and famine were killed by a *samurai* army. After this event, Christianity was made illegal.

Throughout the 18th and early 19th centuries, Christianity was virtually invisible in Japan. Dutch traders living on the island of Dejima were not allowed to have bibles or crucifixes. Authorities searched foreign books and censored references to Christianity. Despite this, small numbers of believers carried on worshipping in secret.

Fumi-e



Source 30 Japanese in Nagasaki prove their loyalty to the *shogun* and their contempt for Christianity by treading on a crucifix, 1760

Perhaps the most remarkable illustration of the Tokugawa Shogunate's determination to keep Christianity out of Japan was the annual ritual of *fumi-e*. Each year, every person in Japan had to visit his or her local Buddhist temple to complete the ritual. On arrival, each person had to show his or her contempt for Christianity by treading on a crucifix or a picture of Jesus or the Virgin Mary. Anyone who refused to walk on the Christian images could be questioned. If they refused to deny their Christian faith, they were tortured or killed. Dutch traders had to take part in the ritual like everyone else, but as they were Protestant rather than Catholic Christians, their religion did not demand that they respect such images to a great degree. Most were happy to tread on the images if it allowed them to keep trading in the country.

Growing concerns over foreign contact

From the 1790s onwards, increasing numbers of foreign ships started to visit Japan. Many were American and Russian ships seeking shelter from storms. Others were ships making clear attempts to overcome Japan's strict restrictions against foreigners. In 1808, the English ship *Phaeton* sailed into Nagasaki harbour disguised as a Dutch ship. Seen as a serious failure of the government to defend Nagasaki, the city commissioner committed suicide afterwards out of shame. In response to attempts by foreign ships to defy these restrictions, in 1825, the *shogun* commanded Japanese ships to fire on foreign vessels 'without hesitation'. Despite this, international pressure was growing for Japan to lift its restrictions on foreign trade and to allow foreign ships in its harbours.



Source 31 A 19th century woodblock print showing foreign steamships in Nagasaki harbour

The arrival of Commodore Matthew C. Perry



Source 32 US Commodore Matthew C. Perry

In 1853, 60-year-old US Commodore Matthew C. Perry arrived in Japan with four warships of the United States navy. Perry was there to deliver a letter from the US president, asking for trade to be established between the United States and Japan. It also requested the right for American ships to be able to refuel and take in food and water at Japanese ports, and for better treatment of American sailors.

Having sailed around Edo Bay, Perry demanded to be allowed to land and deliver his letter 'to the emperor' (by which he meant Japan's true ruler – the *shogun*). Realising that their ships and weapons were no match for Perry's, the government agreed. Perry landed and handed the message to a senior official.

The *shogun* and his advisors knew that their military would be powerless against the Americans if they refused. In March 1854 the Japanese reluctantly agreed to sign a treaty (known as the Treaty of Kanagawa) granting limited trading rights to the Americans. They opened up the ports of Shimoda (on the Izu peninsula to the south-west of Edo) and Hakodate (on the northernmost island Hokkaido) to American ships and allowed an American consul to live in Shimoda. More deals soon followed.

To celebrate the signing of this treaty in 1854, the Americans and the Japanese exchanged gifts and provided entertainment. The Japanese put on a display of sumo wrestling. The Americans brought with them champagne and whiskey, an electric telegraph system and a working model steam train, complete with tracks, for the Japanese officials to ride on.



Source 33 Commodore Perry's gift of a railway to the Japanese in 1853

focus on...

significance: the unequal treaties

Two years after the signing of the Treaty of Kanagawa, the US government started to demand a new agreement. The new American ambassador to Japan, Townsend Harris, urged the Japanese to grant more rights to American traders. Ambassador Harris argued that Britain had used its military power to seize control of large parts of China in the Opium Wars of 1839–1842, and was again at war with China in 1856. He also implied that by signing an agreement with the United States first, the Japanese would be able to prevent the same thing from happening to them.

Harris was successful and, in 1858, Japan and the United States signed the Treaty of Shimoda. This was the first of the so-called 'unequal treaties' between Japan and various Western powers. Over the next 10 years, Japan signed such treaties with the United States, Britain, Russia, France, Prussia and the Netherlands. The unequal treaties gained the name because almost all historians agree that they were unfair. They benefited the Western powers at the expense of weaker Japan.

Treaty ports

The unequal treaties granted Western powers (such as the United States, Britain and Russia) the right to live and trade in specific Japanese ports. These ports came to be known as 'treaty ports'. Foreigners could also practice their religion in the treaty ports. Though these ports were still Japanese, foreigners controlled many aspects of life within them.

Extraterritoriality

Extraterritoriality was an agreement that Westerners who broke Japanese laws were not tried and sentenced by Japanese courts or officials. Instead, they were arrested and then handed over to Western diplomats, who would judge them themselves. To many Japanese, this part of the treaties was doubly humiliating. First, it implied that Japanese laws did not matter; second, it showed that the foreigners did not trust Japanese legal officials to be fair.

Low tariffs

Tariffs are taxes that governments around the world place on imported goods. The idea behind tariffs is to make foreign goods more expensive, so that people within a country buy locally made items instead. The unequal treaties limited Japanese tariffs on foreign goods to about five per cent of an item's cost. But Western countries generally imposed tariffs of around 15 or 20 per cent. This uneven arrangement gave Western countries an unfair advantage in trade.

'Most-favoured nation' status

Each country who signed an unequal treaty with Japan demanded 'most-favoured nation' status. The countries that became 'most-favoured nations' received all the benefits of any new agreements that Japan signed with anyone else. Over time, this meant that Japan inevitably gave away more and more privileges, since each time one country wanted something new, the other countries claimed it as well.

Check your learning

1. Why was Christianity illegal in Tokugawa Japan?
2. What did the Japanese have to do to prove that they were not Christians?
3. What was the Japanese word for 'foreign studies'? What did it actually mean?
4. Give two reasons why the USA wanted Japan to open its harbours to foreign ships.
5. Describe the main features of the unequal treaties.

The Meiji Restoration



Source 34 The 'Cloud Scraper', built in 1890, was Tokyo's tallest building. It contained Japan's first lift, plus shops selling foreign goods.

By the 1860s, Tokugawa Japan was in crisis. The *shogun* appeared helpless to stop the increasing power of foreigners within Japan. Critics blamed the *shogun* for signing the unequal treaties and demanded that he expel the Westerners from the country. In 1863, the emperor decreed that 'the subjugation of the hated foreigner is the greatest of national tasks facing us'. Several domains, including the powerful south-western territories of Satsuma and Choshu, called for the *shogun* to resign.

Satsuma and Choshu were *tozama*, or outsider domains. That is, they were traditional enemies of the Tokugawa family. Both domains called for a return to 'true' Japanese values. They started to agitate for the removal of the *shogun* and restoration of the emperor's power. Choshu embarrassed the *shogun* by firing on foreign ships from its forts, in breach of the treaties. Meanwhile, the Choshu and Satsuma *daimyo* were arming their soldiers with modern weapons secretly bought from the foreigners.

In 1867, Emperor Komei died. His son, Mutsuhito, was proclaimed as the Meiji Emperor the same year at 17 years of age. Meiji means 'enlightened rule'. In January 1868, the Satsuma and Choshu *daimyo* together rebelled against the *shogun*. Although the *shogun's* soldiers greatly outnumbered them, the Satsuma and Choshu forces had better weapons and equipment and were able to win. They captured Edo and renamed it Tokyo, meaning 'Eastern capital'. The last Tokugawa *shogun* resigned. This signalled the start of the Meiji period.



Source 35 Emperor Mutsuhito returning to his palace in Tokyo after the Meiji Restoration

New ideas

The emperor did not rule alone. His chief advisers and officials were all men from Satsuma and Choshu. They did not want Japan to end up carved up like India or China – both of which had proved too weak to protect themselves against European aggression. Britain, France, Germany and Russia had forcibly taken over much of India's and China's territory and government. The Meiji emperor and his advisers feared that unless they built up Japan's strength quickly, their own country might follow.

The Meiji government realised that they needed to create a modern army and navy, and upgrade local industry with the latest technology.

focus on...

evidence: the Charter Oath

The Meiji reformers saw that to win the respect of the Western powers they needed to change many aspects of Japanese society. After taking power in 1868, the Meiji emperor signed a 'Charter Oath', outlining five principles for the new society. The Charter Oath promised that the new era would allow ordinary people more personal freedom as well as a greater say in government.

Source 36 The five articles of the Charter Oath

ARTICLE 1. Deliberative assemblies shall be widely established and all matters decided by public discussion.

ARTICLE 2. All classes, high and low, shall unite in vigorously carrying out the administration of affairs of state.

ARTICLE 3. The common people, no less than the civil and military officials, shall each be allowed to pursue his own calling so that there may be no discontent.

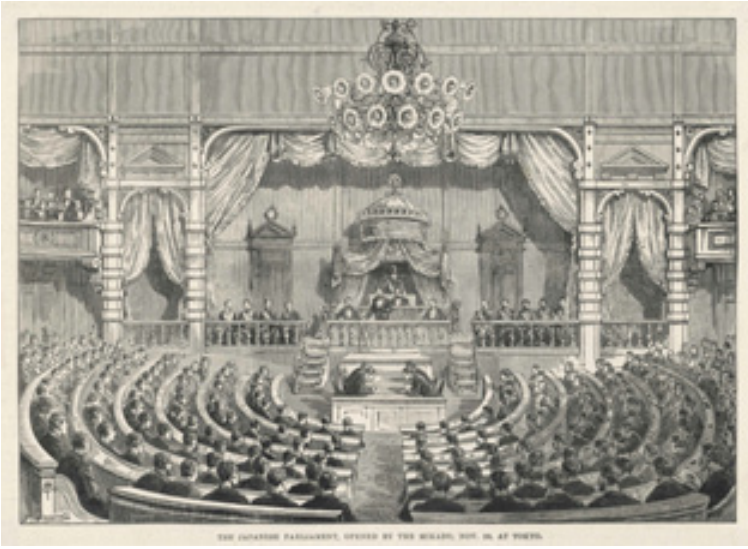
ARTICLE 4. Evil customs of the past shall be broken off and everything based upon the just laws of nature.

ARTICLE 5. Knowledge shall be sought throughout the world so as to strengthen the foundations of imperial rule.

A new type of government

After the introduction of the Charter Oath, the traditional class system was abandoned and all men theoretically became eligible to rise to government positions, as long as they possessed the necessary talent. Government no longer belonged to the *daimyo* and *samurai* classes. One of the greatest changes was the abolition of the domain system. Traditional domains governed by *daimyo* were reorganised into prefectures with their own new borders. In many cases, former *daimyo* continued to wield power as governors of the new prefectures, but the positions were no longer hereditary, and some *daimyo* were removed from power completely.

Eventually, the Meiji government adopted a constitution setting out the rights of Japanese citizens, and the responsibilities of government. The constitution was based on the German model. It reserved great powers for the emperor and his advisors but nevertheless introduced a limited form of democracy.



Source 37 The Japanese parliament is opened by the emperor in Tokyo, 29 November 1891

The Iwakura Mission



Source 38 Members of the Iwakura Mission in 1872. Iwakura Tomomi is sitting in the middle, in traditional Japanese dress.

In 1871, the Meiji government sent a group of ambassadors and scholars abroad on a two-year journey. Named the Iwakura Mission after its leader Iwakura Tomomi, the group travelled to the United States, Britain and other European countries, Egypt, Ceylon (modern-day Sri Lanka) and China. The aim of the mission was to observe Western methods of education, industry and government. They also hoped to argue for an end to the unequal treaties.

Though the Iwakura Mission failed to convince the Western powers to revise the unequal treaties, it did successfully bring back vital information about Western habits, values, industries and systems of government. On their return to Japan in 1873, members of the mission recommended many reforms. They advised the Meiji government that Japan should borrow ideas from different European countries based on their strengths. As a result, Japan based its new legal system on the French model, organised its navy according to the British model, and based its school system on the Prussian approach.

Adopting Western ways

Over the next 40 years, Western customs and values spread across Japanese society. Christianity was decriminalised in 1871 and the imperial court adopted Western dress for formal occasions in 1869. Over the next two years, Western-style dress was introduced for government officials, and railway and post office workers were given Western-style uniforms. Japanese men and women were encouraged to wear Western clothing, including morning suits and dresses with bustles (as shown in Source 39). Adopting Western dress was a way of showing that Japan had become progressive and modern.

These Western ways were not always well received by the Japanese population. In 1877, government officials attended a Western-style fancy-dress ball. The event caused widespread outrage – most Japanese felt that their leaders were not showing the dignity required of their positions.



Source 39 Empress Shoken promoting Western dress, 1887

Education and industry

The Meiji government invested significant sums of money to transform Japan's education systems. It paid Western experts to come to Japan to teach medical science and establish universities. One year after the Meiji Restoration, the government opened Tokyo University.

The Meiji government also set up a new Ministry of Education to manage the new education system. The Ministry of Education was to ensure that all new schools and universities taught Western science alongside more traditional Japanese subjects.



Source 40 Modern Japanese school uniforms are still based on 19th-century Prussian fashions.

The government also used Western experts to help set up a number of industries in Japan. The government was careful, however, not to repeat the mistakes made by other Asian countries such as China, which they thought had become too reliant on foreign expertise. Instead, they ensured that foreign advisors stayed for a short period of time (usually only a few years) and that they taught their skills to Japanese before they left.

The government also made the important decision to pay for the establishment of new industries such as railways, mines and shipyards themselves, rather than allow foreigners to build them. Although it would have been far less expensive in the short term to allow foreign investment, the government wanted to ensure that the new industries were in Japanese hands. For this reason, they also eventually sold these companies off cheaply to Japanese businessmen, keeping vital infrastructure under Japanese control.

The new Japanese army

The reform that arguably caused the greatest conflict among the Japanese was the creation of the new Japanese army. During the Tokugawa period, each *daimyo* had maintained his own army of loyal *samurai* but the Meiji government was determined to create a single modern conscript army. This new army was to be organised and trained along Western lines. To achieve this, three of the largest prefectures – Satsuma, Choshu and Tosa – first combined their forces to create a new Imperial Guard.

Having set this example, the Meiji government expanded the force, equipping it with modern guns and training methods. In 1873, the government introduced nationwide military conscription (mandatory military service) for all men on turning 21. They were expected to serve four years in the armed forces.

The Satsuma Rebellion



Source 41 The modernisation of the army and the resulting Satsuma revolt inspired the movie *The Last Samurai*.

Not all Japanese were happy with the creation of a modern military armed with firearms that deprived the former *samurai* of their traditional lifestyle. Military conscription turned every man into a soldier, undermining the status of the *samurai* as the warrior class. While many *samurai* joined the new military forces as officers, others clung to their traditions. *Samurai* from the former Satsuma domain felt especially cheated. After all, they had been behind the restoration of the emperor. They had wanted to rid Japan of foreigners, but had not wanted to see the end of their way of life or the destruction of their livelihoods.

In 1876, the Meiji government prohibited *samurai* from wearing the pair of long and short swords. This was a final affront. The *samurai* code emphasised that a *samurai*'s swords were a symbol of his honour and class – giving them up meant accepting a final loss of prestige in the new Japan.

In 1877, the Satsuma *samurai* rose up in revolt. A *samurai* named Saigo Takamori led 15 000 men against the new Imperial Japanese Army, which numbered well over 30 000 troops. Both sides used rifles but, unlike the Satsuma *samurai*, the Imperial Japanese Army could replace lost men with new conscripts. Even so, the vastly outnumbered *samurai* forces fought so fiercely that the war lasted for eight months. Eventually, Imperial troops surrounded the Satsuma rebels and defeated them. Only about 40 rebels survived. Saigo was wounded in the final battle, but committed suicide before being captured. Overall, the Satsuma Rebellion claimed 30 000 lives. It was the first major test of the new Japanese army.



Source 42 The defeated *samurai* rebels of Satsuma surrender to the soldiers of the modern Japanese army, 1877

Check your learning

1. What was 'restored' during the Meiji Restoration?
2. What was the Iwakura Mission and what did it hope to achieve?
3. Why were the emperor and empress promoting Western dress?
4. Why did the Satsuma *samurai* rebel in 1877?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 Who was Matthew C. Perry, and what did he do to change the history of Japan?
2 The *samurai* were effectively abolished as a class in the 1870s. What happened to them?
3 List three social changes that took place during the Meiji era.
4 How did the Meiji government build up Japan's industries using Western experts, without allowing the industries to fall under foreign control?

Understand

5 What threat did Christianity present to the rulers of Tokugawa period Japan?
6 Why were the Dutch permitted to continue trading with the Japanese during the Tokugawa period? What restrictions were imposed on them?
7 Some historians have suggested that the gifts given by Matthew C. Perry to the Japanese at the signing of the Treaty of Kanagawa in 1854 were meant to make a point to the Japanese officials. What point do you think he might have been making with these gifts?

Apply

8 Look again at the image of a modern Japanese school uniform in Source 40. Japanese school uniforms are echoes of the uniforms found in 19th-century Prussia. With your class, brainstorm elements in Australian everyday life that have been adopted from other countries or eras.

Analyse



Source 43 An 1853 Japanese watercolour of US Commodore Matthew C. Perry

9 Examine the Japanese watercolour of US Commodore Matthew C. Perry (Source 43).
   a What attitude towards Commodore Perry does the artist convey? Explain which features of the picture give you that impression.
   b What does this picture reveal about Japanese attitudes to foreigners at this time?
10 Look at the 1872 photograph of the Iwakura Mission (Source 38).
   a What do you notice about this photo?

b What do you think is the significance of the clothing worn by the members of the mission? Explain your answer.

11 Re-read the five articles of the Charter Oath signed by the Meiji Emperor in 1868. Then copy and complete the table below, describing what you think the Charter Oath implies about the class system, democracy and education:

	Which article?	What does it say?
The class system		
Democracy		
Education		

Evaluate

12 In your opinion, which was the worst feature of the unequal treaties for Japan? Why?

13 Many people today regard Saigo Takamori as a hero. Others disagree. With a partner, use the Internet or the library to find out more about Saigo and the Satsuma Rebellion. Prepare a presentation for the class in which you each present one side of the argument. Make sure that you include at least two historical sources (such as an image or quotation) in your presentation.

Create

14 Write your own 'unequal treaty' for use with a parent, guardian or teacher. What will you include in the treaty to make sure that you get the best deal?

15 Imagine you are a Dutch trader on Dejima. Write a letter home to your family describing your hopes and fears, events on the island, and your impressions of the Japanese.

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



Source 44 The 'Rising Sun' military flag of the Imperial Japanese Army.

By the start of the 20th century, Japan was a powerful, modern nation. Despite the challenges faced in the second-half of the 19th century, the Meiji government had succeeded in transforming the country. They had shifted Japan from a feudal society to an industrial power with a modern military in only four decades. During the first years of the 20th century, Japan fought successfully to achieve equality with the Western powers. Its politicians pressured Europe and the United States to revise the unequal treaties. Japan also proved its military might, winning significant wars against China and Russia, and expanding the size of its empire.

A major world power

The victory of the Imperial Japanese Army over the Satsuma rebels proved that the new unified military could function effectively. During the 1880s and 1890s, Japan continued to strengthen its army and navy. It equipped its officers with Western-style uniforms, up-to-date weapons, steamships and iron-hulled vessels.

The Meiji government also pressed ahead with industrialisation, building weapons and textile factories, and large-scale mines for coal and metals. Tokyo and other Japanese cities grew rapidly, connected by modern railways and new roads.

As a result, by the start of the 20th century, the United States and European nations acknowledged Japan as a major world power. The Japanese wanted these countries to recognise them as equals. To achieve this, they thought it was important to do two things. First, they had to convince the Western powers to end the unequal treaties that treated Japan as inferior. Second, the Japanese had to prove their new-found military power by capturing new territories.

Nationalism and imperialism

Two important ideas helped to shape Japanese thinking around the turn of the 20th century. The first was **nationalism**, the idea that all the people in a country belonged to the same nation and shared a national identity.

In 1750, Japan was made up of a group of separate domains, each with its own laws, taxes and armed forces. Although, in theory, the *shogun* ruled over all domains, in reality, most people had little sense of connection to other parts of the country. *Daimyo* even sometimes called their domains 'countries' when talking about them.

By 1900, the situation was very different. Ordinary people shared a single government and they could contribute to government through elected representatives. This helped build national pride.

The new education system also emphasised Japanese unity. Teachers encouraged students to feel loyalty to the nation and to work for its betterment. Japanese people around the country took an interest in Japan's relationships with the rest of the world. They celebrated Japan's military successes and looked forward to the end of the humiliating unequal treaties.

The second idea was in the importance of **imperialism**, expanding Japan's influence, wealth and territory by taking over control of other countries. The Japanese saw that the powerful countries of the West had increased their power by exploiting weaker countries. Britain, France, the United States, Germany and Russia had all used their military might to seize territory from other nations. Alternatively, they forced weaker countries to sign unfair agreements – as they had already done to Japan. The nearest example of Western imperialism was in China, where the European powers had taken over dozens of treaty ports and significant areas of the countryside. The Japanese realised that if they were to be taken seriously by the West, they needed to become imperialists as well. From the 1870s onwards, Japan started to expand into nearby countries. Ultimately, this led to conflict with other Asian nations and eventually with Russia.



Source 45 Emperor Mutsuhito holding a council of war at the start of the Sino-Japanese War

Revision of the unequal treaties

From 1871 to 1893, the Meiji government appealed to the Western powers to end the unequal treaties. In 1894, the British were the first nation to do so. Other countries followed in 1897. The Western powers promised completely equal relations by 1911 – a sign that they recognised Japan as a 'civilised', modern nation, perhaps even a 'great power'.

This was a notable victory for the Japanese, who had felt humiliated by the unfair agreements. The treaties had been evidence that the Western powers regarded Japan as inferior. Despite this advance, the Americans and the Europeans continued to distrust the 'non-European' Japanese. Although they agreed to end the unequal treaties, they continued to restrict Japanese immigration and trade.

The Sino-Japanese War of 1894–1895

Background

At the same time as Japan negotiated an end to the unequal treaties with the West, it also sought to increase its influence in Asia. Japan's expansion in the 19th century was rapid and seemingly unstoppable. In 1874, Japan fought China for control of the Ryukyu Islands, a supposedly independent kingdom to Japan's south that had traditionally paid tribute to both China and Japan. Japan won and demanded compensation from the Chinese. In 1879, Japan formally claimed the Ryukyu Islands as part of its territory, turning them into the Okinawa Prefecture.

Trouble in Korea

China and Japan clashed again, this time over Korea. Traditionally, Korea paid tribute only to China even though Korea was geographically very close to Japan as well as China. After the Ryukyu conflict, Japan demanded that China not send troops to Korea without warning.

In 1893, the Korean government asked the Chinese to send troops to help it suppress a local rebellion. Japan immediately demanded that it also be able to send the same number of soldiers. At first, China refused, but in the end, both countries sent occupying forces, and argued about when and where their troops could be stationed. In 1894, this quarrel erupted into what became known as the Sino-Japanese War.

The war and its outcomes

At the start of the war, most foreign observers expected China to win. Although China had lost the Ryukyu Islands, it was still a much larger country and had many more soldiers and ships than Japan. Japan still managed to defeat China decisively. Japan's troops were better organised and trained, and its equipment better maintained. Although Japan had the smaller force, it won nearly every battle. The Japanese destroyed much of the Chinese fleet and captured the Korean city of Pyongyang. They then crossed into China, taking control of the strategically important Liaodong Peninsula and parts of the northern province of Manchuria. Japanese forces also sailed south. They captured the Chinese-held Pescadores Islands near Taiwan.



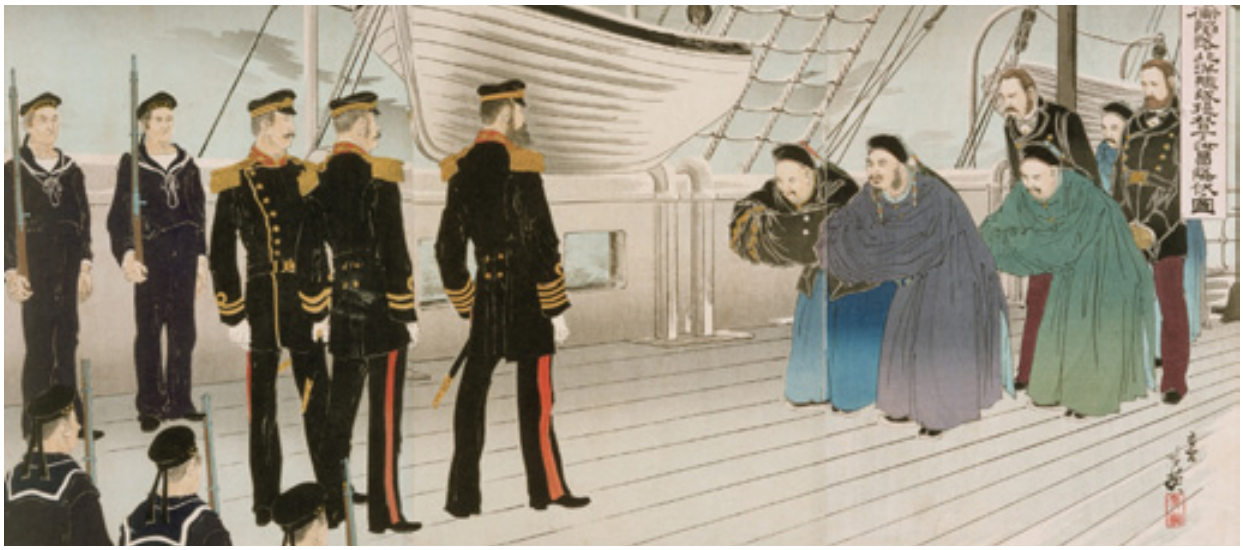
Source 46 Japanese soldiers landing in China during the Sino-Japanese War, 1894–1895

The Treaty of Shimonoseki

In 1895, the Chinese accepted defeat. On April 17, Chinese diplomats signed the Treaty of Shimonoseki with Japan. In it, China handed over Taiwan and the Pescadores Islands and also 'leased' the Liaodong Peninsula to Japan. This last territory was especially significant because the Liaodong Peninsula guarded the sea route to Beijing, the Chinese capital.

The Treaty of Shimonoseki contained three other important features. First, Korea became formally independent of China, allowing Japan to exert greater influence there. Second, China agreed to pay Japan a vast sum of money in silver *taels* to cover Japan's war costs. Third, China agreed to open several treaty ports to Japanese traders and granted Japan most-favoured nation status.

For these reasons, most historians claim that the Treaty of Shimonoseki was an 'unequal treaty' – similar to the treaties Japan had been fighting to revise.



Source 47 This print from 1895 shows the surrender of the Chinese admiral Ding Ruchang and his foreign advisers to the Japanese navy.

The Triple Intervention

Japan's easy victory alarmed Russia who was also trying to expand its empire in eastern regions of Asia and northern China. Only a few days after the Treaty of Shimonoseki, Russia persuaded her allies Germany and France to order Japan to return Liaodong to China. Realising that Japan's forces were not yet ready to fight these three Western powers all at once, the Japanese reluctantly accepted. In return, they demanded even more money from China in compensation.

Russia then bought a 25-year lease on Liaodong and built a valuable railway that connected the peninsula to the Trans-Siberian railway and Europe. The Japanese were outraged by Russia's actions. Over the next 10 years, the hostility with Russia continued to simmer, turning into war in 1904.

Alliance with Britain

In 1902, Japan signed the Anglo-Japanese alliance with Britain, in which each promised military support if 'more than one country' attacked the other. The alliance was to stay in force for 20 years.

The advantage of the treaty for the Japanese was that when Russia and Japan finally went to war, Russia's allies France and Germany would be unable to join in. If they did, they would find themselves fighting the British. The British, on the other hand, saw that an alliance with the Japanese would help them to fend off challenges to their power in Asia by the other European powers. Britain had more influence and territory in China than France, Germany or Russia and wanted to keep it that way. If British troops ever had to fight the Chinese, the other European nations would be powerless to aid China unless they were willing to fight Japan as well.

In fact, Japan had already intervened in China in 1900, sending 20 000 soldiers and 18 warships to the aid of foreigners under siege during the Boxer Rebellion in Beijing. The Boxer rebels wanted to rid China of foreign interference. They killed foreigners and attacked their diplomatic legations. The Japanese troops made up almost half of the international relief force that eventually suppressed the uprising. They outnumbered the troops sent by Russia, Great Britain, France, the United States, Germany, Austria and Italy all put together. Once again, Japan showed that it was a serious military force, determined to protect its interests in China.

Check your learning

1 What did Japan do to create Okinawa Prefecture?
2 Give two reasons why the Liaodong Peninsula was so important.
3 How did the Anglo-Japanese Alliance benefit both Britain and Japan?

significant**event**

the Russo-Japanese War



Source 48 The Russian battleship *Peresviet* wrecked by Japanese shells in Port Arthur, China, 1905.

In the first years of the 20th century, the Russian presence in Asia grew stronger. Russia built a railway to Liaodong and mines near the Korean border. Suspiciously, Russian troops stayed in northern China, even after the Boxer Rebellion. They established a powerful naval base at Port Arthur on the Liaodong Peninsula. The Russian tsar even appointed a **Viceroy** (a position exercising authority over a colony on behalf of their ruler) of the Far East as if the region already belonged to Russia. The Japanese government was concerned. Russia had forced them to give up Liaodong after the Sino-Japanese War of 1894–1895. To the north, Russian lands were expanding dangerously close to the Japanese island of Hokkaido. Japan needed to protect its interests in the region.

In 1904, Japanese Admiral Togo made a surprise attack on Port Arthur, badly damaging the Russian fleet and trapping the survivors in for a long siege. The official Japanese declaration of war reached Russia only three hours later. Russia sent its army by land on the Trans-Siberian Railway. The Russian Baltic Fleet was dispatched to rescue the Pacific Fleet trapped at Port Arthur.

The Trans-Siberian Railway was not equipped to move massive numbers of troops, horses and weapons, and the response was slow. When the Russian soldiers reached Manchuria, they became bogged down in weeks of combat against Japanese soldiers with newer equipment.

The Russians believed the Japanese would be easily defeated, but could not call on foreign help because of the terms of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. An Australian journalist, William Donald, discovered the Baltic Fleet secretly restocking in French Indochina (modern-day Vietnam and Cambodia). His news story in the *Daily Telegraph* forced the French to order the Russians back to sea or risk war with Britain.



Source 49 The Russian Bear in a tug-of-war with Japanese troops while the world watches. From the lid of a box of Christmas crackers, 1907

World War Zero

The Russo-Japanese War is sometimes called World War Zero, because it featured many elements of World War I in miniature. The forces that clashed in Manchuria along the railway routes used barbed wire, trenches and machine guns. The war was regarded as a testing ground for new ship designs and other military technology, and was watched carefully by foreign observers.



Source 50 This 1904 cartoon 'White and Yellow' reflects the idea of the time that Japan was a plucky underdog and that Russia was a mighty giant.

Outcome of the war

In 1905, Admiral Togo sank the Baltic Fleet at the Battle of Tsushima. With Port Arthur doomed, the Russians surrendered. The United States arranged the Treaty of Portsmouth, in which Japan took over Russia's lease on Liaodong, Russia's railway in Manchuria and the lower half of Sakhalin Island, north of Hokkaido. However, the treaty was not welcomed in either country. A Russian revolt seriously weakened the authority of the tsar; while there were protests in Japan from a public who thought their victory merited more territory.

Japan's victory surprised and shocked the West. The plucky underdog had defeated the much larger Russia, leading some to call the Japanese the 'British of Asia'. Others began to see Japan as a dangerous threat to international peace. In the United States, newspapers warned of the 'yellow peril' presented by a powerful Asian nation. In 1907, the USA moved to restrict the immigration of Japanese workers.

Check your learning

1. Why could no other countries come to the aid of Russia in the Russo-Japanese War?
2. When William Donald found Russian ships refuelling in French Indochina, why was his discovery so explosive?
3. Why is the Russo-Japanese War sometimes called World War Zero?
4. What was surprising about Admiral Togo's attack on Port Arthur?
5. How was the Treaty of Portsmouth received in Russia and Japan?

Admiral Togo (1848–1934)



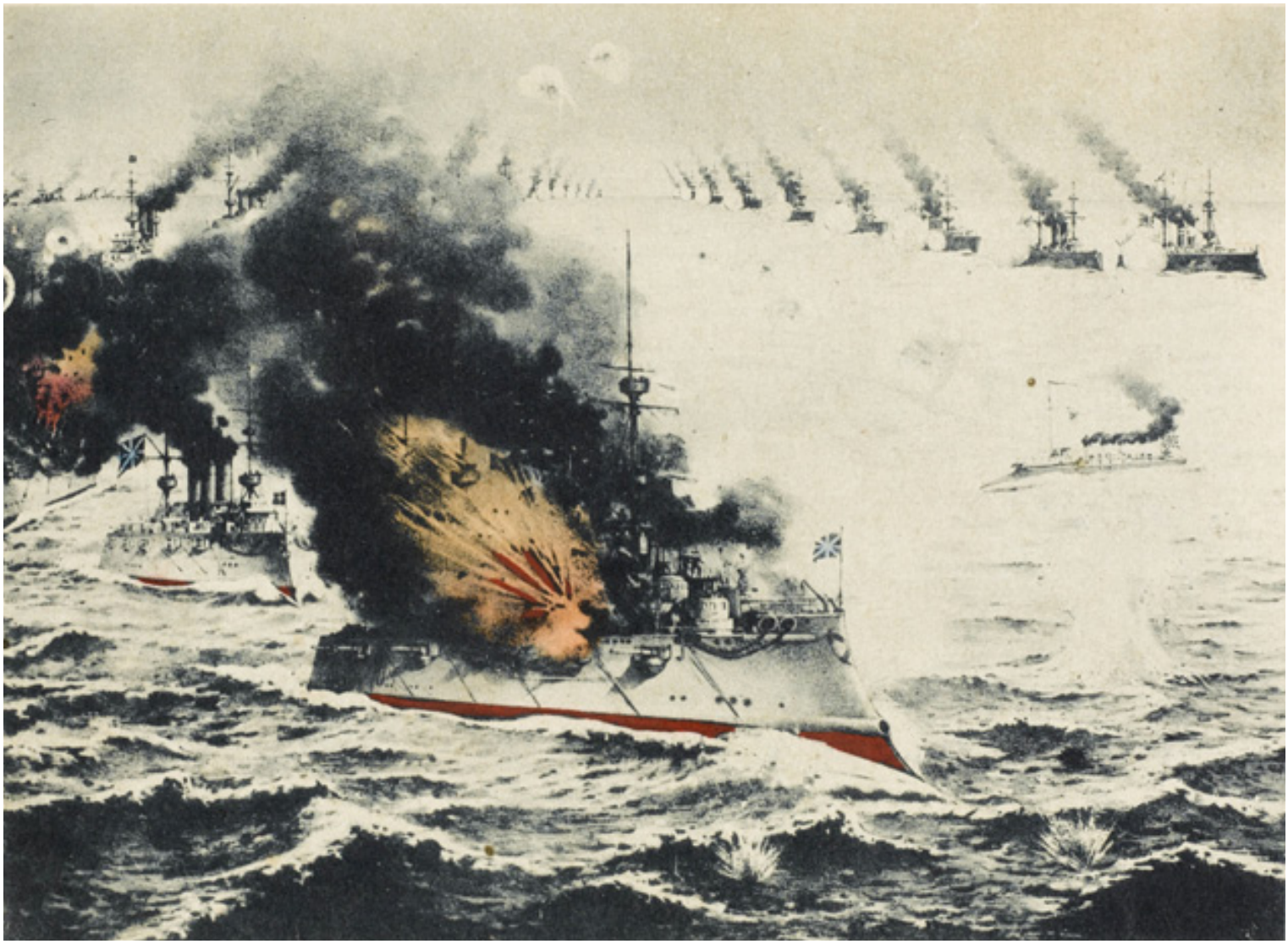
Source 51 Admiral Togo Heihachiro in dress uniform

Togo Heihachiro lived right through Japan's age of modernisation and expansion. Born into a *samurai* family in Satsuma, in southern Japan, he first saw action when British ships bombarded the Satsuma city of Kagoshima in 1863. Aged 15, he worked alongside his brothers, firing cannons at British warships from the coastline.

As a Satsuma man, he fought in support of the emperor during the Meiji Restoration. Like many other former *samurai*, he joined the Japanese navy. He was sent to England to study for seven years. Refused entry to a military school, he enrolled at a merchant shipping college on the River Thames. For his final examination in 1875, he and his British shipmates had to sail from London to Melbourne. After 10 weeks at sea, they were rewarded with two months in Australia before they sailed back to England.

Returning to Japan, he achieved worldwide notoriety as *Captain* Togo in 1894, when he caught a ship carrying Chinese soldiers and arms to Korea to fight in the Sino-Japanese War. The ship, the *Kowshing*, had a Chinese crew but a British captain – a fellow graduate of Togo's school. When the Chinese refused to allow the captain to surrender, Togo sank the ship. He was accused in the London press of attacking a British vessel, but was eventually cleared of any wrongdoing. As *Admiral* Togo, he masterminded the surprise attack on Port Arthur in 1904, and sank the Russian Baltic Fleet at the Battle of Tsushima in 1905.

He had begun his military career as a teenage boy in *samurai* armour, and ended it, on his retirement, as the commander of a fleet of ironclad battleships, using torpedoes, wireless telegraphy and the earliest aircraft carriers.



Source 52 Naval battle during Russo-Japanese War

Togo became a worldwide celebrity after defeating the Russians. His name was used as a brand on coffee, shoes and even biscuits. A village in Saskatchewan, Canada changed its name to Togo, and he was the first Japanese subject to appear on the cover of *Time* magazine. As *Marshal-General* Togo, he was put in charge of overseeing the education of the Japanese Crown Prince Hirohito, the future emperor. He retired when Hirohito's education ended. Shortly before Togo died in 1934, he was ennobled as *Marquis* Togo.

Check your learning

1. How old was Togo when he first went into battle?
2. What did Togo and his fellow students have to do for their final examination in 1875?
3. Why do you think Captain Togo's sinking of the *Kowshing* in 1894 was so controversial?
4. What was Togo's last job, and how do you think it might have influenced later events in the 20th century?

Japan in World War I

The 1914–1918 war



Source 53 A Japanese siege gun in action against the German fortress of Tsingtao on the China coast, 1914

Japan fought in World War I on the side of the Allies (primarily alongside the armies of Britain, France and Russia), seizing German colonies in the Pacific and escorting convoys through far-eastern waters. Japanese marines helped the British suppress a mutiny by Indian troops in Singapore in 1915 and ,throughout the war, Japanese industry sold arms and other equipment to the Allies. A few Japanese ships performed escort duties in the Mediterranean, sailing on 348 missions and rescuing over 7000 Allied personnel from damaged or sinking ships.

Many among the Allies felt that Japan was not doing its fair share. Instead, they believed that Japan was pursuing a private agenda. Japan was happy to seize German possessions but ignored, for example, German raiders like the *Wolf*, preying on Allied ships in the Pacific. Japan also presented China with the '21 Demands', insisting that China offer mining rights, advisory posts and railway leases to Japan.

Source 54 The Australian George Morrison, a former journalist turned adviser to the Chinese government, summed up contemporary suspicions in his diary:

> *Japan: while the Australian fleet was busy, nipped in and seized the Marshall Islands, enormously rich with phosphate. What policing was it which permitted the preying of the German raider Wolf on British shipping for 15 months…? Did the Japanese in the common cause do anything to facilitate the movement of Australian foodstuffs to the Allies? The Marshall Islands surrendered to the British, not to the Japanese. It was the action of the Australian fleet in seizing Guam, etc. which enabled the capture of the island… Japan slipping in behind our backs.*
>
> Cyril Pearl, *Morrison of Peking*, Penguin Books Australia, 1970

The Paris Peace Conference

At the Paris Peace Conference of 1919, the international community set up a League of Nations devoted to maintaining world peace. Japan proposed a racial equality clause in which all members would be treated equally, 'regardless of race or nationality'. The idea was vetoed by several of the other nations, largely because of the threat it presented to their immigration policies and restrictions back home.

Billy Hughes, the Australian delegate at the conference, threatened to walk out if it were even discussed, noting that '95 out of 100 Australians rejected the very idea of equality'.

With the racial equality clause defeated, the conference placated the Japanese by allowing them to keep hold of the former German colony of Shandong: a vast area on the Chinese coast. The decision caused riots back in China and led Wellington Koo, the Chinese delegate, to refuse to sign the Treaty of Versailles that officially ended World War I.

Paul Reinsch, the United States Minister to China, resigned in 1919, saying:

> *If [Japan], with all the methods it is accustomed to apply, remains unopposed, there will be created in the Far East the greatest engine of military oppression and dominance that the world has yet seen.*

Check your learning

1. On whose side did Japan fight during World War I?
2. Why did so many among the Allies feel that Japan was not contributing equally to the war effort?
3. What clause did Japan propose be added to the Treaty of Versailles? Why was it vetoed?
4. How were the Japanese placated after their proposal was vetoed?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 Why did the Japanese want to abolish the unequal treaties?
2 In your own words, explain the meaning of 'nationalism'.
3 List five things Japan gained by winning the Sino-Japanese War.
4 Why do historians sometimes describe the Russo-Japanese war as 'World War Zero'?
5 Why were the Japanese public unhappy with the Treaty of Portsmouth?
6 What evidence is there that Japan was pursuing a private agenda in World War I?

Understand

7 Explain why the Treaty of Shimonoseki marked an important turning point in Japan's relationship with the rest of the world.
8 Describe how the career of Admiral Togo demonstrates the changes in Japan between 1850 and 1918.
9 What reasons did Japan have for going to war with Russia in 1904?
10 China and Japan both fought against Germany in World War I. Why was China likely to feel cheated at the war's end?

Apply

11 Historians suggest that Japan at the start of the 20th century was influenced by the idea of nationalism.
   a Use the table below to compare what you know about nationalism in Meiji Japan to your observations about nationalism in Australia today:
   b Hold a debate with members of your class on the topic: 'Nationalism is strong in modern Australian society.'

Evidence of nationalism in Meiji Japan	Evidence of nationalism in Australia today

Analyse



Source 55 A cartoon in the British magazine *Punch* shows the British view of the Sino-Japanese War.

12 Look at the *Punch* cartoon, 'Jap the Giant-Killer' (Source 55).

- **a** Who are the two figures in the picture supposed to represent? How do you know?
- **b** What explanation can you give for the contrasting size of the two figures?
- **c** What do you think this cartoon suggests about British attitudes at the time to the Sino-Japanese War? Explain your answer fully.

Evaluate

13 Consider Billy Hughes' comments at the Paris Peace Conference that '95 out of 100 Australians rejected the very idea of equality'.

- **a** What is your own reaction to this comment?
- **b** Based on your own observations, do you think that Australian values about race and equality have changed? Explain your answer.

14 Paul Reinsch warned that Japan would become the 'greatest engine of military oppression and dominance that the world has yet seen'.

- **a** Based on what you have read, do you think his fears were justified?
- **b** What evidence did he actually have in 1919?

Create

15 Togo Heihachiro was one of the first Japanese to visit Australia. Use the library or Internet to do some research on the city of Melbourne in 1875. Write a segment of Togo's diary from his point of view, describing his visit to Australia and the differences he sees between Melbourne and Japan.

16 Design the front page of a newspaper from 5 September 1905, the day Russia formally surrendered to Japan. Decide whether your newspaper will be from Japan, Russia, the United States or another country. Whichever country you choose, make sure that the image, headlines and text convey the attitude of your paper to the news.

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australian curriculum

history 9

depth study option

Asia and the world: India

1750–1918

luke matthews | jonathan clements

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depth study option

Asia and the world: India
1750–1918



The procession of Emperor Bahadur Shah II, the last Mughal emperor, as part of the celebrations for the festival of the Eid, marking the end of Ramadan's month of fasting, 1843.

By 1750, the Mughal Empire that had ruled over the Indian subcontinent (includes the modern-day countries of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal and Bhutan) for two centuries, was losing its power. The empire began to break down as local rulers in many parts of India became involved in power struggles and wars with each other.

At the same time, European trading companies were exerting greater influence over areas of the Indian subcontinent. From around 1600, European trading companies, drawn by the promise of large profits from trading goods such as spices and fabrics, had travelled to India. The British East India Company was one of these trading companies. By 1750, it had established secure centres of power in India. Over the next 100 years, an extraordinary series of events saw the British East India Company expand its power across most of India. This private trading company became the ruler of India. In 1858, the British East India Company handed control of the region to the British government. India then became part of the British Empire.

During British rule, many changes took place in India. New systems of government and technologies transformed Indian society. For Britain, India was the most valuable part of its huge empire. Indians, however, did not have much say over how their country was run. As the 20th century began, new Indian political groups emerged, demanding a voice for Indians and an end to British rule.

Key inquiry questions

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

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

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

bigpicture

Asia and the world: India



In 1750, as the Mughal Empire broke down, local rulers competed for power.

European trading companies, who were at first only interested in protecting their trading interests, saw the weakened state of the Mughal Empire as a chance to increase their political influence in the region. The Battle of Plassey in 1757 marked the beginning of the British East India Company's rise to power. The Company's win in that battle saw it become the official ruler of Bengal in 1765. By 1857, the Company controlled most of India.

In 1857–1858, groups around India rebelled against British rule in an uprising known as the Indian Rebellion. The rebels were unsuccessful, but the rebellion drew attention to problems within India. As a result, rule was handed over to the British government.

As the 20th century approached, new groups emerged to demand more power for the Indian people, including the Indian National Congress (INC). These groups opposed British rule and believed India should have self-rule.

1756
Beginning of the Seven Years War between Great Britain and France. Powerful Indian leaders ally themselves with the French.

1757
The Battle of Plassey. Colonel Robert Clive of the British East India Company defeats *Nawab* Siraj-ud-Daula of Bengal.

1765
The British East India Company becomes the government in the provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.

1773
The British Parliament passes the *Regulating Act*. The British East India Company must create an organised system of government in its Indian territories. Warren Hastings becomes the first British Governor-General in Bengal.

1857
The Indian Rebellion. An uprising among sepoys soldiers who served in the Bristish East India Co a widespread rebellion against British rule. The is sent into exile.

1858
Queen Victoria of Great Britain announces that the British government will take over from the British East India Company as rulers of India.



Lord Clive meeting with Mir Jafar after the Battle of Plassey. Mir Jafar, his general, is appointed the new *nawab* by the British.



Source 1 A timeline of key events in India during the period 1750–1918



Portrait of Queen Victoria

1877
Queen Victoria is declared Empress of India.

A photo of the Delhi Durbar in 1911



1911
The British announce the move of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi at the 1911 Delhi Durbar.

1914
The start of World War I. Over one million Indian troops serve in the war as part of the British army. 74 000 lose their lives.

1905
The partition of Bengal sparks mass protests.

1885
The Indian National Congress (INC) is formed. Its members lobby for greater representation of Indian people in government.

1874
The British East India Company closes down.

1892
Dadabhai Nairoji becomes the first Indian Member of Parliament in the British House of Commons.

Dadabhai Naoroji



1915
Mohandas K. Gandhi returns to India after two decades working as a lawyer in South Africa. He begins to travel around India by train to speak at rallies in support of non-violent resistance to British rule.

Gandhi dressed in the simple clothes of an Indian villager



s (professional Indian
ompany armies) sparks
last Mughal emperor

A painting of sepoys and British soldiers fighting each other during the Indian Rebellion



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



Source 2 The Mughal emperors had expanded their empire by being great warriors and diplomats. This painting shows a Mughal army going into battle, *c.* 1750–1770

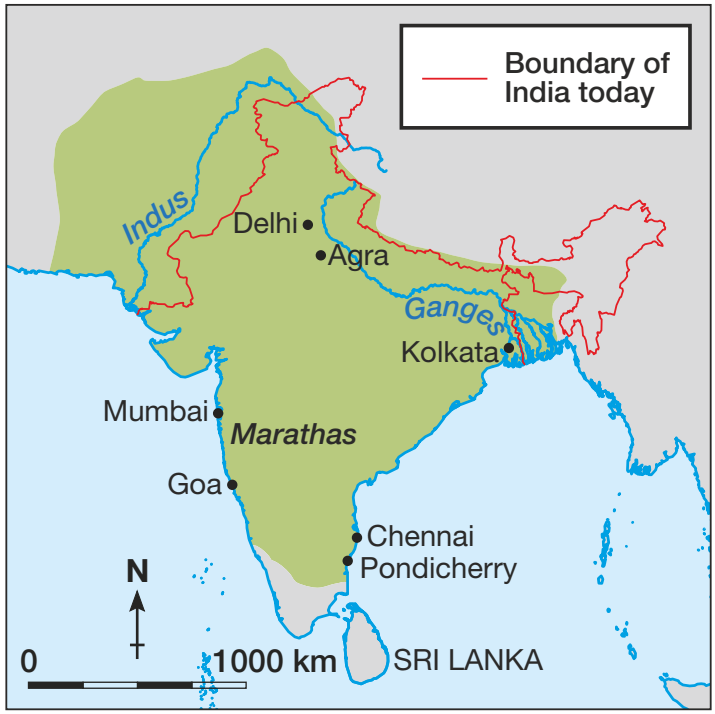
For two centuries, most of the provinces of India had been part of a single vast empire, ruled by a series of powerful emperors called the Mughals. By 1750, Mughal power was fading. There was still a Mughal emperor based in the capital, Delhi, but he had little control over the provinces the Mughal Empire had once dominated. Many of these provinces had their own rulers. These rulers had pledged their allegiance to the Mughal ***Dynasty*** *(a powerful ruling family in which power is handed from father to son) in return for keeping their positions. As the Mughal Empire weakened, these rulers sought to increase their power by breaking ties with the Mughal emperor.*

Although the Mughal emperor's power was weakening, Mughal culture and influence were still important across the Indian subcontinent. In 1750, the rulers of most of the provinces that were part of the Mughal Empire still wore costumes and performed rituals in the Mughal tradition. Mughal styles of architecture, art and literature also continued to flourish. Despite the end of Mughal rule, the legacy of Mughal emperors remains an important part of Indian culture to this day.

The Mughal Empire

The Mughal Empire emerged in the 16th century. Before this time, royal sultans from Turkey and Afghanistan ruled over northern India. The first leader in the Mughal Dynasty in India was called Babur. He invaded Delhi and nearby territories in 1526. Babur came from a region in the north, known today as Uzbekistan (in Central Asia). He was from a Persian–Islamic culture and was said to be a descendant of the famous Mongol warrior-ruler Genghis Khan.

Babur's descendants conquered more and more territories until, by the 17th century, the Muslim Mughal Dynasty controlled most of India. This was a diverse region that included the Sikh lordships in the north-west, the Hindu Rajputs in the north and the Marathas (also Hindu) in the south. They also ruled over parts of modern-day Pakistan, Afghanistan and Bangladesh.



Source 3 The Mughal Empire at its greatest extent, *c.*1600 (Note: present-day place names have been used.)

Building the Mughal Empire

Between the mid 16th century and the late 17th century, the Mughal emperors expanded their empire using powerful armies. Warfare, defence and military diplomacy were central to Mughal rule. The Mughal emperors constantly built alliances with neighbours, suppressed rebellions at home, and invaded new territories. Capturing more land gave them new resources, new armies, and increased money from taxes.

Before fighting an enemy ruler, the Mughal emperor would offer two options. The local ruler could stand his ground and fight to the end – but if defeated, this meant death or banishment and the loss of his lands. Alternatively, he could choose to surrender without a fight and continue running his kingdom as a part of the Mughal Empire under the direction of the Mughal emperor. Many local rulers opted for their lands to become part of the Mughal Empire. The Mughal emperor would reward them with extravagant gifts such as fine robes and swords. They would receive important status in the imperial power structure. In return, they took on the Mughal system of government and swore loyalty to the Mughal emperor. They were also obliged to give the Mughal emperor local men to fight in his armies and to pay taxes to the Mughal Empire.

Another form of alliance the Mughals used was intermarriage – marrying the daughters of other dynasties as a way of creating partnerships with provinces. The Emperor Akbar (ruled 1556–1605), the third Mughal emperor who succeeded in greatly expanding the empire, was particularly skilled at forming these alliances. He formed many alliances with the Rajputs (Hindu rulers in northern India) by marrying Rajput princesses. Akbar had around 30 wives.



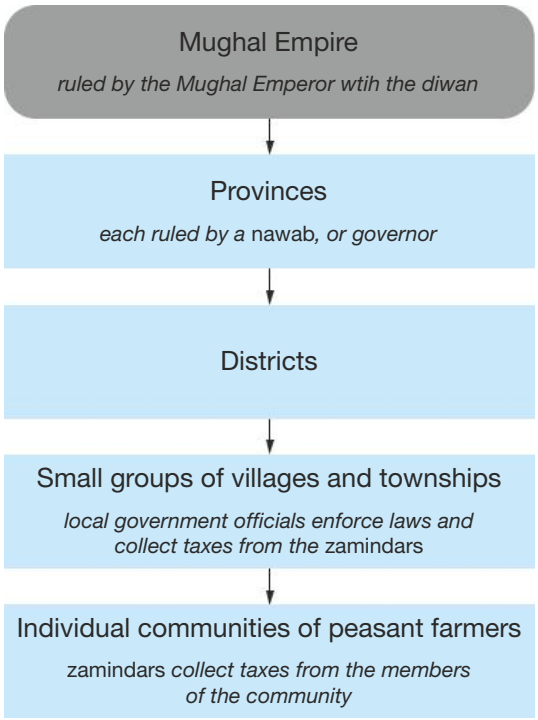
Source 4 The Mughal Emperor Akbar

In other provinces, where existing rulers were defeated and removed from power, the Mughal emperor appointed new ***nawabs*** (governors) to rule as his representative. These *nawabs* took on the appearance of royal rulers, wearing impressive clothing, building ornate palaces and adopting royal titles.

Check your learning

1 Who were the Mughals?
2 What two choices did Mughal rulers offer their enemies before battle?
3 Why did the Mughals make such an offer?

Social structure and government in the Mughal Empire



Source 5 The organisation of government under the Mughal Empire

The emperor

The emperor was the absolute ruler of the empire and was all powerful. He had two key responsibilities in running the empire – to protect the state and expand the empire. The emperor was also the chief administrator of the empire, the law-maker and chief dispenser of justice, and the commander-in-chief of the army. From the time of Akbar onwards, the emperor also became God's representative on Earth and interpreter of Islamic law.

The emperor had a *diwan* (government) to carry out the central administration and look after the collection and expenditure of wealth within the empire. There were also individual ministers responsible for areas such as religious matters and the moral development of subjects.

The provinces and *nawabs*

Under the central *diwan* of the Mughal emperor, the empire was divided into provinces each of which were managed by a *nawab* (governor). The ministers of the *diwan* would communicate the emperor's orders to the *nawab*, who would be responsible for carrying out the order in his province. In this way, each *nawab* was responsible for upholding the supremacy of the emperor and the administration of his province. The title of *nawab* was not only given to those Muslim rulers put in place to manage conquered territories but also to the Hindu and Sikh princes who agreed to become a part of the Mughal Empire.

The *zamindars* and peasant farmers

For administrative purposes, each province was divided into districts. In turn, each district contained several small groups of villages or townships. These smaller areas were managed by ***zamindars*** who acted as tax collectors, administrators and law enforcers for the area.

Zamindars ranged from small landholders in the villages to descendants of old ruling families who retained large portions of their ancestral lands. The role of *zamindar* for an area was inherited, and these administrators managed the communities of peasant farmers on their lands.

Under the Mughal system, peasant farmers also had hereditary rights to the land. The right to live on and farm land could be passed from one generation of farmers to the next, and peasants could not be removed from the land unless they failed to pay their taxes. As the tax collector, the *zamindar* delivered these taxes to the Mughal authorities, and was allowed to keep a percentage for himself. *Zamindars* were the contact between government and local communities and in their role could become extremely wealthy, many living in the same level of splendour as the *nawabs*.

Other groups

The Indian subcontinent remained predominately an agricultural economy under the Mughal emperors. However, other groups were also important to the running of the empire.

The Mughal Empire retained strong armies throughout its existence. Within the responsibilities of each administrative area was the duty to maintain a decent-sized army. Even *zamindars* would have their own troops that they financed.

Trade was important to the empire, and across the empire there was a strong trade in textiles like cotton and silk, along with sugar cane, spices and indigo (a dark blue dye). Merchants and traders formed a middle class within the empire, along with craftsmen and artists.

Women and family life under the Mughals



Source 6 A village women working alongside her husband in the fields at harvesting time, *c.* 19th century

During the rule of the Mughals, India was a **patriarchal** society, meaning that men held all positions of responsibility in government, religion and family life. Rulers and religious leaders were men. Women were excluded from many areas of work and public life.

In general, women were responsible for domestic duties, with their main roles being focused on the home and the family. Upper-class women might manage a team of servants to do domestic work, while in families who had no servants, cleaning, cooking and child raising were the responsibility of female family members. Women in certain sectors of society had more involvement in work. Female peasant farmers, for example, often worked in the fields alongside their husbands – mainly through necessity.

Large extended families often lived together. It was common for families to make group decisions about their children's careers and marriages. The idea of loyalty and duty to one's family members was important. Family members could have different responsibilities towards each other, depending on their place in the family. For example, younger family members were expected to respect the authority of older family members.

Generations of the same family often worked in the same profession and had similar social status. Families normally passed down belongings and social power from one generation to the next.

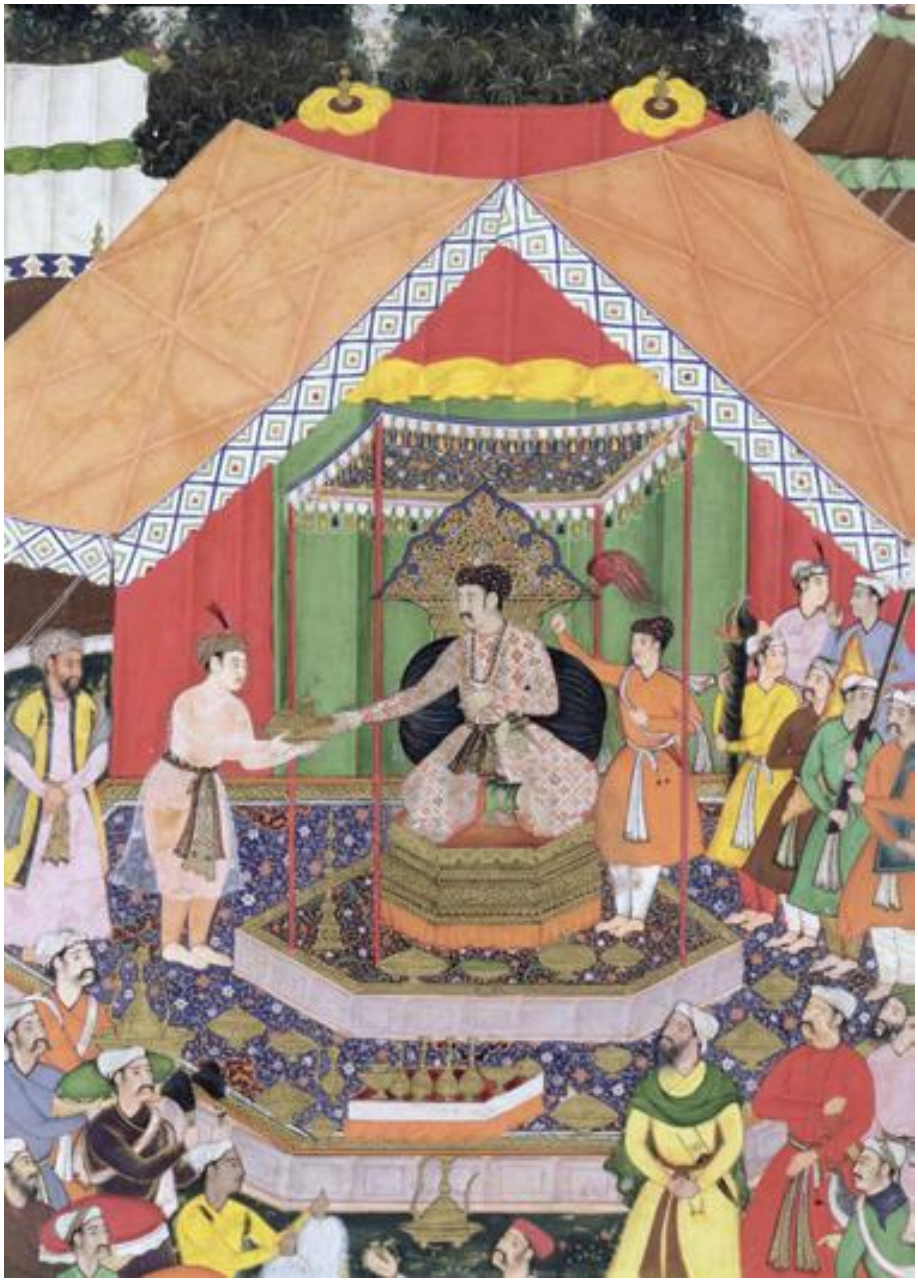
Check your learning

1 What were the principal areas of responsibility of the emperor?
2 How important were the *nawabs* and what role did they play in the Mughal system of government?
3 What was the role of the *zamindar* in farming communities?
4 What effect did the patriarchal society have on women's roles?

Mughal culture

The court

Imperial power and culture centred on the royal court in the emperor's palaces. Members of the imperial court included extended family, servants, military officials, administrative officials, advisers, historians, record keepers, religious advisers, musicians and artists. The hierarchy of the court reinforced the emperor's supreme position. The emperor literally maintained a higher position than those around him. When meeting with lesser rulers, messengers or advisers, the emperor would sit on an elevated platform to demonstrate his superiority. His officials and guests stood or sat around him, arranged according to their importance. Those of a higher rank would be allowed to position themselves close to the emperor. Those of a lower rank would sit further away.



Source 7 The emperor receiving visitors in the Mughal court. The emperor is seated on an elevated platform, *c.* 1590–1598.

The *durbar*

The *durbar* was the public hall within the palace where the emperor met with visitors. The *durbar* was often used to receive important guests, such as ambassadors from other regions. The splendour of the durbar was a demonstration of the emperor's wealth and power. *Durbars* in Mughal palaces were large open rooms with grand pillars and walls of sandstone and marble. Fine fabrics, with intricate prints and embroidery, hung on the walls and covered the ground. People sat on cushions rather than chairs, in keeping with Persian taste, although sometimes the emperor would have a throne.



Source 8 An example of a *durbar* hall. This one is part of the Samode Palace located outside Jaipur. Notice the intricate detailing on the walls and ceiling done in a Mughal Rajput style.

In keeping with the Mughal's Islamic beliefs, women were not permitted to mix with men in the *durbar*. Women in the Mughal court lived in separate, restricted quarters.

Even as Mughal power faded, the Mughal emperors continued to use the *durbar* to show off their imperial culture. Other rulers in India who wanted to show their power within imperial society also adopted the use of *durbars*. Later, even the British used the term *durbar* for the processional events they held to demonstrate their power in India.

Mughal arts

The Mughal period was a vibrant time in architecture and the arts. The Mughals were influenced by Persian arts and culture that came from the area known today as Iran. In addition to Persian influences, Mughal artists looked to regions of the Middle East and the Mughal lands of origin (in modern-day Uzbekistan) for inspiration. All across India, there were also many other rich local artistic, architectural and cultural traditions that were incorporated into the Mughal style – some that had been developed over thousands of years.

Architecture

The Mughals used grand architectural designs to demonstrate the power of the empire. Their buildings combined Persian traditions with inspiration from Hindu architecture. The most famous is the Taj Mahal, built between 1631 and 1648 by the emperor Shah Jahan in memory of his beloved third wife in Agra.



Source 9 The Taj Mahal

Near the Taj Mahal stands one of India's most famous forts – the Red Fort of Agra, founded in 1565 by the Emperor Akbar. The Red Fort was a sign of imperial strength in India. A fort is a building designed to defend an area from attacking armies. The Mughals established forts throughout their territories, usually on hilltops so that they could see their enemies approaching from great distances. Forts housed armies and, in some cases, large communities. They could contain palaces and even whole cities.

Buildings such as the Taj Mahal and Red Fort of Agra survive as symbols of Mughal power. They are now World Heritage sites.

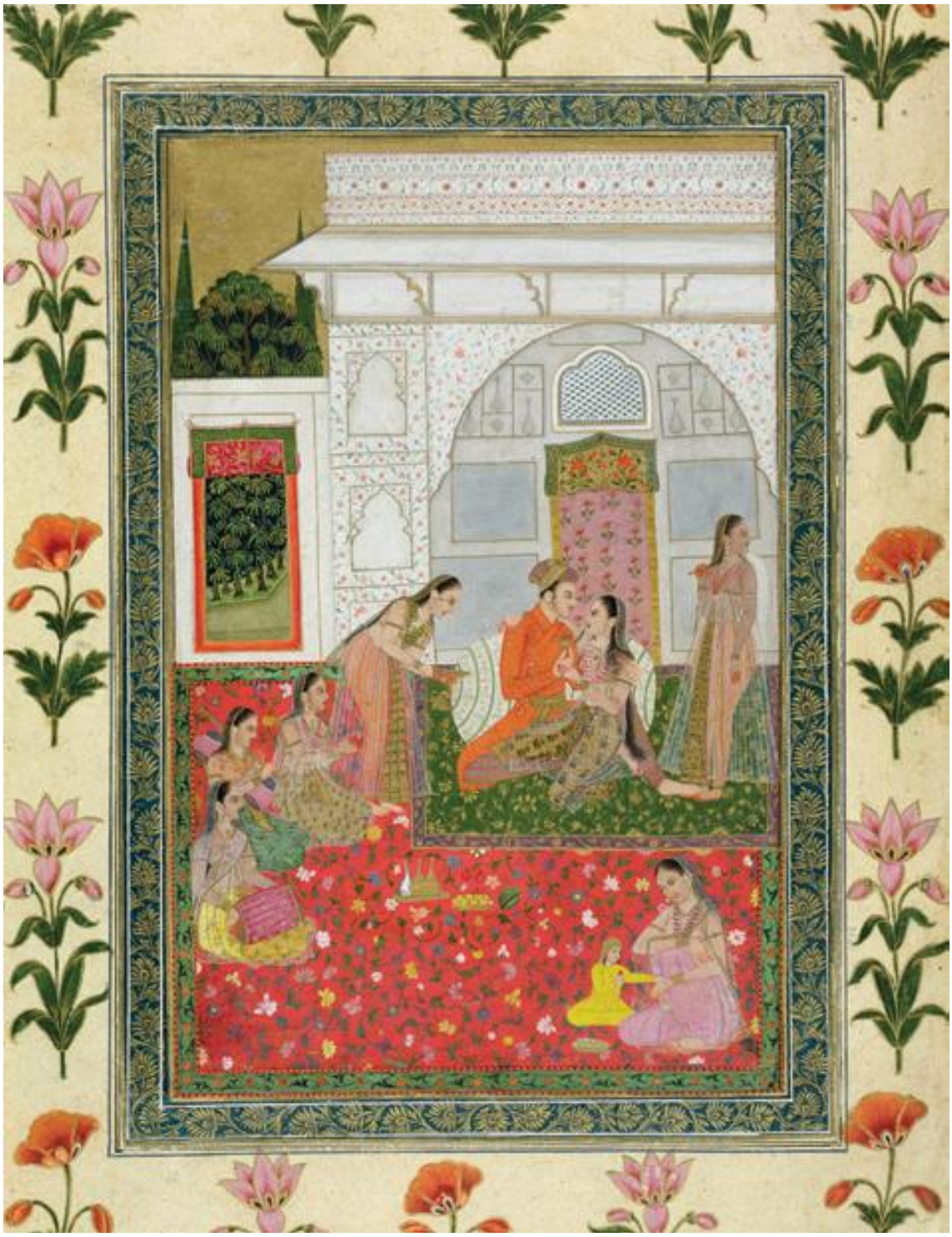


Source 10 The Red Fort

Painting and other arts

In addition to advances in architecture and design, the Mughals also promoted the fine arts. They commissioned paintings, poetry and music. Many Mughal artists preferred to paint highly detailed pictures called miniatures. These miniatures showed scenes from life at court. They portrayed Mughal kings and nobles and their lovers, and today give historians an idea of what court life was like.

Mughal emperors also patronised the workshops of artisans, who made textiles, embroidery, metalwork, glassware and jewellery. From these workshops came the beautiful objects and treasures that filled the Mughal courts.



Source 11 A miniature painting of a Mughal couple with female attendants and musicians

Check your learning

1. Why were forts important to the Mughals?
2. What was the purpose of the *durbar*?
3. Name one famous example of Mughal architecture that still exists in India.

Religious diversity under the Mughals

The Mughal emperors were Muslims but they did not impose Islamic beliefs on their subjects. Different communities within the Mughal Empire practiced many different religions. In general, the Mughals recognised local laws and customs across the empire. Non-Muslims, including Hindus and Sikhs, were able to serve as government officials, and religious institutions, such as Hindu temples and Muslim mosques, were legally allowed to pay reduced taxes. These policies helped strengthen Mughal power by keeping people of different religions all over the empire happy. By recognising religious diversity, the Mughals were able to form alliances with many different groups across India. Some emperors, such as Akbar (1542–1605), had particularly open-minded religious views. Akbar adopted elements of Hinduism into his own religious practice. This allowed some distinctly Indian forms of Islam to evolve.

Despite this, there were some religious inequalities. Muslims generally held the highest positions in the Mughal power structure. Some emperors also imposed extra taxes on non-Muslims for a variety of reasons. In reality, religious policies, and the level of religious acceptance, changed over time depending on the particular Mughal emperor who was in power.

Hinduism



Source 12 Ganesh (the Hindu god of beginnings)

Hinduism was the most common religion on the Indian subcontinent, with approximately 75 per cent of the population being Hindu. Although it is described as a single religion, in fact the word 'Hinduism' refers to a large group of related religions. From community to community, Hindu beliefs and traditions vary. Nonetheless, most Hindu communities share a number of the most central beliefs and ideas.

One central belief in Hinduism is that there is an ultimate power, called *Brahma*, that supports everything. Some Hindus think of *Brahma* as the supreme god or a 'divine consciousness'. The qualities and forms of this supreme being are represented by the multitude of deities that emanate from *Brahma*.

Hindus also believe that people are reincarnated (reborn) after death. They believe that each person lives many lives, one after another. Hinduism teaches that a person might eventually escape this cycle of life and death through meditation and virtuous action.

Several other ideas are central to Hinduism. The idea of *karma* suggests that the way a person acts in their present life determines how they are reborn in the next – as rich or poor, male or female, human or animal. Each person is required to follow his or her *dharma. Dharma* is duty, the responsibility to fulfil their role in their community and family.

There are a number of sacred texts associated with Hinduism. Among them are a series of ancient texts called the *Vedas*, which date back as far as 1200 BCE. Local priests (*brahmins*) had the authority to interpret these texts and their interpretations varied between communities.



Source 13 The Hindu temple complex Sree Meenakshi in Madurai, India

significance: caste

According to the Hindu caste system, society is divided into groups with defined social positions, or **castes** (hereditary social classes). An individual is born into a caste and remains in that caste for life. This idea of a set caste had a significant impact on Indian society over the centuries. Certain professions and social positions were retained for specific castes, limiting the prospect of social mobility for large sectors of the population. People were also expected to marry within their caste. The lower castes, in particular the *dalits* (untouchables), were excluded from many areas of life.

The castes

There were four main castes: *brahmin* (priests), *kshatriya* (warriors), *vaishya* (farmers and merchants) and *shudra* (labourers). Each caste was also divided into many more sub-categories, which traditionally defined a person's occupation. The *kshatriya* caste, for example, included warriors, kings, nobles and officials who worked in royal courts.

Castes were ranked in order, from high to low. *Brahmin* were at the top. They held absolute religious authority and members of other castes treated them with the highest degree of respect. Next came the *kshatriya*, who wielded physical power. *Kshatriya* ruled as princes, soldiers and officials. Below the *kshatriya* came the *vaishya*, who did not rule but still served useful functions in society by growing food and managing trade. At the bottom were the *shudra*, who worked for others. Over time, the caste system expanded to include thousands of sub-categories reflecting the many different roles people had in society. The lowest group of all were the *dalits*. They were people who were considered too low to even be part of the caste system. Traditionally, they carried out occupations such as cleaning up waste. Their touch was considered impure and contact with them was believed to defile the purity of high castes. *Dalits* were excluded from many areas of society.

Changes

Since the mid 20th century, India has implemented laws and social initiatives to protect and improve the lives of its *dalit* population. This has been more successful in the cities where castes are less obvious. Discrimination against *dalits* in rural villages is still common. Overall, though, the measures have been successful. In 1997, India elected its first *dalit*, K. R. Narayanan, as President.



Source 14 French lithograph of a Brahmin presenting an outcast with alms (charity), *c.* 1830

Other religions

Islam

Islam was the religion of the Mughal emperors. Followers of Islam are called Muslims and they believe in one god, called Allah. They follow the teachings of Allah's final prophet Muhammad as expressed in their holy book the Qur'an.

There are five basic Pillars of Islam. These pillars are the declaration of faith, praying five times a day, giving money to charity, fasting and making a pilgrimage to Mecca (at least once).

Sikhism

Sikhism was founded in the 16th century in the Punjab region of the Indian subcontinent. The key principle of Sikhism is the importance of the internal religious state of the individual. Sikhism stresses the importance of doing good actions rather than merely carrying out rituals. Sikhs also believe in reincarnation.

Sikhs often wear five physical symbols to show their dedication to their faith. These five symbols are:

- Kesh (uncut hair symbolising a simple life, modesty and acceptance of God)
- Kara (a steel bracelet symbolising restraint and connection to the Sikh community)
- Kanga (a wooden comb symbolising a clean mind and body)
- Kaccha (cotton underwear symbolising chastity)
- Kirpan (a steel sword symbolising defence of the good and weak).

Jainism

Jainism is an ancient Indian religion that has no gods but is concerned with the welfare of the universe and every being in it. Amongst their beliefs, Jains believe that people, animals and plants all have souls of equal value and should be treated with respect and compassion. The three guiding principles of Jainism, the 'three jewels', are right belief, right knowledge and right conduct.

The supreme principle of Jain living is *ahimsa* (non-violence). Supporting this principle, Jains are strictly vegetarian. Their unwillingness to kill goes so far as sweeping the path in front of them as they walk to avoid stepping on any insects.

Buddhism

Buddhism was founded in India and is based on the teachings of Gautama Buddha, who was born in India in the 6th century BCE. Gautama Buddha taught that life was characterised by suffering and that all people were trapped in a cycle of birth and rebirth, or reincarnation. To escape this cycle, an individual has to achieve enlightenment or freedom from desire.

Check your learning

1. Describe the meaning of both *karma* and *dharma* in the Hindu religion.
2. Name the four main castes in Hinduism.
3. Name four other religions that were present on the Indian subcontinent at this time.

A fading empire

By 1750, many Mughal provinces were breaking away from the Mughal emperor. Rulers from old royal dynasties began to reclaim their power. Mughal-appointed *nawabs* were claiming power in their own right and challenging the control of the emperor. Local rulers saw the weakening empire as their opportunity to expand their own power bases and competed with each other for territory, forming alliances and fighting wars.

There were a number of reasons for this decline in Mughal power. The last strong Mughal emperor was Aurangzeb who ruled from 1658 to 1707. Although Aurangzeb was a powerful leader, he was also a zealous Muslim and alienated the Hindu Rajput rulers by imposing Islamic law on the empire. After Aurangzeb's rule, many lesser Mughal emperors followed with short reigns that were characterised by the extravagant lifestyles of the elite, and weak and corrupt leadership. Continuing wars with neighbours also strained the resources of the empire. The wealth of the empire declined, and increased taxation on the peasants caused widespread discontent.

Challenges to Mughal rule



Source 15 The Marathas fought the Mughals and then the British East India Company for their independence

Unrest in the empire grew. One of the strongest challenges to Mughal rule came from a group of allied warlords called the Marathas. The Marathas were a Hindu caste originating in the province of Maharashtra in the centre-west of India. The Marathas fought for independence from the Mughal

Empire from 1681 to 1707. After defeating the Mughals, the Marathas created their own empire, which lasted until 1818. As Mughal power declined, the Marathas pushed both northwards and southwards, increasing their territory to the point where they had control over a large part of the Indian subcontinent.

As trading companies such as the French East India Company and the British East India Company sought to consolidate their positions on the Indian subcontinent, they competed with each other for influence, making treaties and alliances with local rulers. This further undermined the Mughal Empire as local rulers, in attempts to boost their own power, made private deals with the foreigners.

In the end, the Mughal emperors became symbolic emperors, without the real power to match the title. They remained this way for a long time. The last Mughal emperor, Bahadur Shah II, was 'in power' until 1857.

Check your learning

1 Until what year was the last Mughal emperor in power?

2 Give two reasons for the decline of the Mughal Empire.

3 Why were the European trading companies a threat to Mughal power?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 List four religions that were practiced in India during the time of the Mughal Empire.
2 What was the most commonly practised religion in India in 1750?
3 What were the *Vedas*?
4 What was the role of the *zamindar*?

Understand

5 Give at least two reasons why people in India in 1750 did not think of themselves as 'Indians'.
6 Explain how the Mughals used architecture to support their rule.

Apply

7 Use a library or the Internet to do some further research on one of the religions you listed in your answer to question 1.
   a Prepare a poster about the religion. Make sure you include:
      - where and when the religion started
      - where it is practised in the world today
      - the main beliefs of the religion
      - who its leaders are
      - what the main religious texts are (if any) of the religion
      - at least three important images related to the religion, with explanations of why they are important.
   b Find out about this religion in Australia today. How many followers does it have?
8 Indian society in 1750 was strictly structured in terms of an individual's role in society. In what ways is Australian society today structured? Use the table below to compare the two societies. Some examples have been provided to get you started.

Type of structure	How structured was this part of Indian life?	How structured is this part of Australian life?	Why do you say this? (Explain your answer.)
e.g. *Caste*	e.g. *Very highly structured*	e.g. *Not at all*	e.g. *We don't have a caste structure in Australia today. People have different social positions depending on their job, but you aren't born into a fixed job and place in society that you can't change.*
e.g. Gender	e.g. *Very*	e.g. *Quite a bit*	e.g. *In theory women have equal rights with men in Australia but women still face discrimination in the workplace in some ways.*

Type of structure	How structured was this part of Indian life?	How structured is this part of Australian life?	Why do you say this? (Explain your answer.)
Ethnicity			
Religion			
Family			
Other …			

9 The Mughals displayed fine clothes, jewels and elaborate architecture to encourage others to see them as powerful. In what ways do politicians or other powerful people today use similar tactics?

Analyse



Source 16 A Mughal miniature

10 Look carefully at the Mughal miniature picture, (Source 16).

- a List two things you think are important about the picture. Give reasons.
- b Who is the most powerful figure in the picture? How do you know?
- c What aspects of Mughal court life can you see in the picture? Think about what you know about Mughal court life from what you have already read.
- d What do you think is happening in this picture? Explain your answer.

Evaluate

11 Imagine that you are the ruler of a small country. One day, the Mughals attack you. Before the battle, the Mughal Emperor offers you the choice: stand and fight, but lose everything if you are defeated; or accept Mughal rule and become part of his empire.

a Which option would you choose?

b Explain why you would choose this option, using what you know about the Mughals from your reading above.

Create

12 Design and draw your own Mughal miniature. In it, you could draw a scene from Mughal India, or you might choose to show a scene from Australian life today. Whatever you decide to show, try to imitate the Mughal style.

13 Use the library or the Internet to find out more about Mughal forts. Then, write a set of instructions for the builders of a new fort, including:

- where you want the fort to be built
- how you want it to look
- what it will need for defence
- what kinds of buildings should be included inside its walls.

The builders will want to know why you have asked for certain things, so make sure you include reasons with your answers above. Include a diagram with your instructions.

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



Source 17 A hand-coloured engraving by Frederic Shoberl, *c.* 1820s, of Indians in British military uniforms

By 1750, European trading companies had already been established in India for around 150 years. Initially, the trading companies were attracted to India as a source of valuable commodities such as tea, silk, minerals and spices. These were transported back to Europe and sold for large profits. Companies from Britain, France, Portugal and Holland competed with each other for India's trade.

As the trading companies worked to expand their markets, they became more involved in local politics. Local rulers were willing to provide favourable trading conditions in return for the support of these foreign companies in their quest for more power and territory.

From the mid 18th century, the British East India Company emerged as the most powerful of these trading companies and began to take power for itself. Over time, it would go on to rule most of India under an administration known as the Company Raj. This, in turn, led to the British government claiming India as a part of the British Empire in 1858.

Arrival of the British East India Company

From the early 17th century onwards, Britain, France, Holland and Portugal – motivated by a desire to profit from the new market in spices, teas, cottons, silks and other Asian goods – all sent trading companies into India. The British East India Company was one of these companies. It was founded by a group of merchants in London on 31 December 1600. Queen Elizabeth I granted the company a **royal charter** (a type of legal written permission) to travel the ocean, to trade internationally and to defend its ships using weapons. The Company's royal charter also gave it a monopoly on trade in Asia – meaning it was the only British company with permission to trade there.



Source 18 East India House – headquarters of the East India Company in Leadenhall Street, London, 1802

The Company negotiated with the Mughal Emperor Jahangir for the right to set up trading bases, initially at Surat (1618), in the province of Gujarat, on the north-eastern coast, and later in Madras (now Chennai) (1639) and Bombay (now Mumbai) (1668). The Company exchanged silver for goods such as **saltpetre** (a substance used to make gunpowder), **indigo** (a dark blue dye) and textiles such as cotton, silk and calico. A booming industry sprang into life.

After 1670, the British East India Company had an extraordinary amount of power, granted by Britain's King Charles II, the successor of Queen Elizabeth I. Charles II gave the Company the right to claim territory, mint money, keep an army, declare war, sign peace treaties and rule any area it conquered.

British East India Company bases attracted Indian merchants, tempted by the business opportunities they offered. New centres of industry and, in some cases, whole cities grew up around the Company bases. The most striking example of this is Calcutta (now Kolkata). Before the arrival of the British East India Company, this area was a collection of villages, but over time it grew into one of India's major cities.

Power struggles: towards British rule of India

In 1750, the British East India Company's trade was booming, even though it faced competition from other European trading companies. Its most significant rival at this time was the French East India Trading Company, which had its own powerful bases in India at Chandenagar (near Calcutta) and down the east coast at Yanam and Pondicherry. This rivalry came to a head in 1756.

The Seven Years' War

The Seven Years' War (1756–1763) saw the French, the British and the Spanish fighting over their shared colonial interests in the Americas and in Asia, including India. The British managed to drive the French out of their bases at Chandenagar and Pondicherry, leaving them with only minor interests on the subcontinent. At the same time, the British consolidated their control in Bengal.

Taking control of Bengal



Source 19 The Port of Cheringhee, Calcutta in 1798

The British East India Trading Company had a prosperous and expanding trading base in Calcutta, in the province of Bengal. Around three quarters of the goods they bought from Indian farmers and traders came from Bengal, India's richest province. At the time of the Seven Years' War, conflict with the *Nawab* (governor) of Bengal, Siraj-ud-Daula, led to the British effectively taking control of Bengal.

significance: the Battle of Plassey, 1757

The *Nawab* of Bengal resented the British East India Company's increasing trade and military strength in Calcutta and saw it as a threat to his authority. He also accused them of breaking Bengali trading laws. When Siraj-ud-Daula saw the British building new fortifications without permission, in preparation for conflict with the French, his allies, he attacked the Company base and took control of Calcutta.

The British quickly sent reinforcements under the command of a British East India Company Colonel called Robert Clive. In 1757, Colonel Clive attempted to overthrow *Nawab* Siraj-ud-Daula in the Battle of Plassey. Many historians consider the Battle of Plassey to be the first step towards British rule in India. At the time, however, British rule was not Clive's ambition. He simply wanted to increase the British East India Company's profits and strengthen its position in Bengal.

Clive won the Battle of Plassey – not through military power, but through trickery. Before the battle, he secretly persuaded a large section of the nawab's armies under the general Mir Jafar to switch sides. In return, Clive promised to make Mir Jafar the new *nawab*.

Mir Jafar's troops arrived at the battle with the rest of the *nawab*'s armies. The *Nawab* Siraj-ud-Daula's troops greatly outnumbered the British. He had around 50 000 troops, while Clive only had 3000. The *nawab*'s forces included large cannons, pulled by elephants and oxen. However, when fighting began, Mir Jafar's troops refused to fight. This left the *nawab*'s armies in disarray. Siraj-ud-Daula retreated but was captured and killed by Mir Jafar's men. After this victory, Clive declared Mir Jafar to be the new *Nawab* of Bengal.



Source 20 Lord Clive meeting with Mir Jafar after the Battle of Plassey, 1762

Clive's wheeling and dealing did not stop there. In return for helping Mir Jafar become leader, the Company extracted ongoing financial payments from him. Over time, Mir Jafar struggled to meet the Company's demands. Eventually, he turned against the Company, allying with Dutch traders.

In 1759, the East India Company defeated Mir Jafar. They made his own son-in-law, Mir Qasim, the new *nawab*. After a few years, Mir Qasim grew tired of being a 'puppet' *nawab* controlled by the East India Company. He also rebelled and took the Company to war. The Company defeated Mir Qasim and this time replaced him with Mir Jafar's son.

The British East India Company received special trading rights in Bengal, meaning they did not have to follow normal trade laws. Additionally, in 1765, they became the official administrators and tax collectors of the provinces of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. Robert Clive himself gained the title of Governor of Bengal. In effect, the British East India Company had become the ruler of Bengal.

Check your learning

1. What goods were the British East India Company buying from India to sell in Britain?
2. What powers were granted to the British East India Company by King Charles II?
3. What did Colonel Robert Clive hope to achieve by defeating the Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula at the Battle of Plassey?
4. How did Colonel Robert Clive win the Battle of Plassey?

The Company Raj

The British East India Company's success in Bengal had a profound effect on the direction the Company was to take in India. Within 80 years, the Company came to replace the Mughal Empire as the rulers of most of India. Historians use the phrase 'the Company Raj' to describe the period in which the British East India Company ruled India. *Raj* means 'royalty,' 'reign,' or 'kingdom' in a number of Indian languages. During this period the Company's role evolved from that of a trading company to that of a governing body. The Company also replaced many traditional rulers with their own governors and administration and started to introduce British systems of law and property.

focus on ...

perspectives: the Company as rulers



Source 21 Portrait of Robert Clive, Governor of Bengal

As the power and territory of the British East India Company increased in India, and many officers and employees over in India accumulated great riches, it appeared on the surface as if the Company was a great success.

For ambitious young Britons who wanted to move up in the world, India looked like a land of opportunity. Working for the British East India Company was not only a chance to make money, it was also a chance for a person to change their position within Britain's own class system. In India, middle-class Britons who rose high in the Company's ranks could live the lives of nobles. They could have mansions, servants and spend money extravagantly. Some returned to Britain with vast fortunes. They could then buy their way into the upper classes there and even, in some cases, obtain positions in government.

On the other hand, stories of British East India Company officers being involved in corruption and mismanagement in India had been reaching Britain for decades. In theory, the British East India Company's head office in London managed the Company. In practice, however, Clive and his colleagues were in control of their own business. Letters between London and India had to travel by ship. This meant that instructions from the head office could take more than six months to arrive.

By the early 1770s, worries around the Company's actions were increasing and the tide of opinion was turning against the Company. Some people raised concerns that Company officials were acting like cruel dictators. Some criticised Company officials for acting like royalty and showing off their wealth.

Limiting the powers of the Company

By 1772, the Company started experiencing financial difficulties. Even though its officials were visibly generating vast personal fortunes, the Company had to borrow money from the British government to continue trading. Meanwhile, poverty spread through Bengal. Between 1769 and 1773, a devastating famine hit peasant communities in Bengal, killing approximately one-third of the population. While people starved, the Company continued to impose heavy taxes in famine-struck areas and hoard rice and grain. The actions they took during the famine were designed to protect the traders – an appropriate approach for a company, but not for a ruler.

In 1772, the British Parliament set up an inquiry to investigate the Company's affairs. Members of parliament accused the Company of corruption. A minority wanted the British government to take over from the Company in India. As a compromise, the British government passed new laws between 1773 and 1786 that aimed to make the Company more responsible and stamp out corruption. A Board of Control was set up to monitor Company policy.

The Regulating Acts

In 1773, the British Parliament passed the first of a set of laws called the Regulating Acts. The *Regulating Act 1773* banned Company officials from private trading and accepting bribes. It also officially recognised the Company's rule in Bengal. The Company was now required to create an organised system of government in its Indian territories. Warren Hastings was appointed the first Governor-General in Bengal, alongside a new council. Hastings began to put in place a new system of government and enact new laws.

New rules

After 1773, the British parliament renewed the British East India Company's charter every 20 years. Each time, it added new rules to the charter. In 1813, the British government ended the British East India Company's monopoly on trade. Other British traders were now allowed to trade in India. The government also ordered the Company to let Christian missionaries enter India. Until then, the Company had banned missionaries, in order to avoid damaging trade relationships with Hindus and Muslims.

In 1833, the *Government of India Act* ordered the Company to stop commercial trade all across India. From this point on, the sole focus of the Company became governance of the provinces. This included financing public works, such as the establishment of a postal service and the building of railways.

During this period of rule, the Company continued to expand its territories in India by forming economic and political alliances, and waging war. By 1805, British territories stretched along the entire Eastern coast of the Indian subcontinent. Lord Dalhousie, Governor-General of India from 1848 to 1856, adopted a controversial policy whereby the Company took control over territories whose rulers had died without direct heirs. This policy, known as the 'Doctrine of Lapse', ignored all possible heirs who were not sons. Dalhousie used the policy to take control of another seven territories. By 1857, the British East India Company controlled most of India.



Source 22 The expansion of the British East India Company across the Indian subcontinent

Check your learning

1. What does 'Raj' mean?
2. How did people in Britain view the actions of the British East India Company in Bengal?
3. How was the *Regulating Act* of 1773 designed to make the British East India Company behave more responsibly?
4. What was the 'Doctrine of Lapse' policy and how did it benefit the British East India Company?

the Indian Rebellion 1857–1858



Source 23 The Madras Engineers Corps helped to evacuate the British from Lucknow during the Indian Rebellion.

In 1857, an uprising among *sepoys* (professional Indian soldiers who served in the British East India Company armies) turned into a widespread anti-British movement. Many *sepoys* came from warrior castes and saw military service as a profession. *Sepoys* did not necessarily join the army out of a feeling of duty to their British rulers, although some may have developed loyalty over time. In 1857, around 80 per cent of the Company's troops in India were *sepoys*, approximately 200 000 troops. They were crucial to British power in India.

Origins of the rebellion

By 1857, there was a growing unrest among the Indian population. Some groups felt the Company Raj threatened their social positions, religions and ways of life. Lord Dalhousie's 'Doctrine of Lapse' angered royal families who had controlled certain areas for generations and were forced to watch as the Company took control. People in India were also angered by wars, harsh taxes and their exclusion from positions of government and administration. The presence of European missionaries also sparked rumours that the British wanted to convert people to Christianity.

This tension spread among the sepoys as well, and some sepoys grew angry at their working conditions. The Company paid British soldiers more than Indian soldiers and treated them with more respect. High-caste Indian soldiers, who were used to high social status, felt insulted by this treatment. New rules also allowed the British to send Indian soldiers to serve outside of their home provinces, away from their families and religious communities.

The Enfield rifle

The spark that finally ignited tensions that led to the Indian Rebellion was the Enfield rifle. The Company introduced this new type of rifle to their armies in 1857. To load the Enfield rifle, soldiers had to insert cartridges containing bullets. Before they inserted a cartridge, they had to bite it open. The cartridge had a special grease coating called tallow to make it slide easily into the rifle. A rumour spread among the *sepoys* that the tallow was made from either pig fat (forbidden to Muslims), or beef fat (forbidden to Hindus). A group of *sepoys* rebelled in May 1857, shooting their commanding officers. The rebellion soon spread beyond the *sepoys* to other dissatisfied groups across India. Not everybody rebelled. Some groups remained loyal to the British, such as the Sikhs and Pathans of the Punjab.

Emperor of India

The British response to these uprisings was slow, and *sepoys* won victories in many provinces. The peak of the rebellion came when a group of rebels took over the city of Delhi. There, they seized on the ageing Mughal emperor, Bahadur Shah II, as a symbol of the resistance. The Company Raj had allowed the Mughal emperor to remain in Delhi, where his power had been reduced to the point that it extended no further than within his own court. Bahadur Shah II was a very old man, who may not actually have been very interested in the rebellion. Nonetheless, the rebels declared him their leader – and they wanted to restore him to real power as the Emperor of India. This symbolic victory inspired more and more people to rise up. The rebellion spread widely through northern and central India including major uprisings in the cities of Lucknow and Cawnpore (now Kanpur).



Source 24 A painting of the fighting in Lucknow, one of the cities that faced a major uprising against the British in 1857

The Siege of Delhi

Eventually British reinforcements arrived from England to aid the Company armies. British troops surrounded Delhi. In a period known as the Siege of Delhi, the British troops and the rebels faced each other off for four months. Eventually, the British forces stormed Delhi and took control. They sent Bahadur Shah II into exile and executed his sons and grandsons. Winning this battle was the turning point that allowed the Company to begin to take back control of India. By the end of 1858, the rebellion had been crushed and the British regained control.

Atrocities

During the rebellion, both the rebels and the British committed terrible atrocities. There were reports of rebels massacring British communities, including unarmed civilians, women and children. In Cawnpore, for example, the rebel Nana Sahib offered a safe retreat to the British stationed there, only to turn on them as they left, killing the men and taking the women and children hostage. These 200 women and children were later killed as British forces got closer. The massacre at Cawnpore became an infamous story among the British.

English soldiers also acted without restraint. After their victory in Delhi and in cities such as Cawnpore and Lucknow, British soldiers took revenge. Reports emerged of soldiers looting the cities and torturing and murdering Indian rebels, suspected rebels and civilians by the thousands.



Source 25 *The Flight from Lucknow*, a painting by A. Solomon, 1858, depicting British families feeling the rebellion

Check your learning

1. Who were the *sepoys* and why were they important to the Company Raj?
2. How did the introduction of the new Enfield rifle lead to the rebellion of the sepoys?
3. Why were some Indian groups growing unhappy with Company rule?
4. How long did the rebellion last?

focus on...

perspectives: naming the rebellion

The Indian Rebellion of 1857 has also been called the Great Rebellion, the Indian Mutiny, the Sepoy Rebellion, the Sepoy Mutiny, the Revolt of 1857, the Uprising of 1857 and the First War of Indian Independence.

At the time of the rebellion, the most popular names in the British press were the Indian Mutiny and the Sepoy Mutiny, as the uprising started with the *sepoys*. Later historians have preferred to use the terms Revolt, Rebellion or Uprising as these terms acknowledge that the rebellion spread beyond the *sepoys* and amongst the civilian (non-army) population.

In 1909, the Indian historian V. D. Sacarkar first popularised the use of the name the First Indian War of Independence. This name was later adopted by the first Indian government post-independence, in an attempt to break off the British colonial connotations of the earlier names.

Debate still continues, however, on the most appropriate name for the events of 1857–1858.

The British Raj

Reports of the Indian Rebellion, especially the atrocities committed by both sides, caused widespread shock across Britain. As a result, the British government finally took Indian rule away from the British East India Company. The 1858 *Government of India Act* gave direct control to the British government. All of the Company's Indian territories, possessions and armies were handed over to the British government.

This began a period of British rule that historians call the British Raj, which lasted for almost a century. The British East India Company existed for 16 more years but in 1874, 274 years after it was founded, it closed down. The British Raj promised to rule with more respect for local customs; however, the British continued to have a profound influence on the form of Indian institutions and to impose British values of Indian society.

Queen Victoria's proclamation



Source 26 A portrait of Queen Victoria painted in 1858

In 1858, Britain's Queen Victoria (ruled 1837–1901) issued a written **proclamation** (statement) explaining that the British crown and British government were now the rulers of India. In addition, Queen Victoria stated that Britain would protect inheritance rights and 'respect the rights, dignity and honour of native Princes', that Britain would not attempt to impose Christianity, that people of any 'race or creed' could be given jobs in the administration, and that the British government would try to respect 'ancient rights ... and customs'. In short, the British government would rule India for the good of its people.

The proclamation was an attempt to reassure the Indian people. It addressed some of the reasons for the rebellion. The aim was to show that the people of India did not need to worry about a return to the old policies of the Company Raj under the new government.

Structure of the British Raj

Under the new system, the Council of India became responsible for India. Based in London, council members all had to have at least 10 years' experience working in India. The council leader was called the Secretary of State for India. The British leader in India was called the Viceroy of India. At this time, the British Raj covered the areas that are today the modern countries of India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. The Indian population was around 10 times larger than the population of Britain.

Under the British Raj, over 400 Native States or Princely States continued to be officially ruled by Indian princes. These princes enjoyed local power but still had to obey the Viceroy of India. Indian princes had no control over military forces, foreign affairs or communications. This meant that no Princely State was able to go to war or sign deals with other provinces without British approval.

continuity and change: imperial *durbars*, 1877–1911

In January 1877, the British Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, and Viceroy of India, Lord Lytton, declared Queen Victoria the Empress of India. They believed that many Indians still felt strong ties to Mughal imperial culture and that calling Queen Victoria 'Empress' would remind Indians of the symbolic power of past emperors. Lytton organised a grand ceremony in Delhi to celebrate the declaration that same year. It was called the Imperial Durbar or Delhi Durbar. Like the Mughal *durbars* of earlier times (see under Court culture and the *durbar* above), this ceremony aimed to demonstrate the supreme power of the new empire through dazzling displays of wealth and strength. Lytton invited 400 Indian princes and their followers to attend. There was also a parade of 15 000 British soldiers in their striking red uniforms and medals.

The British Raj continued to hold imperial *durbars* in 1903 and 1911. In 1903 the *durbar* celebrated the crowning of the new King of Great Britain and Emperor of India, Edward VII. There was a grand parade in Delhi. The Viceroy of India, Lord Curzon, sat in a golden seat on the back of an elephant, sheltered by a golden parasol. Thousands of troops marched and rode horses. There was an exhibition of fine carpets, jewellery, paintings, gold and silverware. In 1911, the Imperial Durbar celebrated the crowning of King George V as emperor. For the first time ever, the emperor himself travelled to India to attend.



Source 27 King George V and Queen Mary, attended by young Indian princes, at the 1903 Imperial Durbar in Delhi

The ‘jewel in the crown’

India had now become the most important territory in the British Empire. Prime Minister Disraeli famously called it ‘the brightest jewel in the imperial crown’. It was a source of land, money, employment and military strength. In the late 1800s, the Indian army made up around half of the British Empire’s total troops. It was central to Britain’s power in the Asian region. Indian taxpayers paid for this army and the salaries of British government officials in India. In addition to this, a quarter of Indian taxes went back to England. Trade with India also remained important. In addition, India had symbolic power. The British Empire looked very powerful to other countries because of their ability to control India.



Source 28 Map of India, published under the direction of Colonel Thuillier, Surveyor General of India, 1877

British imperial beliefs

To its supporters, the British Empire did not just symbolise military power and wealth, but also the spread of British culture. Some believed that Britain had a 'moral duty' to spread its values throughout the world. They believed India had been a 'backward' empire before the intervention of the British – undeveloped, lawless and uncivilised. Some people in Britain believed that for these reasons, the Indian people should be grateful for British rule.

Check your learning

1 In what year did the British government take control in India?
2 What did Queen Victoria hope to achieve with her proclamation?
3 What were the Princely Provinces?
4 Why was India considered to be 'the brightest jewel in the imperial crown'?

Significant changes to Indian society under British rule

Significant changes occurred in Indian society during the period of British rule. British leaders experimented with new laws and systems of government and looked for ways to combine existing Indian beliefs and laws with British ideas.



Source 29 A Hindu servant serving tea to a British colonial woman, *c.* 1910

A new administration

The rule of law

In the early years of Company rule, Indian law consisted of a number of the fragmented systems that had existed under the Mughal Empire. Under this traditional system, different ethnic and religious communities across India were allowed to operate under different laws, traditions and beliefs. These 'laws' were enforced in different ways including mediation and community agreement to settle their local legal disputes. Within these villages 'courts' punishment could be quick and severe including imprisonment, whippings and amputations.

In 1772, the Governor-General of the Company's Indian dominions, Warren Hastings, started to put in place a legal system in the British style but appropriate for Indian society. Hastings recognised that the main laws in Indian society were based on the teachings of the Muslim and Hindu religions. As a result, he decided to create one system of laws for Hindus and one for Muslims, based on the 'ancient laws' of these religions. He appointed teams to identify these laws. For Muslim laws, his team turned to the Qu'ran. For Hindu laws Hastings gathered a panel of Indian legal scholars in 1776 to examine ancient texts such as the *Vedas* and compile laws from them.

Once Hastings has established this set of written laws, he set about changing the way traditional laws were enforced – in particular, he introduced Western-style courts, with trials and judges.

Some attempts were also made to change some of the Indian customs which the British thought were cruel or barbaric. In some of these cases, Indians as well as the British pushed for changes. One example was the banning of the practice of *sati.* Under this practice, when a man died and his body was cremated, his wife also had to burn herself to death on his funeral pyre. *Sati* was a tradition in some Hindu communities but was not widespread. Hindu reformers joined British reformers in calls to ban it. In 1829, the Company Raj banned *sati* in its territories.



Source 30 A 16th century illustration of a Hindu woman committing *Sati* by jumping into her husband's funeral pyre

The Indian civil service

One of the most significant changes to Indian society brought about by British rule was a new administration based on the British model. The Company Raj put in place its own system of administration called the Indian Civil Service. This system continued under the British Raj.

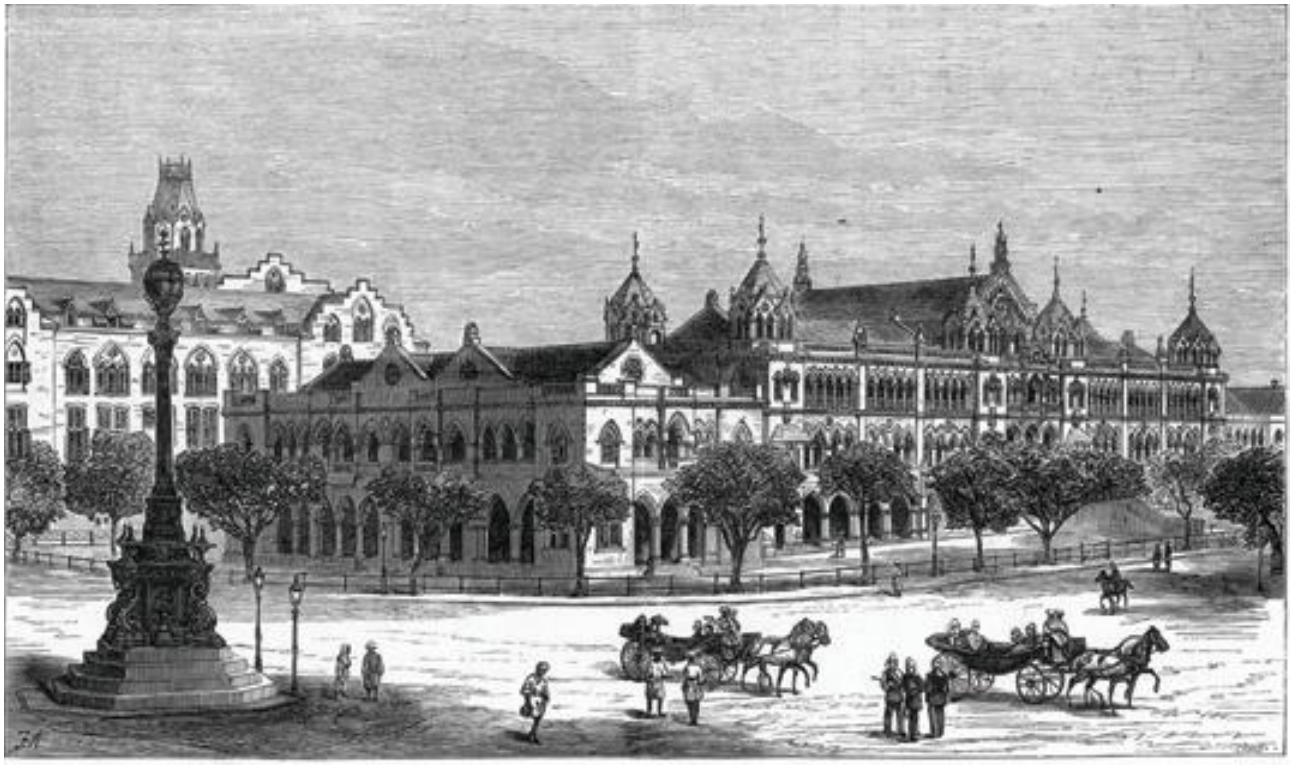
After 1833, under the Company, British law stated that civil service officials had to be chosen on merit. They could not be chosen because of nationality or colour. In theory, this meant the civil service was open to all Indians, but in practice positions went to young British men.

In 1858, when the British crown took over control of India, the system was changed. Young men who wanted to join the civil service now had to study at institutions such as Oxford or Cambridge University, or London University's School of Oriental Studies. They studied Indian law, accounting, history and languages. They then sat competitive examinations to gain entry into the civil service. Examinations were only open to men under 24, with this age limit later reduced to 19.

Although this system made the civil service open to Indians, few could afford to travel to Britain and few had access the British early education that would help them qualify for British universities. To manage both things while still young enough to sit the examinations was almost impossible. By 1914, the number of Indians in important roles in the civil service was only five per cent.

As time went on, however, the numbers of Indians in the civil service increased. By 1942, and shortly before independence in 1947, 50 per cent of civil service positions were held by Indians. After independence, the basic structure of the civil service remained as the central administrative organisation of India.

An English education



Source 31 A British school in Bombay

Other major initiatives set up by the British related to language and education. In 1802, the British made English the official language of India, replacing Persian. Over time, as well as being used by officials, Indians from different regions, religions and ethnic backgrounds used English to communicate with each other. At the same time, the British founded a college where civil servants had to learn local Indian languages before starting work in India.

In 1835, the British politician and historian Lord Thomas MacAuley delivered a famous speech in the British parliament known as the 'Minute on India'. It proposed new laws for education in India. He argued that schools in India should teach students in English. He believed that education in Indian languages was useless and that it was not possible for Indians to learn modern concepts in these languages. English became the language of the Indian education system.

Through education, the British hoped to create a small 'class' of Indians educated in English who would help spread Western ideas and values in India. MacAuley hoped these educated Indians would be 'English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect'.

From 1828 to 1835, Lord Bentinck who was Governor-General introduced the first official education policy based on MacAuley's ideas. Between 1848 and 1856, Governor-General Dalhousie expanded these reforms, introducing a system of primary schools, high schools, colleges and universities, based on the stages in the British system.

Despite these reforms, the great majority of Indian people still had no access to education. By the end of the 19th century, only five per cent of the Indian population could read. Higher education in India tended to be reserved for the higher castes, and girls and women had the least access to education. There were clear limitations to the education reform introduced by the British during this period. This did lay the foundation for an Indian education system, however, and it continues in a British model to this day.

Check your learning

1 What was the practice of *sati*?

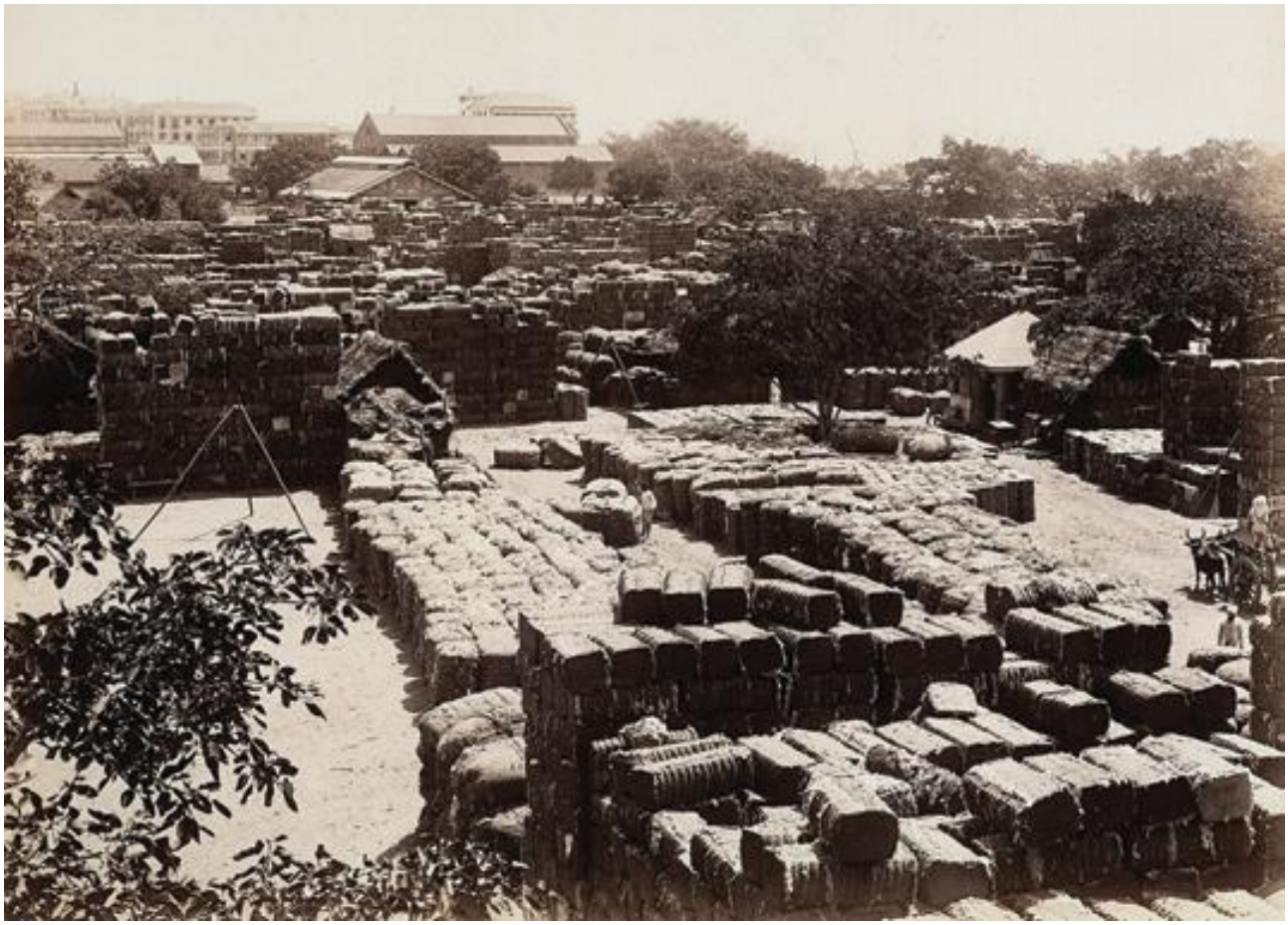
2 Why was it difficult for Indians to get into the Indian Civil Service?

3 At the end of the 19th century, what percentage of Indians could read?

4 What did the British hope to achieve by setting up schools in India and teaching students in English?

Changes in the agricultural economy

Private property



Source 32 Cotton sacks in Bombay, *c.* 1890

Another change that was brought about as a direct result of British rule was the widespread move from collective ownership to private ownership of agricultural land. Prior to British rule, many Indian societies had systems of collective ownership and land use. Instead of personally owning land, people had rights to use the land in particular ways. *Zamindars* (officials) had the right to collect taxes from peasant farmers, and in turn, peasant farmers had the right to farm the land. In some cases, these rights were passed from one generation to the next. Inheritance rights were recognised under the Mughal system.

In the early days of the Company Raj, the British East India Company took over the Mughal taxation system without making many changes. However, after 1793, they began to introduce a system of private property. They gave the *zamindars* private property land rights over the land they collected tax from, in return for the *zamindars* agreeing to a higher fixed land tax.

This caused dramatic changes in many communities. The *zamindars* struggled to meet the higher land tax despite putting pressure on the peasant-farmers who farmed their land. Gradually, many smaller *zamindars* had to sell their lands, as they could not pay the taxes the Company demanded. *Zamindars* with larger holdings and who had enough wealth to pay the taxes bought up the lands. Over time, this created a system similar to England's upper-class landowners, and some *zamindars* became extremely powerful figures. The meaning of the word *zamindar* changed – where it once meant anybody who has the right to collect tax in the community, it came to mean wealthy landowner.

Peasant-farmers were the worst off under the new system because they were no longer had any collective rights to the land they farmed. They became less powerful at the same time as the pressure for them to produce more increased. Also, because of the high taxes, the new land owners were reluctant to make any improvements to their land and agricultural production for many stayed at subsistence level.

New crops

Under the British Raj, India's farming economy also changed. When the British first arrived in India, India's biggest export was hand-woven fabric made from cotton grown in India. With the onset of the Industrial Revolution, new machinery in British factories was used to mass produce fabric more cheaply at home in Britain. As a result, British citizens stopped buying hand-woven cotton from India. In fact, the British started selling machine-made cotton to India. The Indian cotton industry suffered greatly from this reversal.

India became a greater exporter of raw materials such as cotton, jute, tea, opium, wheat and tobacco. The commercialisation of the farming of these crops in particular regions led to the loss of farmland that had previously been used to grow food for the local population. Some historians believe this contributed to the famines of the 18th and 19th centuries. These famines are discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Tea and opium



Source 33 Opium from Patna, India, bound for China during the Opium Wars

Two crops that did become very important during the time of British rule in India were tea and opium. There was huge demand for tea in Britain. During the 18th century, most of the tea drunk in Britain came from China. There was also great demand for other Chinese goods such as spices and chinaware. On the other hand, there was much less demand for British goods in China. The British wanted something that they could trade in China to make things more balanced.

Around 1780, the East India Company began selling opium grown in India to China. Opium is a powerful drug that is better known today as a major ingredient in morphine and heroin. Many people in China became addicted to opium and it became a very profitable industry for the British East India Company. Some historians believe opium contributed up to 20 per cent of British India's overall income.

In order to reduce its dependence on China, Britain also started to grow tea in India. India had no tea trade before the British, even though native Indian varieties of the tea plant grew wild in the Assam province, in the north east of India. In 1833, the British East India Company began to develop commercial production of Assam tea. In 1848, a Scottish botanist called Robert Fortune disguised himself as a Chinese merchant and travelled into areas of China that were forbidden to Europeans. There, he purchased 20 000 tea plants, which he smuggled back to the Darjeeling region in West Bengal, in India.

The tea industry rapidly expanded, consuming huge areas of land for tea plantations. By 1880, Britain was buying more Indian tea than Chinese tea. By the beginning of the 20th century, Assam became the leading tea producing region in the world. India became the largest producer of tea in the world and the largest consumer of tea as well.



Source 34 Workers drying tea leaves, 1880

Check your learning

1. How did the role of the *zamindars* change under the British?
2. What effect did technology have on the Indian cotton industry?
3. Why did Britain want to start growing tea in India?

Modernising India

During British rule, new technologies and new infrastructure made dramatic changes to life in India.

During the first years of British rule in India, the Industrial Revolution (1750–1850) was taking place in Britain. New machines allowed the mass production of goods, including fabrics. New kinds of steam engines transformed industries like mining and transport. During this time, the steam train was also invented.

The Industrial Revolution had a major impact in India. Many of the new technologies of the time were introduced by the British and served as a means of bringing different parts of India closer together. India was a massive country that had until this time operated as a series of semi-independent provinces. With new technologies allowing for mass transportation and long-distance communication, the different regions of India were brought closer together.

The first railway began operating in India in 1851. In the years that followed, British investors poured massive amounts of money into Indian railways. By 1880, India had over 9000 miles of railway that linked all the major cities. In some areas the British government also improved the roads. In some areas they built canals to deliver water to farms. Steam ships made travel between countries much quicker and increased the speed of communication between India and Britain.





Source 35 The Victoria Terminus (now called Chhatrapati Shivaji Terminus) in Mumbai was built in 1887. Today, it still operates as a busy urban railway station.

The cable telegraph, a new device that could send electrical signals over long distances along an electrical cable, also revolutionised communication. The Company Raj introduced the first cable telegraph system in India between 1851 and 1856, allowing instant communication between telegraph operators in major cities. By 1870, an underwater cable had been laid on the seabed between Britain and India, allowing telegraphs to be sent between the two countries. In 1902, the first wireless telegraphs (where messages were sent along electromagnetic waves in the air using Morse code) were introduced. Five years later, in 1907, the first telephones were introduced, but access to them initially was restricted to the wealthy.

Check your learning

1 List three new technologies that changed Indian society during British rule.

2 What effect did new technologies have on communication in India?

bigideas

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

Remember

1 a What was the British East India Company?
  b Why did the British East India Company go to India?
2 Why did Calcutta become a major city?
3 What significant event led the British government to take over from the British East India Company?
4 List two important crops grown in India during the British Raj.

Understand

5 Why was the Battle of Plassey significant?
6 Why did the British call their kings and queens 'emperors' and 'empresses' of India and celebrate with imperial *durbars* when they were crowned?
7 What was it hard for Indian people to get positions in the Indian Civil Service?
8 Explain the difference between private ownership and collective ownership of land.
9 In what ways did Thomas MacAuley believe education in English could help British rule?

Apply

10 In the 19th century, new forms of communication and media transformed Indian society. List them in a table and explain how they helped people communicate and share information. Underneath, list the forms of communication and media in Australian society today and how they help us. Some examples have been provided to get you started.

Type of communication or media	How does it help people communicate?
INDIA, 19th Century e.g. telegram postal system newspapers	people can send information instantly over long distances
AUSTRALIA, Today e.g. mobile phones television Other….	people can have conversations from any location with people in other places

Analyse

Source 36

England's hold on India is probably more secure now than it ever has been before. The strength of the military caste has been broken, the ambitions and intriguing Mohammedan Princes have been powerless since the mutiny in 1857, and the mass of the nation, both trading and agricultural, find life and property more secure, and taxation lighter and more regular, than under any known form of native government. But there is no doubt that large numbers of the ancient Hindoo aristocracy – powerful, proud and wealthy – still cherish a bitter hatred against the Government that curbs their despotic sway over their retainers, deprives them of all the sweets of the irresponsible tyranny so dear to the Oriental mind, and reduces them to the position of mere individuals, subject to law and amenable to justice.'

'British Rule in Danger,' *New York Times*, 20 December 1868

11 Read Source 36 above, from an opinion column in the *New York Times* in 1868.

- **a** Highlight any words you find unfamiliar or difficult. Use a dictionary to make a list of these words and their meanings.
- **b** What is the overall point of this article?
- **c** In the writer's opinion, what are the benefits of British rule for people in India?
- **d** According to the writer, which groups have less power under British rule?
- **e** The writer suggests that rulers of India before the British were 'despotic' and practised 'irresponsible tyranny.' What are these qualities and how do they compare with the writer's opinion of British rulers?

Evaluate

12 Imagine that you take over the government in an area where some communities practice *sati* because of the people's religious beliefs. Other people in the community disagree with *sati* and call for it to be banned.

- **a** Would you ban *sati*?
- **b** Why/why not?

13 Imagine that you are a British member of parliament in 1895. There is a debate in parliament about whether the opium trade should be banned. The opium British India sells to China adds a lot of money to the British economy. However, in China the opium trade is bad for their economy and for people's health.

- **a** Would you support banning the Opium trade?
- **b** Why/why not?

Create

14 Imagine that you are Robert Fortune. It is the night before you set out for China, disguised as a Chinese merchant. You plan to steal some tea plants and bring them back to India. You know that if you get caught you could be killed. Write a letter to your family in Scotland describing your plans and how you are feeling.

15 Queen Victoria has placed you in charge of planning the first imperial *durbar* in 1877.

- **a** Write a set of instructions to the people who work for you, explaining what you want to happen as part of the celebrations.
- **b** Design a costume for yourself to wear at the *durbar*. Remember, you want to look as important as possible!

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



Source 37 A procession during the Dasara festival, a Hindu festival to celebrate the victory of good over evil, 1939

Under British rule, India had become a single country, with defined borders, one government and an official language. Advances in mass communication meant people could connect with each other in new ways, yet India still contained a great diversity of ethnic, linguistic and religious groups. Across the country, people debated what it meant to be Indian.

Thomas MacAuley and his colleagues had dreamt of creating a Western-educated, Indian elite. Schooled in English language and Western concepts, they would support and strengthen British rule. As the 20th century approached, the elite he dreamt of became a reality. However, far from strengthening British rule, many British-educated Indians began to use the language and concepts of their rulers to argue for their rights and independence.

Forming an Indian identity

The importance of mass communication



Source 38 *Times of India* press room, 1898

As printing presses became steadily cheaper and more widespread, the number of newspapers in many different languages multiplied. These papers gave their readers a shared understanding of news and issues in India, even though only a small percentage of the population could read. The government recognised the power of newspapers when it passed the *Vernacular Press Act* in 1878. This set of laws aimed to restrict non-English newspapers from expressing anti-British sentiment. The Act was overturned in 1881.

Though Indians still had little control over the running of their country, there was an explosion of other types of public expression. People formed voluntary organisations and lobby groups to discuss political, religious and social issues. They distributed political and educational pamphlets. New works of literature and theatre commented on social issues and politics.

Western-educated Indians who spoke different Indian languages could now communicate with each other in English, opening up new possibilities for discussion.

Re-thinking identity

New forms of communication meant people who had once seen themselves as part of only local groups, could now connect with other people like themselves from across India. Many Indians had only seen themselves in relation to their own village or region. Now, they connected with similar people all around India. People across India of the same caste, for example, formed organisations and lobbied for their caste interests and rights.

Some Indians lobbied for the rights of their ethic, regional, or language groups. For some, this defined their identity more than an understanding of themselves as 'Indian'. Speakers of the Oriya language, for example, wanted their own homeland and lobbied the British government for a separate state. In 1912, the British government created a new province called Orissa, previously part of Bengal, in response to their demands. Although a new province, it was still under British rule.

Many scholars and religious leaders emerged to propose religious reforms. Some attempted to modernise their religions. Some tried to incorporate Western beliefs. Some believed their religions had become corrupt over time and wanted to go back to ancient ways.



Source 39 A photograph of a *sadhu* (Hindu holy man). *Sadhu* reject material life and wander the land living off the charity of others

Some people began to look beyond their local religious communities for a larger group identity. Hindu leaders looked for ways to define a single version of Hinduism, in place of the many versions that existed across India. Muslims increasingly saw themselves as not just part of communities within India but as part of a worldwide Islamic community.

One impact of this period of reflection and change was a growing divide between Hindus and Muslims. Most people in India were Hindus. As people lobbied for more Indian representation in government, Muslims became increasingly aware of their minority status. They felt that only Muslims could represent Muslim interests in government and lobbied for legislative councils to have seats reserved for Muslims. Meanwhile, some Hindus came to see themselves as the 'original' inhabitants of India, oppressed by Muslims under Mughal rule and then by the British. Such views, while not held by all Hindus and Muslims, contributed to growing tensions that would have an impact for years to come.

Check your learning

1 Why did the British bring in the *Vernacular Press Act* in 1878?

2 How did mass communication help Indians to think of themselves as 'Indian' rather than, for example, Punjabi or Bengali?

The emergence of nationalism

Alongside these shifts in existing group identities, a new group voice began to emerge. Indian nationalists promoted the idea that all Indians had a single group identity.

Nationalism is the belief that people are bound together by belonging to that country or nation, rather than by religious beliefs or by loyalty to a particular ruler. In a nation, people follow the same laws and have a shared history. One advantage of nations is that they provide a way for a group of people with different religious beliefs to participate in the same society.

Nationalism became increasingly popular across Europe during the 19th century. Many early supporters of Indian nationalism were Western educated Indians who had spent time in England. Indian nationalists believed that Indians should have the power to choose their own government and manage their own affairs. They lobbied for *swaraj* (self-rule). They opposed British rule in India.

Significant individuals in the early days of the Indian nationalist movement included Gopal Krishna Gokhale (1866–1915), Dadabhai Naoroji (1825–1917) and Bal Gangadhar Tilak (1856–1920). Gokhale lobbied for education to be available to all Indians, for greater representation in government and more employment opportunities for Indians. He believed in non-violence and social reform.



Source 40 Bal Gangadhar Tilak, an early figure of Indian nationalism

Naoroji argued against the use of Indian taxes in Britain. In 1892, he became the first Indian Member of Parliament in the British House of Commons. There, he raised issues such as Britain's use of Indian taxes to cover expenses in England and to pay for British wars. He contradicted the British assertion that they were ruling India for 'the good of Indians' – suggesting that, instead, British rule favoured British interests.

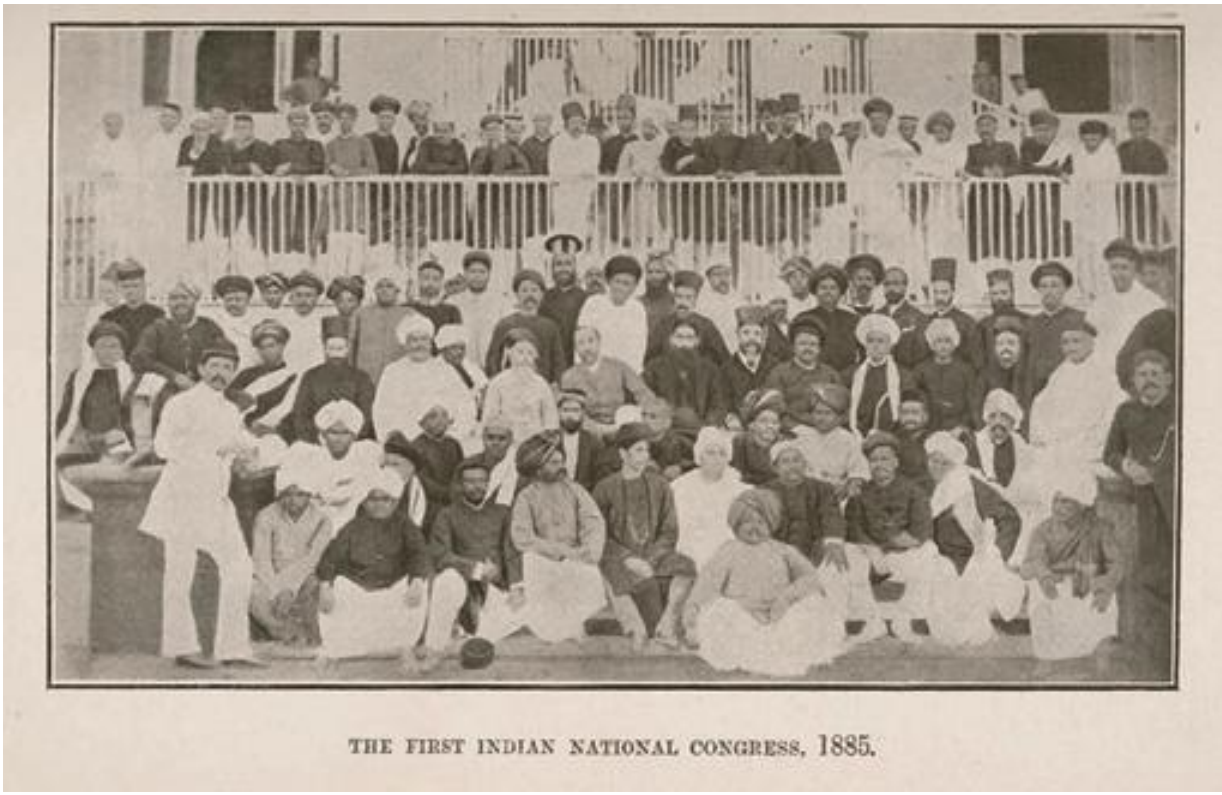
Tilak, a teacher and social reformer, argued for education to include more Indian history and culture than British. He was one of the first to use the term *swaraj* (self-rule). Indian supporters called him *Lokmanya* (beloved of the people), while the British referred to him as 'the father of the Indian unrest'. To spread a message of resistance to the British, he made use of religious festivals, such as the Ganpati that celebrated the Hindu elephant god Ganesh. In 1894, he organised extensive public celebrations for Ganpati. He used the occasion to communicate his political ideas to large numbers of people. This tactic allowed him to spread the nationalist message to people beyond the British-educated elite. As a religious celebration, Ganpati did not attract attention from the British authorities at first. By 1910, the British authorities began to crack down on the event.



Source 41 The Ganpati festival continues to be a huge celebration in India today

The Indian National Congress

In 1885, a new organisation called the Indian National Congress (INC) formed in Bombay (now Mumbai). Its members were mostly British-educated Indians who had spent time in London. Many were lawyers, journalists and teachers. Among them were Ghokale, Tilak and Nairoji.



Source 42 The first Indian National Congress, 1885

To begin with, the INC did not lobby for self-rule. Instead, it lobbied for increased participation by Indians in government in the running of their own country. It also used petitions and meetings to call for less military funding, and the chance to sit civil service exams in India instead of London.

The INC lobbied successfully to increase the maximum age for sitting the civil service examinations from 19 to 23 years of age, which meant more Indians had a chance to take part. Another win was the introduction of free elections to choose Indian members of legislative councils, rather than having them selected by the British.

Over time, the INC became increasingly focused on Indian self-rule. In 1907, they split into two factions. Tilak led a group that argued Indians should use any means necessary, including violence, to achieve self-rule. Against Tilak stood moderates like Gokhale, who believed in non-violent protest and changing laws through consultation.

As the INC began to grow into a major political force, the British government began to pay more attention to its demands.

Check your learning

1 In your own words, give a definition of nationalism.
2 What does INC stand for?
3 What does *swaraj* mean?

Significant events in India and the world

Disaster and discontent

Around the turn of the 20th century, many factors contributed to discontent among Indians. A range of disasters had a terrible impact on India's farming communities. Around 1895–1896, bubonic plague spread through several regions. Bad weather patterns caused crops to fail in some areas and famines followed. The worst famine in Indian history, in 1876–1878, caused an estimated six million deaths. A similar famine struck in 1896–1897, leaving at least five million dead. Changes in trade meant that 'cash crops' for sale overseas, such as cotton, filled land that could otherwise have been used to grow food.



Source 43 Women, left bone thin and starving by a famine, beg in the streets

At this time, the British government's continued use of Indian taxes and natural resources to cover costs in Britain caused anger among Indian citizens. For example, a large percentage of India's taxes still paid for British military spending. The British Raj used the army in wars outside of India, in places like China, Africa and the Middle East.

The partition of Bengal

In 1905, the Viceroy of India, Lord Curzon, split Bengal into two separate provinces. His stated reason was that Bengal, containing around 50 million people, was too big to govern as one province. Administration would be easier if the region was broken into smaller areas. This partition sparked mass protests against British rule.

Many Bengalis were outraged. They saw Bengal as their homeland and now it was divided. Many perceived the partition as an attempt to reduce Bengali power – and to divide the province along religious and ethnic lines. East Bengal now had a largely Muslim population. The people in West Bengal now joined with Assam to form a new region, in which Bengalis were a minority.

Outrage spread across India. The INC called for a boycott on British goods. Some groups reacted violently. In 1908, one Indian protestor threw a bomb at a British magistrate. It missed his carriage and hit another, killing two British women. The government reacted to the protests with strict measures. Protestors were arrested, newspapers censored and public meetings suspended. Bal Ganghadar Tilak was imprisoned for writing a newspaper article in support of the bombers.

The partition of Bengal was cancelled in 1911 as a result of the protests and boycott. Tilak was released in 1914 and formed a new organisation called the Indian Home-Rule League. The league called for a system in which all Indian provinces and religions were equal.

World War I

During World War I, over one million Indian troops served on the side of Britain and the Allies. As well as troops from British states, some of the Princely States sent their own troops, including the Bikaner Camel Corps and the Jodhpur Lances. Indian troops went on to win around 13 000 medals. They served in places such as France, Belgium, Mesopotamia, Palestine and East Africa. Around 74 000 died. This included almost 5000 casualties at Gallipoli.



Source 44 Indian cavalrymen in Paris during World War I, 1915

Indian princes and politicians raised large sums of money to support the war effort. Indian industry helped with supplies such as metals and cloth. Taxes were increased to pay for the war effort and there were food shortages. In addition to these hardships, in 1918, there was an influenza epidemic.

After their sacrifices in the war, many Indians felt that the British should reward them with self-government – if not as an independent nation, then as a largely self-governed colony, like Australia. There was an atmosphere of expectation, but nothing happened. In fact, the British government clamped down further on dissent.

Despite these crackdowns, the movement for Indian independence grew stronger through the decades following World War I. The Indian National Congress continued to lobby for self-rule and one major figure to emerge at this time to fight for independence was Mohandas K. Ghandi. Ghandi became the leader of the INC in 1920.

Check your learning

1. How many people died in the famines of 1876–1878 and 1896–1897?
2. Why were Bengalis unhappy with the partition of Bengal in 1905?
3. List four places in which Indian troops fought in World War I.
4. How many Indian troops served in World War I?

Mohandas K. Ghandi (1869–1948)



Source 45 Mohandas K. Gandhi at a spinning wheel

Mohandas K. Gandhi was born in a coastal town in the province of Gujarat. As a young man he travelled to London to study law. He then worked as a lawyer in South Africa for two decades. He saw many injustices there and became a political activist. In England and South Africa, Gandhi began to form new ideas about Indian identity. In South Africa, he saw members of the Indian community bonding over their shared Indian identity – not just their particular region, religion or caste. This created a new perspective for Gandhi about the distinctive qualities of India.

Gandhi also developed a unique system of spiritual and political beliefs. He rejected materialism – the desire for wealth, property and valuable possessions. He believed this to be a Western quality. He rejected industrialisation and the use of industrial machinery. He advocated vegetarianism and non-violence. He rejected discrimination against the *dalits* (untouchables), calling them instead *harijan* (children of God).

Gandhi's dream of independence was not just self-rule but a restructured Indian society. His ideal model for human society was a version of village life, where people work using traditional methods and look after one another. Despite his own Hindu beliefs, Gandhi believed the independence movement should be a coalition of religious communities, rather than be divided along religious lines.

Gandhi returned to India in 1915 and became involved with the INC. Gandhi started a widespread movement of non-violent protest and non-cooperation. This action included strikes, boycotting British goods, resigning from public office, ignoring British institutions such as schools and courts, and not paying taxes. If arrested, protestors would serve time in prison rather than resist violently. Gandhi called his policy of passive resistance *satyagraha* (truth force).

Like Talik, Gandhi recognised the power of visual language, religious symbols and public gatherings as a way to reach non-educated Indians. He replaced his Western-style clothes with the loincloth of a Hindu holy man, a garment made of hand-spun fabric. He encouraged his followers to reject mass-produced goods and support local artisans such as weavers. He caught the train across India, travelling third class. At each stop, he spoke at mass rallies, sometimes to crowds of thousands.



Source 46 Gandhi spins wool during a speech in Madras, 1925

Gandhi's followers called him Mahatma Gandhi. Mahatma means 'great soul' in Sanskrit and is used in a similar way as the English word 'saint'. In the eyes of many, he became a god-like figure. Rumours spread in some farming communities that he possessed magical powers. Meanwhile, newspapers spread his striking image and his beliefs throughout the country.

At the same time as holding mass appeal, Gandhi was a brilliant legal and political negotiator. As a lawyer trained in Britain, he was able to use British legal concepts to argue against British politicians.

In 1920, the INC, recognising his mass appeal, declared Gandhi their leader. Gandhi became the driving force in the journey to Indian independence, which would finally happen in 1947. Tragically, Gandhi was assassinated by a political extremist in 1948, only five months after Indian independence was declared.

Check your learning

1 What does 'Mahatma' mean?

2 Why did Gandhi's followers call him Mahatma Gandhi?

3 What type of place was Gandhi's ideal model for society?

4 How did Gandhi's time in South Africa help him form new ideas about Indian identity?

5 What was *satyagraha* (truth force)?

6 In 1931 Gandhi told Britain's *News Chronicle:*

'In India several millions wear only a loincloth. That is why I wear a loincloth myself. They call me half-naked. I do it deliberately in order to identify myself with the poorest of the poor in India.'

Describe another reason Gandhi's loincloth was important.

bigideas

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

Remember

1 What did the INC campaign for?
2 List three types of non-violent protest Indian nationalists used.
3 When was the partition of Bengal?
4 What did Gandhi study in London?
5 Before independence, Indians did not have power in government. List three ways they used to express themselves and discuss political issues.

Understand

6 Name two ways in which mass communication was important to Indian nationalism.
7 How did a British education help people like Gandhi campaign for self-rule?
8 Why were religious symbols and festivals important to the Indian nationalist movement?
9 Why was Gandhi significant?
10 List three of Gandhi's main beliefs.

Apply

11 Use a library or the Internet to find out more about the Ganpati festival.
   a What did the festival celebrate?
   b Who is Ganesh?
   c What types of celebrations take place?
12 Gandhi worked as a lawyer in South Africa from 1893 to 1914. In South Africa, he witnessed injustices and became involved in the civil rights movement. Use a library or the Internet to find out about South Africa.
   a What was apartheid?
   b What was the civil rights movement?
   c Make a list of similarities and differences between South Africa and India *c.* 1900.

Analyse

Source 47

To Sowar Abdur Razzaq Kahn (in France) 1915 Be attentive to your duty. This is your opportunity for showing your courage, when people from all corners of the world under the dominion of King George V are sacrificing their lives … For one who seeks promotion over the heads of others, war is the best opportunity. Promotion thus gained is the reward of courage and devotion. It is not the promotion … won in peace time by flattering … officers and putting on their socks and boots. Such conduct is the work of a coward and a slacker. You must be careful to keep out of the ranks of such people. Do not think 'perhaps I may be shot'. No one can escape the fate allotted to him. Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah Northwest Territories (present-day Pakistan)

Taken from David Omissi, ed., *Indian Voices of the Great War: Soldiers' Letters, 1914–18* (1999)

13 Read the excerpt from the letter above. This letter was sent to an soldier serving France in World War I by a family member back home in India.

- **a** Read the letter carefully. What does Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah encourage Sowar Abdur Razzaq Kahn to do?
- **b** Who does Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah criticise in the letter, and why?
- **c** How does Kot Dafadar Said Ahmad Shah encourage Sowar Abdur Razzaq Kahn not to be afraid?
- **d** Do you think the writer of this letter supports British rule in India? Why/why not?

Evaluate

14 Gandhi rejected materialism, the desire for wealth, property and valuable belongings. He believed in using handmade, rather than mass-produced products.

- **a** List some of your favourite possessions.
- **b** Are they handmade or mass-produced?
- **c** Would it be possible to live without them?
- **d** If you had to get rid of these belongings, in what ways would your life change?
- **e** Make a list of products you think Australian society today could manage without.

Create

15 Because only 5 per cent of the population could read, Indian nationalists found creative ways to communicate their messages to large groups of people. Imagine that you need to communicate something to people who cannot read. Choose a contemporary issue from today, for example healthy eating or environmentalism.

- **a** Design a poster (without text) to communicate your message

  OR
- **b** Plan a short performance to communicate your message.

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